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Classroom discourse in business English classes in Vietnam – An investigation from a sociocultural perspective

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THESIS CERTIFICATION

I, Phuc Thi Thanh Tran, declare that this thesis, submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy, in the School of Education, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Wollongong, is wholly my own work unless otherwise referenced or acknowledged. The document has not been submitted for qualifications at any other academic institution.

Signed:

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Date: 15 January 2017

ABSTRACT

This thesis explores how classroom interaction affects learning potentials; in particular, it investigates the relationship between teacher follow-up moves and student learning affordances. It addresses a number of research questions to understand how teacher follow-up moves influence the generation of learning affordances, namely: How do teacher follow-up moves limit learning affordances?; How do teacher follow-up moves promote learning affordances? What learning conditions are perceived to create the most learning affordances?

This is a qualitative multiple case study design investigating three Business English classes at a Vietnamese university over one semester. Data was collected from different sources, including classroom observations which were audio and video recorded, field notes, stimulated recalls and interviews. The implementation of different methods enabled rich data which could be examined through multiple perspectives of the participants.

The study is informed by sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978). This framework specifies learning as cooperative participation, and the role of learners as contributors of knowledge. By examining the functions and prospective levels of the teacher follow-up moves, it enables a thorough analysis of classroom discourse in terms of how opportunities for student learning are generated.

The study provides a detailed analysis, interpretation and discussion of how different types of teacher follow-up moves and their levels of prospectiveness shape potentials and possibilities for student learning. It demonstrates that a strong orientation towards knowledge assessment and transmission limits learning opportunities, whereas teacher's encouragement for co-construction of knowledge leads to increased student participation. Accordingly, teacher follow-up moves that do not require or encourage students to extend their discourse limit opportunities for participation. On the other hand, follow-up moves that request increased student contribution such as confirmation requests and justification requests create opportunities for students to use the target language and their personal background knowledge and experience. The study highlights the crucial role of teachers in managing learner opportunities via their implementation of follow-up moves.

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Classroom discourse refers to the language that teachers and learners use to communicate with each other in a class.

Classroom interaction refers to interaction between a teacher and learners and between learners in a class. In this research it is primarily concerned with interaction between teacher and learners.

Communicative Language Teaching refers to an approach of teaching foreign languages which focuses on the development of communicative competence.

Content and Language Integrated Learning refers to the process of teaching both language and content in a lesson. This research investigates business English classes where both English and business are taught in each lesson.

Corrective feedback is the act of providing correction by a teacher when a learner makes an error.

Initiation – Response – Evaluation is a pattern of classroom interaction which is commenced by a teacher asking a question (initiation), students providing an answer (response) and the teacher evaluating (evaluation).

Initiation – Response – Follow-up is a pattern of classroom interaction which is commenced by a teacher asking a question (initiation), students providing an answer (response) and the teacher responding to the answer in a way which facilitates learning developments through a range of functions, including not ony evaluation but clarification request, justification requests, etc.(follow-up).

Learning affordances refer to opportunities provided for students to learn which are activated in a favourable learning environment. In this research, it primarily concerns provision of opportunities for students' oral participation and how this is achieved.

Prospectiveness is the degree to which a discourse move expects or requires a response. In this research it refers to the extent to which a teacher's discourse move affords or constrains students' oral contribution.

Second language acquisition refers to the process of acquiring a second language.

Sociocultural Theory as proposed by Vygotsky (1978) claims the importance of interaction and mediation in language and learning.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CF	Corrective feedback
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
IRE	Initation – Response – Evaluation
IRF	Initiation – Response – Follow-up
L1	First language
L2	Second or additional language
NFM	Negotiation for meaning
SCT	Sociocultural theory
SLA	Second language acquisition
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Overview

This study is concerned with how classroom discourse creates potentials for learning. Fundamental to this investigation is how learning can be promoted in teacher-student interactions in content and language integrated settings, with a particular focus on teacher follow-up moves. A follow-up move is the last move in the Initiation – Response – Follow-up (IRF) sequence. Although there has been substantial educational research on this move, the majority of them have been informed by traditional second language acquisition (SLA) perspectives (Firth & Wagner, 1997), such as those informed by the input-output and interaction information processing hypotheses (Block, 2003). Advocates of these SLA theories argue that the processes of learning a second language are largely intramental (i.e., they occur inside the learner's brain) (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996). The current study, on the other hand, is guided by sociocultural theory (SCT), which acknowledges that mental processes are both intramental and intermental (Block, 2003). It argues for the use of language in classroom interaction as a means to mediate and promote learning. This chapter introduces the rationale and aims of the study.

Since the early 1980s, second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have paid attention to the significance of interaction in promoting second language acquisition. Later, SLA advocates expanded their focus to include patterns of classroom communication, exploring the provision of modified output (Swain & Lapkin, 1995) and more recently the role of teacher follow-up in the form of corrective feedback (Mackey & Philp, 1998). As observed by Swain and Suzuki (2008), the interest in corrective feedback (CF) has intensified and this is reflected in the number of meta analyses on this construct within the field of SLA (S. Li, 2010; Roy Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russel & Spada, 2006). Numerous studies on CF have taken the form of quasi-experimental designs. They have found positive connections between negative feedback and learning (Roy Lyster & Saito, 2010). However, experimentation within a strictly controlled environment is far removed from reflecting normal classroom settings (Egi, 2007). It is virtually impossible to find a class, for research purposes, where teachers intentionally focus on a particular type of error for a long period. Classroom practice may involve focusing upon a range of errors, unlike experimental settings where errors are isolated for study, thus leading to the inadequate

treatment of other error types (due to the limitation of the research design). In addition, there are other aspects in teaching such as employing strategies to motivate students, or scaffolding students so that they can expand their discourse. Experimental approaches provide an incomplete picture of what is taking place in a second language classroom because they primarily focus on teachers' correction practices, while largely ignoring the context that activates such corrections. In order to examine the effectiveness of a particular CF type, therefore, it is recommended that more qualitative and longitudinal research be conducted (Lyster & Saito, 2010)

In 1997, while the SLA approach towards language learning, primarily informed by psycholinguistic theories, was still dominant, Firth and Wagner (1997) challenged such theories arguing that learning should be seen as a social process. This view of learning was very similar to that of sociocultural theory, proposed by Vygosky (1978). Following this, in the debate in the field of SLA, Gebhard (1999) argued for the adoption of a sociocultural lens on classroom discourse rather than a psycholinguistic one. These, together with a call from Gibbons (2006) for a socially-oriented view of learning and a theory of language-in-context, clearly suggests that there is still a lack of second language classroom research undertaken from sociocultural perspectives. This is particularly true with respect to the issue of follow-up moves, where it's social and sociocognitive aspects are almost entirely ignored (Ellis & Sheen, 2006).

Researchers who base their work on sociocultural theory concentrate on the process of how learning takes place. In this approach, oral interaction is seen not only as the outcome but also the means of the learning process (Swain, 1997). Investigating classroom discourse from a sociocultural perspective has been mostly centred on concepts of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), mediation and affordances (e.g.,C. B. Cazden, 2001; Gibbons, 2006). Because sociocultural theory sees learning as a social process, any L2 classroom discourse cannot be fully understood without a detailed description of its educational context. As stated by Borg, 'the social, institutional, instructional and physical settings in which teachers work have a major impact on their cognitions and practices'(Borg, 2006, p. 275). Likewise, Nabei and Swain (2002) suggest that teachers' practices of implementing follow-up moves is significantly affected by the context of teaching and learning. What this suggests is the need for more studies of how teacher follow-up moves impact learning in specific classroom settings.

1.2 Background and Rationale

The motivation for this study can be traced back to the time prior to the commencement of my PhD candidature. Since 2004, after obtaining a bachelor's degree as a teacher of English as a foreign language, I worked as a teacher at the same university from which I graduated. My responsibilities included teaching and designing courses and learning materials for first year students. At that time, the syllabus was divided into the teaching of four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), of which I was particularly interested in teaching speaking skills. My preference for teaching this skill was rooted in my observation that despite having good grammar and reading comprehension capacity, the majority of freshers were not able to communicate adequately in English. This might be attributed to their prior learning experiences in secondary schools and language centres, where they were primarily trained in grammar and reading comprehension exercises so as to pass school tests and university entrance exams.

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, at that time, was widely promoted in Asia, and Vietnam was not an exception. This resulted from the realisation that after many years of learning, Vietnamese high school students still failed to communicate successfully in English. In 2006, the Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training officially institutionalised a new English curriculum at the secondary level, stating that the aim of second language education was to promote communicative skills (Ministry of Education and Training, 2006). This approach was also prevalent at the university where I was teaching. Being a language teacher, to catch up with this approach, I tried to organise classroom activities in order to promote genuine communication, and facilitated a learning environment in which my students were encouraged to speak the target language as much as possible. Therefore, I included a significant amount of pair and group work, information-gap exercises, and requested my students to give presentations regularly. On the whole, students were required to do lots of work, and I saw my role as being a facilitator, encouraging students to speak fluently rather than focus on accuracy.

Simultaneously, in the broader context of language teaching in Asia and in Vietnam, the implementation of CLT was faced with conceptual, classroom-level and societal institutional-level constraints (Butler, 2011). At both secondary school and tertiary levels, while teachers tried to deliver a CLT approach in their teaching, they encountered a number of difficulties that made CLT implementation unsuccessful

(Lewis & McCook, 2002; H. H. Pham, 2007). As for me, I realised that too much focus on communication was not an effective way to develop students' competence in the target language. When I interviewed final-year students for their university graduation examination, many of them spoke very quickly, but made numerous errors in terms of grammar, word use, and pronunciation. In addition, they were not able to develop convincing arguments to support their answers. Later, when participating in an international educational conference, I overheard a native English teacher joking with his colleague about how impressed he was at his Vietnamese students, saying, 'Vietnamese students tend to speak very fast, so that no one can recognise their language errors.' Although he might not have meant that seriously, there was an element of truth in what he was saying. I started asking myself whether it was the *quantity*, or the *quality*, of the students' oral discourse that really mattered.

During this period, content and language integrated learning (CLIL) started to gain more attention in Vietnam. This was the impact of the country's participation in a number of trade organisations, including the ASEAN Free Trade Area in 1995, and the World Trade Organisation in 2007. As an indication of this, foreign direct investment (FDI) in Vietnam played an important role in the country's economy. For example, in 2011, realised FDI in Vietnam was put at USD 11 billion - 25.9% of the total investment capital of the whole nation in 2011(Service, 2012). Foreign investors were welcomed to the country to set up their business enterprises. Accordingly, employees who were able to work in the finance sector and had good English competence were in high demand. To catch up with this new trend, in 2009, for the first time, my university introduced a new curriculum for students who wanted to learn both English and business, with the aim that upon graduation, students would be qualified to work in foreign enterprises such as banking, commerce, and business administration. Due to my experience in teaching and in designing a number of learning materials, I was assigned the responsibility of selecting learning materials and designing a business English course for first year students. Working as a team, my colleagues and I selected the Market Leader series (Cotton, Falvey, & Kent, 2010) as the core books for this course, starting at the pre-intermediate level for freshers. Being well aware that the majority of our students had rather poor background knowledge in business, we designed a number of supplementary materials to assist them. Students were required to complete a number of vocabulary worksheets focusing on business terms for each lesson, and had to take vocabulary tests regularly. In addition, during class time, we tried to provide students

with more business knowledge by giving clear explanations and providing examples to demonstrate the use of business terms.

It was while teaching this business English course that I realised some drawbacks of CLT in my teaching. CLT emphasises the acquisition of the additional language and maintains the role of teacher as facilitator, but the low level of students' background knowledge meant that they did not have enough information to actively contribute to the lessons. In addition, pair work and group work did not operate successfully, partly because students would use Vietnamese to explain what they meant.

In 2012, I handed over my responsibilities to a colleague and went to Australia to begin my PhD candidature, where I was introduced to and became familiar with sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978), a new perspective with which to approach second language teaching and learning. I came to realise that this might be a more appropriate approach to the current context of CLIL in Vietnam. Therefore, I decided to conduct an investigation on classroom discourse in business English classes in Vietnam informed by this perspective. In other words, this study was implemented to investigate classroom discourse in a CLIL setting.

1.3 Theoretical Framework

This study is guided by sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978), which centralizes the role of interaction in higher psychological development. According to Vygotsky, human's mental activities are mediated through social interaction with symbolic and sociocultural artifacts. Therefore, a person's mental development results from his or her use of concrete and cultural tools to co-construct meaning with other individuals. In the context of a second language class, accordingly, language, as the most important semiotic tool, plays a significant role in mediating learning (Wells, 1999). Classroom interaction, therefore, mediates learning; and meaning is expected to be co-constructed between participants in a class, including both teacher and learners. From a sociocultural perspective, no educational phenomenon can be fully understood in isolation from its contexts. Accordingly, a sociocultural inquiry enables an examination of a single classroom phenomenon in relationship with other phenomena, which helps capture the best reflection and understanding of how educational practices impact learning.

This study uses sociocultural theory (SCT) as a lens to analyse classroom discourse, with a focus on teacher follow-up moves. How learning opportunities are opened up or limited through the teacher's implementation of these moves is examined thoroughly via the use of various sources of data.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

From a sociocultural perspective, the quality of learning in a language class is determined by the quality of classroom interaction, including interaction between the teacher and students, and between students. The three-part interactive exchange structure: a teacher Initiation – a student Response – a teacher Follow-up move (IRF) is very common in classroom settings (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2011). To date, there have been a significant number of studies on this structure, with a particular focus on teacher follow-up moves. However, the majority of those studies have been conducted from a psycholinguistic perspective, with a primary focus on the evaluative function of the follow-up move (S. Li, 2010; Roy Lyster & Saito, 2010; Roy Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013). In other words, they have been concerned with different types of evaluative moves as realised in the follow-up position and they assess the effectiveness of those moves in terms of the degree to which they make students aware of their errors. Pedagogically, this emphasis on the corrective aspect of the follow-up move failed to take into account its effect on learning opportunities for students. From a sociocultural perspective, the prevalence of IRF with the third move performing evaluative function limited opportunities for learning (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Wells, 1993). It prevented students from producing long and meaningful utterances (Donato & Brooks, 2004) and closed off opportunities for discourse expansion (Lin, 2007).

This study supports the proposal of Hargreaves (2012) and Waring (2009) that a sociocultural framework offers a more appropriate lens to examine classroom discourse. Teacher follow-up moves, from this perspective, are a mediational means to facilitate more dialogic classroom interaction, thereby opening up more potential for learning (Wells, 1999). It is argued that a close examination of how teacher follow-up moves generate or limit learning opportunities in CLIL settings will contribute greatly to the current corpus of educational research and in CLIL contexts.

1.5 The Aim and Research Questions

This study aims to describe and understand how Vietnamese teachers deal with students' responses in three business English classes. The study targets an exploration of whether and how teachers' follow-up moves create or obstruct possible learning opportunities. In order to achieve the aims, the overarching question that guides this research is *'How do the participant teachers' follow-up moves influence learning opportunities in business English classes?'* This question is answered through the following guiding research questions:

1. How do the participant teachers' follow-up moves limit learning opportunities?
2. How do the participant teachers' follow-up moves promote learning opportunities?
3. What learning conditions are perceived to create the most learning opportunities?

1.6 Methodology

This study uses a qualitative multiple case study approach, because qualitative research is an effective means to explore language in its context (Gibbons, 2006) and examine the joint construction of knowledge (Mercer, 2004). Qualitative research acknowledges that knowledge is socially constructed (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011), and this is consistent with the fundamental tenets of SCT. The current study explores classroom interactions between three teachers and their students during business English lessons at a tertiary institution in Vietnam. The main source of data is classroom observation, field notes, stimulated recall sessions, and interviews with participants.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The significance of this research project is threefold. Firstly, from a theoretical perspective, it takes up the call for more educational research on classroom discourse from a sociocultural perspective. There is a lack of detailed, systematic examinations of the relationship between teacher follow-up moves and learning opportunities, particularly in the context of content and language learning classes in this setting. This study, therefore, contributes to the current body of literature on this issue (e.g.,O'Connor & Michaels, 1996; Thoms, 2014). Secondly, the contribution of this study is significant in terms of methodology. With the use of various sources of data, including video-

recorded classroom interactions, audio-recorded data from students' discussions, interviews, and particularly focus-group stimulated recall sessions, the impact of a number of educational practices on learning opportunities is examined thoroughly. Accordingly, the convergence and divergence of participants' opinions regarding the impact of a single teaching move can be explored. This contributes to the development of qualitative methods. Lastly, this research reveals several pedagogical underpinnings of the teachers, and makes recommendations regarding current pedagogical practices, which can be applied in similar CLIL contexts.

1.8 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis has eight chapters. The first chapter introduces the rationale, aim of the thesis and provides an overview of its content. The second chapter reviews the past literature, with a focus on the issue of teacher follow-up moves. It also establishes the theoretical orientation for the study, which is sociocultural theory. The third chapter introduces the methodology of the research, which uses a qualitative case study approach. It also describes in detail different methods that were implemented to capture rich data. In the next three chapters, findings about three cases were presented and interpreted, followed by a cross-case analysis. The last chapter presents a discussion of the findings, implications and conclusions of the thesis.

Chapter Two: Literature Review and Theoretical Orientation

This chapter outlines dominant perspectives on learning an additional language in general, and on the Initiation – Response - Follow-up sequence (IRF) in particular. The last move of this sequence has been investigated from both psycholinguistic and sociocultural perspectives. For this reason, the literature review is conducted with reference to language studies informed by those perspectives. This chapter concludes with an introduction to sociocultural theory, which informs this study.

2.1 Second Language Learning from Different Perspectives

Second language learning has been informed by a number of different perspectives, from traditional cognitive/ psycholinguistic approaches, primarily advocating the Input, Output and Interaction models, and more recently from sociocultural perspectives, using concepts such as mediation, the zone of proximal development and scaffolding. This section provides an overview of those approaches.

2.1.1 Cognitive/psycholinguistic perspective on second language learning.

From 1970 to 1990, most of the phenomena discussed in research about second language acquisition (SLA) were primarily informed by a psycholinguistic, or cognitive, approach (Larsen-Freeman, 1991). In other words, the SLA process was largely regarded as an internalised, cognitive process (Zuengler & Miller, 2006) and advocates of this approach were concerned with the cognitive abilities of language learners, and processes such as memory, attention, automatisation and fossilisation (Robinson, 2001). According to this view, knowledge is a commodity to transmit to learners, language is a 'conveyor' to carry out this transmission (Gibbons, 2006, p. 15), and learning is 'a matter of construction, acquisition, and outcomes' (Paavola, Lipponen, & Hakkarainen, 2004, p. 557).

This approach is still current today, with an abundance of SLA research focusing on its cognitive aspects (e.g. Gass & Mackey, 2006; McGroarty, 2005). It advocates an input-interaction-output (IIO) model of second language acquisition, originating from Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1985), Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1983, 1996), and Swain's Output Hypothesis (1995). Vital conditions for second language learning, according to this approach, are exposure to comprehensible language (input), the production of the target language (output), and the existence of feedback on production

(through interaction). A comprehensive framework specifying how these three components interact with each other was proposed by Gass (1997). This framework indicates that the process of language acquisition consists of totally cognitive acts, activated by input, and worked through intramental processes (such as attention, noticing) during interaction, to produce a final output. In a more recent publication, Gass and Mackey (2006) proposed an interaction framework based on the Interaction Hypothesis, emphasising how interaction (particularly feedback) leads to language learning.

Guided by the IIO model, cognitive advocates emphasised the need for tasks that focus solely on information exchange and create conditions for 'negotiation for meaning' (hereafter NfM). NfM is defined as follows:

> Negotiation for meaning is the process in which, in an effort to communicate, learners and competent speakers provide and interpret signals of their own and their interlocutor's perceived comprehension, thus provoking adjustments to linguistic form, conversational structure, message content, or all three, until an acceptable level of understanding is achieved. (Long, 1996, p. 418)

NfM was based upon Krashen's (1981, 1982, 1985) work, which proposed that exposure to comprehensible input is a vital condition for second language acquisition. It is through the process of making 'incomprehensible' input comprehensible that one activates the process of learning. Pica (1994, p. 494) suggests that NfM arises when there is 'difficulty in message comprehensibility'. Similarly, Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) observe that negotiation occurs following a clear indication that there is a linguistic problem to be resolved. Consequently, negotiation is perceived to arise from the process of adjusting previously ill-formed utterances; communication failures are therefore valuable for language learning. Because of this, information-gap tasks (tasks designed so that necessary information is hidden from one or more participants and they can only be successfully completed if participants understand each other clearly) have been suggested to be the most productive tasks for promoting negotiated interaction (Doughty & Pica, 1986). This is because during the process of performing these tasks, certain linguistic features are targeted so the teacher or instructor is likely to exercise maximum control on the frequency of the targeted language.

From a cognitive perspective, it seems that negotiation of meaning (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996) is a likely candidate for the provision of learning opportunities, because through this process incomprehensible input arguably becomes comprehensible. As Long (1996) asserted, NfM 'connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways' (pp.451-452).Thus, tasks that require a great deal of negotiation, it is argued, provide more learning opportunities than general conversation. As cognitive theorists in SLA tend to define learning as the mastery of linguistic forms (Pica, 1994) opportunities for learning are determined by the extent to which learners 'notice' or 'take up' those specific forms. Thus, learning opportunities are indicated and measured by the occurrences of pre-determined linguistic phenomena. From this perspective, controlled conversations will provide better conditions for learning than uncontrolled ones (Mori, 2004), and tasks that require negotiation to resolve communication problems provide more opportunities for learning (van Lier, 2000).

This cognitive approach, however, has been challenged by a number of language researchers, particularly those who follow a more sociocultural perspective on language learning. Van Lier and Matsuo, for example, assert that the strong emphasis on cognitive research has advocated a 'repair-driven view of negotiation' (van Lier & Matsuo, 2000, p. 267) and it is not adequate to account for different conversational aspects. Foster (1998) points out that although there have been a significant number of studies on 'negotiation for meaning', none of them have been successful in demonstrating how this process directly leads to an increase in learners' L2 proficiency. She thus highlighted that teachers can only manage to create opportunities for modified output, but cannot guarantee that those opportunities will be taken up by the learners. The study of pair-work interaction by Foster and Ohta (2005) also demonstrates that communication problems do not necessarily lead to any modified output. On the contrary, more modified output is generated in the absence of negotiation for meaning and more learning opportunities have emerged from situations when learners supported and encouraged each other to avoid communication breakdowns. To some extent, this finding is understandable because when the task is set up with a specific semantic aim (such as to find a solution to an information-gap task), it is logical that learners would try to find ways to negotiate meaning, rather than pay attention to linguistic form.

Because the objective of the task, as maybe comprehended by learners, is semantic rather than syntactic, it is understandable that learners demonstrated few attempts to modify their incorrect output. Sharing a somewhat similar view, Nakahama, Tyler, and van Lier (2001) propose that more opportunities for language learning are afforded in unstructured interactions than in closely controlled ones.

In his critical review of SLA development, Block (2003) observed that during the period 1966–1980, SLA researchers tended to move away from viewing language purely in terms of linguistic competence towards a more social view of language as 'communicative competence' proposed by Hymes (1972). According to this view, language should be perceived as not only linguistic but also 'social as well as linguistic', 'socially realistic', and 'socially constituted' (Block, 2003, p. 61). Block, however, points out that most SLA researchers who follow the IIO model have failed to acknowledge and advocate what Hymes envisioned in its entirety. Instead, the majority of cognitive researchers have tended to adopt 'a fundamentally instrumental view of conversational interaction where the key was the exchange of information' (Block, 2003, p. 62). In his review of the development of second language teaching, Leung (2005) also argues that the operationalisation of 'communicative competence' in various contexts did not capture the essense of what was originally proposed by Hymes (1972). Thus, although claiming the importance of interaction, the majority of IIO advocates maintain that language acquisition is largely an intramental process; and despite emphasising the importance for NfM generation, they have not provided any explicit definition of what 'communication' is.

Another author that shared critical concerns about the cognitive approach towards language class was Breen (1985), who points out that mainstream SLA research was 'asocial' and argued that 'the social context of learning and the social forces within it will always shape what is made available to be learned' (p.138). He also proposed eight features of a classroom culture, many of which appear to fit well with what has been suggested by sociocultural theorists. For example, according to Breen, the classroom culture is differentiated (i.e., perceived differently by different participants) and thus teachers and learners have to *'continually negotiate'* between internal realities and external reality (p.144, original emphasis). In addition, he suggested that 'all knowledge

is socially constructed' and '*any learning outcome*, from any member of the class, has been socially processed' (pp.147-148, original emphasis).

Although focusing on different aspects of language learning, the majority of critical views on cognitive approaches come from sociocultural theorists. Sociocultural theory (SCT) informs the current study, and is presented below.

2.1.2 Sociocultural perspective on language learning.

Although Firth and Wagner were not the first authors to raise concerns about the dominance of cognitive approaches towards SLA, their 1997 article (Firth & Wagner, 1997) is seminal because it voiced strong opposition and engaged in a critical analysis of previous SLA research in this field. Firth and Wagner argued that cognitive approaches led to 'an imbalance of adopted theoretical interests, priorities, foci, methodologies, perspectives and so on, resulting in distorted descriptions of and views on discourse, communication, and interpersonal meaning – the quintessential elements of language' (Firth & Wagner, 1997, p. 288). They called for a reconceptualisation of approaches to language use and language learning, which were 'more emically and interactionally attuned' (p.296) and suggested this would enable researchers to understand languages as being acquired '*through interaction'* (p.296, original emphasis). A language learner, according to them, should be considered a participant in social interaction.

The argument of Firth and Wagner has been supported by other researchers in the field. For example, Gebhard (1999) called for the adoption of a sociocultural lens for viewing classroom discourse rather than a psycholinguistic one, and explicitly associated Firth and Wagner's proposal with Vygotskyan (1978) sociocultural theory. Originating from the work of Vygotsky (1978), sociocultural theory (SCT) focuses on the relationship between the individual and society, with social and cultural artifacts that stimulate changes to the cognitive functions of individuals (Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2011). The linguistic development of a child first takes place on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane. In the field of second language acquisition, linguistic activities take place firstly on the intermental plane (drawing from pre-existing socio-cultural artifacts) before moving to the intramental plane (within individuals) (Gibbons, 2006).

From a sociocultural perspective, learning is viewed as embedded in social interaction (Foster & Ohta, 2005), and is therefore seen as a process of 'changing patterns of participation in specific social practices within communities of practice' (Gee & Green as cited in Hall & Walsh 2002, p.187). As such, the process of learning not only takes place through interaction but is the interaction itself. In other words, learning is socially constructed and therefore arises from a process of collaboration and co-construction of knowledge between participants (Gibbons, 2006; Lantolf, 2000). Accordingly, social institutions play an important role in fostering the learning process because they provide the environment which enables learning, and thus learning is perceived as 'a cultural rather than individual activity' (Elwood as cited in Hargreaves, 2012, p.4). This observation underpins the view that the nature of the classroom socio-communicative environment is therefore critical to L2 learning. As Mercer (2004) asserts, education is viewed as a 'dialogic process', with students and teachers working together in specific cultural institutions. According to this view, neither the content of a lesson, the knowledge to be learnt, nor the students' ability, nor the teacher's skills can solely account for educational success. Instead, all the factors within a learning environment, in which teacher-student dialogues are prominent contribute to the development of L2, and conversations between teachers and students shape the intramental development of students (Gibbons, 2006).

Within a sociocultural framework, learning is conceptualised as participation rather than acquisition (Donato, 2000; Zuengler & Miller, 2006), and the process of learning is seen as the process of participating in the target language discourse (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). However, this does not refer to all kinds of participation. 'Good learning', according to Vygotsky (1978, p.209), must meet two criteria: firstly, it must take the form of assistance from and collaboration with another person through which a learner can achieve what s/he fails to achieve alone; secondly, this assistance must be meaningful and relevant to his or her purpose. Accordingly, opportunities for learning, from an SCT perspective, are associated with neither input nor output, but with the opportunities to collaboratively participate in classroom interaction. As van Lier (2000) states, what affords learning is 'the opportunities for meaningful action that the situation affords' (p.252). Pedagogically speaking, language tasks that generate opportunities for students to produce meaningful target language are considered the most beneficial to

learning. This means that considerable attention must be paid to facilitate the type of classroom interaction that promotes learning opportunities for learners.

2.2 Classroom Discourse and Classroom Interaction

Classroom discourse refers to the language used by the teacher and learners to communicate in a class, and classroom interaction refers to teaching and learning engagement in a class between teachers and learners, and among and between learners. Despite sharing different views towards the process of acquiring and/or learning a language, educators from psycholinguistic and sociocultural perspectives highlight the importance of classroom interaction. In terms of advocates of a psycholinguistic approach towards language acquisition, classroom interaction plays a central goal in facilitating the production of modified output, provision of feedback and negotiation of meaning (Gass & Mackey, 2006, 2007; Mackey & McDonough, 2000; Long, 1996). Accordingly, students are notified of their errors through teacher feedback and are able to make amendments for better enhancement of their linguistic competence. Classroom interaction is, therefore, an important factor contributing to the repair process made by students. From this perspective, once the language has been mastered, classroom interaction has fulfilled its task and is no longer needed.

On the other hand, a sociocultural perspective has a different view of the role of classroom interaction. Van Lier (1996) argues for the primary importance of classroom interaction in a curriculum. According to Hall and Walsh (2002), Zuengler and Miller (2006) and Walsh (2011), classroom interaction is not only the means but also the goal of learning as it builds up learners' language store. The primary goal of classroom interactive discourse is to co-construct knowledge (Gibbons, 2006), thus both teacher and learners are expected to be active contributors. Therefore, it is essential to achieve a symmetric participant structure (Goodwin, 1990) so that teacher and learners have relatively equal conversational rights and duties (Hall, 1998). In order to achieve symmetry in classroom interaction, the teacher must create opportunities for students' participation by employing different interactional strategies such as making clarification requests and confirmation checks (Lynch, 1996; Walsh, 2011) while seeking genuine contributions of both language and content from learners.

In the context of teaching and learning in Asia – the context where this study was conducted – there has been research into classroom interaction in language classes. The

majority of research conducted in Asian countries has questionned typical patterns of interaction in a language classrooms. According to Lewis & McCook (2002) and Nguyen & McInnis (2002), under the influence of Confucious philosophies, a traditional classroom in Asian is hierarchically led and dominated by the teacher. These findings are supported by a number of research studies conducted in China (Hammon & Gao, 2002; Zhang & Zhow, 2004; Wang, 2011), depicting authoritative language teachers and passive students. Wang (2011) specifically describes a typical language class as dominated by teacher talking time and students' reluctance to participate, that results in students who seldom contribute answers or initiate questions.

This study is conducted in Vietnam, a country which is also influenced by Confucious ideologies. A study conducted by Le (2012) at secondary schools pointed out that Vietnamese teachers were expected to be the 'only provider of knowledge' (p.75) and are highly respected by their students. Therefore, students feel inhibited to question or interrupt the teacher, leading to a low rate of intitiation from students in classroom discourse. Pham and Hamid (2013) investigated the questioning patterns of Vietnamese teachers in English classes at tertiary level and found that the majority of teacher questions were to check a certain amount of knowledge rather than to seek an increase in students' contributions and thus inhibit their participation. Pham (2007), while discussing difficulties encountered by a teacher when attempting to apply CLT in language classes, also attributed the low interactiveness in class to traditional Confucion beliefs related to teacher and learners' roles. However, as argued by Tomlinson and Bao Dat (2004), there exists a mismatch between the perception of the teacher and that of the learners. Vietnamese teachers often think that learners are passive and reluctant to speak, whereas learners claim that they want to have more chance to participate in the lesson but the way their teacher conducts classes inhibits speaking opportunities. In other words, the 'passiveness' of students is attributed to traditional teaching methods (Littlewood, 2002). This is supported by Tran (2012), who claims that the 'passiveness' of Asian learners, including Vietnamese, is the outcome of a combination of various factors such as traditional teaching methodologies and standardized testing, rather than primarily from students themselves.

As argued above, in order for learning opportunities to be promoted, effort must be made to encourage students' participation in a class. However, as observed by Walsh

(2011), this hardly lies in the hands of language learners; rather, it depends largely on their teachers. Teachers control turn-taking, topics for class discussion, and the development of classroom discourse. Thus, the enabling of the co-construction of knowledge is, undoubtedly, associated with how teachers handle classroom interaction (Hargreaves, 2012). Of all teacher-student interaction types, perhaps one of the most common phenomena is the triadic dialogue Initiation – Response – Feedback (Walsh, 2011). The following section provides a critical review of this sequence.

2.3 The Initiation – Response – Feedback from a Psycholinguistic Perspective

The three-part Initiation – Response – Follow-up (IRF) structure was first brought to wide attention by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). This structure reflects a very predictable exchange in a class, commencing with an Initiation from the teacher, leading to a Response from student(s), and concluding at the teacher's Follow-up move. Another structure which was very similar to IRF is IRE, standing for Initiation – Reply – Evaluation, first put forward by Mehan (1979) to reflect the fact that teachers often evaluate students' responses in the third position. In other words, upon receiving a student's contribution, the teacher typically assesses its correctness and responds accordingly. The IRF/E has also been referred to as a recitation script, or triadic structure (Lemke, 1990).

It is, however, important to note that there are further categories specified both by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Mehan (1979) regarding the function of the last move in the IRF/IRE sequence. Mehan (1979) proposed that the evaluation move not only means 'accept' or 'reject' but also includes 'correct' and 'reformulate'. As realised by Wells (1999), Sinclair and Coulthard also proposed three categories of 'act' that can occur in the follow-up move: 'accept/reject', 'evaluate' and 'comment'. Under 'comment', there are three subcategories, namely 'exemplify', 'expand', and 'justify'. Each of these subcategories is only activated on the condition that, upon receiving an answer from the student(s), the teacher initiates a new sequence, that is, a dependent exchange (Wells, 1999) in which students are required to provide examples, relate the answer to other related fields, or provide reasons for their answers.

Despite being the pioneers who made the existence and dominance of the IRF known to SLA researchers, Sinclair and Coulthard provided no comment about any educational value associated with this sequence. In fact, it appears that to them, IRF was an obvious

phenomenon in the class which was therefore taken for granted (Wells, 1999). On the other hand, a number of other researchers attribute some educational effectiveness to this triadic structure. Mercer (as cited in Wells, 1999, p.167), for example, claims that the IRF sequence can act as a means of 'monitoring children's knowledge and understanding', 'guiding their learning', and 'marking knowledge and experience which is considered educationally significant or valuable.' Also appreciating the functions of IRF, Newman, Griffin and Cole (1989) points out that the last move in this sequence may perform a repairing function so that 'incorrect information can be replaced with the right answers' (p.127).

To date, the majority of studies on the IRF sequence have been informed by a psycholinguistic perspective with a primary focus on the F move with specific concern on its evaluative function. This evaluative function has been termed 'corrective feedback'.

2.3.1 Corrective feedback.

Corrective feedback (CF) has been defined as 'responses to learner utterances containing an error' (Ellis, 2006, p. 28). The growing interest in this concept has been reflected in five meta-analyses of it from 2006 to 2013 (S. Li, 2010; Roy Lyster & Saito, 2010; Roy Lyster et al., 2013; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russel & Spada, 2006). While Russell and Spada (2006), and Mackey and Goo (2007) focuses on oral and written CF in both laboratory and classrooms settings, Li (2010) only deals with oral CF, and the other two studies only focused on oral CF in classroom settings. With a particular focus on grammar-based CF, Russell and Spada (2006) conclude that CF is beneficial to students regardless of whether it is provided in laboratory settings or classroom settings. Nevertheless, although Mackey and Goo (2007) identify a significant effect on immediate and delayed posttests when CF is provided, they pointed out that CF provided in laboratory settings tended to be much more effective than CF provided in classroom settings, with much greater effect for both immediate and delayed posttests. This finding was supported by Li (2010), who also remarks that of all CF types, implicit CF tended to maintain a better long term effect than explicit ones. Lyster and Saito (2010) and Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) only analyse quasi-experimental classroom-based research. Both of these studies concluded that the

provision of CF is effective, and that CF which are pedagogically oriented (i.e., prompts) is more effective than dialogically oriented CF (i.e., recasts).

Based on their observation of French immersion classrooms, Lyster and Ranta (1997) identify six types of CF, namely: explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition, which were later classified into two broad categories: reformulations (including recasts and explicit correction), and prompts (including the other four CF types) (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). CF is generally classified according to its level of explicitness-implicitness, the provision of an L2 model, and the elicitation of modified output from learners (Adams, Nuevo, & Egi, 2011). For example, a recast is normally considered implicit, and includes the provision of an L2 model, without any facilitation of modified output. As suggested by Lyster et al (2013), different types of CF can be placed along a continuum of implicitness-explicitness, with further classification as being either a prompt or a reformulation (Figure 1).

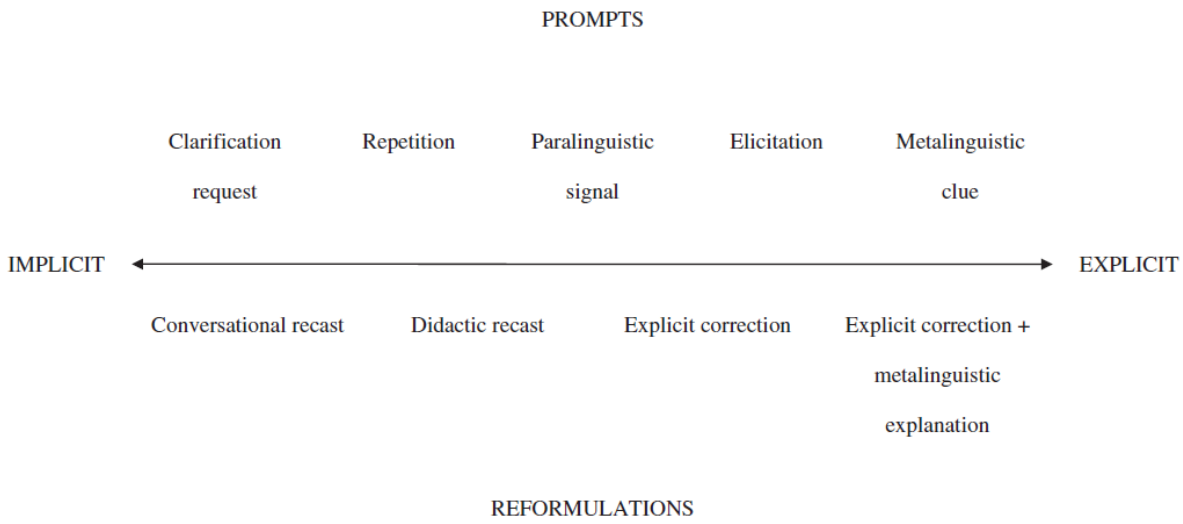


Figure 1: Taxonomy of corrective feedback (Roy Lyster et al., 2013)

Class-based studies have revealed that of all CF types, recasts ('reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error' – Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.46) appear to be the most popular, accounting for more than half of all CF across different classroom settings (Roy Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). The dominance of recasts over other types of CF might be attributed to CLT ideology, with its emphasis on implicitness and the creation of environments with abundant comprehensible input so that the target language can be 'acquired'. In other words, it reflects a preference for acquisition over learning (Krashen, 1981).

Most studies have measured the effectiveness of CF in one of two ways: uptake and learner repair, and post-test (either immediate or delayed). With respect to the utilisation of post-tests, the meta-analysis on classroom-based quasi-experimental design by Lyster and Saito (2010) of recasts, explicit correction, and prompts shows that CF is significantly effective on target language development. However, prompts proved to be more significantly effective than recasts in within-group contrasts (comparison between pre-test and post-test of the experimental group). The study by Lyster (2004) on the acquisition of grammatical gender concludes that students receiving frequent feedback outperformed those who did not, and more specifically, the group that received prompts scored significantly higher than those receiving recasts. Similar results were found in the study by Ammar (2008) with a focus on the acquisition of possessive determiner knowledge. In terms of implicit and explicit feedback, in Vietnam, the setting of this research, a study conducted by Nguyen et al. (2012) on the development of pragmatic competence also concludes that the group receiving explicit explanation and correction outperformed the group receiving implicit form-focused instruction on all measures. Metalinguistic information provision was found to be more effective than recasts in the acquisition of the regular–ed past tense (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). In his meta-analysis, Li (2010) shows that explicit feedback was more effective on immediate and short delayed posttests, whereas on long delayed post-tests, implicit feedback was more significantly beneficial. However, the fact that Li's meta-analysis included both laboratory-based studies and classroom-based studies, in both foreign language contexts and second language contexts, to some extent, weakens its comparable validity. In addition, the distinction between these two kinds of feedback may not be so clear (Ellis & Sheen, 2006), as each researcher may have a different definition, each including and/or excluding some features when dealing with different types of feedback. Similarly, Nicholas et al. (2001) also point out that there has been inconsistency in defining recasts, leading to research results which are not comparable. For example, even though recasts are normally categorised as implicit feedback (Long, 2007), they can be quite explicit depending on the way the provider uses linguistic signals such as intonation, sentence stress, and the discoursal context (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). Therefore, the reliability of comparative studies on corrective feedback is questionable.

Other researchers have sought to investigate the effectiveness of CF in the form of uptake and learner repair (uptake refers to positive student responses to CF; repair is the correct reformulation of an error – Lyster and Ranta, 1997). A finding from Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) indicates that there is a close relationship between CF and learner uptake. This finding, however, contrasts sharply with most studies on the connection between CF and uptake. Recasts, for example, in the study by Lyster and Ranta (1997), accounted for 55% of the feedback but produced the least amount of uptake (only 31%) and successful repair (18%). Similarly, Panova and Lyster (2002) concluded that the rate of learner uptake and immediate repair following CF (primarily in implicit forms of recasts and translation, which accounted for 77% of the total feedback strategies) was generally fairly low. Thus, it can be concluded that although teachers preferred to use implicit CF, actually, these types of CF lead to little uptake and repair. Sheen (2004) compared CF across four communicative instructional settings of French immersion classrooms in Canada (Roy Lyster & Ranta, 1997), adult ESL classrooms in Canada (Panova & Lyster, 2002), Korean EFL classrooms, and ESL classrooms in New Zealand (Ellis et al., 2001) and identified that recasts were the most popular type of CF (83% of all CF in the Korean class, 68% in the New Zealand class, and 55% in the Canadian classes). In addition, uptake and repair rates following CF varied across these settings. Both uptake and repair rates were much higher for the Korean and New Zealand settings than the Canadian settings. Sheen, suggests that this difference may be attributed to 'their [students'] previous experience of responding to CF in classrooms' (p.291), with participants in the Korean and New Zealand classes being students with at least a college-level education, whereas the participants in Canadian settings were 9–11 year-olds in an immersion class and adults attending a private language school. In addition, while recasts appeared to be implicit in the Canadian settings, they were distributed in much more explicitly form-focused ways in the other two settings. The implication of this study is that for contexts where the focus of recasts was strengthened and the students were oriented towards linguistic form rather than meaning, the uptake rate was higher. In addition, as observed by Oliver (2000), sometimes there were no opportunities for students' repair because the teacher followed recasts with other topic-related moves, thus preventing students from having any chance to respond. In a broader view, this indicates that any research on classroom discourse must take class dialogic contexts and cultures into consideration.

To conclude, SLA researchers have attempted to compare and contrast different types of CF in different situations and they have utilised a number of ways to measure its effectiveness. What can be clearly seen from the above studies is a strong emphasis on the evaluative, or corrective, function of the third move in the IRF structure. The effectiveness of the third move as a feedback move was primarily measured against grammatical or linguistic accuracy, with little concern for the social and pedagogic functions of the move. This confirms the primary orientation of SLA research from a cognitivist perspective as focusing upon what is happening inside a learner's head rather than upon his/her interaction with other factors in the learning environment. As argued by Bax (2003), the neglect of the context factor in CLT classes is problematic, and it is time to implement a context approach and consider other conditions such as school culture and national culture. Regarding the research methodology, quasi-experimental methods appear to be the dominant method used to justify the effectiveness of CF in general, and to test whether one particular type of CF is more effective than the others. However, as pointed out by Egi (2007), such experimental research has failed to take into account the dynamics of normal classroom settings.

Bearing in mind the dominance of the IRF sequence in L2 classroom discourse, sociocultural-oriented researchers have expressed concern about the dominant evaluative function of the last move. From an SCT perspective, the prevalence of IRF/E with 'F/E' referring primarily to evaluation, is a problematic issue.

2.4 Sociocultural Perspectives on the IRF

While a number of studies have adopted a general focus on the whole IRF sequence, others have paid specific attention to the 'F' move and its various functions. This section provides an overview of these approaches.

2.4.1 Sociocultural perspectives on the dominance of the IRE sequence.

As observed by Hall and Walsh (2002), Nassaji and Wells (2000) and Walsh (2011), a typical feature of classroom discourse is the IRF sequence, with the 'F' move mostly referring to teacher *evaluation* of a student's contribution; thus, the structure is predominantly IRE. Therefore, upon receiving a student's response to a previous teacher question, a teacher may typically assess the correctness of this response, either in the form of a positive assessment (such as 'Good', 'Well done'), or negative

assessment (such as ‘No, that’s not right.’) with or without the provision of a correct answer.

The dominance of the IRE sequence, nevertheless, has hardly been associated with opportunities for learning. In fact, the extensive use of IRE, according to Hall and Walsh (2002) and Wells (1993), has severely constrained students’ learning opportunities. Walsh (2002) implemented a study to investigate the kinds of teacher talk which can facilitate or obstruct students’ learning opportunities and concludes that IRE restricts learning opportunities and decreases the amount of learner involvement. In their study of a literature class, Donato and Brooks (2004) also point out that IRE sequences set by the teachers do not create favourable conditions for learners to be actively engaged in learning activities or produce long and meaningful utterances. Similarly, in a study of French immersion classes, Swain and Lapkin (1990), despite being advocates of the cognitive approach towards SLA, acknowledge that the dominance of the IRE sequence limited opportunities for the learners’ extended use of language. In another study of an L2 English class of Cantonese students, Lin (2000) indicates how the teacher’s exclusive employment of the IRE structure denied the possibility for any language play, when the teacher repeatedly confined the classroom discourse to factual information retrieved from reading passages and ignored students’ unrelated comments. Lin concluded that this action reduced the students’ interest in English language and culture. In her later study of a Chinese class, Lin (2007) also points out that the IRE has dominated to such an extent that the teacher withheld any opportunities for further discourse which engaged students in discussing important national and international issues. The use of IRE, therefore, was assumed to primarily perform *converging* and *certifying* pedagogic functions (Lin, 2007, p.88) with the ‘converging function’ referring to the teacher’s tight control to ensure students follow the question’s framework and ‘certifying function’ as certifying the correct answer. Thus, this sequence was only valuable when the primary purpose was to maintain order in the classroom, and to ensure the acceptability of a particular answer. As pointed out by Edwards and Westgate as cited in O’Connor & Michael (1996), the IRE sequence played a central role in making students perceive the curriculum as comprising facts to be transmitted, and shaping their answers ‘towards pre-determined and non-negotiable semantic destinations’ (p.96).

Sharing a somewhat a similar view, Hargreaves (2012) and Waring (2009) call for a sociocultural perspective in dealing with the concept of feedback in the IRF. The dominance of corrective feedback, according to Hargreaves (2012), has created a strong dependence on the teacher, and inhibited students' critical thinking. Consequently, students rarely challenged the teacher and tended to accept whatever he or she suggested. More negatively, none of the student participants in his study demonstrated any interest in learning, and one of them even associated the completion of a learning task to 'kind of wasting our time' (Hargreaves, 2012, p. 10). Waring (2009), in her single case study analysis, clearly demonstrates that when a teacher set up a close IRE sequence in the checking-homework session, the atmosphere of the class and the pace of that setting did not open up opportunities for breaking the sequence. The ending of one IRF sequence was assumed to be the signal for the next IRE sequence, leaving no space for any further discussion of anything else. Waring, then, suggested that a departure from the IRE sequence could facilitate a wider range of learning opportunities for students. Similarly, Walsh (2002, 2011) explicitly states that this is not a structure to be advocated or encouraged. On the contrary, there must be an alternative handling of this structure so that more opportunities for creativity and spontaneity can be realised.

Though well aware of the dominance of the IRE sequence as a whole, however, most sociocultural scholars in this field have only attempted to investigate the 'corrective' function of the feedback move.

2.4.2 Sociocultural perspectives on corrective feedback.

Although the term 'corrective feedback' has been used almost exclusively by cognitive theorists, this concept has also been explored by a number of sociocultural advocates.

Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) provided tutoring sessions for three students to identify and correct their writing errors. This correction process did not depend solely on the tutor but was negotiated between the tutor and the students, and feedback was provided on an individual basis. From the data collected from the interaction, a regulatory scale of corrective feedback was developed, with 12 levels ranging from implicit to explicit dimensions. This study indicated that despite making the same error, different students needed different levels of corrective feedback. The authors concludes that error correction must be collaboratively negotiated, and that the effectiveness of this practice depended largely on an individual students' 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD).

While acknowledging the value of Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study, Nassaji and Swain (2000) pointed out that this research lacked empirical evidence which identified differences between the performances of students who received corrective feedback within their ZPD and those who did not. Nassaji and Swain (2000) conduct a small-scale investigation on how two Korean learners of English dealt with errors in English articles. One of the students received corrective feedback based on the regulatory level proposed by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) (the ZPD student), while the other received feedback placed randomly on this scale(the non-ZPD student). Quantitative findings show that the ZPD student outperformed the non-ZPD student and made gradual progress over time. From a qualitative aspect, the finding suggested that collaborative error correction was more effective than random help. However, Nassaji and Swain concede that one limitation of their research was the unequal time provided for the ZPD and non-ZPD student, with the ZPD student receiving significantly more time because of the collaborative error correction process determined by her ZPD.

More recently, Rassaei (2014) conducted an experimental study to compare the effect of 'scaffolded feedback' and recasts on the formation of wh-questions. 'Scaffolded feedback' is operationalised based on the regulatory scale proposed by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), while 'recasts' refers to teachers' reformulation of incorrect utterances into correct forms (Mackey & Philp, 1998). The findings indicate that the group that received scaffolded feedback significantly outperformed the recast group. In addition, Rassaei's (2014) study, like Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study, found that students committing the same error may need different levels of assistance.

Despite these three studies' variations in terms of scope, method and elicitation tool, their findings are significantly similar. First, it is clear that a sociocultural perspective on corrective feedback highlights the need for individualised treatment, as different learners may require different levels of help despite making the same error. Secondly, assistance that is collaboratively negotiated within the learners' ZPD is more effective than random help, or no help at all. From a sociocultural perspective, a different term for corrective feedback was offered by Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), which is *other-regulation*, (p.480, original emphasis); that is, learners have to depend on another individual in order to perform appropriately. This is distinguished from *self-regulation*, in which learners only rely on themselves in their efforts to produce the appropriate

response. Thus, feedback from a sociocultural perspective is considered to be a two-way interaction that provides conditions for an expert (teacher) to create a context in which novices (learners) can actively promote their own learning and in which the expert can monitor responses and adjust the assistance they give so as to better facilitate the learning of the novice (Antón, 1999). In other words, from an SCT perspective, other-regulation mediates self-regulation.

While the findings of these three studies are valuable, nevertheless, it is noteworthy to point out that they were all conducted in contexts which are different from a normal classroom setting; that is they all involve tutoring lessons for individual students. In a normal classroom, with around 20-30 students, it is virtually impossible to provide feedback at such a personalised level, due to time constraints. In addition, this correction process was activated for the purpose of identifying specific language errors, which is different from normal classroom interaction. Therefore the question that remains is how to better consider the pedagogic function of feedback provided in a normal classroom setting.

Along with the development of SLA research, it has been shown that educational and pedagogical value of classroom L2 teaching is closely connected to the last turn in the IRF sequence. Thoms (2012), for example, asserts that the last move can act as a means of facilitating collaborative inquiry. Similarly, Lee (2007) suggests that the F-turn may trigger a range of teaching activities, whereas Hammond and Gibbons (2005) point out that teachers can utilise the third move of the sequence to provide the intellectual push to scaffold students' development. The following section, therefore, provides an overview of how the follow-up move has been viewed from sociocultural perspectives.

2.4.3 Sociocultural perspectives on the follow-up move of the IRF sequence.

Although often being referred to as 'feedback', the F move in the IRF sequence has been identified as not only performing an evaluative function, but others as well. A teacher follow-up move is defined as the last move of the Initiation – Response – Follow-up sequence, and performs a wide range of functions, including evaluation, clarification requests and justification requests. The importance of the follow-up move has been documented in a number of studies. Wells (1993), during observations of a science class, identified significant differences in classroom discourse when the F move of the triadic sequence was treated as 'follow-up' rather than 'evaluation'. By asking for

more students' contribution based on their responses, the teacher provided students with an opportunity to demonstrate their knowledge, and together they constructed the knowledge for the lesson. Sometimes, based on the students' proposals, the teacher prompted a new discussion during which all the students in the class were invited to share their opinions on certain issues. As Wells asserted, the follow-up move assisted in achieving a more productive goal than merely making students understand an issue. It engaged the students and the teacher in the process of co-construction of knowledge based on their experiences and ideas. It is what happens in the follow-up of the triadic exchange that 'the next cycle of the learning-and-teaching spiral has its point of departure' (p.35). In a later study, Wells (1996) called a follow-up move a 'pivot' move (p.84) if it played the role of shifting the labour role between the teacher and students, and put the students in charge of knowledge co-construction. According to Wells, this pivot move helps extend the discourse, and as a result the participants' thoughts are expressed in a more explicit way. Gibbons (2006), in arguing for the role of a pivot move, also presented examples to prove its significance in discourse expansion, where it was used to explore a student's meaning. From the pivot move, extended IRF sequences enable students to initiate topics for exchange, leading to more productive classroom discussion. Gibbons (2006) also indicates an important condition for the success of an extended IRF sequence, which is the teacher's *contingent responsiveness* (p.116), that is, teacher follow-up moves are constructed upon what has been produced in a student's response.

Hall (1997) examined the participation structure between the teacher and four male students in a Spanish class. These students were classified as belonging to two groups, with the primary group comprising those that received more cooperative attention from the teacher, and the secondary group comprising two students whose contribution were frequently ignored. Although the typical participation structure was IRF for both groups, the teacher tended to provide more discourse expansion based on the responses from the primary group. In other words, the teacher follow-up moves following responses from these students were often extended, and sometimes opened new issues for whole class interaction. On the other hand, responses from the students in the secondary group were often 'fed back' with limited evaluative or uncooperative moves, or even a total ignorance from the teacher. Thus, while the students from the primary

group were provided with opportunities to initiate ideas, direct their talk and contribute to knowledge construction, these opportunities were denied to the secondary group. At the end of the semester, despite previously being very enthusiastic about learning Spanish, both students in the secondary group felt frustrated and gradually developed a negative attitude toward their learning. One student from the primary group, although not so excited at first, felt great enjoyment learning Spanish, whereas the other one had a neutral attitude. This research demonstrates that the teacher's treatment of students' responses in the IRF may have a great influence on the students' learning opportunities.

Tackling the IRF structure in a different way, Lee (2007) observed that most studies on the follow-up move have categorised it according to pre-determined categories (e.g., Nassaji & Wells, 2000). This approach, according to Lee, fails to take into account the immediate contingencies of the follow-up move. Lee presents an analysis of other types of follow-up moves which had not been considered to belong to any of the established categories, namely: parsing, steering the sequence, intimating answers, discovering language learners in action, and class management. Lee's observations reveal that most studies on IRF have so far been concerned with how the teacher evaluated, or extended students' responses, rather than how the teacher collaboratively assisted students to work out appropriate answers.

2.5 Learning Opportunities

The term 'learning opportunity' has been discussed in a number of studies. Supporting Breen's (1985) argument that classroom activity must be treated as a jointly constructed social event, Kumaravadivelu (1994, p. 33) asserts that 'teachers ought to be both creators of learning opportunities and utilizers of learning opportunities created by learners'. He also proposes ten macrostrategies to guide teachers in their classroom practice with 'maximising learning opportunities' labelled the first of those strategies (p.33). More explicitly, Allright (2005) criticised the dominance of 'teaching points' (bits of the target language to be taught and hopefully learnt) as the unit for planning lessons and called for the adoption of 'learning opportunities' as a unit for lesson analysis, arguing that learners may learn beyond what is covered in teaching points. Recently, Walsh (2011) also expresses his concern regarding the role of teachers in L2 language classes and argued that a 'good teacher' must make appropriate decisions so as

to foster learning and learning opportunities (p.41). However, he also recommends that learners play a more equal role in the creation of 'space(s) for learning' (p.189).

Despite being used frequently in the educational literature, the term 'learning opportunity' is often used 'without comment or explicit definition' (Crabbe, 2003, p. 17). Allright (2005), for example, although providing a framework for deciding whether opportunities for learning have been created, does not explicitly provide a definition of a learning opportunity. Among the very limited literature on this concept, Crabbe (2003) defines a learning opportunity as 'access to any activity that is likely to lead to an increase in language knowledge and skill' (p.18), such as an opportunity to obtain meaning from negotiation with the teacher, or from textbooks. He also points out that the majority of learners would need guidance in order to be able to take up and use language opportunities effectively. Allright (1984), in arguing for the importance of interaction in classrooms, identifies one educational outcome as 'practice opportunities' (p.165), which include not only opportunities for a student to practise what he or she is trying to learn, but also opportunities to practise and refine learning strategies. He comments that every contribution from participants in a social interaction can influence the learning opportunities available to all the participants. Walsh (2002) argues that a necessary condition for learning opportunities to occur is the convergence between language use and pedagogic purpose. Data collected from his study demonstrated that the confluence between a teacher's use of language and his/her pedagogic purpose consistently created opportunities for learner involvement. The most rational view of the notion of a learning opportunity, then, according to Crabbe (2003), is that the term learning opportunity is conceptualised differently depending on local contexts, and may characterise different values in accordance with the variety of beliefs held by individuals and groups of people about language learning. In other words, this term cannot be understood as a universal concept but must be localised to reflect the beliefs in a particular educational system.

2.5.1. Learning opportunities from a sociocultural perspective.

From a sociocultural perspective, learning is conceptualised as participation in the target language (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000); thus, learning opportunities take the form of opportunities for participation. Van Lier (1991) argues that learning opportunities are created from interaction, participation and negotiation but emphasised the collaborative

nature of interactions between participants when they are performing those processes. Hall's (1997) study associates learning opportunities with 'official participatory rights' (p.308), and demonstrated how students develop a more positive attitude towards learning when they have more opportunities to participate. This view is shared by Antón (1999), who stated that favourable conditions for language learning must promote opportunities for negotiation of form, content and classroom behaviour. Wells (2006) also observed that opportunities for learning refer to active participation by learners through the process of constructing understanding from interaction with other artifacts and agents in their cultural settings. In another study, Waring (2008), after conducting a review of the literature on learning opportunities, concludes that one of the central learning concepts of SCT is 'participation as learning' (p.590). Gibbons (2006) also associates learning opportunities with participation, arguing that if a learner hardly participates in a class, the number of his/her turn takings is very limited, resulting in limited individualised teacher feedback, and thus 'fewer affordances for learning' (p.54).

In arguing the need for an environment which facilitates opportunities for learning, most SCT theorists advocate a 'dialogic stance' in classroom practice (Wells, 2007, p. 269). By this, Wells (2007) refers to the process of constructing knowledge, with 'knowledge' identified as being 'created in the discourse between people doing things together' (Franklin as cited in Wells, 2007, p.269). From this view, any moment of classroom interaction should be treated as a valuable moment to embark on collaborative classroom discussions, from which more understanding and information exchanges can be promoted. Thus, a teacher must move from his/her habitual practice of evaluating students' contributions to willingly allowing students to initiate discussions, and being sensitive to identifying 'spots' for facilitating collaborative interaction. Wells and Arauz (2006, p. 385) make the same recommendation, advocating Lotman's (1988) opinion that while monologues from the teacher can be an effective way to ensure adequate meaning conveyance, it closes possibilities for alternative perspectives and 'there is no opportunity for misunderstanding, or misinterpretations by the receiver(s) – which inevitably arise – to be corrected' (p.385). Hargreaves (2012) also argues that teacher transmitting knowledge – which is typically monologic – is out-dated because it contradicts the objective of education – which is to challenge existing knowledge and

foster creativity and criticality. Adopting a similar view, Wells (1999) called for an approach which treats classrooms as 'communities of inquiry' (p. 121), in which classroom discourse should promote dialogic inquiry.

Another feature of classroom discourse that encourages interaction, thus promoting learning opportunities, is related to what is termed 'prolepsis' (Antón, 1999; Stone, 1993) or 'proleptic discourse' (van Lier 1996, p.182; Gibbons 2006, p.236). According to Rommetveit (as cited in Antón, 1999, p. 305), prolepsis refers to 'a communicative move which indicates presupposition of some information on the part of the speaker'. Antón argues that presupposition challenges the listeners to make some assumptions in order to interpret the intended meaning of the speaker's utterance. Thus, in the dialogic process, prolepsis encourages the participants in the interaction to reach an understanding of each other's view of a problem and their proposed resolutions. Stone (1993) states that prolepsis can be understood as 'a special type of conversational implicature in which the necessary context is specified *after* the utterance rather than before it' (p.174). Van Lier (as cited in Gibbons, 2006) also comments that prolepsis assumes that there is a gap in the knowledge of the speaker and invites the listener (the less-competent) to share with the more-competent, thus offering affordances for subsequent participation and engagement in tasks. Gibbons (2006) uses 'proleptic discourse' to refer to the collaborative assistance from the teacher when guiding students to describe past events. Due to the teacher's facilitation and encouragement, the students managed to inspect again what has been learnt previously, not in the way that this knowledge is taken for granted, but in the process of rearticulating the knowledge. To sum up, prolepsis promotes learning opportunities because it treats learners' potential contributions as a valuable resource for knowledge co-construction.

While discussing learning opportunities, van Lier (2000) suggests an ecological approach, in which, in order to study interaction, a researcher 'must show the emergence of learning, the location of learning opportunities, the pedagogical value of various interactional contexts and processes, and the effectiveness of pedagogical strategies' (p.250). He also proposes 'affordance' as an important indicator of language learning. Based on Gibson's (1979) definition of 'affordance', van Lier (2004) offers a definition of a learning affordance as - 'a relationship between an organism (a learner, in this case) and the environment that signals an opportunity for or inhibition of action'

(p.4). What is clear from this definition is that affordance itself does not necessarily lead to any specific outcome, but provides the conditions for it. As stated, in terms of language learning, 'affordances arise out of participation and use, and learning opportunities arise as a consequence of participation and use' (Auyan, 2000 as cited in van Lier, 2000, p.92). In other words, affordances can lead to students' participation and will consequently 'result in language learning' (Thoms, 2014, p. 726). In this project, a learning affordance is defined as the opportunity for students' oral participation in a class, activated by favourable conditions from the learning environment.

Affordances have been identified by Gibbons (2006) in a number of discourse phenomena, including: talking as an expert, having speaker rights, talking about talk, being given opportunities to reconsider how things are said, and lastly, participating in extended dialogue with the teacher. As such, the embodiment of an affordance highlights the need to create classroom contexts in which students have opportunities to take part in extended meaningful, collaborative interaction with the teacher and their peers, in which students can exercise more ownership of the discourse content. Gibbons associates this closely with 'a moving away from the triadic IRF structure' (p.252), and discusses it based on Wells's (1981,1996) notion of 'prospectiveness' (p.85). The following section deals with the realisation of affordances in the IRF, informed by the extent to which 'prospectiveness' is regulated.

