A multimodal interactional analysis of everyday English grammar teaching practices in five Danish gymnasium classrooms
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Publication date:
2011

Document Version
Accepted author manuscript, peer reviewed version

Link to publication from Aalborg University

Citation for published version (APA):
A multimodal interactional analysis of everyday English grammar teaching practices in five Danish gymnasium classrooms

Investigating practice in relation to research and policy on L2 grammar instruction

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A multimodal interactional analysis of everyday English grammar teaching practices in five Danish gymnasium classrooms

Investigating practice in relation to research and policy on L2 grammar instruction

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Produced within the doctoral programme Discourse and Contemporary Culture under the Doctoral School of the Humanities at Aalborg University

Submitted to the Faculty of Humanities at Aalborg University, October 2011
Acknowledgements

This dissertation is the result of several years of work. The process has been enriching, exciting and positively challenging, but also at times problematic, exhausting and troublesome. It has involved some of the happiest moments in my life, but also some of the hardest and most despairing. I look at the process holistically in that, to me, it has come to concern professional development, but also much more than that. I believe that this journey has been a lesson for life. Though I have been the exploring traveller, many people have travelled along with me and in various ways made the journey last to the intended end. Without you, I would probably not have made it home. For that I want to thank you all.

First of all, I want to thank the three teachers and the five classes whose classroom interaction I have so generously been allowed to follow. Without your engagement in the project, this dissertation would not exist. Producing empirical data as I have done in cooperation with you and afterwards treating the data in so many ways is by no means a quick and easy task. Yet, it is my contact with you and with some of the actually existing realities of English grammar teaching which has made the project worthwhile and made me keep on going whenever feelings of doubt flooded my mind. Also thanks to all the teachers who were involved in the initial pilot phases of my project and helped me set the right course. Poul Tornøe, one of the contributors to the policy documents which I analyse in the thesis, also deserves to be thanked. I appreciate the fruitful contact that we have established and your engaged interest in my project.

And then to the professionally heroic figures of my journey, the two persons who have pushed me when I needed to be pushed, challenged me when I needed to be challenged, and comforted me when I needed to be comforted: my two supervisors, Paul McIlvenny and Hanne Leth Andersen. First of all to you, Paul, my main supervisor, I want to say thank you for sharing some of your impressive professional wisdom with me and for treating me with the admirable amount of human wisdom that you also possess. In your own open, unprejudiced, non-doctrinal and amazingly meticulous way you have taught me more than I could ever have dreamed of, and at the same time you have been the most considerate supervisor, helping me through the hard times and dosing me with the right mix of encouragement and expectations. I am very grateful for having had you on board. Hanne, I want to thank you warmly for immediately saying yes to becoming my co-supervisor in the middle of the process, and for having so generously shared your professional knowledge, your time and your experience. Your engaged and competent supervision has been inspiring and supportive, and you have, above anyone else, opened my eyes to the importance of language didactic research. In this connection I also want to say a huge thank you to Lene Yding, my first supervisor, who unfortunately decided to seek new challenges half way through my PhD process. Lene, when all comes to all, my decision to continue my university studies has to be credited to you. You believed in me, paved the way for me, pushed me gently, and in an incredibly wise and funny way introduced me to the academic everyday life. Thank you for all that, and for not having let go of me completely. Knowing that you are always ready with a life belt gives me great comfort.
I also want to thank the Department of Culture and Global Studies – scientific and administrative staff alike – for providing a pleasant working atmosphere throughout and for involving me in all kinds of academic and administrative activities. I have enjoyed these, and I believe that they have assisted me in finding my path. The same is true for the research groups that I have been a part of: LangLing and Discourse & Society. Thank you very much to Kirsten Jæger for being a wise and careful opponent when I presented my work in Journal Club. A special thank you to Helle Ejersbo, Torben Ditlevsen, Rita Cancino and Inger Lassen for providing endless support during my time of trouble and for administratively assisting me through it. It means so much to me. Thank you to fellow PhD students and close colleagues for inspiring conversations and exchange of experience. Particularly Julia, Lotte and Leila have contributed to not making the process a lonely one. Thank you to Lisbeth and SRC for professional and generous proof reading under tough working conditions. Thank you also to the crew in AV Lab for assistance with recording equipment and handling of recorded data. With you things always go smoothly.

My friends around the country deserve a special thank you for having kept up our friendships in a time when I have not been as social and full of initiatives as I would like to be. You have all been so understanding and supportive, and knowing that you are there, always, means more than I can express here. A special thank you to Anne for your incredible assistance both in and outside the project and for your marvellous humour, and to Ina for designing my front pages so creatively. Also to Julia, who helped keep me sane towards the end by knowingly understanding and accepting my momentary glimpses of insanity.

Slutteligt til alle mine kære – på dansk:
Tak til hele min store, vidunderlige familie – uden jeres uendelige støtte, hjælp, omsorg og interesse havde processen været umulig. At beskrive med ord hvad I har gjort for mig ville åbne afhandlingen dobbelt så lang, men I skal vide, at jeg husker og værdsætter hver enkelt ting, og at jeg føler mig utroligt privilegeret over at være en del af jer.


Aalborg, October 2011
Sara Højslet Nygaard
Dedication

This PhD thesis is dedicated to my mother and father. Despite it all we made it!
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Part one: Setting the scene
Chapter 1 Thesis introduction

1.1 Background, focus and aims

Learning a second or foreign language involves a number of aspects, including that of learning the grammar of the language in question. If the learning is spurred by formal, institutional L2 teaching, then this teaching has to relate to the L2 grammar in one way or another. On rare occasions, grammar might be ignored altogether and not made part of the curriculum, but most often grammar is included. This inclusion can happen in a variety of ways, and the question that I pursue in this thesis is how English grammar is actually being taught in practice in five Danish gymnasium classes. In order to investigate and understand this, I build an analytically adequate conceptual framework as a related and necessary objective of the thesis. In addition, I inquire into how the analysed grammar teaching practices relate to research-based recommendations and policy prescriptions. Here, my main focus is on the extent to which the three dimensions of research, policy and practice can be said to inform each other.

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1 The distinction between the concepts of second language and foreign language is not equally clear in all research on additional language learning, and second language is often used as a term that covers both (Ortega, 2009). When a distinction is made, however, an additional language is typically termed a second language if it is a language that the language learner has to be able to speak in his or her everyday life outside of the educational institution (for example immigrants learning the language of their new country as a second language). A foreign language, then, is an additional language that is not necessarily spoken in everyday life outside of the educational institution (for example Danish pupils in the gymnasium learning English, as is the empirical case in this thesis). In research on additional language learning, the term L2 is often applied to both second and foreign language. L2 learning could then in practice mean the learning of for example language number 10 for a given person (Ortega, 2009). In this thesis I draw on so-called L2 grammar instruction research and thereby do not distinguish research-wise between second and foreign language learning, though the teaching of English as a foreign language is my empirical focus.

2 As an educational institution, the gymnasium educates young people in accordance with the STX programme, which is one of four upper secondary school programmes in Denmark. The focus in this programme is on general education and general study preparation. For all pupils, regardless of their specific study line, English is a compulsory subject (http://eng.uvm.dk/Uddannelses/Upper%20Secondary%20Education/Four%20Upper%20Secondary%20Education.aspx. Retrieved October 15, 2011)
Empirically, the thesis thus takes its point of departure in the subject English as it is being taught as an L2 in the Danish gymnasium. More specifically, the concrete focus is on three gymnasium teachers’ teaching of English grammar in five different classes; two of the teachers in one class each, and one teacher in three classes. Furthermore, the thesis empirically addresses the guidelines provided by the Danish Ministry of Education on the subject English in the Danish gymnasium by providing a critical content analysis of them in the light of research on L2 grammar instruction. The guidelines consist of a teaching plan and a guide to the teaching plan.3

Theoretically, the point of departure is taken in the grammar instruction debate that exists within the branch of second language acquisition (SLA) research which concerns L2 grammar instruction and its role in the acquisition of the L2. This debate concerns if, and now primarily how, grammar should be taught in second and foreign language teaching. L2 grammar instruction research is primarily (quasi-)experimental and based on a cognitive-interactionist understanding of language learning. It typically focuses on a particular model of learning, in which different teaching methods are evaluated via pre-tests and post-tests in order to say something about the effect on second language learning. In comparison, I take up a socio-interactional position (see for instance Mondada & Pekarek Doehler, 2004; Firth & Wagner, 1997, 2007) which is not normally adhered to in L2 grammar instruction research. Furthermore, I take a multimodal approach to interaction and have teaching practices and not learners’ learning as my analytical focus. Thereby, the thesis develops a new conceptualisation of how to research L2 grammar teaching.

The aims of the thesis are thus to qualitatively document practices in English grammar teaching and compare these with both policy and existing research on the subject. The three dimensions that the thesis thereby examines are depicted in the following figure (Figure 1). The main emphasis in the thesis is on the practice dimension.

---

3 The guidelines exist both in a level A and a level B version. In this thesis I have considered the level A guidelines only as the two sets of guidelines are almost identical, and as there should arguably be most material in the level that demands the most of the pupils.
Hence, in contrast to existing research on L2 grammar instruction, I suggest an alternative approach to researching grammar teaching which is grounded in interaction (practice dimension), which considers the regulating frames that teachers have to act within (policy dimension), and which addresses research on the subject in a critical manner as well (research dimension) by asking what can be learned when also reversing the perspective, i.e. not only approaching from research to practice, but just as much from practice to research. It has to be stressed that while my objective is to demonstrate that actual grammar teaching practices, i.e. how grammar teaching is being interactionally and multimodally constructed in situ, constitute a neglected, yet highly relevant area of L2 grammar instruction research, the thesis is not intended to provide prescriptions as to how these practices ought to be. The thesis is not of a normative character; it does not result in very concrete grammar teaching recommendations, nor does it evaluate the grammar teaching I have observed in the five classes as being efficient or inefficient, good or bad. The reason for this is first of all that I have not approached the practice dimension with a view to discovering malfunctions and prescribing change, but rather with an interest in describing and analysing English grammar teaching practices as they are conducted in the five classes, as it is such an orientation that I find to be lacking in existing L2 grammar instruction research. Prescribing change would require a prioritisation of research over practice in order to evaluate practice, and that is the step I seek to avoid taking in this thesis, because such a prioritisation is present in existing L2 grammar instruction research, and because this is what I find to be problematic and too one-sided. Another reason for my non-normative approach has to do with the conceptual and analytical framework that I develop to be able to conduct close analyses of the practice dimension. I describe this framework in greater detail below as well as in coming chapters, but here I want to stress that because of its socio-interactional grounding, its emic approach, and its context-specificity, the framework is not geared to do normative evaluations. In discussing these issues from a CA-perspective, Richards (2005) states that an objective to discover something with a particular end in view is antithetical to the insistence on analytic open-mindedness, and furthermore that the notion of prescription is based on the assumption “that it is possible to specify exactly what actors should do in particular circumstances” (4). He therefore recommends the “Description → informed action-model” (6) which has the goal of informing professional practice and thereby serving an enabling rather than an enacting role. I align with this view and thus recognise that my research might have a potential for enriching professional practice, but also that any possible enrichment should be the teachers’ work and not laid down in prescriptive terms by me. I return to these matters in the conclusion of the thesis.

The underlying assumption of the thesis is thus that it may be fine to produce research which concerns how L2 language teachers ought to teach L2 grammar in order to ensure the best possible L2 acquisition, but that such research – in order to be more accessible and applicable –

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4 As will be clear from coming chapters, this thesis is not a piece of pure conversation analytic work, but it does draw some of its inspiration from such work, just as it shares its meta-theoretical socio-interactional position with applied CA-for-SLA.

5 In chapter 5, I outline what I have done so far to inform practising English teachers in the gymnasium about the findings of my research.
has to relate to the reality which teachers and learners act within and take part in creating themselves. In other words, existing research has to be supplied with research which concerns how teaching practices actually are. This, I argue, would strengthen the ties that should ideally exist between research, policy and practice of English grammar teaching. Ideally, the three dimensions should be mutually reinforcing: research should inform policy and practice, policy should inform practice too, and practice should, in turn, inform both research and policy. In that sense, the following figure (Figure 2) is more apt at demonstrating the ideal interrelations between the three dimensions as I see them, while at the same time it visually emphasises my main engagement with the practice dimension.

Figure 2: Ideal interrelations between the three dimensions as well as their priority in the thesis

However, the thesis demonstrates that reality is far from these ideal interrelations, and such a situation, I maintain, is not beneficial for any of the dimensions, especially not for the teachers who teach English grammar and the pupils who have to learn it.

Several researchers comment on the importance of having both research-based teaching and teaching-based research, but also on the unfortunate lack of such two-way communication when it comes to concrete L2 teaching contexts (for example Breen et al., 2000:3; Doughty & Williams, 1998:1; Hansen & Thejsen, 2010).

While some researchers stress the need for further, more refined studies along the lines of existing L2 grammar instruction research (for example Norris & Ortega, 2000; Spada & Tomita, 2010:29), others point to the importance of supplementing the (quasi-)experimental research with other types of studies. For example, Ellis (2001:26-27, 35) overall distinguishes between two types of L2 grammar instruction research (or form-form focused instruction (FFI) research, which is the term he employs): confirmatory and interpretative. Confirmatory research is preponderant and comprises correlational and experimental studies, whereas the interpretative research is made up by descriptive and

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6 Hansen & Thejsen (2010) is an interview with Hanne Andersen, published in the e-magazine Folkeskolen.

7 There are L2 teachers, too, who lament the lack of two-way communication, for example Fristrup (2003).
introspектив studies. He furthermore argues that there is tension and opposition between these two approaches which, for example, is evident in an obvious bias towards confirmatory research in the journals that publish L2 grammar instruction research. Touching upon the lack of two-way communication, he also states:

One way forward is obviously to improve the quality of these [experimental] studies, but there is also a need for descriptive and introspective studies that adopt a more emic and holistic perspective on FFI and that view instructed L2 acquisition as an organic process. Such studies may help to narrow the divide between theoretical and pedagogical concerns (35, my insertion).

The present study is of a descriptive-analytic rather than an experimental-evaluative character and precisely seeks to address the divide mentioned by Ellis by shedding light on how English grammar teaching is constructed. VanPatten (1997:1-2) states that how language teaching is constructed is an under-researched topic in comparison with, for example, “the tremendous amount of research on the ‘beneficial’ effects of explicit instruction in grammar” (1). He argues that investigating the construction of language teaching is nevertheless of great importance for two reasons in that it can provide insight both into what teachers do with research results, and into the impediments for change that researchers find would advance classroom language learning. He writes: “If we ignore the how of the construction of language teaching, we may as well admit that research and theory on classroom language acquisition serves only one goal, namely, the construction of a theory independent of the classroom context in which acquisition is supposed to occur” (2). Thus, the lack of two-way communication is also touched upon by VanPatten, and he appears to suggest that researching how language teaching is constructed is one means to remedy that lack. This is what I seek to do in the present thesis. Such research can obviously be designed in a range of different ways, depending on the empirical subject of study, on the specific element(s) of the teaching that is in focus, and on the researcher’s meta-theoretical and methodological stances. In the following, I present my approach to researching how English grammar teaching practices are constructed in five Danish gymnasium classes. Here I sketch the foundation of my approach and the way in which it differs from existing L2 grammar instruction research. The line of argument is then further developed in the following chapters.

1.2 Theoretical and methodological foundation – a preview

I have chosen an ethnographic case study approach to the empirical site, the Danish gymnasium. With its qualitative and contextual orientation, this approach stands in stark contrast to existing L2 grammar instruction research. Mackey & Gass (2005) (citing Johnson, 1993:7) write:

too often, because of the nature of correlational, survey, and experimental research, and their privileged status in L2 research, very little is learned about individual language learners, teachers, or classes. Case studies stand in sharp contrast to these approaches by providing insights into the complexities of particular cases in their particular contexts (172).

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8 In Ellis’ (2001:35) terms, the lack of contact is, among other things, a result of how confirmatory research is increasingly motivated by theoretical rather than pedagogical considerations.
With its case study-based analyses I hope that this thesis provides insights into the complexities of three particular teachers’ English grammar teaching in five particular classes. Yet, my study differs from existing L2 grammar instruction research in an even more fundamental way too which concerns the view on language and language learning. In the series editors’ preface to the anthology Cognition and Second Language Instruction (Robinson, 2001), Long & Richards state:

Second language acquisition is first and foremost a mental process – one that occurs in a behavioural and social context, to be sure, but fundamentally a matter of acquiring a new knowledge system. Cognition and cognitive factors, therefore, are central to any account of how and why SLA works, or so often fails, and equally central to the theory and practice of second language instruction, given that it is the SLA process that instruction is designed to facilitate (VII).

In opposition to this stance, I align with different voices that contend that second language acquisition (SLA) can no longer be regarded as first and foremost a mental process (for example Hall, 2002; Mondada & Pekarek Doehler, 2004; Firth & Wagner, 1997, 2007). Some of these voices attempt to disqualify the intrapersonal perspective altogether, while others seek to nuance it by pointing towards the co-existence of a social, interpersonal dimension in SLA. Duff (2008), for example, states that SLA is “an ongoing interplay of individual mental processes, meanings, and actions as well as social interactions that occur within a particular time and place, and learning history” (37). It follows from the view that SLA is not (just) about mental processes that cognition and cognitive factors should not necessarily be regarded as central to the theory and practice of second language instruction either, as Long and Richards otherwise maintain in the quote above. Hence, in this thesis, I do not wish to discard existing L2 grammar instruction research and the foundation on which it rests, but I do wish to argue for a re-orientation towards interaction and context; also in the part of ‘the theory and practice of second language instruction’ which concerns L2 grammar. As such, I make two shifts which fundamentally distinguish my study from existing L2 grammar instruction research: from the intrapersonal to the interpersonal, and from learning to teaching.

To me, the case study approach is a suitable basis for making these two shifts in that it generally enables a detailed insight into everyday practices and their contextualised occurrence. Duff (2008) states that “an increased awareness of the importance of ecological validity, and the social, cultural, situational, embodied, and performative nature of experience (for example, language, learning, and knowledge accumulation) implicit in much case study research has also come to the fore in 21st-century academia” (200). Duff hereby links the case study approach to a more general, and not necessarily case study-based, research trend which McIlvenny, Broth & Haddington (2009) also touch upon when writing that “more recently there has been an upsurge in interactional and discourse analytic studies of how embodied actors communicate, interact and coordinate their activities in complex multimodal environments and places” (1879). Examples of such studies are Goodwin, 2000, 2007; LeBaron & Streeck, 1997; Jones & LeBaron, 2002; Mondada, 2009; McIlvenny, 2009; Piirainen-Marsh & Tainio, 2009a, 2009b; Raudaskoski, 2010. Common to these studies and the foundation on which they rest is an understanding of language as being emergent, dynamic, physically embodied and socially grounded in practice. Language is
seen as inseparable from activity, and as activity is situated and socially constructed, so is language; “its natural habitat is social interaction” (Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:2-3). It is my accord with this view on language which causes me to focus on grammar teaching practices and not just on the verbal communication around grammar in the classrooms, which is otherwise the case in much research on L2 classroom interaction (for example Ohta, 2000; Seedhouse, 2004; Mondada & Pekarek Doehler, 2004).

Yet, an increasing number of studies, which focus on L2 classroom interaction, are also beginning to structure their approach along more multi-semiotic lines (for example Lazaraton, 2004; Taleghani-Nikazm, 2008; Mortensen, 2008; Kääntä, 2010). These studies, however, are fundamentally CA-based and strive to delineate the general sequential structuring of the L2 classroom and the common interactional practices that ensure the ongoing accomplishment of the sequential organisation. While these studies are drawn upon in the thesis, I do not share their research objective. My focus is on how specific interactional practices serve to accomplish different kinds of grammar teaching, and not on interactional practices in and for themselves. I am concerned with the multimodal and interactional ways in which grammar teaching is constructed as grammar teaching, meaning that I do not restrict myself to looking at for instance the teacher’s coordination of two or three semiotic resources (for example, speech, gesture, gaze), but consider the entirety of semiotic resources that are configured as contextually relevant (Goodwin, 2000) by teacher and pupils alike in a particular situation to make it a grammar teaching situation. As such, ‘multimodality’, to me, essentially covers both embodiment (gaze, gesture, body movements, body posture) and materiality (artefacts, built space) along with speech. Likewise, the term ‘interactional’, to me, points to the existence of more than one participant, and with that to the way that participants (multimodally) co-construct the ongoing interaction by being reflexively aware of each other’s actions (Goodwin, 2000). I thus view everyday practices as being accomplished through interaction and hence, I am not primarily concerned with the analysis of speech, “but rather with ways in which the production and interpretation of action relies upon a variety of resources – spoken, bodily and of course material resources, such as objects, texts, tools, technologies and the like” (Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002:3). The analytically adequate conceptual framework that I seek to establish in order to investigate English grammar teaching practices is thereby eclectically constituted and draws on a range of positions which, however, are not incommensurable, but all point towards social action as the core analytical unit.

In this way, I align with and attempt to fully work from the understanding of human action put forward by McIlvenny, Broth & Haddington (2009): “Rather than being constituted within a single semiotic modality, human action is built through the co-articulation in space of aggregates of signs and artefacts in different media which mutually elaborate each other, and in doing so become environments for each other” (1882; see also Goodwin, 2000; LeBaron, 2008). In order to be able to study the contextual configurations of various semiotic resources in situations of grammar teaching in the five classes, I use video recordings of the lessons as my primary data, coupled with a collection of the grammar material employed in the classes. Subsequently, I have conducted interviews with the three teachers. My analytical approach thus rests heavily on data
collection and close analysis. In both, I make use of technology. Jones & LeBaron (2002) argue that “in addition to facilitating research, technologies have affected conceptions of communication, descriptions of phenomena, the construction of arguments, and, of course, the conclusions that researchers reach” (516). While my use of video-recorded data indeed makes the thesis differ from existing L2 grammar instruction research on all these points, it is particularly the latter point on the conclusions reached which underlines my objective with this thesis. Goodwin (2000) writes:

> Viewing action as something accomplished through the juxtaposition of diverse semiotic materials provides resources for specifying in detail precisely those semiotic materials that provide for the uniqueness of culturally situated activities. However, with this framework it is also possible to demonstrate how activities that might initially appear to be quite unique and esoteric, such as the details of scientific work, are in fact built through use of far more pervasive, indeed generic practices for the accomplishment of action within situated human interaction (1505-1506).

My analyses demonstrate how grammar teaching as a situated activity is accomplished via the coordinated use of several semiotic resources which together manage a skilful moving back and forth between abstract grammatical rules and practical examples. At the same time, the analyses show that the accomplishment of different modes of grammar teaching is also dependent upon practices that are not limited to grammar teaching alone – for example classroom-situated, interactional co-constructions of the relational institutional identities of teacher and pupil, respectively, as well as of IRE-sequences, turn-allocations, initiations and closings of group interaction. All in all, these insights are new to the field of L2 grammar instruction research, and they are made possible by my alternative positioning as well as the use of video-recorded data which follows from that positioning. In the following, I provide a brief and provisional example of data analysis as a way of elucidating what my data looks like, and what sort of analysis is possible from my approach, as well as what issues are at stake. As such, the intention is to illustrate what is important in the data, but which is not and cannot be addressed from the traditional approach to researching L2 grammar teaching. This argument is then further developed throughout the thesis as the conceptual and analytical framework is fully established and more detailed, in-depth analyses are provided.

### 1.3 Analysis of video-recorded grammar teaching – a brief example

The data clip to be considered here is taken from an episode in which Teacher 3 is assisting two female pupils with an insertion task concerning adjectives vs. adverbs. As such, the clip is an example of group grammar teaching, which is one of the empirical modes of grammar teaching that I establish in chapter 6. Prior to this group grammar teaching, the class has been engaged in what I term class grammar teaching. Here, the teacher has written the grammatical rules of what adverbs and adjectives, respectively, qualify on the blackboard [still 1].

As will be clear in the analysis proper, these are not the only uses to which respectively group grammar teaching and class grammar teaching are being put.
question reads “My grandmother had a very … voice” (soft/softly being the word to be inserted) (see sheet A in the Appendices), and the analysis commences at a point when the teacher and the pupils have established that ‘voice’ is the word that is being qualified in the sentence and that ‘voice’ is a noun. What they still need to figure out is whether the inserted word should be ‘soft’ or ‘softly’ knowing that it qualifies a noun.

1.3.1 Extract 100, clip 1
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
What happens next has decisive consequences for the rest of the interaction here. P2, while looking down at the worksheet [still 2], in line 9 signals immediate understanding and begins an act of confirming that she has got it right. At the same time, however, P1 commences on the last step in the procedure of deciding whether, depending on the determined word class, the inserted word should then be an adverb or an adjective. During these simultaneous utterances, the teacher turns her gaze from P2 to P1 (line 17). What she sees is that P1, while uttering line 16, has raised her head to look at the blackboard and furthermore points to it with her left index finger (lines 11-14) [still 3].

P1’s tacit, but visible orientation towards the blackboard appears to make the teacher appreciate and display the relevance of what is written on the board in that she, in line 20, interrupts both P2 and P1 and explicitly directs their attention towards the blackboard while, at the same time, she turns her head to look at the blackboard herself and also raises her right hand away from P1’s worksheet where it has been placed up until now, to point towards the blackboard, thereby copying P1’s deictic gesture (lines 21-23) [still 4]. This act makes P2 look at the blackboard too (line 24), so that, momentarily, their joint attention is turned from the worksheets to the blackboard [still 5], as first P1 and then the teacher, in lines 29-37, conclude that ‘soft’ is to be used as an adjective here.

Thereby, the contextual configuration “which frames, makes visible, and constitutes the actions of the moment” (Goodwin 2000:1490) is being changed here. Up until now, the contextual configuration has been made up of the participants’ utterances, their gaze, their body posture and gestures as well as the worksheets and the pupils’ pencils. Now, the blackboard and the grammar rules written on it enter as a new semiotic field in the interaction and it continues as such throughout the extract.

I argue that this change in the contextual configuration and the way it comes about demonstrate that the grammar teaching taking place here is a collaborative, embodied and material business. It is P1 who first orients towards the blackboard. The teacher, then, demonstrates reflexive awareness, that is, she analyses “how her co-participants are positioned to take part in the action being performed” (Goodwin 2000:1503) and visibly reorganises her own doings in that light which is to be seen in her own consequential orientation towards the blackboard as described

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10 This cannot be read from line 8 itself, but becomes apparent when P2, in the lines following the short clip considered here, repeats and continues her utterance.
above. This turn in the interaction is hence not foreseen by the teacher and not decided by her alone either, which points to the collaborative aspect of the grammar teaching.

Furthermore, the blackboard is included in the contextual configuration as much, or even more so, via eye gaze and gesture as via speech. P1’s initial orientation towards the blackboard is only visible, not audible, and the teacher’s orientation in turn takes place in an orchestration of body movement and verbal formulations. This points to the embodied aspect of the grammar teaching. The material aspect is to be seen in how not only the blackboard and the rules written on it, but also the worksheets and the pupils’ pencils are manifestly playing organising roles in the interaction.

In addition, an institutional perspective is also invoked here. From their microethnographic analysis, LeBaron & Streeck (1997:5) state that “a room’s décor often includes the special symbols, colors, and graphic representations of its institution”. Here, an institutionally prescribed artifact, the blackboard, is made locally relevant in the interaction. The blackboard, as a symbolic representation of the educational institution in which the interaction takes place, comes to play a role in the ongoing interaction and serves to manifest the interaction as an institutional undertaking. A related microethnographic stance is that the built space shapes social interaction while interaction also shapes social space (LeBaron & Streeck, 1997:23). This gives rise to stressing the important point that it is the participants’ achievement that the blackboard is included and that it comes to play the role that it does. Hence, the institutional space is made to affect the interaction and at the same time that interaction affects how the institutional space is being appropriated as a social space.

This provisional analysis thus serves as a first demonstration of how interactional and multimodal elements are at play in the accomplishment of English grammar teaching in situ. In the analysis proper, I show how such elements are central in everyday grammar teaching practices in and across the observed classes. Jones & LeBaron (2001:516) state that “occasionally, research traditions may need to reexamine and move beyond their origins”. With this thesis and its way of drawing upon approaches not normally employed in the L2 grammar instruction research tradition, I do not have such an exceptional ambition. Still, it is my hope that the thesis will demonstrate the importance of also orienting towards specific, socially situated, interactively and multimodally constructed grammar teaching practices; practices whose interactional details, the thesis shows, are decisive for the actual orientation towards grammatical rules. My study thus rests on the premise that these practices can be understood as an aspect of L2 grammar instruction research that has not been satisfactorily researched yet, and that can (only) be meaningfully investigated by addressing how grammar teaching is actually being constructed in the everyday L2 classroom.

1.4 Cardinal questions and sub-questions
Hence, from the qualitative, multimodal and interactional perspective presented briefly here and further developed in the coming chapters, the thesis pursues the following questions:
1.4.1 **Cardinal questions:**
- How, from a multimodal, interactional perspective, are English grammar teaching practices being constructed in the five classrooms,
- what characterises these practices,
- and what are the relations between these practices and research and policy on L2 grammar instruction?

1.4.2 **Sub-questions:**
1. What are the research foci and results within existing research on L2 grammar instruction?
2. What are the practical methods used in existing research on L2 grammar instruction?
3. How and to what extent is grammar teaching being articulated in the ministerial teaching plan and guide to the teaching plan for the subject English in the Danish gymnasium, and in what way does this relate to research on L2 grammar instruction?
4. How and with what means can one analyse English grammar teaching practices from a socio-interactional perspective, i.e. what conceptual and analytical toolbox could beneficially be collected?
5. What characterises the observed practices of English grammar teaching in the five classrooms?
6. What are the relation between these practices and research on L2 grammar instruction?
7. What are the relations between these practices and policy on the field in the form of ministerial guidelines?
8. What are the non-normative implications of this study for existing research on L2 grammar instruction?
9. What are the non-normative implications of this study for ministerial guidelines on English grammar teaching in the Danish gymnasium?
10. What are the non-normative implications of this study for teachers of English in the Danish gymnasium?

1.5 **Organisation of the thesis**
The thesis is divided into five parts which each consists of one or more chapters. In the first part, I set the scene theoretically and empirically with the present chapter (chapter 1), which also presents the research questions I have worked from.

The second part of the thesis provides the backdrop against which the rest of the thesis has to be read. It consists of two chapters of which the first is a literature review of L2 grammar instruction research, and the second a content analysis of the ministerial teaching plan and guide to the teaching plan on the subject English in the Danish gymnasium. In the literature review (chapter 2), I present the state of the art in SLA research on the role of grammar instruction in the
acquisition of a second language, after which I consider the methods employed and the conclusions reached within both former and recent L2 grammar instruction research. The chapter furthermore incorporates some of the language pedagogical recommendations which the research has resulted in before it concludes by formulating the research deficit that I see in existing L2 grammar instruction research and seek to address in this thesis. The final section in chapter 2 also contains the definitions of grammar and grammar teaching that I have worked from.

In chapter 3 on the ministerial guidelines, I identify the elements in the teaching plan and the guide to the teaching plan which directly or indirectly concern the place of grammar in the subject English in the Danish gymnasium. I relate these elements to the L2 grammar instruction research considered in the literature review and discuss the extent to which policy can be said to be informed by this research. Furthermore, I critically describe the working processes behind the formation of the documents and also comment upon the actual use of the documents in practice.

Whereas part two thus establishes two sets of frames to which I eventually (in chapter 8) relate my work in the rest of the thesis, part three presents the framework on which I build this work. This part is divided into two chapters which delineate, respectively, the conceptual and analytical and the methodological positioning of the thesis. In chapter 4, I describe how my approach to researching everyday English grammar practices is based on a meta-theoretical positioning which differs fundamentally from the cognitive-interactionist and (quasi-)experimental position taken up by the L2 grammar instruction research reviewed in chapter 2. Instead, my position is based on a socio-interactional understanding of language and language learning which I then couple with my insistence on orienting towards multimodal interaction, and not just towards speech per se. Furthermore, the chapter argues for well-reasoned pragmatic eclecticism in designing and conducting a study, taking its point of departure in the research problem, and not in a predetermined methodological and analytical approach. On that basis, I use the rest of the chapter to develop my conceptual and analytical framework, or toolbox, in accordance with my meta-theoretical positioning. The toolbox is progressively established to enable a detailed multimodal and interactional analysis of the video recordings which constitute my primary data. From considering CA-approaches to studying classroom discourse conceptualised as talk or speech only, the chapter moves on to include research which also adopts parts of the conversation analytical apparatus, but which expands it to consider still more than mere talk. Thereby, the chapter paves the way for introducing perspectives and concepts from embodied interaction analysis and microethnography, respectively.

Chapter 5 translates my meta-theoretical positioning into more concrete methodological concerns as a way of reflexively rendering my working process as transparent as possible. In presenting a fundamentally different approach to researching L2 grammar teaching, I find it highly relevant to initiate readers into the actual steps taken from this approach. It is only on such an informed basis that the propositions and findings of the thesis can be thoroughly evaluated. Thus, this chapter presents how I have conducted my research, based on ethnographic case studies. I describe and discuss my establishment of contact with the research site, my data

PART ONE: SETTING THE SCENE
-13-
production, and my way of coding, selecting, transcribing and analysing the data. I furthermore consider issues of research ethics, validity (credibility) and generalisability (transferability).

Part four of the thesis comprises the analysis proper. It consists of two chapters since my analysis is divided into two parts. Thus, chapter 6 presents the first part of the analysis in which I extract the diverse ways in which grammar is being taught according to my data and specify these as different modes of grammar teaching. Furthermore, I situate these modes in various empirical ways of organising the lesson and discuss them in relation to the L2 grammar instruction research terminology and findings presented in chapter 2.

In the second part of the analysis (chapter 7), I conduct detailed multimodal and interactional analyses of the different modes of grammar teaching. The chapter is divided into five collections which each contains analysis of a range of extracts that together demonstrate the presence of one or more interactional grammar teaching practices at play in and across the observed classrooms. The chapter thereby provides unprecedented insight into how grammar is actually oriented towards and into the multimodal resources involved in the situated co-construction of the different modes of grammar teaching.

The fifth part of the thesis distils the essence of my work and findings and contains the discussion and conclusion of the thesis. In chapter 8, I discuss my analytical findings in the light of the cardinal questions in the thesis, and thereby also against the backdrop (research and policy) created in part two. In chapter 9, I reflect on the analytical and methodological propositions made in the thesis and consider the implications of my study for research, policy and practice respectively, while I also address study limitations and areas of further work needed.
Part two: Research and policy on L2 Grammar instruction – Framing Practice
Chapter 2 Research dimension: Literature review – trends and gaps, conceptualising grammar teaching as social interaction

2.1 Chapter overview and purpose

In this chapter, I present the background theory of the thesis. The review is divided into five sections as a way of sketching the different angles from which I approach existing research on L2 grammar instruction and develop my own contribution to the field. In the first section, I focus on the content or conclusions of existing L2 grammar instruction research. In the second section, I focus on the methods used to arrive at these conclusions and the points of critique made. In section three, I consider these methods in relation to recent research within the field. Section four describes some pedagogical recommendations that the research conclusions have led to. Finally, in section five, I present the gap or research deficit which I see in existing L2 grammar instruction research and along which this thesis positions itself.

Section 2.2 thus first describes the state of the art in SLA research on the role of grammar instruction in the acquisition of a second language. In this part, my review is based on texts from textbooks, anthologies etc. which are themselves founded on reviews of various studies. Put rather simplistically, one could say that these texts propound the theory which has grown from the studies referred to in the texts. I find that in pinpointing the state of the art in the area, such texts are suitable, not least because of their role as disseminators of knowledge to a broader community of readers (second and foreign language teachers at various levels, teacher instructors, pupils, policy makers etc.). This point is relevant in my case where the purpose is to analyse the relations between research, policy and practice of English grammar instruction. One element in these analyses is exactly to find out to what extent both practice and policy are informed by research findings.¹¹

¹¹ However, the intention for this unprecedented simultaneous focus on theory, policy and practice and their relations is to look the other way as well, particularly from practice to theory, to ask what can be gained from such a perspective. The rationale behind this manoeuvre will become clearer in the final part of this chapter.
In section 2.3 on the methods employed in L2 grammar instruction research, I present and discuss a research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis of SLA studies on L2 grammar instruction. Recently, various research syntheses and meta-analyses have been made, addressing one or more aspects of L2 grammar instruction research. I have chosen Norris & Ortega’s synthesis and analysis from the year 2000 because it provides a thorough insight into both the methods used and the conclusions reached in L2 grammar instruction research of the 1990s and as such has become an often quoted source in much later research. Norris & Ortega’s synthesis and analysis is critical towards the consistency of the research at the time and it therefore ends with a range of method-oriented recommendations for future research.

I consider these recommendations and the extent to which they have been followed in a subsequent discussion in section 2.4 of five specific, more recent studies within the field. In this part, I pay particular attention to the way the studies have been conducted. I do so because my work suggests a new supplementing method for researching grammar instruction by introducing a multimodal, interactional orientation to situated contexts of English grammar teaching. Hence, I find that in order to eventually discuss my findings against existing research, being able to compare methods is relevant. The five studies have been selected from the vast amount of studies that continues to be published. The criteria for selection are commented upon in the section itself.

Section 2.5 depicts some of the language pedagogical recommendations which the referred research has been translated into. This is done for two reasons: First, to look into what L2 grammar instruction is used for, i.e. which implications for practice researchers see. And second, and related to this, to facilitate the coming relational analyses of the three dimensions of research, policy and practice. As described in the introductory part of this thesis, several people, both researchers and teachers, have commented on a lack of contact between research and practice of L2 grammar instruction, criticising the field for producing research which only matters internally within the field. With its focus on practice and on the relations between research, policy and practice, this thesis attempts to address that lack of contact, and I therefore find it important to give voice to a couple of the many researchers who have, after all, sought to develop specific pedagogical recommendations from research. However, this part of the review at the same time serves to show that we are still dealing with one-way traffic, from research to practice, and not so much the other way around. In other words, actual contexts of L2 grammar instruction are still primarily used by researchers as empirical sites in which to test this or that method, whereas reflections on what these actual contexts might bring to the situated L2 grammar instruction are not included in the language pedagogical recommendations given.

In section 2.6, I define the research gap which this thesis seeks to address. I take a critical stance towards the research presented and describe how my study offers an alternative to traditional SLA research on L2 grammar instruction. In this section, I furthermore provide a definition of grammar and of grammar teaching as I conceive of these in this thesis. Thus, by the end of the chapter, the background theory of the thesis as well as the contribution I wish to make to that
background theory should be clear. In part 3 of the thesis, I then further develop my methodological, conceptual and analytical position.

It should be stressed that in terms of writing and organising these sections I in some sections employ a content-based structure, whereas I in other sections go by author. The latter is perhaps atypical in literature reviews, but should be seen in the light of my research interest not being to accumulatively perform the steps that are already being performed within this research field, but to add another dimension by means of taking fundamentally different steps. Therefore, I supplement the review of the different concepts employed and the results reached in existing research in L2 grammar instruction with considerations of specific methods, points of critique, recommendations and studies in order to both pave the way for stepping in another direction and be able to discuss my findings relationally. I find that it is only by doing so that my interest in situated, multimodal, interactional grammar teaching practices can be connected to existing research.

Having stated this, there are still some additional points on this review, to do with my research focus in relation to existing L2 grammar instruction research: the literature employed in this chapter is selective, of course, chosen in accordance with the specific problem definition which I work from. In selecting the texts and studies to be presented and in thematically synthesising their findings, I make no attempt to review the entirety of grammar teaching research within SLA; rather, a clear line of argument has been favoured over an all-inclusive approach. The review strives to include examples of the many different types or genres of theoretical work that are published within the field (text books, reviews, meta-analyses, studies) in order to make its dispersive foundation as broad as possible. In terms of the methodological foundation of this review, however, I take a more narrow approach and only review research which rests on a cognitive-interactionist approach to second language learning and which is primarily studied in quantitative-experimental terms. This means that I review research dissimilar to my own approach in this thesis – research which focuses solely on intrapersonal competences and purely linguistic phenomena and in my understanding has not come far enough in that central aspects of what happens interpersonally and multimodally in concrete interaction around grammar are being overlooked. I have made that choice because it is this research field which I wish to address. In the following chapters I then include work from researchers closer to my own position, i.e. work which has inspired me in the development of my methodology and analytical approach.

My intention to provide an interpersonal dimension to L2 grammar instruction research and thereby supplement the existing intrapersonal one furthermore means that I do not in this review go into detail with the variations in the intrapersonal learning processes described by different researchers as the purpose of this project is not to present a new explanation of the intrapersonal processes involved in learning a second language. Thus, the attempt here is to provide an overall picture of the field as it is composed today.

Finally, as also presented in the introductory part of the thesis, in developing an interpersonal dimension to L2 grammar instruction research, I shift spotlight from learners and their learning
to teachers and their teaching. Obviously, the two cannot meaningfully be separated even though, as it has been argued by several theorists, there is no one-to-one relationship between teaching and learning, meaning that what is being taught is not necessarily what is being learned. Therefore it may seem odd to have a research interest in teaching without looking at effectiveness and learning. However, as the review shows, existing L2 grammar instruction focuses so extensively on learning that there is virtually no orientation towards what actually happens in the specific learning context, i.e. how the grammar teaching is carried out in situated interaction between teacher and learners. I find that such a supplement is needed and base this on the argument that if we really want to make a convincing case that L2 grammar teaching matters, then we (also) have to turn to that teaching and work towards an understanding of how it comes about in situ.

2.2 The state of the art in SLA research on the role of grammar instruction in the acquisition of a second language

In presenting how he sees the place of grammar instruction in the second/foreign language curriculum, Ellis (2002:17, 32) writes that this place has been strongly debated for three decades and that the debate is most likely to continue. This is so because there exist more than one theory of L2 acquisition, and because the place one gives to grammar instruction is tied up with the acquisition stance one adopts. Hedevang (2003), in synthesising research on grammar teaching and second language learning, describes three such theories of L2 acquisition and the way they each construe the role of grammar teaching. One theoretical position holds that grammar teaching has no influence on the acquisition of a second language (the no-interface position). Proponents of this position are Krashen and Schwartz (Hedevang, 2003:21-22). Another position argues that grammar teaching has a positive influence on the acquisition of a second language (the weak interface position). Hedevang (2003:23-24) places researchers such as Ellis, Schmidt, VanPatten and Cadierno in this category. Finally, researchers such as White and Rutherford argue, according to Hedevang (2003:28-29), that grammar teaching is decisive to the acquisition of a second language (the strong interface position). Hedevang (2003:30) criticises each of the three positions on some of their underlying assumptions, but disputes the first entirely on the ground that it does not distinguish between L1 and L2 acquisition and that it views language acquisition and consciousness as incompatible – a stance that has, she says, been disproved by modern psychology. The two latter are united as advocates of the contemporary overall understanding of the role of grammar instruction in L2 acquisition which I present in the following.

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12 I include Hedevang’s (2003) work in this section though it is not a textbook as such, but in large parts itself an explicit review of 11 selected international studies. Hedevang’s book is addressed at language teachers and language students and is printed by The Danish School of Education Press. The book has become an important contribution in the Danish debate on grammar teaching and second language acquisition. I find it sufficient to refer to here and not directly to the studies that she reviews, because it has by now, as I describe below, been established that L2 grammar instruction does have a positive impact on L2 acquisition, and it is on this confirmation that I take my point of departure.

13 I do not go into the acquisition theory of each of these three positions but merely describe their view on the place of grammar instruction. Below, I introduce the more generally accepted contemporary theory of the role of grammar instruction in L2 acquisition.
2.2.1 Explicit and implicit knowledge and their linkage

The contemporary SLA understanding of the role of grammar instruction has largely done away with Krashen’s absolute distinction between second language acquisition understood as a subconscious process leading to implicit or procedural knowledge and second language learning understood as a conscious process resulting in explicit or declarative knowledge (grammar instruction being referred to the latter process only). Today, the terms second language acquisition and second language learning are often used interchangeably (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; Ortega 2009:5; de Bot et al. 2005:86), and it is acknowledged that acquiring a second language can happen in both naturalistic and instructed contexts and often happens from a mixture of both (Ortega, 2009:6). The notions of explicit versus implicit knowledge still hold a central place in grammar instruction research, but are now typically seen as connected, with learner awareness as a possible interface (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002:6). Explicit knowledge is characterised as being conscious linguistic knowledge about rules and forms, developed through instruction, whereas implicit knowledge is defined as a synonym for interlanguage and seen as intuitive and as developed through acts of meaningful communication (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002:6; Hedevang, 2003:20). What seem to cause disagreement today is how explicit knowledge can be converted into implicit knowledge and what precise role grammar instruction plays in the process (Hedevang, 2003:27-28). It appears to be a common finding, however, that the transformation from explicit to implicit knowledge happens with delayed effect due to the many internal and external factors affecting the process (Ellis, 2002:24; Hedevang, 2003:26).

In her textbook Understanding Second Language Acquisition, Ortega (2009:110) states that research on the development of learner language typically focuses on grammar, and that two traditions within SLA conduct this kind of research: interlanguage studies and formal linguistic studies. The research which founds the background theory of this project belongs to the first tradition. It is on the basis of reviews of interlanguage studies that de Bot et al. (2005) write:

> From general practice and research it has become clear that communicative practice alone is not sufficient to help learners become either completely proficient or accurate in the second language [...] The question therefore no longer is whether some explicit teaching is helpful, but what type of explicit teaching is the most effective (83-84).

Similarly, Ellis (2002) states:

> although there are constraints that govern both when and what type of grammar teaching is likely to work, there is clear evidence that, providing these constraints are taken into account, teaching grammar can have a beneficial

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14 I return to the concept of interlanguage in section 2.6.
15 It is beyond the scope of this thesis to give an account of the research done on such internal and external factors influencing the L2 acquisition process. SLA is a wide field of research, and my focus is solely on the part of the field which deals with grammar instruction.
16 Researching learner language from a formal linguistic perspective implies investigating Chomsky’s notion of an innate universal grammar and pursuing “the study of the mental representations of grammar that learners build, with the aim to describe the universal and innate bounds of such knowledge” (Ortega, 2009:111). As such, this research is not directly relevant to the focus on grammar teaching practices which this project has.
effect on learners’ interlanguage development. This conclusion is now widely accepted by SLA researchers (20).

In other words, research seems to have confirmed that grammar instruction does play a positive role in the acquisition of a second language. Generally seen, researchers also seem to agree on how the influence takes place.

2.2.2 Noticing, hypothesis testing and interlanguage development

Research on interlanguage development rests on a cognitive approach to language learning (Ellis, 2002:24; Ortega 2009:113). Characteristics of this approach are that frequency and salience in the input as well as cognitive processes of attention and categorisation in the learner are taken as some of the explanatory cornerstones of language learning (Ortega, 2009:113). Referring to a range of studies, Hinkel & Fotos (2002:7) describe the role of grammar instruction in interlanguage development as initiating an intrapersonal process: once formal instruction, assumed to lead to explicit knowledge, has raised the learner’s awareness of a target feature, the learner begins to notice the feature in subsequent input. This noticing initiates a restructuring of the learner’s interlanguage. This happens because frequent noticing causes the learner to unconsciously compare the target feature with his or her existing system of linguistic knowledge and to, again unconsciously, construct new hypotheses to meet the differences between his or her existing L2 competence and the noticed target feature. The learner then unconsciously tests these new hypotheses in both input and output, and thereby implicit knowledge becomes created over time. As stated, this cognitive (intrapersonal) approach is generally shared by contemporary researchers in the interlanguage studies tradition. In the final section of this chapter as well as in part 3 of the thesis, I lay out my case for providing a socio-interactional (interpersonal) supplement.

Hedevang (2003:25) states that the research she synthesises describes the precise relation between grammar instruction and the processes of hypothesis formulation and testing differently, but that they all assume that grammar teaching, via these processes, advance the incorporation of new grammatical structures in the learner’s interlanguage. The noticing of particular grammatical structures in the input results in a grammatically richer intake which again has a positive effect on the interlanguage development in terms of increased accuracy and fluency. In this way, grammar instruction is seen as accelerating a process which would assumably have taken longer had the learner received positive input only (Ellis, 2002:19; Hedevang, 2003:24, 49). Hence, research seems to have confirmed that grammar instruction should hold a place in second language teaching. The question, then, is how that grammar instruction should be conducted. In the third part of this chapter, I describe some of the specific language pedagogical recommendations which the reviewed research have been translated into. For now, I turn to present some established L2 grammar instruction methods.
2.2.3 **Historical sketch of various L2 grammar instruction methods**

Different grammar instruction methods have historically had the lead. Hinkel & Fotos (2002:1-5) have made a clear description of the development from what they term traditional grammar instruction over structural grammar and audio-lingual approaches, functional approaches, cognitive approaches and communicative approaches, ending with focus on form. I provide an elaboration of the individual grammar instruction methods\(^\text{17}\) as a way of anchoring existing L2 grammar instruction research.

The traditional grammar instruction method is still used in many EFL classrooms today despite it being more than 2000 years old. It consists of dividing language into eight parts (nouns, verbs, participles, articles, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions) and studying these in written text, typically in order to develop rules for their use in translation (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002:1-2).

By the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century, with the advent of structural linguistics, language began to be analysed through three subsystems: phonology, morphology and syntax. Combining structural linguistics with behaviourist psychology and its stimulus-response principles resulted in the grammar instruction method known as audio-lingualism (and related direct approaches) which emerged around WWII. This method focuses on developing spoken fluency, but is still a highly structured and linear approach. Formal grammar explanations, drills and repetitions are characteristics of this approach (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002:2).

In the 1960s, a functional approach was developed by British linguists who focused on the communicative needs of the learner in specific situational activities (e.g. ‘asking questions’, ‘at a restaurant’). The method has been called the three Ps: presentation, practice and production, and it still provides the structure of many ESL/EFL textbooks today (dialogue – formal explanation – practice exercises – meaning-focused task or reading). Though this grammar instruction method is functional in its orientation, it thus still rests on a structural basis, resulting in so-called synthetic syllabuses whose content consists of rules and drills, linear sequences and immediate production (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002:3).

By the end of the 1950s, Chomsky’s concept of Universal Grammar and its focus on surface structure vs. deep structure as well as on performance vs. competence took part in overturning the dominance of structural linguistics (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002:3). As a result, new cognitive approaches to language developed which again gave rise to a renewed emphasis on explicit grammar instruction. Relying on transformational and generative grammar theories, grammar was seen as too complex to be learned without instruction, and traditional formal grammar instruction was restored as grammar teaching was seen as a foundational framework for the acquisition of all L2 skills (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002:4).

\(^{17}\) Different researchers describe these methods differently, and some include more methods than others. Here, I report the methods described by Hinkel & Fotos (2002) and supplement with meta-theoretical considerations supplied by Johnson (2001).
Johnson (2001:33-55) explains how these historical developments in grammar instruction methods are closely linked with the rise and fall of specific meta-theoretical research paradigms. In particular, he describes the controversy between empiricism and mentalism; structural linguistics and behaviourist learning theory belonging to the first paradigm, and transformational generative grammar and mentalist learning theory to the latter. Johnson states that from the 1970s much research began to address middle ground, and at the same time a third research paradigm began to develop, inspired by what Johnson calls the sociolinguistic revolution. This term denotes a movement away from Chomskian linguistics towards one whose primary interest was the use of language in society (Johnson, 2001:50).

Thus, in the 1970s, communicative language teaching entered the stage as it was acknowledged that ESL learners had to be able to use the language, not just to know its rules. Similarly, so-called humanistic approaches were developed in order to provide learners with positive feelings toward the instructional process and thereby facilitate language acquisition. In terms of grammar teaching, a zero position was recommended where no formal instruction was given. Instead, focus was on presenting quantities of meaning-focused input, assuming that learners would acquire the forms and vocabulary naturally when comprehending and responding to the input, in the same way a child learns his or her first language. This brings the account back to Krashen and his position that grammar teaching has no influence on the acquisition of a second language (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002:4-5).

### 2.2.4 Focus on forms (FonFS) and Focus on form (FonF)

As stated above, much later research has shown that grammar instruction plays a positive role in the acquisition of a second language and thereby in developing communicative abilities in that language. One method which appears to have many advocates is focus on form (FonF) (Nassaji & Fotos, 2004:131). Initially proposed by Long in the late 1980s, this approach distinguishes between explicit instruction of grammar forms (FonFS) and meaning-focused use of form (FonF) where the teacher attempts to draw the learners’ attention to the target form in the context of communication. Whereas the former, FonFS, designates a focus on grammatical forms selected and presented in an isolated manner, often based on a structural syllabus, the latter, FonF, refers to integrated, contextualised grammar teaching, based mainly on a communicative syllabus and typically taking place as corrective feedback, i.e. brief reactive interventions (Nassaji & Fotos, 2004:131). The assumption behind is that traditional structural syllabuses do not result in communicative competence, but that communicative syllabuses are equally inadequate because they tend to result in fossilisation and thereby lower levels of accuracy (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002:5). Hinkel & Fotos (2002) state that a considerable amount of studies has followed, focusing on “methods for integrating grammar instruction with communicative language learning in such a way that learners are able to recognize the properties of target

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18 The abbreviations for focus on form and focus on forms respectively vary in the literature. I make use of Norris & Ortega’s (2000) abbreviations here.
structures in context and develop accuracy in their use” (6).

Section 2.3 discusses a research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis of such studies from before 1998, and section 2.4 considers more recent studies.

2.2.5 The integrated approach and pragmatic eclecticism

Hinkel & Fotos (2002) stress that in their mind, there is no single best way to teach grammar. Instead, they advocate eclecticism on the basis of broad knowledge, “familiarity with a variety of views and approaches can lead to recognition that many approaches share common features and appreciation of an eclectic view of grammar teaching” (1). Harmer (2001) takes the same approach and appears to want to add legitimacy to it when writing, “Pragmatic eclecticism does not just mean that ‘anything goes’. On the contrary, students have a right to expect that they are being asked to do things for a reason and that their teacher has some aim in mind which he or she can, if asked, articulate clearly” (97). Hence, teacher awareness of both different approaches to grammar instruction and his or her own ways of mixing and applying these appears to be important.

The integrated approach, in which both communicative language teaching and grammar instruction are employed, can appear in several variations. De Bot et al. (2005) state:

Whereas the grammar-translation method consisted of mostly explicit focus on forms and the audio-lingual method on implicit focus on forms, the Communicative Language Teaching approach focussed especially on meaningful communication. But over the last decades it has become clear that providing a mixture of meaningful input and some explicit or implicit instruction on form may be the most effective in teaching an L2 (86).

In explicit instruction, the textbook or the teacher explains the rule whereas in implicit instruction, the learners discover the rule for themselves (84). Ellis (2002:7) distinguishes between second language teaching methods that reserve a place for grammar (grammar translation, audio-lingualism, total physical response, situational language teaching) and those that do not (communicative language teaching, natural methods) and he, too, advocates an integrated middle way, though in a slightly different manner in that he seems to reserve a greater place for a structural syllabus than other research does. I return to Ellis’ specific proposal in section 2.5 where I depict some of the language pedagogical recommendations that the referred research has been translated into.

Nassaji & Fotos (2004), in a brief research synthesis aimed at pinpointing recent developments in research on the teaching of grammar, state that “current research indicates that learners need opportunities to both encounter and produce structures which have been introduced either

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19 Hinkel & Fotos (2002:6-8) furthermore refer to a range of studies which have focused respectively on grammar teaching in relation to increasing noticing in input, producing comprehensible output, and using authentic language use and structures together with discourse-based approaches to grammar instruction.

20 Focus on form is one variation of the integrated approach, in which both communicative language teaching and grammar instruction are employed. ForF can then again be divided into sub-categories, e.g. explicit vs. implicit ForF. In section 2.3, I expand on these different variations.
explicitly, through a grammar lesson, or implicitly, through frequent exposure” (130). To them, then, what is most important is not whether the grammar teaching is explicit or implicit, but that the grammar teaching gives room for working with target forms in both input and output. As I define it later in this chapter, my operational definition of grammar teaching includes both explicit and implicit approaches. However, as the analysis will show, the teachers whose teaching I use as my empirical data appear to have a clear preference for explicit grammar teaching.

Summarising this review section on the state of the art in SLA research on the role of grammar instruction in L2 acquisition, Hinkel & Fotos (2002) offer a summative conclusion, “Grammar learning and acquisition can enhance learner proficiency and accuracy and facilitate the internalization of its syntactic system, thus supplementing the development of fluency” (10). Having thus presented the content or general conclusions of existing L2 grammar instruction research, I now turn to focus on the methods used to reach the conclusions accounted for here.

2.3 Research on L2 grammar instruction – methods, conclusions and points of critique

Hinkel & Fotos (2002) state that “many investigations have addressed instructional approaches and techniques for grammar teaching to determine what classroom pedagogy and techniques can best serve the needs of learners at various levels of proficiency” (8). In their research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis, Norris & Ortega (2000) term such investigations L2 type-of-instruction research. The research synthesis covers all such research published between 1980 and 1998 and has become an often quoted source, also acknowledged in the texts referred to in the previous section. The general conclusions of the research synthesis are therefore similar to the state-of-the-art presented above. I include the research synthesis here as a way of getting access to the overall methodology used in grammar instruction research in the 1990s. Furthermore, the research synthesis provides me with a critical evaluation of the research domain. The more recent studies which I include subsequently in section 2.4 are then related to this critical evaluation in order to discuss the extent to which it may appear to have had an impact on later research within the domain. Eventually, I also position my own research in relation to the recommendations made by Norris & Ortega, arguing that providing opportunities for comparison and replication is not the only thing which the research domain could probably benefit from.

2.3.1 The goals and research questions of Norris & Ortega’s research synthesis and meta-analysis

It should be noted that Norris & Ortega’s synthesis and analysis is a thorough piece of work, and that I do not intend to provide a comprehensive exposition of it. Rather, I extract the elements which I find to be of relevance to my task here. With regard to these elements, however, I do make a rather detailed account. This is so because I regard this as a way of beginning to suggest the gap or research deficit which I see in existing L2 grammar instruction research.

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21 I comment on Norris & Ortega’s criteria for inclusion later in this section.
The goal of Norris & Ortega’s research synthesis and meta-analysis is to evaluate the findings that have emerged from L2 type-of-instruction studies, however inconsistent these may be, in order for the field to begin to systematically address its increasingly complex research agenda. Only in that way, they argue, is it possible to eventually establish a cumulative context for situating new directions in research and for interpreting new findings (422). On this ground, Norris & Ortega structure their work around six research questions, the two first ones being oriented towards content, the following three towards interpretation, and the latter towards methodology and therefore of particular interest to my task here.22 The six questions read (428-429):

1) How effective is L2 instruction overall and relative to simple exposure or meaning-driven communication?
2) What is the relative effectiveness of different types and categories of L2 instruction?
3) Does type of outcome measure influence observed instructional effectiveness?
4) Does length of instruction influence observed instructional effectiveness?
5) Does instructional effect last beyond immediate post-experimental observations?
6) To what extent has primary research provided answers to these questions?

As such, Norris & Ortega’s work can be characterised as secondary research which serves “as a kind of watershed point in cumulative scientific endeavour, summarizing what has come before and indicating what remains to be done” (423). It is a central argument in the research synthesis that the individual L2 type-of-instruction studies cannot in themselves provide trustworthy answers; they are examples of primary research and should as such consider their data points as contributing to a cooperative enterprise (422, 491). The main problem within the research domain, however, is that such considerations are not being made. Rather, according to Norris & Ortega (491), the reviewed studies reflect ‘the myth of the single decisive study’ and fail to recognise that they can always only contribute with an additional fragment of the answer to a research question.

Attempting to combine the pieces of the puzzle, Norris & Ortega establish a framework for classifying the L2 type-of-instruction studies. I provide a rather detailed account of their mosaic evaluative model here in order to be able to draw on that framework in the analyses of the relations between research, policy and practice. Norris & Ortega consider the prevailing operationalisation of instruction thus,

L2 instruction has been operationalized as proceeding in terms of choices related to four components: presentation of rules, provision of negative feedback, exposure to relevant input, and opportunities for practice. Each of these four components presented multiple options for implementation, and any

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22 In the following, I present Norris & Ortega’s (2000:474, 488) findings on questions 1, 2, 3 and 6. Questions 4 and 5 are not included. Both because their foci are on a degree of detail that is not relevant to my undertaking here, and also because Norris & Ortega maintain that it is impossible to conclude firmly on those two questions due to lack of systematic replication in the studies.
of the four elements could also be combined in various ways in a single instructional intervention, constituting particular pedagogical techniques (462).

However, Norris & Ortega depart from the individual study-internal operationalisations because reporting on these is extremely varied across the studies and because researchers disagree on the exact attributes of various categories and furthermore utilise differing terminology. Instead, Norris & Ortega employ generic categorical definitions (436).

### 2.3.2 Categorical definitions: FonF, FonFS, FonM

Hence, to set the specific frames within which to evaluate the individual studies, Norris & Ortega combine several overall descriptive models for types of L2 instruction. First, Norris & Ortega take point of departure in Doughty & Williams’ definitional criteria for focus on form to enable a general classification of the instructional treatment types into FonF, FonFS or FonM (focus on meaning, no orientation towards form). They characterise an instructional treatment as FonF when an integration of form and meaning is addressed via any of four strategies: 1) designing of tasks to promote learner engagement with meaning prior to form, 2) seeking to attain and document task essentialness or naturalness of the L2 forms, 3) attempting to ensure that instruction is unobtrusive, 4) documenting learner noticing. Furthermore, Norris & Ortega (2000: 438-439) found evidence of the following two strategies within the FonF category as well, 5) selecting target form(s) by analysis of learner needs, 6) considering interlanguage constraints when choosing the targets of instruction and interpreting outcome. An instructional treatment is characterised as FonFS, on the other hand, when none of strategies 1-4 can be identified, and learner attention is nevertheless focused on the particular target form. Finally, the category FonM comprises L2 instructional treatments which involve exposure to the L2 targets or experience with the L2 tasks, but not an attempt to affect shifts in learner attention to L2 target structures.

### 2.3.3 Categorical definitions: Explicit vs. implicit instruction

On the level below this, but still as part of the general classification, Norris & Ortega (2000:437) make use of DeKeyser's definition of explicit vs. implicit instruction which says that an L2 instructional treatment is explicit if rule explanation comprises part of the instruction, or if learners are asked to attend to particular forms and try to arrive at metalinguistic generalisations themselves (explicit instructional treatment can thus be both deductive and inductive). Conversely, an L2 instructional treatment is implicit when neither rule presentation nor directions to attend to particular forms are part of the treatment (437). Following these general classifications is a classification according to pedagogical techniques where four overall categories (rule-based, feedback-based, input-based and output-based instructional types) cover a range of

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23 These criteria are 1) that learner engagement with meaning occurs before attention to the linguistic code, 2) that instructional treatment is based on an analysis of learner needs, and 3) that learner focal attention is drawn to form briefly and overtly (Norris & Ortega, 2000:421).
subtypes, e.g. implicit-inductive grammar teaching, recasts, output practice (421-422, 438). These subtypes can be either explicit or implicit.

2.3.4 **Research domain and criteria for inclusion: Experimental and quasi-experimental studies**

Norris & Ortega (2000, 427) define the research domain as “all published experimental or quasi-experimental primary research investigating the effectiveness of L2 instructional treatments”. They list a range of criteria for inclusion, all of which serve to enable a quantitative approach (time, design, clear definitions of instructional treatment, dependent and independent variables etc.) (432-433). They state that ideally, research quality criteria for inclusion should also be decided upon, but that they have had to sacrifice this recommendation because of severe methodological and substantive inconsistencies within the research domain, and also because the objective in the first place is to summarise and evaluate the different research practices applied in the domain (434). At the same time, much research is excluded from the research synthesis, e.g. descriptive or correlational designs (433).

The result is a picture of the research domain as composed of L2 type-of-instruction studies which all have in common that they investigate “different treatments that may be categorized according to the manner in which instructional delivery focuses learner attention on L2 features” (428). The studies, which are mainly quasi-experimental in character, are carried out in varied educational contexts (but mainly among adult university learners). They investigate intact classes and comparison/control groups, focus mostly on English as a second/foreign language, use pre-tests and (diverse) post-experimental tests, and range from simple to complex in design depending on the number of variables (dependent, independent, moderator) included (450-457). I find it intriguing that even though the studies all concern ‘the manner in which instructional delivery focuses learner attention on L2 features’, there is no orientation towards that instructional delivery as it actually takes place in practice.

2.3.5 **Analytical strategies: Primarily quantitative analysis**

In terms of analytical strategies used in the studies, Norris & Ortega (2000: 458-461) state that a variety of observational, descriptive and interpretive strategies are used, also qualitative techniques, but that quantitative analysis is the primary means. This is clear from the reporting of the studies where statistical significance testing is the main way of presenting research results. Norris & Ortega speculate that this may be due to a serious publication bias, prioritising investigations that have made statistically significant observations (459, 497). They state that they focus on these methodological features in the study reports “in order to demonstrate the extent to which such information is adequately reported in primary research, and to provide an overview of methodologies from which to determine characteristics desirable in future research” (441).

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24 See Norris & Ortega (2000:521-527) for a full overview. The studies focus on some 20 subtypes and compound types too.
25 Which is obvious enough as they are reviewing experimental and quasi-experimental studies.
Their conclusion is that the reporting of such features (e.g. data, analytic strategies, tools, outcomes) is inconsistent to an extent where it becomes impossible to understand what was actually observed in the primary research (458).

2.3.6 Synthesis conclusion on research question 1
In general, Norris & Ortega (2000) make many reservations in the light of which they ask the reader to read their conclusions. To take the research questions 1, 2, 3 and 6 one by one, their answer to the first question (How effective is L2 instruction overall and relative to simple exposure or meaning-driven communication?) is that “L2 instruction can be characterized as effective in its own right, at least as operationalized and measured within the domain” (480) in that it far surpasses non—or minimally focused exposure to the L2. However, it should be noticed that the use of comparison/control groups varies a lot, just as the use of pre- and post-tests does (463). Hence, when Norris & Ortega present a pattern in instructional treatment effectiveness reading that FonF explicit is more effective than FonFS explicit which is again more effective than FonFS implicit which is, though, more effective than FonF implicit (FonF explicit > FonFS explicit > FonF implicit > FonFS implicit), they at the same time warn that substantial heterogeneity is observed among the effects within treatment categories (465).

2.3.7 Synthesis conclusion on research question 2
With regard to research question 2 (What is the relative effectiveness of different types and categories of L2 instruction?), supposedly the question which most grammar teachers would like to know the answer to now, Norris & Ortega (2000) conclude, “The wide variety of instructional treatment types investigated […] reduces the likelihood of finding consistencies among particular instructional treatment types” (481). They find that it is impossible to weigh the effectiveness of particular sub-types because of a use of different outcome measures and a lack of systematic replication. Furthermore, within all instructional treatment categories Norris & Ortega observe heterogeneity in effects, and they state that this is due to a varied operationalisation of the same instructional type via widely differing independent variables, and also to an occurring merging of various features in a single instructional intervention without control or description of those features (484). One thing of relevance to my undertaking here which can, for instance, vary a lot, is the way that teachers deliver rule explanation (a priori, throughout the activities, repeatedly etc.), but the studies do not describe in detail how it is done, thereby not enabling a treatment of it as moderator variable from study to study (484-485).

From the perspective of my research interest, there is thus no orientation to the situated context of L2 grammar instruction in the existing research. Just as there is no realisation that how grammar is actually being taught in a specific class lesson is not necessarily the same as how the teacher has intended to teach it, or how a researcher has asked a teacher to teach it. As will be clear later, this distinction between intended pedagogy and actual practice is crucial in this thesis where the argument is exactly that we have to turn to actual grammar teaching practices to push the agenda of the research domain and begin to produce more directly applicable research.
Norris and Ortega state, however, that on a general level there is consistency enough in the studies to make it possible to compare FonF with FonFS and explicit with implicit, which is also what results in the pattern list presented above. Note, though, that Norris and Ortega, when keeping the two treatment pairs apart, also state that “current cumulative research findings suggest no differences in effectiveness between FonF and FonFS (as currently operationalized) and equivalent overall instructional effectiveness for them both” (482), whereas the same findings suggest “that treatments involving an explicit focus on the rule-governed nature of L2 structures are more effective than treatments that do not include such a focus” (482-483). Again, some caution is asked for in that the means used to measure the change induced by instruction typically favours “more explicit types of treatments by calling on explicit memory-based performance” (483), just as the operationalisation of implicit treatments is more restricted than that of explicit treatments which often involve combinations of several instructional components (483). Again, then, a lack of systematic replication disturbs the general picture.

2.3.8 Synthesis conclusion on research question 3
Talking about outcome measurements reaches into research question 3 (Does type of outcome measure influence observed instructional effectiveness?). In coding the studies, Norris & Ortega (2000) identifies four general outcome measures activities under which the concrete outcome measures applied in the individual studies are placed: metalinguistic judgments, selected response, constrained constructed response and free constructed response (440). The concrete outcome measures under these more general categories range on a continuum from point tests to free oral production, and Norris and Ortega find that both in terms of type and number of outcome measures used there is a great variety from study to study (469-470). On that basis, they conclude that a lack of standardisation in the use of outcome measures obscures comparisons of instruction effectiveness (486). They write that there is “little doubt that the particular test or measure utilized within a given study plays a central role in observations and eventual interpretations about the effectiveness of L2 instructional treatments” (486). Therefore, Norris & Ortega ask the reader to realise that use of a different outcome measure would likely have produced different results (487). At the same time, they stress that outcome measures do not account for all the observed differences between instructional treatment types (487). Had this been the case, they would not have been able to conclude anything on their research questions in the first place as all findings would be entirely dependent on the employed outcome measure.

Relating this to the socio-interactional framework of this thesis, it is alarming that 90% of the outcome measures used in the studies focused on linguistic tasks, and only 10% on communicative use. Norris & Ortega interpret this in the following way:

Overall, then, observed instructional effectiveness within primary research to date has been based much more extensively on the application of explicit

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26 It is interesting to observe that all these measurements are uni-directional, i.e. without interaction. I find that this can be seen as an indication of the understanding of language learning within this field as something which exclusively goes on inside the learner’s head.
declarative knowledge under controlled conditions, without much requirement for fluent, spontaneous use of contextualized language (486).

An obvious question is whether there has been more focus on fluent, spontaneous use of contextualized language since the time of the research synthesis. I look into that below where I present some more recent studies. From my point of view, Norris & Ortega’s conclusions on this research question suggest the need for other supplementary approaches to researching grammar instruction. If, on the one hand, it is acknowledged that most of the measurements used so far are controlled and focused linguistic tasks, and on the other hand that other measurements would have led to different results, then I suggest that we not only begin to use more varied types of measurements, but also develop and include other, more qualitative ways of studying grammar teaching all together as a way of bringing more validity to the picture. As will be clear, the latter is not a point made by Norris & Ortega in their recommendations for further studies.

2.3.9 Synthesis conclusion on research question 6

In answering research question 6 (To what extent has primary research provided answers to these questions?), Norris & Ortega (2000) divide their repeated critique of the lack of systematic accumulation into three parts, stating that it is evinced in study design, data analysis and study reporting. With regard to study design, the first of three parts, there are three diminishing features: infrequent use of true control groups (defined as groups where the only exposure to the L2 targets occurs in pre- and post-test sessions (481), complexity of designs, and lack of replication of variables. Without true control conditions, Norris & Ortega argue, it is impossible to observe how much of the change may have occurred because of other factors (490). The complexity of designs is what hinders the extraction of data on a single instructional treatment type, and thereby also the comparison with findings from other studies on the same variable (490). Norris & Ortega blames the myth of the single decisive study for the lack of replication of variables. They write:

On the whole, although motivated by common theoretical premises and associated research problems, L2 type-of-instruction research has not directly engaged in the systematic accumulation of findings (i.e., across a variety of study contexts) about research variables. Such systematicity can only be achieved by acknowledging replication as a central undertaking of primary research in cumulative scientific endeavor […] the purpose of replication should be to provide robust enough data for a domain to make trustworthy interpretations about a given variable, such as a type of instructional treatment. Such robustness can only come from the consistent operationalization of a given variable under a variety of circumstances; what gets replicated is the variable, not the study (491).

It should be clear already that this dissertation is not a replication of a given variable, but a suggestion to bring in two other dimensions too, i.e. those of practice and policy. Why this is so will be obvious in section 2.6 where I further explain the gap that I see in existing research and begin to describe how I approach that gap in this thesis.
Turning to data analysis, the second focus point in Norris & Ortega’s critique here, the heavy use of statistical significance tests has already been mentioned. Norris & Ortega see many problems in that use. Firstly, the results of the statistical significance tests are frequently misinterpreted in the studies because the role of sample size is not acknowledged (493). Secondly, the results are frequently misreported in the studies to an extent that the prioritisation of statistical significance test results over other forms of data has “decreased the presentation of quantitative findings in forms accessible for accurate interpretation and accumulation” (493). The most fundamental problem, however, is, according to Norris & Ortega, that statistical significance tests are “not designed to provide answers to the primary research questions of the domain” (494). To answer questions such as how effective a treatment is, the degree to which one treatment is more effective than another, and how trustworthy interpretations are about a treatment, other kinds of analyses are needed²⁷ (495).

With regard to study reporting, the last of the three focus points, Norris & Ortega point to three areas of insufficient reporting. First, infrequent reporting on variables prevents both comparisons across studies and replication of variables in future research (495). Second, insufficient detailed reporting on what actually occurs in the investigation makes the interpretations less warranted (495-496). Explaining the sequence of events and whether it took place according to plans is a vital manoeuvre. In relation to the goals of this dissertation, Norris and Ortega touch upon important matters here. From my point of view, the vital manoeuvres mentioned call for a supplementary, contextualised qualitative approach to researching L2 grammar instruction. Finally, the reporting of quantitative data is also insufficient in the studies, where everything from basic descriptive statistics to measures of the error or consistency of observations is lacking locally (496). As already stated, Norris & Ortega see this as signifying a serious bias among both researchers and editorial boards, a bias which prioritises reports based on statistically significant observations (497).

2.3.10 Synthesis recommendations
In the light of all these points of critique, one gets the impression that Norris & Ortega (2000) find that primary research has not really, at least not fully, provided answers to the five other research questions. This impression is strengthened by their list of recommendations which, in their own words, “seem essential in order for the domain to become better able to answer its research questions” (497). The recommendations of most relevance to my undertaking read (497-498):

- Studies should be simple in design, investigating only a few variables at the most and leaving it up to systematic comparisons across experiments to investigate the interactions of variables.
- Pre- and post-tests as well as true control groups should be incorporated to better identify the amount of observed effects that are attributable to the given instructional treatment.

²⁷ Norris & Ortega (2000:495) suggest calculation of effect sizes and confidence intervals, two other quantitative approaches.
Studies should be designed with replication of variables in mind, avoiding the myth of the single decisive study and instead embracing the notion of a cooperative enterprise.

The consistency or reliability of the use of outcome measures should be estimated and reported.

Report sufficiently on different variables and include observations of what actually occurs when the variables are operationalized.

Report sufficiently on data that enable further interpretation and accumulation.

In the subsequent discussion of five recent studies, I relate these studies to the recommendations represented here.

2.3.11 Research validity and the danger of closedness
Norris & Ortega (2000) stress that many of the conclusions drawn rest on their quantitative meta-analysis and that only 45 out of the 77 studies are included in that analysis due to the lack of reporting. Yet, they state, “Nevertheless, the results of the meta-analysis should offer a useful empirical context within which future single-study findings from L2 type-of-instruction research can be more meaningfully interpreted” (499-500). In my view, this serves to establish the general validity of the research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. Implicit in that move, then, there is also a validation taking place of the studies on which the work is founded.

My reason for bringing Norris & Ortega’s central points of critique and recommendations here along with their conclusions is not to discard the state-of-the-art picture painted in the first part of this chapter. Nor is it to disqualify the studies on which that picture is eventually based. Should the studies have been disqualified, Norris & Ortega had probably done it themselves. Rather, my intention is to point to the fact that what has very quickly gained status as taken-for-granted knowledge is perhaps not as stable in the sense that much more research could be done to qualify it further. Norris & Ortega make this point too, as described above. But I would like to take it one step further by suggesting that such a taken-for-granted status carries with it the danger of closedness – towards new research design, new methodologies, new perspectives, and, eventually, new findings. I do not find that providing opportunities for comparison and replication is enough for the research domain to prevent such closedness. It may be what is needed to ensure internal openness, but in terms of external openness – which in my understanding of research is where the potential for further development also lies – there is a need for substantially different approaches to grammar instruction research. With this dissertation, in which I bring in both a policy and a practice dimension – (some of) the realities of grammar teaching, one could say – I hope to be able to take part in directing the attention of the field towards both the necessity and the possibility of such different, yet supplementary approaches. I now turn to discuss some more recent L2 grammar instruction studies in order to situate these in relation to the conclusions, points of critique and recommendations presented above.
2.4 Recent L2 grammar instruction studies

The incorporation of recent primary research at this point in the review serves several interests. First of all it provides me with an insight into possible research developments after Norris & Ortega’s research synthesis and meta-analysis from 2000. Developments primarily regarding the methods used. Second, the studies strengthen the theoretical frame of reference which this literature review constitutes and which I will be relating to in the analysis of the practice dimension. The reason why I regard the studies included here as strengthening that frame is that they are selected on the basis of my own empirical observations as further explained below. Both of these points are meant to facilitate the analyses of the relations between research, policy and practice, thereby eventually enabling me to look the other way too, i.e. from practice to research (and policy).

The following review of the five chosen studies is by no means exhaustive. I comment on the overall methods used as the purpose is exactly to provide a general account of how some of the L2 grammar instruction studies are being carried out today. First I clarify on what basis I have chosen these five studies.

2.4.1 Selection of recent studies

In selecting the five studies I have set up several criteria. This was not done until after I had finished my own data construction. I have thus had my own empirical observations in mind and have tried to select studies that come relatively close to these. This means that I have not chosen studies that treat grammar instruction methods which have nothing in common with any of the grammar teaching I have observed. On the other hand, finding studies that match these entirely is an infeasible task, also because other elements then needs prioritisation in such a comparative selection too; elements to do with the context of the grammar teaching. Therefore it is most correct to say that I have selected studies which on one or more points are reminiscent of my own data when it comes to educational institution, age or level of L2 learners, L2 language, grammatical structure and grammatical treatment type. At the same time, though, it should be stressed that I have not reviewed all recent L2 grammar instruction studies in order to best meet these criteria, as the primary point here is not to make a full match, but to demonstrate how the two different research approaches (i.e. the cognitive-interactionist approach of traditional L2 grammar instruction research and the socio-interactional approach which I propose in this thesis) result in very different types of conclusions. That is, types of conclusions which in my view each have something valuable to bring to the research field, and ultimately to actual contexts of L2 grammar instruction. It is for this reason that I advocate incorporating a practice dimension as a supplement to existing research.

The five studies which I have chosen to include have been conducted between 2006 and 2009. They are all experimental or quasi-experimental, they all have English as the L2 language, and they are all dealing with young learners (between age 12 to 25). The educational contexts comprise three primary schools, a secondary school, a high school and two language schools, and the countries vary from China to Canada, New Zealand and Japan. The grammatical structures
employed to measure acquisition range from the passive to possessive determiners, negative adverbs, past tense and relativisation. The treatment types tested are processing instruction, different types of corrective feedback, three types of production activities and pre-task planning. Please see Appendix A for a table overview of the studies.

2.4.2 Consideration of methods in relation to Norris & Ortega’s recommendations

As previously mentioned, Nassaji & Fotos have made a research synthesis in 2004 aimed at pinpointing recent developments in the research field. In their synthesis, they divide current approaches to grammar teaching into six groups; processing instruction, interactional feedback, textual enhancement, task-based instruction, collaborative output tasks and discourse-based approaches (132-137). The different treatment types tested in the five studies touch upon almost all of these categories, serving to show the width of contemporary L2 grammar instruction research in terms of approaches to grammar teaching. In terms of the methods used to study these different grammar teaching approaches, however, the studies remain considerably more restricted. They furthermore appear to follow in a straight line from the studies reviewed by Norris & Ortega (2000). Not only do they base their theoretical sections on those earlier studies as well as on Norris & Ortega’s research synthesis itself, they also apply the same overall methods.\(^{28}\) All the selected studies make use of pre-tests and post-tests, designed with various measurements. Additionally, all the studies employ different participant groups according to the assigned condition. Finally, all studies report their findings in quantitative terms.

Relating this first impression to Norris & Ortega’s research recommendations it can be observed that the studies are not as simple in design as desired by Norris & Ortega. All the studies compare at least two treatment types, thereby putting several variables into play. Recall how Norris & Ortega regard this as hampering the possibility of systematic comparisons across experiments. As stated, the studies make use of both pre- and post-tests, but only two of the studies work with a control group as suggested by Norris & Ortega, i.e. Ammar (2008) and Ellis, Loewen & Erlam (2006). In Ammar’s case it is not a true control group, but a comparison group which she herself also acknowledges (203). To look further into whether others of Norris & Ortega’s recommendations have been taken to heart, each study has to be addressed in greater detail. It should be noted that the two studies by Qin (2008) and Reinders (2009) respectively will only be briefly commented upon in this section in order to avoid repetition.

Ammar’s 2008 study

In her study on prompts vs. recasts, Ammar (2008) provides a thorough review of experimental and quasi-experimental research on corrective feedback and thus appears to make a cumulative effort and base her study focus on existing research findings. Her article furthermore contains a section named Methodological limitations of CF research in which she explicitly refers to Norris &

\(^{28}\) In selecting the studies I have kept to the type of studies reviewed by Norris & Ortega, i.e. quantitative-experimental ones. Only by doing so can I evaluate the development within that particular research field. I comment on some of the implications of this decision when summing up on this section of the review.
Ortega’s critique of an over-reliance of specific types of measurement tools that favour explicit treatments (187). Ammar states that as a result of that critique more oral tasks are employed as measurement tools now, but that these vary in their validity too. She discusses measuring implicit vs. explicit knowledge and argues that more varied measurement tools should be included (187). On that basis Ammar designs her own study and she is very thorough in describing its design, materials and procedures.

It is interesting to notice that in terms of participants, the teachers have been chosen in accordance with their habitual use of corrective feedback (189). This suggests that there is some orientation to grammar teaching practices taking place. This impression is further strengthened when Ammar states that she has not made use of video- or audio-recordings, nor of regular classroom observations because the teachers would not allow that (193). Again, this may be taken to imply that Ammar to a greater extent than in previous research is interested in what actually takes place in the classroom; that she is aware that actual teaching does not necessarily match intended teaching. In thoroughly describing what was done to ensure that the teachers did perform the intended forms of corrective feedback after all, Ammar appears to attempt to meet Norris & Ortega’s recommendations that studies should include observations of what actually occurs when the variables are operationalised.

In terms of measurement tools, Ammar uses a design consisting of pre-test treatment, immediate post-test and delayed post-test to identify the effects of recasts and prompts (190). The testing materials consisted of an oral picture-description task which was used on all three occasions and a computerised fill-in-the-blank task which was used on the two first occasions (191-192). Again, Ammar is meticulous in explaining how each task was carried out. Of particular interest here is the fact that the oral picture-description task took place as an interview in which an interviewer presented the pictures one at a time to each learner individually and asked the learner to describe what was happening in the picture. This was tape-recorded and subsequently analysed (191). It thus seems that Ammar has tried to come closer to communicative language use and to not only measure explicit declarative knowledge as was also suggested by Norris & Ortega.

**Ellis, Loewen & Erlam’s 2006 study**

In their study from 2006, Ellis, Loewen & Erlam also focus on corrective feedback in that they investigate and compare the effects of explicit feedback, which they operationalise as metalinguistic explanations, and implicit feedback, operationalised as partial recasts. As is the case with Ammar, the study reflects explicitly and critically on its own methodology in relation to the methods used in prior research on the same topic. Thereby the study at the same time both builds upon and refines prior research, thus in its own way appearing to meet Norris & Ortega’s demand for more accumulation within the domain. Ellis, Loewen & Erlam (2006) put forward several points of critique of existing research on corrective feedback. Many of these points resonate with Norris & Ortega’s general criticisms. Ellis, Loewen & Erlam state that it is not easy to find out what can really be concluded across the studies due to a great amount of variation in design, interaction, treatment activities, processing, operationalisation of implicit and explicit
feedback, measurement of learning and degree of explanation of grammatical target structure (343-348). They claim that the main limitation of existing research on this topic lies in the method of testing. Most of the studies do not include tests that measure implicit knowledge. Instead, the tests favour the use of explicit knowledge to an extent that Ellis, Loewen & Erlam talk about a bias in favour of explicit corrective feedback (349). It is on the basis of this critique of existing research that Ellis, Loewen & Erlam design their study.

In general, Ellis, Loewen & Erlam provide a detailed account of method, choice of target structure, instruction materials, instructional procedures, testing instruments and procedures, analytical steps taken to validate claims of statistical significance as well as limitations of their study (350-356, 366). In terms of the instruments used to measure learning, Ellis, Loewen & Erlam state that based on prior research they have designed their measures “to develop relatively separate measures of implicit and explicit knowledge” (366). The pre-test, the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test all consist of three tests: an untimed grammaticality judgment test, a metalinguistic knowledge test and an oral imitation test. The latter is designed to measure implicit knowledge, and the two former to measure explicit knowledge. (354). In relation to Ammar’s study and to the orientation towards practice of this thesis, the oral imitation test is of particular interest. In my reading, none of the tests move to measure communicative language use as recommended by Norris & Ortega (2000) because of the past extensive measuring of, to quote them once again, “the application of explicit declarative knowledge under controlled conditions, without much requirement for fluent, spontaneous use of contextualized language” (486). This demeanour goes for Ellis, Loewen & Erlam’s oral imitation test too, despite their argument that it is designed to measure implicit knowledge (2006:339). The test consists of 36 belief statements, half of them grammatically correct, half of them incorrect, 12 of them targeting simple past tense, 12 of them targeting comparative adjective (for another study), and 12 of them being distracter items. The learners were asked to first indicate on an answer sheet whether they agreed or disagreed with the statement, and second, they were to repeat the statement orally in correct English. These repetitions were audio-recorded and “then analyzed to establish whether obligatory occasions for use of the target structure had been established” (355). It is hard to see how such a procedure can be equivalent to spontaneous use of contextualised language.

Of further interest here is the fact that in contrast to Ammar, Ellis, Loewen & Erlam gained access to the classroom while the instructional procedure took place. In fact, one of the researchers functioned as an instructor, while another was present as an observer to manually record instances in which the target structure and the two types of corrective feedback were employed. The sessions were furthermore audio-recorded, and the study provides transcribed examples of the two types of corrective feedback (353). However, these are only used as examples, and there is no further orientation to what happened in practice in the classroom. It thus appears somewhat paradoxical when Ellis, Loewen & Erlam explain why their study takes place within a classroom context:

We also argue that from a pedagogical perspective, it is important to examine corrective feedback within the classroom context. We do not believe that it is easy to extrapolate the results obtained from laboratory studies that involve
one-on-one interactions to classrooms in which the teacher interacts with the whole class. In our view, ecological validity can only be achieved through classroom-based research (365).

The paradox lies in the fact that the teacher does in fact not interact with the whole class in Ellis, Loewen & Erlam’s study, the researcher does. The question is whether that can be regarded as being ecologically valid. Talking about ecological validity is the same as wanting the methods, materials and setting of one’s research to approximate a real-life situation. And replacing the teacher with a researcher is arguably not a real-life situation for the L2 learners. Hence, I find that a beginning orientation towards practice and context might be spotted in Ellis, Loewen & Erlam’s study, but apparently Ellis, Loewen & Erlam do not find that their experimental approach allows for, or calls for, a larger orientation towards practice.

**Mochizuki & Ortega’s 2008 study**

Mochizuki & Ortega in their 2008 study investigate whether pre-task planning which includes guidance on a specific grammatical form is suitable to assist beginning-level L2 learners in their L2 learning (2008:11). Throughout, Mochizuki & Ortega are careful to stress the particular educational context of their study and the L2 level of the participants. This means that they in their review compare previous study contexts with this particular one which they present as new in planning research (14), that they design their testing material in consideration of the special conditions of these L2 learners (18), and that they read their findings in the light of this context only (31). At the same time, Mochizuki & Ortega explicitly seek to design their study “to enhance the comparability of findings with previous planning studies” (18), thereby attempting to make accumulation possible. By means of both context-orientation and focus on comparability, Mochizuki & Ortega can be said to effectively avoid the myth of the single decisive study and work from the notion of a cooperative enterprise as recommended by Norris & Ortega.

Of particular interest to the focus of this thesis is the fact that the two researchers also briefly orient to the political framework of the particular context they study as well as to the (contradicting) actual educational objective of preparing the students for university (12). This appears to be a seldom move in experimental and quasi-experimental L2 grammar instruction research. Mochizuki & Ortega furthermore address their own motivation and goal explicitly. They state:

> Our approach is motivated by what we see as an imperative to conduct task-based language learning research that addresses problems of educational relevance […] Our goal is to contribute context-responsive knowledge about pedagogical options that strike a balance between a focus on communication and grammar and are appropriate for implementation in beginning-level foreign language classrooms (12).

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29 Note that the participants in the study are first year Japanese high school students, age 15-16, who have all had a least four years of English teaching prior to attending high school (Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008:17). On this matter, too, Mochizuki & Ortega are very thorough in their account.
Stating one’s motivation and goals must be said to be a highly important, but often neglected facet in much research, also in L2 grammar instruction research. From the quote it is obvious that Mochizuki & Ortega are to some extent oriented towards context and practice in their research as they claim to be addressing real-world educational problems in a context-responsive approach.

Furthermore, Mochizuki & Ortega rationalise extensively on their method in relation to the results arrived at as well as on the limitations of their study, just as they are very methodical in accounting for the – varied – statistical methods of calculation. They thus appear to meet several of Norris & Ortega’s recommendations and in that way strive to strengthen the quality of quantitative-experimental L2 grammar instruction research.30 Still, in relation to this thesis there are some elements which remain unspecified despite the amended orientation towards practice. One such is the fact that Mochizuki & Ortega do not include information on how the picture store-retelling prompt took place in practice, i.e. who was present, who introduced the task, who handed out the materials, how the stories were recorded etc. Such information is arguably relevant in a study which claims to be context-responsive. In other words, context to Mochizuki & Ortega appears to be restricted to considerations of educational setting and L2 level only, whereas the interactional context – the actual unfolding of the participants’ interactive work with the task – remains unnoticed.

Another objection concerns the operationalisation of the grammar element in the study. One group was given no time to plan their retelling, one group was given five minutes of unguided planning, and one was given five minutes of guided planning. This guiding consisted of “a handout which briefly explained how to make sentences using relative clauses” (19). While Mochizuki & Ortega provide a detailed account of why relative clauses was chosen as the grammatical structure (19), there is no explanation of why the guiding should consist of a handout, i.e. written grammar instruction, and not be provided orally, for instance, and neither of why the guide includes the particular elements that it does. A decisive choice is thus being made without accounting for it. My point is that a study which concerns finding a balance between communicative language teaching and grammar instruction must have specific reasons behind the decisions made with regard to how that grammar instruction should take place. And reflecting explicitly on these would be an advantage – also for the L2 language teachers with whom Mochizuki & Ortega place the responsibility of “the design of appropriate tasks, the choice of attainable L2 targets, and the pedagogically sound formulation of self-accessible grammatical explanations to be used in conjunction with learner-driven pre-task planning” (31).

Qin’s 2008 study and Reinders’ 2009 study
The two studies by Qin and Reinders appear to follow the traditional design of quantitative-experimental L2 grammar instruction studies. Qin (2008) compares the effects of two different FonF instruction techniques: processing instruction and dictogloss tasks. Reinders (2009) compares the effects of three different production activities: dictation, individual construction

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30 Which is perhaps not so surprising as one of the authors, Ortega, has co-written both texts.

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and collaborative construction on uptake and acquisition respectively. Both studies are based on a review of previous research on their respective topics, and both include reflections on the limitations of their study as well as of the methods used in relation to the conclusions reached. None of the studies make use of a control group, and none of them orient towards what actually happens during the tests. In proposing refinements for future research, both studies touch upon recommendations made by Norris & Ortega, in terms of including a control group and using more varied test types. Of the five studies selected these latter two studies are thus the two most traditional ones.

In terms of research focus, all five studies have focused on FonF. This signals that this overall instruction type is still very much the focal point in quantitative-experimental L2 grammar instruction research. It thus seems that much contemporary L2 grammar instruction research is dedicated at exploring and improving FonF instruction techniques, whereas the orientation towards FonFS is on the downgrade. This serves as a tentative suggestion only, in that my review of recent studies is not exhaustive as already stated. Still, relating this to my data and the coming analysis of situated, multimodal, interactional grammar teaching practices it is remarkable that there is an apparent mismatch between research and practice in that, at least in my data, the main part of the grammar teaching taking place is conducted as FonFS. This points to the lack of contact between the research field and the actual world(s) of L2 grammar teaching which has also been articulated earlier in this review. The analysis of the practice dimension and the discussion following the analysis address this issue in greater detail.

2.4.3 Summing up – recent studies in relation to this thesis

From the above considerations of five recent studies it can be stated that the researchers appear to meet many of Norris & Ortega’s research recommendations. In terms of method, they seek to replicate variables, not prior studies. They provide a more or less detailed account of data-related issues. They make use of various pre-and post-tests (but not of control groups, except for one study), as well as they include their reflections on these issues, again with point of departure in the (limitations of) existing research. They do make use of statistical significance tests, but they appear to attempt to validate them, taking in other means of quantitative analysis as well. Finally, they do not seem to fall into the myth of the single decisive study as they explicitly reflect on the limitations of their own study and in conclusion write that further research is needed.

With regard to location, all the five selected studies are classroom-based. In a meta-analysis from 2010 on interactions between type of instruction and type of language feature, Spada & Tomita write that among the studies published between 1990 and 2004, 62.5% were laboratory studies, whereas among the studies published in 2005 and 2006, 90% were classroom-based (2010:271). This could be taken as a positive sign in relation to Norris & Ortega’s recommendations,

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31 Reiner (2009) is the only one who does not explicitly include FonF considerations in his study, but following Ellis, he regard his three production activities as focused tasks, defined as “tasks that are communicative but also afford opportunities to focus on form” (201).

32 Stating that further research is needed has, of course, become an expression serving just as much to put a closure to one’s writing – a neat phrase demonstrating one’s knowledge of the rules of the academic game.
indicating that on the whole, the consideration of context has increased. As discussed above there is just still no orientation towards practice in those considerations.

With regard to the measurements used, it was shown above that some of the studies take up Norris & Ortega’s call for more measuring of fluent, spontaneous use of contextualised language and strive at designing tasks which measure implicit knowledge. This is in line with Spada & Tomita’s finding that “SLA researchers are responding to the call for more measures of spontaneous, unanalyzed (i.e., implicit) knowledge and use” (288). Spada & Tomita, however, also state that a debate has now begun concerning how pure the measures are that are argued to give access to implicit knowledge. As an example they take the picture-cued oral performance task – which was used in several of the five studies above – and asks whether it measures automatised explicit knowledge or implicit knowledge (287). It thus appears that L2 grammar instruction researchers are willingly discussing their research designs, which is another positive sign in relation to Norris & Ortega’s recommendations.

Hence, from the above five studies it appears that the kind of cognitive-interactionist, quantitative-experimental research which Norris & Ortega review in their research synthesis is still being carried out, that many of their recommendations are being met, and that the necessity of accumulation is being recognised. As such, the research domain as it is defined by Norris & Ortega is alive and thriving. However, one thing is evaluating a study in terms of Norris & Ortega’s research synthesis. Another is to do so in relation to the socio-interactional framework of this thesis. As stated, there is no focus on actual teaching practices in the selected studies, only on intrapersonal learning. For instance, Ellis, Loewen & Erlam (2006) write that their study demonstrates that corrective feedback induces changes in learners’ implicit knowledge, and that it is particularly the delayed post-tests which show this, because delayed tests “tap the kind of language use likely to measure implicit knowledge. The enhanced accuracy evident in the oral imitation delayed post-test is indicative of the learners’ successful incorporation of the target structure into their interlanguage systems” (362). The terminology used here is indicative of the cognitive approach adopted by the researchers: language learning and language use is understood as an intrapersonal phenomenon which can be ‘tapped’. I do not wish to underestimate the intrapersonal processes of L2 acquisition, but I argue that by focusing so much on how these processes take place, on what kind of instructional techniques can best assist them, on defining the precise stages and drawing explanatory models, the research community tends to fail to recognise the interpersonal processes of L2 teaching and learning, or the social dimension, so to speak.

It should be stressed that the studies included here represent a tiny part of the enormous amount of research which continues to be published. However, more voices have entered the stage; voices which depart from the cognitive-interactionist epistemology and the quantitative-experimental methodology. For instance, with the sociocultural and socio-interactional turn within SLA, CA-for-SLA has developed into a research field of its own, investigating language in use and language learning from entirely different points of departure. The point should be made, though, that these voices are not all new to SLA research in general. Rather it is Norris &
Ortega’s narrow criteria for inclusion in the research synthesis which leave the impression that
the field of grammar instruction research is made up of experimental and quasi-experimental
studies alone. Here, however, I have accepted their manoeuvre, in the sense that I, too, have kept
to such studies in my review. The reason for this is that it is exactly the cognitive-interactionist
approach which I wish to supplement with an interpersonal, socio-interactional dimension. This
should not be taken to mean that I exclude for example descriptive studies from this thesis
altogether. In my analysis I draw on a descriptive study by Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen (2001)
on focus on form in communicative ESL teaching. Furthermore, in collecting my analytical
toolbox, I include research of a more interpersonal and embodied character which assist me in
developing my own perspective. Yet, it is of course also so that had there been more multimodal,
interactional studies of L2 grammar instruction, I would have included them. This is, however, to
the best of my knowledge not the case.

Before turning to some of the language pedagogical recommendations which have emerged from
the research reviewed so far, two further critical comments is in place. One concerns the
operationalisation not of grammar instruction, but of grammar itself. As already described, Norris
& Ortega find the very varied operationalisation of grammar instruction to be problematic in that
it prevents replication and generalisation across studies. What they do not touch upon, however,
is the operationalisation of grammar which also takes place in every single study as a necessity for
the study to be carried out in the first place. In Ellis, Loewen & Erlam (2006), grammar is
operationalised into past tense —ed, in other studies it is possessive determiners or the passive, and
in yet other studies it is something else. I recognise that such an operationalisation is indeed a
necessity to test this or that grammar teaching method. The problem, as I see it, is that the
conclusions drawn in terms of how well learners learn from a given grammar teaching method
very often leave the level of specific structures and move to the level of grammar instruction in
general, without much acknowledgement that the given grammar teaching method might have
received different results had the target structure been another.

On a more overall level, the fact that the studies do not explicitly consider how and why they
operationalise grammar means that there are no designations as to what counts as grammar in the
studies. In other words, existing L2 grammar instruction research to a large extent appears to
work from an implied understanding of what grammar is besides the particular structures aimed
at in specific studies. I find this to be unfortunate because the research thereby runs the risk of
becoming an insider business, and because clearly defined basic central concepts arguably
strengthens the conviction of the research, all other things being equal. In section 2.6, I describe
how I have defined grammar and grammar teaching in this thesis.33

Lastly, as described in the introduction to this review, the supplement I wish to make does not
look at learning, but at teaching in itself. It might be recalled how Norris & Ortega criticise the
lack of reporting on how the teaching actually takes place in many of the studies they review. My

33 Of the research reviewed in this literature review, Hedevang (2003) is the only one who provides explicit
definitions of grammar and grammar teaching. As will be evident in section 2.6, I draw on Hedevang's definitions,
among others, in stating my own understanding of the two.
argument for turning to focus on grammar teaching practices is that the actual teaching has been disregarded in existing L2 grammar instruction research to an extent which necessitates a distinct interest in understanding what happens in practice in order to be able to relate this to existing research. I thus find that a more thorough understanding of concrete teaching practices will qualify findings in the sense that it will oblige researchers to take the context into account in more detailed and reflexive ways. I now turn to include a couple of the researchers who have after all demonstrated a certain orientation towards practice, however in the sense that they have used L2 grammar instruction research to provide language pedagogical recommendations to L2 grammar teachers.

2.5 How to teach grammar then? Language pedagogical recommendations

As should be obvious from the above, research on grammar instruction is not able to point to any single best way to teach grammar. Yet, a central objective with the research is to provide language pedagogical recommendations to second – and foreign language teachers. This happens mostly on an overall level, as seen above, where FonF explicit is stated to be more effective than for example FonFS explicit. Some researchers, however, are more direct than others in providing these recommendations. And some are more specific and detailed in the kinds of recommendations they provide. In this section, I present two such direct ‘translations’ of research results into language pedagogical recommendations. First, Hedevang’s overall way of extracting recommendations from the research she reviews, and second, Ellis’ specific proposal of a way to conduct both communicative and form-focused language teaching. I include these two positions here in order for them to act as a kind of benchmark in the analyses of the relations between research, policy and practice. Importantly, however, I do not view them as a normative frame of reference, but simply as two different representatives of what research recommends so far. The proposals are research-based, but due to the inconsistencies in the field in terms of understanding of acquisition, operationalisation of variables etc., different proposals based on alternative theories are possible (Ellis, 2002:32).

2.5.1 Integrated grammar teaching, reflexivity and knowledge about L2 grammar instruction research

Hedevang (2003) stresses that the premise for her recommendations is an understanding of grammar teaching as supporting second language acquisition, not as being its primary source. Therefore, the grammar teaching she envisages is not exhaustive, but dependent on the competences and goals of the target group with regard to the L2 (58). Grounded in the reviewed research, she makes the argument that focus on form, comprehension-based teaching and teaching that invites errors followed by corrections appear to be more effective than focus on forms, production-based teaching and teaching which avoids errors and corrections (47). Referring to Pienemann’s developmental stages of acquisition34, Hedevang (2003:58) reminds her

34 Ortega (2009:138-139) describes how Pienemann from two quasi-experimental studies has formulated the teachability hypothesis which concerns learner readiness. The hypothesis argues that instruction is constrained by development and that language learners develop through stages, none of which can be skipped. Therefore, language
readers of the heterogeneity of classes. Corrections should therefore be matched with the
personalities of the learners and provided in a meaningful, communicative context (60).

Use of meta-language is, according to Hedevang, another useful way of directing learners’
attention towards their own language use. She states that “language-related episodes with
conscious reflexion on one’s own language production can be a source of language acquisition”
(62, my translation).\textsuperscript{35} Providing another kind of meta-level, namely by way of telling learners
about language acquisition, individual characteristics etc. and thereby helping them to discover,
use and develop their own learning strategies, is another beneficial means in grammar teaching.
In that way, Hedevang argues, learners are invited behind the scenes and get the possibility of
becoming agents in their own L2 acquisition (66).

Hence, adequate grammar teaching is according to Hedevang characterised by contextualisation,
progression, variation, knowledge about L2 acquisition and reasonable expectations to the effect
of the teaching (66). Hedevang states that language teachers must teach with a conscious
awareness of 1) how grammar teaching supposedly supports the language acquisition process, 2)
the influence of the mother tongue and other languages, 3) the existence of developmental
sequences, 4) individual characteristics and their influence, 5) the communicative needs of the
learners, 6) that L2 acquisition takes time and that learners will learn with different pace, and 7)
that the effect of grammar teaching will vary dependent on the target forms taught and often show
in the long term (70).

In relation to the focus in this thesis on teachers and their teaching, the above recommendations
call for an integrated and contextualised FonF grammar teaching, but also for reflexivity, both in
terms of how one goes about providing corrective feedback, and in terms of the level on which
one enables the pupils to reflect on their language learning. I assert that this all demands a
reasonable knowledge about L2 grammar instruction research – all Hedevang’s points above are
findings from this research field. I agree with Hedevang that teacher awareness of, insight into
and manoeuvring in accordance with that field is desirable, but the question is whether in practice
this is what is being done in the many different kinds of L2 classrooms all over the globe. What I
am hinting at here is the point that Hedevang’s language pedagogical recommendations are
research-based with little or no inclusion of the variety of empirical contexts in which L2
grammar teaching takes place in practice. In other words, the contact between research and
practice which Hedevang must envisage in providing language pedagogical recommendations in
the first place is dominated by one-way traffic. In my empirical investigation of three Danish
gymnasium teachers’ English grammar teaching practices one point of interest is thus to what
extent these teachers orient towards L2 grammar instruction research in their grammar teaching

\textsuperscript{35} The Danish version reads: “sprogrelaterede episoder med bevidst refleksion over egen sprogproduktion kan være
en kilde til sprogindlæring” (Hedevang, 2003:62).

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practices. At the same time, however, I also ask that question in order to pave the way for another point of interest: what can be learned when taking an opposite approach, looking from practice to research?

### 2.5.2 The parallel option: grammar separated from communicative tasks

Ellis’ language pedagogical recommendations are more radical than Hedevang’s in sense that he departs from the general interpretation of recent grammar instruction research which says that grammar and communicative language teaching should be integrated. Ellis (2002) acknowledges the need for both, but argues that the only way to ensure a systematic coverage of the grammar of the L2 is by means of a structural syllabus. Such a syllabus furthermore has the advantage of providing teachers and learners with a clear sense of progression, something which Ellis finds is lacking in a purely meaning-based curriculum. Yet, Ellis’ intention is not to return to the days of the traditional grammar instruction method. Rather, he proposes a curriculum which contains both a structural and a meaning-based syllabus.

The question then is how to relate those two components. Ellis states that there are two options. One is the integrated option, which can again be divided into a proactive approach and a reactive approach. The first consists of focused communicative tasks, whereas the latter involves error feedback, i.e. reactive feedback while learners’ primary attention is on message. Many studies have investigated the effects of these two approaches respectively. Ellis argues that because of the difficulties in designing proactive tasks and because learners tend to sidestep, sticking to what they know already, “integration is more likely to be achieved reactivity.” The second option is called the parallel option, in which code and message are seen as two entirely separate components and no attempt is made to integrate them. Ellis writes:

> In such a syllabus, the main component would consist of communicative tasks, designed to engage learners in the receptive and productive processes involved in using language to convey messages. A second, smaller component would consist of a list of grammatical structures to be systematically taught. There would be no attempt to create any links between the two components. The time allocated to the two components would vary according to the learners’ general level of proficiency.

Ellis’ more radical move is that he advocates the latter option, thereby arguing against what he himself somewhat ironically terms ‘good practice’ in language pedagogy. Ellis maintains that the integrated option is too difficult and not necessary and that “curriculum designers have hung themselves quite needlessly on the gallows of the integrated syllabus.” This is so because, from Ellis point of view, skill integration is up to the learners, not the teachers. Skill integration is

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36 In my analysis of the practice dimension and in the subsequent discussion, I address this point both from the video-recorded classroom data and from interviews with the three teachers.

37 Recall Norris & Ortega’s ranking of instructional treatment effectiveness, FonF explicit > FonFS explicit > FonF implicit > FonFS implicit, but also their note that there is equivalent overall instructional effectiveness for FonF and FonFS and that an explicit focus is more effective than an implicit one.
 achieved internally, in accordance with the learners’ built-in syllabuses and their particular learning goals (26).

Ellis’ reason for advocating the parallel approach can be found in his view on explicit vs. implicit knowledge and the role of grammar teaching all together. He states that the underlying question, when considering the teaching of grammar, for example the intensity of the instruction, is what the goal of that grammar instruction is. He states that from a behaviourist perspective, the goal is control and complete accuracy, whereas from a cognitive viewpoint, which is Ellis’ position, awareness of structures and of the gap between one’s own interlanguage rule and the target language rule is the immediate goal. Learners will then achieve “full control through their own resources in due time” (24). Grammar teaching should therefore favour awareness over performance,

the syllabus should be directed at developing learners’ conscious understanding of how particular code features work, not at ensuring that learners are able to perform them accurately and fluently. In more technical terms, this entails a syllabus directed at explicit rather than implicit knowledge of the L2 (26).

The point, then, is that explicit knowledge is important in order to acquire implicit knowledge in that it encourages noticing and noticing the gap. In this way, the two syllabuses are not mutually exclusive, but come to complement each other in that teachers can encourage learners to make use of their explicit knowledge to notice features in the communicative input (29).38

Hence, Ellis’ proposals are that teachers:

- Include a grammar component in the language curriculum, to be used alongside a communicative task-based component
- Only teach grammar to learners who have already developed a substantial lexical base and are able to engage in message-focused tasks, albeit with language that is grammatically incorrect.
- Teach grammar separately, making no attempt to integrate it with the task-based component (except, perhaps, methodologically through feedback)
- Focus on areas of grammar known to cause problems to learners.
- Teach grammar as awareness, focussing on helping learners develop explicit knowledge (31-32).

As stated, within the research community, Ellis’ favouring of the parallel option over the integrated option may be controversial. However, when relating outside, to actual contexts of grammar teaching as well as to political documents on the purpose of that teaching, I suggest that

38 Ellis (2002:30-31) provides a concrete suggestion of how to structure the grammar syllabus into a series of units which each consists of five activities: listening to comprehend, listening to notice, understanding the grammar point (discovery approach supplemented with a grammar reference section), checking (correcting, using explicit knowledge), trying it. This structure is designed to develop learners’ awareness of grammar and should then be complemented with task-based materials of a communicative nature.
his argument that awareness is the goal of grammar teaching, not performance, is a bigger challenge. Declared curricular goals in the given L2 teaching context must have a say in that prioritisation, one should think, thereby making it difficult to put forward such a general statement. Again, then, the language pedagogical recommendations provided go from research to practice without any direct acknowledgement of the various L2 grammar teaching contexts that would potentially attempt to adopt them. Whether or not Ellis’s recommendations here find resonance in the teaching plans and guidelines to teaching plans as well as in actual teaching practices is one of the focus points in my analyses of the relations between research, policy and practice.

2.6 Chapter summary: Formulating a research deficit – objecting against a one-sided cognitive-interactionist and quantitative-experimental approach to researching L2 grammar instruction

Having now presented the state of the art within existing SLA research on grammar instruction as well as the methods used, the recommendations given, and the points of critique raised, I turn to explicitly address the gap or research deficit that I see. I thereby begin the development of my approach to researching grammar instruction which has already been hinted at several times. It should be stressed that I further present my approach in part 3 of the thesis. In the present section, I provide an overall explanation of how and why my approach differs from the above. First, let me briefly pinpoint the main results of this review.

In terms of the content or conclusions of existing L2 grammar instruction research, the review shows that it has been established that L2 grammar instruction has a positive impact on the acquisition of that L2. Yet, there is still debate on how L2 grammar should be taught then. As purely communicative language teaching is not enough, and purely form-focused grammar teaching is not enough either, focus is now to a large extent on FonF vs. FonFS (integrated approach vs. parallel approach), as well as on how to most effectively employ sub-categories below these two, for example corrective feedback as one type of FonF. The research has furthermore resulted in recommendations to practice – however recommendations which are very varied.

With regard to the methodology and the methods used in existing L2 grammar instruction research, the review demonstrates that this research is cognitively oriented, focusing on intrapersonal learning processes. The research takes place as quantitative-experimental studies, either laboratory- or classroom-based, and it typically focuses on testing a specific teaching method, for example corrective feedback. Pre- and post-tests are employed to test the performance of different groups, sometimes including control groups. Focus is solely on the learning of grammar, and the research is reported in quantitative terms only. Existing L2 grammar instruction research has experienced some criticism in that lack of reporting and

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39 Ellis (2002:29) operates with two senses of awareness: learners can be made aware of input, i.e. they can be made to consciously ‘notice’, and learners can be made aware in the sense of forming an explicit representation of a target form, i.e. developing explicit knowledge. Ellis argues that his proposal attempts to induce both kinds of awareness.
inconsistency in the use of variables has made it difficult to replicate, accumulate and compare across studies. I have found that though seemingly more attention is being paid to the accumulative and comparative elements today, there is still no thorough reporting on the concrete interactional contexts in which the studies are conducted.

On the basis of these review findings, I argue that there are several steps which could be taken to qualify existing research further. Or, in other words, I see a gap or a research deficit in that existing L2 grammar instruction research does not have a qualitative focus on what actually happens in the classroom, just as there is no orientation towards the teacher and towards how his or her grammar teaching practices are co-constructed with the pupils in situ. Despite the fact that the studies tests the effects of instructional delivery on learners’ acquirement of L2 forms, attention is not being paid to the interaction between teacher and students which the instructional delivery must evolve into and which includes a number of multimodal elements that have an effect on how the teaching progresses. Furthermore, the studies often test one or more teaching methods which means that they are to a large extent dealing with not naturally occurring data. Finally, there is seldom a focus on the specific context of the given educational institution in which the study takes place.

I find that it is about time that L2 grammar instruction research widens its scope by deepening its orientation to the context-bound realities of actual grammar teaching practices. I therefore propose that existing research is supplemented with research that is focused on the socially situated, interactively and multimodally constructed elements of grammar teaching. Hence my decision to bring in respectively a policy dimension and a practice dimension in this thesis and to shift spotlight to teachers and the interpersonal aspects of grammar teaching.

In introducing his work on teachers’ knowledge about language, specifically about grammar, Borg (2005) writes:

> I soon became aware that apart from a few descriptive studies (e.g. Peck, 1988) hardly anything had been written about teachers’ actual grammar teaching practices and about the experiential, psychological, and contextual factors behind these. Most existing research on grammar teaching had focused on the learner and on learning outcomes, with little attention to what teachers do and why (325).

In this way, Borg leaves the traditional orientation towards L2 learners and their learning outcomes and turns to teachers and their grammar teaching practices. This is similar to the move I make in this thesis. In a classroom context, language learning and language teaching are inextricably linked; they are what Lightbown & Spada (2006:194) term twin processes. Yet, as seen above, most grammar instruction research consists in finding methods to increase learning and as such focuses on what teachers should do to ensure better learning, but not on what teachers actually do in real practice. Borg (2005) displays such an interest in teaching practices, but his main focus is on the factors behind these practices and thus still intrapersonal in the sense that he attempts to trace the teachers’ knowledge about language (what he abbreviates to KAL). In contrast to this, I am interested in the practices themselves and my focus is interpersonal, taking
point of departure in classroom interaction and conceptualising grammar teaching as a socially situated practice.

I thus depart from the traditional, i.e. cognitive-interactionist, quasi-experimental grammar instruction research which has been reviewed above in two senses: First, in relation to focus, I do not work with a specific operationalisation of grammar (for example past tense -ed) and nor with a specific operationalisation of grammar teaching (for example corrective feedback). Second, in relation to method, I do not do experimental, quasi-experimental, descriptive or other kinds of quantitative studies. Importantly, I do not intend to disqualify the traditional SLA research on grammar instruction all together. But I find that it can meaningfully be supplemented with a practice dimension in which the study is neither descriptive, experimental or quasi-experimental in relation to testing a specific grammar treatment design, but where focus is on existing grammar teaching practices in existing classrooms. I find that research can provide plenty of more or less experimental suggestions of how grammar teaching should be carried out, but these become less applicable if not coupled with the reality of teachers and pupils, i.e. if it is not taken into account that there are factors influencing that reality, both from outside (for example ministerial teaching plans and guides to the teaching plans) and from inside (the interaction and the things which become important in the actual teaching situation). In the following chapters, I describe in greater detail the analytically adequate conceptual framework that I have established and worked from in conducting my study. Here, however, a description of how I regard grammar and grammar teaching is in place; now that I have criticised exiting L2 grammar instruction research for not providing that.

2.6.1 Grammar

In presenting my understanding of grammar it has to be stressed that I have obviously taken point of departure in the grammar that is being taught in the observed classes, working with the video-recorded classroom data, coding it and selecting extracts for the exploration and analysis of English grammar teaching practices. However, this grammar teaching is not one that reflects upon underlying existential questions concerning the nature of grammar (and of language all together), but rather one which conceives of grammar as a set of specific rules that apply to communication in English. In my definition of grammar in this section, I briefly seek to incorporate both levels in order to make clear that my understanding of grammar is ultimately broader than the empirical scope appears to suggest.

Preisler (2009:84) defines grammar as “the structural organization through which the meanings of a language are communicated” and states that knowledge about this structure is central to understanding and explaining how meaning is generated (84). Likewise, Lindhardsen & Christensen (2006) state that “if the linguistic code is not mastered one simply lacks an apparatus with which one can encode one’s message and decode (understand) others’ message” (41, my translation 40). In an explicit L2 perspective, Hedevang (2003) states that grammar refers to “the

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40 The Danish version reads: ’Hvis man ikke behersker den sproglige kode, mangler man ganske enkelt et apparat, hvormed man kan indkode sit budskab og afkode (forstå) andres budskab’ (Lindhardsen & Christensen, 2006:41).
structure and forms of an L2. Structure is to be understood as the syntax of the L2; forms comprise both the morphology of verbs and nouns and grammatical categories such as articles and pronouns. In short, grammar concerns the code of the L2 on the sentence level as well as on the text level, in speech and in writing” (15, my translation). The synonyms for grammar and grammar teaching that have been shown in this chapter to be employed in existing L2 grammar instruction research also points to such a structure and/or form-oriented understanding of grammar: form-focused teaching, form-focused instruction, focus on form, focus on forms (see also Hedevang, 2003:18). The notion of grammar as the underlying system or code making it possible to use a given language for communicative purposes appears to be more or less agreed upon across different meta-theoretical approaches to language. What seem to be points of debate are on the one hand how to regard such underlying structures and forms and their existence, and on the other hand how far to extend their reach.

The distinction between a structural and a communicative understanding of language (for example Andersen, 2011), or between a formalistic and a functional approach (for example Hall, 2002) is well-known. The sociocultural and socio-interactional positions that have inspired this thesis take a functional approach to language and focus on language in use (Hall, 2002; Firth & Wagner, 1997; 2007). This opposes a formalistic approach to language, in which language is conceived of as “a set of abstract systems whose meanings reside in the forms themselves rather than in the uses to which they are put” (Hall, 2002:7), and in which context is therefore merely treated as a place from which to extract linguistic elements and not given attention in the analysis (7). Whereas linguistic resources in such a view are understood as fixed and invariant, a sociocultural perspective does not regard them as preceding their use, but as developing their shape in their locally situated uses in activity (9-10, drawing on Ochs & Schieffelin, 1995). Such an understanding of language has consequences for how grammar is viewed in that it is conceptualised along more flexible, open lines. Hopper (1998:164) talks about ‘emergent grammar’ and states:

rather than being the source of communication, language structures are more appropriately understood as by-products of it. It is through their frequent, routinized use in specific sociocultural contexts that the symbolic means by which we take action develop into a collection of largely prefabricated particulars, available for use in appropriate contexts and language games (as cited in Hall, 2002:10).

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41 The Danish version reads: "Ordet ‘grammatik’ […] henviser […] til et fremmedsprogs grammatik, nærmere betegnet til dets struktur og former. Struktur skal forstås som sprogets syntaks; til former regnes både verbens og substantivens morfologi og grammatiske kategorier såsom artikler og pronomener. Kort sagt handler grammatik om fremmedsprogets kode på sætningsniveau som på tekstinnelevel, i talen som i skriften” (Hedevang, 2003:15).

42 Carstensen (2009) states that there is no common, fixed research terminology when it comes to the concepts structure and form and that this furthermore shows that it is difficult to divide language into categories – a point to which Preisler (2009) agrees. As the synonyms suggest, some researchers conceive of form as an umbrella term which covers both forms and structures which are then seen in contrast to content or meaning (Carstensen, 2009).

43 The term ‘functional’ does not denote a specific kind of grammatical analysis here, but on a more overall level signals that it is not language per se, but the functions of language use as social action which is of interest in these positions.
Hopper and Hall thus do not discard the notion of language structures, but essentially discuss their coming into being and from there make the point that structures are not fixed. In drawing upon the sociocultural perspective, I align with this understanding of the emergence of grammar as a code though it is, as stated, not an issue which it touched upon in the analysis proper.

With regard to how far grammatical structures and form reach, i.e. what they should be taken to include, Hedevang in the quote above mentions syntax, morphology and word classes. Others view a definition which only includes syntax and morphology as expressing a traditional or outdated view of language and adds semantics, phonology, lexicon and pragmatics as major components of language to be described in and by grammar (Carstensen, 2009:17; Tomlin, 1994:143). Wagner (1997) takes a step back in contextualising different notions of grammar and stating that in its most abstract sense, grammar is a model of language; a meta-language which describes language. In this abstract sense, then, grammar is both a theory about and an analytical instrument to understand language per se (58). Wagner also describes how this model has traditionally covered syntax and morphology, and how more recently, phonetic/phonological, textual, pragmatic and coherence-related aspects have been included (58).

In principle, I agree that the L2 code has to be able to describe more than the sentence, and for example also include what it is adequate to say in specific situations. Yet, the scope of the grammar being taught in the five observed classes covers only syntax, morphology and word classes, and hence, this is also what is being looked at in my analysis of everyday grammar teaching practices. Spelling and vocabulary are for example also at times on the agenda in the five classes, but I have not considered it as part of the grammar teaching, because, first and foremost, the teachers did not appear to regard it as grammar. This is to be seen in that the teachers never talked with me about this being grammar, nor did they provide me with copies of the material they used for exercises on these topics in the way that they did with for example insertion tasks rehearsing adverbs vs. adjectives on the basis of an agreement between the teachers and I that they would give me copies of ‘the grammar that they worked on’. I have thus attempted to take an emic approach to what I should regard as grammar and grammar teaching in the video recordings, being fundamentally interested in actual classroom grammar teaching. However, engaging empirically and analytically with video recorded classroom episodes that have syntax, morphology or word classes as the pedagogical focus, which is what I have done, does not necessarily oppose a fundamentally more comprehensive approach to grammar in that in such an approach it is still possible to differentiate and single out focus points such as syntax, morphology etc.

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44 Hedevang’s (2003) way of moving beyond sentence level and include a text level in her definition is not a traditional trait.
45 Furthermore, in the ministerial guidelines on English teaching in the Danish gymnasium, grammar is listed as a core element next to e.g. phonetics, orthography, punctuation, idiomatic expressions, vocabulary, word formation, communication forms and communication strategies (see section 3.4). The ranking of these areas alongside each other suggests a less comprehensive understanding of grammar on the ministerial level as well. I comment on my empirical delimitation of grammar in chapter 6 as well.
When grammar as an abstract model or meta-language is employed to describe the structural organisation of a specific language, it is called “descriptive grammar” (Wagner, 1997:58). Again, there are many ways of approaching a description of the structural organisation of a language, and e.g. Hewings & Hewings (2005) operate with a continuum that ranges from formal to functional understandings of grammar and mention traditional grammar, generative grammar, systemic functional grammar, emergent grammar and pattern grammar. According to Wagner (1997:58), none of these are all-encompassing, and because some are good at describing specific aspects, and not others, they are often mixed in classroom grammar teaching. When descriptive grammars are reduced for use in L2 teaching they become prescriptive grammars providing information on how the L2 should be used (58). This is where the grammatical rules that I have observed to be at play in practice come in.

In contrast to such a prescriptive grammar, Wagner introduces the concept of mental grammar and stresses that there is not identity between the two (59). Whereas the prescriptive grammar is a pedagogical model employed to explain the system of the L2 to the students, the mental grammar consist of the cognitively based regularities which the students themselves draw upon when using the L2 (59). One’s mental grammar consists of both declarative knowledge (linguistic understanding) and procedural knowledge (linguistic production) (59). The two types of knowledge are not identical, but they are related, and much research today concerns the nature of this relation and how and with what aims the L2 teaching should consequently be designed, as described earlier in this chapter. Wagner’s point is that it is necessary, in the L2 teaching, to distinguish between the grammar being taught by the teacher and the grammar which the students should preferably construct mentally (60). As stated previously, this thesis does not focus on the learning of grammar, but on the teaching of it. It thereby does not consider whether or in what ways the students learn grammar from the teaching in class. Still, the distinction between prescriptive grammar and mental grammar is important not only because it nuances the concept of grammar, but also because it feeds into the definition of grammar teaching which I treat next.

### 2.6.2 Grammar teaching

In the review, I have already considered various L2 grammar instruction research-based recommendations as to how grammar teaching could best be designed to assist the students’ learning of the L2.\(^{46}\) Here, however, I provide a definition of grammar teaching which is broader and void of normative content because I want it to be able to include different kinds of organising grammar teaching empirically. An initial, very simple definition which does this is that grammar teaching is teaching in which focus is on a specific aspect of the L2 grammar, i.e. on how the L2 works (Hedevang, 2003:15). Such a definition includes all kinds of classroom organisation: teacher-centered, group work etc. However, since it is exactly teaching, it appears appropriate to add a pedagogical purpose to the definition, and this is where the distinction between prescriptive grammar and mental grammar comes in. Hedevang (2003:16, my

\(^{46}\) Adopting the terminology of the research field, I also use teaching and instruction synonymously in the thesis in order to avoid conceptual confusion when relating to research stances and findings.
translation) appears to operate with this distinction in her eventual definition of grammar teaching as “teaching which explicitly, but not necessarily exclusively, focuses on formal and/or structural traits of the L2 with the aim of developing the learner’s interlanguage in the direction of still more conformity with the L2”. Hedevang states that interlanguage is synonymous with mental grammar and defines it as:

the language system which the L2 learner constructs on the basis of the L2 input he or she is exposed to. An L2 learner’s interlanguage is seen as a natural language, being both structural (the L2 learner’s errors are not accidental) and dynamic (it develops over time). It contains characteristics from languages acquired earlier, first language and foreign language, and from the target language (13, my translation).

Carstensen (2009) also employs mental grammar and interlanguage interchangeably and lets her definition of grammar teaching include the development of it as the pedagogical aim (18-19). However, her definition differs from Hedevang’s in that Carstensen (2009) states that grammar teaching can be either explicit or implicit (18-19), whereas Hedevang (2003) in her definition above only orients towards teaching in which the student is explicitly made to pay attention to the code of the L2. In implicit grammar teaching, the student is not necessarily conscious about the grammatical focus as described in the review. I also define grammar teaching as teaching in which focus is either explicitly or implicitly on formal and/or structural traits of the L2. In the observed classes only very little of the grammar teaching takes place implicitly, and for reasons that I put forward in the analysis itself, I do not conduct a detailed analysis of that implicit grammar teaching in this thesis, but restrict my focus to the various ways in which explicit grammar teaching takes place in the classes. It is thus primarily explicit grammar teaching which is the analytical object in the thesis, but as suggested here, this does not mean that I do not regard more implicit attention to form as grammar teaching too.

I furthermore also agree with the pedagogical aim of having the students develop their knowledge of and ability to employ the L2 grammar in their own language production. This definition is broad enough to include more or less deductive, inductive, contrastive, functional, input-based or output-based grammar teaching situations that are more or less integrated in

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47 The Danish version reads: ”Grammatikundervisning betegner altså en undervisning, som eksplicit men ikke nødvendigvis udelukkende fokuserer på formelle og/eller strukturelle træk ved målsproget med henblik på udvikling af lærers intersprog i retning af stadig større lighed med dette” (Hedevang, 2003:16). Hedevang further states that other aims can be present in grammar teaching too, e.g. that the pupils acquire metalinguistic terms or knowledge about language acquisition (16).

48 The Danish version reads: ”det sprogsystem, lærer konstruerer på basis af det fremmedsproglige input, han eller hun udsættes for. En lærers intersprog betragtes som et naturligt sprog, værende både strukturligt (de fejl, lærer laver, er ikke tilfældige) og dynamisk (det udvikler sig over tid). Det indeholder såvel karakteristika fra tidligere tilægnede sprog, modersmål og fremmedsprog, og fra målsproget” (Hedevang, 2003:13).

49 The only implicit grammar teaching I have observed takes place as corrective feedback; sometimes the teachers employ explicit ways of making the pupil aware of an error, sometimes implicit. Corrective feedback is however only established as one mode of grammar teaching in the thesis and not treated further in multimodal, interactional analyses.

50 In chapter 4, I present and align with Seedhouse’s (2004) way of linking classroom interaction with a specific pedagogical purpose for it to be classroom interaction (i.e. teaching) and not any other kind of interaction simply happening to take place in a classroom.

PART TWO: RESEARCH AND POLICY ON L2 GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION – FRAMING PRACTICE

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communicative activities. Additionally, it covers various ways of pedagogically dealing with the grammatical content – e.g. presentation and explanation of rules, corrective feedback, different exercises, enhanced input – as well as various ways of combining these (Hedevang, 2003:17). No matter how the grammar teaching is designed, the common denominator is the focus on structure and/or form.

Having thereby settled on a delineation of grammar teaching, there is still one issue which I find it relevant and necessary to include to do justice to the work by Wagner drawn upon above and, with that, to further introduce the socio-interactional position which this thesis is inspired by. Wagner does not mention interlanguage as being synonymous with mental grammar, and whereas he, as described above, appears to accept the existence of a mental grammar inside the heads of language users, he has in other publications severely criticised the notion of interlanguage (Firth & Wagner, 1997; 2007). This is so because implied in the notion of interlanguage is the mainstream L2 grammar instruction research understanding of how language is learned as a cognitive process in which learners on the basis of comparisons between input and their own interlanguage create and test hypotheses and thereby eventually adds new and/or correct forms to their interlanguage. Carstensen (2009) describes the orientation towards interlanguage development as a modern approach to grammar teaching (18), and this is true within the frames of cognitive-interactionist L2 grammar instruction research as described in the review. Yet, from their sociocultural and socio-interactional positioning, Firth & Wagner (2007) conceive of language as a social phenomenon and of language learning as a social practice (3). On that basis they criticise the understanding of learning as in essence a context-neutral cognitive process and the view of ‘learners’ (Firth & Wagner prefer ‘users’) as “essentially engaged in a continuous, autonomous, cognitive, morphosyntactic struggle to traverse along the plane of their ‘interlanguage’” (12) towards still more native-like language use. In not being engaged with L2 learning, I do not go further into this debate here, but I want to stress that my conception of teaching is based on similar grounds, i.e. I approach actual classroom teaching as a social practice and focus on how it is interpersonally constructed by and between teachers and pupils as also described in the introductory chapter. With that I do not wish to repudiate that teachers also plan their lessons, have certain pedagogical aims and pre-established ideas of how things should be done. My point is simply that intended teaching does not necessarily equal actual teaching, and that it is time that we turn to engage with actual teaching practices to advance our knowledge of L2 grammar teaching.

The main purposes of the above review has therefore been to look into how research on L2 grammar instruction is traditionally carried out, what the generally accepted state of the art appears to be and what pedagogical advice it results in. This allows me to compare the ways that grammar teaching is actually carried out in the gymnasiums with that ‘wide acceptance’ and its advice. So I am not interested in asking: are the reviewed researchers right? (not focusing on learning I am not even able to pose that question), but how is it done in practice? The way that I look at grammar teaching is different in that I focus on how it is co-constructed in situated, multimodal interaction. In such a perspective, grammar teaching processes become closely intertwined with social processes and interpersonal relations. How tasks etc. are accomplished is
a matter of situated negotiation in which context plays a great part. Therefore, I argue, the point of departure should be taken in actual classroom interaction and not just in theoretical assumptions about how grammar instruction operates in practice, measured by the language use in pre- and post-tests only.

2.6.3 Two-way and both-and

In considering the limitations and future perspectives of the research she reviews, Hedevang (2003) states:

The fact that there is still much research to be done does not render existing research results less interesting or relevant. On the contrary, in the reviewed research there is both food for reflection and discussion as well as a challenge to the individual language teacher to let its – preliminary – results play a role in his or her teaching. One of the conditions for research to make progress is exactly that teachers take on such challenges (71, my translation).

By writing that research can only make progress if teachers let its results have influence on their teaching, Hedevang may be implicitly suggesting that we are dealing with a two-way process after all in which teachers do not just take research results to heart and implement them in their teaching, but in which they also deliver ‘new uncultivated land’ to the researchers, thereby exactly making research progress possible. However, Hedevang does not consider how such a delivery can take place, and in her reflections on future research needs she does not mention anything of the kind either.52 It is here, in this time warp between existing, more or less experimental research and future research that my thesis comes in, in that it emphasises looking at practice and at research, policy and practice in relation to each other. Such an approach might contribute to more varied future perspectives of research – exactly by informing it about practice.

It should be clear by now that my move from a cognitive-interactionist to a socio-interactional approach to researching grammar instruction is not, to me at least, a matter of either-or, but of both-and. I view the two as being able to complement each other and therefore this thesis is devoted to taking a socio-interactional approach to the research domain of L2 grammar instruction, as a way of providing a supplement to existing research. After all, to quote Harmer (2001:97), “What really matters, for teachers who wish to grow and develop as they teach (and for the students whom they work with), is that practices should be constantly scrutinised to see if they are working and why or why not”. Examining the effect of such (experimental) practices is one way of scrutinising them. Examining the (actual) practices themselves is another. And a third – and probably the one Harmer has in mind – is for teachers to scrutinise their practices

52 Hedevang’s considerations are much along the lines of Norris & Ortega’s in that she also calls for replication in operationalisation, for other types of outcome measures etc., thereby staying within the cognitive-interactionist, quantitative-experimental framework.
themselves. Traditional SLA research on grammar instruction works from the first way of scrutinising, whereas I work from the second and thereby also get some access to finding out whether the third is taking place, the point being that no one of these is probably better than the others and that they therefore supplement each other well.

In a paper on the ethical responsibilities of what she terms instructed SLA (research on L2 learning and teaching in education contexts), Ortega (2005) maintains her cognitive-interactionist and quantitative-experimental position, but seeks to make room for dialogue and diversity within the field by acknowledging both the existence of other meta-theoretical positions as well as the usefulness of their research. As such, she argues for the both-and approach as well in stating, “The time may have come for SLA researchers to acknowledge fully in our meta-reflections that the field is epistemologically diverse, and that it is an ethical and useful stance to embrace such diversity” (435). I hope to have ethically demonstrated with this chapter that there is a research deficit within existing research and I furthermore hope that this thesis will show that a divergent meta-theoretical approach can address that deficit in a useful way.

With the literature review, I have now set up one frame within which the present dissertation and its orientation towards interactional grammar teaching practices are to be understood. In the following chapter, I turn to the policy dimension in order to set up another frame for my work.
Chapter 3 Policy dimension: English grammar teaching in the Danish gymnasium – the official guidelines

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I continue the overall framing of my main focus on English grammar teaching practices in the Danish gymnasium. I.e. I lay out another dimension of the background on which this thesis and its orientation towards such practices should be read and understood. Whereas the previous chapter did this with regard to theory, I now turn to focus on policy, and specifically on the ministerial guidelines for the teaching of English in the Danish gymnasium. These guidelines consist of a teaching plan and a guide to the teaching plan.53 It should be stressed that I do not analyse the latest version of the guidelines, but instead the ones that were in play at the time when I did my case studies and therefore the ones that the teachers employed then, if any.54

The chapter discusses selected parts of the content of the teaching plan and the guide to the teaching plan in relation to the state-of-the-art picture of –and the theoretical recommendations on grammar instruction research presented in the literature review in the previous chapter. Thus, in terms of analysis, I approach the corpus with the research dimension in mind. This means that my intention with the policy dimension is to conduct a content analysis in which I investigate to what extent the ministerial guidelines draw on the theoretical discussions and recommendations on L2 grammar instruction.

As will be evident, I find that paradoxically none of the texts include explicit reflections on how grammar ought to be taught despite the fact that they place grammar as a core element of the subject English and furthermore treat other core elements in far greater detail. This paradox has led me to contact one of the contributors to the guidelines, Poul Tornøe, who has most kindly

53 The guidelines exist for both level A and level B in the Danish gymnasium. Here, I analyse level A only. The only difference between the two sets of guidelines is the level of difficulty, whereas the pedagogical principles, the core elements of the subject etc. are the same.

54 The new version of the teaching plan and the guide to the teaching plan are not fundamentally different from the version that I analyse here. And when it comes to the content that deals specifically with grammar, there are no changes at all.
agreed to give me insight into the ideas and working processes behind the documents and shared with me his personal reflections on the actual use of the guidelines as well as on the paradoxical role of grammar in the guidelines that my analysis reveals. In the course of the content analysis as well as in the discussion that concludes this chapter I include information from Tornøe to put my analysis into perspective. I am aware that Tornøe is of course only one voice with regard to how the ministerial guidelines are being considered. Therefore it should be stressed that incorporating him here is exactly only a way of adding insider perspective to the content analysis, but obviously other members of the committee could hold other perspectives. The content analysis, then, is my own interpretation and essentially what I carry with me to the discussion in part five of the thesis.

In the discussion I furthermore include guideline findings from a recent study of language teaching in German and French (Andersen & Blach, 2010, also reported in Andersen & Fernández, 2010) as another way of putting the content analysis of the guidelines to the gymnasium language teaching of English into perspective. As will be shown, there are considerable differences in how much the guidelines include when it comes to the teaching of grammar.

The chapter is structured so that I first, in sections 3.2 and 3.3 respectively, consider the status and the structure of the two texts. I then, in section 3.4, go through the relevant content in the teaching plan and subsequently relate it to the research dimension, i.e. to the findings in the literature review conducted in the previous chapter. In section 3.5, I consider the relevant content in the guide to the teaching plan and concomitantly discuss it in relation to the teaching plan and the research dimension. Eventually, in section 3.6, I summarise my content analysis, provide a critical discussion of the results and reflect on the possible consequences of the (lack of) content in the guidelines in terms of their actual applicability.

3.2 The status of the two texts

Before embarking on the analysis of the relations between the dimensions of research and policy of English grammar teaching, a few words on the texts which constitute the policy dimension are in place. There are two kinds of texts which are both produced by the Danish Ministry of Education and which are closely related. One text is the teaching plan (TP) for Engelsk A which exists as an appendix to the executive order on gymnasium education. This means that the teaching plan is binding for the teaching and for the exams. This text covers 3 pages, it is short and declarative and often listed in points. The other text is a guide to the teaching plan (GTP). It

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55 I met Poul Tornøe at an English seminar in August 2009. The seminar was arranged for all university teachers of English located at Danish universities. Tornøe has both been a coordinator of the pre- and in-service training of gymnasium teachers of English (taking place at university level) and himself taught at gymnasium level. He has specialised in the language proficiency parts of the subject English and has published several gymnasium text books on English grammar and related subjects. Tornøe was invited to give a talk about the gymnasium reform and its influence on the subject English as well as on the new pupils’ competences in English. Since then we have communicated via e-mail. I therefore have Tornøe’s answers to my many questions in writing and will refer to these e-mails here. We communicate in Danish and the translation into English is carried out by me. Tornøe has read and agreed to all uses of his information before the printing of this thesis.
covers 39 pages and is presented as “elaborative and explanatory comments to the individual points of the teaching plan” and as “one of the ministry’s contributions to professional and pedagogical change” (GTP 2008:1). Therefore, according to the introduction of the guide, it is revised in accordance with professional and pedagogical development. Any changes are made once a year. (GTP 2008:1). As such, the guide is not a decree, but is rather intended as a description of best practice.

The documents have each been written by a council selected by the consultant in English in the gymnasium, who is appointed by the Ministry of Education. The councils consisted of four people beside the consultant her/himself who chaired the councils (P. Tornøe, personal communication, October 14, 2009). The selections were made so that the groups included representatives from both gymnasium and university level (Austin, 2004). The work with the teaching plan took point of departure in a range of basis documents as well as previous practice (P. Tornøe, personal communication, October 14, 2009). The working process was to a large extent practice-based and continuity-oriented (ibid.). The council met several times, and between the meetings they circulated drafts for the various sections (ibid.). The council also held orientation meetings with gymnasium teachers and incorporated the feedback from these meetings into their following work, just as a specific feedback group was formed, whose input was also included in the work (ibid.).

### 3.3 The structure of the two texts

The teaching plan is divided into four overall topics: Identity and objectives, Goals and contents, Didactic principles, and Evaluation. These are then divided into sub-topics. The guide follows the same overall classification, but not in the same order, as it begins with Goals and contents and then has Evaluation, Planning, Identity and objectives, and finally Appendices. As stated, the guide is meant to elaborate on and explain points in the teaching plan. Where the teaching plan has actual content, the guide therefore has a further sub-level, which places the actual content of the teaching plan within different categories. For instance, in the teaching plan, under Goals and contents, one sub-topic is Core elements of the subject. These are listed in points (grammar, communication forms and strategies, concepts for text analysis, important linguistic, historical, cultural and societal conditions in Great Britain and the United States, etc.). In the guide to the teaching plan, the sub-topic ‘Core elements’ is divided into three sub-sub-categories: Language and communication, Texts, and Culture, history and society in the English speaking world. Each of these categories then includes some of the core elements and explains what is understood by the core element, what the pupils are meant to learn, and in some cases examples of varying specificity. As such, the elaborative and explanatory part of the guide apparently consists in

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56 All direct and indirect references to the TP and the GTP have been translated from the Danish version by me. Please find the Danish version of the TP in Appendix 2. The GTP is available online on: [http://www.uvm.dk/~media/Files/Udd/Gym/PDF08/Vejledninger/stx/080701_engelsk_A_stx_vejledning.ashx](http://www.uvm.dk/~media/Files/Udd/Gym/PDF08/Vejledninger/stx/080701_engelsk_A_stx_vejledning.ashx)

57 The teaching plan was written first (begun in 2004) and had the then consultant as chair. When the work on the guide to the teaching plan was begun in 2005, a new consultant had taken over. The two groups included some of the same people, but there was not 100 % overlap (P. Tornøe, personal communication, October 14, 2009).

58 Article by the first consultant, printed in Anglofiles, which is the English teachers’ own magazine.
inserting a specialist level as a kind of intermediate, explaining why the teaching plan lists the elements that it does. This also means that in terms of analytically comparing theoretical and political recommendations and finding out to what extent the policy dimension is informed by the research dimension, there is most usable material in the guide to the teaching plan because the argumentation behind the specific choices is (presumably) to be found here.

3.4 The teaching plan
I first provide a selective presentation of the teaching plan, in that I depict the content which is related to linguistic abilities and to grammar in particular.

3.4.1 Goals and content - Goals
In the teaching plan it says that English is a subject of skills, knowledge and culture (TP, 2008:1). In relation to being a subject of skills, the objective with the teaching is that the pupils through working with English achieve the ability to understand and apply the English language, thereby being able to navigate and act within a globalised world (TP, 2008:1). Translated into Goals, this means – again when looking at the linguistic side only – that the pupils should be able to (TP, 2008:1):

- understand relatively complex oral and written English
- read English texts aloud in a meaningful way
- master a varied vocabulary which makes it possible to participate freely in conversation and discussion in English
- analyse and describe the English language grammatically and stylistically, using relevant terminology
- make use of appropriate language learning strategies

The core elements are therefore, among others (TP, 2008:1):

- the grammar, phonetics, orthography and punctuation of the English language
- idiomatic expressions, vocabulary and word formation
- communication forms and communication strategies

3.4.2 Planning – Didactic principles
In terms of Planning and Didactic principles, the teaching plan states that the teaching should alternate between being inductive and deductive. Furthermore, the work with language, text and culture should be integrated so that the pupils experience a clear connection between the mode of expression, the material studied and the communicative situation. Listening-, reading-, and communication strategies should be employed, and the pupils’ own language production, both written and oral, should have high priority. Teaching in foreign language acquisition should be adjusted to the pupils’ progression, and the working language be English, predominantly (TP, 2008:2).
3.4.3 Planning – Classroom activities and IT
Two other sub-topics under Planning are Classroom activities and IT. With regard to Classroom activities, the teaching plan says that teaching and classroom activities which are primarily teacher led should gradually be replaced by methods which provide the pupils with more independence and responsibility. Classroom activities should fit the goals and the written and oral work be varied in order for the pupils to develop a nuanced and flexible ability to communicate both orally and in writing. Written work should be aimed at supporting both the pupils’ work on texts and topics and their language acquisition. At the same time written work should also constitute a self-contained discipline and be planned so that “the pupils develop ability to control the English language system in free written composition and to express themselves in a clear and nuanced way in correct English” (TP, 2008:2). With regard to IT, the teaching plan states that it should be used as a tool to support textual work and also “the work done on the proficiency side of language acquisition” (TP, 2008:2).

3.4.4 Evaluation
Under Evaluation, the teaching plan says that screening and other individual tests should be made regularly, just as the pupils should do self-evaluative tests to assess their own knowledge increment (TP, 2008:2). In terms of exams, there are a written and an oral one. Among other things, the written exam emphasises mastery of the English language, just as the oral exam among other things emphasises fluent and correct English (TP, 2008:2-3).

3.4.5 Sum-up on the teaching plan and relating to the research dimension
All together, the teaching plan gives the impression that on the linguistic side of English as a subject, the main objective is that the pupils learn to use the English language fluently and correctly, both in writing and orally. The teaching plan does not describe how exactly the specific core elements (for example grammar) should be taught to ensure that this objective is met. What it says, however, is that teaching should be both inductive and deductive, that it should change in accordance with the pupils’ progression, and that language, text and culture work should be integrated. Furthermore, the pupils’ own language production has high priority, and written work should function both as a support and as a self-contained discipline. Finally, IT should play a role in the linguistic work.

Condensed in this way, a few comparisons with the research dimensions are possible. First of all, the teaching plan appears to recognise the importance of grammar in relation to becoming confident English language users. In the review, it was shown how, among others, de Bot et al. (2005) state that communicative practice alone is not sufficient to help learners become either completely proficient or accurate in the second language. However, besides in Core elements, the teaching plan contains no explicit mentioning of grammar or grammar teaching. Rather, focus generally seems to be on integrated teaching via varied methods (inductive and deductive) that take the pupils’ progression into consideration. From the review, it might be recalled how integrated grammar teaching is often equalled with focus on form (FonF), in which linguistic aspects are included in communicative teaching in an unobtrusive way, typically via various forms
of feedback. However, because of the lack of explicit statements it remains unclear whether it is this kind of integrated teaching that is meant. In section 3.5, I look into the guide to the teaching plan to discover whether it is more elucidating on this matter.

The terms inductive and deductive cannot be recalled from the review, as SLA terminology appears to favour explicit vs. implicit teaching instead. It should be said that the inductive vs. deductive teaching goes for the English subject as a whole in the teaching plan, whereas explicit vs. implicit teaching, as it is employed in SLA literature, has to do with the way in which the teacher makes the students focus on grammatical target structures. Furthermore, I am not to say that deductive grammar teaching is the same as explicit grammar teaching, and inductive the same as implicit grammar teaching. The point here is that both types are advocated and not seen as mutually exclusive, just as it is the case with explicit vs. implicit teaching in much SLA literature, as the review showed.\textsuperscript{59}

In terms of emphasising the pupils’ own language production, both written and oral, the teaching plan might be said to recognise the role of output, which, as seen in the review, Nassaji & Fotos (2004), among others, stress the importance of, along with input. With regard to written work and the way that it is described in the teaching plan as both a support and a self-contained discipline, this might give the impression that it should be used both in connection with the teaching of other things and taught independently. And this again might remind us of Ellis’ (2002) proposal of the parallel approach in which grammar is taught independently from its own structural syllabus and also as feedback in the co-existing communicative syllabus. However, the teaching plan talks about written work only, without specifying what is meant by that more precisely. Again, then, the conclusion is that there is no specific mentioning of how grammar should be taught, despite its central place in Core elements. I now turn to the guide to the teaching plan in order to investigate whether it elaborates on the issues touched upon above.

\textbf{3.5 The guide to the teaching plan}

\textbf{3.5.1 Goals and contents – Goals}

The first part of the guide is called Goals and contents and it comprises, as in the teaching plan, among other things Goals and Core elements. As stated above, a kind of specialist level has been added to the guide in comparison with the teaching plan in that it explains why the teaching plan lists the concrete elements that it does. On this specialist level, the Goals section has five topics, three of which are relevant to the analysis here. They read: Receptive and productive language proficiency, Language description competence, and Learning competence.

\textsuperscript{59} Furthermore, as presented in the literature review, e.g. FonF can be both deductive or inductive and explicit or implicit.
3.5.2 Goals and contents – Goals – Receptive and productive language proficiency

In connection with Receptive and productive language proficiency, the guide states that language proficiency comprises the four ‘basic competences’: listening, reading, speaking and writing as well as combinations of these such as reading aloud or the so-called interaction competences conversation and discussion (GTP, 2008:3). The guide states that these competences in language use must be understood as being correlated. At the same time, both “individually and together they are based on the mastery of the language structure (the language system) consisting of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary” (GTP, 2008:3).

In this way, the guide mentions what competences must be learned, and by stating that they are based on ‘the language structure’, it furthermore indicates that learning the components of this structure, grammar being one of them, is necessary for acquiring the competences in language use. As such, it appears that the underlying understanding of language, on which both the teaching plan and the guide are based, is an inclusive and functional one in that it is recognized that learning a language is a matter of acquiring the competences needed to use the language, and in that it is simultaneously acknowledged that acquiring these competences requires structural knowledge of the language. Hence, the guide appears to provide an explanation of why communicative language teaching alone is not enough for the pupils to acquire English. However, at this point, the guide does not go further into how English should be taught in order to meet these demands.

3.5.3 Goals and contents – Goals – Language description competence

The guide becomes a little more specific in connection with the topic Language description competence. Here, the guide states that “besides receptive and productive language proficiency, it is demanded that pupils are capable of analysing and describing the English language grammatically and stylistically” (GTP, 2008:5). “This requires”, the guide continues, “a description apparatus in the form of relevant terminology. Among other things, this concerns the prevailing terms for clause constituents and word classes as well as different types of grammatical constructions, but it can also be concepts from phonetics, semantics, pragmatics etc.” (GTP, 2008:5).

Thus, what is more specific here is the demand that pupils should furthermore be able to analyse and describe English grammatically and use relevant terminology to do so. Yet, much decision-work seems to be left with the teachers, which is obvious from the ‘can also be’. Apparently, the guide does not operate with a fixed notion of what terminology is essentially necessary to analyse and describe English grammatically, and nor are there in this section any considerations as to how grammar should be taught in order to fulfill the demands. The only teacher- or teaching-

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60 As I will comment upon later, Tornøe states that the council has to some extent adopted the competence perspective presented in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. However, that framework nominates the linguistic competences slightly differently, operating with reading, writing, listening, conversing/discussing, presenting competences (Council of Europe, 2001; Andersen & Fernández, 2010:7).
oriented element in this paragraph of the guide is that the English teachers should, in cooperation with all language teachers at the school, decide upon the linguistic concepts to be used at the school in general (GTP, 2008:5) – a sign of the relative openness of the guide.

3.5.4 Goals and contents – Goals – Learning competence

In the teaching plan it is demanded that the pupils should be able to apply appropriate language learning strategies. In the guide, these language learning strategies are defined as "an umbrella term for the working practices and techniques that a pupil applies to acquire the language" (GTP, 2008:6). What follows this definition in the guide is an example box – a marked textbox whose headline reads 'Example: language learning strategies', and whose body has the following content:

Sensible use of handbooks is one element in efficient language learning. Other elements are e.g. working purposefully with vocabulary, being able to listen and imitate, correcting one’s own grammatical mistakes in oral communication, working systematically with rewriting and revision of one’s own written products, applying portfolio to evaluate one’s own linguistic competences, daring to test hypotheses of language, comparing with other languages etc. (GTP, 2008:6).

The guide then goes on to another topic. As such, it provides no explanation of how the pupil should become conscious of applying appropriate language learning strategies. Recalling from the review Hedevang’s (2003) finding that teaching language learning strategies based on knowledge about L2 acquisition should be part of adequate grammar teaching, it can be suggested that the guide appears to comply with a theoretical recommendation of this kind in mentioning language learning strategies in the first place. In the review, Hedevang was also quoted for saying that language-related episodes with conscious reflection on one’s own language production can be a source of language acquisition. Working with portfolios to evaluate one’s own linguistic competences – one of the examples in the example box – can be seen as one way to conscious reflection. Again, then, the guide appears to be theoretically informed with regard to language learning strategies.

Another theoretical notion might be said to implicitly resonate under Learning competence, where, as shown above, the guide views ‘daring to test hypotheses of language’ as another language learning strategy. This view indicates that the ministerial understanding of the language learning process is similar to the traditional SLA understanding in which the process is seen as being fundamentally cognitive, taking place through, among other things, hypothesis testing. The guide touches upon this later, and I return to it below.

3.5.5 Goals and contents – Core elements – Language and communication

As already stated, the inserted ‘specialist level’ under Core elements is divided into three areas, one of them being Language and communication. The guide states that the linguistic core elements consist “both of language understood as a coherent system (the language structure) and of applied language (language use)” (GTP, 2008:7). It goes on to argue that by working with the
linguistic core elements, the pupils will be able to describe language grammatically and stylistically, to which it adds, “This means that it is not sufficient that the pupils master e.g. grammatical rules in practice, they must also be able to explain the rules” (GTP, 2008:8). Recalling Ellis’ (2002) argument that the goal of grammar teaching should first and foremost be awareness (which according to Ellis leads to and makes use of explicit knowledge) and not use (which to Ellis is indicative of implicit knowledge), a clear point of discrepancy between research and policy emerges here. In Ellis’ understanding, the pupils’ awareness of grammar will in due time lead to correct use of it. The claim appears to be directly opposite in the guide. Here, using the rules in practice is apparently seen as coming before being able to explain them, c.f. the quote above. To cite Ellis once again, he argues that grammar teaching should favour awareness over performance:

the syllabus should be directed at developing learners’ conscious understanding of how particular code features work, not at ensuring that learners are able to perform them accurately and fluently. In more technical terms, this entails a syllabus directed at explicit rather than implicit knowledge of the L2 (26).

The question is whether ‘learners’ conscious understanding of how particular code features work’ (i.e. ‘awareness’) is the same as being able to explain those code features. If this is so, the guide seems to favour performance and awareness equally in stating that the pupils should be able to do both. If it is not the same and explanation comes after both awareness and performance, then the guide appears to ignore the level of awareness fully, thereby coming to signal a probably unintended behaviourist attitude. Recall how Ellis states that from a behaviourist perspective, the goal of grammar teaching is control and complete accuracy, whereas from a cognitive viewpoint, awareness of structures and of the gap between one’s own interlanguage rule and the target language rule is the immediate goal (see section 2.5).

It is hard to tell here which position the guide actually takes, but that it is different from Ellis’ theoretical recommendations is evident. Had the guide elaborated on how grammar teaching should be taught in order to achieve the demands, it would probably have been possible to pinpoint the point of discrepancy precisely. But what happens in this section on linguistic core elements is that the guide goes on to provide elaborations on work with phonetics, idiomatic expressions, word formation, text composition, communication strategies and –forms, standard language and language variety, as well as English as the language of international communication. Strikingly, then, grammar appears to be the only linguistic core element which is not further elaborated in the guide’s treatment of core elements.

Questioned about why this is so, Tornøe acknowledges that there are important issues with regard to grammar teaching that the guidelines do not touch upon (P. Tornøe, personal communication, October 10, 2009 and December 30, 2010). He lists several possible reasons for this, but also stresses that there are probably other reasons as well (P. Tornøe, personal communication, December 30, 2010). Tornøe’s first – and very essential – reason is that the GTP text is not governed by a research-based agenda and therefore does not necessarily address the
questions that research within the field deals with. Another reason is, according to Tornøe, that previous practice with regard to grammar teaching has been considered to be okay. Grammar has always been a core element in the subject English, and many teachers have felt that they were competent within that area. Thirdly, grammar has not received the same amount of attention by the frontrunners of the subject as for instance vocabulary training, different literary, cultural and social topics, media subjects etc. Grammar is, in Tornøe’s word, unsexy (P. Tornøe, personal communication, December 30, 2010). These reasons offer good explanations as to why the guide contains so little on grammar and grammar teaching. Yet, it does not change the fact that the guide is actually not much of a guide on this particular topic and this might have consequences for the English teachers’ actual use of the guide. I return to the use of the guide in the last section in this chapter as well as in the discussion in chapter 8.

3.5.6 Evaluation – Exam forms – Written exam
Under Evaluation one point is of interest in relation to the analysis here, and this point has to do with the written exam. This exam consists of two sub assignments, a 1-hour exam without access to dictionaries, other reference works, style guides etc., directly followed by a 4-hour exam with resources. The guide states:

The bipartite exam model is meant to strengthen the linguistic and analytical skills: In the sub assignment without resources, the examinees have the possibility of demonstrating their linguistic active knowledge, and in the sub assignment with all relevant resources, the examinees’ ability to express themselves in English is, among other things, examined (GTP, 2008:19).

What is interesting here is the notion ‘linguistic active knowledge’ which is a term that cannot be directly recalled from the review. In relation to the two knowledge types which can be recalled, namely those of explicit and implicit knowledge, active knowledge appears to sit uneasily between the two. On the one hand, the very name, active, is indicative of everyday, much used, practical knowledge which could be said to be reminiscent of implicit knowledge (or the interlanguage as it is and is used). On the other hand, the 1-hour, no resources sub assignment could be said to cater for explicit knowledge in that the pupils are meant to provide and describe grammar rules. Whether the term active knowledge is meant to cover both explicit and implicit knowledge, or whether these have not been oriented to at all, is impossible to say from the short description in the guide. Hence, at this place, the guide does not appear theoretically informed in any thorough way.

3.5.7 Planning – Didactic principles – Written work – Integration
The guide repeats the demands of the teaching plan that the written work is organised so that it is both integrated with text- and topic work and is also practiced as an individual discipline. The guide states that the intention with the latter demand is to ensure that a suitable progression in the written work is achieved and to avoid that it is given a secondary role compared to the other elements of the subject (GTP, 2008:25). The guide then provides another example box, but this box considers integration only. In the box it says:
The demand for integration is based on the assumption that learning in general and language acquisition in particular is enhanced when it takes place in a meaningful context; that it has a motivating effect on the pupils when that context exists; and that the different elements of the subject inspire each other mutually when they are being brought together (GTP, 2008:25).

Considering Norris & Ortega’s (2000) evaluative framework, it could be argued that the kind of language teaching that is being implicitly advocated here is focus on form (FoF) with the stress on meaningful context and integration. However, since the guide does not directly talk about grammar here, but about written work, the relation to the theoretical recommendations remains unclear. The example box continues with practical examples of integration and then moves on to another topic. Hence, the guide provides no examples on how written work could be approached as an independent discipline. This is noteworthy as the guide has just stated that reducing written work to a secondary role should be avoided. And that such an avoidance takes specific focus on the written work per se. Furthermore, in relation to the lack of orientation to grammar teaching in both teaching plan and guide, one would perhaps have expected independent work with the written element of the subject to be a place where grammar could have come in. That would also have made it clearer whether the guide adheres to Ellis’ (2002) parallel approach or not. As it is, the integrative approach appears to be implicitly favoured since the guide does not single out any explanation of how grammar teaching should take place, but talks in general integration terms.

Turning again towards the information provided by Tornøe it is interesting to observe that, as stated above, previous practice with regard to grammar teaching has been considered okay. Implicit in this view is the assumption that the teachers already know how to teach grammar, and this might explain why the guide is so vague when it comes to explicit statements and to taking a stance on the preferred type of grammar teaching. Tornøe describes previous practice as being somewhat restricted by the prevailing text books and as consisting of a little grammar in each lesson, separated from the other English activities. The teaching typically consists of a presentation of rules (in Danish), followed by insertion tasks or translation tasks, and the decision of which grammatical topics to work with is often based on the errors made by the pupils in their written assignments (P. Tornøe, personal communication, December 30, 2010).

3.5.8 Planning – Classroom activities – Inductive and deductive cases

Turning to classroom activities, the guide emphasises that inductive and deductive teaching principles are not only useful in different cases, but can also interact within a single case (GTP, 2008:26). An example box on the elements of case planning is then provided. Of relevance here is the final sentence in the example box which states that particularly in the linguistic disciplines, the inductive principle can be applied as a method for increasing linguistic observation from the beginning of a case (GTP, 2008:27). In relation to the theoretical concepts of explicit vs. implicit teaching, what appears to be argued for here is implicit teaching where the pupils themselves find their way to grammar rules. As stated in the section 3.4, one cannot expect that there exists a

61 This overall way of teaching grammar is also to a large extent what I have observed in the case studies. However, there is much more to it, as will be shown in the analysis in chapter 7.
one-to-one relationship between inductive teaching principles and implicit grammar teaching. But here, where linguistic observation is directly mentioned, I find that it is possible to talk about a plausible connection. Yet, as the guide at the same time advocates interaction between deductive and inductive principles, its view on grammar teaching still remains uncertain.

3.5.9 Appendices – Appendix 2, About progression – Progression in classroom activities

As a peculiar kind of inverted clarification, the appendices to the guide appear to be more clarifying and practically oriented than the guide itself. Appendix 2 deals with the demand for progression, one element being progression in classroom activities. Here, as might be recalled from the teaching plan, teaching and classroom activities which are primarily teacher based should be replaced by classroom activities which provide the pupils with more independency and responsibility. The appendix states that this progression is ensured through inclusion of a wide range of classroom activities: teacher lectures, pupil presentations, individual work, pair work, class discussions, group work and project work (GTP, 2008:32). Importantly, this variety goes for the subject of English as a whole, not for any of its elements in particular. Thereby it does not provide any specificity with regard to grammar teaching either. What it does provide, however, is a general notion of progression and variation. As was presented in the review, Hedevang (2003) views exactly progression and variation as two elements of adequate grammar teaching, and though there is no orientation to grammar teaching per se in the guide, at least it appears to establish the general conditions for adequate grammar teaching to take place with its description of different classroom activities here.

3.5.10 Appendices – Appendix 4, Oral proficiency – Pupil activating classroom activities

As seen above, the guide focuses on written work in itself, but it does not do so in relation to grammar teaching. With regard to oral work, the guide, among other things, has an appendix which appears to make use of theoretical recommendations. The appendix reads:

Oral proficiency is enhanced when used. To be able to use the language in a spontaneous, nuanced and precise way, the pupils must achieve a high degree of automatisation so that their mental focus is placed on the content side. This automatisation can be achieved by intensive language use. It is therefore important that the pupils are provided with as much speaking time as possible (GTP, 2008:35).

The appendix then stresses the importance of giving the pupils time to reflect after posing questions as well as it considers pupil-centered classroom activities. For instance, it states that listening exercises of various kinds (news clips, interviews, songs, readings) will often initiate the pupils’ own oral language production. In this way, the guide here appears to acknowledge the theoretical finding that learners need opportunities to both encounter and produce structures for L2 acquisition to take place. In the quote, focus is on output, to apply the theoretical terms from the review, and on how enough output will lead to improved interlanguage, or to implicit knowledge. Thus, this can be seen as a more or less direct connection to theoretical findings, and furthermore, the appendix is very concrete in its suggestions for practical implementation.
3.5.11 Appendices – Appendix 4, Oral proficiency – Feedback

Another oral proficiency element which is considered in the appendix is feedback. Here again, a connection to theoretical findings emerges. The appendix reads:

Errors are unavoidable in foreign language communication. In spoken language, which is characterised as coming into being here and now in dialogue with others, and in which focus is on content rather than form, errors will be frequent. It is important that the pupils’ oral language is corrected but it has to be done unobtrusively so that their line of thought and their motivation to continue speaking are not being disturbed by a flow of trifle corrections. One has to be aware that errors in pupil language are often a manifestation of hypothesis testing. The observant listener will therefore gain valuable knowledge about how far the individual pupil’s linguistic development has come. In general, it is recommended to focus on correcting misleading and characteristic errors (GTP, 2008:37).

Several theoretical findings are implied here. First of all, the notion that errors are part and parcel of L2 acquisition. Here, the orientation to hypothesis testing is visible again, indicating the understanding of L2 acquisition as being fundamentally a cognitive phenomenon. Second, the suggestion that errors have to be corrected via feedback in order for the pupils to learn. And furthermore, that the feedback should be given in a careful and unobtrusive way and not be complete in terms of correcting all errors. As such, relating this to Norris & Ortega’s (2000) evaluative framework, the teaching which is recommended here is FonF. However, the guide does not allow me to say anything about whether it is FonF based on implicit instruction or explicit instruction or both. In other words, the reader is not told what kind of feedback is envisaged – is it e.g. metalinguistic feedback or recasts or something else? What is stated is that the pupils’ line of thought and engagement should not be disturbed by a flow of trifle corrections. Whether the guide finds that explicit orientation to grammar rules is the same as trifle corrections which drain the pupils, or whether it finds that implicit orientation to grammar rules is really capable of sustaining the pupils’ line of thought and engagement is impossible to tell as the guide is not being specific on these matters.

3.6 Chapter summary and discussion

Having now gone through both the teaching plan and the guide to the teaching plan, I can repeat that it appears paradoxical that both texts treat grammar as a core element but do not provide any explicit suggestions as to its teaching when they, especially the guide, do so with regard to a range of other elements. Because of this lack of explicit statements, I have in the analysis tried to deduce what is (perhaps) being said implicitly in the texts. Here, I have compared (but not equalled) the text terms inductive vs. deductive teaching with explicit vs. implicit (grammar) teaching as these are used theoretically. I have also discerned that the role which research gives output in the acquisition is apparently acknowledged in the texts. I have furthermore found that it is not clearly described whether it is preferred that grammar teaching should be integrated completely into the other English teaching taking place, or whether it should be kept partly
separated. As was shown in the literature review, these are two different positions in the theoretical debate on L2 grammar instruction. Additionally, I believe that I can spot an inclusive and functional approach to language in the description of how learning a language means acquiring the competences needed to *use* the language, and that this acquisition at the same time necessitates *structural knowledge* about the language. The texts moreover state that in order to be able to describe the English language grammatically and stylistically, a relevant terminology is needed, but in the description of what such a terminology should then include, there is again a marked openness / vagueness. Similarly, the guide to the teaching plan seems to recognize the research-based argument that pupils have to become aware of their use of appropriate language learning strategies – there is just no explanation of *how* the pupils are to achieve this awareness. Finally, it is intriguing that there are no arguments behind the decision that the pupils now have to be able to both apply and describe grammatical rules at the exam – also seen in relation to theoretical discussions about performance and awareness.

This long recital clearly demonstrates how difficult it is to reach any conclusions as to how the guidelines envisage English grammar teaching as well as to how informed they actually are by research on L2 grammar instruction because so little is being said directly about grammar and grammar teaching. What the teaching plan and especially the guide to the teaching plan essentially appears as, then, is in fact not so much a guide as a smorgasbord – a language teaching policy in which many different notions of language teaching are being vented and different methods implied. This is a legitimate position, of course, when carefully thought through and argued for. And it is certainly a position which allows teachers the proclaimed freedom in the choice of teaching methods. Hence, I do not by any means question the skills, good intentions and hard work put into making the guidelines, but I maintain that it would have appeared more like a determined position had the writers of the guidelines explicitly shared their reflections and decisions behind letting some areas, for example that of grammar and grammar teaching, appear as open as they do.

In the review, it was stated that L2 instruction has been conceptualised as consisting of presentation of rules, provision of negative feedback, exposure to relevant input, and opportunities for practice. What the analysis above has shown is a more or less evident orientation to the latter three of these elements. However, with regard to the first, presentation of rules, the teaching plan and the guide appear quite hesitant. Considering the intended reader of these texts, i.e. the English teachers, I find this very unfortunate. Not that I mean that the teaching plan and the guide should function as clear-cut, and thereby closed, user guides, but the opposite, an openness to any kind of interpretation depending on the teacher’s own premises and preferences, does not appear useful either. As Andersen states in an interview by the journal *Folkeskolen*, “Freedom in the choice of teaching methods makes the teacher feel ownership of his

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62 Though this approach to language is also the one to be found in contemporary language pedagogical research, it is still presented in a rigid way here, without considering the complicated questions of when, what and how when it comes to grammar teaching. Taking into account the necessary progression in grammar teaching as well as its relation to the educational level in question is according to Andersen & Fernández an important element in formulating and planning grammar teaching (Andersen & Fernández, 2010:9).
or her teaching. But that freedom is not a right to choose the ineffective methods that you have yourself encountered on your way through the educational system” (Hansen & Thejens, 2010, my translation). In the worst case scenario, the openness could result in no grammar teaching whatsoever, which would be directly contradicting the theoretical finding that communicative language teaching alone is not enough.

Presented with the argument that there is no apparent stance with regard to understanding of and approach to language, language learning and language teaching in the texts, Tornøe acknowledges that such a common understanding did not form the basis of the council’s work on the teaching plan, just as there was no actual orientation towards research on these matters (P. Tornøe, personal communication, October 14, 2009). In the same instance, he mentions that the only person in the council involved with research had his core competences in literature, not linguistics. (ibid.). It was slightly different in the council that worked on the guide to the teaching plan. Tornøe states that the work here was also very practice-oriented, but that this council had more discussions about the pedagogical point of departure and the underlying understanding of language (ibid.). From a quality assurance perspective it must be said to be highly problematic that there has as such been no (or in the case of the guide to the teaching plan only very little) inclusion of research-based knowledge on L2 acquisition and teaching. To the extent that we are talking about national guidelines, discussions on the basis of such knowledge should arguably have been essential in the working process. Similarly, it appears bizarre that there has not been a representative of linguistic research or language acquisition research on the board. The consequence with regard to grammar is that not only the issue of how to teach it, but also the very question of what grammar is, are being passed on as inside knowledge, well-known to all teachers. However, if explicated, grammar and grammar teaching might not mean the same to all teachers which is why offering at least some framing of a common ground would perhaps have made the guidelines more useful on this matter.

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63 The Danish version reads: "Metodefriheden får læreren til at føle ejerskab til sin undervisning. Men friheden er ikke en ret til at vælge de ineffektive metoder, som man selv har modt på vejen gennem uddannelsessystemet” (Hansen & Thejens, 2010).

64 Tornøe states that the council to some extent adopted the competence-oriented and functional understanding of language acquisition and language teaching that is laid forward in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment. This framework is itself very open and broad, but at least more explicit about it (see Council of Europe, 2001).

65 Importantly, by including this piece of information, I am not indicating that I find that the entire council should have consisted of researchers. On the contrary, the very objective with this dissertation is to investigate the possibilities for more two-way communication between researchers of and teachers in English grammar.

66 Andersen and Fernández (2010:10) find in their studies that teachers understand grammar differently and that there is no common view on the function of grammar and its concrete implementation in relation to the central goals of the educational subject. The studies referred to are Andersen & Blach’s 2010 investigation of German and French through the educational system as well as Fernández’ 2008 study of university language students’ and university language teachers’ thoughts about language learning and specifically about the function of grammar teaching in language acquisition (Andersen & Fernández, 2010:7). In my initial questionnaire, I also asked gymnasium teachers of English about their understanding of grammar, and equally diverse answers were given. (Nygaard, 2007. See Appendix B).
Though there are traces of a theoretical base in the documents, I maintain that even the guide to the teaching plan—a text that is meant to be exemplary and present ‘best practice’ (P. Tornøe, personal communication, December 30, 2010) — is very open and vague when it comes to grammar and grammar teaching. Tornøe himself admits that important questions with regard to grammar teaching have not been addressed in the guidelines. Rationalising afterwards, he mentions considerations about progression, about the relation between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge, about the relation between L1 and L2, about the value of corrective feedback, and about which types of teaching materials are suitable (ibid.). As such, he touches upon some of the same issues that my analysis above and also addresses other, important ones.

It is interesting to observe that when it comes to German and French in the gymnasium, the ministerial guidelines are considerably more lucid when it comes to explicating how grammar and grammar teaching are understood in relation to the acquisition of the given L2. In their analysis of the guidelines, Andersen & Blach find that these explicitly stress the application perspective in grammar and state that the grammar teaching should be embedded in relation to the communicative and textual elements of the subject (Andersen & Fernández, 2010:8). In both German and French, the guidelines recommend an inductive, input-oriented approach to grammar teaching with focus on linguistic noticing and awareness (Andersen & Blach, 2010:40). Grammatical knowledge is not being excluded, but restricted to include relevant morphology and syntax, and focus should be on function in language and not on a systematical going through the grammar (40). Relating the guidelines to SLA research, they write,

> It is being stressed that linguistic noticing is a necessary basis for acquisition to take place. Focus on formal structures in the language has to take place in a context in which pupils can link form, function and meaning which is not the case in the traditional form of grammar teaching. For that reason and in line with modern language acquisition research it is being recommended that the teaching of grammar is related to pupil needs; that the tasks are to a large extent oriented towards understanding; that the approach to grammar is inductive where the pupils themselves try to formulate rules; and that they are subsequently given the possibility to test their own hypotheses about the language. This has to take place in a meaningful context, both in writing and orally (44, my translation).

As such, these guidelines are apparently more informed about SLA research and specifically about L2 grammar instruction research than is the case with the guidelines for English. One reason for this may be a long tradition of co-operation between German and French consultants.\(^{67}\)

\(^{67}\) The Danish version reads: “Det understreges at sproglig opmærksomhed er en nødvendig forudsætning for at tilegnelse kan finde sted. Fokus på formelle træk i sproget skal ske i en kontekst hvor eleven kan koble form, funktion og betydning, hvilket ikke er tilfældet i den traditionelle form for grammatikundervisning. Derfor anbefales det i tråd med den moderne tilegnelsesforskning at gennemgang af grammatikken er behovsrelateret, at opgaverne i overvejende grad er forståelsesorienterede, at tilgangen til grammatikken er induktiv hvor eleverne selv forsøger at formulere regler, og at de efterfølgende får lejlighed til at afprøve egne hypoteser om sproget, hvilket skal ske i en meningsfuld kontekst, både skriftligt og mundtligt” (Andersen & Blach, 2010:44).

\(^{68}\) Though, arguably, the approach that is being advocated in the guidelines is solely an integrated one, thereby excluding a parallel one which is according to Ellis (2002) also an option as described in the literature review (see section 2.5).
and researchers within language learning and language teaching (Hansen & Thejsen, 2010:6). If any such co-operation exists with regard to the subject of English it is not in any way manifested in the guidelines as they have been analysed here. Yet, in concluding on both their studies, Andersen & Fernández (2010) state that in practice the teachers’ varying approaches to grammar and grammar teaching are dependent upon coincidence and upon the teachers’ personal beliefs, view on language, education (10). This is so because teachers are not sufficiently informed about linguistic –and language pedagogical research, and the two researchers recommend that more of this is included in pre-service –and in-service training at both gymnasium –and university level (10). Hence, even in a situation where the guidelines are more research-informed than is the case with English, actual teaching practices can turn out very differently from what is recommended in the guidelines. This obviously also has to do with how the teachers regard and employ the guidelines. As the last point in this chapter, I consider Tornøe’s view on the teacher’s actual use of the guidelines.

Tornøe writes that the guide to the teaching plan has not really achieved the status among the teachers that was hoped for. His impression is that many teachers do not take the guideline particularly seriously and do not use it to the same extent as before the reform (P. Tornøe, personal communication, October 14, 2009 and December 30, 2010). One reason may according to Tornøe be that the guide is very long and verbose and that is therefore not so easy to find the essential places (P. Tornøe, personal communication, December 30, 2010). Tornøe also mentions the language in the guide and the level of ambition. He describes how he has often met a very critical attitude towards the guide when he has been out to give a talk among gymnasium teachers in English. Here, many teachers have said that they find the guide unrealistic and regard it as something which has been conceived by idealists or super teachers with a scanty touch on reality (ibid.). The guide describes an ideal practice which is to many quite far away from their everyday teaching practices (P. Tornøe, personal communication, October 14, 2009).

The irony is that the guide to the teaching plan was exactly meant to be a description of ‘best practice’. The council was told by the consultant that the guide should describe the ideal teaching and exam and that it should be detailed and contain concrete examples of good teaching practice (P. Tornøe, personal communication, December 30, 2010). However, as it is today, Tornøe finds that there is a massive tendency to do ‘as we normally do’ without taking the guide into consideration, also because continuous adjustments have followed the gymnasium reform since 2005, and the distance between ministerial demands and the everyday in the gymnasium has grown (ibid.). Thus, it appears that there is no shared understanding of how the guide to the teaching plan should actually be used – the intention has been to describe an ideal practice, and the teachers refrain from consulting the guide exactly because of its idealistic content.69

Yet, what my analysis shows is that at least with regard to English grammar there is no description of an ideal teaching practice, and this is problematic too. Specifically with regard to

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69 In wanting to describe 'best practice' it is remarkable that the guidelines are according to Tornøe to a large extent based on usual practice when it comes to grammar (resulting in inside knowledge being passed on) and not on any theoretically or research-tested empirically tested practice.
the new exam element on English grammar that pupils now also have to be able to explain the rules and not just apply them, Tornøe states that the teachers have understood this as putting increased demands on the pupils and thereby also on the teaching without having provided the teachers with more hours to teach the subject. At the same time, the teachers have lacked teaching material which suited the new exam tasks and it has been unclear what was actually expected from the pupils and thereby also how they could best be primed for the job (ibid.). These impressions to a large extent resonate in the results of the questionnaire that I conducted among English gymnasium teachers in the initial phase of the PhD project. Here, most of the respondents replied that the reform has changed their way of teaching grammar. However, when accounting for this change, differences occurred. Some stated that because of the new exam element they have had to upgrade their grammar teaching time-wise and in terms of testing the pupils more, whereas others found that other changes introduced with the reform have taken time away from their grammar teaching and made it more fragmentary and less efficient.70

Interestingly, it thus appears that we have to do with a set of guidelines that I, from the perspective of the research dimension, accuse of not being explicit enough when it comes to taking theoretical stances and that the teachers accuse of being too idealistic and void of everyday concerns. What should be stressed here is, of course, that I speak in terms of English grammar teaching only, whereas the teachers’ critique is probably aimed at the guide as a whole. In other words, the points of critique that I have raised in this content analysis of the guidelines concern the grammar element only and are made on the basis of the research reviewed in the previous chapter as well as on the assumption that in order for the guidelines to be effective means for the teachers in their attempt to teach their pupils the L2, these guidelines ought to be oriented towards research which exactly deals with L2 acquisition and with how to best teach the L2 to enhance the acquisition. If the guidelines are in any way meant to work as a kind of mediator between research and practice, informing about ‘best practice’ but in a realistic way, then they cannot be said to fulfill that role successfully with regard to grammar teaching.

In contrast to this, the teachers’ critique is practice-based and not only addresses the grammar element, but the relation between ministerial guidelines and everyday teaching in general. As such, the teachers’ critique appears to be based on the assumption that the guidelines ought to take point of departure in practice. As already stressed several times, it is the intention in this dissertation to investigate that practice dimension, and in the previous chapter I defined a research gap in existing L2 grammar instruction research that exactly concerns a lack of orientation to actual practices of L2 grammar teaching in concrete contexts. This means that I argue for research-based teaching, but also for teaching-based research. However, it should be stressed that prioritising practice and viewing research and policy as framing that practice is not the same as adopting the teachers’ practice-based critique of the guidelines. My ambition is not to take sides with this dissertation, but to argue for more communication between the dimensions exactly by examining their current relations or lack of such. Thus, after my analyses of the

70 Nygaard (2007). See Appendix 3 for a reporting (in Danish) of the findings of the questionnaire. In chapter 5, I account for my use of the questionnaire as a method and reflect critically on the actual outcome.
practice dimension, I discuss both research and policy in the light of my findings and consider implications for all three dimensions included – research, policy and practice – if more synergy between them should be reached than what my work here points at so far.

Having in this second part of the dissertation presented and critically discussed both the theoretical and the political backdrop of the project and its focus on practice, I now move on to part three to establish the disciplinary, methodological and analytical framework of the project. I thereby wish to make clear which position I talk from and with what means I do so. I regard this as an essential prerequisite in any research project, and not least in mine in which the intention is deliberately to bring in understandings and approaches from outside the field and thereby carve out an alternative position from which I can bring forward new knowledge that has not so far been acknowledged within existing research and policy on the subject matter of English grammar teaching and that can therefore add new, supplementary perspectives.
Part Three: Conceptual, analytical and methodological framework
Chapter 4 Collecting a conceptual and analytical toolbox – approaches to analysing (classroom) interaction

4.1 Chapter overview and purpose

In this chapter, I establish the analytical toolbox to be employed in the multimodal, interactional analysis in chapter 7. As such, this chapter presents and discusses a range of concepts and analytical understandings suitable for approaching interactional data. I take these concepts and analytical understandings from different research directions, of which some are more known to the SLA field than others. The notion of a toolbox is thus to be understood quite literally. The different concepts and analytical understandings make up distinctive tools that allow me to approach the data in a varied way and shed light on different aspects of the interaction around grammar teaching. Together, these tools thereby enable me to meet the complexities of my multimodal data, and in that way they jointly constitute the analytical framework within which to situate my analysis.

Before moving to the level of specific conceptual and analytical understandings, however, I first want to return briefly to the overall socio-interactional meta-theoretical positioning on which the thesis is based. This positioning has already been stressed several times, so here the objective is primarily to relate it to my focus on interactional teaching practices as well as to my interdisciplinary approach which is then eclectically composed in the remainder of the chapter as well as in the following chapter in which I account for my research design and data production.

As will be obvious in the following, the toolbox is structured in such a way that it step by step establishes the interactional, embodied and material perspectives which I find necessary in a multimodal, interactional analysis of L2 grammar teaching practices. Thus, following the brief positioning section, I first consider Seedhouse’s (2004) work as representing CA-for-SLA. By this I mean that it is through a detailed discussion of Seedhouse’s approach to analysing L2 classroom interaction that I delineate my approach to analysing L2 grammar instruction practices by pinpointing the ways in which I both align with and add to Seedhouse’s approach. I furthermore include work by Taleghani-Nikazm (2008) and Lazaraton (2004) in this section as a way of
furthering my argument that it takes more than an orientation to speech to investigate interactional L2 grammar teaching practices. It is important to stress that these three researchers play a larger role in this chapter, in which the framework for the analysis is established, than in the analysis proper, in which I selectively borrow from other CA-oriented studies too (for instance Kääntä, 2010; Mondada, 2009).71

From positioning my study in relation to Seedhouse’s more traditional CA-for-SLA, I move on to consider the ways in which embodied interaction analysis can contribute to my toolbox. In this section, the work by Goodwin (2000), and Goodwin & Goodwin (1992) constitute the basis that I then borrow from. Goodwin is particularly good at transforming his conceptual understandings of embodied and material action in interaction into analytical concepts of direct use in an embodied interaction analysis. As such, in this section I present a range of concepts which I bring with me to the analysis proper.

Finally, the chapter introduces microethnography as the third approach which I find is able to bring crucial perspectives to the multimodal, interactional analysis. The main representative here is LeBaron (2008), but studies by others (as well as by others and LeBaron) are included as well in that I regard these studies as being of an exemplifying character and apt at showing how the microethnographic agenda and its central perspectives are translated into actual research practice.

4.2 Socio-interactional positioning and pragmatic eclecticism in studying interactional grammar teaching practices

Essentially, the socio-interactional perspective differs from the cognitivist-interactionist position by profoundly arguing that social interaction plays a role in L2 acquisition (Mondada & Pekarek Doehler, 2004). As such, the socio-interactional perspective, as it has been formulated by e.g. Firth & Wagner (2007) and Mondada & Pekarek Doehler (2004), is effectively a perspective on language and language learning. Language learning is viewed as socially constructed in participants’ situated activities (Firth & Wagner, 2007; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000), and thus stands in stark contrast to the cognitivist-interactionist understanding of learning as a mental process taking place via ongoing hypothesis testing and consequent develop of the learner’s interlanguage. As was also suggested in the previous chapter, the development of the socio-interactional position was largely commenced with Firth & Wagner’s seminal article (1997) which was explicitly constructed as a critique of mainstream SLA. One of their main points of critique was (and still was in their status article from 2007) that SLA has neglected the social and contextual aspects of language use and their contribution to SLA processes (see also Seedhouse, 2004).

It is to some extent the same critique I use when specifically addressing the field of L2 and arguing for a research deficit with regard to how the teaching situation is actually accomplished in situated interaction. However, with the central difference that I focus on L2 (grammar) teaching

71 As will be evident in the analysis in chapter 7, however, both Kääntä (2010) and Mondada (2009) are CA-oriented researchers who take a more multisemiotic approach in their studies than is the case in Seedhouse (2004).
and not L2 learning. Yet, my point is here is that it is possible to define teaching along the same socio-interactional lines as it is being done with learning here. It is in order to conduct analysis of L2 teaching conceived in this way as essentially being co-constructed in situated (and multimodal) interaction, that I develop a conceptual and analytical toolbox in this chapter.

Mondada & Pekarek Doehler (2004) define a weak and a strong version of the socio-interactional position and defines the strong version as recognising “interaction as a fundamentally constitutive dimension of learners’ everyday lives. That is, interaction is the most basic site of experience, and hence functions as the most basic site of organized activity where learning can take place” (502). For that reason, an investigation of L2 learning is an investigation of L2 interaction. Piirainen-Marsh & Tainio (2009b) put it thus:

What distinguishes the socio-interactional approach from theoretically driven accounts of learning is its analytic focus on interactional activities in all their complexity and a commitment to identifying and describing the sets of resources and detailed practices through which activities are organised and made sense of (168).

The present dissertation precisely has its analytic focus on interactional activities in all their complexity with the aim of identifying and describing the sets of resources and detailed interactional practices in play. In this thesis, orientation towards the multimodal dimensions of interaction is an inherent element in such an analytical focus. As I show below, Seedhouse does not include multimodal dimensions in his CA-for-SLA analysis. It is for that reason that I in this toolbox seek outside the SLA boarders to furthermore include analytical concepts and perspectives from embodied interaction analysis and microethnography. Though these tow latter approaches are not normally applied within SLA research, they share the view on interaction as the most basic site of experience and hence also regard interaction as the core focus of analysis. As such, if the notion of a socio-interactionist position is to be taken as signifying, essentially, a detailed orientation towards situated interaction and the resources and practices in play in it, it is possible to align both embodied interaction analysis and microethnography with such a position. According to Firth & Wagner (2007), the socio-interactional approach is based on ethnomethodology, conversation analysis, and sociocultural theories of learning. The latter obviously relates to the focus on L2 learning, whereas both ethnomethodology and conversation analysis are also drawn upon in embodied interaction analysis and microethnography. Hence, I find it fair to suggest that the approaches included in this toolbox are not meta-theoretically incommensurable.

Thus, with regard to pragmatic eclecticism, the toolbox collected here as stated contains considerations from CA-for-SLA, embodied interaction analysis and microethnography. Importantly, I do by no means intend to provide a complete coverage of all of these, but rather perform a selective borrowing in which I only include elements that I find to be of direct relevance to my analysis of English grammar teaching practices. I maintain that with such a toolbox I can demonstrate in practice an entirely different approach to researching L2 grammar.

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72 Though see e.g. Mortensen (2008); Kääntä (2010).

PART THREE: CONCEPTUAL, ANALYTICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

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teaching and thereby suggest a new supplement to existing L2 grammar instruction research. Theoretical and analytical inspiration from other traditions is thus what enables me to make such a supplement, along with a contextualised focus on grammar teaching practices in a specific educational setting as well as with data of a semiotically different kind.73

As suggested above, the selected research positions have not been joined together in an entirely inconsiderate pick-and-choose approach. Rather, the toolbox has been carefully crafted to meet the different challenges of the data and to open up their multimodal perspectives, but also to make sure that the tools chosen do not stem from incomparable research paradigms as described above. Readers will thus know that the boundaries between the selected research positions are blurred and that a certain amount of overlapping is taking place. Furthermore, in both this and the following chapter, I discuss overlaps and differences explicitly in relation to my stance in this thesis. Thus, in this chapter, I discuss the differences between typical CA research and typical microethnographic research, as well as different understandings of context between embodied interaction analysis and microethnography. Similar discussions can be found with regard to the combination of different methods of data production and data analysis in chapter 5. It is thus my argument that as the different approaches have each their own strengths, they can each contribute with a distinct perspective on my subject of study and thus together be of pragmatic use in my study of L2 grammar instruction practices.

Turning to the notion of interactional practices, I have so far stated my engagement with ‘the practice dimension’ and actual ‘grammar teaching practices’ several times. These two related uses of the term ‘practice’ are also to be found in the title and sub-title of the thesis. It is important to state that by using the terms ‘practice’ and ‘practices’, I am not alluding to practicing in the sense of rehearsing. In an L2 context, this latter sense is implied in DeKeyser’s definition when he states that practice is not meant to be understood as the opposite of theory, but that “instead, practice involves specific activities in an L2 that learners engage in, deliberately, with the goal of developing knowledge of and skills in the L2” (DeKeyser, as quoted in Young, 2009:1). In the present thesis, the notion ‘practice’ as used in for example ‘the practice dimension’ and in the expression ‘in practice’ is precisely to be seen as the opposite of ‘theory’, or rather of ‘the research dimension’. This is not to be understood in the way that I find that the two dimensions ought to be in opposition to each other – the entire thesis is based on the argument that more two-way communication is needed. Rather, it is a way of clearly signaling that the main analytical focus lies with how grammar teaching is accomplished in situated, real-life contexts; precisely because I find this to be a necessary move if a more enriching mutual influence should be reached. Young (2009:2) defines practice as “performance in context” and states that by context he means “the network of physical, spatial, temporal, social, interactional, institutional, political, and historical circumstances in which participants do a practice” (2). It is this contextualised performance perspective which I seek to take by focusing on how teachers and pupils together do English grammar teaching in and as their everyday practices.

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73 My process of data production as well as my considerations in this connection are presented in chapter 5.
CHAPTER 4

Everyday practices thus reside in the practice dimension. In an L2 classroom context, Breen et al. (2000:28) define practices as “what is actually done and said in the classroom”, and I align with this definition, but specify it along interactional and multimodal lines as initially outlined in the introductory chapter and further developed in the present chapter. In my analyses, I show the existence of English grammar teaching practices which are characterized by not only being multimodally and interactionally constructed, but also by being extended spatially and temporally in that they cut across the different case studies and happen on a frequent basis. There is thus also an element of reocurrence in my definition of everyday practices which the premodifier ‘everyday’ in the title is supposed to suggest.

In an account of the main characteristics of ‘practice theory’ (2002), Reckwitz defines it as a conceptual alternative to other forms of social and cultural theory and includes a range of theorists in his delineation of what practice theory comprises (e.g. Bourdieu, Giddens, Taylor, Foucault and others) (243). Reckwitz presents the argument that practice theory decentres mind, text and conversation and in stead centres bodily movements, things, practical knowledge and routine (259). It is beyond the scope of this thesis to position itself in relation to Reckwitz’s extended notion of practice theory, but I find that this perspective in a precise way denotes the move performed in this thesis away from cognitive-interactionist perspectives and towards socio-interactional ones. From this positioning, I now turn to a presentation and discussion of the different approaches which I draw on in my investigation of everyday English grammar teaching in the observed classrooms.

4.3 Borrowings from CA-for-SLA

In this section, I first introduce and discuss Seedhouse’s (2004) work which from a ‘conversation analysis institutional-discourse perspective’ studies L2 classroom interaction. I then turn to include Taleghani-Nikazm (2008) and Lazaraton (2004), respectively – two researcher who both to a greater extent than Seedhouse orient towards embodied actions in the classroom and provide compelling cases for doing so.

4.3.1 Seedhouse’s contextualised understanding of L2 classroom interaction

In his book The Interactional Architecture of the Language Classroom: A Conversation Analysis Perspective (2004), Seedhouse makes a case for systematically applying CA in the study of L2 classroom interaction. Seedhouse’s main objective is to produce a model and methodology for the analysis of L2 classroom interaction, whatever the setting (88). In that respect, Seedhouse’s goal is very different from mine in that my focus is not on L2 classroom interaction as such, just as my objective is not to develop a general research model. Nevertheless, I still find that Seedhouse’s substantive work provides a solid base on which I can base my argument regarding the necessity of including an orientation towards actual grammar teaching practices in L2 grammar instruction research. This is so because Seedhouse analytically demonstrates the importance of researching contextualised classroom interaction, i.e. of taking point of departure in what actually goes on in the classroom. Thus, the reasoning here is that the orientation to context which takes place in
studies of L2 classroom interaction can be mirrored and used in studies of L2 grammar instruction. However, I also find that Seedhouse's CA-approach to studying classroom interaction has to be supplemented with an embodied and material perspective in order to explore in even greater detail what my data corpus in all its multimodal complexity can tell us about actual grammar teaching practices. This is why my analytical toolbox collection also contains elements from the embodied interaction analysis and microethnography.

In essence, there are five interrelated elements from Seedhouse’s study that I find useful in relation to my work. The first is Seedhouse’s critique of what he terms “the pedagogical landing-ground perspective” (93). The second is his identification of the core institutional goal of the L2 classroom and his understanding of the organisation of the interaction as being rationally derived from that goal (181,188). The third element is his way of taking seriously that institutional setting in arguing that there exists a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction in the L2 classroom (99). The fourth is his demonstration of how participants can talk the L2 classroom in and out of being and the argument for adopting an emic approach which follows from that (200). Finally, the fifth element is Seedhouse’s division of the L2 classroom context into several subvarieties, each to be understood as different actualisations of the reflexive relationship between the pedagogical focus and the interactional organisation (205). In the following, I describe these elements one by one and reflect on their implications for my interest in interactional grammar teaching practices.

4.3.2 The pedagogical landing-ground perspective

The pedagogical landing-ground perspective is Seedhouse’s term for denoting the uncritical assumption in much L2 classroom research that what is intended to happen in a particular lesson is also what actually happens. He defines it thus, “The pedagogical landing-ground perspective consists of the view that intended pedagogical aims and ideas translate directly into actual classroom practice as if the L2 classroom had no intervening level of interactional organization” (2004:93). Seedhouse maintains that this is the default perspective when no consideration is given to these matters (93). Through analyses of L2 classroom talk Seedhouse shows that the organisation of L2 classroom interaction transforms intended pedagogy into actual pedagogy (95). He argues that for that reason “the main focus of L2 teaching research should be on what actually happens, that is, on the task-in-process, rather than on what is intended to happen, that is, on the task-as-workplan” (95).

The claim being made here correlates with my critique of existing L2 grammar instruction research in which there is, as it was discussed in the review, typically no consideration of what actually happens in the specific class testing a given grammar teaching method. Instead, the studies treat the what-happened (the task-in-process) as per definition the same as what-was-meant-to-happen (the task-as-workplan), thereby paying no attention to the context and to the interaction which takes place in that context. Hence, Seedhouse’s critique here, as well as his way

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74 This is part of the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction which Seedhouse argues for and which I will comment further on below.
of demonstrating that there can, in fact, be a significant difference between intended pedagogy and actual classroom practice, supports my argument that an orientation towards actual grammar teaching practices is a relevant supplement to the field of L2 grammar instruction research.

### 4.3.3 The core institutional goal of the L2 classroom

Seedhouse (2004) defines his own research approach as “a conversation analysis institutional-discourse perspective” (100). The fact that his focus is on institutional discourse has implications for how he seeks to employ his CA analytical method. He states: “Perhaps the most important analytical consideration is that institutional discourse displays goal orientation and rational organization” (96). This means that CA in his perspective is supposed to demonstrate that the organisation of the interaction is rationally derived from the core institutional goal (181).

Seedhouse defines the core institutional goal of the L2 classroom thus, “the teacher will teach the learners the L2” (183). He writes:

> the institutional goal of the teacher’s teaching the L2 to the learners remains constant whatever the teaching methods, whatever the L1 and L2, and wherever in the world the L2 is taught. It remains the same if the teacher delegates some responsibility to learners in a learner-centered or learner autonomy approach.

In this way, Seedhouse defines what he terms the unique fingerprint or the context-free machinery of L2 classroom interaction (183-184). His point is then that all actual L2 classroom interaction takes place on the basis of that institutional goal, but also, importantly, that it varies depending on what part of the broad institutional goal is in focus.\(^75\)

In relation to my approach to grammar teaching practices as social interaction, this understanding of a core institutional goal to which all L2 classroom interaction is rationally related is highly relevant. Grammar teaching can be understood as one element in meeting the goal of the teacher teaching the learners the L2, and hence, following Seedhouse, it can be argued that it makes sense to view the L2 classroom interaction which takes place in situations of grammar teaching as being rationally related to that element of the core institutional goal. Therefore, I argue, it makes sense to study actual grammar teaching practices as social interaction in the first place. This argument is further unfolded when I turn to Seedhouse’s conceptualization of the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction in the L2 classroom.

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\(^{75}\) As I comment on shortly, Seedhouse (2004) with his notion of a universal, context-free model of L2 classroom interaction does not claim that the interaction in an L2 classroom follows this model at all times in all places. From his CA approach he claims that it “applies as and when the institutional context and identities are talked into being by the participants” (200).
4.3.4 The reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction in the L2 classroom

According to Seedhouse, the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction is one property of L2 classroom interaction which derives directly from the core institutional goal (204:184). He writes:

The omnipresent and unique feature of the L2 classroom is this reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction. So whoever is taking part in the L2 classroom interaction and whatever the particular activity during which the interactants are speaking the L2, they are always displaying to one another their analyses of the current state of the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction and acting on the basis of these analyses (184-185).

This notion of interactants’ ongoing analyses of the relationship between pedagogy and interaction is essential in my analysis of actual grammar teaching practices. If it is correct that there is a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction, then pedagogy not only influences concrete interaction, concrete interaction also influences the actual grammar teaching that is being constructed in class in and through the participants’ display of their ongoing analyses of that relationship. And looking into how that is being done is something that has not been considered in L2 grammar instruction research yet.

My claim is that precisely because of the existence of a dialectical relationship, we cannot continue to ignore actual, situated interaction when it comes to discussing the role of grammar teaching in L2 acquisition. Accepting the arguments on L2 grammar and acquisition that were presented in the review and coupling it with Seedhouse’s notion of a reflexive relationship, that interaction is, in the last resort, influential on how the pupils learn English grammar and English. So whereas, so far, research on the subject has only treated the relation between pedagogy and interaction in a one-sided manner (Seedhouse’s pedagogical landing ground perspective), I propose a way to include the other side as well via multimodal, interactional analyses of video recorded interaction. Existing L2 grammar instruction research provides teaching precepts, while I suggest that we begin to look in the opposite direction too, asking how do teacher and pupils negotiate and interactionally accomplish grammar teaching as situated practices.

Specifying a pedagogical focus

In pursuit of his research objective, Seedhouse defines a basic sequence organisation for all L2 classroom interaction. This interaction is, according to Seedhouse, characterized first by an introduction of a pedagogical focus, after which at least two persons speak in the L2 in normative orientation to that pedagogical focus. The interaction now evolves as the participants, possibly including more than the two, analyse this pedagogical focus and perform turns which display their analysis of it in relation to the interaction (2004:187-188). He states that both teacher and learners can introduce a pedagogical focus, and he stresses that the production following that

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76 Seedhouse (2004) states that there are three interactional properties which take part in constituting the unique fingerprint of L2 classroom interaction, the two others being that “language is both the vehicle and the object of instruction” and that “the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce in the L2 are potentially subject to evaluation by the teacher in some way” (183-184).
introduction cannot always be related directly and perfectly to the pedagogical focus because learners misunderstand, reinterpret or reject that focus or because the teacher is unable to establish one. This is what he means by ‘normative orientation’ in the previous citation (191). To Seedhouse, this basic sequence organisation is constitutive of the L2 classroom. He writes: “Through this sequence the institution of the L2 classroom is talked into being, because introducing the pedagogical focus is directly implicative of the institutional goal: to teach the learners the L2” (188). It is obvious here that it is Seedhouse’s view that speech alone can be seen as constitutive for the L2 classroom, a position which I problematise later in the chapter.

Clearly, in order for Seedhouse to be able to pinpoint the basic sequence organisation, he has had to be able to specify what the pedagogical focus is. He states that this can be done using three types of evidence (195-196). Type one is a text-internal statement by the teacher of the intended pedagogical focus. Type two is text-external ethnographic evidence of the intended pedagogical focus. Finally, type three is “that which is evident in the details of an interaction” (196-197). Seedhouse discusses pros and cons for all of them and argues that as a CA practitioner, he favors type three, but uses the two other types as well (in contrast to what most CA practitioners would do). The reason for this favoring is that the pedagogical focus can change as interaction unfolds exactly because of the reflexive relationship between the two. As will be evident later, I find that embodied interaction analysis (Goodwin, 2000) provide useful terminology to deal with ongoing interaction in a way that is not restricted to speech. Particularly the concept of contextual configuration is useful in analysing how different semiotic means are continuously made interactionally relevant which may or may not cause a change in the pedagogical focus. Still, in the coding of my data, I make use of all Seedhouse’s types here to specify the pedagogical focus and thereby select and categorise extracts that are related to grammar teaching. I describe in detail how this is done in the two subsequent chapters.

4.3.5 Participants talking the L2 classroom in and out of being

Seedhouse is insistent in his critique of what he terms etic and acontextual approaches to analysing L2 classroom interaction, stating that it quickly becomes a matter of the researchers’ own extraneous concerns (2004:80). He states that the CA methodology carries with it an emic approach, and he writes that “it is essential, then, in order for fair evaluation to take place, that the pedagogical focus be related to the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce” (80). Relating this to my review of existing L2 grammar instruction research, it is obvious that this research does not even focus on extracts of interaction, but is highly acontextual. I find that the emic concern is important as a contrast to this. Just as it is the case with Seedhouse’s point of relating the pedagogical focus to the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction as a way of realising this emic concern. However, it is at the same time my view that the pedagogical focus should not be related to the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction only. Interaction in a L2 classroom, in my perspective, amounts to more than linguistic forms and patterns. Hence, even though I study L2 grammar teaching, I focus on more than language use in investigating how it is carried out in practice. This will be evident as the assembly of the analytical toolbox proceeds.
At this point it may appear paradoxical that Seedhouse talks about emic and contextualised analysis while simultaneously seeking to establish a universal, context-free model of L2 classroom interaction. To this he answers:

However, the description which I have given previously is of the context-free structure to which interactants may or may not orient and which they may use normatively in context-sensitive ways to perform their social actions. So the above organization of language classroom interaction applies as and when the institutional context and identities are talked into being by the participants. It can be determined only by turn-by-turn emic analysis whether the institution is being talked in or out of being. Not all talk in an institutional setting evokes an institutional context (200).

As such, Seedhouse maintains that his CA approach does not make any a priori assumptions about the actual talk in L2 language classrooms, nor about the identities of the interactants present in that classroom (200). To Seedhouse, only a turn-by-turn emic analysis which focuses on what the participants make procedurally relevant in the details of their interaction can provide a clear understanding of what actually goes on in the classroom (202). This is one of the central views of CA which I adopt for the present study.

4.3.6 Subvarieties of the L2 classroom context

Seedhouse acknowledges that meeting the core institutional goal of teaching the learners the L2 can happen in a variety of ways. He states that it is therefore necessary to work from a variable perspective “which conceives of multiple subvarieties, or L2 classroom contexts, each with its own basic pedagogical focus” (101). Seedhouse defines a subvariety of institutional interaction as ‘one which combines an institutional subaim with an interactional organisation appropriate to that subaim’ (205). He states:

L2 classroom interaction is not an undifferentiated whole but can be divided into a number of subvarieties or L2 classroom contexts, in which a particular pedagogical aim enters into a reflexive relationship with a particular organization of the interaction. The different L2 classroom contexts or subvarieties need to be understood, then, as different actualizations of the reflexive relationship between pedagogical focus and interactional organization (205, original emphasis).

Furthermore, during a lesson, contexts can shift rapidly from one turn to the next and be generated by both teacher and learners (207). In relation to my focus on English grammar teaching practices, I can use this variable approach to define ‘teaching the learners English grammar’ as one institutional sub-goal of the core institutional goal.

In my analysis, this definition allows me to focus on the interactional organisation which is related to that sub-goal. Such a focus, in turn, enables me to qualify the notion of grammar teaching when relating it to the actual interaction in the classroom in that my data suggest that it is not so that the sub-goal of teaching the learners English grammar is followed by only one
subvariety or L2 classroom context. Rather, in my data corpus, grammar is being taught in a number of ways. In these different contexts, the reflexive relationship between pedagogical focus and interactional organisation is being actualised in different ways: pair/group work, blackboard work, corrective feedback, different material, different ways of engaging with pupils etc. This is where the benefits of a multimodal perspective begin to appear as further discussed below where I turn to describe in what ways my methodological approach not only borrows from Seedhouse’s, but also adds to it.

4.3.7 Refinement of Seedhouse

It should be clear by now that I do not intend to fully imitate Seedhouse’s CA-for-SLA approach in analysing my data. There are three main reasons for this grounded in what Seedhouse looks for (language learning), looks at (speech only) and looks in (transcriptions of spoken interaction), respectively.

Shifting focus from learning to teaching

The first reason thus concerns the typical focus of CA when applied in an SLA context. CA-for-SLA concentrates on L2 learning, not L2 teaching per se. Seedhouse is no exception. Criticising the traditional SLA understanding of competence he writes:

CA offers a very different view of the nature of competence. Instead of working from the static assumption that competence is something that one has a fixed degree of at a point in time, CA provides a means of exploring the variable ways in which such competence is co-constructed in particular contexts by the participants involved (2004:235).

Seedhouse’s meta-theoretical approach is thus also of a socio-interactional character. He states that besides his own publication, a number of CA studies have shown “subtle interactional practices which transform our perceptions of L2 learners and teachers” (98). My objective is not to repeat what these studies have already shown. Rather, I want to make clear that studying L2 grammar teaching practices becomes relevant exactly because of what these studies show. When language learning is shown to be, at least partly, an interactional and co-constructed business, then teaching must be conceived in the same way and therefore it no longer makes sense to take for granted that the intended teaching matches the actual teaching. Studying grammar teaching as social practices provides new insights into grammar teaching which L2 grammar instruction research with its exclusive quantitative approach has not previously been able to supply.

Seedhouse touches upon this need for transformation too. He writes:

A persistent criticism of AL and SLA research by classroom language teachers has been that it has been top-down, driven by theory and concepts which may have little relevance to classroom practice. Furthermore, little attention or interest has been shown in what language teachers actually do, and classroom practice has not generated theory; in other words, there has been one-way traffic between theory and practice. However […], all L2 classroom interaction embodies a theory of language learning and is displayed as a text to be read. I
hope that the model and methodology presented in this monograph will enable pedagogical theory to be generated inductively from interactional data and enable two-way traffic between theory and practice (2004:265).

In the end of my review of L2 grammar instruction research I also argue for the enabling of two-way traffic, here specifically between research and practice of grammar teaching. I furthermore agree with Seedhouse that analysing what actually goes on in the classroom is the first step to establishing such traffic. However, even though Seedhouse in the above quote expresses an interest in ‘what language teachers actually do’, he at the same time talks about all L2 classroom interaction as embodying a theory of language learning. This means that he is still essentially focused on learning77 as are other CA-for-SLA researchers. Now, of course, Seedhouse and others act on the basis of the interrelatedness of teaching and learning: the teacher is there to help the learners learn, cf. the core institutional goal, and I do by no means say that focusing on the aspect of learning in L2 classroom interaction is not important. Yet, in relation to my research focus, I find that if an understanding is to be reached of the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction, i.e. of how grammar is actually being taught in practice, then it has to be singled it out for analytical attention.

Seedhouse finishes his monograph by writing that he hopes “that the professional work of language teachers will become both an object of academic study and a source of theory generation” (265). This is my hope too, but in contrast to Seedhouse I maintain that it takes an explicit focus on that work and this is what I seek to sustain in this dissertation.

From analysis of verbal turns and sequences to multimodal analysis – conceptualising classroom interaction as more than speech

My second reason for not wanting to conduct a mainstream CA of my data has already been hinted at several times. I find that the amount of attention that is paid to speech in Seedhouse’s application of CA at the expense of the use of other semiotic means in the interaction being studied is problematic – both in general and specifically in relation to my focus on English grammar teaching practices. Seedhouse describes his methodology thus:

The analyst follows exactly the same procedure as the participants and traces the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction, using as evidence the analyses of this relationship which the participants display to each other in their own turns. So the methodology which is used for the analysis of L2 classroom interaction is the next-turn proof procedure in relation to the pedagogical focus (2004:195, original emphasis).

From this quote it is evident that Seedhouse reduces interaction to speech only – it is such a reduction which enables him to state that the reflexive relationship between pedagogical focus and L2 classroom interaction can be studied and explained by focusing on the organisation of turn taking and sequence (101). In contrast, I find that there is much going on in L2 classroom

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77 This if further visible in the fact that Seedhouse (2000) presents CA as being able to fill out the vacant slot prior to quantification in much SLA research.
interaction that is not captured when analysing verbal behavior alone. From my video recorded data it is obvious that L2 classroom interaction involves more than speech and that actual grammar teaching practices are to a large extent constructed not only orally, but also visually and materially. I thus suggest that Seedhouse’s emic concern can and should be expanded to include more than speech in the analysis of English grammar teaching practices. As my multimodal and interactional analysis in chapter 7 show, the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction which Seedhouse defines appears to be actualised and re-actualised through a range of interrelated and interactionally relevant semiotic means when it comes to grammar teaching. This is why this analytical toolbox furthermore includes embodied and material perspectives which I find necessary in a multimodal, interactional analysis of L2 grammar teaching practices.

Seedhouse’s data access, data production, transcription and transparency
The final point of refinement, related to Seedhouse’s (2004) exclusive orientation towards speech, deals with his data access and data production. Seedhouse’s database consists of a very large amount of data, collected by different researchers, including Seedhouse himself, in different places and at different times. The size of the database is impressive and Seedhouse makes a convincing introduction to it, yet it appears that in his analysis of several extracts, he has only had access to the transcribed version of the data. I find this to be problematic because converting actual interaction into a text to be read on a piece of paper always causes reduction and simplification. I am hereby not saying that transcription is not a necessary analytical move to make, and I do use it myself, but I suggest that if the analysis is based on a transcript of speech only, then there is a risk that important elements will be missing. For instance, it will not at all be possible to see how the class is organised physically, where the teacher and the pupils are placed in relation to each other, what materials they are using etc. This is one of my main reasons for working with video recordings as I find these to be a way of getting access to the multimodality of interaction, thereby gaining further insight into the subtle interactional constructions of grammar teaching practices.

Another problem with Seedhouse’s data is that much information about the data production is not considered relevant. As it has been explained above, Seedhouse’s main objective is to produce a model for the analysis of L2 classroom interaction, whatever the setting. However, this does not mean that Seedhouse does not acknowledge the “tremendous variety of L2 classrooms” (84). Therefore he argues for a thorough explanation of one’s database – in the interest of both researchers and teachers. He writes:

Elsewhere (Seedhouse, 1995) I have argued that, because of the diversity of L2 classrooms, one should specify the database not only in terms of number of lessons or fragments of lessons, but also in terms of the following background

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78 I prefer to talk about data production instead of data collection as I find that the former notion to a larger extent suggests the researcher’s own involvement in the process. My point is that there is no such thing as objective data collection – the researcher is always situated and has preunderstandings, perhaps not always of what to find, but at least of how to do, and this inevitably influences the way in which the data are produced.

79 I should be stressed, though, that there are drawbacks in working with video recordings too. I consider these in chapter 5 where I also describe the fieldwork done to respond to some of these drawbacks.
contextual factors, in order that the diversity of the database may be assessed: L1, culture, country of origin, and age of learners, level of learners’ proficiency in L2, type of institution, and whether the classes are multilingual or monolingual (84).

I agree that informing about these factors is relevant and this is also what according to Norris & Ortega is not being done systematically in traditional L2 grammar instruction research (see chapter 2). However, even though Seedhouse’s information is important, it is not enough in my view. He does not provide insight into how the data were recorded (audio, video, placement of microphones and cameras etc.), where the researcher was during the recording, how the study was presented to the participants, what the impressions of the researcher were (field notes) etc. All this – more ethnographic – information is in my view essential to really treat the context as relevant. Furthermore, I find it vital that it is possible for others to follow all steps in the analytical process, and that process begins with data production. As will be evident later in this assembling of an analytical toolbox, this type of information is what is called for in microethnography.

4.3.8 Taleghani-Nikazm’s CA of teacher gestures in L2 classrooms

Taleghani-Nikazm (2008) is another conversation analysts conducting research within the framework of CA-for-SLA. What distinguishes Taleghani-Nikazm from Seedhouse above is that her analytical approach includes investigating gesture as nonverbal behaviour and its relation to verbal behaviour (229). Drawing on the works of a range of researchers operating within the frameworks of CA and ethnomethodology (among others, Goodwin; Kendon; McNeill; Schegloff; Streeck), Taleghani-Nikazm begins by considering the relation between gesture and speech in everyday interaction. She describes how these researchers understand speech and gesture as one system in which gestures are highly organised activities that “serve to augment information visually that is being provided auditorily” (229). Along these lines, McNeill has developed a categorisation device for gestures used in spontaneous interaction. It contains four categories with sub-categories. Taleghani-Nikazm presents these categories in order to be able to draw on them in her analysis and for the same reason I do that here.

McNeill’s first category is iconic gestures which refer to the depiction of semantic content, i.e. of the physical characteristics of objects or actions mentioned in speech. Iconic gestures may be either kinetographic (presenting bodily action) or pictographic (presenting the actual form of an object) (Taleghani-Nikazm 2008:229). The second category is metaphoric gestures that represent an abstract idea. This can again happen either kinetographically or pictographically. Deictic gestures make up the third category. These are pointing gestures that refer to “either concrete entities in the physical environment, or abstract loci in space” (230). These gestures can thus be either actual or metaphoric. The final category is beat gestures in which the hands are used to make rhythmical pulse in line with the speech. These gestures are typically used to regulate the flow of speech (230). While the categories have been useful in understanding the relationship between speech and gesture in general, Taleghani-Nikazm asserts that not much research has been done on the use of gestures in L2 classrooms, particularly not with focus on the teacher’s use of
gestures (230). This is problematic in that input and interaction are argued to be essential for L2 acquisition. Whereas traditional SLA research conceptualises this as verbal input and verbal interaction, Taleghani-Nikazm argues that the research on nonverbal L2 teacher behavior which has been done after all points to this behaviour as playing an important role as part of the input (230).

In reviewing the research that has been done, then, Taleghani-Nikazm concludes that “the nonverbal behavior of L2 teachers is a fundamental aspect of teacher-learner interaction and teachers seem to utilize gestures as a means to provide comprehensible input to L2 learners and to perform error correction” (230). In line with this research, Taleghani-Nikazm’s own study demonstrates “that the teacher’s choice of a particular gesture may be responsive to the instructional situation. In other words, teachers may use different gestures in addition to their talk to achieve specific interactional and pedagogical goals depending on the focus of the interaction” (236). These are interesting findings which indirectly suggest that not taking L2 teacher gestures into consideration only provides a partial account of how the L2 teaching is being carried out. I argue that the same holds true for my specific focus on L2 grammar teaching practices. Taleghani-Nikazm states that her research “provides relevant insights into the complexity of L2 teacher classroom talk and behavior” (237). I agree, but at the same time maintain that when my research interest lies in grammar teaching practices as such, i.e. how these are being co-constructed in situated interaction, I have to include more than teacher gestures in my analysis and hence also in the analytical toolbox being collected here. First, however, I include a researcher who focuses specifically on L2 grammar teaching, and who is even more explicit in her critique of the lack of orientation towards nonverbal behaviour in traditional SLA research.

4.3.9 Lazaraton’s critique of the exclusion of nonverbal behavior in classroom-based SLA research

In a study from 2004, Lazaraton demonstrates the significant role nonverbal behaviour plays in L2 teaching. She takes point of departure in a view of language as embodied practice and therefore laments the fact that nonverbal behaviour is not dealt with in traditional SLA research on grammar instruction. The reasons for this are, according to Lazaraton (2004:80), that SLA researchers “have been overwhelmingly preoccupied with verbal aspects of language” and that “nonverbal behaviour, if mentioned at all, is viewed as a part of strategic competence”, strategic competence being defined as strategies which are called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance difficulties. In contrast to this common view, Lazaraton finds that gestures cannot be considered compensatory. On the contrary, they show the depth of pedagogic or communicative competence (100). Nevertheless, despite such findings by both Lazaraton and others, “SLA researchers continue to assume the priority, if not the ‘omnirelevance’, of talk” (81).80

80 Note that Lazaraton employs the concept of talk to denote spoken language in interaction, i.e. verbal behaviour only. In this dissertation, I employ the term speech to signify verbal behaviour because talk is increasingly being conceptualised as including gesture, gaze etc.
Lazaraton states that of the relatively small amount of research that has been done on gesture and SLA, most has focused on learners and on nonverbal behaviour in L2 learner speech, whereas only little has been done on teacher nonverbal behaviour (87). However, these latter studies yield important findings. It is found:

that language is not an independent phenomenon but is closely tied to social situations and to physical aspects and arrangements of the speech situation and that gestures and other body movements, orientation, and physical arrangement of speaker, listener, and artefacts have considerable influence on the nature and form of the language used (87).

Furthermore, studying teachers’ nonverbal behaviour is argued to be “crucial for understanding what the “teaching act” really involves” (88).

In her own study, Lazaraton investigates one teacher’s nonverbal behaviour in unplanned explanations of vocabulary during form-focused grammar sessions. She does so via what she terms microanalysis – a form of analysis which is based on CA transcription conventions, but which does not consider the sequential organisation and the co-construction of the developing interaction. Instead, Lazaraton’s focus is primarily on how the teacher’s gestures supplement the word explanations. Lazaraton concludes that “gestures and other nonverbal behaviour are forms of input to classroom second language learners that must be considered a salient factor in classroom-based second language acquisition research” – “classroom input is not merely composed of teacher or other learner talk. Classrooms are the locus of embodied practice” (79, 111).

In relation to the socio-interactional approach taken in this dissertation, viewing language as closely tied to body movements, orientation, physical arrangements and artefacts is very much to the point. It is due to such an understanding of language and language use that I understand grammar teaching as a socially situated practice and analytically take point of departure in interaction, and not in language use alone. I thus agree with Lazaraton’s view on classrooms as the locus of embodied practice. At the same time, however, I contend that if we are to really understand them as such, it takes more than an isolated analysis of the gestures accompanying speech.

In what most of all resembles a manifesto for her approach, Lazaraton writes:

when we view a videotape of ESL classroom teaching, it becomes immediately apparent that an analysis of teacher talk is really insufficient; the teacher’s nonverbal behaviour is clearly a fundamental means of communication. In fact, neither SLA researchers nor language teacher educators can afford to overlook any longer the fundamental (but as yet, largely unexplicated) role that nonverbal behaviour plays in the input to and the output from L2 learners. More specifically, we know almost nothing about the nature of the nonverbal behaviour that ESL teachers display in their classroom teaching, despite the fact

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81 Lazaraton refers to a study by Roth & Lawless (2002) and a study by Allen (2000).
that a major thrust of classroom-based SLA research has been and continues to be “the role of input, in general, and specific types of input in particular,” where input is defined as “the linguistic forms [italics added [by Lazaraton]] that are in evidence in a learner’s environment” (Bradi, 2002, p. 2). And herein lies the problem: Nonverbal behaviour has been excluded from the category of linguistic forms that input, output, and interaction research targets (90-91).