2.5.2. Learning affordances and prospectiveness of the follow-up move.

'Prospectiveness' was first proposed by Wells (1981, p. 33) from his examination of the basic dynamics of social interaction. According to Wells, when initiating a conversation, a participant will either **solicit** something from the other participant or **give** something to him/her/them. In response to, the second participant will either give what has been solicited or **acknowledge** what is given (p.32). Thus, there are two basic types of exchange:

Initiate		*Respond*
(1) Solicit	–	Give
(2) Give	–	Acknowledge

(Wells, 1981, p.32)

Wells classified these three discourse moves (solicit, give, acknowledge) on a continuum of prospectiveness, with 'solicit' on one end, which strongly *expects* a

response; ‘give’ standing in the middle position, and ‘acknowledge’ on the other end with little or no prospect of a response. Although ‘give’ moves are assumed to have little prospectiveness, they have a prospective potential ‘which might not be realized, depending upon the type of exchange in which they occur’ (p.33). Additionally, Wells also commented that generally in an exchange, sequential moves tend to decrease in terms of prospectiveness. However, the prospectiveness of any type of move can be stepped up by slight changes such as the addition of a tag, or an increase in intonation (a give move with a tag can become a give+); and the unexpected increase in the prospectiveness of subsequent moves has the potential of linking current exchanges into longer sequences. It is, however, worthwhile to note that not every type of exchange contains both ‘initiate’ and ‘respond’ moves. For example, a preparatory exchange (Wells, 1996) such as a teacher’s introduction of a new task (which may precede an upcoming nuclear exchange) may not lead to any verbal response from students. In addition, in a classroom setting, a teacher’s solicit may not receive any response from students, and therefore, the ‘give’ move equals silence.

In a later publication, Wells (1996) replaced ‘solicit’ with ‘demand’, altering the scale of prospectiveness with ‘demand’ being the most prospective, requiring a ‘give’ in response, and a ‘give’ being less prospective, as it expects but does not require a response; and an ‘acknowledge’ as expecting no further response. The order of prospectiveness is therefore ‘demand – give – acknowledge’ (Wells, 1996, p.245). Wells also confirmed his previous recommendation (Wells, 1981) that ‘at any point after the initiating move in an exchange, a participant can, while still minimally or implicitly fulfilling the expectations of the preceding move, step up the prospectiveness of the current move so that it, in turn, requires or expects a response’ (Wells, 1996, p.247). In practice, this means that the prospectiveness of a move in the position of a ‘give’ or an ‘acknowledge’ can still be high, depending how it is actually articulated.

In any class, with the dominance of the IRF sequence (Wells, 1993), an increase of the prospectiveness of the follow-up move can therefore extend the discourse. As Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) observed, apart from performing evaluative and accept functions, a follow-up move can take the form of a comment, with subcategories of *exemplify, expand* and *justify*. In this way, the teacher may replace an acknowledge move with a give move, thus stepping up the prospectiveness of the follow-up move, and adding a

dependent exchange to the current nuclear exchange. As observed by Gibbons (2006), the prospectiveness of a follow-up move can even be stepped up to the highest level, despite being in the position of an acknowledgement. In her example, the teacher follow-up move did not perform the function of acknowledging, evaluating or commenting, but as a request for clarification, and thus its prospectiveness was equivalent to that of a demand. In this formulation, the pivot follow-up move becomes an initiation for the next exchange, which extends or qualifies the previous exchange. It is through this pivot move that more clarification, justification and elaboration are added to the matter being discussed, potentially leading to better understanding for both the teacher and the students. This follow-up move, as explained above, is called a pivot move (Gibbons, 2006, p. 256; Wells, 1996, p. 84). The employment of a pivot follow-up move enables the co-construction of knowledge, which is realised through the process of building one exchange upon the previous exchange. This extended set of topically linked exchanges is called a 'sequence'. As defined by Wells (1996), a sequence comprises a single nuclear exchange and a number of exchanges which are dependent on the initial nuclear exchange and have the function of extending it. 'Sequence' is the unit that is 'of greatest functional significance' (Wells, 1996, p.78) and determines the amount of learning affordances offered by specific classroom interactions (Gibbons, 2006).

To date, there have been a number of socioculturally-informed studies on whether affordances for learning are realised through evaluative follow-up moves, particularly in cases where teachers respond to a correct answer from students. In a study focusing on grammar, Waring (2008) pointed out that explicit positive assessment (EPA) was extensively used in forms of utterances such as 'very good' and 'excellent'. From her observation, EPA were perceived as 'sequence-closing', 'insinuating case-closed', and even 'potentially problematic termination'. By employing EPA, the teacher did not invite any further expansion, and treated further talk on the current issue as redundant. In some cases, this prevented students from raising voices about (mis)understood issues or presenting alternative suggestions for correct answers. Thus, the employment of EPA shut off affordances for learning. Waring called for a closer examination of EPA, asserting that students' correct answers should be treated with as much concern as incorrect ones, so that more affordances for learning can be warranted. In a study which

investigated how literary discussion afforded opportunities for advanced and superior levels of speaking functions, Donato and Brook (2004) observed that interactions including evaluative follow-up moves accounted for approximately 20% of the interactions. Their examples demonstrated that typical responses from the instructor to correct answers from students' were positive approvals such as 'That's good'. The topics of this literary class were full of potential for students to express opinions, arguments and counter arguments – all at the levels of advanced to superior language functions. However, the instructor appeared to only be interested in evaluating students' responses. Consequently, students' responses were far from attaining a high level of speaking function; instead, most of the language produced by the students comprised word-, phrase-, or sentence-level utterances. In other words, opportunities to explore literary themes through the use of advanced language levels had been turned down or not afforded.

A number of other researchers have attempted to examine affordances for learning in language and content integrated settings, particularly in literature classes. Nystrand's (1997) reports a number of literature discussion episodes in three different classes. In one class, the teacher (Mr Schmidt) tended to exercise rigorous control of the classroom discourse. He typically acknowledged students' responses to his questions but did not elaborate on them. Instead, he continued to ask other unrelated questions in order to assess how much students knew and to check previously assigned work. The students, without fully being aware of the reasons behind the teacher's questions, produced hesitant answers and made a lot of guesses. This type of interaction was compared to classroom discussions conducted by two other teachers (Ms. Lindsay and Ms. Turner). In these classes, the teachers tended to attribute much more value to their students' responses. Here, the students' responses were followed up with more elaborations from the teacher, which acted as initiations to invite other students in the class to discuss the current topic. Nystrand (1997) commented that these two teachers created an atmosphere in which students felt their contributions were worth examining, and as a result they became more willing to contribute to the lesson. Nystrand concluded that it was this dialogically organised instruction that promoted learning. More recently, Thoms (2014) provides an analysis of how the teacher employed reformulation to afford learning for students in an L2 literature class. Thoms identified three types of teacher

reformulations at the position of follow-up: *access-creating* (teacher rephrasing previously poorly-formulated utterances from students and broadcasting them to the whole class), *content-enhancing* (teacher correcting students' incorrect utterances while maintaining focus on the lesson's content), and *funnelling* (teacher reformulating her own question when realising that students had failed to understand it). From stimulated recalls with both the teacher and her students, it was clear that the students perceived the reformulations as affordances for learning. According to the students, these strategies helped reinforce their understanding of their peers' opinions, and made them feel secure and motivated to continue their expressions. In addition, the teacher reported the need for reformulating her own questions from too general to more specific ones so that students were able to answer. In regard to creating affordances for learning, Thoms appeared to attribute equal value to each of these three types of reformulations.

Another study on how learning is afforded from teacher follow-up moves in a content-based setting (a science class) was that of O'Connor and Michaels (1996), in which the notion of a *participant framework* (Goffman, 1974, 1981; Goodwin, 1990) was employed to analyse *revoicing*. 'Revoicing' is defined by O'Connor and Michaels as 'a particular kind of reuttering (oral or written) of a student's contribution – by another participant in the discussion' with particular concern on how the teacher understands students' contributions to the current academic task, as well as how teachers' revoicings 'credit the content of the reformulation to the student' (p.71). The use of discourse markers such as 'so' ('So you think that…') and other markers of warranted inference ('lemme see if I got it right…') acted as requests to the students to either confirm or reject the revoiced utterance from the teacher; thus, learning is afforded in the form of participation and students have the final voice over an issue. O'Connor and Michaels argue that this type of interaction is significantly different from the IRE sequence, because the students have the right to evaluate the correctness of the teacher's inference. In addition, in some follow-up moves, the teacher requested another student to evaluate a previous student's response. This provides students with the opportunity (and challenge) to make inferences about their peers' reasonings, which is necessary for promoting collaborative intellectual work.

In a study of a communicative English language class in Vietnam, the context in which this research has been conducted, Sullivan (2000) observed how playfulness mediated

students' learning. In the example given, although the topic being discussed appeared to be serious ('whether or not to increase tax on cigarettes'), the teacher initiated it with a joke, following which the assumed-to-be serious discussion turned into a story telling episode. A student gave an example of her own father who had a smoking habit; and her turns were followed up by the teacher and her peers to become a playful narrative. Here, the teacher did not evaluate the linguistic accuracy or appropriateness of her students' contributions, but extended their answers in a light-hearted way. Although there was little evidence of 'information exchange' as traditionally defined as crucial for a communicative language class, this brief sequence demonstrated affordances for learning as participants (including the teacher) jointly built up a short narrative, which was gradually constructed based on each previous contribution.

Regarding studies conducted in the context of this research, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there hasn't been any investigation of how teacher follow-up moves promote or limit students' second language learning affordances in Vietnam. However, two studies appear to have some relevance to the present research. The first one is a multiple case study investigating teachers' perceptions and practices of form-focused instruction in Vietnamese secondary schools, conducted by Le (2012). Observation data showed that the only type of corrective feedback employed by these Vietnamese teachers was explicit corrective feedback, in the forms of metalinguistic information (Ellis et al, 2009) and elicitation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Most of the teachers in this study asserted that when correcting their students' grammatical errors, they wanted other students in the class to pay attention. Thus, correction of grammar errors did not only aim at the students who committed the errors, but at their peers as well. In addition, Le observed that the teachers used Vietnamese quite frequently during their grammar teaching. The second study by Pham and Hamid (2013) aimed at identifying Vietnamese teachers' perceptions and practices of their questioning strategies in tertiary reading and listening lessons. As observed by Pham and Hamid, the IRE pattern was common in all the classes, and approximately half of the teachers' question patterns included 'two parts: the information that the teacher wanted to draw students' attention to and 'Right/OK' at the end' (p.252). This type of questioning pattern is similar to what has been termed explicit positive assessment and has been associated with the limitation of learning affordances for students (Waring, 2008). Pham

and Hamid also pointed out that nearly half of the teachers' questions were formulated as alternative questions, requesting students to select either of two offered options, thus narrowing students' possible answers; and the majority of teacher questions were aimed at testing students' ability to remember knowledge, the lowest cognitive level in the revised Bloom's Taxonomy (Krathwohl, Anderson, & Bloom, 2001). Similar to the findings of Le (2012), Pham and Hamid (2013) observed that Vietnamese was used frequently during teacher-student interactions. Although there was inadequate information about how learning was afforded in these two studies, it appeared that interactions in the observed classes were far from being 'dialogic' and the opportunities for students' expanded discourse was relatively limited.

In summary, although the concept of 'prospectiveness' has not been mentioned in language class studies except by Wells (1996) and Gibbons (2006), it was evident that teacher follow-up moves at a low prospective level (i.e., pure acknowledgement, positive assessment) were considered to limit affordances for learning. On the other hand, teacher follow-up moves at a higher prospective level (engaging students' participation) tended to be associated with more learning affordances. In addition, it is clear that there is still limited research on how teacher follow-up moves are distributed in other language and content integrated learning other than in the above mentioned second language literary classes (Nystrand, 1997; Donato & Brook, 2004; Thoms, 2014) and science classes (O'Connor & Michaels, 1996; Gibbons, 2006). This study aims to fill this gap by examining how learning is afforded in business English classes in relation to the level of prospectiveness of teacher follow-up moves.

The following section presents an overview of sociocultural theory, which informs the current research.

2.6 Theoretical Orientation: Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning and Teaching

As mentioned above, the follow-up move of the IRF sequence has received limited attention from a sociocultural perspective, highlighting the importance of conducting this study. This section is dedicated to an introduction of sociocultural theory with concepts which are related to second language learning and teaching. In addition, it guides the subsequent section on methodology.

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Patton (1990), theory plays a significant role in informing the methodology used by researchers and the way one studies the world determines what one learns about it. This study takes the approach proposed by Merriam (1998), who argued that a researcher must select theoretical frameworks for their study before engaging in collecting data, as those frameworks will play an important role in determining what pieces of data, and what aspects of the data, are to be collected to ensure the researcher avoids getting lost in a jungle of information. The current research is informed by sociocultural theory (SCT), proposed by Vygotsky (1978). This section examines the related tenets of SCT and argues for the application of those tenets to educational research which aims at fostering learning through language and interaction.

2.6.1 Introduction of sociocultural theory.

Sociocultural theory was proposed by Vygotsky (1978, 1986) and focuses on the relationships between the individual and society, with its social and cultural artifacts that stimulate changes to the cognitive function of each individual (Swain et al., 2011). A fundamental tenet of sociocultural theory is that the mental activity of human beings is mediated by symbolic and socioculturally constructed artifacts. As Lantolf (2004) explained, it is a theory of mind that attributes the development of human knowledge to the process of social interaction with other people and the surrounding artifacts. In other words, a human's mental development is mediated through social interaction (Lantolf & Thorn, 2006). According to SCT, a person's mental development results from his/her participation in social activities, during which this individual makes use of concrete and cultural tools to engage in meaningful interaction with other individuals.

Although not specifically developed to explain second language learning, the principles of SCT and its tenets have been effectively applied to this field. As specified by SCT, human knowledge is social in nature and is constructed through collaboration with other people (Nassaji & Swain, 2000). Therefore, knowledge is not the product of unmediated brain activity, but is gradually gained and co-constructed through social interactions. Accordingly, learning is not solely an intramental process, but a social process during which a learner actively participates in activities with teachers and his/her peers so as to gain more control over his or her own learning. It is through participation in meaningful, mediated classroom activities that a learner's knowledge is gradually

constructed and developed. To facilitate the process of knowledge co-construction, SCT posits language as a fundamental cultural artifact which promotes learning. Language is considered the most important tool – 'the root of learning' (Gibbons, 2006, p.23), and a learner's learning is mediated through his or her use of language in interaction with teachers and peers.

As argued by Vygotsky (1978), the cultural development of a child takes place first and foremost on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane. In the field of language acquisition, linguistic activities take place firstly in the intermental plane (drawing from pre-existing socio-cultural artifacts) before moving to the intramental plane (within individuals) (Gibbons, 2006). With regards to second language learning, learning is not the product of building up linguistic resources inside a person's head, but can only be achieved through interaction with other people (teachers and classmates) within specific classroom contexts. The learning of a second language, therefore, is the outcome of a learner's complex management of inter-relationships between tangible resources (e.g., textbook, the board), intangible resources (e.g., a task), and learner-interlocutor discourse (e.g., with teachers and peers) (Watson 2007). Therefore, learning is potentially mediated by a variety of factors within a learner's environment, and interaction with teacher and peers plays a crucial role in determining affordances for learning.

The current study was inspired by Wells's (1999) discussion on how SCT was effectively implemented as a theory of learning and Antón's (1999) claims that SCT provides a valuable framework to explore language interaction in class. Of all symbolic and socioculturally constructed artifacts, language is the central one – the 'tool of tools' (Vygotsky as cited in Wells, 1999, p.7). As Wells (1999) asserts, sociocultural theory has proposed a 'language-based theory of learning'(p.19), according to which language development is essentially a social process; and learning is not merely the acquisition of knowledge, but is rather conceptualised as collaboration and negotiation (Donato, 2000; Wells, 1999). In this learning process, language plays the role of a mediating tool in enabling information exchange and knowledge sharing, and both of these processes are related to context (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Sociocultural research, therefore, investigates language not as a type of input, but as a tool for collaborative participation in meaningful activities (Zuengler & Miller, 2006).

In a language and content integrated learning (CLIL) context, classroom interaction is perceived to be rather complex because language and content are the dual focuses of a lesson. It is via the use of the target language that learners gradually gain knowledge about a specific field, and it is through dealing with the content knowledge that a learner's competence in the target language is promoted. Thus, it is of crucial importance that the teacher has appropriate pedagogical approaches so as to maximise the learning potentials of students. SCT, by placing learning at the heart of classroom interaction, offers an appropriate framework to facilitate the achievements of CLIL.

2.6.2 Mediation and second language teaching and learning.

The most important construct of SCT is mediation (van Lier, 2004). SCT claims that human mental development is 'mediated through culturally constructed and organized means' (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 60). Mediation occurs via the use of tools (material objects), the use of signs (abstract, symbolic representations) (Gibbons, 2006; Swain et al., 2011) and interaction (van Lier, 2004). Throughout their lives, human beings have impacted upon existing artifacts, and by innovating tools to serve their needs, they transform those artifacts so as to better accommodate their requirements. Therefore, artifacts are shaped by human activities to meet their developing needs. The mediated development of the human, which originates from interaction with the world is summarised in the following diagram:

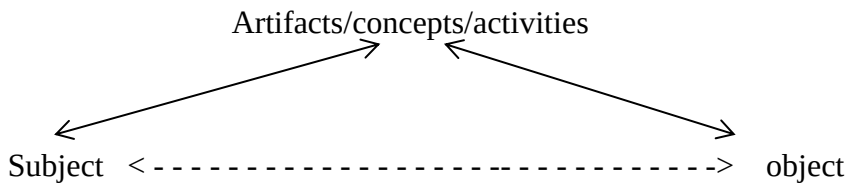


Figure 2: The mediated nature of human/world relationship (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 62)

In the educational context of a second language class, the mediation process is performed mostly via interaction between teacher and students, as the teacher plays a central role in organising classroom activities. It is through those activities that the students take part in direct conversation with the teacher and their peers. From a sociocultural perspective, teaching is perceived as an explicit mediation process which assists students to learn the required knowledge and skills of a course (Gibbons, 2006). What mediates a student' learning is therefore the inter-related influence of all physical

and cultural means which are physically, consciously or unconsciously visible in the classroom. Accordingly, language, or dialogue between teacher and students, and students and students, shapes the process of meaning-making for educational participants, from which learning can be realised.

In second language classes, mediation occurs at two levels: other-regulation and self-regulation (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). By taking part in direct interaction with his/her teacher and peers, a learner gradually learns the new language, which assists him/her to self-regulate his/her own learning at a later stage. Other-regulation, particularly from the teacher, plays a vital role in facilitating learning due to the nature of the considerable linguistic and conceptual distance between teachers, texts and learners (Gibbons, 2003). Because language is the most powerful means to mediate learning, the generation of learning affordances for learners is largely dependent on teacher-student discourse.

In a CLIL learning environment, mediation is more complicated because of the dual goals of learning for both language and content, that is, the subject is learnt via the use of a different language than the students' mother tongue. As suggested by Vygotsky, mediation also occurs through concepts, and there are two kinds of concepts: spontaneous and scientific concepts (Vygotsky, 1986). Spontaneous concepts relate to knowledge that is derived from direct socialisation with other people, while scientific concepts refers to planned, systematic, specific knowledge that is acquired from school learning (Vygotsky, 1986; Wertsch, 2007). In a CLIL class, students are introduced to, and are expected to use the concepts of a particular subject to construct meaning. It is through the use of these scientific concepts in the classroom that students learn more about the subject and to participate in its discourse.

The mediation process conducted by the teacher, with the aim of assisting students to reach particular pedagogical goals, has been manifested as 'scaffolding' (Gibbons 2006, p.175). Proposed by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976; p.90) as cited in Swain et al. (2011), scaffolding is 'a kind of process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task, or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts'. Although this concept was not proposed by Vygotsky, it reflects his theory of learning as collaborative and interactionally driven (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). In other words, scaffolding only operates when learners are in their ZPD (discussed below)

and need assistance from a more capable expert to move forward. Scaffolding may be implemented at three levels:

(a) Planning task sequences, projects, recurring classroom rituals (macro);
(b) Planning each activity in terms of sequences of actions, moves (meso);
(c) The actual process of interaction from moment to moment (micro)

(van Lier, 2004; p.149)

Similarly, according to Hammond and Gibbons (2005), scaffolding can be located at the macro and micro levels, namely, 'designed-in' and interactional contingent levels respectively. At a macro level, scaffolding is realised through identifying goals, organising classrooms, and selecting and sequencing tasks. This provides the context for interactional contingent scaffolding, which takes place naturally and unexpectedly during the actual process of classroom interaction between the teacher and learners and between learners themselves. Scaffolding at a micro level, therefore, cannot be pre-planned.

At the micro level, as suggested by Gibbons (2006), in order to successfully achieve its aim, scaffolding must be contingent. By 'contingency' (p.231), Gibbons means classroom interaction during which participants are oriented to contribute symmetrically to meaning creation, that is, not only the teacher but also the students possess knowledge that is considered valuable and worthy to examine. However, contingent mediation does not take place on a random basis; instead, it is realised in planned contexts where the teacher knows how to appropriately intervene so as to take students to the long-term vision of an educational goal. Thus, the teacher must be competent in identifying students' current levels of knowledge, and at the same time, manage to work out the best way to take their knowledge to the level expected. Contingent mediation, therefore, requires teachers not only to be knowledgeable - an expert in the field, but also have the ability to implement proper methods and tactful management of those methods.

This study was conducted in a CLIL setting, and mediation in teacher follow-up moves is related to the concepts of scaffolding and prospectiveness. As a manifestation of scaffolding, the term 'teacher follow-up moves' refers to teachers' efforts to provide their students with access to knowledge of the subject and to the discourse of the discipline. Because the subject of the course is business English, students are expected

to have a good understanding of, and be able to use, business concepts fluently in their classroom discourse, particularly in speaking. Secondly, as a means to facilitate prospectiveness, follow-up moves are conceptualised as ways to promote students' discourse extension. As the goal of a CLIL lesson is to construct knowledge via the use of the target language, students must be given opportunities to build up an extension of discourse, such as in the form of justification, explanation, and exemplification. Accordingly, mediation refers not only to how the teacher assists students arrive at a correct answer, but also to the ways the teacher encourages students to contribute information beyond the teacher's knowledge. For example, students may have their own reasons and personal examples to support their arguments, most of which may not be known to the teacher until the students speak out. It is argued that opportunities for discourse extension will create conditions for knowledge co-construction. Teachers' follow-up moves, therefore, are conceptualised as mediational means which are used to enable students to reach three goals: - to use the scientific concepts as expected in the academic learning environment; - to come to self-regulate their own learning by working out an appropriate answer as expected by the teacher; - and to extend discourse so as to maximise potential for learning the target language and construct knowledge.

2.6.3 The zone of proximal development.

The zone of proximal development (ZPD) was proposed by Vygotsky as a solution to resolve debate on the relationship between learning and development, and to distinguish school learning from learning in other contexts (Vygotsky, 1978). According to Vygotsky, the only way to understand the relation between learners' developmental processes and their learning capabilities was to adopt a more broad view than one which focused only on their actual development level. ZPD was conceptualised as *'the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers'* (Vygotsky, 1978: 86, original emphasis). The actual development level of the learners is 'the level of development of a child's mental function that has been established as a result of certain already *completed* development cycles' (Vygotsky, 1978, p.85, original emphasis). This level of development is often indicated by results from standardised tests and examinations. However, Vygotsky pointed out that with assistance from a more capable

person, different learners who achieve the same score on a standardised test may show different levels of development. Therefore, ZPD provides access not only to mental processes that have been matured and completed, but also to processes that are in the state of development. From a Vygotskian perspective, 'an essential feature of learning is that it creates the zone of proximal development' (Vygotsky, 1978, p.90), and it is through interaction with more capable individuals that certain internal developmental processes are afforded conditions to operate, leading to later independent development. Thus, according to Vygotsky, learning and development are not the same; rather, mental development can be achieved through 'properly organized learning' (p.90). Good learning is ahead of development and creates conditions to promote higher levels of development.

The ZPD is one of the most cited constructs of sociocultural theory (Kinginger, 2002). In terms of instruction in language teaching, Vygotsky (1978) suggested that the ZPD is the context for the emergence of voluntary attention and conscious awareness, which play a fundamental role in transforming everyday concepts into higher (scientific or academic) concepts (van Lier, 2004). The ZPD and mediation have a very close relationship because it is through mediation that the teacher (expert) moves the learner's ZPD forward. It is also through mediation that the current and potential developmental levels of learners can be seen. The ZPD concept has been extended or reformulated by a number of researchers so as to best reflect its application in different contexts.

In discussing the importance of ZPD in teaching and learning, Wells (1999) claimed that 'in the English-speaking world at least, it is the ZPD that has been Vygotsky's most important legacy to education' (p.313). Wells pointed out that teaching and learning in the ZPD is primarily dependent on face-to-face interaction, and therefore, the language used by the teacher and learners would shape the formation of ZPD. Accordingly, in order to conduct effective teaching, the teacher should pay attention to how to negotiate their learners' ZPD in moment-to-moment classroom interactions.

In the current research, which focuses on the creation of learning affordance in a CLIL setting, the ZPD is therefore not only related to distance between current and potential linguistic performance, but must take into account the issue of content knowledge. Therefore, ZPD in a CLIL setting could be conceptualised as the distance between the current level of linguistic and content knowledge of individual learner while performing

independently and the level of linguistic and the content knowledge achieved from collaboration and interaction with his or her teacher, peers and other cultural and educational resources in specific learning situations. As the primary focus of the current study is on how teacher follow-up moves create learning affordances, the degree to which a learner's ZPD is promoted depends largely on how the teacher's proper use of language for classroom interaction maximises the potential for learning.

2.6.4 Learning affordance.

Guided by the tenets of SCT, van Lier's (2000) ecological approach to language learning, emphasises the importance of emergence rather than reductionism, and centralises the role of the learning environment. According to van Lier, learners are immersed in an environment full of potentials for learning. By interacting with the surrounding environment, meanings are gradually discovered and become available for each learner. Via meaning-making activities with more, equal or less competent people, individual learners will gradually learn the target language. Therefore, in order to understand the process of meaning construction, it is crucial that interaction be examined in its totality. An ecological approach is compatible with an SCT perspective on language learning because they both emphasise the important role of the context, or learning environment. An ecological approach calls for a holistic view for examining how learning emerges, and attaches opportunities for learning to the co-existence and inter-relative regulation of the semiotic budget available in an environment.

From an ecological perspective to language learning, van Lier (2000) argued that educational research must be able to identify 'the emergence of learning, the location of learning opportunities, the value of contexts and effectiveness of pedagogical activities' (p.250), and pointed out that there had been no research undertaken in that approach. Gibbons (2006), however, claimed that she managed to identify those factors in her research, primarily through the examination of the concept of 'learning affordance'. With respect to the current research, a teacher's action or utterance may activate different responses from different learners, despite being provided in the same context. For example, upon receiving a teacher's exemplification request such as 'Could you give me an example to support your answer?' some students may recall their experiences, and have adequate linguistic capacity to provide a response, while others may not have sufficient experience and/or language competence to do so. Another

important point to consider is that some students may have the capacity to answer, but do not want to provide any response due to their lack of interest, or failure to remember previous experience. Therefore, the teacher's responsibility is to scaffold a proper linguistic structure and knowledge so that students feel competent enough to provide a response. Additionally, the teacher must be committed to promoting a motivating learning environment, where students' contributions are valued and encouraged so that the students do not hesitate to give responses. In other words, the teacher should endeavor to construct a symmetrical, dialogic approach to teaching and learning so as to maximise learning affordances for the students.

2.7 Summary

The Initiation-Response-Follow-up structure is significantly dominant in classroom discourse (H. Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Walsh, 2011). Therefore, the opportunities for student learning largely depend on how teachers implement this structure. Most previous studies, which were informed by psycholinguistic perspectives and were conducted in the form of quasi-experimental or experimental research, have focused on the evaluative/corrective function of teacher follow-up moves. Nevertheless, sociocultural oriented researchers have found that such a limited focus fails to take into account other aspects of the moves that potentially promote students' learning. This study, informed by sociocultural theory, suggests that teacher follow-up moves should be examined beyond their corrective function.

It has been shown that when a teacher follow-up move is not restricted to assessing the correctness of students' responses, students are provided with opportunities to expand their learning discourse (Gibbons, 2006; Nystrand, 1997). Teacher pivot moves, which prompt students to expand, exemplify, and justify previous contributions, engage students in processes of co-constructing knowledge. In language and content integrated classes, this provides students with opportunities to use the target language and use their personal background knowledge and experience to contribute to the lessons. In other words, when the learning prospectiveness of a teacher follow-up move is at a high level, rather than merely acknowledge or confirming students' responses, more potential for learning is opened up for students. This study, based on empirical data, examines teacher follow-up moves at different prospective levels and how student learning opportunities are generated in those situations.

Finally, the literature review has shown that although there has been a number of studies on teacher follow up moves and its impact on students learning in CLIL settings, few of them have been conducted in an Asian context such as Vietnam. The present project aims to address this gap by investigating how teacher follow-up influences learning opportunities for Vietnamese students in business English classes. In the next chapter, the research methodology used to support this investigation, is discussed.

Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

While 'methods' generally refers to specific procedures and techniques to conduct an inquiry (such as classroom observations, open-ended interviews), methodology is much a more complex term. According to Pryor and Ampiah (2004, p. 17), methodology is 'dynamic, contingent, and dialogic' (p.161). This study is an inquiry about the relationship between the provision of teacher follow-up moves and the emergence and development (or inhibition) of learning affordances. An understanding of this relationship was gained via the researcher's prolonged observation of classroom discourse and the employment of semi-structured interviews with participants. Selected participants' perceptions regarding factors that impact on students' participation in a classroom context were also explored. This chapter examines the methodology employed throughout the inquiry.

After conducting the literature review on the relationship between teacher follow-up moves and learning opportunities, I have decided to change the term 'learning opportunities' to 'learning affordances' because the latter term capture the sociocultural orientation of this research better.

Therefore, the final overarching question that guides this study is *'How do teacher follow-up moves influence learning affordances in business English classes?'* This question is answered through the following guiding research questions:

1. How do the participant teachers' follow-up moves limit learning affordances?
2. How do the participant teachers' follow-up moves promote learning affordances?
3. What learning conditions are perceived to create the most learning affordances?

In this study, the purposes, questions and methods of research are all interconnected and interrelated providing methodological congruence (Richards & Morse, 2007). The relationship between these elements constructs the study as a single identity rather than a collection of isolated parts. In the context of the current research, the main question is located at the descriptive and explanatory levels and is representative of a 'how' and 'why' question (Yin, 2014). This question aims at exploring the quality of classroom

interaction in terms of how it influences learning opportunities. Accordingly, it advocates the implementation of a qualitative multi-case study.

3.2 Justification for a Qualitative Study

Qualitative research is multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter and a situated activity that locates the observer in the world (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, 2011; Mertens, 2015). Qualitative researchers acknowledge that reality is complex and can never be fully represented; that reality cannot be measured and described solely by objective methods; and that reality is constructed from different entities, of which the human being is the major contributor (Creswell, 2009; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Therefore, qualitative researchers attempt to describe their research and interpret it through a naturalistic, qualitative enquiry. In this way, they attempt to gain a deep understanding of an issue through direct interaction with the participants involved in the research. They do not aim to get the 'right' story, but to reflect accurately what their participants reveal, knowing that there are no 'right' stories, only multiple stories (Burns, 2000; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2014). Accordingly, what qualitative researchers aim to obtain is not reality, but a perception of reality (Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Mertens, 2015). The purpose of qualitative research is to listen to people's voices, to share their stories (Creswell, 2007, 2013; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011) and some of the ways this can be done are by detailed interviewing and observation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, 2011; Silverman, 2013). The stories of participants can only be interpreted appropriately in their own settings and this is why qualitative researchers emphasise the importance of collecting data in its natural setting (Creswell, 2007, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011)

For qualitative researchers, knowledge is socially constructed and can only be accessed through the trusting relationships established between the researcher and the participants within particular situational constraints (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, 2011; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011). In education, qualitative methods also aim to capture educational reality from the research participants' experience (Check & Schutt, 2012). The knowledge gained by qualitative researchers is interpretive, experiential, situational and personalistic (Stake, 2010). Accordingly, qualitative researchers' interpretations of the data are shaped by the meanings people bring to them. These characteristics of

qualitative studies match with the principles of sociocultural theory (SCT) (Vygotsky, 1978), which specifies that human mental development is the outcome of co-constructing knowledge. It highlights the importance of interaction among the members of a society, and stresses the important role of context settings in conducting educational research. Operating from sociocultural theory, educational researchers concentrate on the process of how learning takes place, in which oral interaction is not only the outcome but also the medium for the learning process (Swain, 1997). It is through classroom interaction that teachers provide mediation to assist learners to move to a higher level of learning.

The aim of this study is to identify patterns of interaction between teachers and students in an identified educational setting with a specific focus on the follow-up move of the IRF sequence. It was acknowledged that this interaction contains within it the complex nature of human interaction. Accordingly, it is vital that this interaction be explored and interpreted from the perspectives of the participants and of the researcher via direct observations and a series of interviews. Therefore, it is the relationships between the researchers and the participants that shaped the findings of the inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, 2000).

Because any study is shaped by its researcher' philosophical assumption and paradigm, and may be informed by a theoretical lens (Creswell, 2007, 2013; Mertens, 2015; Silverman, 2013; Yin, 2014), the following section is devoted to describing my paradigm as a constructivist.

3.2.1 A constructivist paradigm.

According to Guba (1990, p. 17), a paradigm is 'a net that contains the researcher's epistemological, ontological and methodological premises'. Of these three dimensions, epistemology refers to the relationship between the inquirer and the known (Creswell, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, 2011; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011), ontology refers to the researcher's view of the nature of reality (Creswell, 2007, 2013) and what kind of being the human being is (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994), while methodology specifies the ways to gain knowledge about the world (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011; Schwandt, 2007). This set of beliefs represents a world view (Mertens, 2015) and forms the foundation for the selection of proper methodological approaches and corresponding instruments. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), a paradigm specifies what is

significant for a researcher in his/her quest of knowledge. Therefore, it shapes the way a researcher approaches an issue, the methods employed, and the type of problem they select to investigate (Shekedi, 2005).

The constructivist paradigm assumes ‘a relativist ontology (there are multiple realities), a subjective epistemology (knower and respondent co-create understanding), and a naturalistic (in the natural world) set of methodological procedures’ (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 13). Constructivist researchers believe that there is no true meaning of an event, there is only the event as experienced or interpreted by people. Different perceptions and experiences of people which take place within the same context can be termed ‘multiple realities’ (Stake, 2010, p. 66). In order to understand reality, qualitative researchers conduct their projects in natural settings so that people's experiences are socially and historically negotiated (Creswell, 2007). Contexts need to be described in detail because without them realities as a whole cannot be fully understood (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Understanding of an issue is achieved through the researcher's interaction with participants (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). As Guba and Lincoln (1989) earlier stated, the observer cannot be disentangled from the observed in the activity of inquiring. Constructivist researchers acknowledge that their interpretations are shaped by their own experiences and backgrounds (Creswell, 2007, 2013), and the very act of observation influences what is seen (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this present study my own experience and understanding, combined with the interactions with the participants created an interwoven web of meaning (Shekedi, 2005).

For these reasons, I have identified myself as a constructivist, and guided by sociocultural theory, I embarked on a quest to understand classroom interaction and IRF sequences from participant views of the situation. This process was facilitated by forming and engaging in interactions with participants over a long period of time. It was acknowledged that my background as a teacher at the institution where the research took place helped me not only in the establishment of researcher-participant relationship, but also in the interpretation of the data collected.

3.3 Multicase Study Design

In the field of second language learning, case studies have been considered a useful methodology for increasing our understanding of how individuals learn a language (Brown & Rodgers, 2002). Although Stake (2005) stated that case study research is not a methodology, but a choice of what is to be studied, other researchers consider it to be a strategy of inquiry (e.g., Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Yin, 2003). Case study research is a qualitative approach in which 'the investigator explores a real life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded system (cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection'(Creswell, 2007, p. 73). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), this is a powerful tool for implementing an emic inquiry (issues found in the field – Stake, 2006) and for demonstrating the interplay between the researcher and the participants. Case study research provides rich, detailed and in-depth information about the phenomenon being studied (Berg & Lune, 2012). Additionally, as argued by Yin (2014), the strength of case study is that it is capable of incorporating data from a great variety of sources such as interviews and observations.

Stake (1994) defined a case as a bounded system, and argued that the purpose of a case study is to represent the case rather than the world. Following this, he argued that case study was an appropriate method for examining different perspectives from multiple realities (Stake, 1995). For Stake, the reason for conducting a case study is an intrinsic interest in the case itself, and a case study researcher must appreciate the uniqueness and complexity of the case. Nevertheless, in a later publication, Stake (2006) called for the implementation of multicase research, with primarily interest shifted from an intrinsic interest in each case to an instrumental interest in different cases. In multicase research, cases are selected because they may be members of a group or examples of a phenomenon or 'a quintain' (p.4). Multicase research begins with the quintain, and cases are selected in order to gain a better understanding of the quintain. Therefore, over time, there is a move away from a holistic viewing of the cases towards a 'constrained viewing of the cases' (p.6). This viewing was constrained by the quintain over the cases. Accordingly, cases were selected so as to maximum the opportunity to learn about the quintain. In the case report, it is of primary importance that the case-quintain relationship is clearly presented.

Strongly arguing for the implementation of a multiple case study approach in the quest for a greater understanding of a contemporary phenomenon, Yin (2009, 2014) approached it in a different manner. To him, case study research can be either qualitative or quantitative, or both. The selection of cases must be carefully done so that it 'either (a) predicts similar results (a literal replication) or (b) predicts contrasting results but for anticipatable reasons (a theoretical replication)' (Yin, 2014, p. 57). Accordingly, theoretical framework plays an important role in later generalisations to new cases, similar to the role played in cross-experimental designs (Yin, 2009, p. 54). Thus, according to Yin, case studies are a proper method for developing or testing theory. This 'experimental' approach towards case studies explains why Yin chose to adopt quantitative norms for justifying the quality of a case study design, namely construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability.

A multiple case design was selected for this project because it aims at investigating and examining the relationship between teacher follow-up moves and learning opportunities not only from the researcher's interpretation of observable data, but also from stakeholders' perceptions. This multi-case project was conducted at a Vietnamese university, and three classes offering a business English course were selected to be three cases. Each case was bounded by its own physical setting (the class) and the bond and relationship established among its participants: here the teacher and the students in each class. This study incorporated Stake's (2006) model for two reasons.

Firstly, the purpose of this study was to explore how learning opportunities are created or inhibited, which requires detailed description of classroom discourse, rather than focusing on comparing or contrasting different cases. Secondly, operating as it does from a constructivist paradigm and guided by sociocultural theory, this research was a qualitative search for a better understanding of classroom interaction in a language and content integrated setting. Therefore, cases were selected based on the criterion of opportunity to learn (Stake, 2006) rather than on assumptions about similarities or contrast between cases. The quintain of this research is teacher follow-up moves, and in order to understand this phenomenon, different classes were selected for data collection. Interpretation of the results will help to address the commonalities and differences between manifestations of the follow-up moves (Stake, 2006). Accordingly, assertions regarding the similarities and disparities between cases would be made towards the

completion of the study, rather than being established at the beginning. Because the context and setting of a case play a significant role in informing readers about the case study, the following section provides a detailed description of the site of the study.

3.3.1 The site.

This study was conducted at a Vietnamese university, located in Hanoi, the capital city of Vietnam. Although university entrance exams are conducted on a nationwide scale, it is common practice for Vietnamese students to select educational institutions that are a short distance from their residential location. This explains why most students that attend this university are from northern Vietnam. Sociocultural factors also play an important role in the current embodiments of the university. At the time of its establishment, this university majored in training language teachers for high schools, a role traditionally considered to be more suitable for females rather than males in Vietnam. In the past twenty years, the university has expanded its recruitment to include more students majoring in interpreting, translation and more recently, double majors. At the time of this research, female students outnumbered males by a ratio of nine to one, and this was also the ratio of female-male teachers. From 1986, Vietnam embarked on a renovation period (known as Doi moi), signified by the implementation of numerous open trade policies and the development of a market economy. Teaching, therefore, is not considered to be a prestigious profession compared to those that are more related to economic development. Many high school students in Hanoi, who have advantages over those living in rural and mountainous areas, tend to select universities with a commercial orientation rather than a pedagogical focus. This explains why at the time of this study, the majority of students were not from Hanoi but from the nearby northern provinces.

This university was selected because I used to work there and had an already established relationship with many of the current teachers, a fact that assisted me in recruiting research participants. At the time of the study, the university was offering a business English course; and this CLIL course provided the perfect setting for the investigation of teacher follow-up moves from a sociocultural perspective. The description for this course, including its aims and assessment measurements, is presented in Appendix A. Although this university is my ‘home yard’, and convenient for me to collect necessary data, I was well aware of potential problems I might encounter. For example, some

teachers may be unwilling to let me observe and video-record their lessons for fear of being subject to my judgement. Others may be reluctant to be participants of the research and only participate because they did not want to ruin their relationship with me. Both issues may result in the risk of my inability to collect sufficient data, or in teachers manipulating their normal teaching procedure, resulting in untrustworthy data. To prevent these problems, I thoroughly explained the aims of this project to each of the teachers and their students, assuring participants that my role was purely that of a researcher, not an assessor. In addition, I always maintained a smiling face during classroom observations and avoided making comments during and after the data collection phase. All participants were well aware of the objectives of this project and were willing to take part in classroom observations and interviews, and none dropped out before the project was completed.

3.3.2 Participants.

Qualitative studies are shaped by their participants' viewpoints, and the relationship between the researcher and the participants constructs the meaning of the issue under investigation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). In any qualitative study, one of the most important steps involves the selection of cases. This is often done through 'purposive sampling' or 'purposeful sampling' (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2013; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 2015). Literally this means cases must be selected with a purpose. As Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 40) stated, purposive sampling 'increases the scope of range of data exposed…as well as the likelihood that the full array of multiple realities will be uncovered'. Patton (2002) identified 15 purposeful sampling strategies dependent on different purposes and indicated that 'the logic and power of purposeful sampling lie in selecting information-rich cases for in-depth study' (p.230). Both Creswell (2007) and Stake (2006) also emphasised the importance of purposive sampling, highlighting its power in maximising understanding of a research issue, building in variety, and contributing opportunities for intensive study. In multicase research, cases should be selected based on three criteria: relevance, opportunity to learn, balance and variety (Stake, 2006). This means cases must be selected based on their relation to the phenomenon being explored, the opportunities to gain most accessibility, and the differential levels on which the phenomenon can be viewed.

In this research, the phenomenon to be investigated was teacher follow-up moves. Therefore, classes were selected in order to access the richest data regarding the delivery of those moves. Accordingly, for the first two weeks, I conducted initial observations in six business English classes at the site and used the data collected from this phase to identify potential research participants. Three teachers who had the most interaction with their students and implemented the widest range of follow-up moves were invited to participate in the study with all of them agreeing to also arrange time for stimulated recall sessions and interviews. After that, a short interview (approximately 20 minutes) was conducted with each teacher to gain information about their backgrounds. This information is summarised in the table below.

Table 1: *Teacher Biography*

Teacher	Age	Qualification	Teaching experience in English in general	Teaching experience in business English courses
Hoa	30	Master of Linguistics Master of Business Administration	6 years	2.5 years
Binh	28	Master of Business Administration Pending Master degree of Linguistics	5 years	2.5 years
An	27	Master of TESOL	3.5 years	1 year

All of the teachers were female, which reflects the previously identified ratio of female and male teachers at the university (nine to one). It should be noted that Hoa and Binh both earned their master's degrees in Business Administration, and therefore might have an advantage over An in terms of curriculum content. However, An earned her master's degree in TESOL in Australia, and this overseas experience may have provided her with different ways to approach teaching and learning materials. In summary, the relevance and opportunity to learn in these three cases were assumed to be equal, and the variety of follow-up moves was expected to be maximised.

After obtaining information about the three teachers, I invited their students to be research participants. The numbers of students in each class were 27, 24 and 29. Two of those classes had three male students each, and the last one had no male student. All students had passed the university entrance exam consisting of English, mathematics,

and literature. In this exam, the score for English was doubled before adding to the total score. This meant students who scored very low on the English test might still pass the exam if their maths and literature scores were high enough. Therefore, although placed in the same class, there was the potential for students' English competence to vary considerably. On the whole, students' knowledge about the world of business and the type of language associated with it was very limited. Although all students agreed to their lessons being observed, not all of them agreed to participate in the later stimulated recall sessions or interviews. Therefore, these stages of the study were only conducted with students who gave their permission for those components on their consent forms.

The following section details all the methods that were implemented to collect data.

3.4 Methods of Collecting Data

Qualitative researchers tend to implement qualitative methods because they are more suitable for dealing with multiple realities (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Central techniques for collecting data in a qualitative research study are observation, interviewing and documentary analysis (Denzin et al., 2011; Mertens, 2015; Punch, 1994). For a multi-case study, observation and interviews are among the most important methods of collecting data (Stake, 2006; Yin, 2014).

The methods utilised for this study included classroom observation - combined with field notes and video-audio recordings; stimulated recall and interview. As no study can be conducted without a focus (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), all of these instruments were employed in order to gain a deeper understanding of teacher follow-up moves. The interrelationship and interconnectedness of these instruments are represented in figure 3 below.

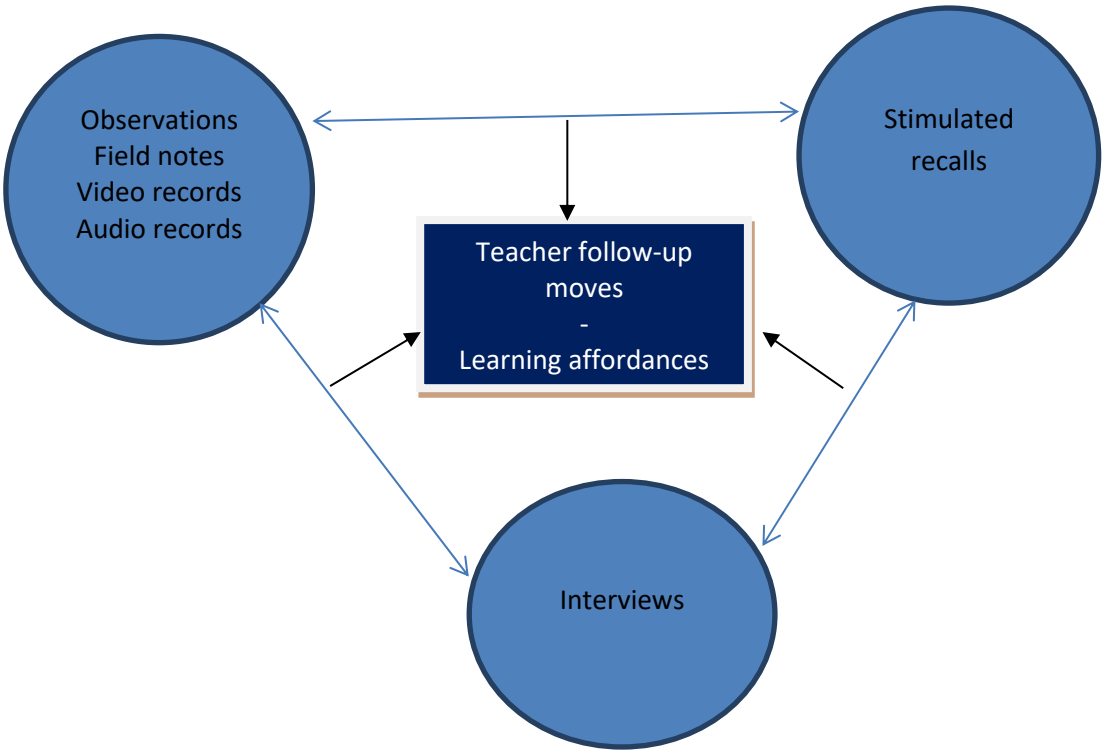


Figure 3: Inter-relationship of methods of collecting data

Firstly, direct observations taken by me, combined with my field notes and later examination of video records provided a hands-on record on how the IRF sequences were delivered and their impact on classroom interaction. Additionally, because learner participation and learning affordances were also of major concern to the research, it was necessary to investigate how they were realised among covert learners (those who did not orally participate in classroom interaction) and overt learners (those who directly had conversations with the teacher). Stimulated recall sessions with students of different oral participation levels allowed me to gain an insight into what the students were thinking and doing at particular moments of classroom interaction. Lastly, at the end of the semester, I conducted interviews with the teachers and students in order to capture general understandings and perceptions of both the teacher and the students regarding the best conditions to facilitate learning affordances. All in all, while observation provided vivid and actual examples of classroom interactions, stimulated recalls provided insights into what the participants were thinking at specific moments, and final interviews summarised the overall impressions and perceptions of the participants. When combined with each other, this data provided a clear picture of the provision of

teacher follow-up moves and their impacts on learning opportunities. Each of the methods of collecting data is described, discussed and explained below.

3.4.1 Classroom observation.

In a qualitative inquiry, observation is a systematic description of events, behaviours and artifacts in the social setting chosen for study (Marshall & Rossman, 1995, 2011; Mertens, 2015; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). This method enables understanding of the complexities of different research situations (Patton, 2002) in natural social settings (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). As suggested by Denzin and Lincoln (2011), observations are situated in the worlds of the observer and the observed, and between those worlds. Direct observation 'provides here-and-now experience in depth … and allows the inquirer to see the world (as his subject to see it)' (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 273). With case study research, observation (both direct observation and learning from the observations of others) is the most meaningful data-gathering methods (Stake, 2006).

The role of a qualitative researcher could be placed at different points on a continuum from a *complete participant*, to *participant-as-observer* and *observer-as-participant* through to *complete observer* (Berg & Lune, 2012; Burns, 2000; Creswell, 2013; Dunne, Pryor, & Yates, 2005; Gold, 1958). The choice of role determines the actions of a researcher in a setting, with the assumption that the more a researcher becomes native, the more impact the research will have on the setting. However, as Dunne, et al. (2005) pointed out, whichever role a researcher employs, it is impossible to attain objective data. In fact, the observer's theoretical position will shape what s/he sees as important; in other words, 'what kind of research you have planned on doing shapes the data that you will get' (p.67). Thus, it is impossible for a researcher to pay attention to every piece of data during the observation phase, and qualitative observation always has a specific focus.

In this study, I played the role of an overt observer (Check & Schutt, 2012; Patton, 2002). My role was publicly identified to all the teachers and students in the three classes being investigated. In order to mitigate against the potential impact of my presence, during classroom observation, I spent most of the time quietly taking notes and occasionally approaching either the teacher or students unobtrusively during their conversations to best capture these classroom interactions.

Based on my experiences and initial observations, four lessons of each participant teacher were selected, each lasting 200 minutes and divided into four periods. The lessons were selected based on the density of business knowledge presented in each lesson, the potential amount of classroom interaction, the expected range of learning opportunities, and the schedule of the teacher participants. Typically, in each lesson, the first period (approximately 50 minutes) was dedicated to students' group presentations of a theme learnt in the previous lesson. In the three subsequent periods, all teaching and learning activities were related to a new business theme each week, commencing with the introduction and explanation of new business terms, class discussion, followed by listening comprehension exercises, and ending with student practices of business skills. This sequence generally followed the one that was suggested in the textbook for each lesson. A sample unit in the textbook is presented in Appendix B.

As Marshall and Rossman (2011) suggested, observations must be recorded, normally in the form of field notes. In the following section, the ways in which field notes and video and audio recorders were used will be described.

3.4.1.1 Field notes.

Field notes are considered an important data gathering tool accompanying observation. Taking notes keeps the investigator alert and responsive (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In addition, field notes provide important information regarding the research setting, such as locations of objects, particular movements of participants, and the atmosphere that could only be sensed while being there. Therefore, field notes play an important role in the database of a case study (Yin, 2014) and help to identify ongoing processes of particular events (Silverman, 2013). A typical form of field notes, as suggested by Dune et al. (2005), includes two columns, one of which consists of information about the actions in the field, and the other which indicates significance and justification for later transcribing into data.

In this research, I wrote field notes during class observations, which consisted of four columns. The first two columns included information about time allocation, sequences and descriptions of classroom activities. The third column comprises of notes regarding my notification of previously identified terms in the literature review, and potentiality for later data analysis. In the last column, I noted down possible questions to ask the teacher and the students in subsequent stimulated recall sessions. At the end of each

observation, I used the field notes from each class to decide whether to conduct a stimulated recall session with the participants. An example of the field notes is provided in Appendix C.

3.4.1.2 Audio and video records.

Video recordings are typically considered an instrument for second-hand observation (Flick, 2002), assumed to replace direct observation. Cameras are used to help make the data collection procedure as unobtrusive as possible. The purposes for using cameras were summarised by Mead (as cited in Flick, 2002):

> They allow detailed recordings of facts as well as providing a more comprehensive and holistic presentation of lifestyles and conditions. They allow the transportation of artefacts and then presentation of them as pictures and also the transgression of borders of time and space. They can catch facts and processes that are too fast or too complex for the human eye. (p.149)

The benefits of using video records have been acknowledged in a number of qualitative studies. After interviewing twenty researchers who used video as a research instrument, Penn-Edwards (2012) concluded that video recording is believed to capture 'the authentic version of reality' (p.158) by most qualitative researchers. Feak and Salehzadeh (as cited in Penn-Edwards, 2004) considered a video recording image to be 'an approximation, an illustration of actuality, if not reality itself' (p.270).

Nevertheless, it should be acknowledged that in practice, there are limitations when using a camera as a research instrument. Firstly, reactivity is a common problem (Ratcliff, 2003). This refers to the reaction of participants to knowing that they are being videoed. Secondly, the use of the camera is affected by the researcher's purpose, and the data obtained from audio record is later analysed by a researcher, who is also a human (Ratcliff, 2003). In other words, although a camera is expected to capture 'objective' data, the very fact that there is human involvement in its setting up and later analysis, as well as the reactivity that it might create because of its presence, make the data obtained partly subjective.

In the present study, video recordings were used in two phases. Firstly, they were used as a supplementary instrument to direct observation rather than as a substitute. Although I directly conducted classroom observation, there were subtle moments of classroom

interaction that I may have been unable to capture and here access to video recordings could provide data from specific situations to enable more effective data analysis (Ratcliff, 2003). Furthermore, video recordings capture visible phenomena, especially aspects of nonverbal behaviour (Marshall & Rossman, 2011), which assisted me in determining the functions of some follow-up moves. Secondly, because this research aims not only at identifying pieces of classroom interaction, but also at investigating teachers and students' perceptions toward the same teaching strategies, video records served the second purpose of being the stimulus for later stimulated recalls. In stimulated recall sessions, participants were invited to watch pieces of classroom interaction through video records and were encouraged to present their thoughts and opinions about those interactions.

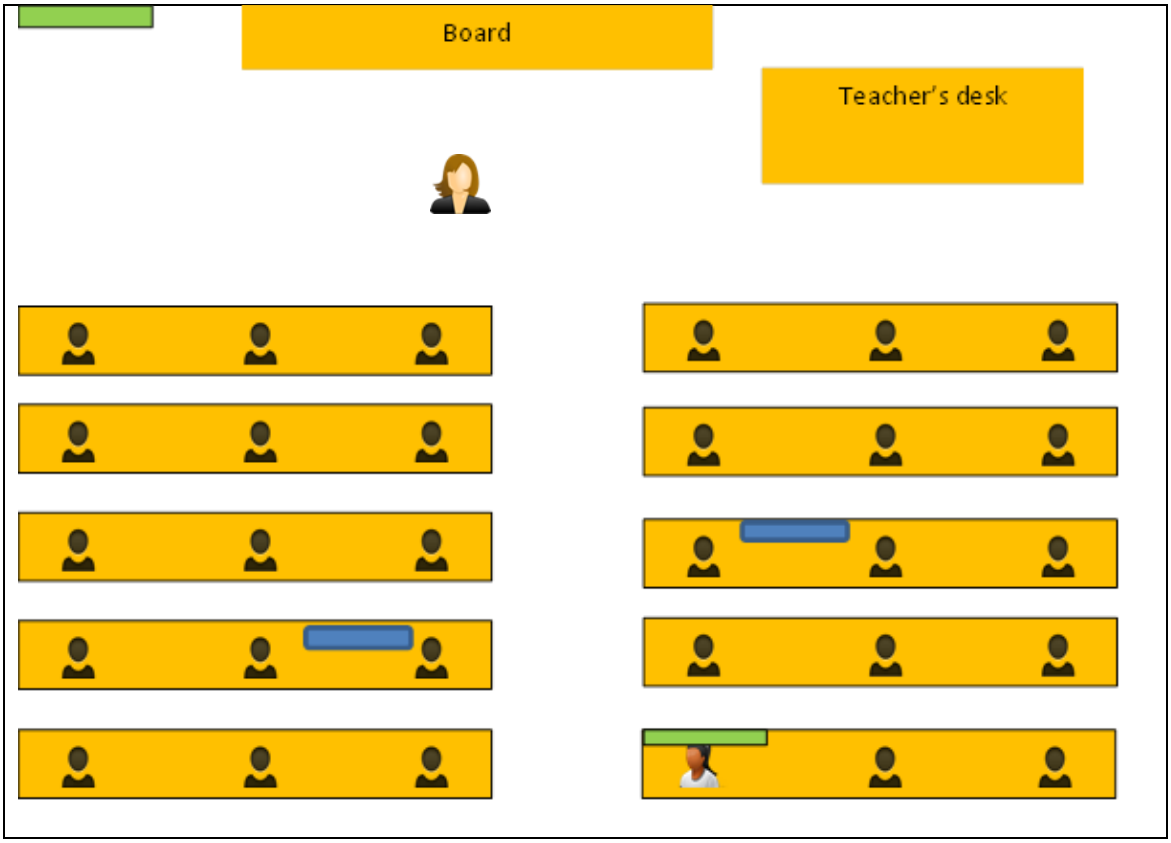
Two audio recording devices were placed in the class to enhance the sound quality obtained from the video record instruments. Additionally, these audio recorders helped capture discussions among random groups of students who were not visible from the video records. Data collected from these non-observable moments of interaction helped to provide a better data analysis of classroom discourse at particular moments.

Because observations play a crucial role in the data collection process, it is necessary to describe in detail the physical arrangements of the three classrooms in which this process took place. Of the three classes, two were located in the same building, so their physical arrangements were similar. In each class, at the front, there was the teacher's table and a green chalk board. There were ten sets of benches and tables for students, placed in two rows (five sets each row), with each set designed to accommodate up to three students. In each set, the bench was attached firmly to the table with one side touching the wall, and the other side forming the aisle. These sets had no wheels and were placed so that all students faced the teacher and the board. As a result, for most of the class time, students remained in their seats and worked primarily with peers immediately surrounding them. During group discussions of four students or more, which required students from two tables to work collaboratively, the students of a front table set would turn around to work with those behind them. Due to the classroom setting, the teacher could only move within the space at the front of the class and the aisle between the two rows. Because the total number of the students was under 30 for each class, there were vacant seats. I often sat at one of these spaces at the last table, on

the aisle, in order to enable mobility and to better capture teacher movement. This resulted in my sharing a table with two other students.

In order to obtain the fullest record of ongoing classroom interaction, a number of audio-video instruments were positioned in different locations in the class. Firstly, a wide angle-camera was placed in a high window slot on the wall facing the class at a plane directed 45° downward. In this way, the camera took up no space in the class but could capture the whole classroom from the front, enabling me to see the students, and the teacher's actions when the teacher moved down to the back of the class. Secondly, a smart phone used as a second camera was placed at my seat (the last table in a row). Because the teachers usually faced their students when giving instruction, this device would record all of teachers' actions, including what they wrote on the board. I sometimes took my smart phone away from this usual position to focus on certain conversations or group discussions. In order to record the best sounds, I made use of two voice recorders normally placed in the middle of the classroom, so as to capture sounds that otherwise might be undetectable by the two cameras. Occasionally, I placed the two recorders in specific groups of students during their discussions to catch what they were discussing in their group. The two voice recorders were quite small in terms of size so they were expected not to distract students from their usual discussion. The location of research instruments in these two classes is presented in figure 4.

The last classroom was located in another building and was about 50 per cent larger than the aforementioned two classes. Due to its physical outlay, there was no hole on the wall to place the first camera, so the camera's tripod was used. This was placed right in the front of the class, facing the whole classroom. Although the use of a tripod might be intimidating (Ratcliff, 2003), thanks to the larger classroom size, this created no difficulties with respect to the movements of participants. The other recording devices were placed in similar positions to those described in the first two classrooms.



Note: - camera; - audio recorder; - researcher; - student; - teacher

Figure 4: Classroom description

3.4.2 Stimulated recalls.

Stimulated recalls are to a large extent used to discover a participant's thinking at the time of interaction. Bloom (1953) suggested that during stimulated recall sessions, 'a subject may be enabled to relive an original situation with great vividness and accuracy if he is presented with a large number of the cues or stimuli which occurred during the original situation'(p.161), and the recall accuracy rate was 95% if conducted within 48 hours after experiencing the incident (Henderson & Tallman, 2006). The implementation of stimulated recall, therefore, allows researchers to examine the retrospective construction of learners' thoughts. In order to conduct a stimulated recall, there must be the utilisation of a stimulus (such as videotape or writing products) to

elicit participants' thoughts regarding their previous activities (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Henderson & Tallman, 2006).

In educational settings, stimulated recalls have been used in some research as a retrospective method to discover learners' thought while they were carrying out a task previously. Mackey, Gass and McDonough (2000) used this method to investigate learners' perception of the feedback they received from their instructor. Interestingly, the findings suggest that with different types of feedback, the rates of accurate perception varied considerably. Swain & Lapkin (2002) also made use of this method to discover learners' perceptions toward native speakers' reformulation of their writing. More recently, through simulated recalls, recast was discovered to be beneficial in helping learners notice their errors (Sakai, 2011). Recast was also found to have higher rate of being noticed through stimulated recall than when it was measured by uptake (Bao, Egi, & Han, 2011).

In this research, I conducted stimulated recall sessions with individual teachers and groups of students. Firstly, based on the field notes, particular episodes for stimulated recall were selected (this decision was made during classroom observation). Then, I negotiated a suitable time for the teacher and the students. Of the total of six stimulated recalls with teachers, two were conducted right after the class, three were conducted in the next day, and one was after four days. Regarding those with students, two were right after the class, three were in the next day, and one after three days.

Stimuli for each stimulated recall session consisted of video records of a lesson and the textbook that was being used by both the teacher and the students. The use of video records for stimulated recall sessions is a useful tool for discovering learners' perceptions of learning in classrooms (Morgan, 2007). In this research, at the beginning of each stimulated recall, participants were invited to give their general opinions about the lesson. I then replayed different pieces of classroom interaction, paused at certain moments, and asked the participants what they were thinking about or doing at those moments.

3.4.2.1 Stimulated recall with teachers.

Most stimulated recalls with the teachers were conducted immediately after a class was dismissed. I began by asking the teachers about the objectives of the lesson, whether

they felt satisfied with the lesson, and what they thought would have improved. Then, I let the teachers review different parts of the lesson as recorded in the video and asked them questions relating to those parts. Typical questions were:

- What were you doing here?
- Why did you do that?/ What was your purpose when doing that?
- Do you think this is an effective strategy?

At the end of each stimulated recall, I asked the teachers for any comments or thoughts that they would like to share. Each stimulated recall with a teacher typically lasted 45 minutes. The stimulated recall protocol for the teachers is provided in Appendix D.

3.4.2.2 Stimulated recalls with students.

With students, stimulated recalls were conducted with groups of students from the same class. This was done for two major reasons. Firstly, the major aim of this research was to identify learning opportunities generated from the implementation of teacher follow-up moves through students' retrospective thinking of an event. It was virtually impossible to find an answer to this question purely from observation, because it can't be concluded that students who did not say anything during a lesson did not learn anything. Thus, by inviting a wide range of learners, including those who did not participate orally along with those who did participate orally in interactions with teacher, I was able to capture a more robust reflection of how learning opportunities were taken up.