Lazaraton’s and Taleghani-Nikazm’s arguments for bringing in an orientation to teacher gestures thus run along the same lines and both refer to findings from mainstream SLA research – findings that they want to qualify further with their more inclusive approach.

Lazaraton too, makes use of McNeill’s classificatory system of hand movements that occur in face-to-face interaction, and I acknowledge that this system provides a useful way of commencing the analysis of concrete gestures performed in situated interaction. McNeill’s system has grown out of empirical analysis and the different categories are wider terms that specify the performance of a gesture in relation to its wider conceptual meaning. Both performance and concrete meaning are then specified in the analysis of the given situated interaction. I stress this in order not to give the impression that I view gestures as universal, independent phenomena, not in any significant way related to the context in which they take place. From my multimodal and interactional approach I understand the meaning of gestures as being socially constructed in situ and therefore, among other things, focus on how the given gestures are made relevant in the interaction by the other participants’ reaction (or lack of reaction) to them.

Thus, my methodological approach is closer to that of Lazaraton (working with video-recordings and focusing on more than language use) than that of traditional SLA research on grammar instruction. Yet, at the same time it differs considerably, both with regard to methodology and research objective. To take the latter first, Lazaraton recognises (2004) that her study “cannot make claims about whether or not the learners understood the explanations and/or found the gestures useful” (100), i.e. she focuses on teaching practices only, as I do. Yet, it appears that to Lazaraton the ultimate goal is to have teachers’ nonverbal behaviour acknowledged in studies of L2 acquisition when she states: “Because the majority of data collection procedures in SLA studies fail to capture nonverbal behaviour, its contribution to the language acquisition process remains unspecified” (111). As stated, measuring learning is not my explicit goal, and nor is it some disguised interest of mine. I focus on actual grammar teaching practices as these are being socially situated and co-constructed in multimodal interaction because I find that such a perspective has to date been overlooked in SLA grammar instruction research as a whole.

With regard to methodology, I agree that it is a problem that nonverbal behaviour is generally excluded from SLA research on grammar instruction. Yet, in her study, Lazaraton limits nonverbal behaviour to gestures only, and though this might be an analytically necessary move, it is at the same time that which distinguishes Lazaraton’s (and Taleghani-Nikazm’s) approach from mine. This is so because I pay attention to how not only voice and body movements, but also orientation, physical arrangements and artefacts come to play a role in the interaction. Furthermore, I do so from the perspective of socially situated co-constructions, meaning that I
do not, as Lazaraton, focus on examples of teachers’ speech and gestures only, but broaden the picture to look at the participants’ ongoing interaction and how that interaction is being multimodally constructed moment-by-moment. In that sense, it is more precise to say that I view grammar teaching as a socially situated, co-constructed, multimodal practice.

I thus find that classrooms are more than ‘the locus of embodied practice’; they are the locus of embodied, material and interactional practice. For that reason, I now move outside of an L2 context to consider embodied interaction analysis which to a larger extent acknowledges all these dimensions of interaction and at the same time provide analytical concepts and understandings of relevance to the analysis proper.

4.4 **Borrowings from Embodied Interaction Analysis**

In this section, the work by Goodwin (and Goodwin & Goodwin) is drawn upon. The work by the Goodwins is often being appropriated by other researchers as an example of their specific research methodology (for example Seedhouse, 2004:235; LeBaron, 2008:3; Streeck & Mehus, 2005:390). Probably both because the Goodwins have been around for some time and have continued to develop their analytical perspectives and methods, and because there is, as stated initially, a certain degree of overlapping between the different research positions. Goodwin & Goodwin, on the other hand, do not themselves put a label on their work, and, admittedly, the term embodied interaction analysis which appears in the headline for this section is not theirs either, but my construction and attempt to categorise their work.

4.4.1 **Goodwin & Goodwin’s focus on the moment-by-moment unfolding of situated, embodied interaction**

With a thorough background in CA, Goodwin & Goodwin’s perspective is the interaction as it unfolds moment-by-moment. However, with their notion of embodied interaction they have increasingly come to appreciate the situatedness of all speech. Focus is thus placed on the situated doings of the participants from which it follows that language or talk in interaction should not be given analytical first priority either. In this respect, Goodwin & Goodwin develop or advance a number of concepts which permit the analysis of social action from such an embodied and material perspective.

4.4.2 **Semiotic fields**

In this approach, the body is viewed as an indisputable element of action; as a medium which provides for different ‘semiotic fields’ to be drawn upon by the participants in the interaction. Goodwin (2000) defines semiotic fields in the following way:

spoken language builds signs within the stream of speech, gestures use the body in a particular way, while posture and orientation use the body in another, etc. To have a way of talking about these subsystems I’ll refer to them as *semiotic fields*. The term *semiotic* is intended to note the way in which signs are being
deployed, while field provides a rough term for pointing to the encompassing medium within which specific signs are embedded (1494, original emphasis).

As such, spoken language matters always in relation to other semiotic fields, and it is to these locally relevant semiotic fields and their equally local interrelatedness one has to turn in order to analyse the interaction going on.

### 4.4.3 Contextual configuration

A fundamental notion of interconnectedness and interrelatedness between verbal behaviour and the different kinds of nonverbal behaviour is thus visible here. To facilitate the analysis of that local relevance and local interrelatedness Goodwin (2000) introduces the concept of contextual configuration which he describes it in the following way:

> It is argued that actions are both assembled and understood through a process in which different kinds of sign phenomena instantiated in diverse media, what I call semiotic fields, are juxtaposed in a way that enables them to mutually elaborate each other. A particular, locally relevant array of semiotic fields that participants demonstrably orient to (not simply a hypothetical set of fields that an analyst might impose to code context) is called a contextual configuration. As action unfolds, new semiotic fields can be added, while others are treated as no longer relevant, with the effect that the contextual configurations which frame, make visible, and constitute the actions of the moment undergo a continuous process of change (1490, original emphasis).

In a given interaction between two or several participants, body movements, talk, gaze etc. are thus not different channels of behaviour to be analysed separately, but instead make out a single, interactive activity which the participants collaboratively organise (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1992:81) and change as the interaction goes on. In the analysis I show how different modes of grammar teaching involve different and differently changing contextual configurations. The concept is furthermore central to my analyses of how grammatical rules are being oriented towards in different modes of grammar teaching.

Importantly, Goodwin (2000) also considers how artefacts may come into play “as a relevant semiotic field implicated in the organization of the actions of the moment in ways that it wasn’t a moment earlier” (1501). Thus, Goodwin’s analytical framework encompasses “not only sequences of talk and the bodies of the actors, but also the material structure in the surround” (1505). I regard this orientation to the use of artefacts as an important supplement to the understanding of interaction as being constructed via speech, gesture and other non-verbal behaviours as it has been presented so far. The detailed analysis discloses that it is among other things the use of artefacts which makes grammar teaching both complex and orderly.

### 4.4.4 Participation framework

Goodwin & Goodwin (1992:77) furthermore introduce the concept of participation framework within which participants’ collaborative construction and re-construction of the contextual
configuration takes place. Drawing upon Goffman’s concept of the interaction order, they argue that a participation framework is a framework for interaction that is interactively organised by the participants, who through their gaze and body posture show where their attention is, thereby constructing a frame of mutual orientation. Goodwin (2000) characterises a participation framework thus,

it builds through embodied stance a public field of mutual orientation within which a wide variety of speech acts can occur. Rather than being itself a momentary action within an exchange, it constitutes part of the interactive ground from which actions emerge, and within which they are situated […]. However, […] this framework is built through the visible embodied actions of the participants. As such, like the actions that occur within it, the framework is open to challenge, negotiation, and modification. Though it surrounds larger strips of diverse individual actions, it is itself a dynamic, interactively organized field (1496).

From this quote, I regard a participation framework as an analytical unit which is applicable in the detailed analysis of how teachers and pupils co-construct the varying set-ups in which they interact around grammar. A unit which again shows Goodwin’s orientation to the ongoing development of action and interaction. It is a dynamic frame which “provides the basis for […] joint attention, in which multiple actors are attending to the same object in the environment” (Goodwin 2007:57, original emphasis). When it comes to grammar teaching this joint attention can take place in several ways, involving different numbers of participants which again has consequences for how the contextual configuration is configured.

Just as the contextual configuration can change during an interaction, so can a participation framework. Or rather, it can be abolished by one or several participants. For instance, Goodwin (2000) describes a gaze turned away from the person you have been interacting with as a way of publicly disattending that other person, thereby breaching the participation framework. Goodwin writes that this demonstrates:

how any participation framework is an ongoing contingent accomplishment, something not under the control of a single party (who can at best make proposals about the structure of participation that should be operative at the moment), but rather something that has to be continuously achieved through public displays of orientation within ongoing processes of interaction (1500).^83

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^82 In the first part of the analysis, I locate four modes of grammar teaching in the observed classes. What distinguishes these modes from each other is, among other things, that they are characterised by the construction of dissimilar participation frameworks.

^83 Here, I have to insert a little demur: It is unclear to me how ‘public display of orientation’ is defined, and if it is to be understood the way that is surely suggested by ‘public’, i.e. something for others to observe, then I find it relevant to ask if one could not imagine a participant being attentive though for instance looking away, reflecting on what was said, what to say or do etc.
4.4.5 Reflexive awareness

Related to the ongoing construction and re-construction of both participant frameworks and contextual configurations within these is the notion of reflexive awareness. Goodwin (2000) states that reflexive awareness is central to the construction of action and defines it as a participant’s ongoing analysis of how one or more recipients are positioned to co-participate in the construction of that action. In the light of that ongoing analysis, the participant might reorganise his or her own doings (1503). Goodwin stresses that “This reflexive awareness is not simply an ‘interior’ element of the mental processes necessary for defining the action […] but a public, visible component of the ongoing practices used to build the action […]” (1503-1504). In the analysis, I show how such reflexive awareness plays a role in grammar teaching interaction between teachers and pupils, particularly how all three teachers’ ongoing analysis of (the public display of) pupils’ (lack of) grammatical understanding influences the teachers’ next actions.

4.4.6 A constraining view on context

As stated, both with regard to the analysis of interactionally constituted participation frameworks and ditto reflexive awareness, Goodwin (2000:1500) stresses that it takes point of departure in and solely orients to the public display of orientation. Hence, his focus on embodied interaction, and not primarily on the language used in that interaction. This notion of visible orientation is closely related to Goodwin’s understanding of context. One of his main points is that context is not something which surrounds the talk (text), but instead constitutes the interaction at the same time as it is continuously being constituted by it. As such, there is no dichotomy between text and context. Goodwin describes context in the following way:

Rather than wandering onto the fieldsite as disinterested observers, attempting the impossible task of trying to catalog everything in the setting, we can use the visible orientation of the participants as a spotlight to show us just those features of context that we have to come to terms with if we are to adequately describe the organization of their action (1508-1509).

He continues:

The constitution of relevant context […] is in the first instance an issue for the participants, and not primarily for the analyst […] context is not simply a set of features presupposed or invoked by a strip of talk, but is itself a dynamic, temporally unfolding process accomplished through the ongoing rearrangement of structures in the talk, participants’ bodies, relevant artefacts, spaces, and features of the material surround that are the focus of the participants’ scrutiny (1519).

At the same time as such a definition of context provides the analyst with means to narrow down the analytical perspective, I find that relating only to ‘the visible orientation of the participants’ (cf. the quote above) leaves us with an understanding of context that only comprises what is actually present at the given time and place of the interaction being studied. And though this focus is necessary, it might also be constraining if it is the only one taken. One might ask whether
some ‘interactionally external context’, for example in the form of ministerial guidelines on grammar teaching, could not also be relevant to the participants and in that way influence grammar teaching interaction without it being visible. Our interactive actions are not isolated islands but often related across time and space to other interactive actions. This discussion is not the topic of the present thesis, but it is worth underlining that this is one of the reasons why I choose to incorporate microethnography into this analytical toolbox as well.

Thus, what Goodwin describes as context here to a large extent mirrors the microethnographic view on the built space. In microethnography, the perspective of built space is highly relevant as I describe in the following, but microethnography does not restrict its view on context to such a built space perspective. Hence, whereas the Goodwins provide useful concepts for dealing in detailed ways with the minute actions of the participants, microethnography provides exactly that broader picture, and still in a way that is tied up with place and action and the ongoing development of human activities (Streeck & Mehus, 2005:381; Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002:16). As I show in the following, this has to do with the empirical foundation of microethnography which, as also suggested by the name, is more ethnographically oriented, including fieldwork and observations to assist in the interactional analysis of video recordings.84

4.5 Borrowings from Microethnography

Microethnography is another methodology which, like embodied interaction analysis, is not normally used in connection with L2 research, but which I find to have valuable contributions to make to such research. LeBaron’s writings on the approach as well as some of his practical analytical applications of it will serve as the sources here. LeBaron’s writings are supplemented with those of Heath & Hindmarsh (2002) and Streeck & Mehus (2005) respectively.

Heath & Hindmarsh do not explicitly term their approach microethnography, but centre it on Video, ethnography and situated conduct (cf. the title of their article), all of which are cornerstones in LeBaron’s description of microethnography. I thus find that Heath & Hindmarsh are essentially speaking the same language as microethnography and I therefore in this section present those of Heath & Hindmarsh’s analytical understandings which I find to be of relevance to my undertaking.

Streeck & Mehus provide an account of the background, development, focus and practice of microethnography and as such situate the approach meta-theoretically. Importantly, microethnography shares many of the precursors and influences of CA and embodied interaction analysis and I thus find that it is compatible with the other tools that have by now been collected for this analytical toolbox.

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84 This is not to say that the Goodwins do not perform fieldwork – they do, as it is also described in Goodwin, 1994. Yet, in their analyses it appears that only the concrete interaction is being oriented to, precisely because of their underlining of the visible orientation of participants.

85 Jones & LeBaron (2002) and LeBaron & Streeck (1997) are included here as examples of microethnographic analysis as they both operate from certain analytical understandings which I find to be of relevance to my analysis of grammar teaching practices.
The main supplement from microethnography to my analytical approach to situated interaction as it has been established this far is its focus on the built space, including the institutional dimension often inherent in such built space. This perspective is useful in my analysis of grammar teaching practices, but has not been treated intensively in neither CA, nor embodied interaction analysis (though see McIlvenny, Broth & Haddington, 2009; McIlvenny, 2008).

4.5.1 Microethnography in relation to mainstream CA
LeBaron (2008:1) describes microethnography as a convergence of competencies from anthropology, sociology, psychology and communication studies among others. In that sense it shares many of its roots with CA and it also regularly employs CA assumptions and procedures (LeBaron, 2008:2; Streeck & Mehus, 2005:381). Yet, there are three ways in which the two methods differ from each other: First, whereas CA often creates collections of a recurring phenomenon, found in a variety of contexts, “microethnographies are typically case studies of a particular setting (e.g., a police department) or activity (e.g., a weekly board meeting)” (LeBaron, 2008:1). Second, whereas CA seeks to build generalised claims about what people do and how, “Microethnography works to provide a rich description and a thorough account of scenes of social interaction” (1). Third, CA “has primarily focused on talk with less attention to visible interaction, including people’s use of tools, artifacts, objects, architecture structures, and so forth. More often, microethnographic research has attended to the embodied features of human activity, including the subtle relationships between vocal and visible forms of interaction” (1). Streeck & Mehus (2005:382) underline the same differences.

In all three respects, my study shares the goals of microethnography, also cf. my critique of Seedhouse’s CA approach to L2 classroom interaction laid forward in the beginning of this chapter: I conduct case studies of particular settings rather than creating a collection across a variety of contexts. I provide rich descriptions and thorough accounts of particular scenes of social interaction rather than building generalised claims about what people do and how. My focus is multimodal and not just on speech. At the same time, however, my multimodal, interactional analysis is structured in collections that go across the individual teacher and class, and I am engaged with interactional practices which are not the same as generalised claims about what people do and how, but which nevertheless reach beyond the concrete here and now of the individual excerpt analysed. To that extent, I attempt to mix the different approaches and adapt them to my undertaking. Here I find microethnography a useful approach exactly because it provides further tools to my analytica framework with which I can gain insight into specific English grammar teaching practices as these are being co-constructed multimodally in situ in the observed classes.

Streeck and Mehus (2005) distinguish between an old and a new school of microethnography and they stress that there is no ‘school of microethnography’. They write: “Rather, the word describes the work of humanist researchers who study how human realities are produced, activities are conducted, and sense is made, by inspecting video recordings of actual events frame by frame” (382).
Furthermore, microethnography offers an elaborate analytical approach oriented towards the multimodal co-construction of action. In a critical tone, Heath & Hindmarsh (2002) state:

Unfortunately, research on nonverbal communication tends to separate conduct into different channels and to some extent disregard the ways in which talk and bodily conduct are interdependent in the practical accomplishment of social action. It also, like much sociological research, disregards the immediate environment, and the ways in which participants invoke and rely upon ‘physical’ features of the ecology to produce actions and make sense of each other’s conduct (11-12).

In essence, microethnography is thus about demonstrating how bodily conduct and the material environment become relevant and reflexively constituted in action (Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002:12, 31). In the following I describe how such microethnographic research is typically conducted.

4.5.2 Microethnographic data and analytical focus points

LeBaron (2008:1) writes that microethnographic research claims are grounded in analysis of video recorded actual behavior. He states, “Researchers show how people interactively create and sustain the social and organizational realities that they inhabit” (1). In my case, my task consists in showing how teacher and pupils interactively create and sustain the social and organisational reality of English grammar teaching, i.e. how they make that teaching happen, or how they continuously construct and re-construct it together. The terms social and organisational are important here and point to two different, yet related perspectives from which to approach my data: I focus on both the social, interpersonal aspect of English grammar teaching, i.e. how teachers and pupils interact, what they say and do vis-à-vis one another, and on how the physical surroundings, i.e. the classroom, are organised, what artefacts are being used in the interaction etc. The very point is of course, that the social and the organisational realities are in practice closely intertwined – which is what calls for an orientation to context in the first place.

The broad conceptualisation of interaction found in microethnography calls for a more inclusive approach to data production, too. Access to what participants say is not enough in a microethnographic perspective. LeBaron (2008) writes:

Working at a particular site or institution, such as an archaeological dig or an investment banking firm, researchers create video recordings of activities such as they naturally occur, i.e., activities that would have happened whether or not a camera was present. These recordings are then analyzed repeatedly and rigorously, with attention to both the participants’ talk (who says what, when, and how) and their embodied behaviors (the relative location, movement, and orientation of people and things). Video analyses are combined with other kinds of information, such as ethnographic data gathered through observations.
and interviews, altogether providing a variety of macro- and micro-views of social activity.\(^{87}\)

Video recordings are also my primary data within the practice dimension. These are then supplemented with field note observations, interviews and grammar material used in the classes. Heath & Hindmarsh (2002:16) state in this connection that in many settings it is “critical that video recording is coupled with extensive field work in which the researcher becomes increasingly familiar with the characteristics of the environment unavailable through recordings alone”. I describe my data production in chapter 5, but include it briefly here in order to make clear that my approach to data not only diverges from the one taken in traditional L2 grammar instruction research in which laboratory settings and quantitative tests are frequently used as described in the review in chapter 2. It also diverges from mainstream CA-for-SLA as this approach has been exemplified above. In the following I present four interrelated perspectives from microethnography which I find useful in my analysis.

**4.5.3 The embodied interaction perspective**

As already stated above, when analysing social interaction, it is of fundamental importance to microethnography that verbal and nonverbal communication are understood as interrelated and integrated and that the analysis has a holistic goal (Jones & LeBaron, 2002:499). To these scholars, “there is only communication” (500).\(^{88}\) Thus, the researcher looks at both what interactants say and do. A similar analytical understanding concerns the number of interactants you look at. Even though the researcher might only be interested in the actions of one interactant, he or she has to understand that person’s actions in relation to those of the other interactants. Here microethnography introduces the term mutual influence and urges the researcher to attend to “the dynamic interplay of two or more persons in their exchanges of verbal and nonverbal messages” (510). The notion of mutual influence resembles the Goodwin’s concept of reflexive awareness which is the one I will be using in the analysis to approach the dynamic interplay between teachers and pupils in grammar teaching interaction. Even though I am interested in how grammar is being taught, it is one of my core arguments that this teaching is not just carried out by the teacher in isolation, but is co-constructed in situ by teacher and pupils. This is what leads me to approach grammar teaching practices through analyses of classroom interaction in the first place.\(^{89}\)

**4.5.4 The materiality perspective**

Looking at what interactants say and do in relation to each other is, however, not enough. Jones & LeBaron (2002) state that verbal and nonverbal behaviors have no meanings in themselves and that their function must therefore be analysed “within an interactive context that provides for

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\(^{87}\) Heath & Hindmarsh (2002:11-12) also offer an account of how ethnographical fieldwork and video recordings go hand in hand in their research, each providing important resources for the analysis of social action.

\(^{88}\) Jones & LeBaron bring this statement as a quote from Streeck & Knapp (1992).

\(^{89}\) The co-constructed nature of interaction is also a mainstream concern in much CA-for-SLA research that focuses on verbal interaction only.

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that function” (506). Yet, as also explained above, the interactive context is not the only relevant context to microethnography. Also the physical surrounds and the material objects employed in face-to-face interaction must be considered. Analytically, these elements are understood “as resources available for utilization by interaction participants” (Jones & LeBaron, 2002:511). Heath & Hindmarsh (2002) describe the view on material realities in the following way:

Rather […] than treating material realities as having an overarching influence on the field of conduct and thereby assuming that their sense and significance remains stable throughout the emerging course of events, […] we need to examine the ways in which objects, artefacts and the like come to gain their particular significance at specific moments within courses of action. As we have seen, material features of the immediate setting are invoked, referred to, used, noticed, seen, at particular moments, for particular purposes, and they gain their sense or meaning, at those moments from within the action in which they are momentarily rendered relevant. They feature both in the production of action and in the ways in which the participants make sense of each others conduct (29-30).

It is this understanding of and orientation to materiality which I find to be of relevance to my analysis of grammar teaching practices. It is among other things how the teachers employ certain artefacts differently in their grammar teaching which in the detailed analysis discloses the complexity of grammar teaching practices.

Streeck & Mehus (2005) explain that the materiality perspective has been developed by what they term new-school microethnography. Whereas the old school of microethnography studied behavioral phenomena, the new school expanded this range, “The importance of the material setting as a resource and medium of interaction and sense making was discovered: We not only communicate with our voices and bodies but also with material objects” (389). This materiality perspective is closely related to the built space perspective presented next.

4.5.5 The built space perspective

LeBaron & Streeck (1997) consider the relation between space and interaction in an analysis of a video recorded murder interrogation. Such a context is arguably far away from the L2 classroom. Nevertheless, I find that LeBaron & Streeck’s analytical understandings of how interactants make use of the built space as well as of how institutional spaces are symbolically preordained and prescribe certain kinds of interaction are relevant to my analysis as well.

Considering how participants involve space in their interaction, LeBaron & Streeck write:

Participants in interaction must perform spatial maneuvers to secure their visual and auditory access to one another […], to keep each other informed about their mutual involvement […], and to regain the attention of those temporarily distracted […]. Participants also mark off their interaction from the surrounding world to make it an event with its own integrity and licenses for participation […]. Participants ‘formulate’ with their bodies the specific context or ‘definition of the situation’ that they hold during the successive ‘frames’ of
As described in the previous section, Goodwin’s concepts of participation framework and contextual configuration are apt at capturing such uses of space empirically. Here the point is that the relation between the built space and the interaction which takes place within it is reflexive, or, in LeBaron and Streeck’s words: “The built space shapes social interaction at the same time that interaction shapes social space” (1997:23). Along these lines, McIlvenny, Broth & Haddington (2009:1881) define space as a members’ phenomena and state that “as a social phenomenon – and it is as such that it can be manifestly relevant for participants to an interaction – it has to be locally accomplished. [...] member’s space is fundamentally an interactional and dynamic phenomenon.” Returning for a moment to Seedhouse’s notion of a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction, the understanding of the built space presented here explains why I do not find that the operationalisation of interaction as verbal behavior only is enough to capture how grammar is actually being taught.

Hence, by now I can begin to suggest that the business of teaching English grammar takes place in an interplay between the pedagogy, the interaction (both verbal and non-verbal), the use of artefacts and the built space. One further dimension which I also touched upon above in relation to Seedhouse’s research is the fact that English grammar teaching is an institutional business, i.e. in my case it takes place in the Danish gymnasium as an educational institution. LeBaron & Streeck consider the institutional dimension of built spaces as well.

4.5.6 The institutional perspective

LeBaron & Streeck (1997:4) state that “Prior to any movement or conversation, there is structured space”. Often, they argue, the places in which social interaction is conducted as well as the objects and their locations in these places embody social-symbolic order (2). They write:

We cannot simply regard this space and these objects as an undefined set of resources that may be arbitrarily appropriated and used. Built spaces and artifacts are residues of past acts of meaning; they constitute a material culture that divulges information about potential use. The interrogation room appears symbolically preordained as it prescribes (albeit loosely) certain kinds of activities and relationships that may be eventually realized through social interaction (4).

I do by no means suggest that the L2 classroom can or ought to be compared with an interrogation room. But I maintain that it is also possible to talk about a social-symbolic order of the L2 classroom, i.e. that certain kinds of activities and relationships are prescribed and that these are realised through social interaction. In that sense, the very room in itself with its decor, as well as the larger institution it is part of, may be said to affect the way grammar is being taught in that by prescribing social interaction it also constrains it. LeBaron & Streeck propose that the furniture within the room invites certain kinds of relationships (5), and thus, potential use. In the analysis, I therefore pay attention to the built space of the classrooms that I have been visiting...
and to how this space in different ways comes to play a role in the social interaction taking place in it.

With regard to institutionally constrained interaction LeBaron & Streeck moreover consider how this involves asymmetries of power (20).\textsuperscript{90} Again, this is visible from the social-symbolic order of the built space itself, but it also appears in the discourse that is part of the social interaction taking place. Much classroom research has been concerned with asymmetrical power relations in the classroom, and this finding is as such not a new thing. Yet, LeBaron & Streeck’s way of linking the asymmetry to the institutional, built space is of relevance to my study in which, the analysis shows, the relational identities of teacher and pupil are precisely performed in and with the classroom as a context which is at the same time affecting the interaction and itself being constituted as a classroom in that interaction.

4.6 Chapter summary

In this chapter I have laid down the foundations for my conceptual and analytical framework and in that way paved the way for the multimodal, interactional analyses on which this thesis bases its investigation of everyday English grammar teaching practices in the five observed classrooms. The chapter has first briefly positioned the thesis and its approach to interactional practices within a socio-interactional framework, and furthermore accounted for the fundamentally interdisciplinary and eclectic stance taken which I find to be necessitated by my research interest in practices of a situated, multimodal and interactional character. On this basis, the chapter has included and discussed the work of a range of researchers who have functioned as representatives of CA (CA-for-SLA), embodied interaction analysis or microethnography. By discussing and contrasting the approaches, I have made clear the stance taken in this thesis. As such, my borrowings from these approaches together make up the conceptual and analytical framework for conducting situated, multimodal, and interactional analysis of actual grammar teaching practices.

In the following chapter, I describe the methodological approach taken to produce data which are adequate for the type of analysis envisaged by the conceptual and analytical framework developed in this chapter. The research design presented in the following chapter is of an equally interdisciplinary and eclectic kind in that it discusses and combines different research methods in order to best further the research objectives of this thesis.

\textsuperscript{90} Streeck & Mehus (2005) also touch upon the issue of power in social action when they state that an emergent theme from contemporary microethnographic research is the interactional constitution of power and “the collaborative construction of social hierarchies by both high- and low-level participants” (399).
Chapter 5 Qualitative research design - data presentation and methods

5.1 Chapter overview and purpose

The purpose of this chapter is to describe how I have developed and followed a qualitative research design for my study of English grammar teaching practices. Designing the study along qualitative lines is to me a direct outcome of the meta-theoretical positioning and the conceptual and analytical framework presented in the previous chapter. Thus, in this chapter, I describe my more practical methodological reflections with regard to the processes of data production and data analysis, just as I consider issues of validity and generalisability.

The chapter is to some extent a narrative account, which I have chosen to structure in accordance with LeBaron’s five proposed steps of microethnography, as stated in the previous chapter. The five steps read: 1) Select a research site. 2) Collect data. 3) Analyse video data. 4) Digitise and transcribe key moments of interaction. 5) Describe and report research findings. Using these steps as the structuring principle is a way of directing attention to the research process and thereby of wanting to make sure that transparency will assist readers in their assessment of the analysis, discussion and conclusion of this thesis.

However, microethnography is not the only source that has guided my research process, and I therefore include several other approaches under each of the five steps. Hence, this chapter is eventually describing my specific constellation of methods and reflections. LeBaron (2008:3) states that “although microethnography takes different forms, depending on the interests and practices of the researcher, it generally involves five steps”. In the light of my stance on pragmatic eclecticism that was presented in the preceding chapter, I appreciate the openness of microethnography that is suggested in this quote. This is what allows me to design my specific study in which I can include other perspectives too in order to make it appropriate in relation to L2 classroom research. I thereby adapt LeBaron’s five steps to my needs, which is furthermore also to be seen in that I merge steps three and four. This is so because, in my work, these steps have overlapped. Separating them as much as it is being suggested by LeBaron’s simplified outline would be a misrepresentation of the actual procedure. Also, because both coding and transcription are essential parts of the analysis and neither precedes, nor proceeds it: “From the
Thus, in section 5.2, I briefly consider some general features of qualitative research and relate them to my study. In section 5.3, I describe my selection of and entry into the empirical field of the Danish gymnasium by means of pilot empirical research and a questionnaire. I furthermore argue for my decision to conduct ethnographic case studies and, in this connection, consider the methods of ethnography and case study, respectively. Finally, I describe how I have attempted to meet demands of ethical and responsible research behaviour. In section 5.4, I describe the different data that I have produced and the ways in which this was done, just as I consider issues of triangulation and member checks. Section 5.5 deals with the coding, selection, transcription and analysis of my video-recorded data which serve as primary data in my analysis. Lastly, in section 5.6, I consider criteria for evaluating qualitative research and comment upon issues of validity and generalisability.

5.2 Features of qualitative research

Mackey & Gass (2005:162-164) mention some of the central features of qualitative research to be rich description, natural and holistic representation and few participants. Duff (2008:30-31) adds inductive approach to research and examination of observable phenomena in naturally occurring contexts. These features clearly render qualitative research situated and context-specific, and this is also how I regard my investigation of English grammar teaching practices in five specific Danish gymnasium classes. In other words, my study shares these central features as the present chapter will demonstrate.

Particularly with regard to the inductive approach, Duff (2008:30-31) states that “qualitative research typically involves an inductive, as opposed to deductive, approach to research (particularly in interpretive research): looking for, describing, and accounting for observed patterns, as opposed to testing explicitly stated hypotheses and making strong causal claims.” This quote precisely pinpoints the difference between my undertaking in the present thesis, as opposed to existing L2 grammar instruction research. As shown in chapter 2, existing research is based on (mostly quantitative-experimental) deductive theory testing or theory building, whereas I, as described in the previous chapter, am concerned with investigating, analysing and describing empirical patterns or practices in the observed English grammar teaching.

Yet, qualitative researchers also vary greatly in meta-theoretical positioning and, with that, also in use of practical research methods.91 Meta-theoretically, Duff (2008:29) argues that it is possible to talk about a continuum between postpositivism and interpretivism within qualitative research. The socio-interactional basis that this thesis draws on is positioned towards the interpretivist end. Citing Ritchie & Lewis (2003), Duff (2008:29) describes interpretivism as acknowledging that “the researcher and the social world impact on each other”; that “findings are inevitably

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91 For instance, not all qualitative research takes an inductive approach to research (Duff, 2008:29).
influenced by the researcher’s perspective and values”; and that “the methods of the natural sciences are not appropriate because the social world is not governed by law-like regularities but is mediated through meaning and human agency.” Such an interpretivist stance obviously has implications for how the research is designed, as well as for how it is analysed, interpreted and concluded upon (Duff, 2008:180). Hence, determining one’s stance and explaining how it has been translated into actual research procedures must be regarded a prerequisite in reflexive research. The present chapter should be read in this light, as a presentation of how I have reflected upon the interpretivist conditions and attempted to deal with them in practice.

5.3 Step 1: Select a research site

LeBaron (2008:2) writes that ethnographers have traditionally chosen sites without knowing what they would observe, but that increasingly, the selection of research site is guided by a specific research agenda or question. The latter has been the case in my situation in that my selection of research site was directly guided by my focus on English grammar teaching practices as well as by an initial interest, when my doctoral studies began, in having an empirical focus on the Danish gymnasium. Having taught English grammar myself at university level, I found the coupling of research focus and research site highly relevant, in that I had already on several occasions pondered about the cycle constituted by pupils coming from the gymnasium to study English – and with that, English grammar – at the university and then, when having received their MAs, returning to the gymnasium to teach English – and with that, English grammar – to new pupils. Here, it had occurred to me that these pupils could not have been taught English grammar in the same way in the gymnasium, and I wondered how they themselves would end up teaching it to others. Thus, the overall selection of a research site was not a difficult task for me – the questions were rather how to gain enough initial knowledge to establish sound contact, how to reduce ‘the Danish gymnasium’ to something tangible and manageable, and how to go from there to actually producing data.

With regard to the reduction to something tangible and manageable, I decided early in the process to anchor my interest in English grammar teaching practices in the Danish gymnasium in ethnographic case studies. Several factors influenced this decision: my meta-theoretical positioning along socio-interactional lines; my idea of qualitative research as being situated and context-specific, and not least my inspiration from microethnography. As described in chapter 4, microethnographies are typically case studies of a particular setting or activity which seek to provide “a rich description and a thorough account of scenes of social interaction” (LeBaron, 2008:1). In this connection, Yin (1994:3) states that “the distinctive need for case studies arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena”, and my intention has exactly been to come to understand how English grammar teaching as a complex social phenomenon is accomplished in situ. Hence, I found an ethnographic case study approach to be adequate.

However, I felt that in order to take on the emic perspective that my positioning also entails, and furthermore, more pragmatically, to find suitable case study participants, I first had to gain more knowledge about the field and particularly about the teachers and how they themselves regard
their grammar teaching. Hence, I chose to conduct some empirical pilot research first and to follow this up with a questionnaire to English teachers in the Danish gymnasium. It is important to stress that the questionnaire in itself was not intended to provide final results for the thesis, but merely to function as a steppingstone into the rich empirical field that I would then afterwards approach qualitatively. In her work on case studies in applied linguistics, Duff (2008:110-111) also discusses the possibilities of a mixed-methods design and mentions this initial use of questionnaires.

In accordance with these decisions, I designed a table of the empirical process which I divided into different phases (Pilot research and questionnaire, Analysis and interpretation I, Case studies I (observations and video recordings), Analysis and interpretation II, Case studies II (feedback and interviews), Analysis and Interpretation III, Dissemination). For each phase I developed what I call a communication plan. In the plan I briefly described the following topics for each phase: Goal, Messages, Stakeholders, Intermediate aim, Medium, Time, Responsible, Activity, Resources, Criteria of success, Feedback. After the end of each phase, I conducted what I term a gate plan in which I evaluated the process and reflected on the outcome of the particular phase as well as on the realisations and decisions made. I did this in writing, and these files have been important archives or researcher logs (Duff, 2008) that I have been able to return to at later stages in my doctoral studies. The documents have provided me with an overview, but at the same time I have regarded both the table of phases and the communication plans as dynamic documents that have been altered along the way, as elements had to be rearranged.

Rearrangement has been a key constituent in the research process as a whole – sometimes because it was obvious from theoretical or empirical findings that my next step should be another one than I had planned, but most often because of both minor and major unforeseen occurrences. To mention the most influential ones, some of the teachers that had initially agreed to participate decided to leave the project, and for personal reasons, I had to put the project on hold twice for a considerable period of time. Because of these occurrences, the actual empirical process that I have been through does not match my initial expectations, but viewed positively, this is also, to me, what qualitative research is about: being flexible, open and ready to adjust to new situations or follow the empirical leads that show up along the way.

### 5.3.1 Pilot empirical research and a questionnaire

In order to construct a questionnaire that included questions, which the respondents would be able to relate to and find meaningful, my very first steps consisted in taking out a subscription to the English teachers’ own magazine, *AngloFiles*, and in trawling their different websites for issues, viewpoints or debates related to grammar teaching as well as to the Danish gymnasium.

92 I got the inspiration for the communication plan from a friend who had participated in a project management course at Lederweb.dk.
93 I comment further on the issue of attrition below.
reform that was launched in 2005. Furthermore, I talked informally with several English teachers whom I knew beforehand and asked them how they perceived their everyday at work, both overall and specifically with regard to their teaching of grammar. Recognising that the questions you pose to a large extent influence the answers you get, I then made a formal pilot interview with an English teacher in which the purpose was explicitly to talk about these themes in relation to how I could most beneficially construct the questionnaire. This English teacher was not someone I knew already, but someone whom I was put into contact with by a colleague of mine. On this basis and with software from the Internet-based analysis institute *InterResearch*, I developed an electronic questionnaire which thematically focused on the reform as well as grammar, grammar teaching, teacher roles and didactics.

In developing the questionnaire (and also later in analysing and interpreting it), I made use of the work of Andersen (2008). Andersen stresses that the analytical techniques and interpretive forms that one decides to employ as a researcher are dependent on the goal of one’s investigation as well as the knowledge one already has of the subject of study. In that connection it should be emphasised that the questionnaire, which I developed and conducted, was not of the traditional, quantitative kind. Its goal was not to give a representative, general picture, but rather to provide an initial impression of the field and the issues which the teachers themselves felt it relevant to bring up. I therefore also added a number of open questions to the questionnaire and in tick-off questions consistently added the possibility of answering ‘Other’ and of typing what this other would then be. In that way, I sought to enable respondents to give longer, more informative answers of their specific experiences and attitudes.

Before the questionnaire was made accessible I had it pilot tested by yet another English teacher who provided valuable feedback on the formulation of specific questions as well as on how to show consideration for the time pressure the teachers were already under because of the implementation of the reform. This English teacher was also someone whom an acquaintance had put me into contact with. Furthermore, I went to visit the teacher at her school. Here, she showed me around, introduced me to her colleagues and allowed me to observe two of her lessons. It was also arranged that I could observe two lessons with one of her colleagues. The first teacher was very young and new to teaching in the gymnasium and had not started her teacher training yet, whereas the latter was in her fifties and had many years of teaching English behind her. The visit did not result in further changes in the questionnaire, but it provided me with the first ethnographic impressions of the field. I produced field notes during my observations, and afterwards I wrote a short synopsis of what I had seen. The result was two

95 I also had an initial research interest in the Danish gymnasi reform that was launched in 2005 because it was the subject of a heated debate when I first embarked upon the project in November 2006. However, with time, I gained more insight both theoretically and empirically, the reform was adjusted, and the teachers appeared to become more accustomed to the new ways that the reform had resulted in. All this meant that when I eventually started to record actual teaching in the autumn of 2009, the reform no longer seemed so self-evident as a primary thesis theme. Also because my work until then had brought me closer and closer to the research gap that I defined in chapter 2, and to the approach to grammar teaching as being co-constructed in situated, multimodal and interactional practices. Hence, I decided to focus on this single, but by no means simple, theme.

96 For instance, in the open questions I had originally written that the respondent was welcome to write several lines. The pilot tester advised me to omit this in order not to irritate the respondents, and I did.
major realisations: Firstly, that when selecting teachers to participate in the case studies, I had to pay attention to their level of experience in that this appeared to affect the approach taken to grammar and grammar teaching by the two teachers. Secondly, that the context, much in accordance with my view on qualitative research all together, really does matter for the teaching of grammar and thus also has to be acknowledged in the study of such teaching. With context I am here quite narrowly referring to the physical setting of the classroom, the amount of pupils present, and the level of these pupils.

The questionnaire was accessible in the period between February and June 2007 from two websites that the English teachers should ideally visit regularly. I first tried to get hold of a list of e-mail addresses for all the members of the English teacher society, but since this was not approved of, I agreed with the chairperson of the society as well as the webmaster of the two sites that I could have links to the questionnaire placed there. In addition, I was allowed to have a one page information sheet about the questionnaire printed in an issue of AngloFiles. Yet, if assessed in terms of the number of respondents, the questionnaire cannot be said to have been successful. 91 teachers found the questionnaire, 34 started filling it out, and only 11 finished it. The questionnaire took fifteen minutes to complete and respondents were informed that by taking part, they had the chance of winning two tickets to the cinema. Judging from the answers that were provided in the questionnaire, one could perhaps infer that it was primarily a lack of energy and time that caused the low number of respondents since all the respondents stated that they felt such a lack and mentioned the gymnasium reform as the main reason for this. Nevertheless, and because the goal of the questionnaire was not to receive representative results, I decided to carry out an analysis and interpretation of the answers. I reported my results as an article in AngloFiles, in that way attempting to give back to the English teachers some of what they had, after all, given to me. I ended the article by inviting readers to address any questions or comments to me by e-mail, in that way opening a possibility for two-way communication, but no teachers decided to use that opportunity. The article was written in Danish and can be viewed in appendix 3.

97 As will be clear from the analysis proper, I have not eventually concentrated on teacher differences caused by varied levels of experience. This should thus be considered an initial stab at finding a pattern, which then changed with my detailed analyses that reveal practices which often cut across classes. As I explain later in this chapter, however, the orientation towards different levels of experience did assist me when finding teachers to follow further in the case studies.

98 The young teacher taught a first year HF class, whereas the experienced teacher taught a second year ordinary gymnasium class. HF is the two-year Higher Preparatory Examination, which to a large extent equals the three-year Gymnasium, but which only admits persons who have completed ten years of basic school (“Ministry of Education,” 2011). For this reason, there is often a difference in the level of the pupils attending the gymnasium and HF, respectively, with the gymnasium pupils typically having a higher level. Some gymnasium institutions also offer HF, which was the case at the institution where I did my pilot observations. From the beginning, I had decided to focus on the gymnasium only, but for the pilot observations I found it okay to observe an HF class as well because that was what was practically possible at the time.


100 I made this lottery on the basis of advice from InterResearch in order to ensure a high number of respondents. The respondent who eventually won the tickets was very pleased, but the chance of winning the award cannot be said to have made a large number of English teachers respond.

101 In the end of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked if they had further comments, and here several respondents wrote that they welcomed the project and found it highly relevant.
The questionnaire results emerge as a blend of personal feelings and attitudes, thoughts about reform consequences, grammar teaching reflections and teacher reflections more broadly. In relation to the direction my project has taken since the time of the questionnaire, the answers offered to the themes of grammar and grammar teaching are of greatest interest. I do not provide a detailed account here, but refer readers to appendix 3. Still, a brief summary is necessary. The responding teachers have different understandings of what grammar is, but all agree that English grammar should be taught in the gymnasium. The teachers are furthermore of the opinion that they vary their grammar teaching considerably, just as they take their material from a range of different sources. All the respondents answer that they find that their grammar teaching matters in the sense that it improves the pupils’ learning of the L2, yet they do not agree on the extent, and several of them stress the heterogeneity of classes. Finally, half of the respondents state that in the concrete teaching situation, they inform the pupils about the objective of the teaching, but they do not all do it on every occasion, and some of them find that such information is more suitable in some thematic courses than in others.

From the reporting on the results of the questionnaire, I went on to consider how the results could be used further in my project work. Andersen (2008) regards the questionnaire approach as one method in empirical research and states that such research should be regarded more as a learning process than a rational process. In a learning process, goals are not clearly defined in advance but are tentatively arrived at as the research progresses. Thus the concepts which one works with are adaptive, and the process is not dominated by calculation, but by inspiration. As stated, I have narrowed down and specified my focus later in the process as I have learned more about both the empirical and theoretical fields of my research. With that, the goal of my project has exactly been tentatively arrived at as the research has progressed. The questionnaire results therefore contain much more information than I have eventually employed and tried to extend. At the time, however, in order to find traces that I could pursue further, I first condensed the results into eight overall themes of which three deal specifically with grammar. These three read: Different understandings of grammar; Grammar teaching – variation, Grammar teaching material – variation. From here, it was apparent to me not only that there was indeed a complex social phenomenon to pursue with regard to investigating English grammar teaching in practice, but also that the ethnographic case study approach would be suitable for exploring further these variations because of the situated, detailed perspectives it offers.

As stated, the questionnaire also served the more practical purpose of recruiting participants for the case studies. With few respondents to the questionnaire, even fewer offered to actually take part in the project. Two teachers stated their willingness, a male with 5 years of experience, and a female who had just finished her teacher training period. I wrote an informative letter to these two teachers and sent it to them via e-mail. Thinking that I should conduct four case studies in total, I furthermore decided to ask the two teachers whose teaching I had observed during the preparation of the questionnaire. Both of these teachers had said that I was welcome to contact

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102 I comment on the number of case studies and the eventual selection of participants below.
them again, and since they, together with the two newly found participants, would constitute a broad spectrum in terms of English teaching experience, I did that. In the informative letter, I explained my project, stressing the empirical phases and what it would demand of a participant to take part in each phase. I did this in great detail in order to give a clear idea of what was entailed and thereby enable the potential participants to decide on an informed basis. All four accepted and with that I had reached the goals of my first empirical phase. In the following, I turn to consider the methods of ethnography and case study in order to be able to position my study and explain how it was eventually designed and conducted in relation to these methods. Simultaneously, I continue the account of the empirical process.

5.3.2 Ethnography

Drawing on Brewer (2000), Silverman (2006:67) defines ethnography as “the study of people in naturally occurring settings or ‘field’ by methods of data collection which capture their social meanings and ordinary activities, involving the researcher participating directly in the setting, if not also the activities, in order to collect data in a systematic manner.” Mackey & Gass (2005:169) state that the goals of ethnographic research is “to be emic, detailed, holistic, and situated in context with a focus on exploring how complex factors interact.” The ethnographic orientation to detail and situatedness is visible in both quotes, as is the central place which participant observations hold as a means to produce data.

However, the researchers referred to here do not appear to agree completely on the general interest of ethnographic research. Mackey & Gass (2005:169) write that ethnographies often use several methods to ‘tap into participants’ perspectives’, such as observations, interviews and diaries. In contrast to this, Silverman (2006:69) discards the idea of ‘tapping into’ and distinguishes between an old and a new form of ethnography, the new one concentrating on what people do rather than on what they think. In a quite provocative manner he states, “to put the argument in its most extreme form, I believe that the ethnographer should pursue what people actually do, leaving what people say they ‘think’ and ‘feel’ to the skills of a media interviewer” (69). Silverman’s argument is that researching what people think and feel presumes that “reality lies outside the words spoken in a particular time and place” (102-103). His counter position is that the microsocial order can be better appreciated by studying “how speech and other face-to-face behaviours constitute reality within actual mundane situations” (102-103, citing Maynard, 1989:144). Silverman thereby puts an ethnomethodological perspective on ethnography and as such brings it close to the approaches presented and discussed in the previous chapter, of course not least to microethnography (Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002:5). In this perspective, the focus is on examining members’ methods, i.e. on how people are doing social life. Therefore rapid theoretical coding should be avoided and one should instead work towards understanding and defining members’ categories, i.e. “how participants ‘code’ (constitute) particular phenomena” (Silverman, 2006:103). The two chapters in this part of the thesis should make it clear that it is this version of ethnography that I have eventually worked from. Within this perspective, access

103 However, as I describe later in this chapter, none of these participants eventually came to contribute to the study to an extent where I have made use of data from them.
to everyday interaction is fundamental, and recordings (audio and video) are therefore typically the primary data source. This is also the case in my situation which I elaborate on later in this chapter.

The orientation towards actual mundane situations is, however, a general denominator across the different versions of ethnography, as is the recognition of the context-specificity of ethnographic research and a preference for longitudinal research (Silverman, 2006:68). Likewise, constant revision and refinement in the light of the ongoing research is generally stressed as an advantage of ethnography (Mackey & Gass, 2005:169; Silverman, 2006:68). Citing Hammersley & Atkinson (1983), Silverman (2006) describes the particular funnel-shaped nature of ethnographic research in the following way:

Ethnographic research has a characteristic ‘funnel’ structure, being progressively focused over its course. Progressive focusing has two analytically distinct components. First, over time the research problem is developed or transformed, and eventually its scope is clarified and delimited and its internal structure explored. In this sense, it is frequently only over the course of the research that one discovers what the research is really ‘about’, and it is not uncommon for it to turn out to be about something quite remote from the initially foreshadowed problems (93).

As already described, this progressive focusing has been characteristic of my research process in which I have also over time transformed, clarified and delimited my overall research question. A major reason for the funnel-shaped structure is the ‘let-the-data-talk approach’ which ethnography takes, drawing on grounded theory. Silverman (2006:68) here talks about flexible research designs and about avoiding early use of theories and concepts. However, the common critique of grounded theory is also recognised: that it presumes a completely theory-free approach to empirical research and data. Silverman (2006:80) states that there is nothing to report without some perspective or a set of animating questions. He furthermore states (2006:97-98), “no research can ever be ‘theory-free’. We only come to look at things in certain ways because we have adopted, either tacitly or explicitly, certain ways of seeing.” I find this argument very similar to that which is put forward by hermeneutics. But having preconceptions and seeing social phenomena from specific perspectives is not the same as knowing in advance what one will find or making the data fit the theory one works with. At least it should not be, and this is where I find the hermeneutic commuting between empirical research and theory very useful in gradually changing or extending ones preconceptions (Gulddal & Møller, 1999). Furthermore, being explicit about one’s meta-theoretical positioning, or one’s ‘certain way of seeing’, is an essential element in acknowledging and managing that these are the conditions of research. For my part, I have presented my meta-theoretical standpoint in chapter 4, and I hope that the chapter has provided readers with an idea of my ‘certain way of seeing’, of how it differs from traditional L2 grammar instruction research, as well as of how it implies different methods and types of analysis.
Reflexivity and transparency

A final characteristic of ethnography to be mentioned here is the researcher’s own involvement in the research, particularly in the production of data. Doing participant observations, for instance, one is never just a researcher, but also someone who takes part in and thereby affects the social world one studies. This requires explicit reflection of one’s dual role and the consequences of it (Mackey & Gass, 2005:170). In considering the evaluation of ethnographic fieldwork, Wodak & Krzyzanowski (2008:196-197) state that objectivity, validity and reliability are often not suitable criteria because one as an ethnographer strives to understand the specificity of the subject of study, and because one is inextricably a part of the research process. They write (2008:197): “Data-gathering in fieldwork is always selective, and it is subjective since it necessarily reflects the particular experience of each researcher in and with his (or her) field. Doing away with subjectivity, thus, seems to be a futile endeavor.” For that reason they suggest entirely different criteria for ensuring the quality of ethnographic research. These criteria are (2008:197): transparency with regard to all steps of the research process; research objects define methods, not vice versa; interpretation is grounded in the data; data is gathered to challenge previous knowledge, not to fit or illustrate a theory; the researcher systematically self-reflects and explicates these reflections.

I have attempted to meet all these criteria throughout the research process and to account for that in this dissertation. Not least I view the present chapter as an important element in making evaluation of my research by other scholars possible. The criteria are shared in case study research. This concordance is not surprising; ethnography and the qualitative case study method share many traits and are often combined. In fact, I would argue that ethnographic research always entails some form of a case study. In the following I describe the qualitative case study method in relation to my research.

5.3.3 Case studies

Case study vs. ethnography

In her book on case study research in applied linguistics, Duff (2008) presents several definitions of case study and states that the key occurring principles are: “boundedness or singularity, in-depth study, multiple perspectives or triangulation, particularity, contextualization, and interpretation” (23). With these as the principles on which a case study is carried out, the main elements of data production are: key participants, participant observation, contextualised data collection, prolonged on-site presence and researcher logs (25). It is thus obvious that the case study shares both principles and data production methods with ethnography. Yet, Duff distinguishes the case study from ethnography by arguing that whereas ethnography focuses on social groups and the cultural basis for their behaviour, the case study examines the behaviours of

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104 I discuss issues of validity and reliability in section 5.6.
105 But not necessarily vice versa in that case studies can also, if selected and conducted with these intentions, entail representativeness and generalisability (Flyvbjerg, 2006).
individuals. She furthermore states that several case studies can be involved in an ethnographic study (35). Mackey & Gass (2005) appear to make the same distinction in writing:

Like ethnographies, case studies generally aim to provide a holistic description of language learning or use within a specific population and setting. However, whereas ethnographies focus on cultural patterns within groups, case studies tend to provide detailed descriptions of specific learners (or sometimes classes) within their learning setting. Case studies are also usually associated with a longitudinal approach, in which observations of the phenomena under investigation are made at periodic intervals for an extended period of time (171).

However, adopting Silverman’s view on ethnography presented above, I do not reserve ethnography to do research on the cultural patterns of social groups only, and neither do I, from my socio-interactional perspective, regard case studies as necessarily focusing on a single individual. To me, a case study is ethnographic when it employs the data production methods of ethnography, i.e. when it is longitudinal, when it makes use of participant observations (or observations), when the case and the setting in which it is situated are acknowledged as context-specific, and representativeness and generalisability are thereby not an objective in itself. I thus regard ethnographic case studies as a specific way of approaching something, not as a way of approaching something specific. This is in line with the use of ethnography that is taken up by microethnography (Streeck & Mehus, 2005). Thus, my investigation of specific practices within a particular institutional setting as well as my focus on particular individuals do not in themselves render my empirical research ethnographic case studies. Rather, I regard it as ethnographic case studies because I do these things on the basis of the specific data production methods just outlined and, in doing so, recognise the specific conditions of such research.

**Meta-theoretical positioning**

As is the case with ethnography, there are also different meta-theoretical positionings that make use of the case study method. Duff (2008) describes these as being on a continuum in the following way,

with respect to qualitative research, case study methodologists come from many philosophical persuasions that could be situated on a continuum that includes, at one end, relatively conservative positivists and postpositivists (e.g. Yin, 2003a, 2003b) seeking to find external truths and ultimately be able to make predictions; interpretive or constructivist scholars (e.g. Merriam, 1998) somewhere in the middle of the continuum, who seek to understand the how and why of phenomena from a holistic, participant-informed perspective; and critical standpoint theorists, at the far end of the continuum, who seek to understand the social, political, and economic (material) conditions (e.g., related

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106 Note that the work employed by Mackey & Gass centres on methodology and design in second language research and, therefore, they describe case study specifically in relation to this research field. Thus the quote should not be taken to mean that case studies can only be applied to look at language learning or use.

107 Mackey & Gass (2005:172) do not do that either when writing that cases can also be individual classes or schools.
to race, gender, power, class, age, immigrant status) that they assume may systematically disadvantage certain people (33).

It should be clear from the previous chapters that my position is the middle, interpretive or constructivist one, and Duff (2008:35) states that this is now usually the case with case studies in applied linguistics. As the quote suggests, one’s positioning has consequences for how the outcome of the case study is viewed. A general advantage of case studies according to Duff, however, is that they may generate “new hypotheses, models, and understandings about the nature of language learning or other processes” (43) by researching a particular phenomenon through either a unique or typical case.

**Typical cases**

What I hope to do in this relation is to generate new understandings of English grammar teaching processes – or practices – via typical cases. In regarding specific English teachers grammar teaching in specific classrooms at specific Danish gymnasiums as typical cases, I do not mean to suggest that these teachers are representatives of all English teachers teaching English grammar to L2 learners regardless of their location, nor do I see them as representing English grammar teaching in all Danish gymnasiums. Yet, the cases are typical exactly because there are other English teachers teaching English grammar to L2 learners, in the same type of institution and in other institutional settings as well.108 As such, though the case studies are context-specific, they are not examining a unique social phenomenon in a unique location. Furthermore, I find that the research question you work from must influence whether your case can be regarded as unique or typical. For my part, I have not included in my data production and analysis, for instance, personal aspects of the participants’ lives because I have not found these to be relevant to my research interest in situated, interactional and multimodal English grammar teaching practices.109 I have thus not approached the teachers and their classes with an intention of making them unique, and I could, in principle, have chosen other English teachers in other Danish gymnasiums and carried out the same project. This would, no doubt, have yielded different results, but it does suggest the typicality of the cases. Hence, it is important to note that pursuing a typical case is not the same as depreciating the context-specificity of one’s case study.

**Context and scope of data**

It is implied in the above that what to regard as context in a case study also depends on your research interest and on how much it is relevant and necessary to include “to gain a fuller, more ecological understanding” (Duff, 2008:38). Duff (2008:38) states that in some SLA case studies, the participant is looked at within all his or her social networks (home, school, community, workplace), and in others the classroom context or a particular activity setting is sufficient. I find this to be a pragmatic solution to the controversy over context within qualitative research and,

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108 I discuss issues of representativeness and generalisability in section 5.6.

109 Duff (2008) refers to a range of SLA case studies that have examined a specific learner’s L2 learning trajectory because of and in the light of the special conditions in this person’s life. For instance her own 2.5 years long case study of Jim, a Cambodian refugee immigrating to Canada. Such a case study is based on a unique case.
furthermore, I believe that it ties in well with the approach taken in microethnography. As I described in chapter 4, microethnography takes a broader approach to context than the narrow CA definition of what is visibly made relevant in the interaction by the interactants themselves by also incorporating ethnographic data such as observations and interviews (LeBaron, 2008:1), and generally regarding fieldwork as an important supplement to video recordings in order for the researcher to become increasingly familiar with the setting (Heath & Hindsmarsh, 2002:11-12, 16). This is all due to the objective of microethnography; namely “to provide a rich description and a thorough account of scenes of social interaction” (LeBaron, 2008:1).

I align with this objective in this project: the scenes of social interaction that I am concerned with are situations of English grammar teaching in five Danish gymnasium classes, and the rich description and thorough account are enabled exactly because I employ ethnographic case studies to produce data. Besides focusing on the concrete interaction around grammar, I have thus also, through observations and formal interviews as well as informal conversations with the teachers, concentrated on gaining knowledge about the classes followed, their subject combinations, their level, the teachers’ opinion about the classes, the specific gymnasiums as workplaces, the teachers’ understanding of and attitude towards grammar, the teachers’ knowledge of SLA research, the extent to which they use the ministerial guidelines and their view on these. I found these to be the relevant and necessary elements in relation to the research question that I work from. It is important to stress that not all of this knowledge is explicitly included in the thesis. Some of it has worked rather as background knowledge in my analyses of concrete interaction and, in that way, helped me make my analysis more thorough. This latter point touches specifically on the delicate balance that I have attempted to strike in this project by, on the one hand, doing ethnographic case studies and, on the other, basing my analysis almost exclusively on analyses of video-recorded interactional data. In section 5.5, I discuss this issue further with regard to my approach to the data produced. Here I merely want to suggest that it is both possible and beneficial to distinguish the methods one uses when producing the data from the methods employed when analysing that data. Naturally, the two are and have to be closely related since the former is to feed the latter, but inspired by microethnography I maintain that the production of ethnographic case study data can beneficially be broader than what the eventual analysis immediately appears to suggest. This can of course be a sign of misunderstood methods, but as microethnography proposes, it can also be a way of giving one’s video-based interactional analysis more grounding because one’s objective is different from that in pure CA interactional analyses.

Duff (2008:124) argues that contextualisation is important in most education research, for instance with regard to judging the transferability of findings. She mentions three kinds of contextualisation to be considered: theoretical, methodological and empirical (124-125). In this

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110 Since my interest is in the teaching of grammar and not in the learning of it, I have not concentrated on the pupils’ learning trajectories, their attitudes towards grammar, their opinion about their teacher etc., though I have from my socio-interactional perspective included them as participants and thereby contributors to the situated, interactional and multimodal construction of English grammar teaching practices.

111 The differences between CA and microethnography were discussed in the previous chapter.
dissertation, chapters 2 and 4 provide the theoretical contextualisation or frame within which to read and understand my study. The methodological contextualisation is afforded in the present chapter and also in chapter 4. The empirical contextualisation is characterised as “a description of the actual situation in which the case is embedded and in which the research questions will be addressed” (125) and can be defined on several analytic levels: “it may be a linguistic or discursive context, task or activity context, a social, political, or cultural context, an instructional or institutional context, an interactional context, or a combination of these” (125). As just described, the analysis proper mostly includes the immediate, interactional context, combined with a description of the activity that the class is engaged in in the given episode analysed. As a supplement to this, chapter 3 serves to provide a more political-institutional frame to the concrete classroom interaction. And lastly, the present chapter offers descriptions of the case study participants, the way they have been selected, and their internal relations.

A final, perhaps self-evident point to include here is that with my ethnographic case studies, I investigate English grammar teaching practices in their natural context (Duff, 2008:125) and not in for instance a laboratory, which is the research site of much quantitative-experimental L2 grammar instruction research (see chapter 2). Some distinguish in a more detailed manner between an instructed and a natural context (for example Mackey & Gass, 2005:171) in which case my research takes place in an instructed context (the five classrooms). However, the important thing to stress is that even though much existing L2 grammar instruction is also carried out as case studies in classrooms, my study cannot be grouped with this type of research exactly because I take a microethnographic and not a quasi-experimental approach to the classroom context.

**Multiple case studies and criteria for selection**

A case study may have more than one focal participant in which case one is conducting multiple or collective case studies (Duff, 2008:36). Mackey & Gass (2005:172) describe this approach as useful if the purpose is to compare and contrast behaviour, whereas Duff (2008:36) states that it “increases the sense of representativeness of, or variation among, cases.” However, the advantages has to be weighed against the time and other resources taken up by extra cases and, also, one has to consider possible consequences for the depth of one’s analysis if one includes two or more cases (13). In multiple case studies on L2 learning, there are often four to six focal participants, which also helps in terms of managing possible attrition (36). As already described in the introductory chapter, this dissertation is based on three case studies – or, more correctly, on three English teachers and their teaching in five different classes.\footnote{112 I have followed Teacher A and Teacher C in one class each and Teacher B in three classes.} I prefer to regard them as different case studies and not as one case study with several focal participants/cases. The simple reason for this is that I have not followed three L2 learners in the same classroom, but three different L2 teachers in different classrooms. Yet, I would term the approach ‘multiple case studies’ in that they serve the same research objective. All things being equal, I get a broader and more varied impression of English grammar teaching by conducting more than one case study.
However, cf. the discussion on typical cases and context above, I do not want to argue that by selecting three case studies I have ensured that my findings are representative of all English grammar teaching in the Danish gymnasium in general. Rather, it is the possibility of comparing and contrasting that I have found beneficial in the data analysis.\footnote{I tentatively began my data analysis by looking for contrasts in the three teachers’ teaching. Only later did it occur to me that on a level above detailed micro-dissimilarities there were similarities – ways of accomplishing the grammar teaching that cut across teachers and classes.}

The decision to do precisely three case studies is most of all a pragmatic one, guided also by issues to do with attrition, time and management of large amounts of data. As described earlier in this chapter, I first pursued four case studies. However, three of the four case study participants that I had first engaged decided to leave my project.\footnote{These decisions were taken while I was away on maternity leave and the project was on stand-by.} One of them because he found another job, one because she was too busy with her teacher training, and one simply because she felt that her schedule was already more than full. Then I was suddenly down to one, but I did manage to find two new participants.\footnote{Below, I provide a detailed description of my selection strategies in the second round of finding case study participants.} However, in the end the only initial teacher left also involuntarily had to stop her participation in the project, and I set out to conduct the two case studies that I was then left with. Thus, during the process of data production I realised that I had to find yet another participant because of the way I had been following the two teachers who were already participating.\footnote{I further describe the reason for including a third participant below. Put briefly, I realised that my periodic visits in the two first teachers’ classes prevented me from following the grammar teaching from lesson to lesson more intensively.}

It should be stressed, however, that despite this apparent go-with-the-flow approach, I have worked from certain criteria when searching for and selecting participants. In accordance with the realisations made from my first pilot observations, I went for teachers with different levels of experience as well as classes in different years (first, second and third grade). Again, this was not to discard the context-specificity of the data and the analysis, but in order for it to be typical cases, I found that it should be cases that other gymnasium teachers could relate to – which importantly is not the same as identify with – no matter their level of experience and the grade(s) they teach.

In multiple case studies, the cases can be sampled either intensively or widely, depending on how varied one wants them to be. Duff (2008:119) states that there has to be a rationale for sampling either within a narrower band or across variables and attributes. In my project, I could have decided on a wider frame, choosing for instance cases from other educational levels too (e.g. primary school and university besides upper secondary school), or cases from the same educational level, but in other countries (e.g. upper secondary school level in Germany and France besides Denmark). I could also have decided on a more intense frame, going for cases with greater similarity (e.g. teachers at the same gymnasium with the same level of experience teaching classes in the same grade). I regard my decision to position my study somewhere...
between these two ends as an outcome of the considerations that I have described so far. On the one hand, there was my empirical interest in the gymnasium, which was spurred by the heated debate about the gymnasium reform. On the other hand, there was my positioning with regard to qualitative research, context-specificity and typical cases. Thus, I find that with my fundamental interest in qualitatively investigating English grammar teaching practices in the Danish gymnasium, I have set up criteria for case selection that, at the same time, prioritise a narrow band and a relatively wide covering of that band.\footnote{Again, with ‘covering’ I do not mean to imply that each of the three case study participants should be seen as representatives of how ‘grammar is being taught with this level of experience or within this grade’. Ultimately what I can do, then, is to describe the similarities and differences between these three specific teachers’ ways of teaching English grammar.}

5.3.4 The case study process

Moving on to describe the actual case study process, I include a figure (Figure 3) taken from Duff (2008:100) which graphically describes the crucial components and steps in a case study as well as the relations between empirical, theoretical, analytical and communicative elements.

117
Knowing in advance one’s field, research objectives and research questions

Duff (2008:102) states that in embarking upon a case study there are important aspects of one’s study that have to be considered and decided upon in advance. First of all, knowing one’s field or the field to which one wants to make a contribution is imperative (see the box ‘Understanding and generating theory’ in figure 3). To this end, my first theoretical move was to conduct my literature review in which I define the research gap that I seek to address (see chapter 2). I had originally thought that I would be producing data and reading for the literature review at the same time, but as described above, three of the original participants decided to end their participation in the project, and I found myself with one participant only. I decided to start up with her and then work on finding others as well as on the literature review. However, I only managed to make three initial visits at her gymnasium before she had to go on sick leave. Although this was very unfortunate, it did provide me with the opportunity to devote a period to intense work on the literature review while I was seeking for new case study participants and setting up arrangements, and this, I believe, benefitted my research in that I became completely clear about the research deficit and thus also more aware of the specific purpose of my empirical research. However, I also find that my initial empirical maneuvers described earlier in this chapter contributed to this.

Besides knowing one’s field, but strongly related to that, Duff (2008:101, 104) further argues that one should be clear about the objectives of one’s research and also about the research questions to be addressed (see the box ‘Research “problem” and design’ in figure 3). The questions should be “clear, specific, answerable, meaningfully interconnected and substantively relevant” (104). Duff even goes as far as saying that “Besides delimiting the objectives of research and the type of case to be analyzed, researchers must also decide on the exact phenomenon to be examined and the unit of analysis” (102). I agree that consideration of these issues is highly important before the actual data production and analysis, and as described above, I also planned the different phases of my empirical research as much as I could from the beginning. Yet, I maintain that the contextual and emic perspective on research taken in microethnography also entails that the point of departure is taken in the data, and I argue that deciding upon the exact phenomenon to be investigated as well upon the unit of analysis in advance – and sticking to that decision – can have substantive consequences; in the worst case scenario it can even render the research irrelevant.

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118 In the first visit, I was shown around at the gymnasium and introduced to the principal, to other teachers and to the class I was meant to follow. I presented my project briefly to the class and gave them consent forms to fill out for my next visit which took place the week after. During this visit as well as during the third, I observed the class with the intention of making it more and more used to and comfortable with my presence before I started the actual video-recording of the teaching. In the subsequent case studies I changed this prolonged initial phase due to time constraints and because both teachers and pupils found it acceptable and most straightforward to start on the recordings right away after consent had been obtained.

119 This is obviously not to be misunderstood in the sense that I was now able to make the empirical data fit a given theory. With a research interest in examining everyday grammar teaching practices (and not for instance test a theoretically conceived grammar teaching method) this would not be possible either.
and beside the point.\textsuperscript{120} Returning to the hermeneutic spiral process and the concept of preconception, I am hereby not saying that one should feign a completely unmotivated looking. Rather, being clear about one’s preconceptions and open to alter them in the ongoing affiliation with both empirical and theoretical research is to me the key.\textsuperscript{121} As described earlier in this chapter, I view the issues of definitive research objective and exact research questions as being more emergent than predetermined, in line with Silverman’s concept of progressive focusing. My research questions, which were presented in chapter 1, thus did not appear in that form from the beginning, but have been altered, narrowed down and specified along the way.

Importantly, however, Duff does soften her viewpoints: as stated, the figure of the case study components (see figure 3) is marked by double arrows suggesting the non-linearity of the process, and she furthermore presents several examples of case study research questions that have developed as research has progressed (104-107). She also introduces the distinction between closed and flexible case study design, the latter referring to a design that evolves throughout the research process (113). Hence, Duff too appears to want to strike a balance when stating: ”Most qualitative researchers recognize the importance of being accountable to the unfolding data and situation and view flexibility as a strength of interpretive research. That does not mean that the studies should be unstructured or without focus, though” (113). Duff’s rather firm statements on what has to be known in advance can thus perhaps most of all be seen as an attempt to silence earlier critique of the case study method for being unplanned and unmotivated theoretically (57).

Another, more practical reason for considering one’s goals, questions and methods in advance is that it allows the researcher to inform potential case study participants properly about focus, duration, activities and procedures (Duff, 2008:114). I now move on to describe how I proceeded with regard to finding the three teachers (and the five classes) that eventually became the participants in my case studies (see the box ‘Research “problem” and design’ in figure 3).

\textit{Case selection and sampling}

Duff (2008:114) states that the first steps in finding one’s cases consist in narrowing down the type of case by deciding upon what entity will constitute the case as well as upon what phenomenon within the case will be investigated. As already described, I early in the process

\textsuperscript{120} I find that this would for instance have been the case if I had decided to maintain my initial interest in the Danish gymnasium reform. As described earlier, the reform did not eventually appear to be the major empirical concern that I had originally thought. In the same vein, in my eventual examination of English grammar teaching practices, I have not approached the classroom data with a predetermined definition of grammar teaching as also described in chapter 2.

\textsuperscript{121} With this, I do not mean to disqualify the conversation analytic concept of unmotivated looking (Sacks, 1984; Silverman, 2006) which works as an established method when the ambition is the traditional conversation analytic one of creating collections of any given phenomenon, building generalised claims about what people do and how. Sacks (1984:27) describes it thus: “if we pick any data, without bringing any problems to it, we will find something.” However, as also discussed in the previous chapter, the microethnographic approach that I work from is usually based on case studies of particular – and thereby predetermined – settings or activities, but sharing the emic perspective. In my analyses, I have thus from the beginning focused specifically on grammar teaching in a specific setting, but been open to whatever would appear as grammar teaching from the participants’ own interaction in that setting. It is in this light that I consider Duff’s prescriptions here.
decided to focus on English teacher’s teaching of English grammar. The next step is to select one’s cases. In describing how I did this, I include an account of the relations between the three teachers as the researched and me as the researcher, as well as of the relations between the three teachers. The former is important information in that as a case study researcher I am myself a heavily involved instrument of data production (Duff, 2008:118-119). The latter is important because internal relations between participants in some instances might affect the findings of the study. By including these aspects here, I thus mean to make both process and findings as transparent as possible.

Duff (2008:115) describes a range of different case selection strategies, grouped within four overall categories which read, ‘Selection of cases with particular characteristics’, ‘Conceptual Rationale’, ‘Emergent strategies’, ‘Strategy lacking rationale’. Considering in hindsight my selection of cases, I can say that I have made use of sampling types from all four groups. Thus, from the first group, my selection of cases and the similarities and differences between them can be viewed as a result of merging the strategies of ‘multiple-case sampling (similar or contrasting cases), ‘typical case sampling (average or typical exemplars) and ‘stratified sampling’ (with predefined points of variation or subgroups). As already described, my case selection criteria concerned level of experience and the grade(s) taught (first, second or third grade), and I was fortunate to find three teachers with varying level of experience who together covered all grades. Table 1 shows how the criteria are distributed between the teachers. It also shows how I categorise the teachers and their classes in the analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Teacher designation in analysis</th>
<th>Classes</th>
<th>Class designation in analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New male teacher</td>
<td>Teacher 1</td>
<td>Third grade</td>
<td>Class A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very experienced female teacher</td>
<td>Teacher 2</td>
<td>Second grade</td>
<td>Class B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Second grade</td>
<td>Class C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Third grade</td>
<td>Class D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatively experienced female teacher</td>
<td>Teacher 3</td>
<td>First grade</td>
<td>Class E</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, I write that I was fortunate because there was also a great deal of chance involved in finding the three teachers. Thus, Teacher 1 was primarily found through ‘convenience sampling’ (available cases) which resides in the fourth grouping, ‘Strategy lacking rationale’. Duff (2008:114-115) also terms this type ‘opportunistic convenience sampling’ and describes it as selecting people in one’s own social network, and this is what I did. Teacher 1 is a former fellow university student with whom I had not had any actual contact after we graduated in 2006. From mutual

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122 Having described my initial selection of participants above and the attrition that followed, I here concentrate on the selection of the ultimate three teachers and their classes.

PART THREE: CONCEPTUAL, ANALYTICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

-123-
friends I knew that he had taken his teacher training at a gymnasium in the eastern part of Jutland and was now employed at a gymnasium in a larger city in the northern part of Jutland. I knew Teacher 1 well enough to contact him informally so I did that via a short e-mail in July 2009. In the e-mail I briefly described the reason for my contacting him and asked whether I could visit him at his workplace to tell him more about my project. He kindly agreed to that and quickly said that he would like to participate. In the same way, though more formally, I contacted three other teachers – one former university colleague and two that I did not know in person but heard about from others. Unfortunately none of these attempts succeeded.

Teacher 2 was therefore found on the basis of the strategies of ‘snowball or chain sampling’ (finding cases by recommendation, referral, or association with others) and ‘reputational case selection’ (on the recommendation of key participants or experts). The former strategy is placed in the grouping ‘Emergent strategies’ and the latter in ‘Conceptual rationale’. What I did was to ask Teacher 1 whether he knew of any English teachers that would want to participate. I also said that it would be great if it could be one with a certain amount of experience, considering that he was himself so relatively new to the job. Teacher 1 then told me about the teacher who had been his mentor during his teacher training at the gymnasium in the eastern part of Jutland. He described her as an adept teacher with many years of experience and a solid foundation in grammar as well as an interest in teaching it to her pupils. He furthermore contacted her to inform her that he had recommended her and that I would be contacting her myself. I did this via a formal letter which was sent via e-mail in September 2009. In the letter I explained my project and invited her to participate. I stressed my focus and objective, what it would demand of her and her pupils to participate time-wise and in terms of data production, and that I did not have a normative interest in judging her teaching. Teacher 2 immediately responded that she would be happy to participate and in her written reply further told me about how she had always had an interest in grammar, about how the gymnasium reform had influenced the teaching of grammar, as well as about the classes that she currently taught.

I agreed with Teacher 1 that I could follow one of his English classes, a third grade (Class A), and with Teacher 2 that I could follow all her English classes, two second grades and one third grade (Classes B, C, D), provided that the pupils were willing to participate too. In co-operation with the teachers and with access to their teaching schedule, I made a plan for my visits at each gymnasium during the fall 2009.

123 I turn to the issues of access strategies and consent below.
Combined (also with the visits in the third teachers’ class which I return to shortly) the plan looked like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dates of recording</th>
<th>Teacher 1 Class A</th>
<th>Teacher 2 Class B</th>
<th>Teacher 2 Class C</th>
<th>Teacher 2 Class D</th>
<th>Teacher 3 Class E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28.09.2009</td>
<td>X*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02.10.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td>X*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05.10.2009</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08.10.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td>X*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.10.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td>X1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.10.2009</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02.11.2009</td>
<td>X1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.11.2009</td>
<td>(X)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.11.2009</td>
<td>(X)</td>
<td>(X)</td>
<td>(X)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>20.11.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td>X2</td>
<td></td>
<td>X2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.11.2009</td>
<td>(X)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.11.2009</td>
<td>X1</td>
<td></td>
<td>X3</td>
<td>X3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03.12.2009</td>
<td>X2</td>
<td></td>
<td>X4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04.12.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X*1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.02.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.02.2010</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01.03.2010</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09.03.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Recording days distributed on teachers and classes

As is visible from the table, I decided on a rather longitudinal approach to data production in the cases of Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 with visits at periodic intervals (Mackey & Gass, 2005:171). However, while I was in the midst of producing data in four different classes, I decided to find yet another English teacher. The more data I produced, the more it occurred to me that it would be interesting to find a more intense course, in which I could follow a teacher for a shorter period of time, but then with repeated visits in all English lessons in a given class in that period. In other words, I found it relevant to also follow the grammar teaching from lesson to lesson. With my periodic visits in classes A, B, C and D, I was not able to observe any possible continuity across lessons.

124 The places marked with ‘X*’ indicates my first, introductory visit in each class where I informed the classes about my project and handed out the consent forms. In the case of Class A, B, C and D, I did not record the lesson during these visits, but merely observed the teaching and took field notes. ‘(X)’ indicates that my visit was cancelled. ‘X’ not followed by a number indicates that there was no grammar teaching of any mode (see chapter 6) taking place because the class was to watch a film, end the course of a literary theme or the like. The coding of the data as well as the selection of extracts to form the basis for the formation of clips to be used in the analysis is thus based on the places marked with ‘X + a number’. I have numbered these chronologically within each column to facilitate the reading of the table.
I talked with both Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 about this, and Teacher 1 one more time offered to try to help me by asking his colleagues whether any of them would allow me to follow his or her teaching for a short period of time. I gratefully accepted that offer, but also said that if possible I would prefer to have a teacher who taught first grade since neither Teacher 1 or Teacher 2 did that. To that extent snowball sampling was again involved in the selection of the third teacher, as was ‘criterion sampling’ (cases meet predetermined criteria) under the grouping ‘Conceptual rationale’. Again I was lucky that one of Teacher 1’s colleagues responded positively to his request. I had her e-mail address from Teacher 1 and then e-mailed her an introductory letter in the same manner that I had done to Teacher 2. I did this in the beginning of February 2010. I included the same information and added how far I had come with the two other case studies and that the specific idea with adding her as the third case was to follow her English teaching in her first grade class intensively for a short period of time. Teacher 3 agreed to this, and together we decided upon a schedule in the same way that I had done it with Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 (see table 2). Besides the fact that Teacher 3 met the criteria of teaching a first grade class that I could follow, she could furthermore be placed in between Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 with regard to level of experience in that she had been working as a gymnasium teacher for five years after her teacher training. With Teacher 1 having almost no experience and Teacher 2 having three decades of experience, I found that the cases were now more appropriately spread across the continuum. Figure 4 recapitulates the three cases.

In terms of the relations between me and the case study participants as well as internally between the participants, the resulting picture is thus one with Teacher 1 positioned centrally, knowing me on the one hand and knowing Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 on the other, whereas Teacher 2, Teacher 3 and I did not know each other beforehand. These relations are sketched in figure 5.
Of course, the selection of case study participants could have gone through different channels, and as also described earlier in this chapter, I did first try a strategy more related to recruitment through public advertisement (my recruitment via the questionnaire). Duff (2008:116) writes that with this type of recruitment the researcher has no choice over who responds and that it is only in the situation where more possible participants than needed have indicated their interest that one can select between them. This was the scenario that I had hoped for with the questionnaire, but as described only two marked an interest, and it actually turned out that one of these two, the young female teacher, was a former student from Aalborg University whom I had taught English grammar myself. So even with more open and uncontrolled sampling strategies, one can end up with participants that one knows already. I do not find such prior acquaintance in itself to be problematic as long as one is open and reflexive about it and furthermore makes sure to provide the same amount of information to the participant as one would have done to any other, previously unknown participant. If these obligations are being met, I find convenience sampling to be a perfectly legal and useful strategy which furthermore has the advantage that “access and informed consent are easier to obtain” (Duff, 2008:116). I comment on my procedure with regard to these issues in the following (see the box ‘Ethical considerations’ in figure 3).

**Access strategies, exit strategies and informed consent**

Duff (2008:127) argues that both access and exit strategies should be planned in advance of the empirical study, and Mackey & Gass (2005:190) explicate this further by providing a checklist to consider in setting up observations in classrooms:

1. Contact the classroom instructor (in person if possible)
2. Determine the schedule for observation
3. Negotiate the observer’s role in the classroom, including regular previsits, arrival time, introductions, and seating arrangements
4. Debrief the instructor (either during or after the observational period) on the findings of the study
5. Clearly express appreciation to the instructor, students, and administration

In terms of access strategies, Silverman (2006:81) distinguishes between closed and open settings as well as between covert and overt access. In closed settings, access is controlled by gatekeepers, whereas in open settings access is freely available. Covert access is access obtained without the participants’ knowledge, while overt access is “based on informing subjects and getting their agreement, often through gatekeepers” (81). I regard the five classrooms as closed settings that I have had to ask permission to observe. In agreement with the first point of the checklist above, I have regarded the teacher as the immediate gatekeeper and contacted him or her directly. However, in all instances he or she has had to obtain approval from both the principal of the gymnasium in question and from the class or classes to be followed. This also means that the access has been overt – all participants (gymnasium, teacher, pupils) have been informed of my study and have agreed to participate.

Above, I have described how I first contacted the teachers via e-mail as well as the detailed level of information I provided them with concerning the objectives of my study, what their participation would demand of them etc. Silverman (2006:325) terms this a ‘permissions letter’ and states that it is important that the information given addresses the participants and is not for instance complicated by technical or theoretical accounts. I have tried to strike a balance in my permissions letters to the teachers because I on the other hand did not want to belittle their capacity as teachers and their possible interest in and knowledge about second language acquisition and grammar teaching in that relation. A copy of my permissions letter to Teacher 2 can be viewed in appendix 4. As also described above, the next step was to set up a schedule for my visits and furthermore talk with the teachers about obtaining consent from the pupils, arrival time, placement of cameras and microphones (points 2 and 3 in the checklist).

The teachers passed the information on to the principal, so his approval was provided via them. As for the pupils, the teachers first informed them about my study as well as about how I had approached them, asking for assistance, and then the pupils were told that I would show up myself to tell them more about the study and on that basis have them decide whether they wanted to participate or not. I explicitly told the teachers to let the pupils know that their participation was voluntary and that they should in no way feel pressured to accept (Mackey & Gass, 2005:209). In my first visit in each class, I was then given five minutes to tell the pupils about my project and hand out informed consent forms. Citing Ryen (2004), Silverman (2006) defines informed consent as the research subjects’ “right to know that they are being researched, the right to be informed about the nature of the research and the right to withdraw at any time” (324). Duff’s (2008:146-147) definition centres on the same issues (see also Derry et al., 2010:34). Thus, informed consent is not simply a matter of getting a signature on a piece of paper, but of really making sure that the potential participants understand and accept what the study involves.
It was for that reason that I decided to inform the pupils orally as well and not just leave the basis of their decision making up to the teachers or to what was written on the form.

When informing the pupils about my study and what it would involve, I was more informal than I had been with the teachers and did not include theoretical stances and long arguments. Rather, I basically said that I was interested in how English grammar was being taught in their class and that in examining this issue I had to video record the teaching at specific dates which they would know in advance. I stressed that I was not interested in determining whether they learned anything or in judging their grammatical competence. However, I also underlined that from my approach to teaching as being an interactive and co-constructed phenomenon, I would have to record the interaction and thereby also the pupils. To their amusement I promised that I would never put the recordings on YouTube or the like, and that I would furthermore protect their anonymity by changing their names. Finally, I stressed that it was completely voluntary to participate and that it was okay to say no, either now or later in the process. I then handed them an informed consent form which they were to sign themselves or have their parents sign, depending on their age. The teachers were given a separate form as well. A copy of the consent forms can be seen in appendix 5 and appendix 6, respectively.

In terms of securing the anonymity that is part of the informed consent, I have followed the advice provided by Derry et al. (2010:35-36, 38) in the following ways: I have not used any names in this dissertation, but instead termed the teachers Teacher 1, Teacher 2 and Teacher 3. With regard to the pupils, I have in transcripts used P1 for the first pupil talking, P2 for the next one etc. All names have been erased from the transcripts. I have furthermore avoided disclosing the exact gymnasiwms that I have been visiting. However, the fact that I have video recordings as my primary data type poses certain problems with regard to protecting the participants’ anonymity. On the one hand, the entire empirical part of the thesis is produced on the basis of the participants’ trust in me as a researcher to keep my word, and on the other hand for my research to be evaluated and hopefully judged reliable, I have to provide others with access to my data. What I have done to solve this dilemma, besides anonymising the transcripts, is to produce two versions of my dissertation: a version for the PhD committee and my supervisors with pictures included in the transcripts and furthermore with a DVD providing them access to my data corpus (Silverman, 2006:287, LeBaron, 2008; Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002:516, Derry et al., 2010:38), and a public version in which I have omitted all the pictures and to which there is no DVD. As is visible from the consent forms in appendix 5 and appendix 6, respectively, I did ask both teachers and pupils for permission to use the video recordings in my PhD project, in academic publications as well as in meetings with researchers sharing my interest in language teaching. All participants have accepted that and have as such acknowledged that in a strictly academic context I can ease the demand of full anonymity.

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125 I have asked the professional readers of my dissertation to treat these DVDs with confidentiality and to hand them back to me once they are done with them for the reading of the dissertation to minimise the risk of spreading. The PhD committee and my supervisors most likely recognize this dilemma, and I trust them to respect my wish.

126 Of course the borders between academia and ‘the world outside’ is not waterproof and should not be, so in the last resort by agreeing to the consent form, the participants have run the risk of being recognized publicly as

PART THREE: CONCEPTUAL, ANALYTICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

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With regard to exit strategies and the two final points on Mackey & Gass’ checklist, a rather complicated time following the data production period prevented me from doing as I had originally planned. I had to cancel an interview meeting that I had arranged with each teacher, just as there was a long period of time where they did not hear from me, apart from a rare e-mail and a Christmas card. Considering the importance of trust and rapport in the relation between researcher and researched (Duff, 2008:149), this was very unfortunate. All three teachers have been understanding and charitable, and it is difficult to say whether the final dissertation would have looked any different if I had had the possibility of discussing my early findings with them as I had planned with the interview meetings. What I eventually did was to have a meeting with each teacher just before finishing the dissertation. At these meetings I first of all thanked them for their participation and expressed my appreciation with two bottles of good quality wine for each of them. I furthermore told them about how my research had evolved since I left them and their classes, shedding specific light on the analysis of my recordings and what I have found. I have included some of our discussion in chapter 8.

**Multiple data sources**

In transitioning to step 2 in the microethnographic research process, one final trait of case studies should be briefly touched upon: multiple data sources (see the box ‘Data collection’ in figure 3). Mackey and Gass (2005:141) stress that observation is not the only data production technique, but is often combined with for instance interviews and document analysis. Duff (2008) states in this relation that “data collection is determined by the underlying research questions and the forms of evidence deemed necessary to answer those questions. Data collection decisions also depend on what the researcher plans to do with the data” (128). In the following I account for the data types that I have found my research questions to necessitate as well as for what I have done in practice with each type.

### 5.4 Step 2: Collect data

Microethnography shares with the case study method the multiple data approach. In describing the data types typically involved in the second general step of microethnography, LeBaron (2008) writes:

> Participant observations, field notes, interviews, and field recordings (audio and video) are all considered premium data for microethnographic research. However, video has become the staple because it provides empirical grounding for interpretive claims, captures subtle details of interaction that analysts can review and others can verify, and helps researchers attend to both vocal and visible phenomena socially orchestrated (3).

participants in my study. However, when handing out the consent forms, I had the impression that the participants, teachers and pupils alike, did not regard that as a major catastrophe, should it happen. As for the defence, which is at the same time both strictly academic and public and thus might be said to constitute a problematic in-between, I have specifically asked the three teachers and gained permission from Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 to show extract clips from their classes.
As suggested in the previous section, I work with all the mentioned data types, but video recordings are my primary data for the reasons described by LeBaron – my fundamental argument that a multimodal, interactional perspective on everyday English grammar teaching practices is a relevant supplement to traditional L2 grammar instruction research exactly necessitates data that allow for an analysis of subtle, vocal and visible details of interaction.

Thus drawing on a range of data types with video recordings being the primary one, there are, however, also types that are not employed in microethnography. LeBaron (2008:3-4) for instance mentions hypothetical data (someone’s ability to imagine), survey and self-report (someone’s ability to remember), laboratory data (away from ordinary context). I do not use any of these data types either. My decision to come back to the teachers to conduct a second interview long after having ended the data production is thus not based on an intention to have them remember and account for specific episodes, but to talk more generally with them about my findings, both as a way of ethically giving something back to the participants and as means to hear the teachers’ evaluation of my research. It is relevant to compare the data types employed in microethnography with those typically used in L2 grammar instruction research: laboratory research, quantitative tests etc. as discussed in chapter 2. A fundamental difference is visible here as the result of having two different meta-theoretical standpoints and adhering to different theories (Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:2). Table 3 summarises my database.

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127 I discuss the issue of member checks below.
As I describe in detail later in this chapter, the 25 hours of video recorded classroom interaction have provided the basis for the production and selection of extract clips which constitute the core of the multimodal, interactional analysis in chapter 7. As such, it is correct to say that being my primary data, the video recordings in themselves have come to function as a data corpus in my ethnographic case study database. Though analysis on the basis of data corpora is perhaps not that frequent in case study research, I maintain that with a microethnographic approach it is

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possible to make a fruitful combination. In the following I first account for my reflections and proceedings with regard to observations and video data, after which I briefly describe how I conducted the interviews. Finally, I discuss the issues of triangulation and member checks.

5.4.1 Observations and video data
Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht (1998:3) stress that ‘the most important consideration in adopting a form of data collection is the needs of the theory driving the investigation (see also Duff, 2008:139). My research interest in the situated, multimodal and interactional accomplishment of grammar teaching early in the process made me decide to conduct video recordings of the classroom interaction that I was to observe rather than ordinary ethnographic fieldwork relying only on the production of field notes in real time (Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:5). Based on my research interest, the theories I employ in forming my analytical approach (see chapter 4) demand a level of detail that ordinary ethnography does not capture (Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002:8, Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:3, Duff, 2008:139-140).

Thus, the advantages with video data are that they provide access to the fine details of the interaction with regard to both the spoken and the visual as well as the tactile means used, they enable the inclusion of the material setting in the analysis of interaction, they allow repeated watching as well as sharing with other analysts (Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002:8-11, Derry et al., 2010:5, Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:9-10, Duff, 2008:139-140). In short, through the use of video, my view can be extended “into the details of how pupils and teachers manage their skillful work of co-constructing the reality of classroom life” (Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:25) – or, in my case more specifically the reality of L2 grammar teaching. Flewitt (2006) states:

Rather than focusing on a single mode, such as spoken or written language, using video to collect data reveals the multimodal dynamism of classroom interaction, giving new insights into how children and adults coordinate different modes as they negotiate and jointly construct meanings in different social settings (29).

It is this coordination of modes and the negotiational and co-constructive character of meanings in interactions that I have access to with the video data, which reveal a complex picture of everyday English grammar teaching practices in the five classes.

However, though video recording provides the researcher with a powerful microscope (Derry et al., 2010:6), it is still only a second-order approximation of the actual event (Zuengler, Ford &

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129 I do not comment separately on the documents collected because no specific data production method has been involved in their collection. The policy documents are treated in detail in chapter 3. The classroom documents work to provide a better insight into the grammar work carried out in the video data. The documents primarily consist of hand-outs with the grammar tasks which the pupils worked on during my visits. The documents were handed to me by the teachers. I have placed them in the appendices and refer to them individually when analysing extract clips in which they are involved. The sheets are alphabetically marked by order of occurrence in the analysis.

130 And furthermore in opposition to more quantitative approaches to L2 classroom interaction which make use of observational protocols and coding sheets (Duff, 2008:139, Mackey & Gass, 2005:190-202).
Fassnacht, 1998:9), and “cameras necessarily embody a perspective. They must be placed and pointed, and analysis is always contingent upon the perspective a camera provides” (LeBaron, 2008:3, see also Young, 2009; Silverman, 2006:287). The camera only ‘sees’ what it is being pointed at, it is not all-encompassing, and this demands sensible recording with one’s analytical focus in mind as well the ability to take instantaneous decisions, together adding a considerable subjective component to the recorded data (Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:9, 10). LeBaron (2008) writes:

A variety of cinematic decisions influence the “quality” of video-taped data. Simply turning a camera ‘on’ or ‘off’ is an interpretive act – a decision about what is important or worth recording. The camera’s scope is often a dilemma: a wide-angle view that includes all participants will not include close-ups of facial expressions and other subtle behaviors; a close-up view of someone’s hands will exclude the eye gaze or facial orientations that direct the attention of others (3).

The cinematic decisions described by LeBaron are the challenges of working with video recordings in a nutshell. I experienced the described dilemmas when analysing the data – I can see (i.e. the camera had recorded) a finger on a task sheet pointing on a grammatical mistake, but I cannot see the teacher and the pupils’ orientation to each other, or the other way around. I can see what the teacher writes on the blackboard, but I cannot see the pupils’ reactions to it. I have tried to compensate by having two cameras in each session, one hand-held and one stationary. But even so, not everything is captured. Video recording is not a neutral, objective research act and since analysis is contingent upon the camera perspective, analysis is not neutral and objective either. Besides being affected by specific decisions on recording, it is inevitably invested with the academic luggage one carries, the stances one takes, and, obviously, the research questions one pursues. Mackey & Gass (2005) state in this connection that “in classroom studies, it is necessary for researchers to both strive for objectivity and also be aware of the subjective elements in that effort – for example, in how they gather data, analyze data, and report the results of analyses” (188). It is my hope that this chapter explicates how I have attempted to do exactly that.

Moreover, there are several technological considerations to be made when planning to use video data (Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:9). Derry et al. (2010:48) consider the use of a single camera vs. multiple cameras, Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht (1998:5, 14) consider the obstacles of using multiple cameras, and suggest that one considers, tests and modifies several potential data collection formats before settling on the final one. Heath and Hindmarsh (2010:49-50) state that becoming familiar with the setting is necessary to conduct extensive observations (see also Duff, 2008:140), and they recommend field work prior to recording in order to place camera and microphones where it is most relevant in relation to one’s research interest (50). They furthermore recommend “intensive and successive periods of fieldwork interspersed with analysis” (50) and describe how they, following preliminary analysis, return to conduct more focused field work and produce further video recordings (2002:18). Mackey & Gass (2005:208) provide a checklist to consider when working out the logistics of classroom research. Their list touches upon similar issues and furthermore upon the selection of equipment as well as upon considering the amount of intrusion caused by the recording.
What I have done in relation to these recommendations is the following: On the basis of my initial pilot observations as well as my first visit in the classes where I mostly only observed, I decided to use two stationary cameras for recording the classroom interaction. With two cameras, I hoped to be able to capture both teacher and pupils by placing one camera in the back of the class and one in the front. Both cameras should record in wide perspective (as opposed to a follow perspective (Derry et al., 2010:48)), allowing me to take field notes simultaneously. With regard to sound, I decided on one omnidirectional microphone placed in the center of class which would be able to record what both teacher and pupils were saying. My initial data production format thus went for capturing as much of the classroom interaction as possible. I employed this format once in the classes A, C and D (see Table 2), but while previewing the recordings, I realised that the macro-approach with wide-angle lens on both cameras prevented me from seeing properly the ‘micro events’ in the interaction. Particularly, I found that the teachers were very mobile during the lessons, walking around to assist the pupils when these were working individually or in groups, and the two stationary cameras were not able to capture the details of these teacher-pupil(s) interactions. Furthermore, the central microphone was not able to record the teacher-pupil communication on these occasions because it took place at a much lower sound level.

Being essentially interested in English grammar teaching practices and not in for instance the pupils’ independent solving of grammar tasks in groups, I decided that I had to follow the teacher to gain insight into his or her way of interacting with the pupils around grammar. I therefore changed my data production format to having one stationary, wide-angled camera (a Panasonic DVX100) and one hand-held (a Sony HDR-HC5) which I would operate myself and use to follow the teacher. In this way, it can be argued that I have privileged the teacher’s activities over the pupils’ (Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:12). However, by following the teacher, I have not only captured his or her activities, but essentially his or her interaction with the pupils in accordance with my research objective. For this reason, I tend to conceive of this solution as necessary rather than problematic.

I furthermore removed the central, omnidirectional microphone and replaced it with one good microphone (a Beyer Dynamic Opus 51) on the stationary camera and one wireless microphone (a Sony ECM-AW3) to be worn by the teacher. The wireless microphone was connected to the hand-held camera via Bluetooth so that its audio files would constitute the audio on the video recordings. With this format, I was unable to take field notes in real time, but I chose to prioritise

131 This has consequences for instance for my analysis of the mode of grammar teaching that I term group grammar teaching in that it is based on situations when the groups receive assistance from the teacher only and there is thus a perceived problem with solving the task, and not on the situations in which the groups work independently and solve the tasks without the teacher’s assistance. Still, being interested in how grammar teaching practices are being co-constructed multimodally and interactionally, I find that I should exactly focus on the interactions between teacher and pupils, so I state this here merely to make readers aware of these terms rather than bringing it forward as a being problematic in itself.

132 This decision was also based on the fact that the pupils seated in the middle of the class had a hard time ignoring the microphone. Thus, some would be quietly singing and drumming on the table; some would whisper about the microphone and be a little embarrassed by sitting right next to it etc.
the video recording and then write observational notes immediately after the lesson (Duff, 2008:141). Previewing these recordings, I found that they worked better and settled for this format. Heath & Hindmarsh (2002) state that “this iterative characteristic of field studies is well known, and provides a critical resource not only for sharpening one’s understanding of the setting, but in developing and refining analytic observations and insights” (18). This was what happened in my case, and it is precisely the decision to follow the teacher with a hand-held camera that later enabled me to analytically distinguish between different modes of grammar teaching in the data. I treat these different modes of grammar teaching more thoroughly in the analysis proper in chapter 6.

Yet, operating a hand-held follow camera demands certain operator skills that need to be learnt and practised. Derry et al. (2010:49) write that the following camera should attempt to have both speaker and listeners in view when the speaker is making a point, but that it can also zoom in on artifact details if the speaker for instance points towards the board or a task sheet. One should thus strive to preserve the interactional context and only zoom in when relevant. I acknowledge that I have not in all instances been able to produce such recordings, and in hindsight I find that the major problem with employing a hand-held camera is that it has become an extension of my arm, not of my vision. As such, my data has turned out to show a necessarily limited version of what I have actually seen when recording. Of course, I then have the recordings from the stationary camera to turn to, but it has to be stressed that I eventually only use this data as secondary back-up and not for instance employ the picture-in-picture (PIP) technique for combining video images (Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:14). This is primarily due to the quality of the hand-held video data that I find to be okay after all, but also due to the amount of data management required if I had chosen to prioritise the two recording modes equally (Duff, 2008:140).

A final important consideration when producing video data concerns the effect of one’s own presence in the classroom as well as the presence of one’s equipment (Zuengler, Ford & Fassnacht, 1998:11; Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002:18). Duff (2008:138) states that in case studies the observations do not necessarily have to be conducted as ethnographic participant observation in which the researcher plays another social role as for instance pupil or teacher at the research site. Still, by his or her mere presence, the researcher becomes an unofficial participant in the interaction (138) and therefore has to consider possible consequences of this with regard to the data obtained. In this connection, Mackey & Gass (2005:176) introduce the phenomena of the observer’s paradox and the Hawthorne effect. The observer’s paradox refers precisely to the problem that although one’s goal is to produce data as unobtrusively as possible, the presence of an observer can influence the behavior of those being observed. The Hawthorne effect addresses the problem that participants might be performing in another (better) way than they would normally do when knowing that they are being observed and that this is difficult to control. Mackey & Gass (2005) state that longitudinal studies may reduce the risk of the Hawthorne effect.

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133 I often wrote these notes in a quiet corner of the gymnasium’s central hall or in the car before driving home. The notes also often included what I had been talking with the teacher about more informally before or after the lesson. In fact, much information on the classes and on the grammar teaching was provided on our way to or from class.
because teachers and pupils over time “feel more comfortable and natural about being observed” (188).

For my part, I cannot say whether the participants changed their behavior or performed better knowing that I was there and knowing that I was examining their grammar teaching practices. With regard to Teacher 1 and Teacher 2, my data production did have a longitudinal design, and I have not found that significant changes in the participants’ behavior have occurred over time. However, in the first interview with Teacher 2 she jokingly told me that the pupils in one of her classes (Class D which were to graduate the following summer) had said that it was good that I had been so much around; otherwise they would not have had so much grammar in class. This suggests that Teacher 2 has perhaps taught grammar to a greater extent than she would normally do, knowing of my research interest, but it does not indicate that she should have changed her ways, just as I cannot know whether she would have increased the amount anyway, appreciating that the class were to take their exams soon after. In the same way, I cannot know whether the pupils have prepared more for classes, aware that I would arrive with my cameras. But I did notice a certain awareness of my presence in the beginning of classes. This took place in different ways and mostly during the first visits – some would wave at the camera and show off, others would be shy and try to hide, and yet others would laugh together quietly and steal a look at the camera. As such, my presence was not unobtrusive, but I did not experience the same awareness once the class had begun the lesson, and I believe that it helped minimise any possible alterations among the pupils that I with full disclosure explicitly told them that I was interested in the grammar teaching practices and not in judging their grammatical abilities or the like, as described earlier in this chapter.

5.4.2 Interviews
The second round of interviews with the teachers took place as conversations in which we in an unstructured manner discussed my analysis and findings on the basis of a short presentation of these carried out by me. I will not comment any further on these conversations here, but instead concentrate on the first round of interviews (with Teacher 1 and Teacher 2) which was conducted in accordance with certain qualitative interview prescriptions. Duff (2008) states that interviews can be used for many things, one being “to collect data about the insights or perspectives of research participants” (133), in which case for instance a close linguistic analysis is not carried out. In my case, the interviews have not been subject to any kind of analysis, but have rather functioned as providers of further ethnographic information that I have used in the analysis to support or supplement my findings from the video data.

Duff (2008) reminds her reader that no matter the objective with the interview, it has to be regarded as a joint production; “the data are generated by means of social interaction between interviewer and interviewee and cannot necessarily be taken as decontextualized, independent facts or observations” (133-134). This is an important point, and I acknowledge that the questions I have posed as well as the way in which I have done so have to a certain extent influenced the answers I have received. Mackey & Gass (2005:174) mention the halo effect in
this connection. The halo effect refers to interviewees picking up cues from the interviewer and attempting to say what they think the interviewer wants them to say. I cannot know whether the two teachers have done this, but the interviews did not touch upon complex or sensitive issues so I see no reason why they should have done so. Instead, the questions mostly concerned practical issues such as their use of the ministerial guidelines and grammar material as well as their planning of lessons. I furthermore tried to formulate the questions in a neutral manner, thereby decreasing the possibility for the teachers to pick up biased cues (Duff, 2008:137). I posed the questions from an interview guide which I adhered to in accordance with the prescriptions of semistructured interviews, meaning that in the actual interview I still took the freedom to digress and probe for more information (Mackey & Gass, 2005:173; see also Kvale, 1996). A copy of my interview guide can be seen in appendix 7.

Both teachers allowed me to record the interviews. I did this with a digital recorder which made it easy to upload the data to my computer for replay (Duff, 2008:136-137). I have not transcribed the interviews word-by-word afterwards, but instead I have written a rather brief summary of each, bearing in mind that they would not function as primary data in my analysis. Another, more unfortunate reason for this way of treating particularly the interview with Teacher 1 is that it turned out that even though my equipment showed that it was apparently receiving sound with sound waves appearing on a small screen, it had not recorded these on this occasion. As such, this also turned out to be a lesson to learn from. Recognizing that it was not primary data, I did not ask Teacher 1 to do the interview one more time. Instead, I had Teacher 1 approve of my recapitulation of the interview at a later point.

The interviews differed from the informal conversations that I had had with the teachers during my video recording visits. I felt that from these conversations, I had already developed rapport with the teachers (Duff, 2008:137), but I still found it important to try to make the participants feel at ease in the interview situation, aware that it must feel different suddenly to have to describe one’s manners and opinions more formally and to furthermore have these recorded. To this end, Duff (2008:136) suggests that the interviewer starts the interview with some small talk. I did so on both occasions, and with Teacher 2 I even began the interview as we were having lunch, in that way trying to keep the interview as relaxed and informal as possible.

5.4.3 Triangulation and member checks

Conventionally, the reason for employing multiple data sources in case study research is that it enables triangulation (Mackey & Gass, 2005:181; Duff 2008:143). Triangulation can be carried out with regard to the theories, methods or investigators used, but the most common definition is according to Mackey & Gass (2005:181) “that it entails the use of multiple, independent

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134 I also occasionally experienced recording problems when video recording classroom interaction. However, if discovered during the recording, most of these problems could be solved there and then because I typically had backup equipment (extra batteries, microphones etc.) with me.

135 That would in itself have been a questionable undertaking, potentially involving the drawback of selective recall (Mackey & Gass, 2005:174).
methods of obtaining data in a single investigation in order to arrive at the same research findings” and thereby enhance the validity and reliability of the study. As such, triangulation can have a certain positivist ring to it (discovering one ‘truth’) – a thing which Duff (2008:30) acknowledges and Silverman (2000:179-180) criticizes. However, taking a more interpretive approach, Duff (2008) states that “the principal goal is to investigate the research problem from different perspectives in order to provide possibly more complex and ideally more valid insights” (144). I find that with the different data types I have employed in this research project all together, focusing on both the practice dimension and the policy dimension (which in themselves consist of several data types), I am precisely able to present more complex insights into English grammar teaching practices than would have been the case if, for example, I had only focused on one of these dimensions, or on video recordings alone. Not least, my multiple data approach presents a far more compound picture of L2 grammar teaching than is the case in existing L2 grammar instruction research.

Duff (2008:171) discusses member checks, or respondent validation as it is also termed, as another form of triangulation. Member checks are according to Duff not only a matter of establishing credibility, but also relate to issues of authority, collaboration and representation. With my pilot research and questionnaire I have from the beginning taken a collaborative approach to the research project, attempting to incorporate the complexities perceived by the participants themselves. However, I have not had the teachers read my transcripts or the written report before publication, just as they have not been consulted recurrently during my analysis which is how Duff describes member checks (171). This is so because there is also a risky side to member checks, or, as Silverman (2006) puts it, respondent validation is “a slippery method of validating your findings” (328). Not only is it based on certain assumptions about the abilities of the participants, it can also have serious consequences in case of disagreement – Duff (2008:171) mentions participants wanting to withdraw, edit, censor or delete aspects of the analysis, and Silverman (2006:293) states that overt respondent validation is only possible if the analytical results match the participants’ self-images. Therefore, I eventually decided to come back to the participants late in the process when I could first of all present more coherent results of my research, but also when there was still time to incorporate the teachers’ evaluation as yet another insight. My intention has thus not been to validate my research, which is in accordance with Silverman’s advice that “rather such processes of so-called ‘validation’ should be treated as yet another source of data and insight” (293). Most importantly, as also described earlier in this chapter, my late revisits are to be seen as a way of ethically attempting to give something back to the generous and tolerant teachers and to make up for a long period of no or only very little communication from my side. Silverman states in this connection that “there is no question that attempts at some kind of feedback to the people you study is a proper ethical goal” (328). I now turn to provide a description of what I did with the video data once I had it produced.
5.5 Step 3 and step 4: Analyse video data and Digitize and transcribe key moments of interaction

Basing the analysis heavily on video data, it is common for microethnography to begin the analysis by watching the data carefully and repeatedly, and then at a later stage, after having selected extracts of particular interest and relevance, to transcribe these extracts for further examination (LeBaron, 2008:3-4). This ordering contrasts a more traditional case study procedure in which transcription precedes selection and thorough analysis (Duff, 2008:162). Briefly recapitulated, my analytical process has been characterized by several initial occasions of looking at data, followed by transcription and analysis of single extracts, after which I went back to looking in order to code the data. From the coded data, I systematised the extracts and grouped them in and across collections after which I selected which extracts to employ for making clips to present in the final dissertation. Finally, I transcribed and analysed these. These stages have been much more interrelated than what the procedures suggested by both LeBaron and Duff appear to suggest, and the linearity necessarily suggested by the written account should thus not be taken at face value.