Secondly, stimulated recalls served another purpose of obtaining students' opinions and perceptions about what was happening in the class, in order to compare individual students. This was similar to a focus group interview in which participants are invited to share their opinions about a common phenomenon that they have experienced. Group interviews are generally low cost but rich in data and allow interviewees to act and build upon the responses of other group members (Flick, 2002; Shekedi, 2005; Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). While implementing this method, the researcher plays a crucial role in maintaining the discursive atmosphere and must master the balance between a directive and a meditative role, so that the interview is not dominated by one or two participants. In addition, the researcher must be sensitive to power relations with the participants (Creswell, 2013; Flick, 2002).

In order to serve the two purposes of group stimulated recalls with students, I selected participants in the following manner. Firstly, using my field notes, I selected a number of potential students. These included students who overtly participated in the lesson at the highest or lowest levels. Next, those who did not agree to participate in stimulated recall in their consent forms were eliminated. From the remaining students, I selected those who were in different groups during class discussion time. These students were then asked if they were available and willing to participate in a later stimulated recall; and only those who agreed were invited to this session. Therefore, each stimulated recall session consisted of four or five students with different overt participation levels and from different groups across the class.

In each stimulated recall session, I commenced by asking students general questions about the lesson I was asking them to recall, such as the purpose of the lesson and how they prepared for it. Then, I would select different pieces of classroom interaction, typically conversations between the teacher and one of the students in the group and began by asking this student questions such as:

- What were you doing here?
- What were you thinking when you said this?
- Why do you think the teacher did this?

After that, I would turn to other students in the group and ask them in turn questions such as:

- What were you doing during this time?
- Did you listen to the conversation between your teacher and your friend? What did you think about it?

In order to maintain equal participation roles across participants, I often began by asking a question to the student who had direct interaction with the teacher, followed by those who seemed to be a bit reserved, before moving onward to ask the more sociable students. For each question, I managed to get a response from all of the students in the group. Stimulated recalls with students were video recorded so that I could distinguish the participants' voices. The camera allowed me to identify which student presented which opinion, and this was of great assistance in the later data analysis phase. The protocol for stimulated recall sessions with students is presented in Appendix E.

Stimulated recalls enabled me to obtain the opinions and perceptions of teachers and students immediately or shortly after the end of a lesson. Nevertheless, because I did not observe and conduct stimulated recalls for every lesson, it was necessary to gain a more general view of teachers and students in the business English program as a whole. Therefore, at the end of the semester, interviews with individual teachers and students were conducted.

3.4.3 Interviews.

An interview can be defined as a conversation with a purpose (Berg & Lune, 2012). The purposes for conducting an interview can vary from improving the interviewer's knowledge, obtaining reconstructions of experiences in the present and in the past, to triangulating information collected from other data sources (Berg & Lune, 2012; Wengraf, 2001; Yin, 2014). Interviews enable research participants to share their opinions about the subject matter (Richards, 2005) and allow the researcher to gain a deep understanding of how the same issue is perceived from different perspectives (Stake, 1995). The interview is one of the most widely employed methods in qualitative research (Bryman, 2012), and the central purposes of an interview are generally to obtain unique information or interpretations from individuals and to gain an understanding about an issue that a researcher cannot observe themselves (Stake, 2010). Interviews are an essential instrument for case studies in general and for educational research in particular (Scott & Usher, 2003) because most case studies are related to human behaviour and perceptions (Yin, 2009, 2014).

Qualitative interviews can take different forms along five continua: formal-informal, structured-unstructured, individual-group, one-off-sequential, public-private (Berg & Lune, 2012; Brinkmann, 2013; Burns, 2000; Dunne et al., 2005; Mertens, 2015). Irrespective of the type of interview, power relations are an undeniable factor that affects the quality of a qualitative interview (Dunne et al. 2005); and there is a clear power asymmetry between the interviewer and interviewee (Flick et al., 2007; Flick & Metzler, 2014). In any interviews, the role of the researcher is central in terms of designing the structure, constructing questions, selecting participants, and conducting the interview process, as well as in later interpretation of the interviews (Dunne et al., 2005; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011; King & Horrocks, 2010; Wengraf, 2001). Therefore, researchers must be aware of the power asymmetries and try their best to put the

interviewees at ease. As Kvale and Brinkman (2008) suggested, qualitative researcher should take the role of ‘a traveller’ (p.48), which means they must approach the interviewee and the context with sensitivity and empathy, and together with the interviewee co-construct the knowledge generated by the research.

In this research, the first interviews with three teachers were structured and they provided information regarding the teachers’ biographies and general approaches towards teaching (Appendix F). The final interview, which was the primary data source, was semi-structured. A semi-structured qualitative interview is defined as ‘an interview with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee in order to interpret the meaning of the described phenomena’(Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008, p. 3). This type of interview requires initial preparation of a list of questions to guide the interviewer in the interviewing process, but leaving adequate space for participants to express their opinions (Berg & Lune, 2012; Burns, 2000; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011; Wengraf, 2001). In other words, while an interview must be guided by an initial purpose, the answers from the participants are unpredictable, and based on these responses the researcher can ask follow-up questions, which are not prepared beforehand (Bryman, 2012). According to Galletta (2012), semi-structured interviews are particularly valuable for opening up new possibilities to understand phenomena assumed to be unproblematic. In addition, they help to maintain the research focus while allowing participants to offer new meanings and to allow interviewees the opportunities to construct the agenda of the interview (Burns, 2000; Scott & Usher, 2003).

The final interviews with the participants were semi-structured because they aimed to capture a variety of opinions from the participants from their own experiences of particular events, while maintaining the focus of the research. All final interviews followed a general guideline (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2008), which was influenced by the research questions and previous classroom observations and consisted of four parts specifying the different information to be collected. The first part included questions related to the participants’ sense of achievement upon the completion of their course, difficulties they had encountered, and how they dealt with them. The next part was devoted to an inquiry into teachers’ and students’ perceptions of teacher follow-up moves and their impact. Then, participants were invited to give opinions about learning

opportunities, classroom participation, and their relationships to different interaction patterns. Lastly, teachers and students gave comments about the course. The majority of the questions were open-ended with a number of prompts so as to facilitate the conversations with the participants. In addition, I asked follow-up questions based on the responses from the participants. The guidelines for the final interviews for the teachers and students are presented in Appendixes G and H respectively.

From each class, I invited three participants to take part in the final interviews, including the teacher and two students. These two students were selected based on my classroom observations, with one student having a high level of overt participation in classroom discourse (having conversations with the teacher and peers), and the other remaining mostly silent during class time. Each interview lasted for approximately one hour. The interviews was piloted with a student one week before to test whether amendments were needed regarding word usage, facilitation interviewees, and appropriate duration of the interviews.

3.5 Role of the Researcher

Van Lier (as cited in Brown & Rodgers, 2002) proposed a taxonomy for educational research design, in which a researcher's role varies along the two dimensions of selectivity and intervention. In this taxonomy, the level of intervention and selectivity in educational practices increases from watching, measuring, asking/doing to controlling.

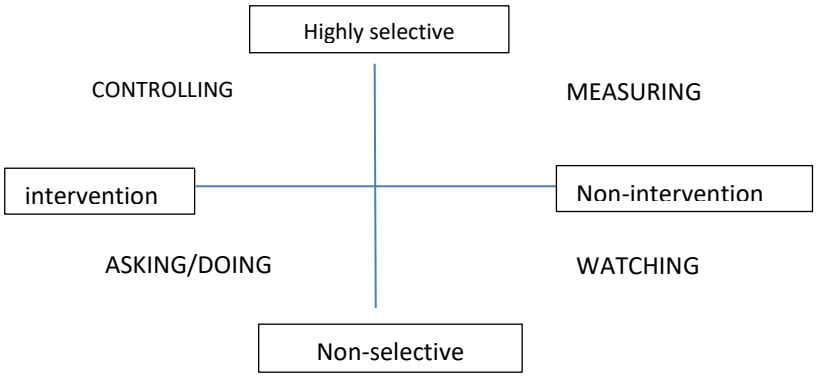


Figure 5: Parameters of educational research design (Brown & Rodgers, 2002, p. 50)

This study is a qualitative investigation of classroom interactions in a working classroom environment. Thus, I did not intend to manipulate teaching and learning activities, and intervention was expected at a minimum level. On the other hand, the research was selective in that its focus was on IRF sequences, and in order to gain an insight into this, a number of instruments were used, including stimulated recall and interviews. Therefore, while the essence of qualitative inquiry requires that a researcher should not manipulate or directly intervene in the existing world (Stake, 1995), it also acknowledges the significant role of the researcher in creating meanings for the study.

Lincoln and Guba (1985), Marshall and Rossman (2011) and Creswell (2013) identified the qualitative researcher as the key instrument in a study because the research is primarily conducted by them, and perception is shaped by the researcher's personality and their interaction with the participants. The quantity and quality of information provided by participants depends on the relationship established between the researcher and the researched (Merriam, 1998). Conventionally, qualitative design requires the person most responsible for data interpretation to be the one who directly collects the data (Stake, 2010). One of the reasons for this is that qualitative inquiry is a process of adjusting the focus of a study, and only the human as instrument is capable of coping with an indeterminate situation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It is the researcher who selects the contexts and the activities that provide opportunities to understand the issue under investigation (Stake, 2010). It should also be noted that the researcher's personal experience and knowledge affects the process of conducting the study (Shekedi, 2005). In this study, I was the primary data-gathering instrument, and the site, the participants and other data collection methods were selected so as to provide the most relevant data for an investigation into classroom interactions. Classroom observations and subsequent interviews were directly conducted by me in order to capture the most natural pieces of data and avoid missing valuable moments of interaction. In addition, this helped to establish a close relationship between me and the participants, thus facilitating the trustworthiness of the data obtained.

As Patton (2002, p. 259) argued, to understand the world 'you must become part of that world while at the same time remaining separate, a part of and a part from'. Although attempting to refrain from directly intervening in the existing world, qualitative researchers need to spend a significant length of time in the research setting with the

participants in order to gain an understanding from an insider perspective (Creswell, 2007, 2013). In this study, despite assuming the role of an overt observer and avoiding active participation in any classroom activities, it is undeniable that my presence had some impact on the teaching and learning activities. To some extent, the public knowledge about my presence in a class tended to alter the situation observed as a form of 'reactive effect' (Check & Schutt, 2012, p. 194). In addition, the fact that all the participant teachers were younger and were at a lower academic level than me signalled an inequality in power relations (Creswell, 2007; Hatch, 2002). To deal with this issue, I made clear to all participants that my role was as an observer rather than an assessor. In addition, I tried to maintain a friendly and neutral attitude throughout the process of collecting data.

During the process of collecting data, I was more involved in the study. Conducting a thorough investigation of the textbook, course guide and direct classroom observation ensured that I was embedded in the field and able to explore resources, and the teaching and learning experiences of the participants. While watching teachers conducting certain moves, overhearing students' discussions, listening to their opinions during stimulated recalls, and chatting with the participants over lunch, I shared a mutual understanding of their experiences.

3.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis involves organising the data, coding the data, developing themes which emerge from the data and representing them (Bryman, 2012; Creswell, 2013; Glesne, 2006). In this study, initial data analysis was undertaken at the same time as the study. Based on field notes, I selected important pieces of classroom interaction, which might inform further analysis for later stimulated recall sessions. Data collected from classroom observation, stimulated recall sessions and interviews were thoroughly examined to obtain answers to the research questions. The process of data analysis will be described in detail below.

3.6.1 Classroom discourse analysis.

Because the objective of the research was to investigate interactions between teachers and students in classroom settings, the most suitable method to approach the data analysis was classroom discourse analysis. The unit of analysis was the IRF sequence

with a particular focus on the follow-up move. As recommended by Costa (1992) and Pavlenko (2007), coding systems in previous literature and theories can be used as a guide for qualitative researchers. However, as the nature of qualitative research is the process of co-constructing meanings between the researcher and the participants, it is important that data analysis is not deducted only to pre-determined categories, but must take into account the codes that emerge during the research. Accordingly, the final summary of codes 'spring[s] from a priori categories that previous knowledge and experience might suggest about the topic, [but also] they respond to what the researcher actually finds in the data' (Freeman, 1996, pp.371-372).

In the present study, the coding of teacher follow-up moves was guided by the coding system proposed by Wells & Arauz (2006). According to this coding system, there are six main functional categories of teacher follow-up moves, namely: evaluation, justification, comment, action, clarification and metatalk, with another level of subcategories (p.428). In addition, there are six levels of prospectiveness realised in the position of follow-up moves, which are: acknowledge, accept, reject, give, demand and give plus (p.427). While being guided by this coding system, I kept looking for other functional categories that emerged from the data, and at the same time, I broke up follow-up moves into subcategories to enable a more detailed description of the classroom discourse. In addition, I incorporated information about the prospectiveness of each follow-up move into its functional category. In other words, in the coding system I developed, both the function and the prospective level of a move can be identified.

Some changes were made to the original coding system proposed by Wells and Arauz (2006). Instead of six levels of prospectiveness (Wells & Arauz, 2006), there were only three, namely: give, middle (give plus) and demand. From my perspective, 'acknowledge' 'accept', and 'reject' should be treated as being low prospective moves because these moves normally entailed no further discourse expansion. Regarding the functions of the follow-up moves, it was identified that there were seven major categories rather than six, namely: acknowledgement, evaluation, comment, clarification, justification, action, follow-up initiation; with a number of other moves being distributed but not significant enough to make up a major category. The 'acknowledge' move, despite being classified as belonging to the prospective level in

the original coding scheme, was placed in the functional categories because the data showed that ‘acknowledging’ fits better with a description of function rather than of prospectiveness. In addition, a new category that emerged was ‘follow-up initiation’, which represented the teacher’s reactions to situations when there were no responses from the students, or when the students’ responses were not appropriate. The category of ‘metatalk’ was not represented in the coding system.

In addition, as observed in the lessons, in a single turn, the teachers may provide a sequence of follow-up moves with different functions, such as in this example:

T	What else?	Initiation
S	Employ	Response
T	**Employ, okay** **We say another term…Recruit, okay? We have the term ‘recruit’ and ‘select’. That’s we have learnt, recruit and selection process.**	**Acceptance/repeat +Connection**

As can be seen, following the student’s response, the teacher firstly accepted the answer by repeating it, before immediately providing two synonyms of the term ‘employ’. If these two follow-up moves were coded separately, in the summary number of all the codes, it may create the incorrect impression that the teachers always provided single, independent moves in response to the students’ answers. For this reason, in situations similar to this example, follow-up moves like the above moves were coded as a combined move, consisting of an acceptance/repeat and a connection move (Acceptance/repeat + Connection). The prospective level of a combined move was coded according to the prospectiveness of the last move. This is because typically there was no wait time between the moves, so students would not have a chance to respond to the previous move, even if this previous move was a demand.

The coding of the classroom discourse was conducted using the NVivo 10 software and consisted of the following steps:

Table 2: *Steps of Coding Data*

Step	Description	Outcome
Step 1	Code the data in a NVivo 10 project, using the coding scheme of Well's as a guide but also code other moves that emerge from the data	A preliminary coding system
Step 2	Examine the data in each category Break each category into smaller sub-categories to have detailed description of each type of follow-up move Assign names to the emerging moves	A detailed coding system
Step 3	Ask for supervisor's advice on the move that are difficult to code	Amendment to the coding system
Step 4	Ask a colleague (Vietnamese PhD student at the same school) to code some parts of the data in order to ensure consistency	Amendment to the coding system
Step 5	Compare and contrast the data within and among different sub-categories to ensure consistency	Final coding system

The final coding system for teacher follow-up moves developed from this research is presented in Appendix I

3.6.2 Frequency analysis.

This study has the quality of classroom interaction as its priority and therefore, the quantity of particular types of classroom discourse is not the focus of the current research. However, it should be acknowledged that quantitative data analysis played a role in identifying the most or least significant types of follow-up moves. This assisted in providing the best reflection of classroom discourse, and played a role in identifying possible pedagogical ideologies that governed the teachers' selection of teaching techniques. For this purpose, a brief summary of all types of follow-up moves according to their functions is presented before moving to the main part of qualitative analysis. This frequency analysis presents the number of occurrences of different types of follow-up moves.

3.6.3 Qualitative analysis.

A number of classroom extracts were selected to present in the qualitative analysis of the study, and this selection was made based on the implementation of different steps. Firstly, I conducted a close examination of the data collected from classroom

observations to identify how the teachers dealt with their students' responses. Each sequence of classroom discourse was examined not only in terms of the types of follow-up moves but also for subsequent discourse from the students following those moves. At this stage, I could partly identify typical classroom patterns following particular types of follow-up moves. Secondly, the data collected from stimulated recall was thoroughly examined so as to identify the perception of the teachers and the students regarding particular moments of classroom discourse. From this, it was possible to determine the reasons behind the teachers' performance of certain moves, as well as what the students thought of such moves. The similarities or mismatches between the teachers and the students were also revealed. Thirdly, the data collected from the audio records, which were placed randomly in the class was examined to gain further information. This helped to identify possible issues that could not be identified from the classroom discourse only.

After collecting data from all three sources, I decided to select a number of extracts to represent each of the three cases. These extracts were selected on the basis that they closely reflected the normal procedure of each lesson in each classroom, and contained information relevant to the research question. As such, these extracts consisted of follow-up moves performing a variety of functions and regulating at low, middle, and high prospective levels. For extracts that required more information regarding their context, a copy of the exercise in the textbook upon which the extracts were based is presented in Appendix J.

3.6.4. Thematic analysis.

Because the second aim of the research was to investigate the perception of teachers and learners in different learning situations, thematic analysis was conducted to analyse stimulated recall sessions and interviews. Transcripts obtained from interviews and stimulated recall sessions were analysed through applied thematic analysis (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). Qualitative researchers often analyse data inductively in three steps: coding data, combining codes to form themes, and displaying and making comparison (Creswell, 2007).

In this research, for each case, I conducted thematic analysis in three steps. Firstly, the data collected from the final interviews was coded. I read through the data and used NVivo 10 to assign different codes to each interview transcript based on the words and

phrases used by the participants. This is an example of this first level of coding for two codes in the first case:

Table 3: *An Example of First Level Coding*

Code name	Reference	Phrases
Background knowledge	5	Teacher: 1/ I think my students' Vietnamese **background knowledge** is quite good. In terms of English, they are quite keen on updating information. 2/ For students **who come from a rural area**, they will find it difficult getting used to a new environment, even if they use economic terms in Vietnamese that will be a challenge, let alone English. Those **who live in Hanoi**, who have better access to facebook, media, social networks, seem to be more flexible and active. Students: 3/ Because **I just moved to the university from high school**, my background knowledge is not much. 4/ I am not used to speaking in English because **previously I only learnt grammar**. Now I have to practice speaking but I haven't practised enough. 5/ Especially, in this semester, I learnt about micro economy and **it related more to the terms that I learnt in this course.**
Participation	14	Teacher: 1/It means the students' **involvement in classroom activities**, their preparation for the class and the revision of the previous lesson. In other words, it refers to all the activities that the students must do in the class, including taking part into activities such as pair, individual or group work, preparing for the new lesson, and revising the previous lesson. 2/ The participating level **depended on the students' competence.** For example, during discussion, if the students' speaking skill or pronunciation is not good, or they are afraid of making errors, they won't contribute much. It also **depends on the students' mood, the topics of a lesson, the amount of complicated vocabulary.** When working in groups, it also depends on the leader of each group. In addition, if a student works with a very reserved student, he won't have a mood to work. 3/ (When facing with a low level of participation) **I will organize more activities for students to involve more such as games.** I will ask the students to change their seats for classroom discussion rather than remaining in one place. Students:

		4/ It means the students **are present in the class and they actively take part in the activities**. 5/ (The factors that affect my participation): **The most important thing is my mood. The second important factor is whether the teacher can attract my attention to the lesson. And the last factor is the content of a lesson**… (I don't participate if) a lesson is difficult to understand or not attracting. 6/ Participation is important because **that means I already learn 50 per cent. In addition, when I learn in the class, it is easier for me to recognize my errors and it helps me to remember more easily**.' 7/ (I won't participate) when **I am tired or sleepy**. I will response if I know the answer. 8/ (If the teacher asked a question and received no response): The teacher would **make the students pay attention to the lesson**. When there was no response that meant the students did not pay attention… Usually at the second half of a lesson that we began to feel tired. 9/ Participation means that **I am in the class at that time and I contribute to the lesson.** 10/ I **participated** when I understand the lesson and want to give my opinion. 11/ (I won't be able to participate) **when I can't find a proper word** or when **I am afraid that my idea is not correct.** 12/ When **the lesson is too difficult I often turn to my friend.** 13/ It is important because **it is when I raise my voice that I remember a term.** 14/ (If the teacher asked a question and received no response)**: The teacher would give explanation to help us understand.**

Secondly, still using NVivo 10, I compared the codes and merged all the codes which referred to the same phenomenon as a theme. This second -level coding resulted in a representation of six major themes for the first case, represented below:

Table 4: *An Example of Second Level of Coding*

Theme	Category	Number of references
Context of the follow-up moves	Background knowledge	5
	Objective of the course and lesson	7
	Difficulties	8
	Teaching approach	5
	Sociocultural factor	1
Follow-up moves as evaluation	Factors affecting	2
	Frequency	3
	What to evaluate	5
Follow-up moves as explanation of vocabulary	Most common ways to explain	4
	Most beneficial ways to explain	3
Discourse during opinion episodes	Difficulties of students	5
	What the teacher do	3
Participation	Definition	3
	Factors affecting	6
	What the teacher did	3
	Importance	2
Learning opportunities	Monologue	4
	Group work	7
	Whole class	5
	Teacher with an individual student	3
	Most beneficial	4

Lastly, I examined the stimulated recall transcripts, identified corresponding data that matched with the themes previously coded in the interviews and created new codes which were different from those previously identified in the interviews. This process was repeated for the second and the third cases.

At the end of the research, to complete the cross-case analysis, the themes and categories identified from the three cases were compared and contrasted to produce a final representation of all the cases.

3.6.5 Issues in transcription.

All of the interviews and stimulated recall sessions were conducted in Vietnamese, the mother tongue of the participants, so that they felt comfortable to express their opinions. When excerpts from interviews and recall sessions are presented in this study, they are translated by me into English. Some parts of classroom discourse were in Vietnamese rather than in English. In these cases, I include the original Vietnamese version,

followed by the English equivalent. The final transcripts of classroom discourse and interviews, therefore, were represented based on my linguistic capacity and my understanding of the context of the study. In addition, some expressions of the participants consisted of unclear or incorrect language use, but I kept the transcript as it was. These parts of the transcript are indicated with the word 'sic'.

The transcripts of classroom discourse are selected so as to best capture the influence of follow-up moves on learning opportunities, and they are numbered according to each case so that readers can easily follow each of the three cases. In each case, the transcripts were presented along with the normal class routines of each teacher. The length of each transcript was decided according to its value for understanding the relationship between teacher follow-up moves and learning opportunities. Therefore, some transcripts are longer than 20 turns. Non-verbal actions that took place during a conversation (such as the teacher writing on the board) are presented in italics. The verbal production of participants was ordered numerically (line 1, 2, 3, etc.) according to its function, as in this example:

1	Kim	The key to success…to successful leadership is influence others.	
2	T	**Ah, influence. That means you like to influence others rather than you use authority, or power to order them? Right?**	Identification
3		**And in the first semester, I think you learn about a word to talk about leaders. And do you remember the word? What is that?**	+Connection
4	Oanh	Charisma	

As can be seen, the teacher's production consists of two lines (2 and 3) in a single turn because the discourse in each line performs a function (identification and connection). Teacher follow-up moves are written in bold to highlight the focus of the script. The next two columns present the function and prospective level of each follow-up move, respectively. When there was a Vietnamese expression, an English translation was provided in brackets. Pronunciation and intonation were not indicated in the transcripts, except for cases when the participants focused on pronunciation, such as when a student made a pronunciation error and the teacher corrected it. In those cases, both the wrong and the correct pronunciation were in italics and placed between two slashes /…/. When

the teacher asked students to repeat an answer because this answer was too soft to be audible, this was not represented as a follow-up move.

The transcript convention is presented in the following table:

Table 5: *Transcript Convention*

Italic letter	Non-verbal interaction
Bold letter	Teacher follow-up move
(…)	English translation of previous Vietnamese verbal production
/…./	Pronunciation
***	Unclear speech, each * represent a syllable
=	Overlapping speech between participants

3.7 Trustworthiness of the Findings

The quality of a qualitative research is represented by the criterion of trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, the trustworthiness of the findings was established by addressing the criteria of credibility, transferability, and member checking.

Credibility: According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), credibility can be established by prolonged engagement with a study. In this study, I regularly attended each class during a whole semester (15 weeks). This helped establish trust with the participants, and helped me to deal with any possible misunderstandings that occurred (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). For each class, I observed four lessons, ranging from week four to week 14 of the semester and conducted four stimulated recall sessions, two with students and two with their teacher. After the stimulated recall sessions, I often invited the students and the teacher to have lunch and conducted further chats to get more information about their learning and teaching experiences. In a summary, I spent sufficient time with the classes so as to make the students familiar with my presence, thus making them feel at ease and able to act naturally despite my presence in the class.

Transferability: Transferability refers to the possibility of generalising the findings of a qualitative study to other situations (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Because this research is a case study, which emphasised the rich, contextualised understanding of particular classroom phenomena, transferability can be achieved by the provision of rich data. In order to obtain a holistic and realistic picture of the phenomenon I examined, I

employed several methods to collect data, which enriched my understanding of multiple realities present in the study (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2009). Observations, interviews, and stimulated recalls were used to uncover multiple aspects of the same research issue. As a result, single pieces of classroom discourse were examined from different data sources, enabling me to understand the issue from a variety of perspectives. Accordingly, the findings of this research can, to some extent, inform other research in similar fields of classroom discourse, and in similar tertiary contexts, especially in language and content integrated learning.

Member checking: After transcribing the data, I sent all interview transcripts back to the participants so that they could examine what they had said. This was done in order to minimise any mismatches in the researcher's interpretation of the participants' opinions (Stake, 1995). All the participants agreed with my transcriptions.

3.8 Summary

This chapter has provided a description of the research design and methods used in this study. The study examined the relationship between teacher follow-up moves and their impact on the creation of learning opportunities for students. It employed a multi-case study design to investigate this relationship in the context of three business English classes in Vietnam. Classroom observations, which were audio and video recorded, combined with field notes, provided a description of how classroom discourse affected potentials for student learning. The data gathered from stimulated recall sessions and final interviews shed light on the perceptions of the stakeholders regarding situations that they thought helped students concept and language learning the most. The findings of each case are presented in the next chapters.

INTRODUCTION TO FINDING CHAPTERS

The following section presents the findings of this study. Each of the three cases was presented in one chapter, making up three finding chapters from chapter four to chapter six. Each chapter commences with a brief introduction of each case, including information about the teacher and the students, as well as general classroom procedures. This aims to provide an overview of the case to provide readers with information about the participants and the context concerning the collected data. This section is followed by a frequency analysis, presenting the number and percentage of each type of teacher follow-up move. This assists to identify the functions and prospectiveness levels that were most and least distributed. This is followed by the main focus of the study – the qualitative analysis of the data, which includes a number of extracts presented according to their general order of appearance in a lesson. For example, in the first case (chapter four), a general classroom sequence is: lead-in, vocabulary checking episodes and opinion episodes; thus from each phase some extracts were selected. The extracts were selected based on the frequency of their use and their appropriateness in providing insights into the relationship between teacher follow-up moves and learning affordances. Moreover, additional data collected from stimulated recalls and classroom discussion was also presented for these extracts when necessary to provide a clearer understanding of what and how those extracts were perceived or understood by participants. Each case was concluded with a summary of participants' perceptions regarding this relationship.

Chapter Four: Case 1

4.1 Introduction to the Case

4.1.1 The teacher and the students.

Binh is a 28-year-old female teacher. She has been working as a teacher at this university for five years, with 2.5 years teaching business English courses. Binh has a Master of Business Administration (MBA – obtained from a joint cooperation program between a Vietnamese and an Australian university) and is working towards another master's degree in linguistics (provided in Vietnam).

Regarding the business English course, Binh stated that the course's objectives were to provide students with specific background knowledge about business English, and to develop the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. From her experience in teaching this course, Binh noted that a number of students encountered difficulties in learning the course material. First of all, her students reported that the business world was a complex one, and obtaining knowledge about that in their mother tongue (i.e., Vietnamese) was already difficult, and it was even harder to achieve in English. In addition, because business English and language skills were integrated, the students found the lessons complicated. Lastly, according to Binh, her students found that business terms were difficult to learn. When teaching the business English courses, Binh said that she preferred the Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT). She claimed that she often asked her students to discuss a topic, or to engage in conversations based on a given situation, though sometimes she '*applied the translation method*' for difficult terms. In her class, Binh indicated that she often tried to provide speaking opportunities for every student by dividing language tasks equally among students and inviting individuals to interact with her.

In the class being studied, there were 26 female and 3 male students, all of whom are above 18 years of age. The majority of students came from rural areas and some from more remote countryside. Although placed in the same class, as observed, the student's language competence varied considerably. Some were good speakers of English, as demonstrated by their adequate pronunciation, intelligibility, few linguistic errors and level of fluency. These were the ones coming from urban areas or learned English in specialized secondary schools. However, some students did not appear to have a good

command of English. These were those who did not focus on learning English or attend extra English lessons when they were at secondary school. They passed the university exam because of a high mark in maths or literature, not English. Generally, although not all the students were interested in participating in classroom conversation with the teachers, they had a positive attitude towards learning and tended to pay attention and follow the teacher's instructions.

4.1.2 General classroom procedures.

Generally, Binh followed the same procedure for all of the observed lessons. The lessons often commenced with a vocabulary checking period during which Binh organised activities to check the vocabulary that her students had learnt in the previous lesson. These activities were often conducted as group work, requiring groups of students to work out the answers. For example, in one of these episodes, students were required to work in groups and take turns to go to the board and list all the words associated with advertising ('Advertisement' was the theme of the previous week). Binh often did not interfere in the group work, but occasionally made comments on the students' final answers.

After homework checking, around thirty minutes would be devoted to students' presentations of the previous lesson's theme. The students presented in groups of four or five, during which Binh would sit silently and make notes. At the end of each presentation, Binh often asked the students for any comments and then provided her own comments based on what she had noted. Her comments mostly related to presentation skills, the development of ideas, and pronunciation mistakes. Binh presented her comments mostly in the form of monologues with little contribution from the students.

The rest of the class time would be devoted to the theme that was to be learnt in that week, commencing with Binh's lead-in of asking students to brainstorm vocabulary related to the topic areas. After that, Binh tended to follow closely the sequence of activities in the textbook, with vocabulary and discussion tasks. Binh often allowed her students some preparation time (up to five minutes) to complete the vocabulary exercises in pairs or individually before checking them. Typical checking episodes involved a number of students individually selected by the teacher reading their answers to specific vocabulary exercises in the textbook. Sometimes, for discussion tasks, Binh

would divide her students into groups of four or five and assign them different topics for discussion. During this discussion time, Binh moved around the class, listened to the students' discussions, and provided comments or suggestions. After that, she selected students as representatives from their groups to stand up and report their group's opinion about the topic assigned. Binh often acknowledged the ideas presented by different groups and occasionally added some comments.

After completing vocabulary and discussion tasks, the class would move to listening comprehension exercises during which students listened to conversations or speeches on a CD and completed exercises in the textbook. Normally, the listening tasks were so difficult that most students failed to complete the exercises after their first listening. Binh often allowed the students to listen to the CD twice or three times, and paused the CD at certain points so that the students could catch enough information to complete the listening exercises. Thus, there was little communicative interaction between her and the class during these exercises. The last slot of time in a lesson was often dedicated to practising skills such as how to make an appointment, and how to conduct a presentation. These activities were often conducted in pairs or groups, with little involvement of the teacher.

To serve the purpose of this study, the data used in this research focuses on the teacher's interaction with the whole class during vocabulary episodes, and during the time when the teacher asked her students for opinions on an issue. The following section provides both frequency analysis and qualitative analysis of Binh's follow-up moves.

4.2 Frequency Analysis

Binh's follow-up moves were distributed singly, or in combination with one or a number of other moves. Therefore, they are presented in two tables. Table 4.1 represents all the single moves and their level of prospectiveness; and table 4.2 presents all the combined moves, with the level of prospectiveness determined by the last move's prospective level.

Table 4.1

Distribution of Single Follow-up Moves – Case 1

Category	Sub-category	Number	Percentage	Prospective level (%)		
				Low	Mid	High
Acknowledgement		**5**	**2**	**2**	**0**	**0**
Evaluation	Acceptance/repeat	104	34			
	Reformulation	19	6			
	Others	40	13			
	Total	**163**	**54**	**50**	**0**	**4**
Comment	Connection	21	7			
	Meaning	14	5			
	Others	19	6			
	Total	**54**	**18**	**10**	**0**	**8**
Clarification	Identification	49	16			
	Confirmation	5	2			
	Repetition	1	0			
	Total	**55**	**18**	**0**	**0**	**18**
Justification	Request for justification	**5**	**2**	**0**	**0**	**2**
Follow-up initiation	Prompt	7	2			
	Reformulation	5	2			
	Total	**12**	**4**	**0**	**2**	**2**
Other		**9**	**3**	**3**	**0**	**0**
TOTAL		**303**	**100**	**65**	**2**	**34**

Table 4.2

Distribution of Combined Follow-up Moves – Case 1

Category	Sub-category	Number	Percentage	Prospective level (%)		
				Low	Mid	High
Evaluation -Comment	Acceptance/ repetition+ connection	11	15			
	Acceptance/repeat+ amplification	7	10			
	Acceptance/repeat+ Others	14	19			
	Others	12	16			
	Total	**44**	**60**	**48**	**0**	**12**
Evaluation-Evaluation		**7**	**10**	**9**	**0**	**0**
Evaluation-Other(s) than comment and evaluation		**12**	**16**	**7**	**4**	**5**
Others		**10**	**14**	**7**	**0**	**7**
TOTAL		**73**	**100**	**71**	**4**	**24**

As can be seen from Tables 4.1 and 4.2, single follow-up moves were distributed almost four times as often as combined moves, at approximately 80 per cent (303 moves) as opposed to nearly 20 per cent (73 moves) respectively. The majority of Binh's follow-

up moves were at a low level of prospectiveness, standing at around 65 per cent for single moves and over 70 per cent for combined moves, with high prospective moves at around 35 and 25 per cent respectively.

Among the single moves, evaluation moves were dominant at over 50 per cent, followed by clarification and comment at nearly 20 per cent each. Of all the sub-categories, acceptance/repeat (teacher indicating acceptance of students' answer by repeating it) was so frequently distributed that it alone constituted around 35 per cent of all the moves. Classroom observation showed that these acceptance/repeat moves were distributed exclusively during vocabulary checking episodes, in which the teacher asked her students to report their answers to vocabulary exercises. It seemed that for the majority of the time, Binh's students provided a correct answer, and Binh indicated her acceptance of the answer by repeating it. Apart from that, Binh sometimes asked identification questions in order to determine what her students were referring to. This action typically took place when Binh asked her students for opinions about a topic and wanted to know if she was on the right track with her students. Half of the single follow-up moves were low prospective evaluation moves (50 per cent), whereas most of the high prospective moves performed a clarification function (18 per cent). From this, it can be seen that for approximately two-thirds of the time, in response to students' answers, Binh would not seek additional information but rather accepted the answer or provided information herself. Students, therefore, were not required to give any justification to support their answers. For a third of the time, when Binh did not catch what her students were saying, she would ask them to clarify their ideas.

Regarding the combined follow-up moves, the most popular combination was that of evaluation with another function. Evaluation-comment is singled out as the dominant combination, accounting for 60 per cent of all combinations, followed by evaluation combined with moves other than comment (16 per cent). Approximately 50 per cent of all combined moves were combinations of an acceptance/repeat and another move. This demonstrated that Binh's common practice in combined moves was that she would firstly accept the students' answer, before extending the discourse, for example by connecting to another related issue, or by asking for the meaning of a term. Sometimes Binh acknowledged what her students had proposed and then provided comments. The prospective level of the combined follow-up moves was distributed similarly to that of

single moves, with approximately 70 and nearly 25 per cent of the moves classified as high prospectiveness and low prospectiveness respectively, leaving around five per cent of the moves at a middle prospective level. This demonstrated that upon receiving her students' responses, Binh often accepted or acknowledged them and then provided further information herself.

While frequency analysis provides evidence of move distribution, qualitative analysis allows a more thorough investigation into the context in which teacher follow-up moves were generated. Examining the moves which preceded and followed each follow-up move, combined with data retrieved from the audio-video record, classroom observations and stimulated recall sessions, permitted a more substantial understanding of what was going on during each interactional moment.

4.3 Qualitative Analysis

As can be seen from different classroom activities, teacher follow-up moves that were aimed at seeking genuine communicative purposes were mostly distributed during brainstorming activities to lead-in a new theme, vocabulary checking, and student presentations of their opinions on a specific topic.

4.3.1 Lead-in.

Binh often utilised brainstorming as a lead-in activity to a new lesson. Typically, she would ask her students to suggest ideas or vocabulary associated with the theme of the lesson. Below is an extract in which Binh makes use of low and high prospective moves in response to what her students have nominated.

Extract 4.1

The theme of the lesson is 'Human resource management'. Binh is asking her students to think of any words related to it.

1	T	So when I mention the word human resource, resources, any words, or any terms, or anything you can bare in your mind from this word?		
Most students open their books.				
2	T	Don't open the book. Don't open the book. Just any word that you can think of.		
3	Ngoc	Personnel.		
T writes 'personnel' on the board.				
4	T	**Personnel**	Acceptance /repeat	Low
5		What else?		

Students confer quietly with each other.				
6	T	**Personnel, personnel. You know the word 'personnel'?**	Meaning	High
7	Ss	Yes. Staff		
8	T	**Yes, it's a kind of…it is… Yes, someone says 'staff', right?**	Acceptance /repeat	Low
9		Any other words related to human resource management?		
10	Lan	Employee, employee.		
T writes 'employee' on the board.				
11	T	**I have a quiz for you. Where is the stress of this word? Where's the stress?**	Connection	High
12	Ss	/ iː/		
13	T	**The word, this word? No…**	Rejection	Low
T underlines 'loy' on the board.				
14	T	**Yeah, this one. Employee** /ɪmˈplɔɪ.iː/, **employee** /ɪmˈplɔɪ.iː/	Correction	Low
Students repeat quietly /ɪmˈplɔɪ.iː/				
15		You know, yeah, that the common rule is that for the ee_ending, right? The ending in the word, so the stress is also on this *(pointing to 'ee')* . But it is the exception, employee /**ɪmˈplɔɪ.i**ː/	Connection	Low
16	Ss	Employee /ɪmˈplɔɪ.iː/		
17	T	And the next one		
18	Ss	Recruitment…recruitment		
19	T	**You mean this word?**	Identification	High
T writes 'recruitment' on the board.				
20	T	**Recruitment, is it? What does this mean?**	Meaning	High
21	Ss	Tuyển dụng, tuyển dụng (recruitment, recruitment)		
22	T	**No, English, please**	Translation	High
23	Anh	Ah…ah…the advantage…where people keep their CV…eh…		
24	Ss	Apply…interview…		
25	T	**Apply? Interview, interview, apply…people…**	Identification	High
26	Bac	For a job.		
27	T	**For a job? Interview, apply people for a job?**	Identification	High
Students keep silent.				
28	T	No.	Rejection	Low
29		**So… recruitment, do you know any phrasal verb about this? You know the word 'take on'? Or employ somebody. If it is the verb: 'recruit somebody', and then you have 'take on somebody', 'employ somebody', right?**	+Connection	
T writes 'take on', 'employ somebody' on the board.				
30	T	**So the recruitment here means that you…you…employ somebody. Recruit somebody means that you employ somebody into your company to work.**	Meaning	Low

In Extract 4.1, the teacher asks her students to propose any words that are associated with human resource management. Upon receiving the first answer, she accepts it and asks if the class know the word; and when she receives a positive response (line 7), she accepts a student's proposal of a synonym ('staff') for the word (line 8). The next word ('employee') receives the teacher's attention in terms of its pronunciation. Realising that most of her students do not know the position of the word's stress, the teacher corrects it (line 14) and refers to a common rules which do not apply to this specific word (line 15). For the word 'recruitment', although the students manage to propose the correct Vietnamese translation of the word (line 21), the teacher insists on the English explanation of the word, only to receive no appropriate answers from the students. She then connects the word to a phrasal verb ('take on') before explaining the meaning of the word in English.

It was clear that the teacher utilised different follow-up moves to deal with each response from her students, which led to different recognition of learning affordances. Regarding the first suggestion from Ngoc (line 3), the teacher's first move was at a low level of prospectiveness, indicating a simple acceptance. Her next move was at a high prospective level, requiring the students to respond. This follow-up move ('You know the word 'personnel?') could be argued to have potentially opened up an opportunity for students to demonstrate their knowledge, following which, the students give a confirmation 'Yes'. One of the student quietly suggested 'staff', which was inaudible for the majority of other students. This seemed to be an appropriate initiation for the teacher to continue asking them clarification questions such as 'So what does it mean?' Nevertheless, the teacher did not continue but instead only repeated the word 'staff' and called for other suggestion. It appeared that the teacher was satisfied at the point that students found a synonym of the word 'personnel'.

Upon receiving Lan's suggestion of 'employee', the teacher decided to ask her students for its pronunciation. This pivot move (line 11) was an extension of what Lan had proposed, and opened up another language issue. In a later stimulated recall session, the teacher explained that her action came from her intention to provide the students with knowledge about an exception to a pronunciation rule. According to this rule, when a noun ends in 'ee', the stress will fall on the last syllable. Thus, the students' incorrect response (line 12) was expected by the teacher, and she took this opportunity to explain

this word was an exception to the common rule. Following this, her students pronounced ‘employee’ correctly (line 16). Some of the students, in another stimulated recall session, acknowledged that if the teacher had not presented the pronunciation of the word to them, they would have assumed that the word’s stress was on the last syllable, according to a rule that they were taught during English lessons before entering university. Therefore, it could be argued that it was the teacher’s pivot move that opened up an opportunity for students to demonstrate their inadequate knowledge, laying the foundation for the teacher to provide more appropriate language instruction, thanks to which her students managed to learn the correct pronunciation of a particular word.

The third suggestion from the students prompted the teacher to primarily distribute high prospective follow-up moves. Despite the fact that her students had already managed to offer the correct Vietnamese equivalent to ‘recruitment’, the teacher asked for explanation in English. Bac suggested ‘apply’, ‘interview’, and in response to the identification request from the teacher, changed to a more well-formed phrase ‘interview people for a job’. His suggestion seemed to be quite relevant because ‘interviewing’ is one of the first phases in a company’s recruitment process. Nevertheless, the teacher did not accept this. She gave a clear negative statement ‘No’ before offering ‘take on’ or ‘employ’ as a substitute for ‘recruit’. The teacher may have assumed the phrasal verb ‘take on’ was more familiar to her students, and therefore she mentioned it before directly presenting the meaning of ‘recruitment’. If the teacher had stopped at the point of receiving the correct Vietnamese equivalent to the term in question, there would have been little chance for students to use the target language to clarify an issue.

The teacher’s provision of follow-up moves in the above three examples indicates that high prospective moves tend to generate opportunities for overt participation from the students, from which inadequate knowledge or understanding can be identified, leading to appropriate contingent response from the teacher.

4.3.2 Vocabulary checking episodes.

About half of each lesson was devoted to vocabulary exercises. Typically, Binh gave her students some time (approximately five minutes) to work individually, in pairs or in groups to complete the vocabulary exercises and then asked individual students to

report their answers. During these checking episodes, Binh distributed a large number of follow-up moves, mostly at a low prospective level. The most common move was that of acceptance in the form of a repetition either as a single move or combined with another move.

In her acceptance/repeat move, Binh repeated what a student said and this appeared to be a signal of confirmation. She often moved from one item to another, and asked the students what the answer was. In most cases, the students' answers were correct; and when this occurred, Binh moved to the next item. One could conclude that perhaps she didn't consider it necessary to check if the students really had sufficient knowledge of all of those business terms. As for the students, the data shows that during the vocabulary checking episodes, they rarely had any questions regarding why an answer was correct, or not. This may be explainable by referring to the course guide that indicates that students are required to complete these exercises at home, and thus, they might have previously checked the meanings of the terms in the dictionary, or on the internet. In short, the overall impression gained during vocabulary checking episodes was that the teacher took for granted that the students had the correct answers, and the students also took for granted that when the teacher accepted the answers there was no further need to provide additional clarification of the terms.

In terms of prospectiveness, the acceptance moves indicates that there is no requirement for further discourse. When the teacher accepted a student' answers, the students assumed that she had closed the sequence, thus leaving no ground for further discourse. When the teacher regularly accepted students' correct responses in this way, the students accept this practice by not challenging it. To some extent, it could be argued that learning opportunities have been both provided and taken up. Based on the teacher's acceptance, the student directly interacting with the teacher, and all other students are exposed to the correct answers. In the event that their answers are different, students may only need to change their own answers, without putting their hands up and questioning why their answers were not accepted. By engaging in this process, students also demonstrate acceptance of the teacher's acceptance response. The dominance of acceptance as a follow-up move, and the smooth pattern of vocabulary checking episodes, might be seen as an indication of students' having sufficient knowledge. Therefore, the acceptance move arguably operates as an indirect learning opportunity

and might be considered an adequate indication that the students had learned what they are supposed to learn. However, the data indicated that this was not always the case. Bellow are some examples of these acceptance moves.

Extract 4.2 (Textbook – page 37)

The students are asked to match 11 different departments of an organisation to 11 activities that they perform. After the students work in groups of three or four, the teacher moves to the front of the class and checks what they did. The following conversation takes place after the teacher completes checking the first five items.

1	T	Can you, the next one? 'Finance'		
2	Hue	*(reads from the book)* 'Where they prepare budgets and accounts.'		
3	T	*(reads from the book)* **Where they prepare the budgets or, and or or accounts.**	Acceptance/repeat	Low
4	T	'Administration'?		
5	Lan	In administration, *(reads from the book)* 'people keep records /rɪkɔːd/.'		
6	T	'Administration'? Keep?		
7	Lan	'People keep records /rɪkɔːd/.'		
8	T	**Records** /ˈrɛkɔːd/**, keep records** /ˈrɛkɔːd/**, ah ha.**	Pronunciation recast	Low
9		'Legal', number 8, can you?		
10	Mai	Eh…eh…*(mumbles for 9 seconds)* draw up contracts.		
11	T	**Draw up…draw up contracts.**	Acceptance/repeat	
12		**Yes, legal. In Vietnamese we say eh…gọi là…tư pháp, đúng không? Phòng tư pháp.** (It is called… legal, right? Legal department)**. Always draw contracts and some…eh…how to say…eh…they… they know how to write eh down the contract to the other…to the customers or to the other companies, to the partnership.**	+ Translation + Amplification	Low

As can be seen, for the first department, Hue provides the correct answer by reading what is in the book, and the teacher repeats it as a confirmation that this is correct. The same pattern is repeated for the next two items, but for 'administration', the teacher corrects Lan's mispronunciation of the word 'record', and for 'legal' the teacher provides some extra information on how that department works. In all three instances, the students in the class do not make any extra comments or express any ideas. After the teacher repeats the three answers, they remain silent and the conversation continues via the teacher's initiation of the next item.

The teacher's move to the next items implied that the students all had sufficient knowledge, and therefore, no more discussion was required. Nevertheless, data collected from previous discussions among students in two random groups (where the audio recorder was located) revealed another picture. In fact, in one group, the students had only finished discussing the first five items, and did not mention anything about the later items. When the teacher corrected the exercise, these students still had no answer to the three items in the conversation above. In a second group, the students' answers were different. After a thorough discussion, the four students in this second group had agreed that 'Legal department' went with 'keep records' and 'Administration department' should be matched with 'draw up contract'. One student even checked the meaning of the word 'record' and thought the task of the legal department was to 'keep legal documents' and that hence, 'records' meant 'legal documents'. Other students also paid attention to the word 'record' and gave examples of some phrases with 'record' that they could find, including 'hold the record', 'break a record', 'record output', all of which referred to 'record' as an unsurpassed achievement.

When correcting these three items of this vocabulary exercise, it appeared that the teacher interacted with students of other groups rather than the two groups discussed above. Therefore, the teacher received satisfactory answers, presumably because the other students had performed better on the task. Members of the group that had not yet dealt with the last three items had no comments on the answers of their peers and the acceptance of the teacher. However, for the second group, the students said to each other that their previous answers were not correct. It seemed that they were a bit surprised that the final answers were different from what they had worked out. However, they did not say anything.

The data obtained from these discussions among the students highlighted the necessity of having a second examination of the interaction that took place in Extract 4.2, and that the students' silence did not indicate their proficiency or agreement. It seemed that in order to be able to identify which department was to match with which activity, a number of terms needed to be clarified. In the case of the last two vocabulary items, it was necessary to understand what 'records' and 'contracts' meant in the context of a business organisation. The fact that the teacher only accepted the answer of one individual student without requesting an explanation of his/her choice, to some extent,

deprived other students of the opportunity to gain a clear understanding of what those business terms meant. Had the teacher persisted in requiring the students to justify their answers, affordances for learning might have emerged. In brief, low prospective follow-up moves may lead to learning opportunities regulated at a non-verbal level, but this is not likely to be an indication that learning opportunities have been taken up.

Apart from acceptance, Binh occasionally provided comments on what her students responded. Most of these comments were low prospective and were distributed in combination with a preceding evaluation move. The most frequent comment moves were connection, exemplification and amplification. Below are examples of these moves.

Extract 4.3 (Textbook - page 37)

The students work in pairs or groups to identify activities performed by 11 departments in an organisation. When the students start doing the task, the teacher suggests that there is an exercise in which all the activities have been provided and students can look at them for reference. After that, the teacher moves to the front of the class and checks what they did.

1	T	R&D?		
2	Hue	I think in R&D people will research and find, find out the solution to…er the best way to develop another product.		
3	T	**Uhm, you mean in R&D people will?**	Identification	High
4	Hue	Research and develop [In the textbook the activity is 'research and develop new products.]		
5	T	**Research and develop.**	Acceptance/ repeat	
6		**But develop the new products, not develop the best products, right? Develop the new products.**	+Connection	
7		**For example, Apple. You have iPhone3. So in R&D, people will have to make…make market research, and after that they will design the new model, yeah. New trend, right? ...of the product, for iPhone 4, or iPhone 5, iPhone 6. So that is the R& D department will do.**	+Exemplification	Low
8	T	Next one, customer services? Can you? Customer services?		
9	Ha	Taking care of the customers [In the textbook the activity is 'deal with complaints'.]		
10	T	**Ah, taking… They have to take care of customers.**	Acceptance/ repeat	
11		**Eh…receive the complaints, and the…how to say… any comments and feedbacks from the customers, and then they will inform the head…head office, and then have**	+Amplification	Low

		some…how to say…some change in the department.		
12		And the next one? Human resources?		
13	Ly	They train the staff of a company [In the textbook the activity is 'train staff']		
14	T	**Ah, they train the staff of a company.**	Acceptance/repeat	
15		**For example, when you go to the bank to work. For example, you have graduated from the University of Languages and International Studies, and you apply for a job in a bank, for example, Viettin bank. And then they will have the human resource management department. They will have to train you to become…how to say…the more professional employee to work in a bank, because your major is international business, not banking and finance, right?**	+Exemplification	Low

In this conversation, all three students give correct answers. They are able to match each department with the appropriate activity. The teacher accepts those answers and explains the appropriate activities by giving examples or further clarification. Although it is the students' responsibility to give answers, they are not required to give explanations or give examples of any of the activities they have proposed.

To some extent, it could be argued that the students had a chance to learn from what the teacher said. At least, when the teacher provided further explanations or examples, it might become clearer to the students why those answers were appropriate. Nevertheless, when the teacher assigned the task of explaining the terms to herself, the students lost the opportunity to give an explanation in the first place. If the teacher had requested students to provide some extra information for example by giving examples of those activities, they would have had more opportunities to demonstrate what they had (and had not) known about those activities, which could possibly have justified their answers.

In addition, by simply indicating her acceptance of her students' answers by repeating what was proposed, it could be argued that the teacher did not increase the students' opportunities to gain access to more language production other than their own. Hue (line 2) first attempted to answer the question using her own words rather than what was presented in the textbook as an illustration. However, when the teacher sought clarification (line 3), Hue switched to reading what was presented in the textbook. This could be interpreted as a *playing it safe* action – an action in which the student quotes

information in the book rather than trying to reformulate that information. It was the teacher who consistently referred to the textbook for the activities. When Ha suggested an answer (‘taking care of customers’) – that was different to the one in the textbook (‘deals with complaints’), the teacher referred back to the textbook when explaining the option (line 11). She appeared to encourage her students to repeat the information in the book rather than use language of their own.

It also seemed that the teacher favoured simple and short answers from the students rather than giving them opportunities to build their own ideas. One could argue that in the case of second language learning, this phenomenon might be problematic because it does not help students build up their language resources. In fact, a previous record of a group of students showed that they had various ideas regarding the activities of a department. For example, they thought that ‘customer services’ related to ‘guarantee policy’, and ‘after service program’; and they proposed the word ‘complanation’ as a nominalisation of ‘complain’ (which was an error). However, it was clear that these words were not made known to the teacher or other peers in the class. In other words, the students had no opportunity to exercise their ownership or authority over the language they were trying to master.

Although in most of the cases, Binh’s students managed to propose correct answers, they occasionally suggested wrong ones. In those cases, Binh often proposed the correct answer and sometimes would provide extra information. Below are two extracts which demonstrate how Binh dealt with students’ incorrect responses. In both of them, the majority of follow-up moves are at a low level of prospectiveness.

Extract 4.4 (Textbook – page 74)

This vocabulary exercise requires the students to match ten types of people with ten qualities. After allowing the students three minutes to do the exercise, Binh starts checking their answers in a whole-class setting.

1	T	So, can you check number one?		
2	Ss	G		
3	T	G, G.	Acceptance/repeat	Low
4		Two?		
5	Lan	D		
6	T	Two?		
7	Lan	D		
8	Ss	E		
9	T	**Two?**	Repetition	Low

10	Ss	E, I		
11	T	**I, yeah.**	Acceptance/selection	Low
12		Three?		
13	Ss	C, H		
14	T	**H, no.**	Rejection	Low
15	Ss	C, F		
16	T	**F, That's true. F.**	Acceptance/selection	Low
17		Four?		
18	Ss	J		
19	T	**J**	Acceptance/repeat	Low
20		Five?		
21	Ss	E, J		
22	T	**E.**	Acceptance/repeat	Low
23		Six?		
24	Ss	**A**		
25	T	**A.**	Acceptance/repeat	Low
26		Seven?		
27	Ss	H.		
28	T	**H? No.**	Rejection	Low
29		**Seven is C.**	+Correction	Low
30	Ss	C?		
31	T	**When you have a member who can do everything smoothly and * it in time and on time, alright?** [In the book, the description is 'is concerned with details and getting things right even if it takes time']	Amplification	Low

It can be seen from the extract that among the seven items in total, there are only three items which get an immediate correct answer from the students (items 1, 4, and 6) and Binh quickly accepts their answers (lines 3, 19, 25). For items 2 and 3, there are various answers from the students regarding which adjectives best described a type of person. For a person who 'is respected and listened to by others', three adjectives are proposed by the students: 'D' (reliable), 'E' (ambitious) and 'I' (authoritative) (lines 7, 8, 10). At first, when Lan suggests 'D', the teacher does not provide any comment but repeats 'Two?', prompting other students to propose E and I. The teacher then accepts I (line 11) and moves on. This pattern is repeated for the next item, when the teacher rejects 'H' (line 14); ignores 'C', despite the fact that 'C' is stated twice by the students (lines 13, 15); and takes 'F' as the correct answer (line 16). For item number seven ('A person who is concerned with details and getting things right even if it takes time'), the answer proposed by the students is H (analytical). The teacher rejects it ('No') and corrects it:

‘Seven is C.’ (C refers to ‘methodical’). In response to her students’ clarification request ‘C?’ the teacher explains the meaning of this item (line 31), and this explanation is not more detailed than what is presented in the textbook.

In this episode, the teacher followed a similar pattern in responding to her students’ answers. If an answer was correct, she would accept it without question. If there were several answers, she would only accept the correct one by repeating it and ignore other options. For the last item, the teacher rejected the incorrect answer, proposed the correct one and gave some explanation, although this was not clearer than the definition in the textbook. In all of these situations, her follow-up moves were of a low prospective level, and thus did not encourage her students to extend any discourse. The overall impression was that this checking activity was conducted smoothly, and the students accepted the teacher’s acceptance easily, despite the last item when the students indicated their surprise at the suggestion of the teacher.

In terms of learning opportunities, there are certain issues regarding this pattern of interaction. It seemed that the teacher was not concerned about the need for either the students or herself to explain why an answer was appropriate or not, except for item 7 when she gave a slight reformulation of the book’s definition. Consequently, the students only learned that specific descriptions matched with certain adjectives, without necessarily knowing why. In other words, they seemed to have to learn by heart rather than being given any reasons. In a previous record of a group of students, they suggested that the answer for number 2 is I and the answer to number 7 is H. When the teacher confirmed different answers to the above numbers, they asked each other: ‘*Is it really I*?’, ‘*Is it H*?’ but did so without raising their voices to ask the teacher. Thus the teacher did not have any chance to get to know if there was a problem in understanding among these students.

To be fair, this exercise was in the form of matching words with their definitions, which may have limited the opportunity for providing further instruction. However, the teacher may have asked her students to give an example to illustrate each description to make it clearer. In particular, in the case of students suggesting different ideas, there could have been more detailed explanations but the teacher selected only one option to be the correct answer. For example, students might still not have had a clear understanding why ‘able to see different points of view’ means ‘objective’ but not ‘methodical’ or

‘analytical’. If all the students gain from the teacher is confirmation without any explanation, they may be able to access the same information themselves by looking at a dictionary without going to the class. Thus, the ultimate concern is a lack of learning affordances, generated by the teacher’s continuous provision of acceptance and rejection at a low prospective level.

The following extract represents how Binh provided information to her students through low prospective comment moves. However, whether the students learned from it is questionable.

Extract 4.5

In this conversation, the students are asked to classify ‘dumping’ as belonging to either ‘open markets’ or ‘protected markets’.

1	T	Dumping?		
2	Ss	Open, open		
3	T	**Is it open?**	Clarification request	
4	T	**When you joined the WTO, you have to follow the regulations, to reduce the price of a lot of products.**	+Prompt	
5		**That’s the reason why the price of car industry, the price of car, you know, automobile in Vietnam, decreases. We have to also decrease the tax, decrease the tariff, alright? For the car, when we join the WTO. So it must be controlled, alright? And regulated by the government.**	+ Exemplification	Low
6		**So dumping belongs to the protected market because the government, right, control the price of the products, right.**	Correction	
7		**It is not the market control the price. We have to follow the regulations of the government, follow the regulations of the World Trade Organisation. And that’s the reason it is not the open market. It belongs to protected market.**	+ Amplification	Low

In this conversation, upon receiving an incorrect answer from her students, Binh makes a clarification request but then quickly provides exemplification and amplification. According to Binh, ‘dumping’ only occurs in a ‘protected market’.

As can be seen, in dealing with ‘dumping’, the teacher provided some background knowledge for her students, giving an example of a car’s price being reduced since

Vietnam joined the World Trade Organisation. After that, she explained why 'dumping' does not belong to 'open market'. The teacher's clarification request (line 3) was a high prospective move in terms of its function (seeking a response from students) but in this case it did not appropriately perform this function because it was immediately followed by a number of low prospective moves with almost no wait time for students to answer. The teacher did not attempt to ask her students to explain why they put 'dumping' in 'open markets'. Instead, she corrected their answer and gave an explanation. This arguably did not generate any overt participation opportunities for her students.

A later stimulated recall session showed that all four students who participated in this session were not sure why 'dumping' was classified as occurring only in 'protected markets'. Quyen said that before the teacher gave her explanation, the word 'dumping' reminded her of a previous incident in the Vietnamese export history, when a number of Vietnamese companies which exported catfish to the United States were accused of dumping. She said,

> '*I remember the case happened after Vietnam joined the WTO, and it was in a foreign country. At that time, I was wondering…Because it took place in a foreign country, it must belong to open market, not protected market*.'

During the time the teacher gave the explanation, Quyen did not pay attention, and she did not really understand what the teacher said. Quan, another student who was usually active in the class, confessed,

> '*Actually I did not understand [what the teacher explained]. What is the relation between 'control' and 'dumping'? If the government can control dumping, it will not happen*.'

When I checked on this second occasion, even after all of the four students had listened a second time to what their teacher explained in the stimulated recall session, they were still not totally convinced that dumping belonged to a protected market. One of the reasons that the students gave for their uncertainty was that they all thought dumping was conducted by individual companies rather than by the government, and to them, only what is under the government control should be classified as belonging to a protected market.

Perhaps because of this uncertainty, in the later phase of the class, when the teacher suggested dumping as a means to improve exports, a number of students, including Quan, did not agree:

T	And then you have the quota and so you need to have the dumping, dumping. Do you need dumping for the rice?
Ss	Yes
	No
T	No? No? If you want to export more products, do you need dumping?
Ss	No.
T	No? Dumping means that you export the lower price than the normal. So that's the reason why you can export a lot of products.
Quan	Er…The other countries will sue us of unfair compare. [He might mean competition]
T	Pardon?
Quan	We can be sued of …being… unfair.

This conversation was wrapped up by the teacher's request that the students must find information about a catfish dumping incident in Vietnamese trading history.

When being asked about this part in a stimulated recall session, Binh said she proposed 'dumping' as a way to boost exports and according to her that was also one strategy that could be implemented by the government. However, the students did not think that this was a good way. As Quan explained in the stimulated recall session, '*If dumping is applied, more goods will be sold. However, because the price is low, so not much profit can be earned. I mean if we use dumping to increase exports but only obtain a little money then it is for nothing*.' All the students agreed with him and added that dumping is not a fair way to compete in the market so it was not acceptable.

Binh then mentioned the case of Vietnam's catfish dumping as an example of this and commented that '*My students didn't know about this case, that was why I later told them to go home and read about this*.' She did not know that her students (at least the ones in the stimulated recall session) already knew about this case, and they used the information obtained from what they knew about this case to counter her suggestion that dumping belonged to a closed market. From this, it can be said that the same case provoked different, even opposite ways of thinking for different agents.

Information obtained from the stimulated recall sessions revealed the possibility that even when the teacher gave an explanation in her answer, this explanation was not

sufficient to convince the students to change their opinion, particularly in the case when the students had different assumptions or interpreted their background knowledge in a different way. If the teacher had invited some students to give reasons for their choice, the students might have had a better chance to indicate their lack of understanding, and the teacher could have identified that the real issue was that her students did not have a clear idea of what 'dumping' involved. Thus, the students' silence in response to the teacher's low prospective moves did not necessarily indicate that learning had taken place.

Although the majority of Binh's follow-up moves during vocabulary episodes were at a low level of prospectiveness, she occasionally used high prospective moves, many of which were identification moves, in which she asked the students to clarify what they meant. Below are some examples of this.

Extract 4.6

The students are required to provide antonym of the word 'retail'.

1	T	The word 'retail', you know, **, alright? The opposite meaning of it is…?		
2	Ss	Retailer		
3	T	**Retail … No, the opposite meaning, the antonym … is the … You have 'retail' and then you have the …**	Rejection	Low
Students keep silent.				
4	T	**You have 'retailer', alright,**	Connection	
5		**and then you have the … Do you remember?**	+ Prompt	High
6	Ss	wholesale		
7	T	The … the …		
8	Quan	wholesaler /ˈhəʊlseɪlə/		
9	T	**wholesaler**	Acknowledgement	Low
10		**wholesaler, is it this word?**	+Identification	High
The students pronounce the word as /ˈhəʊlseɪlə/.				
T writes 'wholesaller' on the board.				
11	T	**Is it this word?**	Identification	High
12	Ss	No		
T writes 'wholesaler' on the board.				
13	T	**Is it this word?**	Identification	High
Students smile.				
14	T	**Or is it this word?**	Identification	High
T writes 'wholeseller' on the board.				
On the board there are three words: 'wholesaller', 'wholesaler', 'wholeseller'.				
15	T	**Which one?**	Identification	High

16	Quan	Wholeseller		
17	T	**The … the … the first, second or the third?**	Identification	High
18	Quan	Third		
19	T	**The … the third? 'Wholeseller' or 'wholesaler'?**	Identification	High
Students confer quietly with each other.				
20	T	**The second one, 'wholesaler', 'wholesale', and 'wholesaler', alright? Sale, 'wholesale', and 'wholesaler', alright?**	Correction	Low

In this extract, at the teacher's request, the students suggest a word which resembles 'wholesale' in terms of pronunciation. Then, in response to the teacher's identification, Quan proposes another word pronounced as /ˈhəʊlseɪlə/. The teacher, then, offers three words on the board 'wholesaller', 'wholesaler', 'wholeseller' and asks the students to select the correct one. Quan chooses a wrong answer, and the teacher corrects by giving the appropriate selection.

At first, it seemed that the students were able to recall the word 'wholesale' (line 6), which seemed to be the antonym of 'retail', as the teacher requested at the beginning of the conversation. However, she had already changed the word to 'retailer' (line 4), and therefore the students' suggestion of 'wholesale' was no longer appropriate. The word needed to be opposite to 'retailer' – indicating that the noun must be a person rather than a general noun. That might explain why she did not accept this word but initiated 'the…the…', which appeared to have granted the students more time to rethink their proposal, and finally one student (Quan) was able to offer the more relevant term /ˈhəʊlseɪlə/.

In fact, the teacher might have stopped at Quan's first initiation. His pronunciation of /ˈhəʊlseɪlə/ was a perfect match for the word 'wholesaler', which was the correct answer. By deciding to ask for more clarification, the teacher provided an opportunity for students to clarify their answer. At this point, it turned out that the majority of the students were not sure about the appropriate word. On his second attempt, Quan gave an incorrect answer. If the teacher had not engaged the class in a process of clarification, it was likely that the students' knowledge would have remained partially mistaken. Video records also showed that a number of students copied the word 'wholesaler' down, an

action which was not taken before the clarification process. This might be an indication that this information was considered valuable to them.

In a later stimulated recall session, all four student participants (including Quan) indicated that they did not know the right form of the word 'wholesaler' before the teacher explicitly told them. Quan, when suggesting /ˈhəʊlseɪlə/ actually linked /ˈhəʊl/ to 'hold' – by which he meant the action of '*grabbing everything in a person's hand*'. Van also shared this opinion from Quan. That partly explained why none of the students were able to work out the correct answer when the teacher wrote down the three suggestions on the board. Thus, it could be argued that if it had not been for the pivot moves of clarification from the teacher, most of the students would not have learned about the appropriate form of /ˈhəʊlseɪlə/.

In the following extract, Binh's follow-up mostly had a high level of prospectiveness and were built upon her students' contributions. In this extract, identification refers to the teacher's request for the student to clarify his/her answer.

Extract 4.7

The students are asked to provide the meaning of the word 'references'.

1	T	References. You know the word references? References		
2	Ss	Thư giới thiệu *(reference letter)*		
3	T	**No, I mean English. I don't want Vietnamese expression.**	Translation	High
4	Hoai	Recommendation…		
5	T	**It's a kind of recommendation.**	Reformulation	
6		**Recommendation from whom?**	+Identification	High
7	Hoai	From…eh…from our old boss…		
8	T	**Ah…from our former boss…**	Recast	
9		**From the professors….from…**	+Connection	Low
10	Ss	Teachers		
11	T	**From teachers,**	Acceptance/ repeat	
12		**University employers, alright?**	+Connection	Low
T speaks to the whole class.				
13	T	So references means that…? References means that…Again, Quynh?		
Quyen stands up.				
14	T	You can sit down.		
15	Quyen	*(sits down)* References means … recommendation… eh… of the old teacher or of an old direct…director.		

16	T	**And it is in the form of a…how to say…a letter, or a…presentation, or...what kind of form a reference refer?**	Connection	High
17	Quyen	A letter.		
18	T	**Ah, a letter, right?**	Acceptance/ repeat	
19		**So reference is a a… letter…from a…a kind of recommendation letter from teachers, professors, your previous employees, ah, employers. Alright? Alright.**	+Reformulation	Low

When Binh asks her students for the meaning of 'references', the students are able to provide the correct Vietnamese translation (line 2). However, Binh insists that she would like an English explanation. Hoai's answers are followed by the teacher's reformulation (lines 5), clarification (line 6), recast (line 8) and connection (line 9). After that, the teacher decides to ask the whole class for the meaning of this term, and extends Quyen's answer by asking what form references take. Receiving a correct response, the teacher gives a brief summary of what has been discussed by reformulating the students' responses into more correct English (line 19).

Most of the teacher follow-up moves were based on the students' contributions. The teacher's identification request in line 6 acted as a pivot move, giving the students the opportunity to clarify the agent of 'referencing', upon which the teacher offered more suggestions ('professor'), leading students to suggest 'teachers', followed by the teacher's offer of 'university employers'. This was an example of co-construction of knowledge where the teacher and the students cooperated with each other to achieve a fuller understanding of a term. After that, in response to Quyen's answer, another pivot move from the teacher, in the form of a high prospective connection request, gave Quyen a chance to clarify what form a 'reference' takes.

In her stimulated recall session, the teacher commented that her move in line 3, when she wanted her students to explain the term 'reference' in English, was made because she was afraid that some students may only know the translation of the word without really understanding what it referred to. In addition, from her observation, the teacher suggested that 'references' are important for job applications in other countries, but not in Vietnam, so she wanted to talk about it in English so as to make sure that the students understood the word correctly. In addition, she connected to the form of 'reference'

(line 16) in order to give more clarification about the term. In another stimulated recall session with four students, all of them acknowledged that although they understood the meaning of ‘references’, they often limited its application to ‘previous employers’ and hardly ever thought that previous teachers or university lecturers were also sources of references. Thus, it could be arguably said that the teacher’s high prospective follow-up moves played a significant role in extending classroom discourse from which more learning opportunities were generated.

It was also noticeable that during this interaction, Binh attempted to correct the expression ‘old boss’ by recasting this word to ‘former boss’ (line 8). However, it seemed that her action was not noticed by the students. A moment later, when Quyen was called to give the meaning of ‘reference’ again, she still used ‘old teacher’ and ‘old director’ (line 15). It appeared that the teacher’s recast was not effective in terms of making some students aware that they had made a mistake, and so there was no student uptake. At the end of the conversation, the teacher, once again, summarised the meaning of the word and used ‘previous employer’, but it was difficult to determine whether the students recognised and remembered this term.

A comparison between extracts 4.6 and 4.7 shows that despite being high prospective follow-up moves, the extent of learning opportunities provided in the two extracts differs greatly. In extract 4.6, the teacher asked the students to identify the correct word from the list she provided. Although the students had the opportunity to select a word, this opportunity was very limited because there was only one answer and that answer was appropriate because it was taken for granted, as it was the only possible word. The students were engaged in a kind of ‘guessing game’ for the correct answer without being provided any clues. On the other hand, in extract 4.7, the students were assisted and gradually constructed their knowledge under the guidance of their teacher. It is also recognised that further teacher guidance is likely to enhance both content and language development. The focus is quite strongly on content: some further probing and support may allow the students to reach conclusions that build upon their own knowledge in a positive way.

4.3.3 Opinion episodes.

Binh occasionally asked her students to work in groups and discuss topics or statements from the textbook. Sometimes, she asked a question relating to the theme of the lesson and asked for opinions from her students. Below are some examples of opinion episodes, during which Binh interacted with her students and used a wide range of follow-up moves. These moves were mostly of a high prospective level and required her students to clarify or confirm their opinions.

Extract 4.8

In this conversation, Binh is asking a student (Ngoc) why she agrees with a statement in the textbook.

1	T	Why do you think… Alright, [reading from the book] 'International markets exploit workers in poorer countries'		
2	Ngoc	I think ah…		
3	T	Can you speak louder?		
4	Ngoc	In fact I see…many rich countries come…come to poorer countries to employ worker.		
5	T	**To employ workers, and it means that it exploit?**	Identification	High
6		*(asks the whole class)* **You know the word 'exploit'?**	Meaning	High
7	Ss	Yes.		
8	T	*(turns back to Nga)* **Exploit?**	Meaning	High
9	Ngoc	Yes.		
10	T	**Yeah, in English, it means?**	Identification	High
11	Ngoc	They will employ		
12	T	They will employ	Backchannel	
13	Ngoc	And pay money to them		
14	T	**Ah, they will employ the workers and employ money.**	Acknowledgement	Low
15		**But the word 'exploit' here is in good meaning or…how to say… negative or positive meaning?**	+Identification	High
16	Ngoc	Negative		
17	T	**Negative meaning? But why do you think? Because they create the job, right? They pay the money for the workers. And the workers will have jobs, they have salaries, right? So why do you think the international markets exploit them?**	Justification	High
18	Ngoc	*(silent for 5 seconds)* Because if they employ these people, they only need pay a little money.		

19	T	**Ah, you mean because they are from poorer countries, so they … when… how to say… the employers employ the workers, they just have to pay a little amount of money, right? Is it?**	Confirmation	High
20	Ngoc	Yes.		
21	T	**Alright.**	Acknowledgement	Low
59	T	(at a later point to the whole class) **Alright. Your friend thinks that international markets will exploit the workers in poor countries because they hire the workers but they pay a limited salary in comparison to the… how to say… to those from the rich countries, they receive high salaries, right? High amount of salaries. But in poorer countries they just give a limited number, or limited amount of salaries, right?**	Reformulation	Low

In this conversation, the teacher wants Ngoc to explain why she agrees with a statement. A large part of the conversation is devoted to the clarification of the meaning of the word 'exploit'. After answering a number of identification and justification requests from the teacher, Ngoc is able to explain her idea more clearly (line 18). At a later point, the teacher uses her own words to report what Ngoc has said to the whole class.

It seems that the turning point, which was also a pivot move, of the conversation was the teacher's justification request in line 17. Prior to this point, it seemed that Ngoc's expressions were still ambiguous. It appeared that she might have associated 'exploit' with 'employ'. It was only when the teacher challenged her idea (line 17), asking whether 'exploit' has a negative meaning even though it helped create jobs for workers and gave them a salary, that Ngoc was provided an opportunity to give a more thorough explanation of what she meant. It should be noted that the idea used by the teacher to challenge Ngoc was actually taken from what Ngoc had previously proposed. The teacher used this to request Ngoc to justify her idea more clearly. Ngoc was also granted a significant wait time (5 seconds), during which she might have activated her critical thinking and finally worked out the answer. Thus, the teacher appeared to have used her student's suggestion to form the foundation for further co-constructed knowledge. Finally, when the teacher broadcasted Ngoc's idea to the whole class, she added some information of her own to make this idea clearer.

In the conversation below, in which most of the follow-up moves have a high level of prospectiveness, Binh's students have opportunities to present opinions on the issue of handwriting.

Extract 4.9

Binh is asking her students whether they think that handwriting is an important factor in getting a job.

1	T	Chi, do you think hand writing is important when applying for work?		
2	Chi	Yes.		
3	T	**Yes. Why?**	Justification	High
4	Chi	Because I think the hand writing can show the quality of a person.		
5	T	*(turns to the whole class)*		
6		**Ah, hand writing can show the quality of a person.** **So what about a doctor? Does the hand writing show his quality?**	Acknowledgement + Counter	
Students laugh loudly.				
7	T	*(asks Tho)* **So what do you think? Does it depend on the situation?**	Prompt	
8	Tho	I don't know.		
9	T	**You don't know, ok.**	Acknowledgement	Low
10	T	*(asks Hue)* So do you think hand writing is important?		
11	Hue	I think hand writing is important because it shows the ability of…eh…analis.		
12	T	**Eh…the ability of…analis?**	Identification	High
13	Hue	Yes.		
14	T	**Analis? What do you mean?**	Identification	High
15	Hue	It means…er..er.		
16	T	**So you mean that if your hand writing is good, so it means that you are so…analytical? You are so…how to say…careful, you are so detailed…Is it?**	Identification	High
17	Hue	Yes.		
18	T	**Yes? Alright.**	Acknowledgement	Low
19	T	*(talks to the whole class)* But anyone think hand writing doesn't matter when you apply for a job?		
Quan and Thu raise their hands.				
20	T	*(asks Quan)* Because your hand writing is bad, right?		
21	Quan	No.		

22	T	**What about you?** *(turns to Thu)* **Why do you think it is not important?**	Justification	High
23	Thao	It is not important. I think we know how to type all the documents or… when you work in a company… And when you…I need to write a sickness record or something like that you just have to type the sickness record or something like that. You don't need to do hand writing		
24	T	**Oh…So you use a computer to type, right, so you do not need to write, use the hand writing.**	Amplification	Low
25	Thao	It's important about your speed of typing.		
26	T	**Ah, the speed, right.**	Acceptance	
27	T	**So kind of like …hero keyboard, ah…keyboard hero. How to say…keyboard hero, so you can type so fast, right?**	+ Connection	Low

The conversation indicates that there are two sides in the class, with students holding different opinions on the issue of the importance of handwriting. Firstly, Chi states that handwriting is important because it reflects a person's quality (line 4). This opinion is countered by the teacher there is no further discussion. Hue seems to share Chi's opinion, but fails to offer the correct term (line 12). After a series of identification requests, the teacher is able to identify what Hue means (line 18). Then, the teacher is concerned about whether other students have a different opinion. Two students indicate that they do. The teacher selects one (Thao), adds a comment, then closes the conversation.

From the extract, it appears that those students who believed handwriting was important did not have convincing arguments to support their ideas. Firstly, in Chi's case, Chi proposed that handwriting can 'show the quality of a person'. The teacher acknowledged this, but immediately turned to the whole class and countered this idea by relating it to a doctor's handwriting. That the whole class laughed at this point may relate to a phenomenon in Vietnam, where doctors are famous for their bad handwriting; nevertheless, being a doctor is considered to be one of the best professions. By relating what Chi had said to this phenomenon, it appeared that the teacher wanted to deny the association between 'handwriting' and 'quality' that Chi had asserted. The teacher then asked Tho for an opinion, without referring back to Chi to check if she had anything else to say. This action of the teacher seemed to deprive Chi of the opportunity to clarify her suggestion. In fact, Chi was given no chance to give any explanation of why she

thought ‘handwriting’ was related to ‘quality’. She was only given the opportunity to make one short statement. If the teacher had paused after acknowledging Chi’s opinion and waited for her to continue, it is likely that Chi would have been able to clarify what she meant.

In the next interaction with Hue, the teacher encouraged her to clarify what she meant by ‘analis’, and Hue finally expressed her idea that ‘handwriting’ relates to being ‘analytical’, but this was based on what the teacher proposed rather than on her own initiative. Once again, when the teacher took over the responsibility of clarifying the meaning of Hue’s word, she left Hue with no opportunity to explain her idea. In addition, after clarifying the meaning of the word ‘analytical’, the conversation with Hue comes to an end with no further discussion of such an association. Like Chi, Hue was provided no opportunity to justify her assertion that ‘being analytical’ could be deduced from a person’s handwriting.

The teacher’s shallow interactions with Chi and Hue suggests that she might herself not hold any belief on the importance of handwriting in job applications. That could have explained why the teacher’s interactions with these two students were only on the surface, and why she went on asking whether anyone in the class disagreed (line 19). This time, Quan and Thao indicated that they did not think handwriting was important. However, the teacher tended to ignore Quan and asked Thao to explain. Although there is nothing in this extract which explains why Quan was ignored, my observation of the whole lesson indicated that this was probably because Quan contributed a lot in other parts of the lesson, so the teacher wanted to listen to Thao, a student who rarely made any contribution in the form of direct conversation with the teacher. It can be argued that thanks to the teacher’s prompting, the students with a different opinion had an opportunity to express themselves.

In her stimulated recall session, the teacher explained that when she referred to ‘doctor’ in response to Chi’s idea that there is an association between ‘handwriting’ and the ‘quality of a person’, she wanted Chi or other students to add more information because she thought that apart from quality, handwriting may reflect other things. In addition, she said that mentioning doctors was only ‘*for fun*’. Nevertheless, the stimulated recall session with four students indicated that they referred the teacher’s question as ‘*a question to deny Chi’s idea*’. On the other hand, one student – Mai – thought that

handwriting was an indication of a person's quality because if a person had neat handwriting, it meant that the person had '*a clear-cut way of thinking'*. Nga, another student, thought that the role of handwriting depended on different situations and gave an example of a person who impressed her greatly because they had very nice handwriting. This demonstrated that a teacher follow-up move can be interpreted in ways that are not consistent with the teacher's aim. Moreover, when looking back at the classroom discourse, the first conversation about the connection between handwriting and the 'quality' of a person was not effectively developed; had the teacher asked for more ideas from the class, Mai and Nga could have had an opportunity to express their views.

This extract demonstrates Binh's tendency to terminate her students' discourse prematurely. Although she did ask questions to obtain more information from her students, she was not keen on pursuing a full explanation from them. It appeared that her willingness to let the students express their opinions was limited to a rather shallow level, resulting in arguments not being developed to their full potential.

4.4 Perceptions of the Stakeholders

At the end of the semester, when all classroom observations had been conducted, Binh was invited for a final interview and two of her students were invited to a separate interview. From classroom observations, Dao was identified as a student with a high level of overt participation, and Mai as having a low participation level. Information collected from these final interviews, combined with data generated from previous stimulated recall sessions provides access to the perceptions of the teacher and of these two students on a number of issues.

4.4.1 Issues relating to the context of follow-up move distribution.

According to Binh, this Business English course was '*very suitable*' for her students. She did not think her students had any problems with their background knowledge because their knowledge of economics was already quite good and they were keen on updating their information. However, she added that her students '*had different levels of English despite being placed in the same class*'. She pointed out that those who came from the countryside would find it difficult to learn business English because '*The fact that they now have to interact in a new environment in which they have to use business*

terms in Vietnamese was already difficult, let alone using them in English'; on the other hand, those from the cities '*looked more active and flexible*'. That was why Binh shared that during her teaching, she implicitly divided her students into two groups, one consisting of extrovert students, and the other consisting of reserved students. Binh said that she often gave more attention to the reserved students and provided them with more opportunities to speak in the class.

Binh also shared that at the end of the course, she was not completely satisfied with what her students had achieved. According to Binh, a large amount of content had to be covered in the time allowed. Therefore, she thought that her students might be able to recall 70–80 per cent of the vocabulary learnt and there was no certainty that they would remember all of it. As Binh stated, '*Maybe in the future, when encountering some business terms, my students will find them familiar and know that these words had been learnt before. However, they may not able to remember what those words mean, and they may not be able to put them into context for speaking and writing*.'

Both Dao and Mai agreed with their teacher regarding the course content. According to Dao, the Business English course was suitable for her, although she had problems due to her limited background knowledge about business. The reason for her lack of knowledge was that '*I have just moved from high school to university*'. However, because Dao's father was a businessman, she said that she could consult him about business issues. Mai, the student with a low participation level, said she did not think that background knowledge was a problem for her because she was studying another economics subject (in Vietnamese) at the same time, and she said that she did not have any problem in learning what was required in the course. However, she found that her communication skills were weak because when she studied at high school, she was primarily concerned with grammar rather than speaking and listening.

When asked about her teaching methods, Binh said that she focused primarily on vocabulary development, and on listening and speaking skills. When asked, Mai said that from her observation, the focus of their lessons was often on listening tasks and pronunciation. She also commented that her teacher talked a lot, and the frequency of pair work and group work varied in different lessons. Both Mai and Dao noted that their teacher created a friendly and relaxed atmosphere in their lessons. However, Dao, the student at a high level of participation, reckoned that she did not like a common practice

of the teacher, which was '*I observed that many times, when the teacher asked us a question, she did not give us any time to think, but instead provided answer herself… I think that it would have been better if the teacher provided more time for us to think, or she should have only given us some prompts, but she gave the answers straight away.*' Information obtained from these interviews indicated that this business English course was thought to be suitable for the students, although there was a concern about their limited background knowledge and communicative competence, which was mostly associated with their high school curriculum.

Classroom observations indicated that Binh often managed to create a friendly atmosphere in the class; she frequently told jokes or gave fun facts to lighten the atmosphere of a lesson. She was also dominant in most classroom interactions, being responsible for selecting students to speak, and often kept the lesson moving rapidly. It seemed that Binh was so concerned with covering all the parts of a lesson that she tended to teach very quickly. For example, during vocabulary development episodes, she seemed to take students' correct answers for granted and ignored incorrect answers without adequate explanation. During listening comprehension tasks, she was only interested in completing the tasks correctly for their own sake, without noticing that sometimes there were a number of words or issues that her students did not understand. Perhaps she assumed that her students had mastered everything she said, and that it was therefore not necessary to slow down the pace of the class.

4.4.2 Teacher follow-up moves.

Binh shared that she often commented on her students' use of vocabulary, fluency, the persuasiveness of their ideas, and their pronunciation. When her students failed to understand a term, she would provide more information to help their understanding. After her students presented their opinions about a topic, Binh said she also provided comments, sometimes by repeating what the students said. Classroom observation revealed that what Binh said largely reflected what happened in her teaching. Binh often provided low prospective follow-up moves in order to help her students understand the meaning of some business terms, and high prospective moves in order to obtain her students' opinions about an issue. When a student presented his or her opinion in the form of a report of their previous group discussion, Binh would acknowledge their opinion, and sometimes added some comments.

Regarding vocabulary sessions, Binh said that when her students failed to give a correct answer, she would either provide a context in which the current business terms were used, provide a practical example, connect the terms to related words, make use of real objects, or illustrate a concept by drawing diagrams. Among all of these, she thought that placing a word in a context and using diagrams were most effective for helping students understand a term. The two student participants, Mai and Dao both shared that the teacher typically provided a context in which the current vocabulary item was used. Mai said that this was the most effective strategy for her because thanks to the context, she could have a clear understanding of the meaning of the term. Dao, on the other hand, commented that the most effective way to help her learn a vocabulary was to connect a term with other related words such as synonyms and antonyms, though the teacher did not employ this strategy very frequently.

When asking her students to present their opinions on an issue, Binh said that she encountered a number of problems. Most of her students were quite reserved and preferred listening to other students' ideas rather than voice their own opinions. In addition, many students did not know how to develop their ideas. In those cases, Binh would support her students. As she shared,

> '*I would support the student. I might ask him what area his ideas were related to and asked probing questions. Sometimes I just let this student remain silent and turned to ask for opinions from his peers, before returning to him and asked if he agreed or disagreed with his peers' opinion and why.*'

Binh also said that sometimes her students failed to find an English word to explain what they meant. They would then use a Vietnamese term and ask their peers or the teacher for an English equivalent. If their peers were able to suggest an equivalent English term, Binh would ask them to read it aloud. In cases where she was asked by a student, she would suggest a word.

Mai suggested that the biggest problem for her and her classmates was to find appropriate words to express their ideas. In such situations, her teacher '*often offered the exact word that we wanted to say,… sometimes she suggested another word but with a very similar meaning*'. Mai observed that when a student presented an opinion which seemed to be appropriate, her teacher often acknowledged it and then moved to another

topic; in the case of an inappropriate opinion, her teacher would comment that it was not relevant, or call on another student to give an opinion.

According to Dao, the biggest problem during opinion episodes was that she did not know how to express her ideas in English, although she would have been able to say it in Vietnamese. She suggested that in those cases,

> '*Ms. Binh often understood what we meant before we tried to speak. Sometimes, when I only finished the first half of the sentence, she completed the rest for me*.'

Dao thought that in those cases, the teacher had helped her to '*finish the sentence*' but '*did not help me continue speaking*'. This was because Dao only attempted to express her opinion in one or two sentences, and often stopped when her teacher offered a suggestion. Dao also asserted that one of the challenges was that she was unable to express ideas critically. She stated that '*If I used Vietnamese, I would be able to express what I meant at a deeper level. However, when I used English, I could only manage to talk about an issue in the surface, sometimes it was not exactly what I wanted to say.*'

From what the participants shared, it was clear that students occasionally had problems understanding the meaning of specific business terms, and in most cases, the teacher would explain the term by placing it in a context in which it was used, such as a practical example. This was perceived to be quite effective by the teacher and by the student who had demonstrated a low level of overt participation. Moreover, Binh appeared to be a good 'predictor' of what her students intended to say. In addition, one of the biggest problems encountered by students when presenting opinions was related to their limited ability to express themselves in English. Classroom observation revealed that Vietnamese was hardly used in teacher-student interactions. In fact, as Binh shared, she had a 'no Vietnamese' policy in the class, and she kept reminding her students that they were not allowed to use Vietnamese. Binh frequently asked her students to use English when they switched to Vietnamese when proposing word meanings. Classroom observation also indicated that in many cases, upon listening to a group's opinions on a topic, Binh acknowledged them without making any further comments. In a stimulated recall session, a student shared that she did not like this practice. She would have preferred it if the teacher had provided some constructive comments, or if she had asked other groups of students whether they had the same answer. This student also revealed

that sometimes she wanted to have an opportunity to give her own opinion on an issue presented by another group, but the teacher hardly ever asked for more contributions.

4.4.3 Perception about learning affordances.

When asked what they thought 'participation' meant, the teacher and the two students all said that it includes attending and taking part in classroom interaction. For students who only sat in the class and kept silent for most of the time, the teacher said, '*I think it is only partial participation. It is not active enough to be called full participation.*' Mai and Dao also thought that participation meant more than just being there. They felt that a student must '*raise their voice to contribute to the lesson*'. They agreed that participation played an important role in their learning. According to Dao, '*[Participation is important] because that means I already learn 50 per cent. In addition, when I learn in the class, it is easier for me to recognize my errors and it helps me to remember more easily*.' Mai also said that '*It is when I raise my voice that I remember a term.*' Regarding the factors that affected students' participation levels, the teacher said that this depended on students' competence, their mood, the number of difficult terms in a lesson, and on the student's peers. As for the students, Dao shared,

> '*The most important thing is my mood. The second important factor is whether the teacher can attract my attention to the lesson. And the last factor is the content of a lesson… [I don't participate if] a lesson is difficult to understand or not attracting*.'

Mai, the student at a lower level of overt participation, said that she participated when she understood and wanted to share her ideas. Factors that prevented her from participating included a lesson's level of difficulty, her inability to find a proper word, and her fear that her answer would not be appropriate.

From what the students shared, it seems that the level of participation depended significantly on their language competence. Mai, who tended to keep silent in teacher-student interactions, indicated that it was her language ability that affected her the most when she decided whether to participate or not. However, for Dao, the most important factor was her mood and her interest in the lesson. Audio and video records indicated that Dao's English competence was one of the best in the class, and she hardly made any mistakes during group discussions or in direct interactions with the teacher.

In terms of learning affordances, Binh said that each type of interaction created a different type of learning opportunity for her students. However, when she conducted monologues with almost no contribution from the students, she could not be sure whether her students learnt anything because their learning depended on their level of concentration. That was why Binh relied on her experience of reading students' emotions (non-verbal) or immediate reactions (such as when they cried 'Oh') in order to determine whether her students has understood what she said. Sometimes, she would conduct a follow-up activity for the same reason. In terms of whole class interaction, Binh thought that the students could exchange information and learn about others' ideas. When she interacted with an individual student, that individual student was the one who benefited the most. However, Binh stated that she often broadcast a student's idea to the whole class so that other students were informed about what their peer was thinking. This was partly because some students spoke very quietly, so she often had to synthesise their ideas and then report them to the whole class. When reporting what her students said to the class, Binh noted that '*If the student's expression already contained business terms, I would report as it was. If not many business terms were used, I would reformulate using my own words.*' Binh pointed out that this helped her students to '*catch their peers' idea more clearly, and then they could present their own opinion toward it'*. Regarding group work, Binh thought that it was like '*an information gap task*' which helped students '*fill in the blank*' and '*add ideas to others''* so that the students would be able to present not only their own ideas, but also those of their peers.

When asked, Dao said that she learned most in activities in which '*I actively seek for information, rather than sitting in one place and only listening.*' She shared that she learnt most in group work and when she directly had a conversation with the teacher. During group work, she was able to learn from her peers and contribute to the discussion. Regarding direct interaction with the teacher, she said,

> '*When I interacted with my teacher, I could practise my skills in coping with pressure from the teacher. Sometimes I could come up with a new idea during the time I was presenting my opinion… When I was under this pressure, I would think of an idea by myself. This helped me increase my thinking and confidence*.'

In situations when the teacher delivered a monologue, Dao said it was good '*if you actively listened to it,*' and she learned '*what was new to me*'. In addition, Dao said that when listening to what the teacher said to her peers, she could gain some knowledge for herself. As for Mai, she suggested,

> *'[I learnt most] when I did group work and when I presented my idea to the teacher…[because] at that time I would stimulate my knowledge and paid attention to what I needed to say.*'

In other words, Mai agreed that she learned most when she was actively involved in an activity. When the teacher conducted a monologue and the students only needed to listen without having to give any responses, Mai said that '*sometimes I did not pay attention or catch anything.*' When the teacher interacted with the whole class during vocabulary development sessions, Mai shared that what she learnt was '*I only knew what the correct answer was.*' Generally, it seems that according to Mai, overt participation brought many more opportunities for learning than covert participation.

In conclusion, all the study participants found that students learnt more when there was a direct exchange of information either between the teacher and individual students, or during pair work and group work. In the case of monologues, while the teacher was not sure if students learnt anything, the student with a low level of participation felt that in many cases she did not learn anything, while the student at a high level of participation only learnt when the topic was related to something that she did not know. Thus, for both of the students, they shared that they learned most when they actively participated in an activity, rather than when only listening. In addition, they both felt that they learned more when they had the opportunity to have direct overt interactions with the teacher, compared to when they listen to other students' conversations with the teacher.

Chapter Five: Case 2

5.1 Introduction to the Case

5.1.1 The teacher and the students.

Hoa is a 30-year-old female teacher. She has been working as a teacher at this university for six years, with 2.5 years spent teaching business English courses. Hoa has attained two master's degrees – a Master of Linguistics (obtained from the same university) and a Master of Business Administration (MBA - obtained from a joint cooperation program between a Vietnamese university and an Australian one). Hoa revealed that the knowledge acquired from her MBA course has been very beneficial to her and that she felt confident because she had the business knowledge to explain business terms to students. In addition, during her MBA course, she had attended a number of business forums and discussions, and this helped her to become more fully aware of the language and presentation skills required in business English.

From her experience in teaching business English courses, Hoa shared that this was different from other English courses currently being taught at the university in that it was largely business content based. In addition, language skills were integrated, rather than separate, so she had had to adopt different teaching methods. In her lessons, Hoa explained that she sometimes translated business terms into Vietnamese so as to assist her students to more fully understand them. However, for most of the time she preferred using the Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT). Hoa said that she used a CLT approach because she placed her students at the centre of the teaching process, while maintaining her role as a facilitator and instructor. She said that she often organised activities for her students from which they could discover their learning objectives, the meaning of specific terms, and obtain certain skills or useful vocabulary. In terms of her experience in working with students studying the business English course, Hoa shared that these cohorts of students' business knowledge background was generally very poor, and that she felt that these students were not really interested in the business world. Even though information about economics and business activities was readily available to students via the Internet, they did not avail themselves of this means to gain increased knowledge. Her students did not understand common business terms in Vietnamese, not to mention in English.

In Hoa's class there were 27 female students, all of whom were above 18 years of age. The majority of the students came from rural areas and the language competence of these students appeared to be lower than those coming from big cities. Students with a low level of English competence were those who did not attend extra English classes during their secondary school learning, and selected this university because they were unable to pass the entrance exams of other universities. They managed to enter this university thanks to high marks in maths and literature. Students coming from similar backgrounds (ie. rural or uban areas) tended to sit next to each other in the class. The majority of the students did not seem to be willing to answer the teacher's questions and they tended to discuss other subjects during their discussion time rather than focusing on the topic assigned by the teacher.

5.1.2 General classroom procedures.

Although she was provided with the course guide at the beginning of the semester, Hoa did not follow it strictly. The students' case study presentation of the previous lesson, which according to the course guide should have been at the beginning of the lesson, often took place at the end.

At the beginning of each lesson, Hoa often conducted an activity to revise the vocabulary learnt in the previous week, in the form of a word game or a brainstorming activity. For example, in one lesson, Hoa asked her students to write down as many words as they could about the topic of the previous week. In another lesson, her students were required to find antonyms to the words she wrote on the board, which they had learnt previously. During these vocabulary revision episodes, Hoa often intervened by asking the students for definitions of terms or by providing them with more explanation.

After that, Hoa would move to the new theme for the week. She often employed an activity to lead the students to the new lesson, and those activities varied across the lessons observed. In one of the lessons, she asked the students to brainstorm vocabulary related to the theme; in another lesson, she required her students to discuss in groups the quotation provided at the beginning of the lesson; in another case, she proposed a concept strongly related to the lesson's theme and asked the students for ideas; and in the last case, she organised a 'guessing game' in which two student representatives from two groups had to guess business terms in the new lesson based on what their peers described. Hoa expected that her students had completed all vocabulary exercises at

home, as required in the course guide. This explained why she conducted the guessing activities comprising the required vocabulary in the new lesson. When her students appeared to have some problems in understanding business terms arising from these activities, Hoa often provided them with further information regarding the words' definitions, or gave examples to illustrate the meaning of those words.

The majority of a lesson would then be devoted to vocabulary exercises and class discussions. Normally, Hoa did not grant her students any time to complete vocabulary exercises but checked immediately by calling students to read their answers. This was because she assumed that her students had completed all at home – as required in the course guide. However, sometimes it turned out that a number of students did not complete their homework tasks. Hoa would criticise those students and emphasise the need to complete all the required work before class. During the vocabulary checking episodes, after receiving answers from her students, Hoa often provided extra information by giving some examples to illustrate the meaning of a business term, or by relating the vocabulary item with larger economic issues. Group discussions were also popular in Hoa's lessons. She often asked her students to work in groups of four or five to discuss statements in the textbook. After that, she would call upon representatives from different groups to present their opinions. Normally, most of the students failed to express their ideas clearly, and Hoa would ask them to clarify what they meant, or to provide examples to support their arguments.

Then, Hoa implemented an additional activity that was not presented either in the textbook or the course guide. She would give each student a one-page handout from supplementary material, containing extra vocabulary related to the theme being learnt. For approximately 20 minutes, Hoa would read the whole passage in the handout, and explain the meaning of some terms in English, Vietnamese, or both, and she gave examples to illustrate ideas in the passage. All of the students sat silently during Hoa's monologues. Hoa also encouraged her students to study the handout at home.

After that, the class would move to listening comprehension exercises, during which the students listened to conversations or speeches on a CD and did exercises in the textbook simultaneously. It was common practice that Hoa played the CD repeatedly until her students could catch the necessary word or information to complete the exercises. Sometimes, for extremely difficult passages, Hoa told her students to open the transcript

of the listening exercises and do the exercises. She often explained difficult vocabulary arising from the listening passages and explained the reasons for some answers.

The skill development sessions of the textbook were often ignored, and the last time slot in each lesson was devoted to the case study presentations, during which one or two groups of students presented a topic they had learnt in the previous week in the form of a meeting or a presentation. Hoa would sit in silence, take notes, and make no comments when the presenters finished. She then dismissed the class.

5.2 Frequency Analysis

All of Hoa's follow-up moves were distributed on their own, or in combination with one or a number of other moves. Therefore, they are presented in two tables. Table 5.1 represents all the single moves and their level of prospectiveness; and table 5.2 presents all the combined moves, with the level of prospectiveness determined by the last move's prospective level.

Table 5.1: *Distribution of Single Follow-up Moves – Case 2*

Category	Sub-category	Number	Percentage	Prospective level (%)		
				Low	Mid	High
Acknowledgement		**21**	**6**	**6**	**0**	**0**
Evaluation	Acceptance/repeat	73	21			
	Clarification request	22	6			
	Reformulation	22	6			
	Others	44	13			
	Total	**161**	**46**	**38**	**0**	**8**
Comment	Meaning	27	8			
	Connection	16	5			
	Opinion	15	4			
	Others	19	5			
	Total	**77**	**22**	**11**	**0**	**11**
Clarification	Identification	38	11			
	Confirmation	7	2			
	Repetition	4	1			
	Total	**49**	**14**	**0**	**0**	**14**
Justification		**5**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**1**
Action		**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Follow-up initiation	Prompt	14	4			
	Others	5	1			
	Total	**19**	**5**	**0**	**1**	**4**
Others		**16**	**5**	**4**	**0**	**1**
TOTAL		**349**	**100**	**59**	**1**	**39**

Table 5.2: *Distribution of Combined Follow-up Moves – Case 2*

Category	Sub-category	Number	Percentage	Prospective level (%)		
				Low	Mid	High
Evaluation -Comment	Acceptance/repeat + Connection	77	56			
	Others	21	15			
	Total	**98**	**72**	**45**	**0**	**25**
Evaluation-Evaluation		**9**	**7**	**6**	**0**	**1**
Comment-Comment		**4**	**3**	**2**	**0**	**1**
Others		**26**	**19**	**4**	**6**	**9**
TOTAL		**137**	**100**	**57**	**6**	**36**

The two tables demonstrate that the frequency of follow-up moves as single moves was approximately 2.5 times that of combined moves (349 moves as opposed to 137 moves). Of all single follow-up moves, evaluation was the most frequent function, accounting for nearly a half, followed by comment and clarification at approximately 20 per cent and 15 per cent respectively. Classroom observation revealed that evaluation moves were primarily distributed during vocabulary episodes, while clarification moves were mainly given during opinion episodes. Of all the sub-categories, acceptance/repeat alone stood at around one fifth of all the moves. This indicated that upon receiving students' responses, Hoa often indicated her acceptance of those responses by repeating them. Regarding clarification, the typical moves were identification requests, in which Hoa asked her students to clarify what they meant when suggesting a term or proposing an opinion. As for comment, Hoa often requested her students to translate a proposed term into Vietnamese, or provide the meaning of the term.

Regarding the combined moves, it was clear that the most frequent combination was that between evaluation and other functions. These types of combinations accounted for over 80 per cent of combined moves, with evaluation-comment moves accounting for over 70 per cent. In most cases, the preceding move was acceptance/repeat, constituting over 55 per cent of all the moves in the evaluation-comment category. This means that upon receiving a student's answer, Hoa would typically indicate acceptance by repeating it. She then provided some extra information to connect what had been proposed with a related issue. Classroom observation revealed that after repeating a student's response, Hoa often spent a significant amount of time describing a context or situation in which a specific term was used, or connecting the terms to be learnt with

other related terms. For example, to demonstrate the concept of ‘recession’, she drew a business cycle on the board and explained it thoroughly. In another case, when the students were learning about ‘sex discrimination’, Hoa proposed ‘glass ceiling’, ‘prejudice’, ‘stereotype’ and gave examples to illustrate those concepts.

As can be seen from the two tables, approximately 60 per cent of both single and combined moves had low levels of prospectiveness, and the rest were primarily of a high level of prospectiveness. Follow-up moves with a mid-level prospectiveness comprised a very small percentage. Regarding single moves, low prospective evaluation moves accounted for nearly 40 per cent of these. All clarification moves were at a high level of prospectiveness, and around half of the comment moves were of this level. From this, it can be concluded that when receiving a student’s response, the teacher typically accepted it or provided further information; sometimes she would ask the students to give more explanation or expansion, but she rarely provided prompts for students to work out the answer. Regarding combined moves, around 60 per cent of the last moves had a low prospective level, and over 35 per cent are of high prospectiveness. This indicated that for the majority of interactions, upon receiving students’ responses, the teacher would indicate acceptance by repeating the responses and then adding her own comments. However, she also frequently asked her students to connect what they had proposed to a related issue.

5.3 Qualitative Analysis

The following section presents the qualitative data, in the transcripts of classroom exchanges. This aims to establish the context in which specific follow-up moves were granted so that readers are given a better understanding of how each move was generated.

5.3.1 Vocabulary revision episodes.

During the vocabulary revision times, Hoa often checked whether her students remembered the vocabulary they had learnt in the previous lesson. Below is an example of a vocabulary revision episode in which Hoa asked her students to find antonyms of the adjectives she listed on the board. All of these words had been learnt in the previous lesson. The extract shows how the teacher dealt with correct and incorrect answers from

her students. From these exchanges it can be determined how learning affordances were granted or disregarded.

Extract 5.1

In this conversation, the teacher is asking the students to find opposite adjectives to the words that she has listed on the board. The adjectives that are expected to be found have already been learnt in the previous lesson.

1	T	Vy, okay, 'radical'		
2	Vy	Radical…conservative, conservative		
3	T	**Uh, this is 'conservative' *(write on board)* Radical.**	Acceptance/ repeat	
4		And Vietnamese meaning?	+Meaning	High
5	Vy	Bảo thủ ạ (conservative)		
6	T	**Bảo thủ và…? (conservative and…?)**	Acceptance/ repeat	Low
7	Hoai/ Vy	Cấp tiến (radical)		
8	T	**Cấp tiến (radical)**	Acceptance/ repeat	Low
9	T	Okay, and Trang		
The next word on the board is 'ruthless'.				
11	Ss	Linh (*The students reminded the teacher the right name of the student that the teacher was selecting.)*		
12	T	Okay, Linh, 'ruthless' and?		
13	Linh	Principled		
14	T	**Okay, principled** *(write on board)*	Acceptance/ repeat	
15		**Meaning please?**	+ Meaning	High
Linh does not say anything				
16	T	Ruthless and principled?		
17	Linh	Có nguyên tắc, có… (following principle, have…)		
18	Hop	Không có tình người (imhumane)		
19	Ss	Không có đạo đức (immoral)		
20	T	**Okay, không có đạo đức (immoral)**	Acceptance/ selection	Low

This type of interaction was repeated for the next seven words.

It can be seen that the students managed to find correct antonyms to all the words nominated by the teacher: 'conservative' as opposed to 'radical' (line 3) and 'principled' as an opposite to 'ruthless' (line 14). Upon receiving students' answers, the teacher asked for the Vietnamese meanings, both for the words suggested by the students and the words on the board, before moving to the next item.

The interactions for each of the words followed a similar pattern. Upon receiving the student's correct answer, the teacher moved on by asking for the Vietnamese meaning of the word. Even though what the teacher asked was the 'Vietnamese meaning', what the students offered was actually a Vietnamese translation of the term. Given the fact that the teacher accepted their responses, it could be interpreted that when the teacher asked for the 'Vietnamese meaning' of a word, what was in her mind was actually the Vietnamese equivalent of the word rather than an explanation of what the word meant in Vietnamese. It is also important to note that for the first word, the teacher asked for the 'Vietnamese meaning', whereas for the next word, the teacher only said 'Meaning, please', but this still induced the students to offer Vietnamese equivalents. Classroom observation of other episodes also supported the conclusion that when the teacher asked for the meaning of a term in such a way, what she expected, and what the students provided, was a translation of that term into Vietnamese.

From the above conversation, it can be ascertained that the teacher's acceptance move did not stand on its own but was delivered in combination with another move – a comment move seeking a Vietnamese equivalent of the English term. This was a vocabulary revision exercise; thus, all the words had been learnt in the previous lesson. In fact, the teacher might have stopped at the point when the students offered the correct antonyms, because the students had demonstrated that they remembered what they had learnt. However, in this case, in addition to accepting the students' answers, the teacher appeared to want to consolidate the knowledge that had been acquired by the students. It appeared that what she was interested in was ensuring that the students knew (and this may have meant that they understood) what the word meant in their mother tongue. Thus, the overall focus of the whole conversation was not on the teacher's acceptance move but on her requesting a Vietnamese equivalent. In other words, the acceptance move – a low prospective move – when being used in conjunction with a high prospective move such as a comment – appears to make it more likely that the exchange becomes a dialogue and offer increased opportunities for students to contribute.

5.3.2 Vocabulary checking episodes.

Because it was specified in the course guide that students were to complete all vocabulary exercises in a new lesson before going to class, sometimes Hoa checked whether her students had done this even before she taught them the new lesson. In the

following extract, Hoa conducted a guessing game, in which the students were divided into two teams, with one representative for each team. The representative, without looking at the word on the board (written by the teacher) had to guess the word based on her peers' description. All of these words belonged to the new lessons and were not taught in the class before.

Extract 5.2

The word on the board was 'recession'. The students sitting down were explaining the meaning of the word by reading the definition of the word in the book to their representatives. Vy and Cam were representatives of team A and team B respectively.

1	Vy	Recession /rɪˈʃɛʃən/		
2	T	**Okay, this one, so team… Vy, okay. That's correct.**	Acceptance	
3		**What does this mean by recession?**	+Meaning	High
4		So we have two teams - A and B. So okay, A, okay, you have one point. It's correct		
5	Vy	Recession means a period of time a person or a company…eh…eh…is…is…stock or…don't grow their profit.		
6	T	**Don't grow profit.**	Acceptance/ Repeat	
7		**Okay, in Vietnamese, how do you say this?**	+ Translation	High
8	Vy	Khủng hoảng (crisis)		
9	T	*(to the whole class)* **Is it khủng hoảng? (Is it crisis?)**	Clarification request	High
Vy comes back to her seat.				
10	Ss	No, suy thoái (No, recession)		
11	T	**Okay, thanks, thank you.**	Acceptance	Low
12		*(turns to Cam)* **Can you re-pronounce the word?**	Repetition	High
13	Cam	Recession /rɪˈʃɛʃən/		
Cam comes back to her seat.				
14	T	**Okay, come on, recession /rɪˈsɛʃən/, not /ʃɛ/**	Explicit correction	Low
15	Some Ss	Recession/rɪˈsɛʃən/		
16	T	**Come on, ok. So sometimes you see a term, another term with the same meaning, it is 'downturn'**	Connection	Low
T writes 'downturn' on the board.				

In this conversation, after Vy suggests the correct answer – 'recession'- based on what her peers have said, the teacher accepts her answer and asks her for the meaning of this

word (lines 2, 3). Upon receiving the correct answer, the teacher accepts it and then moves onto asking for the word's meaning in Vietnamese (line 7). This time, Vy translates the word incorrectly, prompting the teacher to ask the whole class (line 9) and receives a satisfactory response (line 10). Next, the teacher asks Cam to pronounce the word 'recession' again, and then provides an explicit correction because Cam has mispronounced it (line 13). The conversation ends when the teacher provides a synonym of 'recession' - 'downturn.'

From the conversation, it can be proposed that Vy succeeded in her role as a 'guesser'. Based on what her peers explained, Vy was able to suggest the right word, and she was also able to explain the meaning of the word in English. If the conversation had stopped at the point of Vy's English explanation (line 5), the response could have been deemed to be satisfactory, and Vy would have been assumed to have demonstrated an adequate understanding of the term 'recession'. However, when the teacher continued to ask Vy for a Vietnamese explanation, it became apparent that Vy did not know the exact Vietnamese equivalent, although the term she proposed bore some resemblance to 'recession' - 'crisis'.

On closer examination, there might be issues related to how this 'guessing game' was conducted. As the teacher stated to the whole class at the beginning of the game, she wanted to check whether her students had completed the vocabulary exercises at home and understood the meaning of the terms. In a later stimulated recall session, the teacher also said that '*The objective [of this game] is to check the new words of the students. I can check both the students who explain and those who are guessers. Those who had to explain must have learnt the word in order to explain it, and if the guessers could make a correct guess, that meant they had learnt the word at home, too.*' Nevertheless, when asked about the reasons for her requests that Vy – the guesser – give an English explanation (while actually she had heard the English explanation from her peers in order to give the right answer), and then a Vietnamese explanation, the teacher shared that she had more than one objective in the vocabulary game. What she wanted to check was *'meaning', 'pronunciation*' and '*word use*'. Regarding the meaning of the word, the teacher realised that '*I saw that the students only read the definitions in the books. That was why I felt that they did not understand the essential meaning of the words.*' This might be the reason why the teacher asked the 'guesser' to explain the meaning of the

word again. The teacher also conceded that she should have made all the students close their textbooks during the game, so that she could make sure they had a genuine understanding of the business terms, rather than giving explanation by reading exactly what was in their textbook. In addition, the teacher also shared that she asked for a Vietnamese explanation because '*In the future, when the students move to higher levels of their study, they will be taught business subjects in Vietnamese … If I do not teach them in Vietnamese, when they read news on the internet, they won't be able to compare and contrast.*' Moreover, the teacher said she wanted her students to understand a term both in English and in Vietnamese so that they could use both languages in later communication if they worked for a Vietnamese enterprise. In short, that the teacher asked the 'guesser' for both English and Vietnamese meanings reflected her intention to prepare the students for later study and careers. The teacher, then, did not have time to check the 'word use' of 'recession', but decided to check the pronunciation because that was part of her purpose when conducting the vocabulary guessing game.

Another stimulated recall session with the students confirmed the teacher's observation that most students did not have a full understanding of the terms. All the students said that although they had done the vocabulary exercises at home, they did not understand a number of terms. That they were able to complete the exercises could be due to the use of an elimination strategy, which helped them to eliminate the easy words and only deal with the remaining words. When a representative came to the board as a guesser, what her peers did was to read the definitions in the book, rather than provide any reformulation from their own understanding or knowledge. For those who came to the board, the fact that they could guess the correct word did not mean they really understood its meaning. One student, who acted as a 'guesser' in this game and made a partially correct answer (she could suggest the first half but failed to identify the second half of a term) shared that she could guess the first half of the word because '*I had had a look at the textbook before I was called to the board. So, when I listened to my peers saying the first few words of what was written in the book, I was able to recall half of the answer. However, because I did not really understand what it was, I failed to give the answer in full.*'

In summary, when the teacher asked the students to take the floor and act by themselves as the explainer and guesser, it can be said that the teacher provided an opportunity for

them to demonstrate their knowledge, and the teacher was supposed to play a very inactive role. In fact, she did not participate at all during the 'explanation' process. However, because what the students did was '*reading from the textbook'*, the teacher had to jump in and she delivered a number of follow-up moves with a high prospective level so that the purpose of the activity could be achieved. During classroom observation of this guessing game from the beginning to the end, there was evidence, apart from the term 'recession', that the students could guess the right terms, but failed to identify what they meant. In each of these cases, the teacher had to encourage further responses and then provide the meaning of the terms for the students. If there had been no follow-up moves from the teacher in order to ensure the students could obtain adequate knowledge, the students would not have been able to gain the understanding that they were expected to have.

Hoa spent a significant amount of class time to check whether her students had done the vocabulary exercises in the textbook before going to class. Typically, she would not let students have any time doing the exercises within the class time, but select the exercises and call on students to read their answers immediately. Below is a vocabulary checking episode which was conducted after extract 5.2.

Extract 5.3

In this exercise, the students were required to match words to their definitions.

1	T	Now we check the new words. Number 1 *(reading from the book)* 'Equal parts into which the capital or ownership…' it is…		
2	Ss	Shares		
3	T	**=Shares, okay,**	Acceptance/ Repeat	
4		**Khi em nghe từ cổ phần thì các em phải hiểu được bản chất của nó, nhớ chưa? Không em cứ nghe equity stake nó vẫn dịch là cổ phần nhưng em phải hiểu được bản chất của nó. Đây chính là phần góp vốn đấy. Cái phần mình góp vốn. Nó chia làm nhiều phần. Nhưng mà chia thì chia thế nào? Tại sao công ty này thì chia thành 10000 phần, công ty kia lại 1500 bao nhiêu phần. Cái phần chia như vậy hoàn toàn dựa vào cái license, tức là cái giấy phép kinh doanh, hay là cái charter, điều lệ công ty thì mới biết được chia bao nhiêu. Okay?** (When you hear the word 'cổ phần' you need to understand its essential meaning, remember that. The	+ Connection	Low

		word ‘equity stake’ is also translated as ‘cổ phần’, but you must understand its essential meaning. ‘Share’ means the amount of money that you contribute. The fund is divided into different shares. But how is it divided? Why is it 10000 shares in a company but 1500 shares in the other? The number of shares totally depends on license, the business license, or the charter of the company. Okay?*)*		
5		Tiếp tục, number 2, ‘a period of time…’. It is…? (Now we move on, number 2 ‘a period of time’. It is…?)		
6	Ss	Recession		
7	T	**=Recession**	Acceptance/ repeat +Connection + Meaning	High
8		**Or I say ‘downturn’,**		
9		**chính là thời kỳ gì đây?** (What period is it?)		
10	Ss	Suy thoái (recession)		
11	T	**Lần trước chúng ta có còn nhớ cái gì ý nhỉ, cái chu kỳ kinh tế business cycle không? Còn nhớ không? Business cycle ấy. Hay là economic cycle, lần trước đã học ở kỳ một rồi còn nhớ không?** (Do you remember the business cycle we learnt about before? Do you remember? Business cycle, or economic cycle, we learnt it in the first semester. Do you remember?)	Connection	High
Students mumble.				
12	T	Yes or no?		
Students mumble.				
T draws a business cycle on the board while saying.				
13	T	**No? Giống như** (It is like a) **product life cycle, okay? You also have four phase in a business cycle. The first is the peak. You know? Peak, like peak point, the second is the * peak, giống như biểu đồ hình sin ấy** (It is like a sin graph***)*. Right? We have the peak. And after the peak we have recessions. Then this one is the bottom, or we say trough, and this one is recovery, or we say expansions. And after the expansion of course it reaches the peak and the cycle repeat. Okay. So that’s business cycle**	Connection	Low
Following this the teacher spends one minute and ten seconds giving a description of each phase in the business cycle in English and in Vietnamese, during which she explained the meaning of ‘recession’ again.				

The conversation in extract 5.3 takes place after the students have played a game to check all the new vocabulary (extract 5.2). This conversation is conducted in a whole class setting; the teacher stands in front of the class and checks the students’ answers to

the six vocabulary items in the textbook. When the teacher reads the first question, all the students get the correct answer (‘shares’). The teacher accepts this answer by saying ‘Okay’, and then explains its meaning. The teacher then moves to word number two, and also obtains the correct answer from a student. She provides a synonym for the answer (line 8) before asking for the Vietnamese equivalent of the term. When the students give the correct response, the teacher asks if they remembered a related concept (business cycle). Upon receiving neither negative nor positive answer, the teacher draws a business cycle on the board and explains each phase in the cycle in both English and Vietnamese.

It appeared that the teacher played a very dominant role in the dialogue with the students. She led the conversation and provided a significant amount of extension, while the students produced very few responses. After the teacher asked the question, the teacher’s answer and the students’ answer overlapped (line 3, 7). It was likely that in case the students did not say anything, the teacher would provide the answers herself. Upon receiving the correct answer from the students, the teacher extended the discourse by clarifying the meanings of the terms and providing some extra information. It could be argued that she liked to provide the students with as much information as possible about the terms that were being learnt.

In a later stimulated recall session, the teacher was asked why she provided more information and explanation of the terms when most of them had been discussed and explained in the previous vocabulary guessing game (extract 5.2). The teacher said,

> ‘*I…I always want to provide knowledge. That means… I always want to make sure that the students understand the essence of a term. Many students that I have taught…They learnt about these terms in their first year…Now that they are in their third year but they still don’t understand what these terms mean.*’

When asked why she explained the word ‘shares’ again by comparing it to the term ‘equity stake’, which had featured previously in the guessing game, the teacher said

> ‘*I still wanted to make sure that the students understood the terms ‘share’ and ‘equity stake’. Although I had explained this before, maybe*

the students were still in doubt. So, here, I used the explanation in the textbook, which was written by native speakers.'

The teacher also reported feeling that the students did not understand the essential meaning of the meaning of the terms, even when they did the exercise correctly. What the students did was '*to read the definition in the textbook*'. This explained, she reported, her need to explain the meanings of the terms again to ensure that the students really understood them. Data collected from a later stimulated recall session with the students confirmed the teacher's concerns. All five students in the recall session confessed that when they did the vocabulary exercises in the textbook, they were able to do them correctly; however, they did not really understand the meaning of a number of business terms. They all said that it is necessary for the teacher to repeatedly explain the terms in Vietnamese. Phuong explained, '*When it is repeated, it is easier to remember*.' Ngoc added that although the students had played the guessing game, in which they had had to explain the meaning of the words to their friends, at that time, they only concentrated on how to win the game, and did not pay attention to what the teacher was saying. In the end, all of the students revealed that the extension of the discourse that the teacher delivered in that exercise was necessary.

The teacher also explained why she had decided to draw the business cycle on the board for the students and had reminded the students that it was similar to a product life cycle, which the students had learnt previously. She indicated that students needed to understand that the phases in the two cycles were very similar. In addition, she needed to prepare the students for a later listening exercise, explaining '*In a later listening exercise, there was a term 'early cycle equity', if I had not explained the term 'recession' and its position in the cycle, the students wouldn't have been able to understand why they had to buy products at that stage*.' From this, it could be argued that what the teacher was doing was to prepare for the next stage of the lesson, or prepare for future use of this business term.

The information that was provided from line 13, in which the teacher gave a detailed description of a business cycle, could be considered valuable because it expanded the students' knowledge. Nevertheless, in a later stimulated recall, all student participants shared that they had previously learnt a similar concept to this, which was the 'product cycle'. The product cycle consists of similar trends to the ones explained by the teacher

to illustrate the business cycle. Therefore, it could be argued that more learning affordances would have been provided if the students had been given an opportunity to demonstrate their prior experience, so that they could have compared the two related concepts.

In the following extract, Hoa engaged her students in a search for the best Vietnamese equivalent to an English term. She kept rejecting her students' proposals and turned to other students to seek answers.

Extract 5.4

This is a matching exercise where the students have to match the words provided in two boxes with a corresponding statement. The following conversation deals with statement 9, which is 'A group of rival mobile phone companies get together and agree to charge approximately the same amount for a range of services and packages.'

1		Number 9. 'A group of rival mobile ….', please		
2	Cam	Price fixing		
3	T	**Okay, price fixing,**	Acceptance/ repeat	
4		**It means…what? Tên là gì em** (What's your name)? **Có nghĩa là gì?** (What does it mean?)	+Meaning	High
5	Cam	Cố định giá (fixing the price.)		
6	T	**Ôi trời ơi, cố định giá. Cố định giá?** (Oh my god, fixing the price. Fixing the price?)	Rejection	
7		**Em khác có ý khác, ai có ý khác? Ai có ý khác nào?** (Another one? Any other ideas? Anyone have a different idea?)	+ Opinion	High
Students confer quietly with each other.				
8	T	**No, từ này cực kỳ phổ biến mà.** (This word is very popular.)	Prompt	Middle
T moves around the class.				
9	T	Thu, price fixing có nghĩa là gì? (Thu, what is price fixing?)		
10	Thu	Phá giá ạ. (dumping)		
11	T	**Phá giá mới chết chứ** (Oh my god, it is dumping)	Rejection	
12		**Dumping**	+ Reformulation	
13		Nào (Come on), Quy, Anh, Thao? Ơ…		High
14	Quy	Đưa ra giá. (Offering a price.)		
15	T	**Ôi.** (Oh dear)	Rejection	Low
16	Doan	Giữ giá ạ. (Keeping the price)		
17	T	**No**	Rejection	Low
T moves to the front and points to another student.				
18	T	Châu.		High
19	Thuy	Thỏa thuận giá ạ. (Negotiating the price)		

20	T	**Thỏa thuận giá**(Negotiating the price)	Rejection	
21		Hanh		High
22	Hanh	Đặt giá (Setting a price.)		
23	T	**Dàn xếp, dàn xếp** (Arranging, arranging)	Meaning + Exemplification	Low
24		**Em ơi em có xem cái vụ xì căng đan mà có Văn Quyến với cả đứa nào vào tù ấy nhỉ? Đấy là match score fixing, dàn xếp tỉ số trận đấu. Match score fixing, nhớ không?** (Have you watched the scandal in sports in which Van Quyen and another footballer were sent to prison? It is match score fixing, arranging the score before the match. Match score fixing, do you remember?)		
25	Ss	Có. (Yes.)		

This conversation is characterised by the teacher's repeated requests for another more appropriate Vietnamese equivalent of the term 'price fixing'. Previously, Thu has provided the correct match for the term and its definition. However, when the teacher goes on seeking correct Vietnamese meaning, it turns out that the students' understandings of the term vary considerably.

There were some notable features of this conversation. Firstly, except for the matching part (lines 2, 3), all the rest of the conversation was conducted in Vietnamese, and this seemed to be initiated by the teacher. At first, she used English (It means…what?), but then switched to Vietnamese (Có nghĩa là gì?). Although the teacher did not explicitly ask for a Vietnamese equivalent or ask her students to use Vietnamese in their answers, the fact that the teacher herself switched to Vietnamese may have acted as an indication that she wanted the students to use Vietnamese to explain the term. Following this, six students, in turn and nominated by the teacher, suggested a Vietnamese equivalent as a synonym to 'price fixing'. Their suggestions were all rejected by the teacher (lines 6, 11, 15, 17, 20, 23), including the last suggestion, to which the teacher did not provide a comment but instead provided her answer, which was different from what the last student had proposed.

On the surface, it can be argued that the teacher provided opportunities for her students to activate their thinking and suggest an equivalent. The students might have explored in their minds all the possibilities that they had acquired from their background in order to find the most appropriate answer. In fact, one student suggested a term which was

very similar to what the teacher proposed later, which was 'negotiating the price' (line 19), and this was also acknowledged by the teacher in a later stimulated recall. When the teacher opened the floor to another student in the form of an opinion request, this implied that the previous answer was not appropriate, and thus the invitation for another idea was being extended. Thus, as more students became involved, the expectation that they would get closer to an appropriate answer increased.

Nevertheless, it was clear that throughout this conversation, the students' answers varied considerably, from '*fixing*', to *'dumping', 'offering', 'keeping', 'negotiating'* and lastly, *'setting'*, with no indication that they were getting closer to what the teacher wanted. The students were free to express their opinions, but there was no support from the teacher in this quest for an exact answer as expected by the teacher. The teacher simply moved from one student to the next, after giving some indication of disappointment (*Oh my god, Oh dear*). She did not provide any clue or example to help her students to work out what she wanted. What she was doing resembled a 'guessing game' in which her students had to guess what was in her mind without being provided any guidance. In fact, if she had provided the example of score fixing (line 24) at an earlier point, it was likely that some students would have worked out the Vietnamese equivalent that she wanted, because the case she referred to was a very famous case in the Vietnamese sporting history. However, that example was provided at the very last moment, when the most appropriate answer had already been suggested by the teacher herself. Thus, it seemed that this type of follow-up move did not lead to better student involvement in terms of expanding their understanding or knowledge.

In Hoa's lessons, most of her acceptance move was distributed in combination with a comment move. However, in some cases, they were given on their own. Below is an example of repeated single acceptance moves, which were all low prospective moves.

Extract 5.5

This conversation takes place after the students and the teacher has gone through two previous vocabulary exercises in which most of the business terms have been explained thoroughly.