5.5.1 Coding and selection

Mackey & Gass (2005:247) suggest that the first steps in selecting and coding data are to consider how much of the data to code and to justify why not all data are coded. To that end, my data selection commenced already when I first watched the recordings directly from the video tapes. These tapes contained approximately 25 hours of classroom recordings as shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teacher 1</th>
<th>Teacher 2</th>
<th>Teacher 3</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length of double lesson</td>
<td>90 minutes</td>
<td>70 minutes</td>
<td>90 minutes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of double lessons recorded</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of hours recorded</td>
<td>6 h</td>
<td>11 h 40 min</td>
<td>7 h 30 min</td>
<td>25 h 10 min</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Number of hours recorded per teacher

From the tapes I extracted the data that in one way or another concerned grammar teaching in order to continue working with that specific part of the data. Furthermore, I made an initial coding, or grouping of this data into what, in chapter 6, I present as different modes of organising grammar teaching: (a) group grammar teaching, (b) class grammar teaching, (c) corrective feedback, and (d) integrated grammar teaching. As such, I quickly left behind the classroom interaction that did not concern grammar teaching, and I did so because my research object is English grammar teaching practices and not English teaching practices in general. To...
consider teaching that was not in one way or another grammar oriented, therefore, seemed futile. Of the 25 hours of classroom recording, approximately 5 hours concerned grammar teaching and were selected for further coding. To convert the video recordings into electronic data, I used Adobe Premier Pro which allowed me to form extracts directly from the video tapes. From Adobe I exported these extracts as video files and imported them to Transana, the transcription software program that I have been employing (Duff, 2008:160). In these data export-import manoeuvres, I assigned headings and paraphrases, and these effectively came to function as initial categories which were then further refined with more passes through the data (Mackey & Gass 2005:241). Thus, from the video tapes, I produced 126 extracts of varying length, and these are the extracts that I, after several rounds of watching and further coding, have used as the basis from which to select and form clips for the multimodal, interactional analysis in chapter 7. All 126 extracts are available on the data corpus DVD prepared for the PhD committee.

Derry et al. (2010:21) argue that “the development of a coding approach benefits from iterative cycles of work, distributed expertise, and moving across different levels of analysis.” As a consequence, data coding is “one of the most time-consuming and painstaking aspects involved in carrying out a second language research project” (Mackey & Gass, 2005:248). My initial selection of what to code as grammar teaching was followed by repeated rounds of watching, interspersed with preliminary analyses and data presentation and discussion in several fora. The coding itself took place in a funnel-shaped process in which I first went through all 126 clips, noting in a table the date, teacher, class, initial coding/grouping, grammatical topic and task, as well as notes on the interaction. This was a rewarding exercise which enabled me to establish the keyword categories and attached keywords needed for further coding in Transana. A list of these keyword categories and attached keywords can be found in Appendix 8. It should be stressed that my coding has as such been driven by the data, and not by a theoretical framework (Mackey & Gass, 2005:241). Carrying out this phase of the coding in Transana allowed me to conduct electronic combined searches and begin to seek for patterns among the coded elements (Duff, 2008:160). Silverman (2006:285) argues that employing technology in coding and systematising data is a way of becoming more confident that such patterns exist throughout the data and not just in favourable examples. Duff (2008); LeBaron (2008); Jones & LeBaron (2002); and Derry et al. (2010) also highlight the systematic, comprehensive coverage of the data set as well as the possibility to easily organise, store, cluster and represent data enabled by software programs.

With the combined searches in Transana, I began to explore the possibilities for creating collections. The multimodal, interactional analysis in chapter 7 is centred on five such collections, which serve to uncover the interactional practices in play in three of the designated modes of organising grammar teaching. Because of the large number of extracts, it was typically the case that I had to choose between a number of extracts which ones I wanted to analyse as representatives for a collection (integrated grammar teaching being an exception because it took

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138 I have thus discussed some of my data in a data session and I have also presented preliminary analyses and my overall coding or grouping into empirical modes of organising grammar teaching both internally at Aalborg University and externally at a conference in Japan and in PhD workshops.

139 Both the modes of grammar teaching and the five collections are described in detail in the analysis proper.
place so infrequently). Hence, selection has been a crucial element in the process of moving from coding more and more towards analysis.

Derry et al. (2010:14-15) state that the goal of selection is “to locate and analyze data for the purpose of finding patterns within and across events” and that it has to be done systematically from representative clips (12). Selective emphasis is inevitable in this process, but according to Derry et al (2010:15) it is only a negative force if the researcher fails to recognise the presence and operation of choice. Therefore, I explicitly state the elements that have contributed to my choices here. First of all, I have found it important to investigate not just one, but three modes of organising grammar teaching to be able to present more coherent insights into actual grammar teaching practices in the five observed classes. Secondly, in terms of the actual selection between possible clips, it has been a process of repeated viewings of the extracts revealed by the combined searches, in combination with preliminary analyses and outlines for the collections, rearrangements and not least the objective that every collection should present the collection theme as broadly as possible. For instance, the first collection, which concerns how group grammar teaching episodes are initiated, represents all the different variants of that initiation in my data corpus, including a deviant case. Thirdly, I have strived to divide the representation between the three teachers and the five classes. In the separate Transcription Appendix, appended to the dissertation and containing transcripts and still frames from the selected extract clips, I have included tables which account for the extracts employed in each collection and visually attempted to display the division. The table below is an illustration of all the extracts employed in the detailed, multimodal, embodied analysis in chapter 7.

140 For reasons that I explain in chapter 6, I do not conduct a detailed multimodal, interactional analysis of the mode of organising grammar teaching which I term corrective feedback.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extract number</th>
<th>Date of recording</th>
<th>Teacher 1 Class A</th>
<th>Teacher 2 Class B</th>
<th>Teacher 2 Class C</th>
<th>Teacher 2 Class D</th>
<th>Teacher 3 Class E</th>
<th>Number of times employed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>02.11.2009</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>02.11.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>02.11.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>03.12.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>03.12.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>03.12.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>03.12.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>27.11.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>27.11.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>27.11.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>27.11.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>03.12.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>03.12.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>03.12.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>43</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>20.11.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>23.10.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>23.10.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>20.11.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79</td>
<td>23.10.2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>23.10.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81</td>
<td>23.10.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85</td>
<td>27.11.2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99</td>
<td>04.03.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>04.03.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>04.03.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>04.03.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104</td>
<td>04.03.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>107</td>
<td>09.03.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108</td>
<td>09.03.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>121</td>
<td>18.02.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>122</td>
<td>18.02.2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>32 extracts used for making clips out of 126</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>3 extracts with Teacher 1 out of 7</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: All extracts employed in the multimodal, interactional analysis

The far left column designates the specific extract selected; the far right designates how many times this extract has been employed across the collection analyses. In between it can be seen at what date the extract took place, as well as in which class and with which teacher. In the bottom, a summative row is produced from which it can be seen how many of the selected extracts each teacher and class participates in.
The table discloses several things of importance to the issue of selection. First, it shows that of the 126 extracts, I have selected 32 extracts from which to form extract clips to be analysed in chapter 7. Some of these extracts appear twice across the collections, either because I have produced several clips from a long extract, or because I want to focus on different elements in the same clip. In total, then, 36 extract clips are analysed in chapter 7. Selecting 32 extracts also means not selecting a number of other extracts. The following table shows the equation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of extracts:</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of applied extracts in total:</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of extracts on corrective feedback(^{142}):</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of other non-mode-coded extracts(^{143}):</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of extracts not included in analysis:</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{142}\) Since I do not include the mode of organising grammar teaching that I term corrective feedback in the multimodal, interactional analysis, I subtract the 40 extracts that concern corrective feedback in the data corpus.

\(^{143}\) By the non-mode-coded extracts I refer to the extracts related to the language test and the returning of an assignment described earlier in the chapter. These extracts obviously have to be subtracted too.

Thus, 49 extracts have not been explicitly included in the multimodal, interactional analysis, but they have been present in the combined searches and considered together with the chosen 32 extracts on the basis of the selection criteria presented above. The decision not to include more extracts is thereby based on the argument that the 32 selected extracts are representative of all three modes of organising grammar teaching and of the different variants within these, and that more extracts would therefore have made the analysis appear too repetitive. In addition, issues concerning depth of analysis, manageability, time and space have also played a role.

Furthermore, the table indicates that 20 of the 32 extracts are taken from Teacher 2’s classes. If read together with table 5, which indicates the number of hours recorded per teacher, I argue that since the data corpus contains considerably more hours of recordings with Teacher 2 because of her three classes as opposed to one class on behalf of both Teacher 1 and Teacher 3, it is a not an unexpected outcome that her teaching has ended up being more represented than the two other teachers. Nor do I find it to be an invalid outcome in itself because the analytical approach taken in the dissertation is not of a strictly contrasting character, and furthermore because the purpose has not been to produce results that were directly generalisable to larger populations, but rather to both ensure possible transferability of the cases and acknowledge their context-specificity, cf. my discussion of typical cases earlier in this chapter. Nevertheless, the low representation of Teacher 1’s teaching might be considered a disadvantage. As table 5 shows, I analyse 4 extract clips from Teacher 1 and Class A, based on 3 extracts. However, considering the fact that in total I only have 7 extract clips with Teacher 1, whereas I have 87 with Teacher 2, and 32 with Teacher 3, the potential problem may be argued to reside above and before the actual selection of extracts for the analysis. Thus, as shown in table 2, only two out of 4 recorded visits contained grammar.
teaching in class A, whereas in classes B, C and D together it was 9 out of 10 visits, and in class E 5 out of 5 visits. Teacher 1, then, has simply spent less time teaching grammar during my visits than Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 have, and my selection of extracts for the multimodal, interactional analysis can be said to reflect that.

5.5.2 Transcription and analysis
Silverman (2006:209) and Duff (2008:155) argue that the level of detail in the actual format of one’s transcriptions should match the requirements of one’s analytical approach and one’s research objectives; no more and no less. Mackey & Gass (2005:222-225) distinguish between broad and narrow transcriptions where ‘narrow’ refers to finely detailed transcripts. On the basis of my intention to conduct a multimodal, interactional analysis of English grammar teaching practices, I have produced what I would characterise as rather narrow transcripts. By that I mean that I have paid close attention to what is being said, what is being done, and by what means in the video recordings, as well as to the interrelations between these different modalities. I have thus been oriented towards the complexity of the interaction, and in order to convey that complexity, I have used two types of representations in my transcriptions: 1) ordinary transcripts which render key aspects of dialogue, and also aspects of the interaction such as body movement, gaze trajectories, gestures, and material artefacts involved; and 2) still frames to further illustrate the positioning of participants at key points. All transcripts and still frames are placed in the appended separate Transcription Appendix.

Silverman (2006:288) argues that “it is important that we do not delude ourselves into seeking a ‘perfect’ transcript. Transcripts can always be improved and the search for perfection is illusory and time-consuming. Rather the aim is to arrive at an agreed transcript, adequate for the task at hand”. Arriving at the adequate version is an iterative process (Derry et al., 2010:19) which to me has meant experimenting with the format, showing the transcripts to others, using established transcription conventions and adapting them to my setting and needs. Derry et al. (2010:20) state that “typically, researchers adapt existing conventions in ways that make sense given their research questions; their theoretical commitments; and practical constraints such as available time and personnel”.

An important realisation in this connection is that transcription is not theory-free (Derry et al., 2010:20). Duff (2008) states:

Like video-recording (where the camera is placed, what is captured, and how), transcribing is not theoretically neutral, and the various conventions that have been developed for transcription and the decisions researchers make while transcribing have their own epistemological precursors and interpretive consequences (154).

In acknowledging these conditions I have, in the process of arriving at an adequate version, been oriented towards transcriptions made within studies based on CA, embodied interaction analysis or microethnography because these are the approaches that I combine in order to conduct my investigations. Here, it has occurred to me that particularly with regard to visually rendering non-
verbal behaviour, a common convention has not yet been reached and established, despite the large amount of interchange within and between these closely related approaches. I have therefore chosen a way of showing these that I found could best balance analytical needs with issues of time and technical abilities.

Because I regard transcription as an inherent part of the analysis and find that important analytical realisations are often made during transcription, I have carried out all transcriptions myself. I have done so using Transana and the transcription notation available in that software. This notation is based on the Jeffersonian CA transcription conventions which, according to Silverman (2000:189), is the most objective and comprehensive – and therefore ultimately most reliable way of transcribing data. Yet, I am not conducting conversation analysis in its most detailed sense, and I therefore find that employing all the Jeffersonian conventions would not only be too time consuming; it would also complicate the readability of the transcripts. A transcript notation of the applied symbols can be found in the separate Transcription Appendix.

I have applied the same pragmatic principle with regard to how I have translated the considerable amount of Danish speech in the data. Since I am not conducting a close linguistic analysis, I have not provided a gloss for each language item, but rather settled on a more holistic turn-by-turn translation (Duff, 2008:155). I have found that such a holistic translation is more apt as showing how participants talk about grammar and together construct grammar teaching practices.

With regard to the analysis proper, the above should already have illustrated how I view analysis as an iterative process, which involves moving back and forth between selection, transcription, evolving interpretations and presentation for oneself and others (Derry et al., 2010:15). Since the preceding chapter as well as the analysis proper demonstrate how my analysis depends both on my research questions and on my theoretical commitments, I do not go further into how I have conducted the analysis here. The only point I want to make, because it has been a very characteristic trait of my process, is that when conducting video-based research, “researchers should expect to have to engage in multiple cycles of analysis” (Derry et al., 2010:24). I return to this point in my concluding reflections where I consider the issue of when to stop an analysis that could potentially go on forever. For now I turn to the last step, or the final issues, to be considered in accounting for my research design and research process.

5.6 Step 5: Describe and report research findings

In accounting for how microethnographic findings are described and reported, LeBaron (2008) repeats that the video-based claims are supplemented by ethnographic insights and evidence from field notes, interviews etc. He acknowledges that these methods are fundamentally interpretive, but also argues that video-based research “is more rigorously empirical than traditional

144 Since I am not performing a multimodal, interactional analysis of the mode of organising grammar teaching that I have termed corrective feedback, I have been less concerned with how the participants’ speech is grammatically correct or incorrect. Yet, it should be said that with regard to corrective feedback, the pupils’ grammatical errors being corrected by the teacher are always already spoken in English, rendering translation unnecessary.
ethnography, as claims are grounded in the raw data that readers can see and scrutinize” (4). This obviously necessitates that readers are provided with the possibility to access the raw data, and for reasons to do with both feasibility and anonymity of participants, I speculate that such access is as yet an ideal that is being modified in practice. In my case, I do provide the immediate readers of this dissertation with an appended data corpus DVD, but it is important to stress that even so, these readers cannot see the raw data in their full length, because I have prioritised easy access to the 126 data corpus extracts over access to 25 hours of unknown data. Thus, a selection has already taken place. Still, on the basis of the descriptions and reflections in this chapter, I hope that I have made it possible to evaluate the fundamentally interpretive study that this thesis represents. I consider issues related to the evaluation of research further in the following.

5.6.1 Validity – credibility
Earlier in this chapter, I have included Wodak’s & Krzyzanowski’s (2008:196-197) point that objectivity, validity and reliability are often not suitable criteria in ethnographic research. Duff (2008:175-176) repeats this view with regard to case study research in replacing general validity with interpretive validity. General validity relates to the credibility of identified causal patterns in phenomena, but since case study research is not about identifying causal patterns, interpretive validity rather concerns the credibility of the researcher’s knowledge claims. On that basis, Duff (2008:177) provides a range of criteria for evaluating case study research. These criteria relate to sensitivity to reader’s needs, use of sound research methods and thoroughness of data collection and analysis. With the present chapter, I have attempted to meet these criteria. In interpretive research, subjectivity is an inherent necessity because the research “reflects the particular experience of each researcher in and with his (or her) field” (Wodak & Krzyzanowski, 2008:196-197). As such, the research finding always only represent one way of “slicing the cake” (Silverman, 2000:52). To that end, my ambition with this chapter has not been to do away with that subjectivity in a quest for any ideal research objectivity, but rather to seek “rigorous subjectivity that can be interpreted with some transparency by others” (Duff, 2008:131, original emphasis).

5.6.2 Generalisability – transferability
In terms of generalisability, I have already stressed several times that my intention in this thesis is not to argue that the ways in which grammar is being taught in my case studies are generalisable to all other L2 grammar teaching contexts, not even to all other similar contexts, i.e. English classes in Danish gymnasia. For both ethnography and case study research it is difficult to generalise to larger populations (Mackey & Gass 2005:171, 173), and Duff (2008:176) argues that most case study researchers regard it as neither an achievable, nor a desired goal. Hence, I rather want to argue that my way of researching patterns and practices in the chosen places will be of relevance to other contexts. Duff (2008:176) denotes this as ‘analytic generalisability’ and states that it is both possible and desirable in case study research.

145 I consider this issue further in my concluding remarks in chapter 9.
At the same time, I find that, empirically, it is not unlikely that the complexity of interactional grammar teaching practices that I uncover in this thesis will be of relevance to other L2 teachers and classes in more or less similar institutional L2 contexts. LeBaron (2008:1) states that “although researchers may avoid explicit claims about the generalizability of site-specific findings, microethnographers assume that patterns and practices in one place will have relevance to other contexts.” One reason for making this assumption in the present study is my selection of typical cases as it has been described earlier in this chapter. By having teachers with varying grades to teach and with varying levels of experience to teach from, I have attempted to make it easier for other researchers as well as teachers to relate to my study and its findings.

Introducing this notion of transferability, Duffs (2008:51) argues that when working with local conditions, generalisation is not a conclusion. Rather, it is often substituted with transferability which she defines as “the readers’ responsibility to determine possible congruence or connection between study context and their own research.” I align with this view, but want to add that hopefully there are also other teachers who can benefit from the research findings because they can relate to the teaching situations analysed in the sense that they might recognise the ethnomethods that others use to ‘make sense’ in the classroom, and that I both draw upon and show in the analysis. At any rate, for readers to determine such possible transferability, it takes ‘thick description’ (Duff, 2008:50; Mackey & Gass 2005:180). The presentations of participants, process and methods in this chapter should be regarded as elements in such a description.

5.7 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have presented my data and provided a thorough account of my empirical research process and the methods involved in that process. This has been done to ensure research transparency and reflexivity – elements which are always important to the credibility of one’s study, but which I find to be even further needed in a situation like the one in the present study, in which both analytical approach and research design are of a highly eclectic kind. Thus, drawing on methodology texts on case study research in applied linguistics; methodology and design of second language research; methods for analysing talk, text and interaction; theoretical and technological considerations in analysing video-recorded classroom interaction; and on how to employ video in qualitative research more generally, I have presented and discussed how I have conducted ethnographic case study research, including how I have selected cases, produced data, and coded, selected and transcribed extracts for the multimodal, interactional analysis. Furthermore, I have discussed issues of validity (credibility) and generalisability (transferability). Finally, in relation to ethical research behaviour, I have considered what I have done to protect the confidentiality of the case study participants, although video recording is inherently non-anonymous, and also how I have both approached and debriefed the three teachers and discussed the findings of my study with them towards the end. Duff (2008:174) states that “above all, case studies must contribute to knowledge in the field. They should be timely and substantive, and

146 I consider this issue further in my concluding remarks in chapter 9.
help challenge, refine, or illustrate existing perspectives and theory.” With that priority in mind and with the conceptual, analytical and methodological foundation in order, I now turn to the analysis proper.
Part four: Practice dimension – Analysis
Chapter 6  Analysis part 1 – specifying different modes of grammar teaching

6.1  Chapter introduction
The analysis is divided into two parts. In this first part of the analysis, I first describe how I have initially coded or grouped the data and how this coding has resulted in the conceptualization of four modes of grammar teaching.147 This means that I here deal more with what than with how with regard to my way of approaching the data. I.e., I do not go into the detailed multimodal, interactional analysis here, but merely account for the overall organisation of activities in the classrooms and for the ways in which grammar is on that level integrated in the lessons. These initial analytical steps enable me to subsequently relate the practice dimension to the research dimension. Thus, comparing the empirical modes of grammar teaching with research recommendations takes up the rest of this part of the analysis. Eventually, the argument is made that the relational analysis only brings us so far and that a different and much more detailed approach to the data is needed. This approach is then followed in the second part of the analysis in chapter 7.

6.2  Empirical coding of different modes of grammar teaching
The coding of the data in terms of how grammar is being taught in the observed classrooms began already during my first observations and recordings and the subsequent watching through the recordings. It soon occurred to me that the organisation of the grammar teaching varied within the same classroom, even within the same lesson, and also that the different ways of organising the grammar teaching would appear across the case studies, i.e. in diverse classrooms occupied by different teachers and different pupils. I also quickly realised that I would have to decide on what content to identify as the content of grammar teaching and what not to. My first steps into coding the data were therefore empirically based, whereas the comparison with L2 grammar instruction research was then a logical next step.148

147 I describe my general coding and selection process in chapter 5.
148 Naturally, it is impossible to separate such analytical steps completely and in practice there was overlapping, but I still find it important to stress that my first take on the data was not one which went from theory to empirical data.
In terms of what to consider as grammar and grammar teaching, I have, as described in chapter 2, decided on practically only including instruction which is oriented towards grammatical forms (morphology and syntax) and not vocabulary, spelling, discourse, or pronunciation which e.g. Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen (2001) include in their descriptive study of learner uptake in communicative ESL classrooms. Thus, I would nominate for example a situation in which the teacher corrects the subject-verb agreement in a pupil’s utterance as a grammar teaching episode. Likewise with for example a situation in which the teacher and the pupils rehearse some specific grammar rules with point of departure in some exercises that the pupils have been making. By contrast, for instance a situation in which the teacher explains or asks for the meaning of a word would not be coded as a grammar teaching episode. This definitional decision has primarily been made for emic reasons, as described in chapter 2, but also for practical reasons, as a way of limiting the size and thereby ensuring the manageability of the data.

Returning briefly to Seedhouse’s terminology, what I have done in order to be able to code the data in terms of identifying grammar teaching episodes is to specify what a pedagogical focus on grammar is. In chapter 4, I described Seedhouse’s view that specifying the pedagogical focus can be done using three types of evidence: via a text-internal statement by the teacher of the intended pedagogical focus, via a text-external ethnographic evidence of the intended pedagogical focus, and finally via that which is evident in the details of the interaction. I have used all three types of evidence in my coding. The above definition of what I regard as grammar teaching can be seen as text-external ethnographic evidence, i.e. as my take on the data based on a combination of classroom observations and theoretical definitions of grammar and grammar teaching. To a large extent, this type of evidence overlaps with the type of text-internal statements by the teacher because the teachers in general meta-communicate considerably to their pupils about how the lesson is structured, what comes next etc. From these meta-comments as well as from informal talk in breaks it is clear that the teachers define grammar along these lines.

Finally, the type of evidence concerning ‘that which is evident in the details of the interaction’ has been a primary tool of identification for me. There are several examples in the data where the teacher has explicitly initiated grammar work and where the pupils are then working on some grammatical tasks when a pupil poses a question to the teacher that has nothing to do with grammar, but may for example be related to their future exam or an assignment grade. In such an instance it is evident in the details of the interaction that the pedagogical focus on grammar rather, I took the point of departure in the data itself and then took the opposite direction, from empirical data to theory.

149 For instance, in the few lessons (two with Teacher 1 and one with Teacher 2) that I observed which did not include any explicit orientation towards morphology and syntax, the teachers afterwards apologized that there had not been any grammar teaching on that day and explained why (though I had stressed from the beginning that they should structure their lessons as if I were not there, i.e. without taking into consideration that I was primarily interested in grammar teaching practices. This was stressed exactly because of my interest in their everyday grammar teaching practices, also if that had meant no grammar teaching at all). With all three teachers I furthermore made the agreement that they should provide me with a copy of all relevant material used in the lessons. From the teachers’ selection it was obvious that what they considered as relevant for me would be material dealing explicitly with grammatical forms and structures.
teaching is flouted and therefore it cannot be categorised as a grammar teaching episode. This type of evidence has worked the other way around too, to identify grammar teaching episodes occurring without any prior explicit initiation by the teacher. For example, in a situation where the class is analysing a piece of fiction and the pupil talking is making a grammatical mistake which the teacher then corrects or makes the pupil correct him- or herself. These are the episodes that I categorise as corrective feedback below. Thus, for all the selected extracts clips that will be analysed in further detail in the second part of the analysis it goes that the pedagogical focus is on teaching the pupils the L2 grammar.

The next step in the coding procedure was to classify the identified grammar teaching episodes. With regard to the different ways in which the organisation of grammar teaching is carried out in and across classes, I have made an overall division into four empirical modes of grammar teaching:

1. Group grammar teaching
2. Class grammar teaching
3. Integrated grammar teaching
4. Corrective feedback

These four categories are wider terms, broad enough to comprise all grammar teaching episodes that occurred in the classrooms during my observations and recordings. At the same time, each of the categories can be applied to a number of grammar episodes; a point which in my view serves to demonstrate their relevance as analytical categories. It should be noted, however, that there is at least one kind of grammar teaching which the participants in my case studies exert at times, but which they did not make use of during my visits, that is therefore not directly comprised in the categories above. This is computer-based grammar teaching in which the pupils work in pairs in front of a computer with grammatical tasks via the Internet. In an interview with Teacher 2 she told me that she would sometimes use this type of grammar teaching in order to generate some variety in the classes (separate interview with Teacher 2, December 2009). The categories are based on teacher-pupils interaction, and not for instance on the grammar material worked with, and therefore it might be possible to locate this kind of grammar teaching under group grammar teaching. On the other hand, the categories have grown out of the specific data constructed via my recordings and do as such not intend to be all-encompassing in any generalising or universal sense. Rather, they are merely indicative of different modes of organising grammar teaching taking place in these specific L2 teaching and learning contexts, and as such they provide a way to analytically approach both the comparison with existing L2 grammar instruction research findings and the multimodal, interactional analysis of situated grammar teaching practices.

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150 Besides these four recurrent modes of organising the grammar teaching, I observed single occurrences of a language test in class E with Teacher 3 (extracts 98, 123,124 and 125 are related to this test), as well as of Teacher 3 giving assignments back in class E and commenting generally on the pupils’ written language (extract 96 is from this occasion). Because they are infrequent in the data corpus, these single occurrences have not been established as particular modes of organising grammar teaching and further investigated in this thesis.
6.2.1 Group grammar teaching

To take the categories one by one, the mode of group grammar teaching is characterized by the class being divided into pairs or small groups (sometimes containing only one pupil) that are set to work on a hand-out with grammar exercises. The exercises vary from translation exercises to fill-in-the-blank tasks, find-and-correct-the-mistakes tasks and rewrite-the-sentences tasks. Some hand-outs are made by the teachers themselves, some are taken from elsewhere, e.g., grammar books, and some are constructed as collections of pupils’ incorrect sentences from their previous written assignments. Common for all episodes of group grammar teaching in my data is that the pupils have received instruction on the grammatical forms in question and their underlying rules prior to the group work. The time of this instruction can vary from immediately before the group work to the previous lesson to weeks or months ago. Group grammar teaching is typically either initiated or followed by class grammar teaching.

During group grammar teaching, the teacher is walking around to assist the different groups. Sometimes a group will call for the teacher, at other times he or she will choose where to stop and break in. In my data construction, I used a hand-held camera to follow the teacher which was coupled to a microphone that he or she wore. This, of course, has implications in terms of what has been recorded. Since my interest lies with grammar teaching as a situated, co-constructed and multimodal practice, I have prioritised getting close to the teacher’s interactions with the individual groups during group grammar teaching. As also described in chapter 5, this means that I have not recorded the work of the groups when they were not assisted by the teacher.

6.2.2 Class grammar teaching

Class grammar teaching is characterized by being teacher-led grammar instruction during which the teacher is typically placed by the blackboard and the pupils’ attention and interaction is supposed to be with the teacher and not with each other or elsewhere. The activities in class grammar teaching can vary: the class can be going through the hand-out that the pupils have

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151 As such, the content in each mode of grammar teaching can vary. This indicates that in relation to existing L2 grammar instruction research categories, the four modes that I develop here are not structured on the basis of type of grammar teaching, but on the organisation of the classroom interaction during grammar teaching. As such, the modes can both contain the same types of grammar teaching (for example FonFS) across the modes, but also varying content within the same mode.

152 In the interviews with the three teachers we talked about their use of grammar material and they all appeared to have a kind of ad-hoc approach to that: they told me that they normally check what is available at the school (commenting on a low budget and old books), re-use material from earlier years, make up their own by borrowing from here and there or construct something specifically on the basis of the pupils’ assignments (separate interviews with Teacher 1 and Teacher 2, December 2009, and with Teacher 3, September 2011).

153 As described in chapter 5, I furthermore had a stationary camera placed in one of the front corners of the classroom, capturing almost the entire class (the pupils, not the teacher when he or she was at the blackboard or at the teacher’s desk in front of the blackboard). However, I have used the data from this camera only as secondary data for check-up.

154 Many of the pupils are used to bringing their own lap-tops to class, and I observed them doing many different things on these during the lessons, for example updating social networking sites, checking diverse websites, looking at pictures. Some also used the lap-top to take notes from the lesson. Teacher 2 in particular seemed to be well aware what was going on at times and she explicitly asked some of the pupils to shut down their computers when there was no immediate need for them during class.
worked on in groups (group grammar teaching) prior to the plenum, they can revise grammatical forms and rules or go through new ones, they can go through translated sentences which the pupils have written on the blackboard etc. For all three teachers it goes that this mode of grammar teaching is most often characterized by a large amount of questions posed by the teacher and thus by an attempt to involve the pupils in the activity. Furthermore, the teachers tend to use the blackboard to a considerable extent during class grammar teaching. In terms of the recordings which serve as the foundation of the conceptualisation of this mode of grammar teaching I have again primarily followed the teacher as it is the way in which his or her teaching practices are constructed in the interaction with the pupils which I am interested in.

6.2.3 Integrated grammar teaching

Integrated grammar teaching denotes grammar teaching which occurs as a sequence in textual work that is otherwise not specifically oriented towards grammar and which takes its point of departure a linguistic feature in the text worked with. As such, integrated grammar teaching can take place in both group text work and class text work. As is the case with the other modes of grammar teaching, integrated grammar teaching can serve different purposes. Sometimes the orientation towards grammar is an end in itself, to rehearse the related grammatical rules, and sometimes the orientation towards grammar serves to make a point in the textual analysis. When integrated grammar teaching takes place in plenum, the teacher employs the blackboard in the same manner as during class grammar teaching.

6.2.4 Corrective feedback

The term corrective feedback is adopted from the L2 literature that I have been reviewing. Yet, the basis for applying this term is the episodes in the data during which the teachers in one way or another corrects the pupils’ grammatically incorrect sentences. These corrections typically take place during class work that is not grammar related, for example when the class is discussing a text they have read. The teachers use varied ways of providing their corrective feedback, but common for them all is that they for a moment shift their attention from the content of what is being said to the form of it and attempt to make the pupil in question make that brief shift too. The difference between integrated grammar teaching and corrective feedback is thus that the former refers to a more prolonged orientation towards grammar during textual work, whereas the latter is rather a quick intervention. Furthermore, integrated grammar teaching takes its point of departure in a predefined task, whereas corrective feedback is based on pupil errors there and then.

It should be noted that this fourth mode of grammar teaching discerned is not carried over to the second part of the analysis and made a subject of further close analysis because it, as described, concerns the ways in which teachers correct pupils’ oral grammatical errors when the class is engaged in topics that are otherwise not oriented towards grammar, and because this particular

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155 Typically, the teacher corrects a pupil’s verbal grammatical error, but occasionally corrective feedback also takes place with regard to a pupil’s written work.
way of invoking grammar in L2 teaching is already the subject of a considerable amount of research within the field of L2 grammar instruction research (see for instance Ammar, 2008; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001). Likewise, studies within both traditional CA and CA-for-SLA have contributed to established insights into correction and repair practices both inside and outside of the L2 classroom (see for instance Jefferson, 1987; Brouwer, Rasmussen & Wagner, 2004; Nakamura 2008). I have therefore found that conducting a comprehensive analysis of empirical occurrences of corrective feedback and contextualising it theoretically in a thorough manner is a specific research project of its own which could not in fairness be incorporated into the present dissertation and its broader interest in English grammar teaching practices in the observed Danish gymnasium classes.

6.3 Locating modes of grammar teaching in the organisation of activities in the classroom

Four overall ways of structuring a lesson can be found in the data. They appear in a prioritised list, meaning that the first is the one that I have observed the most, whereas number four and five are the ones that I have seen the fewest instances of:

1) Group grammar teaching – Class grammar teaching – Text work
2) Text work – Class grammar teaching – Group grammar teaching
3) Class grammar teaching – Text work
4) Text work with integrated grammar teaching
5) Text work, no explicit grammar teaching, only corrective feedback

I specify these different ways of structuring a lesson as a way of contextualising the specified modes of grammar teaching and not because I want to go further into how the classes manage the transitions between the different activities. In the first way of structuring a lesson, the teacher begins by handing out the grammar exercises on which the pupils then work in pairs or in groups for a set period of time. Sometimes this happens while some of the pupils are called on to write some translated sentences that they have produced at home on the blackboard. When the time has passed, the teacher initiates the shift to class grammar teaching. Here, the class, led by the

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156 Yet, research that cuts across these research fields and attempts to discuss, oppose or combine their findings in an empirical investigation which furthermore takes a multimodal approach to actually occurring repair practices in L2 classrooms has to the best of my knowledge not been undertaken, though Kääntä (2010) goes part of the way with her study of multisemiotic repair practices. I regard such a study as being both possible and relevant to conduct from my present empirical data, and it is a study which I would like to pursue at a later point.

157 Again, it should be stressed that I am hereby not implying that these four ways are the only ways in which English lessons are organized in the Danish gymnasium, nor that the three observed teachers organize their lessons in these four ways only. The list is solely based on my data recordings. Furthermore, the teachers themselves would probably present a much more detailed lesson plan if asked in that several points and tasks are often included within each of the overall categories that I employ here.

158 In chapter 5, I have described the apprenticeship relation between Teacher 1 and Teacher 2. It was particular in the way of organising the lessons that this relation manifested itself in that these two teachers would often use the same model - number one above. This, of course, also serves to explain why this specific way of organising the lesson comes in on top of the list.

159 By text work I refer to the parts of the teaching that is not specifically oriented towards grammar. For instance, this could be when the pupils are working in groups or in plenum with a literary text or an article which they have read as homework.
teacher, goes through the hand-out or the sentences on the blackboard, relating the examples with the grammar rules being rehearsed. Eventually, the class turns to text work. This work, too, can include a range of different tasks, for example character analysis in groups or teacher-led, teacher-led discussions on plot and themes, cross-words to be solved in pairs, small writing exercises to be done in groups, group discussions etc. Corrective feedback typically appears during text work.

In the second way of structuring a lesson, the elements appear in reverse order. First, the class does text work, after which the teacher initiates class grammar teaching. When class grammar teaching precedes group grammar teaching it is typically a way of preparing the pupils for the group work, i.e. equipping them with information about specific grammar rules and grammatical categories as well as about the actual tasks to be done. Once things have been settled, the teacher hands out the exercises and the pupils commence group grammar work.

The third way of structuring a lesson was employed by Teacher 2 at a time when she found that working in groups and pairs with grammar was not successful in one of her classes. In a break between two lessons\(^\text{160}\) she told me that she was frustrated about the working morale of this class when it was let more on its own during group work and that she had therefore decided to skip this way of teaching for a short period. Thus, this class would start out doing the grammar exercises that they normally had in groups as a whole class activity. Then, they would turn to text work, in which the teacher would, again, only choose class-based constituents.

The fourth way of structuring a lesson only occurred twice in my data corpus, both times in Teacher 3’s class E. Here, grammar teaching does not take place in an isolated part of the lesson. Rather, the entire lesson is dedicated to various types of text work, during which integrated grammar teaching is then conducted. The teacher first introduces a set of questions which the pupils are to work on in groups first, after which the questions are gone through in plenum. The integrated grammar teaching is related to one of the questions which is oriented towards grammar, whereas the other questions are purely text-related.

In the fifth way of structuring a lesson, there is no explicit orientation towards grammar and the lesson is organised around different types of text work tasks solely. I mostly observed this lesson type with Teacher 1, but in the interviews they all three explained that they use this form every now and then, for example when the class has to round off a specific theme that has been working with (separate interviews with Teacher 1 and Teacher 2, December 2009, and with

\(^{160}\) In general, I had many informal talks with Teacher 3 because I followed three of her classes and thus often stayed with her for half a school day or more. Our conversations during breaks provided me with invaluable insight into the thoughts behind some of her actions in class as well as into her reflections about the classes, the levels of the pupils etc. In my analysis, I attempt to employ these insights as this teacher’s understandings only and thus not adopt them as my own.
Teacher 3, September 2011). During such lessons, the only grammar episodes that I would observe would be ones to be categorised under corrective feedback.\footnote{A further distinction between corrective feedback and the other three modes of grammar teaching is that these other three characteristically take place in Danish (except Teacher 2’s class B), whereas corrective feedback typically takes place in English as a response to a grammatical error in a pupil’s English utterance.}

6.3.1 Lesson organisation and Seedhouse’s reflexive relationship between pedagogical aim and classroom interaction

Employing Seedhouse’s terminology on these five ways of structuring a lesson, it could be said that the data show five ways of combining different L2 classroom contexts or subvarieties. As described in chapter 4, Seedhouse defines these as situations in which a particular pedagogical aim enters into a reflexive relationship with a particular organisation of the interaction (Seedhouse 2004:205). From my data it becomes obvious that a pedagogical aim can enter into a reflexive relationship with several ways of organising the interaction. That is, my designation of the four modes of grammar teaching suggests that the pedagogical aim of teaching the learners the L2 grammar is related to several ways of organising the interaction.

The above point is rendered possible by the nature of my data; only by having visual access to what actually happens in the classrooms and not just work from audio recordings as Seedhouse does, is it possible to observe the varied ways in which the interaction is organised in relation to particular pedagogical aims. This, of course, requires that you as a researcher define classroom interaction as more than verbal communication between teacher and pupils, and as also described in chapter 4, there appear to be many reasons to do exactly that. For instance, the focus of microethnography on structured space and on how places, objects and their locations embody social-symbolic order. As will be shown in the second part of the analysis, this is a point which becomes relevant in the multimodal analysis of grammar teaching episodes from the three grammar teaching modes in focus, where it is found that objects and their locations take part in constructing specific interactional practices and specific relations between teacher and pupils that both affect and are affected by the interaction. Hence, the analysis already here begins to suggest that finding and defining different L2 grammar classroom contexts is not enough if the goal is a new and more varied, contextualised understanding of English grammar teaching practices. However, before turning to the detailed analysis, I compare the above empirically based conceptualisations with existing L2 grammar instruction research.

6.4 Relating modes of grammar teaching to L2 grammar instruction research terminology and findings

Having established and described the four empirically constructed modes of grammar teaching which I find that my data propose it is now possible to relate these to the reviewed L2 grammar instruction research. First, I compare the four modes of grammar teaching with Norris & Ortega’s general classification model which they have stitched together by combining several overall descriptive models for types of L2 grammar instruction as described in chapter 2. I then
relate the results of this comparison to my discussion of five recent studies, also in chapter 2. Eventually, I turn to compare the three modes of grammar teaching with the recommendations provided by Hedevang and Ellis, respectively.

6.4.1 Comparing with Norris & Ortega’s general classification model

As described in chapter 2, the first step taken by Norris & Ortega is to classify the teaching in a given study as FonF, FonFS or FonM. For the teaching to be classified as FonF, any of four strategies should be observed: 1) designing of tasks to promote learner engagement with meaning prior to form, 2) seeking to attain and document task essentialness or naturalness of the L2 forms, 3) attempting to ensure that instruction is unobtrusive, 4) documenting learner noticing. When none of these strategies can be identified, but focus is nevertheless on a particular L2 structure or form, the teaching is categorised as FonFS. FonM characterizes L2 teaching that has no orientation to form whatsoever. As my empirical focus is exactly on L2 teaching which in one way or another orients to form, this category is not relevant to my undertaking here.

Turning to the four modes of grammar teaching identified in the data, it is evident that the teaching which takes place in the two first of these, group grammar teaching and class grammar teaching, can be labeled FonFS: the pupils are explicitly asked to engage with (a particular) form; they do so via material that is specifically constructed to serve that focus; thereby the instruction is the opposite of unobtrusive; as the pupils’ awareness is meant to be on a grammatical form which furthermore renders documenting of learner noticing not pertinent. The teaching taking place in the mode that I have termed integrated grammar teaching appears to be both FonF and FonFS in that the task is textually located and designed to promote learner engagement with meaning prior to form (i.e. FonF), but when working on the task, it takes place in the same manner as in group grammar teaching or class grammar teaching (i.e. FonFS). Collection 5 in the second part of the analysis demonstrates in further detail how this double status comes about. The fourth mode of grammar teaching, corrective feedback, can be categorised as FonF because it takes place in situations in which the pupils are engaged with meaning (text work) and because the teachers therefore attempt to make the instruction more or less unobtrusive, thereby enabling the text work to continue smoothly afterwards.

Norris & Ortega’s next step concerns whether the instruction is explicit or implicit.162 As described in chapter 2, L2 grammar teaching is explicit if rule explanation comprises part of the instruction, or if learners are asked to attend to particular forms and try to arrive at metalinguistic generalisations themselves. It is implicit when neither of these two elements are part of the teaching. Again, the teaching which empirically takes place in the modes of group grammar teaching and class grammar teaching can be characterized as explicit instruction because the rules

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162 Norris & Ortega include further steps in their classification, but I will stick to the two overall ones already mentioned here because it is these two that Norris & Ortega conclude on in their meta-analytical finding that FonF explicit > FonFS explicit > FonF implicit > FonFS implicit, and also because it is these two classifications that appear to resonate in later research.
underlying the particular grammatical form in question are being explicitly attended to by both teachers and pupils when solving and discussing the grammar exercises.\textsuperscript{163}

As for corrective feedback, the third grammar teaching mode, this can also take place both explicitly and implicitly. As stated, corrective feedback has received considerable attention, resulting in a range of distinctions and sub-categories among L2 grammar instruction researchers.\textsuperscript{164} In their descriptive study on learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons, Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen (2001:288) present six types of corrective feedback, or six types of reactive FonF as they also term it, that have been established in the literature. These six are explicit correction, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. Of these six types, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback are explicit types of corrective feedback, whereas recasts, clarification requests, elicitation and repetition are implicit types. The corrective feedback which occurs in my data corpus varies between these explicit and implicit types.

In relation to the organisation of activities in an L2 lesson, it is interesting to observe that group grammar teaching, class grammar teaching and corrective feedback are typically employed in the same lesson (integrated grammar teaching being a more infrequent mode), which means that the teachers switch between FonFS and FonF as well as between explicit and implicit grammar teaching. Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen (2001:292) observe the same thing in their descriptive study. In describing the teaching context of their study they state that the observed lessons were divided into two parts. In the first part, the teacher focused primarily on grammatical forms, rendering this part a FonFS type. In the second part, the instruction was primarily communicative, and all the FonF episodes that are in focus in the study occurred during the communicative activities.

Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen (292) state that this two-part structure is common in private schools in Auckland\textsuperscript{165} and elsewhere too, and that their study therefore has ecological validity ‘in that it reflects what normally transpires in classroom instruction in this teaching context’ (Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen 2001:292-293). In writing this, I am not interested in claiming the same kind of ecological validity for the present study, and obviously, the researchers’ orientation to this

\textsuperscript{163}By this I do not mean to suggest that implicit grammar teaching cannot in principle occur in the two modes of grammar teaching. It just does not happen in my data corpus. The detailed analyses in the second part of the analysis demonstrate in what ways grammatical rules are invoked in the teaching, and thereby the ways in which that teaching is made explicit.

\textsuperscript{164}This is also clear from the review of recent L2 grammar instruction studies in chapter 2 in that two of the selected studies have as their aim to compare the effect of two different types of corrective feedback (Ammar, 2008 and Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006).

\textsuperscript{165}Their study took place in such a private school based in Auckland (Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen 2001).
concept is related to their quantitative means of reporting their findings. What my study does, instead, is that it goes into more detail with the grammar teaching practices in three of the different modes of grammar teaching. Thus, my interest does not lie in dealing with FonF and classifying instances of corrective feedback, as is the case which much recent L2 grammar instruction research, cf. chapter 2. In studying actual, multimodal, interactional grammar teaching practices, I find it more relevant to consider the FonFS parts of the lesson because of the extent to which this isolated or parallel grammar teaching occurs empirically in my data corpus, and because of the amount of detail and complexity in it which becomes obvious when one starts to look closer, but which is not being realised in existing L2 grammar instruction research. The details concern how the grammar instruction is provided, as is the focus in existing L2 grammar instruction research, but also the interaction between teacher and pupils, their spatial arrangement, their use of diverse material etc.

6.4.2 Comparing with five recent studies
When the four empirically based modes of grammar teaching are related to the five recent studies reviewed in chapter 2, it can be observed that the complexity of the empirical data exceeds the carefully designed grammar instructional methods in the quasi-experimental studies. Whereas the studies compare two or three specific grammar teaching activities, the empirical data show that an individual lesson often features a range of grammar teaching activities. In practice teachers and pupils together manage to continuously construct many different grammar teaching episodes in their classroom interaction. It could thus appear that in their effort to design their studies in a way that best measures the effect of specific grammar teaching activities, the researchers either miss or ignore the more messy world(s) of actual grammar teaching practices.

In chapter 2, it was confirmed that all the five reviewed studies are oriented toward FonF instruction, with Mochizuki & Ortega being the only partial exception in that their goal is to strike an efficient balance between communicative language teaching and grammar teaching (Mochizuki & Ortega 2008). Yet, in their study on guided planning, a specific focus on grammar is still being incorporated into a communicative task which might render the exercise a kind of preemptive FonF. Hence, none of the studies concentrate on FonFS, whereas my data corpus reveals that in the particular context of the present study, the grammar teaching to a large extent takes place as FonFS. Considering Norris & Ortega’s finding that explicit FonF and explicit FonFS are both more efficient than implicit FonF and FonFS, but also that there is equivalent overall instructional effectiveness for FonF and FonFS, it is surprising that there is such an apparent bias towards FonF instruction in the selected contemporary L2 grammar instruction research. The lack of orientation to context in L2 grammar instruction research that was criticized in the review in chapter 2 and the tendency to merely treat empirical sites of L2 teaching as places to test one’s predesigned experimental study design may be regarded as major reasons for such a bias. Obviously, it has to be remembered that the objective of this research is to investigate how grammar is best and most efficiently applied in relation to language acquisition, and not as such to describe actual L2 teaching, and as shown above the research findings still constitute relevant knowledge in my analyses here. Still, I want to maintain that not
paying close attention to the specific grammar teaching situation, no matter whether the study is descriptive or experimental, misses essential parts of what is at stake in L2 teaching and learning practices. Thus, information from practicing teachers and insights into the everyday of specific L2 teaching contexts are important elements that do not seem to have any noticeable priority among L2 grammar instruction researchers, at least it is not visible in the reporting of their studies. This, I find, is a major mistake for research which aims at being both applied and applicable.

The lack of information between researchers and practicing teachers does not only go one way. That is, the observed English teachers might be said not to be particularly well informed about L2 grammar instruction research findings. Thus, in the data corpus, there are only two examples of attempts at integrating a specific grammatical focus into communicative tasks, by the same teacher. And, as the detailed analysis in the following chapter show, even in this integration, FonFS is eventually at play. Otherwise, the type of FonF instruction that is employed in the observed classes is corrective feedback. Of course it is a matter of debate how informed L2 language teachers ought to be about primary research itself. Therefore, the question now is what picture one gets when turning to relate the empirical modes of grammar teaching to the language pedagogical recommendations that some L2 grammar instruction research has resulted in.

6.4.3 Comparing with Hedevang’s and Ellis’ language pedagogical recommendations

In the literature review, Hedevang’s (2003) language pedagogical recommendations were presented in terms of how language teachers according to her research review ought to teach L2 grammar. I pointed out that performing this kind of L2 grammar teaching would require a reasonable knowledge of L2 grammar instruction research, and I criticized Hedevang’s lack of orientation towards actual contexts of L2 grammar instruction in her language pedagogical recommendations. As was discussed in the review, Hedevang, without being particularly specific, calls for an integrated and contextualised FonF grammar teaching, where errors are corrected in a reflective manner. She furthermore recommends that meta-language is used explicitly, just as she suggests that informing pupils about language learning strategies is important.

When comparing the three empirical modes of grammar teaching with Hedevang’s recommendations, it seems that being aware of them or not, the teachers appear to follow some, but not all of Hedevangs suggestions. All three teachers engage in grammar episodes that I would characterize as belonging to the mode of corrective feedback, and they also appear to demonstrate awareness of the heterogeneity in their classes. The explicit FonFS teaching that

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166 I elaborate upon and discuss this issue of lacking two-way communication in the discussion following the multimodal, interactional analysis.

167 For instance, I observed Teacher 1 provide a particularly detailed explanation to one of his pupils after which he invited her to join the homework café at their school where she could supposedly receive more attention and help. Teacher 2 was very explicit about the heterogeneity in her classes during breaks where we talked informally. She tended to divide her pupils up into weak, okay and good ones and this might have affected her way of interacting with the pupils in class too. Likewise with Teacher 3 who experienced some problems with disorder and lack of concentration in her first-year class. She too, was well aware who had actual problems, who did okay but just could not help making noise, and who were above average. I am confident that the data provide evidence of teachers
takes place as either group grammar teaching or class grammar teaching furthermore ensures that meta-language is used explicitly. Yet, FonFS grammar teaching is not directly recommended by Hedevang, and as also reported above, the teachers are all together probably not as aware of L2 grammar instruction findings as she envisages. Another point hinting in this direction is the fact that I did not at any point observe the teachers talk explicitly with the pupils about SLA or language learning. The teachers, particularly Teacher 1 and Teacher 3, were good at informing their pupils about the content of today’s lesson before commencing, and also at recapitulating the activities at the end of the lesson. However, these meta-activities did not include reflections on why the lesson had this or that specific composition, i.e. the pupils were not initiated into the pedagogical motives behind the different activities.

Hence, some parts of the three teachers’ actual grammar teaching practices appear to be in line with Hedevang’s recommendations, and some are not. And when they are it seems to be more by coincidence and for other reasons than those having to do with knowledge about specific recommendations from L2 grammar instruction research. This is not to paint a purely black and white picture of a total lack of contact between research and practice, but merely to suggest that when turning to a specific context of L2 grammar teaching, it becomes obvious that general language pedagogical recommendations are not enough. This, again, does not mean that the recommendations cannot be applied. And nor that there are no English teachers in the Danish gymnasiu ms all together who are aware of and strive to employ the recommendations. What I suggest is that the apparent lack of context orientation, of insight into actual grammar teaching practices as these take place in specific L2 contexts which I see in most L2 grammar instruction research literature, makes it difficult for teachers to access, relate to and implement for example language pedagogical recommendations in their practices. And of course, it is not made easier by the fact that these recommendations vary, depending on which research position one turns to.

Thus, turning to Ellis’ (2002) language pedagogical recommendations, the review established that they were of another character than Hedevang’s. First of all, Ellis proposes a curriculum which contains both a structural and a meaning-based syllabus, following the parallel option in which no attempt is made to integrate the two. Secondly, Ellis recommends that grammar is only taught to learners who have already developed a substantial lexical base and that focus is on areas of grammar known to cause problems to learners. Finally, Ellis suggests that L2 grammar teaching should favour awareness over performance, i.e. the structural syllabus should be directed at developing explicit knowledge which will then in due time develop into implicit knowledge, among other things because of the possibilities provided by the meaning-based syllabus for noticing and noticing the gap.

The empirical modes of group grammar teaching, class grammar teaching and corrective feedback, and the fact that they are typically all present in the same lesson seem to be in line with Ellis’ parallel option proposal above. Whereas there are clear links between group grammar making interactive adjustments to be used if adjusted teaching was the focus of this study. However, as this is not the research objective here, I will leave it as a footnote suggestion only.
teaching activities and class grammar teaching activities in the data corpus, I have not observed any links between these parts of the lesson and the text work part. In the latter, corrective feedback was the only grammatically oriented activity and the corrections never related to what had been on the agenda in the structural part of the lesson. In other words, it seems that in practice, the three teachers worked as if the curriculum contained both a structural and a meaning-based syllabus. The only exceptions to this are the two instances in which Teacher 3 conducts integrated grammar teaching.

The same kind of convergence appears to occur when it comes to Ellis' points about an already existing lexical base and a justified selection of grammatical forms and rules to be taught. English is the official ‘first foreign language’ in Denmark and all the pupils have received teaching in it since they were around 10 years of age. Furthermore, English can be encountered outside school to a far greater extent than for example French and German, e.g. in television, music and Internet games. This means that when commencing the gymnasium, the pupils are most likely to have developed a substantial lexical base already. With regard to the selection of grammatical forms and rules to be taught, the interviews with the three teachers disclose that the teachers do select problem areas. The selection is based on several things: The teachers mention taking point of departure in reoccurring mistakes in the pupils’ written assignments, they mention the contrastive structure in the different grammar books which is itself based on knowledge of problem areas for Danish learners of English, and finally they mention their own experience, both in terms of what to select, when to teach it and how extensively (separate interviews with Teacher 1 and Teacher 2, December 2009, and with Teacher 3, September 2011).

When coming to Ellis’ third point of prioritising grammatical awareness over performance, however, the picture becomes more blurred. Ellis’ notion of prioritising awareness is related to his viewpoint that grammar teaching should be directed at developing explicit knowledge which will eventually lead to implicit knowledge, among other things via the learners’ engagement in communicative tasks. Ellis operates with two senses of awareness: learners can be made aware of input, and learners can be made aware in the sense of forming an explicit representation of a target form (Ellis 2002:29). This means that both input and output are essential in developing explicit knowledge. Ellis’ distinction between awareness and performance is thus one between consciously understanding how particular forms work and being able to perform the forms accurately and fluently (Ellis 2002:26). This raises the question of how to distinguish between on the one hand grammar teaching that incorporates possibilities for the learners to engage with both input and output in relation to specific grammatical forms in order for them to develop a conscious understanding of these, and, on the other hand, grammar teaching that aims at accurate and fluent performance of the given forms. One should think that the latter, too, would incorporate possibilities to engage with both input and output. I therefore suggest that such a distinction can only be made in the situated context of specific grammar teaching practices. And that it has to be approached from several perspectives, so that how the grammar teaching is carried out in practice is matched with the teacher’s explanation of the goals of that teaching as well as with the overall curricular goal as these are described in the teaching plan for the subject in the given educational institution.
The question then is what the grammar teaching practices in the observed classes are aimed at. Following the three perspectives suggested, it can be proposed that in practice, the pupils’ engage with input and output in both group grammar teaching and class grammar teaching. The different grammar exercises that they are working with are focused on specific forms and are as such supposedly aimed at developing a conscious understanding of these.\(^{168}\) When looking at how the pupils and the teacher interact around these grammar exercises, however, a certain focus on accuracy seems to enter the stage. For instance, this is obvious in extract 104\(^{169}\) when Teacher 3, after having gone through the rules connected to the distinction between adverbs and adjectives, tells her pupils that they have to learn these by heart and that she will check them—which she then does in the following lesson a couple of days later where she asks two pupils to go to the blackboard to write down what word classes adverbs and adjectives qualify, respectively (see extract 105). Similarly, in extract 67, Teacher 2 assists a pupil with an exercise on adjectives vs. adverbs. The pupil apparently guesses her way to the correct answer and fails. This results in the teacher imitating that she hits the pupil on top of her head with her fist. Such a gesture may be taken to mean both ‘Wrong!’ and ‘See to it that you get things right in there!’ (i.e., in her head), thereby again pointing to a certain focus on accuracy. Of course, it can be discussed whether learning by heart is directed towards conscious understanding or accuracy and fluency, and this is where Ellis, unfortunately, remains unclear.

With regard to the curricular goals, the ministerial guidelines are, as shown in chapter 3, quiet when it comes to grammar teaching suggestions. As also described in chapter 3, the three years of English are concluded with an exam which includes a one hour grammar test with no aids allowed where the pupils are to demonstrate their ability to both apply and describe grammatical forms and rules. As the ministerial guidelines are also quiet when it comes to arguing for the reasons for such exam demands, it is difficult to say what kind of knowledge such an exam is aimed at testing. But applying and describing, to me at least, give associations of something that is different from or more complex than understanding. It could thus seem that partly because of the (unfounded) demands in the ministerial guidelines, the teachers strive at making their pupils not only aware of grammar, but also capable of describing and applying it accurately. In chapter 8, I return to this issue and discuss the teacher’s view on the exam and on how it plays a role in their everyday grammar teaching.

6.5 Chapter summary: Addressing the formulated research deficit empirically – going beyond a relational analysis

The above relational analysis between practice and research has established four empirically based modes of grammar teaching and compared these with the reviewed research on L2 grammar instruction. This relational analysis leaves the impression that research does influence actual grammar teaching practices, but that it do so to a varying degree, often in an indirect manner and

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\(^{168}\) The risk with for instance the many fill in the blanks-exercises employed in the classes is of course that it results in mere habit formation without reflections on that which is being taught.

\(^{169}\) This extract is analysed as clip 4.5 in collection 4 in the subsequent chapter.
without any form of systematicity. As for the research dimension, a lack of orientation towards the contextual conditions for L2 grammar teaching, tied to a lack of mutual communication between researchers and practitioners have been argued to constitute a major reason for the only partial resonance between research and practice. This brings me back at the formulated research deficit: the lack of orientation towards the context-bound realities of actual grammar teaching practices.

In order to address this research deficit I have to go beyond the relational analysis as it has been carried out above and zoom in on practice. The established four modes of grammar teaching have worked well on an overall level as analytical categories in the relational analysis in that they could be related to existing notions of FonF, FonFS, explicit, implicit etc. However, as also hinted at several times, the richness within these categories is immense when one starts looking closely. And, I argue, it is not until that close looking is begun that we really begin to develop an understanding of and insight into actual grammar teaching practices. As such, the analysis so far also points to a gap in the knowledge one gains from not going to more detailed levels of analysis. I therefore now turn to conduct the multimodal, interactional analysis. Such an analysis, I show, provides a far more comprehensive insight into how grammar teaching is accomplished in practice, as well as into the relational, embodied, material, spatial and temporal aspects involved in this accomplishment.

170 In the review in chapter 2, the research deficit was spelled out in terms of a lack of qualitative focus on what actually happens in the classroom, no orientation towards the teacher and his or her grammar teaching practices, no naturally occurring data and no focus on the given educational institutions that provide the empirical sites of research.
Chapter 7 Analysis part 2 – multimodal interactional analysis

7.1 Chapter overview and purpose
This second part of the analysis is structured into five collections which each contains multimodal, interactional analyses of selected extract clips. The purpose here is to provide an academic account of ‘what exactly happened’ (Raudskoski, 2009) in the grammar teaching situations in question, with the analytical gaze on their verbal, embodied, material and interactional accomplishment. The structuring into collections serves to facilitate the analytical establishment of interactional patterns across the extract clips analysed within each collection. As it has been described in chapter 5, a thorough selection process precedes the analysis of specific extract clips here, for which reason the extract clips are regarded as being representative of the way(s) in which each collection theme is accomplished in the data corpus.

Of the five collections, the first collection focuses on the collaborative initiation of group grammar teaching. The second collection concentrates on how and when group grammar teaching episodes are ended, whereas the third collection analyses what goes on in between these two, i.e. how and when grammatical rules are multimodally and interactionally oriented to in group grammar teaching. Collection 4 concerns what class grammar teaching is used for, how it is managed and made to progress, and lastly, collection 5 is centred on how integrated grammar teaching is conducted and what it entails. This structure is based on the empirical observations introduced in the previous chapter that, most often, group grammar teaching precedes class grammar teaching, whereas integrated grammar teaching is a more infrequent mode of grammar teaching.

7.2 Collection 1: How group grammar teaching is collaboratively initiated
This collection demonstrates how teachers and pupils initially engage in group grammar teaching, i.e. how the teacher comes into contact with a given group after the class has arranged itself into groups and commenced the grammatical work from the work sheet that has been passed around. In this situation, by walking around in class, all three teachers make themselves potentially available to any group or individual who can summon the teacher. Yet, the concrete initiation of
interaction between teacher and pupils takes place in varied ways, some launched by a pupil, some by the teacher, some in an explicit manner and others in more subtle and indirect ways as the analyses of the following extract clips confirm. Despite this variety of initiations and formats what is common to all the extract clips is that the opening is organised in a multimodal and embodied way (Mondada, 2009:1982).

The collection is structured so that it first provides two examples of explicit initiations commenced by pupils, after which it considers an extract in which this happens implicitly. On this basis the collection then suggests that it is possible to talk about three sequential steps in the initiation of group grammar teaching. From here, the collection moves on to consider these steps in relation to two extracts in which the initiation is launched by the teacher in an explicit manner. Finally, the collection presents a deviant case in which the teacher again performs the initiation, but this time implicitly. The collection concludes by establishing the three sequential steps as an interactional practice of initiating group grammar teaching episodes.

7.2.1 Explicit pupil initiation of group grammar teaching

In the first extract, class E is working in groups on inserting the right word into prefabricated sentences, deciding whether the inserted word should be an adjective or an adverb (see sheet A in the Appendices). Teacher 3 has been assisting a group at the other end of the room, when she discovers a pupil signalling that he needs assistance.

Extract 99, clip 1.1

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 1-6, the teacher sees P1’s mute, yet very explicit signalling which consists of his right hand being raised over his head [still 1] – an established way for pupils to bid for a turn in classroom interaction (see for instance Kääntä, 2010). Equally mutely the teacher responds to it by moving towards him. The teacher and P1 do not look at each other at the same time, so mutual eye gaze is not established as the teacher walks towards P1. Yet, as P1 sees that the teacher is moving towards him, he apparently understands it as a display of her intention of interacting with him, i.e. that his summons has recognisably worked, in that he retracts his hand and orients towards the worksheet on the table in front of him. This orientation is visible in the way that he leans forward, in his gaze and in his right hand that now points at the sentence in question on the sheet. P1 times his re-orientation so that exactly when the teacher arrives at his table, he can indicate to her where he has problems [still 2]. He does so both with his index finger and by verbally making a deictic reference to that same place (line 9) (Goodwin, 2000:1501). What happens here, then, is that the participants co-construct a participation framework by means of their multimodal and spatial arrangements (Mondada, 2009:1977). In other words, the teacher and P1 here set the scene for their ensuing interaction and they do so using gesture, gaze and body movement and eventually talk.171

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171 What this analysis also shows is that establishing a participation framework can in fact happen without the participants making eye contact. In this extract, P1 does not look at the teacher when she walks towards him, and
In a study of pre-beginnings and opening sequences in itinerary requests, Mondada (2009) states,

In face-to-face conversations, these sequences are characterized by intense body activities in space, through which participants achieve their social and spatial convergence and conjunction, and initiate a coordinated common entry in the interaction. In this phase, even before beginning to speak, participants achieve the mutual orientation of their bodies and their gaze (1977).

If group grammar teaching episodes is conceived of as an institutionalised form of face-to-face conversations, the extract here shows that the same is the case in this setting. The teacher and P1 through body activities converge and initiate a coordinated common entry into the interaction. This convergence and mutual, multimodal initiation is a precondition for group grammar teaching to take place and it is as such an integral part of how this mode of grammar teaching is being initiated.

Though there are in this way resemblances between how people cooperatively and multimodally initiate face-to-face conversations in itinerary requests (public space) and in group grammar teaching (institutional space), the institutional dimension of the group grammar teaching analysed here also makes a major difference between the two. Recalling the argument from microethnography that institutional space is symbolically preordained and prescribes certain kinds of interaction and relationships, it is interesting to consider the beginning of the extract again. The very first initiative is taken by P1 and it consists of the classical way of making a pupil bid by raising one hand in the air. This gesture as well as the teacher’s way of responding to it may be seen as an interactive realisation of the social-symbolic order of the classroom as an institutional space. P1’s gesture is conventional in this setting, but would seem bizarre in for example an itinerary request. With that gesture and the teacher’s response, one could say that the identities as pupil and teacher, respectively, as well as the asymmetrical relation between them are being enlisted. The mutual performance of these identities may be seen as another precondition for group grammar teaching to take place. Hence, an orientation towards the institutional dimension of group grammar teaching and towards how this dimension is being realised in concrete social interaction also contributes to understanding how this mode of grammar teaching is being initiated.

From the initial construction of a participation framework the interaction can continue. In lines 11-12, P1’s visual and verbal orientation towards the sentence on the worksheet makes the teacher orient specifically towards this line too as she leans forward to be able to read it [still 3]. Having done that, the teacher commences her grammatical assistance both by pointing herself at both of them are oriented towards the worksheet when she arrives at his table. It is not until later in their interaction that the teacher gazes at P1 and mutual eye gaze is not established at any point in their interaction. This observation serves to argue that when Goodwin (2000:1500) defines a withdrawal of eye gaze as publicly disattending the co-participant(s) and hence as a breach of the participation framework, it should be remembered that sometimes eye contact is not even part of establishing that participation framework. Furthermore, as the analysis will show, at least in the setting investigated here, eye contact between teacher and pupil is a dynamically changing part of their interaction, which sometimes breaches the public field of mutual orientation, but at other times, serves to move the interaction forward.
the line and by beginning to ask questions that can guide the pupil (lines 14-24) [still 4]. From their mutual, multimodal initiation of the interaction, then, P1 and the teacher co-construct an interactional space (Mondada, 2009) where the mutual orientation is towards the worksheet and the specific trouble sentence on it. In Goodwin’s (2000) terms, a contextual configuration is configured here in which several semiotic fields – gaze, gestures, body position, talk, worksheet – come together to “frame, make visible, and constitute the actions of the moment” (1490). The co-constructed mutual orientation towards the worksheet, which takes place right after the initial spatial manoeuvres, makes the worksheet a decisive part of the ensuing interaction. Goodwin defines a contextual configuration as a set of semiotic fields “that is being oriented to at a particular moment as relevant to the organization of a particular action” (1500), and here one can say that the worksheet as one such semiotic field is made particularly relevant to the organisation of a particular action – the teacher assisting the pupil in solving a grammatical problem – because the source of that problem is on the worksheet. The fact that the contextual configuration is quickly made to include the worksheet as a material artefact is another characteristic of how group grammar teaching is initiated.

The above analysis has distinguished some features of how this example of group grammar teaching is initiated in an interactive, embodied, material, spatial and temporal way. The organisation of group grammar teaching as a “progressive multimodal mutual engagement” (Mondada, 2009:1979) is also observable in the following extract which resembles the one above, however with the difference that talk as another semiotic resource is employed in the initial opening. In this extract, class D is working in groups on spotting and correcting grammatical errors in sentences which the teacher has taken from the pupils’ previous assignments (see sheet B in the Appendices). Teacher 2 is assisting a group when a pupil from another group signals that she needs assistance.

Extract 81, clip 1.2
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

The teacher has been assisting a group for a while when P3 in the background raises her right hand, performing the same institutionalised gesture as P1 in the former extract, though not stretching her arm up over her head (lines 8-10) [still 1]. The distance between P3 and the teacher is rather short so P3 can both hear what the teacher, P1 and P2 say, and see them interact. As such, P3’s calling of the teacher’s name in line 16 appears to be timed with the point when the teacher, P1 and P2 have all had a turn. P3’s calling of the teacher’s name thereby comes to function in concert with her gesture to attract the teacher’s attention. And P3 is successful in the sense that the teacher responds by first turning her head towards her and then, after having gazed briefly back at the other group, walking towards her (lines 19-22) [still 2]. In so doing, the teacher

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172 The analyses in this collection are not concerned with the participants’ actual way of dealing with the grammatical problem once the group grammar teaching is initiated. This element is treated in collection 3.
breaches the participation framework with the other group and cooperatively establishes a new one with P3 by means of gesture, talk, gaze and body movement.\textsuperscript{173}

Again a spatial convergence is visible here in how P3 and the teacher, after having briefly gazed at each other, each begin to move: P3 prepares for the ensuing interaction by re-orienting towards her worksheet, and the teacher moves along the tables towards P3. From a microethnographic perspective on built space, it can be suggested that these spatial manoeuvres are done to secure visual and auditory access to each other, to keep each other informed about mutual involvement and to mark off their interaction from the surroundings (LeBaron & Streeck, 1997). Thus, what becomes visible here is “the importance of space for the emergent and dynamic organization of interaction” (Mondada, 2009:1979). Group grammar teaching is one way of organising the interaction around grammar teaching and the use of the built space is quite different in the initiation of interaction within this mode of grammar teaching compared to e.g. the use of space in class grammar teaching, as will be shown later.

In line 25, P3 makes an explicit verbal reference to the sentence on the worksheet that she is in doubt about. This serves to inform the teacher about what P3 is already visibly oriented towards with her gaze and thereby what the teacher should orient towards too. This can be read as P3 displaying reflexive awareness (Goodwin, 2000) – her action here is based on an “ongoing analysis of how her recipient is positioned to co-participate in the interactive frameworks necessary for the constitution of that action” (1503). The teacher, in turn, orients towards that particular sentence on her sheet and thereby too enables the ongoing interaction (lines 26-27) [still 3]. As such, the next move after co-presence has been established is to collaboratively construct mutual orientation. This dynamic interplay between teacher and pupil is what makes the emerging group grammar teaching interaction a co-constructed enterprise, and again the worksheet as worksheet as a material point of orientation play a central role in that co-construction. In contrast to the previous extract, P3 here herself begins to inquire into the grammatical problems of the sentence (lines 29-45), but as shown, the mutual arrangement and progressive emerging of this interactive focus on the grammar problems are almost the same.

\section*{7.2.2 Implicit pupil initiation of group grammar teaching}

The following extract, shows a more quick and implicit way of commencing group grammar teaching, again initiated by the pupil. Class D is working in groups on inserting either an adjective or an adverb into the sentences on their worksheet (see sheet C in the Appendices). When the extract begins, Teacher 2 is about to walk by P1 and P2’s table, not heading towards a particular group, but just ‘walking her round’ and gazing into the sheet in her left hand.\textsuperscript{174}

\textsuperscript{173} However, it may be argued that the teacher’s gaze back at the other group before she starts approaching S3 is a way of making sure that they are done and that she can in fact move on.

\textsuperscript{174} Initiations by pupils are thereby configured to the availability of the teacher as well.
In lines 1-6, an interesting copying of gesture takes place. While the teacher is walking and gazing at her sheet, she raises her right hand to scratch the right side of her head [still 1]. Just as the teacher does this, P1 looks briefly up at her [still 2] and then, gazing down again at the sheet in front of her, also raises her right arm to the right side of her head [still 3]. P1 uses her hand to tuck a strand of hair behind her ear as she, in line 9, utters the Danish translation of the English word that she is considering in the sentence [still 4]. There is thus no explicit initial gestural indication of being in need of help in this extract, just as the verbal calling of the teacher’s name that was seen in the previous extract is not employed by P1 here. Still, P1 manages to attract the teacher’s attention in that the teacher takes down her hand, turns slightly towards P1, bends forward and gazes at P1’s worksheet [still 4 again]. What takes place here may therefore be characterised as a much more quick spatial convergence, probably also due to the fact that the teacher is already very close to P1 when P1 initiates the interaction.

Yet, I want to argue that the construction of a participation framework that takes place initially still happens much along the same lines as in the previous extracts. P1’s hand-to-ear-gesture to some extent replaces the raised-hand-gesture. Not that it alone signals that P1 wants assistance, but it does serve to open up the space in front of P1 in that the gesture makes her sit up straight. This change in body position just as the teacher passes by may be seen as an attempt to initiate contact with the teacher – P1 could have raised her hand instead, but since the teacher is already right in front of her and does not have to be attracted from afar, the raised hand is not a necessity and may be replaced by something else that can quickly establish contact. And here the copying of the teacher’s gesture is perhaps a swift, less habitual choice. Similarly, I find that P1’s utterance in line 9 can be viewed as a replacement of the meta-reference to the sentence in question that was employed in the earlier extract clips. There is no deictic reference (‘here’, extract 99) and no reference to a line number (‘number two’, extract 81), but there is a translated word from the sentence in question, along with P1’s gazing at the sheet. P1 and P2 have not been talking to each other during the teacher’s approach, and this might serve as another element which apparently makes the teacher interpret P1’s utterance as directed at her, though P1 does not look up at her. Together, then, P1’s gesture and her teacher-hearable utterance appears to be what make the teacher orient towards the sheet too. The contextual configuration, or the set of semiotic fields made locally relevant for the ongoing interaction, is thus the same here as in the previous extracts.

P1’s restart in line 14 therefore does not render her utterance in line 9 secondary in that line 9, together with P1’s gaze, serves the important interactional function of establishing mutual orientation. This mutual orientation is then further confirmed in lines 14-18 in which P1 verbally begins to articulate the grammatical issue that she is in doubt about, just as she takes down her right hand and uses her left hand to point specifically at the sentence in question [still 5]. This, in turn, makes the teacher come even closer to P1’s hand and sheet, probably because she wants to read the sentence in order to be able to answer the question [still 6]. After two seconds (of reading), the teacher answers affirmatively, and P1 (and now also P2 who, in line 25, for the first
time audibly displays that she considers herself part of the interaction and thereby alters the participation framework) can pursue the question that they are really struggling with.\footnote{This question concerns whether -ly should be added to ‘satisfactory’ and how that would then sound and look.}

### 7.2.3 Three sequential steps in the initiation of group grammar teaching

To pinpoint what the analysis has shown so far with regard to how group grammar teaching is initiated, I return for a moment to Mondada (2009) and her study of itinerary requests. Mondada’s analyses show “the unfolding realization of a series of conditions that are fulfilled for the opening to take place” (1983) and from these she identifies three steps in the sequential organisation of the pre-beginning and opening of itinerary requests. While, as stated, itinerary requests and episodes of group grammar teaching are certainly different interactions, I find that the progressive establishment of group grammar teaching analytically described so far can also be regarded as being sequentially organised in three steps that to some extent resemble those found by Mondada in itinerary requests. The three steps look as follows:

1. “Mutual orientation is progressively established during the emergence of an imminent interaction” (1983). In the three extracts above, the pupil is the first to display the intention of interacting via gesture, gaze and/or verbally (calling teacher’s name). The teacher “progressively adjusts to this initiative” (1983) by approaching and orienting towards the pupil. This is what I term the initial co-construction of a participation framework (Goodwin, 2000).

2. “Mutual orientation is achieved through the establishment of a common focus of attention, creating an interactional space, shaped by the bodies of both persons, becoming now co-participants to a joint action” (1983). Above, I have shown how the pupil uses deictic gestures, gaze, speech (references to the sentence in question) and the worksheet as a material artefact to frame this common focus of attention, as well as how the teacher responds via gaze and gesture. This is what I view as the (ongoing) contextual configuring of locally relevant semiotic resources (Goodwin, 2000).

3. “Once the interactional space is stabilized, it immediately undergoes a change, adapted to the activity participants engage in just after the opening (not necessarily face-to-face)” (1983). In the first extract, it is the teacher who first makes a transition from the opening to the grammatical problem that the entire interaction is about solving. In the second and third extracts, it is the pupil who poses a question which comes to serve as an entrance into mutually dealing with the grammatical issue.

In practice, these steps overlap – the participation framework is also being progressively established during the second step, just as the adaptation to the core activity of the interaction is multimodally begun in step 2, but is fully realised and explicitly verbalised in step 3. Yet I find that presenting it in this way gives a good indication of how much interactive work is involved in initiating group grammar teaching as well as of the many semiotic resources besides speech that are being invoked.
7.2.4 *Explicit teacher initiation of group grammar teaching*

So far I have considered examples that all have the pupil as the initiator of the interaction. In the following, I include three extracts that are characterised by the teacher taking the initiative in different ways to commence group grammar teaching. I consider these in relation to the analytical findings above with the aim of demonstrating that it is possible to talk about the three sequential steps of initiating group grammar teaching as an interactional practice that cuts across classes and teachers and is brought into play regardless of whether it is a pupil or the teacher who takes the first initiative. In the first of these extracts, class A is also working in groups on inserting either an adverb or an adjective into prefabricated sentences (see sheet D in the Appendices). Two girls are seated next to each other on the back row in the class. They are the only ones sitting there. Teacher 1 is walking towards them, on the side of the row where they are seated on their chairs, with the back wall on his left side and the row of chairs and tables on his right side. He carries his correction paper in his hands.176

*Extract 4, clip 1.4*

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

By walking towards the pupils and asking how they are doing, the teacher initially signals that his assistance is at their disposal. Or, this is at least how the pupils appear to understand his approach in that they, before P1’s answer to his question in line 8, both turn their gaze from the teacher to their individual worksheets [still 1 and still 2]. As P1 answers that they are doing okay, the teacher bends over the table towards the pupils and also directs his gaze at P1’s sheet (lines 9-10) [still 3]. P1 points at the sentence in question (line 11) [still 4] and supports this gesture verbally by stating what they are in doubt about (line 13-15). From this outline, I find that it is possible to detect the three sequential steps in this example of an initiation of group grammar teaching too. First, a social and spatial convergence takes place, initiated by the teacher, but progressively adjusted by the pupils who in turn commences the establishment of a common focus by including, via their gaze, the worksheet in the contextual configuration. When the teacher positions himself next to P1, thereby consolidating the participation framework and the interactive space, the mutual orientation is already at the worksheet, and P1 can move on to specify this orientation by performing both a deictic gesture (line 11), pointing at the sentence in question, and a verbal reference to the number of the sentence (line 13-15). The transition to the grammatical issue follows straight after this, initiated by P1 (also line 15) and followed up by the teacher (lines 19-22). Clearly, there seems to be a common format in how these moves happen. It is thus possible to see the temporal organisation of the “progressive multimodal mutual engagement” (Mondada, 2009:1979) that initiating group grammar teaching is – also when the initiative is taken by the teacher.

Another dimension of the interaction here, which is interesting in comparison with the previous extracts, is the institutional one and the enactment of relational identities that it carries with it. Earlier, I described how the raised-hand gesture and the teacher’s way of responding to it could

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176 In managing his rounds in class during group grammar teaching, Teacher 1 generally both visits certain groups explicitly and makes himself available for a summons from any group.
be seen as an indication of the identities of pupil and teacher being made interactively relevant. Here, where the teacher initiates the interaction, there is no such gesture. Furthermore, the teacher’s verbal opening of the conversation, asking the pupils how they are doing (line 2), does not in itself position him as a teacher in relation to his two co-interactants – his line could appear in a range of contexts, also non-institutional ones. Yet, as described above, from their gazing at their worksheets, the pupils appear to understand his approach as a signal that his assistance is at their disposal, or, in other words, that he initiates the interaction as their teacher. P1’s answer in line 8 is therefore framed by these other locally relevant semiotic fields – gaze and worksheet – which implies that her ‘we are doing okay’ does not express their general state of being, but specifically describes how their work with the grammar exercises is going and, as such, enacts the pupil identity. The participation framework being established in the initiation of group grammar teaching is thus contingent on the performance of these institutional, relational identities, and the analysis shows how this takes place cooperatively and multimodally through the ongoing contextual configuration of locally relevant semiotic fields. 177

A slightly different, yet related perspective on this teacher initiation is that the teacher, by approaching the group, prefigures a trouble group. When managing his rounds in class during group grammar teaching, Teacher 1 generally makes himself available for a summons from any group with his verbal opening, but also visits certain pupils explicitly. These pupils appear to be the ones that he would expect to have a difficult time managing the group grammar tasks on their own. In other words, it seems that with this teacher there is a contrast between general availability to be summoned by any group and a more local, personalised indication of availability. At the same time, the teacher’s verbal opening is so general and vague that it allows for a range of possible responses from or requests by the pupils and thereby renders his categorisation of them less direct. Thus, a slot is opened up in which the pupils can take part in determining the direction of the ongoing interaction. The way that P1 responds to the teacher’s opening (stating both that they are doing okay and directing his attention towards the sentence that they are working on) can be read as an equally indirect way of resisting his categorisation, yet accepting his offer of assistance.

The above analysis shows many similarities between pupil and teacher-initiated group grammar teaching, respectively. The following extract shows that also in less straightforward initiations of group grammar teaching, the three sequential steps are brought into play, however with a temporal delay. Here it happens because humour enters the stage and momentarily interrupts the mutual orientation towards solving the grammatical problem. In this extract, class C is also working in groups on inserting either an adverb or an adjective into sentences on their worksheets (see sheet E in the Appendices). Teacher 2 has been walking around, assisting many groups. As the extract starts, she stops, turns and walks towards three girls sitting next to each other. None of the girls has been indicating a need for assistance.

177 Interestingly, later in this extract, a restructuring of the participation framework takes place because the teacher sits down next to P1.
Extract 43, clip 1.5
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
As the teacher approaches the girls, she asks whether they are about to be done with the tasks (line 3). Here, the teacher uses the Danish personal pronoun ‘I’ (second person, plural, nominative case) which, unlike in English, differs from the second person, singular, nominative case: ‘du’. It is thus clear that she addresses more than one girl with her opening line and thereby that she assumes that they form a group. The recording does not show whether the teacher has eye contact with any of the girls during her approach, but as she reaches the table, her eyes are focused on P1’s worksheet, probably checking herself how complete it looks (line 4) [still 1]. P1 has, as the only one, been looking at the teacher approaching and therefore also sees the teacher gaze at her worksheet. It appears that P1 understands this gaze as a request for her to answer in that she reacts to the teacher’s small pause in line 3 and, in effect, overlaps the teacher’s finishing of her turn by stating that she does not know how to complete the task (line 7). At the same time, P1 too lowers her head to gaze at her worksheet so that both she and the teacher are now looking at it (line 8) [still 2]. The initial social and spatial convergence here is thus not as straightforward in terms of constructing a participation framework as in the previous extracts. Verbally, the teacher includes more than one girl in the interaction, but in terms of body posture and gaze she orients towards P1’s work only, just as it is only P1 who audibly and visibly reacts to the teacher’s approach to begin with.

However, whether the three girls have been working together as a group or not, the ongoing interaction shows that the two other girls come to consider themselves eligible participants in the interaction in that they demonstrably orient towards the common focus that P1 and the teacher now begin to co-construct. In lines 11-13, P1 appears to begin a turn verbally and end it non-verbally in that she prolongs ‘am’ and then nods slightly while gazing down at her worksheet. At least, the teacher appears to understand the two together as expressing a kind of resignation as she, in line 17-19, asks whether P1 is stuck and leans over the table, thereby moving closer to P1 and her worksheet and by that displaying a willingness to assist her [still 4]. Interestingly, in terms of participation framework, this action by the teacher makes P2 turn her head to gaze from her own worksheet towards P1’s worksheet (line 26) [still 5], whereas P3 has begun to gaze at P1’s worksheet already in line 14 after P1 signals incomprehension or resignation [still 3]. Hence, all four are orienting towards the same sheet during the following lines where P1 and the teacher together work out exactly where P1 got stuck. In lines 27-32, P1, upon the teacher’s request, performs the explicit reference to the sentence in question which has been present in previous extracts, both non-verbally in terms of a deictic gesture [still 6] and verbally by stating the number of the sentence. What this prolonged establishment of mutual orientation might show is that P1’s problem is perhaps unilateral and not a group problem, meaning that more interactional work has to be done to orient everyone to exactly what the problem is compared to previous extract clips.

Still, with regard to the three sequential steps above, the interaction here is now just about to turn from step two into step three – the common focus is established, the contextual configuration is set for actually dealing with the grammatical problem faced by P1 – and then something else happens. Instead of going directly into the sentence, the teacher, in line 35, performs an utterance
that I would characterise as being more informally conversational in tone than professionally oriented towards the grammatical problems in the sentence. This, in turn, paves the way for P2 to take the floor in lines 39-44 and insert a humoristic comment on the level of difficulty of the sentence, stating that it is not funny. At the same time, she shakes her head slightly and gazes up at the teacher [still 8]. Drawing on Marjorie Goodwin’s (1997) work on byplay I will characterise this as an initiation of byplay, i.e. an opening up of “a complex conversational floor which is simultaneous yet subordinate to the main floor being managed by the storyteller and the principal addressed recipient(s)” (78), and which takes place through “teasing, heckling, or playfully dealing with a description of a story” (78). A modification is of course that no story is being told by a storyteller to a principal addressee in this extract; instead there is what I would call a principal interaction going on between P1 and the teacher which P2 interrupts. Likewise, as the interaction continues, the teacher, besides being part of the principal interaction, also becomes a participant in P2’s byplay. To that extent, it is perhaps better characterised as collaborative play between P2 and the teacher; a play which, as will be evident, furthermore demonstrates both an understanding of the problem that P1 has initiated and an appreciation that the problem is indeed problematic. However, I find that some of the central characteristics of byplay can also be said to be in play in this extract clip as I show below.

M. Goodwin describes how the byplayer via gaze can attempt to solicit co-participation of another as hearer (88). In the extract, P2’s gazing up at the teacher seems to result in this. When P2 starts to talk, the teacher gazes away from P1’s sheet at P2 [still 7], and when P2 ends her comment by gazing at the teacher, the teacher laughs and rocks a little back and forth [still 9], thereby taking part in P2’s play. In other words, the teacher suspends her principal interaction with P1 here and instead pays attention to P2’s comment. M. Goodwin writes that byplay may “engender alternative forms of participation given the ways in which principal speaker’s main recipient(s), as well as principal speaker herself, choose to deal with it” (86). Without assigning the roles of respectively principal speaker and main recipient to P1 and the teacher, but maintaining the notion of a principal interaction between the two, it can be said that, indeed, an alternative form of participation emerges here in the teacher’s way of laughing and continuing the joking ambiance. P1, on the contrary, does not appear to have been distracted by P2’s comment in that she, still gazing down at her worksheet, in line 50 begins to read aloud the sentence. This makes P2 turn her gaze back at her own sheet while the teacher turns her head to gaze, again, at P1’s paper [still 10]. Yet, when P1 continues her reading aloud, the teacher, overlapping P1, states that the sentence is damn funny (line 57), in that way, at the same time, commenting on and closing down the byplay with P2 and re-orienting towards P1. This re-orientation is also marked by the teacher again leaning forward towards P1 and her paper in line 58 [still 11] and by her ‘Ehh’ in line 60.

M. Goodwin states that “the status of byplay as a momentary or more extensive activity is negotiated through the types of coparticipation given its invitation and at each point in its

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178 The sentence in question reads: ‘It all depends on how professional/professionally the schools use computers, and how good/well the teachers are trained to use computers creative/creatively in the classroom (see sheet E in the Appendices)’
The teacher’s reorientation towards P1 might be seen to suggest that the interruption should only be momentary and that the interaction should get back on track in terms of focusing on P1’s grammatical problem. Nonetheless, her simultaneous commenting on P2’s utterance is reacted to by P1 who, in lines 63-64, both verbally and non-verbally indicates that she does not exactly agree that the sentence is damn funny [still 12]. The ending of the collaborative play is thereby postponed and again, in lines 66-69, the teacher laughs [still 13] before she, by readjusting her gaze towards a point on the wall behind P1 and P2 [still 14], pulls herself together and eventually addresses the grammatical issue in the sentence, thereby terminating the play. P1 answers the teacher and the interaction continues from there, centred on grammar. M. Goodwin describes how byplay becomes the focal activity on the floor when the principal speaker co-participates in it (92). Being a participant in the principal interaction, P1 here eventually also participates in the byplay. However, it might be said to be in a minimal way in that she only briefly indicates that she does not agree with the teacher’s joking statement and otherwise keeps her gaze on the sentence in question. Though the collaborative play is thereby continued, it can, at the same time, be suggested that P1’s turn contributes to not making it a more extensive, focal activity.

What takes place here, then, is that a transitory side sequence occurs, but the sequential organisation is preserved. The mutual orientation towards solving the grammatical problem is temporarily delayed, interrupted by the collaborative play initiated by P2 and taken up by the teacher. Hence, what this extract shows is that initiating group grammar teaching and establishing the joint orientation towards solving the grammatical problem is not always clear-cut and that playfulness can become part of the interaction, but also that despite such interactional play, the progressive, temporal, spatial, embodied, material and mutual three-step ‘coming to deal with the grammatical problem’ is still eventually being unfolded.

7.2.5 Implicit teacher initiation of group grammar teaching

In all the above extracts, it has been shown that whether initiated by a pupil or by the teacher, the interaction ultimately evolves around a grammatical problem felt and pointed out by the pupil who thereby explicitly uses the teacher as a resource in finding the correct answer. The final extract to be considered in this collection, is an initiation of group grammar teaching which may be considered a deviant case from the ones above in that this time it is the teacher who insists on being that resource even though it is not asked for by the pupil. Consequently, the three-step sequence is not accomplished in the same manner as in the previous extracts. The extract is from the same lesson as extract 43, clip 1.5 above which means that it is still class C working in groups on inserting either an adverb or an adjective into sentences on their worksheets (see sheet E in the Appendices). As the extract starts, Teacher 2 stops in front of P1’s desk and gazes down at P1’s worksheet.

Extract 40, clip 1.6
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
In contrast to the previous extract, the teacher here approaches P1 tacitly, without an opening line. She simply stops in front of P1 and gazes at the worksheet that P1 is engaged in filling out (line 1). P1 does not look up to see what the teacher is doing, but stays focused on the sheet (lines 2-4) [still 1]. After six seconds of gazing at P1’s sheet, the teacher appears to be spotting an error in that she inhales as if she wants to say something, but instead tightens the corners of her lips which might be seen as a way of expressing failure or disappointment (lines 3-7) [still 2]. The teacher also changes her body position, now leaning over the table so that the sheet is easier to read (lines 8-10) [still 2 again]. She appears to check the answers again and during the seven seconds this takes, P1 is still focusing on her sheet, not at all orienting towards the teacher (lines 10-11). The previous extracts have demonstrated a first display of the intention of interacting by the one part and then a progressive adjustment by the other part. I have described this as the initial co-construction of a participation framework and regarded it as the first step in initiating group grammar teaching. Here, that first step is not being realised in this way. The teacher is not particularly explicit in displaying her intention of interacting and, in fact, her primary intention might just be to check P1’s work, meaning that there is a possibility that had she not spotted an error, she would just have continued to walk towards another group. This teacher always walks around during group work and when nobody is demanding her assistance, she sometimes just stops and listens or reads. This might also explain why P1 does not react to her presence during the first six seconds. However, the teacher’s inhalation as well as her change in body position can be said to form a kind of implicit attempt at opening an interaction, but P1 does not react to this either.

Hence, when the teacher, in lines 14-18, begins to address the error sentence she has spotted, a progressive establishment of mutual orientation has not taken place yet. Interestingly, the teacher’s verbal utterance may be said to seek to do just that in that she literally tells P1 where to focus by stating her name and suggesting that she takes a look at the sentence. The teacher’s simultaneous non-verbal deictic gesture at the sentence supports this insistence on interaction and on the establishment of a common focus of attention that it requires [still 3]. The teacher’s effort is successful in that P1, during lines 16-20, re-orient towards the particular sentence [still 4]. Thus, in contrast to the previous extract clips, the teacher (not the pupil) here uses deictic gestures, gaze, speech (reference to the sentence in question) and the worksheet as a material artefact to frame the common focus of attention, and the pupil (not the teacher) responds via a change in her gaze. At the same time, a participation framework is constructed (step 1) and a set of locally relevant semiotic resources are configured (step 2), and this happens very much on the teacher’s initiative. In other words, the convergence and the coordinated common entry into the interaction that I have defined above as a precondition for group grammar teaching to take place and therefore as an integral part of how it is being initiated are being stretched here – deferred so that they eventually take place along with the establishment of a common focus of attention.

In lines 19-20, P1 juggles her rubber in her left hand [still 4 again] as if foreseeing that the teacher is going to point out an error and preparing to respond to it (by erasing the wrong word). Thereby P1, by means of a material semiotic resource, demonstrates understanding of what the teacher is doing. The teacher, in turn, can then go directly to initiating a correction sequence.
Hence, the rubber does sequentially important work here. This is so even though the rubber only comes to play a momentary role in the contextual configuration because P1 does not use it to erase her error yet after all. This is so because the teacher does not directly point out the error but instead asks what ‘interested’ qualifies (line 22). This makes P1 put down the rubber and instead move her left hand to her forehead so that she can lean her head against it while she reads and thinks (lines 23–27) [still 5].\footnote{Later in the interaction P1 makes use of her rubber as she and the teacher make their way to the correct answer.} What happens in this extract clip, then, is that the teacher immediately after the opening goes into dealing with the grammatical issue (step 3), and P1 adapts to the teacher’s way of doing this. From here, the interaction is centred on the grammatical problem along the same lines as in the previous extracts. Hence, the analysis of this extract shows that initiating group grammar teaching can take place in a more tricky way that is not immediately as mutually oriented to by both parties, but also that even in such an instance, the creation of an interactional space that allows for a mutual orientation towards a grammatical problem located in the worksheet as a particular material artefact is eventually accomplished. This finding in turn serves to emphasise the perhaps self-evident aspect of group grammar teaching that it is essentially based on felt problems with concrete grammatical tasks. These problems can be felt, experienced or discovered by either pupils or teachers (as in the last extract), but a common trait is the fact that had the problem not been there, the group grammar teaching would not have been initiated and interactively accomplished in the first place.

### 7.2.6 Collection summing-up

The above analysis of six selected extract clips has been centred on how group grammar teaching is initiated. From the sequential and multimodal analytical approach taken, it is possible to deduce several findings. First of all, the analysis shows that the very first initiative to initiate group grammar teaching can be taken by both pupils and teachers, and that it can happen in both explicit and implicit ways. On that basis, the six extract clips can be categorised as follows:

- Explicit, pupil-initiated: extract clips 99, 81
- Explicit, teacher-initiated: extract clips 4, 43
- Implicit, pupil-initiated: extract clip 66
- Implicit, teacher-initiated: extract clip 40

Common to these extracts is that the interaction develops because of a felt problem with a concrete grammatical task.

Furthermore, the analysis demonstrates that despite the differences in initial initiation, the opening of group grammar teaching can be seen to follow the same three steps, though in some cases a certain step is interactionally postponed (e.g. step 3 in extract clip 43) or interactionally made to co-occur with another step (e.g. step 1 in extract clip 40). The three steps can be condensed in the following way:

1. Initial co-construction of a participation framework – progressive establishment of mutual orientation and convergence via gaze, gesture, body movement in space and speech.
2. (Ongoing) contextual configuring of locally relevant semiotic resources – establishment of an interactional space and a common focus of attention via gaze, deictic gesture, speech and the worksheet as a material artefact.

3. Transition from interactional opening to explicitly dealing with the grammatical problem – participants adapt via speech, gaze, gesture and body position to engage specifically with the concrete sentence in question.

The outlining of these steps makes apparent the importance of visible features in the initiation of group grammar teaching. The opening phase of the interaction “is achieved by participants methodically mobilizing a range of multimodal resources”, and “these resources are sequentially ordered in time, in a finely tuned coordination” (Mondada, 2009:1994). The fundamental role of not only language, but also of the body (movement, position, gestures, gaze) and of the materiality in the interaction (spatial convergence, worksheet, pens, tables, chairs) that the analysis thereby discloses can only “be sketched on the basis of video data and of a sequential analysis taking into account the complexity of multiple concurrent multimodal practices” (Mondada, 2009:1979; see also Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002).

The analysis thus portrays group grammar teaching as fundamentally a co-constructed enterprise characterised by a dynamic interplay between the participants who display reflexive awareness and thereby ensure the ongoing interaction. The analysis also touches upon the institutional dimension of group grammar teaching and reveals how the co-construction of the interaction is contingent on the multimodal performance of the institutional, relational identities of teacher and pupil. At the same time, these identities are not only maintained, but also constituted in their actual performance.

These findings across teachers and classes, as well as across the variety of initiations and formats shown in the collection, suggest that the initiation of group grammar teaching episodes is a situated, interactional practice that emerges in an interactive, embodied, material, spatial and temporal way. Such a contextualised understanding of group grammar teaching is a dimension of second language grammar instruction that existing research has not acknowledged so far. In the following collection, I treat the issue of how group grammar teaching episodes are ended.

7.3 Collection 2: How and when group grammar teaching episodes are ended

In this collection, I focus on the ways in which group grammar teaching episodes are ended, i.e. on how and when the participation framework of a given interaction shifts to a new alignment or framework. When the class is engaged in group grammar teaching, the teacher has to be available for all groups, which implies that the interaction with a single group cannot continue indefinitely. This appears to be a given that all participants are implicitly aware of. As the following analysis shows, terminating a group grammar teaching episode can be initiated by either a pupil in the group that is being assisted, by a pupil in another group, or by the teacher, but as was the case with the initiation of group grammar teaching, a common element is that the closing as a whole is
co-constructed in a multimodal and embodied way with the other participants progressively adjusting to the initiation of the closing.

The collection is structured so that it first provides an example of a closing initiated by the pupil who is being assisted by the teacher at that point. I then analyse two extract clips which show how and when a pupil in another group initiates the closing of an episode of group grammar teaching. Subsequently, I consider five extract clips in which it is the teacher who in various ways initiates the ending of group grammar teaching episodes. Finally, I induce from the analyses what I term an underlying interactional practice for the ending of group grammar teaching episodes and present a deviant case.

### 7.3.1 Pupil-initiated ending of group grammar teaching, by the pupil who is being assisted

In the first extract clip, class D is working in groups on spotting and correcting grammatical errors in sentences which the teacher has taken from the pupils’ previous assignments (see sheet B in the Appendices). Teacher 2 is assisting a group with a sentence that reads: ‘These lines from the story are from the only place where there is mentioned something about her past.’ As such, it contains an error with regard to the use of preliminary subjects in English. The teacher is describing in what situations this construction is used when P2 asks how to explain this in grammatical terms at the exam.

**Extract 79, clip 2.1**
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 34-46, the teacher provides this explanation. She is positioned in front of P1 and gazes down on her own sheet that she holds in both hands when she commences her answer [still 1]. At this point, P2 is gazing at the teacher, but in line 39, she turns her gaze down at her worksheet on the table in front of her [still 2]. In line 42, the teacher shifts her gaze from her sheet to P2 [still 3]. Once the teacher is done with her explanation, P2 with her ‘okay’ in line 49 minimally signals that she has heard the teacher. P2 does not look up, but stays focused on the sheet that she is now writing on (line 51) [still 4]. The teacher, in turn, looks at P2 and at what she is writing for three seconds (line 52) [still 5]180, before she turns away and leaves (lines 54-55) [still 6]. By leaving, the teacher thus appears to interpret P2’s ‘okay’ and her subsequent writing on the sheet as indicating that P2 has understood her explanation and can continue unaided. P2 does not look up when the teacher departs [still 7].

What I want to argue here is that even though it is the teacher who eventually walks away, thereby definitively ending this group grammar teaching episode, it is P2’s minimal answer as well as her not looking up at the teacher, but staying focused on her sheet that initiate the ending, or come to function as a pre-closing. The teacher appears to be waiting to see whether her explanation was sufficient and when there is no further reaction from P2, the teacher walks away.

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180 From the recording it is not possible to see what P2 is writing on the sheet, only that she is writing on it.
The disintegration of the participation framework, which marks the ending of this episode of group grammar teaching, is thus progressively and interactively accomplished, with the teacher adjusting to P2’s signaling that she does not need further assistance. This signaling is multimodal and implicit in character in that P2 does not state explicitly that she considers the interaction to be over, but instead shows it visually with her continuous gaze at the sheet, her writing on it with her pen, and also her minimal verbal utterance.

Returning briefly to the materiality perspective of microethnography, it can be recalled that it views material objects as resources which are invoked “at particular moments, for particular purposes” and which “feature both in the production of action and in the ways in which the participants make sense of each other’s conduct” (Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002:29-30). In the ending of the group grammar teaching episode considered here, the worksheet and P2’s continuous orientation towards it come to serve a double function. The worksheet enables P2 to write down or convert the teacher’s explanation, i.e. it features in the production of action. That action, in turn, is taken by the teacher to signify that P2 has initiated the ending of their interaction, i.e. the worksheet also features in how the teacher makes sense of P2’s conduct – in how she reads an interactional purpose into that conduct above the task of correcting the sentences on the sheet – and eventually in how she herself relates to that. The worksheet thereby plays an essential role in how the closing here, initiated by the pupil and executed by the teacher, is accomplished. Such pupil-initiated endings by the pupil who is being assisted are not very common in my data. A more recurrent pupil-initiated format is when the pupil initiating the closing comes from another group. This is the format to which I turn now.

7.3.2 Pupil-initiated ending of group grammar teaching, by a pupil in another group

The following extract clip shows an entirely different way in which a group grammar teaching episode can be ended. Class C is working in groups on inserting either an adverb or an adjective into sentences on their worksheets (see sheet E in the Appendices), and Teacher 2 is engaged in assisting a group with a particular sentence that contains several words to be inserted. They have reached the final word when the extract clip begins. The sentence in question reads: ‘It all depends on how professional/professionally the schools use computers, and how good/well the teachers are trained to use computers creative/creatively in the classroom.’ Teacher 2 is positioned in front of P1 and gazes down at P1’s worksheet. So does P1. P2, on P1’s right side, gazes down at her own sheet.

Extract 43, clip 2.2

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 10-17, P2 works out that the inserted word has to be ‘creatively’. In lines 20-27, the teacher confirms this and continues to pursue an explanation for why this is so by asking what the word qualifies in the sentence. During these lines, the teacher’s gaze shifts several times. First, she gazes quickly at P2 when confirming her suggestion (line 21) [still 1]. Then, in line 28, she gazes back at P1 [still 2], probably because P1, in line 24, overlaps the teacher. However, at this point, P3, sitting next to P2 and being engaged in group work with another pupil, sits up and...
runs both her hands through her hair. This apparently catches the teacher’s attention as she turns her head, again, towards P3 (lines 28-30) [still 3]. Thus, when P1 answers the teacher’s question in line 33, and when the teacher confirms that answer in line 36, the teacher’s gaze is at P3 who has kept her left hand in the air and now points her index finger upwards, performing the institutional attention-calling gesture (lines 37-38) [still 4]. The teacher reacts to this gesture by beginning to raise her upper body and remove her hands from P1’s table. At the same time, however, she gazes back at P1 whose answer she is confirming (line 39) [still 5]. In line 42, P3 then calls the teacher’s name as an extension of her gesture, and in lines 45-50 the teacher now fully orients towards P3, by addressing her, by turning her head towards her again and by walking towards her [still 6 and 7].

In this extract clip it is thus clearly not P1, nor P2 who initiates the ending of the group grammar teaching episode by terminating the participation framework. But it is not in the first instance the teacher either. Instead, it is P3, a pupil in another group, who initiates it through the semiotic fields of gesture and language, and the teacher then progressively adjusts to it. At the same time, of course, P3 thereby initiates a new participation framework and with that the beginning of a new group grammar teaching episode along the lines described in the previous collection. What is interesting here is that P3’s interruption takes place right after P1, P2 and the teacher have reached the correct answer regarding the last word to be inserted in the trouble sentence. It is at this point that P3’s movement is turned into a raised hand, and it is also at this point that the teacher, by beginning to stand up straight and removing her hands from P1’s table, signals that she intends to interact with her. P3’s interruption might be consciously and carefully coordinated to fit this possible end in the teacher’s interaction with P1 and P2 or it might not; the analysis cannot tell. However, with regard to the teacher, her transition from one group grammar teaching episode to another is probably facilitated by her recognition that now they are basically done with the sentence in the first group. She demonstrates this recognition by standing up straight and withdrawing her hand from P1’s table. Furthermore, her way of gazing quickly back at P1, in line 39, may be viewed as a way of checking that P1 is of the same opinion. This is apparently the case as P1 does not react to the teacher’s leaving, but instead, like P2, begins to write the answer on her sheet as the teacher moves on to P3 (line 50). Hence, when looked upon as a whole, the closing of this episode of group grammar teaching is a joint construction which is made up of the progressive and multimodal involvement of all parties.

The following extract clip is another example of a pupil from a different group initiating the closing of a group grammar teaching episode. Teacher 2 has provided class B with a sheet full of grammatically incorrect sentences that she has taken from the pupils’ previous assignments (see sheet F in the Appendices), and the class is now working in groups on correcting the sentences. When the extract clip begins, the teacher is assisting a pupil with a sentence containing the

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181 Teacher 2 sometimes walks a round in class, visiting the groups one by one as they are seated next to each other. However, this is not the case in the group grammar teaching activity that the present extract clip is taken from. It is thus not so that the teacher is here already moving in the direction of P3 as accountably seen in how she has treated groups so far in this activity. This means that P3 is not the given ‘next’ in spatial sequence.
expression ‘succeed in’ that has to be followed by the present progressive participle. The sentence in question reads: ‘In a way, it has succeeded him to tell Miriam that he loves her.’

Extract 12, clip 2.3
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
In lines 1-9, the teacher both visually (nodding affirmatively in line 3) and verbally (providing the construction ‘in telling’ in line 8) provides P1 with the building blocks to construct the sentence. P1 then sets out to do this in lines 12-15. The teacher is affirmatively supporting in lines 18-19, but then P1 forgets the ‘in’ in line 22. The teacher informs her about that by minimally stating ‘in’ in line 25, and P1 acknowledges that she forgot this in line 28. After having thought about it for a couple of seconds, P1 in line 36 comes up with ‘in telling’ which the teacher confirms with both a visual nod and a verbal ‘yes’ in lines 38-40. Straight after this confirmation, P2, sitting next to P1, but not visible on the video, poses a question. The teacher reacts to this by first turning her gaze from P1’s sheet towards P2 (lines 45-46) and then providing an answer to P2’s question (lines 48-53). As the teacher provides this answer, she stands up straight (still 2), turns her head in the opposite direction of P2 (line 49) and begins to walk in that direction (line 50) (still 4). At the same time, P1 leans a little forward and begins to write on her sheet (line 51).

Thus, as was the case with the previous extract clip, the interruptive pupil attempts to open a new conversational floor right after a solution seems to have been reached in the interaction between P1 and the teacher. Hence P2’s question might be taken to demonstrate that she recognises a potential closing-slot. Furthermore, in this extract clip too, the teacher reacts to this P2’s question by turning her gaze towards her and by answering her question. The teacher thereby signals that she understands her interaction with P1 to be completed, effectively terminating the participation framework in which they were mutually oriented towards P1’s sheet. However, in contrast to what happened in the preceding extract clip, P2’s interruption and the teacher’s following act of engaging in it do not mark the initiation of a new group grammar teaching episode. On the contrary, the teacher in lines 49-52, i.e. while she is answering P2’s question, turns her head and her body in the opposite direction of P2 and begins to walk away from P1’s table in that direction. Thereby, the teacher also ends the interaction with P2. The reason for this might be that P2 does in fact not display problems with a particular sentence – rather, she poses a concrete grammatical question without contextualising it in the worksheet. The teacher can therefore quickly provide an equally acontextual grammatical answer without approaching P2 and orienting towards her sheet. Nevertheless, it is still P2’s question which makes the teacher disengage from her interaction with P1. Furthermore, also this progressive ending of a group grammar teaching episode is multimodally constructed, involving language, gaze and body movement.

7.3.3 Teacher-initiated ending of group grammar teaching
The above extract clips demonstrate how and when pupil-initiated closing of group grammar teaching episodes can take place. I now turn to focus on extract clips in which it is the teacher who initiates the ending of group grammar teaching. As the extract clips show, the teacher can turn to do different actions when turning away from the group or the pupil as part of terminating
the specific group grammar teaching episode. What is relevant is that despite these differences in what the teacher does after the interaction with a specific group or pupil, the initiation of the closing takes place at the same time, and also at the same time as was the case in the previous extract clips, i.e. after the correct answer to the problem sentence appears to have been reached. In the first of these extract clips, class A is working in groups on inserting either an adverb or an adjective into prefabricated sentences (see sheet D in the Appendices). Teacher 1 has been assisting a group of two girls with a particular sentence containing an adverb that qualifies an adjective. He is seated on a chair next to P1 and has his correction sheet placed right next to hers on the table. He is just done explaining why the inserted word has to be an adverb. During this explanation he has been writing in the margin of P1’s sheet and he, P1 as well as P2, sitting on the opposite side of P1, are gazing down at P1’s sheet when the extract clip begins. P2 now wants to know whether it is the same issue in the following sentence. This sentence reads: ‘He has to be full equipped to do the job.’

**Extract 4, clip 2.4**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 1-6, P2 poses her question whether it is the same in sentence number five. In lines 14-25, the teacher, somewhat hesitantly and not without consulting his correction sheet, confirms that that is the case. P2 now wants to know whether her explanation for why that is so is correct (lines 30-35). Still gazing down at his correction sheet, the teacher, in lines 44-46, informs P2 that her explanation is not applicable in this particular example [still 1]. He elaborates on this in lines 53-58, and then, in lines 65-73 informs the pupils what the word qualifies here and what word class the qualified word is. During these lines, both P1 and P2 pick up their pens [still 2] and write down what is to a large extent the answer, provided by the teacher [still 3]. P2 then recapitulates in line 78-82, the teacher confirms in line 85, and P2 concludes in line 91 that ‘-ly’ has to be added, after which both she and P1 again write on their sheets and the teacher again reorients his gaze towards his correction sheet (lines 92-93) [still 4]. In line 96, the teacher briefly affirms that the solution has been found, and in a combination of several body movements, he initiates his leaving (lines 97-98) [still 5, 6, and 7]. Then, in lines 99-102, he addresses the entire class, gazing at them and asking them how they are doing [still 8], after which he begins to stand up (lines 103-104) [still 9].

In this extract clip, then, the teacher performs a transition from a group grammar teaching episode to a whole-class-enquiry. Again, it happens at the point in the interaction when a solution has been found and apparently appreciated by all participants. And again, it is a co-constructed venture in that P1 and P2 during the five seconds in which the teacher initiates his leaving by getting ready to get up from the chair could have protested or in other ways prolonged the interaction, but do not. Instead, they stay focused on writing on their sheets. What is also interesting in this extract clip is that the teacher’s leaving so explicitly involves rearrangement and movement of the body. The teacher has initially sat down to assist the two pupils, thereby indicating that he intended to spend more than just a few seconds on their interaction and in that way creating a relatively stable participation framework. This obviously has implications for the
ending of the interaction in that the teacher now has to get up from the chair again to effectively break the participation framework. As such, the chair as a material artefact comes to have particular significance in that it is partly that which enables the teacher to effectuate the closing and the pupils to make sense of what he is doing. Thus, the chair in the end of the extract clip re-enters the contextual configuration as a carrier of interactional meaning.

The following extract clip is another example of how the teacher might end a group grammar teaching episode by addressing the entire class. Here, class B is working in groups on defining main and sub-clauses and inserting commas where necessary (see sheet G in the Appendices). Teacher 2 is assisting a group with a sentence that includes the subordinating conjunction ‘because’ when the extract clip begins. The sentence in question reads: ‘Because I stopped looking out for her I stopped seeing her altogether.’

**Extract 14, clip 2.5**

P1 and the teacher first establish that ‘because’ initiates a subordinate clause (lines 1-7). P2 then begins to read the sentence aloud, audibly inserting the comma (line 18). Demonstrating reflexive awareness, he includes the teacher in his reading by turning his paper so they can both see it and by pointing at the specific sentence with his pen (lines 11-14) [still 1]. The teacher positions herself so that she can follow P2’s reading (lines 15-21) [still 2]. By these progressive adjustments, P2’s reading aloud the sentence, and particularly his positioning of the comma, come to function as an element to be evaluated by the teacher. She does this in lines 24-25, both verbally (‘yes’) and visually (nod). P2 then recapitulates by stating, in line 28, that a comma has to be inserted, and he begins to do this in line 29 [still 3]. Again, the teacher confirms that he is correct (line 32), after which she stands up straight, turns away from P2 and begins to close down the lesson by shouting a message to the entire class (lines 33-39) [still 4].

Again, it can thus be seen that at the point where a solution has been reached, the participants are on to something else. Here, again, it is the teacher, who effectively breaks the participation framework and the mutual orientation towards P2’s worksheet, and this breaching is marked. Not only does she turn her back towards P2, she also changes the volume of her speech, thereby indicating that now she is speaking to the entire class. Returning briefly to microethnography’s understanding of the institutional space that it prescribes certain kinds of activities and relationships which are realised through social interaction, it can be argued that here it is exactly the institutional dimension and the relational identities of teacher and pupil that it prescribes which allow the teacher to make such a marked interactional shift. Imagining P2 in an identical situation performing the same action of turning around and shouting a message to the entire class is unfeasible.

Another prerequisite closely related to this performance of institutional, relational identities is the classroom as the built space in which the group grammar teaching episode takes place. Recalling the microethnographic notion that the built space shapes social interaction and that that interaction shapes social space, it can be suggested that the way this group grammar teaching
episode is ended is also a result of the way the room has been decorated and of how the group is positioned in it. The tables are placed in a U-shape with a row of tables placed between the two wings. The two boys are seated at the bottom of the left wing (seen from the back of the class), just where the back row begins. The teacher is thereby placed in a corner with her back to most of the other pupils. Thus, in order to address them, she has to turn around. And in order to be heard from where she stands, she has to shout. To that extent, the built institutional space shapes social interaction. At the same time, it is the concrete social interaction – and here specifically how the teacher chooses to end one kind of interaction to begin another – which shapes the social space as a classroom and both enables and constitutes the performance and maintenance of institutional, relational identities.

In the following three extract clips, the teacher is again initiating the closing of a group grammar teaching episode, but here the entire class is not being addressed. In the first of these extract clips, class E is working in groups on inserting the right word into prefabricated sentences, deciding whether the inserted word should be an adjective or an adverb (see sheet A in the Appendices). Teacher 3 is assisting a pupil and they have been through one sentence and begin on a new one when the extract clip begins. This sentence reads: ‘The washing machine is … out of order’ (‘constant’/’constantly’ being the word to be inserted). P1 sits at the end of a row of tables, and the teacher is positioned at the end. She leans forward over the table so her head is close to P1 and his worksheet.

Extract 102, clip 2.6

(please see separate transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 7-24, the teacher poses questions that guide P1 to make a suggestion in line 34 as to what is being qualified in the sentence in question. However, P1’s answer is wrong, so in lines 37-43, the teacher gradually provides him with the correct answer. She does this both visually by performing a deictic gesture, running her index finger back and forth along the entire sentence several times [still 1 and 2] and verbally, by eventually stating that it is about frequency in relation to the entire sentence. In lines 46-54, P1 picks this up, and by looking at the blackboard [still 3] on which the rules are written of what adverbs and adjectives, respectively, qualify, he deduces that when the inserted word qualifies the entire sentence it has to be an adverb. The teacher agrees (line 57), and P1 goes on to state the word ‘constantly’ as that which has to be inserted. His stress is misplaced, so the teacher, in line 63, repeats it with correct stress while she also confirms that he is right. As she does this, she turns her head slightly towards P1, and P1 moves his right hand down towards the sheet as if ready to write on it (lines 64-65) [still 4]. With his ‘yes’, in line 68, he signals that he has understood her correction - or this is how the teacher appears to interpret it in that she turns her head back, raises her upper body (line 69) [still 5] and begins to walk away (line 70) [still 6].

Again, the group grammar teaching episode is ended here right after the solution has been reached. Here, with the added teacher work of repairing pronunciation and with P1’s confirmation of the teacher’s repair. As in the previous extract clip, the teacher does not verbally
indicate that she considers their interaction done, but merely gets up and walks away. But once more it does not appear to come as a surprise to the pupil who moves on to write the correct answer on his sheet. Thus, the co-constructed and multimodal character of terminating group grammar teaching is further underlined here. The same happens in the following extract clip, however this time the fact that they have reached a solution is marked more clearly, and the teacher’s withdrawal is more extended. In the extract clip, Teacher 2 is assisting a group in class B. They are correcting errors in sentences which the teacher has taken from an old exam test (see sheet H in the Appendices). The two pupils in the group have come up with different (incorrect) suggestions while the teacher has been listening. When the extract clip starts, the teacher begins to guide them more actively. The sentence in question reads: ‘Have you heard anything about the rules have been changed lately?’.

**Extract 28, clip 2.7**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 2-21, the teacher attempts to make the pupils build on the suggestion made by one of them and lets them know that it is a matter of using the correct tense. In lines 25-38, the pupils try to make this change in tense, but fail. The teacher, in lines 41-66, then seeks to address the semantic content more in her guidance. However, before she is done, P1, overlapping the teacher, comes up with the correct answer (lines 70-73). The teacher, gazing at P1, makes a pointing gesture towards her (line 74) [still 1], nods and then states, ‘Yes, exactly, right?’ (line 78), thus indicating both visually and verbally that they have found a solution. At the same time, she gazes briefly over at P2 (line 75) [still 2], probably to check whether he follows. P2 appears to understand this as an invitation for him to align with the proposed solution as he does this in line 82. At this point the teacher has turned her gaze towards P1 again and taken a step back (line 79) [still 3]. In line 86, she confirms P2’s repetition and then she removes her gaze and slowly begins to continue along the row of tables, gazing once more at P1’s sheet (lines 87-89) [still 4]. P1 is already engaged in the following sentence (line 92), collaborating audibly with P2. Thus, both the teacher and the group move on, independently of each other, when the correct answer has been reached.

In contrast to the previous extract clips, the point of finding the right solution is here both more marked and more extended. The teacher’s pointing gesture and her head nod towards P1, once she has come up with the correct answer, are an explicit indication that the correct answer has been found, and this is stressed even further by the teacher’s verbal ‘Yes, exactly, right?’. This utterance is in itself more elaborated than some of the teacher confirmations seen in the previous extract clips. The extension arises because the teacher, during her confirmation, gazes at P2, thereby including him in the act of settling on P1’s suggestion as the correct answer. The teacher’s following withdrawal is equally extended in comparison with the earlier extract clips. Instead of just quickly walking away, the teacher commences her leaving at a slow pace and also glances once more at P1’s sheet before she continues along the row of tables. Thus, the teacher’s way of initiating the termination of the participation framework is more hesitant and tentative here. Yet, both P1 and P2 adjust to her leaving and by their orientation towards their sheets...
signal that it is acceptable, just as the teacher, when moving slowly away, can hear that P1 has moved on to another sentence. This could also be taken by the teacher to signify that her departure is indeed okay, i.e. that the pupils have readjusted their orientation and constructed a new participation framework in which she is not a part. The progressiveness of ending a group grammar teaching episode is thus evident here.

The following extract clip shows yet another variation of the teacher’s way of initiating the ending of a group grammar teaching episode, this time marked by her explicitly addressing another group. The extract clip is (like extract, 102, clip 2.6 above) taken from class E’s work with inserting either adjectives or adverbs into sentences on the worksheet (see sheet A in the Appendices). Teacher 3 is assisting a boy (see the analysis of the initiation of their interaction in the previous collection) in deciding upon the right word to be inserted. As the extract clip begins, they have established that the word being qualified in the sentence is a noun. The sentence in question reads: ‘My grandmother had a very … voice’ (soft/softly being the word to be inserted).

**Extract 99, clip 2.8**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 14-24, the teacher asks what word to insert when it has to qualify a noun, whether it should be an adjective or a noun. As she asks her questions, she turns her head and orients towards the blackboard (lines 17-21) [still 1], and P1 who has been gazing at the sheet copies this re-orientation (lines 21-22) [still 2]. Crucially, on the blackboard the teacher has earlier written the rules of what word classes adjectives and adverbs, respectively, qualify. Hence, what happens here is that the teacher non-verbally guides the pupil’s orientation towards a place where he can find the answer to the questions that she simultaneously poses verbally. P1 manages to find this answer and provides it in line 30. In line 34, the teacher confirms and then goes on to ask whether ‘–ly’ has to be added (line 38). As she does this, she moves her right hand to point at the sentence in question (lines 35-36) [still 3]. The pupil again provides the correct answer (line 41), which the teacher confirms by repeating it (line 44). She now removes her hand from his paper and places it on the table (lines 45-46) [still 4] as she goes on to recapitulate the correct answer and tell the pupil what to do (line 48). When stating that P1 has to write ‘soft’ after the sentence, the teacher quickly moves her right hand back towards the paper in a deictic gesture and then retracts it again (lines 49-50) [still 5 and 6]. In lines 53-54, P1 demonstrates alignment both verbally (by stating ‘yes’) and nonverbally (by beginning to write on his sheet) [still 7]. The teacher now stands up, turns her head and her upper torso towards the group sitting next to P1 (lines 56-57) [still 8] and then, while gazing at that group, says to P1 that this is how he is supposed to go about it (line 59). Finally, she walks towards the other group [still 9] and asks whether they have listened in (lines 60-62).

Here, I suggest that the teacher commences the closing of the group grammar teaching episode already in lines 110-111 when she moves her hand away from P1’s sheet. Noticeably, this is again

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182 Earlier in the extract, P1 has himself gazed briefly up at the blackboard, probably searching for the Latin word for noun, but stating the Danish one (lines 1-4).
at the point where an answer to the grammatical problem has been found. P1 progressively adjusts by doing as he is told. The teacher then continues the gradual composition of the closing by her standing up, turning away from P1 (though still talking to him), walking away and addressing another group. Importantly, however, though the breaching of the participation framework is therefore effectively the teacher’s work, it is still co-constructed in that it is not being resisted by P1. What furthermore takes place here is that the teacher, by asking the group next to P1 whether they have been listening, initiates a new group grammar teaching episode which is directly related to the previous one (asking them whether they have been listening is a way of pointing towards what has just happened), but which is, after all, a new episode in that the participation framework now being constructed does not include P1.

7.3.4 The interactional practice of ending group grammar teaching – and a deviant case
From the above analyses an interactional practice can be induced: once the pupil has received assistance, the interaction ends (the ending initiated by a pupil in the group, outside the group or by the teacher), and both the pupil in the group and the teacher with material, embodied and spatial means re-orient their focus in a way that excludes the other from the new participation frameworks that are thereby established. This interactional practice is thus one that all comply with in an unproblematic way, and yet, as demonstrated above, it is a highly complex practice which is characterised by being subtly, progressively and multimodally constructed in situ by means of the participants’ reflexive awareness of each other.

In the following and final extract clip in this collection, I present what I consider to be a deviant case. It is deviant in the sense that the ending here is, if not being resisted, then at least revisited and opened up again by the pupil. In this extract clip, class C is working in groups on inserting either adverbs or adjectives into sentences on a worksheet (see sheet I in the appendices), and Teacher 2 has been joking with a group for some time when a pupil in the group poses a question concerning one of the sentences on the sheet. Both pupil and teacher are bent over the sheet, gazing at it. The sentence in question reads: ‘These gloomy/gloomily silences used to make Father mad.’

Extract 41, clip 2.9
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
In lines 4-7, P1 poses his question, but before the teacher begins to answer he realises himself what the answer is and begins to put it forward (line 9). As he does this, he looks up from his sheet towards the teacher who meets his gaze and nods affirmatively and begins to raise her upper body (lines 10-12) [still 1]. P1 continues his answer (line 14) and the teacher stands up straight and nods one more time (line 15) [still 2]. Apparently, P1 has to search a little for the word ‘noun’ – he gazes down at his sheet again and makes a quick beat in the air with his left

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183 P1 first asks whether the word to be inserted qualifies ‘silences’ or ‘these’ in the sentence in question, but then realises that no matter which one, the inserted word has to be an adjective because adjectives qualify both nouns and pronouns (which adverbs do not).
hand which I take to signal that he is just about to come up with the word [still 3] before he actually states the word and begins to write on his sheet (lines 16-21) [still 4]. The teacher now makes an audible inhalation (line 24), indicating that she wants to say something even though P1 has managed to solve the problem himself. In lines 28 and 34, aligned with by P1 in line 31, she states that it is an adjective because it is ‘placed between.’ When the teacher states this she makes a quick gesture to her right with her right hand, palm facing upwards, as if pointing out in the air the placement of the inserted word (lines 35-36) [still 5]. This gesture, then, is a repetition of her verbal utterance that it is placed between. With his ‘yes’ in line 39, P1 again signals alignment and leans back, done with his writing (line 40) [still 6]. He continues to gaze down at his sheet. During the following three seconds, the teacher gazes down at P1’s sheet, nods briefly, looks up and then turns her body to her left and begins to walk away (lines 42-43) [still 7].

However, what happens next is that P1 turns his head in the direction that the teacher has gone (line 45) [still 8] and loudly repeats the teacher’s last line, however, stressing it as a question (line 47). Again, the teacher makes an audible inhalation (line 50), and she then turns around, makes eye contact with P1 and walks back again (lines 51-52) [still 9]. In lines 54-74, the teacher now elaborates on what she means by stating that the inserted word is ‘placed between’. Hence, P1 opens up the closing sequence for further work to be done on his understanding, and the teacher complies with this. During the teacher’s explanation, she gestures a lot, repeating the sentence-structure-gesture from before, but developing it further [still 10]. In line 78, overlapping the last part of the teacher’s explanation before the conclusion can be made, P1 begins to provide the conclusion, thereby displaying that he has now understood what she means. Yet, the teacher continues, carrying her explanation through in line 81 and, again, using a gesture (circling her hands) to underline the generality in the rule (lines 82-83) [still 11]. In lines 83-86, P1 aligns both visually and verbally, and in lines 87-88, the teacher then repeats her act of leaving, this time in the opposite direction [still 12] and without being summoned back.

It is clear that this extract clip diverges from the previous ones in that once the group grammar teaching episode has apparently ended, P1 comes to think further about what the teacher has just said, realises that he does not understand it and calls her back by his questioning repetition of the line that he does not comprehend. In that way, the closing is recalled, the participation framework is re-established and the interaction now continues until a new common understanding has been reached, and the teacher can leave in a way that resembles the ones analysed earlier in this collection. However, the double closing does not just happen by itself and it is really the reason for this deviation that makes this extract clip an apparently deviant one. This reason, I want to argue, has to do with the teacher’s orientation towards grammar rules that is here widened in comparison with other extract clips in which the grammatical topic being dealt with is adjectives versus adverbs. The rules that Teacher 2 generally rehearses in this type of exercises are that adjectives can qualify nouns and pronouns, respectively, whereas adverbs can

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The teacher does not in the first instance say what the word is placed between.
qualify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs and entire sentences. These are also the rules oriented to by P1 when he initially deduces that no matter whether the inserted word qualifies ‘these’ (pronoun) or ‘silences’ (noun), it has to be an adjective. As such, the extract clip could have ended with the teacher walking away after line 21 in which the correct answer has been found and P1 begins to write it on his sheet. That would have matched the timing of the closing that I have shown in the previous extracts.

However, the teacher does not walk away, but instead effectively alludes to the related and supplementary grammatical rule (of thumb) that when a word is positioned between an article (or a pronoun) and a noun, it is always an adjective. Her way of doing this is first rather implicit in that she does not finish the argumentation, but merely states that it is an adjective ‘because it is placed between’. P1 aligns with this truncated rendition and also leans back, thereby signalling that he is done with the sentence. It is therefore not completely incomprehensible that the teacher tries to effectuate a closing at this point. Yet, it is not incomprehensible either that P1 summons her back, thereby contradicting his own alignment and displaying a lack of understanding with regard to what the teacher just said. This is so exactly because the teacher’s allusion represents a way of dealing with the question of adjectives versus adverbs that he is not so familiar with and he therefore needs to have it explained further.

Once the explanation has been provided and understanding has been displayed, the group grammar teaching episode can eventually be terminated. This happens in a co-constructed and multimodal way with P1 gazing down at his sheet, nodding and verbally aligning with the teacher, and with the teacher gazing away, turning away and walking away. Hence, this deviant case does not contradict the established interactional practice as to how and when group grammar teaching episodes are ended. On the contrary, it serves to underline that there is in fact a strong interactional practice at play in that even in an unusual situation where less familiar grammatical information is provided by the teacher and adjusted to by the pupil, this is still the way in which the interaction is terminated.

The importance of this finding in terms of what this project contributes to existing knowledge about SLA and L2 grammar instruction lies in how it – together with the first collection of the initiation of group grammar teaching – points to a clear interactional dimension of group grammar teaching. In other words, a picture is beginning to emerge of a grammar teaching that is just as bound up with interactional practices as it is with grammatical rules, and these two aspects are interconnected. As the following collections unfold and I move on to consider how grammatical rules are oriented towards in group grammar teaching, how class grammar teaching is managed, and how integrated grammar teaching is conducted, this picture will become clearer. My fundamental argument is that these interactional practices can no longer be ignored if we want to learn more about L2 grammar instruction, and especially if we, in studies of L2 grammar acquisition, want to take seriously the fact that the instruction of that L2 grammar always

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185 The fact that this is the teacher’s general rule orientation when it comes to the issue of adjectives versus adverbs can be seen in how she often writes these rules on the blackboard during class grammar teaching and in how it is these rules that both she herself and the pupils orient towards when they interact in group grammar teaching.
happens in situ – in a context that is being co-constructed in various ways by both teacher and pupils.

7.3.5 Collection summing-up

This collection has demonstrated how and when group grammar teaching episodes are ended. As was the case with the previous extract on the initiation of group grammar teaching, the analysis has here shown various ways in which the initiation of the closing can take place while it has also disclosed common elements across extract clips, teachers and classes. Listing the various ways of initiating the ending of group grammar teaching, the employed extract clips can be categorised as follows:

- Pupil-initiated, by the pupil who is being assisted: extract clip 79
- Pupil-initiated, by a pupil in another group: extract clips 43, 12
- Teacher-initiated, the teacher addressing the entire class: extract clips 4, 14
- Teacher-initiated, the teacher leaving to be able to provide assistance to other groups: extract clips 102, 28,
- Teacher-initiated, the teacher addressing another group: extract clip 99
- Teacher-initiated, but summoned back by pupil: extract clip 41 (deviant case)

In all these examples, the teacher is ultimately the one who disengages from the focused interaction with a group because it is the teacher who leaves.

With regard to the common elements, the analysis has shown that no matter who initiates the closing, it always displays an interpretation of when a correct answer to the grammatical problem has been achieved. Furthermore, all participants comply with the closing taking place, and taking place at this specific point. This can be seen in how they display reflexive awareness and progressively adjust to the initiation of the closing. The initiation as well as the adjustment happen multimodally (and often non-verbally) in a coordinated orchestration of gaze, body movement and employment of material artefacts (typically the involved worksheet and sometimes a pen too when writing on it). On the basis of these observations, I have discerned what I term an interactional practice ending group grammar teaching and I have described how it involves the termination of the participation framework between the teacher and the group that he or she has been assisting and often the establishment of new participation frameworks, in which teacher and pupils are each on to something else and no longer include each other in a mutual framework. The progressiveness of closing a group grammar teaching episode has been stressed, and it has been shown how a closing can be opened up again and the teacher’s departure delayed.

Moreover, the analysis has touched upon the built space in which the grammar teaching takes place, the institutional dimension of that space as well as how this affects the way group grammar teaching episodes are ended. Here, I have considered how the built, institutional space shapes social interaction and how this interaction at the same time shapes that space as a classroom and both enables and constitutes the performance and maintenance of the institutional, relational identities of teacher and pupils. It is thus possible to talk about a dialectical relationship, or about
the built space and the institutional relational identities, on the one hand, and the concrete social interaction, on the other hand, as being mutually constitutive. This is a finding which supports my argument that a contextual and interactional dimension has to be added to the study of L2 grammar instruction; i.e. that this research has to pay attention to the specific context in which the actual teaching takes place and also to the concrete interaction which evolves as that teaching.

Finally, the analysis has portrayed how, in the co-construction of the ending of a group grammar teaching episode, material artefacts often noticeably feature both in the production of action and in how participants make sense of that action – i.e. the artefacts come to function as carriers of interactional meaning. This is an important point in that it underlines the significant role that material artefacts, such as the grammar worksheet, play in L2 grammar instruction, but not from a learning perspective. Rather, it is the role of these artefacts as interactional structuring devices that has been suggested here by illustrating how they can take part in the co-construction of the closing of a group grammar teaching episode.

Together, these findings point to an intricate assemblage of semiotic resources involved in ending group grammar teaching episodes, and I maintain that knowledge about this and other interactional practices related to the teaching of grammar is a highly relevant, yet mostly ignored dimension of L2 grammar instruction research. As stressed several times, my position is that research on how L2 grammar ought to be taught can beneficially be supplemented with research on how that grammar is actually being taught, i.e. how it is co-constructed multimodally and interactionally in concrete contexts. For this reason, my analytical focus in the different collections is on interactional practices. Having now considered how group grammar teaching episodes are initiated and ended, I turn to investigate how grammatical rules are multimodally and interactionally oriented to in group grammar teaching. In the following collection (as well as in the other two remaining ones), I thereby include the role of grammatical rules as a focus point, along with interactional practices, focusing essentially on the relations between the two.

7.4 Collection 3: How and when grammatical rules are multimodally and interactionally oriented to in group grammar teaching

Having now analysed the multimodal and interactional practices that are in play in, respectively, the initiation and closing of episodes of group grammar teaching, in this collection I proceed with an analysis of what goes on in-between. That is, I focus on the actual interaction taking place while solving a grammatical problem with a sentence on a task sheet. Specifically, I focus on the way in which grammar is oriented towards and included in the interaction, and I advance the argument that an interactional practice can be discerned, in which an explicit and multimodal movement takes place from the actual task sentence to the implicated, more abstract and general grammatical rules, and from there back to the concrete, practical level designated by the task sentence. I furthermore find that the movement to the abstract level and the orientation towards general grammatical rules sequentially occurs at different places in the interactional organisation, sometimes in a side sequence to the main interactional sequence (see for example Svennevig,
prior to the establishment of the correct answer to the concrete sentence, and sometimes after the establishment of that answer in what I characterise as a post hoc validation.

The way in which the teacher assists the pupils with the grammatical problem varies. In some instances, the teacher simply provides the entire grammatical answer and explanation upon the pupils’ first request. At other times, but more rarely, the teacher insists on having the pupils find the answer themselves to an extent that makes the pupils impatient. Most often, however, a combination of these two poles appears to take place in which the teacher guides the pupils towards an answer, awaits that they provide it, but sometimes offers it him- or herself if the pupils show signs of not being able to. The collection is structured so that it first treats six extract clips which demonstrate that, despite differences in who asks the questions and who provides the answers, it is possible to see the movement to the abstract level of general grammatical rules interactionally accomplished in either a side sequence or as a post hoc validation. This is followed by a deviant case in which the movement to the abstract level of grammatical rules is not being performed. Finally, in a section of its own, the collection considers four examples which all concern the grammatical topic of what adjectives and adverbs qualify respectively. This is so because these examples illustrate a specific sequential way of orienting towards grammatical rules often in play when this is the grammatical topic dealt with.

The decision to single out the interaction around this particular topic is further warranted by the fact that a considerable number of the group grammar teaching extracts (and of the class grammar teaching extracts as well) have adjectives vs. adverbs as the grammatical concern. All five classes went through this topic during my period of recording, and with regard to Teacher 1 and Teacher 3, I only have group grammar teaching extracts on this topic because that was the only topic that the classes worked with in this mode during my recordings. For the three first sections in this collection I have therefore primarily selected clips from extracts that treat other grammatical topics than adjectives vs. adverbs, though this obviously also means that they are largely extracts with Teacher 2 and her classes.

7.4.1 Orientation to grammatical rules in side sequences or as a post hoc validations

In the first extract clip to be considered in this section, Teacher 2 is assisting two boys who are engaged in correcting some error sentences that the teacher has taken from the pupils’ last assignment. The teacher is leaning forward and resting her hands on P1’s table while gazing down at P1’s sheet. As the extract clip begins, P1 begins to describe their problem. The sentence in question reads: ‘He didn’t speek to Miriam although he still lends her new books with comments’ (see sheet F in the Appendices).

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186 It is a coincidence that all three teachers had this topic on the agenda precisely during my visits. However, it is not perplexing that they all treated this topic in that the teachers, from experience, regard it as a given topic in the linguistic exam at the end of the pupils’ three years of English (Interviews with Teacher 1, Teacher 2 and Teacher 3, September 2011). I return to the issue of the final exam and its role in the actual teaching in the discussion following the analysis.

187 I have discussed the issue of balanced representation in chapter 5.
Extract 19, clip 3.1
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
In lines 10-16, P1 says that they have heard a possible solution to correcting the sentence (from another group), but that they do not quite understand it. To the teacher, this apparently means that they do not understand what the error in the sentence is, to be seen in how she, in lines 19-40, sets out to describe the problem. This happens multimodally. In lines 20-21, she points at the sentence on P1’s sheet [still 1], and in lines 26-29, this pointing is turned into a movement back and forth along the sentence while forming a space between index finger and thumb [still 2]. Then, in line 34, the teacher returns to pointing, this time twice after each other at two different places in the sentence [still 3 and still 4]. While performing these manoeuvres, the teacher states that it is because they, within the same period (lines 25 and 31), have two different tenses (line 33) about something which takes place at the same point in time (lines 36 and 40). Thus, a careful orchestration of semiotic resources occurs here, involving speech, gestures and the sentence on the task sheet as a material artefact. The teacher is visualising what she is saying, but, importantly, she is, in doing so, also concretising the more abstract grammatical rule that one should use the same tense about events that happen at the same point in time. In other words, the teacher’s speech in these lines does not explicitly involve the sentence, but even so her simultaneous gestures at the same time serve to make the grammatical rule relevant to giving an account of the sentence and to make the sentence relevant to giving an account of the relevant grammatical rule. Thereby the teacher employs the material presence of the sentence on the task sheet and embodied gestures to verbally leave the problem sentence and move to a more abstract level of grammatical rules.

After P1’s alignment in line 43, the teacher verbally moves from the abstract level of the grammatical rule to the concrete text in the sentence. Again, her simultaneous, carefully coordinated pointing at two different places in the sentence (the two verbal clauses) is visualising what she is saying. In line 46, she reads aloud the first part of the sentence, while pointing at the verbal clause in that part (lines 47-48) [still 5]. She then moves her finger to another place in the sentence (line 49) [still 6] and states that that part is written in the present tense (line 51). Moving her finger back at the first verbal clause (line 52), she states that P1 can change this into the present tense (line 54). The same happens when she then moves her finger to the second verbal clause (line 55) and states that this can be changed into the imperfect as the alternative (line 57). In line 59, the teacher then concludes that those are the two possibilities, in that way linking what she just said on the concrete sentence back to the grammatical rule that two verbal clauses within the same period have to be identical with regard to tense if they concern the same point in time.

Once more, P1 only aligns briefly (line 65), before the teacher continues her assistance, this time suggesting that the easiest thing would be to change ‘didn’t speak’ into the present tense (lines 68-72). Again pointing is part of her performance (lines 69-70). In line 74, then, the teacher actively includes P1 by leaving it to him to provide the present tense of the verbal clause. Leaning forward in lines 75-76, P1 visibly picks up this turn-allocation [still 7] and, in line 79, somewhat hesitatingly provides an answer in which he changes ‘he didn’t’ into ‘he don’t’. By her audible inhalation and her prolonged ‘yes:’; in line 82, the teacher signals that he is not entirely right. She
indicates this further by stating that he is at least on the right track (line 82). Instead of providing him with the correct form, she now clues him\(^{188}\) by stressing that the subject is ‘he’ (line 84). This seems to work in that P1, in line 87, finally arrives at ‘doesn’t’.

Thus, in this extract clip, the teacher first informs P1 about the grammatical rule to be invoked, then relates it to the concrete sentence, and finally lets P1 provide the correction himself, with her support. As shown, the interaction comprises a movement from the concrete level of the problem sentence to the abstract level of general grammatical rules. The developing analysis in this collection shows that this movement is present in group grammar teaching to an extent that I find it possible to talk about it as an interactional practice. The movement is multimodally constructed in different variants, but shared is the way in which it is performed not only verbally, but also by means of other semiotic resources. In the present extract clip, gesturing as a semiotic resource comes to play a central role in how the movement is contextually configured. This is so because the teacher uses her gesturing on the task sheet to forge a link between the concrete sentence and the abstract grammatical rule that she is recounting. In the following extract clips, the movement is marked in other, multimodal ways.

Importantly, the movement to the abstract level of general grammatical rules not only varies in how it is multimodally accomplished, but also in when it is sequentially performed. In the sequential organisation of the extract clip considered here, the teacher invokes more abstract rules before the correct answer to the concrete sentence has been found, and as a means to aid that finding. This is an often occurring sequential structure in group grammar teaching, as is also shown by other extract clips in this collection. The point I wish to make is that in this sequential structure, the specific orientation towards the abstract level of general grammatical rules can be seen to take place in a side sequence to the main sequence. In the extract clips considered in this collection, the main sequences all concern establishing the correct answer to a concrete example sentence.\(^{189}\) Side sequences are dependent on another, main sequence and are only relevant as context or background to the main sequence. They can be either parenthetical or implicative, depending on whether they are consequential for the progression of the main sequence or not (Svennevig, 2000). When the movement to the level of abstract grammatical rules takes place in a side sequence prior to the establishment of the correct answer, it is therefore performed as a way of adding background or context to the main sequence: the side sequence is relevant for contextualising the main sequence, not the other way around. Furthermore, I regard the side sequence as being implicative in the sense that the demonstrable orientation towards it is what moves the main sequence forward towards completion.

In a simplified version, the sequential organisation here, in which the movement to the abstract level of grammatical rules happens in a side sequence, can be depicted as in the following diagram:

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\(^{188}\) Clueing the pupils is an often occurring phenomenon in the grammar teaching of both Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 as both the present collection and the following ones show.

\(^{189}\) This point can for instance be seen from the finding in the previous collection that group grammar teaching interaction is closed as soon as a solution to the concrete problem sentence has been found.
Rule orientation in a side sequence 1

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Mutual orientation to problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Movement to abstract level T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Movement to concrete level T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Clueing T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Correct answer P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Evaluation T</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, this way of sequentially realising an explicit orientation towards grammatical rules is not the only one occurring often in group grammar teaching. In the following, I analyse an extract clip in which the movement to the abstract level of general grammatical rules is not made until after the correct answer has been arrived at. Teacher 2 is assisting four girls, and again their task consists of spotting and correcting errors in sentences which the teacher has taken from the pupils’ previous assignments. The erroneous original sentences in question read: ‘He sees people he has met at or just colleges and business partners. But all of whom he wouldn’t stop and chat with but just say hello to’ (see sheet B in the Appendices). The teacher and the pupils have been interacting for a while, mostly talking about the first part of a complex sentence. As the extract clip begins, the teacher specifically asks what is wrong with the second part.

**Extract 80, clip 3.2**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 18-22, P1 provides a response to the teacher’s question. P1 and the teacher have eye contact, and the teacher evaluates P1’s response both visually (line 23) and verbally (line 26), after which she asks P1 how she would correct it (lines 28-30). P1, in line 34, proposes that the full stop could be deleted and, in lines 35-36, picks up her rubber, apparently preparing to correct the sentence.190 In line 39, the teacher confirms P1’s proposal, and both P1 and P2 then begin to correct the sentence (lines 40-41). In lines 44-49, P2 and the teacher establish that a comma should be inserted instead, after which the teacher moves on to asking why the second sentence cannot stand on its own (lines 50-52). P1 sits up (line 53) and states that it is because the sentence begins with ‘but’ (line 56). She gazes up at the teacher, and they make eye contact, but then the teacher turns her head slightly away from P1 and gazes towards the ceiling. In doing so, she projects an evaluation which is not entirely confirmative. In lines 62-74, then, the teacher states that some sentences can begin with ‘but’ even though they are main clauses, and she asks what type of clause the second sentence is. During these lines, the teacher gazes back at P1, and then from P1 to P2 [still 1]. P2 appears to understand the teacher’s gaze as an invitation for her to answer in that she, in lines 77-81, tries to do so, but apparently, she has forgotten the name which is also illustrated by her grabbing gesture in lines 78-79 [still 2]. P1 now takes over and, in lines

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190 See my analysis of the role of the rubber as a material semiotic resource in extract 40, clip 1.6 in collection I.
84-93, searches for the name too. In lines 94-96, P2 moves her hand to her head to rest her head in it, and P1 gazes up at the teacher [still 3]. The teacher apparently interprets these actions as indications that the pupils cannot provide the answer in that she in line 99 does so herself. In lines 102 and 106, the two pupils align, after which the teacher begins to describe the clause type more specifically in lines 109-121. First she states that it is a relative subordinate clause (line 109), and then she moves on to include the more abstract grammatical rule that a relative subordinate clause cannot stand alone (lines 113-115). She states this rule twice, the second time replacing ‘not’ with ‘never’ (lines 118-121). She thereby stresses the general status of her utterance, and this is also done visually with her brief shaking of her head in line 119 [still 5]. Furthermore, it can also be suggested that the teacher’s gaze shift from P1 and into the air in line 110 [still 4] signals her move to the level of abstract grammatical rules. With that gaze shift she is visually leaving the concrete sentences and orienting towards something more abstract above these.

In line 124, P2 asks what can be done about the sentence then, and in lines 128-140, the teacher therefore returns to the concrete sentence, both verbally and visually. She tells P2 what to write and furthermore locates it on P2’s sheet by pointing at the sentence (lines 129-130) [still 6] and by moving her finger back and forth along the sentence line at the place where the subordinate clause begins (lines 137-138). Thus, occasioned by P2’s question, the teacher moves back to activating the rule in practice on the actual sentence.

From this description, it can be observed that there are both similarities and differences from the previous extract clip in terms of sequential structure. Shared is the way that the teacher in both extract clips allocates a response turn to the pupils and thus explicitly attempts to include the pupils actively in finding and explaining the correct answer. In the present extract clip it happens twice (line 52 and line 74) because the first pupil response, in line 56, is a dispreferred one. In the former extract clip, it also happened twice (line 74 and line 84) because the pupil forgot the subject-verb agreement the first time. As it is shown later in this collection, it is not on all occasions that the teacher includes these question-answer turns in her assistance.

The interactional movement from concrete task sentence to the abstract and general level of grammatical rules and back to employing the involved rule in practice is also in play in this extract clip. Again, the movement happens multimodally, but in contrast to the previous extract clip where the two levels invoked verbally were visually linked by the teacher’s gestures on the worksheet, the teacher here marks the movement to the abstract level of grammatical rules and the movement back to the concrete sentence separately. First, when having provided the answer to her own question that the second sentence is a subordinate sentence, the teacher gazes up into the air as she goes on to state that such a sentence can never stand alone. In that way, she visually leaves the concrete level of the sentence. Additionally, her use of ‘never’ and her simultaneous shaking of her head signal that she has moved to the abstract level, recounting a rule without exceptions. Thereby, gaze, speech and head movement become relevant semiotic resources in

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191 In the following collection, I engage more thoroughly with the teacher’s turn-allocations. I do not do so here because my main focus is on the interactional movement between the concrete sentence level and the abstract level of grammatical rules and the ways in which this happens multimodally and sequentially.
how the movement to the relevant general rule is contextually configured. Second, when verbally leaving the abstract level and returning to the concrete sentence, the teacher visually marks this by turning her gaze towards the worksheet and by pointing at it. As such, not only speech, gaze, gesture, but also the worksheet as a material artefact are configured as the semiotic resources which together accomplish the latter move. The extract clip thus shares the movement between the concrete and the abstract levels with the previous extract though the way in which the move is accomplished differs.

The present extract clip also varies sequentially from the one analysed previously in that the interactants here first establish the particular correction to be made (change a full stop into a comma), and then after this turn to the issue of why the last sentence cannot stand alone. Thereby, the movement to the abstract level of grammatical rules takes place after the correct answer has been found as a way of contextualising and substantiating this answer. A movement back to the concrete sentence still takes place, here upon P2’s request in line 124. In the previous extract clip, this happened on the teacher’s own initiative. The cause for this difference might precisely be that the actual correction of the sentence has here already been established when the teacher goes into inquiring for, and eventually accounting for, the reasons behind the correction. Yet, the orientation towards the grammatical rules is apparently still seen as important to the establishment of the correct answer to the sentence. As such, it can be argued that when the movement to the abstract level of general grammatical rules takes place after the correct answer has been found it is still important to the main sequence, but here rather functions as a post hoc validation of the correct answer. For this reason the movement back to the concrete level is not always included, though that is the case in the extract clip considered here.
This sequential organisation is also frequent in group grammar teaching, and in a simplified version it can be depicted as in the following diagram:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule orientation as a post hoc validation 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mutual orientation to problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Correct answer P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Evaluation + asking for explanation T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Clueing T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Dispreferred response P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Preferred response T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Movement to abstract level T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Movement to concrete level T/P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Correct response repeated T</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the following extract clip, I show an example in which the orientation towards grammatical rules is present both before and after the correct answer is found. The teacher is assisting three girls who are working on correcting error sentences which treat various grammatical topics and which the teacher has from an exam sample. The sentence in question reads, ‘They own a big house which door is painted blue’ (see sheet J in the Appendices). I commence in line 28, in which P2 directs their mutual focus towards the sentence below the one they have just worked with.

**Extract 56, clip 3.3**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

P2 redirects their mutual focus by asking ‘What about the one in the one below?’ Hidden in this semantically fairly knotty phrase is a reference back to, or an indirect parallel with P1’s question in line 7, so that implicitly, P2 is here asking the teacher what the error is in the following sentence. In lines 32-38, the teacher goes straight into explaining that the sentence contains a relative clause initiated by a genitive relative pronoun. While she is saying this, the teacher points at ‘which’ in the sentence [still 1]. In line 40, she begins to provide a Danish translation of the sentence, but is interrupted by P2, who states that she did delete the comma (lines 43-46). Implied in this statement is that P2 thinks that the error has to do with the punctuation in the sentence. However, the teacher now informs her that this is not the problem in the sentence (lines 49-51). As she says this, she moves her fingers over the sentence [still 2] and returns to pointing at ‘which’ (lines 52-53) [still 3]. P2 aligns with this notification in line 56, after which the teacher continues where she was interrupted by repeating the sentence in Danish and stressing the genitive relative pronoun (line 59). She then states that ‘hvis’ (‘whose’ in Danish) signifies that

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192 In extract 56, clip 3.6 in this collection, I consider this group grammar teaching episode too, focusing on what happens just prior to the extract clip here.
it is the genitive case and asks for the English version of the genitive form (lines 61-65). Thus, what the teacher has done so far is to inform P2 about the type of the second clause in the sentence and about the case of the introductory relative pronoun. She has located this information in the sentence by translating the sentence into Danish and by simultaneously pointing at ‘which’ in the sentence. In that way the teacher has been able to clue P2 without disclosing the English genitive relative pronoun and thereby directly offering her the correct answer.

After 3.5 seconds, P2 in line 71 ventures an answer (‘who’), but immediately negates her own proposition. Thereby, P2 both shows interactional understanding of the teacher’s turn-allocation to her in order to have her provide the correction and signals that grammatically, her remembrance of relative pronouns is fractional. In line 76, the teacher clues P2 further: by stating ‘yes what are you saying’, the teacher hints that P2 is close (‘who’ constituting the first part of ‘whose’). However, P2 does not appear to get this clueing in that she, in line 81, repeats that it cannot be who. In line 84, the teacher then makes a second attempt at clueing, but again P2 does not get it. She sits with her head leaned against the fingertips on her left hand (lines 88-90) and then suggests ‘that’ (line 93), but at the same time shakes her head slightly (line 94), which I read as an indication that she is in doubt and is merely guessing. The teacher provides a negative evaluation of P2’s suggestion in line 97 and keeps pointing insistently at ‘which’ in the sentence (lines 98-99). In line 102, P2 then verbally reveals that she does not know, and this apparently makes the teacher decide to provide the answer herself in that she, in line 105, informs P2 that the genitive form is called ‘whose’. In line 108, P2 displays recognition, and in line 111 the teacher reads aloud the final part of the sentence, replacing ‘which’ with ‘whose’. Thus, the teacher is here employing the knowledge that it is a relative subordinate clause, which is begun with a genitive relative pronoun in practice, and thereby the movement from concrete sentence to abstract rules back to concrete sentence is also activated in this extract clip.

However, the extract clip does not end with the provision of the correct answer. In lines 114-132, the teacher goes further into the rules for relative pronouns, drawing upon different multimodal resources. She states that P2 might recall that they have talked about how it is who, and who, and then whose. Overlapping with P2 she also adds which and which (lines 140-145). These utterances appear rather perplexing and incoherent on their own, but regarded together with the teacher’s simultaneous, synchronised invisible drawing on the table next to P2’s worksheet, it becomes clear that the teacher is in effect producing the following list (Table 7) in which the relative pronouns ‘who’ and ‘which’ are designated in their different cases.
CHAPTER 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative pronoun: Who</th>
<th>Relative pronoun: Which</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The nominative/subjective case</td>
<td>Who</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The accusative/objective case</td>
<td>Who (whom)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The genitive/possessive case</td>
<td>Whose</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Teacher 2’s invisible drawing of a list of relative pronouns

Because the teacher is only pretending to be drawing on the table, her listing is not made materially visible. It only exists by means of her words and her drawing gestures on the table. Yet, it is these multimodal and carefully coordinated actions that invoke P2’s memory of an earlier point during which it has been represented materially and visibly. This is to be seen in how she, in lines 135-137, and in lines 149-153, states that she has written it (the list) down on the back of a piece of paper and assures the teacher that she therefore has it in writing. This makes the teacher comment that now P2 has to move it (the list) up there (lines 156-162), where ‘there’ refers to P2’s head which the teacher at the same time in a smooth movement touches with a piece of chalk in her hand [still 8].

The multimodality involved in the orientation towards grammatical rules, or in accomplishing the side sequence, is very noticeable in this extract clip. With the teacher’s imaginary drawing on the table as well as with P2’s mentioning of the paper on which she has written down the list, the grammatical rules involved here gain a certain materiality even though they are not directly visible in the extract clip. With this materiality, the rules are at the same time constructed both as practically tangible and as existing externally in and for themselves, outside of the concrete interaction.

As in the previous extract clips, the teacher here includes P2 as a talking participant in finding the correct answer by attempting to have her provide the genitive case of the relative pronoun. Again, it is clear that clueing is a central aspect of having the pupils find the correct answer themselves. With her clueing, the teacher allocates a turn to P2 several times (lines 65, 76, 84), but without success so that eventually she has to provide the answer herself. This renders the sequential structure slightly different in that the more abstract rule orientation in this extract happens both before the actual correction to the sentence has been found (the teacher states that it is a relative clause initiated by a relative pronoun in the genitive case, clueing the pupil, but is interrupted by the pupil) and after (the teacher makes the imaginary list, providing the background for her own answer). It appears that after the teacher has realised that P2 cannot provide the correct answer and that she therefore has to do so herself, she finds it necessary to add further rules; simply providing P2 with the correct answer is not enough. Thus, the movement to abstract level of general, grammatical rules can be glimpsed prior to the

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193 By talking participant I mean a participant who takes talking turns in the interaction and who is not only listening and minimally aligning with the talk of other participants.
establishment of the correct answer here, in an unsuccessful, unfinished side sequence, but eventually takes place as a post hoc validation.

This way of invoking grammatical rules in group grammar teaching can be depicted in the following revised diagram:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule orientation as a post hoc validation 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mutual orientation to problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Clueing T (beginning movement to abstract level)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dispreferred response P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Clueing T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Dispreferred response P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Negative evaluation T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. (Clueing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Correct answer T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Movement to abstract level T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. (Movement to concrete level)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What can be inferred from this is that knowledge of the grammatical rules is apparently seen by the teacher to precede their application in practice. Implied in the teacher's imaginary drawing is not only the conviction that if P2 cannot provide the correct answer it is because she does not know the rules yet, but also that explicitly including these is the way to assist P2 in gaining that knowledge. A deductive and explicit approach to grammar teaching is thus underlined here. The next extract clip points to this as well. Two pupils are trying to work out the article use in an insertion sentence which reads 'I once heard a lecture on … colour yellow in … art' (see sheet H in the Appendices). Teacher 2 has positioned herself in front of the two girls and is listening to their talk.

**Extract 30, clip 3.4**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 19-23, P1 decides to involve the teacher in their work and asks her whether she would not say 'I once heard a lecture on the colour yellow in art.' Having finished her turn, P1 gazes up at T, awaiting her evaluation (line 24). The teacher leans forward, but continues to gaze down at P1’s sheet and does not say anything (lines 25-30). Thereby the teacher does not provide any kind of evaluation, and P1 apparently interprets this as meaning that she was incorrect in that she, in line 33, suggests ‘in the art’ instead. Now, the teacher offers a minimal evaluation which merely consists of two sounds, but which nevertheless unmistakably sounds approving (line 37). It is
impossible to tell which of the two suggestions the teacher is actually evaluating here, but it is clear from the ongoing interaction that whereas it is the first suggestion that is correct, P2 displays that she takes up the second suggestion which the teacher just appeared to approve of, or both. In lines 41-46, she thus asks whether it is not also possible to say ‘in the art’. P1 in line 47 looks up at T to see her answer to P2’s question [still 2], whereas P2 keeps gazing down at her sheet (line 43) [still 1]. In lines 50-52, the teacher now provides a negative evaluation of what she has apparently just evaluated positively. This seemingly makes P1 decide to stick with her initial suggestion in that she, gazing at P2’s sheet (line 53) [still 3], states that she thinks that it is ‘just called’ (line 56). She does not get to state ‘in art’ though, before the teacher does so, nodding slightly (line 61). With her ‘Yes’ in line 64, P1 shows that this is what she would have said too. P2 now aligns as well, repeating ‘in art’ in line 69, and they can thus, at this point, be said to have reached an agreement on the articles to be inserted in the sentence.

However, their interaction does not end here as the teacher goes straight into explaining that ‘art’ is to be understood as a concept, as an abstract (lines 72-79). She thereby invokes the rules concerning the generic use of articles and as such leaves the level of the concrete sentence. This is further marked by how she stands up straight and gazes towards the ceiling as she begins to describe the rules (lines 73-74) [still 4]. In line 83, P2 apparently wants to align with the teacher and display understanding, and in lines 86-87 the teacher evaluates her turn positively. P2 then aligns further in line 90, after which the teacher introduces yet a notion in her description of how ‘art’ is to be understood in this context: as the art form (lines 93-99). The teacher searches a little after the words in this turn and makes use of her hands to convey the meaning. Thus, in lines 94-95, she gestures a circle [still 5], probably intended to signal ‘art as such’, and not any specific kind of art. P2 aligns again, in line 102, and the teacher leaves the group.

Hence, what happens in this extract clip is that the pupils include the teacher in establishing the correct answer, not the other way around. This means that clueing and teacher turn-allocation to pupils are not involved here because the pupils are already talking participants in the interaction. Furthermore, the correct answer to the concrete sentence is fairly quickly arrived at, without any explicit orientation towards grammatical rules. Nevertheless, the teacher still makes the move to the abstract level of grammatical rules. As in extract 80, clip 5.2, she invokes the rules after the correct answer has been established. Again, this happens multimodally by means of body movement (standing up straight), gaze shift (toward the ceiling) and gesture (circle). By invoking the rules at this point, the teacher implicitly signals the dependency of the correct answer on the rules; that the answer is correct because the rules are as they are. Thus, this extract clip further stresses the considerable amount of explicit rule orientation in play in group grammar teaching: even in a situation in which the answer is found without first moving to the level of abstract and general grammatical rules and back again, that move is still deemed necessary to make, as a post hoc validation of the correct answer.
Depicted in a diagram it looks as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule orientation as a post hoc validation 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mutual orientation to problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dispreferred + preferred responses PP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Unclear evaluation + correct answer T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Movement to abstract level T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Movement to concrete level T/P</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

← Post hoc validation

In the first extract clip, Teacher 2 is standing in front of two girls and listening to their talk. The two girls are working on defining main clauses and subordinate clauses, respectively, in some example sentences on a task sheet in order to decide whether commas should be inserted or not. They have been discussing a particular sentence for some time. The sentence in question reads: ‘It is hardly likely that a vicious thug will wait politely while we ring the police’ (see sheet G in the Appendices). As the extract clip begins, P1 decides to include the teacher in their discussion.

**Extract 17, clip 3.5**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 11-14, P1 wants the teacher to confirm that the first part of the sentence is a subordinate clause. In line 17, however the teacher disconfirms this and states that it is a main clause. I regard P1’s reaction in lines 20-25 as a display of a defeatist attitude, and it is displayed using both voice distortion and body movement. In line 20, P1 asks why that is, and then, in line 23, she says that the clause cannot stand alone. This is uttered using a pathetic tone of voice. At the same time she lowers her head markedly as if signalling despair (line 21) [still 1], after which she sits back and moves her head up and down in some quick movements that I read as indicating something like ‘why does this not make any sense?’ (line 24) [still 2]. By saying that the clause cannot stand alone, P1 is invoking the grammatical rule of thumb that main clauses can stand alone, or be uttered in themselves, whereas subordinate clauses cannot. This is a rule of thumb that I have also seen applied in class E, with acceptance of Teacher 3.194 However, in this extract clip, Teacher 2 now goes straight into disqualifying that rule of thumb. As she does so, she stands up straight, thus distancing herself from P1 and the actual task sentence on her sheet (line 25) [still 3].

In lines 28-35, the teacher determines that they have not at any point introduced such a rule. As she does so, she lifts her left arm and points towards the blackboard (lines 29-30) [still 4], thereby possibly hinting that she has not been teaching them that rule of thumb in class grammar teaching. As such, the blackboard is momentarily included as a semiotic resource in the

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194 See e.g. the analysis of extract 108, clip 5.2 in collection 5.
contextual configuration and comes to function as a symbolic representation of the grammar teaching that has previously taken place in the class. In line 40, P1 minimally accepts the teacher’s disqualification, after which the teacher goes on to explain how the relevant grammatical rule really is. First, in lines 43-49, she takes her point of departure in the concrete sentence by stating that the main clause cannot be a member of another clause and by adding that it is not; meaning that the concrete main clause ‘It is hardly like’ is not. Synchronised with these utterances, she performs beat gestures in the air, thereby visually stressing what she is saying (lines 44-45) [still 5]. From here, the teacher begins to describe the grammatical rule in and for itself, thereby moving to the entirely abstract and general level. Thus, in lines 52-59 she says that a main clause is never a member of another clause, whereas a subordinate clause is a member of another clause. When describing the status of the subordinate clause, the teacher forms a circle in the air with both hands, in that way visualising a larger unit of which the subordinate clause is a part (line 57) [still 6].

Hence, on the basis of P1’s invocation of a (wrong) grammatical rule of thumb, the teacher here multimodally moves from the actual task sentence to the (right) grammatical rules. This means that the group grammar teaching which takes place here is very rule-oriented, and furthermore that it is based on a deductive approach in which knowledge of the grammatical rules are seen (by the teacher) as a prerequisite for solving the task. Obviously, this is also related to the pedagogical nature of that task which is exactly aimed at applying rules in practice. Task and teaching approach can thereby be seen to be mutually reinforcing here.

In lines 60-61, the teacher leans towards the table again and gazes at P1’s sheet [still 7]. Having explained the rules, she thus, in an embodied manner, returns to P1 and her problematic invocation of the rule of thumb. In lines 63-88, she states that it is a leftover from primary school and thereby indirectly downgrades it as not being advanced enough for use in the gymnasium. She demonstrates the inadequateness of the rule of thumb by providing an example of a main clause, ‘he said’, which does not make much semantic sense on its own either. P2 apparently follows the teacher in that she gazes at her (from line 66 to line 79) [still 8] and in line 81 laughs at her example, whereas P1 throughout the rest of the extract clip remains bent forward, either rubbing her eyes (line 95), resting her head in her hands (line 109), or hiding her face in her hands (line 131) [still 11].

Interestingly, after having downgraded the rule of thumb invoked by P1, the teacher in lines 89-91 points at P2’s sheet [still 9] and thereby returns to the concrete sentence in question. Instead of asking the pupils to try to determine what is what in the sentence after her explanation of the rules, the teacher now provides the answers herself (lines 93-104). Once she is done, she removes

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195 This goes for the grammar tasks that are generally employed in group grammar teaching by all three teachers: insertion tasks, error correction tasks, sentence translation tasks.
196 A detailed discussion of this analytical point is beyond the scope of the present dissertation, but I still find it important to mention the apparent mutually reinforcing relation between grammar task and teaching approach. An interesting line of inquiry to pursue at a later point would be to investigate the availability of teaching material and teachers’ level of reflection in applying that material, taking the point of departure in the notion of a mutually reinforcing relation.
her hand from P2’s sheet (line 105) [still 10]. In lines 108-199, P2 and the teacher settle on this, after which P1 in lines 122-124 eventually asks whether they should insert a comma then. Without going further into it or trying to have the pupils figure it out themselves, the teacher answers this question in lines 127-133 and then leaves the group.

Thus, what happens in this extract clip is that the teacher provides both the grammatical explanation and the actual answer. In contrast to the extract clips considered above, the teacher here leaves no space for the pupils to answer themselves; i.e. she does not allocate turns to them or clue them towards finding the correct answer. Yet, similarly to extract 19, clip 3.1 she invokes the relevant grammatical rules in a side sequence after which she returns to the main sequence to apply the rules on the concrete sentence. Thus, as it has been the case in extracts 80, 56 and 30 above, after a pupil’s dispreferred response the teacher often provides the correct answer herself and after that invokes the relevant grammatical rules as a post hoc validation of the correct answer. However, the present extract clip shows that a pupil’s dispreferred responses can also be followed by first rule invocation, taking place in a side sequence, and then a provision of the correct answer by the teacher. Depicted in a diagram it looks at follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule orientation in side sequence 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mutual orientation to problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dispreferred response P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Negative evaluation T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Movement to abstract level T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Movement to concrete level T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Correct answer P/T</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It might be P1’s defeatist attitude which triggers the immediately rule-oriented assistance provided by the teacher and makes her refrain from asking clueing questions to the pupils, yet the following extract clip shows that also in situations in which there is no pupil display of a defeatist attitude, the teacher still on rare occasions provides the answer without first trying to have the pupils arrive at it themselves. Again, the rule orientation takes place in a side sequence, but this time on a different basis. The extract clip is very short and will not be analysed in the same detail as the extract clip above. Throughout the extract clip (apart from at the very beginning) the camera is zoomed in on P1’s task sheet. Thereby it is only P1’s pointing at the sheet which is visible, and not gazes, head movements etc. on behalf of both teacher and P1. Yet, I find that the extract still serves to emphasise the argument on rule orientation being developed in this collection. Teacher 2 is assisting three girls. The task consists of correcting error sentences which the teacher has taken from an exam sample and which treat various grammatical topics. The sentence in question reads: ‘He is going to school every day’ (see sheet J in the Appendices). As the extract clip begins, P1 moves on from the previous sentence to this sentence.
Extract 56, clip 3.6
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

P1’s move to the next sentence happens multimodally in terms of a deictic reference to the sentence (‘down here’ in line 7) combined with gaze at the sentence and not least a pointing gesture at it with her left thumb (lines 8-10) [still 1]. Responding to P1’s question, the teacher in lines 13-19 immediately goes into explaining the grammatical rule which makes the sentence erroneous. Thus, she states that when something is a routine or happens daily or repeatedly, simple tense has to be used and not the present continuous tense. In her outline, the teacher stresses ‘routine’ and ‘simple’ and in that way forges a connection between the two. As such, the teacher by means of stress underlines the rule status of what she is saying. Straight after having presented the rule, the teacher provides the concrete correction to be performed in the sentence on the basis of the rule: in lines 19-21, she says that ‘is going to’ has to be changed into ‘goes to’. Thereby, it is effectively the teacher, and not P1, who gets to apply the rule in practice. P1 merely aligns with the teacher in line 24 and prepares to insert the correction which she has been offered.

Hence, the movement between the abstract level of general rules and the concrete level of the sentence in question is in play in this extract clip as well; this time in a concentrated form in that the teacher, without any prior provision of a pupil dispreferred pupil response as it took place in the previous extract clip, moves directly to the level of the general grammatical rule, after which she immediately states the concrete correction. Time is thus not spent on trying to include the pupils in providing the correct answer, neither before nor after the rule has been presented. In a diagram, the sequence therefore looks as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule orientation in side sequence 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mutual orientation to problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Movement to abstract level T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Movement to concrete level T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Correct answer T</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The teacher can obviously have many reasons for immediately providing the correct answer herself, which an interactional analysis can only speculate about. However, looked upon interactionally, the fact that they have just moved on from a prior sentence problem might also play a role. P1’s pursuit of an answer in line 7 is built as another one in a sequence and more directly than the initial enquiries asks for the teacher’s provision of an answer, and this might be consequential to how the teacher constructs her following turn.

The analyses in this section have so far shown that it is possible to designate an interactional practice in group grammar teaching in which the teacher moves the participants’ orientation from the concrete sentence to the level of more abstract, general rules, and (often) back to the concrete sentence. This movement takes place multimodally, in that the teacher realises it not only via
speech but also by means of body movement, gaze, gestures and material artefacts. On one occasion (extract 19, clip 3.1), the teacher performed the move to abstraction by pointing in the concrete sentence while verbally accounting for the rules. Most often, however, the teacher's move is marked by a visible orientation away from the concrete sentence, either by drawing a list on the table next to the pupil's worksheet (extract 56, clip 3.3), thereby subtly introducing the rules as another material artefact to be oriented towards; or by standing up straight and gazing towards the ceiling (extract 80, clip 3.2 and extract 30, clip 3.4), thereby embodying the movement away from the concrete sentence on the worksheet. Likewise, when the interaction includes a movement back to the concrete sentence in question, this also happens multimodally by including gaze and pointing at the worksheet besides speech. Importantly, though the movement to the abstract level of grammatical rules happens on the teacher's initiative, she is not alone in this realisation; it is a co-constructed endeavour. I mean this in the sense that the pupils do not object to the teacher's way of orienting towards and including grammatical rules. Thereby this way of doing grammar in group grammar teaching is sustained.

It is thus apparent that not giving a rule-oriented account, even after a correct answer has been found, would be noticeably absent in group grammar teaching. In other words, from the way the participants demonstrably orient to it, the move to abstraction (accounting for the concrete answer in terms of a rule) to be regarded as central to the pedagogical activity at hand. The movement sometimes occurs before the correct answer has been established, sometimes after. Likewise, it is often followed by a return to the concrete sentence (and giving an answer), but sometimes it is not. In the latter case the movement may be said to have collapsed, but it is never omitted. This suggests that to the teacher, the explicit rule orientation has a pedagogical potential which cannot be disregarded. Stating the relevant grammatical rules thus appears to be understood by the teacher as a fundamental part of what providing assistance in group grammar teaching is about.

Yet, in the following extract clip, I consider a strikingly contrasting episode in which the teacher at no point performs a movement to abstract level of general grammatical rules. To that extent, I characterise the following extract clip as a deviant case. As the analysis shows, there are both interactional and grammatical reasons for this deviance. In the extract clip, four pupils are trying to arrive at the correct form of the past participle of the irregular verb 'grow' (to create the perfect tense together with the auxiliary verb 'have'). This happens as part of a task consisting in spotting and correcting errors in sentences which the teacher has taken from the pupils' previous assignments. The sentence in question reads: ‘They used to have a strong friendship, but now they have grewed apart’ (see sheet H in the Appendices). As Teacher 2 hears the pupils’ guessing, she approaches them and is soon involved by the pupils.

Extract 29, clip 3.7
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
In lines 8-10, P1 wants the teacher to evaluate her suggestion. P1 does not appear to be particularly clear about her suggestion. This is to be seen from how she formulates her utterance
as a question, from her brief pause before the main verb (the one which they have identified as the element to be corrected in the sentence), and also from her attempts of self-repairing this trouble source, marked by her cut-off of ‘grow’ in line 10 and the immediately following ‘growing’. P1 gazes up at the teacher after her turn, expecting her evaluation, and they make eye contact (line 11) [still 1]. However, the teacher does not provide any form of evaluation, neither verbally nor visually. The other pupils continue to guess (line 13), and in line 17, P1 appears to interpret the teacher’s non-evaluation as meaning that her suggestion was incorrect in that she now performs another self-repair; this time suggesting ‘grown’. Again, mutual eye gaze between P1 and the teacher is established (lines 18-19), and this time the teacher provides a minimal evaluation by shaking her head slightly (line 20). P1 now wants to know whether they are at least focusing on the error in the sentence (line 23), and in line 25 the teacher confirms this, again in an inaudible manner, by nodding markedly. In line 31, P2 suggests ‘grown’, stressing the ‘en’ at the end. P2 and the teacher establish eye contact in lines 32-33, and the teacher now breaks her silence by asking P2 to spell it (line 36) (which the teacher probably does because she cannot tell from P2’s mere pronunciation of it whether she intends it to be spelled with ‘en’ or just ‘n’ at the end). In line 39, P2 provides this spelling and in lines 40-41 again gazes up at the teacher for confirmation. So does P1 [still 2]. The teacher returns to the inaudible way of responding by shaking her head in line 44. Both P3 and P4 now offer suggestions (line 47 and 51), but instead of directly evaluating these, the teacher gazes back at P2 (line 54) [still 3] and states that she was close (line 57). In that way, she indirectly directs the interactive focus back on P2 and her suggestion.

P2 appears to understand this as a turn-allocation to her and in line 59 inflects ‘to grow’. Again, ‘grown’ appears as the past participle; again the teacher provides no kind of audible or visible evaluation, and again P1 interprets this as a negative evaluation (line 64). Four seconds of silence follows (line 68), after which P3, gazing down at her sheet [still 4], makes an exclamation which – though it is rendered in a quiet voice – is a forceful protest. P3 states ‘This is unbelievable’ (line 72), and I argue that she here uses stress (‘unbelievable’) as well as discourse deixis (‘this’) to describe the situation, and particularly the teacher’s withholding of the answer as the reason for the continuation of it. As such, P3’s exclamation is a clear signal of impatience, and not for instance an indication that she finds the example in itself inconceivable. Another four seconds of silence follows in which the teacher minimally displays that she has heard P3’s protest (lines 75-77). Furthermore, the teacher’s turn in lines 82-87 shows this in that it includes a ‘but’, which semantically links it with the implied critique in P3’s turn that the teacher does not provide them with the answer. With the ‘but’, then, the teacher constructs her turn as making an admission, i.e. as providing assistance after all. What she says is that P2 was close, and P4 picks up on this, in line 92, by addressing the spelling of the word. This makes the teacher clue the pupils further in that she, in lines 97-110, spells ‘grow’ to them and asks what then comes next. In line 113, P4 suggests ‘n’. In line 116, the teacher confirms by repeating ‘n’ and stating ‘yes’ after which she begins to leave.

From this description it is clear that this extract clip strongly contrasts the ones previously analysed in this collection. Not only does the teacher not provide the answer to the pupils'
problem; the extract clip does not involve any resort to the level of abstract grammatical rules either. However, the reason for this is not only to be found in the interaction itself and in the teacher’s apparently firm decision to have the pupils find the answer themselves. It also lies in the nature of the grammatical error that the pupils are supposed to correct. I want to suggest that the deviance is caused by the topic of the problem sentence. There are no rules for how to spell and inflect irregular verbs, or rather, if the teacher should have provided the pupils with the rule (what ‘grow’ is called in the past participle) she would effectively have given them the answer in the same instance (that it is spelled ‘grown’). Irregular verbs have to be learned by heart, and in the extract clip both the teacher and the pupils can ascertain that the pupils have not yet done so when it comes to the past participle of ‘to grow’. This might in fact be the reason why the teacher is so reticent here. The extract clip is thus deviant because it concerns exactly this grammatical topic. Furthermore, this topic is rarely touched upon in my data corpus, and only this one time during group grammar teaching. In that sense, the episode does not eventually confirm the practice of a movement to the abstract level of general grammatical rules, but it does not contradict it either. As such, it can be discussed whether the episode is a deviant case or whether it is perhaps better described as an alternative trajectory of group grammar teaching. Deviant cases traditionally follow the pattern partially, but then diverge. This divergence is then typically explained by revising the sequential understanding so that in the last resort deviant cases come to underscore that which they deviate from. That is not the case here where the teacher plays a less active role than in other extract clips, and where her eventual clueing of the pupils happens without her orienting towards grammatical rules. Whether deviant or directly alternative, I have found it important to show that though it is an alternative which only occurs this one time in my data corpus, it does exactly occur and thereby also represents a way in which grammar is being taught in the observed class. In the following section turn to I analyse four extract clips which all have the use of adjectives vs. adverbs as their grammatical focus.

This section has provided a range of examples of how grammatical rules are explicitly invoked in group grammar teaching. I have shown that this takes place either in side sequences prior to the establishment of the correct answer, or as post hoc validations after the correct answer has been provided. As illustrated by the various simplified diagrams of the sequential organisation, both side sequences and post hoc validations can occur on the basis of varying preceding turns. Thus, with regard to side sequences, they can take place straight after the mutual orientation towards the problem sentence has been established (as in extract 19, clip 3.1 and in extract 56, clip 3.6), or after a pupil has provided a dispreferred response (as in extract 17, clip 3.5). Post hoc validations appear to take place mostly after a dispreferred pupil response followed by teacher provision of the correct answer (extract 80, clip 3.2; extract 56, clip 3.3 and extract 30, clip 3.4), but as seen in extract 17, clip 3.5 a side sequence can also precede the teacher’s provision of the correct answer in situations in which a pupil provides a dispreferred response. Furthermore, the analysis has shown that in some instances clueing plays a crucial role in the interactional development, whereas at other (more rare) times the teacher does not involve the pupils, but provides both

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197 Please see Appendix 8 for a table showing the grammatical topics considered within each mode of grammar teaching and the frequency with which this happens in my data corpus.
correct answers and rules herself. Finally, the collection has shown that in a single instance, no rule orientation took place, as well as it has discussed how this might be interpreted in relation to the argument being developed in this section that there is a prevalent orientation towards and invocation of grammatical rules in group grammar teaching.

7.4.2 Orientation to grammatical rules in question-answer sequences when the grammatical task concerns adjectives vs. adverbs
In the first extract clip in this section, Teacher 2 is assisting a group of three girls who are working with a task consisting of correcting error sentences on the topic of adjectives vs. adverbs. The sentences are taken from an exam sample and the pupils are expected to provide a grammatical explanation along with their correction. The actual, erroneous sentence in question reads ‘What happened was strictly a privately matter’ (see sheet D in the Appendices). P1 and the teacher are initially briefly discussing the placement of the article ‘as’, at P1’s request, when P2 actively joins the interaction and changes its focus to concern ‘private/privately’.

Extract 52, clip 3.8
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
In line 36, P2 introduces this topic by stating loudly (indirectly asking) that it is without ‘–ly’. This causes the teacher to turn her head and gaze towards her (line 38), ask her why that is (line 41), and walk towards her, anticipating P2’s answer to her question (lines 42-44) [still 1]. P2’s utterance here as well as the teacher’s repositioning in response to that utterance consequently mean that P2 now becomes the interaction partner who the teacher focuses her attention on, whereas P1 is left as a partial member of the participation framework who is not allowed to decide the topic of the interaction. This is to be seen in how the teacher ignores P1’s utterance in line 52. This utterance is an attempt by P1 to regain the floor and to follow up on her earlier question in lines 19-24. P1 expresses her line simultaneously with P2’s utterance in line 47, and from the teacher’s turn in line 55, it is obvious that the teacher follows up on P2’s utterance without paying attention to P1’s. This is also visible from her gaze and body position which both remain turned towards P2 and her worksheet (lines 48-49). Hence, the teacher both verbally and visually insists on maintaining their mutual focus on that which the task is really supposed to rehearse.

The teacher’s turns in both line 41 and 55 are formed as short questions that follow up on P2’s utterances in the prior line. The teacher employs such short follow-up questions throughout the extract (lines 41, 55, 72, 85, 95-100). Importantly, she can do so only because P2 accepts to engage in such a question-answer structure by engaging in the questions (lines 47, 66), even in situations where she does not know the answer (lines 47, 73-74, 92, 103). Thus, the teacher’s way of including the pupils in finding the correct answer via turn-allocations and clueing, which I defined above as a sequential trait of the preferred sequence in group grammar teaching, is also to be seen when the grammatical topic is adjectives vs. adverbs, and to an even greater extent than in cases where other grammatical topics are on the agenda.
In line 47, P2 answers the teacher’s question in line 41 with a particular diction. She expresses the first four words more clearly and more slowly than in other of her utterances, which may be taken to indicate that this is an inculcated way of answering that she is familiar with. This despite the fact that the content of her answer may appear if not wrong then incomplete in that she states that ‘private’ should be spelled without ‘–ly’ in the end because it does not qualify an adjective.  

It is thus possible to distinguish between the form of answering here and the actual content of the answer; the first may be accepted by the teacher – to be seen in how she bases her next turn on it – though the latter is incomplete. The same thing occurs in lines 103-105 which I comment on below.

In line 55, the teacher follows up on P2’s answer by applying an agreement token followed by the question of what it qualifies then. In line 66, P2 answers this minimally, but correctly (‘Matter’), after a two seconds pause. The teacher’s turn, in lines 69-72, has the same structure as the one in line 41. First an agreement token, this time however with a rising intonation, indicating either surprise (that the pupil is actually able to see what it qualifies) or enthusiastic support, or both. Then follows her question which is also minimally constructed in that it consists of a relative clause, starting with the relative pronoun ‘which’ (Danish ‘som’) that relates back to P2’s ‘matter’ in line 66. In general, relative sentences are rarely used on their own, and this serves as an indication that for the teacher, her turn in lines 69-72 is part of a larger string of turns – or, in other words, that the teacher too is going through a question-answer sequence that she is familiar with. Apparently, this sequence consists of posing question by question in a way that makes the pupil relate to the grammatical rules involved and from these deduce the actual answer on the worksheet.

However, after a 0.5 second pause the teacher provides the answer herself (line 76). During this pause, the teacher shifts her gaze from the pupils’ worksheet to the pupil and back again (lines 70, 73 [still 2], 77). It might be the teacher’s observation of P2’s facial expression, or simply of the fact that P2 does not look up to meet her gaze which convinces the teacher that she has to provide the answer herself. In line 80, P2 agrees with that answer, thus also signalling that she is still following the teacher, despite the teacher having answered the question herself. In line 85, then, the teacher produces a new question based on the answer to the previous one. She asks for the word class of a word which qualifies a noun. Thereby she leaves the concrete sentence and addresses the more abstract grammatical rules of what adjectives and adverbs, respectively, qualify. Importantly, beginning her question with ‘And’ again ties this turn into the larger sequence. As such it appears that this is where the teacher has been going all along; i.e. that the question-answer sequence is exactly a means to relate the concrete sentence to the abstract level of general grammatical rules.

198 Spelling ‘private’ without ‘–ly’ makes it an adjective itself and these qualify nouns and pronouns. Adverbs, on the other hand, qualify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs and entire sentences. For her answer to be complete, P2 should thus either have said that it should be spelled without ‘–ly’ because ‘private’ qualifies a noun in the sentence, or because it does not qualify a verb, an adjective, another adverb or an entire sentence.
However, in line 92, P2 breaks the question-answer structure by posing a question to the teacher instead of answering hers. P2’s question, though, is not of the same kind, but asks for the teacher to repeat her line. It might be that she no longer follows the teacher’s string of questions, or that she has not heard her question. However, it might also be that she is confused about the rules regarding what adjectives and adverbs, respectively, qualify and needs time to think. The one second pause before P2’s ‘what?’ as well as the fact that she cannot answer the question a few turns later supports such a reading. As she states her request, P2 raises her head and looks directly at the teacher (lines 88-89) [still 3].

In response the teacher too raises her head further up and gazes directly at P2, smiles a little (line 96) and repeats her utterance in line 95, followed by an addition in line 100 (‘that’s as we know’). This addition refers directly to the existence of a grammatical rule and constructs it both as being general and as being a rule they (P2) ought to know.

In line 103, which partly overlaps with line 100, P2 provides an utterance which in terms of meaning is almost identical with the teacher’s addition in line 100. P2 thereby again demonstrates that when it comes to the form of answering, she knows the drill, so to speak. Yet, P2 does not provide the final element (‘adjective’) which is where the grammatical rule is effectively to be found. Her turn in line 103 ends with a 3.5 seconds pause, signalling that she does not know the grammatical content of the answer. Importantly, during the 3.5 seconds, P2 turns her head to the right, thereby ending the eye contact with the teacher (lines 104-105). This repositioning may be read as an indication that she does not know the answer and would like to escape from the situation, or that she is searching for the answer [still 4].

The teacher, demonstrating reflexive awareness, smiles at this manoeuvre [still 4 again] and appears to understand it in both ways as she, in lines 109-114, first appeals to the pupil to come up with the answer (i.e. the rule), and then after only a 0.5 second break begins to provide the answer herself. During this short break, the pupil turns her head and her gaze back at her worksheet, thus avoiding further eye contact with the teacher (lines 110-111). Meanwhile she laughs quietly (line 117). The teacher appears to understand this as a final indication that she will have to provide the answer herself which she then concludes in line 120. Straight after this, the teacher relates the rule back to the sentence in question by stating that that is the case there as well. Apparently, the teacher now views the question-answer procedure as having come to an end: the grammar rule has been deduced, it has been related to the actual sentence, and she can leave the group (lines 123-124) [still 5].

What the analysis shows is, first, that the movement from concrete sentence to abstract rule and back again is also in play in this extract clip. Furthermore, the analysis demonstrates that teacher and P2 engage in a question-answer sequence, and that this procedure is well-known to both of them. The questions posed (and to some extent also answered) by the teacher are display questions and not open, referential ones (Jefferson 1987). This means that the teacher already knows the answers to her questions. To some extent, what the teacher is doing is to clue P2 or drill her in the grammatical topic, and from the way P2 responds to that drilling, it is clear that
she has done it before and that this is a well-known form for her. P2 is, in other words, generally able to fill out the interactional form without knowing for sure the grammatical rule being referred to.

It thus seems that the interactional development and the sequential structure which constructs that development is understood and prioritised as the way to arrive at the rule, and, from that, the correct answer. The pupil does not say ‘I don’t know’ when in fact she does not know, but instead provides a kind of answer which satisfies the form of the sequence itself, but is void of grammatical content. Likewise, the teacher does not stop the sequence in order to offer further explanation to the pupil in situations where she senses that P2 cannot answer, but instead provides the answer herself. An answer which, in turn, allows her to continue the sequence as it is demonstrated in the analysis above. Hence, when it comes to the grammatical topic of adjectives vs. adverbs, the rule orientation appears to have a highly structuring function in the interaction in that particular types of interactional actions are performed to accomplish the move to the abstract level of grammatical rules.

Compared with rule orientation occurring in side sequences or in post hoc validation, as these were treated in the previous section, it can be observed in this extract clip that the question-answer sequence is initiated by the teacher after the pupil has provided the correct answer to the sentence (she formulates it as an indirect question in line 36). In that sense, the question-answer sequence here appears as a specific kind of post hoc validations in that it also serves to provide a reason for why the correct answer is in fact correct, and that reason is grounded in the related grammatical rules. Here, these are simply invoked in a more dialogic manner.

In terms of the multimodality involved in the question-answer sequence, gaze as well as the pupils’ worksheets function as locally relevant semiotic means in the interaction. Yet, I argue that the question-answer sequence and the way that both the teacher and P2 orient towards it make it the main semiotic means and structuring device in the interaction. As the following two extract clips also show, the question-answer structure constructed here is a frequently appearing phenomenon in group grammar teaching which concerns adjectives vs. adverbs. To that extent it may make sense to talk about the question-answer sequence as having gained a routinised and institutionalised status – not least in the case of Teacher 2’s classes in which this topic has been treated before. Thus, the question-answer sequence and the way that both parties follow it, I argue, is a specific way of interactionally orienting towards and including grammatical rules in group grammar teaching.

The following extract clip shows a similar interactional practice in class E’s group grammar teaching on this topic. Teacher 3 is engaged in assisting three girls who are working on an insertion task in which they are to decide whether the word to be inserted should be an adjective or an adverb. The teacher has assisted them with one sentence, and P1 now moves on to the following sentence which reads: ‘This question needs … consideration (careful/carefully being the word to be inserted) (see sheet A in the Appendices). Importantly, the teacher has gone through the rules for what adjectives and adverbs qualify in plenum just prior to the group
grammar teaching. In doing so, she wrote the rules on the blackboard, and they are still visible at this point.

*Extract 101, clip 3.9*

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 16-21, P1 first overlaps the teacher’s final comment on the previous sentence (line 9). This makes the teacher turn her head to gaze at P1’s sheet (line 17). P1 goes on to say that she supposes that ‘careful’ suggests something about the degree. In lines 22-23, P1 gazes up at the teacher, seeking her confirmation, but the teacher continues to gaze at P1’s sheet. P2 in line 26 says ‘carefully’ and P1 repeats that in line 29. This may be seen as a signal that they are not sure whether they have to insert the adjective or the adverb. In lines 33-35, the teacher asks them to look at what word is being qualified by the insertion. This is equivalent to Teacher 2’s question in line 55 in the previous extract clip and can be seen as the first step in the question-answer sequence. Whereas P1 gazes down at her sheet again, P3 now gazes up at the teacher and states that she has written ‘careful’ (lines 39-40) [still 1]. In lines 43-45, the teacher, orienting towards P3 [still 2], maintains that she first wants to know what it qualifies. In line 51, P3 replies ‘consideration’ which the teacher evaluates positively in line 54. Then, straight after this, she asks which word class ‘consideration’ is. This is equivalent to Teacher 2’s question in line 72 in the previous extract clip and thus constitutes the second step in the sequence.

However, in the present extract clip, the pupils’ insight into the rules and how they work appear to be less fragmented than it was the case in the previous extract clip.\(^{199}\) This is to be seen in that whereas Teacher 2 generally had to provide the answers to her questions herself, P2 here states that ‘consideration’ is a noun, after which she deduces that the inserted word has to be ‘careful’ (lines 60-66). Just before P2 arrives at ‘careful’, she moves her head to the side in a quick movement which I read as signalling recognition (lines 63-64) [still 3 and still 4]. Implied in P2’s recognition are the final steps that nouns are qualified by adjectives and that it therefore has to be ‘careful’ and not ‘carefully’. P2 thus employs the grammatical rule without verbalising it here, and in line 69, the teacher evaluates her reply positively, stressing ‘yes’ though speaking in a low voice. Remarkably, the teacher now performs the same quick movement with her head that P2 has just done (lines 70-71) [still 5 and still 6], after which she states that it has to be an adjective because it qualifies a noun (lines 73-82). In that way, the teacher makes explicit the rule that P2 has just employed implicitly. It thereby appears that the teacher finds it important to take the question-answer sequence to the end in order to show the logic in it. It may also be regarded as a way of showing consideration for the two other members of the group. At any rate, the point that – with the question-answer sequence – the rule orientation gains a sequentially very structuring function is further underlined here: the teacher’s questions and the order of these are all built up towards having the grammatical rule explicaded and thereby enabling deduction of the correct answer. Here, however, the rule is not explicaded before P2 is able to implicitly deduce the correct answer. As such, the interaction could have ended after this, but the teacher carries on until the

\(^{199}\) This might be because they have just gone through the rules on the blackboard.
procedure has been properly terminated. Again, then, the explicit rule orientation and the
deductive working method is underlined here.

In contrast to the previous extract clip, the question-answer sequence is initiated prior to the
establishment of the correct answer here, as a means to arrive at that answer. This question-
answer sequence thereby appears to be applied with the same pedagogical intent as the side
sequences considered in the previous section. Yet, as stated, P2 manages to deduce the correct
answer before the question-answer sequence has completed, but this does not prevent the
teacher from recapitulating it after her positive evaluation of P2’s correct answer. She thereby
also employs it to validate P2’s answer. Hence, the question-answer sequence can occur both
before and after the correct answer has been found, even within the same group grammar
teaching episode.

P1 and P2 are already busy inserting the correct word on their sheets (lines 74-75), whereas P3 in
lines 85-96 informs the teacher that she has inserted the words on the basis of what sounds right
to her. In lines 99-124, the teacher replies (briefly overlapped by P3’s alignment in line 118) that
P3’s method is fine as a starting point, but that she has to know it (i.e. the rules) as well because
she might be in doubt sometimes, and in that situation it is good to be able to say why it should
be an adjective or an adverb. Hence, the rule orientation is obvious here as well. The grammatical
rules are apparently regarded by the teacher as resources to assist the pupils in using the language
correctly; knowing the rules remedies concrete, linguistic problems. It is on that basis that her
grammar teaching is characterised by an isolated, explicit and deductive approach to grammar.

The following extract clip demonstrates another example of the question-answer sequence at
work. The initiation of this extract clip was analysed as a deviant case in collection 1 (extract 40,
clip 1.6), but the actual interaction around the grammatical problem discovered by Teacher 2 is
not deviant from the question-answer sequence identified in the extract clips above. P1 is
working on inserting either adverbs or adjectives into the sentences on her sheet, and the teacher
has asked her to take a look at a sentence which reads: ‘And unfortunate/unfortunately,
poor/poorly schools cannot afford to send teachers to special/specially workshops
no matter
how interested/interestedly such teachers are to improve their own and their pupils’ standard’
(see sheet E in the Appendices), into which P1 has inserted ‘interestedly’.

Extract 40, clip 3.10
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
In line 24, the teacher asks P1 what word is being qualified in that sentence. She thereby initiates
the question-answer sequence in the same way that it was done in the two previous extract clips.
In lines 29-35, P1 first reads the sentence to herself, letting her hand with her pen in it follow her
reading. She then answers that the word being qualified is ‘teachers’ at the same time as she
points at that word with her pen [still 1]. In lines 38-41, the teacher confirms P1’s answer and
then goes straight to the next step in the sequence: asking what word can qualify a noun.
Interestingly, P1 now picks up her rubber and begins to rub out her previous answer before she
then answers that that is an adjective (lines 42-47) [still 2]. P1’s picking up of the rubber and beginning to erase her previous answer signals that P1 has realised that she has made a mistake,\(^{200}\) even before she provides her verbal answer and has it evaluated by the teacher. P1 thereby also signals that she is familiar with the rules as well as with the logic in the sequence of employing the rules to deduce the correct answer in practice. The teacher’s evaluation is offered in line 50 in which the teacher repeats P1’s response and, as in extract 101, clip 3.9, adds ‘as we know’, in that way alluding to the general status of the rule. The teacher then leaves (line 51), without first returning to the concrete example. The reason for this might be that P1 has exactly already shown visually that she has realised her mistake at the same time as she has demonstrated knowledge of the relevant grammatical rule: it is implied in her erasing and in her knowledge of the rule that she knows that she has to insert an adjective instead.

Thus, this extract clip shows the question-answer sequence taken explicitly to the level of the grammatical rule and implicitly back to the sentence in question. The grammatical rules are here invoked as a means to have a pupil realise an incorrect answer, meaning that again, it takes lace prior to the establishment of the correct answer, as a means to arrive at it. The structuring influence of the rule-orientation on the interaction is thus also visible here. Hence, on the basis of the three extract clips analysed so far in this section, I find it reasonable to suggest that with the question-answer sequence, the teachers here essentially use what they teach to do the work of teaching. By this I mean that what the teachers teach, i.e. the grammatical rules of what adjectives and adverbs, respectively, qualify, is included in the interactional construction of the teaching situation in such a way that it is the rules which come to move the teaching situation forward towards reaching the correct answer. For instance, when the teacher states ‘and a word which qualifies a noun?’. Here, the teacher frames part of the rule as a question (without adding other instructive comments), in that way framing the rest of the rule as the preferred answer to her question and thereby moving the interaction forward by means of the rule itself. Very subtle interactional actions thus appear to be performed in group grammar teaching when the grammatical topic is adjectives vs. adverbs.

The final extract clip to be considered in this section does not entirely repeat the question-answer sequence seen in the three extract clips analysed so far. Teacher 1 is assisting P1 with the first sentence on a task sheet containing error sentences and concerning the topic of adjectives vs. adverbs. The sentences are taken from an exam sample and are the same as the ones employed by Teacher 2 in extract 52, clip 3.8 in this collection. The erroneous sentence in question reads: ‘What happened was strictly a privately matter’ (see sheet D in the Appendices). Teacher 1 is positioned in front of P1’s table, and P1 is engaged in erasing something from her sheet with her rubber.

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\(^{200}\) Actually, P1 picked up the rubber already in line 21 as an anticipatory action, foreseeing that the teacher’s intention with addressing her was to point to a mistake in her answers. However, P1 put down the rubber in line 25, seeing that the teacher did not go directly into stating the mistake (see the analysis of extract 40, clip 1.6 in collection 1).
**Extract 5, clip 3.11**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In the first lines of the extract, the teacher directs P1’s attention towards the first sentence. In line 18, he then asks her what the error is in that sentence. Still using her rubber, P1 in line 23 answers the teacher’s question, but she herself poses her answer as a question, which the teacher then confirms in line 27. Actually, the adjective ‘private’ does not figure in the insertion sentence, but emerges as a result of changing the adverb ‘privately’ into an adjective. To that extent, it can be argued that P1 is not just stating what the error is; she is also providing a correction of that error. In line 36, the teacher again asks what the error is, but then apparently recognises that P1 has answered that indirectly in that he, in lines 39-41, agrees with her that it has to be ‘private’ instead of ‘privately’.

After having settled on that (lines 46-56), the teacher in line 59 asks for an explanation. His gaze is on P1’s sheet and he moves his left hand forward to point at it (lines 60-62) [still 1]. He thereby both verbally and visually insists that an explanation is needed and that simply stating the correction is not enough. In other words, he indirectly asks P1 to describe the grammatical rule that lies behind her correction. Apparently, P1 experiences problems with this part of the grammatical task. Verbally, her turn in line 65, in which she states that this part is what she finds ‘so difficult’, is uttered almost as a cry out. Visually, she returns to erasing on her paper (line 66) [still 2], in that way distancing herself from the job. Had she felt better about it, she would probably have turned towards an engaged looking at the paper or the like instead. Finally, she moves her hand to her cheek, resting her head in it (line 67), and though she looks up briefly, she does not meet the teacher’s gaze before she gazes down again (lines 68-69) [still 3]. All in all, then, P1 must be said to display a rather defeatist attitude here, at least it seems that the teacher interprets it as such. This is to be seen in how he himself in the following sets out to provide her with the explanation. 201 As such P1’s reaction might be seen as a dispreferred response which has consequences for how the sequence further develops.

In line 74, the teacher acknowledges P1’s statement, after which he kneels down in front of her table so that he comes closer to the sheet, and he and P1 end at the same eye level (lines 75-76) [still 4]. P1 looks at the teacher, but he is focused on her sheet, so she turns her gaze in that direction too (lines 76-78). In that way, a mutual focus on the concrete sentence is established. The teacher now explains that words ending with ‘–ly’ are always adverbs (self-repairing his ‘adjectiv-’ in line 82), which qualify verbs and adjectives (lines 80-91). 202 As such, while visually focusing on the sentence on the task sheet, he begins to describe the grammatical rules to be invoked in order to solve the task. P1 apparently wants to align with the teacher in lines 94-96, in which she both verbally and with the pen in her hand points towards another word (in another sentence) on the worksheet ending in ‘–ly’ [still 5]. In line 99, the teacher briefly acknowledges P1’s attempt of alignment. However, he does not seem to consider his explanation as finished in

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201 In this way this extract clip resembles extract 17, clip 3.5 in which P1 also displayed a defeatist attitude and the teacher provided both the correct answer and the explanation herself.

202 The teacher’s rule description is not exhaustive here in that adverbs can also qualify other adverbs and entire sentences which he does not say.
that, in lines 100-102, he places his hand on P1’s sheet with a finger pointing to the first sentence [still 6]. In that way, he directs P1 back to that sentence and thereby paves the way for his questions in lines 108 and 110, where he asks what ‘private’ qualifies or says something about. With these questions as well as his visible pointing at the sentence, the teacher moves from the more abstract (partial) rules that adverbs qualify verbs and adjectives to the concrete example. By asking what ‘private’ qualifies, the teacher includes the pupil actively in his explanation, but not in the rule-oriented question-answer procedure that was shown to be in play in the three previous extract clips above.

In lines 113-119, P1 somewhat insecurely proposes ‘matter’ as that which is being qualified by ‘private’. In lines 122-126, the teacher positively confirms her suggestion and provides a Danish translation of the two words together. Instead of continuing to pose questions to P1 that would serve to further affirm the rules and their applicability in practice, he now himself goes into arguing that ‘matter’ is a noun, that adjectives qualify nouns, and that in the construction ‘a – word – noun’, the word in-between is always an adjective (lines 128-147). While talking, the teacher stays focused on P1’s sheet and keeps pointing at the sentence. When trying to explain the construction ‘a – word – noun’, he points towards the specific words in the sentence (‘a private matter’) that concretely make out that construction (lines 142-143) [still 7]. What happens here, then, is that the teacher verbally describes a more abstract grammatical rule while he visibly locates the rule in the concrete example. The fact that he is talking in more general, abstract terms is further underlined by how he stresses ‘always’ in line 145.

In line 150, P1 displays alignment and furthermore infers that ‘–ly’ is not added in such a situation. In line 154, the teacher confirms this. In line 157, P1 aligns with his confirmation, and then, in line 160, the teacher states that that is the explanation. With that utterance, the teacher implicitly states that now he has provided her with the answer to the task.

Extract 52, clip 3.8 showed the question-answer sequence in play as a post hoc validation in a situation in which the pupil could provide the correct answer, but not explain why it was correct. Extract 101, clip 3.9 and extract 40, clip 3.10 showed examples in which the teacher’s rule clueing brought the pupils to the correct answer. In the present extract clip, the pupil is able to provide the correct answer to the sentence in question, but, as in extract 52, clip 3.8, not to explain why the answer is correct, and this has other implications for the way in which the interactional sequence develops in that the teacher, instead of clueing the pupil in a rule-oriented question-answer sequence, here poses a few example-oriented questions to the pupil as a way of bringing his own rule explanation forward. Thus, a considerable amount of rule-orientation also takes place in this extract clip. What happens is simply that the movement to the abstract level of grammatical rules is not accomplished by means of the question-answer sequence, but rather in a manner which resembles the way this was done as post hoc validations in the previous section. Also the way in which the teacher multimodally manages his movement between the concrete

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203 Again, the teacher’s rule description is not exhaustive in that adjectives can also qualify pronouns.

204 After this the teacher does not leave P1, but begins to talk with her about something else which is not specifically related to the task at hand. I therefore regard line 160 as the closing of this particular sequence.
sentence and the abstract rules resembles some of the earlier extract clips, particularly extract 19, clip 3.1. As was the case there, the teacher also here employs synchronised pointing gestures on the sentence in question to forge a relation between his verbal account of the relevant, abstract rules and the concrete sentence. Furthermore, the teacher gazes at the sentence while stating the rules. As described above, when the question-answer sequence is in play it is largely this sequence in itself which manages the relation between the concrete and the abstract levels.

It thus appears that when the grammatical topic is adjectives vs. adverbs, it is possible to distinguish a specific sequential way of orienting towards grammatical rules, but also that this question-answer sequence is not realised in all extract clips treating this grammatical topic. In all instances, however, the rule-orientation is apparent.

7.4.3 Collection summing-up
In this collection, I have analysed how grammatical rules are multimodally and interactionally oriented towards in group grammar teaching. I have shown how teacher and pupils interact in order to arrive at the correct answer to a given task sentence, and I have demonstrated that despite the variety of grammatical topics being taught, and despite the fact that the teachers sometimes provide the answer straight away and at other times rather clue the pupils to find it themselves, there are similarities that cut across the corpus. Thus, the analysis has revealed the existence of an interactional practice, embedded in four different sequences: side sequence; post hoc validation sequence; question-answer sequence prior to establishment of correct answer; and question-answer sequence after establishment of correct answer. This practice consists of an interactional, multimodal and explicit movement from the actual task sentence to the implicated, more abstract and general grammatical rules. Most often it is followed by a movement back to the concrete, practical level designated by the task sentence.

In some instances, the movement is performed before the correct answer to the sentence has been found, and in other instances after that answer has been established. I have analysed the first case as a side sequence, which is included in order to accomplish the main sequence, i.e. solving the problem sentence and finding the correct answer. The latter case, in which the explicit rule orientation happens after the correct answer has been found, has been analysed as a post hoc validation of why the correct answer is in fact correct.

In group grammar teaching episodes that treat the grammatical topic of adjectives vs. adverbs, I have furthermore identified what I term a question-answer sequence. This sequence also includes the movement to the level of abstract, general grammatical rules, but performs it largely by means of a particular way of posing questions that endows the interaction with a certain logic, which is meant to eventually allow the pupils to arrive at the correct answer or to have a previously provided correct answer explained or validated. The question-answer sequence can thus serve the same functions as both side sequences and post hoc validations, respectively.
In terms of the sequential accomplishment, I have shown that across the four designated sequences, the movement is sometimes more concentrated than others, and that occasionally, the final move back to the concrete, practical level is only made implicitly or skipped for different reasons which nevertheless all are consequent on a participant’s formulation of the correct answer. Further characteristics across the four sequences is that the movement takes place multimodally by means of not only speech, but also body movement, gestures, gazes and material artefacts, and that it is a co-constructed endeavour. Furthermore, cluing is often involved. What is the essential point in this interactional practice, however, is that by these means the grammatical rules are almost always directly invoked in the instructional interaction between teacher and pupil(s).

Recapitulated in diagram format, the extract clips analysed in this collection can be classified in the following way:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Side sequence</th>
<th>Post hoc validation</th>
<th>Question-answer sequence (prior)</th>
<th>Question-answer sequence (after)</th>
<th>No rule-orientation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ex 19, clip 3.1</td>
<td>Ex 80, clip 3.2</td>
<td>Ex 101, clip 3.9</td>
<td>Ex 52, clip 3.8</td>
<td>Ex 29, clip 3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Ex 56, clip 3.3)</td>
<td>Ex 56, clip 3.3</td>
<td>Ex 40, clip 3.10</td>
<td>(Ex 101, clip 3.9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex 17, clip 3.5</td>
<td>Ex 30, clip 3.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex 56, clip 3.6</td>
<td>Ex 5, clip 3.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Sequential positioning of movement to abstract level of grammatical rules in group grammar teaching

From the finding of the interactional and multimodal practice, I have concluded that group grammar teaching in the five classes is very rule oriented, and, furthermore, it is based on an explicit, deductive approach. In this approach, explicitly including the rules is seen as the way to assist the pupils in gaining knowledge about them, and knowledge of the rules is constructed as a prerequisite for solving the concrete tasks. This construction is visible both in the actual interaction and in how the task sheets are configured. I have therefore argued that the task and the teaching approach are mutually reinforcing in group grammar teaching.

I have furthermore argued that the question-answer sequence has apparently almost gained a routinised, institutionalised status in the way that it is being employed in the interaction. On this basis, I have suggested that with the rule invocation taking place in a question-answer sequence, the teachers use what they teach to do the work of teaching in the sense that the grammatical rules relevant to the task sentence are used as a resource for moving forward in the main sequence (or task at hand).

The collection analyses have so far shown that group grammar teaching is a situated practice involving all sorts of semiotic resources: speech, bodies, arrangements and materiality. Importantly, this latter collection has also shown that the structures of what is being taught, i.e.
the grammatical rules, are also used as resources in the interaction in the specific ways they are
being oriented towards and invoked. In the following collection, I turn to investigate the category
of class grammar teaching and enquire into how this way of organising the grammar teaching is
managed multimodally and interactionally.

7.5 Collection 4: What class grammar teaching is used for, how it is managed and made
to progress

In this collection, the objective is to provide insight into the details of the grammar teaching
mode that I have termed class grammar teaching, just as this has been done with group grammar
teaching in the three previous collections. Hence, I here analyse extract clips which show that this
way of organising grammar teaching can be employed in a variety of situations (for a variety of
purposes), and I centre my analysis on how class grammar teaching in these situations is managed
and made to progress. My analysis seeks to uncover the interactional practices that cut across the
different uses of class grammar teaching to understand how this mode of grammar teaching is
accomplished and in what ways grammatical rules are being oriented to in that accomplishment.

As the analysis will show, I find that the interactional organisation of class grammar teaching is
most often structured on the basis of the IRE-sequence. In the prototypical IRE-sequence, the
teacher initiates the sequence with an initiation, I, (a question, a prompt etc.) which at the same
time serves as a summons for pupil bids. In CA-terms, a pupil response, R, is the second part of
the base adjacency pair ‘teacher initiation – pupil response’, but sequentially this part does not
follow until after an insertion sequence. This sequence consists of pupil bidding, teacher selection
and teacher turn-allocation and is performed in order for the IRE-sequence to progress. The IR-
adjacency pair is thus the primary activity sequence, but it “implies that the insertion sequence
‘pupil bidding – teacher turn-allocation’ is rendered conditionally relevant in classroom
interaction” (Kääntä, 2010:111). Following the pupil response is a teacher evaluation, E, the
character (positive/negative) of which demonstrates whether the pupil response was a preferred
or a dispreferred one. It should be stressed that my intention with employing the IRE-sequence
as an analytical concept is not to analyse in general how next speakers are selected in classroom
interaction, or how the teacher’s initiation, the pupil’s response and the teacher’s evaluation of
that response follow or complicate the long established IRE-sequence. Yet, because this sequence
is so prevalent in my data on class grammar teaching, I in this collection analysis draw on recent
IRE-oriented research which has attempted to add a multimodal perspective to unfolding IRE-
sequentially structured classroom interaction (Kääntä, 2010). Several recent studies (for example
Kääntä, 2010; Mortensen, 2010) have from a CA-perspective focused on, among other things,
turn-allocation in different L2 classrooms and to a greater or lesser extent discussed the
embodied ways in which such allocations take place, thereby corroborating and also adding to
existing research on this matter. For my part, while acknowledging the objective in these studies
to delineate generalisable actions in L2 classroom interaction as such, this dissertation is fuelled
by other objectives as my quest is to investigate interactional practices specifically related to the
different modes of English grammar teaching in the five selected classrooms. Consequently, in
conducting the analysis of class grammar teaching, I maintain a focus on this mode of grammar
teaching as a particular form of classroom interaction which is oriented towards a particular content, namely grammar, and I investigate how this teaching is multimodally and interactionally constructed in situ. Hence, I do not claim to fully adopt the CA-methodology of investigating L2 classroom interactional organisation, but merely employ the IRE-sequence concept as it has shown to be a pertinent tool for this particular collection. Likewise, in drawing on the work of Kääntä (2010), it has to be stressed that she concentrates solely on analysing data extracts which are structured on the basis of the IRE-sequence, whereas class grammar teaching is, as the analysis will demonstrate, not confined to just such teacher-pupil interaction, though it is the most prevalent form.

The collection is structured so that it, one by one, shows the different uses to which class grammar teaching is being put. Hence, in the first section, I analyse two extract clips in which the class in plenum follows up on a task that it has worked with in groups just prior to this class grammar teaching. In the second section, I analyse an extract clip in which the class is going through some sentences which the pupils have translated as homework and which some of them have then written on the blackboard. In the third section, I focus on how class grammar teaching is employed to repeat what was taught in the lesson before, to briefly add a new rule to the grammatical topic and to then rehearse this rule with a sentence analysis task in plenum. Finally, in the fourth section, two extract clips show the use of class grammar teaching to present grammar rules prior to group work. I have described my general selection of extract clips in chapter 5, but want to add here that with the extract clips selected for this collection, I treat all the different varieties of class grammar teaching which I have observed. The structure of the sections represents the frequency with which the different varieties occur in my data corpus so that following up on group work is the use of class grammar teaching that I have observed the most, whereas presenting grammar rules prior to group work, is the ones that I have observed the least. With regard to the first sections, the data corpus therefore contains several other episodes. As such, the extract clips analysed here constitute a selection from a larger pool of similarly coded episodes and should be seen as representatives of that pool. The final decision about which episodes to make extract clips from was based on considerations about the quality of the recordings and possible varieties in the sequential development of the interaction.

Because of my focus on interactional practices that cut across these different uses of class grammar teaching, I analyse each selected extract clip for the same phenomena. During class grammar teaching, the teacher and the entire class interact in concert, and the interaction is as such very complex. In terms of the managing of this interaction, I investigate the embodied and material ways in which the teacher initiates IRE-sequences, selects next speakers and allocates turns to them, as well as how the teacher evaluates pupil responses. I relate this managing of the interaction with the establishment and maintenance of different participation frameworks. With regard to the progress of class grammar teaching, the analysis looks at how the participants make use of several reference points, for example a task sheet, which come to play a central role in how the interaction is sequentially structured. I furthermore touch upon institutional aspects of class grammar teaching and relate these to the built space and the way in which it is used by the teacher in this mode of grammar teaching. A central focus in the analysis is how and when
grammatical rules are being oriented towards. From considering how sequential organisation (most often IRE-based) is accomplished, I find that this typically happens in the teacher’s third turn evaluation of a correct pupil response. I therefore pay particular attention to the multimodal ways in which this evaluation part is organised. The analysis of each extract clip is structured so that I first describe the interaction, adding only minor analytical comments, and after the description I single out the elements that I want to treat analytically in relation to the mentioned topics. In the final extract clips, description and analysis take place more concurrently in order to avoid repetition.

It should be noted that this collection is considerably longer than the preceding ones. This is so because of the large role played by an IRE-sequentially structured interactional organisation, which makes class grammar teaching as a mode of grammar teaching very different from group grammar teaching. In order to appreciate the ongoing accomplishment of class grammar teaching I therefore have to consider the entire IRE-sequence concerned and often several sequences following each other. This also means that in contrast to the preceding collections, I here consider the interaction all in one, without separating it into initiation of interaction, closing of interaction, and interactional grammar-related content in-between, respectively. The result is a longer and more complex analysis which is, however, hopefully justified by its demonstration of how, essentially, the grammatical content affects the interactional development, just as the interactional development has consequences for how that grammatical content is being accentuated.

However, before the analysis proper, a note on participation frameworks is in order: In terms of Goodwin’s concept of participation framework, it goes for the class grammar teaching, which I analyse in this collection, that what might be termed an omnirelevant participation framework has already been established prior to the beginning of the extract clips, i.e. when the class grammar teaching as a whole was commenced. This is unlike in group grammar teaching which, as shown in collection 1, each time is begun by the establishment of a participation framework between the teacher and a given group. The difference lies in the fact that during class grammar teaching, the teacher potentially interacts with all pupils at the same time. The teaching takes place in plenum exactly because everybody should take part in it (hence the nomination ‘omnirelevant’). What happens as the class, for instance, goes through the answers to a grammatical insertion task is then that what could be termed local participation frameworks are established on a temporary basis between the teacher and the pupil who is asked to share his or her answer in plenum. I view the local participation framework as being nested within the omnirelevant one because other pupils join the quest for a correct answer. This happens when the teacher allocates a next turn to another pupil, but often this pupil is already bidding for a turn with a raised hand. Both the teacher and the pupils therefore visibly display every pupil’s right to take part in breaking the local participation framework between the teacher and the former pupil speaker, and in establishing a new one between the teacher and him/herself. And that right stems from the underlying omnirelevant participation framework which makes all pupils legitimate co-participants in the concrete interaction.
Kääntä (2010) operates with the terms ‘primary’ and ‘secondary’ participation frameworks where the former designates the participation framework between the teacher and a given nominated pupil, and the latter includes all pupils as ratified recipients of the emerging talk (114, 185). Thus, there is a great amount of concordance between the two sets of concepts (omnirelevant and local vs. secondary and primary participation frameworks), but I find that the term ‘omnirelevant’ to a greater extent than ‘secondary’ highlights the fact that this participation framework underlies the ongoing establishment and breaching of local or primary participation frameworks, and that other pupils are therefore not just ‘ratified recipients’, but active co-participants who orient towards and act in accordance with the ongoing interaction. Similarly, to me ‘local’ suggests the nestedness of a transitory interaction between the teacher and a given pupil and thereby its dependency on a larger framework. I do not find that the terms ‘primary’ and ‘secondary’ capture that relation so directly. It can be argued that the strength in Kääntä’s terms is that they from a participants’ perspective designate the focus of the interaction, i.e. that it is the teacher-nominated pupil order of talk – the ‘primary’ participation framework – which is being oriented to by the participants. However, whereas this is case in in Kääntä’s data corpus this is not solely the case in my data corpus. This is so because Kääntä investigates teacher turn-allocations and repair practices which implies that her primary focus is exactly on teacher interaction with a nominated pupil. In contrast to this, my interest here in grammar teaching practices in class grammar teaching does not, as an inherent element of the research focus, prioritise one order of talk (teacher-nominated pupil) over another (teacher-entire class). Hence, the notion of primary and secondary participation framework may be suitable in Kääntä’s case without having the same evident applicability in my undertaking here.

The joint construction of an omnirelevant participation framework – i.e. the mutual agreement between teacher and pupils to orient towards the same task – prior to the concrete episodes of class grammar teaching shown in my data extract clips is a prerequisite for class grammar teaching to take place. Therefore the analysis of most of the extract clips considered here assumes the existence of omnirelevant participation frameworks and confines itself to look at how local participation frameworks are established and to investigate the interactional practices within and between these local participation frameworks. Yet, cf. my proposed adjustment of Kääntä’s terms above in the light of my research objective, the analysis of some of the extract clips in this collection demonstrates how an omnirelevant participation framework is sometimes interactionally brought to the fore, either taking turns with local participation frameworks, or in itself, preceding later orientation towards local interaction.

### 7.5.1 Class grammar teaching to follow up on group work

In the first extract clip, class A is going through the sentences on a worksheet which they have been working on in groups prior to this interaction in plenum. The task consists of spotting, correcting and explaining grammatical errors to do with adjectives vs. adverbs. The sentence in question reads: ‘She looked awful good in her new dress’ (see sheet D in the Appendices). Teacher 1 is standing in front of the blackboard with a sheet in his right hand and a piece of
chalk in his left hand. They have just finished one sentence and as the extract clip begins, they move on to the next sentence.

**Extract 6, clip 4.1**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In line 5, the teacher gazes down at his sheet [still 1] and then, in line 7, verbally states the number of the following sentence. Having done that, he in lines 8-12 looks up and out over the class, and his eyes stop at P1 in the back row [still 2].

205 As he addresses her by calling her name and asking her what her suggestion is (line 15), he turns his gaze towards his sheet again (line 13) [still 3], and before P1 begins to speak, the teacher starts to turn towards the blackboard and shakes the chalk in his left hand [still 4], in that way indicating that he is ready to write her answer on the board (lines 16-17). In line 21, P1 accounts for what she and the other girl in her group have corrected in the sentence.

206 Out of the picture, the teacher confirms this (line 26) and now audibly begins to write on the blackboard (line 27), as P1 goes on to account for why they have made this correction (lines 30-36). Still writing on the board (and coming back into the picture), the teacher again confirms P1’s answer and then begins to add to it in lines 39-57. In essence, he repeats what P1 has just said, but he spells it out more clearly and, furthermore, times his verbal explanation with a sequential drawing on the blackboard that shows in writing what he is saying. For instance, he draws an arrow from ‘awful’ to ‘good’ in line 51 [still 5], at the same time as he is saying that ‘awful’ qualifies an adjective here (lines 50 and 53). In lines 59-61, the teacher recapitulates, gazing at his writing on the board and with his back towards the pupils (lines 62-63) [still 6]. He then redirects his gaze towards the sheet in his hands and begins to walk to his right (line 64) [still 7] as he closes down the orientation towards sentence three with his ‘yep’, in line 66, which is effectively an alignment with what he himself has just said. Finally, the teacher indicates that they are now moving on to the next sentence. This is done minimally, by simply stating ‘number four’ (line 66) in a questioning voice, thereby indicating that it is time for a pupil to get onto the floor again.