1	T	Okay. I will call some of you. Fill in the blank with the terms from part A and part B.	
2		Thuy, Thuy, number 1	
3	Thuy	Number 1 is recession.	
4	T	**Okay, it is recession, right? *(read the book)* 'There was a further downturn in the economy', in the economy.**	Acceptance/ repeat
5		**So it is downturn, it is recession, right?**	+ Connection
6		Hoan, number 2	
7	Hoan	On the stock market.	
8	T	**The stock market. Okay.**	Acceptance/ repeat
9		Tien, number 3	
10	Tien	Forecast.	
11	T	**Okay. It is forecast, forecast.**	Acceptance/ repeat
12		And number 4, who else? Xuan? Xuan? Xuan đâu? (Where is Xuan?)	
13	Xuan	Investment.	
14	T	**Okay, investment. Okay.**	Acceptance/ repeat
The conversation follows the same pattern for the next five items.			
31		And the last one, Diep	
32	Diep	Dividend /ˈdɪvɪdənd/, dividend /ˈdɪvɪdɛnd /	
33	T	**Oh, dividend /ˈdɪvɪdənd/?**	Clarification request
34	Diep	Dividend /ˈdɪvɪdɛnd /	
35	T	**Ah, dividend /ˈdɪvɪdɛnd /**	Acceptance/ repeat
36	Ss	Dividend /ˈdɪvɪdɛnd /	
37	T	**Ok. That's it. Good**	Appraisal

As can be seen, the same pattern is repeated for all of the ten items, except for a minor alteration with a clarification requests from the teacher for the last item (line 33). However, this clarification request does not perform the conventional function of asking for a clarification, because Diep already changes her answer to the correct pronunciation before the teacher initiates the request. In asking this request, the teacher might have wanted other students in the class to pay attention to the correct pronunciation of the

word ‘dividend’. That might explain why she repeated the correct pronunciation and waited for the class to repeat it before closing the conversation.

Regarding the level of prospectiveness, this type of conversation was unlikely to promote any explicit discourse expansion, because what the students suggested as appropriate answers were then accepted by the teacher with no further request for justification or clarification. As a low prospective move, acceptance is supposed to close the dialogue, thus leaving nothing more to discuss. In this transcript neither the teacher nor the students had any difficulty in dealing with any terms, and the students’ answers were ‘taken for granted’. If explored as a ‘stand-alone’, independent extract, perhaps this conversation could be criticised for minimising the students’ opportunities to justify their answers.

However, when examining this episode in the context of the whole lesson, the issues of a continued distribution of low prospective moves becomes more understandable. Prior to this episode, the teacher and the students had already completed a vocabulary guessing game and two other vocabulary exercises, in which all the terms appearing in this episode had been discussed. During these exercises, the teacher and the students had explicitly explained the meaning of all those terms in English or in Vietnamese, and translated a number of terms into Vietnamese as well. Therefore, the fact that the students answered all of the questions correctly, and that the teacher continually moved from one item to the next without clarifying the reasons for the students’ answer becomes more understandable. At this point, it could be inferred that the teacher’s acceptance of the students’ answers was an indication that that students’ knowledge was adequate in terms of the business terms they were expected to acquire.

A later stimulated recall with the students also revealed that by the time they did this exercise, all of the students had understood the meanings of the terms. When they were asked to explain a number of terms which were considered to be difficult and unfamiliar, the students were able to do so. This demonstrated that acceptance, as a single follow-up move, if distributed after detailed and explicit explanation of terms, could be an appropriate demonstration that students’ knowledge was adequate.

5.3.3 Opinion episodes.

Reformulation was a very frequent low-prospective move distributed during opinion episodes. This included the teacher reformulating what the students had said to make it more completely formed, or suggesting business terms to use instead of the daily life terms provided by the students. Sometimes, the teacher would repeat what a student had said to the whole class but in her own words. Below is an extract containing technical reformulation moves:

Extract 5.6

In this conversation, the teacher was asking the student to work out some ways to invest money.

1	T	Other opinion?		
2	Hop	Open a business to save money.		
3	T	**Okay, you set up a business, right? That is start up a business, right.**	Technical reformulation	Low
T writes 'set up a business' on the board.				
4	T	What else? What else?		
Hop keeps silent.				
5	T	You did not discuss. You discussed nothing in group, right? Thank you.		
6	T	Another group?		
Hop sits down.				
7	T	Hoai, Hoai		
Hoai stands up.				
8	Hoai	Eh…We can invest in gold.		
9	T	In?		
10	Hoai	Gold. And in immovable property.		
	Ss	=Gold		
11	T	What? What?		
12	Ss	Vàng ạ (gold), gold		
13	T	**Gold, gold trading, yeah, okay**	Reformulation	Low
T writes 'gold trading' on the board.				
14	T	**Are you a gold trader?**	Connection	High
Ss keep silent.				
15	T	Are you a gold trader?		
16	Ss	No		
17	T	**Em có phải người giao dịch vàng không? Em có chơi vàng online không?** (Are you a gold trader? Do you buy gold online?) **Online gold trade?**	Connection	High
18	Ss	*(laughing)* No		
19	T	What else?		
20	Hoai	Ah…immovable property		
21	Man	Sổ xố (lottery)		

22	T	**Sổ xố á?** (lottery?)	Identification	High
23	Hoai	Immovable		
T moves closer to Hoai.				
24	T	Excuse me, what?		
25	Hoai	Immovable property		
26	T	**Yes, it is this one?**		
T writes 'asset' on the board.			Technical reformulation	
27	Ss	Yes		
28	Hoai	Asset		
(Students suggest two more words and the teacher notes on the board.)				
42	Hoan	Invest…ah….we can send money in bank.		
43	T	**That's it. That's it. It is you open a bank account. It is bank deposit, ok? Though bank account. Các khoản tiền để ngân hàng, right?** (The money kept in banks, right?)	Technical reformulation	Low
T writes 'bank deposit' and 'open a bank account' on the board.				

Throughout this conversation, the teacher is seeking different ways to invest money from the students, and reformulating what her students have said into more fully formed terms or phrases. When a student suggests 'open a business' (line 2) as a way to invest money, the teacher changes it into 'set up a business' (line 3), and writes on the board her own suggestion rather than the original word suggested by the student. The next suggestion is a single noun 'gold', which is then developed into 'gold trading' by the teacher. Thuy then suggests the term 'immovable property', which is reformulated into 'asset'. Similarly, 'send money in bank' (line 42) is reformulated into 'open a bank account' or 'bank deposit'.

From the conversation, it can be seen that all of the students' answers were relevant and accepted by the teacher. However, the teacher altered the students' answers before writing them down on the board. Some of the students' answers seemed to be incompletely formed. For example, Thuy, uttered a full sentence 'We can invest in gold' (line 8), but the teacher was only able to hear to what she said the second time, and this time Thuy only said 'gold' and 'immovable property'. That might explain why the teacher changed the word 'gold' into 'gold trading' (line 13). For the other three suggestions, it was likely that the teacher would have liked the students to use business terms rather than daily expressions, so she replaced what the students suggested with other terms.

A later stimulated recall session with the teacher revealed that she reformulated what the students said for a particular purpose. In the case of 'gold' she said that it was not complete because *'How can it be understood? Must be something like 'buying' or 'selling*'. She added 'trading' to make 'gold trading' as a more complete statement. For the term 'send money in a bank', the teacher said she replaced it with 'open a bank account' or 'bank deposit' because the latter two terms are '*technical terms for banking.*' The teacher felt that she needed to reformulate the terms so that her students could learn the proper terms to be used in business English. The students also revealed different thoughts when reviewing this conversation. They recognised that the teacher used other phrases to replace 'save money in a bank' and said that they thought it was a more technical and concise way to explain the term in business English. Some had taken notes about these two words on their notebook. Therefore, the teacher's reformulation can be assumed to be an appropriate way of familiarising her students with business terms and this was also recognised and appreciated by them. Here, an opinion episode was somehow turned into a vocabulary development episode.

In her class, Hoa tended to play a very dominant role, and she kept talking for a very long time. This is an issue because it may have made her miss important information gained from the students. Below is an example in which a high prospective move was immediately followed by a sequence of low prospective moves.

Extract 5.7

Prior to this conversation, Hop has suggested that 'buy equipment' is a way to invest money. In this conversation, the teacher asks her to justify her answer.

1	T	**Tại sao em lại mua equipment, tại sao em lại mua equipment nhỉ?** (Why do you buy equipment, why do you buy equipment?)	Justification	High
2	Hop	Eh…just…a kind of charity…		
3	T	**What? A kind of property?**	Identification request	High
Hop nods.				
4	T	**Okay, property đó là tài sản, đúng rồi** (That's property, alright.)	Acknowledgement	
5		**But is that okay? Should we buy equipment and we invest it into some company? It is also a way. But then it is really risky. Okay? You have to, you have to be opposed to higher risk if you just buy equipment or machinery.**	+Personal opinion	

6	**Because you have to incur depreciation, có nghĩa là… khấu hao, khấu hao tài sản** (which means… depreciation)**. Em mua vào thời điểm này với cái giá 10 triệu một cái máy sản xuất, máy in, em góp vốn vào công ty, còn lâu nó mới tính cho em cái máy ấy là 10 triệu. Có hiểu không nhỉ. Theo thời gian mỗi năm nó sẽ bị khấu hao đi bao nhiêu phần trăm và sau này tài sản của em không những không có capital gain mà còn bị lose.** (You bought a printing machine at 10 million at this time, but when you invest this into a company, it will be estimated at a lower price. Understand? Then, each year, depreciation will occur at a percentage and finally you will receive no capital gain. Actually you will lose money.) **So it is not a good idea.**	+Connection	Low

In this conversation, it appears that Hop agrees with the teacher's reporting her idea as 'property' because she nods at this and does not say anything else. Then the teacher gives a detailed explanation of why investing in 'property' is not a popular choice among businessmen. Following this conversation, the teacher continues to explain that there are a variety of ways to invest into a company, but buying machinery is not a good option.

A later stimulated recall session revealed that the teacher thought that Hop proposed 'property' as a way to invest, and according to her, this was not a good form of investment. This explains why later, she gave an example to illustrate why Hop's suggestion was not a very good choice. On the other hand, the stimulated recall session with the students, including Hop, showed that what Hop had suggested was 'charity', and by that she meant this was not a type of investment, but something that enterprises should do. When asked why she still nodded her head and let the teacher go on explaining why 'property' was not a good choice, while actually this was not what she had proposed, Hop said that at that time, she did intend to say more about her idea of 'charity'. Nevertheless, because the teacher took the floor and moved into a detailed explanation, she decided not to explain her option anymore. Another student, in this stimulated recall session, continued Hop's explanation, saying that once the teacher took the floor, it was not easy to stop her, so she would let the teacher go with the flow of the lesson.

From the data provided by the stimulated recall sessions, it can be argued that Hop's nodding at the teacher's incorrect interpretation of what she originally suggested, may have been due to Hop's habit of accepting whatever the teacher said, or perhaps it was because she was not alert enough to react promptly. However, later, an opportunity to explain what she actually meant did not arise, due to the teacher's swift movement into a detailed explanation of why 'property' was not a good way of investment. The teacher's misinterpretation of what Hop had suggested could have been avoided if the teacher had asked Hop to give more justification or some examples to illustrate her idea. In this case, the teacher handled the case in her typical way, which was to provide extra information without requesting anything else from her students.

Although Hoa tended to talk a lot in the class, she frequently provided prompts to assist her students to express what they meant. However, in a lot of cases, those prompts were not taken up. Below is an example of how Hoa attempted to encourage a student to 'get her ideas out' but without any success.

Extract 5.8

In this conversation, Vy – a student – is invited to the board to give her opinion about five most important factors to get a job.

1	Vy	I think the most important is appearance, intelligence…		
2	T	**Appearance, intelligence**	Acknowledgement	Low
3	Vy	Qualification and personality.		
4	T	**Personality? Yeah, I'd like you to explain personality and how important it is.**	Justification	High
5	Vy	Eh…personality is eh eh..uhm how you how you eh, eh, how you work effectively.		
6	T	**How you work effectively? Is personality?**	Identification	High
Vy looks at her book and did not say anything.				
7	T	**Can you give an example, of personality?**	Exemplification	High
Vy keeps silent for three seconds.				
8	T	**Example**	Exemplification	High
9	Vy	Uhm, uhm…		
T turns to the class.				
10	T	**Beautiful, is it personality? Is it?**	Prompt	High
11	Ss	No		
12	T	**Active or passive, are they personality?**	Prompt	High
13	Vy	Yes.		
14	T	**You know extroverted and introverted, is it personality?**	Prompt	High
15	Dao	Positive and negative.		
16	T	**Positive and negative,**	Acceptance/	

		Or optimistic and pessimistic, it's your personality.	repeat +Connection	Low
T turns back to Vy.				
17	T	**So, okay, how? How important it is? Can you further explain personality?**	Justification	High
Vy keeps silent for eight seconds.				
18	T	**So personality, the whole class** *(turns to class)***. When we say personality, okay, we say something naturally, or something that you can learn from outside? Naturally means that it is your nature, so nature or learning from outside? Personality là cái bản chất, hay là cái em học được từ phía ngoài?** (Personality is your nature or the things that you learn from outside?)	Identification	High
19	Ss	Bản chất (nature)		
20	T	**Okay, nature, okay?**	Reformulation	
		So is it important? *(talks to the class)*	+ Connection	High
21	Vy	Yes.		
22	T	*(talks to Vy and the class)* **So if I know that it is your nature, you are very extroverted, and you are very optimistic, okay? So I may choose you, I may choose you, and I think this quality, or this personality is important for the job, okay?**	Amplification	Low
T turns to Vy.				
23		**Okay, thank you.**		

After being invited to the board, Vy expresses her opinion that 'appearance', 'intelligence', 'qualification' and 'personality' are the most important factors to get a job. The teacher then asks for her justification for why 'personality' is important. Vy proposes that 'personality' refers to 'how you work effectively' (line 6). After asking an identification request to which Vy fails to respond, the teacher asks her to give an example of 'personality'. However, Vy is unable to do so. The conversation concludes with the teacher giving examples of some characteristics that can be considered to be aspects of personality and explaining how important personality may be when a person applies for a job. Vy, literally, provides no further contribution and is then sent back to her seat.

As can be seen, the teacher firstly demonstrated her determination to get Vy's justification for her answer. This was visible in her patience in waiting for Vy's answer

– three seconds when asking for examples (line 7-8), and eight second for a justification (lines 17-18). When Vy failed to provide any examples, the teacher suggested a number of characteristics as examples of ‘personality’. Her action could be seen as an effective way of helping her students understand this word better, given that one student in the class proposed ‘positive and negative’ as examples, and Vy’s confirmation ‘Yes’ to two examples suggested by the teacher (line 13). When it seemed that everyone had understood what ‘personality’ meant, the teacher went back to Vy and asked her to explain why she thought it was important. At this point, given that it was Vy who had proposed ‘personality’ as one of the most important factors to get a job, she should have been able to explain why. However, Vy still failed to do so. After waiting for quite a long time (8 seconds) without getting any response, the teacher decided to give her own explanation (line 18, 22).

In this interchange, the teacher worked hard to provide opportunities for Vy to express her opinion. When Vy was unable to do this at the first attempt, the teacher had repeatedly provided extra support so that the student could understand the issue better. However, it seemed that Vy still failed to activate her thinking despite the teacher’s support. This student was called after she had had a discussion with her peers about what factors were important for getting a job. However, it could be that during the discussion time, she did not spend any time discussing the issue with her friends, and therefore had nothing to say, or perhaps she simply did not have enough knowledge and language skill to express what she wanted to say. In sociocultural terms, it could be argued that what the teacher provided was not within this student’s zone of proximal development. Thus, she was unable to take up the learning opportunities that had been provided for her.

While it remains unclear why Vy failed to provide support to her argument despite the fact that she had received a great amount of assistance from the teacher, a broader view of all the observed lessons revealed that this failure might be attributed to how the teacher normally handled similar situations in the class. In fact, this exchange was a very rare moment in which the teacher was consistent in encouraging her students to explain what they meant. In most classroom interactions, when students failed to provide explanations, it was the teacher who would propose the answer for them after a few attempts. As can be seen in this case, in the end it was still the teacher who gave the

ultimate explanation of a proposal made by one of her students. It could be argued that it was this common practice of the teacher that created a certain amount of expectancy in her students that if they failed to continue their discourse, the teacher would always be there to 'do the job' for them. Thus, this student's dependence on the teacher for completing their own expression could be largely attributed to the way the teacher often managed classroom discourse.

When asking her students for an opinion, Hoa frequently tried to identify what they meant. The distribution of her high prospective moves seemed to open learning opportunities for her students. However, the extent and nature of these opportunities varied greatly, depending on how those high prospective moves were formed. Below are two examples to demonstrate the varied levels of learning opportunities which arose from the teacher's identification requests.

Extract 5.9

In this conversation, the teacher asks the student to suggest different ways to invest money.

1	T	Another way to invest, who can?		
2	Chau	Facility		
3	T	What?		
4	Chau	Facility		
5	T	**Facility? What kind of facility?**	Identification	High
Chau keeps silent.				
6	T	**A building? Or land?**	Suggestion	Middle
Chau nods her head.				
7	T	**Or what kind of facility?**	Identification	High
8	Chau	…machine		
9	T	**Machine? Yes.**	Acceptance/repeat	Low
10		What else? Another way?		

Extract 5.10

In this conversation, Hac – a student – suggests ethical activities of a teacher.

1	T	And…what else?		
2	Hac	Have to respect students' opinion, too.		
3	T	**Okay, have to respect students' opinion.**	Acknowledgement	
4		**Can you further clarify the word respect in this case, respect is what?**	+ Identification	High
5	Hac	I think they should listen to students' opinion and…		

6	T	**If a teacher listens to students' opinion, it means that she is ethical, do you think?**	Identification	
7		**You see, we have many cases. Have you ever watched some video clips on Youtube or the internet about the ill-treatment? Ill-treat.**	+ Connection	Low

The teacher provides a detailed explanation of how students could be badly treated by their teachers in the form of a monologue.

In extract 5.9, when asked, Chau suggests 'facility' as a way to invest money. The teacher then asks her to identify the kind of facility that she had in mind (line 5). When Chau fails to do so, the teacher offers two examples of facilities, before moving on with another identification request (line 7), and Chau is able to suggest 'machine' as a type of facility to be invested in. The conversation ends at this point and the teacher asks for another idea. In extract 5.10, after accepting the student's answer, the teacher asks for a clarification of the word 'respect', and Hac – the student – is able to provide a partial answer (line 5). She is hesitant and does not know how to continue when the teacher makes an identification request and quickly moves onto a detailed explanation of how students can be badly treated by their teachers.

In these two conversations, the teacher did provide opportunities for her students to clarify their ideas. In the first case, Chau was requested to give examples of 'facility', and in the latter case, Hac was asked to explain what she meant by 'respect'. However, it appeared that both students failed to take up these opportunities to develop their argument or provide more complete expressions of their opinions. Chau could not give any example of 'facility' at the teacher's first request; when the teacher suggested two examples, she only smiled, which might be an indication of her acknowledgement. It was only when the teacher again asked explicitly for her ideas that she was able to suggest 'machine'. As for Hac, she was able to explain what she meant but in a quite hesitant, and incomplete way. After suggesting 'listen to students' opinions', Hac did not know what to say. The teacher then ended the conversation by offering an opposite term – ill-treatment. The teacher appeared to be satisfied with what seemed to be very limited contributions from her students and did not attempt to pursue further interaction or clarification with them.

From a sociocultural perspective, it could be said that learning opportunities were generated in these two cases, in that the students were requested to clarify what they meant. Both students were able to provide extra information to illustrate their ideas, although their expressions were limited to only a word or an incomplete sentence. Without the teacher's request for more clarification, it would have been difficult to ascertain what these two students meant. Nevertheless, although learning opportunities were provided, these were very limited. In the first case, the suggestion of 'machine' was quickly closed by the teacher. This may be in part because previously, 'investing in machine' had been raised by another student as a way of investment, with the teacher responding that it was not a good means of investing. However, if the teacher had continued asking for more justification, the student would have had further opportunities to explain why she still selected this method. The same failure to give further encouragement was apparent in the exchange with the second student. It seemed that Hac wanted to say more than what she had expressed. However, the teacher, after asking for identification of her idea, did not ask or encourage Hac to speak more. Instead, the teacher moved on to a related issue of ill-treatment and closed the conversation with Hac. Therefore, it can be argued that in these two cases, although high prospective moves had opened up learning opportunities for students, these opportunities were quickly closed.

The following extracts provide two other cases in which high prospective moves were distributed in different ways, thus creating different levels of learning affordances for the students.

Extract 5.11

This conversation takes place after a group discussion, when Diep is invited to report her group's opinion of the statement 'You should keep your life totally separate from your work.'

1	Diep	…Keep your private life separate from your work to some extent. In terms that… You…Eh What decision can make you regret for the rest of your life that you should er… You should give your private life a priority.		
2	T	**So give your private life a priority?**	Identification	High
3	Diep	Yeah		
4	T	**So you think that we should separate?**	Identification	High
5	Diep	Yeah		

6	T	**So spend more time er… family life?**	Identification	High
7	Diep	Er… In some serious situations that er.. you cannot … it is more important than the work you will … You will regret.		
8	T	**Oh, I… It's not clear enough.**	Rejection	
9		**So who else in your group… can help?**	+Opinion	High
Diep sits down.				
10	T	Help her to clarify. Ngan?		
Ngan stands up.				
11	Ngan	We can't, we can't keep our private life totally separate from our work. I can agree that we should keep private life separate from your work but sometimes it's up to the situations that we can't we can't separate it and…*(smiling and touching hair without saying anything else)*		
12	T	**I want you to clarify. What else? Can you develop?**	Identification	High
Ngan keeps silent.				
13	T	**Now who can help her in the group? Nhóm Hoan and Thuy đâu?** (Hoan and Thuy group?) **Help her.**	Opinion	High
Ngan sits down. Hoan stands up and interacts with the teacher.				
21	Hoan	Yes, er. I think it should keep balance, all everything.		
22	T	Yeah		
23	Hoan	And… Not only private life, and work or everything. Because er if you er agree one side, you cannot er cannot behave in another side good.		
24	T	**Behave… in another side good? What?**	Identification	High
25	Hoan	Er. Example, for example…		
26	T	**Now, okay, I do not understand what you say – behave on another side good. What you mean?**	Identification	High
27	Hoan	For example if you focus on your work, you can't take of your children, your husband.		
28	T	Okay, yeah.	Backchannel	
29	Hoan	Your family. And if you don't don't er don't work hard you cannot have salary for your family. You have a lot of relationships and a lot of responsible, responsibilities.		
30	T	Ah, responsibilities.	Backchannel	
31		And		
32	Hoan	You work to raise your son, your daughter, and if you your emotion, *(look difficult to say what she wanted to say)* if your emotion, your sense, emotion is good you can work hard, and family can help them.		
33	T	**Okay, you have some points, I see your points.**	Acknowledgement	Low

After this, the teacher broadcasts Hoan's idea to the whole class, and then closes the discussion by stating that the priority a person gives to work and family life may vary, depending on different situations.

This conversation is characterised by the teacher's continuous provision of high prospective follow-up moves. Diep and Ngan both fail to clarify what they mean when the teacher asked them to (lines 2, 4, 6, 12). Hoan expresses her view that one 'should keep balance' (line 21). In explaining what she means, at first, Hoan fails to express her opinion clearly (line 23), which prompts the teacher to request an explanation (line 24). Hoan is about to give an example when the teacher interrupts and makes another identification request in a more explicit way 'I do not understand what you say…What you mean?' Following this, Hoan provides examples of how work and family can affect each other (line 29, 32).

A notable feature of this conversation was that the teacher was repeatedly seeking clarification of the students' responses, and support from their peers. As the question had been discussed in a group of students, it was expected that the group members should have contributed something to the discussion. Thus, the teacher's request for ideas from different group members was reasonable. In the conversation with the first student, it seemed that Diep's response was very confusing. Although she had explicitly stated that private life should be given priority (line 1), and kept giving positive confirmation to the teacher's identification requests, her last response was confusing. The teacher, at this point, decided to close the conversation with Diep and invited another student to share her opinion. It could be argued that the teacher's identification requests provided Diep with an opportunity to express her opinion, but the teacher's request only gave Diep a chance to say 'Yes' or 'No' and did not give her the option of giving a clearer explanation. Ngan, the next student in the group, was able to express her idea in a more complete sentence, but her response was difficult to understand because the expression itself was a combination of two opposite viewpoints: she thought that one 'should separate' work and private life, but 'sometimes it is impossible'. Perhaps because of the difficulty in handling these two opposing points of view, she was unable to clarify this opinion. The teacher, as with the first case, decided to close the conversation. Maybe more information could have been obtained if the teacher had really listened to the student and had attempted to elicit answers from the other students. For example, rather than leaving Ngan's answer with two contradicting ideas, the teacher might have simply separated it into two separate sides and asked a question such as 'Why do you think you should separate?' or 'Can you give me an

example of situations when people can't separate?' Unpacking the student's suggestion in this way was more likely to create an opportunity for clearer justification. With the third student, the teacher did the same as she had with the first two: she did not unpack the student's suggestion, but still pushed for clarification. However, Hoan seemed to have prepared examples to clarify her idea, and was able to explain. It should be noticed that what the teacher asked was not 'give me an example', but only 'can you explain?' Nevertheless, Hoan seemed to have been successful in justifying her opinion by providing appropriate examples.

Judging from the conversations with three students, it is clear that the follow-up moves that the teacher used were the same for all three. The teacher asked for identification without simplifying or breaking down the students' suggestions into less complicated parts. However, while the first two students were unable to provide any further explanation, justification or examples, the third student managed to do so. Thus, it can be said that the same follow-up move might work with some students but fail to be effective for others. In other words, in order to successfully support all the students, there must be changes in the teacher's follow up moves depending on the individual student.

Below is another example in which a number of high prospective moves were used flexibly by the teacher.

Extract 5.12

This conversation takes place after a group discussion. The students from one group are invited to give their opinion about the statement 'At work, performance is more important than appearance.'

1	Hop	After our discussion, we think that the performance is more important than appearance.		
2	T	**Oh yes, why?**	Justification	High
3	Hop	Eh…We think that the performance include many factors er such as the skills, the experience, the maybe include the appearance. And…		
4	T	**Performance may include appearance? Really? How performance may…why?**	Justification	High
5	Hop	Eh…We think that if you are have a…		
6	T	**If you are have or just if you have?**	Counter	
7		**If you have, okay.**	+Correction	Low
8	Hop	…a good performance, this means that you also have a good appearance, in general, in general. And		

9	T	**Hello, appearance is singular form so you do not say a, not a good appearance, only good appearance, okay?**	Correction	Low
10		What else? Anything else?		
Hop smiles for a long time and looks around at her friend.				
11	T	**Why is it more important? Why? Why is it more important?**	Justification	High
12	Hop	Eh…eh		
13	T	**Okay, other members in this group. Can you help her? Thank you.**	Opinion	
Hop sits down.				
14	T	Eh, Loan, can you?		
Loan stands up.				
15	Loan	We think that performance is is… We think that performance is inside, and appearance is outside. If we have a good, ah, if we have good appearance but we don't have a good performance it will produce nothing.		
16	T	Yes.	Backchannel	
17	Loan	I think that.		
18	T	**You think so?**	Confirmation	High
19	Loan	Yeah.		
20	T	**But you have to develop your idea, right? How? Give me examples, ok?**	Exemplification	
21		**In which position performance is more important than appearance, and in which position appearance is more important than performance… Or do you think that in any position performance is more important?**	+Identification	High
Loan looks around and then sits down.				
22	T	Ok, Cam, you want to add something?		
Cam stands up.				
23	Cam	I have some ideas. In general, performance is more important than appearance. But you eh interview for a designer position I think that appearance is very important.		
24	T	**Designer? Or model?**	Identification	High
One of Cam's peers turns back and says to her 'model'.				
25	T	**Designer. Người thiết kế hay là cái thằng người mẫu?** (Designer or model?)	Identification	High
Some students say 'model'.				
Cam laughs.				
26	Cam	Designer is very important.		
27	T	**Ah, designer is very important…**	Acknowledgment	Low
28	Cam	If you wear so nice and show your stylish, show your type of…gu thẩm mỹ ấy (taste).		
29	T	**Taste, your taste**	Reformula	Low

			tion	
30	Cam	Ah…. Or… The when… the appearance will show your… ability to design a good … clothes.		
31	T	**Ah…You can show…Individual appearance, okay? The way you dress show your style?**	Confirmation	High
Cam nods her head.				
32	T	**It means that you can be a good designer.**	Acceptance	Low
Cam nods her head.				
33	T	Anything else?		
34	Cam	*(laughing)* That's all.		
35	T	**That's all?**	Identification	
36		**Okay. Thank you, a good example.**	+Appraisal	Low

In this extract, Hop is the first student to present her opinion. She suggests a number of factors to be included in 'performance' (line 3) and is about to say something when the teacher interrupts to ask for the justification of the last aspect – how can performance include appearance. Hop's next response contains a grammatical mistake 'If you are have', which is then corrected by the teacher explicitly (line 7). Hop then, continues her sentence, and the teacher again interrupts to correct another grammatical issue - 'appearance' does not to go with 'a' (line 9). Then, the teacher asks Hop to give more justification, but Hop is unable to suggest any more ideas. The teacher, then, asks Loan, a student in the same group as Hop, to give her opinion. Loan is able to state her idea in two sentences. At her first attempt, Loan makes the same mistake as Hop, saying 'a good (appearance)' but then quickly corrected herself by saying 'good appearance'. After that, the teacher asks her to develop her ideas and requests examples for illustration. However, Loan cannot add anything and then sits down. Regarding the third student, Cam, at first, states that she has the same opinion as her peers. However, she also suggests that there are some exceptions and then details those exceptions by giving an example. Her example is a bit confusing at first, which prompts the teacher to make an identification request about whether Cam is referring to a 'model' or a 'designer'. Then, Cam manages to clarify what she means.

As for the teacher, it appeared that she had provided consistent requests for clarification from the student. In the first case, her interruption of Hop did not lead to a clearer explanation of content, but was a clear indication that referred to language development. By explicitly correcting Hop's mistake, the teacher made other students aware of the

appropriate way to use the word and the positive impact of this intervention could be identified in the responses of students who followed. With Loan, the teacher provided much clearer support by asking a very clear question about different situations in which performance is more important than appearance. Loan's inability to answer this question may be attributed to the fact that she actually had nothing to say. In other words, the information was beyond her zone of proximal development. Thus, even with support from the teacher, she failed to say anything. Of the three students, it appeared that Cam produced the clearest explanation – that appearance is important for interviews. This was likely due to the teacher's pivot move in line 25, which provoked her to give a better justification.

Another feature of this conversation was the teacher's interruption for grammatical correction. Hop was interrupted twice with explicit corrections of her grammatical mistakes. The teacher asked her to stop, then provided a correction before moving back to ask her about the content of what she had been saying. When it was difficult to determine whether Hop had paid attention to this correction or not, because there was no response from her after the teacher's correction, it could be said that another student – Loan – might have learnt from this. In her response to the teacher, at first, Loan made the same mistake as Hop – 'a good' – but then she quickly corrected herself by saying 'good appearance'. It could be argued that it was the teacher's correction of Hop's mistake that influenced the subsequent self-correction of Loan. After all, the aim of the class was not only to build up business content but also to improve language competence. Thus, the teacher's correction was reasonable.

5.4 Perception of the Stakeholders

Hoa and two students were invited for final interviews. Tien was the student identified as having a low participation level, and Hoai was the one with a much higher level of participation.

5.4.1 Issues relating to the context of follow-up move distribution.

According to Hoa, she commented that this was not a business English course in its essence because '*English and business knowledge is not truly integrated. This is only a language class but the topics for the lessons are about business issues*.' In addition, Hoa felt that she did not achieve the objectives of this course by the end of the semester, due

to the '*very limited time'* that was allocated for the course. Hoa pointed out that there was not enough time to deliver the course thoroughly, thus students only learned '*on the surface'*. She shared, '*I never had enough time to cover everything [I was supposed to teach]. Sometimes I felt guilty because I could not cover everything for my students*.' Hoa also complained that her students' motivation for learning was very low, and that they were not interested in learning. As for her, she said that '*I have devoted all my efforts for my students. I have taught lessons with full of content knowledge. Maybe my students wanted to have games and funny moments, but I am not good at that*.' In fact, Hoa had quite a negative attitude towards the course. When asked to evaluate her satisfaction level for the course on a ten-point scale with ten equivalent to 'very satisfied' Hoa only gave a score of four, explaining that the course was '*unsystematic*' and '*lacking of focus'*. In addition to that, Hoa also expressed her opinion that sociocultural factors had a negative influence on the course. As she said,

> '*The Vietnamese culture is characterised by a lack of dynamics, leading to a lack of activeness. My students have been so fossilised with their passive learning styles in their secondary schools that they are not familiar with critical thinking or self-learning…There are abundant examples on TV, newspapers, Internet, social media, which are very familiar to them but when I ask the students they do not know anything. I think it is this passive culture, the lack of activeness, the habit of expecting the teacher to do everything that makes my students inactive.*'

Hoa also said that her students complained that the course was too difficult. She pointed out that '*my students are too young to be able to have a deep understanding of business issues.'* Sharing the same opinion as the teacher, both Tien and Hoai said that they had difficulties in learning this course because their business background was very limited. They said that there were certain business terms that they did not have any understanding of in Vietnamese, let alone English. As for Hoai, she said that she may have heard a number of terms but she could not understand their meanings thoroughly. Tien also stated that there were some terms that she had never heard of before.

When teaching the course, Hoa suggested that she managed to provide her students with the basic knowledge of each lesson, and she spent most of her time teaching business vocabulary. Hoa said that she did not focus on teaching grammar, but paid attention to

students' pronunciation and often attempted to correct their mispronunciation. Both Tien and Hoai agreed with what their teacher said, claiming that Hoa focused primarily on teaching business terms in each lesson, and sometimes corrected pronunciation mistakes of the students.

From what the participants said, it appeared that the biggest problem for both the teacher and the students was the students' lack of background knowledge in business English. Business terms in the lessons were quite unfamiliar to the students, and this prevented them from actively studying the course. That might be the reason why Hoa spent a great deal of time building up the business knowledge of her students. Classroom observation confirmed that Hoa was very keen on talking about business issues. She often provided a detailed demonstration of the meanings of certain business terms by providing a context in which the terms were used. Hoa was also determined to ensure that her students understood business terms by asking them to translate them into Vietnamese. In summary, Hoa felt that it was her responsibility to transfer her knowledge to her students.

5.4.2 Teacher follow-up moves.

Hoa shared that she often provided follow-up moves when her students mispronounced a word, when they failed to demonstrate an understanding of business terms, or when students expressed their opinions.

Although paying little attention to grammar, Hoa tended to correct her students' pronunciation. Hoa said that when a student mispronounced a word, she often asked for an alternative pronunciation. Sometimes she would invite another student in the class to pronounce the word. However, when there was not much time, she would correct immediately and ask the whole class to repeat what she said. Tien agreed that her teacher sometimes corrected pronunciation errors, but indicated that '*Most of the time the teacher herself corrected for us*.' Hoai, the student with a high participation level, said that the teacher only corrected pronunciation mistakes for '*important terms'*, and by this she meant those terms that could influence students' understanding. According to her, what the teacher did was typically '*re-pronouncing the words and making us repeat after her*'. Hoai also said that when a student made a pronunciation error during her interaction with the teacher, the teacher often corrected the error immediately.

In cases when her students were asked to explain the meaning of a term but failed to do so, Hoa said that she would implement different measures, such as,

> '*I often explained in Vietnamese, and then I provided practical examples to illustrate the meaning of a word…Sometimes I was giving an explanation in English but suddenly realising that my students looked confused, I would stop to explain in Vietnamese…I used Vietnamese so that my students could have a deep understanding of a term.*'

Apart from that, Hoa commented that she also reformulated students' expressions into business terms when possible, and made use of diagrams to demonstrate word meanings. She thought that the most effective way to help her students remember a word was to use examples and diagrams.

Sharing the same opinion as the teacher, both Tien and Hoai identified that Hoa implemented a number of measures to assist them in understanding business terms. As Hoai said, '*My teacher often expanded on a topic. She often gave explanation on what we were not sure about or repeated a term so that we could have a better understanding of its meaning.*' Tien agreed that for difficult terms her teacher would translate the term into Vietnamese, and then provided the meaning of the terms in English, and then translated the meaning into Vietnamese. Tien also agreed with the teacher that providing examples was the most effective way to help her remember a word because '*It was familiar to our daily life, and the purpose of learning is that we can apply it into our life.*' As for Hoai, she thought that the most effective way to help her remember a vocabulary was when the teacher used diagrams and antonyms and synonyms because the diagram made it clear to her when attempting to remember a word, and when she could remember a word's antonym or synonym, it was easier to remember the word itself.

Classroom observation revealed that Hoa used Vietnamese very often in follow-up moves, particularly when she felt that her students did not understand a business term. In a stimulated recall session, Hoa said that she always wanted to ask her students to translate business terms into Vietnamese so that they could be better prepared for their future careers. When asked in another stimulated recall session, some students agreed that the use of Vietnamese was necessary in their lessons. One student pointed out that once they knew a term in Vietnamese, it was easier to understand what it meant in

English. Another student suggested that knowing a term in Vietnamese would help students in their future jobs, for example when interpreting. Another student suggested that knowing the Vietnamese equivalent helped her remember a word more easily. In general, all of the interviewed students said that it was necessary to translate business terms into Vietnamese because sometimes they '*only hear the words but do not understand what they mean*'.

Hoa and her students were also asked about the difficulties that the students encountered when they were invited to give their opinion about an issue or a statement. Hoa observed that her students often lacked background knowledge and had nothing to say. In such cases, what she did was *'I would provide a sentence for the student, provide examples, listen and provide her with appropriate words, guide her how to develop her idea.'* Sometimes, when her students were presenting their ideas and failed to continue due to being unable to work out an appropriate term, Hoa said that '*I guessed the students' ideas and asked to identify if that was what she meant. Sometimes I had to provide them with more terms so that they would be able to continue*.'

Tien, the student with a low level of participation indicated that language was her biggest problem. She said that in many cases, she and her peers could not express their opinion in English, despite knowing how to say it in Vietnamese. She observed that,

> '*At that point, some of us could not continue. At that time, Ms. Hoa may provide some clues by asking Yes/No questions. She would skip the idea that the student was developing but elicit other related ideas. Or she would invite another student*.'

Hoai agreed with Tien's observation about situations in which the students in the class encountered language problems. She suggested that '*My teacher often asked a question related to our topic, or asked another question to expand the topic. Sometimes she would call another student from the same group to give the answer if that's the presentation from a group discussion*.' However, according to Hoai, the biggest problem in her class was that often they could not decide whether a statement was completely right or wrong. In those cases, she said that,

> '*My teacher often asked some extra questions to see what we thought of the issue, such as what the benefits of such an opinion were, what would*

happen if we had not chosen it, or she asked us to give examples. Sometimes she provided an example which was opposite to what we were saying in order to identify whether we really supported that idea…This helped me to look at the issue more clearly.'

In addition, Hoai pointed out that when the students failed to express their ideas fully, the teacher would ask them to provide examples to support their opinions. Hoai suggested that '*This helped me develop my ideas*.'

Classroom observation revealed that most of what Hoa shared and what her students had observed were appropriate reflections of what happened in the classroom. Regarding Hoa's response to her students when they encountered language problems, she rarely drew the class's attention to grammatical issues such as the wrong use of a verb tense, or incomplete sentences. However, she spent a significant amount of time on pronunciation errors. When teaching vocabulary, Hoa appeared to be very keen on providing further information so that her students could have a better understanding of particular business concepts. She often provided examples in English and in Vietnamese to demonstrate the meanings of business terms; made use of synonyms, antonyms; and reformulated daily expressions into more business-like terms. Regarding the problem of how to help her students' express their opinions, Hoa had different ways to facilitate this process. Typically, she would ask them to clarify their ideas, but mostly in the form of 'pushing' by continuously asking questions such as 'Can you clarify?' Sometimes, she asked for clarification in order to get to know *what* the students' opinion was, rather than *why* they had such an opinion. In many cases, she would stop the conversation with a student and ask another student to give their view. Thus, the overall impression of Hoa's opinion episodes was that her students, in most of the cases, were able to say whether they agreed or disagreed with a statement, or which statement that they considered to be the most problematic, but failed to justify their opinions or preferences. In addition, when presenting their opinions about an issue, most of their expressions were very limited in terms of both language and content. In most of the cases, the students would only be able to develop their ideas in incomplete phrases or partial sentences. Thus, it could be argued that perhaps it was the teacher's usual action of moving on to a new aspect of an issue, or her tendency to provide her own opinion or

explanation at the end, that discouraged the students from trying to propose, justify, or give examples of, their answers.

In summary, the overall impression of Hoa's lessons was that Hoa was very dominant in each classroom interaction. She paid significantly more attention to the content of the lesson rather than she did to the language in this business English class. She tended to provide the students with abundant information related to what was being learnt and was the person who talked the most in the class. The students' contributions were primarily very short or incomplete, whereas the teacher's turns were characterised by very long, complex and detailed explanations.

5.4.3 Perception about learning affordances.

When asked about their perception of participation, Hoa and her students had similar opinions. They all thought that participation referred not only to a student' homework preparation or attendance in a class, but also to taking part in classroom activities such as discussing in groups, responding to teachers' questions, and presenting ideas. Hoa said that the students' high level of participation is important because it '*contributes to the success of a lesson. By looking at the students' participation level, a lesson can be judged as boring or interesting. If I can motivate and involve my students into class activities, it is an interesting lesson.*' Tien also claimed that participation helped a class to generate more ideas for discussion, and that participating was also an opportunity to express her opinion to the class and it was a right for students. Hoai pointed out that participation was important because it demonstrates whether they had learnt from what the teacher said.

From the participants' viewpoints, there were a variety of factors that affected the students' participation. According to Hoa, they included a student's motivation, his or her background knowledge, how the teacher organised an activity and other factors such as a student's health, psychology and the effect of his or her peers. Regarding the way a teacher organised an activity, Hoa said '*It refers to whether that activity is interesting and within a student's reach or not. If an activity is beyond the students' reach, they can't participate.*' Tien said that she would voice her idea if she knew about an issue. When the teacher clarified a term or gave examples about an issue, she felt more encouraged to speak. However, Tien was affected by the students around her if they had

loud private conversations. As for Hoai, she said that her contribution depended on how the teacher guided the discussion, the topic, and her peers

Regarding the teacher's actions when she asked a question but received no answer from the students, both Hoai and Tien agreed that what Hoa did was '*select a student to give an answer*'. Hoa also shared that low participation was very common in her class. She said

> '*Sometimes because of lack of preparation, my students had nothing to say. In that case, I had to provide the answer in a monologue. In other cases, if I found the topic interesting but a bit difficult, I would provide a simple but interesting example to encourage my students to participate.'*

Classroom observation revealed that when Hoa asked a question related to familiar business concepts, she often received responses from her students. However, for some difficult business terms, what she received was total silence from the class. In such cases, Hoa often gave her own answer to the class rather than scaffolding the students to reach an answer by themselves. As observed, in many cases, it was her tendency of 'explain everything' to the students rather than provide assistance so that they could do that themselves that created the habit of waiting for the teacher's answer.

Hoa's class included a variety of activities and different types of classroom interaction. The responses of Hoa and her students varied when they were asked about what the students had learnt from each type of interaction. When Hoa interacted with individual students, such as when she asked a student to present her group's idea on a given topic, she thought that other students '*did not benefit from this*' because normally the issue was not related to other students. She explained this was because she assigned each group with a different topic and there was little relation between these topics, so each group would only pay attention to what their topic was while neglecting others. Regarding whole class interactions, Hoa thought her students learnt from them because '*When I elicited and called some students, others learnt from that. In addition, a number of students would be able to recall their knowledge, express their opinion, and remember an issue better*.' As for group work, Hoa shared that if she assigned group work and let her students discuss issues themselves, she was not sure if they learnt anything at all. She said that '*It was not effective because I couldn't control the level of discussion of my students and did not know if they really did what they were assigned to*

do.' In a stimulated recall session, Hoa complained that she knew her students did not discuss the assigned topic but instead had a private chitchat.

Tien, the student with a low participation level remembered that monologues were most frequent when her teacher gave examples to illustrate business terms, and claimed that she really understood what the terms meant based on what the teacher said. However, Tien said that she did not learn from conversations between her teacher and other students because '*I only heard the conversation but I did not pay attention to it.*' Tien also commented that the teacher rarely asked students for opinions about topics assigned to another group. She said that lessons would have been more effective if the teacher had asked other students to share their ideas about what had been presented by their peers. Regarding group discussion, Tien said,

> '*We only began our real discussion when the teacher approached us. Before that time, we only discussed on the surface…It was not effective [if we discussed in the group without any teacher intervention]. After the teacher left, it was not as effective as when she was there because our discussion was affected by other factors such as private conversations*.'

Hoai had a different opinion to the teacher and Tien about the benefits of listening to conversations between the teacher and other students. She said that she could learn from listening to what another student said because *'[those conversations were about] a topic that I did not know.*' She said that '*If my opinion was the same as that student, I would understand it better. If my opinion differed, I would be able to compare that with my own idea.*' This may be attributed to Hoai's level of attention during the classes. During a previous stimulated recall session with five students, Hoai was the person who remembered what the teacher said the most. It could therefore be argued that whether a learning opportunity was taken up was to some extent dependent on a student's attention level. As for group discussions, Hoai said that they were more effective when the teacher intervened because without teacher intervention, her group only managed to discuss '*on the surface of an issue.*'

When asked to suggest the type of interaction that was most beneficial to students' learning, Hoa suggested that her students learnt most in direct interaction with her, such as when they had a conversation, or when she intervened in their group discussions. Hoai agreed, while Tien added that she learnt most from teacher interventions during group discussions, and when the teacher provided lots of practical examples.

Chapter Six: Case 3

6.1 Introduction to the Case

6.1.1 The teacher and the students.

An is a 27-year-old female teacher. She has been working for the university for three years, with one year teaching business English courses. An has a master's degree in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) obtained from an Australian university.

Regarding the business English program, An commented that apart from building the students' communicative skills, another important objective was to help the students understand specific business concepts by the end of each lesson. From her experience in teaching business English courses, An confessed that the most challenging issue for her was her lack of business knowledge. She shared that she had not been trained in anything about economics, thus sometimes during her teaching she focused on the development of the four language skills (listening, speaking, writing and reading) rather than on providing her students with content knowledge. She suggested that there must be some programs to provide teachers like her with business knowledge. However, An still felt confident when teaching business English because according to her, her students' business background was '*almost zero'*. According to An, the students' lack of business background was attributed to the secondary school curriculum in Vietnam, in which there are no subjects focusing on economics. Instead, students concentrate on other subjects such as chemistry, maths, and literature. In addition, An said that her students did not know anything about business-related information. She said, '*They do not know anything about a new tax policy or a new regulation, which made me a bit disappointed*.' An also commented that most of her students are quite reserved and often avoid drawing attention to themselves. In many cases, even when her students know the answers, they keep silent and do not speak until individually asked. An said that during her teaching she often applied the CLT approach in the form of organising group work and facilitating the expression of students' opinions.

In the class studied here, there were 21 female and three male students, all of whom were above 18 years old. Although many students were from rural areas, most of them had attended extra classes to learn English during their secondary school. Therefore, the

language competence of the students was not widely differentiated. All of the students demonstrated a positive attitude towards learning, following the teacher's instruction. However, the majority of them did not initiate questions or give answers except when called directly by the teacher. Additionally, although the language competence of the students appeared to be adequate, their background in business English was very limited. They often failed to connect the lesson's content with current issues in Vietnam or in the world. This was partly because their learning at secondary schools only focused on learning academic subjects rather than widening their practical knowledge about the world.

6.1.2 General classroom procedures.

An usually applied the same procedures in all of the observed lessons, with all lessons commencing with the students' group presentations of a theme learnt in the previous week. There were two presentations in each of the first two lessons and one presentation in each of the last two lessons, making six presentations altogether. During the presentation time, An did not intervene in what the students were saying, except that sometimes she reminded students who were sitting as audience members to be silent and to concentrate on what was being presented. At the end of the presentations, An often asked the audience for any questions and comments. After obtaining comments from the audience, An would provide her own comments, based on the notes she had taken. Most of her comments were related to the students' presentation skills, whether the content of the presentation had met the requirements, and any significant pronunciation errors that the students had committed. While giving comments, An would normally not seek a genuine interaction with the students, but deliver this as a monologue.

After the students delivered their presentations, the class would move to the theme to be learnt in that week, guided by the textbook, as An generally followed its recommended sequence. Firstly, she often asked her students to explain the quotation provided at the beginning of each lesson's theme as a way to lead into the lesson. Then, she dealt with exercises in the textbook that were often presented as a combination of vocabulary exercises and discussion questions. Although it was expected that all vocabulary exercises were completed by the students before going to the class, An often asked students to complete them during class time. She would then call upon some students to

read their answers and check them with the whole class. Discussion questions were often organised in the form of group work. Groups of four or five students worked together and discussed a topic. After that, An would select individual students (usually from different groups) to report their group's opinions to the whole class. During this time of interaction, An often requested these representatives to clarify or justify their answers.

After dealing with the vocabulary and discussion exercises, An would move to listening comprehension tasks, in which the students listened to conversations or speeches on a CD and did the listening exercises in the textbook. Typically, the students were unable to complete a listening task after listening to the CD for the first time. Thus, An often played the passages on the CD for a second or a third time so as to help the students to do the tasks. Then, when checking these listening exercises, she would pause the CD at certain points so that students could determine whether they had caught the appropriate information. Sometimes she provided additional information or gave explanations on difficult terms encountered during the listening process. Generally, the time devoted to listening comprehension tasks did not promote 'genuine' communication. Instead, the essential objective was that the students would be able to work out what was said on the CD. The fact that the listening passages were recorded with people from various language backgrounds, many of whom were non-native speakers of English, caused numerous difficulties for the students which led to the teacher repeatedly playing back the CD.

When time permitted, An would deal with the skills part in the textbook, in which students were required to practise structures related to business skills such as how to structure a presentation, or how to make an introduction in a meeting. This activity was often conducted in pairs or groups, followed by a short presentation from a student with very little interaction with the teacher.

The data used for this research focuses on the teacher's interactions with the whole class and individual students during vocabulary exercises and when students reported group discussion outcomes.

The following section provides both frequency analysis and qualitative analysis of teacher follow-up moves in this third case. First of all, the frequency analysis presents a

summary of all the teacher follow-up moves so that the most significant moves and patterns are identified.

6.2 Frequency Analysis

Because An's follow-up moves were not only distributed on their own but in combination with moves of another function, they are presented in two tables. Table 6.1 represents all single moves, and the second table presents the combined moves. In table 6.2, the prospectiveness of combined moves was determined based on the last move.

Table 6.1: *Distribution of Single Follow-up Moves – Case 3*

Category	Sub-category	Number	Percentage	Prospective level (%)		
				Low	Mid	High
Acknowledgement		**6**	**2**	**2**	**0**	**0**
Evaluation	Acceptance/repeat	71	24			
	Reformulation	11	4			
	Clarification request	9	3			
	Recast	9	3			
	Others	22	7			
	Total	**122**	**41**	**36**	**0**	**5**
Comment	Connection	17	6			
	Opinion	15	5			
	Exemplification	13	4			
	Meaning	14	5			
	Others	9	3			
	Total	**68**	**23**	**13**	**0**	**10**
Clarification	Identification	40	13			
	Repetition	8	3			
	Confirmation	1	0			
	Total	**49**	**16**	**0**	**0**	**16**
Justification request		**14**	**5**	**0**	**0**	**5**
Follow-up initiation	Prompt	16	5			
	Reformulation	11	4			
	Others	1	0			
	Total	**28**	**9**	**0**	**4**	**5**
Others		**12**	**4**	**2**	**2**	**0**
TOTAL		**299**	**100**	**53**	**6**	**41**

Table 6.2: *Distribution of Combined Follow-up Moves – Case 3*

Category	Sub-category	Number	%	Prospective level (%)		
				Low	Mid	High
Evaluation -Comment	Acceptance/repeat+ Connection	10	8			
	Acceptance/repeat+ Meaning	10	8			
	Acceptance/repeat+ Others than above	26	21			
	Others	21	17			
	Total	**67**	**54**	**39**	**0**	**15**
Evaluation - Evaluation	Acceptance/repeat + Appraisal	10	8			
	Others	9	7			
	Total	**19**	**15**	**15**	**0**	**0**
Comment-Comment		**8**	**6**	**3**	**0**	**3**
Evaluation-Other than comment and evaluation		**8**	**6**	**3**	**1**	**2**
Evaluation - Other two moves (Triple moves)		**7**	**6**	**2**	**0**	**4**
Others		**16**	**13**	**4**	**4**	**5**
TOTAL		**125**	**100**	**66**	**5**	**29**

As can be seen from the two tables, the frequencies of follow-up moves as single moves and in combination with another moves were approximately 70 per cent and 30 per cent respectively (299 single moves and 125 combined moves). Regarding single follow-up moves, evaluation is the function that was performed the most, accounting for over 40 per cent of all the follow-up moves. Clarification and comment were the next most frequent moves, constituting over 20 per cent and over 15 per cent respectively. Follow-up initiation came next at 10 per cent, and justification at five per cent. Of all the sub-categories, acceptance/repeat was singled out as the most dominant move, making up nearly 25 per cent of the total moves, which is much higher than the total number of moves in any other main categories except evaluation. The data showed that acceptance/repeat moves were distributed mainly in conjunction with vocabulary items, especially during vocabulary checking episodes. Request for identification is the next most popular move, standing at approximately 15 per cent. Regarding prospective level, low prospective moves accounted for over 50 per cent, and high prospective moves stood at over 40 per cent. Low prospective evaluation moves were the most common with around 35 per cent of all the moves. While all of the justification and clarification moves were at a high prospective level, evaluation functions were dominated by low prospective moves, and the distribution of prospective levels for comment moves were the most balanced. From Table 6.1, it can be seen that for approximately half of the

times following students' responses, the teacher would not ask for any further contributions. Instead, she would accept what had been said, or provide some information of her own. For the other half of the times, however, she would ask for more information based on what students initiated , thus requesting students provide more information in the form of clarification, justification or comment.

When taking the data in table 6.2 into consideration, of all combination patterns, the most frequent was that of evaluation in combination with another function, accounting for nearly 80 per cent of all combined moves. Evaluation-comment accounted for over half of the total combined moves, followed by evaluation-evaluation at 15 per cent. The most popular preceding move was acceptance/repeat, accounting for almost 70 per cent of evaluation-comment moves and half of the evaluation-evaluation moves respectively. In terms of prospectiveness, over 65 per cent of all combined moves were at a low prospective level, and around 30 per cent of them were high prospective. Of all the high prospective combinations, the dominant moves were evaluation-comment, standing at 15 per cent of all the moves. From this, it appeared that when receiving a student's response, for most of the times, An would indicate acceptance by repeating what the student had said. Then, she would extend the discourse by providing extra information by giving examples, connecting to another issue, explaining a meaning, strengthening an idea, or providing the meaning of a term. For more than one quarter of the times, An would ask students to provide further information to support their previous responses.

In summary, it can be seen that evaluation is the function that was performed the most, either in single or combined follow-up moves, with acceptance/repeat was the most used move of all. This means that upon receiving a student's response, An would typically evaluate it, and if appropriate, indicate acceptance of the response by repeating it. After that, in the case of single moves, An would close the interaction and move onto the next item or topic; in the case of combined moves, she would provide some comments, or give a confirmation by appraising or translating what had been proposed into Vietnamese. Thus, combined moves tended to entail more discourse expansion from the teacher than single moves. Pedagogically speaking, this might be an indication of more opportunities for learning.

6.3 Qualitative Analysis

Informed by sociocultural theory, each teacher follow-up move is examined in the context in which it was made. As identified in different classroom procedures, teacher follow-up moves with genuine communicative intentions were mostly distributed during episodes of quotation discussion, vocabulary checking, and student presentations following their group discussions.

6.3.1 Quotation explanations.

In the textbook, there is always a quotation printed under the theme of each lesson. This is often a quote from an economics expert, and is strongly related to the theme of the lesson. In two of the four observed lessons, An asked her students for their opinions about these sayings. The following extracts represent these interactions, during which a number of low and high prospective follow-up moves were utilised in response to what the students proposed.

Extract 6.1

An opens the textbook and points to the saying 'The key to successful leadership today is influence, not authority'.

	T	A saying here. 'The key to successful leadership today is influence, not authority'. Do you agree or disagree with this? Influence, not authority.		
2	Nhat	Agree		
Most students keep silent. A few of them talk to their peers.				
3	Kim	The key to …		
4	T	Can you speak more loudly please?		
5	Kim	The key to success…to successful leadership is influence others.		
6	T	**Ah, influence. That means you like to influence others rather than you use authority, or power to order them? Right?**	Meaning	
7		**And in the first semester, I think you learn about a word to talk about leaders. And do you remember the word? What is that?**	+Connection	High
8	Oanh	Charisma		
9	T	**Okay, charisma.**	Acceptance/ Repeat	
10		**Charisma, what is it?**	+Meaning	High
11	Ss	**Uy tín** (Charisma)		
12	T	**Chúng mình học rồi chứ, học rồi.** (We learnt this word already, already.)	Prompt	Middle
13	Ss	**Hôm qua**…(Yesterday…)		

14	T	**Hôm qua cũng học à? Charisma, uy tín, charisma, uy tín.** (Yesterday you also learnt the word? Charisma, charisma, charisma, charisma.)	Translation	Low
15		**Và tính từ của nó – charismatic.** (And its adjective is charismatic.)	+Connection	Low
16		**Tức là những người sinh ra đã có uy lực để có thể an ủi người khác.** (That means people who have the power to console another person since they were born.)[sic]	+Meaning	Low

Extract 6.1 is characterised by a descending order of level of prospectiveness, from high to low. The teacher starts the conversation by asking her students whether they agree or disagree with the saying in the textbook. Nhat expresses agreement (line 2) but this is not attended to by the teacher. When Kim starts to speak, the teacher turns to ask for her opinion. Kim expresses her opinion by repeating the saying rather than by providing any new information or argument (line 5). The teacher then quickly asks for a related term (line 7). Upon receiving Oanh's answer ('charisma'), the teacher accepts, asks for its meaning and then explains what it means.

This conversation appears to have proceeded in an unconventional direction. Conventionally, and maybe more logically, the teacher might have asked her students for their reasons or arguments to support their agreement. However, she quickly shifted to focus on the term 'charisma'. This was a pivot point that reshaped the original purpose of the conversation. From this point in the interaction, the teacher and her students shifted to explaining what this word meant, pulling themselves further away from explaining why the statement was appropriate or not. When analysing the original statement, the important word is likely to be 'today', which suggests there have been recent changes in the way people define successful people, arguably an important point for discussion. However, it seems that neither the teacher nor the students paid attention to this. The shift in attention from how reasonable the statement was to an explanation of the meaning of a specific term disrupted the logical flow of the conversation.

W hile it appears that the teacher's shift to the explanation of a term has prevented the class from focusing on the required task (which was to obtain students' opinions about the statement), it can be argued that the teacher gave the students an opportunity to revise a word that has been learnt before. That Oanh was able to propose the word the teacher had expected ('charisma') indicates that she had managed to find a connection

between the current lesson and what had been learnt in the past. In addition, the fact that some students managed to provide the correct Vietnamese translation of ‘charisma’ showed that the teacher follow-up move had provided them with a chance to recall a certain piece of knowledge. Thus, it appeared that while the students were deprived of a chance to provide an argument to support their opinion, they were instead granted an opportunity to recall previously acquired knowledge.

In addition to the above, it can be seen that while the teacher asked for her students’ opinions, she hardly gave them a chance to speak. For example, upon receiving Kim’s opinion, she did not ask for clarification or justification but switched to asking for another term, which was ‘charisma’. At a later point, although the students said that they had learnt the term ‘charisma’ the day before (line 13), the teacher did not attempt to ask them for its adjectival form (‘uy tín’), but instead she provided it (line 15) and its meaning in Vietnamese in (line 16). If she had asked for the students’ explanations, it is likely that she would have received a satisfactory answer as previously some students had given the correct Vietnamese translation of the term (line 11); and at this point (line 13), the students had clearly indicated that they had learnt the term just the day before. Thus, it can be argued that the teacher’s continuous provision of low prospective moves deprived the students of the opportunity to demonstrate the knowledge that they had acquired.

Extract 6.2

An asks her students to discuss in groups of three their understanding of the saying ‘Advertising isn’t a science. It’s persuasion, and persuasion is an art.’ After two minutes, she calls some students to stand up and present their opinion.

1	T	Hien, can you tell me how you understand this saying?		
2	Hien	I think ‘advertising isn’t a science’ means that science is a subject use….use…		
3	T	Hm?		
4	Hien	Bị áp đặt, hoặc là rập khuôn ấy ạ (To be supressed, or restricted, Ms.)		
5	T	**Ah, okay. People cannot repeat it. They have to be very creative. Do you mean that? That value advertising as an art.**	Identification	High

6	Hien	Yes, er you need creative and active. Và prasuasion [sic] /prəˈsweɪʃn/…là sự thuyết phục thì (means persuasion)… persuasion /prəˈsweɪʃn/…		
7	T	**Persuasion /pəˈsweɪʒn/, persuasion /pəˈsweɪʒn/**	Pronunciation recast	Low
8	Hien	…is necessary.		
9	T	**Ah, persuasion is necessary**	Acknowledgement	Low
10	Hien	…to persuade the customers to buy our productions, ah products		
11	T	**Okay, thanks. Very good idea.**	Appraisal +Reformulation	
12		**'It isn't a science' means that people have to be creative. Yeah, I appreciate that idea.**		
13	T	How about you, what do you think, Le? Can you speak out loud any ideas you have in your mind?		
14	Le	I think advertising is an art, not a science because advertising needs people persuade customers to buy their products.		
15	T	**But when you think of arts, what ideas do you have about it?**	Identification	High
16	Le	Advertising is, is… the way that the people persuade the customers so I think it can be art but persuade, persuasion is an art so advertising also is…		
17	T	**An art, too?**	Identification	High
Le does not respond.				
The whole class smile.				
18	T	OK, Kieu, can you share your idea with the whole class?		
19	Kieu	I think advertising is not a science but a persuasion and… also mean you need to make the customers believe on the cus… products and …they must have good impression with product image… so that your persuasion is very important. However, the science will have to… exact evidence.		
20	T	**Exact evidences** [sic]**? But in advertising?**	Identification	High
21	Kieu	But negative….		
22	T	**You mean that in advertising do we need evidences?**	Identification	High
23	Kieu	Advertising sometimes need some evidence. However when some evidence not true…		

24	T	**Okay, thank you very much. Các bạn đã có những ý tưởng rất là sáng tạo đúng không, như Hien thì bảo là** (*All of you have had very creative ideas. Hien said that)* **Advertising is not a science means that people have to be creative. You say that advertising isn't a science so people don't have to provide evidences for their advertisements. Cũng là 1 ý tưởng rất là tốt. Không phải là science thì không cần phải có minh chứng khoa học, có thể đưa ra một cái luận điểm nào đó, một cái statement là** (This is also a very good idea. It isn't a science means that there is no need to have scientific evidences. People can present a point of view, a statement like) **It is the best product but no one can prove that, or no one has the evidence for that being the best in the market or the market leader. Okay.**	Reformulation	Low

Extract 6.2 is different from extract 6.1 in terms of its relatively equal distribution of high and low prospective follow-up moves. Three students are invited to present their ideas, and then the teacher summarises in the form of reformulation to the whole class. Of these three students, it seems that Le is the one who contributed the least. Her first expression appears to be not clear enough, prompting the teacher to ask for identification. Upon receiving an unsatisfactory answer, the teacher decides to close it. Hien, the first student, explains what she means in Vietnamese (line 4), and then confirms the reformulation initiated by the teacher. She appears not to fully take up the teacher's pronunciation recast (line 6) but continues to finish off her sentence (line 8). As for Kieu, she manages to mention one feature of science, which is 'exact evidence' (line 19), and then this is corrected as 'evidences' by the teacher [sic]. The teacher then makes two clarification requests but when she realise Kieu cannot say more, decides to close the conversation and suggests the answer to the whole class by summarising the ideas of Hien and Kieu using her own words.