In the CA-approach to the IRE-sequence, what happens in the beginning and at the end of this extract clip is that the teacher performs an initiation, and the second one resembles the first. Both times, the teacher gazes down at his sheet which he carries in his hand (line 5 and line 64) and then states the number of the next sentence (line 7 and line 66). What happens between these two initiations is that the teacher selects a next speaker (a pupil who can provide an answer to sentence three), allocates the turn to her, she provides her response, and the teacher evaluates that response. Once that evaluation is over, the teacher turns to the next sentence on the sheet. Both times, the transition from evaluation to initiation is marked by the teacher’s gaze shift towards his sheet. This means that the initiation is carried out multimodally and sequentially, with first a gaze towards the sheet, and then a verbal indication of what comes next.

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205 From the recording it is not possible to see whether P1 has her hand raised or not.

206 A group grammar teaching episode from their group work on this particular sentence was analysed in collection 1 (extract 4, clip 1.4) and collection 2 (extract 4, clip 2.4).
In terms of the progression of the class grammar teaching taking place here, it is thus clear that the worksheet is the mutual focus of attention in the omnirelevant participation framework that going through the sentences in plenum establishes. The teacher has a copy in his hand, and each pupil has a copy in front of him/her, and the entire interaction evolves around the sentences on the sheet. The worksheet is made explicitly relevant when the teacher initiates an IRE-sequence, i.e. it is drawn to the fore of the contextual configuration, but as the underlying focus of attention, or a common reference point, it remains part of that contextual configuration during the entire interaction. In other words, the progression in this extract clip is to be seen in the ongoing initiation of IRE-sequences, but these sequences and the multimodal interaction that they involve are sequentially ordered on the basis of the worksheet and the way that it is gone through chronologically.

With regard to the turn-allocation in this extract clip, the teacher’s initiation also functions as a summons for pupil bids. This is marked by the teacher’s gaze shift in line 8. The teacher gazes from his sheet up towards the class, and he turns his head from side to side, effectively scanning the class for a pupil to answer. The teacher’s gaze stops at P1 in the back row, the teacher selects P1 and allocates the next turn to her by stating her name and asking her what her suggestion is. At the same time, he directs his gaze back towards the sheet and begins to turn towards the blackboard. In that way he ends the selection of next speaker and reduces the possibility of negotiating the allocation by signalling that he awaits her response. At the same time, the teacher’s orientation towards the blackboard can be said to be projecting his evaluation of P1’s response (Kääntä, 2010). Looked upon in this manner, it is obvious that turn-allocation is not simply a verbal act, but that the teacher performs detailed progressive embodied actions which are linked with his verbal allocation, and that the worksheet as a material artefact furthermore plays a role in the initiation and ending of the allocation.

What happens with the teacher’s allocation of the turn to P1 is that a local participation framework is constructed. P1 is provided with the right to talk, whereas the other pupils are expected not to – it is her specific answer that the teacher has asked for, not the others’. Similarly, it is the teacher who evaluates her answer, not any of the others, just as it is P1, and not anyone else, who in line 44 aligns with the teacher’s beginning explanation. In that way, these two participants and their interaction come to the fore of the class grammar teaching episode here, and it is thus not possible to see whether she is bidding for a turn when the teacher allocates a turn to her. The recording environment means that sometimes not every actor in the classroom is recorded. In the analysis of some of the following extract clips, I will elaborate on how the selection is often co-constructed by teacher and pupil via raised hand and mutual gaze, albeit not always.

Kääntä’s study (2010) also clearly demonstrates that turn-allocation in L2 classroom interaction is bound up with embodied teacher actions. She focuses specifically on gaze trajectories, head nods and pointing gestures, and she shows how and in what situations these are used alone, together or in concert with talk. Furthermore, Kääntä finds that in prototypical IRE-sequences, the insertion sequence partially takes place during the silence after the teacher’s initiation (112), and this is also the case in this extract clip in which the teacher scans the class and selects P1 during the four seconds of silence (lines 11-12) after his initiation, and then allocates the turn to her in line 15. Kääntä writes that such silence therefore does not mark a pause with momentarily ceased action (112), and I regard this as an important contribution which a multimodal approach can make to the more traditional CA-for-SLA approach that e.g. Seedhouse (2004) has worked from and that focuses solely on the verbal interaction.

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207 P1 is not visible on the recording at this point and it is thus not possible to see whether she is bidding for a turn when the teacher allocates a turn to her. The recording environment means that sometimes not every actor in the classroom is recorded. In the analysis of some of the following extract clips, I will elaborate on how the selection is often co-constructed by teacher and pupil via raised hand and mutual gaze, albeit not always.

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and this is what I mean with regard to the notion of a local participation framework. The particular sentence on the worksheet is already the joint focus of attention – prompted by the teacher’s initiation – and therefore mutual eye gaze is not necessary to maintain the participation framework. It is maintained for as long as it takes to go through the specific sentence, and once the teacher ends his evaluation and commences a new initiation, he effectively breaks the local participation framework and prepares for establishing a new one, with a new turn-allocation as part of the following IRE-sequence.

Linking the establishment of a local participation framework in the concrete interaction analysed here with the IRE-sequence is, at the same time, a way of touching upon the institutional dimension of class grammar teaching and the relational identities of teacher and pupil that are related to this dimension. As was shown in the three previous collections on group grammar teaching, these identities are in a dialectical relationship with the interaction taking place in that they both enable this interaction and are themselves constituted by it. This relation is present in class grammar teaching too. It is the teacher who, in his capacity as teacher, can initiate a new IRE-sequence and as part of that also allocate the response turn to a pupil, thereby creating a local participation framework with that pupil. It is also the teacher who, in his capacity as teacher, can evaluate the pupil’s response and thereby close down both the IRE-sequence and the local participation framework. Yet, that the teacher actually manages to do so in the concrete interaction is dependent upon not only the compliant actions of P1, but of all pupils present in the classroom. Class grammar teaching is therefore an institutionalised mutual endeavour that is dependent upon the performance of both teacher and pupils and that itself endows the participants with these identities.

Again, the performance of these institutional, relational identities is also tied up with the built space and with the way in which the participants act in that space. From a microethnographic perspective, the furniture within a room invites certain kinds of relationships, just as the décor of a room “often includes the special symbols, colors, and graphic representations of its institution” (LeBaron & Streeck, 1997:5). In the extract clip analysed here, the classroom has a traditional, educational-institutional positioning of the furniture – the pupils’ tables in rows and in front of these the teacher’s desk. Behind the desk, as part of the room’s décor and as a special symbol of its institution, is a large blackboard. Such a setting can be said to invite the kind of interaction in which the identities of teacher and pupils are performed in relation to each other. And in class grammar teaching, one might say that the interaction is, to a larger extent than in group grammar teaching, directly related to the built space – the teacher is standing by the blackboard with easy access to it, and the pupils are seated at their tables, facing the teacher and the blackboard. This very traditional teacher-orientation renders it seemingly natural that the teacher is the one to control the IRE-sequences that going through the worksheet involves, and this again implies that the pupils engage in these sequences as pupils as described above.\(^{209}\)

\(^{209}\) Of course, several years of schooling have taken place before achieving this seemingly natural asymmetry.
With regard to evaluation, the teacher, in lines 26-27, briefly confirms P1’s correction of the sentence in line 21 and begins to write on the blackboard. P1 continues her response by attempting to add an explanation for the correction (lines 29-36). The explanation is a required part of the response in that the task is taken from one of the new exam sets in which the pupils’ ability to not only employ grammatical rules but also explain them is tested. As P1 provides her explanation, the teacher writes her correction on the board, and once P1 is done, he again confirms and then begins to provide a detailed explanation himself. Arguably, P1’s explanation is not particularly clear and unambiguous which might be seen as one reason why the teacher chooses to ‘do the job’ himself. However, during the entire class grammar teaching sequence, which this extract clip is taken from, the teacher as part of his evaluation provides an explanation after every pupil response, also in situations where the pupil’s own explanation is both clear and well-argued and evaluated as being so by the teacher (see e.g. extract 2 on data corpus DVD). From my non-normative approach, this observation is not meant as implied criticism of the teacher’s procedure. Rather, I want to describe it as a first observation of an interactional preference structure which can be identified in several uses of class grammar teaching, and in which the teachers in their evaluation turn provide a rule-oriented grammatical explanation of the concrete sentence in question. The explicit rule-orientation that I showed to be a central element in group grammar teaching in the previous collection can thereby also be seen to exist in class grammar teaching, though the placement of the rule-orientation in the teacher’s evaluation turn does not necessarily equal the sequential positions that I showed to be relevant in group grammar teaching.

What is identical with regard to the explicit rule-orientation in group grammar teaching and class grammar teaching, then, is that the orientation is multimodally constructed. Thus, the teacher’s rule-oriented explanation here advances as he includes the blackboard and a piece of chalk in the contextual configuration of his explanation and times his writing on the board carefully with his speech. His drawing of arrows and abbreviations of word classes is also repeated in all extracts from this class grammar teaching episode, and thus seems to be a recurrent way for the teacher to explain this type of grammatical sentence corrections (related to what adjectives and adverbs, respectively, qualify). Hence, for this teacher, the evaluation of a pupil response is expanded to also include a rule-oriented teacher explanation, and this explanation is provided both verbally and visually. What this shows, then, is that also in class grammar teaching many semiotic resources besides language are being invoked. Furthermore, it shows that when it comes to class grammar teaching, the IRE-sequence as a classic model of classroom interaction can function as a useful tool to approach the interaction, but also that it can be expanded to include in the evaluation part an explanation that relates to the grammatical rules that are being rehearsed.

The following extract shows a different way of following up on group work via class grammar teaching which, nevertheless, shares certain interactional aspects with the extract clip above. Class B has already been through one grammar task in plenum, and as the extract clip begins, Teacher 2 directs them to the next task on the worksheet which concerns the use of articles in English.

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210 See chapter 3 for more information about exam requirements.
These tasks are also taken from a former exam set. The sentences in question read: ‘Since when have you become such … student of … human nature?’ and ‘I once heard a lecture on … colour yellow in … art’ (see sheet H in the Appendices).

Extract 32, clip 4.2

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

This extract clip is fairly long, comprising the class going through three sentences. To begin with, I analyse the interaction around the two first sentences, and I then treat the third one separately since it shows a turn-allocation which is less straightforward than the two former ones.

Having introduced the next exercise in lines 4-7, the teacher in line 8 asks how the first sentence would go, in that way initiating a new IRE-sequence and, at the same time, performing a summons for pupil bids (Kääntä, 2010:111). Selecting a next speaker, she then gazes up from her sheet at the pupils, many of whom raise their hands (lines 10-11) [still 1]. In that way, the pupils demonstrate reflexive awareness (Goodwin, 2000), or, in Kääntä’s (2010) words, by raising their hands they “indicate that they have understood the teacher initiation to be sequentially implicative for them in that it has made the response turn conditionally relevant” (112). The teacher picks a pupil and allocates the turn to him by gazing in his direction (P1 is not in the picture), stating his name and asking him whether he has come that far on the worksheet (lines 12-14). Right after having stated the pupil’s name, the teacher turns her gaze towards her sheet again (line 13) [still 2]. P1 confirms that he has come that far and goes on to read aloud his version of the corrected sentence (lines 20-21), in that way providing a response to the teacher’s initiation. In her following evaluation, the teacher is apparently not satisfied with P1’s answer which she displays both visually, by making a brief bend forward in the direction of P1 (line 23-24) [still 3], and verbally, by inhaling audibly and reading the sentence aloud herself, changing the word order and stopping just before P1 put in a definite article in his reading. In that way the teacher invites P1 to repair this particular part of the sentence, which is also to be seen in how she puts down her sheet and looks up at P1 after having finished reading (lines 25-29) [still 4]. P1 responds to the repair prompt, but apparently does not quite know how to self-repair, which can be seen in how he repeats the definite article as his candidate item (line 31) so that, effectively, no repair is made. The teacher now repeats the rest of the sentence, stressing the article and also adding extra attention to it by tipping her head to the left [still 5] and back again while pronouncing it (lines 33-34).

She then picks up her sheet again, gazes from it up at the class and then allocates the turn to another pupil, P2, by stating ‘or perhaps just’ and nodding slightly towards him (lines 35-38). P2 has been gazing at the teacher [still 6] and thereby understands that she has allocated the next turn to him in that he answers in line 42. He also seems to have understood that the teacher wants him to repair P1’s suggestion, since his answer is that he has said the same thing as P1, thereby implying that he cannot provide another suggestion than P1’s. Being engaged in checking the sentence on her own sheet (lines 44-45), the teacher apparently does not get his answer (marked by her ‘sorry’ in line 49), so P2 repeats it in line 52. Now P2’s first answer seems to have
been understood by the teacher in that she, before he is done reproducing his answer, by stating ‘yes’ twice both confirms that she has heard him (the first yes) and allocates the next turn to P3 (the second yes).

As the teacher says these words, she nods twice, and on the second nod she shifts her gaze towards P3 (lines 55-56) [still 8]. P3 has already in lines 45-47 via gaze and a markedly raised hand [still 7] indicated that she would like to present her suggestion, so she follows up on the teacher’s turn-allocation and effectively answers the teacher’s turn in line 36, to be seen in how she repeats the teacher’s ‘or’ (line 58). Gazing at her sheet, the teacher confirms P3’s answer by repeating it and nodding (lines 61-62) [still 9]. In line 64, P3 then puts it differently which the teacher again confirms in line 66. The teacher now takes down her arm with the sheet in it and gazes up at the class (lines 67-70) [still 10] and then begins to explain why no article should be added in this case by reciting the related grammatical rules. During her explanation, the teacher shifts her gaze between the class and her sheet several times (lines 71-79).

Once she is done, the teacher moves right on to the next sentence on the sheet. The transition is marked by an audible inhalation and by the teacher reading aloud the first part of the next sentence (line 80). This serves both as an indication that now they move on, i.e. as an initiation of a new IRE-sequence related to the following sentence, and as a prompt to make the pupils want to finish the sentence. Then, without lifting her head, the teacher gazes towards P4 to her right [still 11] and states her name (lines 81-83). P4 has been sitting with her hand raised, and she picks up on this turn-allocation by taking down her hand [still 12] and reading aloud her version of the sentence (lines 85-87). In lines 90-93, the teacher confirms P4’s answer, evaluates it positively and repeats the essential part of it. She then again moves on to explain the concrete use of articles in the sentence in relation to the grammatical rules, and this again happens with gaze shifts between her sheet and the class (lines 94-101). Once the explanation is over, another transition to the third sentence takes place, in the same way as the previous one. I.e. the teacher makes an audible inhalation and reads aloud the first part of the next sentence (line 102).

From this description, I view the interaction as consisting of two IRE-sequences\(^{211}\) that in many ways resemble the one analysed in extract 6, clip 4.1.\(^{212}\) The teacher initiates each sequence by addressing the worksheet, she turn-allocates, evaluates and adds to her evaluation an explanation that relates the sentence corrections with the grammatical rules concerned. The initiation of the sequence that evolves around the first sentence follows straight after the teacher’s introduction to the task as a whole. Gazing down at her sheet, she asks how the first sentence would go. The initiations that are related to the second and third sentences are identical (compare lines 80 and 102): the teacher has her gaze on her sheet as she makes an audible inhalation and reads aloud the first part of the next sentence, in that way prompting the pupils to bid for a response turn. Though the teacher’s verbal addressing of the given sentence differs slightly, they all bear a

\(^{211}\) I regard line 102 as the initiation of the IRE-sequence which revolves around the third sentence. I consider this third sequence and the turn-allocation taking place in it later in this section.

\(^{212}\) My understanding of the interaction around the first sentence as one expanded IRE-sequence is returned to and elaborated on in a moment.
resemblance to how Teacher 1 did it in the previous extract clip, involving gaze, worksheet and talk. This means that in this extract clip too, the progression of class grammar teaching evolves around the sentences on the worksheet, which is the underlying reference point or focus of attention in the omnirelevant participation framework that comprises the entire class.

With regard to turn-allocation in the first IRE-sequence, several ways of selecting next speaker and allocating the turn to him/her are employed. It takes place via teacher gaze at and mentioning of a pupil name, after which the teacher’s gaze is turned towards her sheet again (lines 12-14). This was also the case in the previous extract clip. However, turn-allocation also happens without an explicit pronunciation of a pupil name. First, via the teacher repeating a part of the pupil's sentence and then gazing up at the pupil in the case of repair initiation (lines 25-29), and second via a truncated sentence, gaze and a slight head nod towards a pupil (lines 36-38) – what Kääntä (2010) terms an embodied allocation (155). Finally, it happens as a reaction to a raised finger, with a minimal ‘yes’, gaze and a head nod towards the pupil in question (lines 55-56). This shows that turn-allocation during class grammar teaching can take place in a variety of ways, and that there is always more than one semiotic resource involved when the teacher selects next speaker. As will be evident as this collection analysis progresses, these different ways of allocating turns appear in all classes during class grammar teaching, and at the same time, the turn-allocation practices here appear to resemble those that have been found in data from L2 classroom interaction more broadly conceived (for instance Käänta, 2010; Seedhouse, 2004). This suggests that the teacher-led, but co-constructed turn-allocation during class grammar teaching is not something specifically invented and conducted to fit the particular pedagogical focus on grammar, but rather a more general interactional practice in the classes.

In some way it is of course obvious that classroom participants have general interactional practices. Yet, I believe that this finding underscores an important point about class grammar teaching: class grammar teaching, at least employed as a follow-up on group grammar teaching which is the use I have considered so far, is a highly institutionalised activity. Institutionalised in the sense that it is apparently so well-known to both teachers and pupils that it can be conducted on the basis of routinised ways of interacting and does not require extra explanatory work by the teacher or extraordinary interactional work. In fact, employing class grammar teaching to do this kind of activity seems to be so institutionalised that pupils can make bids to respond to the next sentence even before the teacher has performed the initiation of that sentence. This is what happens in the second IRE-sequence in the extract clip considered here. In line 70, i.e. when the teacher is just about to embark on her explanation as part of her evaluation in the first IRE-

\[\text{213} \quad \text{My analysis of turn-allocation is deliberately not as detailed and systematic as in the case of for instance Kääntä, 2010 and other conversation analytical studies of IRE-sequences in L2 classrooms. I have explained my position in relation to such studies and the way in which I employ them in the analytical toolbox chapter.}\]

\[\text{214} \quad \text{Later, the collection provides examples of allocations to non-bidding pupils as well as unclear allocations that are not addressed at a specific pupil, neither verbally nor in an embodied way. Because Kääntä’s data corpus does not contain many examples of such allocations (a few of the first type, and none of the latter), I cannot on the basis of her findings in the same way decide whether these allocations are specific for class grammar teaching, or for the specific teacher, or whether they are also presumably more general. Investigating this issue is beyond the scope of this dissertation.}\]
sequence, P4 raises her hand and sits with it raised during the teacher’s explanation. In line 80, the teacher goes straight into initiating the following sentence after which she allocates the next turn to P4 in line 83. Only then does P4 take down her hand (line 85), before she provides her response (line 87). Hence, from looking at the embodied actions of P4, it can be seen that even before the teacher’s initiation of the IRE-sequence related to the second sentence, P4 projects that the teacher as the next relevant action will perform that initiation as a summons and, with her raised hand, indicates that she would like to respond. In selecting P4, the teacher in turn demonstrates that she knows that P4 knows the procedure.

Looking specifically at the turn-allocations in lines 36-38 and 55-56, it is furthermore obvious that allocating a turn with gaze and head nod only and without a verbal address term requires that the pupil in question has his or her gaze directed at the teacher, so that mutual eye gaze is achieved and the pupil actually notices the head nod. Both P2 and P3 are oriented towards the teacher; otherwise she would have had to choose another way of selecting them as next speakers. In the case of P3, an example of a pupil almost performing a self-selection can be seen. P3 is seated right in front of the teacher and once P2 has stated that his answer is identical with P1’s, she stretches her arm not vertically, but horizontally towards the teacher’s face, so that the teacher cannot avoid noticing her raised hand. The gesture is an indication to the teacher that P3 holds a different answer (had she had the same answer, she would probably have taken her hand down instead, now knowing that it was wrong), and in her quest for the correct answer it is therefore not difficult to appreciate why the teacher selects her as the next one to attempt to answer. Thus, this is a clear indication of how turn-allocation is also a co-constructed effort which demands more or less action from the pupils as well.

Of further importance for my interest in interactional practices around class grammar teaching here is the fact that the many turn-allocations in the first IRE-sequence come about because it takes several tries by different pupils before the correct answer to the first sentence has been reached. In other words, Teacher 2 appears to operate from the notion that there is one correct grammatical answer and that the pupils should come up with that answer themselves, no matter how many turns this takes. I maintain that it is exactly the teacher’s orientation towards specific

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215 Kääntä (2010) makes the same observation on the necessity of mutual gaze in the case of embodied allocation (165, 184), but furthermore demonstrates that mutual gaze is not always a necessity for a teacher turn-allocation to take place when the allocation contains verbal elements, e.g. a pupil name too. Kääntä claims that it is thus legitimate for both pupils and teachers to be oriented elsewhere, i.e. towards their individual pedagogical material, during the turn-allocation – pupils in searching for the correct answer, and teachers in projecting their evaluation of the forthcoming answer. However, during the selection phase, just prior to the allocation, teacher’s gaze at the pupils is a prerequisite (185-186).

216 This analytical interpretation cannot only be deduced from the extract clip analysed here, but from several extract clips of this teacher’s class grammar teaching as will be clear during further analysis. Kääntä (2010:74) refers to Seedhouse’s description of repair organisation in an L2 form-and-accuracy context (Seedhouse, 2004:143-149). In such a context, he finds that the teacher initiates repair whenever a pupil response does not match the linguistic form of the target response. Furthermore, the organisation of turn-taking is tightly teacher-managed, which means that the prevailing type of repair is other-initiated self-repair, initiated by the teacher and repaired by the pupil. Other-initiated other-repair also occurs, with the other-repair performed by another pupil or by the teacher (Kääntä, 2010:74). In relation to these findings, Teacher 2 here appears to have a strong preference for other-initiated self-repair, or other-
grammatical rules that are being explicitly rehearsed via the worksheet that causes this quest for the one correct answer. To some extent, what happens here is that grammatical rules translate into interactional practices – the teaching is explicitly form-focused, and this has consequences for how the teaching progresses interactionally in that when the correct answer is not delivered the first time, the teacher initiates repair and continues to do so until the correct answer has been found. Importantly, it is not only the teacher, but also the pupils who engage in the quest, thereby also demonstrating an acceptance of the teacher’s approach to grammatical rules as being in a position to structure the interaction in plenum. At the same time, the pupils’ engagement also demonstrates an acceptance of the teacher’s request that they find the correct answer themselves.  

Thus, despite the many turn-allocations, I prefer to regard the entire interaction around sentence one as one IRE-sequence in which several related RE-sequences are nested. It is implicit in these nested sequences that the focus is still on sentence one – the teacher does not perform a new, explicit initiation which is why I regard the sequences as RE-sequences. What marks the initiation of a nested RE-sequence here is instead the teacher’s selection of a next speaker and allocation of the turn to him/her. Built into that turn-allocation is the expectation that the pupil will provide an alternative grammatical answer to the sentence in question. I therefore regard it as one overall IRE-sequence exactly because of the quest for the one correct answer that runs across these sequences, but also because I, furthermore, want to make the point that here too the teacher supplements her evaluation with an explanation once the correct solution has been reached.  

In line with this understanding of the first IRE-sequence here, Kääntä (2010) describes the recursive use of the IRE-sequence in which the sequence, through several repair re-initiations, e.g. in the form of clueing, is expanded to comprise a number of sequences (67). She writes:

The recursive feature defers teacher-initiated other-correction, whereby teachers perform other-repair directly on the pupils’ answers. In other words, there is a preference for pupil self-corrections in classroom talk that is manifested through the withholding of teacher accomplished other-corrections. A space for pupil self-corrections is provided before other-corrections are employed (67).

The recursive use of the IRE-sequence occurs when the teacher’s evaluation is a dispreferred next action, i.e. when it is a negative assessment of the pupil’s response. In this case, the third turn is used to initiate repair and in that way extends the IRE-sequence (Kääntä, 2010:38-39). In the extract clip, this is what happens: in lines 20-21, P1 provides a wrong response, in line 25 the teacher prompts him to repair (other-initiated self-repair), P1 does not do that, so in line 36, the

 initiated other-repair, where it is another pupil that performs the repair. As such, she distributes the work of doing the repair which adds an interesting extra dimension to the dyadic self/other.

217 Extract 84 (see data corpus DVD) is an example of a class grammar teaching episode in which the pupils put up resistance against the teacher’s continuing attempt to make them find the correct answer themselves. However, this does not mean that they deny the existence of a correct answer. Rather, they simply want the teacher to present it because they have apparently not succeeded in finding it themselves.

218 I comment further on this below when I turn to the teacher’s evaluation. Here, I merely state the point to explain why I regard the interaction sequentially in the way that I do.
teacher re-initiates repair by allocating the turn to another pupil, cluing with her ‘just’ that the definite article has to be left out (other-initiated other-repair). As this does not result in the correct answer either, the teacher in line 55 re-initiates repair again, once more by allocating the turn to another pupil. And finally she receives the correct response (other-initiated other-repair) and is thereby able to conduct her evaluation as a preferred next action.

Regarding the sequential structure of the interaction as one expanded IRE-sequence also necessitates an elaboration of the relation between turn-allocation and the establishment of a local participation framework that I showed in the analysis of the preceding extract clip. That clip resembles the second IRE-sequence here (lines 80-102) in how the first pupil, who is selected, provides a correct answer which the teacher can then evaluate before she turns to the following sentence. In such a situation, the local participation framework established between the teacher and the selected pupil lasts and is not breached until the teacher prepares the ground for a new sentence and with that a new selection of next speaker.

However, what happens with the four turn-allocations in the first long IRE-sequence is that the teacher establishes and breaches a local participation framework with first P1 and then P2, after which one is established with P3 that lasts until the teacher initiates the second IRE-sequence related to sentence number two. In my view, it is exactly the turn-allocations as they have been described above which mark both the breaching of one local participation framework and the establishment of a new one. This means that the initiation of a new local participation framework is done by the teacher in the same way as a turn is allocated, i.e. via for example a truncated sentence, a gaze and a head nod where eye contact is made, which is how she selects P2 in the extract clip here. Since only one pupil is given the floor at the time, that turn-allocation at the same time serves to inform P1 that he is no longer the one to answer, i.e. it reduces P1 to becoming again simply a part of the omnirelevant participation framework. From the case of P3 and her way of almost performing a self-selection, it can furthermore be seen that establishing a local participation framework in class grammar teaching can take place progressively and be initiated by a pupil. Together, this shows that several local and provisional participation frameworks can sometimes follow each other in the quest for the one correct grammatical answer.

Turning to the teacher’s evaluation, I here focus on her evaluations after the correct answers have been reached. As was the case in the previous extract clip, the teacher in both IRE-sequences first confirms the pupil’s answer and then begins to provide an explanation of why that answer is correct, resorting to the grammatical rules that are being rehearsed. The confirmation in both cases takes place as a repetition of the central part of the pupil’s answer (lines 61, 66, 92), supplemented with either just ‘Yes.’ (line 66) or ‘Yes. Good.’ (line 90). In contrast to the preceding extract clip, the teacher’s explanation is here made without use of chalk and blackboard. Rather, the teacher faces the pupils and shifts her gaze between them and her sheet as she talks. Hence, the grammatical rules that are being rehearsed are not made visible, but only verbally articulated here. With regard to the exam requirement that necessitated a pupil explanation in the previous extract clip, the teacher in this extract clip begins by explaining that
this task does not require an explanation, but merely an insertion of the correct articles. She also says that perhaps they will have to explain it anyway here, i.e. while they go through the task in plenum (lines 4-7). In practice, this results in the pupils reading the sentences with the inserted articles, and the teacher explaining why the particular use of articles is correct. Thus, even in a case where it is not directly demanded, this teacher chooses to include the grammatical rules explicitly as part of her teaching, which must be based on a conviction that this will enhance the pupils’ learning of the use of articles. Thereby, the explicit orientation towards grammatical rules appears to feature as a pedagogical element in class grammar teaching. Hence, this extract clip is also an example of how the teacher in class grammar teaching can decide to expand the IRE-sequence to include as part of the evaluation an explanation in which the concrete sentence is taken to a more abstract level of grammatical rules.

I now turn to the interaction around sentence three in the extract clip. In the analysis here, I only focus on the turn-allocation in that this part is what most noticeably distinguishes this IRE-sequence from the ones considered until now.

After the teacher has initiated the third IRE-sequence in the extract clip with a prompt (reading aloud the first part of sentence three in line 102), she bends forward and turns her head to gaze at P5, who is sitting next to P4 and closest to the teacher (lines 103-104) [still 13], and then attempts to allocate the next turn to her by mentioning her name and asking her whether she has come that far (line 108). P5, however, is bent forward and has her head turned in the opposite direction, away from the teacher. Furthermore, her left hand is placed next to the right side of her face (lines 105-107) [still 14], in that way almost shielding her face from the teacher’s gaze. There is thus no mutual eye gaze in this turn-allocation, which explains why the teacher has to bend visibly forward and state P5’s name. In other words, the teacher here selects a pupil who clearly does not wish to be selected. Meanwhile, the teacher does not explicitly ask P5 to answer the next sentence – her turn-allocation is of a more indirect character, asking the pupil whether she has come that far. Kääntä (2010), in this connection, distinguishes between teacher invitations and teacher commands to provide a response. Both are more elaborate verbal constructions than when the teacher merely employs the pupil’s name to allocate a turn to him or her, but whereas in teacher invitations the teacher explicitly invites a response from a pupil, in teacher commands the teacher says that a pupil is to provide a response (132). A common interactional trait of the two is that they are employed in sequences where the pupils are not bidding for a turn (132). I find it possible to view the teacher’s turn as an invitation here – P5 is, albeit indirectly in this case, invited to share her answer, but is not ordered to do so. P5, probably because she does not wish to respond, chooses to take the teacher’s question literally and provides a minimal and almost inaudible answer to it in line 110. There is thus a noticeable absence of the candidate answer by P5, and the expected sequence is not completed in that the teacher’s initiation is not followed by its adjacency pair part - the pupil’s response to the task. The teacher, in lines 112-115, therefore follows up on P5’s answer and pursues her intention to have P5 give her version of sentence three. This is done by repeating P5’s ‘yes’ with a rising intonation, followed by the truncated ‘are you going to’. I see this as the teacher transforming her invitation into a more command-like turn-allocation. At the same time, the teacher places her sheet and both her hands on the table in
front of her, leaning forward and gazing at the sheet [still 14 again]. Together, these verbal and visual actions serve to inform P5 that the teacher insists on having her answer and simply waits for her to do that. In her study, Kääntä (2010) finds that “the teacher’s orientation towards an object through gaze-shift indicates that the turn-allocation is treated as unproblematic to the extent that the selected speaker is expected to provide the response and that the speaker transfer is to be accomplished successfully” (123). However, this second turn-allocation is not unproblematic either insofar that P5 again does not provide the preferred response that the teacher wants.

P5’s answer, in line 117, displays that she knows that the teacher’s truncated sentence was a second attempt to have her answer, but also that she does not want to. She furthermore provides a reason why, stating that she is not sure. She then moves down her left hand and turns her head to gaze briefly at the teacher [still 15], after which she turns her head away again (lines 118-120) [still 16]. The teacher, still gazing down at her sheet, waits for three seconds before she rhetorically asks ‘no?’ (line 122). This might be seen as a third attempt to have P5 answer, but again P5 takes the question literally and minimally answers ‘em em’, confirming her refusal (line 124). During the next three seconds, P5 first turns her head towards the teacher, probably as a reaction to the teacher’s silence, and the teacher then looks up and mutual eye gaze is established (lines 126-128) [still 17]. The teacher now asks which possibilities P5 sees (line 130), straight after which both P5 and the teacher bend their heads to gaze down at their sheets again (lines 131-132) [still 18]. I regard this as a ‘downgrading’ of the teacher’s command in which she breaks a request without hints into subparts to elicit a stepwise move to an answer. Hesitating slightly, P5 answers the teacher’s question (line 134), after which the teacher is able to go through both P5’s suggestions and in that way sort out the correct answer (lines 136-156).

Clearly, it is more complicated for the teacher to allocate the turn here than in the examples analysed so far. Or rather, it is more complicated for the teacher to have P5 do with the allocated turn what the teacher has intended her to do – provide a response to her initiation. P5 does pick up on the teacher’s allocations, but not in the expected manner, so the teacher tries several times before they apparently settle on a middle course, with P5 stating the possibilities that she sees, and the teacher accounting for the correctness of these possibilities (the fact that P5 states that she is in doubt, makes the teacher realise that P5 can see more than one possibility, which again enables the teacher to ask specifically about these. This, in turn, enables P5 to avoid making up her mind on the spot in that the teacher’s question allows her to state both the articles that she finds can be employed in the sentence). It is obvious that had P5 been bidding for a turn with her hand raised, the interaction would not have developed in this way. The teacher chooses to pick a pupil who with her body posture visibly signals that she does not want to be selected. To some extent this is asking for interactional trouble. Nevertheless, the teacher furthermore chooses to stick to her selection and not let P5 shirk the issue. Kääntä (2010) also finds that allocating turns to non-bidding, non-gazing pupils has sequential consequence in that the extra interactional work required by the teacher restructures the basic IRE-sequence and delays “its smooth accomplishment” (130-131).
There can be several reasons for the teacher’s insistence on having P5 answer, one perhaps being that the teacher wants to assist an insecure pupil in beginning to speak more in class, finding that a certain amount of pressure is needed to accomplish that.\textsuperscript{219} However, I see another reason which is more directly related to the interactional structure of the class grammar teaching here and which furthermore concerns the relational identities of teacher and pupil and how these can be said to be indirectly resisted by P5. In this reading, P5 in her three first turns (lines 110, 117, 124) every time refuses to engage in the IRE-sequence that the teacher has initiated. In that way, she also resists the asymmetrical power relation that is built into this sequence, with the teacher being in a position to both demand a response from a pupil and evaluate that response. The teacher, in contrast, does not want to give in to P5’s attempt to dissolve the interactional structure that the class grammar teaching is based upon and that both provides her with the teacher’s identity and, at the same time, itself requires that she performs that identity. Therefore she insists on having P5 provide a response.\textsuperscript{220} Kääntä (2010) describes how teachers can draw on their institutional right to ask any pupil in class and expect an answer, either the response sought for or an account for why this is not provided (129). Yet, when allocating turns to non-bidding pupils, teachers “are ignoring the social requirements for pupils to show their willingness to be selected as next speaker” (129). It is these social requirements and the fact that P5 has in fact not shown her willingness to be selected that permit her to put up resistance in the first place. Hence what is perhaps also taking place in the interaction between the teacher and P5 here is an indirect negotiation of whether the teacher has a right to select a non-bidding pupil or not. To conclude, then, this example of class grammar teaching shows that there can be more at stake in the interaction than finding the correct grammatical answer, but that these less immediate aspects are exactly sorted out by the continuous orientation to finding the correct grammatical answer, thereby sustaining the interactional structure. On a less speculative note, the example shows that IRE-sequences in class grammar teaching can also involve the selection of a pupil who does not wish to provide a response, and that having such a pupil provide a grammar-related response anyway can demand extra interactional work on behalf of the teacher.

I have now provided two examples of how class grammar teaching as a way of organising the teaching around grammar can be used to follow up on preceding group work and of how the interaction is sequentially structured in this case by use of multimodal resources. Furthermore, I have addressed the teacher’s orientation towards grammatical rules and how and when this is made explicit and relevant in the interaction. In the following, I investigate the use of class grammar teaching to follow up on homework.

\textsuperscript{219} I base this both on my observations of other lessons in this class as well as my second interview with Teacher 2. This competence perspective is, however, not one that I go further into in this dissertation.

\textsuperscript{220} Extract 85, clip 4.4 in this collection shows that Teacher 2 does not always pursue her first turn-allocation to a non-bidding pupil, but sometimes accepts the pupil’s refusal to answer and instead moves on to allocate the next turn to another pupil. In my second interview with Teacher 2, I asked her about the different outcomes. She told me that her intention with allocating turns to non-bidding pupils was to try to have everybody speak and contribute in the class. When she sometimes insists that the non-bidding pupil has to answer she said that it is because she has selected the particular sentence as a relatively easy one, which she believes that the reluctant pupil can successfully answer. Teacher 2 stressed that this selection was made there and then, during the ongoing interaction. In that sense, her turn-allocations and whether she insists on them are ad hoc decisions (separate interview with Teacher 2, September 2011).
7.5.2 Class grammar teaching to follow up on homework

As part of their homework, Teacher 2 has asked class B to translate a number of sentences from Danish into English. The grammatical topic rehearsed in the sentences is the use of the present progressive participle (ing-form) after prepositions in English. When the extract clip begins, several pupils have written a sentence on the board, and the teacher is positioned in front of the board, engaged in going through the sentences in plenum. They have been through one sentence and now turn to the next one (sentence four). The (erroneous) sentence in question reads: ‘You may restrict yourself to answer the question’ (since the sentences were written on the blackboard there is no worksheet in the Appendices).

Extract 48, clip 4.3

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 4-18, the teacher initiates the interaction around sentence four by identifying first the sentence on the blackboard, then the pupil who has written the sentence (P1 informs the teacher that she is the author in line 12), and finally by asking P1 to read aloud the sentence, thereby allocating the next turn to her. While doing so, the teacher turns her head to gaze at the sentence (lines 16-17) [still 1], in that way demonstrating that she anticipates P1’s reading of it and also projecting the next relevant action expected from herself, i.e. her evaluation of P1’s response. Kääntä (2010:122) describes this as embodied action projection. In lines 20-21, P1 provides that reading, after which the teacher offers only a minimal verbal indication that she has heard P1’s suggestion, but not confirming its correctness (line 24). Instead, the teacher searches for her sheet at her desk for five seconds, after which she addresses the entire class, looking up at the pupils [still 2] and asking whether there is anything to correct in the sentence (lines 25-35). Thus, this is another example of the teacher in the third turn performing a dispreferred next action, i.e. a negative evaluation. Once more, the teacher does not explicitly say that P1’s sentence is wrong, but she initiates repair. This time, however, she does not offer P1 the opportunity to self-repair, but instead initiates other-repair by addressing the entire class. Juggling the blackboard eraser in her hands, the teacher takes her time before she allocates the next turn to P2 by gazing at him and asking him whether the sentence on the board corresponds to his version (lines 36-40). P2, in lines 42-46, somewhat uncertainly states that it does, which the teacher accepts in line 48. She then allocates the next turn to P3 in the front row who has been sitting with his hand raised since P1 was done with her reading (line 22). P3 points out a spelling mistake (lines 53-56), which the teacher confirms in lines 58-60, both verbally and visually by drawing a connecting line between the words ‘your’ and ‘self’ on the blackboard [still 3].

The teacher then turns towards the class again, gazing around in search for a next speaker. She thereby indicates that there is still something to correct in the sentence. Fixing her gaze on P4, she mentions her name and thus allocates the next turn to her (lines 61-64). P4 merely states ‘answering’ in line 66, as opposed to P1’s ‘answer’ in line 21. The teacher now clearly confirms P4’s correction, both by repeating ‘answering’, stressing the ‘-ing’ at the end, and by writing ‘ing’ after ‘answer’ on the board (lines 68-69) [still 4]. Furthermore, she turns to P4 again and asks for
an explanation (lines 70-71). By her ‘arhh’ in line 73, P4 displays that she cannot provide such an explanation which the teacher apparently accepts in that she, after having briefly consulted her sheet on the desk, repeats her question in a general address to the entire class (lines 75-76). With gaze and address term the teacher allocates the turn to P5 (lines 78-80) who states that he does not know (line 82), after which the teacher sarcastically asks whether she is interrupting his line of thought while turning to gaze at the board again (lines 84-86). While drawing a square around the word ‘to’ in the sentence [still 5], the teacher discloses that the answer has something to do with this word (lines 90-93). Turning to face the class, she then asks what word class ‘to’ is here. Thus, the teacher again shows her preference for letting the pupils find the answer themselves in how she clues instead of stating the answer herself. Then via gaze, address term and a slight head nod the teacher selects P6 as the next speaker (lines 94-99). P6 briefly answers that it is a preposition (line 101) which makes the teacher gaze at the sentence on the board again and confirm his answer both verbally and visually by adding the abbreviation ‘prep.’ under the word ‘to’ [still 6].

What happens next is that the teacher, in lines 106-129, provides an explanation of why the ing-form has to be employed because ‘to’ is a preposition here. The teacher’s explanation unfolds as a stepwise and multimodal movement from the concrete sentence to the abstract level of the relevant grammatical rule and back to realising that rule in practice in the sentence. Thus, the teacher first reminds the pupils how they can decide whether a given ‘to’ is a preposition or not. She does this by invoking the grammatical rule of thumb that what follows after the preposition can in this case be replaced with a noun.\(^\text{221}\) While stating this, the teacher is gazing at the pupils and gesturing (lines 106-117). She then turns to orient towards the visible sentence on the blackboard again (line 118) and, pointing at ‘to’ [still 7], infers that it is a preposition (lines 119-121). Thereby, the teacher in her long evaluation here first repeats P6’s response and provides a reason for it. From here, she moves on to stating that a preposition cannot be followed by an infinitive but has to be followed by an ing-form (the present progressive participle). As she says this, she gazes from the sentence towards the class and also removes her hand from the sentence (lines 122-125). As such, the teacher might here be said to visually mark her verbal move from the concrete sentence to the more abstract grammatical rule that prepositions are followed by the present progressive participle. To some extent, the teacher’s gaze shift can be said to resemble the situations in the previous collection on group grammar teaching, where the teacher was shown to sometimes make a gaze shift away from the pupil’s worksheet towards the ceiling when moving to the abstract level of general grammatical rules. In lines 125-129, the teacher then returns to the concrete sentence, converting what she has just said into practice. This also happens both verbally and visually: she turns her gaze back at the sentence, verbally concludes that ‘to answering’ is correct and, at the same time, moves her right hand along the sentence. Again, then, a rule-oriented grammatical explanation is included here as part of the teacher’s positive evaluation.

\(^{221}\) The fact that this replacement is possible shows that ‘to’ in this context is exactly a preposition and not an infinitive marker. The teacher does not spell this out here, but leaves it implicit between the lines.
Thus, having concluded that ‘to answering’ is the correct solution, the teacher, in lines 130-144, turns to address another grammatical issue in the sentence to do with the use of auxiliary verbs. She does not state that P1’s use of ‘may’ is wrong, but uses the opportunity to review the pupils’ knowledge on modal verbs. During the rest of the extract clip, she allocates turns to three different pupils, receives two correct responses and writes these above ‘may’ on the blackboard.\textsuperscript{222}

Comparing the development of the interaction in this extract clip with the ones analysed earlier, it is clear that it makes a difference that this class is not dealing with word insertion into prefabricated sentences, but with entire sentences that have been translated from Danish into English by the pupils themselves. Though these sentences are also meant to rehearse a specific grammatical topic, the fact that the pupils themselves are to translate and write the entire sentence opens a slot for many other grammatical issues to occur. And this has interactional consequences in that the pupils’ grammatical focus is more dispersed, causing the interaction around one single sentence to contain not one overall IRE-sequence (with possible nested RE-sequences that share the quest for the one correct answer), but several subsequent RE-sequences that do not address the same thing in the sentence. Again, it is the teacher’s turn-allocations, and the establishment and breaching of local participation frameworks which they involve,\textsuperscript{223} that mark the transition between these RE-sequences. However, here the pupil responses that follow each other are not oriented towards the same issue, nor are they evaluated on the basis of one correct answer, but in their own right and in relation to the rules that they concern (for instance P3’s correction of a spelling mistake which the teacher evaluates positively in lines 53-60).

Still, I want to maintain that from the teacher’s actions there is visibly one grammatical issue that she wants to have brought to the fore; namely the use of the present progressive participle (the ing-form) after a preposition, i.e. the grammatical issue that the sentences are constructed to rehearse. This does not show as a dismissal of pupil suggestions that are not directed at this grammatical topic (for instance to be seen in her interaction with P3 in lines 48-60), nor does she herself refrain from shedding light on other issues (to be seen in her orientation towards the use of auxiliary verbs towards the end of the extract clip). Rather, it shows in how she, in lines 61-64 after P3’s correction, allocates the next turn to another pupil, thereby indicating that there is still more to correct in the sentence. And not least it shows in her way of evaluating pupil suggestions differently. Throughout the extract clip it can be observed that when a pupil suggestion is correct, she adds it to the sentence on the board (suggestions from P3, P4, P8 and P9), but it is only when evaluating P4’s suggestion (adding ‘-ing’ to ‘answer’) that she demands an explanation and, realising that she is not going to get this straight away, begins to give hints to the pupils by singling out ‘to’ in the sentence and asking for its word class. P6’s answer that it is a preposition is also added to the sentence, not in the sentence itself, but next to it as a metalinguistic piece of

\textsuperscript{222} The details of this last part of the extract clip are not included here as it would to a large extent repeat the analysis conducted so far.

\textsuperscript{223} I will not comment in detail on turn-allocation and establishment of local participation frameworks here since there is no variation in the ways that this is being done in this extract clip from the forms already designated, and since I have previously concluded that the turn-allocations in my data do not differ from the types found in more general studies of turn-allocation practices in L2 classroom interaction by e.g. Kääntä, 2010.
information, which serves to draw further attention to the connection between this preposition and the addition of ‘-ing’. After that follows the teacher’s own multimodal and relatively comprehensive grammatical explanation as described above. Clueing thereby seems to be a crucial feature of this teacher’s practice to be seen in how she performs stepwise movements through different clueing strategies, from bold invitations to marking off the trouble source to eventually providing the rule-oriented explanation herself. Thus, what I want to suggest here is that even though the grammatical course in this extract clip is not as firm as in the two previous ones, which is to be seen in the sequential co-construction of the interaction, the teacher is still on a quest for a specific grammatical answer and, as in the previous extracts, this quest also involves an explanation that is explicitly oriented towards the grammatical rules concerned.

Importantly, the teacher is not on her quest alone. The fact that the pupils continue to accept the teacher’s turn-allocations, and in some instances even bid for them themselves, can be seen as an indication that the pupils too know that the teacher is onto something specific and that they are willing to continue until that something has been found (and, in this case, even after it has been found, with the teacher’s focus on auxiliary verbs after her explanation of the use of ing-form after prepositions). In other words, this way of employing class grammar teaching is also a co-constructed endeavour which involves the reflexive awareness of all participants.

This use of class grammar teaching furthermore involves material objects which play a decisive role in how the interaction is initiated and made to progress. In the analysis of the two previous extracts, the worksheet was shown to be a reference point or underlying common focus of attention, whereas the blackboard was used by the teacher in the first extract clip, but not in the second one. In the present extract clip, it is the pupil’s sentence on the blackboard which functions as that reference point. The teacher begins the interaction by locating the sentence on the board and asking the author to read it aloud, in that way making everybody orienting towards it. And for the pupils the entire exercise is about spotting differences between that sentence and their own and having possible errors corrected. Obviously, this also requires the existence of worksheets on which the pupils have their own comparative sentences written, and though the extract clip moreover shows the teacher orienting towards her sheet a couple of times, this sheet is not in the same way functioning as an interactional structuring device as in the previous examples of class grammar teaching. The blackboard is. In that sense, the interaction in class grammar teaching considered so far is markedly mediated by material pedagogical objects.

Hence, also this extract clip points to a manifest material dimension of class grammar teaching which has not been addressed in existing research on grammar instruction. Nor have the specific multimodal ways in which teachers in concrete grammar teaching situations include abstract grammatical rules. Hence, the analyses in this collection so far suggests that in class grammar teaching, the interaction around concrete sentences located in tangible materiality (worksheet, blackboard) involves an orientation towards grammatical rules which is performed in a multimodal manner involving speech, gestures, gaze and materiality. In other words, grammatical rules are explicitly involved in the common quest for a correct answer, here as a way of explaining why P4’s ‘answering’ is correct.
In the following section, I analyse an example of class grammar teaching used to rehearse grammatical rules and add a new one in a way that is immediately turned into the well-known quest for correct grammatical answers to sentences located on a concrete and tangible worksheet.

7.5.3 Class grammar teaching to repeat what was taught the lesson before, to add a grammatical rule and to rehearse it in plenum

Teacher 2 is positioned in front of the blackboard, facing the class. She has a sheet in her hand, but does not look at it as she begins to repeat what they have talked about in their previous lesson with regard to adverbs.

Extract 85, clip 4.4
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
The extract clip is fairly long so in order to avoid too many repetitions, I offer certain analytical comments on how the individual steps of the IRE-sequence are being realised in this extract clip along with the paraphrasing of it. Subsequently, I single out the specific elements that I want to elaborate on.

In lines 4-15, the teacher repeats the central grammatical concepts from the previous lesson (genuine adverbs vs. derivatives). As she speaks to the entire class, she slowly begins to walk to her right and fixes her gaze on the back left corner of the class (seen from the back of the class). In line 17, she asks for an example of a genuine adverb and immediately after that (line 20) allocates the next turn to P1 who sits in the back left corner (not in the picture). Hence, the teacher’s selection of next speaker appears to take place during her pre-initiation and initiation here in that she is able to perform the allocation itself right after her initiation. P1 does not answer straight away so, still gazing at him, the teacher repeats her question in line 22. With his utterance in line 28, P1 indicates that he cannot remember, and so does P2 in line 31. In line 34, the teacher maintains that they have talked about this topic in the previous lesson, and then follows eight seconds during which the teacher scans the class. Only P3 has her hand raised which the teacher sees. Thus when P3 turns her head to gaze at the teacher (line 38) [still 1], the teacher allocates the next turn to her (line 40). In lines 43-46, P3 provides her answer, but she is not done before the teacher, by repeating P3’s answer, performs an evaluation and then goes straight into initiating a new IRE-sequence by posing a new question (lines 56-60). Again, her turn-allocation follows immediately after the initiation to P4 (not in the picture) who sits close to P3 and in whose direction the teacher is still gazing (lines 61-64). In lines 67-69, P4 provides a response, and in lines 72-75, the teacher evaluates that response positively by stating ‘yes’ and rephrasing P4’s answer slightly. Without going further into genuine adverbs, the teacher again initiates a new IRE-sequence right away, in lines 77-81, dealing with derivatives. During the three seconds that follow, P5 raises her hand and orients towards the teacher by turning her torso and gaze in the the teacher’s direction, the teacher scans the class and makes eye contact with P5 [still 2] and then allocates the next turn to her by stating her name (lines 82-88). Before P5 begins to answer, the teacher starts to walk towards the blackboard and her desk and gazes from P5 down
at her sheet (lines 89-90) [still 3], thereby projecting an adequate response from P5, which will enable the teacher to move on to something which is more directly related to the worksheet. In lines 94-104, P5 provides her response, gazing at the teacher. The teacher gazes back at her and nods approvingly meanwhile [still 4]. This embodied evaluation is followed by a brief verbal one which the teacher makes after she has placed her sheet on her desk and directed her gaze towards it (lines 105-109) [still 5].

In contrast to the previous extract clips analysed in this collection, none of the participants here are oriented towards specific sentences located materially on either a worksheet or the blackboard, and nor does the teacher, as in the previous extract clips, add a long, grammatical explanation to her third turn evaluation. The pace with which the teacher thus moves these IRE-sequences forward suggests that it is not genuine adverbs and derivatives in themselves that the teacher is interested in here, but that she rather wants to use the quick refreshing of rules as a backdrop for moving on to a related topic. And that is what the teacher turns to now, in stating that there are some words which function both as adjectives and adverbs in the same form (lines 109-116). After having stressed ‘in the same form’, the teacher gazes from the class down at her sheet and then verbally directs the pupils’ attention towards an exercise on the sheet.

After having herself taken a brief look at the exercise for ten seconds (lines 129-134), the teacher initiates the interaction around the first sentence by reading the sentence aloud. The two sentences in question in the extract clip read: ‘How early does the early train come in?’ and ‘You don’t have to drive fast in a fast car’ (see sheet K in the Appendices). The teacher’s initiation is expanded here compared to some of the earlier extract clips analysed in this collection in that she does not treat her reading aloud of the sentence as a summons for pupil bids in itself, but adds more to it by explaining that the exercise is about deciding which one of two identical words is an adjective and which one is an adverb in the concrete context. During her explanation, the teacher shifts from facing the class to writing ‘early’ on the blackboard224 [still 6] back to facing the class (lines 137-155). She ends her explanation by posing an explicit question (line 157) and in that way clearly marks that an IRE-sequence has been initiated and that it is now the pupils’ turn to provide a response.

However, before that second pair part can be realised, the teacher has to select a pupil and allocate the next turn to him or her. During her explanation, several pupils in the right side of the class have raised their hands, but the teacher keeps her gaze fixed on the left side of the class (lines 160-161) [still 7] and now allocates the turn to P6, who is sitting in that side (not in the picture). The allocation itself involves the pupil’s first name, a brief head nod towards her, the pupil’s surname, a brief point towards her and an invitation for P6 to start (lines 158-170). It is thus a marked and expanded allocation which involves more semiotic resources compared to the turn allocations considered so far. The reason for this is apparently that there is more than one pupil in the class holding the first name of P6 so the teacher has to make sure that the pupils

224 ‘Early’ is the example in the first task sentence of a word which can function both as an adjective and an adverb in the same form.
know who she is addressing. And since the teacher has momentarily forgotten the pupil’s surname and audibly searches for it, she makes sure that her allocation is still comprehensible by employing embodied allocation devices too, progressively incorporating both a head nod and a pointing gesture besides gaze.

Before P6 begins to answer, the teacher shifts her gaze towards her sheet. P6, however, does not provide a response, but instead answers the teacher’s question literally with a ‘no’, following a string of small consideration tokens (‘Ehm::: em em em em em’ ) (lines 174-177), which are probably uttered while P6 reads the sentence and decides that she cannot answer. In contrast to what happened in extract 32, clip 4.2, the teacher this time accepts a pupil refusal from a non-bidding pupil, laughs loudly and then scans the class again (lines 180-186) [still 8]. Several pupils sit with their hands raised, but the teacher picks P7 who is not bidding either (not in the picture) (lines 188-189). She allocates the turn to him by gazing at him, stating his name and inviting him to provide a response (lines 189-191). However, the same thing happens – P7 states that he would really like to take sentence number two, thereby in effect declining to provide an answer to the first sentence (line 194). Also this time, the teacher accepts the refusal in a joking manner (lines 197-207) and continues to scan the class for another pupil to be selected.

Many pupils have their hands raised, but again the teacher apparently chooses to allocate the next turn to a non-bidding pupil. Gazing at P8, the teacher calls his name and then asks whether he has learned it by now and can take number one (lines 210-215). P8 repeats the refusal of P6 and P7 by stating that he would prefer not to take number one (line 218). In line 221, the teacher again accepts the decline and then immediately begins to allocate the turn to P9 who is sitting next to P8. Her allocation consists of gaze, a truncated utterance of P9’s name, steps taken towards him [still 9] and then an invitation followed by a somewhat sarcastic comment that now P9 has entertained them about the sentence (lines 223-230). That comment serves to make the teacher’s allocation more of a command than an invitation as it appears to suggest that since P9 can sit and talk to his neighbours about the sentence, he can also do it in plenum. At the same time, the teacher’s way of allocating the turn also suggests that P9 is not bidding in this situation either.

Nevertheless, P9 chooses to attempt a response in lines 234-239. His response concerns the second appearance of ‘early’, and the teacher evaluates it positively in line 242 after which she asks about the first one. P9 explicitly states that he was in doubt about that (line 256), and in lines 259-299, P9 and the teacher agree that that it qualifies ‘come in’ as the main verb in the

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225 I take it that P7 is not bidding since he also declines to take the first sentence.

226 P8 is not in the picture either, but I assume that he is also a non-bidding pupil because of his subsequent refusal to provide a response to sentence number one.

227 The felt difficulty in determining what the first appearance of ‘early’ qualifies in the sentence and thereby whether it functions as an adverb or an adjective may be the reason why the other pupils refuse to have a go, along with the fact that it is the first sentence practising a new grammatical rule, thereby being entirely without precedent.
Once this is settled, the teacher, gazing down at her sheet, repeats the first part of the sentence, breathes in, begins a sentence and then, gazing from her sheet up at the class, recites the rule that a word which qualifies a verb is an adverb (lines 307-320).

The teacher then goes straight into initiating a new IRE-sequence around the second sentence on the sheet. This is done by reading the sentence aloud, gazing from the sheet at the class (lines 322-325). Once the teacher is done reading she turns her head to gaze at P7 (line 326) [still 10], who earlier said that he would really like to take sentence number two, and allocates the next turn to him by stating aloud that he requested that one. As she is verbally performing this allocation, she turns her head to gaze back at her sheet (lines 326-331) [still 11]. Drawing on Kääntä (2010), this gaze shift during the allocation indicates several things. With her gaze shift, the teacher makes herself available as a recipient of P7’s response in that the gaze shift towards the teaching material is what enables her to evaluate the response as it is produced. Kääntä (2010:123) finds that gaze shifts before or during turn-allocations characteristically take place in activities which involves teacher-led exercise checking by means of a book or other teaching materials, i.e. when the teachers have to compare pupil responses with the answers in the teaching materials. The interaction here has exactly evolved from one that was initially ordered on the basis of verbal teacher-led IRE-sequences alone to one in which the IRE-sequences are now anchored in the physical presence of task sentences in the same way as it has been shown to be the case in the previous extract clips in this collection. In such a situation, the teacher with her gaze shift during her allocation frames two interactional tasks at the same time: “First, she allocates the response turn to the pupil verbally, and, second, she orients towards the next relevant action that she is expected to perform – the evaluation – through her gaze shift” (Kääntä, 2010:122). It is thus possible to talk about a dual nature of the teacher’s turn-of-action here (122). Finally, the teacher’s gaze shift also displays that she expects the turn-allocation to be quick and unproblematic in that “the verbal address term is treated as sufficient in accomplishing the speaker change” (125).

From this long paraphrasing of the extract clip, several analytical observations can be made. Here, I want to focus on, in turn, the differing sequential organisation of the interaction in the beginning of the extract clip from the ones analysed previously and the consequences of this in terms of the construction of participation frameworks; the teacher’s repeated turn-allocation to non-bidding pupils; and the teacher’s orientation to grammatical rules and the sequential positioning of that orientation in this way of employing class grammar teaching.

As described above, the initial part of the interaction does not progress on the basis of task sentences on either a worksheet or the blackboard as it has been the case in the previous extract clips in this collection. There is thus no common reference point or material teaching object to mediate the interaction. Rather, the IRE-sequences which occur in the beginning are based on the teacher’s verbal questions alone, and furthermore they distinguish themselves from the ones

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228 I do not go further into this particular part of their interaction and therefore do not paraphrase it in detail here either. However, it is worth noticing the way that P9 reads the teachers minimal tokens that his guess is incorrect and reacts to that by quickly providing another guess (e.g. lines 262-269).
analysed earlier in the way that each step is made to progress quickly by the teacher. For instance, she selects the next speaker already during her initiation, evaluates that speaker’s response already while the pupil is still producing it, and refrains from expanding her evaluation with explanations of grammatical rules. The latter might be explained by the fact that what she rehearses with the class here are exactly grammatical rules in themselves (the characteristics of genuine adverbs and derivatives respectively) and not task sentences that indirectly draw on the rules. The teacher thus appears to be checking the pupils’ rote learning of grammatical rules, and, as stated, the pace with which she does this suggests that she wants to use the refreshing of rules as a backdrop for adding one more related rule.

In terms of the relation between omnirelevant and local participation frameworks that I have demonstrated so far, this has interesting consequences. Until now, I have focused on the ways in which local participation frameworks are continuously established and breached during class grammar teaching task sentence activities and regarded the omnirelevant participation framework mostly as an underlying precondition for the ongoing interaction all together. However, in the beginning of this extract clip, it becomes apparent that what happens is a shuttling between the omnirelevant participation framework comprising the teacher and all pupils in class, and provisional local participation frameworks consisting of the teacher and the pupil to whom she has, at a given point, allocated a turn. For instance, at the very beginning of the extract clip, the teacher does not address one pupil only, but all of them, to be seen in how she used the plural forms ‘we’ (Danish ‘vi’, lines 3-4) and ‘you’ (Danish ‘I’, lines 14-15) of personal pronouns. She thereby acts within the omnirelevant participation framework. Then, when she has asked for an example of a genuine adverb in line 17, the teacher shifts to establish a local participation framework with P1 (line 20). Once P3 (in another local participation framework with the teacher) has provided an answer to the question (line 46), the teacher again turns to address the entire class, again employing ‘we’ (lines 56-60).

This shows that the shuttling between omnirelevant and local participation frameworks is first and foremost in the teacher’s control because she manages the turn-taking. And this in turn demonstrates that class grammar teaching, and in particular this specific employment of it, is a type of grammar teaching in which the interaction is more teacher-controlled than what I have showed to be the case with group grammar teaching. Still, of course, this version of class grammar teaching too requires the pupils’ alignment with the IRE-sequences that the teacher initiates and thus their participation in and through the frameworks that she, as shown, shuttles between.229

And the pupils do align with the teacher’s IRE-sequences, for example to be seen in how some of them bid for a turn after her initiations, as well as in how even non-bidding pupils accept her

229 Kääntä (2010) discusses the placement of address terms in the teacher’s turn allocation, distinguishing between initial and final position. In relation to my focus on the shuttling between local and omnirelevant participation frameworks here, it can be said that placing the address term in final position, which the teacher does here (e.g. line 20, 64, 88), takes part in informing the pupils that she is speaking to all of them and demanding that they all participate (by listening). Had she instead placed the address term in initial position, she would risk that some of the non-allocated pupils would not be alert in the same way.
turn-allocations. However, as the interaction progresses and they move on to consider the task concerned with adverbs and adjectives in the same form, the teacher’s turn-allocations appear to be only successful in terms of achieving speaker change and not in terms of having the pupil providing the response sought for. This is so because the teacher repeatedly allocates the next turn to non-bidding pupils and because these pupils instead of providing a sentence-related response reply that they will not respond. As described above, this happens three times before the teacher finally gets a non-bidding pupil to attempt a response. And all three times, the teacher accepts the refusal. In contrast to extract 32, clip 4.2, the teacher thus appears to be more open to negotiating her demand of an answer here. She phrases her allocations as invitations, which according to Kääntä (2010) is a less face-threatening way of allocating turns in situations where the response is considered possibly difficult, and the allocation can therefore be problematic because it is easier for the pupil to withdraw from an invitation than from a command. And that is what P6, P7 and P8 do in each their own face-keeping way.²³⁰ It is not until the teacher turns to make a more command-like allocation (lines 228-230) that P9 consents to have a go.²³¹

In Kääntä’s study (2010), she first of all does not have many incidences of teacher turn-allocations to non-bidding pupils, and second, she finds that when it occasionally happens, the pupil concerned most often attempts a response anyway. She states,

> However, it is very seldom that the pupils decline to provide an answer when the teacher invites responses from them, including when they are not bidding for a turn nor gazing towards the teacher. This demonstrates, first of all, that pupils comply with the institutional turn-taking organization manifested in these activities. Second, pupils employ most of the opportunities offered for them to participate in classroom interaction – if they are able to provide the expected answer. It also illustrates that even though the teacher has the right to manage the interaction both participants affect how interaction is constructed.

²³⁰ My data here does not contradict Kääntä’s findings – the pupils do comply with the institutional turn-taking organisation in that they react to the teacher’s turn-allocation. The extract clip also shows examples of a non-bidding pupil employing the opportunities offered for him to participate (P9 in line 234 and 256). Thus, the three declining pupils probably simply do not feel that they are able to provide the expected answer, and this in turn affects how the interaction is constructed in that it forces the teacher to select another pupil several times.²³²

The final comment I want to make in connection with this extract clip concerns how and when the teacher’s orientation towards grammatical rules is made interactionally relevant. In the

²³⁰ P6 uses humour, P7 suggests another sentence that he would like to take instead, and P8 politely declines taking the first sentence.
²³¹ The teacher’s turn-allocation here is of disciplining or regulating character in that the teacher indirectly says that since P9 can sit and talk to his neighbours about the sentence, he can also do it in plenum. She must thereby be orienting to him having done something improper in class (talking to his neighbours).
²³² As already stated, is beyond the scope of this dissertation to thoroughly discuss the issue of why Teacher 2 often chooses to allocate the next turn to a non-bidding pupil as well as the pedagogical consequences of this. However, it is a fact that she does it more often than Teacher 1 and Teacher 3, and that it has visible interactional consequences.
previous analyses in this collection, I have shown how the teacher in his or her positive evaluation of the pupils’ responses to concrete task sentences includes an explanation which invokes the grammatical rules concerned. This way of going about it implies that the pupils must have had at least some form of prior feeling with the grammatical topic in question in order to conduct the task in the first place. Here, however, the teacher introduces a grammatical rule that the class has not touched upon before, and what I want to suggest is that this apparently reverts the way in which the teacher moves between abstract grammatical rules and concrete example work. Thus, the teacher has only very briefly mentioned the rule, stating, in lines 109-116, that some words function as both adverbs and adjectives in the same form, before she locates the rest of her introduction in exercise B on the pupils’ worksheet. It is on the basis of this exercise and particularly the first sentence in it that the teacher goes on to explain the outcome of this rule by stating how the pupils are meant to go about the task. Thereby the teacher is effectively letting practical work with a concrete task function as the pupils’ way towards an understanding of the grammatical rule. Seen from the perspective of the sequential organisation of the interaction, the teacher thus incorporates rule orientation in her initiation of an IRE-sequence here.

However, in this employment of class grammar teaching it is also possible to see the teacher’s rule orientation in her third turn evaluation in lines 299-320. At a point where the correct answer has been reached and she has repeated in a concluding manner a part of the sentence, the teacher nevertheless chooses to add a grammar rule-related comment before turning to the second sentence. Thus, she, in lines 309-320, states that a word which qualifies a verb is an adverb. She furthermore inserts the adverbial ‘as we all know’ (line 317) which alludes to this being a grammatical rule that the pupils are familiar with and therefore one that she has often put forward. Again, the teacher also marks her orientation to a general grammatical rule with a gaze shift away from the task sheet towards the class (line 313). The teacher gazes down at the sheet again in line 318 to be able to initiate the interaction around the following sentence by reading it aloud (line 322). Hence, the movement to the abstract level of general grammatical rules in the teacher’s third turn evaluation can also be seen in a situation in which the format of class grammar teaching is used to introduce a new grammatical rule and to rehearse it in plenum.

In the following section, I consider two extract clips in which class grammar teaching is employed to introduce or rehearse a grammatical topic prior to group work. This use of class grammar teaching is the one that I have observed the least, and particularly the latter of the two extract clips has to be considered a deviant case in that it is the only time I have observed Teacher 2 lecture in the way that she does here. However, I first analyse an example of how Teacher 3 rehearses a grammatical topic in plenum before letting the pupils work on the topic in groups.

7.5.4 Class grammar teaching to introduce or rehearse a grammatical topic prior to group work

Teacher 3 is positioned in front of the blackboard, facing the class and holding a sheet in her hand. She is rehearsing with class E the grammatical topic of English adverbs. Together, on the
basis of teacher questions and pupil answers, the class has just worked out a list on the board of what adverbs can contain information about (time, manner, place etc.), and Teacher 3 now turns to the grammar rules of what word classes adverbs qualify, as opposed to adjectives. The sheet in her hand is not a worksheet, but her own notes.

**Extract 104, clip 4.5**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
As with the previous extract clip, the one analysed here is very long. I therefore limit myself to conducting a selective paraphrasing and a concurrent analysis which serve to shed light on differences from and similarities with the previously analysed extract clips with regard to the accomplishment of the individual steps of the IRE-sequence. As will be shown, this sequential organisation is also interactionally brought into play in this extract clip, albeit not always in as stringent a manner because of more omnidirectional turn-allocations and thereby less controlled pupil responses.

In lines 8-37, the teacher prepares the production on the blackboard of a list of what adjectives and adverbs, respectively, qualify by writing on the board ‘adj. vs. adv.’ and underlining it [still 1], thereby making it a headline and a marker of what is in focus now. She does this while introducing verbally how they are to go about it. Pointing at her headline [still 2], she then initiates the first IRE-sequence (lines 39-41). In lines 47-111, it is first settled that the class has dealt with this topic before, after which the teacher allocates a turn to two pupils after each other. Both provide a response that is evaluated negatively by the teacher. In lines 112-117, the teacher selects P3 who is sitting with her hand up as the next speaker and allocates the turn to her, simply by stating her name.233 P3 is bent forward and has her face turned towards her neighbour pupils, engaged in talking quietly with them (line 115) [still 3], but when the teacher addresses her, she takes down her hand, sits back, meets the teacher’s gaze (line 119-120) [still 4] and then provides her response which simply consists of the Danish version of the word class adjectives (lines 122-124). The response is thereby wrong in that adjectives cannot qualify adjectives.

Next follows the teacher’s evaluation which evolves in a noteworthy way. First, in lines 127-130, the teacher appears to be evaluating P3’s response positively in that she both repeats the answer with falling intonation, as if confirming it, and turns to write it on the board beneath the underlined ‘adj.’ [still 5]. However, before she actually starts writing, she realises that P3’s response was incorrect, turns her gaze back at P3 [still 6] and informs her that she was mistaken (lines 132-138). With her right hand still pointed towards the place on the board where she wants to list the words that adjectives qualify, the teacher scans the class briefly and then apparently decides that she has to go about it in another way in order to receive any correct answers. This is to be seen in how the teacher, in line 144, with her loud ‘OKA:Y’ signals a stop of her current line of inquiry and then, in lines 150-152, asks for a concrete example of an adjective. This is done while performing a wide gesture with both hands raised and the palms turned towards each...

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233 Kääntä (2010) also finds that in situations where a pupil is bidding, an address term is enough for the teacher to conduct a turn-allocation, also when there is no reciprocal gaze.
other (lines 145-148) [still 7]. I read this gesture here as signifying a combination of resignation and ‘back to basics’. Employing body movement, gesture and speech in a synergetic manner, the teacher thereby effectively brings the IRE-sequence to an end and, at the same time, initiates a new one which is intended to arrive at the same conclusion in terms of specifying which word classes adjectives can qualify, but which takes more steps to get there in the sense that what was first a revising of rules has now turned into example work. In the following part of the interaction, the class moves from a concrete adjective, to a sentence including that adjective, to deciding which word that adjective qualifies in the sentence, to deciding the word class of this qualified word, to designate the Latin term of the word class, to finally writing that term beneath the underlined ‘adj.’ on the blackboard (lines 155-209). Thus, what happens here is that the teacher, on the basis of her assessment of how the interaction develops in co-construction by herself and the pupils, decides to move from grammatical rules to exemplifying practice in order to be able to pinpoint those rules, thereby switching to an inductive approach.

This approach is maintained throughout the rest of the extract clip, and on several occasions it seems that the teacher is so keen on having the pupils work their way from concrete examples to the lists, which she wants to produce on the board, that she indirectly provides them with the answers needed to perform that move. Thus, in lines 176-178, when asking what word and word class ‘horrible’ qualifies in the sentence ‘you are horrible’, she stresses ‘you’ several times, thereby marking it out in the sentence. Similarly, in lines 305-349, she explains the etymological meaning of ‘adverbs’ and explicitly states that ‘adverbs’ means words that qualify verbs, after which she poses her question again concerning what word classes adverbs qualify and adds that now they should all be able to answer – implying that she just gave them the answer. Two other examples occur in lines 214-221 and 548-577, respectively. In lines 214-221, the teacher wants to have nouns added to the list of what adjectives can qualify. On the basis of the previous sentence, she constructs the sentence ‘it is a horrible man’ and asks which word in the sentence ‘horrible’ says something about. In providing the example sentence, the teacher makes a scared face and shakes her head slightly (line 217) [still 8]. She thereby also adds an embodied dimension to her attempt at concretising the topic, catching the pupils’ attention and making them laugh. She then allocates the response turn to P8 who answers ‘nouns’ (line 228), thereby jumping over the steps of explicitly stating what word in the sentence is being qualified and deciding the word class of that word. This makes the teacher evaluate his response positively in line 231, but also has him go back and state which concrete word in the sentence is being qualified. P8 answers in line 235, after which the teacher makes the final moves of stating that ‘man’ is a noun and, consequently, adding ‘nouns’ to her list on the board of what word classes adjectives can qualify (lines 238-240) [still 9]. Hence, it appears that it is the teacher’s intention to make the way from examples to rules crystal clear and to keep it as simple as possible. Even if this requires that she has to provide some of the example sentences herself.

Likewise, in lines 548-577, the class has turned to focus on what word classes adverbs can qualify, and a pupil has just provided the sentence ‘she is very beautiful’ as an example of how an adverb
can qualify an adjective.\textsuperscript{234} The teacher then asks for a sentence in which an adverb says something about another adverb (lines 548-550) and scans the class to select the next speaker. Several seconds pass, and only a few pupils raise their hands (lines 552-554) [still 10]. Apparently, the teacher is not satisfied with so few bids in that she, instead of allocating the response turn to a bidding pupil, prolongs her initiation by constructing the sentence ‘she sings beautifully’ herself, based on the previous example sentence (line 557). She goes on to explain what ‘beautifully’ qualifies and asks whether an adverb can be added here too (lines 559-563), after which she explicitly and with a smile states that now she hopes that she has made it easy for the pupils (lines 565-567).\textsuperscript{235} The teacher has thereby prepared the ground for another attempt at allocating a response turn to a pupil, so she scans the class again to select the next speaker. However, still only a few pupils raise their hands, and this now makes the teacher ask directly for more bids in line 571. She follows this up by repeating her sentence, now making a noticeable pause between ‘sings’ and ‘beautifully’ (line 573). She thereby verbally constructs an empty slot in the sentence that can be taken up by an adverb and as such again to a considerable extent channels the pupils towards finding the correct answer.

Relating these analytical observations with the interactional development of IRE-sequences, I find that the teacher’s switch to an inductive, example-based approach as well as her attempts at getting more pupils involved in bidding have consequences for how each step of some of the sequences is accomplished. As described above, the teacher’s way of doing the example work herself and almost providing the pupils with the answers cause the initiation in several sequences to be prolonged (e.g. lines 305-349 and 548-577), whereas the response turn in turn is very brief (e.g. lines 185, 202, 228, 235, 354, 585) and sometimes even redundant (especially line 354, but also partly in line 235).

With regard to the teacher’s evaluation of the pupil responses, I described above how she, in line 231, makes P8 go a few steps back in his induction and stay at the example level at first. Thus, in contrast to how earlier extract clips have shown that teachers often move to grammatical rules in their evaluation of pupil responses, the teacher here in her evaluation asks a pupil to do the opposite – but only in order for herself to take it to the level of grammatical rules that she can write on the board (lines 238-240). As such, the evaluation is still used in this sequence as the interactional space in which an expansion from concrete examples to general rules can take place, both verbally and in a material manifestation on the board. In the sequence in which the teacher herself provides the answer ‘verbs’ and afterwards asks the pupils to effectively do the same, her evaluation of the incoming pupil response is very short (line 360); most likely because she has already provided the etymological explanation in her initiation. But in terms of making visible the grammatical rule that adverbs can qualify verbs, it is again done at this point as part of the teacher’s evaluation (lines 361-365). In the sequence where the teacher asks the pupils to insert an adverb that qualifies another adverb into a sentence suggested by her, P17’s response turn only

\textsuperscript{234} I return to this sequence below.

\textsuperscript{235} By stating that she has made it easy, the teacher might be referring to the fact that she has modelled the prior example sentence, simply converting the adjective ‘beautiful’ to the adverb ‘beautifully’, and thereby made it possible for the pupils to insert the same adverb, ‘very’, in the same way that it was done in the previous sentence.
consists of the adverb ‘very’ (line 585). However, the teacher starts her evaluation in line 588 by stating ‘she’, i.e. the first word in her suggested sentence, after which she confirms P17’s answer but asks her to state how the sentence would sound. It thus seems that the teacher had projected that P17 would respond by repeating the sentence with ‘very’ inserted into it, and that she could then evaluate P17’s response by repeating that sentence. Seeing that she cannot, she asks the pupil to state the sentence which she does in line 594, and the teacher then confirms her answer, in lines 597-601, by merely stating ‘yes exactly’. Hence, she does not expand any further on her evaluation here, explaining the grammatical rules behind. The reason for this might be that she has already, in lines 486-487, added adverbs to her list of word classes that adverbs can qualify, but at that point did not ask for an example sentence. Only later she apparently realises that they forgot this and therefore goes back to it.

The interactional practice in class grammar teaching to orient towards the more general and abstract level of grammatical rules in the evaluation stage of the IRE-sequence thus also seems to take place in these less straight forward IRE-sequences. Furthermore, the extract clip contains several examples of IRE-sequences that are more similar to the ones analysed earlier with regard to the evaluation part, thereby further confirming the existence of this interactional practice across the different classes. To provide an illustration of this, I consider the IRE-sequence which commences in line 373 and ends with the teacher’s embodied and verbal initiation of a new sequence in lines 468-474. In line 412, the teacher observes that P14 has her hand raised, and, in lines 416-419, she allocates the next turn to her by means of a pointing gesture and an address term. P14’s answer is a response to an initiation which the teacher has performed in lines 373-380, by asking what other word classes besides verbs adverbs can qualify.236 P14’s response is formed as a question, and the teacher evaluates it positively, in lines 426-430, by repeating it in a declarative form and adding ‘sentences’ (Danish ‘sætninger’) on the board beneath the underlined ‘adv.’. She then asks P14 to provide an example of an entire sentence being qualified by an adverb (line 432). Thus, it is clear that the teacher insists on adding the concrete example dimension, also in a situation in which the responding pupil can in fact provide the answer in the way that the teacher was initially after. P14 hesitates a little, and the teacher returns to the first list that they have produced on the board (before the beginning of this extract clip) and suggests that P14 uses ‘luckily’ (Danish ‘heldigvis’) (lines 435-447). P14 accepts this and manages to construct an example sentence in lines 449-454. The teacher’s explanation follows in lines 456-467. First, she aligns with P14’s response by praising her and repeating her sentence. She then goes into a brief explanation about how ‘luckily’ qualifies the entire sentence, in that way relating the example with the rule that she just wrote on the board in the same way that I have shown it to be the case in other extract clips.237

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236 The IRE-sequence is momentarily disrupted in lines 385-415 by P13 who is allowed to pose an aside question. I will not consider this aside further here.

237 The IRE-sequence which runs from line 491 to the embodied and verbal initiation of a new one in lines 543-550 is almost identical with the one analysed here, particularly in the evaluation part where the teacher first evaluates the pupil response positively by repeating it and then relates the concrete example to the grammatical rules concerned in the same manner as I have shown it to be done in the sequence here as well as in other extract clips. Note that the teacher in line 538 accidentally confuses the terms adverbs and adjectives and states that ‘very’ is an adjective which
Having now considered the interactional implications of this employment of class grammar teaching for each of the three steps in the IRE-sequences, there are two more things that I want to provide an analytical comment on in order have considered the same topics in this extract clip as in the preceding ones. The first thing stays within the realm of the IRE-sequence and concerns the insertion sequence ‘pupil bids – teacher selection and allocation’ in relation to the ongoing construction of omnirelevant and local participation frameworks. The second thing concerns the progression of the class grammar teaching conducted here, which differs from how and on the basis of what the previously considered extract clips have been shown to progress, and which can furthermore interestingly be related to the verbal ending of the extract clip where the teacher informs the pupils that they have to learn by heart the diagram that they have finally arrived at on the blackboard.

Above, I have already commented upon some of the teacher’s turn-allocations which to a large extent are identical with the ones analysed in the previous extract clips as well as some of the types found by Kääntä (2010). The extract clip contains several such allocations that are preceded by teacher initiation, pupil bidding and teacher selection, and that to a large extent are accomplished by at least an address term (e.g. lines 67, 90, 117, 199, 225, 299, 419, 478, 497, 526, 582). On these occasions, the address terms serve to clearly mark – to the pupil in question as well as to the rest of the class – who the teacher is now primarily interacting with, i.e. the address terms serve to establish a local participation framework between the teacher and the addressed pupil. However, in this extract clip the teacher in some instances does not provide such clear turn-allocations, and this has consequences for the ongoing construction of participation frameworks and as such for the further development of the interaction around the grammatical topic being rehearsed.

In these instances, the teacher turns preceding a pupil response are characterised by the use of plural, non-personified address terms such as ‘you’ (Danish: ‘I’) (lines 150-152, 252-256), ‘any of you’ (lines 276-280), ‘you all’ (lines 343-349), or by simply being phrased as open questions that are not addressed at any one pupil in particular, but rather the entire class (lines 161-163, 173-178, 548-550). Similarly, the teacher’s gaze is not focused on a specific pupil in these instances. Rather, she gazes at the class in general or scans the class from side to side. As such, it can be argued that the teacher in these instances appears to be addressing the entire class at once with her questions, i.e. she maintains and acts within the omnirelevant participation framework. At least that seems to be how the pupils interpret it and shape their actions accordingly. This is evident in how all these instances are followed by several pupils talking at the same time (lines 154-158, 166, 182, 258, 283, 552) or by a response provided by a pupil to whom the teacher has not allocated a turn (e.g. line 354). Seen from a slightly different perspective, one could argue that strengthens beautiful. However, it passes unnoticed in the ongoing interaction and it is clear from the co-text that she means adverb.

258 In all these examples, the teacher arrives at the pupil when conducting the verbal part of the allocation and that verbal part includes an address term. In two examples (lines 478, 526), the teacher adds a comment to her address term.
the teacher turns preceding these rather chaotic pupil responses are in fact not turn-allocations in themselves, but rather part of the teacher’s initiation which the pupils then treat as general turn-allocations or invitations to everybody to talk, before the teacher has even selected a pupil and visibly as well as audibly allocated a turn to him/her. In this perspective, the pupils thereby skip the sequential steps of pupil-bidding and teacher-selection, and the teacher allows them to do so (she does not stop the ongoing interaction, but treats the responses as stepping stones to move on in the interactional construction of the list of grammatical rules on the blackboard).

In any case, the result is that the interaction in the extract clip is marked by several shifts between omnirelevant and local participation frameworks and that these shifts do not appear as teacher-controlled as for example the shifts analysed in extract 85, clip 4.4. Put simply, in this extract clip turns at talk are not allocated to non-bidding pupils as was to a large extent the case in the previous extract clip, but non-bidding pupils provide responses or talk with each other during the IRE-sequences. As a consequence, the class appears rather noisy, and the teacher has to ask them to keep quiet several times. Furthermore, the practice of bidding in this particular class appears to be less learned among the pupils than in the other extract clips in this collection. Twice in their interaction, the teacher addresses this practice of bidding. First it happens explicitly, in line 364, where she tells P11 that she has to raise her hand, implying that she has to wait until she is asked to provide a response. At this point, however, the teacher herself has just provided the entire class with the response and stated that they are all able to answer the question as described above, just as several instances have already passed during which a non-bidding and non-selected pupil has provided a response to the teacher’s question.

The second time occurs in an indirect manner, in line 571, in which the teacher, having scanned the class, asks whether there are not any more pupils who can answer the question that she has posed and that she herself explicitly regards as being easy. This also indirectly touches upon the need for the pupils to perform bids once she has made an initiation, but again, seeing that large parts of the interaction have already been conducted without a range of pupil bids after each initiation, it is perhaps not so incomprehensible that many pupils refrain from raising their hands. The teacher is thus not consistent in her insistence on interactional discipline, probably having to balance it with the need to move forward with the actual topic being taught. Again, from my

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239 I do not think that the less learned practice of bidding is related to the specific employment of class grammar teaching here, but rather that it has to do with this particular class and perhaps with the fact that it is a first grade class, whereas the other classes I have followed are second and third grade classes. In addition, Teacher 3 told me during my observations that many of the teachers in the class complain about the noise level and the lack of interactional discipline and that they hold meetings about these issues regularly. In order to improve the learning environment, they operate with fixed seating arrangements where the pupils are told where to sit by the teachers, and where these arrangements are then altered on a regular basis. Furthermore, due to the high number of pupils in the class, Teacher 3 often divides them and sends first one half and later the other half outside to do group work on their own while she teaches the other half in the class. With so many precautions taken it is clear that there is a felt lack of institutional discipline, and as such it is no surprise that it is visible in the interaction. But it is interesting that the teacher herself (apart from asking them to keep quiet) in the instances considered here often frames the interaction in an omnirelevant participation framework and in most cases accepts that responses are provided in a more chaotic way without pupil-bidding and teacher-selection + allocation preceding them. It is beyond the scope of this dissertation to discuss whether this is a good or bad thing pedagogically.
non-normative standpoint, these observations should not be read as implied criticism, but rather as suggesting that there might be interactional reasons why the pupils do as they do.

Nevertheless, the interaction does not at any point break down. Despite these much less straightforward IRE-sequences, teacher and pupils manage to follow each other and perform rather successful shifts between omnirelevant and local participation frameworks. It just seems that more interactional work is needed, particularly by the teacher, and this also has to do with the design of the task being carried out.

In the analysis of the previous extract clips in this collection, I have highlighted the material dimension of the tasks carried out, consisting of preconfigured sentences on either a worksheet or on the blackboard. Furthermore, I have found that due to this materiality, the sentences come to play a prominent role in the ongoing contextual configuration as a common reference point or underlying focus of attention. The preconfigured sentences, as well as the chronological order of their run-through, sequentially order the multimodal interaction that evolves around them in that new IRE-sequences are initiated with every new sentence. However, in this extract clip there are no preconfigured sentences, and the task consists of having the relevant grammar rules pinpointed before turning to group work on example sentences on a worksheet. Nevertheless, the teacher still seeks to add a material and more tangible dimension to these rules by listing them on the blackboard as they are being brought forward in the ongoing interaction. Thus, it appears that the progression in this extract clip is prompted by the simultaneous making of a list of grammar rules. Though the list is not visibly preconfigured, it thereby still works as a common reference point and as such plays a role in the contextual configuration.

The fact that the list is only in the making as well as the fact that the pupils are apparently not simply able to recite the rules in the way that the teacher prompts them to do initially demand extra interactional work by the teacher. This is why she changes her way of arriving at the lists from having the pupils recite to having them work inductively, which is to be seen in the described alterations in particularly the initiation of some of the sequences, being markedly expanded and containing the teacher’s own concrete example work. It is thereby to a large extent the teacher’s verbal manoeuvres that guide the pupils to participate in and accomplish this task, just as it is the verbal example sentences and the induction on the basis of these that come to function as the key to having the relevant rule added on the blackboard. Concrete sentences are thus employed here to solve a more abstract task, which can be seen as the opposite of the group grammar teaching and the class grammar teaching considered so far in which abstract, grammatical rules are employed to solve or explain concrete sentences. And yet, the orientation towards the abstract rules can still also be found in the teacher’s evaluation turn as shown above. It is noteworthy that the teacher, towards the end of the extract clip, informs the pupils that they have to learn the list by heart – it has to be stored inside their heads and she intends to take them up on that in their next lesson together (lines 606-656). In a way, this brings the teacher back to how the task of listing the rules on the board was initially intended: as a revision of the rules which she had hoped or expected that the pupils had already learned by heart and which should therefore have been done fairly quickly. This, in turn, indicates that by having the rules listed on
the board, the teacher wanted to prepare the grounds for the pupils’ ensuing group grammar work, and that then brings this task back to the deductive approach seen so far in which the pupils, on the basis of grammatical rules, are supposed to reach correct answers in concrete sentences.

In the final extract clip to be considered in this collection, Teacher 2 is also rehearsing grammar rules of adjectives as opposed to adverbs prior to group work with class C. As already mentioned, I regard this extract clip as a deviant case. There are two reasons for this. Firstly, because Teacher 2 in my data seldom uses class grammar teaching before group grammar teaching. In fact, in the data there is only one other example of this, which is extract 9, in which she rehearses punctuation with class B. Secondly, I regard this extract clip as deviant because it is the only extract clip in my data in which there is relatively much teacher abstract grammar talk before the pupils are actively addressed and included. However, it should be noted that also in this case, the teacher ends up with pupil involvement and example work though I do not include that in the extract clip here in order to avoid repetition. As the extract clip begins, the teacher is positioned behind her desk, the screen for the overhead projector is down, and the projector is on. (A copy of the teacher’s transparency (sheet L) can be seen in the Appendices).

Extract 36, clip 4.6
(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
Since this extract clip varies sequentially from the previous ones, the analysis here is not conducted on the basis of the individual steps of the IRE-sequence. As will be shown, the teacher is the only speaker during the entire clip, and it is not until the very end that she seeks to activate the pupils by initiating an IRE-sequence. My focus here is on how the teacher’s one-way grammar teaching is accomplished multimodally and thereby still has a discernible material and embodied dimension to it; on the transparency as the common reference point in the progression of the interaction; on the participation framework which the teacher initiates the construction of and acts within; and lastly on how this way of rehearsing grammar rules is different from the one in the previous extract clip. Due to the less complicated interactional organisation in this extract clip, paraphrasing and analysis take place concurrently.

240 In the previous collections, I have analysed several episodes from the ensuing group grammar teaching and showed how the rules on the blackboard are precisely made relevant as pedagogical resources in the pupils’ attempt to arrive at a correct answer to the sentences on their task sheet (see extract 102, clip 2.6; extract 99, clip 2.8; and also extract 100, clip 1 which was briefly considered in the introductory chapter of the thesis).
241 By regarding this as a deviant case I do not mean to say that Teacher 2 in general rarely introduces grammatical topics in class prior to group work. I can only speak on the basis of the visits that I have paid and the recordings that I have made, but these where made over a longer period with unobserved lessons taking place between every two observed ones. In that sense, it might well be that the teacher has introduced new grammatical topics in the same manner as here during one or more of these unobserved lessons. In one of my many informal conversations with Teacher 2, I recall mentioning to her that by not following all her lessons with one class in a shorter period of time I probably did not get insight into all the ways in which she taught grammar, e.g. the way in which she introduced a new grammatical topic. It was during the visit after this talk that I recorded the extract clip analysed here, so there is a chance that the teacher has been wanting to show me how she would do this. Still, in viewing my recordings as primary data, this way of employing class grammar teaching is rarer than e.g. the version in which it is used to follow up on group work.
In lines 4-43, the teacher verbally prepares the pupils for what they are going to do now by informing them about the topic, asking them to close down their computers and orient their attention towards her and the projector screen, as well as stating from where she has the information that she is about to provide. At the same time, she makes the final material and visual preparations by finding her transparency and placing it onto the overhead projector, covering most of the text with another piece of paper, switching off the blackboard light and checking that the text is visible to the pupils by gazing several times at the screen. Having thereby multimodally prepared the ground for actually orienting towards the grammatical topic, the teacher, in lines 46-72, begins by telling the pupils about genuine adverbs. During her talk she gestures several times in ways that are synchronised with her speech and “serve to augment information visually that is being provided auditorily” (Taleghani-Nikazm, 2008:229), thereby facilitating pupil comprehension (Taleghani-Nikazm, 2008:231). For instance, in lines 54-58, in which the teacher states that genuine adverbs have not been another word class before, she simultaneously shakes her head slightly and moves her right hand from side to side in a declining manner, in that way embodying her verbal negation [still 1 and still 2]. Furthermore, in lines 68-72, while stating that the only problem that genuine adverbs would perhaps cause concerns where to put them, she raises her right hand and performs an iconic gesture by pretending to place something onto something else [still 4]. The act of ‘putting the adverbs in the right place’ is thereby made visible and tangible. Hence, there is a clear embodied side to the teacher’s monologue here.

Moreover, the teacher’s monologue is also located materially in the artefacts that she employs here. She visibly orients towards what is written on the transparency several times during lines 43-73, to be seen in how she turns her gaze away from the class towards the screen in e.g. lines 59, 65, 73. These gaze shifts are not accidental, but carefully coordinated with the progression of her speech. E.g. in line 59, the teacher’s gaze shift to the screen takes place right before she begins to provide a range of examples of genuine adverbs [still 3]. These examples are written on the transparency and thereby on the screen, so with the teacher’s gaze shift she herself both gets access to the list of examples and, in an embodied way, signals to the pupils that they can follow her speech on the screen. Similarly, in line 73-74, the teacher gazes at the screen and begins to walk towards the projector while stating that genuine adverbs would not give rise to a lot of problems (line 76). She then, in lines 77-78, turns her head to gaze from the screen down at the projector and bends towards it while beginning to initiate the other type of adverbs, i.e. derivatives. This is delicately done by verbally making a transition that repeats some of the words in her previous sentence – she goes from talking about those that would not give rise to problems to those that might give rise to problems (line 79) – and by moving the cover sheet on the projector at the same time so that information on this other type of adverbs becomes visible (lines 80-81) [still 5]. Hence, I find it possible to say that it is not only the teacher’s gestures, but also the material objects of overhead projector, transparency and screen, as well as the embodied movements performed by the teacher to orient towards and operate these objects which “serve to augment information visually that is being provided auditorily” (Taleghani-Nikazm, 2008:229).
The teacher’s talk about derivatives runs from line 79 to line 122. Again, she performs gaze shifts, gestures and other embodied movements and orients towards the screen several times during these lines. E.g. in lines 97-103, these are all combined in how the teacher first gazes up at the screen, then stops the production of a sentence and makes a re-start, which includes a brief pointing gesture towards the screen [still 6], while stating that she has put a couple of examples on the transparency and beginning to list these. The teacher thereby demonstrably follows the chronology suggested by the transparency and, again, furthermore directs the pupils’ attention with her embodied movement in a way that supplements her simultaneous verbal speech. The transparency and its appearance on the screen thus function as the common reference point in the progression of the interaction in the same way that task sheets or sentences on the blackboard have been shown to do in previous extract clips. Hence, the materiality of class grammar teaching cannot be disregarded.

Yet, with her one-way communication, the teacher is not more bound to the transparency than she can choose to make asides, and this is what she does in lines 123-155, where she interjects a brief description of the adjectives which end in ‘–ly’, but which are nevertheless adjectives and not adverbs. Though the teacher in this way departs temporarily from the visible support of the transparency, she still seeks to visualise her remarks by walking to the blackboard, writing ‘lovely’ and ‘lively’ on the board and then underlining ‘ly’ in both words (lines 136-149) [still 7]. Again these embodied actions are carefully coordinated with her simultaneous speech. Thus, what happens here is that the teacher includes the blackboard and her writing on it in the contextual configuration, thus maintaining the embodied and material dimensions of her teaching even in a situation where she has left the beaten track slightly.

In lines 156-170, the teacher first adjusts the cover sheet on top of the transparency again and then turns to the next point now visible on the screen – what adverbs can qualify [still 8].\textsuperscript{242} She mentions the four different things and then walks to the projector to adjust the cover sheet anew in order to show the examples that she now wants to include. Hence, in lines 171-189, she begins to introduce the first example sentence, but stops to complain about how dirty the projector is. She then returns to the first sentence, reads it aloud and finally initiates an IRE-sequence by asking what the underlined adverb qualifies in the sentence, and by allocating the response turn to a pupil with an address term. With this turn-allocation the teacher initiates the establishment of a local participation framework for the first time in the extract clip. Up until now she has been addressing the entire class and thus acted within an omnirelevant participation framework. This is different from the ongoing construction of local participation frameworks and the shuttling between omnirelevant and local participation frameworks that, as shown, take place in the other extract clips considered in this collection. The reason for this difference is obviously the teacher’s monologue and the consequential non-existent pupil involvement in the part of extract 36 considered here.

\textsuperscript{242} Note that in line 161 Teacher 2 too confuses the terms adjective and adverb. However, from the co-text as well as the transparency, it is clear that she refers to what adverbs can qualify.
However, the monologue alone does not ensure the establishment and maintenance of an omnirelevant participation framework comprising the teacher and all the pupils present. On the contrary, it requires active work by the teacher as well as compliant participation from the pupils. Thus, throughout the extract clip, the teacher uses her gaze to hold the pupils’ attention – whenever she does not temporarily look at the screen or the projector, her gaze is on the class. Moreover, she consistently employs pronouns that include the pupils in plural form (e.g. ‘we’ in lines 4, 7, 8, 46, 48, 122, 135, 155, 159, 175, 183; ‘you’ (pl.) in lines 14, 15, 19, 20, 21, 24, 39, (72), (85), (86), (89), 91, 98, 112, 129, 137, 139, 140, 177; ‘us’ in line 171). By contrast, she uses ‘I’ in only four instances (in lines 32, 35, 104, 183), and this is mostly when commenting on what she has written on the transparency. Not least, she initially explicitly claims the full attention of the pupils by telling them that they do not have to write anything down and, consequently, are to close their computers to ensure that they will look in the correct direction (lines 14-20). In that way, the teacher constructs herself and the screen as the focal points of attention and the pupils as active listeners, and thereby also signals to them that it is the omnirelevant participation framework which frames their interaction just now.

From the teacher monologue (non-existent IRE-sequences) and the ongoing maintenance of the omnirelevant participation framework, it is clear that this way of going through a grammatical topic prior to group work differs markedly from how it was done in the previous extract clip. In my analysis of said extract clip, I showed how Teacher 3 switched to an inductive approach because her attempts at pupil involvement failed in that the pupils apparently could not simply remember the grammar rules that she wanted reproduced on the blackboard. In the present extract clip, Teacher 2 does not test the pupils’ memory, but goes through the rules herself before beginning to practise them with the pupils via example sentences. Thus, Teacher 2 here appears to prefer to have the rules put forward first and then turns to practical examples. Another difference lies in how this teacher has the rules written down on a transparency for visual support from the beginning, whereas Teacher 3, as stated, composed the list on the blackboard as they went along.

Yet, I find that these differences point to two fundamental similarities: 1) In both extract clips (as well as in all the other extract clips in this collection) it is possible to see a repeated interactional practice of orienting towards grammar rules. This latter section deals with the rehearsing of a grammatical topic prior to group grammar work, and this has the interesting consequences that the related grammatical rules are brought even more to the fore in that the objective with the class grammar teaching here seems to be having those rules pinpointed in themselves, so that the pupils can work from them when turning to group work. In the sections on class grammar teaching following group grammar teaching and on class grammar teaching used to follow up on homework, I have showed how the rule orientation is typically manifested in the teachers’ evaluation of pupil responses as a way of exactly taking the concrete examples to the state of general rules. Class grammar teaching is thus very much about interactionally orienting towards

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I have put these four uses of ‘you’ in parentheses because I regard them as examples of generic you and thereby not necessarily as serving the function of including the entire class.

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PART FOUR: PRACTICE DIMENSION – ANALYSIS

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and following grammatical rules. 2) In all extract clips, also in the present one which does not initially include concrete examples, the rule following has a noticeable embodied and material dimension to it. In each their own ways, the teachers employ their bodies and the material objects they have at hand to make the rule orientation as clear and tangible as possible. This happens in every class grammar teaching extract and to an extent where I find it reasonable to conclude that these nonverbal resources play such an important role in the teaching that ignoring their impact in studies of the effect of L2 grammar instruction on L2 acquisition gives a wrong picture of what actually happens in the L2 classroom.

7.5.5 Collection summing-up
This collection has demonstrated how class grammar teaching is managed and made to progress. The analysis has shown the various ways in which class grammar teaching as a mode of grammar teaching is being used, and it has also disclosed the common interactional practices that cut across extract clips, teachers and classes. In order to conduct such a comparative analysis, I have used the concept of the IRE-sequence as a central analytical tool in approaching the sequential structure of the interaction in class grammar teaching. The IRE-sequence alone has not been sufficient to investigate the complex contextual configurations that are brought into play to accomplish each step in the sequential organisation, as well as the participation frameworks within which these are configured, but accompanied by the perspectives of embodied interaction analysis and microethnography, these contextual configurations and participation frameworks have been approachable and have, in turn, revealed certain interactional practices that appear to be in play in all the five observed classrooms as a result of the co-constructed, multimodal interaction between teacher and pupils.

By analytically focusing on the topics of progression, initiation, evaluation, and selection and turn-allocation in relation to the establishment of participation frameworks in order to obtain pupil response, the analysis has disclosed two overall interactional practices. First of all, I have found that the movement to the abstract level of general grammatical rules, which was shown to take place in group grammar teaching in the previous collection, is also very prevalent in class grammar teaching. Often these rules are not only alluded to verbally by the teachers, but also made materially visible via simultaneous iconic drawings on the blackboard, concurrent listing of the rules on the blackboard, or, more rarely, precomposed lists on a transparency. Likewise, the teacher’s embodied actions, most often their use of the blackboard, their gaze trajectories and gestures, often serve to underline the movement away from the concrete sentence to the more abstract level of grammatical rules (and often back again), being synchronised with the teacher’s speech. In this way, the explicit orientation towards grammatical rules is multimodally accomplished.

Class grammar teaching can serve a variety of purposes (following up on group work or homework, or introducing new rules or rehearsing rules prior to group work) and in almost all the observed situations, the movement to the abstract level of general, grammatical rules takes place in the latter part of an IRE-sequence in which the teacher in the preferred evaluation turn
provides an explanation of the pupil response in relation to the grammatical rules being rehearsed. This has also been shown to be the case in a situation where the teacher wants to introduce a new grammatical rule, as well as when rules are being rehearsed prior to group work. Only on the occasion when Teacher 3 in a monologue manner rehearses grammar rules prior to group work (extract 36, clip 4.6) is this practice not evident, precisely because of the teacher’s monologue which, in the considered clip, does not involve the pupils and which, therefore, is not based on an IRE-sequential structure. Yet, also in this situation, the orientation towards grammatical rules is apparent – it is what the teacher’s monologue is all about – and also in this situation, there is a discernible embodied and material dimension to the rule-oriented teaching.

Because the rule orientation is so pervasive, it appears to feature as a pedagogical element in class grammar teaching. In other words, the repeated explicit orientation towards grammatical rules must be based on a teacher conviction that it enhances the pupils’ learning of the grammatical forms. The analysis has shown that on one occasion the teacher directly states that the pupils have to learn the grammar rules in question by heart. Thereby, one objective with the prevalent orientation towards grammatical rules appears to be a certain amount of rote learning. In the discussion, I relate this to political demands and L2 grammar instruction research recommendations, respectively.

Related to the explicit rule orientation and the way in which it often takes place as a multimodal movement to the abstract level in the teacher’s third turn evaluation part is the quest for the one correct grammatical answer, which is particularly evident when class grammar teaching is used to follow up on group work or homework. This quest shows in different actualisations of the IRE-sequences, often resulting in either several nested RE-sequences (in the case of following up on insertion sentences) or several independent RE-sequences (in the case of following up on translation sentences) following each other. The analysis has demonstrated how this quest is joined by both teacher and pupils, and I take this to signify that the practice of orienting towards grammatical rules and letting these decide both the solution to the example sentences and the interaction around these sentences in class grammar teaching is shared by all participants.

The second overall practice concerns the turn-allocation during class grammar teaching and with that the shuttling between omnirelevant and local participation frameworks that I have shown to follow as a result of the teacher’s turn-allocations. Because I only focus on instances of class grammar teaching, it is impossible to say whether this practice goes beyond this particular content of class grammar teaching, but the analysis has shown how at least the different ways of allocating turns to pupils are identical with those found in more general L2 classroom interaction.

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244 I have demonstrated this in extract 104, clip 4.5, but also shown here how it is a result of the pupils being unable to follow the teacher’s initial intention of having them list the rules just like that before employing them in group work on example sentences.

245 Obviously, this is a learned practice on the part of the pupils, and it can be argued that they do not have any choice but to follow the teacher’s orientation towards grammatical rules because of the asymmetrical relation between teacher and pupils, which influences the interaction in class grammar teaching and is itself constructed that interaction.
research (Kääntä, 2010). The analysis has demonstrated that the teachers’ turn-allocations take place in a variety of ways and that there is always more than one semiotic resource involved. Some allocations are entirely embodied; some take place in a mix of verbal and visual means. Some involve mutual eye contact; some do not. Some take place simultaneously with the projection of the next relevant action, particularly when the task consists in going through example sentences. Furthermore, the turn-allocations have shown to be co-constructed – sometimes they are visibly initiated by a bidding pupil, but also in situations where the teacher initiates the allocation, its success is dependent upon the compliant actions of not only the pupil to whom the turn is being allocated, but to all pupils present. Insofar as the turn-allocations considered are all successful in terms of accomplishing speaker change, I regard them as an institutionalised action that all participants appear to be familiar with. However, the analysis has also shown that there is divergence in how trained the different classes are in the related interactional practice of bidding for a response turn, which again results in one teacher sometimes conducting rather unclear turn-allocations, and another teacher performing allocations to non-bidding pupils to a much larger extent than the two other teachers.

Nevertheless, what is common for the different ways of accomplishing turn-allocation is that they are all decisive for the interactional development and thereby for how the grammar teaching evolves in that they result in the construction of different participation frameworks. I have demonstrated how a teacher’s turn-allocation to a pupil results in the establishment of what I have termed a local participation framework between the teacher and this pupil, and I have stressed that the entire class, being participants in an underlying omnirelevant participation framework, take part in that establishment and also in the breaching of it when the teacher allocates the next turn to another pupil (in situations of a dispreferred pupil response, resulting in several local and provisional participation frameworks following each other) or initiates a new IRE-sequence. Often, a shuttling between omnirelevant and local participation frameworks takes place because the teacher, managing the turn-taking, shifts between addressing the entire class and addressing a specific pupil. In the (rare) case of no pupil involvement (extract 36, clip 4.6), I have described how the teacher monologue is performed within an omnirelevant participation framework, addressing all the pupils. However, I have demonstrated that also the establishment and maintenance of this omnirelevant participation framework requires active work by the teacher and compliant participation by the pupils.

At the same time, the analysis has disclosed that some amount of negotiation of the rights of teacher and pupils, respectively, can take place in class grammar teaching. This has shown to be the case particularly in one situation in which the teacher allocates a turn to a non-bidding pupil (extract 32, clip 4.2). As such, in and through the multimodal performance of the relational identities of teacher and pupils, these very identities can be both maintained and resisted. However, also in this situation, the quest for the correct grammatical answer as well as the orientation towards grammatical rules are continued, thereby eventually maintaining the relational identities.
All in all, this collection thus shows that class grammar teaching is a highly multimodal phenomenon, no matter to what specific task use it is put, and regardless of whether it includes active pupil participation (two-way communication) or mainly consists of teacher talk (one-way communication). By demonstrating the subtle use of both embodied and material resources as well as the explicit orientation towards grammatical rules, the collection furthermore shows how this mode of L2 grammar teaching demands institutionalised knowledge and interactional skills for both teacher and pupils. As illustrated, class grammar teaching is more teacher-controlled than group grammar teaching because the teacher manages the turn-taking, but the pupils demonstrate interactional skillfulness in following the teacher’s shuttling between different participation frameworks, just as they demonstrate institutionalised knowledge of this mode of grammar teaching in following the teacher’s orientation towards grammatical rules as well as the typical quest for the one correct grammatical answer. The explicit focus on forms that is thereby present in class grammar teaching is thus a co-constructed endeavour, which involves the reflexive awareness of all participants. In this manner, interactional practices and orientation to grammatical rules are highly interconnected in the sense that the grammatical content affects the interactional development, just as the interactional development has consequences for how that grammatical content is being accentuated. This fundamental interconnectedness is decisive to how grammar is being taught in practice, and yet, it remains an unnoticed dimension in existing L2 grammar instruction research because its cognitive-interactionist methodology is not geared towards making such findings.

I now turn to the final collection in this thesis in order to investigate yet another mode of grammar teaching; the mode that I term integrated grammar teaching. As will be shown, this mode of grammar teaching can take place in both group work and work in plenum with topics that are not in themselves explicitly grammar related.

7.6 Collection 5: How integrated grammar teaching is conducted and what it entails

In this collection, I focus on the mode of grammar teaching which I have termed integrated grammar teaching. This mode can be considered deviant in my data corpus in that, as stressed in the first part of the analysis, it only occurs twice, and with the same teacher. The fact that it is a rare occasion in my data, however, does not necessarily mean that integrated grammar teaching is a seldom activity in general. As described in chapter 5, I do not regard my case studies as being representative of all English grammar teaching in the Danish gymnasium, and thus I cannot say whether or not this mode of grammar teaching is on average more widespread than is the case in my data. What is interesting is that it occurs at all and, furthermore, that it seems to be another way of integrating grammar into text work than via corrective feedback as is the prevalent way of conceptualising integrated grammar instruction in existing L2 grammar instruction research (see chapter 2). The reason for including this collection is that it demonstrates that also in cases of integrated grammar teaching, grammatical rules are being explicitly and multimodally oriented to. In that way, the findings in this collection add to the developing analysis that interactional practices uncovered in earlier collections, which have all treated isolated grammar teaching, are also in play in attempts at conducting integrated grammar teaching.
The two instances of integrated grammar teaching are not identical. In the first instance, the
teacher employs grammar, or more specifically syntactical analysis, to arrive at a textual
interpretation. In the second instance, an expression in the text is used to rehearse the topic of
collective nouns before the class moves on to talk about other non-grammar issues related to the
text. Thus, integrated grammar teaching is not a narrow category, and the degree of integration is
perhaps debatable, but the baseline seems to be that within an otherwise textually oriented part of
the lesson, an element from the text is used to introduce a grammatical issue and have the pupils
reflect on that, after which the purely textual work continues. As the following analysis
demonstrates, these transitions are clearly marked by choice of language. The analysis
furthermore shows that also in cases of integrated grammar teaching, multimodal means are
employed by the teacher to visualise what she is saying and thereby forge a link between the
concrete text and the abstract grammatical rules oriented to.

The collection first shows how Teacher 3 initiates the first instance of integrated grammar
teaching. Subsequently, I analyse how the class in plenum treats this instance. Similarly, I consider
two extract clips from the second instance of integrated grammar teaching: one in which two
pupils are working on the issue as a group, and one in which the teacher follows up on the group
work in plenum.