A significant feature of this conversation was that the teacher tended to identify what had been proposed by the students and reformulate it so that it became more related to the current topic. In her interactions with both Hien and Kieu, the teacher asked 'Do you mean' and 'You mean' as a way to identifying whether that was what her students thought. Hien did not ever mention the word 'creative' for advertising, but only stated that 'science' had something to do with 'suppressed, restricted'. However, when

prompted by the teacher, Hien agreed that advertising needed to be ‘creative and active’. The teacher’s identification request seemed to reflect what Hien thought and thus helped her to confirm her idea. Kieu, the third student, was able to partly explain one part of the saying, but failed to justify clearly the difference between advertising and science. The teacher did play a role in clarifying what Kieu meant. When Kieu mentioned a feature of science, the teacher related it to advertising (line 20), perhaps in the hope that Kieu would identify the difference. Then, when Kieu was unable to explain further, the teacher decided to make another identification request (line 22). Nevertheless, Kieu’s answer, this time, seemed to be a bit further away from what the teacher had expected.

In her interactions with both Hien and Kieu, the teacher had tried to identify their ideas, and it seemed that both students had somehow understood the statement in the way that the teacher wanted them to, but failed to provide a proper explanation. This is arguably the reason why in the end, the teacher summarised the ideas but used more appropriate words rather than those provided by these two students. Although this summary did not manifest exactly what the two students initiated, it was clear that it was based upon and related to what was presented by them.

Additionally, it is important to note that the teacher attempted to correct some students’ language issues. In the first conversation with Hien, she corrected the pronunciation of ‘persuasion’ (line 7), and in the conversation with Kieu, she changed ‘evidence’ into its plural form [sic] (line 20). However, it was unclear whether these students paid any attention to this recast, because Hien continued to finish her sentence without using the corrected word, and Kieu did not make any correction, partly due to the teacher’s immediate identification request. This might be typical of a business English course, where the content and language of a lesson are taught at the same time, and it is difficult to maintain attention and equal concern for both in the same piece of conversation. Here, it appeared that more attention was paid to content by both the teacher and the students.

6.3.2 Vocabulary checking episodes.

Vocabulary exercises constituted a major part of the textbook and were dealt with thoroughly in all lessons. Although it was specified in the course outline that students were responsible for doing all of the exercises at home, it seemed that not many

students in An's class had done so. An often gave her students five minutes to do each vocabulary exercise in class, either individually or in pairs before calling upon individual students to check their answers. Below are examples of these vocabulary checking episodes.

Extract 6.3

The students are asked do an exercise in the textbook, which require them to match the name of 11 different departments in a company to 11 activities. The studdents do the exercise in five minutes in groups. After that, the teacher calls upon some students to check their answers.

1	T	In 'human resources'?		
2	Le	In 'human resources', er … people 'train staff'.		
3	T	**People 'train staff'**	Acceptance/ repeat	
4		**Good, yeah.**	+ Appraisal	Low
5		Number four, you please		
6	Truc	In 'sales and marketing', people…people 'run advertising campaigns.'		
7	T	**'Sales and marketing', people 'run advertising campaigns'.**	Acknowledge ment	
8	Truc	= 'advertising campaigns.'		
9	T	**Do you agree with her?**	+Opinion	High
10	Ss	Yes.		
11	T	**Uh, marketing, advertising campaigns.**	Acceptance/ repeat	
12		**Good.**	+ Appraisal	Low
13		Hung, 'production'		
14	Vo	In 'production' people 'transport goods.'		
15	T	**Is it? Production, produce, transport goods?**	Clarification request	High
Students keep kept silent.				
16	T	**Do you agree with her? Is Vo giving the correct answer?**	Opinion	High
17	Ss	No		
18	T	**Be, er… Nhu nào** (Nhu please)	Opinion	High
19	Nhu	In 'production' people …er… 'prepare' bud…ah 'operate assembly lines.'		
20	T	**Ah, 'operate assembly lines.'**	Acceptance/ repeat	Low
21		**Do you have any ideas about assembly lines?**	+Meaning	High
22	Ss	No		
23	T	**Anybody knows about it?**	Meaning	High
24	Ss	*(inaudible)*		
25	T	**Now, in different companies you have mass production. And each department is in charge of one stage. Imagine about making a T-shirt.**	Exemplifica tion + Meaning	Low

> **Someone will be in charge of the sleeve, someone will be in charge of the body, someone will be in charge of the collar. Mỗi bộ phận một cái, một cái…khâu như thế, tay áo này, cổ áo, thân áo này. Xong rồi cuối cùng là ironing, luxurious ironing. Thì ở đây chúng ta có assembly lines, là dây chuyền sản xuất, trong đấy mỗi khâu phụ trách một…một nhiệm vụ khác nhau. Assembly lines, trong mass production, sản xuất hàng loạt. Chúng ta có assembly lines. Mass production, operate là điều hành đúng không? Production là chúng ta phải điều hành dây chuyền sản xuất.** (Each part entails such a process: sleeve, collar, body, and finally ironing, luxurious ironing. Here we have assembly lines, it means assembly line, in which each section is in charge of a task. Assembly lines, in mass production, mass production. We have assembly lines. Mass production, operate means control, right? Production means we have to operate assembly lines.)

For the first item ('human resources'), the teacher accepts the student's answer right away and moves to the next item. In the next item ('sales and marketing'), after repeating what Truc says, the teacher asks the class for opinions about this and then confirms the correct answer (line 12). Vo, who is called next, gives an incorrect answer for item three ('production'). The teacher asks for clarification and then asks the class for opinions. This time, the class rejects what Vo has proposed (line 17). Nhu is invited to give her opinion and manages to provide the correct answer. However, in response to the teacher's request of the meaning of 'assembly lines', she fails to give a satisfactory answer. The teacher, then, asks for the meaning and when receiving no response, she explains the meaning of this term for the whole class.

It is clear that the teacher used different ways to deal with each vocabulary item. For the first item, she immediately accepted Le's answer and praised Le by saying 'Good'. It seemed that 'human resources' and 'train staff' are related to each other so the teacher did not find it necessary to do anything other than accept the answer. For the second item, Truc also gave a correct answer. This time, however, the teacher did not simply accept the answer but asked the whole class whether they shared the same opinion. Perhaps on the surface, the terms 'sales and marketing' and 'run advertising campaigns' did not necessarily have a close relation, thus the teacher appeared to want to ensure all

students agreed with Truc. She then repeated part of the statement (line 11) and finished at the appraisal 'Good'. This appeared to be confirmation that the answer was appropriate. When comparing these vocabulary items more participation opportunities were provided for the second item than the first. By opening up the possibility for a different opinion (line 9), the teacher gave students the opportunity to express their own ideas, which might have been different from what had been proposed.

The last vocabulary item was incorrectly answered by Vo, who matched 'production' with 'transport goods'. The teacher's rising intonation at the end of her clarification request implied this was not a correct answer. Then the teacher asked for an opinion from the class, with more emphasis in the tone and in the way that she spoke. It was not as simple as 'Do you agree with her?' as was the case in the first item, and she also added 'Is Vo giving the correct answer?' Most students in the class disagreed with Vo, and Nhu managed to propose the correct answer. At this point, the teacher decided to ask for the meaning of the word 'assembly lines'; and it turned out that most students did not know what this phrase meant. It was the teacher's decision to clarify the meaning of a term – a high prospective move – that provided the students with an opportunity to demonstrate their knowledge, after which it was found that their knowledge was not as good as might have been assumed if one had based one's assessment solely on the fact that they had worked out the correct answer. As a result of the teacher's request for clarification she became aware of the students' lack of knowledge and appropriately explained what the term meant. It can be argued that the teacher's move of requesting the meaning of the term laid the foundation for further construction of knowledge for the students.

Although for most of the time, the students proposed correct answers to vocabulary questions during the checking stage, occasionally, they gave a wrong answer. The following extract is an example of how the teacher responded to an incorrect answer from the students using a combination of high and low prospective follow-up moves.

Extract 6.4

The students are required to choose the most suitable of the three given words to complete this sentence: 'Many companies use post and electronic ***slogans/mailshots/posters*** *because they can target a particular group of consumers at the same time.'*

1	T	Bạn Can bàn đầu nào. *(Can, at the first table, please.)*		
2	Can	*(reads the sentence in the book with his answer)* 'Many companies use post and electronic mailshots because they can target a particular group of consumers all at the same time.'		
3	T	**Electronic mailshots *(reads the sentence in the book)* 'Because they can target a particular group of consumers all at the same time.'**	Acknowledgement	
4		**How do you understand the word mailshots? Mailshots ở đây là gì đã nào**? (What does mailshots mean here?)	+ Meaning	High
Students do not respond.				
5	T	**Electronic mailshots, tức là quảng cáo qua email.** (Electronic mailshots, which means advertising via email.)	Meaning	
6		**Hay là electronic posters?** (Or is it electronic posters?)	+Counter	High
Students confer quietly with each other.				
7		**Phải là electronic posters thì nó mới có thể là target a particular group of consumers all at the same time.** (It must be electronic posters so that they can target a particular group of consumers all at the same time.)	Providing answer	
8		**Hay mình còn gọi một từ gì nữa?** (A similar word for this?)	+Connection	High
9	Ss	Billboards		
10	T	**Billboards**	Acceptance/ repeat	
11		**Cái bảng quảng cáo lớn ở đầu Cầu Giấy phải không? Gọi là billboards hay là electronic posters.** (The big advertisement board in Cau Giay crossroad, right? We call them billboards or electronic posters.)	+Exemplification	Low

In this conversation, Can fails to provide the correct selection from the three options. The teacher acknowledges her response and asks for the meaning of the word that she suggested (lines 3-4). After conferring, none of the students in the class manage to propose an answer. The teacher then provides the meaning of the term (line 5), asks a counter question with a different word and then provides the correct answer (line 7).

She then asks for a synonym to the correct answer and provides an example to illustrate it.

This conversation was characterised by a combination of follow-up moves at both high and low perspective levels. At first, the class was given the opportunity to explain the meaning of a term previously suggested by a student. However, it seemed that none of the class had any idea of what 'mailshot' meant, thus no overt participation occured. In the next follow-up move, although the counter question (line 6) was a high prospective move, it did not fully perform the function of requiring a response from the students because it was immediately followed by a low prospective move, in which the teacher provided the correct answer. It seemed that the students were given the opportunity to give answers but this opportunity was quickly shut down so no one could say anything. It was the teacher who did most of the talking and she herself provided the answer for the students at the end.

In a later stimulated recall session, the teacher confirmed that of the three words, she knew 'mailshot' was a new word for her students because it had not been taught before. When Can gave the wrong answer, she thought that she had to find another student to answer the question, and she also wanted to elicit the word 'mailshot' because she knew her students hadn't learned this word yet. However, she acknowledged that some of the students might have missed her explanation of the word 'mailshot' and explained the reason might be '*because I only spoke once*.'

Another stimulated recall session provided more insights into what was happening in some students' minds at this point. Of the four students who participated in the stimulated recall, Thanh said that before the teacher corrected the exercise, she had already selected 'posters' as her answer, explaining: *'when I go out on the street, I often see big posters, such as the two posters for Vina-phone* (a big telecommunication company in Vietnam).' Nhat said that like Can he selected 'mailshots'. He did so by using an elimination strategy, because he had never heard of 'electronic posters' or 'electronic slogans'. Le selected 'slogans' because she had been thinking of slogans which were written in electric lights on the wall, which seemed to be a reasonable selection based on her experience. Truc also selected 'posters' but her choice was instinctual, and she herself did not understand what it meant. Thus, it seemed that all students had made their selections based on their own experience, or instinct. However,

they were not provided the opportunity to say why they had made their selections. The teacher, when receiving Can's incorrect answer, did not provide an opportunity for students such as Thanh or Le to raise their voices; rather, she gave the answer herself.

Somewhat concerning, was the disclosure that the students paid little attention to what the teacher was saying at that time and none of them was able to recall what the teacher had explained about the meaning of the word 'mailshot'. Thanh, when asked, confirmed that 'mailshot' meant to send something by post, which she had learned before going to class; and Nhat shared the same opinion, saying it was '*probably something related to letters*'. Although what they proposed seemed to be appropriate, these students had ignored the combination phrase in the sentence, which was 'electronic mailshot'. Thus the term 'mailshot' no longer referred to the act of sending letters by post. In the class, the teacher had said this phrase meant 'advertising via email' (line 5), which was totally different to what Thanh and Nhat thought. In fact, three of the four students did not remember whether the teacher had explained this term at all, while Thanh said that the teacher did explain but she did not remember what was said.

In summary, although the teacher provided an opportunity for students to express their ideas to some extent, she only asked for clarification without asking for any justification. She did not ask the students for explanations as to why they selected their options. In addition, the teacher only provided a brief opportunity for students to speak because her wait time was not sufficient, so none of the students felt sufficiently encouraged to say what they thought. Finally, the fact that the teacher herself provided the meaning did not necessarily mean the students would ultimately acquire the knowledge she offered. The teacher's repeated use of low prospective moves which did not require the students to do or say anything arguably reduced the amount of dialogue that potentially helped building student knowledge, and this absence of the appropriate kind of interaction meant that the students did not provide any indication of whether they had learnt what they were supposed to learn.

During vocabulary checking episodes, high prospective moves were used frequently. The following extract demonstrates how they impacted on the generation of affordances for learning.

Extract 6.5

The students are required to choose the most suitable of the three words provided to complete each sentence.

> *2. Advertising companies spend a lot of money on creating clever **slogans/ poster/ exhibitions** that are short and memorable, such as the message for Nike: 'Just do it'.*
>
> *4. If news about a product comes to you by **word of mouth/ the press/ the Internet**, someone tells you about it rather than you seeing an advert.*

1	T	Uyen, number two, please.		
2	Uyen	'Advertising companies spend a lot of money on creating clever slogans that are short and memorable, such as the message for Nike: Just do it.'		
3	T	**OK, 'slogans that are short and memorable, such as the message for Nike: Just do it.'**	Acceptance/ repeat	
4		**Can you give me some more examples of slogans?**	+ Exemplification	High
5	Uyen	LG, Life is Good.		
6	T	**Ah, LG, Life is Good.**	Acceptance/ repeat	Low
7	Uyen	Toshiba, Leading Innovation		
8	T	**Toshiba, Leading Innovation, yes.**	Acceptance/ repeat	Low
9	Uyen	Suzuki, challenge……		
10	T	**Ok, some companies have different slogans over time. Like Cocacola, if you google, you can see that in different time they have different slogans, different messages to customers.**	Connection	Low
For the next item, the conversation proceeds in the same pattern as the previous item.				
21	T	How about number four, bạn Hieu nào (Hieu, please).		
22	Hieu	Word of mouth		
23	T	**Can you read the full sentence please?**	Repetition	High
24	Hieu	'If news about a product comes to you by word of mouth, someone tells you about it rather than you seeing an advert.'		
25	T	**Oh, do you think it is an effective method of advertising?**	Connection	High
26	Nhat	Yes, especially in Vietnam when people talking all the time.		
27	T	**Ok, give me an example for that? Have you ever bought anything or something that's only through word of mouth?**	Exemplification	High

28	Nhat	Uhm, not me. My mum does. Like the neighbours talking about .... about... like… a new type of…type of…for example, shampoo. And people talking all about it and then my mum...		
29	T	**Goes and buys it?**	Suggestion	High
30	Nhat	Yes, and try…and try it.		
31	T	**Ok, word of mouth.**		
32		**As you said, in Vietnam, why do you mean that?**	Justification	High
33	Nhat	Because in Vietnam people tend to gossip and ...		
34	T	**Yeah, tend to gossip each other about the things they use...**	Reformulation	Low
35	Nhat	Yes		

For the first item, it appears that 'slogans' is the obvious choice; therefore, the teacher asks for examples rather than initiating a clarification request or asking for an alternative answer. After a brief silence, the students manage to propose a number of popular slogans that they have known. It could be argued that the exemplification request (line 4) played a role in getting the students to explain the meaning of the sentence more clearly. That the students were able to give examples to illustrate slogans could be viewed as showing that they understood what this term meant. In a later stimulated recall, the teacher explained her action in asking for examples of slogans as '*a way to revise what has been learnt and to make the lesson more interesting*.' Four students, in a separate stimulated recall shared that they liked it when the teacher asked them to give examples because '*Examples are familiar to us in our life. When we go somewhere, we will remember the examples'… 'It will be easier to pronounce the terms, too*.' At the time of the classroom interaction, these students, although they did not say anything in class, reported thinking of other slogans such as '*Ideal for life'*, '*Lead to success'*, '*From an easy breezy beautiful girl*'. Thus, it can be argued that the teacher's request for examples provided an opportunity for all the students in the class to activate their thinking and recall slogans from memory, and this may have been a good way to reinforce the meaning of the term 'slogan' in their minds.

For the next item, 'word of mouth', when Uyen proposes the correct answer, the teacher asks her to read the whole sentence, to place it in context. After this, the teacher asks the class about the effectiveness of this advertising approach (line 25). In a later conversation with Nhat, the teacher consistently builds up the conversation with a number of high prospective moves based on what Nhat had previously proposes. First,

she asks for an example of this advertising approach (line 27), and second, she wants Nhat to clarify his reference to ‘in Vietnam’ (line 32). It appeared that as a result of this discourse extension not only did the meaning of ‘word of mouth’ become more clearly understood, but also, the student’s perception of his own culture became apparent, because he specifically identified ‘Vietnam’ as a context where that method of advertising would be effective. In a later stimulated recall, the majority of the students also shared Nhat’s opinion about the use of this method of advertising in Vietnam.

A comparison between the ways that the teacher dealt with the two items showed more opportunity for students to express their opinions in the later interaction. Although in both cases, students were invited to express what they were thinking, the first item only related to a recall of memory, while the treatment of the second item involved processes at a higher level of reasoning; in the first case, only expressions at a phrasal level were required, whereas in the second case, more complex sentence structures were sought. Thus, it seemed that high prospective moves involving reasoning and justifying create more affordances for interactive language development than memory recalls.

6.3.3 Opinion episodes.

Opinion episodes were quite frequent in An’s lessons and in almost every lesson, she asked her students to work in groups and then present their opinions about an assigned topic. The following extract demonstrates an opinion episode during which most of the follow-up moves were provided at a low prospective level.

Extract 6.6

The statement to be discussed is ‘What makes a great leader? Write down a list of characteristics. Compare your list with other groups.’ The teacher gives the students five minutes to discuss the question in their groups and then calls some students to report their answers. The second student called is Hong.

1	Hong	One of the characteristics…eh…some eh…some eh…characteristics of a great idea…ah, great leader, is a sense of director.		
2	T	**A?**		
3	Hong	A sense of director [sic]		
4	T	**Sense of director? It means like this?**	Identification	High
T writes ‘sense of director’ on board.				
5	Hong	Courage /ˈkaʊrɪdʒ/, courage /kaʊˈreɪdʒ/		
6	T	**Courage /ˈkʌrɪdʒ/**	Pronunciation recast	
7		**Courageous /ˈkʌrɪdʒəs/**	+ Connection	Low

8		**The whole class, do you know this word? Các bạn biết từ này không?** (Do you know this word?)	+Opinion	High
T writes 'courage' on the board.				
9	Ss	Courage		
10	T	Courage		
11	Ss	Courage		
12	T	And courageous /ˈkʌrɪdʒəs/.		
T adds 'ous', making the word 'courageous' on the board.				
		And		
13	Hong	Confident		
14	T	**Confident**	Acceptance/ repeat	Low
T writes 'confident' on the board.				
15	Hong	Emotional intelligence		
T writes on board 'emotional I'.				
16	T	**Uh, emotional intelligence, okay**	Acceptance/ repeat	High
17		**Or EQ, emotional quotient.**	+ Connection	
18	Hong	Conscious /kaʊʃɪəs/		
19	T	**Conscious. /ˈkɔːʃəs/**	Recast	Low
T writes 'conscious' on the board.				
20	Hong	Conscious, conscious. That's all.		
21	T	Thanks, do you want to add any more characteristics?		
Then the teacher calls other students to add more adjectives. The teacher corrects their mispronunciation (if any) and writes on the board. The class continue in this manner until there are 18 adjectives listed on the board. Then the teacher and the students both laugh.				
60	Ss	Kể hết cả ra rồi. *(We've mentioned every word.)*		
61	T	**Ok, all the positive characteristics we already learnt about a good employee, right?**	Summary	Low

The conversation commences following the teacher's request for the characteristics of a good leader and she receives lots of contribution from the students. Hong suggests five characteristics, each of which receives a different response from the teacher. For the first term, the teacher asks an identification request without requesting a response, and writes the term down immediately (line 4). Hong's next suggestion of 'courage' is mispronounced, which draws a recast before the teacher offers the adjective form of the word (line 6, 7). The third suggestion is easily accepted, while the last suggestion is also recast with the correct pronunciation (line 19), and the fourth item is connected to a synonym (line 17). Although each response is slightly different, the common pattern is

that students' suggestions are accepted with only minor comments. This pattern of interaction is the same with three other students until there are 18 adjectives on the board. At this time, the students laugh and the teacher realises that they have mentioned all the positive adjectives for describing a good employee that they learnt in a previous lesson.

An immediate observation of this conversation was that it involved the contribution of many students, which were quickly accepted by the teacher. When there were problems with language such as wrong forms or mispronunciation, the teacher provided a recast or correction before writing the words on the board. This episode is a rare continuous distribution of acceptance/repeat as follow-up moves because in most other cases these follow-up moves were not distributed continuously. Many students were given the opportunity to express their opinion because the teacher kept inviting students to add to the list on the board.

Despite the large number of words (18) listed on the board, it was clear that this outcome did not meet the requirements of the task, which had been specified in the textbook as 'What makes a great leader?' What the teacher had involved her students in resembled a vocabulary revision activity, in which all positive characteristics of a good employee were mentioned. After all, 'great leader' and 'good employee' are two different subjects. The reason for this failure to achieve the objective of the activity might be attributed to the absence of justification moves from the teacher. From the beginning until the end of the conversation, the teacher merely accepted her students' answers without once asking why they thought those characteristics were required in a great leader. The majority of the teacher follow-up moves were at a low level of prospectiveness and thus required no clarification or justification from the students. Even at the end of the conversation, when realising that the long word list on the board was not a satisfactory outcome, the teacher made no attempt to ask for justification.

In a later stimulated recall session, Phuong, a student, commented that '*At that time I was wondering why so many words were proposed…I mean… I thought we should only mention a few characteristics and then explain why they are important*.' Her comment was then followed by other students who said that although all the characteristics were positive, many of them were '*not necessarily typical of a leader*'. They said that it was not necessary to have such a long list. It was likely that the single acceptance/repeat

moves in this situation did not play an active role in guiding students to fulfil the requirements of the task. Although the students had lots of opportunities to contribute their ideas, they had no chance to explain why they believed those contributions were important. In the requirements of the task, there was a part called ‘compare your list with other groups’. If the teacher had asked each group to provide a limited number of characteristics but with detailed explanations, and then asked the students to compare their answers and justifications across different groups, the students would likely have benefited more.

In other cases, the teacher distributed more high prospective follow-up moves, which appeared to lead to more discourse expansion from the students. In the following extract, students were provided with visible affordances encouraging them to express their opinions.

Extract 6.7

The question to the student is ‘Which people in your organization have their own office? Do they have their own office because of: a) seniority; b) a need for confidentiality; c) the type of work they do?’ An asks the students to think of organizations in Vietnam, then invites some students to present their opinions.

1	T	Bao, do you have any idea?		
2	Bao	I think they have their own office because of a need for confidentiality /kɒnfɪdəlɪti/		
3	T	**Confidentiality** /kɒnfɪdɛnʃɪˈalɪti/	Pronunciation recast	Low
4		**In Vietnam?**	+Identification	High
5	Bao	Yes.		
6	T	**Uh, can you give me an example of that?**	Exemplification	High
7	Bao	Er…For example, a security		
T bursts into laughter.				
8	T	**You mean security guard?**	Identification	High
9	Bao	Yes…		
10	T	**Can we call that an office?** (smiling)	Identification	High
Some Ss shake their heads.				
11	T	**Thế là bảo vệ còn hơn teacher đúng không?** (So security guards have better conditions than teachers?) **I don’t have my own office, but they do.**	Connection	Low
Students laugh.				
12	T	Minh, any ideas? Ai thì có private office?		
13	Minh	Law…law		

14	T	**Lawyer?**	Identification	High
15	Minh	Yes.		
16	T	Er…What…Who else?		
Minh does not respond.				
17	T	So you think it depends on…on what…to have a private office?		
18	Minh	The…the kind of work		
19	T	**Kind of work?**	Identification	High
20	Minh	Yes.		
21	T	**Yeah… But maybe you are…mistaking something…You mean the office of lawyers…When they… like… They open a firm a law firm, right? And they have like… their own…their own business? Law business. Khi họ có cơ sở kinh doanh luật riêng thì họ sẽ có văn phòng.** (When they have their own law business they will have their own office.)	Correction	Low
22		**Tuy nhiên chúng ta đang nói về in an organization, trong một cơ quan, trong một tổ chức ý, thì ai sẽ có office riêng? Ở Việt Nam ấy, chúng ta phụ thuộc vào cái gì thì có?** (However we are talking about an organiszation, in an organisation, who will have a private office? In Vietnam, what are the conditions for having an office?)	+ Prompt	High
23	Ss	CEO		
24	T	**CEO**	Acceptance/ repeat	
25		**Seniority.**	+ Connection	
26		**Tu, can you explain?**	+ Justification	High
27	Tu	I think in Vietnam seniority is um…um…er…People have their own office because of their seniority. You can see that manager or, CEO, the or…president have their own office. So seniority…their position and promotion.		
26	T	**Okay, so if you want to have your own office, try to make good promotion, and then you can have one.**	Connection	Low

The conversation takes place between the teacher and three students, who were all nominated by the teacher. Bao, the first student, suggests that confidentiality was a criterion for having an office in Vietnam, and gives an example of a security guard. The teacher asks an identification question and smiles, followed by the students' laughing. Then she continues by calling upon Minh to give an answer. When Minh suggests

‘lawyer’, the teacher decides to explain the question more clearly (line 22). Tu then proposes that a CEO could have an office which is then connected to seniority by the teacher. The discussion of ‘office’ came to an end with the teacher’s comment that promotion is necessary to have a private office.

The theme of the lesson was ‘Organisation’, and it was quite clear that students had different ideas of the criteria which had to be met for someone to have an ‘office’. In fact, from what the students said, it appears that they proposed different criteria because they had different perceptions of what an office was like. In Bao’s mind, ‘office’ referred to the booth of a security guard (line 9), which explained why she proposed ‘confidentiality’ as a criterion for having an office. For Minh, her image was related to a lawyer’s office. At this point, it appeared that the teacher realised that her students’ perceptions of an ‘office’ were different from what she meant. This prompted the teacher to explain more clearly the requirements of the task and she then got her expected answer from Tu (CEO could have an office). It can be argued that due to the high prospective moves provided by the teacher, her students had a chance to explain their opinions more clearly, leading to an understanding between the teacher and the students about the meaning of the word ‘office’. The concept of ‘office’ was explored from different perspectives, before the teacher suggested the meaning which, to her, related most to the theme of the lesson.

It is also noteworthy that the teacher, while asking for opinions, still paid attention to the students’ language. She corrected Bao’s mispronunciation of the word ‘confidentiality’ (line 3) before moving on with the identification request. Similarly, when Minh only said ‘law... law’ (line 13), the teacher asked if she meant ‘lawyer’- which was the more appropriate form in this context. Both Bao and Minh showed no sign of taking in her correction, because there was no corrected response from them. In Bao’s case, she had no chance to provide a correction because the teacher moved on immediately, and in Minh’s case, she only confirmed ‘yes’ without repeating the correct word. However, what the teacher did could be seen to have provided an opportunity for all the students to get to know the correct forms of these words.

In addition to providing opportunities for students to express their opinions, in some interactions, An appeared to follow her students’ responses by implicitly providing her perspective on a certain issue. In these cases, although most of her follow-up moves had

a middle or high level of prospectiveness, it was likely that she wanted to direct her students' thinking towards her own perspective. Extracts 6.8 and 6.9 were examples of these moves.

Extract 6.8

The statement to be discussed is 'Are there differences between men and women as leaders?' Students have discussed in their group for five minutes and then An calls on Phuong to present her view.

1	Phuong	I think…I think there are some difference between men and women leaders...eh…eh… In my mind, both men and women have ability to be leaders. But in ability, I think men do this responsibility better than women. Because men are more decisive and… more dis…more discipline, disciplinary. They have more time to devote for their career.		
2	T	**Decisive, disciplinary, more time to devote, more devoted to the job because they have more time?**	Identification	High
3	Phuong	Eh…because, eh…as you know women have spend much time on their family and take care of their children and do household chores.		
4	T	**Ah, do household chores.**	Acknowledgement	Low
5	Phuong	And I think another factor is men has a …a good, a better health.		
6	T	**Ah, better health**	Acknowledgement	Low
7	Phuong	I mean the physical factor		
8	T	**Ah, physical health**	Reformulation	Low
9	Phuong	Because when they are a successful businessmen, they have to trav much		
10	T	**Travel**	Recast	Low
11	Phuong	Yes. And I think men is a better traveller		
12	T	**Okay, thanks.**	Acknowledgement	Low
13		**Do you agree with her? She thinks that men make better leaders than women. All of you agree?**	+ Opinion	High
Students keep silent.				
T looks at Nhat.				
15	T	**Do you agree or disagree?**	Opinion	High
16	Nhat	Agree		
17	T	**Agree. Anybody disagree with that?**	Opinion	High
Students keep silent for six seconds.				
18	T	**Well, the… what… the sensitiveness, or sense**	Suggestion	Middle

		of director [sic]**, or emotional intelligence, I think that women are good at that.**		
Students whisper to each other for five seconds.				
19	T	**But anyway men are still better?**	Confirmation	High
Students keep silent for four seconds.				
T keeps looking at the students and waiting.				
20	Nhat	Eh…Women sometimes make their decision, only sometimes, make their decisions based on their emotion.		
21	T	**Instinct**	Reformulation	Low
22	Nhat	Yeah, while men is less likely to do it.		
	T	Uhm		
23	Nhat	So I think men is more suitable to be a leader than a woman.		
24	T	**Alright. Okay, yeah, it is the fact that men have better physical health than women. But I think I'm not sure men are better leaders than women. Right? Đúng là đàn ông thì có sức khỏe hơn, physical health, là khỏe hơn thật.** (It is a matter of fact that men are stronger, having better physical health.) **Còn những mặt khác thì** (But for other aspects) **I'm not sure that men are better than women. But it is up to your opinion. I hope many of the…female students here will become leaders in the future. And you will be…eh…inspiring leaders. You will be encouraging leaders so that other female employees in your company have a chance to get promoted. Okay? Chứ không phải là chỉ có male mới được là get promoted.** (It is not necessarily that only males can get promoted.)	Personal opinion	Low

In this conversation, Phuong suggests her idea that there are differences between men and women and it seems that she is able to express clearly what she meant. Following this the teacher asks if everyone agrees and when the students remain silent, she invites Nhat to share his opinion. Note that in this class, Nhat is a male student who seems to be very open minded and often expresses ideas which are different to those that are considered to be traditional or conventional in Vietnam. When the teacher turned to Nhat, she might have expected that Nhat would have a different answer. However, Nhat also gives the same answer as Phuong. At this point, the teacher explicitly asks if anyone disagreed with Nhat, but the students are silent. Not withdrawing her intention, the teacher asks a number of questions as follow-up initiation moves, perhaps to imply that there are not many differences between men and women as leaders. She waits some

time for the students to express their ideas. Nhat, finally, breaks the silence to defend his previous position. He may not have realised that the teacher was seeking opinions to counter what Phuong had proposed. The teacher, in the end, supports the view that men have some superior physical attributes, but finishes by expressing her expectation that some female students would become leaders in the future.

From the discourse in the class, it seemed that all students agreed with the view that Phuong put forward as there were no dissenting views. When the teacher asked for a different opinion, none of the students gave one. Even Nhat, a student who was quite open-minded, also agreed with Phuong. The teacher had attempted a number of times to create more opportunities for the students to express different views, but the students only remained silent, or supported what Phuong had proposed. In this case, it appeared that the teacher was attempting to re-direct the students' thinking and gave them opportunities to think more critically and break away from conventional thinking in Vietnamese society, where men are often assumed to perform better than women in terms of leadership. However, it seemed that all the students in the class shared the view that men are better than women, thus these opportunities were not taken up, ultimately leading the teacher to have no choice but to express her own opinion on the issue.

The underlying reason for the teacher's failure to make her students think in a different way might have been the way she delivered the follow-up moves. Firstly, when she proposed some qualities that seemed to be more prevalent in women than men (sense of director [sic], emotional intelligence – line 18), it appeared that the ideology behind this was the stereotype that women are emotional and men are not. However, possibly because 'sense of director' [sic] and 'emotional intelligence' are quite unfamiliar to the students, they failed to react to them. Secondly, despite the teacher's desire for different points of view to be expressed, there appeared to have been no direct teaching or demonstration of women's roles as leaders. Hence, the students' fall-back position was the prevailing social view, due to the teacher's failure to provide sufficient background information. Had the teacher managed to provide some examples of women leaders, the students should have become more critical to this common viewpoint.

The stimulated recall session with the teacher revealed the reasons for her follow-up moves. Before calling on Phuong to contribute, the teacher had expected that her students would say that there were no differences and that women were as good as

being leaders as men were. The teacher found it surprising that her students had such a conventional perception of the issue. When mentioning some characteristics of a good leader (line 18), the teacher said that '*I am proving the opposite to what Phuong had suggested, that there are some aspects that women are better*.' Towards the end of the interaction, the teacher wanted '*to provide the students with a more equal view on men and women as leader. I think that they are both good leaders if given the same conditions.*' She also shared that she was born into a family which had two daughters, and her mother had been urged to give birth to another child so that her family could have a son. The teacher felt annoyed at this prejudice and had maintained that feeling throughout her life. She always wished to do advocacy work for disadvantaged women's rights. This revealed that follow-up moves can be driven by the teacher's own perceptions and experiences. In addition, the stimulated recall session with the teacher confirmed what had been presumed in the previous classroom interaction – that the teacher wanted the students to have less traditional points of view about the role of women as leaders.

A later stimulated recall session with four students, including Phuong, revealed a different picture to what might have been assumed in the class. Two of the other three students did not agree with what Phuong had proposed, and one of them said that she only '*partly agreed'*. However, these three students said that they could not think of anything to support their opinion, which was opposite to Phuong's idea, so they kept silent. As two of them shared, '*Because each time the teacher asked us, she often asked for the reason, so I did not want to say.*', '*I could not think of any argument to support my idea. I think that I will have to give an example of a woman who is more successful than a man, but at that time I did not think of any, so I didn't say anything.*' This, once again, emphasizes the necessity for more explicit teaching. After all, how could the teacher expect her students to think more critically about this issue when there wasn't any counter evidence presented for them to consider. The teacher's failure to make students overtly express an alternative opinion indicates that when the content of a lesson overlaps socio-cultural practice, values and beliefs, extra attention needs to be paid to how this is managed, particularly if the content contradicts prevailing ideology. The pivot point of line 18 could have been better supported.

Below is another example of an opinion episode in which An gave her perspective on an issue.

Extract 6.9

The students are given five minutes to select the two most unacceptable advertising practices among eight statements. After that, the teacher calls on some students to present their opinions.

1	Quynh	I think using nuti…nutidy /'nju:tidɪ/ in advertisement and comparing your product to your competitor's products are unacceptable.		
2	T	**Using nudity, nudity is unacceptable?**	Confirmation	High
3	Quynh	Yes.		
4	T	**Uhm, okay, because…Can you give me some, give me some more explanation?**	Justification	
5		**Các bạn nhớ là nói phải ít nhất 3 câu mà. Như cô đã dặn rồi mà. Câu đầu tiên đưa ra point, câu thứ hai giải thích, câu thứ ba ví dụ. Bao giờ cũng phải thế. Quynh nào.** (You must explain in at least 3 sentences, like I have always told you to do. The first sentence should present your points, the second is for explanation, the third is for example. It always works that way. Quynh, please?)	+Prompt	Middle
6	Quynh	Because…eh…I think using nudity /'nju:tidɪ/		
7	T	**Nudity.** /ˈnu:dɪti/	Pronunciation recast	Low
8	Quynh	Nudity /ˈnu:dɪti/		
9	T	**Nude**. *(talks to the whole class)* **Các bạn biết từ Nude chứ?** (Do you know the word 'nude'?)	Connection	High
10	Ss	Yes		
11	T	N-U-D-E, Okay? Nudity		
12	Ss	Nudity, nudity		
13	T	Nu – di – ty, nu – di – ty, nude		
14	Quynh /Ss	Nudity		
15	T	Nudity, nudity		
16	Ss	Nudity		
17	Quynh	Eh…I think…		
18	T	**Why isn't it acceptable in Vietnam? In our culture.**	Justification	High
19	Quynh	*(silent for seven seconds)* In my opinion, eh… I think nudity in our culture is unacceptable. *(silent for three seconds)*		
20	T	**It may have bad influence on young children, maybe, right? Because usually advertisements do not have PG signals, right? Parental guide. And they may watch those TV commercials.**	Suggestion	Low

21	T	**Do you want to say something, Nhat?**	Opinion	High
22	Nhat	No.		
23	T	**But I saw your facial expressions and I guess you are…maybe against her idea?**	Identification	High
24	Nhat	Yeah, I think…using nudity in commercials is quite normal these days.		
25	T	**Uhm, how?**	Justification	High
26	Nhat	It's not like…they take off their clothes and do something like … come to me, man. That kind of stuff. It's just they show their breast or …like… You can see it a lot in…eh… *(Nhat touches his chest and shoulder.)*		
Students laugh.				
27	T	**Shower gel?**	Suggestion	High
28	Nhat	Yes, shower gel and eh…maybe some perfumes…So I think…		
29	T	**Usually people just can see the back…of the actress.**	Amplification	Middle
30	Nhat	Yeah…and…Vietnamese children grow quite fast compared to other countries so…like…in…when they are six or seven they know…they already see people kissing each other so…It's nothing…much		
31	T	**Uhm, okay, so…Tức là theo ý em trẻ em xem những cái đấy cũng không việc gì cả đúng không?** (Okay, so… So according to your opinion, it doesn't matter if the children watch those advertisements, right?) **It's not worth worrying about it?**	Confirmation	High
32	Nhat	You know, I don't say about other countries' children but Vietnam children I think they grow up quite fast. Like…You can see they already know the stuff in their parents' room already.		
T and students smile.				
33	T	**What do you mean by that?**	Identification +Personal opinion	Low
34		**Okay, we'll stop here but I don't think...Yeah…I don't think people, or adults shouldn't pay attention to that. In fact they should pay a lot of attention to those kinds of TV commercials, those TV commercials. Nhat may be...like…is a little bit open minded, open minded, Okay? But, I think it's worth worry about the influences of TV commercials, of advertisements on children development. They do have influences, Okay? You can google it, maybe you can find information about that. Influences of advertisements, of advertising on children, on young children, yes, there is actually.**		

In this conversation, Quynh is first invited to give an opinion, and then asked to explain it. The teacher reminds Quynh of the structure that is supposed to be used when presenting opinions (line 5). However, when Quynh attempts to give the first explanation, she mispronounces the word 'nudity' (line 6), which induces the teacher to move to a detailed instruction on how to pronounce this word correctly. When the teacher comes back to the issue and asked Quynh for more explanation, despite the teacher's long wait time, Quynh fails to provide any details. The teacher then proposes some ideas to support Quynh's opinion (line 20). However, she soon recognises that Nhat is indicating that he does not agree with Quynh, so she asks Nhat for his opinion. Nhat's opinion turns out to be different from what Quynh has proposed, and he provides some evidence to support his argument. The conversation ends at the point where the teacher presents her own opinion, which is similar to what Quynh has proposed (line 34).

This conversation was characterised by a combination of low and high prospective follow-up moves, and a combination of vocabulary and content focus. The teacher's confirmation request provided Quynh an opportunity to argue in favour of what she had proposed. The teacher's next follow-up move (line 5) was a prompt and was supposed to be a guide for what Quynh would say next. It seemed that Quynh was going to present her idea when she was suddenly interrupted by the teacher who had noticed her mispronunciation of the word 'nudity'. Following this, a significant amount of time was spent on drilling the pronunciation of this word, and when the teacher returned to the original issue, Quynh failed to provide any supporting points. It could be argued that the teacher's intervention might have interrupted Quynh's train of thought. If the teacher had allowed Quynh to finish her expression in the first place, it was more likely that Quynh would have been able to produce a response based on the three-sentence structure that the teacher had proposed because this structure was still fresh in her mind. However, it appeared that Quynh was unable to say anything at her second attempt.

When realising that Quynh was not able to say anything, the teacher provided her own suggestion, but soon stopped when she realised that Nhat seemed not to agree with what she was saying. The next conversation with Nhat was full of follow-up moves at a high level of prospectiveness. It should be noted that at first, Nhat indicated that he did not

want to say anything (line 22). However, the teacher explicitly asked him for his opinion and because of this, it turned out that Nhat had a different opinion to what Quynh and the teacher had proposed. It could be argued that if it had not been for the teacher's persistence in asking Nhat, the class and the teacher herself would not have known about his different thoughts. In a later stimulated recall session, Nhat acknowledged that when he was called at first, he intended not to say anything, although he actually wanted to speak out what was in his head. However, because he was requested to speak, he did so. Thus, it was the teacher's sensitiveness towards a student's non-verbal actions, and her seeking for understanding of his point of view, that created an opportunity for Nhat to express what was on his mind, and this also provided an opportunity for the whole class to get to know that Nhat had a different opinion to the views already expressed.

The next part of the conversation saw the teacher's confirmation request, suggestion, and encouragement so that Nhat could express his opinion. Most of the follow-up moves from the teacher were of high prospectiveness, which impelled Nhat to continue clarifying his opinion. The teacher's action in suggesting an example (line 27) and providing a comment (line 29) encouraged Nhat to continue to express his ideas. Towards the end of the conversation, Nhat had a chance to confirm what he thought in response to the teacher's confirmation request by adding extra information which compared Vietnam to other countries. At this point, the teacher initiated another high prospective move (line 33), but immediately closed it down and presented her own idea. It was likely that if she had continued asking for clarification from Nhat, the conversation would have been much clearer in terms of why Nhat had such an idea. At the end of the conversation, however, it seemed that the teacher, while acknowledging Nhat's view, personally thought that it was not very appropriate and she shared this with the whole class.

A later stimulated recall session with the teacher confirmed that her decision to call Nhat was based on his non-verbal response. The teacher felt that she had to ask him what he thought, and was quite surprised at Nhat's thinking. As she shared, '*For adults like us, we travel much, so, that thought is quite appropriate. But for these students, they just reach their growing up, and mostly learn things from books. But Nhat is so open. His family must be so open.*' The teacher also affirmed the view that she had

expressed at the end of the extract - that advertising does influence children. As she said '*My opinion is totally different from Nhat. He said that it is not worth worrying, I said it is*.' In explaining her view, she said, '*I think Nhat's thinking is not appropriate… I want to keep other students on the right way of thinking*.' Thus, it can be argued that while encouraging students to freely express their opinions, the teacher still, to some extent, would like to shape students' thinking in the way that she thought most appropriate.

It can be seen that the teacher's personal perspective influenced her delivery of follow-up moves. In this conversation, it was difficult to determine whether Nhat would change his mind in response to what the teacher had said. Speaking more broadly, in a class, the challenge for teachers is to anticipate the various paths a conversation may take and to have strategies to provide educative guidance – expressions of personal opinions can only take the education process as far as putting students in a situation where they have to decide whether or not to accept the teacher's opinion. In this case, the teacher's argument would have been more persuasive if she had managed to provide practical examples to support her opinion.

The stimulated recall session with five students, including Nhat, provided a deeper insight into what was inside the students' heads during that conversation. It seemed that the other students did not agree with what Nhat said. Mai said that she and her friend felt '*hair standing on ends'* when listening to what Nhat said. At this point, if the teacher had asked for another opinion from students on whether they agreed or disagreed with Nhat, it was likely that the students would have provided an answer closer to what she expected. Han shared: '*Before Nhat said, in our discussion, I and my friend shared with each other that it [using nudity] affected the way children develop. When the children grow up it will affect the way they behave. So it is not good*.' Mai added, '*I think in other countries it is fine, but in Vietnam it should not be*.' It can be said that the teacher's perspective was quite similar to the views of other students. Thus, if she had provided more opportunity for other students to give opinions about what Nhat had said, she would have got a variety of views, and would have received the answer that she expected. Moreover, if the teacher had employed some alteration to the tasks, such as creating an overarching structure in which different advertising practices were to be placed on a continuum of inappropriate – appropriate methods, it would have been more likely to encourage students' to think about their choices.

6.4 Perception of the Stakeholders

At the end of the semester, the teacher and two students – Nhat and Kim – were invited to separate interviews. Nhat was the student who contributed a lot during class, and Kim was the student identified as having low participation. Data collected from these three interviews, together with the data collected during stimulated recalls, provided insights into how the students and the teacher perceived certain issues in their teaching and learning.

6.4.1 Issues relating to the context of follow-up move distribution.

An shared that while teaching this business English course, she had difficulties regarding her own knowledge of business. Sometimes she felt that she needed to give more explanation and provide more comparison, but her knowledge was not sufficient. An's perception of the need to provide knowledge might be the reason why the majority of her follow-up moves were at a low prospective level; that is, she kept talking and providing information to the students rather than asking students to express their opinions. An also thought that some students felt the program was overloaded and not suitable, and this prevented them from cooperating with her. In a stimulated recall session, when asked why she changed an activity, An shared '*I think this book is designed for those who are already working. This activity is not suitable to my students*.' An also pointed out that some contents of the textbook were not very relevant:

> '*When I planned to teach the lessons, I pointed out the content which is irrelevant to the background knowledge of the students. For example, there are some brands which are totally strange to me…So I think if this textbook is used 100 per cent, it is not suitable, even for students who come from Hanoi (the capital city.*'

An's opinion about the program was shared by Kim, the student who had a low level of participation. Kim claimed that '*This program was a bit heavy to me'*, '*My business knowledge was almost zero…so I find it difficult*'. On the other hand, Nhat, who talked the most in the class, said that he '*did not have any difficulties when learning this program*', his business background knowledge '*was not a big issue',* and the program was at a suitable level for him. The difference between the perceptions of these two

students might be due to their different backgrounds. Nhat was brought up in Hanoi, the capital city, while Kim came from a rural area. In addition to having access to a more modern living environment, Nhat often communicated with other people on the internet. Thus, his knowledge about the world in general and the business world in particular might have been better than Kim's.

When delivering the course, An believed that she applied CLT in her class. In describing how she had applied this approach, An said that,

> *'All of my activities came from the students' need and feedback. For example, when beginning a lesson, I always asked to see if my students had known anything, I let them generate their own ideas. When asking for students' feedback, I did not impose my opinion on them but give them the right to determine their own idea, or get idea from their peers*.'

However, An said that in most cases, her students did not want to voluntarily answer questions and only spoke when called individually by the teacher.

When asked about the way the teacher managed her teaching, Kim seemed to have a similar opinion, stating that '*The teacher often asked question to make us think.*' Nhat agreed that the teacher often raised questions and provided clues so that the students could answer. Nevertheless, he commented, '*but normally the students did not seem to be motivated by that'*.

Classroom observations confirmed what An had shared in the interview. The only time that An talked with almost no attempt to get the students to contribute to the lesson was when she gave explanations of an issue, or when she provided the definition of a business term, but the time dedicated to this practice was rather short. For most of the class time, she would try to engage her students in communication with her. Nevertheless, in many cases, her encouragement to make students speak was met with silence. An then had no choice but to call on individual students to answer. Thus, it can be said that An was keen on generating ideas from her students and often invited them to share ideas. However, in many cases, the students did not take this opportunity. In light of what Nhat and Kim said, and the fact that the majority of the students came from rural areas, it might be reasonable to suggest that the students' lack of business

knowledge, and the heavy program, negatively affected interaction patterns in the class, and a result, the students often did not respond to the teacher's questions.

6.4.2 Teacher follow-up moves.

An shared that she often provided follow-up moves in the form of feedback or comments on students' presentations of ideas, or more instructions when she received an incorrect answer from her students. She said that she provided follow-up moves mostly when she realised that her students needed an intervention. As An stated,

> '*I followed sociocultural theory. If I realized that my students were in the ZPD and they needed a little encouragement and feedback so that they could move forward, or when I noticed that the students were out of the track, I would intervene…I responded the most when my students gave incorrect answers, or when their answers were different from what I expected.'*

Data collected from classroom observations confirmed what An said. It was apparent in the classroom discourse that upon receiving correct answers, An often accepted them and then moved on to another item, while she spent much more time interacting with the class when the students gave incorrect answers. She would ask for clarification, or ask another student to give their ideas. In many cases, An would explain why another option was the correct answer.

These study participants were asked about what the teacher did when her students failed to give a correct answer in a vocabulary development episode. According to An, she often gave examples. Sometimes she gave suggestions or provided probing questions, or used Vietnamese to explain the term to the students. An said she also put the terms into a sentence or a context or reformulated a social expression into business terms for the students. The most common practice from the teacher, as Nhat suggested, was to shift between English and Vietnamese when explaining the meaning of business terms. As Nhat described, his teacher often explained in English, then asked the students to guess the meaning in Vietnamese, and translated it into Vietnamese. Kim also commented that the typical follow-up move from An was '*My teacher first explained the meaning of the term in English, and then she provided the definition and the equivalent term in Vietnamese*.'

The use of Vietnamese in the class was very common. An said that sometimes she used Vietnamese when she was not sure if they understood what she had said. In cases where there were difficult terms, after using English, she would translate them into Vietnamese or give examples in Vietnamese. When asked about the teacher's use of Vietnamese, Nhat said that the teacher '*used Vietnamese when talking about difficult issues or when the students did not understand'*, and he thought that she did this '*to prevent her students from lack of understanding*'. As for himself, Nhat understood what the teacher said in English in most situations. However, when there was a need for critical argument, he thought it was necessary to use Vietnamese. Kim also agreed that the teacher used Vietnamese to explain business terms that students could not understand. She thought that this practice was necessary because '*some English terms were nominated totally different in Vietnamese.*'

Interestingly, the participants had different perceptions regarding the most effective way to help students understand a business term. The teacher thought that the most effective way was to provide examples in Vietnamese because '*Vietnamese helps the students find it easy to understand, and the example helps students visualise it*.' This means the best way, according to her, was a combination of using Vietnamese and giving examples. Kim shared this opinion, reckoning that '*translating business terms into Vietnamese helped me learn the most*', and explaining that once she knew a term in Vietnamese, she knew its definition and could work out the English definition more easily. However, Nhat had a different opinion. He said (he) learned the most when everything was illustrated in the form of diagrams or images; but the teacher never used this strategy. From what has been said, it can be concluded that making use of the students' mother tongue was considered an effective follow-up move for making sure the students acquired the necessary knowledge. This highlights the importance of the mother tongue in a second language content-driven class.

Apart from devoting time to the teaching of business terms, a significant amount of classroom interaction was dedicated to students' presentations of ideas. An revealed that during these times,

> '*For most of the time the students did not have enough background knowledge to decide whether they agree or disagree with a statement.*

> *When they were able to state that they agree or disagree, their arguments are still very weak and not convincing.*'

In dealing with this, An said she often gave suggestions so that the students could continue. For example, she would ask the students why they had a particular viewpoint, and whether they thought their argument was valid or not. An said that she permitted her students to use Vietnamese to express their opinions '*in order to get ideas to build up content knowledge*'. Sometimes a student's opinion was different from what An thought. In those cases, An would present her opinion to the whole class but not in an imposing way. She said *'I never insist that my perspective is right*.'

When Nhat was asked about his difficulties in expressing opinions, he shared that his biggest problem was how to maintain the flow of what he was saying, as '*my confidence level varied when I speak.*' In many cases, he hesitated and could not continue what he was saying. In those cases, from his observation, the teacher often '*continued what he was saying*', which meant that she could guess what he meant. Kim, however, had a different difficulty. She said that the biggest challenge when giving opinions was that she and her classmates did not have enough vocabulary to express their ideas. She said,

> '*We meet difficulties in explaining our ideas because our vocabulary is not good. We have ideas in our mind but we find it difficult to say about it in English. Our vocabulary is not sufficient.'*

In these cases, Kim reckoned that the teacher often guessed what the students meant and used simpler English words to express her guess, before asking her students to confirm whether this was what they thought.

Here it can be seen that there were discrepancies between An's and her students' views regarding the obstacles the students encountered when expressing their opinions and how the teacher dealt with these obstacles. While Kim indicated that students seemed to have problems with language (lack of vocabulary), Nhat said his biggest issue related to fluency, and An thought that her students did not have sufficient background knowledge to develop a sound argument. In dealing with this, An said she often provided suggestions to help the students continue their responses.

From what has been shared, it can be seen that An seemed to pay lots of attention to constructing knowledge. She thought that it was necessary to make sure the students

had a full understanding of business terms, and was willing to use the students' mother tongue, which was also their common language, to help with this. This might explain why the majority of her follow-up moves were generated at a low prospective level; that is, she provided knowledge for the students rather than requiring them to work out the needed information. When asking for students' expressions of opinion, it seemed that An thought she had tried to assist the students to continue their discourse by guessing and 'filling in the blanks' by supplying the necessary information for them.

6.4.3 Perception about learning affordances.

An said that participation was very important and indicated that although how students learn depends on their learning strategies, '*only seeing and hearing is not enough, doing and experiencing is also important'*. According to her, participation includes attending a lesson and actively taking part in classroom activities. For students who listened attentively but did not say anything during class, An said *'I don't think that is called participation.*' However, An commented that in her class, students rarely voluntarily raised their voices in response to the teacher's questions. She said that she would have to nominate the students when she realised that they were whispering to their peers or speaking to themselves.

Sharing the same opinion as the teacher, Nhat said that participation was very important. As he pointed out '*when we get out of the class we do not have much time to use the words that we have learnt…Only when I use the words I have learnt that makes me remember them.*' According to Nhat, participation meant a student had to pay attention to the lesson and often raise their voice in the class. Nhat considered himself a regular participator, but added that his participation was largely affected by his interest in a topic, and the surrounding atmosphere. He would not participate if the topic was boring and no one around him seemed to care about it. Kim basically agreed with Nhat that participation meant going to class regularly and taking part in the lesson, and also commented that her interest and background knowledge affected the frequency of her participation. She acknowledged that she did not often interact directly with the teacher, but mostly contributed in her group discussions. Nhat and Kim agreed that when the teacher asked questions but received no answer from the students, she would probe and give suggestions so that students could provide an answer, and in many cases, this

motivated a number of students to voice their opinion. If there was still no answer, the teacher would '*provide the answer herself*.'

An considered that learning situations in which the students could '*use the vocabulary and skills they have learnt*' created most opportunities for learning. However, when asked about the types of activities in the class that she thought helped the students learn the most, she suggested that the students learned most when she interacted with the whole class, and when she presented knowledge in monologues. She did not think that the students learnt much when they worked in groups and interacted with their peers. In situations when she interacted with an individual student, she was not sure if other students learnt anything from it. From what An shared, it seemed that her opinion was that students learnt mainly through interactions with the teacher. Although believing that students learned most when '*doing and experiencing'*, and when they could use what they had learnt rather than only seeing and hearing, An somehow contradicted this when she clearly said students did not learn much in group discussions when they directly interacted with each other. From her observations, the students only talked to each other during group work when there the teacher was present. In addition, although stating that '*doing and experiencing'* helped students learn, An later said that her students learnt a lot from her monologues, when she '*presented knowledge'* to them. Thus, it seemed that to An, learning affordances were mainly provided, managed and controlled by the teacher only, and the situations that created the most opportunities for learning were direct interactions with the teacher. Peer interaction seemed not to be considered to be a motivator for learning.

Of the classroom interaction patterns, Nhat said that he learnt most when he interacted directly with the teacher, because it helped him '*learn how to present ideas, how to communicate with another person, and learn more if the teacher provides more information.'* Apart from that, he said he learnt a lot when he listened attentively to what the teacher said. He also indicated that he learnt about his peers' thinking when the teacher called different individual students to present their opinions. He shared that this helped him get to know about the psychology of his friends, the way they thought, and he learnt some creative ideas from them. Nhat also pointed out that discussions in groups was not effective because '*after one or two minutes we would turn to discuss our private issues which had no relation to the topic being discussed*.' Of all the learning

patterns, Nhat said that the situations in which he learnt most was when the teacher interacted with the whole class and with individual students. Interestingly, Kim had a totally different opinion. She said that she learnt most when she worked in groups because she could listen to her peers' opinions and together work out a unanimous opinion. She said that group work helped her learn how to solve a problem because that problem would be discussed thoroughly. Apart from that, Kim suggested she also learnt a lot when the teacher communicated with the whole class because in that situation she could get more ideas than she could from her peers in group work. In situations when the teacher communicated with one of her peers, Kim noted that she only learnt when she paid attention and could catch what her peer was saying. If that peer sat far from her, Kim could hear but did not pay attention so she did not learn anything from it. In summary, in terms of learning affordances, the students agreed that they learnt a lot from interactions between the teacher and the whole class. This meant that direct interaction with the teacher seemed to provide the best conditions for learning.

Chapter Seven: Cross-case analysis

In this chapter, the main findings across three cases are summarised and compared to provide an understanding of the relationship between teacher follow-up moves and student learning affordances in the context of three Business English classes in Vietnam.

7.1 Summary of teachers' follow-up moves across three cases

In this study, the coding of teacher follow-up moves was guided by but not limited to the framework proposed by Wells (1996) and Wells and Arauz (2006). Although this coding scheme was built upon empirical evidence (i.e., data taken from classroom discourse), the classroom discourse was coded on the basis of two types of exchange that had been proposed in Wells's earlier work:

Initiate		*Respond*
(1) Solicit	-	Give
(2) Give	-	Acknowledge
		(Wells, 1981, p.32)

Therefore, it appears that his coding scheme was developed on the assumption that there was a response from students (the give factor), based on which the teacher could acknowledge or solicit (elicit further response from students). The Wells' coding scheme did not incorporate a number of other actions that teachers may also perform in their follow-up moves. For example, in some cases in this study, teachers only received silence from their students (i.e., no response), which triggered the reformulation of their question. As pointed out by Lee (2007), the contingencies of follow-up moves are also realized as the following functions: parsing (breaking the question into several components), steering the sequence (directing students into a particular direction), intimating answers (suggesting the type of answers being sought), discovering language learners in action (identifying problems with the students' language), and class management. The current study, taking into account the contingencies of teacher follow-up moves and based on the empirical data collected from classroom discourse, proposes that apart from the categories suggested by Wells (1996) and Wells and Arauz (2006), there were other actions and functions that can be performed. The newly identified follow up moves in this study are:

- When students did not respond to the teacher's questions, the teacher could:
    - provide some prompts to help the students work out the answer
    - allow the students to use Vietnamese to give answers

  Or the teachers reformulated their questions. In doing this, the teacher could:
    - reword parts of the question
    - translate the question into Vietnamese
    - split the question into smaller components
- When students proposed an inappropriate answer, the teacher could:
    - provide prompts to help the students work out the answer.
    - challenge the students' response by countering the point made by the student.
- When students provided a correct answer in English, the teacher could:
    - ask students to translate what they have proposed into their mother tongue.
    - ask students to provide the meaning of the term they have proposed.
    - provide the meaning of the term in English
    - provide the Vietnamese equivalent of the term.
- When students provided an answer which was correct in terms of meaning but incorrect in terms of pronunciation, the teacher could:
    - correct students' pronunciation of the term, either implicitly or explicitly.
    - ask questions to elicit different pronunciation from students.
- When students failed to find a correct word to express what they meant, the teacher offered a suitable word so that the students could continue speaking.
- When students had expressed their opinions on an issue, the teacher presented her personal opinion on it. In doing this, the teacher could:
    - inform the students of a variety of opinions
    - direct the students toward an alternative way of looking at the issue.

As can be seen, a number of the newly identified moves had similar functions to those proposed by Lee (2007). In addition, some moves related to the use of the teachers and students' mother tongue, and some tended to focus on language aspects such as pronunciation.

The data also showed that the use of Vietnamese was very common across Hoa and An's lessons. In the context of this research, Vietnamese was used in the follow-up

position to perform the majority of the functions identified by Wells (1996) and Wells and Arauz (2006) as well as the newly identified follow-up moves. For example, in many situations, the teachers used Vietnamese to provide additional information and clarify ambiguous issues.

It is important to note that a number of follow-up moves performed multiple or simultaneous functions, and although each move was coded according to just one function, there might be other dimensions involved. For example, the teacher sometimes repeated a student's answer to the whole class with a high intonation at the end, signifying her seek for an alternative response. This move was coded as an 'evaluative clarification request', but also implied the teacher's rejection of the answer. A teacher's request for a Vietnamese translation, while it was coded under the 'comment' category, was also a way for the teacher to check the students' comprehension. The teacher's offer of a suitable word so that students could continue possesses a perspective of encouraging students' to proceed, thus illustrating the teachers' attempt to maintain interaction.

There were similarities and differences in the types of follow-up moves employed across the three cases. Single follow-up moves comprised 70-80% of all the moves across three cases, and combined moves accounted for 20-30% for each case. Regarding single moves, it was clear that evaluation was the dominant function, accounting for more than half of the moves in Binh's class, and approximately 45% and 40% in Hoa and An's classes respectively. Comment was the next most popular function, and accounted for around 20% in each case, followed by clarification at 18%, 14% and 17% for Binh, Hoa and An respectively. Follow-up initiation was not very frequent, only accounted for 4%, 5% and 10% across three cases for Binh, Hoa and An respectively, leaving justification and other functions to make up smaller numbers of follow-up moves. Of all the single moves, acceptance in the form of repetition was the most popular across all the cases. Binh seemed to have used it the most, with around 35% of her moves being acceptance/repeats, while this move accounted for over 20% in both Hoa and An's classes. Regarding combined moves, the most frequent combination for all the three teachers was that of evaluation in combination with another function, ranging from 75% to 85% across three cases. Evaluation-comment moves were most

frequently used, and accounted for over 50% in Binh and An's classes, and above 70% in Hoa's class.

From this, it can be concluded that upon receiving a student's answer, all three teachers would typically evaluate its correctness or appropriateness, and in many cases the teacher would accept the student's answer and move to the next teaching item. Another common strategy of the teachers was firstly to accept what a student had said, and then provide more information regarding what had been said. Sometimes, without explicitly accepting a student's answer, the teachers provided extra information to support and expand on it. Among the three teachers, Hoa tended to make exclusive use of evaluation-comment moves, while Binh appeared to use single evaluation moves most often. While all three teachers sometimes asked students to clarify their answers, they rarely asked for justification. In situations when the students kept silent or failed to give an acceptable response, the teacher would reformulate the question or provide some prompts so as to help the students work out an answer.

In terms of prospective level, low prospective individual moves dominated in all three classes. The majority of these performed an evaluative function at 50%, 38% and 36% for Binh, Hoa and An respectively. Regarding combined moves, around 60-70% of the moves in each class were of a low level of prospectiveness. Of all the evaluative moves, clarification requests were the only type that had a high level of prospectiveness because they entailed students' participation. For example, after receiving an incorrect answer from a student, the teacher sometimes asked 'Really?' or 'Is it number five?' These clarification requests were evaluative in the sense that they implied the student's answer was incorrect, and were of a high level of prospectiveness because they sought for an additional response from this student or his/her peers. Regarding the other functions, justification and clarification moves were all of a high prospective level. The majority of pivot follow-up moves belonged to these two categories because when the teachers asked students to clarify or justify their answers, the discourse was expanded beyond the nuclear IRF sequence and became an extended IRF. This high frequency of low prospective move confirms that the students were rarely asked for or expected to provide additional contributions; on the contrary, their responses would be acknowledged, accepted or expanded upon by the teachers. Thus, it appeared that when asking questions, the intention of the teachers was not to lead to knowledge expansion

opportunities for their students, but only to check whether their students knew a particular and defined piece of knowledge.

7.2 Cross-case analysis

Dominance of positive evaluative follow-up moves

In this study, all three teachers employed positive assessment as a common strategy, especially during vocabulary checking episodes. Upon receiving students' answers to a vocabulary item, in most cases, the teachers would accept the answers and then move to the next item. Arguably, it appeared that the teachers considered vocabulary work to be a discrete exercise standing on its own, not as a process of learning development in the sense that they could expand the discussion and link it to wider content. Looking merely at the significant number of teacher's acceptance of a response by repeating a student's answer could create the impression that the students possessed sufficient knowledge to work out the correct answer as expected by the teacher; thus there was no challenge from the teachers. Binh tended to distribute this move most frequently, while Hoa and An implemented it to a lesser extent.

However, rather ironically, data collected from stimulated recall sessions with the students and also from the audio records in Binh's class revealed that in some situations, there were problematic issues in situations when students' answers were quickly accepted by the teacher. For example, extract 4.2 demonstrated that a number of students reacted with surprise to their peers, implying that they questioned whether Binh was correct to accept their peer's answer. In addition, a previous recording of these students revealed that they had a totally different way of understanding certain terms in the exercise. In extract 4.4, while receiving differing answers to a question, Binh would accept one answer while ignoring other (incorrect) ones. The data further demonstrated that in extract 4.4, while Binh was providing answers, a number of students appeared not to be convinced. Therefore, the fact that a number of students were able to provide a correct answer did not guarantee that all students in the class had adequate knowledge, and the smooth pace of vocabulary checking episodes with abundant teacher acceptance/repeat moves was by no means a sign that there were no problems of understanding among class members.

It was also revealed from stimulated recall sessions that in some cases, when students were able to provide a correct answer, this did not mean that they had the capacity to meaningfully understand and fulfill the task they had been given. For example, in Binh's class, students were asked to sequence steps of negotiation in a business meeting, and Quan proposed the correct answer very quickly. However, in a later stimulated recall session, he confessed that he did not in fact understand some steps in the sequence. As Quan shared, he managed to complete the tasks based on an extra clue in the textbook, stating that the beginning letter of each step formed a word. Thus, after identifying the first three steps, Quan worked out the subsequent letters and sequenced all remaining steps in the correct order without really understanding the meaning of some later steps. This stimulated recall also revealed that there was a step ('Tie up loose ends') that all of the student participants failed to understand. A stimulated recall session in Hoa's class also revealed that a number of students said that sometimes they were able to match the correct definition of a word by using an elimination strategy rather than because they understood all of the words. They explained that they would do the 'easy' part first and then match the rest of the exercises later based on some intuitive guessing. This may account for why all of these students commented that they found it necessary that the teacher explain the meanings of those terms for them in English and in Vietnamese because this helped enhance their understanding.

Although acceptance was dominant across all the cases, the context of its distribution across cases was not the same. Binh tended to provide acceptance with little prior teaching or subsequent explanation. On the other hand, in Hoa's lesson, although she also quickly accepted her students' answers during vocabulary checking episodes, it should be noted that in a previous session, she often went through all the vocabulary with a detailed explanation in English and Vietnamese and this may account for the lack of explanation in this later session. In An's lessons, despite the fact that An also tended to accept her students' answers easily with no explanation, it appeared that the vocabulary was not too difficult for her students, as there were very few problematic issues indicated in classroom observations or in later stimulated recall sessions. When compared with classes taught by Binh and Hoa, the fact that An's students did not appear to have any problems in understanding may be attributed to the theme selection – that is, the themes selected for An's class observation may not have contained as

many difficult technical terms, or students may have had prior knowledge of terms used in the theme area.

Dominance of low prospective comment moves

Apart from positive evaluative moves, low prospective comment moves were also frequent across the three cases. The tendency to provide extra information for the students can be partly explained from data provided by the teachers through their stimulated recall sessions and interviews. Firstly, it appeared that this tendency arose from the teachers' perception of the objectives of the course and of each lesson. All three teachers agreed that the aim of the course was to '*build up students' business knowledge*' and necessary skills to handle business situations. More specifically, Hoa commented that the aim of the course was to help students know basic business vocabulary and business skills, while An stated that by the end of a lesson, the students were expected to understand the business concepts presented in that lesson. Binh also suggested that one of the primary purposes of each lesson was to build up the students' vocabulary resources for a particular topic. These perceptions on the part of the teachers were reflected throughout their teaching as they would skip some parts of a lesson but never failed to cover vocabulary exercises in the textbook.

While keeping in mind that building up vocabulary for students was one of their major responsibilities, Hoa and An shared a concern that their students' economic background knowledge was very poor. An commented that '*The students do not have any knowledge about business, especially business English*', while Hoa blamed her students for their inactiveness and lack of attention to the abundant business information available on social media. Hoa repeatedly stated that she considered providing knowledge to be among her responsibilities:

> '*For me, I have devoted myself, I have provided them with many things…input is a lot*.' (stimulated recall 13.03.2013);
>
> '*My teaching approach was that I tried my best to provide the students with the most fundamental knowledge.*' (final interview)
>
> '*Sometimes I felt guilty because I could not cover all [the content] for my students … As a teacher, I have devoted all my efforts for the students. I have taught lessons with full of content knowledge*.' (final interview)

In addition to a very high frequency of low prospective comment moves, in all of the lessons, Hoa gave each student a handout containing vocabulary related to the current lesson. She then spent roughly 20 minutes reading and explaining these in both English and Vietnamese while the students primarily listened and jotted down what they considered important. Although the data for this part of the lesson is not analysed due to the lack of classroom interaction, it demonstrated Hoa's obsession with providing students with as much knowledge as possible.

As for An, although frequently providing extra information for her students, in the final interview, she maintained that,

> '*Sometimes I know that what I have said was not detailed enough. I thought that I should have provided more information about those [business] phenomena to my students, made comparisons across them. However, I don't have enough information to say*.'

Binh, on the other hand, expressed no concern about her students' background knowledge, commenting that '*I think the students' knowledge in Vietnamese is good, and they are quite active in updating information in English*'.

Knowledge transmission practice was most visible during vocabulary episodes, during which the teachers implemented a wide range of techniques to build up their students' understanding. Data collected from class observations, and interviews revealed that the most common practices that the teachers employed when they felt students had problems understanding a term were using examples from real life and explaining the meaning of that term. While Vietnamese was used by both Hoa and An during this process, it was rarely employed by Binh. In addition, all three teachers tended to make use of synonyms and antonyms to illustrate a word's meaning. Classroom observations also revealed that Hoa tended to provide the most information. Her follow-up moves were characterised by very long and detailed descriptions or explanations of business terms. Binh and An tended to have much shorter and less detailed explanations than those provided by Hoa.

Although the teachers indicated they would have liked to make sure that the students understood the required knowledge, they also expressed the concern that it was hard to

determine just how much knowledge their students gained. Hoa indicated that, despite providing lots of extra information,

> '*I can't judge how much [knowledge] the students have gained ... Whether they can take it in or not, I can't be sure. Input is a lot but I don't know if they learn or not*.' (stimulated recall 13.03.2013)

Both An and Binh indicated they monitored non-verbal indicators from the students such as eye contact, and head movements to develop a sense of whether they really understood what had been said. Sometimes these two teachers provided an extra activity to check students' understandings of a previous part in a lesson.

Classroom observation and later stimulated recall sessions revealed different levels of understanding from the students after they were provided with extra information by their teachers. In Hoa and An's classes, it appeared that there were very few issues regarding the students' comprehension of what the teachers said. The students in these two classes did not demonstrate any misunderstanding of what had been proposed by their teachers, and tended to have a correct understanding of the terms being dealt with in the class. On the other hand, there were a number of comprehension problems in Binh's class. For example, in extract 4.5, when Binh provided extra information to justify why 'dumping' should be categorized as belonging to a 'protected market' rather than an 'open market', a later stimulated recall session with her students revealed that most of them did not agree with her explanation. In addition, during stimulated recall sessions, when asked to explain the meaning of some terms that had been previously taught, in some cases, the participant students offered different opinions, and in other cases they had forgotten what Binh had presented in class.

The dominance of low prospective comment moves indicated that the opportunities for students to co-construct knowledge was very limited, while there was some evidence to suggest that students would have benefited more if they had had a greater involvement in this process. For example, following extract 5.3, Hoa spent over one minute drawing a 'business cycle' on the board and explained this concept to her students. In a later stimulated recall session, all of the participant students said that they had learnt a similar concept in the previous semester, namely the 'product cycle', with similar trends to those shown in the business cycle explained by Hoa. If Hoa had asked the students about their prior knowledge, it is likely that the students would have been able give a

partial explanation of the business cycle. In Binh's class, following extract 4.5, she asked students to find information about a famous business case in Vietnam to illustrate the meaning of the term 'dumping', without realising that some students already knew about this case. This was revealed in a later stimulated recall session during which the students used their own way of reasoning about this case to develop a counter argument to the one that Binh had proposed. If Binh had adopted a more interactive approach, her students could have had more opportunities to present and clarify their ideas.

Teacher's reformulation and recast of students' responses

Recast and reformulation of students' responses were frequently performed by the teachers across the three classes. A follow-up move was coded as a recast when the teacher corrected incorrect responses from students in terms of vocabulary, grammar or pronunciation, without pointing out that the students had made an error, such as in this example:

> S: It means that you can solve any problem well. And adapt…eh…have adapt eh…with new environment.
> T: **Adapt to the new environment.**

or

> St: recession / rɪˈʃɛʃən/
> T: **recession** /rɪˈsɛʃən/

Teacher's reformulation of students' responses refers to situation when the students' answers were correct in terms of content or grammar but the teacher reformulated these answers. There were four main types of:

– More accurately expressed reformulations: The teacher expressed in different words (often more concisely or completely) what was said by the student:

> St: Journalists sometimes write for money. They are just hired by a company to do something good for them.
> T: **Okay, so they receive money from some company and write something good.**

– Technical reformulations: The teacher reformulated the student's everyday English expressions into business terms.

> St: Invest … ah … we can send money in bank.
> T: **That's it. That's it. It is when you open a bank account. It is a bank deposit, okay?**

– Concise broadcasting: The teacher broadcast what a student has said to the whole class by either repeating exactly what the student said or making some changes to the student's words.

> St: I think advertising is not a science but a persuasion and … also mean you need to make the customers believe on the cus … products and … they must have good impression with product image … so that your persuasion is very important. However, the science will have to … exact evidence.
> ….
> T: … **You say that advertising isn't a science so people don't have to provide evidence for their advertisements …**

– Reverse code switching: The teacher reformulated the student's Vietnamese expression into an equivalent English expression.

> St: Vâng ạ, như kiểu là cái nền tảng, cái vững chắc nhất của một nền kinh tế. (Yes, it is like the basis, the most stable thing of an economy.)
> *T:* **It is the foundation, is it?** Okay.

As can be seen, reformulation and recast were largely of low prospective level, which required no further action from students. In Hoa's and An's classes, there was no subsequent interaction that involved the use of the structures that had been proposed by the teachers, so it was difficult to determine whether the students had learnt them. However, in Binh's class, after reformulating a student's response with the term 'former boss' rather than 'old boss', at a later point when she checked the meaning of the term 'references'. A student still said, 'References means … recommendation … eh … of the *old teacher* or an *old director*'. It appeared that the teacher's previous reformulation of 'old boss' into 'former boss' had not been taken up by this student. Thus, although students were notified of their errors, there was no requirement from the teachers for them to demonstrate improvement. Technical reformulation was visible only in Hoa's classes as she was keen on providing her students with business terms to replace everyday English terms when it was possible. The concept of mediation was clear in this practice. By offering technical terms, Hoa informed her students of a new and more appropriate expression for the current context – that is, the daily expressions offered by her students were reformulated in terms more appropriate for business settings. Her

students were also well aware of this practice and found that it was a more technical and concise way to express things in business English.

High prospective follow-up moves/ pivot moves

Although the three classes were dominated by low prospective follow-up moves, some follow-up moves were pivot moves– that is, rather than simply acknowledging or confirming students' answers, the teachers performed other actions to engage students in ongoing discourse. There were three common ways of performing a pivot move:

Type 1: A statement with a rising tone at the end, such as 'And then you have the air pollution and water pollution?', 'Oh, dividend?' or

A statement with a tag component, such as 'The answer is D, is it?'

Type 2: An alternative question, such as 'Which one?'

Type 3: An open-ended question or a 'wh' question, such as 'Could you give me an example?', 'Can you further explain 'personality?', 'Why do you think that?'

Pivot moves aimed to expand the current topical interaction between the teachers and their students. The request for additional information elicited further contributions from the students. Although all of these ways of performing the moves sought a response from students, the type and extent of learning affordances they generated varied. As can be seen, learning affordances derived from type 1 and type 2 moves appeared to be quite limited. To answer a statement with a rising tone at the end, the students could simply say 'Yes' or 'No' without adding extra information (except when they were requested to give more information in the next follow-up move of the extended IRF); to respond to an alternative question, the students could simply select from the already provided options by the teachers. On the other hand, 'wh' questions or open-ended questions explicitly requested more information from students, for example by requiring them to give explanations, justifications or examples. Accordingly, students had the opportunity to use language to express their ideas at a higher level of thinking (such as through reasoning or clarifying) rather than merely selecting from given options or saying 'Yes' or 'No'.

Regarding the functions of the pivot moves, the data showed that they took the form of evaluative clarification requests, and requests for identification, clarification and justification.

Pivot moves as evaluative clarification requests

The teachers in three classes frequently made clarification requests for different reasons, such as to increase the contribution from the students, or to check whether they had a correct understanding of a student's opinion. Apart from that, clarification requests were also made to evaluate students' answers. When performing this function, they were high prospective because they indicated that there was a problem with a student's response and the teacher was seeking an alternative answer. Examples of clarification requests are found in extract 5.2 *(Is it crisis?* and extract 6.3 (*Is it? Production?)* Although the teacher did not explicitly state that the student's response was incorrect, it appeared that most of the students understood their teacher's implied negative assessment. In both the above cases, they responded with an alternative correct answer.

Another function of evaluative clarification request appeared to be that of increasing class participation, such as in this example:

Diep	Dividend /ˈdɪvɪdənd/, dividend /ˈdɪvɪdɛnd /
T	**Oh, dividend /ˈdɪvɪdənd/?**
Diep	Dividend /ˈdɪvɪdɛnd /
T	**Ah, dividend /ˈdɪvɪdɛnd /**
Students	Dividend /ˈdɪvɪdɛnd /
T	**Okay. That's it. Good**

As can be seen, although Diep had self-corrected her pronunciation, the teacher still made a clarification request with a rising tone on the wrong pronunciation of the word 'dividend'. When Diep confirmed the correct pronunciation, the teacher repeated it, perhaps with for the purpose of informing other students of the correct version. In this instance, the teacher did not move to another vocabulary item until a number of students in the class pronounced the word correctly. Arguably, this evaluative clarification request not only afforded Diep an opportunity to reconsider her answer, but also acted as an invitation for increased class participation.

Pivot moves as high prospective comments

Whereas the majority of comment moves were low prospective, that is the teachers provided extra information for the students, there were a number of cases when the teachers requested students to provide examples or connect what they had learnt with

another phenomenon. Binh tended to perform this action very rarely, while Hoa and An appeared to do it more frequently.

For the majority of the cases, high prospective comments opened up opportunities for students to raise their voices and for the teachers to judge students' current understanding and knowledge. For example, in extract 6.5, An asked one student (Uyen) to provide examples of advertising slogans, and Uyen managed to provide two examples. A later stimulated recall session with a group of students revealed that although these students did not say anything during the classroom interaction (possibly because the teacher did not ask them), at that moment, they were thinking of a number of slogans, some of which were quite interesting such as 'ideals for life' or 'from an easy breezy beautiful girl'. This demonstrated that they had a real understanding of the term 'slogan'. Thus, the teacher not only engaged the students in the discourse but also enhanced their understanding of a term. Another example was when Binh asked her students for the stress pattern of the word 'employee' after this word had been used by one of the students (extract 4.1). This allowed her to discover that her students' knowledge was incomplete, which prompted her to provide more explanation of an exception to a pronunciation rule. In general, arguably, high prospective comment moves played a role in fostering students' understanding of what was being learnt in the class.

Nevertheless, the range of learning affordances depended not only on whether a high prospective comment move was produced or not, but also largely depended on how it was managed. In a number of cases, the teachers asked for students' opinion but did not attempt to bring about more interaction. In other words, affordances for more elaboration were only practised at a surface level. For example, in a lesson themed 'Money', Hoa asked her students a connection question 'Are you a gold trader?', although in Vietnamese society, students around the age of 18 are unlikely to involve in a business like this. Consequently, the unanimous response from the students was 'No'. Thus, this question could not be considered to have much value in increasing the students' participation because the current knowledge of cultural and economic practices in the country would not lead to an alternative answer to 'No'. In another example, Hoa asked her students 'Is it important?' ('it' refers to 'personality') but when the students said 'Yes' she did not ask for a further contribution but provided her own

reasons for this. In An's class, she once asked her students 'Do you know the word 'nude'?', but upon receiving the positive answer from her students 'Yes', she switched to elicit pronunciation practice of this word, rather than asking for its meaning. Therefore, it appeared that some follow-up moves were in the form of questioning, but not for the sake of increasing students' participation. Rather, they appeared to be a means to get students' attention on the current topic so that the subsequent discourse would receive increased consideration from the students.

Pivot moves as identification and confirmation requests

Teacher follow up moves that aimed at clarifying students' responses were mostly in the form of identification and confirmation requests. However, although all three teachers made use of identification requests, their influence in terms of creating potential for learning varied across different situations. It appeared that while identification requests helped An and Binh to clarify their students' answers, they did not play such an effective role in Hoa's class. This is an example of how identification requests were handled in Hoa's class (extract 5.11):

Diep	…Keep your private life separate from your work to some extent. In terms that… You…Eh What decision can make you regret for the rest of your life that you should er… You should give your private life a priority.
T	**So give your private life a priority?**
Diep	Yeah
T	**So you think that we should separate?**
Diep	Yeah
T	**So spend more time er… family life?**
Diep	Er… In some serious situations that er.. you cannot … it is more important than the work you will … You will regret.
T	Oh, I… It's not clear enough. So who else in your group… can help?

It appeared that following Hoa's request, Diep still failed to explain what she meant. Following this, Hoa asked for a contribution from another student. On the other hand, an example from An's class demonstrated that identification requests provided an opportunity for students to clarify their ideas (extract 6.8):

Phuong	I think…I think there are some difference between men and women leaders...eh…eh… In my mind, both men and women have ability to be leaders. But in ability, I think men do this responsibility better than women. Because men are more decisive and… more dis…more discipline, disciplinary. They have more time to devote for their career.
T	**Decisive, disciplinary, more time to devote, more devoted to the job because they have more time?**
Phuong	Eh…because, eh…as you know women have spend much time on their family and take care of their children and do household chores.

The above examples demonstrated that the employment of the same technique may not always lead to the same outcome. As can be seen, both Hoa and An asked the students to clarify their answers, but only Phuong managed to do it by giving a clearer explanation for her response, while Diep's response remained ambiguous. The variations in students' performance could be attributed to their students' current levels of language and knowledge of the subject matter. This indicates that teacher follow-up moves must be adapted to individual students so as to best facilitate their learning.

Confirmation requests were also frequent across three classes, which were typically formulated in the form of questions such as 'Do you mean…?', '…, you mean that?' It was noteworthy that most confirmation requests involved teachers' reformulation of the students' initial responses, primarily with the purpose of providing clearer expression. These moves were significant because the students were given the role of having the last word about whether the teacher had a correct understanding of their ideas. Accordingly, the students could agree or disagree with the teacher's interpretation of their ideas. In the case of this study, it appeared that in most cases, the teachers had a good understanding of what their students meant, although the initial expression of the student may have appeared to be a bit ambiguous. Thus, following the teachers' confirmation requests, the students mostly gave positive confirmations.

Situations that promoted learning affordances

From the participants' opinions, it appeared that there were two types of classroom discourse which were assumed to create the most affordances for learning, namely, direct interaction with the teacher, and group work. The majority of the participants agreed that direct participation in conversations with the teacher helped the students learn the most, because they were required to activate their thinking and come up with

ideas. In addition, a limited number of participants said that group work helped learners learn the most because they could share their ideas with their peers. However, the majority of the participants, including the teachers, commented that this group work was not beneficial if the students were left to do the group work on their own. In many cases, the students would shift to different topics than the one that they were supposed to be discussing, and used Vietnamese to explain their ideas. On the other hand, if the teacher intervened during group work, the students benefited more.

While the teachers shared that they were not sure whether the students who only sat and listened learnt anything from the teacher's interactions with their peers, it appeared that the students had a differing opinion about this. Students who tended to be active in the class with a high level of participation said that they learnt from that type of interaction, whereas those who were rather quiet commented that they did not learn a lot because they did not pay attention to the ongoing discourse. This meant that the value of non-participation varied for different students.

It was also revealed that according to the teachers and most students, the best way to assist students to understand business terms was to provide examples to illustrate the terms' meaning either in English or in Vietnamese. In addition, some students found that the teacher's use of synonyms or antonyms of the word to be learnt, or the presentation of graphs to illustrate the meanings of certain terms, were also beneficial to them. From this, it can be argued that vocabulary is best learnt in relation to other aspects of language rather than on its own.

Teaching ideology

In this study, despite the specifications in the course guide and the teachers' claims during the first interviews that their primary approach towards their teaching was the communicative language teaching approach (CLT), the data reflected that various principles of CLT were not realised in their classes. As described by Larsen-Freeman (2008), the ultimate goal of CLT is to promote students' communication in the target language and classroom activities are organized with the aim of creating optimum conditions for students' interactions, while teachers play the role of facilitators. Thus, from a CLT perspective, language is a tool for communication, and classroom interaction is aimed towards fostering communication. However, the teachers played a significant role in determining the discourse of the class and the primary type of

teaching was that of knowledge transmission. This was reflected in the large number of low prospective follow-up moves performing evaluative and comment functions. In other words, the teachers attempted to create an environment rich in input so as to promote the students' understanding and acquisition, but provided very few opportunities for students themselves to engage in genuine communication. The teacher spent more time talking than the students did. Most of the students' contributions were of one word or a single phrase, while the teacher's discourse was at the sentential and supra-sentential levels.

Another feature of CLT is the implementation of small group work with the aim of maximising opportunities for students to use the target language. Nevertheless, in this study, the data collected from random group discussions demonstrated that in many groups students switched to their mother tongue to express their ideas, and sometimes they discussed an issue which was completely different to the assigned task. Interviews with the teachers and the students also indicated that group work as it was designed was not considered to be beneficial in terms of creating learning affordances for the students. The majority of teachers and students pointed out that students did not work seriously during their discussions with their peers, and tended to perform much better when there was some intervention from their teachers. In other words, although the ideology of CLT was to promote communication using the target language among learners during group work, the factual data demonstrated that the quality of this communication was rather low, and in many cases there was little use of the target language. Instead, direct and explicit teacher support was more highly desired and valued.

The teachers also appeared to favour implicit forms of teaching, and this was especially true in Hoa's class. For example, in a pre-listening task, Hoa asked her students to brainstorm ways of investing money. It was later revealed in a stimulated recall session that she had expected the students would propose some of the ways that were mentioned in the listening passage (which students were required to listen to beforehand at home). However, none of the students came up with any information provided in the listening task, which made Hoa feel disappointed. She blamed the students for being lazy and not doing their homework. However, as reflected in the classroom discourse, Hoa did not express her expectation that students should provide information they obtained from the listening passage. Thus it was understandable that none of the students suggested any of

the ways mentioned in the listening task. In An's class, extract 6.8 also revealed that the teacher's practice of asking students for more ideas or alternative viewpoints ended with little success. However, data from stimulated recall sessions revealed the students' failure to produce an answer that met their teachers' expectation was in fact the result of limited assistance or scaffolding. In other words, at times the students had to guess what their teacher was thinking based on insufficient clues or support. In other cases, students could sometimes sense the teacher's alternative suggestions but lacked the background knowledge to develop an argument.

As pointed out by the teachers, they tried to provide abundant information for their students, as explicitly suggested by Hoa: '*Input is a lot*.' Hoa appeared to follow CLT ideology by providing an environment rich in the target language. However, there was no guarantee that the students would acquire what had been taught by their teachers. The teachers revealed in interviews that they were not sure whether their students would remember all the words that had been taught. A number of students also said that they would not be able to remember everything, stating that *'In the future if we meet these words, we may find them familiar and recall that we have learnt them before, but we won't be able to remember their meanings.'* Binh, one of the teachers, also indicated *'[In the future] … they may not able to remember what those words mean, and they may not be able to put them into context for speaking and writing* In other words, although the teachers tried to provide their students with as much knowledge as possible, this practice alone was not considered effective enough to promote students' future use of the words they had learnt.

The functions of Vietnamese and code shifting

In Hoa's and An's classes, it was observed that the extent to which Vietnamese was used varied greatly, and the practice of shifting codes from English to Vietnamese and vice versa also varied. Hoa was the teacher who used Vietnamese the most, especially during vocabulary checking episodes. It was observed that after her students suggested a business term in English, Hoa would explain the meaning of this term and provide examples to illustrate its meaning in Vietnamese. Hoa also frequently code switched at an inter-sentential level, such as translating a previous English sentence into Vietnamese, or by finishing an expression in English and switching to Vietnamese for the subsequent expression. On the other hand, An occasionally shifted to Vietnamese

but then shifted back to English to complete an expression. In addition, when receiving little response from their students, both Hoa and An would shift their questions into Vietnamese and/or call for students' contributions in Vietnamese. Vietnamese utterances also tended to be located differently in two classes. In Hoa's class, Vietnamese utterances were often used at the end of an expression, after which Hoa would shift back to English to introduce the next item. An, on the other hand, tended to commence and finish expressions in English, with some Vietnamese interjections in the middle.

Another significant use of Vietnamese was that of intra-sentential use. In such cases, it appeared that there was no clear boundary between the use of Vietnamese and English. In other words, English and Vietnamese were used in a blended mode, and the shifting between the two languages helped maintain a fluent expression of ideas, such as in this example:

T: Lời đề nghị gì? (What kind of offer?)
S: Đưa ra lời đề nghị, tức là mời ấy ạ, mời người ta đến.
(To make an offer, that means to invite, to invite a person)
T: **À, mời người ta làm thì gọi là to make a job offer. Này nhé, sau khi tôi shortlist candidate, sau khi interview và thấy anh ta rất tuyệt vời rồi thì tôi viết thư để make a job offer.**
(Ah, to invite a person to work for you is to make a job offer. Let's see, after I shortlist candidates, after interviews and see that he is wonderful, I will write him a letter to make a job offer.)

As can be seen, for phrases which are business-related such as 'make a job offer', and 'shortlist candidate', the teacher used English, while for more everyday English phrases such as 'after', 'write a letter', the teacher used Vietnamese. For the purposes of this study, this switching between sentences and within sentences will generally be referred to as code shifting.

Code shifting was used to help students overcome challenging comprehension problems, with the aim of achieving better understanding. Data from classroom observations and interviews indicated that when teachers perceived that their students could not understand the meaning of some technical business terms, they would translate the terms into Vietnamese and provide examples in Vietnamese to illustrate their meaning. For example, to distinguish between 'equity stake' and 'share', and between 'competition' and 'competitiveness', Hoa used Vietnamese to provide an

explanation and examples. By doing this, the teachers reduced the workload for students, enabling them to fully focus on the message content. Most of the students appreciated their teachers' use of Vietnamese for this purpose and commented that it was necessary to achieve sufficient understanding because *'We won't be able to understand those words even in Vietnamese, let alone English'* (stimulated recall with students, 13.03.2013). Therefore, the use of their first language by the teacher effectively enhanced students' comprehension and their ability to distinguish between familiar terms.

Teachers also used Vietnamese as a means of increasing message redundancy (Wong-Fillmore, 1985). In doing this, the teachers switched codes by translating their previous English expression into Vietnamese, such as in this example:

T: Now, "a place where a company shares are bought and sold". It is…?
Ss: Stock market
T: **Ah, stock market. Stock market, thị trường chứng khoán** (stock market).

As can be seen, the students were afforded access to the presentation of the same knowledge in two different forms: in the target language and in their mother tongue. Arguably this helped the students understand the issue better.

Although the teachers claimed that their use of Vietnamese was primarily to help students overcome comprehension problems, the data demonstrated that this was not accurately reflected in their teaching and this was particularly true in Hoa's class, such as in this example:

S: But for me sometimes it is acceptable but sometimes it is unaccetable.
T: **Yes, sometimes it is unacceptable.**
Some tests, it is really inhumane, Inhumane nghĩa là vô nhân đạo. Nghĩa là đôi khi giết chó giết mèo hoặc thử nghiệm trên những động vật mà…những động vật quý hiếm. Nhất là chó, các em xem có một cái diễn đàn là có nên ăn thịt chó hay không. (Inhumane means not humane such as killing cats, dogs, or doing experiments on …endangered animals. Especially eating dog meat. Have you watched a forum discussing whether we should eat dog meat?)

As can be seen, Hoa could have used English to express her opinion with little possibility of cause comprehension problems to her students, because most of the words

being used were not complicated. The use of Vietnamese, in these cases, tended to create a more informal atmosphere in the class.

The first language was also used as a means of assessing students' understanding. The teachers sometimes associated students' ability to give correct Vietnamese translations of English business terms with having adequate knowledge of those terms. In extract 5.2, Hoa asked a student to provide the Vietnamese translation of 'recession' in the follow-up move, despite this student having previously provided a correct explanation of this term in English. When the student failed to provide the correct Vietnamese equivalent, other students suggested the correct answer. If it had not been for the teacher's request for translation, it was likely that this student would not have had an opportunity to become aware of her lack of comprehension, and thus she would have been prevented from obtaining an explanation from more capable peers. It should also be noted that Hoa did not provide this correction herself but shifted the responsibility to other students, who performed the role successfully. This example supported Hoa's claim that by asking the students to translate a term into Vietnamese, she helped identify possible gaps in their knowledge, which could trigger appropriate responses from a teacher to resolve this problem. If a student translated a term correctly, it could be assumed that the student understood what the term meant. Translating practice, therefore, to these teachers, was a convenient way to test students' understanding. However, as pointed out by a number of students, the ability to offer the correct Vietnamese equivalent was not always associated with an adequate understanding of an English term. For example, a number of students confessed that even though they were familiar with terms like 'shares', 'stock' in both English and Vietnamese, they did not understand what they meant.

The first language was also used to increase students' contributions. For this purpose, the teachers often translated their questions into Vietnamese, and /or requested and permitted students to use Vietnamese to give responses. As observed, following the teachers' explicit call for the use of Vietnamese, or the implicit permission to use Vietnamese reflected in their mode shift, a number of students would use Vietnamese to give answers, while others still used English. It appeared that the students' selection of code choice depended on what they perceived to be the frequent or 'expected' code of their teachers. Thus, students in Hoa's class often gave answers in Vietnamese, while

those in An's class would give English responses. Despite these differences, it was clear that the teachers' implementation of code shifting or permission for the use of the first language encouraged their students to provide increased contributions.

When students used Vietnamese to express opinions, in many cases, the teachers would restate their ideas to give confirmation or/and broadcast them to the whole class. Sometimes, the teacher repeated exactly the Vietnamese expression of the students, while in other cases, the teacher would translate what their students had said into English, making use of reverse code switching of their students' responses, such as in this example:

T Culture in identity? What do you mean? How do you understand this sentence?
S It is very important…
T So you just think that morality is something, it's really a big issue, don't you think?
S Vâng, và nó ảnh hưởng đến suy nghĩ của mọi người về vùng đất đó.
(Yes, and it affects the way people think about that region.)
T **So the way people perceive or the way they think about a part or a region, right?**

While the purpose of repetition in the follow-up move appeared to be primarily to enhance the students' contribution, it was clear that if the teacher had used Vietnamese, it would not have played a role in terms of facilitating the use of the target language. On the other hand, because the teachers translated what the students had said into English, it was a way of demonstrating to students how to reformulate the idea into the target language, which certainly benefited students more in terms of building their language resources.

Additionally, code shifting was also used for socially related purposes, such as to create fun moments or to give appraisals. For example, when the class was discussing the importance of appearance and performance, Hoa quoted a saying of a famous Vietnamese model who was always proud of herself as having the perfect body shape and using her appearance as a means to earn money: *Không có tiền thì cạp đất ra mà ăn à?*(Without money you have nothing to eat but soil.) This quotation made all the students burst into laughter and was effective in terms of conveying how important appearance was. It would be difficult to find an English expression which had an equal effect on the students in terms of creating a relaxing learning environment. In An's class, she sometimes switched to Vietnamese to give appraisals, such as *'Các bạn đã có những ý tưởng rất là sáng tạo đúng không*' (You have had very creative ideas.)

Although she could have said this in English, it seemed that her use of the students' (and her own) mother tongue functioned like a bridge to create harmony and redude the distance between her and the students. While the use of the target language is associated with an academic and formal learning environment, socially related code shifting helps create a more playful and less formal atmosphere, establishing a comfort zone in some specific moments. This may help to reduce pressure on students and lift up their emotions so they feel more encouraged to continue learning.

In contrast to Hoa and An, Binh hardly used Vietnamese in her lessons at all. She asserted that she had set up a rule of 'No Vietnamese' and would request students to switch to English if they had made use of Vietnamese. A number of students said that in some cases they failed to contribute to a lesson because of this 'No Vietnamese' policy. For example, students sometimes commented that when Binh asked them to provide the meaning of an English term, they knew the Vietnamese equivalent of this word, but failed to make a contribution because what their teacher was requesting was how to explain the word in English, not a Vietnamese translation or explanation. In addition, a number of students reported that they had problems understanding some terms, or had a different understanding of the same term, and sometimes they forgot what the teacher had said in the class, despite the fact that Binh had provided an explanation in English. Thus, arguably, Binh's practice somehow restricted the opportunities for students to contribute and may have prevented them from achieving adequate comprehension of some business terms.

However, Binh's students did not have a negative attitude towards their teacher's limited use of Vietnamese. In fact, a number of students indicated their satisfaction that by the end of the semester, they had gradually learned to use English more than Vietnamese. Students also commented that although they still shifted to Vietnamese during group work when they were unable to explain an idea completely, this practice was quite insignificant compared to the amount of English that they used for classroom interactions. This indicated that Binh's restriction on the use of the students' mother tongue provided more affordances for her students in terms of using the target language. To comply with their teacher's code policy, the students would have to continuously identify possible ways to express their opinion in the target language. This served to enlarge their target language resource and build up their capacity to give immediate responses in the target language, which are important indicators of the process of learning in the target language.

Chapter Eight: Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter comprises six sections. The first two sections (8.1 and 8.2) present the aims of the study and discuss its significance. The next two sections discuss the findings in relation to the research questions, and other findings. Section 8.5 discusses the study's theoretical and practical contributions, and the last section concludes the study.

8.1 Introduction

This study aimed to explore the relationship between teachers' follow-up moves and students' learning affordances in three business English classes. The overarching question that guided this research is *'How do teacher follow-up moves influence learning affordances in business English classes?'* In doing so it addressed the following three research sub-questions:

1. How do the participant teachers' follow-up moves limit learning affordances?
2. How do the participant teachers' follow-up moves promote learning affordances?
3. What learning conditions are perceived to create the most learning affordances?

From a sociocultural perspective, learning is the process of participating in meaningful activities and thus is conceptualised as participation (Donato, 2000; Foster & Ohta, 2005; van Lier, 2000; Zuengler & Miller, 2006). Learning affordances refer to the extent of potentials and possibility for learning in a specific environment (van Lier, 2004). Therefore, classroom interaction, and in particular teacher discourse, plays a significant role in creating conditions for the generation of learning affordances (Gibbons, 2006). As observed over time by a number of educational researchers, the Initiation-Response-Follow-up (IRF) sequence is one of the most frequently initiated phenomena in any class (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Walsh, 2011). Accordingly, it is necessary to identify what kinds of learning affordances arise, and how they arise during the implementation of the IRF sequence.

The current project took up the call for increased research on classroom discourse from a sociocultural perspective (Hargreaves, 2012), with a focus on the distribution and

impact of the IRF structure. Following the proposal by Wells (1996, 1999), the primary concern of this study is the formulation of the follow-up (the F move) in this sequence. This follow-up move has been investigated from a cognitive perspective under the names of 'feedback' and 'corrective feedback', signifying the dominant evaluative orientation of the F move. From a sociocultural perspective, however, follow-up moves that perform an evaluative function are usually associated with a limitation of learning affordances (Hall, 1997; Hall & Walsh, 2002; Lin, 2000; Waring, 2009), while more affordances for learning tend to be generated in extended IRF sequences (Gibbons, 2006). An extended IRF sequence refers to a situation where a follow-up move turns into an initiation for the next IRF exchange, thus entailing increased student engagement and creating more opportunities for knowledge construction. In this way, the potential for using dialogue as a means for knowledge co-construction is maximised, because students are granted opportunities to participate more fully and more freely. This follow-up move is referred to as a 'pivot' move. Rather than merely acknowledging, reformulating or providing an alternative answer, it requires further contributions from students to either extend, clarify or justify their contribution. In other words, the prospective level of this follow-up move is raised from low (merely acknowledging or confirming) to high (asking for expansion, clarification, justification or confirmation). As pointed out by Gibbons (2006) and Wells (1996), the pivot move creates a 'division of labour' shift (Gibbons, 2006, p.256) because the responsibility to construct information is more symmetrically divided between teachers and students, and teachers are no longer the sole knowers or transmitters of knowledge. By investigating the functions and prospectiveness of teacher follow-up moves, the current study examined how learning affordances have been generated or limited.

8.2 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study rests largely on its theoretical approach towards classroom discourse. The use of a sociocultural theoretical framework enabled an in-depth examination and exploration of how follow-up moves increase or limit students' learning affordances. In addition, a holistic and qualitative approach towards the examination of data helped to provide insights into the teachers and their students' perceptions regarding specific moments of interaction as well as their general opinions about the subject matter (follow-up moves). The use of separate stimulated recall

sessions with the teachers and different groups of students enabled retrospective recall from a variety of participants within the limitations of time and provided possible explanations for specific discourses. The data collected demonstrated the interplay between learning contexts and classroom interactions, and also revealed mismatches in perceptions between the teachers/educators and the learners.

In terms of the literature, this research contributes to the current knowledge on language classroom discourse, with a specific focus on business English classes in a content and language integrated learning (CLIL) context. Although there have been a number of research studies on learning affordances in language and content integrated classes (e.g.,Donato & Brooks, 2004; Gibbons, 2006; Nystrand, 1997; O'Connor & Michaels, 1996; Thoms, 2014), there has been no research undertaken in business English classes in Vietnam. The current study endeavours to fill this gap by providing an account of how learning affordances are distributed in the specific context of three business English classes.

8.3 Research Outcomes

In order to answer the central research question '*How do teacher follow-up moves influence learning affordances in Business English classes?'* a number of data collection instruments were implemented to investigate the impact of teacher follow-up moves on learning affordances. It was revealed that some types of follow-up moves promoted learning affordances while others tended to limit opportunities for learning, and there were certain classroom conditions that created more learning potential than others. Additionally, there were a number of factors that influenced the distribution of teacher follow-up moves, which directly impacted student learning affordances. Each of these aspects is explored in detail in the following sections.

8.3.1 How do the participant teachers' follow-up moves limit learning affordances?

A thorough investigation of video and audio recorded classroom discourse, combined with data collected from stimulated recall sessions and final interviews, indicated that there are certain types of follow-up moves that limit the potential and possibilities for learning. They were: positive evaluation, low prospective comment, implicit recast and reformulation.

Evaluative follow-up moves

The findings of this study indicate that positive evaluative follow-up moves in the form of acceptance were dominant across all the cases. However, for most situations when those moves were provided, the teachers failed to take into account the students' reasoning processes when formulating their responses. In some cases, even though students came up with the correct answer, the ways in which they worked out those answers had nothing to do with a real understanding of the task they had been given. In addition, the processes students used to work out solutions to vocabulary exercises varied greatly, and the students had different ways of understanding certain terms. When the teachers hastily accepted some correct answers without requiring any justification or clarification, or without asking for alternative answers from other students, this prevented students from having an opportunity to explain their reasoning processes, or proposing another options. From a sociocultural perspective, the dominance of positive evaluative moves is therefore associated with limited learning affordances for students. In those situations, students have few opportunities to construct new knowledge. Instead, knowledge is finite and solely handled by the teachers, which results in a lost opportunity for students.

Acceptance moves restrict learning affordances because they do not encourage more contribution or elaboration from the students. In addition, these moves block the potential for clearing up any possible ambiguities, and they fail to consider the reasoning process students follow to produce an answer. Teachers' strategies can be improved if, for example, instead of promptly accepting students' answers, they ask questions such as 'What are the reasons for your choice?' This would not only give the student being asked an opportunity to explain his or her thinking process but would also provide other students in the class an opportunity to consider and engage their peers' thinking. Additionally, teachers could also ask students to provide examples of business situations which are related to the terms being learnt, as a way to enhance students' understanding of them. To maximize learning affordances, therefore, students' correct answers should not be treated as a closure move, but instead as an invitation for justification or elaboration This finding aligns with Waring's (2008) recommendation that correct answers should be treated with the same amount of concern as incorrect ones to promote more opportunities for learning.

The dominance of evaluative follow-up moves illustrates the teachers' predominant tendency to assess their students' answer. The typical procedure for this type of knowledge assessment is that the teacher specifies an exercise to be completed, assigns a specific amount of time for students to do it, calls on answers from some students to check the exercises, and evaluates their responses. This means that the teachers already have a definite answer in mind, and will count on that as guidance for subsequent classroom interaction. As such, the teachers appear not to be concerned about the process of how their students completed those exercises, and tend to be satisfied when the 'one and only' correct answer has been identified. Therefore, as soon as the students meet the teacher's expectations by giving the correct answer (as pre-identified in the teacher's mind), no more interaction is required. In other words, it seems that the teachers have been more concerned with knowledge assessment rather than knowledge co-construction.

The findings of this study are aligned with other research studies showing the dominance of the evaluative function of the Initiation-Response-Feedback/Evaluation (IRF/E) sequence (Hall & Walsh, 2002; H. Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Walsh, 2011). From a sociocultural perspective, the IRF/E sequence has largely been associated with the restriction of learning affordances for students (Donato & Brooks, 2004; Lin, 2000, 2007; Walsh, 2002; Waring, 2009; Wells, 1993). They are assumed to close off any possibilities for further discussion (Waring, 2008, 2009), for extending the use of language (Lin, 2000), or for promoting learner involvement (Donato and Brooks, 2004). This study argues for better management of teachers' follow-up moves so that they do not perform a merely evaluative function but are followed by implicit or explicit requests for discourse extension.

Low prospective comments

Another dominant teaching practice was providing low prospective comment moves, in which teachers tended to extend their students' responses, rather than ask students to provide more information to support their answers. The most popular actions by teachers were to provide explanations as a way to confirm that the student's answer was correct, or provide an example to demonstrate the idea of the student.

The extension of learning affordances created by low prospective comments is worth discussing. Firstly, it can be argued that low prospective comments create some learning

affordances. For example, when the teacher provides more information, it potentially increases students' current understanding and knowledge of an issue. In comparison with purely positive evaluative follow-up moves, where no extension of discourse is visible, low comment moves create more opportunities for learning. However, from a sociocultural perspective, learning arises from the process of co-constructing knowledge, during which participants (including both the teacher and the students) jointly contribute to current knowledge development (Gibbons, 2006; Lantolf, 2000). Thus, dialogic classroom interaction contributes more to learning than monologic interaction. Where no prior consideration is given to encouraging learners to extend their responses, the dominance of low prospective comments reflects a process of knowledge transmission rather than knowledge co-construction. Because the students are not asked to make any further contribution but only listen to what the teacher supplies, it is difficult to determine whether they fully understand what the teacher say. As commented by a student, when only listening to the teacher without having to do anything else '*sometimes I do not pay attention or catch anything*'. In this study, the teachers also conceded that when they provided information, they were not sure how much their students would gain from what they shared. The data obtained from the stimulated recall with students for the classroom discourse in extract 4.8, reveals that students used their background knowledge to counter the points made by the teacher, while the teacher was not aware of this knowledge. Therefore, the dominance of the knowledge transmission approach to teaching leads to fewer opportunities for cooperative negotiation between teachers and students. In addition, the dominant practice by teachers of providing knowledge may decrease the number of students' attempts to express their ideas. For example, a stimulated recall session with one group of students revealed that when the teacher rejected an answer from a student, what other students were thinking at that time was '*We were waiting for the teacher to provide the correct answer*', rather than actively thinking of alternative responses.

There are a number of possible reasons for the dominance of low comment moves. Firstly, it may relate to an attempt by the teachers to resolve the mismatch between the objective of the course and their students' low levels of background knowledge. As the teachers shared, their students did not have good background knowledge in business English and this may have prompted them to provide as much knowledge as possible.

Secondly, this practice may have been due to time constraints. As reflected in an observed lesson, in most classes, the teachers failed to cover all the content that was supposed to be taught according to the course outline. The time pressure in each lesson may have prevented the teacher from asking for students' contributions, so they decided to provide information themselves. As Hoa said '*Sometimes I felt guilty because I could not cover everything for my students.*' In addition, another possible reason is a cultural factor. Being born and growing up in an Asian country, Vietnamese teachers and students may be influenced by a traditional Confucian ideology, which specifies teachers as 'possessors and messengers of profound knowledge', and students as 'the recipients of that authoritative knowledge' (Butler, 2011, p. 40). The dominance of teacher talk in the form of providing knowledge was also observed in a recent study conducted in Vietnam. Le and Barnard (2009) reported that Vietnamese teachers' primary concern was reproduction of knowledge rather than providing opportunities for students to use the target language. Arguably, the teachers in this study tended to take on the cultural role of knowledge transmitter.

Recast and reformulation of students' responses

Recast and reformulation moves were also frequently used across all three cases, and varied in their degree of explicitness as well as in the degree of student noticing and uptake. The data revealed that while lexical recasts (such as changing '*old boss*' to '*former boss*') tended to be quite implicit in the sense that the teacher drew little attention to students' errors, phonological recasts (such as correction of pronunciation) were explicit because the teachers often put a greater emphasis on correct pronunciation, and this sometimes involved requests for students to repeat a word. Regarding reformulations of students' responses, only technical reformulations (teacher reformulations of everyday English into business terms) appeared to be explicit, while other types of reformulation, such as reformulating for more concise expression, were quite implicit. In the current research, it appeared that explicit recast and reformulation led to a higher degree up uptake and noticing (cf., S. Li, 2010) As observed in classes, following the teacher's phonological corrections, the students often repeated the correct pronunciation; and many of them would copy reformulated business terms provided by the teacher into their notebooks. Of all the types of recasts and reformulations, it appeared that technical reformulation led to the most learning affordances in terms of

promoting the language of the discipline (i.e., business English) and active engagement with it. Although this did not lead to any discourse extension from the students, arguably, the students were informed about and engaged with a more academic and technical term in the context of a business English course.

Summary

The above follow-up moves, despite performing different functions, such as evaluation, comment and reformulation, share one common characteristic: they are all identified as low prospective moves. Following those moves, students are not required to produce any further responses. The dominance of low-prospective moves illustrates that evaluation and knowledge transmission tended to be the primary actions of the teachers. Accordingly, it appears that the teachers were performing the role of 'knowers', and 'transmitters'. Knowledge, therefore, was transmitted rather than co-constructed. The lack of participation from students meant a low potential for learning.

8.3.2 How do the participant teachers' follow-up moves promote learning affordances?

Follow-up initiation moves

A follow-up move was coded as a follow-up initiation in a number of situations. It was usually prompted by students' extended silence in response to a teacher's question. In such situations, the teachers would either reformulate their question by translating it into Vietnamese, rewording parts of the question, splitting the question into smaller components, informing the students they could use Vietnamese to answer, or providing prompts so that students would find it easier to respond. Other situations where the teacher follow-up moves were coded as follow-up initiations were when students provided an inappropriate answer, but instead of evaluating this answer, the teacher would either give prompts so that students would be better able to provide a response, or the teacher would challenge that response by countering the points made by the students.

The majority of follow-up initiation moves were of high or middle prospectiveness, because they entailed a request for a contribution. As reflected in the data, follow-up initiation was quite effective in terms of increasing students' contributions to the ongoing discourse. By translating the question into Vietnamese as a form of

reformulation, for example, the teachers helped students to obtain a better understanding of the questions, which enabled them work out an answer more easily. The use of Vietnamese in this situation was also observed in a recent study conducted by Pham and Hamid (2013) in the context of Vietnamese classes. In addition, by allowing the students to use Vietnamese to give an answer, the teachers created a situation where the students could use familiar language to express what they meant. Otherwise, they may not have been able to make any contribution.

The follow-up initiation move is valuable in terms of promoting learning affordances. By assisting students to work out the answer rather than providing the answer immediately, the teacher provides the students with another opportunity to activate thinking and find an appropriate response to what they are asked about. This process reflects the ideology of sociocultural theory, that with the help of an expert (in this case the teacher), learners can complete tasks that they are unable to perform themselves. In doing this, the teacher encourages students' engagement and commitment to the process of knowledge co-construction, which helps to promote a dialogic learning environment. Although a follow-up initiation move does not specifically play the role of a pivot move as described by Gibbons (2006), (extending students' previous contribution), it can be argued that it is effective in terms of encouraging students' participation. Therefore, the follow-up initiation can be referred to as a virtual-pivot move.

However, as observed in the classes, in some situations, follow-up initiations did not lead to a higher level of student participation (extract 5.8) or effectively guide students toward the response expected by the teacher (extract 6.8). In these situations, it appeared that the teachers did not provide sufficient support, such as by increasing students' background knowledge, or specifically asking students to provide practical examples. As a result, students failed to make an effective contribution to the lesson. Therefore, in order for a follow-up initiation to be fully effective, it is important that teachers are well informed about students' current levels of knowledge, understanding and current capacity in the English language so as to identify the best ways to assist them.

Follow-up initiations resemble the features of 'interactional scaffolding' (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005, p. 20), a term which refers to the teacher's contingent response which aims to assist students to work out the answer by using the target language. Therefore, it is closely related to the notion of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) proposed

by Vygotsky (C. Cazden, 1979; Stone, 1993). Scaffolding plays an important role in helping students to move beyond their current levels of development through the assistance of a more capable person (here the teacher). In this study, follow-up initiations play an important role in assisting students to increase their participation, from which their use of the target language and expression of opinion can be facilitated and explored.

High prospective follow-up moves (pivot moves)

As observed by Wells (1993, 1999) and Gibbons (2006), high prospective, or pivot moves help to shift the labour contribution from the teacher to the students. In this way, interactions between the teachers and their students become more dialogic, and the students play a more active role in the construction of new knowledge (Wells, 1999; Wells & Arauz, 2006). The implementation of a pivot move takes place within what is called 'extended IRF' (Gibbons, 2006) or 'spiral IRF' (L. Li, 2011). The pivot follow-up move acts as a connection between two IRF exchanges in a sequence. Pivot moves also tend to increase discourse contingency, as they potentially lead to a process of intensifying, qualifying and clarifying the issue being discussed. However, not all pivot moves create an equal amount of learning affordance.

In this study, a number of pivot moves performed an evaluative function in the form of clarification requests, such as the teacher asking the whole class '*Is it correct?*' after receiving an incorrect response from a student. By asking the students in the class to evaluate their peer's responses, the teacher opened a forum for students' opinions. The whole class had an opportunity to suggest alternative answers, which could be similar to or different to what their peers had proposed. In terms of cultural value, this practice is quite common in Vietnamese classes, as this is an effective way to avoid face threatening issues. Under the influence of Confucian ideology, 'face' (thể diện) plays a significant role in the Vietnamese culture (Nguyen, 2015). In educational settings, accordingly, it has been found challenging to set up an interactive learning environment or a more student-centred approach because Vietnamese students tend to be reluctant to participate in classroom activities for fear of making mistakes. Additionally, they will feel a loss of face if they produce an incorrect response to a teacher's question (Park 2010; Pham, 2010). Thus, a common practice for Vietnamese teachers when receiving an incorrect response from their students would be to shift the question to the whole

class (cf. Pickford, 2008). In doing this, the teachers help the original student to avoid losing face, while opening up opportunities for alternative voices in order to obtain the correct answer. That the teacher allowed individual students an opportunity to reconsider what s/he had proposed in terms of meaning or pronunciation could arguably activate a self-repair process. Consequently, the student could possibly come up with a more appropriate answer. In sum, these kinds of evaluative clarification requests create opportunities for students' self-repair and peer-repair.

However, in terms of the degree of discourse development for students, evaluative clarification requests generally did not lead to significant student engagement or contribution. Typical actions following teacher clarification requests fell into one of three categories. Firstly, if students managed to self-correct or classmates provided an alternative correct response, the teacher would accept the correction and move on to the next item. Secondly, when a correct answer had been provided by the students, the teacher did not ask them for a justification, but instead provided her own explanation. Thirdly, if following a teacher's clarification request the students failed to provide a more appropriate response, the teachers would propose a correct response and give an explanation. Therefore, it could be argued that although evaluative clarification requests provided students with opportunities to reconsider previous responses, these opportunities were quite limited in the sense that cooperative negotiation between the teacher and students would stop at the point when a correct response was identified, without any further elaboration or extension from students. Thus, it appeared that the intention of the teacher when making evaluative clarification requests was to facilitate evaluation rather than to create an environment for students to discuss possible answers to a single question. As such, the teachers intended to provide extra opportunities for students to present alternative answers in order to seek a correct answer, and as long as this objective was achieved, the current interaction would cease and move onto the next (and different) interaction. Arguably, this type of interaction only focuses on the product, not on the process, and the reasoning process that students undertake to propose alternative responses was not taken into consideration by the teachers.

The majority of pivot moves required students to expand, clarify, confirm, or exemplify or justify their answers. As demonstrated in the data, this provided students with opportunities to extend their discourse and participation. Identification, confirmation

and justification requests required students to reflect upon past and current experience to make proposals and defend their positions. Therefore, these requests created affordances for more language production and helped reveal the reasons underlying students' opinions. Accordingly, the students' language production was extended beyond single utterances into more complex, sentential, and supra-sentential forms. Knowledge, therefore, was constructed not only by the teachers, but also by the students. In other words, the role of creating meaning was distributed more symmetrically in the class. This helped to construct classroom discourse at a deeper and more expansive level compared to that which emerged from continuously evaluative moves. Pivot moves also created opportunities for students to make their opinions known to the teacher and their peers, and from these interactions possible gaps in knowledge or misunderstandings could be identified and rectified. Therefore, the appropriate implementation of pivot moves created a constructive learning atmosphere in which participants' ideas were valued as the content of the lesson was explored from various perspectives.

This study also identified teacher's confirmation requests similar to what is termed 'revoicing' by O'Connor and Michaels (1996, p.71), as in this example:

S Because if they employ these people, they only need pay a little money.

T **Ah, you mean because they are from poorer countries, so they … when… how to say… the employers employ the workers, they just have to pay a little amount of money, right? Is it?**

By asking students' to confirm the teacher's understanding of their response, the teacher effectively shifted the role of determining the appropriateness of a response, which is typically associated with the teacher, to the students. In this situation, the student was responsible for deciding whether the teacher's 'revoicing' of the student's response was the correct representation of what the student meant. As argued by Cazden (2001), this move demonstrates a teacher's responsibility to listen to what students propose, as contrasted to the more usual dominant mode of students listening to what teacher says in a class. This follow-up move generates more learning affordances because students are given opportunities to evaluate the teacher's understanding of their contributions or opinions.

However, it was also clear that the effectiveness of pivot moves varied across different situations. As illustrated in the data, follow-up moves performing the same function

(such as identification requests) may receive a response from one student while only receiving silence from another. It appears that in order for such requests to be successful, teachers must be able to conduct appropriate scaffolding to assist students to give their responses. In other words, it is important that pivot moves are contingent (Gibbons, 2006). As described by van Lier (1996, p.174), 'contingency as a dual concept combines elements of predictability (known-ness, the familiar) and unpredictability (new-ness, the unexpected)'. Accordingly, contingency acts as 'a web of connecting threads between an utterance and other utterances, and between utterances and the world' (van Lier, 1996, p.174). Van Lier (2001) emphasises the on-the-spot responsiveness of contingency, claiming that it is not possible to anticipate or plan in advance. In the context of a class, contingency refers to the teacher's immediate response to a student's contribution. This is not a random or spontaneous response, and must take into account the current level of a student's understanding, and act as a path to achieve an intended teaching objective. In other words, contingency acts as a bridge to connect a student's current level of understanding to the level of understanding aimed for by the teacher. As such, effective contingency can only be achieved when there is a sophisticated management between an immediate response and the long-range vision of where to take the students to (Gibbons, 2006). High prospective moves, in the light of the concept of contingency, therefore, refer to the teacher's immediate request for more contributions from students in order to achieve a particular pedagogical purpose. In order for these moves to achieve their goals, the teacher must be sensitive and tactful in response to students' contributions, while keeping the ultimate goal in mind.

In addition, a close examination of episodes with high prospective moves indicated that the association of these moves with learning affordances depended not only on whether they were introduced, but also on how they were allocated within a *string of moves*. If placed in isolation, in the form of questions, pivot moves can be claimed to facilitate students' participation. However, it is only when placed in the context of other related prior and subsequent moves that the real value of pivot moves can be identified and explored. A pivot move randomly granted in the context of abundant low prospective moves, for example, is not likely to lead to the promotion of learning affordances. Therefore, in order to promote knowledge construction, the teacher must have a genuine interest and an informed way of managing classroom discourse so that the students feel

their contributions are valuable and influence current classroom discourse. For example, when a teacher treats a student's contribution as a departure point to open up class discussion on a certain issue, it is likely to encourage more student engagement with the lesson and other class participants. This will potentially motivate students to increase their participation in the class.

There were also situations where high prospective moves did not lead to the realisation of learning affordances but appeared as 'false learning affordances'. This occurred in cases when a teacher asked a rhetorical question without a real desire to obtain a detailed answer, or asked a question without providing sufficient wait time to get answers from students, such as in the following examples:

Example 1:

T Do you know eBay?
Ss Yes
T **EBay is the website for…selling things, and a lot of people. ..they need things and they will get access to that website. And then they will just read the advertisements, or any…how to say…the news from your products. And then they will…okay…if they will…they will contact you and they buy things from you. Alright?**

Example 2:

T Recruitment, recruitment, what does it mean?
Students proposed that it referred to CV, interview…
S For a job.
T Interview, interview, apply people for a job?
Students kept silent.
T No.
Recruitment, do you know any phrasal verb for this? You know the word 'take on'? Or 'employ' somebody. If it is the verb, 'recruit somebody', and then you have 'take on somebody', 'employ somebody', right?

As can be seen, in the first example, although the students clearly indicated that they knew about eBay (they said 'Yes'), the teacher did not ask for any information but provided an answer herself. In the second example, the teacher did ask a question 'Recruitment, do you know any phrasal verb for this?' but then did not wait to allow a response but provided the answer immediately. As noted by Cazden (2001), students should be provided with sufficient wait time to deal with a teacher's question, and the teacher must let the students 'get the floor' (p.87) by giving them the authority to have

their opinion listened to by the teacher and peers. However, in the situations above, the students were not provided an adequate amount of time to activate their linguistic resources and thinking to work out an answer. In other words, learning affordances were deemed to be created but only at a surface level, rather than from a genuine quest for knowledge expansion by the teachers.

Summary

The findings of this study complement and extend previous research on the value of pivot moves (Gibbons, 2006; Wells, 1996). High prospective follow-up moves generate different types of learning affordances at a variety of levels. Evaluative clarification requests only offer affordances at a limited level as a way to obtain what the teacher appears to believe is the only correct answer. Other types of pivot moves such as identification and confirmation requests create more opportunities for students to give voice to certain issues and to promote their English language production and topic engagement. Additionally, the extent and effectiveness of different high prospective follow-up moves are not solely determined by whether they are produced or not. Their impact is also dependent on the teacher having a genuine motivation to encourage students' participation. In other words, the extent of student learning affordances depends on both the quantity and quality of high prospective moves.

8.3.3 What learning conditions are perceived to create the most learning affordances?

There were some situations that provided more learning affordances for students than others. As commented by the participants, the students learned most in situations when the teacher interacted with individual students or the whole class, and where there was an exchange rather than a monologue. This supports the ideology of sociocultural theory that dialogic classroom discourse promotes learning to a greater extent than monologic discourse (cf., Wells, 1999; Wells & Arauz, 2006). In addition, students not only learn from the teacher, but also from their peers by participating in group work and listening to dialogue between their peers and the teacher. In other words, they not only learn from the more capable person/an expert, but also from students at a similar level of language and knowledge (cf., Mercer, 2004).

However, it is significant that the majority of the participants greatly appreciated the important role of the teachers in promoting learning affordances. They attributed the realisation of learning affordances mostly to the teachers' presence and the way they handled classroom discourse. For example, although claiming that students benefitted from group work, the participants claimed that group work was better with the intervention of the teacher. This finding demonstrates the crucial role of the teacher in creating potential for learning. The teacher is responsible for organising classroom activities and monitoring these activities so as to create the most effective learning potential or possibilities for learning. The teacher is also responsible for encouraging students to use their prior experience and knowledge to contribute to the classroom discourse.

The metaphor of 'situated learning' is manifested through the participants' suggestions about the best ways to learn technical terms. According to the participants, the best way to learn a business term was to connect it with specific, practical, real-life examples, to visually demonstrate it by using, for example, a graph, or to relate it to synonyms or antonyms. As such, learning a word was considered to be most effective when it was placed in relationship with other related phenomena rather than in isolation and out of context.

8.3.4 Summary.

This section provided a discussion on how learning affordances were provided or restricted with reference to the functions and prospective levels of teachers' follow-up moves. The findings of this study demonstrate that evaluative oriented and low prospective moves did not create affordances for learning, while high prospective moves promoted student learning in the form of increased participation. It also argued that the extent of learning affordance depended not solely on the prospectiveness of a single move, but also on the interrelatedness across a continuity of follow-up moves. In other words, in order for learning affordances to be promoted to a maximum extent, it is crucial that teachers have a positive attitude and a persistent determination to create particular kinds of dialogic interaction with students. They should also have a pedagogical orientation that acknowledges the association between discipline-based dialogue and language learning, particularly content learning in an additional language. This can only be achieved when teachers consider their students worthy conversational

partners who can provide contributions to meaning and knowledge construction. In addition, teachers need to know how to scaffold different kinds of classroom discourse, both linguistically and in terms of the content being taught.

8.4 Other Factors that Affect Learning Affordances

Although all the teachers claimed that they applied the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach in their teaching, it appeared that the principles of this approach were not demonstrated clearly in the classes. For example, teachers spent the majority of class time providing knowledge rather than encouraging students to communicate in the target language. This finding, which points out that there is a mismatch between the teachers' perceptions and expectations and their actual teaching practice, is congruent with prior research on the application of CLT in Vietnamese contexts (Le & Barnard, 2009; Pham, 2007). In addition, the majority of the teachers and students pointed out that the most beneficial form of interaction was not between the students themselves (such as in group work, during which they had the most opportunities to communicate). Rather, the most beneficial types of interactions were: between the teachers and individual students; situations such as whole class interactions; interactions between teachers and individual students; and teachers' interventions during students' group work. Participants also pointed out that contributing to classroom discourse was important because when doing this they learned '*how to propose an idea*' and '*may come up with a new idea*'. Regarding group work, the majority of the students commented that when a teacher intervened and provided support, their discussion was more effective. For example, one student said '*We only discussed this topic on the surface, but when my teacher came and gave some suggestions, we realized that we could develop it in another way*.' Another issue that was raised by the students was that in some cases they failed to participate in a lesson due to their limited background knowledge.