7.6.1 **Teacher's initiation of integrated grammar teaching: giving the pupils a textual
syntactical analysis task**

In the first extract clip, Teacher 3 is telling class E what they are to work on in groups with
regard to the two texts that they have had to read at home for the lesson. She has just told them
to read one of the texts aloud to each other as if they were a news broadcaster, and now she is
turning to describe another task to do with the headlines of the two texts.

**Extract 107, clip 5.1**

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)
The teacher’s turn in line 16 signals that she is about to inform the pupils about another task that
they have to work on in groups after her introduction. Before she goes into describing that task
verbally, however, she, in line 17, writes ‘syntax’ on the board, thereby visually displaying its topic
[still 1]. In lines 19-24, she then verbally begins to explain the task, while visually orienting toward
the texts concerned (lines 20-21). In lines 25-27, the teacher apparently wants the pupils to orient
towards the two texts as well, in that she arranges her compendium so that the class can see both
texts displayed [still 2]. In the succeeding lines, the teacher continues her explanation a little
hesitatingly (marked by the pauses and the prolonged ‘they ehh’ in line 28, as well as her ‘well’ in
line 31), shifting her gaze between the texts and the class several times (lines 28-35). Then, in line
36, she touches upon the crux of the matter by revealing that the two headlines are to be read in
continuation. She follows this up by pointing from the one headline to the other several times
while gazing around in the class (lines 37-38) [still 3 and still 4]. In lines 39-40, the teacher
recapitulates the task and then, in line 41, adds ‘of headlines’ after ‘syntax’ on the board [still 5].
In this extract clip, the teacher is communicating one-way to the pupils what their group work with the prepared texts is to consist of. It is implied that they will go through the tasks on class after the group work. This is a common form for Teacher 3. The teacher’s verbal utterances are made in English, and there is no explicit mentioning of this being a grammar-related task. Verbally, then, the task is simply provided as one among several, whereas the complementing embodied and material actions serve to give more body to the task description. From the paraphrasing it is obvious that the teacher’s explanation of what the task is about is carried out multimodally, including not only speech, but also the texts in the compendium as material artefacts, as well as gestures (pointing back and forth between the two headlines). Finally, she also employs the blackboard, progressively composing the task description in writing. As I show next, this multimodal configuration is carried over to the task proper.

7.6.2 Integrated grammar teaching in plenum: textual syntactical analysis

In this extract clip, class E follows up in plenum on the text tasks that the pupils have been working on in groups. They are now about to embark upon the textual syntactical analysis task that Teacher 3 has given them as one of the things to work with (see the previous extract clip). The teacher is positioned next to the blackboard and faces the class. She has written the two headlines on the blackboard, the first one above the second one, and still holds the piece of chalk in her right hand. The two sentences read: ‘As 14m Africans face death by starvation...’ and ‘...food giants are sued for “making people fat”’ (see sheets M1 and M2 in the Appendices).

Extract 108, clip 5.2

(See separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In line 5, the teacher asks how the two headlines are connected, thereby reusing the wording she employed when giving the task (see extract 107, clip 5.1, line 40, analysed above). However, as none of the pupils apparently responds to this initiation, she, in line 9, explicitly switches their verbal interaction into Danish, after which she provides a prolonged reinitiation, repeating that there are two headlines that are connected and asking how that is (lines 11-25). During this reinitiation, the teacher gestures ‘two’ with her left hand (lines 14-15) and, furthermore, turns her head and upper torso towards the sentences on the blackboard (lines 20-21), thereby inviting the pupils to look in the same direction. With her code switching into Danish, the teacher clearly marks that they are entering a grammar zone. This is so because class E conducts all their grammar-oriented work in Danish. Thus, by saying that they might have to do it in Danish, the teacher opens a slot for grammar in the textual work, and she supports this opening by orienting towards the sentences on the board. The fact that she has written the

246 I observed this way of structuring the text work in three out of the five double lessons I observed with Teacher 3.
247 So do class A and Class C. In class B and C, both Danish and English are used, and the switching is not as consistent, explicit and previously agreed upon as is the case in the three other classes. The grammatical part of the final written exam can be answered in either Danish or English; hence the decision to conduct the grammar teaching in Danish is a legitimate one. In this project, I do not go into the reasons behind the language choices of teachers and pupils, nor do I look into the consequences of these.
sentences there suggests that the pupils are going to do more than just talk about them. I find that these multimodal, orchestrated actions on behalf of the teacher can be regarded as the initiation of a side sequence that will focus on grammar (the grammar zone or grammatical slot).

Next, the teacher allocates the turn to two pupils after each other, and, in lines 46-61, she evaluates P2’s answer positively and elaborates upon it by both stating and showing that the two sentences could be read as one by replacing the full stop after the first sentence with a comma. However, the answer apparently does not meet the teacher’s intention with the ‘syntax of headlines-task’, in that she herself now goes straight into a syntactical analysis by stating that there are two nexus and indicating these on the blackboard (lines 63-74) [still 3]. From here she again addresses the pupils, gazing at them, saying that in this case there is one main clause, and asking what the other sentence is (lines 75-83). The procedure here is reminiscent of extract 104, clip 4.5 analysed in collection 4, in which I showed that channelling and indirectly providing the pupils with the answers was a technique employed by the teacher during class grammar teaching to move the pupils in the envisioned direction. By beginning the syntactical analysis with an indication that there are two clauses in the complex sentence, and by stating that it contains only one main or independent clause, it is implied that the other clause must be a subordinate or dependent clause. Importantly, the teacher’s means to have the pupils recall these first steps of a syntactical analysis are multimodal in that she not only verbally describes the existence of two clauses, but also visualises it by drawing nexus signs beneath the subject (X) and the finite verb (O) in each clause. Thus, the teacher continues her way of visualising what she says, and this visualisation is central to her way of channelling the pupils forward.

In lines 92-117, the teacher and P3 establish that if one of the clauses is a main clause the other one must be a subordinate clause, and furthermore that in this case, it is the first clause which is subordinate, whereas the second clause is the main clause. In lines 118-126, the teacher then asks how subordinate clauses are defined while she draws a line beneath the entire first sentence, thereby clearly marking it as the subordinate clause [still 4]. In that way, she visually continues the syntactical analysis and simultaneously asks the pupils to invoke their grammatical rule of thumb with regard to deciding subordinate clauses. Again, it appears that the teacher with this wants the pupils to move in a specific direction. This is to be seen in how she, in lines 140-150, evaluates the answer which P3 provides in lines 128-137 regarding how she recognises a subordinate clause. P3 invokes the rule of thumb that the main clause can be uttered alone without the subordinate clause whereas the subordinate clause cannot. In line 140, the teacher confirms that answer, but also immediately states that there is another thing with subordinate clauses which is implied in its name (lines 140-148). She underlines her point by stressing the first part of the name (Danish ‘led’, English ‘subordinate’ in lines 147 and 148) and, furthermore, by separating the words visually with two beats in the air (lines 149-150) [still 5]. The English translation misses this point because the Danish ‘led’ is translated into ‘subordinate’ in English, which is the grammatical term in English. However, in syntactical analysis, the Danish ‘led’ is equivalent to the English ‘member’, so a direct translation would be ‘member clause’. The teacher is thereby hinting at the fact that it can be inferred from the Danish ‘ledsætning’ that it is both a member of a complex sentence and, on a secondary level, a clause on its own. As such, she seems to want to
channel the pupils further into the syntactical analysis by alluding to a rule of thumb related to the Danish name of a subordinate clause.

In lines 151-153, the teacher selects the next speaker and allocates the turn to P4. What follows are pupil invocations of several ‘rules of thumb’ which are evaluated positively by the teacher, but which do not satisfy her quest to be seen in how she continues to move the interaction forward by initiating new sequences and selecting next speakers. Thus, P4, in lines 156-160, mentions a rule of thumb which regards an insertion of ‘not’, the position of which should reveal whether the clause is a main clause or not. In lines 162-189, the teacher says that this rule of thumb can be used to recognise a subordinate clause, but that it does not say a lot about the sentence, after which she initiates a new IRE-sequence and allocates the turn to P5 in lines 191-193. In lines 196-204, P5 then invokes another rule of thumb to do with the introductory conjunction in the subordinating clause ‘as’. This answer is apparently closer to the teacher’s intention of extending the syntactical analysis in that she decides to go further into this issue. Thus, in the following lines (207-337), it is established (with several pupil attempts and answers provided by the teacher) that ‘as’ is a subordinator, that it is marked by a downward-facing arrow in the syntactical analysis, and that the arrow signifies that it begins a subordinate clause.

This being settled and visualised with a downward-facing arrow beneath ‘as’ on the blackboard (line 274) [still 6], the teacher, in lines 340-356, returns to the rule of thumb that she was alluring to earlier. The entire sequence concerning the subordinator ‘as’ can thereby be considered a pupil-initiated aside, which is not ultimately what the teacher is going for, but which she nevertheless decides to give time and space, probably because it is a way of rehearsing other elements of the syntactical analysis which are still related to her main intention of having the subordinate clause specified. The teacher’s return is marked by how she, again, uses stress in relation to the Danish name ‘ledsætning’ to highlight the relation between the main clause and the subordinate clause; this time more directly by further stating that the subordinate clause functions as a member of the main clause. She then asks what kind of member it is, thereby initiating a new IRE-sequence. Importantly, during these lines, the teacher points at the two sentences one after another in coordination with her speech so that whenever she is talking about the subordinate clause, she is pointing at the first sentence (line 348) [still 7], and similarly she is pointing at the second sentence when talking about the main clause (line 351) [still 8]. Hence, the teacher’s visualisation of her speech continues here.

In lines 358-387, the IRE-sequence that the teacher has initiated is unfolded, and it is established that the subordinate clause is an adverbial clause which has to be marked by a wavy line in the syntactical analysis. This sign is first marked by P9’s gesture in the air, in lines 376-377 [still 9], and then picked up by the teacher in lines 386-387, in which she concludes that a wavy line is the sign to be used and draws the line underneath the entire first sentence [still 10]. Having thus finally arrived at how the two sentences relate to each other syntactically, the teacher still needs to have defined what kind of adverbial clause the first sentence is. In her answer in line 363, P9 has suggested that it is a reason clause, but this is incorrect, and the teacher now sets out to settle the issue herself. Thus, in lines 389-419, she explains that the subordinator ‘as’ can signal different
meanings and that, in this case, it means ‘at the same time as’. She elaborates on her explanation by paraphrasing the complex sentence and stressing the Danish translation of this version of ‘as’ (‘imens’), before she concludes that the adverbial clause expresses something about the time at which food giants are being sued (meaning that it is a time clause). Again, the teacher’s verbal explanation is followed by her repeated gesturing back and forth between the two sentences on the blackboard.

Having thus apparently reached her intended level with the syntactical analysis, the teacher, in lines 421-427, states that they do not have to go further into the syntax unless the pupils want to, and since none of the pupils signal that they would like to do that (lines 428-429), the teacher puts the chalk in the chalk holder (lines 430-431) and begins to ask in Danish what the pupils think (line 433), after which she immediately and explicitly switches back into English (line 434). The teacher can thereby be said to mark both visually (placing chalk in chalk holder) and verbally (explicitly switching into English) that the grammar moment has ended, that the slot, or side sequence, for grammar in the textual work is closed, and that they are to return to discussing the texts again, i.e. to the main sequence. In lines 435-445, the teacher initiates this discussion by briefly summarising in English what they have concluded from the syntactical analysis and again accompanies this with gestures towards the two headlines. She then initiates a new, textually related IRE-sequence (lines 446-460) by asking the pupils what they think the journalist’s point is in combining the two articles in that way when they are essentially about two different things. As such, it is obviously the teacher’s goal to use the syntactical analysis to arrive at a textual interpretation, meaning that grammar is integrated here to make a sound point about the two texts.

What this analysis shows, then, is that the integration of grammar takes place here in the form of a side sequence in which the entire interaction is restructured along the lines seen in class grammar teaching (see collection 4). Once the correct answer is arrived at, the side sequence is ended, and the class, on the teacher’s guiding, returns to the main sequence, i.e. the discussion and interpretation of the texts. In the side sequence, the teacher controls the IRE-sequences and channels the pupils onwards towards an answer that she knows beforehand and wants them to arrive at. This channelling happens to an extent that it also involves the teacher providing the correct intermediate answers herself. The interactional practice thus appears to be the same, whether it is class grammar teaching or integrated grammar teaching in plenum, even though the objective is not the same: although the teacher does not miss the chance to rehearse specific grammar-related rules in the extract clip considered here (for example what signs to use in a syntactical analysis), rehearsing rules either deductively or inductively is not her primary objective as was the case, for instance, in extract 104, clip 4.5 analysed in collection 4. Rather, the grammatical rules are here employed in analytical and interpretive textual practices, meaning that they serve another goal and that their specification is not in itself the ultimate end of the interaction. From the analysis of the present extract clip, this mode of grammar teaching thus seems to encompass the performance of the interactional grammar teaching practice known from isolated class grammar teaching in a side sequence in order to be able to employ the grammatical rules in practice in otherwise not-grammar-related work in the main sequence. However, as the
following analyses will show, this is not the only use to which integrated grammar teaching is being put by Teacher 3.

7.6.3 Integrated grammar teaching in group work: staff was or were

In this extract clip, two pupils are working together on solving some text-related tasks that the teacher has explained in plenum earlier (similar to the way she did it in extract 107, clip 5.1). One of these tasks concerns an expression from the prepared text which reads ‘staff were’. In describing the task, the teacher has said that when she had the text on her computer as a Word-file, the spelling and grammar control marked the expression as wrong and indicated that it wanted ‘staff was’ instead. The pupils’ task now consists of describing why this is so. The teacher is seated behind her desk while the pupils are working in groups. The pupils who have not read the text at home have been sent outside to read the text. They have been told to return to the class when they are done.

Extract 122, clip 5.3

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 5-49, P1 compares ‘staff’ with ‘police’ and states that ‘police’ is always in the singular even though it consists of persons. P2 accepts this explanation, infers that it has to say ‘the staff was’, and also begins to write this on her sheet. However, P1 appears to be in doubt, marked by how she moves her hand through her hair, in line 51 [still 1], as well as how she, in line 54, does not firmly confirm P2’s inference. In lines 56-58, P1 appears to go over the issue one more time, now to herself, but that does not seem to ease her doubt in that she, in line 61, calls for the teacher’s attention. The teacher stays seated behind her desk but engages in interacting with P1 from afar (line 66, the teacher does not enter the picture until in line 158). In lines 70-81, P1 locates her problem and explains to the teacher how she has been reasoning, comparing ‘staff’ with ‘police’. In line 84, the teacher evaluates P1’s explanation negatively and adds that ‘police’ is always in the plural. While P1 in line 89 recognises that this is the opposite of what she has been saying, the teacher goes into explaining that while not being in the same category as ‘police’, ‘staff’ is in the same category as ‘family’ (lines 86-97). P1 appears to understand this as a clue in that she, in lines 100-104, with reference to ‘family’ presents the same reasoning: that even though it is a unity it has to be in the singular.

Yet, this is not correct either, which the teacher informs P1 of, in lines 107-109, by stating that some words can be both in the singular and in the plural. Thus, the teacher moves from providing examples of words in the same category (‘family’) to more directly involving the grammatical rule that the task is ultimately intended to rehearse. P1 rephrases the teacher’s turn as a yes/no question in line 112, the teacher confirms it in line 115, and in line 116, P1 turns her gaze from the teacher towards her sheet, facing the task with this new piece of information [still 2 and still 3]. Then in line 119, P2 (who has been visibly attentive to the interaction between the teacher and P1 since line 81) while gazing at P1 recapitulates the teacher’s point in a way that signals that she has not fully understood it and, furthermore, in a way that makes P1 laugh (line 120) [still 4]. Apparently, the teacher understands P2’s confused utterance as well as P1’s laughter.
as a sign that they have not realised the point (i.e. the rule) yet. This is to be seen in how she, in lines 123-129, moves from the level of abstractly stating that some words can be both in the plural and in the singular to providing concrete examples of ‘family’ understood in the plural and in the singular sense, respectively.

In lines 132-138, P2 and the teacher establish that they have used these examples before and, in lines 141-143, the teacher then states that ‘staff’ is one of the same words and begins to provide examples of this. However, in line 146, P2 interrupts the teacher, stating that it has to be ‘were’ then. In lines 149-160, the teacher again stresses that it is correct as it is and that she simply wants to know why the grammar control has then marked it as an error. In pinpointing the task one more time, the teacher involves both gesture and material artefact by pointing towards her computer which is positioned in front of her [still 5]. Finally, in line 163, P1 signals understanding by stressing that it is because it can also be ‘was’, which the teacher confirms. P1 utters an aligning ‘yes’, in line 170, and thereby the interaction with the teacher ends.

It is visible from this description that the two things which mainly differentiate this teacher-pupils interaction from the examples considered in the collections on group grammar teaching is that the teacher stays seated behind her desk248, and that the starting point of their interaction is not a felt problem with a sentence on a grammar task sheet, but rather with an expression taken from their otherwise not-grammar-related text work. Apart from these two elements, the overall interaction appears to run along the same lines as in group grammar teaching: 1) The pupil informs the teacher about the location of the felt problem and immediately enters into describing how she has attempted to go about it. 2) The interaction develops as the teacher clues the pupils towards the correct answer and also performs a brief movement to the abstract level of grammatical rules, and back again. 3) As soon as understanding has apparently been achieved and the answer reached, the interaction is ended.

It thus appears that in the same way as in the extract clip considered above, this grammar slot, enabled by the teacher’s posing of a grammatical question to their textual work, is co-constructed by teacher and pupils in the same way as they usually co-construct interaction during group grammar teaching in terms of initiating, coming to deal with the grammatical problem, and closing (see collections 1 and 2). The rule orientation as well as the teacher’s clueing of the pupils towards the correct answer are also present, though when compared with the sequential positionings of the explicit rule invocation uncovered in collection 3, the teacher’s brief movement to the abstract level in this clip does not fully match the sequential positioning of a side-sequence or a post hoc validation. The reason for this might be that the task given by the teacher here is slightly different from the ones usually applied in group grammar teaching. Normally, the pupils are supposed to find a correct answer to a concrete sentence by employing the rule in question. Here, it is almost the opposite: the pupils are to recall the rule on the basis of a correct concrete sentence. To that extent, the rule is in itself part of the correct answer. This is

248 This is not a general distinction between group grammar teaching and integrated grammar teaching in group work. In other extracts (from the integrated grammar teaching episode on syntactical analysis), the teacher does walk around to assist the groups (consider e.g. extract 111 and extract 113).
also suggested by the many concrete examples introduced by the teacher in her clueing of the pupils. The following extract clip shows how this task is followed up on in plenum.

7.6.4  Integrated grammar teaching in plenum: a list of collective nouns

In this extract clip, the class is following up in plenum on the text work they have been doing in groups. They have reached the task which concerns the expression ‘staff were’ that the two pupils in the previous extract clip were struggling with. The pupils who have been sent outside to read the text have not entered the room yet, but do so a little into the interaction (line 45), causing some noise. The teacher is positioned in front of the board.

Extract 121, clip 5.4

(Please see separate Transcription Appendix for transcript and still frames)

In lines 9-19, the teacher initiates the plenum interaction around the expression ‘staff were’ by repeating her contextualisation of the grammatical perspective on the expression. As described above, the contextualisation consists of a description of how her Word program has indicated that there is a grammar mistake in ‘staff were’ when in fact there is not, and the teacher first provided this contextualisation when she informed the pupils about the tasks, which they were to work with in groups and which they would afterwards go through on class. By repeating it here, she sets the scene for grammatical intervention, or, in other words, she opens a slot for grammatical focusing in what is otherwise not-grammar-related text work. As was also the case in extract 108, clip 5.2, this opening is further discernible from her remark that the pupils are allowed to answer in Danish. She informs them about this twice, in line 9 and again in line 19.

Finally, the teacher also writes ‘staff were’ on the blackboard (line 14) [still 1], thereby singling it out for specific (grammatical) attention.

In lines 22-44, the teacher interacts with P1 who apparently has not understood that the task consists in explaining that ‘staff’ can take the verb in both singular and plural form and why this is so. After having invited P1 to do a couple of restarts (lines 30, followed by an incorrect restart in line 33, as well as line 36, followed by a partial, yet still remote answer in lines 39-41), the teacher allocates the turn to P2 who is bidding for a turn (lines 46-48). In lines 53-80, P2 then provides a lengthy account of the possible double form and the semantic reason behind. The teacher audibly follows P2’s response turn by inserting minimal supportive utterances along the way (‘yes’ in lines 56 and 67, and ‘ehm ehm’ in line 75). In lines 83-122, the teacher provides her evaluation turn and, as I have shown it to often be the case with teacher evaluation turns during

249 As described in the analysis of the previous extract clip, the teacher also includes this contextualisation when trying to make the two pupils understand that it is possible to say both ‘staff were’ and ‘staff was’.

250 P2 in this extract clip and P1 in the previous extract clip on ‘staff were’ in integrated grammar teaching in group work designate the same pupil. P2 (the present extract clip) has been sitting with her hand raised since P1 provided his first, erroneous response (line 27). P2 is seated right next to P1 so the teacher cannot avoid seeing her raised hand when interacting with P1.

251 P2 even includes examples in her response. Notice how her example of ‘staff’ with the verb in the singular (line 61: ‘the staff was from Russia’) is borrowed and slightly modified from the teacher’s example provided to her in extract 122, clip 5.3, line 127: ‘my family is from Russia’.
class grammar teaching, she extends her evaluation to include a grammatical explanation, despite the fact that P2 has just provided one which the teacher has evaluated positively.

In effect, then, the teacher repeats P2’s explanation, but she rearranges it so that she first takes her point of departure in the word ‘staff’ to describe in more general terms that the form of the verb depends on whether you understand the word as one unity or as several individuals, and that this is how to distinguish between the two possibilities. In this description, the teacher gestures considerably, signalling ‘unity’ twice with a circular movement (lines 93 and 101) and stressing ‘one’ not only verbally, but also visually by raising her left index finger (line 98). In lines 107-112, she then returns to the concrete example and includes the text to have a more substantial clause on which to try the distinction she has just described. The text reads that the staff ‘were chefs’, and the teacher now deduces that this is something that each of them is, and not something they are as a group (lines 115-119). Thus, she can conclude, in line 122, that this is the reason why it has to be ‘were’ in this case. As she concludes this, she points at the written ‘staff were’ on the blackboard.

Hence, what appears to take place in this teacher evaluation is an explicit and multimodal orientation towards and invoking of a grammatical rule that is then concretised again by returning both verbally and visually to the actual expression being discussed. This is similar to many of the teacher evaluations considered in collection 4 on class grammar teaching, in which it is just the example sentence and not an element from the class’ text work which is considered and employed both to move from to the abstract level of general grammatical rules, and to move back to in order to convert these rules into practice.

In lines 124-126, the teacher uses the opportunity to further rehearse the grammatical topic in asking the pupils whether they can remember any of the other words which act like ‘staff’. In lines 132-133, ‘family’ is added to the list (suggested by P3), and later ‘crew’ (line 161) and ‘government’ (line 166) (both of these are provided by the teacher, despite her statement, in lines 141-143, that she is not sure that she can remember others either, seeing that the pupils cannot). Then, in lines 175-179, while pointing at the list on the blackboard, the teacher switches back to stating the general grammatical point that these nouns can be regarded in two ways, and from here to designating the grammatical term for such words, collective nouns (line 182). She writes the Danish version of this, ‘kollektiver’, next to the list and thereby accentuates the grammatical focus of the task (line 183).

This accentuation is continued in lines 186-200, in which the teacher informs the pupils that they have dealt with this topic earlier when they went through the chapter on concordance in their grammar book. Furthermore, she briefly explains that concordance is about matching the verbal phrase and the subject in the sentence. As she states this, she points back and forth between ‘were’ and ‘staff’ on the board, thereby visualising this match. Eventually, she completes this return to the topic of concordance by stating that collective nouns play a role in this matching of subject and verbal phrase. Then, in line 202, she reverts to English, stating ‘Okay, we better move
on.’ She thereby terminates the grammatical attention and closes the slot in which that attention was made possible.

By moving on, the teacher means move on to consider the next task they have been working with in groups. Thereby, with this instance of integrated grammar teaching, it is not the teacher’s intention to employ the grammatical rules in practice in otherwise not-grammar-related work, which was the case in extract 108, clip 5.2. Rather, the intention here seems specifically to be to rehearse the rules of collective nouns in and for themselves, based on an example of how these rules have been employed in practice in an otherwise not-grammar-related text. In contrast to extract 108, clip 5.2, I want to argue that this extract clip cannot as easily be regarded as a side sequence because the grammar work is not included to subsequently make a textual point, but in itself fulfils the teacher’s objective with including it (rehearsing the grammatical rules).

Hence, integrated grammar teaching can also encompass grammar teaching which, apart from the source of the example text (task sheet or text), is sequentially fully identical with class grammar teaching as it has been analysed in collection 4.

7.6.5 Collection summing-up
This collection has demonstrated how integrated grammar teaching is conducted and what it entails. I have analysed instances in which integrated grammar teaching is introduced, worked with in groups and followed up in plenum, and I have shown that in doing integrated grammar teaching, grammatical rules are brought to the fore and come to have a structuring function in the interaction in the same way as is the case in group grammar teaching and class grammar teaching. I have found that in integrated grammar teaching, the interaction can be, as in group grammar teaching and class grammar teaching, oriented towards grammar rules in and for themselves, with the pedagogical purpose of rehearsing these, but it can also be orienting towards and invoking grammatical rules as a steppingstone to reaching not-grammar-related points, in which case I have described the orientation towards grammar as a side sequence. The analyses in this collection show that no matter which of these two purposes the teacher’s integration of grammar is intended to serve, the interaction in the constructed grammar slot is basically the same, and also mostly identical with the interaction in class grammar teaching and group grammar teaching intended to rehearse specific grammatical rules. Shared are the quest for the correct grammatical answer(s) and the progressive and multimodal way of arriving at this answer. This means that when the second purpose in integrated grammar teaching is intended (invoking grammatical rules as a steppingstone to reaching not-grammar-related points), the steppingstone-part does not occur until the grammar oriented side sequence has been closed.

It thus appears that the fundamental difference between integrated grammar teaching and the other modes of grammar teaching considered in this thesis is the way that integrated grammar teaching takes its point of departure in an element from the text, and not in task sheets with preconfigured example sentences or in the listing of specific rules on the board. Integrated grammar teaching can thus, in terms of the material used, be considered more contextualised.
(Andersen & Cozard, 2009) than isolated, parallel grammar teaching, but at least in the version considered here, it is still as explicitly rule-oriented and rule-following as the isolated, parallel modes. Furthermore, it is also just as multimodally and interactionally co-constructed as these modes in that it rests heavily on teacher gesturing and use of the blackboard as a material artefact.

Having completed the fifth and final collection and thereby ended the multimodal, interactional analysis, I now turn to distil the essential research findings in the following discussion and conclusion.
Part five: Distilling the essence
Chapter 8  Discussion: Interactional practices in English grammar teaching

8.1  Chapter overview and purpose
In this chapter I first pinpoint the findings about the central interactional practices that have emerged as a result of the preceding analyses of the observed grammar teaching. Second, I consider the ways in which my methodological, conceptual and analytical framework has both opened up dimensions of L2 grammar instruction, which have so far not been thoroughly researched, and enabled avenues of research into these dimensions that are new to the research field as it has traditionally been composed. Third, considering the essence of the analytical results arrived at in this study, the chapter recapitulates and discusses the pervasive orientation towards grammatical rules which has been found to exist across the three considered modes of grammar teaching. Finally, the chapter relates the analytical findings to the two frames that were set up in the second part of the thesis, i.e. the research dimension and the policy dimension. To further this goal, I also include information from the interviews conducted with the three teachers.

8.2  Interactional practices in the five collection analyses
In the analysis, I have taken a funnel-shaped approach to investigating the interactional practices at play in the English grammar teaching observed in the five classes. Thus, in the first part of the analysis in chapter 6, I have first established four empirical modes of grammar teaching and located these modes in the typical ways of organising an English lesson that I have observed. What distinguishes these modes of grammar teaching is not in the first instance the grammatical content and the way in which it is being oriented towards, but rather the varied ways in which the interaction is constructed in terms of participation frameworks (who is included in the interaction and how), sequential organisation (how the interaction develops) and use of the classroom as an institutional built space (how that space is appropriated as a classroom and the different ways of simultaneously performing and constructing the relational institutional identities of teacher and pupil involved in this).

These differences between the established modes of grammar teaching have been further explored in five subsequent collection analyses in which the multimodal, interactional analysis
prescribed by my conceptual and analytical framework is carried out. The first three of these collections concern the mode of grammar teaching that I term group grammar teaching, and the two latter collections concern what I term class grammar teaching and integrated grammar teaching, respectively. The fourth mode of grammar teaching discerned, i.e. the mode that I term corrective feedback, is not made a subject of close analysis in this thesis for reasons which I have presented in chapter 6.

The chronology of the multimodal interactional analyses is based on the empirical observation that, most often, group grammar teaching precedes class grammar teaching, whereas integrated grammar teaching is a more infrequent mode of grammar teaching, which I have only observed in one of the five classes. Furthermore, the structural organisation of the collection analyses has paved the way for a certain amount of comparison across the collections in the sense that the two latter collections draw on some of the analytical findings made in the three preceding collections. In the following, I first summarise the analytical findings on interactional practices within each collection, after which I consider more generally the insights enabled by my methodological, conceptual and analytical framework.

### 8.2.1 Interactional practices in collection 1: How group grammar teaching is initiated

In the first collection my focus has been on how episodes of group grammar teaching are initiated, whereas the second collection has been concerned with how and when group grammar teaching episodes are ended. As such, neither of these two collections have treated specifically how teacher and pupils interact around grammar when engaged in group grammar teaching (this has been the focus in the third collection), but rather concentrated on how the conditions for this interaction are sequentially and multimodally constructed as group grammar teaching episodes are initiated and closed, respectively. In this manner, the two collections by their mere focus have gone some way to make the point that the way grammar is actually being taught in concrete L2 contexts is intricately bound up with interactional practices, and that it is therefore paramount to investigate such interactional practices in their actual manifestations in order to understand what L2 grammar teaching in practice amounts to. This point has then been further grounded and elaborated on in later collections, which have considered the orientation towards grammar more directly.

Thus, in the first collection I have concluded that the initiation of a group grammar teaching episode can be either explicit or implicit, and that the initiator can be either a pupil or the teacher. Regardless of how these variables are combined, the initiation follows a specific sequential structure which I have described as a three-step interactional practice of coming to deal with the grammatical problem. First, a participation framework comprising the teacher and the pupil(s) in the group and framing them as primary participants to the interaction is co-constructed. Second, mutual orientation towards the grammatical problem (located in an example sentence on a task sheet) is established as a result of the contextual configuring of locally relevant semiotic resources. Third, a transition takes place from interactional opening to explicitly dealing with the grammatical problem. In the collection I have described how this practice is accomplished in a
progressive, temporal, spatial, embodied and material manner, and I have furthermore shown that it is contingent on the multimodal performance of the institutional, relational identities of teacher and pupil who, in a dynamic interplay, display reflexive awareness of each other and thereby ensure the ongoing interaction. Thereby the first collection portrays group grammar teaching as fundamentally a co-constructed enterprise.

8.2.2 Interactional practices in collection 2: How and when group grammar teaching is ended
In the second collection, I have shown that the closing of a group grammar teaching episode can also be initiated by either a pupil or the teacher and, furthermore, that there are several variants: the initiation of the closing can be performed by the pupil who is being assisted; by a pupil in another group; by the teacher addressing the entire class; by the teacher leaving to be able to provide assistance to other groups; or by the teacher addressing another group. Again, despite these variations in who takes the initiative and for what purpose, a specific interactional practice for ending a group grammar teaching episode can be delineated. No matter who initiates the closing, the timing of this initiation displays this participant’s interpretation of when the correct answer to the grammatical problem has been reached. The other participants display reflexive awareness and progressively adjust to the initiation of the closing so that the ending is eventually accomplished as both the pupils in the group and the teacher re-orient their focus in a way that exclude the other part from the new participation frameworks that are thereby established. In the collection, I have described how the initiation as well as the ensuing progressive adjustment happen multimodally (and often non-verbally) in a coordinated orchestration of gaze, body movement and employment of material artefacts. Particularly, I have analysed how the pupils’ worksheets as material artefacts come to function as carriers of interactional meaning and play a role as interactional structuring devices taking part in the co-construction of the closing of group grammar teaching episodes.

8.2.3 Interactional practices in collection 3: How and when grammatical rules are multimodally and interactionally oriented to in group grammar teaching
In the third collection, I have concentrated on how and when grammatical rules are multimodally and interactionally oriented towards in group grammar teaching. During group grammar teaching, the task can vary (for instance between spotting and correcting errors, inserting the right word form, correcting and explaining errors), but the pupils are always working on some precomposed sentences located on a task sheet which the teacher hands out. The groups work independently, but the teacher is available for assistance. I have concentrated on group grammar teaching in which the teacher interacts with one or more pupils, because my research focus is grammar teaching practices as these are co-constructed in situated interaction between teacher and pupils. As such, the episodes that I analyse as group grammar teaching episodes all concentrate on situations in which either a pupil or the teacher identify a problem with a sentence on the task sheet. That the interaction between teacher and pupils around a grammatical problem is thereby a premise for my selection of group grammar teaching extracts is also visible from the summary of my findings in collection 1 and collection 2 above.
The analysis has shown that in all instances of group grammar teaching, the grammatical rules related to the problem sentence are explicitly invoked in a manner which I have described as a movement away from the concrete sentence to a more abstract level of general, grammatical rules. This movement is multimodally performed by the teacher who, in a synchronised manner, employs several semiotic resources (most often speech, gestures and gazes, but also sometimes body movement and the task sheet as a material artefact) to mark the explicit orientation towards grammatical rules.

An important finding is that whereas this movement to the abstract level of general, grammatical rules happens in all the group grammar teaching episodes, it does not sequentially happen at the same time. Thus, the analysis has shown that in some instances, the movement is performed before the correct answer to the sentence has been found, and in other instances after that answer has been established. I have described the movement in the former case as a side sequence, which is included in order to accomplish the main sequence, i.e. solving the problem sentence and finding the correct answer. Therefore, in this situation, the movement to the abstract grammatical rules is followed by a movement back to the concrete sentence and to applying the rules in practice on that sentence. In the episodes in which the explicit rule orientation happens after the correct answer has been found, the movement back to the concrete sentence does not necessarily take place. Here, the movement to the abstract level serves more as a post hoc account or validation of why the correct answer is in fact correct.

In the collection, I have analysed episodes in which the grammatical topic concerns adjectives vs. adverbs in a separate section because a specific interactional practice is very often in play in this case. In the analysis, I have described this practice as a question-answer sequence in which the teacher clues the pupil step by step through the relevant rules. This practice thereby displays a particular way of explicitly orienting towards grammatical rules, which involves the pupils more than when the orientation takes place as a side sequence or as a post hoc validation as described above. In contrast to these two, a question-answer sequence can furthermore take place either before the correct answer has been established or after. In the latter case, I view it as a specific version of a post hoc validation. However, the same movement to the abstract level of general grammatical rules is being made in question-answer sequences as in side sequences and post hoc validations, though in terms of modality, the movement in question-answer sequences is performed largely by means of a particular way of posing questions without necessarily being accompanied by gaze shifts, gestures etc.

The sequential analysis has shown that the turns preceding any of the four delineated sequences can vary. Sometimes a pupil provides the correct answer, sometimes a dispreferred response. Sometimes a sequence is commenced straight after mutual orientation towards the task sentence has been established. And sometimes it happens after the teacher has provided the correct answer to the sentence.

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282 This movement happens in all instances apart from on one occasion, in extract 29, clip 3.7, which I comment specifically on below.
answer. Furthermore, and across these different ways of commencing the interaction around the grammatical problem, the analysis has shown how the teacher in some instances clues the pupils towards finding the correct answer themselves, whereas in other instances the teacher him- or herself provides the correct answer straight away. From the analysis carried out in the collection, it does not seem that there is a stringent systematic sequential pattern as to when the movement to the abstract level of general grammatical rules happens sequentially seen in relation to the two types of sequential variations described here. The fact that the movement to the abstract level of general grammatical resources happens repeatedly regardless of how the sequences otherwise develop differently suggests that the teachers regard explicit rule orientation as a pedagogical resource in the concrete grammar teaching moment. When the movement occurs as a side sequence or a question-answer sequence prior to the establishment of the correct answer, it points to a teacher preference for explaining a concrete problem and finding the answer to it by invoking a grammatical rule (as opposed to doing so without explicitly including the rule). Similarly, when the movement takes place as a post hoc validation (often in the form of a question-answer sequence when the grammatical topic concerns adjectives vs. adverbs) it displays the teachers’ insistence on invoking the rule as a pedagogical element when the grammatical problem and the correct answer have already been identified. On this basis, I have characterised group grammar teaching as being based on an explicit, deductive approach to grammar rules. When the question-answer sequence is in play in episodes that have adjectives vs. adverbs as their grammatical topic, I have furthermore argued that the teachers can be seen to use what they teach to directly do the work of teaching in the sense that the grammatical rules relevant to the task sentence are used as a resource for moving forward in the sequence.

Only on one occasion (extract 29, clip 3.7) have I observed a group grammar teaching episode in which the movement towards the abstract level of general grammatical rules was not being made. This episode concerns the inflection and spelling of the irregular verb ‘grow’. In the analysis, I have regarded this episode as a deviant case, but at the same time discussed that it is perhaps better regarded as an alternative trajectory of group grammar teaching in that the extract clip cannot, in its deviance, ultimately be seen to still confirm the practice of a movement to the abstract level of general, grammatical rules. However, whether the extract clip is deviant or entirely alternative, the analysis of it has served to show that group grammar teaching can also occur in this manner, though in my data corpus it only happens once. Eventually, then, this point of course also illustrates that the interactional practice of explicitly orienting towards and invoking grammatical rules, no matter whether this happens in a side sequence, as a post hoc validation, or in a question-answer sequence (prior to or after the correct answer has been established), is by far the most prevalent in group grammar teaching. As such, determining the category of the specific case (deviant/alternative) is a methodological issue which might be said to point to potential dilemmas when, as in my study, the content of the interaction and not just the sequential organisation in itself is included so heavily in the interactional analysis. The interactional practice of the teacher explicitly moving to the level of abstract grammatical rules in different interactional sequences has been analytically discerned by orienting towards both sequential organisation and actual grammatical rules. Consequently, variations within sequential organisation or actual grammatical rules can also result in deviance from the common
interactional practice. In the said extract clip, the rules are precisely ‘different’ in the sense that with irregular verbs there are no rule-based explanations beyond their irregularity. Hence, their spelling becomes the rule, at the same time as it is also the correct answer to the problem sentence. The co-existence of two levels (concrete and abstract) in the interaction that is present in all other extract clips in my data corpus is thus collapsed here, and I maintain that this is what causes the deviance.

8.2.4 Interactional practices in collection 4: What class grammar teaching is used for, how it is managed and made to progress

In collection 4, I have been concerned with class grammar teaching, what it is used for, how it is managed and made to progress. As in collection 3, a central focus in this analysis has been how grammatical rules are being oriented towards in the ongoing interaction. The analysis has shown that class grammar teaching can be used to do several tasks: follow up on group work or homework, introduce new rules or rehearse rules prior to group work. In all instances (apart from extract 36, clip 4.6 which consists of a teacher monologue), the concept of the IRE-sequence has been a relevant analytical tool with which to approach the sequential development of the interaction. Particularly, using this tool has enabled the finding that in all instances of class grammar teaching, across the specific uses to which it is being put, the teacher in the preferred evaluation turn provides an evaluation of the correct pupil response in relation to the grammatical rules being rehearsed. In other words, the teachers perform the same kind of movement to the abstract level of general, grammatical rules as they have been seen to be doing in post hoc validations of a correct answer in group grammar teaching.

Furthermore, the analysis has shown that the movement to the more abstract level of grammatical rules is also multimodally accomplished in class grammar teaching in that here, both embodied and material resources serve to underline the teacher’s explicit verbal rule orientation. Thus, the teachers synchronise their gaze trajectories, gestures and use of the blackboard with their speech, and additionally, the rules are often made visible in lists or iconic drawings on the blackboard. Thereby, the rules are made more materially manifest in class grammar teaching than in group grammar teaching in which the movement is, as described above, typically marked by the teacher’s embodied actions, but not by making the rules directly visible (apart from the group grammar teaching episode in extract 56, clip 3.3, clip in which the teacher draws an imaginary list of relative pronouns while verbally referring to an earlier situation in which the class has worked with the rules in a visual manner. In my data corpus, this is the closest a teacher comes to visualising the rules oriented towards in group grammar teaching).

In the analysis, I have shown that the movement to the level of grammatical rules in the teacher’s positive evaluation turn typically comes about because teacher and pupils alike are on a quest for

253 The episode referred to in the extract clip has not taken place during my visits so I have no data from it, but from the finding that the rules are only made materially visible in class grammar teaching, I speculate that the original, real drawing of the list has occurred as class grammar teaching, and that the pupil, at that point, has copied the teacher’s list on the blackboard onto the paper that she refers to.
one correct answer. That answer is related to the grammatical topic which the task in question is supposed to rehearse, and it is thereby correct not only because it is grammatically correct, but also because it addresses this grammatical topic. Thus, it is when the correct answer in this double sense has been established that the teacher performs the movement to invoke the grammatical rules that are relevant to the specific grammatical topic. The analysis has shown that the quest is manifested in different actualisations of the IRE-sequences (nested or independent RE-sequences) and that it is, as such, joined by both teacher and pupils. In the analysis, I have argued that this furthermore points to the considerable role played by grammatical rules in that these both determine the solution (the correct answer) to the example sentences and the interaction around these sentences. Furthermore, the fact that class grammar teaching is not only used to go through group grammar work or homework, but also directly to introduce or rehearse grammatical rules suggests that explicit, deductive orientation towards grammatical rules is seen by the teachers to be enhancing the pupils’ learning of English grammar.

An inherent part of the IRE-sequence is the teacher’s turn-allocation to a pupil after having initiated the sequence and selected a next speaker, often on the basis of pupil bids. In the analysis, I have demonstrated that the turn-allocations in class grammar teaching are of a varied, multimodal and co-constructed character, and that they can be regarded as an institutionalised practice familiar to all participants and not necessarily related specifically to grammar teaching. Yet, the analysis has shown that the teacher’s turn-allocations are decisive for how the grammar teaching evolves because they result in the construction of different participation frameworks and thereby determine the interactional development. Thus, the analysis has demonstrated a subtle shuttling between what I have termed an omnirelevant participation framework (teacher interacting with entire class) and a local participation framework (teacher interacting with a specific pupil). Again, the way that this shuttling concretely takes place is related to the quest for the correct answer and thus to the grammatical topic and rules underlying this quest.

8.2.5 Interactional practices in collection 5: How integrated grammar teaching is conducted and what it entails

The analysis in collection 5 has considered how integrated grammar teaching is conducted and what it entails, and it has shown that what makes integrated grammar teaching integrated is mostly the material used, and not the way in which the teaching is carried out. The point of departure is an element from a text which is not in itself grammar oriented, but which the class work with in their actual textual work. Thereby, the material used in integrated grammar teaching is more contextualised than for example the task sheets with precomposed example sentences often employed in group grammar teaching. Integrated grammar teaching can take place both in group text work and in class text work, and it can serve two purposes; one being to invoke grammatical rules in and for themselves with the pedagogical purpose of rehearsing these, and the other one being to orient towards grammatical rules as a stepping stone to reaching not-grammar-related points, in which case I have described the orientation towards grammar as taking place in a side sequence. Thereby, the central finding in collection 5 has been that the rule orientation seen in
group grammar teaching and class grammar teaching is reproduced in integrated grammar teaching.

Regardless of which of the two purposes the concrete integrated grammar teaching episode serves, I have demonstrated in the analysis that a grammatical slot is interactionally and sequentially constructed, and within this slot, the interaction resembles the one shown in the earlier collections on group grammar teaching and class grammar teaching. Thus, the quest for the correct grammatical answer as well as the progressive and multimodal way of arriving at this answer is also to be found in integrated grammar teaching. Hence, it is not only the explicit rule orientation, but also the interactional practices in which this rule orientation is manifested, which to a large extent is carried over into the more tangential moments of integrated grammar teaching.

8.3 Contributions enabled by my methodological, conceptual and analytical framework

The above findings on interactional practices in English grammar teaching in the observed gymnasium classes have all been enabled by the methodological, conceptual and analytical framework that I have established in this thesis to approach my cardinal research questions:

- How, from a multimodal, interactional perspective, are English grammar teaching practices being constructed in the five classrooms,
- what characterises these practices,
- and what are the relations between these practices and research and policy on L2 grammar instruction?

In chapter 4, I have collected a conceptual and analytical toolbox to assist me in my multimodal, interactional approach to analysing English grammar teaching practices, and I have positioned this approach meta-theoretically within a socio-interactional framework. In chapter 5, I have described the methodological considerations made and steps taken in order to produce adequate, qualitative empirical data. Together, these two chapters have thereby functioned first as a theoretical account of the fundamentally different approach to L2 grammar instruction taken in this thesis in comparison to the traditional approach of existing L2 grammar instruction research which I have reviewed in chapter 2. In the analysis proper, this theoretical account has then been translated into actual research practice.

Considering more generally across the five collections what the perspectives put forward in my analytical toolbox have brought to the analysis, I here want to emphasise the analytical findings that underscore the existence of the interactional practices outlined above. From the comprehensive methodological framework of CA I have borrowed certain concepts and understandings without adopting the framework in its entirety. This dissertation is thereby not claiming to be doing CA, but to be using parts of it as analytical tools as these have shown to be useful in the analysis. In chapter 4, I have described why I do not find that CA and CA-for-SLA in their traditional speech-oriented versions alone would bring me far enough in my investigation of actual grammar teaching practices. Yet, I am also aware that this eclectic way of employing CA is not commonplace (though it is done by others too, see for instance Eskildsen, 2011). I return
to considering this issue in the conclusion in chapter 9. Here, I want to stress that CA’s fundamental understanding of all interaction as being sequentially organised as well as its emic approach to analysing this organisation have fed into the analyses in all collections. Hence, the three-step interactional practice of coming to deal with the grammatical problem in group grammar teaching; the co-constructed, progressive closing of group grammar teaching; the explicit rule orientation in group grammar teaching functioning sometimes as a side sequence; the teacher’s preferred evaluation turn in IRE-sequences being expanded to include an explicitly rule-oriented explanation in class grammar teaching; as well as the sequential co-construction of a grammar slot in integrated grammar teaching – these are all findings that would probably not have come about without approaching the data in the specific way proposed by CA. Likewise, the concepts of side sequence, IRE-sequence, turn-allocation and deviant cases have all been useful devices to analytically coming to grasp the orderliness, and with that the interactional practices, of the otherwise seemingly chaotic and diverse classroom interaction recorded. Furthermore, Seedhouse’s (2004) CA-for-SLA perspective on a reflexive relation between interaction and pedagogy has been a valuable point of departure for the analysis of actual grammar teaching.

Turning to microethnography and embodied interaction analysis, I have adopted microethnography’s four perspectives (embodied, material, institutional, built space) employed to investigate how people interactively create and sustain the social and organisational realities that they inhabit as well as how bodily conduct and the material environment become relevant and reflexively constituted in action. In the analysis, I have exactly tried to investigate how teachers and pupils interactively create and sustain English grammar teaching as the organisational reality of the considered extract clips, and I have also focused on how bodily conduct and the material environment are made relevant and reflexively constituted in that teaching.

As a way of opening up the considered extract clips to the four perspectives, I have employed the analytical concepts of participation framework, semiotic resources or fields, contextual configuration and reflexive awareness, all deriving from Goodwin’s embodied interaction analysis. These concepts have served as relevant tools to approach the multimodal dimension of the sequentially organised interaction and thereby to analytically ground the arguments being made in this thesis that actual English grammar teaching is co-constructed in situated interaction, and that this interaction is an intricate assemblage of a range of resources and therefore involves much more than mere speech.

Thus, from the perspective of microethnography and embodied interaction analysis on social action as being embodied and accomplished by the use of a range of delicately coordinated semiotic resources, I have found that visible, embodied actions (gaze trajectories, gestures, body movements and bodily interaction with material artefacts) are interrelated with the verbal part of the teaching and play a decisive role in the ongoing structuring of the interaction. These embodied actions feature in all modes of grammar teaching as well as in all the different uses to which these modes are put. As such, they are central to understanding how the three modes of grammar teaching are accomplished in practice and in what ways grammar is being oriented towards in that accomplishment.
From my use of microethnography and embodied interaction analysis I have furthermore found that there is a manifest material dimension to English grammar teaching in the five classes in that the interaction is markedly mediated by material pedagogical objects, such as a worksheet containing example sentences or a blackboard also containing example sentences, or used to visualise the related grammatical rules. In one instance, also a transparency and an overhead projector have been shown to serve this mediating function. In microethnography, material objects are regarded as both a resource and a medium of interaction that feature both in the production of action and in the ways in which participants make sense of each other’s conduct. On that basis, the analysis has shown how for instance a worksheet containing example sentences as an underlying reference point or common focus of attention is what makes the grammar teaching progress in that it both makes possible the production of the actions, which the grammar teaching consists of (establishing a correct answer in group grammar teaching or going through the sentences one by one in class grammar teaching), and enables the participants to follow and make sense of each other’s conduct in relation to that production of actions.

In an analysis of the embodied interaction of a game of hopscotch, Goodwin (2000) states:

More generally, once the grid as a relevant semiotic system is taken into account, our framework for the analysis of the organization of action encompasses not only sequences of talk and the bodies of actors, but also the material structure in the surround. Participants visibly attend to such graphic fields as crucial to the organization of the events and action that make up activity reflexively situated within a setting, and which contribute structure to that action (1505).

I find that the worksheet or the blackboard as material objects can be compared with the grid in Goodwin’s analysis, and by including them in my analysis, I have thus attempted to show how the participants visibly attend to these objects in a way which both makes them crucial to the structural organisation of the interaction and situates that interaction in a particular setting – the classroom concerned. Goodwin (1504-1505) discusses how the grid differs radically from both talk and gesture because of its materiality, and again, I find it possible to see some of the same differences between the worksheet and the blackboard on the one hand and the teacher’s talk and gestures on the other. Goodwin mentions the extended temporal duration of the concrete material and defines it not as a mental representation, but as corporeal and solid. At the same time, however, he stresses that the grid – or the worksheet and the blackboard in my case – is thoroughly a semiotic structure. He states:

Indeed, it provides crucial frameworks for the building of action that could not exist without it, such as successful jumps, outs, fouls, etc. […]. Simultaneously, the game is just as impossible without embodiment of the semiotic structure provided by the grid in a medium that can be actually jumped on (1504-1505).

Applied in my context, this results in a double view on the use of worksheet and blackboard as material objects in the interaction. On the one hand, these objects are crucial for the building of the grammar teaching analysed – that teaching would not have been the same had the worksheet
and the blackboard not been included. On the other hand, the semiotic structure provided by worksheet and blackboard has to be embodied, i.e. actively employed by teacher and pupils in concert for it to come to play such a decisive role in specific grammar teaching episodes. For instance, the blackboard does not contribute significantly to the development of the interaction when it is not visibly brought into play and oriented towards by the participants. Hence, the various embodied movements and material objects involved in the observed L2 grammar teaching are conspicuous, yet often neglected elements of that kind of teaching. They serve to visually augment what the teacher provides verbally and therefore cannot in fairness continue to be ignored.

Drawing on microethnography’s perspective on built space, i.e. that it shapes social interaction and that interaction shapes social space, I have described in the analysis how the décor of the setting (for instance the presence of a blackboard as a special symbol of its institution) as well as the seating arrangements invite certain kinds of interaction. I have linked this with the institutional perspective of microethnography and shown how the kind of interaction that is invited is one in which the identities of teacher and pupils are performed in relation to each other. One element of this relative performance is the positioning of teacher and pupils, respectively, and here I have described how the teacher’s permanent position in front of the blackboard during class grammar teaching, having access to writing on it, as well as the pupils’ seating at their tables, facing the teacher and the blackboard, cause this mode of grammar teaching to be more directly related to the built space than group grammar teaching, though in this mode too it is sometimes possible to see explicit orientations towards blackboard and seating arrangements, which take part in establishing the built space as a classroom. From here I have argued that the way of employing the built space during grammar teaching occasions a certain teacher-orientation which in turn renders the teacher’s management and control of the turn-taking seemingly natural. On that basis I have argued that it is possible to talk about a dialectical, mutually constitutive relationship between the built, institutional space and the concrete interaction taking place in it in the sense that the built, institutional space shapes the social interaction, and the interaction at the same time shapes that space as a classroom and both enables and constitutes the performance and maintenance of the institutional, relational identities of teacher and pupils.\footnote{Yet, the analysis has also shown that negotiation of the rights of teacher and pupils, respectively, can take place. In and through the multimodal performance of the relational identities, these very identities can be both maintained and resisted. However, also in such a situation, the quest for the correct grammatical answer as well as the orientation towards grammatical rules are continued, thereby eventually maintaining the relational identities.}

Together, all these findings have contributed to providing insights into how actual, situated English grammar teaching practices are being multimodally co-constructed in the five classrooms. Furthermore, they have shown that these practices are characterised by being simultaneously complex and orderly. However, the central finding enabled by my methodological, conceptual and analytical framework with regard to what characterises the interactional practices discerned is that, in all instances, a considerable amount of explicit orientation to and inclusion of

\footnote{Yet, the analysis has also shown that negotiation of the rights of teacher and pupils, respectively, can take place. In and through the multimodal performance of the relational identities, these very identities can be both maintained and resisted. However, also in such a situation, the quest for the correct grammatical answer as well as the orientation towards grammatical rules are continued, thereby eventually maintaining the relational identities.}
grammatical rules takes place. In the following section, I therefore consider this element and the way in which it is manifest across the different modes of grammar teaching and the various concrete uses to which these modes are being put.

8.4 The what, how and when of interactionally orienting towards grammatical rules: interconnectedness between interactional practices and orientations towards grammatical rules

It should be clear from the above sections that the central and indispensable finding of this study concerns the pervasive orientation towards grammatical rules. The fact that the explicit movement to the abstract level of general grammatical rules is of such a universal character (happening across modes of grammar teaching, across teachers and classes, and internally in each mode of grammar teaching across different concrete uses of it) leads me to conclude that the teachers regard grammatical rules as a pedagogical resource and, at the same time, as the central learning objective of grammar teaching. Teaching grammar is teaching the grammatical rules.

It might not come as a surprise that the analysis has identified a considerable number of cases of orientations towards grammatical rules in all modes of grammar teaching. After all, these rules constitute the part of the curriculum that deals with grammar in the sense that it is, in the last resort, on the basis of these rules that the pupils are supposed to learn the grammar of the L2. This is so no matter whether the curriculum prescribes explicit or implicit grammar teaching; deductive or inductive grammar teaching; all of these; or none of them. As it has also been described in my discussion of how to define grammar and grammar teaching in chapter 2, grammar is ‘the structure and form of an L2’, it is the ‘structural organisation’ of that language, or its ‘linguistic code’. Hence, grammar teaching is also teaching which focuses on the structural and formal traits of the L2 (see chapter 2). However, the detailed interactional and multimodal analysis has done more than merely show that grammatical rules are being oriented towards in all the three modes of grammar teaching considered. By pinpointing the interactional grammar teaching practices in play in the different modes of grammar teaching, the analysis has shown what the orientation towards grammatical rules amounts to; how the orientation towards grammatical rules is accomplished in situated interaction; and when the orientation towards grammatical rules takes place in the sequential organisation of the grammar teaching.

With regard to what the orientation towards grammatical rules amounts to, the analyses have first of all shown that the rule orientation is of an explicit character, regardless of whether this teaching takes place as group grammar teaching, class grammar teaching or integrated grammar teaching. The rules are not only alluded to, but clearly recited and often also made literally visible. Furthermore, I have argued that the rules are invoked in a deductive manner – the pupils are at no point asked to work their way inductively from concrete examples towards determining the

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255 From my content analysis in chapter 3 of the ministerial teaching plan and guide to the teaching plan, I have argued that apart from placing grammar as a key element of the subject English (and thereby making grammatical rules part of the curriculum), the guidelines are almost void of content when it comes to designating the specific ways in which they find that English grammar should be taught in the gymnasium.
grammatical rule behind, it is always the other way around. An additional point is that the rules are always explicitly brought into the interaction by the teachers and not by the pupils. This suggests that it is the teachers who insist on the importance of directly invoking the rules, whereas the pupils are perhaps just as interested in completing the tasks on their worksheet. At least this is one way of interpreting the fact that the pupils at no point explicitly begin to invoke grammatical rules without first having been asked to do so, nor do they appear to delve in the teacher’s rule-based explanations. Yet, the pupils do not oppose the teachers’ rule orientation either – as shown in the analyses, the interactional grammar teaching practices delineated are of a co-constructed character.

Considering how the rule orientation is accomplished in situated interaction, the multimodal and interactional analysis has, as accounted for above, shown that the movement to the abstract level of grammatical rules takes place in a subtle orchestration of various semiotic resources. Furthermore, slots and channelling have been shown to be a central way for the teachers to break down and downgrade the grammar exercise, across the different modes of grammar teaching, and at the same time to maintain the pursuit of the one correct answer related to the grammatical topic and rules in focus. Yet, whereas the orientation towards grammatical rules most often happens in the same way, it does not happen at the same sequential point in the interaction.

Thus, with regard to when the orientation towards grammatical rules takes place, the analyses have discerned several different sequential structures: rule invocation in a side sequence prior to having established the correct answer; rule invocation as post hoc validation after the correct answer has been established; stepwise invocation of rules in question-answer sequences which can occur both before and after finding of correct answer, and the invocation of a rule in the teacher’s preferred evaluation turn in an IRE-sequence. The fact that the movement occurs at different places sequentially (both before and after a correct answer to the given grammatical task has been found) suggests that grammatical rules as pedagogical resources serve at least two different roles in the grammar teaching in the five observed gymnasium classes. In other words, the multimodal, interactional analysis shows that grammar rules are doing different interactional jobs and as such vary in pedagogical expression. Teaching grammatical rules is thereby not simple work whose actual manifestation can be imagined in advance. Rather, it appears that in practice, teaching grammatical rules is very complex work which means teachers invoke the rules in varied sequential positions, for different purposes, in an intricate assemblage of interactional, multimodal elements.

The only episode in which a seemingly inductive method is applied is analysed in collection 4 as extract 104, clip 3.5, where the teacher wants the pupils to list the rules for what adjectives and adverbs, respectively, qualify, but where she realises that the pupils cannot remember the rules and therefore tries to have them induce the rules from concrete, simple sentences invented on the spot. However, the analysis also shows that this is an exception which exactly comes about because the pupils cannot remember the rules, and because the teacher wants the list on the blackboard for the subsequent group grammar teaching, where these rules are then meant to assist the pupils in their solving of the concrete task sentences. As such, she can be seen to be improvising an inductive method in order to enable the deductive grammar work that she had originally envisaged.
In this manner, grammatical rules can be seen to be used as interactional resources in the interaction because of the specific ways in which they are being oriented towards and invoked as pedagogical resources. This implies that interactional practices and orientation to grammatical rules can be seen to be highly interconnected in the sense that the grammatical content affects the interactional development, just as the interactional development has consequences for how that grammatical content is being accentuated. This fundamental interconnectedness is decisive to how grammar is being taught in practice, and yet, it remains an unnoticed dimension in existing L2 grammar instruction research because its cognitive-interactionist methodology is not geared towards making such findings.

In the following, I widen the narrow focus on the analytical findings of my multimodal, interactional analyses and turn to consider more broadly the last part of my cardinal question, which concerns the relations between the described English grammar teaching practices and research and policy on L2 grammar instruction, respectively.

8.5 English grammar teaching practices in relation to research on L2 grammar instruction

In chapter 6, where I have analytically established the different empirical modes of grammar teaching, I have related these modes to concepts and understandings from within the reviewed research on L2 grammar instruction. Therefore, I do not conduct a thorough relational analysis here. Rather, the objective is to pinpoint what the detailed findings of the interactional practices within these modes of actually occurring grammar teaching can bring to existing research.

When related to existing research on L2 grammar instruction, the insight into English grammar teaching practices first of all shows that what happens in the L2 classroom is far more complex than the scenarios set up in experimental, laboratory-based studies. Also, with regard to the quasi-experimental, classroom-based studies, the findings of this thesis suggest that measuring learning only by means of pre-tests and post-tests misses an essential part of the learning process: the teaching situation. This situation is by no means as simple and straightforward as existing research often appears to imply by not focusing on it. On the contrary, my analyses show that it is very sensitive to a range of ‘extra’ (i.e. so far unnoticed) variables in play in that a range of resources (embodied, material, sequential, rules of thumb, etc.) are used by both teachers and pupils to do the teaching. The different configurations of these resources influence the way in which the instruction takes place. Furthermore, because of the interconnectedness between interactional practices and orientation towards grammatical rules determined above, this intricate assemblage has repercussions for the teaching content. What these findings come down to, then, in relation to existing L2 grammar instruction research, is that context matters. In other words, the analyses in this thesis show how L2 grammar teaching is of a situational, co-constructed, interactional and multimodal character as well as how it is both complex and orderly, and these are important findings for research which sets out to provide recommendations for practice.
The analyses of English grammar teaching practices furthermore show that, at least in the particular context of this study, not all theoretical recommendations are being followed. Specifically, I have found that the observed teachers make use of parallel or isolated grammar teaching, whether in groups or in class, to a far greater extent than what much recent research within the field seems to advocate. In existing research, the massive real-world occurrence of isolated grammar teaching is often either ignored or articulated as a survival of olden times as the researchers go on to make inquiries into the benefits of integrated grammar teaching. I do not contend that such research is necessary, but I find that it represents a prioritisation which is distorted in comparison with reality, at least with the reality that I have had access to via the three case studies. Information from practice, in other words, appears to be insufficient.

Unfortunately, the opposite seems to be the case as well: that information to practice is insufficient too. Another relevant finding when relating research and practice is that practice, i.e. the three teachers in my particular study, appear to be only minimally informed about the existence of the research field investigating L2 grammar instruction, and even less informed about the findings of this research. Furthermore, with regard to the very experienced Teacher 2, a certain distancing from the research can perhaps be perceived in how she jokingly describes grammar teaching pedagogy as being characterised by re-emerging trends that she more or less ignores because she feels that she has found the methods that work for her and her classes (separate interview with Teacher 2, December 2009). It is not that the teachers do not reflect on how and why they teach grammar, but from what the teachers say in the interviews, these reflections have their roots in other things, such as experience, the exam at the end of the three years in upper secondary school which contains a grammar test, the grammar teaching they have received themselves, the material which is available to them at the time, what seems to work in the particular class etc. Both Teacher 1 and Teacher 3 state that they have come across the research field in their teacher training, but they also maintain that it has only happened very briefly, and, at any rate, all three teachers agree that findings from this research field do not constitute a parameter in their everyday planning and teaching. If it is not a sign of failure, then it is, at least, something to reflect severely on for the research field that their findings on L2 grammar teaching do not reach those who have such teaching as their very job.

8.6 English grammar teaching practices in relation to policy in the form of ministerial guidelines

I chapter 3, I have conducted a content analysis of the ministerial guidelines in relation to research on L2 grammar instruction. This analysis has shown that the guides are very vague when it comes to providing actual guidance on grammar teaching (in opposition to how detailed they

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257 This rather robust attitude should not be taken to mean that Teacher 2 is not interested in developing her teaching and taking on new methods. In the second formal conversation with Teacher 2 (September 2011), she told me that they were now experimenting with cooperative learning, and that exercises from this pedagogy had been quite successful in creating variation in the grammar teaching and in making the pupils participate actively in new ways.

258 Here and in the following section, I draw on information gained in the individual interviews with Teacher 1 (December 2009, September 2011), Teacher 2 (December 2009, September 2011), and Teacher 3 (September 2011).
are on other subject areas of English). There is no explicit stance with regard to language understanding and approach, just like suggestions on how to teach English grammar have to be deduced from reading between the lines. What the teachers find is merely that they have to teach grammar because it is a ‘core element’ of the subject English, and furthermore that their teaching should be varied. Considerations of, for instance, integrated versus isolated grammar teaching are left to the teachers.

When the detailed insight into English grammar teaching practices provided in this thesis is related to the ministerial guidelines, one thing becomes especially noticeable: the apparent mismatch between the variety and complexity of situational, co-constructed, interactional and multimodal grammar teaching practices on the one hand and what could almost be characterised as muteness in the guidelines when it comes to grammar teaching guidance on the other hand. I do not mean to suggest that the guidelines should be absolutely prescriptive with regard to how the teachers should teach grammar, but had the guidelines been more informed by both research and practice, they would perhaps be more useful to the teachers. When asked, the teachers hardly recall what the guides say about grammar teaching. They do not use the guides to the same extent, but they all stress that it is first and foremost the ministerial demands concerning the grammar test at the final exam which play a role in their considerations about how to teach grammar. All three teachers point to this exam as being decisive to their grammar teaching in the sense that they teach what they know the pupils will need for the exam.

Teacher 1 describes this as an almost inevitable ‘teach-the-test-approach’ to grammar teaching (separate interview with Teacher 1, September 2011). What is more, the exam appears to influence not only the selection of actual grammatical content, but also how that content is being taught. All three teachers argue that when it is a demand in the exam that the pupils can both apply and explain the grammatical rules, then these rules have to be made accessible to them. Hence, they focus on explicit grammar teaching. I find that in a situation with a governing exam in the end, it is even more problematic that there is no actual guidance in the ministerial guidelines.

It is important to stress that the teachers do not oppose the idea of testing the pupils’ grammatical abilities separately in the exam. On the contrary, they all believe that the increased demands that came with the gymnasium reform in 2005 were intended to ensure a certain amount of linguistic orientation in the teaching, and they appreciate this and maintain that it has resulted in more grammar teaching. Nevertheless, seeing precisely how influential the exam demands is on the actual teaching and the way in which it is conducted, it could be argued that a fundamental discussion is needed on the level of the ministerial guidelines of the objective with the grammar teaching seen in relation to how it is, and could be, taught and tested. As has been described in chapter 3, the work in the councils producing the ministerial documents has not (or

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259 From the interviews with the teachers, it is clear that the more experienced each teacher becomes, the less he or she uses the ministerial guidelines. Thus, Teacher 3 states that gradually, as the teacher goes through the three years with different classes, a certain insight into what is expected and how to accomplish that develops. Therefore, consulting the guidelines becomes less and less necessary (separate interview with Teacher 3, September 2011).

260 When asked, the teachers find that this point helps explain why so much of my data concerns adjectives vs. adverbs.

261 Neither do I from my non-normative positioning in this thesis.
in the case of the guide to the teaching plan only to a minimal extent) included research-based knowledge on L2 acquisition and teaching. In my view, this is highly problematic in itself, and here I want to argue that the findings of the present study further necessitate a fundamental discussion of objectives and means in English grammar teaching in that these findings have opened up ‘practice’, enabling an orientation towards it which is more thorough than the surface level of ‘how things are ordinarily done.’

In the meantime, it should be said that it appears that the teachers themselves have begun to experiment more with different task types and ways of invoking grammatical rules in the grammar teaching. In the second round of interviews that I have conducted just prior to finishing the thesis, all three teachers told me that they are trying out exercises from within the pedagogy of cooperative learning. Furthermore, Teacher 3 told me that she and Teacher 1, being colleagues at the same gymnasium, had recently decided that they would try to find more inductive grammar tasks, and that the result so far was that they had shared two such tasks with each other. Teacher 2 has embarked upon teaching a class in an entirely internet-based manner, though she stressed that the grammar teaching is still parallel, it just takes place in another medium and is therefore entertaining in another way than the traditional insertion tasks on a worksheet. Teacher 1 complained about what he called a lack of creativity in Danish books on English grammar and also stated that in general he would prefer it if more focus was put on language didactics – in the guidelines, in the teacher training and in the actual teaching. When asked, he described ‘ideal grammar teaching’ as ‘explorative’ and ‘inclusive’. Teacher 3 stated that when the same tasks, and with that, the same teaching methods, are often used again and again, it is mostly due to lack of time to find or create new tasks, and not because innovation and variation are of no interest to the teachers. Hence, an even more complex picture of actual grammar teaching emerges here than the one designated in this thesis. I find this to further underline my argument that both existing research on L2 grammar instruction and ministerial guidelines on the subject English in the Danish gymnasium could benefit from more orientation towards and appreciation of just how complex and multifaceted teaching L2 grammar is in practice.

8.7 Chapter summary

In this discussion, I have pinpointed the findings of my analyses enabled by the conceptual, analytical and methodological framework developed in the thesis and discussed them in relation to research on L2 grammar instruction and policy on the subject English in the Danish

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262 In general, cooperative learning can be said to have become increasingly popular lately with more and more educational institutions adopting its pedagogy. The three teachers that I have followed all appeared to regard cooperative learning very much as a trendy buzz-word, yet, they also maintained that certain elements of it are both refreshing and useful, as long as it is not a matter of appropriating the entire package. Interestingly, the pedagogy of cooperative learning is heavily inspired by Vygotsky’s view on the social nature of learning and by his concept of zone of proximal development. This view also constitutes a cornerstone in socio-cultural SLA research and from there feeds into a socio-interactional approach to studying L2 learning as well.

263 Teacher 1 told me that he was currently participating in a course on inclusive teaching, which focuses on different learning styles and on involving and engaging pupils from all kinds of backgrounds, also non-academic ones. Thus, his answers may be influenced by the input he has gained from that course.
gymnasium, respectively. I have concluded that, essentially, grammar teaching is about interactionally orienting towards and following grammatical rules, and furthermore that this rule following has noticeable embodied and material dimensions to it. Analysing class grammar teaching “as something accomplished through the temporally unfolding juxtaposition of multiple semiotic fields with quite diverse structure and properties” (Goodwin, 2000:1517) has revealed that this teaching is not constituted in any single field, and furthermore that the various fields that are brought into play in the continually changing contextual configurations mutually elaborate each other. Thus, I find it possible to conclude that employing a more interaction-oriented, qualitative analytical framework uncovers a far more complex teaching situation than what has been acknowledged in L2 grammar instruction research so far.\(^{264}\) It is obvious that studies which centre on the effectiveness of a given teaching strategy on pupils’ learning of L2 grammar, and which attempt to measure this via pre- and post-tests without paying attention to how that teaching actually evolves in the classroom and not least to the embodied and material resources employed, miss essential aspects of the teaching situation. My empirical research has shown that the focus-on-forms (FonFS, isolated or parallel grammar teaching) – a mode of L2 grammar teaching which is largely ignored or directly disqualified in traditional L2 grammar instruction research – is in fact in practice a much used way of organising the grammar teaching. And the analysis has added to that finding that it is not only so that the grammatical content affects the interactional teaching practices, but also that these practices to a considerable extent affect how the grammatical content is being accentuated. This fundamental interconnectedness, and the intricate ways in which it comes about in the different modes of grammar teaching, to me shows that orienting towards how actual L2 grammar teaching in real-life contexts takes place in situated, co-constructed, embodied and material interactional practices is a highly relevant and rich approach, which can supplement existing research within the field and not least take part in establishing more productive relations between research, policy and practice of L2 grammar instruction.

\(^{264}\) The same goes for most CA-for-SLA studies so far. Even Kääntä, who combines CA with Goodwin’s analytical framework and thereby arrives at much more multisemiotic results than most CA-based L2 classroom interaction research, focuses mostly on adding an embodied dimension to the traditional CA-approach to the IRE-sequence, thereby not fully acknowledging the role played by material objects and the institutional built space. Importantly, this can probably be at least partly explained by the fact that Kääntä and I do not share the same point of departure and research interest – she focuses on the multisemiotic accomplishment of the IRE-sequence in two different L2 classroom contexts, whereas I concentrate on a specific element of L2 teaching, grammar, and investigate interactional practices involved in the different ways in which this element is being taught in a particular L2 classroom setting.
Chapter 9  Concluding reflections

9.1  Chapter overview and purpose

This thesis has investigated everyday English grammar teaching practices as these are multimodally and interactionally constructed in five Danish gymnasium classrooms. In addition, it has enquired into how these teaching practices relate to research-based recommendations and policy prescriptions. A primary goal of the thesis has thus been to provide new (contextual) knowledge about how English grammar teaching is actually accomplished in practice. That knowledge has then been applied to meet the second goal of the thesis: to employ the analytical findings as a practice platform from which to relate critically to research on L2 grammar instruction as well as to the ministerial guidelines that English teachers in the Danish gymnasium work from. On the basis of this double research interest, the central argument in this thesis is that orienting towards socially situated, interactively and multimodally constructed grammar teaching practices is a relevant and necessary supplement to L2 grammar instruction research.

By employing the term ‘supplement’ I want to stress that the intention has not been to disqualify existing grammar instruction research. Rather, my study has been fuelled by a quest to add a thoroughly qualitative, interpretive account to existing, quantitative-experimental L2 grammar instruction research, in an appreciation of the fact that these two different perspectives are not incommensurable and more often complement rather than preclude each other. Duff (2008:201) argues that “although interpretive accounts are often quite compelling, these newer approaches to research in applied linguistics are not necessarily supplanting older ones, but rather are complementing them, providing alternatives and challenges to the discourses of traditional research.” I want to maintain that in its provision of a complementary socio-interactional, qualitative-interpretive perspective, my study does challenge the dominant cognitive-interactionist, quantitative-experimental discourse of the research field.

In the previous discussion chapter, I have distilled the essence of the analytical findings made in the thesis and discussed these findings in relation to the two frames of research and policy, respectively. The intention in this concluding chapter is therefore not to repeat my analytical conclusions, but rather to reflect and conclude on the conceptual, analytical and methodological
framework established to conduct the study. Specifically, this means that I in the following first reflect on the interdisciplinary, eclectic status of the framework, after which I consider its general relevance and from there conclude on the implications of my work for the three respective dimensions. I then present some methodological considerations and finally suggest an outline for relevant future research.

9.2 Interdisciplinary and eclectic conceptual, analytical and methodological approach

In my review of cognitive-interactionist, quantitative-experimental L2 grammar instruction research (see chapter 2), I have defined a research deficit which largely concerns a lack of orientation towards the teaching situation as co-constructed, multimodal interaction taking place in a real-life context. On this basis and with my consequential focus on situated everyday English grammar teaching practices, I have made two fundamental moves in the thesis: from the intrapersonal to the interpersonal, and from learning to teaching. A methodological aim of the thesis has therefore been to establish an analytically adequate conceptual framework in which such interpersonal teaching practices could be understood and investigated. To do so, I have been seeking outside of the sometimes narrow borders of the research field to locate appropriate alternative positions and methods. The result of this search is an interdisciplinary framework which meta-theoretically has a socio-interactional positioning, and which emerges as an eclectic constellation of CA, embodied interaction analysis, microethnography, ethnographic case studies, and video-recorded data analysis. This framework has been developed in chapters 4 and 5, where it is divided into what I have termed 'collecting a conceptual and analytical toolbox' and 'qualitative research design', respectively. With regard to the first, I find that the metaphor of a toolbox is adequate at displaying how, in the analysis proper, my eclectic approach has enabled me to pick the precise ‘tool’ (analytical concept) or mix the different ‘tools’ from CA, embodied interaction analysis or microethnography that could serve to open up the given excerpts and thereby bring me closer to the interactional practices in play across my corpus. Thus, first, the borrowings from CA have been useful in analysing spoken resources in relation to the sequential development of the interaction; second, the borrowings from embodied interaction analysis have been particularly strong in analysing embodied resources in relation to enabling and accomplishing interaction; and, third, the borrowings from microethnography have been valuable in the analysis of material resources in play, including the built, institutional space. Nevertheless, by using the metaphor of a toolbox I might at the same time be accused of simplifying matters too much and ignoring fundamental differences between the involved approaches. With regard to the qualitative research design, the same argument could be raised against my way of simultaneously conducting ethnographic case studies and more CA-oriented, corpus-based collection analyses. This is a point of critique that interdisciplinary, eclectic research methodology often faces, and that I have attempted to avoid by stating clearly in what ways I have employed the different approaches, by calling attention to their shared meta-theoretical socio-

265 At least as these are defined by the studies considered in the large amount of syntheses being made within the field. I have included a range of these syntheses in the review in chapter 2.

266 For instance, I have stressed that I am not doing CA in this dissertation, but merely using the analytical concepts and understandings that I have found to be pertinent to my undertaking, and I have explained why this is so.
interactional positioning (in that way not combining fundamentally incommensurable positions); and not least by discussing their differences in relation to my research objectives. 

Hence, I have attempted to acknowledge both methodological similarities and differences.

9.3 General relevance of research approach

Turning to consider the status of the findings made from the conceptual, analytical and methodological approach, I want to argue that despite the fundamental context-specificity of my study, several issues are of general relevance to other players, outside of the specific context. First of all, I want to suggest that the (alternative) way of researching L2 grammar teaching practices developed in this thesis represents a method that is applicable in other L2 contexts, and I find that carrying out such research would be both relevant and interesting future research, serving to further qualify and corroborate the findings of the present study. Second, although the exact interactional practices delineated in this study are probably both participant- and situation-specific, my study has pointed to the baseline of sets of phenomena that will expectedly occur in other L2 classrooms. Thus, the multimodality involved in the teaching, the sequential ordering of its interactional development, and the rule orientation are most likely elements in much other L2 grammar teaching, although it may not take place in precisely the same way as in my data corpus. Similarly, I also find it likely that the different modes of grammar teaching established will be in play in other L2 classrooms – obviously with variations, and perhaps not the four modes all together. Nevertheless, the analyses across the different teachers and classes have shown that despite immediate and not unimportant differences between these, certain patterns or practices are predominant. Some of the reasons for this might be that things pass on through mentor-mentee relations, through teacher teamwork, through available material and common practicing for the exam, as well as through teacher training. Further studies are evidently needed to confirm such speculations, but the presence of these issues in the thesis points in this direction. On the basis of this proposed general relevance, I conclude on the immediate implications of the study for researchers, policy makers and L2 grammar teachers, respectively, in the following.

9.4 Implications for research, policy and practice

With regard to research, the situated, co-constructed, interactional and multimodal character of grammar teaching practices as well as the simultaneous complexity and orderliness in these,
which this thesis has shown, serve to underline the point that it is highly important that L2 grammar instruction researchers orient towards what actually happens in their quasi-experimental studies in order to be able to tell a more nuanced, reliable and ultimately useful story. I thus find that the predominant quantitative methods could preferably be combined with more qualitative ones that take the particular institutional and interactional context of the study into account when analysing and reporting the findings of it. Furthermore, it would be beneficial if efforts were made to strengthen the communication of findings to practice, just as new input from practice would probably benefit the field. This could perhaps yield a research agenda which takes its point of departure in practice and practice needs, for instance with regard to balancing the research on isolated and integrated grammar teaching.

With regard to policy, the different analyses in the thesis\textsuperscript{270} together suggest that the committees writing and revising the teaching plans and the guides to the teaching plans could, quite simply put, do more to communicate research information of specific relevance to actual practices to teachers via the guidelines. Furthermore, they could be more aware of the complexity of actual grammar teaching practices and strive to inform teachers in a way that could help them navigate in this complexity. A place to start would be to explicitly make teachers conscious about the complexity on a meta-level, thereby assisting teachers in their reflections on how to handle the teaching in practice. Additionally, contributors to the guidelines could acknowledge that the final grammar exam is more or less explicitly present in all the grammar teaching taking place, and that this has consequences for how teachers and pupils act and interact around grammar. This is not per se a bad thing, but directly acknowledging it and providing guidance in that respect would probably make it easier for the teachers to tackle the exam presence without feeling that it determines their teaching. On a more detailed level, and on the basis of my content analysis of the ministerial guidelines, I want to suggest that the guidelines could beneficially be made to include considerations about implicit vs. explicit grammar teaching, inductive vs. deductive grammar teaching, integrated vs. parallel grammar teaching, the value of corrective feedback, suitable teaching materials, the role of input and output, progression, the relation between explicit (declarative) and implicit (procedural) knowledge, and the relation between L1 and L2. Finally, the guidelines could be explicit about their understanding of language and language learning, about relevant terminology and about how to teach appropriate language learning strategies.

Even though the main exercise of this thesis is to investigate actual English grammar teaching practices and to use the findings to look critically at both research and policy, I find that the thesis results also have certain implications for practice. Importantly, in accounting for these, I do not intend to abandon the non-normative stance taken in this thesis. The implications that I include here are not meant as prescriptions, and they are not based on evaluation of the teachers’ teaching as being efficient or inefficient, good or bad. When it comes to English teachers in the Danish gymnasium, I find that it is possible to talk about two types of implications. First, if more

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\textsuperscript{270} The content analysis of the ministerial guidelines in chapter 3 in which policy is related to research; the first part of the practice analysis in chapter 6 in which the empirical modes of grammar teaching are related to research; and the multimodal, interactional analysis in chapter 7 in which actual everyday grammar teaching practices are uncovered.
productive relations between research, policy and practice should be established, this not only demands reorientations on behalf of research and policy, but also from the teachers. Thus, with regard to research, teachers could strive to establish channels (further training, courses, meetings, readings) that would make them more informed about research findings. Likewise, teachers could seek to provide information the other way as well, letting researchers know about particularly problematic areas etc. I find that all actors would benefit from such a two-way communication. Eventually, it is all about the pupils’ learning of English, and I believe that sharing this interest, further mutual interchange should not be impossible to envisage. Similarly, with regard to policy, teachers could be more involved to ensure that the guidelines are so informative that they can actually be used in practice.

The second implication that I see for the teachers concerns how they might use the findings of this study. Being aware of how complex, co-constructed and multimodal the interaction around grammar is, teachers could actively pay more attention to their typical interactional patterns, thereby applying this knowledge as a resource in their teaching – to assist their pupils on more levels. In a discussion of nonverbal behaviour research in relation to L2 classroom teaching and learning, Quinlisk (2008) raises the following questions, which I find that the findings of the present study further underline the importance of:

If we want to create an environment in which students are comfortable enough to take risks, use a new language, and access the target language community, then we must pay attention to the communication strategies we employ. For example, do we think about what we are doing nonverbally while students are engaged in group activities? Do our nonverbal actions reinforce or contradict our verbal directions? [...] Most importantly, do we view nonverbal communication as an integral part of the communication processes that we simultaneously teach and model for our students? (39).

Very appropriately, Quinlisk’s questions are framed as teachers’ questions (‘we’, ‘our students’ etc.) which efficiently highlight the specific non-normative approach of this thesis. As stated in the thesis introduction, I have worked from the ‘Description → informed action-model’ (Richards 2005:6) which entails that I do not employ my findings to provide very concrete grammar teaching recommendations or to advise the English teachers on specific elements in their teaching. The implications suggested here are rather of an awareness-raising character, formulated on the acknowledgement that by informing professional practice, the research may serve an enabling, but not an enacting role. What I have done in this connection, besides presenting and discussing my findings with the three participating teachers, is to prepare a talk on the basis of the study findings for a network of gymnasium teachers and researchers interested in mutual exchange of knowledge. Furthermore, I have made arrangements with AngloFiles and Sprøgforum, both of which English gymnasium teachers presumably read, to publish the research in two articles. Yet, more could be done to pursue the ‘Description → informed action-model’. I treat this issue further below when I consider relevant future studies.

In chapter 5, I have described the attempts that I have so far made at giving something back to the empirical field in terms of informing about and discussing my research findings.
9.5 Methodological considerations

In the multimodal, interactional analysis I have been conducting analyses according to CA principles, but, as stressed previously, from an eclectic approach. This means that I have adopted the CA methodological and analytical framework, but not stayed within its strictures and concerned myself purely with sequential organisation on its own terms because I have found that more was needed to meet my research objectives. Thus, I have been using CA and not doing CA, with the potential risk that to a committed conversation analyst, the analyses may not appear complete. Likewise, my research interest in specific interactional grammar teaching practices (and not in more general traits of L2 classroom interaction) and my methodological objective to establish an interdisciplinary framework within which to investigate such practices have meant that I have not prioritised a thorough presentation of the foundation, central issues and analytical concepts of CA, but rather focused on enabling the multimodal analysis as a whole by extracting from, comparing and discussing the different approaches to production and analysis of data. A further reason for me to develop my conceptual, analytical and methodological framework this way has been the fact that the primary research field addressed in this thesis is that of SLA-oriented L2 grammar instruction research (and not CA, or CA-for-SLA).

With regard to my data production, the importance of my video recordings of English teaching in the five classes cannot be overestimated. Heath & Hindmarsh (2002) state:

The tacit, ‘seen but unnoticed’ character of human activity and social organization, coupled with the complexity of action and interaction, suggests that we need additional resources if we hope to explicate the details of human conduct in its ‘naturally occurring’ environments. Video recordings help provide those resources (8).

In the specific L2 classroom context investigated in this thesis, from a specific research interest in multimodal, interactional grammar teaching practices, the video recordings have unquestionably provided the resources needed to be able to approach the human activity and social organisation involved in accomplishing, and at the same time constituting, these everyday practices. Yet, drawing on Young’s (2009) reflections on the use of video recordings in studies of language in context, I want to contend that if not carefully reflected upon, the researcher runs the risk of letting his or her video-recordings pass as representations of reality as such, without acknowledging that the recordings are always made from a specific perspective and that no matter how carefully planned, they cannot capture everything that goes on in complex interaction between several participants Furthermore, the researcher’s abilities to record properly greatly influence which analytical manoeuvres can be made as well as which conclusions can be derived, and finally, video recordings are not as far reaching context-wise as one should perhaps immediately think. Young (2009) puts it thus:

For the modern linguist, the technology of audio and video recording has made the physical and spatial context of language available for analysis, but the technology provides only a blinkered view of the extended context of language.
It provides the illusion that language in its physical and spatial context is a real slice of life, but it is a very thin slice indeed, in which language is still isolated from its social, interactional, institutional, political, and historical circumstances (3).

My findings on multimodal, interactional practices (and not on language use alone, which is Young’s perspective in the quote above) in English grammar teaching have precisely been facilitated by the access to the physical and spatial context provided by the concrete video recordings. At the same time, my recordings do not provide access to all the elements outside of the actual teaching in the specific classroom that also affect that teaching. Drawing on microethnography’s insistence on employing other data types as supplements to the primary video-recorded data (Heath & Hindmarsh, 2002; LeBaron, 2008), and with the help of interviews with the teachers and one of the contributors to the ministerial documents on English in the gymnasium, as well as with a content analysis of these documents, I have attempted to address the ‘extended context’ of the observed grammar teaching. Yet, I am aware that these steps have not provided ‘the full picture’. For instance, Teacher 3 told me during our interview that much of her grammar teaching is conducted as written feedback on the pupils’ assignments (separate interview with Teacher 3, September 2011). Neither video recordings nor interviews can account for the complex practices involved in this more secluded way of teaching grammar. I thus acknowledge that more ethnographic work could complement the findings of the thesis.

At the same time, I want to maintain that no matter how extensive an ethnography, and also regardless of possibly flawless video recordings, ‘the full picture’ remains an ideal that one as a researcher should strive for, but at the same time precisely acknowledge as an (unobtainable) ideal. This is another way of doing away with the myth of the single decisive study touched upon in chapter 2. My study is carried out from a specific perspective, with a specific research interest, and with my own person being deeply involved not only in data analysis and interpretation as is always the case in qualitative research, but also in data production. Furthermore, the participants in my study are living subjects who in their being are always already interpreted, and who possess the ability to react to the researcher’s study, presence and/or conclusions. Hence, my conclusions on multimodal, interactional grammar teaching practices present one version, arrived at in a specific time and place. However, as also described above, I find that it would be possible for others to do similar research and corroborate my findings, thereby engaging in accumulative and comparative research practices.

9.6 Areas of further work
In this section, I address issues that are not pursued in the thesis, as well as future work that could be done to boost the quality and generalisability of the findings, adapt the methodology, and apply the findings in practice. First, the thesis has not paid much attention to teaching differences between teachers and classes. The differences between teachers in, for instance, their

272 In the discussion, I have described how the three teachers are all experimenting with their grammar teaching, in that way having already changed their practices.
use of turn-allocation practices have been touched upon in the analysis, whereas other differences have remained uninvestigated. I am confident that a study which focuses on the multimodal and interactional differences in the three teachers’ English grammar teaching practices would also yield exciting results, but as a first step into exploring actual L2 grammar teaching from a socio-interactional perspective, I have found that investigating common practices and their situated co-construction was a suitable place to start.

Furthermore, my study has not been particularly engaged with unequal power relations and distribution of rights in the L2 classroom. Several places in the analysis, I have touched upon the interactional performance and maintenance of the relational, institutional identities of teacher and pupil, but relating these explicitly to authority issues has not been a primary concern. However, this is certainly another possible road into the data corpus, and it is likely that significant findings could be made with regard to possible relations between authority and orientation to/invocation of grammatical rules in grammar teaching, looking at interactional constructions of the teacher as a grammar expert (regardless of whether he or she knows the grammar as an expert or not).

This, then, is a possible future study.

In order to boost the generalisability of the research findings, a comparative approach could be designed, in which the context-specific, empirical conclusions of this thesis could be related to findings from other contexts. Other dimensions could also be added in the ethnographic quest; for instance, the two issues of teacher training and grammar teaching material, both of which have only been superficially touched upon in this thesis. Such a comparative approach would enable accumulation of knowledge that would ultimately provide thorough insights into both context-specificities and general interactional practices in L2 grammar teaching.

Similarly, the conceptual, analytical and methodological framework could be further developed, refined and tested in practice. In principle, the framework is applicable in any study of social action, and I find that applying it in and adapting it to an entirely different teaching context (for instance a non-institutional, informal teaching situation, perhaps not even related to the learning of an L2) would be one way of testing its general strength. Furthermore, such a study could provide relevant insights into both shared and exclusive aspects of different types of teaching. Especially, the prevalence of rule orientation and rule-following found in the observed English grammar teaching would be interesting to compare with other teaching contexts to investigate whether the strong interrelation between rule-orientation and interactional practices uncovered in the present study is also at play in situations where ‘rules’ are not as explicitly present as that which has to be learned.

Maintaining the ‘Description → informed action-model’, but combining it with principles of action research could also convert the present study into an empirical journey which would ideally result in gains for both teaching and research. Richards (2005:5-6) states that “by thinking

273 Some of my initial analyses included this grammar expert perspective, but it has not found its way into the final thesis because other elements appeared to be more pertinent to my task at hand.

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in terms of raising awareness, directing attention, developing sensitivity, challenging assumptions, etc., CA can contribute to informed professional action, helping professionals to deepen their understanding and develop new competencies.” I find that the eclectically composed research framework of this study can contribute to informed professional action in the same way. The important point is that whereas the researcher plays a role in raising awareness, the move from raised awareness to actually performing more informed professional actions should be teacher-driven and not prescribed by the researcher. This in itself would require a great amount of dialogue and cooperation between researcher and teachers and, as I have argued in this thesis, I find that such a dialogue would be beneficial to both parties. Additionally, one interesting element in this type of research could be the large amount of code-switching between English and Danish which occurs during the observed grammar teaching, or as it commences and ends.

Finally, re-introducing the fundamental objective with L2 grammar teaching, i.e. that the pupils learn L2 grammar, and that this again ultimately assists them in their learning of the L2, future research could investigate how multimodal, interactional grammar teaching practices affect learning. Quinlisk (2008:39) argues that “understanding communication as an embodied process is, in fact, an area of research that has been under-examined in L2 teaching and learning”, and that in second language education there is a need for further investigation of “how nonverbal cues contribute to patterns of classroom interaction and how these patterns impact learning.” This thesis has investigated how nonverbal cues (embodied, material, spatial and temporal) contribute to classroom-based interactional L2 grammar teaching practices, but it has not examined how these practices impact L2 learning. This might rightly be regarded as the logical next step, but for reasons presented and argued for in this thesis, I have found that investigating the multimodal and interactional grammar teaching practices in themselves is a task that should be singled out first and given priority in itself.

9.7 Rounding off

Concluding this thesis, I want to suggest that several elements in my approach are new to the research field that I have been meaning to address with this study. For instance, thinking in terms of relations (or lack of relations) between research, policy and practice; conceptualising practice as social action in interaction and not just as language use; and bringing new analytical tools to the field from CA, embodied interaction analysis and microethnography. With these elements, the contextual, multimodal and interactional nature of L2 grammar teaching has been highlighted. The thesis has thereby provided a small but substantial step towards documenting the richness of L2 grammar teaching in action, and on that basis, I maintain that if researchers want to know how learners learn the L2 grammar then they also have to begin to look more at what actually happens when teachers teach that L2 grammar – or, in more analytical terms, when L2 grammar teaching is being multimodally and interactionally co-constructed in situ.
Summary in English

This PhD thesis investigates everyday English grammar teaching practices as these are multimodally and interactionally constructed in five Danish gymnasium classrooms. In addition, it enquires into how these teaching practices relate to research-based recommendations and policy prescriptions. A primary goal of the thesis is thus to provide new (contextual) knowledge about how English grammar teaching is actually accomplished in practice. That knowledge is then applied to meet the second goal of the thesis: to employ the analytical findings as a practice platform from which to relate critically to existing research on L2 grammar instruction as well as to the ministerial guidelines that English teachers in the Danish gymnasium work from. On the basis of this double research interest, the central argument in this thesis is that orienting towards socially situated, interactively and multimodally constructed grammar teaching practices is a relevant and necessary supplement to L2 grammar instruction research. Furthermore, the dissertation finds that the ministerial guidelines are not in any clear or thorough way related to research when it comes to grammar which is otherwise listed as a core subject of English in the texts. The guidelines are very uncommunicative with regard to grammar and grammar teaching. The dissertation problematises this and eventually provides suggestions as to what could beneficially be elaborated upon.

Reviewing existing cognitive-interactionist, quantitative-experimental L2 grammar instruction research, the author defines a research deficit which largely concerns a lack of orientation towards the teaching situation as co-constructed, multimodal interaction taking place in a real-life context. On this basis and with a consequential focus on situated everyday English grammar teaching practices, the author makes two fundamental moves in the thesis: from the intrapersonal to the interpersonal, and from learning to teaching. A methodological aim of the thesis is therefore to establish an analytically adequate conceptual framework in which such interpersonal teaching practices can be understood and investigated. To do so, the author seeks outside of the sometimes narrow borders of the L2 grammar instruction research field to locate appropriate alternative positions and methods. The result of this search is an interdisciplinary framework which meta-theoretically has a socio-interactional positioning, and which emerges as an eclectic constellation of CA, embodied interaction analysis, microethnography, ethnographic case studies, and video-recorded data analysis.

In the analysis, a funnel-shaped approach is taken to investigate the interactional practices in play in the English grammar teaching observed in the five classes. Thus, the dissertation first establishes four empirical modes of grammar teaching and locates these modes in the observed typical ways of organising an English lesson. The four modes are termed group grammar teaching, class grammar teaching, corrective feedback and integrated grammar teaching. Next, the dissertation explores the multimodal interactional practices in play within and across these modes of grammar teaching. These analyses are based on carefully selected video extracts. The first collection focuses on how episodes of group grammar teaching are initiated, whereas the second collection is concerned with how and when group grammar teaching episodes are ended. The third collection analyses how and when grammatical rules are multimodally and interactionally
oriented to in group grammar teaching, and the fourth collection investigates what class grammar
teaching is used for, how it is managed and made to progress. Finally, the fifth collection centres
on how integrated grammar teaching is conducted and what it entails. The fourth mode of
grammar teaching, corrective feedback, is not made a subject of close analysis in this thesis. The
analyses within each collection demonstrate that across the different teachers and classes certain
multimodal and interactional practices are predominant.

Hence, the dissertation shows what the orientation towards grammatical rules amounts to; how the
orientation towards grammatical rules is accomplished in situated interaction; and when the
orientation towards grammatical rules takes place in the sequential organisation of the grammar
teaching. From here the author finds that the grammatical content affects the interactional
teaching practices, but also that these practices to a considerable extent affect how the
grammatical content is being accentuated. This fundamental interconnectedness, and the intricate
ways in which it comes about in the different modes of grammar teaching, shows that orienting
towards how actual L2 grammar teaching in real-life contexts takes place in situated, co-
constructed, embodied and material interactional practices is a highly relevant and rich approach,
which can supplement existing research within the field and not least take part in establishing
more productive relations between research, policy and practice of L2 grammar instruction.
Summary in Danish – dansk referat

Nærværende ph.d.-afhandling undersøger undervisningspraksisser i engelsk grammatik i fem danske gymnasieklasseværelser (tre lærere) og har fokus på hvordan disse praksisser konstrueres multimodal og interaktionelt. Endvidere undersøges det, hvordan disse praksisser relaterer sig til forskningsbaserede anbefalinger og politiske forskrifter. Afhandlingens primære formål er således at bibringe ny (kontekstuel) viden om, hvordan engelsk grammatik konkret udføres i praksis. Denne viden anvendes så i forhold til afhandlingens sekundære formål: at anvende de analytiske resultater som en praksisplatform fra hvilken der kritisk kan relateres til eksisterende forskning i andet- og fremmedsprogsgrammatikundervisning samt til de ministerielle retningstexter, som engelsklærerne i det danske gymnasium arbejder ud fra. På baggrund af denne todelt forskningsinteresse er afhandlingens centrale argument, at en orientering imod socialt situerede, interaktionelt og multimodal konstruerede grammatikundervisningspraksisser er et både relevant og nødvendigt supplement til eksisterende forskning i andet- og fremmedsprogsundervisning. Dertil finder afhandlingen, at de ministeriel retningstexter er uden synlig eller grundig relation til forskningen, når det gælder grammatikken, som dog i teksterne nævnes som kænner i engelsk lacking. Retningslinjerne er meget fameldte hvad angår grammatik og grammatikundervisning. Afhandlingen problematiserer dette og angiver slutteligt forslag til, hvad der med fordel kunne elaboreres.

Ud fra et review af eksisterende kognitiv-interaktionistisk, kvantitativ-eksperimentel forskning i andet- og fremmedsprogsundervisning definerer afhandlingens forfatter et forskningsunderskud, som i store træk omhandler en manglende orientering mod undervisningssituationen som værende ko-konstrueret, multimodal interaktion, der finder sted i virkelige kontekster. På denne baggrund foretager forfatteren to fundamentale skift i afhandlingen: fra det intrapersonelle til det interpersonelle, og fra læring til undervisning. Afhandlingen har derfor som metodologisk sigt at etablere en adækvat konceptuel og analytisk ramme, inden for hvilken sådanne interpersonelle undervisningspraksisser kan forstås og undersøges. Til dette formål har forfatteren søgt ud over forskningsfeltets tidlige grænser for at lokalisere passende positioner og metoder. Resultatet af denne afsogning er en interdisciplinær ramme, som meta-teoretisk er socio-interaktionelt funderet, og som fremstår som en eklektisk konstellation af CA, embodied interaction analysis, mikroetnografi, etnografiske casestudier og analyse af videooptaget data.

I selve analysen tages en tunnellformedt tilgang til undersøgelsen af interaktionelle praksisser på spil i grammatikundervisningen i engelsk i de observerede klasser. Først etableres fire empiriske måder at organisere grammatikundervisningen på, og disse relateres til eksisterende forskning. De fire måder benævnes gruppegrammatikundervisning, klassegrammatikundervisning, corrective feedback og integreret grammatikundervisning. I fem efterfølgende kollektioner undersøges de multimodale og interaktionelle praksisser, der er til stede inden for og på tværs af de fire måder at organisere grammatikundervisningen på. Disse analyser er baseret på nøje udvalgte videooptik. Den første kollektion fokuserer på, hvordan episoder af gruppegrammatikundervisning initieres, hvorimod den anden kollektion ser på, hvordan og hvornår episoder af gruppegrammatikundervisning bringes til afslutning. Den tredje kollektion analyserer, hvordan og

Afhandlingen viser dermed hvad en orientering mod grammatiske regler er i praksis; hvordan denne orientering mod grammatiske regler udøves i situeret interaktion; og hvornår regelorienteringen finder sted i den sekventielle organisering af grammatikundervisning. Forfatteren finder herudfra, at det grammatiske indhold har indflydelse på interaktionelle undervisningspraksisser, men også at disse praksisser i høj grad influerer på, hvordan det grammatiske indhold kommer til udtryk. Denne fundamentale sammenhæng (interconnectedness), og de komplekse måder hvorpå den opstår i de forskellige måder at organisere grammatikundervisning på, viser, at en orientering imod hvordan faktisk grammatikundervisning i virkelige kontekster finder sted i situerede, ko-konstruerede, kropslige og materielle interaktionelle praksisser, er en yderst relevant og detaljerig tilgang, der kan suppleres eksisterende forskning og ikke mindst tage del i at etablere mere produktive relationer mellem forskning, politik og praksis, når det gælder andet- og fremmedsprogsundervisning.
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## Appendix 1: Table overview of recent studies included in the literature review

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<th>Treatment type</th>
<th>Grammatical structure</th>
<th>L2 language</th>
<th>Age / level of L2 learners</th>
<th>Educational institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ammar</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Quasi-experimental</td>
<td>Three groups (including one comparison group), 11 communicative activities, corrective feedback according to the assigned condition. Pre-test and post-test: an oral picture-description task and a computerized fill-in-the-blank test.</td>
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Appendix 2: Teaching plan English A

**Bilag 18 – engelsk A**

**Engelsk A - stx, juni 2008**

1. **Identitet og formål**

1.1 **Identitet**


1.2 **Formål**

Det er formålet med undervisningen, at eleverne gennem arbejdet med engelsk opnår evne til at forstå og anvende det engelske sprog, således at de kan orientere sig og agere i en globaliseret verden. Det er formålet, at eleverne opnår viden om britiske, amerikanske og andre engelsksprogede landes samfundsforhold og kulturer, og at deres forståelse af egen kulturbaggrund derved udvikles. Faget skaber grundlag for, at eleverne kan kommunikere på tværs af kulturelle grænser.

Undervisningen i fagets forskellige discipliner bidrager til at udvikle elevernes sproglige, kulturelle og æstetiske viden og bevidsthed og dermed deres generelle studiekompetence.

2. **Faglige mål og fagligt indhold**

2.1 **Faglige mål**

Eleverne skal kunne:
- forstå forholdsvis komplekst mundtligt og skriftligt engelsk om almene og faglige emner
- læse engelske tekster meningsfyldt op
- beherske et varieret ordforråd, som gør det muligt ubesværet at deltage i en samtale og diskussion på engelsk
- give en længere, velstruktureret mundtlig og skriftlig fremstilling på flydende, korrekt engelsk af komplekse sagsforhold med forståelse for kommunikationssituationen
- gøre rede for indhold, synspunkter og stilforskelle i forskellige typer engelske tekster
- analysere og fortolke forskellige nyere og ældre teksttyper under anvendelse af faglig terminologi
- perspektivere den enkelte tekst i forhold til samfundsmæssige, kulturelle, historiske og litteraturhistoriske sammenhænge
- anvende en grundviden om historiske, kulturelle og samfundsmæssige forhold i Storbritannien og USA til analyse og perspektivering af aktuelle forhold
- orientere sig i et større engelsksproget stof, herunder sortere i og vurdere forskellige informationskilder
- analysere og beskrive engelsk sprog grammatisk og stilistisk med anvendelse af relevant faglig terminologi
- anvende faglige opslagsværker og øvrige hjælpemidler
- benytte hensigtsmæssige sprogindlæringsstrategier.

2.2 Kernestof

Kernestoffet er:
- det engelske sprogs grammatik, lydsystem, ortografi og tegnsætning
- idiomatik, ordforråd og orddannelse
- principper for tekstopbygning og tekstsammenhæng
- kommunikationsformer og kommunikationsstrategier
- standardsprog og variation, herunder elementer af det engelske sprogs udvikling og det engelske sprog som globalt kommunikationssprog
- tekstanalytiske begreber
- et bredt udvalg af nyere litterære og ikke-litterære tekster
- et bredt udvalg af litterære tekster fra forskellige perioder
- uddrag af værker af Shakespeare
- væsentlige strømnings i briterisk og amerikansk litteraturhistorie
- væsentlige sproglige, historiske, kulturelle og samfundsmæssige forhold i Storbritannien og USA
- historiske og aktuelle forhold i andre dele af den engelsktalende verden.
Litterære og ikke-litterære tekster i kernestoffet skal være ubearbejdede og på autentisk engelsk.

2.3 Supplerende stof

Eleverne vil ikke kunne opfylde de faglige mål alene ved hjælp af kernestoffet. Det supplerende stof uddyber og perspektiverer kernestoffet og udvider elevernes faglige horisont.

Der indgår tekster og andre udtryksformer fra nyeste tid, som har udgangspunkt i den engelsktalende verden, og stof på engelsk fra andre fagområder.

3. Tilrettelæggelse

3.1 Didaktiske principper

Undervisningen skal tage udgangspunkt i et fagligt niveau svarende til elevernes niveau fra grundskolen. Undervisningen tilrettelægges, så der veksles mellem induktivt og deduktivt tilrettelagte forløb.

Arbejdet med sprog, tekst og kultur integreres således, at eleverne oplever en klar sammenhæng mellem udtryksmåde, stof og kommunikationssituation.

3.2 Arbejdsformer

Arbejdet med faget organiseres fortrinsvis i emner. Der skal indgå mindst 9 emner med udgangspunkt i fagets kernestof og i det supplerende stof.

Undervisning og arbejdsformer, der fortrinsvis er lærerstyrede, skal gradvist afløses af undervisning og arbejdsformer, der giver eleverne større selvstændighed og ansvar. Arbejdsformer og metoder skal passe til de faglige mål, og det skriftlige og mundtlige arbejde skal varieres, så eleverne udvikler en nuanceret og fleksibel udtryksfærdighed i både skrift og tale.

Arbejdet med fagets skriftlige side skal tilrettelægges, så det indgår som støtte for tekst- og emnearbejdet og som støtte for sprogindlæringen. Det skriftlige arbejde skal også indgå som selvstændig disciplin og tilrettelægges, så eleverne udvikler evne til at beherske det engelske sprogssystem i en fri skriftlig fremstilling og til at udtrykke sig klart og nuanceret på korrekt engelsk.

Undervisningen i skriftlig udtryksfærdighed tilrettelægges, så eleverne trænes i arbejdet med et bredt spektrum af genrer. Undervisningens fokus skal være både på skriveprocessen, herunder forskellige hensigtsmæssige skrivestrategier, og på det færdige produkt og dets kvaliteter.

3.3 It

It skal anvendes som redskab til støtte for tekstarbejdet og for arbejdet med den færdighedsmæssige side af sprogstilneglelsen. Den praktiske anvendelse af it skal styrke elevens evne til at søge og udvælge relevant fagligt materiale fra et større stofområde. Eleverne skal opnå kendskab til de forskelle i kommunikationsstrategier, som knytter sig til anvendelse af forskellige elektroniske genrer.

3.4 Samspil med andre fag

Engelsk er omfattet af det generelle krav om samspil mellem fagene og indgår i almen studieforberedelse og almen sprogforståelse ifølge de bestemmelser, som gælder for disse forløb.

Når engelsk indgår i en studieretning, skal det indgå i samspil med de samfundsfaglige og naturvidenskabelige hovedområder og med de øvrige sproglig-humanistiske fag. Når engelsk optræder som valgfag, indgår det i samspil med andre sprogfag for derigennem at udvikle en generel sproglig bevidsthed og viden om, hvordan man lærer fremmedsprog.
4. Evaluering

4.1 Løbende evaluering

Ved indgangsniveauet og i årets løb skal der foretages evaluering i form af screening eller andre individuelle test for at fastslå den enkelte elevs niveau og progression. For at eleverne kan få et redskab til at vurdere egen videnstilvækst, skal der desuden foretages selvevalueringe test.

4.2 Prøveformer

Der afholdes en skriftlig og en mundtlig prøve.

Den skriftlige prøve

Grundlaget for den skriftlige prøve er et todelt centralt stillet opgavesæt. Hele opgavesættet udelieres ved prøvens start.

Prøvens varighed er 5 timer. I den første time må computer eller faglige hjælpemidler ikke benyttes. Efter 1 time indsamles alle besvarelser af første del af opgavesættet, og herefter må alle hjælpemidler bortset fra kommunikation med omverdenen benyttes til besvarelse af anden del af opgavesættet.

Den mundtlige prøve

Med udgangspunkt i et ukendt, ubearbejdet tekstmateriale, der er tematisk tilknyttet et studeret emne, prøves i præsentation, samtale, tekstforståelse og perspektivering. De emner, der indgår som grundlag for prøven, skal tilsammen dække de faglige mål og kernestoffet. Tekstmaterialets omfang er 3-5 normalsider. Prøvematerialet sendes til censor og godkendes af denne forud for prøvens afholdelse.

Eksaminationstiden er 30 minutter. Forberedelsestiden er 1 time. Alle hjælpemidler er tilladt bortset fra kommunikation med omverdenen.

Det samme ukendte prøvemateriale må højst anvendes ved 3 eksamineringer på samme hold.

4.3 Bedømmelseskriterier

Bedømmelsen er en vurdering af, i hvilket omfang eksaminandens præstation lever op til de faglige mål, som er angivet i pkt. 2.1.

Ved den skriftlige prøve lægges der vægt på eksaminandens beherskelse af det engelske sprog, forståelse af forlægget og færdighed i skriftlig fremstilling.