Therefore, what was evident was that the students were looking for a better form of mediation from a more capable person (in this case, their teachers), rather than from themselves. In other words, what the students were in need of were not only opportunities for communication, but more importantly, opportunities to participate in their teacher's mediation process, from which more learning affordances could be generated. Therefore, CLT principles such as creating a rich language input

environment to promote natural acquisition of the target language (Butler, 2011), and facilitating communicative tasks, appear to function as a barrier to the achievement of CLIL objectives. In other words, the role of teachers as mere facilitators of communicative activities does not guarantee the creation of opportunities for students' learning of both English and the content of a lesson. As argued by Wells (1999) and van Lier (2000), sociocultural theory, while aiming at creating opportunities for interaction, emphasizes that the nature of this interaction must be in the form of mediated learning, during which students are assisted to go beyond current levels of learning to reach a potential level of development. Because sociocultural theory advocates learning, and specifies that language is both the tool and the outcome of learning, it is argued that applying sociocultural theory would better serve the goal of learning in this CLIL context.

Another feature of the classroom discourse in the three cases was the use of Vietnamese. The use of the students' first language in a second language class, mostly by learners, has been documented in a number of educational research studies under the names of code switching (Bloom & Gumperz, 1972; Ferguson, 2003), code mixing (Kamwangamalu & Cher-Leng, 1991; Muysken, 2000; Meechan & Poplack, 1995), code meshing (Canagarajah, 2006) and translanguaging (Garcia & Wei, 2014). As argued by a number of scholars, the teacher's use of the first language in a second language class helps construct and transmit knowledge (Edstrom, 2006; Ferguson, 2009; Kim, 2003), improve interpersonal relations (McGlynn & Martin, 2009; Rubdy, 2007) and manage the classroom (McKay & Chick, 2001; Shujing, 2013). In the context of Vietnam, research on the use of code switching in business English classes conducted by Nguyen (2012) revealed that Vietnamese was primarily used to facilitate vocabulary acquisition and assist second language comprehension. Another study investigating Vietnamese teachers' journals on their teaching practice at secondary schools conducted by Lewis and McCook (2002) also reported that teachers shifted codes to Vietnamese to enhance students' understanding.

The use of Vietnamese in this study appeared to perform a meta-function, enabling other discourse features to operate, as it was at times used by the teachers to evaluate, to make comments, to request increased contributions, to provide additional information, and to facilitate interpersonal relationships (*affective* aspect - Cazden 2001). It was

common that Vietnamese translation were used to check students' understanding of specific English terms. However, in order to obtain a more accurate judgement of the students' competence, it is recommended that follow-up moves go beyond simply requesting an equivalent translation. For example, students should be encouraged to construct a sentence containing the term being discussed, or to provide an example to illustrate the term's meaning, or to use it in conversations. In addition, the data also indicated that the teachers' repetition of students' ideas in the first language only served the pedagogical function of maintaining the correct expression of ideas, while reverse code switching played the dual roles of enhancing contributions and enlarging students' language resources, such as in the following example:

> St: Vâng, và nó ảnh hưởng đến suy nghĩ của mọi người về vùng đất đó
> (Yes, and it affects the way people think about that region)
> T: **So the way people perceive or the way they think about a part or a region, right?**

As the purpose of a CLIL class is to promote learning for both language and content, this translation - reverse code switching (cf. Van Der Meji & Zhao, 2010) can be argued to be an effective means to attain these dual purposes.

The role of the first language can be seen clearly in the observed cases. Although one of the teachers did not make use of Vietnamese, the fact that her students occasionally shifted from English to Vietnamese, and that she asked them to reverse code switch to English, indicated that she was well aware of her students' tendency to use Vietnamese, and consciously discouraged it. Participants in a CLIL class, either consciously or unconsciously, utilize the first language for different purposes, including promoting content knowledge, resolving challenging comprehension problems, preventing communication breakdowns, encouraging increased participation, and facilitating affective aspects. Secondly, the extent of code shifting has an impact on the achievement of language and content outcomes in CLIL. It could be argued that an extreme use of the students' mother tongue fails to encourage students to have meaningful interactions in the target language, and therefore does not provide affordances for students' language development. On the other hand, when code switching is not implemented at all, there might be problems such as students' inadequate understanding of content issues, and lack of participation. Therefore, in

order for the dual goals of language and content in CLIL to be achieved, it is important that the teachers promote the learning of content knowledge via the target language. In case it is necessary to use the mother tongue to ensure comprehension, the teachers should only use it to a certain extent and withdraw when misunderstanding no longer persists. When possible, the teacher ought to assist students to translate their expressions from Vietnamese to English, so that they can gradually become accustomed to using English for communication. Students may be allowed to use their mother tongue to express opinions due to their low language competence, but teachers should engage in reverse code switching so that students can gain access to the target language and the content being taught in the target language. Reserve code switching should be encouraged to gradually build up the frequency of students' use of English. In addition, instead of providing message abundance in Vietnamese, it is recommended that this abundance should be provided in clear, detailed English to prevent any risk of misunderstanding. To ensure that students have understood the content, instead of asking students to translate terms into Vietnamese, teachers can conduct other activities such as asking them to make a sentence or provide an example using the terms they have learnt. If possible, it is also recommended that students be given opportunities to learn about how English can be used for socially related purposes, such as joking and praising in the classroom context. This will help build up a multi-dimensional competence in using an additional language.

Another feature of follow-up moves that could be further explored concerns how teachers handle the relationship between language and content in this integrated context. As observed in this study, in many cases, teachers shifted the focus of a particular interaction from content to language. For example, when a student proposed a correct term but pronounced it wrongly, the teacher would propose the correct pronunciation or ask this student to pronounce the term again. Sometimes teachers would draw students' attention to particular ways of pronunciation for different forms (noun, verb) of the same word. This reflected the fact that although the teachers considered the delivery of knowledge in terms of word meanings and content knowledge to be the primary focus of the course (as reflected in their interviews and their teaching), they also wanted to ensure particular delivery of some linguistic features, particularly pronunciation.

Last but not least, there are important factors that can be accounted for in the administration of follow-up moves. Time constraints, combined with the amount of content knowledge to be covered, can affect the way a teacher conducts classroom discourse. If teachers are expected to cover too much content in a limited time, this may reduce the time the teacher allows for students' discourse. Additionally, what teachers perceive to be the primary objectives of a course and their roles also influence their teaching strategies. In this case study, all the teachers considered that their role was to provide knowledge, and this may account for the high frequency of low prospective moves. A teacher's prior experience and personal viewpoints may also affect how they handle students' contributions.

8.5 Study Implications

Several theoretical and practical implications can be drawn from this study.

8.5.1 Theoretical implications.

With respect to the implications for research and theory, the findings confirm the important role of teachers in creating opportunities for learning through classroom discourse. Teacher implementation of follow-up moves with different functions and levels of prospectiveness has a direct impact on the potential for student learning. This study highlights the fact that the quality of teaching and learning depends to a large extent on how teachers conduct and manage classroom interactions with students.

The study makes theoretical contributions by establishing a relationship between teacher follow-up moves and potential for learning. This is the first study in Vietnam in which teacher follow-up functions are explored in terms of both functions and prospective level. It contributes to the coding scheme of teacher follow-up moves by providing empirical data on the multiple functions of the moves. Apart from functions as proposed by Wells (1996) and Lee (2007), it increases the variety and extension of follow-up moves with a number of newly identified categories, the majority of which refer to the teacher's use of the students' mother tongue. Regarding the level of prospectiveness, it demonstrates that high prospective follow-up moves create more potential for student participation.

This study makes a significant contribution to the area of learning an additional language in combination with subject content, particularly for business English courses.

It identifies that while dealing with students' responses, teachers tend to focus primarily on content but occasionally shift attention to language-related features of student discourse, particularly pronunciation.

These findings call for a shift from a focus on knowledge assessment and transmission to an emphasis on facilitating the co-construction of knowledge. Teachers should create opportunities for students to use their background knowledge and personal experiences to propose, support and defend their viewpoints. The move toward more symmetrical knowledge building and sharing will create more learning possibilities for students.

In terms of methodology, this study promotes the value of implementing stimulated recall sessions and classroom audio records. These two data collection methods helped identify aspects of classroom discourse that are unable to be detected from video-recorded data alone. In a number of situations, the use of these methods assisted in the identification of mismatches between teachers and students' perceptions concerning the same piece of classroom interaction and unveiled the reasons for particular participants' discourse.

8.5.2 Practical implications.

The findings of this study points out that the dominant teaching practices of the three teachers in the study are knowledge assessment and transmission, and that this focus constrains learning affordances. The study also identified that although the course being investigated is business English, the students were given limited opportunities to produce long sequences of the target language, and the majority of their production was not always strongly associated with the subject matter – business English. The students' low participation level indicates that the opportunities for learning are rather limited. On the other hand, although the teacher practice of asking for discourse expansion was not very frequent across the three cases, in situations where they were distributed, students were given more opportunities to exercise their personal background knowledge and use the target language. Therefore, in order to increase students' participation, teachers should not only focus on evaluating the students' responses. Instead, they should create opportunities for students to justify, clarify, and exemplify their answers.

The study calls for better management of classroom discourse so as to yield more learning potential. As observed, a substantial amount of class time was devoted to the

teaching and checking of vocabulary exercises, which largely consisted of low prospective moves in the form of evaluations and low prospective comments. It is highly recommended that the teachers should be more aware of possible opportunities to increase students' engagement in expanding discourse during vocabulary episodes. More possibilities for learning would be opened up if teaching and learning practices moved beyond the immediate goals of identifying correct answers. In other words, the IRF sequence should be extended beyond evaluative purposes.

The study suggests that the generation of learning affordances depends not only on the on-the-spot classroom activities adopted by the teachers, but also on sociocultural and institutional factors. A curriculum with large amounts of knowledge to be covered in each lesson, combined with limited teaching time will create a burden for teachers and will result in them teaching on the surface and limiting learning affordances. In addition, teachers' assumptions about students' current levels of English and background knowledge impact on how they manage classroom discourse. Teachers' personal backgrounds and experience also influence their classroom activities and follow-up moves. Therefore, in order to achieve the effective management of classroom discourse, it is recommended that the teaching curriculum be continuously negotiated between course objectives, study materials and time allocation. The curriculum must take into account students' competence in the additional language and their background knowledge. Learning affordances can only be promoted when the relationship between these two factors is harmoniously handled.

This study also suggests that more training should be provided to teachers to make them better aware of the extent of the impact that their teaching practices, and in particular classroom discourse, can have on students' learning. In particular, teachers in CLIL contexts should attend regular trainings to update knowledge and pedagogies, to be able to achieve the dual goals of teaching an additional language and the content knowledge of a subject.

Although the study was conducted with a small number of cases in the context of Vietnam, its findings may be applied to similar classroom contexts, especially in Asian countries which share a number of pedagogical, cultural and historical similarities with Vietnam. It suggests that the historical Confucian teaching style, which specifies teachers as possessors of knowledge to be transmitted and learners as passive receivers

of knowledge, is no longer suitable to the present context of teaching and learning. Instead, the roles of teachers and students should be more symmetrically distributed.

8.6 Conclusion

The significance of this study is its contribution to current knowledge through its detailed description and analysis of how teacher follow up moves in the IRF sequence impact the generation or limitation of students' learning affordances. It highlights the importance of classroom interaction, especially in regard to the ways teachers handle students' contributions. This study demonstrated that the emergence and the extent of learning affordances in a CLIL setting are complex. Students' silence when the teacher confirms the correctness of an answer does not necessarily indicate that they agree with their teacher; sometimes, embedded within their silence is uncertainty. When teachers frequently make positive assessment moves with little explanation, students may fail to comprehend fully. If a teacher's practices of knowledge transmission do not take into account students' prior knowledge or experience, then the teacher's efforts may not be sufficient to make students feel convinced of a particular viewpoint. In other words, in situations where low prospective moves are dominant, it is difficult to determine the extent to which learning has been promoted. On the other hand, high prospective pivot moves create opportunities for students to exemplify, justify, and clarify their opinions, which also helps teachers to assess students' current knowledge levels. In addition, these moves promote the use of the target language, and encourage students to co-construct knowledge with the teacher. Accordingly, learning affordances are largely observable in the form of students' verbal contributions. From a sociocultural perspective, learning occurs through processes of participation; therefore, pivot moves appear to be a facilitator of learning.

As the person who possesses knowledge which is assumed to be academically greater than the students', and as the person who is in charge of organising classroom activities, the teacher plays a vital role in handling classroom discourse. To enhance the benefits of classroom interaction, it is recommended that teachers consider their students as valuable contributors to the lesson. Teachers should create a classroom environment in which students feel motivated to propose ideas and present opinions, and in which they are willing to defend their arguments. Teachers should also be required to have good subject knowledge and second language knowledge, and be informed of proper teaching

methodology so as to make proper interventions in order to guide students towards the expected educational goals. The distribution of follow-up moves must be contingent upon the students' response so that the lesson does not focus on rigid, pre-determined expectations, but is rather seen as a window to open new ways to explore and develop current knowledge.

It is also important to acknowledge the importance of the educational institution where teaching and learning activities take place. While this study only focuses on examining moment-to-moment classroom interactions, it also indicates that the overall curriculum and the specific objectives of each lesson (as stated in the course guide) influence the teacher's teaching practice. It is therefore necessary that institutions have regular feedback from teachers and students to ensure a harmonious and supportive relationship between the pedagogical aims of the curriculum as a whole, and the specific goals of each lesson within the timeframe and resources of a class. It is also recommended that teachers be given opportunities for ongoing professional development so that they are more aware of the current trends in second language learning so as to be informed of the most appropriate teaching approaches and methodologies.

The focus of this study is on teacher follow-up moves, and I have been able to highlight situations where more learning affordances can be generated. As demonstrated through the examination of data, the quantity and quality of learning affordances were best promoted through dialogic classroom interactions and a high frequency of high prospective moves. The study suggests that the quantity and quality of learning potential for students depends on the teacher's management of classroom discourse. Therefore, teachers should be aware that the management of their own discourse has a great impact on students' opportunities for learning. Because of this, it is recommended that teachers undergo regular professional training in order to know how to design and make the best use of classroom interactions.

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Appendix A: Course guide

Year 1, Semester 2 English for Double-Major Program

Program:	BA. TEFL
Course title:	English for Double Major Program 1
Course credit value:	4
Course code:	2B
Course status:	core
Semester:	2
Class hour:	8hours/ week (2 sessions)

1. Prerequisites: English language proficiency level B1

2. Subsequent courses: Business English 3A

3. Course description:

Proficiency Level: B1+

This course is designed to enhance students' English language competence within the business context. The content knowledge is mostly adopted from the Market Leader Intermediate level (3rd edition) textbook. Both summative and formative assessment will be incorporated into the program via a variety of tasks, assignments, and tests. As central to the course is the Communicative Language Teaching approach, students' needs drive learning activities held in class. At the end of the course, the expected outcome is the $B1^+$ level in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

4. Teaching materials

4.1 Required materials

Cotton, D; Falvey, D & Kent, S. (2012). *Market leader (3rd Edition).* London: Pearson United Kingdom.

Duong, T. M; Tran, T. V. D & Dam, T. T. D, (2010) Paragraph writing skills. Hanoi: FELTE- VNU.

FELTE lecturers. (2012). Business English 2: Selective compilation for internal use.

4.2. Recommended materials

Duckworth, M. (2009). *Business Grammar and Practice (New Edition)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mascull, B. (2002). *Business vocabulary in use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

5. Assessment and grading

Type of assessment		Weight	Task Description	Assessment Objectives
ON-GOING Assessment	Attendance and Participation	10%	Students' participation in classes Homework checking: reading and listening passages; business grammar and other supplementary materials.	-To regularly check students' (Ss') linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and strategic competence along with business content
	Business English Mini Tests	20%	2 tests/semester (week 8 and week 15)	-To test Ss' capacity of using the language within business contexts
	Project 1 Writing Portfolio	20%	Students keep their writing drafts in a portfolio and submit to the teacher in week 14 (4 genres required)	-To test Ss' ability of using language flexibly in writing various business genres -To assess Ss' learning autonomy during the writing process - To assess Ss' ability of communicating, convey thoughts and ideas with peers
	Project 2 Presentation	20%	Groups take turn to present solutions to case studies as required in the syllabus. Their oral presentation skills and problem-solving skill in the business context will be assessed.	-To test Ss' capacity of using language flexibly with the business content - To test Ss' capacity of maintaining and intervening a discussion about business content - To assess Ss' ability of searching for and refining information to express a message
OVERALL Assessment	End-of-term test	30%	Business English test (Listening, Reading, Writing)	- To test students' competence in B1+ business English.

6. Weekly timetable

Week/ Theme	Section	In-class activities	Self-study
W1- Orientation BRANDS	1.1	• Guidelines for the course • Entry test • Vocabulary: Brand Management	
	1.2	• Listening: An interview with a brand manager • Reading: Building luxury brands (Financial Times) • Skill: Taking part in meetings	Unit 1- BE 2
W2 – TRAVEL	2.1	• Vocabulary: American English and British English • Listening: Hyatt Hotel • Skill: Telephoning – Making arrangement	
	2.2	• In-class practice • Homework checking 1 • Reading: What Business travellers want? • Academic Writing: The writing process	Unit 2- BE 2
W3 – CHANGE	3.1	• Presentation 1 • Vocabulary: Describing change • Listening: Helping companies to change • Skill: Managing meeting	
	3.2	• In-class practice • Homework checking 2 • Reading: Mercedes, shining star • Academic Writing: Paragraph structure	Unit 3- BE 2
W4-W13		Similar to the previous week with different themes	
W14		Writing portfolio submission	
W15		Revision	

7. Course policy:

Students are expected to:

- actively prepare for the class (read and reflect on what they have read for each class meeting)
- actively participate in class activities
- work cooperatively and collaboratively with their peers
- complete all assignments by the due date
- take a final test (exact date and time to be advised later)

Appendix B: A sample unit in the business English textbook

Book: Immediate Market Leader (third edition)
Business English Course Book
Author: David Cotton, David Falvey, Simon Kent

(Note: The data was collected during the first session of each unit, which covers the following parts: Starting up, Vocabulary, Listening, Skills, Case study presentation)

UNIT 5

Advertising

'Advertising isn't a science. It's persuasion, and persuasion is an art.'
William Bernbach (1911–1982), US advertising executive

OVERVIEW

VOCABULARY
Advertising media and methods

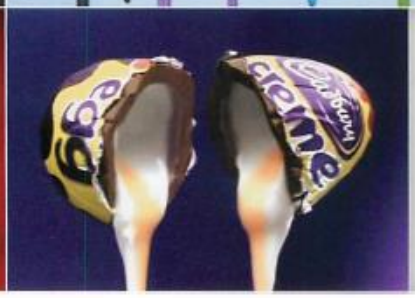
READING
A new kind of campaign

LISTENING
How advertising works

LANGUAGE REVIEW
Articles

SKILLS
Starting and structuring presentations

CASE STUDY
Alpha Advertising



STARTING UP

Discuss the advertisements above. Which do you like best? Why?

VOCABULARY
Advertising media and methods

A Newspapers are one example of an advertising medium. Can you think of others?

B Look at these words. Label each word 1 for 'advertising media', 2 for 'methods of advertising' or 3 for 'verbs to do with advertising'.

advertorials 2	endorse	point-of-sale	sponsor
banner ads	exhibitions	pop-ups	sponsorship
billboards (AmE)/ hoardings (BrE)	free samples	posters	target
cinema	Internet	press	television
commercials	leaflets/flyers	product placement	viral advertising
communicate	outdoor advertising	radio	
	place	run	

C **Which of the methods do you connect to which media?**

EXAMPLE: television – commercials

D **Which of the verbs you identified in Exercise B combine with these nouns?**

1 a campaign
2 a product
3 an advertisement
4 an event
5 a consumer
6 a message

E **Choose the most suitable words to complete these sentences.**

1 A lot of cosmetics companies give away *leaflets / commercials / free samples* so that customers can try the product before they buy.

2 Advertising companies spend a lot of money on creating clever *slogans / posters / exhibitions* that are short and memorable, such as the message for Nike: 'Just do it'.

3 Celebrity *exhibition / research / endorsement* is a technique that is very popular in advertising at the moment.

4 If news about a product comes to you by *word of mouth / the press / the Internet*, someone tells you about it rather than you seeing an advert.

5 Many companies use post and electronic *slogans / mailshots / posters* because they can target a particular group of consumers all at the same time.

F **Give examples of:**

1 any viral campaigns you have read about

2 clever slogans that you remember from advertising campaigns

3 sponsorship of any sporting or cultural events.

G **What makes a good TV advertisement? Think about ones you have seen. Use some of these words.**

clever	interesting	funny	inspiring	eye-catching	original
powerful	strange	shocking	informative	sexy	controversial

H **Do you think that these advertising practices are acceptable? Are any other types of advertisement offensive?**

1 Using children in advertisements

2 Using actors who pretend to be 'experts'

3 Using nudity in advertisements

4 Using 'shock tactics' in advertisements

5 Promoting alcohol on TV

6 Comparing your products to your competitors' products

7 An image flashed onto a screen very quickly so that people are influenced without noticing it (subliminal advertising)

8 Exploiting people's fears and worries

I **Which of the following statements do you agree with?**

1 People remember advertisements, not products.

2 Advertising has a bad influence on children.

3 Advertising tells you a lot about the culture of a particular society.

See the DVD-ROM for the i-Glossary.

READING

A new kind of campaign

A **Read the article and choose the best headline.**

a) Honda predict record sales as advert breaks new ground

b) Honda skydivers push limits of TV adverts

c) Viewers tune out of normal TV advertising; Honda responds

FT

.....

.....

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by Andrew Edgecliffe-Johnson

In a new definition of a publicity stunt, Channel 4 and Honda have turned to a team of skydivers to tackle the problem of viewers tuning out of traditional television advertising.

On Thursday night, the broadcaster was due to devote an entire 3 minute 20 second break in the middle of Come Dine With Me, its dinner party programme, to a live skydiving jump in which 19 stuntmen spelt out the carmaker's brand name. Described as the first live advertisement in modern times, the campaign is the latest attempt by advertisers and broadcasters to find alternatives to the 30-second spot.

The development of digital video recorders such as Sky+ and Tivo, which allow ads to be skipped, has forced advertising agencies and channels' sales teams to collaborate on more innovative attempts to keep the viewer's attention.

'We wanted to create something unmissable,' said Andy Barnes, the broadcaster's Sales Director. 'This concept breaks the boundaries of TV advertising,' he added, highlighting a Channel 4 campaign called 'innovating the break'.

The campaign follows initiatives such as LG's 'Scarlet' campaign, in which the television manufacturer ran advertisements appearing to trail a glamorous new television show, which turned out to be a promotion for the design features of its 'hot new series' of screens.

Thursday night's live advertisement, while designed to demonstrate the power of television advertising, was backed up by a complex multimedia and public-relations campaign.

The campaign's developers – including Channel 4's in-house creative team, Wieden + Kennedy, Starcom, Collective and Hicklin Slade & Partners – spent more than a month pushing the Honda slogan of 'difficult is worth doing' before Thursday night's slot.

A poster campaign, a series of television 'teaser' advertisements and a website have been backed up by digital advertising and press coverage. All are building up to a traditional 30-second advertising campaign, starting on June 1, said Ian Armstrong, Marketing Manager of Honda UK.

'The 30-second ad is alive and well,' Mr Barnes said, pointing to data released this week which showed that commercial television had enjoyed its best April in five years.

For Honda, however, the elements surrounding the core 30-second campaign are designed to generate the intangible buzz of word-of-mouth advertising, Mr Barnes added.

Thursday night's skydive would almost certainly go on YouTube, Mr Armstrong predicted. 'Commercially, that's a fantastic result, as it means our marketing investment becomes more efficient because consumers are doing our marketing for us.'

B **Read the article again and answer the questions.**

1 Why did Honda need a new publicity stunt with skydivers?

2 Why was the Honda advert unique?

3 Why are Sky+ and Tivo a problem for advertisers?

4 What happened in the Honda advert?

5 What happened in LG's 'Scarlet' campaign?

6 What did the Honda campaign's developers do?

7 What different types of advertising did Honda use?

C **Find all the word pairs in the text using the words *advertisement* or *advertising*.**

D **Match the words in bold in the word pairs (1–5) to their meaning (a–e).**

1 publicity **stunt** a) newspapers and magazines
2 design **features** b) a short phrase that is easy to remember
3 Honda **slogan** c) a series of actions intended to get a particular result
4 poster **campaign** d) an important, interesting or typical part of something
5 **press** coverage e) something done to get people's attention

E **Complete the text with some of the word pairs from Exercises C and D.**

PUBLICITY STUNT TIPS

Nothing will get your product noticed faster than a well-thought-out and well-performed .....[1]. First, you need to plan an .....[2]. You could start with some .....[3] on radio or TV and design some large adverts for a .....[4]. You need to highlight all the key .....[5]. Alert the local media and get good .....[6]. Tip off the local radio or TV station that something is going to happen. When it comes to the actual publicity stunt, ensure that all .....[7] or logos are visible. And if you have the money, why not try a .....[8] on TV? Finally, try to get some free .....[9] and hopefully end up on YouTube.

F **In groups, brainstorm some ideas for some live advertisements or publicity stunts.**

LISTENING

How advertising works

Marco Rimini

A CD1.31 **WPP is a world leader in marketing communications. MindShare is part of the group and Marco Rimini is its Head of Communications Planning. Listen to the first part of the interview and complete the gaps with a maximum of three words.**

I always go back to the beginning and .....[1], what is the person who's paying for the campaign .....[2]? What is that person's .....[3], what is it that that person .....[4] as a result of .....[5] on this advertising campaign?

B CD1.31 **Listen again. What reasons are there for advertising, apart from selling a product?**

C CD1.32 **Listen to the second part. What are the four stages of a typical advertising campaign?**

D CD1.33 **Listen to the final part and answer the questions.**

1 What are *viral* campaigns?
2 Regarding the Ronaldinho viral, what did people argue about?

Watch the interview on the DVD-ROM.

E **In groups, tell each other about a viral campaign or advertisement that you have discussed with your friends.**

LANGUAGE REVIEW
Articles

a/an

- We use *a* or *an* before singular countable nouns.
  a publicity stunt
- We use *a* or *an* to introduce new information.
  They are building up to a traditional 30-second advertising campaign
- We often use *a* or *an* to refer to people's jobs.
  She's an accountant
- We use *a* before consonants and *an* before vowel sounds
  a commercial, an advert

the

- We use *the* when we think our listener will know what we are talking about.
  the internet
- We use *the* when it is clear from the context what particular person, thing or place is meant because it has been mentioned before.
  The campaign is the latest attempt to ...

'zero article' We do not use an article before:

- uncountable nouns used in general statements.
  Information is power.
- the names of most countries, companies and people.
  Poland, Honda, Ian Armstrong
- A few countries require *the*:
  the Philippines, the United Kingdom, the United States

Grammar reference page 148

A **Look back at the article on page 46. In paragraphs 1 and 2, why are *a* or *an* used instead of *the* before these words?**

1 publicity stunt
2 team of skydivers
3 entire 3 minute 20 second break
4 live skydiving jump

B **In the first two paragraphs of the article, which specific examples of the following are referred to?**

1 a problem
2 a broadcaster
3 a brand name
4 a live advertisement
5 a campaign

C **Tick the correct sentences. Add *the* where necessary in the other sentences. You may need to add *the* more than once.**

1 Knowledge of advertising code of practice is vital to those wishing to work in advertising industry.
2 We want to film a TV commercial in Russia.
3 The 'Think small' Volkswagen Beetle advert was one of most successful advertising campaigns of 20th century.
4 Four major brands – AOL, Yahoo!, Freeserve and BT – all achieve awareness of over 40% amongst UK adult population.
5 Next year, I am going to work for an advertising agency in USA.

D **This text is about a television advertisement. Some of the articles are missing. Write in the missing articles – *a*, *an* or *the* – where appropriate.**

Almost as soon as the 'gorilla' television commercial for Dairy Milk chocolate was first shown on 31 August, people started posting it on YouTube. People also started asking questions, like did it feature real gorilla playing drums?

So what role did the extraordinary take-up of gorilla ad on Internet play in Dairy Milk's success?

And was success of the advert a lucky break? For like Unilever and Diageo, Cadbury has benefited from the free 'viral' distribution of its advertising on Internet as consumers e-mail, post and create spoof versions of gorilla campaign.

Gorilla commercial is most viewed advertisement so far this year on YouTube, the content-sharing website.

SKILLS

Starting and structuring presentations

A What factors do you need to consider when preparing a business presentation?

B CD1.34 Listen to two different openings of a presentation. What is the same/different about them? Which do you prefer? Why?

C How many sections is the content of the presentation organised into? Look at the Useful language box below and divide the phrases into two groups, F (formal) or I (informal). Compare your answers.

D Choose one of these presentation situations. Write and practise the opening of the presentation.

1 Your company is launching a new product. (Audience: a group of potential customers)
2 You are presenting your place of work or study. (Audience: a group of potential customers or students)
3 Your company/organisation is introducing a new way of working. (Audience: a group of colleagues)

E CD1.35 An important part of structuring a presentation is letting the audience know what is going to happen next, or signalling. Listen to an extract from later in the presentation in Exercise B and fill in the gaps.

1 ...where this is very important. Just to give you a specific example: ..... the next slide, ... the chart that the key age group is 18 to 25, but that this will become less, not more, important as the product matures in the market.
2 As I say, this is reflected across all the markets. Right, ... the target markets. ..... the final part, and the media we plan to use. We'll start in ...
3 This will be linked to a coordinated press campaign starting in June ....., before we go to the storyboard: ..... are that firstly ...

F What is the purpose of the missing expressions in each of the three extracts in Exercise E?

a) to introduce a conclusion b) to change section/topic c) to refer to visuals

G *Firstly* is an example of a sequencer. What other examples did you hear in the presentation?

H Prepare and deliver a three-minute presentation on your chosen topic from Exercise D. Try and use some signalling language.

USEFUL LANGUAGE

INTRODUCING YOURSELF

On behalf of Alpha Advertising, I'd like to welcome you. My name's Marc Hayward.

Hi, everyone, I'm Marc Hayward. Good to see you all.

INTRODUCING THE TOPIC

I'm going to tell you about the ideas we've come up with for the ad campaign.

This morning, I'd like to outline the campaign concept we've developed for you.

GIVING A PLAN OF YOUR TALK

I've divided my presentation into three parts. Firstly, I'll give you the background. Secondly, I'll discuss the media we plan to use. Finally, I'll talk you through the storyboard.

My talk is in three parts. I'll start with the background to the campaign, move on to the media we plan to use, and finish with the storyboard for the commercial.

INVITING QUESTIONS

If there's anything you're not clear about, feel free to stop me and ask any questions.

I'd be grateful if you could leave any questions to the end.

5

Case study

Alpha Advertising

A large advertising agency with a reputation for creating imaginative and effective campaigns is competing for new business.

Background

Alpha Advertising is based in Turin. It is competing for several new contracts. It has been asked to present ideas for exciting new campaigns to the management of the companies concerned. Concepts are required for the following new goods and services.

Panther Air

- An 'on-demand' jet charter service, based in Hamburg, Germany
- High standards of safety, quality and service
- Expert advice on choice of plane; competitive prices
- Target consumers: top business executives and VIPs

***Aim:* To target the world's top business people**

E-Book

- An electronic book recently launched – slim; it can fit into a pocket or handbag
- It has a 200-novel memory and sells at 250 euros.
- When turned on, it takes readers straight to the last page they were reading.
- A 'next read' feature: the E-Book consults a database of related titles which may be of interest to the reader. It then makes recommendations for downloading or purchase.
- The E-Book is pre-loaded with 150 books.

***Aim:* An international press and TV campaign**

Safe Haven: a new group of hotels in your country

- Rooms at competitive prices.
- Excellent facilities: a mini-spa on every floor; free aerobic classes three times a week; musical entertainment in the lounge every evening
- Hotels all in downtown areas
- Hotel restaurants offer a wide range of local dishes, prepared by well-known chefs
- A comprehensive advice service for all guests

***Aim:* A creative campaign to attract more customers**

Task

You are members of the creative team at Alpha.

1 **Prepare an advertising campaign for one of the products or services. Use the Key questions on the right to help you.**

2 **Present your campaign to the management of the company concerned. When you are not presenting your campaign, play the role of the company's management. Listen and ask questions.**

3 **Use the Assessment sheet below to choose:**

a) the best campaign concept
b) the most effective presentation.

Key questions (advertising team)

- What is the campaign's key message?
- What special features does the product or service have?
- What are its USPs (Unique Selling Points)?
- Who is your target audience?
- What media will you use? Several, or just one or two? If you use:
  - an advertisement, write the text and do rough artwork.
  - a TV commercial, use a storyboard to illustrate your idea.
  - a radio spot, write the script, including sound effects and music.
  - other media, indicate what pictures, text, slogans, etc. will be used.
- What special promotions will you use at the start of the campaign?

Assessment sheet (managers)

Give a score of 1–5 for each category: 5 = outstanding, 1 = needs improvement.

Campaign concept

1 Will it get the target audience's attention? ☐
2 Will it capture their imagination? ☐
3 Does it have a clear, effective message? ☐
4 Will it differentiate the product or service? ☐
5 Will it persuade the target audience to buy the product or service? ☐
6 Will the target audience remember the campaign? ☐

TOTAL: ___ / 30

Presentation

1 Was it interesting? ☐
2 Was it clear? ☐
3 Was it loud and clear enough? Was it varied in pitch or monotonous? ☐
4 Was the pace too quick, too slow or just right? ☐
5 Was the language fluent, accurate and appropriate? ☐
6 Did it impress you? Was there enough eye contact? ☐

TOTAL: ___ / 30

Writing

As the leader of one of Alpha's advertising teams, prepare a summary of your concept for your Managing Director. The summary will be discussed at the next board meeting.

Writing file page 131

Watch the Case study commentary on the ***DVD-ROM.***

Appendix C: Field note sample

Date: 15.04.2015 - Teacher: Binh

Theme: Human resources

Period 2

Time	Activity	Note	Stimulated recall
00-10: T comments on the case study presentations in the previous period.			
10-22: Leading up to the new lesson			
10-20	T writes HRM on the board and asks Ss to brainstorm words related to HRM. Ss suggest some words and T notes on the board.		
11.30	A St suggests the word 'employee'. T asks for the pronunciation of the word. The Ss do not know the correct stress. T notes down the correct stress and explain that this word is exception of a common pronunciation rule.	T pays attention to pronunciation.	- Ask T why she focuses on pronunciation. - Ask Ss if any of them know about the correct stress of the word before the T explains.
13.00	A St suggests the word 'recruitment'. T asks for meaning. Ss provide Vietnamese translation. T asks to use English to explain the meaning. There is no response from the Ss. T provides the synonym: 'take on' and then meaning (to employ).	Avoid using Vietnamese. T asks for English explanation even though Ss provide correct Vietnamese translation of the word 'recruitment'. T makes use of synonym to explain the meaning of the word.	- Ask T why she requests English explanation. - Why does the T use 'take on'?
20.00	St suggests the word 'contract'. T says ' sign a contract'.	Reformulation	
22-50: Starting up Part A Vocabulary of the lesson T goes through the vocabulary list on the book and occasionally asks the Ss whether they think those features are important to apply for a job.			

23- 25	* *References*: T asks for meaning. St translates the word into correct Vietnamese term. T says, 'I don't need Vietnamese explanation' A St use the word 'old teacher', T changes to 'former teacher' when reporting this idea. T keeps asking Ss for more information based on what they have proposed. After working out the meaning of the term in English, T asks Quynh to re-explain the meaning of the word.	Avoid using Vietnamese T reformulation 'old' to 'former' but it appears that no students pay attention to this (When Quynh explains the meaning of the word again she still use the word 'old')	- Ask T why she keeps asking for English explanation. - Ask Ss if they know the meaning of the term before the T gives explanation. - Ask S what they are thinking when T gives explanation.
26.00	* *Marital status:* T asks for meaning. A St gives the wrong answer. T breaks the word into two parts and elicits answers from the class before coming back to the first St. T mention 'FA forever'	It is surprising that at this level this St still does not know the meaning of 'marital status'. But it seems that most of the class know the meaning of this word. T mentions 'FA forever' for fun?	- Ask T about the process of eliciting the meaning of the word. - Ask T about the purpose of using 'FA forever'.
28.00	* *Sickness record* T explains the meaning of the word for the class, which refers to the letter to ask for permission from the T for not attending class. T shows a sample of sickness record, it is the record of the total day of absence. T asks and Ss explain the meaning of the word.	It is unclear to Ss regarding the meaning of the word. It appears that the T refers to both: record of the total days of absence and letter to ask for permission to take leave. However, when being asked, each St refers to only one meaning while ignoring the other.	- Ask T about the meaning of the word. - Ask Ss about their understanding of the T's explanation and what the word mean.
34.00	* *Family background* T asks Ss if they think family background is	It is interesting that while most of Ss think it is not important, a St has a	- Ask Ss what they are thinking when the two Ss say that it is

	important. Ss say it is not important. When the T is about to move to the next word, a St says that it is important. The T turns to this St and then ask another St about her opinion.	different opinion. If the T has not been sensitive to what this St says, the class would not be introduced to interesting ideas such as: military field, crime record as mentioned by the two students.	important.
38.00	* *Handwriting* T asks if handwriting is important. One St says it is important and explains in one sentence but T asks a counter question and then asks for opinion from others. Most Ss say that it is not important. T refers to the St's examination and says that to her it is important. One St suggests that it is not important because nowadays people use computer, so typing speed is more important. T acknowledges the idea.	It appears that some Ss think handwriting is important. However, the T does not asks for further elaboration from one St but moves to another St. It seems that to the T this Ss' idea is not appropriate.	- Ask Ss for their thinking when the first St says it is important. - Ask T about her actions.
41-50: Starting up part B			
41-50	T asks Ss to do the task in the book but change from 'organization' to 'class' and 'boss' to 'teacher'. After St work in groups in 5 minutes, T calls a St to give answer in front of the whole class. After the St finishes and comes back to her seat, the T corrects the pronunciation of 'most' and calls a number of St to pronounce the word 'most.	T may change the topic because the Ss are not employed yet so they have no information to talk about working environment.	

Appendix D: Stimulated recall protocol with the teacher

Date:

Theme:

Teacher:

A/ General perception of the lesson

- What are the objectives of the lesson that you have taught?

- Do you think you have achieved those objectives by the end of the lesson?

B/ Selection of different parts and ask questions

Typical procedure:

1. Play the video part that was to be elicited with questions *or* remind the teacher of a part in her lesson

2. Ask questions:

These are sample questions:

- What were you doing?

- Why did you do that?

- Do you think the students' answers are appropriate?

- What did you expect before asking the students?

C/ Wrapping up

- Which part of the lesson do you think your students learnt the most?

- If you could teach again, do you want to change any part or activity of the lesson?

Appendix E: Stimulated recall protocol with a group of students

Date:

Theme:

Teacher:

Students:

A/ General perception of the lesson

- What do you think are the objectives of the lesson that you have learnt?

- Do you think you have achieved those objectives by the end of the lesson?

B/ Selection of different parts and ask questions

Typical procedure:

1. Play the video part that was to be elicited with questions *or* remind the students of a part in the lesson

2. Ask questions (normally start with the student who have direct conversation with the teacher, followed by students who tended to be silent during the class time, and finishing with students who spoke the most):

These are sample questions:

- What was your teacher doing?

- What do you think was the intention of the teacher when she said that?

- Did you agree with your teacher's answer?

- Did you agree with your friend's answer?

- Do you want to make any comments?

- When you work in groups, what did you do?

- Could you tell me the meaning of this (a term that they learnt in the lesson)?

C/ Wrapping up

- Which part of the lesson do you think help you learn the most?

- What activity do you want the teacher to implement more in your class?

Appendix F: First interview with teachers

A/Personal information

1. What is your full name?

2. How old are you?

3. What is your highest qualification?

4. How long have you been teaching English at this university?

5. How long have you been teaching the Business English course?

B/The course and teaching practice

6. What do you think is the objective of this Business English course?

7. What difficulties have you met while teaching this course?

8. What difficulties do you think your students have while learning this course?

9. What is the teaching approach that you have been implementing in this course?

10. Why do you think you follow that approach?

11. Do you think that student participation is important? What have you done to facilitate your students' participation?

12. What do you think can be considered learning opportunities for your students?

Appendix G: Final interview with teachers

(Guiding questions)

A/ General questions

1. Could you tell me your name?

2. What is the highest qualification that you have achieved? Is it useful for your teaching in this business English program?

3. In your opinion, what were the goals of the Business English course in this semester?

4. Do you think you have achieved those goals by the end of the program? What makes you think so?/ How do you know that?

5. What difficulties did you encounter when teaching this program?

Prompts:

- Teachers and students' background knowledge in business.
- Students' attitude
- The syllabus (heavy, medium or light)
- Time available

6. What did you do to overcome those difficulties?

7. What difficulties do you think your students had when learning this course?

8. How do you describe your teaching approach/ your way of teaching in this course?

(If the teacher mentions audiolingual, grammar translation, communicative language teaching, etc., then ask specifically how they define the approach)

How do you know that you adopted that approach?

9. How often did you use Vietnamese in the class? Why? What factors affected your use of Vietnamese?

10. Did you students use Vietnamese in the class? How often? What do you think is the reason for this?

11. Do you think that sociocultural factors played a role in this program? If yes, how?

B/ Teacher' mediation

12. In your opinion, what is the role of teacher feedback?

13. How often did you provide feedback?

14. What did you often feedback on?

Prompts:

- Business content (business concepts, vocabulary, ethics)

- Language (grammar, pronunciation)
- Students' ideas (appropriate or not – such as when S says that using nudity in advertisement is fine.)
- Students' behavior (noisy, forget to do homework)
- Skills

Why did you often feedback on that area? What was your students' response when you gave feedback?

15. What factors affected your choice of different feedback strategies? Which among them is the most frequently used? Which among those strategies that you think help your students learn the most? How did you know that?

16. When your students failed to understand the meaning of a business term, what did you do?

Use the following ideas as prompts:

- Moving between Vietnamese and English: When? What purpose? What was being communicated?
- Word relation.
- Recast using business terms.
- Give examples from real life.
- Make use of diagram, objects.
- Make use of gestures.

17. Which among those moves that you think helped your students learn the most, why?

18. When you asked Ss to present their opinions on a certain topic, what problems did you often identify?

Prompts:

- Students fail to explain their ideas clearly.
- Students cannot find an appropriate phrase/word
- Students do not provide enough details to support their ideas.
- Students' ideas are not appropriate.

19. What did you do in those situations?

20. Did you often check if your students had understood a term, a concept or an idea? How did you do that?

C/ Learning opportunities/ Students' participation

Participation

21. Do you think it is important to make S participate in the class? How do you define the term participation/ What types of behaviors do you think are indications that your students were participating in the class?

22. What factors do you think affected students' participation?

Prompts:

- Background knowledge of the students
- The difficulty level of a specific theme
- The way teachers interact with the class

23. What did you do when you felt that students were not participating in the lesson? What was your students' response?

Learning opportunities

24. What types of classroom situations do you consider provide learning opportunities for students? Can you explain why?

Prompts:

- Teacher's monologue
- Interaction between teacher and the whole class
- Interaction between teacher and individual students
- Students work in groups/pairs with little teacher intervention
- Students work in groups/pairs with teacher intervention

D/ Opinion of the program as a whole:

On a scale of 1 to 10 with 1 being very unsatisfied and 10 very satisfied, what would be your satisfaction with the program?

What are the strengths of the program? What are the weaknesses of the program?

What aspects would you like to improve? Is there anything that you would like to comment about the program?

Appendix H: Final interview with students

(Guiding questions)

A/ General questions

1. Could you tell me your name?

2. In your opinion, what are the goals of the Business English course in this semester?

3. Do you think you have achieved those goals by the end of the program? What makes you think so?/ How do you know that?

4. What difficulties did you encounter when learning this program? What did you do to overcome those difficulties?

5. Could you describe your teacher's way of teaching? What difficulties do you think your students had when learning this course?

6. Did your teacher use Vietnamese in the class? Why did you think she did that? Do you think it was necessary?

7. Do you use Vietnamese in the class? Why?

B/ Teacher' mediation

8. In your opinion, what can be called teacher feedback? What is its role? What types of feedback do you often get from your teacher?

9. In cases that you fail to give a correct answer and your teacher give explanation or correction do you think what the teacher did can be called 'feedback'? What do you think it is called?

10. What did your teacher do when you and your classmates made some errors? Do you think it was effective?

Prompts:

- Business content (business concepts, vocabulary, ethics)
- Language (grammar, pronunciation)
- Students' ideas (appropriate or not – such as when S says that using nudity in advertisement is fine.)

11. What did your teacher do to help you understand the meaning of business terms?

Prompts:

- Moving between Vietnamese and English: When? What purpose? What was being communicated?
- Word relation.

- Recast using business terms.
- Give examples from real life.
- Make use of diagram, objects.
- Make use of gestures.

12. Which among those moves that you think helped your students learn the most, why?

13. When your teacher asked you and your classmates to present opinion on an issue, what problems did you often encounter?

Prompts:

- Failing to explain ideas clearly.
- Failing to find an appropriate phrase/word
- Failing to have enough details to support ideas.
- Inappropriate ideas.

14. What did your teacher do in those situations?

15. Did your teacher often check if you and your classmates had understood a term, a concept or an idea? How did she do that?

C/ Learning opportunities/ Students' participation

Participation

16. Do you think it is important to participate in class? How do you define the term participation?

17. What factors affected your participation?

Prompts:

- Background knowledge
- The difficulty level of a specific theme
- The way teachers interact with the class

18. What did your teacher do when there was little participation in the class?

Learning opportunities

19. What types of classroom situations do you consider provide learning opportunities for yourself? Can you explain why?

Prompts:

- Teacher's monologue
- Interaction between teacher and the whole class
- Interaction between teacher and individual students
- Students work in groups/pairs with little teacher intervention

- Students work in groups/pairs with teacher intervention

D/ Opinion of the program as a whole:

On a scale of 1 to 10 with 1 being very unsatisfied and 10 very satisfied, what would be your satisfaction with the program?

What are the strengths of the program? What are the weaknesses of the program?

What aspects would you like to improve? Is there anything that you would like to comment about the program?

Appendix I: Coding description and examples from the data

(Teacher follow-up moves are in bold.)

Category	Subcategory	Code	Prospective level	Description	Example from the data
Acknowledgement		Ack	Low	The teacher indicates that the previous utterance has been taken into account. It might be realized by 'OK' or 'Yes' said without evaluative overtones.	1/**Ok**. 2/**Ok, you have some points, I see your points.**
Evaluation (V)	Acceptance	VA	Low	The teacher indicates that the information provided or action performed is thought to be appropriate.	1/ Ok, thank you. 2/ **That's correct.**
		VAR	Low	The teacher accepts and/or repeats part or whole of the student's answer as an indication of acceptance.	1/ St: Job fair T: **Job fair, ok.** 2/ St: Install and maintain equipment. T: **Install and maintain equipment.** 3/ St: Investment. T: **Ok, investment. Thanks, correct.**
		VAS	Low	The teacher accepts one among a number of different responses from the students by repeating it.	T: Next one, research… St 1: Project St 2: Findings St 3: Knowledge T: **Project**
	Rejection	VR	Low	The teacher indicates that the information/action is thought to be inappropriate.	St: Ahead of the game T: **No, it's not 'ahead of the game' in this case.**
	Correction (both implicit and explicit)	VC		The teacher indicates that something previously said or done is considered to be wrong, and expresses her view of how the error should be rectified.	
		VCE	Low	Explicit correction: The teacher explicitly states that the student's response is not appropriate and then the teacher provides the correct answer.	St: …this means you also have a good appearance, in general, in general. T: Yes St: And… T: **Hello, you do not say 'a', not 'a good appearance', only 'good appearance', ok?**

		VCP	Low	Pronunciation correction: The teacher corrects the student's pronunciation in situation when the student's response is appropriate in terms of meaning.	St: Recession /rɪˈʃɛʃən/ T: **Oh, come on. Recession /rɪˈsɛʃən/, not /ʃɛ/**
		VCC	High	Clarification request: The teacher asks questions to clarify what was said previously with an implication that it was not correct or appropriate. The teacher repeats the student's response with a high intonation at the end making it a question to imply that this is not the appropriate answer.	1/ St: In 'production' people transport goods. T: **Is it? In 'production' people transport goods?** 2/ St: Free sample T: **Free samples, are you sure?** 3/ St: The importers? T: **The importers?**
		VCCP	High	The teacher asks question with an implication that the student' response is not correct in terms of pronunciation.	St: Margin /ˈmɑːgɪn/ T: **Is it margin /ˈmɑːgɪn/?**
		VCR	Low	Recast: The teacher corrects what the student has said without explicitly stating that it is wrong.	St: And adapt….eh…have adapt eh…with new environment T: **Adapt to the new environment**
		VCRP	Low	Recast of pronunciation: The teacher corrects the pronunciation of the student without explicitly stating that it is wrong.	St: / rɪˈʃɛʃən/ T: **/rɪˈsɛʃən/**
	Reformulation	VFA	Low	The teacher expresses in different words (often more concisely or completely) what was responded by the student.	St: Journalists sometimes write for money. They are just hired by a company to do something good for them. T: O**k, so they receive money from some company and write something good.**
		VFB	Low	The teacher reformulates the student's everyday English expressions into business terms.	St: Invest…ah….we can send money in bank. T: **That's it. That's it. It is you open a bank account. It is bank deposit, ok?**
		VFC	Low	The teacher broadcasts what a student has said to the whole class by either repeating exactly what the student has said or making some changes to the student's expression.	St: I think advertising is not a science but a persuasion and… also mean you need to make the customers believe on the cus… products and …they must have good impression with product image… so that your persuasion is very important. However, the science will have to… exact evidence. …. T: **You say that advertising isn't a science so people don't have to provide evidences for their advertisements.**

		VFT	Low	The teacher translates the student's Vietnamese expression into English (*reverse code switching*)	St: Quảng cáo T: **Yeah, some kinds of advertisement.**
	Counter	VD	High	The teacher offers an argument or an alternative interpretation of a point to indicate that the student's response is not appropriate.	St: Because I think the hand writing can show the quality of a person. T: Ah, handwriting can show the quality of a person. **So what about a doctor?**
		VDP	High	The teacher offers alternative pronunciation to indicate that the student's pronunciation is not correct.	St: Recession /rɪˈʃɛʃən/ T: **/rɪˈʃɛʃən/ or /rɪˈsɛʃən/?**
	Appraisal	VP	Low	The teacher gives a positive evaluation of what has been said.	1/**Good** 2/**This is a very good point.**
Comment	Exemplification	CEP	Low	The teacher provides an example to illustrate a point that has just been made.	St: Research and develop. T: **Research and develop. But develop the new products, not the best products, right? Develop the new products. For example, Apple. They have iPhone3. So in R&D, people will have to make…make market research, and after that they will design the new model, yeah. .**
		CER	High	The teacher requests an example to illustrate a point that has just been made.	St: Celebrity endorsement is a technique that is very popular in advertising at the moment. T: **Give me one example, please.**
	Amplification	CAP	Low	The teacher provides a filling out or qualification or modification of something previously said in terms of temporal, spatial, causal, or conditional detail.	T: Developing industries? St: Open, open market T: Is it the open market? Developing? St: Protected T: **Developing industries means…like the strategic industries. You need to have the target, the strategies for these. The main industries you know. So it need to be controlled, and protected by the…government. Alright? So developing industries belong to the protected market.**
	Connection	CCP	Low	The teacher provides additional information to supplement what has just been said, or to connect it to some other domain, with the effect of developing the topic of the current sequence.	St: Recession. T: **Or I say 'downturn'.**
		CCR	High	The teacher requests additional information to supplement what has just been said, or to connect it to some other domain, with the effect of developing the topic of the current sequence.	St: Because men have more time for their career. T: Ah, time, ok, more time for career. You mean more time to devote to their job? St: Yes.

					T: **Ah…Do you think it is…it is a bit sex discrimination?**
	Summary	CSP	Low	The teacher provides a condensed statement of what has been said by one or more students. This is often done in such a way that the students understand that closure has been provided and the topic should not be further pursued.	After students presented their opinion about unethical issues. T: **So for you, you think unethical means something unfair, dishonest. So it is cheating people. Cheat someone, cheat someone.**
	Meaning	CMP	Low	The teacher provides the meaning of a term	T: Do you know eBay? St: Yes T: **EBay is the website for…selling things and a lot of people.** They need you things and they will get access to that website. And then they will just read the advertisement, or any…how to say…the news from your products.
		CMR	High	The teacher asks for meaning a term after it has been initiated by the student	St: Recession. T: ….**What does it mean by 'recession'?**
	Translation CT	CTV	High	The teacher asks for a Vietnamese equivalent of student's offer of an English term	St: Critical T: Critical. **Vietnamese? Vietnamese?**
		CTE	High	The teacher ask for an English equivalent of student's offer of a Vietnamese term	St: Thư giới thiệu T: **No, I mean English. I don't want Vietnamese expression.**
		CTT	Low	The teacher provides the Vietnamese equivalent of the student's offer of an English term	S: Free port T: Ok, so it's free port, **cảng tự do**
	Opinion	CO	High	The teacher invites another student or the class to share opinion on an issue.	T: In logistics you carry out the research? St: No T: **No, who have another idea?**
		COT	Low	After getting the students' opinion, the teacher presents her opinion on an issue.	After students present ideas about the effect of advertising T: **OK, we'll stop here but I don't think...Yeah…I don't think people, or adults shouldn't pay attention to that. In fact they should pay a lot of attention to those kinds of TV commercials, those TV commercials.**
Clarification	Repetition	UR	High	The teacher requests the student to repeat what s/he has said, either in the same or similar words.	T: **Can you re-pronounce the word?**
	Identification	UI	High	The teacher requests the student to identify unambiguously what s/he intended to refer to.	St: Have to respect students' opinion, too. T: **Ok, have to respect students' opinion. Can you further clarify the word 'respect' in this case, 'respect' is what?**

	Confirm	UC	High	The teacher requests a confirmation/denial of the truth or validity of something that was previously said (often realized as a tag or rising intonation on the current speaker's utterance).	St: Ah…. Or… The when… the appearance will show your… ability to design a good … clothes. T: **Ah, you can show…Individual appearance, ok? The way you dress show your style?**
Justification		JR	High	The teacher requests the student to support a preceding contribution.	St: I think the most unacceptable is using actors who pretend to be experts. T: **Uh, can you explain to the whole class?**
Action	A	AN	High	The teacher requests action immediately	T: **So, take out your dictionary**
		AS	High	The teacher suggests action in the future	T: **You must use Oxford Dictionary to look up the meaning.**
Follow-up initiation	When students do not respond to the question.				
	Reformulation	The teacher reformulates the question.			
		FR	High	The teacher rewords part of the question	T: And after that you have some departments. Departments (write on board). In University of Languages and International studies, the first one will be the… Students mumbled. T: **The first one will be the…** Students mumbled. T: **ULIS, ULIS. The highest person, the top, will be?**
		FT	High	The speaker translates the question into Vietnamese.	T: Or do you think monitors at high schools can be great leaders when they go to work? Leaders at schools can be great leaders when they go to work? St keep silent. T: **Những người làm cán bộ lớp hồi đi học phổ thông có thể làm leaders khi đi làm được không** (do you think monitors at high schools can be great leaders when they go to work?)
		FS	High	The teacher splits the questions into smaller components.	T: So, again, marital status is…? St keeps silent. T: **Marital, from the word 'marriage', right? (Writing 'marital' and 'marriage' on the board) Marriage, right? And status. Do you often post your status on facebook?**
	Vietnamese	FV	Middle	The teacher permits the students to use Vietnamese to give answer.	T: You hear people say the world is flat, but why do they say that? Students keep silent. T: Thế giới phẳng thế nào các bạn (How flat is the world)? **Just give me any ideas. In Vietnamese it's ok.**
	Prompt	FPr	Middle/High	Teacher provides some prompts to help the	T: Pop-up. What does it mean? Pop-up, what does it mean?

				students work out the answer	Students keep silent. T: **The word pop-up. When you access to the internet, you surf the web, and there are some pop-ups appearing on your screen.** It's so annoying. So what does it mean by the word pop-up?
	When students' response is inappropriate or incomplete.				
	Prompt	FPr	Middle/High	Teacher provides prompts to help students work out the answer.	T: Why do you think so? Why do you think it's unacceptable? St: Because it will make the two products in one situation, then …uh…and then… T: **And worsen the image of the competitor's product?**
	Counter	FC	High	Teacher challenges the student's response by countering the point previously made by the student.	T: Do you think hand writing is important when applying for work? St: Yes. T: Why? St: Because I think the hand writing can show the quality of a person. T: Ah, hand writing can show the quality of a person. **So what about a doctor? Does the hand writing show his quality?**
Suggestion		FSL	Low	When students keep silent, teacher gives some suggestions of possible correct answers.	T: What else? Another way? Students keep silent. T: … **So one of the ways to save my business... I may issue some bonds.**
		FSH	High	When students find it difficult to continue speaking, teacher suggests a possible answer with a high intonation to see if that is what the student thinks.	T: Have you ever bought anything or something that's only through word of mouth? St: Uhm, not me. My mum does. Like the neighbours talking about .... about... like a shampoo. And people talking about it and my mother... T: **She buy it?**
Fill		Fill	Low	Teacher suggest an answer when the student hesitates	T: Many factories? St: Is founded. Ah, are founded. T: Ah, many factories are founded. St: So they will… er… smoke… smoke…. T: **They exhaust…exhaust the…**

Appendix J: Excerpts from the textbook that were used for the data presented in chapters 4, 5, and 6

Extract 4.2: Exercise D – page 37

C. What do the following departments do?

1. In R&D, people research and develop new products.

1. R&D	5. Production	9. Logistics
2. Customer Services	6. Finance	10. Public Relations
3. Human Resources	7. Administration	11. IT
4. Sales and Marketing	8. Legal	

D. Match these activities (a-k) to the correct department in Exercise C (1-11). Can you add any other activities to any of the departments?

a) deal with complaints	e) run advertising campaigns	i) keep records
b) draw up contracts	f) issue press releases	j) transport goods and products
c) carry out research	g) operate assembly lines	k) install and maintain systems equipment
d) train staff	h) prepare budgets/accounts	

Extract 4.3: page 37

C. What do the following departments do?

1. In R&D, people research and develop new products.

1. R&D	5. Production	9. Logistics
2. Customer Services	6. Finance	10. Public Relations
3. Human Resources	7. Administration	11. IT
4. Sales and Marketing	8. Legal	

Extract 4.4: page 74

Look at the different types of people. Which do you think are the most desirable for companies to employ?

This type of person:

1. is able to come up with ides	6. has lots of energy and often get excited
2. is respected and listened to by others	7. is concerned with details and getting things right even if it takes

3. is able to see different points of view
4. can see how to put ideas into action
5. is determined to succeed in their career
time
8. likes to assess and evaluate
9. is able to change with new situations
10. is someone you can trust and depend on

Match the description above (1-10) to the adjectives in the box (a-i)

a) enthusiastic	b) adaptable	c) methodical	d) reliable	e) ambitious
f) objective	g) creative	h) analytical	i) authoritative	j) practical

Extract 5.3: page 53

Match the words in the box to the definitions 1 to 6 below.

equity stake	recession	shares	debt	stock market	forecast

1. equal parts into which the capital or ownership of a company is divided
2. a period of time when business activity decreases because the economy is doing badly
3. money risked when a business owns part of another company
4. a place where company shares are bought and sold
5. a description of what is likely to happen in the future
6. money owed by one person or organisation to another person or organisation

Extract 5.4: page 97

A. Look at the situations. Which do you think are the most serious?

1. A new contact suggests that a payment into his private bank account will enable a company to win a valuable supply contract.

2. An employee informs some friends about a company takeover before it is generally known so they can buy shares and make a profit.

3. A company is making copies of luxury branded products and selling them in street markets.

4. An upmarket private airline only employs attractive women under 25 years old as cabin crew and grounds staff.

5. An industrial company is disposing of waste chemicals in the sea.

6. A car manufacturer is secretly taking photos of a rival's new model at a test tract.

7. A cosmetics and pharmaceutical company tries out all its products on rats and mice.

8. Some criminals buy property and expensive cars with money they got from illegal activities. The goods are then sold and the now 'clean' money is used in other businesses and new bank accounts.

9. A group of rival mobile phone companies get together and agree to charge approximately the same amount for a range of services and packages.

10. A company tells the authorities that it is making a lot less profit than it actually is.

B. Match words from Box A and Box B to make word partnerships which describe the activities in Exercise A.

Example: 1. bribery and corruption

A	~~bribery~~ tax	price counterfeit	environmental money	sex animal	insider industrial

B	~~and corruption~~ fixing	testing laundering	discrimination goods	fraud pollution	trading espionage

Extract 5.5: page 53

Complete this news report with the terms from Exercises A and B.

And now the business news…
There was a further downturn in the economy this month as the …… (1) in the United States and Asia-Pacific region continues. Yesterday was another day of heavy trading on the …… (2), with big losses in share values. The …… (3) for the near future is not good, as market confidence remains low.
Paradise lane, the struggling luxury hotel group, is seeking new …… (4) to try and avoid …… (5), following the announcement of disastrous interim results. It currently has a …… (6) of nearly $5 billion. There are rumours of rivals GHN taking a large …… (7) in the troubled hotel group.
Phoenix Media announced a 15% increase in …… (8) on an …… (9) of $4.5 million. Added to the strong performance in the last quarter, this is likely to result in an increased …… (10) of over 14 cents per share, well up on last year, which will certainly please shareholders*. Following a rise in sales in the emerging markets of…
* the people who own shares in a business

Extract 6.3: similar task to Extract 4.2

Extract 6.4, 6.5: page 45

Choose the most suitable words to complete these sentences.

1. A lot of cosmetics companies give away leaflets/ commercials/ free samples so that customers can try the product before they buy.

2. Advertising companies spend a lot of money on creating clever slogans/ poster/ exhibitions that are short and memorable, such as the message for Nike: ‘Just do it’.

3. Celebrity exhibition/ research/ endorsement is a technique that is very popular in advertising at the moment.

4. If news about a product comes to you by word of mouth/ the press/ the Internet, someone tells you about it rather than you seeing an advert.

5. Many companies use post and electronic slogans/ mailshots/ posters because they can target a particular group of consumers all at the same time.

Extract 6.7: page 36

Discuss these questions.

1. Would you like to work in the building in the photo above? Why?/ Why not?

2. Which people in your organization have their own office? Do they have their own office because of: a) seniority; b) a need for confidentiality; c) the type of work they do?

Extract 6.9: page 45

Do you think that these advertising practices are acceptable? Are any other types of advertisement offensive?

Note: In the class, the teacher changed the requirement of the task to 'Decide two most unacceptable advertising advertisements among these.'

1. Using children in advertisements

2. Using actors who pretend to be 'experts'

3. Using nudity in advertisements

4. Using 'shock tactics' in advertisements

5. Promoting alcohol on TV

6. Comparing your products to your competitors' products

7. An image flashed onto a screen very quickly so that people are influenced without noticing it (subliminal advertising)

8. Exploiting people's fears and worries