Der gives én karakter ud fra en helhedsvurdering af den samlede besvarelse.

Ved den mundtlige prøve lægges der vægt på, at eksaminanden på flydende og korrekt engelsk kan præsentere, analysere, fortolke og perspektivere det ukendte tekstmateriale og anvende den viden, der er opnået i arbejdet med det studerede emne.

Der gives én karakter ud fra en helhedsvurdering af den samlede præstation.
Appendix 3: Artikkel om spørgeskemaundersøgelsen

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"OG JA, JEG ER DA BÅDE UNDERHOLDER, TANKPASSER, SKULPTØR OG MENTOR. JEG HAR FRASAGT MIG MOR/FAR-ROLLEN"

Undersøgelse af engelsk grammatikundervisning og underviserroller efter reformen

Som led i mit ph.d.-projekt i engelsk lingvistik ved Aalborg Universitet har jeg i perioden februar 2007 – juni 2007 foretaget en spørgeskemaundersøgelse blandt gymnasielærere i engelsk. Ph.d.-projektet omhandler undervisningspraksisser og underviserroller i engelsk grammatik i det almene gymnasium efter reformen. I denne artikel redegør jeg for resultaterne af undersøgelsen og sætter disse i relation til mit øvrige projekt. Spørgeskemaundersøgelsen har været internetbaseret, tilgængelig fra både EMUs og Engelsklærerforeningens hjemmeside. Engelsklærerne har således selv skulle finde både spørgeskemaet og overskuddet til at besvare det. Og måske har det været svært at finde begge dele, for faktum er, at 91 har været inde og konstatere spørgeskemaets eksistens, 34 er startet ud med at besvare, en del er faldet fra undervejs, og 11 har gennemført spørgeskemaet (med en varighed af ca. 15 minutter). Sammenholdt med de svar, der er fremkommet, synes det især at være overskud, der er mangel på, og reformen angives som den helt store grund til dette.

Mere om det nedenfor. Her skal det først og fremmest understreges, at undersøgelsen og de resultater, jeg fremlægger her, således på ingen måder kan siges at være representative. De er udelukkende udtryk for, hvad mellem 11 og 34 engelsklærere tænker om de emner, undersøgelsen berører. Det har dog heller ikke på noget tidspunkt været et formål, at undersøgelsen skulle kunne give et generelt billede af engelsk grammatikundervisning. Spørgeskemaundersøgelsen er snarere blot indledningen på projektets samlede empiriske forløb, der yderligere består af en række kvalitative, etnografiske case studier, som starter op i begyndelsen af det nye skoleår.

Undersøgelsens primære formål har dermed været at åbne mine øjne for nogle af de problemstillinger, som engelsklærere selv oplever på området. Jeg ønsker selvagt at tage udgangspunkt i ægte, oplevede problematikker for at kunne gøre projektet så relevant og brugbart som muligt. Det er også på den baggrund, at jeg har valgt at gengive resultaterne af undersøgelsen her.

Hvem svarede?
Af de 11, der har besvaret hele spørgeskemaet, er 54% 55 år eller derover, mens 27% er under 35 år. Ud af de samme 11 er 55% kvinder og 45% mænd. 36% har været gymnasielærere i over 25 år, 36% mellem 11 og 25 år, og 28% under 5 år. Selv om repræsentativitet ikke er formålet her, er det således gymnasielærere med alt fra et meget lille til et meget stort erfaringsgrundlag, der har valgt at besvare spørgeskemaet. Jeg ser dette som en klar fordel, da det har resulteret i meget forskellige svar – nogle engelsklærere er så nye, at de nærmest er ’født med reformen’, mens andre har været på banen længe og har en fortid at holde nutiden oppe imod. Og det giver unagtelig forskellige perspektiver på undervisningspraksisser og underviserroller i gymnasiet lige nu.

Hvad svarede de på?
Spørgeskemaet var inddelt i fem dele. Den første del omhandlede gymnasiereformen, den anden engelsk grammatik og grammatikundervisning, og den tredje del generelle opfattelser af lærerroller og undervisning. Del fire og fem angik personlige oplysninger og videre deltagelse.

Undersøgelsen søgte overordnet svar på, hvordan engelsklærere opfatter gymnasiereformen, hvordan de underviser i engelsk grammatik efter reformen, hvilke holdninger de har til engelsk grammatikundervisning, hvilke overvejelser de gør sig i deres undervisningsplanlægning, samt hvilke tanker de har om deres egne roller som gymnasielærere.

Hvordan svarede de?

**Del 1: Gymnasiereformen.** Adspurgt om situationen på arbejdspladsen i forhold til implementeringen af reformen (mulighed for flere svar) angiver 53% ud af 19 besvarende, at arbejdsbyrden er for stor. 42% skriver, at deres arbejdsplads er præget af forvirring, og 32% af stress. Ligeledes mener 32%, at implementeringsfasen generelt er uigennemtænkt, mens kun 11% tilkendegiver, at man er godt med på deres arbejdsplads. Ingen finder arbejdsbyrden tilpas eller tiden fornuftigt planlagt. Der tegner sig dermed et billede af pressede gymnasielærere, der ikke kan få tiden til at slå til og mærke konsekvenserne på egen krop. Følelser af frustration over fragmentering og faglig niveaushortefærdighed beskrives adskillige gange i spørgeskemaet.


71% ud af 17 skriver, at reformen har haft store praktiske konsekvenser for arbejdet som engelsklærer, mens kun 6% mener, at reformen slet ikke har berørt arbejdet som engelsklærer. Når lærerne uddyber disse svar, viser det sig, at konsekvenserne er udsag af: Mange afbrydelser grundet AT; færre afleveringer, der går ud over elevernes fortrolighed med genrerne; rettereduktionen; det tre-årige B-niveau; evig dårlig samvittighed over ikke at kunne optlære.
eleverne i alle ’kompetencerne’; for mange deadlines og mindre selvstændighed i undervisningsplanlægningen. En skriver: ”Konsekvensen af en større forberedelse, planlægning og administrativ efterbehandling er mere arbejde uden mere løn – og ikke nødvendigvis et større fagligt udbytte i engelsk.” En anden angiver, at den største konsekvens af reformen er, ”at man ikke optimalt kan få lov til at vise glæde og entusiasme over det man er uddannet til og ansat til: at formidle en faglighed.” En yngre lærer skriver derimod: ”Jeg føler mig mindre frustreret end mine ældre kolleger, eftersom jeg ikke sammenligner situationen med tiden før reformen på samme måde, som de gør. Jeg synes, reformen giver plads til ting i min undervisning, som der ikke ville have været samme tid til før – takket være det, at vi er gået væk fra pensumtanken.”

Der er dermed forskel på, hvordan reformens konsekvenser mærkes. For nogle er det følelsen af ulønnet merarbejde og faldende faglighed, der dominerer, mens andre ser nye muligheder i reformen og ikke på samme vis synes at opfatte fald i fagligheden. Spørgsmålet her er ikke, hvem der så har ret. Begge dele jo er en oplevet virkelighed for nogle – det er dagligdagen og en del af den grundholdning, man tager på arbejde med.

Jeg mener dog, at når så forholdsvis mange synes mørket af frustration, som det er fremgået ovenfor, så er der grund til at tage det alvorligt. Ingen kan vel forestille sig, at man på lang sigt kan yde en indsats og gøre en forskel som lærer, hvis man konstant føler sig overbebyrdet af ting, som man har svært ved at se en mening med? Om det så er lærernes syn på disse ting eller tingene i sig selv, der skal ændres på, skal jeg lade det være op til andre at vurdere. Mit ærinde er at undersøge engelsklæreres undervisningspraksisser og underviserroller eller faglige identitetskonstruktioner i denne tid, hvor så meget synes at være på spil, og hvor intet er, som det plejer at være.

Ud af 13 svarer 62%, at de i nogen grad føler sig i stand til at i mødekomme de krav, reformen stiller til dem som lærere. Heroverfor tilkendegiver 15%, at de kun føler dette i ringe grad, mens ingen mener, at de slet ikke kan imødekomme kravene. 8% føler sig i høj grad ’klædt på til reformen’. Og undervises skal der jo under alle omstændigheder. Også i engelsk grammatik.

**Del 2: Grammatikundervisning**

De 13 engelsklærere, der har svaret på, hvad grammatik er for dem, har noget forskellige opfattelser heraf (mulighed for flere svar). 62% anser grammatik for at være sprogets grundsten, 46% ser grammatik som nødvendigt for at kunne kommunikere, mens 38% opfatter grammatik som en praktisk disciplin. Herudover svarer en, at grammatik ikke er ”noget i sig selv. Det er en integreret del af helheden af kultur, sprog, kommunikation og identitetsdannelse.” En anden skriver, at ”grammatik er nødvendigt for at lære at forstå det læste sprog og for at udtrykke sig så præcis som muligt. Grammatik indbygger kognitive strukturer i elevernes hjerne, og det kræver daglige dryp.” Nogle har altså en sprogfilosofisk opfattelse og ser grammatikken som sprogets grundsten For andre er grammatik noget mere konkret i forhold til at kunne agere sprogligt, mens det af atter andre forstås mere bredt i forhold til også kultur og identitetsdannelse. Og nogle mener flere af disse ting samtidigt. Igen er det ikke min hensigt at nå frem til et entydigt svar på, hvad grammatik egentlig er, men interessant er det da, at respondenterne har så forskellige opfattelser.

Hvad disse lærere derimod er enige om, er vigtigheden i at undervise i grammatik i gymnasiet. Her svarer 46%, at de finder det meget vigtigt, mens 38% finder det vigtigt. 15% ved ikke. Ingen finder det mindre vigtigt eller overhovedet ikke vigtigt.
Ud af 13 svarer hele 77% i denne forbindelse, at reformen har forårsaget ændringer i deres måde at undervise i engelsk grammatik på, mens 23% ikke mener, at reformen har haft nogen betydning i den henseende. Når de 77% så beskriver disse ændringer, viser der sig igen forskellige opfattelser af reformens konsekvenser. En del angiver, at reformens krav om, at eleverne skal kunne forklare og ikke blot anvende grammatikken, kræver omstruktureringer i undervisningen. Bl.a. må der flere prøver til for at vurdere elevernes tilæggnelse. En skriver direkte, at reformen har betydet, at disciplinen er blevet opprioriteret i vedkommendes undervisning, og at det er positivt. Andre synes snarere at føle, at grammatikundervisningen lider under det generelle tidspres. En skriver: "På grund af tidsmangel og selve reformens struktur bliver undervisningen i grammatik mere fragmentarisk og ikke så effektiv. Det mindre antal skriftlige afleveringer har også en negativ indflydelse på indlæringen. Jeg synes ikke mine elever lærer så meget som tidligere i grammatisk kunnen – også fordi kravene generelt er blevet strammet i bekendtgørelsen til engelsk." En anden skriver, at man pga. tidsmanglen i højere grad er nødt til at udvælge de områder, man vil fokusere på, mens en tredje mener at kunne konstatere, "at eleverne ikke er sikre i operationer, som jeg forhåbentlig ville forvente at de kunne på indeværende tidspunkt.

Hvor nogle har opprioriteret grammatikken pga. reformen, lader det altså til, at andre mener, at grammatikundervisningen er blevet mindre værd pga. selv samme reform. En synes at placere sig midt imellem, når vedkommende skriver: "Jeg er bevidst om at bygge bro i forhold til Almen Sprogforståelse, idet jeg ser det som en central opgave at bygge videre på den opnåede videnskab fra AP i sprogundervisningen."

Netop forholdet mellem AP og undervisningen i engelsk grammatik er lærerne også blevet spurgt om. 83% ud af 12 besvarende angiver, at AP bør varetage grammatikundervisningen delvist – at eleverne her skal lære det grundlæggende, men at engelskfaget selv skal undervise videre i den mere sprogspecifikke grammatik. Ingen mener, at AP bør varetage grammatikundervisningen helt, ligesom ingen finder AP problematisk og helst ser hvert sprogfag stå fuldstændig for sin egen grammatikundervisning.

AP synes dermed at være en velkommen størrelse blandt de besvarende engelsklærere, men det konkrete forhold mellem AP og engelsk grammatikundervisning er måske endnu kun delvist afklaret, hvilket kan være en af grundene til de beskrevne modsætninger i, hvordan grammatikundervisningen opleves efter reformen. Hvis dette er tilfældet, står engelsklærerne altså overfor at skulle finde frem til en sådan afklaring i den kommende tid, og hvordan dette gøres, samt hvilke resultater der nås frem til forskellige steder, er en af de ting, som jeg i mit videre projektforløb kan ligge nærmere på.

I forhold til AT er lærerne mere tilbageholdende med at integrere grammatikundervisningen. Ud af 12 svarer 50%, at det må komme an på AT-forløbets emne og samarbejdsfagene, om engelsk grammatik bør være en del af et sådant tværfagligt forløb. 33% mener, at grammatikken under alle omstændigheder skal forblive i den selvstændige engelskundervisning. Grammatik synes altså ikke umiddelbart at være let foreneligt med AT-forløb, hvilket sammenholdt med resultaterne ovenfor sandsynligvis et stykke hen ad vejen forklarer, hvorfor nogle lærere som nævnt mener, at grammatikundervisningen lider eller er blevet mindre værd efter reformen. For som beskrevet i starten, er det netop AT, der anses for at være reformens helt store tidsslager.

Undersøgelsen spurgte også ind til, hvordan engelsklærernes grammatikundervisning så egentlig forløber. Her viser det sig, at lærerne varierer undervisningen meget. De fleste veksler mellem at
have særlige grammaatiktimer, som ikke inndrager øvrigt engelskarbejde; at reservere en del af
timen til arbejde med grammaatikmateriale; og at bruge de tekster, der i forvejen arbejdes med, til
også at tage grammaattiske emner op. Enkelte angiver endvidere, at de supplerer med interaktive
opgaver.

Om selve undervisningsformen svarer 75% ud af 12, at de veksler mellem forskellige former.
Således beskriver lærerne, at de anvender både induktive og deduktive metoder, ligesom både
klasseundervisning, pararbejde, gruppearbejde og mere sjældent elevforedrag og samtalegrupper
bringes i spil. Nogle kombinerer grammaatikundervisningen med læsningen af litteratur, mens
andre benytter afleveringsopgaverne til at gøre opmærksom på fejlsygler og få eleverne til at rette
fejlene, hvorefter de aflever igen. Også oversættelsesøvelser med fokus på specifikke emner
anvendes, ligesom interaktive øvelser over internettet tages i brug af nogle. En skriver, at det
fungerer godt at lade eleverne selv finde grammaattiske eksempler i de tekster, der ellers arbejdes
med, mens flere andre også nævner mere traditionel teorigennemgang efterfulgt af arbejde med
tilhørende opgaver.

I mine øjne er det interessant, at undervisningen dermed er så varieret. Det vidner om stor
kreativitet i omgangen med grammaatikken, og det skal blive spændende at komme ud at
observere, hvordan de forskellige ting udspiller sig i praksis.

Materialeforskelligvis er lærerne også fortalere for at kombinere forskellige tilgange. 25% af 12
skriver, at de bruger en grammaatikbog, men laver øvelser selv, mens 58% angiver, at de nogle
gange laver alt materialet selv, andre gange anvender en grammaatikbog, men selv laver øvelserne,
atte andre gange bruger en bog og tilhørende øvelser, og også til tider finder elektroniske
ressourcer gode. Materiale, der går igen hos mange, er: Engelsk grammaatik med synonymer, Down to
Earth, Fejlstøvsugeren, Stifinder, Pappphugebogen, A New Start, Allehånde. Flere med tilhørende
øvehæfter. Kendetegnende for lærernes svar her er, at de alle bruger mere end én bog; de fleste nævner tre.

Hertil kommer så det selvproducerede materiale.

Dette synes at pege på en pragmatisk tilgang til materialespørgsmålet. Nogle bøger er gode til
nogle ting, men knap så gode til andre, og så må man plukke lidt her og der. Hvorvidt lærerne
faktisk finder det eksisterende materiale og den megen veksl diferen i den acceptabelt for både
dem selv og eleverne, er også en af de ting, som mit projekt videre kan forfolge.

Adspurgt om hvad de tror, deres elever synes om engelsk grammaatik (mulighed for flere svar),
svarer 25% ud af 12 besvarende, at deres elever ser det som en helt naturlig del af at lære engelsk.
Andre 25% mener, at deres elever er glade for at lære faste regler og have en god opslagsbog, når
de kommer i tvivl. 17% skriver, at deres elever synes, at grammaatik er svært, og at de har
problemer med at se det i sammenhæng med det øvrige engelskarbejde. 50% peger på, at det er
meget individuelt, hvad eleverne synes om engelsk grammaatik. En formulerer det således: "Det er
meget forskelligt. Nogle kan godt lide de faste regler, andre mener de sagtens kan høre sig til det
hele og andre igen giver fanden i det." En anden skriver, at mange finder det svært især at lære
regler, og at eleverne endvidere er "slemme til at ville skille grammaatik fra andet engelskfagligt
arbejde."

Lærerne, der svarer her, er altså bevidste om, at de arbejder med en meget varieret elevgruppe.
Samtidig viser svarene igen, at lærerne ikke opfatter grammaattikken ens. Nogle hæfter sig mest ved
reglerne og elevernes omgang med disse, mens andre taler mere om grammaatikkens
sammenhæng med de øvrige engelskfaglige elementer, og om hvordan eleverne har svært ved at se og arbejde ud fra denne.

Men synes lærerne så, at deres undervisning i engelsk grammatik nytter? Ud af 12 svarer 8%, at der er en helt tydelig progression i elevernes mundtlige og skriftlige arbejde. 25% skriver, at det er både-og. Ingen mener, at deres undervisning overhovedet ikke nytter, mens 67% giver egne svar, hvor der igen peges på, at det er individuelt fra elev til elev. Flere skriver, at der er progression at spore. En mener dog ikke, at progressionen er så klar efter reformen, mens en anden synes, at den er mest synlig i elevernes skriftlige arbejde. En peg på, at der altid er en restgruppe, hvor intet nytter, mens en anden skriver, at undervisningen nytter, ”når jeg har overskud til at tjekke det hele tiden. Men med meget om øerne er det svært at være opmærksom på den reinforcement som ligger i at vende tilbage igen og igen.”

Igen bliver der altså på forskellig vis og mere eller mindre direkte peget på reformen som grund til, at man måske ikke kan gøre det helt, som man gerne ville. Lærerne giver dermed indtryk af at være fagligt bevidste og stræbende, og det er mit indtryk, at det ofte netop er følelsen af at måtte slække på egne krav, der frustrerer.

Men hvordan opfatter engelsklerne egentlig sig selv, og hvilke tanker gør de sig mere generelt om deres undervisning?


anden påpeger det mere kollektive og skriver, at det "afhænger meget af klassens niveau af faglighed og selvstændighed."

Lærerne synes altså at mene, at den progression hos eleverne, som deres undervisning gerne skulle resultere i, også har konsekvenser for deres egen måde at undervise på over de tre år. I forhold til mit projekt skal det blive interessant at spørge mere ind til disse rolleopfattelser, ligesom det at observere og analysere konkret undervisning vil bidrage til yderligere viden om, hvordan engelsklærerne i klassesætningssets interaktion konstruerer deres underviserroller eller faglige identiteter.

Hvad angår planlægningen af undervisningen, svarer 36% ud af 11, at de er meget bevidste om didaktik og læringsprocesser i planlægningen. 27% er det for det meste, mens 18% kun er det i særlige tilfælde, som f.eks. når de planlægger noget helt nyt. En svarer uddybende til den første kategori, at "hver undervisningssituation er meget præget af de enkelte elever/kursisters behov/rdvivl/engagement, hvorfor der kan være langt fra teori til praksis." De didaktiske overvejelser er dermed for stærktomendes vedkommende en del af lærernes hverdag, men det synes at være med hverdagen som havende størst prioritet. Igen viser engelsklærerne altså en meget pragmatisk tilgang til deres arbejde. Det handler først og fremmest om at levere noget, der virker for de mange, og hertil er overvejelser over didaktik og læringsprocesser altså gode redskaber.

I selve undervisningssituationen er 55% ud af 11 besvarende meget bevidste om at informere eleverne om formålet med undervisningen. 36% er det for det meste, mens 9% svarer både og, da det "til tider passer bedre at forklare grunden til/formålet med visse forløb." I mine øjne hænger den lærerrolle, der konkret udsplies i undervisningen tæt sammen med graden af denne type kommunikation – dets, der nogle gange kaldes metakommunikation. Denne sammenhæng er også en, som jeg ser frem til at udforske nærmere videre i forløbet.

Som et sidste spørgsmål blev engelsklærerne spurgt, om de er den lærer, som de gerne vil være. Igen viser lærerne i deres svar en professionsstolthed, som tydeligt kommer til udtryk i nedenstående citater. Ingen af dem er tilsyneladende lærere "i mangel af bedre", og mange sætter det at kunne motivere og bidrage til større viden og kunnen høj. Nogle peger atter på reformen som havende en negativ indflydelse på oplevelsen af at være gymnasielærer. Men for at lade lærerne tale for sig selv:

- "Langt hen ad vejen er jeg den lærer, jeg ønsker at være. Dog har reformen gjort det svært at være tilfreds med sit arbejde. Vi træner eleverne i at beskæftige sig med mange forskellige discipliner på en yderst overfladisk måde. De tilhører en zapperkultur, og reformen bekræfter dem deri."
- "Jeg har det godt med at være en lærer, der synes, det er sjovt at motivere elever/kursister til at tilegne sig større viden og kunnen på en sjov og inspirerende måde – med smilet frem for den skrappe mine."
- "Den manglende tid til at opfylde kravene til reformen dræner efterhånden kroppen for motivation og iderighed."
- "Er generelt en lærer med gode eleveevalueringer og god trivsel på arbejde. Men efter reformen måske nok lidt mere usikker på om det hele lykkes."

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"I bund og grund, ja. Jeg vil gerne lave en undervisning med megen faglighed, men også med plads til latter. Jeg vil gerne både være formidlende og lyttende i min undervisning. Og jeg vil gerne fortsat se mig selv i en lærerrolle hvor jeg kan udvikle mig på det faglige og didaktiske plan. Den dag, jeg gror fast i et bestemt mønster, håber jeg, at jeg finder noget andet at lave."


Arbejdet som gymnasielærer er dermed tilsyneladende et, som engelsklærerne reflekterer over og forholder sig aktivt til. Nogle helt tydeligt med mere gejst og gå-på-mod end andre. Og så er vi tilbage ved de forskelligt oplevede virkeligheder med hver sin gyldighed. Under alle omstændigheder efterlader undersøgelsen indtryk af, at det lige nu ikke ubetinget er nogen dans på roser at være engelsklærer i gymnasiet – det er snarere meget arbejde og store frustrationer blandet med faglig stolthed, glæde ved at være lærer og vilje til at lykkes. Reformen spænder ben for mange, men af de lærere, der her har svaret, har ingen endnu sagt sig ned frivilligt. Nogle føler, at der skal nærmest umenneskelige kræfter til for at komme frem, måske endda for at blive stående, mens andre mere føler reformen som et givtigt puf i ryggen. Der arbejdes hårdt rundt omkring på landets gymnasierr. Jeg står nu over for at skulle træffe aftaler med de lærere, der skal medvirke i case studierne. I spørgeskemaet blev lærerne spurt, om de kunne have lyst til at deltage i projektets videre forløb. To svarede ja hertil. Øvrige besvarende forklarede, at de finder projektet både relevant og spændende, men at de melser fra grundet arbejdsbyrden generelt.
En slutter af med at skrive: ”Jeg har ellers ikke lyst til at virke alt for negativ, for jeg er meget tilhænger af reformens grundtanker – men der er i reformen skudt langt over målet.” Det er mit indtryk, også fra pilotinterviews og uformelle samtaler med gymnasielærere, at mange foretager dette skel mellem grundtanker og praksis. Og netop derfor er det i mine øjne vigtigt at foretage undersøgelser af, hvordan gymnasielærerne alligevel finder måder at agere og konstruere deres lærerroller eller faglige identiteter på, der gør det muligt at leve med og efter reformen i hverdagens undervisningspraksisser.

Sara Højslet Nygaard
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Aalborg Universitet
E-mail: sara@hum.aau.dk
Appendix 4: Permissions letter to Teacher 2, 18.09.09

Kære [Teacher 2]!

Mit navn er Sara Højslet Nygaard, og jeg er ph.d.-stipendiat i engelsk lingvistik ved Aalborg Universitet. Jeg er i gang med mit ph.d.-projekt, som omhandler undervisningspraksisser i engelsk grammatik i gymnasiet, og jeg står for at skulle opstarte en række casestudier med gymnasielærere fra forskellige gymnasier og med forskelligt erfaringsgrundlag. Jeg har fået dit navn og de varmeste anbefalinger fra [Teacher 1], og jeg tillader mig derfor at skrive til dig her.

Jeg ved fra [Teacher 1], at han har gjort dig lidt bekendt med mit ph.d.-projekt og med, at jeg ville kontakte dig. Jeg er meget glad for, at du gennem Jesper er gået ind på at høre lidt mere om det hele, og denne mail har derfor til formål kort at skitsere mit projekt og endvidere at fortælle om det forløb, som du som eventuel casestudie-deltager vil blive en del af.


Teoretisk er mit udgangspunkt grammatikundervisningsdebatten, som har kort inden for sprogtilegelsesforskningen i årtier. Debatten handler om hvorvidt og i så fald hvordan grammattikken skal behandles i fremmed/andetsprogsundervisningen. Forskning på området er typisk fokuseret på elevernes læring, hvor forskellige undervisningsmetoder bliver evalueret, oftest i kvasi-eksperimentelle studier, for at kunne give en kvantitativ udlægning af elevernes sprogtilegelse. Altså ser eksisterende forskning på, hvordan det bør undervises i grammatik.

I kontrast til en sådan tilgang har jeg i mit projekt fokus på undervisningspraksisser i sig selv (jeg forholder mig dermed ikke til elevernes læring) og på, hvordan disserente faktisk er – med bestemte lærere i situeret interaktion med bestemte elever i en konkret, autentisk kontekst. Gennem fire casestudier har projektet til hensigt at skabe en (kvalitativ og kontekst-specifik) praksisplatform, fra hvilken det er muligt at kaste et kritisk blik tilbage på både teori og politik på området.

Helt grundlæggende er det mit standpunkt, at der er en misforstået skelnen og vægtning mellem teori og praksis, at teori kun er god teori, hvis det kan anvendes, og at teori kun kan anvendes, hvis det forholder sig til praksis, eller til den virkelighed, som udoverne befinder sig i og selv er med til at skabe. Jeg har derfor valgt casestudie-tilgangen til gymnasieverdenen for derigennem at opnå en dybere forståelse af fire læreres undervisningspraksisser. Som casestudie-deltager bliver man dermed ikke representant for engelsk grammatikundervisning i gymnasiet som sådan, men man åbner for, at jeg kan blive klogere på ens egen undervisning og tankerne bag. Jeg er således interesseret i dybden, ikke i bredden.

Jeg har været i gang med projektet i halvandet år og skal aflevere det i slutningen af januar 2011. Casestudierne foregår i indeværende skoleår, altså frem til sommeren 2010, men mindre og mindre intensivt som året går og i øvrigt hele vejen planlagt i tæt samarbejde med den pågældende lærer. Hvor meget, hvor tit og hvor længe er alt sammen beslutninger, som det i
sidste ende står læreren frit for at bestemme. Jeg er således åben for en høj grad af medindflydelse på det pågældende casestudie, alt afhængig af lærerens tid og lyst, for kun derigennem mener jeg at kunne få et oprigtigt indtryk af praksis.

I casestudierne fokuserer jeg på forskellige datatyper: observationer og videooptagelser af undervisningen (med formel godkendelse af lærer og elever), materiale brugt i undervisningen og interviews med læreren. Sidstnævnte som en måde både at give noget retur og få feedback på de analyser, jeg foretager af videooptagelserne.


Det skal understreges, at jeg i casestudierne ikke har noget normativt sigte – jeg agter på ingen måde (og ser mig heller ikke i stand til) at bedømme casestudie-deltagernes undervisning som værende god, dårlig eller andet. Jeg betrætter den konkrete undervisning som praksisser, der er påvirket af en række faktorer – interaktionen med eleverne, læreplanen, lærerens syn på grammatik, samarbejde med andre fag for blot at nævne nogle. Og det er netop en sådan praksisanskuelse, som jeg mener ville kunne opkvalificere eksisterende forskning i grammatikundervisning.

Det blev alligevel til mange ord. Jeg håber, at du føler, at du herigennem har fået et indtryk af hensigten med mit projekt og din eventuelle deltagelse heri. Og så håber jeg selvfølgelig, at du vil have lyst til at være med. [Teacher 1] har talt varmt om dit store undervisningsengagement, og jeg vil være meget beæret over at få lov at arbejde sammen med en kapacitet som dig.

Jeg ser frem til at høre fra dig.
Venlig hilsen
Sara
Appendix 5: Consent form to pupils

Forskerens navn, stilling og ansættelsessted: Sara Højslet Nygaard, ph.d.-stipendiat, Aalborg Universitet

FORSKNINGSTILLADELSE

BLANKET OM TILLADELSE TIL AT VIDEOOPTAGE ENGELSKUNDERVERINGSNING I FORBINDELSE MED FORSKNINGSPROJEKT

Som en del af mit forskningsprojekt i engelsk grammatikundervisning i det danske gymnasium skal jeg foretage et case studie i den engelskklassen, som du (/dit barn) går i. Din (/dit barns) engelsklærer har på forhånd indvilliget i at deltage i projektet. I forbindelse med case studiet skal jeg optage en del af engelskundervisningen. Jeg skal ligeledes interviewe din (/dit barns) lærer.

Det skal understreges, at forskningsprojektet har fokus på engelsklærere og disses undervisning, ikke på elever. Sidstnævnte vil derfor kun i begrenset omfang indgå i projektet. Optagelser samt analyser og fortolkninger af undervisningssituationer (dvs. interaktioner mellem lærer og elever) sker udelukkende for at kunne sige noget om undervisningspraksisser.

Nedenfor vil jeg bede dig indikere, om du er villig til at give tilladelse til, at jeg kan anvende optagelser, hvor du/dit barn indgår. Navne og steder vil naturligvis blive ændret så alle deltagere forbliver anonyme.

Sara Højslet Nygaard kan anvende sine optagelser af engelskundervisning, hvori jeg (/mit barn) indgår, i sit forskningsprojekt, i akademiske publikationer og til forskningsmøder mellem forskere med interesse i sprogundervisning.

JA _______
NEJ _______

Dato __________________

Forælders/værges navn ____________________________

Forælders/værges underskrift ____________________________

Den unges navn ____________________________

Den unges underskrift ____________________________
APPENDICES

Den unges skole____________________________

Den unges klasse____________________________

Den unges engelsklærer__________________________
Appendix 6: Consent form to teachers

Forskerens navn, stilling og ansættelsessted: Sara Højslet Nygaard, ph.d.-stipendiat, Aalborg Universitet

FORSKNINGSTILLADELSE

BLANKET OM DELTAGELSE I FORSKNINGSPROJEKT

Som en del af mit forskningsprojekt i engelsk grammatikundervisning i det danske gymnasium har du indvilliget i, at jeg foretager et case studie i en eller flere af dine engelskklasser. I forbindelse med case studiet skal jeg optage en del af engelskundervisningen. Jeg skal ligeledes interviewe dig.

Det skal understreges, at forskningsprojektet har fokus på engelsklærere og disses undervisning, ikke på elever. Sidstnævnte vil derfor kun i begrænset omfang indgå i projektet. Optagelser samt analyser og fortolkninger af undervisningssituationer (dvs. interaktioner mellem lærer og elever) sker udelukkende for at kunne sige noget om undervisningspraksisser.

Nedenfor vil jeg bede dig indikere, at du er villig til at give tilladelse til, at jeg kan anvende optagelser, hvori du indgår. Navne og steder vil naturligvis blive ændret så alle deltagere forbliver anonyme.

Sara Højslet Nygaard kan anvende sine optagelser af engelskundervisning, hvori jeg indgår, i sit forskningsprojekt, i akademiske publikationer og til forskningsmøder mellem forskere med interesse i sprogundervisning.

JA _______
NEJ _______

Dato __________________

Undervisers navn ________________________________

Undervisers underskrift __________________________

Undervisers arbejdsplads _________________________
Appendix 7: Interviewguide, December 2009

Interviewguide
Interview med Teacher 1 og Teacher 2, december 2009

Brug af materiale i undervisningen (grammatikdel)
- Hvad består det af?
- Hvor har du det fra?
- Hvorfor er det netop de ting, du vælger at bruge?
- Hvad er dine erfaringer med at bruge disse og andre materialer?

Den overordnede model for undervisningen
- Lader til oftest at give plads til særskilt grammatikundervisning; hvorfor?
- Hvordan vil du selv beskrive din 'grundmodel for et modul', og hvad er rationalerne bag?
- Pre- and postreadings; hvorfor? (Teacher 1)

Grammatikforløb
- Du lader til at arbejde med ét bestemt grammatisk ad gangen
- Hvordan er sådan et forløb typisk?
- Hvorfor strukturerer du det på den måde?
- Spiller fagdidaktiske hensyn og overvejelser om sproglæring ind? Hvordan?
- Hvordan vælger du emner?

Læreplaner og vejledninger til læreplaner
- I hvor høj grad anvender du disse? Hvordan?
- Hvordan betragter du disse tekster?
- Hvad giver de dig i forhold til grammatikundervisning?
### Appendix 8: Frequency of grammatical topics within each teaching category

(Note! Cannot be read and compared across teaching categories)

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<th>Topic</th>
<th>Class grammar teaching</th>
<th>Group grammar teaching</th>
<th>Class text teaching with corrective feedback</th>
<th>Group text teaching with corrective feedback</th>
<th>Class text teaching with integrated grammar</th>
<th>Group text teaching with integrated grammar</th>
<th>Class text teaching without corrective feedback</th>
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## Appendix 9: Keyword categories and attached keywords

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Appendix 10: Sheet A

Oversæt flg. sætninger til engelsk:

1. I går så jeg en utrolig spændende film.

2. Tom Jones synger ekstremt godt.

3. I Rom fik jeg en bemærkelsesværdig god vin.

4. Den nye Saab 9000 er perfekt designet.

5. Aalborg Universitet er en økonomisk uafhængig institution.

6. Kennedy var utvivlsomt en stor præsident.

7. Det er nu eller aldrig, jeg skal lære forskellen mellem biord og tillægsord!
Appendix 11: Sheet B

Nairobi: Fejløsøtninger

1. Their relationship is very superficially and Oliver himself is a very superficially person. (2)
2. She isn't enjoying being putted into little boxes. (1)
3. She is left with the feeling of loosing something. (2)
4. Suddenly she fells as if she has lost something. (1)
5. Herbert and Oliver is on the top, looking down upon Ginny. (1)
6. He sees people he has met at or just colleges and business partners. But all of whom he wouldn't stop and chat with but just say hello to. (2)
7. She has accepted the big superficiality she has meet in the big city. (1)
8. "The rich and greedy" who lives in the "castles in the sky" as the text says could describe the Crewses, who lives in a penthouse apartment in the richest part of the city. (2)
9. Ginny is supposed to act just like a doll, not saying too much, just listen and look beautiful. (2)
10. We are been told that he is somewhere in his thirtieth. (2)
11. We get told that Herbert is travelling a lot since he works for a foundation (1)
12. These lines from the story are from the only place where there is mentioned something about her past. (1)
Appendix 12:  Sheet C

DANNEDE ADVERBIER

1. Værelset var (omklo) __________________ udkydet.
2. Min chef siger at jeg arbejder for (langsom) __________________
3. Det hele var (hareg) __________________ oversat.
4. Du skal tale (fydelig) __________________ jeg kan ikke
   (rigtig) __________________ forstå hvad du siger.

Dan engelske adverbier af de adjektiver der står i parentes:

1. The President has acted (unwisely) __________________
2. I don’t think he answered me very (polite) __________________
3. Has the problem been (satisfactory) __________________ explained?
4. That man never says anything that’s not (political) __________________ correct.

Dan sæningspar der viser de forskellige betydninger af adverbierne med og uden -ly:

late/latelly, pretty/prettily, short/shortly
Appendix 13: Sheet D

Besvar opgaverne i I - V

1. What happened was strictly a privately matter.

2. When she leaved she didn't thought twice.

3. She looked awful good in her new dress.

4. John was offended. It was not he's fault.

5. He has to be full equipped to do the job.

6. For six months ago my life changed completely.

7. The world's greatest nations is joined in an effort to help.

8. The European countries are trying very hardly to live up to their ideals.

9. The CD contained the Beatles most successfull songs.

10. This summer many pubs was running out of bear.
Appendix 14: Sheet E

Adverbs:

1. The kids who have an opportunity to use computers will have an enormous/enormously advantage in the job market over those who are unfortunate/unfortunately enough not to have that opportunity.

2. But how can we make sure that all students have an equal/equally chance to learn?

3. Computer experts, teachers, and politicians agree that it's going to be increasing/increasingly important/importantly that people are able to use computers in their daily/dayily work.

4. But educations experts agree that putting more computers into the schools doesn't automatic/automatically mean that students will learn useful/usefully computer skills.

5. It all depends on how professional/ professionally the schools use computers, and how good/well the teachers are trained to use computers creative/creatively in the class room.

6. A boring/boringly program can be just as unhelpful/unhelpfully as a boring/boringly textbook.

7. And unfortunate/unfortunately, poor/poorly schools cannot afford to send teachers to special/specially workshops, no matter how interested/interestedly such teachers are to improve their own and their pupils’ standard.

Translate:
Situationen er alvorlig; du ser alvorlig ud; jeg kan ikke tage ham alvorligt; svar mig nu alvorligt; det er et alvorligt problem; mener du det alvorligt? Hvorfor er I så alvorlige?
Han er alvorligt syg?

Happy or happily?
Det var en lykkelig løsning; de levede lykkeligt til deres dages ende; nu er Ann lykkelig igen; ægteskabet var ikke lykkeligt; de ser lykkelige ud.
Appendix 15: Sheet F

Sentences to be corrected:

1. Sobel and I don't have a deeper relationship
2. He didn't speak to Miriam although he still lends her new books with comments.
3. I've aloudf myself to make the decision about which boyfriend to choose.
4. I didn't gave myself the possibility to look at him.
5. All I asks for is another opportunity to make it all up again.
6. I prefer a high educated person.
7. In a way, it has succeeded him to tell Miriam that he loves her.
8. At his place we were talking back and forward.
9. The classics that Sobel had suggested to me and which he also had borrowed me.
10. I answered me father's questions, which was about how the date had went. (2)
11. What my father neither sees is that he needs Sobel.
12. He didn't seem to understand why I was so mad, he said that he had always treated me like his own son.
13. And after our talk I thought for a while that he had accepted my love to her, he said that I had to wait for two years before I did anything about it.
14. I have a daughter, Miriam, and I want her, the very best.
15. I would really like to marry Miriam however it's not that simple.
Tegnsætning

Find led sætningerne i følgende sætninger, og sæt komma, hvor det er nødvendigt. Argumentér for dit valg.

1. She has got you where she wants you.
2. Although he was trying to show off I still respect him.
3. If you’ve got any more questions don’t hate to come back.
4. He was due to remain as leader of the party until a successor had been found.
5. He went on staring until her cheeks grew crimson and she began to stammer.
6. I married him because I loved him.
7. Because I stopped looking out for her I stopped seeing her altogether.
8. He usually drank a half of lager unless someone bought for him.
9. It is hardly likely that a vicious thug will wait politely while we ring the police.
10. While they were away he died.
11. The next three or four fixtures will decide whether we stay in the Premier League.
12. You haven’t talked like that since you got here.
13. After he died in 1941 she edited a book of his essays and poems.
14. As dense black smoke swirled over the town residents were told to stay indoors.
Appendix 17: Sheet H

Grammar

A.

Correct the errors in the following sentences and explain why it is wrong. There is only one error in each sentence:

1. In the end there was many things that I was dissatisfied with.
2. They used to have a strong friendship, but now they have grew apart.
3. Peter simply cannot avoid to get tricky questions from the teacher.
4. She is no longer physical active.
5. Many people lost their life in the tsunami.
6. Have you heard anything about that the rules have been changed lately?
7. He seemed to be a man which only interest was football.
8. Every summer we are going to Greece.

B.

Insert the indefinite or the definite article where necessary:

1. Since when have you become such _____ student of _______ human nature?
2. I once heard a lecture on _______ colour yellow in ______ art.
3. The film version of _______ life of Oscar Wilde was praised by reviewers.
4. Only ______ hour after take-off, a British Airways Boeing 737 made ______ emergency landing to have ______ electric fault put right.
5. The laws of ______ science do not distinguish between the forward and backward directions of ______ time.
6. His eldest son was ______ lieutenant in the Marine Corps.
7. At the time of my visit, about ______ half of the children were suffering from malnutrition.
8. _____ apple _____ day keeps _____ doctor away.
Prøv selv: Adjektiv eller adverbium?

**

Vælg mellem adjektiv (formen uden -f) og adverbium (formen med -ly) i følgende sætninger.

1. To me it all seems the most natural/naturally thing in the world
2. I was comparative/comparatively grown up when the truth about my own birth broke on me first
3. Mother asked anxious/ anxiously how I had got on during the day
4. These gloomy/gloomily silences used to make Father mad
5. It irritated him when I got up in the middle of all this, took my cap and went quiet/quietly out
6. Her name was Nancy Harding, and I knew her elder brother slight/slightly
7. We walked slow/slowly, and she stood under the gas-lamp at the end of the square with me
8. I talked a little too enthusiastic/enthusiastically about some story-book, and Nancy asked for the loan of it
9. I knew such a nice/nicely girl couldn’t possible/possibly want to meet Father
10. We went up the little uneven/unevenly avenue together
11. One evening when I glanced shy/shyly at him he nodded in his brusque/brusquely way
12. “Where are you working now?” he asked sharp/sharply with a sidelong at me
13. “I don’t honest/honestly know what you’re talking about, Nancy”

Frank O’Connor, The Duke’s Children 1953

ADJEKTIVER OG ADVERBIER 51 KAPITEL 8
Appendix 19: Sheet J
Answer A, B, C, D and E

A.
Correct the errors in the following sentences and explain your corrections (in Danish) Use the relevant grammatical terms (Latin terms). There is only one error in each sentence.

1. Where are the money?
   - Error: Money is plural, so the correct form is "Where are the money?"
   - Corrected: Where are the money?

2. He avoided to look at her.
   - Error: Avoided is the past tense of avoid, so "to avoid" is not necessary.
   - Corrected: He avoided looking at her.

3. He is going to school every day.
   - Error: The correct verb form is "going" instead of "going to".
   - Corrected: He is going to school every day.

4. They own a big house which door is painted blue.
   - Error: "Which" should be replaced with "whose" to indicate possession.
   - Corrected: They own a big house whose door is painted blue.

5. The girls’ giggled.
   - Error: "Giggled" is the past tense of "giggle".
   - Corrected: The girls giggled.

6. He did not went to school that day because he was ill.
   - Error: "Went" should be replaced with "went".
   - Corrected: He did not go to school that day because he was ill.

7. The choir sings very beautiful.
   - Error: "Beautiful" should be replaced with "beautifully" to describe how the choir sings.
   - Corrected: The choir sings very beautifully.
Appendix 20: Sheet K

Adverbier / adjektiver

A. Translate:

1. Han beordrede hende venligt, men bestemt til at forlade værelset.
2. Det var dumt sagt.
3. Hun boede i et ensomt beliggende hus.
4. Fint snittede champignoner tilsættes lige før serveringen.
5. De er nært beslægtede.
6. Jeg kan nemt klare det.
7. Jeg hader at ankomme sent om natten.
8. Jeg har ikke været meget i teatret i den sidste tid.
9. Hun satte sig smilende ved siden af ham.
10. Han løb skrigende ned ad trappen.
11. Drengen kastede sig grædende på sengen.
12. Min pande føles varm.
13. Lægen følte forsigtigt på hendes forstuede fod.
15. Hans position var blevet meget svækket efter skandalen.
16. Emnet er meget debatteret netop nu.

Adjektiver og adverbier med samme form:

B. Which is the adjective and which is the adverb?

1. How early does the early train come in?
2. You don't have to drive fast in a fast car.
3. Turn left at the next left turn.
4. The plane was flying low because of the low clouds.
5. A daily event is an event that happens daily.
6. The monthly rates are paid monthly.

Adverbier med dobbeltform:


Oversæt:
Appendix 21: Sheet L

Adverbs:

A. Genuine adverbs: here, there, always, never, already

B. Derivative adverbs: formed from an adjective + ly (e.g. nicely, beautifully, usually, obviously)

An adverb qualifies 1) a verb 2) an adjective 3) another adverb 4) a sentence

1. Verbs:
I slept badly last night

He read the letter quickly

2. Adjectives:
I must have been unusually careless

She is a marvellously clever girl

3. Adverbs:
The letter was extremely beautifully written

The cottage was surprisingly well built

4. A sentence:
Financially, things are a bit difficult at the moment

The crew was obviously in some danger
Appendix 22: Sheet M1

The Disasters Emergency Committee, which unites 13 of Britain’s leading aid agencies—including Save the Children, Oxfam and Christian Aid—is appealing for cash from the public and Government to buy food, medical supplies, seeds and tools.

The problem has been made worse by the spread of AIDS. The Red Cross estimates that 1.5 million people in Zimbabwe—up to a quarter of the population—are HIV-positive. More than 640,000 children have already been orphaned by the disease and the problem is being made worse by two years of poor harvests.

Tony Blair said he recognised the seriousness of the situation as he backed the appeal, pledging Britain would do all it could to avert a famine. ‘The collective view is that this could very quickly turn to catastrophe,’ he added.

The appeal’s chief executive, Brendan Gemmel, said: ‘There is already a huge crisis in southern Africa. People are already dying from starvation but we need the support of the British public now to avert a much bigger disaster. Just £25 will feed two families for a month, or relatively small amounts of money can save lives.’

Deborah Crewe, Save the Children’s southern Africa regional director, said a staggering 7 million children were at risk of starvation—equivalent to the population of London.

Judith Tubby of Christian Aid, said: ‘50,000 soldiers and 200,000 civilians in Angola were desperate for food. Seeds and tools were the key but food was needed to tide people over. Last week, broadcaster Angela Rippon, who has returned from a fact-finding mission to Africa for the Red Cross, said she was moved to tears by what she saw.’

---

As 14m Africans face death by starvation...

By Wendy Vickers

A major international appeal to raise £40 million to avert a ‘humanitarian catastrophe’ in southern Africa was launched yesterday.

More than 14 million people—half of them children—are facing starvation in what aid agencies say is the worst food crisis across the region for a decade.

Three years of drought, combined with flooding in some areas, and political instability have led to massive food shortages in Zambia, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Lesotho and Angola.

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<tr>
<td>Flooding</td>
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1. According to the text, in what way are the following conditions dependent on each other? What is cause and effect, respectively?

- Work out a diagram to show the inter-relationships between:
  - famine
  - starvation
  - children being orphaned
  - political instability
  - HIV
  - drought
  - food shortages
  - AIDS
  - poor harvests
  - malnutrition

2. What genre is this text?

- a review
- an article
- an essay
- an advertisement
- a letter to the editor
Appendix 23: Sheet M2

... food giants are sued for ‘making people fat’

Drinks company Diageo has finally sold its Burger King chain after two years looking for a buyer.

The London-based giant agreed a £1.44 billion deal with a group led by US private equity firm Texas Pacific.

The fast food chain has more than 11,000 outlets worldwide.

Seven people who became over-weight after eating burgers are suing fast food chains for selling meals that allegedly cause disease and obesity.

They claim McDonald’s, Burger King, Kentucky Fried Chicken and Wendy’s have misled consumers.

By enticing them with food that is grossly salty and sugary,

If successful, the suit, lodged in New York, could end up costing the industry millions of pounds.

‘The fast food industry has wrecked my life. I was Appeals, I was tricked,’ said one of the plaintiffs, Curtis Barham. ‘I ate it more often than not because I was hungry. It was quick and it’s not a very good cook.

Court papers do not say how much the 25th amendment professor, who has suffered two heart attacks and has diabetes, is claiming in damages.

Mr Barham gave up fast-food in 1996 after his doctor advised him his diet could kill him.

Court papers said the companies were creating a ‘false addiction’, particularly among children and poor people. Mr Barham’s lawyer, Samuel Hirsch, added: ‘You don’t need nicotine or an illegal drug to create an addiction. They’re creating a craving.

Americans spend almost £70 billion a year on fast food – more than they spend collectively on higher education, personal computers and new cars.

Six in ten people are obese and more than 300,000 deaths every year are attributed to obesity-related illnesses.

A spokesman for McDonald’s said: ‘This is nothing more than a disinformation campaign. The claims are ridiculous.

Common sense tells you that it makes no sense. McDonald’s serves up quality food. Our menu features choice and variety.

PRE-READING

1. What health problems are people likely to run into if they overeat?
   - measles
   - obesity
   - high blood pressure
   - heart disease
   - diabetes

2. If one gets a disease due to too much eating, drinking or smoking, who is to blame?
   - the shops which sell the products
   - the advertisers
   - newspapers
   - TV
   - the companies behind the products
   - our doctor
   - the health authorities
   - Why?

WHILE-READING

1. Fast food – take turns to ask each other the following questions:
   a. Why do people eat the fast-food chains?
   b. What have the fast-food chains done wrong?
   c. What has happened to Mr Barham?
   d. What is Samuel Hirsch’s claim?
   e. How much do Americans spend on higher education, PCs and cars?
   f. How large a percentage of the American population is very fat?
A multimodal interactional analysis of everyday English grammar teaching practices in five Danish gymnasium classrooms

Investigating practice in relation to research and policy on L2 grammar instruction

PhD dissertation by:
Sara Højslet Nygaard
Department of Culture and Global Studies
Aalborg University

TRANSCRIPTION APPENDIX - PUBLIC
A multimodal interactional analysis of everyday English grammar teaching practices in five Danish gymnasium classrooms

*Investigating practice in relation to research and policy on L2 grammar instruction*

A PhD dissertation written by:
Sara Højslet Nygaard
Main supervisor:
Paul McIlvenny, Professor,
Department of Culture and Global Studies,
Aalborg University
Co-supervisor:
Hanne Leth Andersen, Professor,
Roskilde University
Produced within the doctoral programme Discourse and Contemporary Culture
under the Doctoral School of the Humanities at Aalborg University
Submitted to the Faculty of Humanities at Aalborg University, October 2011

The separate transcription appendix consists of transcripts and still frames from video-recorded classroom data. The public version of the transcript appendix has been anonymised and omitted of still frames.
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**Transcripts for Collection 1**

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Extracts employed in collection 2

Extract 79, clip 2.1, Teacher 2, Class D, 23.10.2009

Extract 43, clip 2.2, Teacher 2, Class C, 03.12.2009

Extract 12, clip 2.3, Teacher 2, Class B, 03.12.2009

Extract 4, clip 2.4, Teacher 1, Class A, 02.11.2009

Extract 14, clip 2.5, Teacher 2, Class B, 03.12.2009

Extract 102, clip 2.6, Teacher 3, Class E, 04.03.2010

Extract 28, clip 2.7, Teacher 2, Class B, 27.11.2009

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Extract 41, clip 2.9, Teacher 2, Class C, 03.12.2009

Extracts employed in collection 3

Extract 19, clip 3.1, Teacher 2, Class B, 03.12.2009

Extract 80, clip 3.2, Teacher 2, Class D, 23.10.2009

Extract 56, clip 3.3, Teacher 2, Class C, 23.10.2009

Extract 30, clip 3.4, Teacher 2, Class B, 27.11.2009
## Transcription notation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>Indicates Danish speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>Indicates English speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>Indicates translation of Danish speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>((Text))</td>
<td>Indicates annotation of non-verbal activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Text)</td>
<td>Indicates unclear speech or doubt in the transcript</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Text]</td>
<td>Indicates overlapping speech</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Text)</td>
<td>Indicates clarifying comment</td>
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<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>Indicates the break and subsequent continuation of a single utterance</td>
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<tr>
<td>(# of seconds)</td>
<td>A number in parentheses indicates the time in seconds of a pause in speech</td>
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<tr>
<td>(.)</td>
<td>Indicates a mini pause, usually under 0.2 seconds</td>
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<tr>
<td>.</td>
<td>Indicates falling pitch or intonation</td>
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<tr>
<td>?</td>
<td>Indicates rising pitch or intonation</td>
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<tr>
<td>,</td>
<td>Indicates a temporary rise or fall in intonation</td>
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<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;Text&lt;</td>
<td>Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more rapidly than usual for the speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;Text&gt;</td>
<td>Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more slowly than usual for the speaker</td>
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<tr>
<td>°Text°</td>
<td>Indicates whisper, reduced volume, or quiet speech</td>
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<tr>
<td>ALL CAPS</td>
<td>Indicates shouted or increased volume of speech</td>
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<tr>
<td>Text</td>
<td>Indicates that the speaker is emphasising or stressing the speech</td>
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<td>::</td>
<td>Colon(s) indicates prolongation of a sound</td>
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<td>(hhh)</td>
<td>Indicates audible exhalation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(.hhh)</td>
<td>Indicates audible inhalation</td>
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<tr>
<td>/X name/</td>
<td>Indicates anonymisation of names</td>
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The transcription notation is adapted from Transana’s transcription notation which is based on the Jeffersonian notation system.
Transcript for introduction

*Extract employed in the thesis introduction*

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Extract 100, Clip 1, Teacher 3, Class E, 04.03.2010

((P2 and P1 are seated next to each other behind their desk. T is positioned in front of them, in a squad position. P2 is gazing down at her worksheet, T is gazing at P2, and P1 is gazing down at her own worksheet [still 2]))

P2: Okay. Så [hvis det lægger sig til]
   Okay. So [if it qualifies]

P1: ((P1 lifts her head to gaze at the blackboard. Simultaneously, she raises her left index finger and points towards the board [still 3]))
   Og så er det subst]
   [And then it's noun]
   ((T turns her gaze from P2 to P1))

T: Og I kan se der
   And you can see there
   ((T turns her head to gaze at the blackboard, raises her right hand from P1's sheet and points it towards the blackboard [still 4]. P2 gazes up at the blackboard too [still 5]))
   [oppe på tavlen=]
   [up on the blackboard=]

P1: [Så er det et adjektiv.]
   [Then it's an adjective]

T: =ik'os'.
   =right.
   ((T turns her head back towards P1. P1 gaze from the blackboard towards T and they gain eye contact))
   Så er det et adjektiv.
   Then it is an adjective.
((T begins to take down her arm))
Transcripts for collection 1

*Extracts employed in collection 1*

<table>
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<th>Teacher 1 Class A</th>
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Extract 99, clip 1.1, Teacher 3, Class E, 04.03.2010

((T observes P1's raised hand and consequently walks towards him [still 1], arriving in front of his table. As T walks towards him, P1 leans forward and turns his gaze towards the work sheet at the same time as he moves his hand down to point at the specific sentence on the sheet which he needs help with [still 2]))

P1: Her ik osse
Here, right
(2.0) ((T leans forward too, looking at the sentence P1 is pointing at [still 3]))
T: Ja.
Yes.
((T lifts her upper body a little and moves her hand down to point at the paper herself [still 4]))

Hvad er det ord der skal sættes ind der ved linjerne?
What word is it that you have to insert there by the lines?
Det er en eller anden form af soft eller softly. (.)
It's a form of soft or softly. (.)
Hvad lager det sig til i den sætning?
What does it qualify in that sentence?
((T continues to point at the sentence. Both T and P1 gazes at it))

P1: Very?
Very?
Extract 81, clip 1.2, Teacher 2, Class D, 23.10.2009

T: Det kan I også godt.
   You can do that too.
   Men det er ikke der [problemet er.]
   But that isn't where [the problem is.]

P1: [Nej.]
    [No.]
   ((In the background P3 raises her right hand with her pen in it, indicating that she needs assistance [still 1]))

P2: Nej.
    No.

P3: /T name/?
    /T name/?
   ((P3 gazes at T as she calls her name))

   (2.0) ((T turns her head towards P3, then quickly back and then at P3 again. After T has gazed in her direction the first time, P3 takes down her hand and gazes down at her sheet. T turns her body towards P3 and starts walking towards her, gazing at the sheet on the table [still 2] arriving in front of the table))

P3: Altså det det nummer to
    Eh it's it's number two
    ((T places her own sheet at P3's table and they both gaze down at the sentence in question [still 3]))
    så er det could den er gal med ik osse.
    it's could that's wrong, right.
    ((P3 lifts her head and gazes quickly at T who does not look up [still 4]))

T: Ja-
   Yes-
   ((P3 gazes down at her sheet again))

P3: Could it=
    Could it=

12
T: [((laughing quietly))]

P3: [=og den her] den ene det er losing som skal være med ét o.

[=and this one] one of them is losing which has to be with one o.

Hvad er den anden fejl?

What is the other error?

((P3 is pointing at the sentence in question with her pen in her left hand))
Extract 66, clip 1.3, Teacher 2, Class D, 20.11.2009

(T is about to walk by P1 and P2's table,
she gazes into the sheet in her left hand.
She raises her right hand to scratch the right side of her head [still 1]
As she does this, P1 lifts her upper body and head and gazes
quickly at T [still 2] and then also moves her right hand to the right side of
her head as she gazes down at her worksheet again [still 3].)

P1: (Jamen) forklare (.)
(But) explain (.)
((P1 uses her hand to put some hair behind her ear.
T takes down her right hand and turns towards P1.
T bends forward and gazes at P1's worksheet [still 4])
men det lægger sig vel til forklare
but it qualifies explain, doesn't it
((P1 takes down her right hand too and uses her left hand to mark
what sentence she is asking about [still 5]. T moves her head even closer towards
P1's hand and the sheet which she continues to gaze at. P1 gazes at T [still 6]))

T: (2.0) Ehh [ja.]
(2.0) Ehh [yes.]
((T performs a slight nod and then raises her upper body a little))
P2: [Men]
    [But]
P1: Ja.
    Yes.
    ((P1 gazes at her sheet again))
P2: (men er [det])
    (but is [it])
    ((P2 gazes at her own worksheet))
P1: [Skal] der så ly på?
    [Should] ly be added then?
    ((P1 turns her head towards P2))
Ja hvad er explained for en ordklasse? (2.0)

Yes what word class is explained? (2.0)

To explain=

((Both P1 and P2 gaze up at T again, T continues to gaze at P1))

P2: [Ja]

[Yes]

T: =I explain, [(we) expl]

=I explain, [(we) expl]

P2: [Det jo et verbum]

[It's a verb]

((T turns her head to gaze at P2, then P1 does the same))
**Extract 4, clip 1.4, Teacher 1, Class A, 02.11.2009**

1. T: Hvordan går det?
   How are you doing?

2. ((P1 and P2 look at T as he walks towards
   them behind the line of desks [still 1] and arrives next to P1))

3. ((P1 and P2 gaze at their individual worksheets [still 2]))

4. P1: Det går okay.
   We are doing okay.

5. ((T places his sheet on the table and bends over the table
   towards the pupils, also gazing at P1's work sheet [still 3].
   P1 points towards the sentence in question [still 4]))

6. Vi er lidt i tvivl om tre-
   We are a little in doubt about number-
   tre'ern der. Om det awfully
   number three there. Whether it's awfully [or what]

7. ((P1 and P2 both raise their heads to gaze up at T))

8. T: [Ja. Det]
   [Yes. That's]

9. er det nemlig
   exactly it

10. ((T performs a nod as he says yes,
    still bent over the table.
    He continues to gaze at the worksheet))

11. P2: Men hvorfor (.)
    But why (.)

12. ((P2 continues to gaze at T.
    P1 gazes down at her worksheet.
    T turns his head a little to gaze at P2))

    We cannot remember.

14. P1: Fordi jeg synes altså
    Because actually I think

15. ((P1 leans back and lifts her head to gaze at T))
at når man ser amerika eller engelske serier
that when you watch America or English series

((T raises his torso and begins to take down
the chair that has so far been locked under
the table he has been bending over))
så kan de altså godt finde på at sige sådan
then they sometimes say that

((T takes down the chair, places it on the floor and begins
to sit down on it))

T: Ja. Og det, det skal jeg jo ikke kunne svare for
Yes. And that, that I obviously cannot account for

((Now seated, T gazes at his own sheet.
P1 and P2 laugh quietly and turn their gazes
towards their own worksheets too))

men der skal ehm (1.0)
but there has ehh (1.0)

((T still gazing at his sheet. He lifts his left hand,
places it on the sheet and then pushes the sheet
towards P1's sheet on the table
so they end up being positioned next to each other))
Hvis vi kigger på det. På awful.

If we take a look at it. At awful.

Hvad lægger det sig så til?
What does that qualify then?

((T still gazing at his sheet))

P2: Good.

Good.

((P2 bends over her sheet with a pencil in her hand
with which she underlines a word (good) in the sentence))

T: Ja, det gør det nemlig.
Yes, that's right.

Og good, hvad for en type ord er det?
And good, what type of word is that?

((P2 turns and raises her head to gaze at T.
T continues to look down at his sheet.))
Extract 43, clip 1.5, Teacher 2, Class C, 03.12.2009

(T turns and begins to walk towards three pupils)

T: Er I ved at være (1.0) [nede i begge to?]
Have you reached (1.0) [the bottom in both of them?]
((T stops in front of their table and looks down at P1's worksheet [still 1]))

P1: [Jeg kan ikke finde ud af det her.]
[(I don't know how to do this)]
((P1 turns her gaze from T to her worksheet. P2 gazes at her own sheet [still 2]))

P1: Jeg er::
I a::m
((P1 holds up her right hand with her pen in it next to her cheek.
She nods slightly, continuing to look down at her sheet.
P2 gazes at her own worksheet. P3 gazes at P1's worksheet and so does T [still 3]))

T: Er du kørt fast.
Have you got stuck.
((T places her hands on the table and bends her upper body forward,
still gazing at P1's sheet [still 4]))

P1: Ja.
Yes.

T: Ja?
Yes?
((P2 turns her head to gaze at P1's worksheet [still 5])
Hvor er du kørt fast henne?
Where did you get stuck?

P1: I femmeren.
In number five.

P1: [Jeg kan ikke finde ud af det her.]
[(I don't know how to do this)]
((P1 moves her right hand down to the worksheet [still 6]))

T: Det var da noget skidt.
That's not good.
((P3 turns her head and gazes at her own worksheet))
P2: Det vil jeg også sige
Well, I agree
((T turns her head to gaze at P2. P2 holds up her right hand
with her pen in it, her head resting on the pen [still 7]))
det den er ik den er ik sjov.
that one isn't it isn't funny.
((P2 shakes her head slightly and gazes from P1's sheet up at T [still 8]))
T: ((T gazes down and moves her body a little back
and then forward again as she laughs [still 9]))
P1: It all
It all
((Reads from her sheet. P2 turns her gaze towards her own paper
and T turns her head to gaze at P1's paper [still 10]))
[depends on how]
[depends on how]
T: [Den er skide skæg.]
[It is damn funny.]
((T makes another slight move forward, towards P1 and her paper [still 11]))
Ehh
Ehh
P1: Argh de:t
Argh that:
((P1 shrugs her shoulders slightly [still 12]))
T: ((laughs and turns her head a little away from P1 [still 13] before she lifts
her head and gazes into the wall behind P1 and P2 [still 14]))
How professionally eller how professional the schools use
How professionally or how professional the schools use
P1: Professionally
Professionally
((P1 lifts her head to gaze at T))
T: Ja.
Yes.
((T turns her head to meet P1's gaze))

Fordi det lægger sig til?
Because it qualifies?
((P2 gazes quickly at T and then turns her head to look at P1))

P1: Det er .
That is .
((P1 turns her gaze away from T towards her sheet))

livets store spørgsmål.
life's big mistery.

T: Nå [okay]
I see [okay]
((P2 lowers her gaze. T turns her head to gaze at P2))

P2: [Er det ik] til use
[Isn't it] use
((P2 turns her head to gaze at her own sheet))

T: Til use ja.
Use yes.
((T nods several times))

Det er måden de bruger den på ik?
It's the way they use it right?
((P2 lifts her gaze to look at T. T turns her head to look at P1
who is writing on her sheet))
Extract 40, clip 1.6, Teacher 2, Class C, 03.12.2009

1 (6.0) (T stops in front of P1's desk, gazing at her worksheet.
2 P1 gazes at the sheet too as she is engaged in inserting
3 the right word in the sentences. T appears to be checking
4 P1's insertions and spotting an error [still 1])
5 T: (.hhh)
6 (.hhh)
7 ((T tightens the corners of her lips.
8 At the same time T changes her body position, taking a step to the right
9 and placing her hands on the table so that she can lean on it
10 and thereby get closer to the worksheet [still 2]. She checks P1's answers again))
11 (7.0)
12 T: /P1 name/ hvis (nu, når du) kigger på den der (.)
13 /P1 name/ if (now, when you) take a look at that (.)
14 ((T uses her right hand and index finger to point
15 at the sentence in question [still 3]. P1 turns her head slightly))
16 sidste med interested.
17 last one with interested.
18 ((P1 gazes at the sentence, joggling her rubber in her left hand
19 and holding her pen in her right hand [still 4]))
20 Hvad lægger det sig til.
21 What does that qualify.
22 ((P1 puts down the rubber and moves her left hand to her forehead,
23 leaning her head against it [still 5]))
24
25 P1: (1.0) Ehm:: (7.0)
26 (1.0) Ehh:: (7.0)
27 ((P1 gazes at the sentence and moves her right hand
28 with the pen in it slightly to the right at a slow pace))
29 Teachers.
30 Teachers.
31 ((P1 moves the pen in her hand so that it comes to function as a pointer.
32 She continues to gaze down at the worksheet))
Transcripts for collection 2

Extracts employed in collection 2

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Extract 79, clip 2.1, Teacher 2, Class D, 23.10.2009

T: Men ellers så har man normalt ikke sådan en (.)
   But otherwise you normally don't have such a (.)
   ((T gazes at P1 and shakes her head slightly))
   [et foreløbigt there.] [a preliminary there.]

P1: [(det det)] [(it it)]
   ((P1 gazes from the teacher down at his sheet))

P2: [Men (.) men hvis der] kommer sådan en her
   [But (.) but if something] like this turns up
   ((T turns her gaze from P1 to P2's worksheet. P2 has her gaze fixed at her worksheet and is bent over it))
   for eksempel til eh den grammatiske prøve
   for example at eh the grammatical exam
   ((P2 raises her upper body. T gazes quickly up at P2
   and then down at the sheet that she has been holding
   in her left hand, but that she now moves
   so that she holds it with both hands in front of her.
   At the same time she takes a step towards P2))
   hvad skal man så sige. (2.0)
   how would you put it then. (2.0)
   ((T gazes at her own sheet which has in her hands.
   P2 gazes up at the teacher))
   Altså med grammatiske (.)
   I mean with grammatical (.)
   ((Still gazing at T, P2 raises her left hand and performs
   a quotation-mark-gesture))
   [ord.]
   [words.]

T: [Så] ville man vel sige
   [Then] you would probably say
   ((T still gazes down at her own sheet,
   P2 still gazes at T [still 1]))
   at eh
that eh

((P2 gazes from T to her worksheet [still 2]))

man ikke på engelsk bruger there

in English you do not use there

((T gazes from her sheet to P2 [still 3]))

som foreløbigt subjekt med mindre (1.0)

as preliminary subject unless (1.0)

verbet er en form af to be.

the verb is a form of to be.

P2: Okay

Okay

((P2 gazes at her sheet as she is writing on it [still 4].

T gazes from P2 down at what P2 is writing [still 5]))

((T turns her head, then her body and begins to walk away [still 6].

P1 and P2 do not look up [still 7]))
Extract 43, clip 2.2, Teacher 2, Class C, 03.12.2009

1. (P1 holds her head with her left hand, left elbow resting on the table. She gazes down at her worksheet and has a pencil in her right hand close to the sheet, ready to write on it. T stands in front of P1 and gazes down at P1's sheet too. P2 gazes down at her own sheet)

9. P1: To use computers

10. To use computers

12. P2: "creative" (1.0)

13. "creative" (1.0)

14. (P2 lifts her head and upper body, but still gazes at her sheet)

15. creatively

16. creatively

19. T: Hm hm. "Fordi det lægger"=

20. Ehm hm. "Because it="=

21. (T turns her head to gaze quickly from P1's sheet to P2 still 1)

23. P1: [Ja det må det]

24. [Yes it has to]

26. T: =sig til

27. =qualifies

28. (T gazes back at P1 still 2 and then turns her head towards P3 who in the background sits up and runs both her hands through her hair still 3)

32. P1: Use
Use

T: Ja

Yes

((P3's left hand remains in the air, the index finger now being pointed [still 4].
T gazes quickly back at P1, begins to stand up, removes her hands from the table [still 5]))

P3: /T name/?

/T name/?

T: Ja?

Yes?

((T turns her head to gaze again at P3 and takes a step in her direction.
P3 begins to take her finger down [still 6]))

(Hvad så.) Ja.

(What's up.) Yes.

((T walks towards P3. P1 and P2 are writing on their sheets [still 7]))
Er det så ing-form der skal være?

Is it ing-form then?

((P1 gazes at T. T nods))

Tell altså?

Tell ehh?

In telling.

((Both T and P1 gaze down at P1's sheet))

Okay (nej hvordan det skal være)

Okay (no how to put it)

((P1 leans a little forward))

okay he (.)

okay he (.)

Ja?

Yes?

((T nods sligthly, still gazing down at P1's sheet))

Has succeeded (. ) telling

Has succeeded (. ) telling

Nå ja. Ja jeg skulle lige have den der med.

Right. Yes I have to include that one.

((P1 and T still gazing down at P1's sheet))

[[te]]

[[te]]

(In] telling

(In] telling
((T nods, her gaze still at P1's sheet))

T: [Ja] [Yes]

P2: [Er lend] også med d i eh datid?
[Is lend] also spelled with a d in eh the past tense?

((T turns her head to gaze
at P2 sitting to the right of P1 [still 1]))

T: Nej det er med t.
[No it's with a t.

((T stands up straight [still 2], turns her head to her right [still 3]
and begins to move her body in that direction [still 4].
P1 leans slightly forward to begin writing on her sheet))

Lend, lent, lent.

Lend, lent, lent.
Excerpte 4, clip 2.4, Teacher 1, Class A, 02.11.2009

P2: Altså.

So.

((P2 moves her right hand with her pen in it towards P1's sheet and points at it with the pen))

Er det så det samme med femmeren?

Is it the same with number five then?

((P2 gazes up at T. T lifts his left hand with his pen in it from P1's sheet and places it on his right shoulder. He moves his right hand further down at the sheet so it is placed straight under the line that P2 now addresses and he can read this line))

T: (.hhh) (.) Ehh

(.hhh) (.) Ehh

((P2 gazes down at her own sheet))

He has to be: (1.0) ehh, ja. (5.0)

He has to be: (1.0) ehh, yes. (5.0)

((P2 gazes briefly at T then back at her sheet))

Ehm: (1.0)

Ehh: (1.0)

((T turns his head and gazes down at his own worksheet placed right next to P1's sheet))

Ja.

Yes.

((T continues to gaze down at his own sheet. P2 gazes briefly up at T, then back at her own sheet))

P2: Men er det så fordi at full (.)

And is that then because full (.)

((P2 gazes up at T))

det er også et adjektiv?

that's also an adjective?

Altså fordi man kan sige full, fuller

Because you can say full, fuller

((T moves his right hand up towards his left shoulder, raises his upper body and moves his left hand)
down towards P1's sheet. He places the pen at her sheet and pushes it a little away from him. He then crosses his arms, bends a little forward and gazes at his own correction sheet.[still 1])

T: Ehm (2.0) ja ehh, det det kan man sige, Ehh (2.0) yes ehh, you can say that men det er ikke sådan det bliver brugt her. but that is not how it is used here.
P2: Nå. Okay.
(T returns his gaze to his sheet)
T: Ehm. ((T gazes over at P2 who is still gazing down at her sheet)) Man kan sige det er We can say that's hvis nu du siger he is full [(.) for instance]= if you say he is full [(.) for instance]= ((T returns his gaze to his sheet))
P2: [Ja, okay] [Yes, okay]
(T picks up her pen and both she and P2 place their hands in a writing position on the sheet [still 2])

=Teh, men her der lægger det sig så til equipped (.) =Eh, but here it qualifies equipped (.) ((P1 picks up her pen and both she and P2 place their hands in a writing position on the sheet [still 2])) som er et (. ) adjektiv her. which is an (. ) adjective here. ((Both P1 and P2 underline a word and write on their sheets. T gazes at P2 again [still 3])

Equipped, more equipped, most equipped. ((P1 is done writing and lifts her hand from the sheet. T gazes down at his own sheet again))
P2: **Altså, så er det fordi**

Okay, so it's because

((P2 makes a brief pointing gesture with her pen

towards the sheet, then gazes from her sheet up at T))

---

**det lægger sig til et adjektiv?**

**it qualifies an adjective?**

---

T: **Ja.**

Yes.

---

P2: **Og så skal der ly på**

And then you have to add ly

((Both P1 and P2 write on their sheets again.

T gazes back at his sheet [still 4]))

---

T: **Ja.**

Yes.

---

(.hhh) **Hvordan går det venner?**

(.hhh) How are you doing friends?

((T places his hands flat on the table

and begins to stand up [still 9])))
Extract 14, clip 2.5, Teacher 2, Class B, 03.12.2009

P1: Så det indleder til en ledsmætning? 
So it initiates a subordinate clause? 
((mutual eye gaze between P1 and T))

T: Ja.
Yes.
((T nods slightly while saying yes))

P2: Så her (.)
So here (.)

T: Yes
((T nods while saying yes))

P2: Der skal være et komma.
There has to be a comma.

T: Yes (1.0)

((T stands up straight and turns her body away from P3 [still 4]))

VI KÆMPER VIDERE MED DET HER
WE WILL CONTINUE OUR STRUGGLE WITH THIS
NÅR VI SES IGEN ENGANG I NÆSTE UGE.
WHEN WE SEE EACH OTHER AGAIN SOMETIME NEXT WEEK.
I SKAL FAKTISK OGSÅ LÆSE NOGET

ACTUALLY YOU ALSO HAVE TO READ SOMETHING
Extract 102, clip 2.6, Teacher 3, Class E, 04.03.2010

1. ((T is placed at the end of P1's table, to his left. 
She has bent forward and placed her left elbow on the table. 
She rests her head in her left hand. 
T’s and P1's heads are thereby very close to each other 
and equal in height. Both T and P1 gaze down at his worksheet))

2. T: Godt. Næste. The washing machine is (1.0) out of order.

3. Fine. Next one. The washing machine is (1.0) out of order.

4. (T turns her head to gaze at P1. Her right hand is placed 
on the sheet and her index finger pointed at the sentence))

5. Så skal du sætte det der constant eller constantly

6. Then you have to insert constant or constantly

7. ((T turns her gaze back at the worksheet))


9. Yes.

10. T: Hvad vil det så

11. What does it then

12. ((T quickly moves the index finger on her right hand back, 
forward and then back again))

13. hvad vil det så lægge sig til? (1.0)

14. what does it then qualify? (1.0)

15. Hvad fortæller det noget om?

16. What does it say something about?

17. ((T performs the same gesture with her index finger again. 
P1 moves his right hand, holding a pen close to T's finger 
on the sheet))

18. (2.0)

19. ((With his pen, P1 points at the word in the sentence 
and then moves his hand away again))

20. P1: Det er vaskemaskinen det fortæller noget om.

21. It's the washing machine that it says something about.

22. T: Ja: men det fortæller egentlig noget om (1.0)

23. We'll it actually says something about (1.0)
((T runs her index finger back and forth along the sentence several times [still 1 and 2]. P1 gazes down at the sheet. He moves his right hand with the pen in it to his forehead, resting his head on his fist))

om hyppighed i forhold til hele sæt. [ningens ik osse.]

about frequency in relation to the entire sen [tence right]

P1: [Så det er]

[So it is]

((P1 raises his head and gazes at the blackboard, pointing towards it with the pen in his hand [still 3]))

hele sætningen så er det ad

the entire sentence then it's an ad

((P1 gazes down at his sheet again and moves his hand back to his forehead))

adverbium.
adverb.

T: Ja.

Yes.

P1: Constantly.

Constantly.

T: Constantly ja.

Constantly yes.

((T turns her head a little towards P1. P1 moves his right hand down towards the sheet [still 4]))

Ja.

Yes.

((T turns her head back, raises her upper body [still 5] and begins to walk away [still 6]))
Extract 28, clip 2.7, Teacher 2, Class B, 27.11.2009

T: Ehmjoo (.) [Altså sådan set er /P2 name/s ik]=
   Ehwell (.) [Actually /P2 name/’s isn’t]=

P1: [Have you heard anything about the rules]
   [Have you heard anything about the rules]

T: =så tosset.
   =that bad.
Du skal bare tænke på /P2 name/
You just have to remember /P2 name/
((T moving her right hand to point at the sentence
in question at P1’s worksheet))
at her står det i perfektum.
that here it is in the perfect tense.
Hvis du nu ska ha den der du lavede (.)
Now if you want the one you made (.)
((T removing her hand from P1’s sheet))
about being,
about being,
hvis du nu sku ha den i perfektum hvad ville den så
if you want to have that one in the perfect tense what would it then
(1.0) {bad sound quality}

P2: Ehh
   Ehh
   ((P2 takes his left hand down from his chin and leans forward,
gazing at his sheet at close range))

P1: About the rules (4.0)
   About the rules (4.0)

P2: Det ved jeg [squ ik]
   I don’t [know]
   ((The camera zooms out again. P2 leans back again,
still gazing at his sheet. T gazes at his sheet too))

P1: [Have you] heard anything about [ehm]
[Have you] heard anything about [ehh]

T:

[The rules]
[The rules]

BEING removed

BEING removed

((T lifts her head and gazes upwards to her right))

det vi (.) eller hvad var det changed

what we (.) or what was it changed

((T lowers her head again and turns it to gaze briefly at the sheet))

eller hvad det var

or whatever

P2: Ja-

Yes-

T:

[Ehm]

[Ehh]

((T turns her head towards P2, gazing briefly at him

and then again at a point over his head))

P2: [Having changed] ja.

[Having changed] yes.

T: Men nu sk det ville jo svare til at der stod har

But now you that would mean that it said have

((T's gaze shifts again to P2 and then at the table in front of him))

[du hørt om at de blir]

[you heard that they are being]

((T raises her upper body and lets go of the table with her hands))

P1: [Eh, jeg ville sige having]

[Eh, I would say having]

((T turns her head to gaze at P1))

having been

having been

((T makes a pointing gesture towards P1 and nods [still 1].

She quickly gazes from P1 to P2 [still 2]))
T: Ja, lige præcis ik?
Yes, exactly, right?

((T again shifts her gaze to P1 and takes a step backwards [still 3]))

P2: Having been.

Having been.

((P2 gazes at his sheet))

T: Ja. (3.0)

Yes. (3.0)

((T removes her gaze, scratches her cheek and slowly begins to move away, looking once more at P1's sheet [still 4] and then continuing along the line of tables))

P1: He seemed to be ma:n

He seemed to be ma:n

(P1 gazing at her worksheet)
Extract 99, clip 2.8, Teacher 3, Class E, 04.03.2010

P1: Sss navneord.
   Sss noun.
   ((P1 raises his head and shifts his gaze from the worksheet to the blackboard))

   T: Ja.
   Yes.
   ((T gazes down at P1's worksheet and her pointing hand))

   Substantiv.
   Substantiv. {latin word for noun}
   ((P1 gazes down at the worksheet again))
   Hvad hvad er det så for et ord du skal bruge
til at fortælle noget om et substantiv?
   What what word it is you have to use then
to tell something about a substantiv? {latin word for noun}
   ((T begins to turn her head [still 1]))
   Er det et adjektiv
   Is it an adjective
   ((T gazes at the blackboard and moves her pointing hand towards her left ear. As T's head turns, P1 raises his head and torso to gaze at the blackboard too [still 2]))
   eller et adverbium?
   or an adverb?
   ((With her left hand T puts some hair behind her ear that prevents her from seeing properly. T gazes back at P1. P1 gazes at the blackboard))

P1: Adjektiv.
   Adjective.
   ((P1 gazes down at his worksheet))

T: Ja.
   Yes.
   ((T gazes briefly at P1, then back at his sheet. She moves her right hand to point at the place in question [still 3]))
   Skal du så sætte I y bagpå?
Do you add l y then?

P1: Nej.
No.

T: Nej.
No.

((T removes her right hand from the sheet and places it on the table [still 4]))
Så er det bare soft. Så skriver du bare soft bagefter. (.)
Then it's just soft. So you just write soft afterwards. (.)
((T moves her right hand towards the paper again, making a quick deictic gesture and then removing it again [still 5 and 6]))

P1: Ja.
Yes.

((P1 begins to write on his sheet [still 7]))

(1.0) ((T stands up and turns her head and torso towards the group sitting next to P1 [still 8]))
Det er sådan du skal arbejde dig igennem dem.
That's how you should work your way through them.
((T walks towards the other group [still 9]))

Hørte I med
Were were you listening
Extract 41, clip 2.9, Teacher 2, Class C, 03.12.2009

1 P1: ((T is bent over P1's table gazing at his sheet. P1 gazes at the sheet too)) 
2 lægger den sig til (. ehm) 
3 Does it qualify (. ehh) 
4 ((P1 moves his hand with his pen it, pointing at the sentence)) 
5 silences eller these? (. ehm) 
6 Men det er jo faktisk det samme fordi at (. ehm) 
7 But actually that's the same because (. ehm) 
8 ((P1 moves his hand with his pen it, pointing at the sentence)) 
9 silences eller these? (. ehm) 
10 Men det er jo faktisk det samme fordi at (. ehm) 
11 But actually that's the same because (. ehm) 
12 ((T now stands up straight in front of P1. She nods one more time [still 2]. P1 bends his head, moving his gaze from T to his sheet. At the same time he lifts his left hand with the pen in it and makes a quick movement forward towards the teacher [still 3] and then back again)) 
13 det er jo et adjektiv fordi det er jo både pronoun og 
14 it's an adjective because it is both pronoun and 
15 ({T now stands up straight in front of P1. She nods one more time [still 2]. P1 bends his head, moving his gaze from T to his sheet. At the same time he lifts his left hand with the pen in it and makes a quick movement forward towards the teacher [still 3] and then back again})) 
16 (2.0) noun. 
17 (2.0) noun. 
18 ((P1 leans forward, moves his hand to the sheet and begins to write [still 4])) 
19 T: (.hhhh) 
20 (.hhhh) 
21 ((T turns her gaze from P1 to a point behind him towards the ceiling. At the same time she moves her right hand up to her mouth)) 
22 Det er jo et adjektiv der, ikke? 
23 It's an adjective there, right? 
24 P1: [Jo.] 
25 [Yes.] 
26 T: [Fordi] det står jo mellem 
27 [Because] it's placed between 
28 ((T takes down her right hand, makes a quick gesture to her right with the palm facing upwards [still 5] and then moves both her hands together))
P1: Yes.  
((P1 is done writing and leans back again, still gazing at his sheet [still 6]))

T: (.hhh)  
((T turns around, gains eye contact with P1 and begins to walk towards him again [still 9]))

Jamen du kan jo altså  
Yes you can well  
((T raises both her hands, gesturing a kind of object between them))

det kan du jo sommetider se med eks altså (.).  
you sometimes see that with ex well (.).

when you have (.).  
((T uses her right hand to perform a beat gesture, matching the words 'the-big-horse' [still 10]))

the big horse (1.0) så har du et ord  
((T again forming the object with both hands))

der står mellem en artikel (.)

that is placed between an article (.).

eller her et demonstrativt pronom  
((T shakes her head briefly and moves her right hand forward and down towards P1's sheet, the palm facing upwards))

or here a demonstrative pronoun  
((T moves her right hand up and to the right, gesturing the noun to the far right of the demonstrative pronoun))

[og så et substantiv]=  
[and then a noun]=

((P1 gazes from his sheet up at T))
P1: [Så er det altid et]
[Then it's always a]
T: =Det vil jo altid være et adjektiv.
=That will always be an adjective.
((T performs a kind of continuation gesture by circling her hands and shakes her head briefly. P1 gazes down at his sheet again and nods))
P1: (Ja det er rigtigt).
(Yes that's right).
((T turns her gaze to the right away from P1, then her head and her body and begins to walk away))
Transcripts for collection 3

Extracts employed in collection 3

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Extract 19, clip 3.1, Teacher 2, Class B, 03.12.2009

(T is assisting two boys.
She is leaning forward,
resting her hands on P1's table
and gazing down at his sheet.
P1 has just informed her about
which sentence they have problems with
and now begins to describe the problem)

P1: Vi har fået at vide at der skal et på her
((P1 points towards the sentence with the pen
in his left hand))
i stedet for men: (.)
instead of but: (.)
[vi forstår det ikke helt]
[we don't quite understand it]

T: [(hhh) fordi I]
[(hhh) because you]
((T moves her right hand forward
and points at the sentence on P1's sheet [still 1]))
har jo to (. altså det jo
have two (. well it's like
sådan inden for samme
within the same
(. ((forming a space between
her index finger and thumb,
T moves her hand along the sentence,
back and forth [still 2]))
helsætning
period
der har I pludsleg to forskellige tider
you suddenly have two different tenses
((T points at two places in the sentence [still 3 and still 4]))
om noget der egentlig foregår
about something which actually takes place
((T gazes briefly up at P1 and then down again.
P1 keeps gazing down at the sheet)

på samme tidsplan ik?

at the same point in time right?

P1: [Ja]

[Yes]

T: [He] didn't speak to Miriam (.)

[He] didn't speak to Miriam (.)

((With her index finger,

T points at one place in the sentence [still 5].

T then moves her finger to another place in the sentence [still 6])

så ent- og det der det står jo så i præsens

so eith- and that part is written in the present tense

((T moves her finger back to the first place))

så enten kan du lave det der om til præsens

so either you can make that part into the present tense

((T moves her finger to the second place again))

eller du kan lave det der om til imperfektum

or you can change that part into the imperfect

det er sådan de to muligheder du har.

those are the two possibilities you have.

((T moves her hand back to resting on the table.

Both P1 and T keep gazing at the sheet))

P1: Ja okay.

Yes okay.

T: Og det simpleste er jo at lave

And the easiest would be to change

((T briefly moves her hand back

to point again at the first place in the sentence))

den der om til præsens

that one into the present tense

sådan så den bare kommer til at hedde?

so that it simply becomes?

((P1 leans forward, thereby coming

closer to the sheet [still 7]))
P1: He:: (2.0) eh don't speak eller hvad?
    He:: (2.0) eh don’t speak or what?
T: (.hhh) ja:: så er du da på rette vej
    (.hhh) yes:: then you are at least on the right track
    men når det nu er he
    but since it is he
P1: He (. ) eh doesn't
    He (. ) eh doesn't
T: Ja.
    Yes.
P1: [Ja.]
    [Yes.]
T: [Lige] præcis ik?
    [Exact]ly right?
    ((T turns to her right
    and begins to leave.
    P1 prepares to write on his sheet))
Extract 80, clip 3.2, Teacher 2, Class D, 23.10.2009

1. ((T is assisting four girls. They are trying to figure out what is wrong with a particular sentence and have been talking about it for a while. The four pupils are gazing down at each their own worksheet. T also holds a worksheet in her hand and is gazing at it too))

2. T: But who he wouldn't stop

3. But who he wouldn't stop

4. ((T gazes up from her sheet))

5. Hvad er der med den sidste sætning?

6. But. What is wrong with the last sentence?

7. (2.0) ((T gazes at the pupils))

8. P1: Det vel den kan vel slet ikke

9. It it probably cannot

10. ((P1 looks up at T. T turns her head, they gain eye contact))

11. stå for sig selv?

12. stand on its own?

13. ((T shakes her head)


15. Exactly.

16. Og hvad kan du så gøre

17. And what can you do

18. for at få det væk?

19. to change that?

20. ((T walks towards P1))


22. You could delete the full stop.

23. ((P1 moves her hand down at her table and picks up her rubber))
T: *Lige præcis.*

Exactly.

((P1 bends forward to write on her sheet.
P2 moves her pen towards her sheet too))

P2: *Komma,*

Comma,

((T gazes briefly towards P2,
then back at P2's sheet))

T: *Ja.*

Yes.

(1.0) ((T leans a little forward))

*Hvorfor kan den ikkestå for sig selv?*

*Why can't it stand on its own?*

((P1 sits up))

P1: *Det fordi den begynder med but*

That's because it starts with but

((P1 gazes up at T. They gain eye contact.
T then turns her head to her left and gazes
at the ceiling))

T: (*.hhh) *Ja::*

(.hhh) *We::ll*

det kan somme

*it can some*

((T turns her head back to gaze at P1))

*nogle sætninger kan jo godt*

*some sentences can actually*

*indledes med but*

*begin with but*

*selv om det er hovedsætninger*

*even though they are main clauses*

*(P2 sits back. T turns her gaze towards her [still 1])*

*men hvad er det her for en sætning?*

*but what type of clause is this?*

P2: *Det er ik*
It is not
() ((With both hands P2 pretends
to be grabbing something [still 2]))
hvad hedder det
what's it called

P1: En ehh
An ehh
(1.0) ((P2 gazes up from her sheet
and taps her pen towards the table
a few times))
hvad hed- ja jeg kan
what's it cal- yes I
heller ik huske
cannot remember either
hvad det hedder
what it's called
((P2 moves her left hand up to rest
her head in it and gazes back at her sheet.
P1 gazes up at T [still 3]))

T: Det hedder en ledsætning
It's called a subordinate clause

P2: [Ja.]
Yes.
((P2 turns her gaze from T towards her sheet))

P1: [Nå ja]
Right

T: [En] relativ ledsætning.
[A] relative subordinate clause.
((T gazes up from P1, into the air [still 4].
P2 moves her pen towards the paper))

Og en relativ ledsætning
And a relative subordinate clause
den kan ik stå alene.
cannot stand alone.
En relativ sætning kan
A relative clause can
((T shakes her head briefly [still 5]))
[aldrig stå alene.]
[never stand alone.]  
P2: [Hvad kan vi så mere gøre ved den?]
[What more can we do about it then?]  
((T turns quickly and gazes down at P2's sheet))

T: Jamen hvis I
But if you
(.) ((T moves her right hand forward to point
at the sentence on P2's sheet [still 6]))
bare sætter det komma
just put in that comma
så er vi da kommet langt
then we have come a far way
og skriver det der whom
and write that whom
((T moves her pointing finger a little
back and forth along the sentence line))
eller også bare but who he wouldn't
or just but who he wouldn't
((T takes away her hand, turns to her left
and begins to leave))
Extract 56, clip 3.3, Teacher 2, Class C, 23.10.2009

(T is positioned in front of three girls and is assisting with some of the task sentences on their sheets. They have just finished one sentence when P1 turns to the next sentence)

P1: Okay. Og hvad er fejlen hernede så.
Okay. And what's the error down here then.
((P1 is gazing down at her sheet and pointing at a sentence on it with her left thumb
The camera zooms in on the sheet))

T: Det er at når man har noget der er en rutine
That is that when you have something which is a routine
eller noget der sker hver dag eller sker
or something which happens daily or happens
gentagne gange så bruger man simpel tid og
repeatedly then you use simple tense and
ikke udvidet tid. Her står der is going to
not the present continuous tense. Here it says is going to
der skal du skrive he goes to.
there you have to write he goes to.

P1: Ahh (jeg finder lige noget at skrive med)
Ahh (I'll just find something to write with)
((P3 removes her hand from the sheet.
The camera moves away from the sheet, still zoomed in))

P2: Hvad hvad så med den nede i den næste?
What about the one in the one below?

T: (.hhh) Ja det jo en relativ sætning
(.hhh) Yes that's a relative clause
((The camera moves down to P2's sheet))
(.). og (.)
((T points at 'which' in the sentence and does not remove her finger [still 1])
(.). and (.)
det jo en genitiv du her ik?
i: it's a genitive you have here right?
[de har et hu]
[they have a hou]

P2: [Jeg har jo også]
[But I did]
((P2 quickly points towards 'which' as well))
visket kommaet og (inaudible)
rub out the comma and (inaudible)

T: Ja- men det er ik så meget det
Yes- but that isn't really
der er problemet
the problem
((T moves her fingers over the sentence, [still 2]
but returns to pointing at 'which' [still 3]))

P2: Nej nej
No no

T: De har et stort hus (.) hvis dør
They have a large house (. ) whose door [in Danish]
og det der hvis det betyder jo
and that whose that signifies [in Danish]
at det er genitiv.

that it's the genitive case.
Og genitivsformen den hedder jo?
And the genitive form is called?

(3.5) ((The camera moves up to T's face. She is gazing at P2))

P2: Who nej det kan det ik [være]
Who no it can't be [that]

T: [Ja]
[Yes]

hvad siger du
what are you saying
(The camera zooms out. T is still gazing at P1, now frowning)

**P2:** Det kan jo ikke være who

```latex
It can't be who
```

**T:** Nej ikke who men?

```latex
No not who but?
```

((T turns her head to gaze at P3 who sits to the right of P2))

((2.0) (The camera moves downwards and captures P2 who sits with her head leaned towards the fingertips on her left hand. She is gazing down at her sheet [still 4]))

**P2:** That?

```latex
That?
```

((P2 shakes her head slightly))

**T:** [Nej]

```latex
[No]
```

((T turns her head and gaze back towards P2, her finger is still pointing at 'which' [still 5]))

**P2:** [Jeg] aner det ikke.

```latex
[I] simply don't know.
```

**T:** Genitivsformen den hedder whose.

```latex
The genitive form is called whose.
```

**P2:** Nåå:: °whose°

```latex
Ohh:: °whose°
```

**T:** Whose door is painted blue.

```latex
Whose door is painted blue.
```

((T removes her head from P2's sheet))

(1.0) Ik? Du kan måske huske

(1.0) Right? You might recall

at vi snakkede om det hed

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that we talked about how it's
((T places her right index finger on the table
next to P1's sheet))
who
who
((T draws an imaginary line on the table.
P2 takes down her left hand and leans back))
(.)
og who
and who
((T draws another imaginary line beneath
where she drew the first one))
(.)
[og så whose ik?] [and then whose right?]
((T draws a third imaginary line beneath
the two others [still 6]))

P2: [Ja ja men jeg har godt ja]
[Yes yes but I have yes]
[men jeg har skrevet det ned=] [but I have written it down=]

T: [Which which]
[Which which]
((T moves her hand to the right of
the imaginary lines and with each 'which'
touches the table briefly, the first 'which'
next to the first imaginary line,
the second 'which' next to the second imaginary line [still 7]))

P2: =på et bag på bag på et papir
=on the back on the back of a piece of paper
((P2 leans forward, gazing at her sheet.
T removes her hand))
så jeg har det til at stå
so I have it in writing
Ja. Nu skal du have det flyttet.

Yes. Now you have to move it.

(.) ((T moves her hand towards P2's sheet and then in a smooth movement from there to P2's head where she touches P2's hair with the piece of chalk in her hand [still 8]))

derop.

up there.

P2: Ja.

Yes.

((P2 leans back. T begins to leave))
Extract 30, clip 3.4, Teacher 2, Class B, 27.11.2009

((T is positioned in front of two girls who are trying to work out the article use in the sentence 'I once heard a lecture on the) colour yellow in (Z) art'. T is not interfering, merely listening. The girls are now figuring out whether to put 'the' in front of 'art'))

P1: Nej nej for det er bare
No no because it's only
hvor det er nødvendigt.
where it's necessary.
((P1 gazes from her sheet up at T))
(2.5) ((P1 turns her gaze back at her sheet))

P1: Ville du ikke sige (.)
Wouldn't you say (.)
I once heard a lecture
on the colour yellow in art
on the colour yellow in art
((P1 gazes back up at T. T leans forward and rests her hands on the table))
(2.0) ((T continues to gaze down at P1's sheet and does not meet P1's gaze))

P1: In the art
In the art
((P1 gazes down at her sheet again))

T: Ehm ehm ((approving sound))
P1: Jeg tror bare det hedde:
   [I think it's just called]

P1: Ja.

T: Det er sådan at opfatte
   It's to be understood
   ((T stands up straight
   and gazes towards the ceiling [still 4]))
   som et (. begreb
   as a (. concept

P2: In art

T: In in art
   ((Still gazing down at P1's sheet,
   T nods slightly))

T: Ne::j
   No:::
   [(.hhh)]
   [(.hhh)]
   ((P1 gazes back at P2's sheet [still 3]))

P1: Jo for man kan også godt sige
   Yes because you can also say
   ((P2 sits up a little, but keeps
   gazing down at her sheet [still 1].
   P1 turns her gaze towards P2's sheet))
   in the art kan man ik det?
   in The art can't you?
   ((P1 gazes back at T [still 2]))

P1: In art

T: In in art
   ((Still gazing down at P1's sheet,
   T nods slightly))

P2: Jo for man kan også godt sige
   Yes because you can also say
   ((P2 sits up a little, but keeps
   gazing down at her sheet [still 1].
   P1 turns her gaze towards P2's sheet))
   in the art kan man ik det?
   in The art can't you?
   ((P1 gazes back at T [still 2]))

P1: Jeg tror bare det hedde:
   [I think it's just called]

P1: Ja.

T: Det er sådan at opfatte
   It's to be understood
   ((T stands up straight
   and gazes towards the ceiling [still 4]))
   som et (. begreb
   as a (. concept
((P2 raises her head to gaze up at T))

som et (. .) et [et abstrakt]

as a (. .) an [an abstract]

((T gazes down again, towards P1))

P2: [Nåh sådan at det er faget]

[Oh so that it's the vocation]

T: Ja. [Netop ik?]

Yes. [Exactly right?]

((T nods))

P2: [Ja okay ja]

[Yes okay yes]

T: Eller en eller

Or an or

(. .) ((With both hands, T forms a circle [still 5]))

hvad hedder det

what's it called

(1.5) kunst kunstarten

(1.5) art the art form

P2: Ja.

Yes.

((T turns to her left

and begins to leave))
Extract 17, clip 3.5, Teacher 2, Class B, 03.12.2009

(T is standing in front of two girls, leaning towards their table, listening to their talk, and gazing down at P2's sheet. P1 gazed up at T)

P1: Den her er jeg lidt i tvivl om (.)
I'm a bit in doubt about this one (.)
((P1 gazes down at her sheet again))
It (.) (hhh) it is hardly likely
It (.) (hhh) it is hardly likely
((T gazes from P2's sheet towards P1's sheet))
det er vel en led?
that's a sub right?

T: Ne ne:j, (.) det er jo en hovedsætning
No no:, (.) that's a main clause

P1: Hvorfor er det det?
Why is that?
((P1 lowers her head [still 1] and raises it again))
Det kan ik stå alene ((pathetic voice))
It can't stand alone ((pathetic voice))
((P1 sits back [still 2] and moves her head up and down. T gazes to her right and begins to stand straight [still 3]))

T: Altså vi har ikke på noget tidspunkt
Well we haven't at any time
((T points towards the blackboard with her left arm and gazes at P1 [still 4]. P1 gazes at her sheet. P2 gazes up at T))
introduceret noget et begreb der hed
introduced something a concept which was
at den skulle stå alene.
that it should stand alone.

[(.hhh)]
[(.hhh)]
P1: [Nej]
[No]

T: Den må ik være led i et andet

It cannot be a member of another

((T performs beat gestures synchronised
with her verbal speech [still 5]))
i en anden sætning
of another clause
og det er den jo ik.
and it isn't.

((T gazes from P1 to P1's sheet))
Altså hvis (. en hovedsætning den er
So if (. a main clause is
aldrig et led i en anden sætning.
ever a member of another clause.
Men en ledsætning den er
But a sub clause that is
((With both hands T forms a circle in the air [still 6]))
den vil være et led i en anden sætning.
that'll be a member of another clause.

((T leans towards the table again
and gazes at P1's sheet [still 7]))
( .) Det der med at den kan stå alene
( .) This thing about whether it can stand alone
det er sådan en: f (.) tommelfingerregel
that's such a: ru (.) rule of thumb

((P2 gazes up at T [still 8]))
man har med i folkeskolen
that you use in primary school
men det er faktisk ikke
but it's actually not
((T gazes from P1's sheet up at P1.
P1 is gazing down at her sheet))
altså han sagde det ka kan jo heller
I mean he said that ca cannot
ikke stå alene det ville vi jo sige
stand alone either it we would say
hva hvad sagde han?
wha what did he say?
P2: ((P2 gazes down at her sheet again))
P2: ((Laughs quietly and gazes towards P1))

T: Det jo altså:
So that is:
men han sagde at det var godt og:
but he said that it was good and:
men det er stadigvæk en hovedsætning.
but it's still a main clause.

P1: ((T gazes from P1's sheet towards P2's sheet and moves her left hand forward to point at the sentence in question [still 9])))
Så den her det er en hovedsætning
So this one is a main clause
((T and P2 are focused on P2's sheet. P1 are rubbing her eyes and then gazing down at her own sheet))
og så kommer der en ledsætning ik?
and then follows a sub clause right?
den indledes med that a vicious thag will grow
it begins with that a vicious thag will grow
like (inaudible) og så kommer en ny ledsætning
like (inaudible) and then follows a new sub clause
while we are (.)

while we are (.)
((T removes her hand from P2's sheet [still 10]))

P2: Okay. Så der er hoved led og (.)
Okay. So it is main sub and (.)
((P1 rests her head in her right hand. P2 points towards her sheet))

T: Og led.
And sub.
P2: Og led.
And sub.

P2: Hoved [led og led]
Main [sub and sub]

P1: 
[skal der så]
[do you put]

være komma?
a comma then?

T: Næh

((T shakes her head slightly))
(2.5) ((T gazes at P2's sheet
where P2 is now writing.
P1 hides her face in her right hand [still 11]))
det skal der ikke
you don't

((T turns around and begins to leave))
Extract 56, clip 3.6, Teacher 2, Class C, 23.10.2009

((T is positioned in front of three girls and is assisting with some of the task sentences on their sheets. They have just finished one sentence when P1 turns to the next sentence))

P1: Okay. Og hvad er fejlen hernede så.
Okay. And what's the error down here then.
((P1 is gazing down at her sheet and pointing at a sentence on it with her left thumb The camera zooms in on the sheet [still 1])))

T: Det er at når man har noget der er en rutine
That is that when you have something which is a routine eller noget der sker hver dag eller sker
or something which happens daily or happens gentagne gange så bruger man simpel tid og
repeatedly then you use simple tense and ikke udvidet tid. Her står der is going to
not the present continuous tense. Here it says is going to der skal du skrive he goes to.
there you have to write he goes to.

P1: Ahh (jeg finder lige noget at skrive med)
Ahh (I'll just find something to write with)
((P3 removes her hand from the sheet. The camera moves away from the sheet, still zoomed in))
Extract 29, clip 3.7, Teacher 2, Class B, 27.11.2009

((Four girls sit together
in the upper right corner of the class.
The teacher walks towards them))

Pp: Grew, grown, grown, growing

P1: Er det sådan
Is it like
but nei now they have (.) grow growing apart?
but nei now they have (.) grow growing apart?
((P1 looks up at T and they gain eye contact [still 1]))

Pp: Grow, growing, grew
((T gazes down at P1's sheet))

P1: Nej grown.
No grown.
((T gazes at back at P1
and they gain eye contact again.
T shakes her head minimally))

P1: Er det det ord der i det mindste er forkert
Is it at least that word which is wrong

T: ((Nods markedly))

P1: Ja.
Yes.

P2: Er det ik growen?
Isn't it growen?
((P2 gazes at T, T directs her gaze at P2,
and they gain eye contact))

T: Altså: (.) prøv at stave det.
Well: (.) try to spell it.
P2: grown
  grown
((While spelling, P2 gazes down at her sheet, then back up at T. P1 gazes up at T too [still 2]. P3 and P4 gaze down at their sheets))

T: ((Shakes her head))
  ((P4 gazes up at T))

P3: Growed
  ((P3 gazes up at T, T turns her head, and they gain eye contact))

P4: grew growing grew
  ((T turns her head towards P4, and they gain eye contact. T turns her gaze back at P2 [still 3]))

T: Det var tæt på.
  It was close.

P2: Grow, grew, growen
  ((P2 gazes away from T to the side. P1 gazes down at her sheet))

P1: Nah
  ((T turns her head slightly to gaze at P1 who is still gazing down at her sheet))

  (4.0) ((P2 turns her head to gaze back at T. P1, P3 and P4 gaze down at their sheets [still 4]))

P3: "Det var da utroligt"
  "This is unbelievable"
  ((P3 continues to gaze down at her sheet))

  (4.0) ((T moves her head slightly in the direction of P3,
but does not turn to look at her)

P4: [((Looks up at T and laughs shortly))]

T: [Ja:] men /P2 name/ er tæt nok (.)

[Yes:] but /P2 name/ is close enough (.)

((T gazes from P1's sheet to P2
and back to P1's sheet. P1 turns her head
and gazes towards P2's sheet))

eller ikke tæt nok men hun er tæt på.

or not close enough but she is close.

((P1 gazes back at her own sheet.
P4 raises her head to gaze at T))

P4: Så skal det bare være et i i stedet for e'et eller hvad.

Then it just has to be an i instead of the e or what.

((P1 gazes up at T as well.
T continues to gaze at P1's sheet))

T: Ne:ej. Gr o (.)

No:: G r o (.)

((P1 gazes down at her sheet.
P2 turns her head to gaze down at her sheet too))

og hvad så [w]

and what's next [w]

P1: [Og et v]

[And a v]

P4: Nå

Okay

T: Og så?

And what then?

P4: N

N

T: [N ja.]
[N yes.]

((T turns her head towards P4, but gazes further to the side and begins to turn her body in order to leave))

P2: [Nāāh]
[Ahhhh]

((P2 leans forward and begins to write on her sheet))

P4: Grown

((P4 leans forward to write on her sheet too))
Extract 52, clip 3.8, Teacher 2, Class C, 23.10.2009

((T is assisting a group of three girls. They are just finishing one sentence, when P1 calls the teacher to pose a question to the following sentence))

T: (inaudible) hele sæt ningen. = (inaudible) the entire sen tence.

P1: [/T name/?]

T: =Hvis I bare retter, så er det okay. =If you just correct it, then it's okay.

((T takes a few steps to her left and stops in front of P1. She leans forward and gazes down at P1's paper))

P1: Kan det passe at der skal stå
  Is it correct that it should say
  ((P1 is pointing towards the sentence on her sheet and tapping her fingers on it as she reads it aloud))

What happened was a strictly private matter?

((P1 gazes up at T. T keeps gazing at P1's sheet. P2, sitting on the other side of P3 in the middle, is gazing at her own sheet))

T: Ja, men altså, strictly a private matter
  Yes, but strictly a private matter
det er også okay.

  that's also okay.

P2: Men det er UDEN l y.
  But it's WITHOUT l y.

((P2 moves her pen towards her sheet.)
T turns her head to gaze at P2)

T: Ja. Og hvorfor er det det?
   Yes. And why is that?
   ((T takes a step to her right,
   stops in front of P2
   and gazes from P2 down at P2's sheet [still 1]))

P2: Fordi [det ikke lægger sig til et adjektiv]
   Because [it doesn't qualify an adjective]
   ((T gazes quickly at P2. P2 is gazing at her sheet.
   T gazes down at P2's sheet again))

P1: [Men jeg, hvorfor skal a ikke være før?]
   [But I, why isn't a supposed to come first?]

T: Ja, hvad lægger det sig nemlig til?
   Yes, what is it that it qualifies?
   ((P2 gazes quickly up at T.
   T is gazing at P2's sheet.
   P2 gazes down again.
   P1 turns her gaze from T to her sheet.
   P3 turns her head
   and gazes from her sheet towards P2))

(2.0) ((T gazes from P2's sheet up at P2))

P2: Matter.

T: Ja,

(0.5) ((T gazes at P2 [still 2].
   P2 is gazing down at her sheet))

Substantiv.

Noun.
((T gazes down at P2's sheet again))

P2:  
Ja.  
Yes.

((P2 keeps her gaze fixed on her sheet.  
P3 turns her head to gaze down at her own sheet))

T:  
Og et ord der lægger sig til et substantiv?  
And a word which qualifies a noun?  
((T gazes up at P2))

(1.0) ((P2 lifts her heads and gazes at T.  
They gain eye contact [still 3]))

P2:  
Hvad?  
What?

T:  
Og et ord der lægger sig til et substantiv  
And a word which qualifies a noun  
((T raises her head too, smiles at P2.  
P2 lowers her head again,  
gazing back at her sheet))

[det er jo som bekendt]  
[that's as we know]

P2:  
[Det er] altid et  
[That's] always a

(3.5) ((P2 turns her head to her right,  
gazing away from her sheet and T.  
T is gazing at P2, smiling [still 4]))

T:  
Ja, kom så  
Yes, come on

(0.5) ((P2 turns her head back  
and gazes down at her sheet.  
T turns her gaze towards P2's sheet too))

[Adjek=]  
[Adjec=]
P2: [Eh ha ha] ((laughing quietly))

[ Eh ha ha] ((laughing quietly))

T: =tiv, ikke? Og det er det også her.
= tive, right? And that's the case here as well.
((P3 gazes quickly up at T, then towards P2, then back at her own sheet.
T stands up straight and turns to her right,
beginning to leave [still 5].
P2 keeps her gaze fixed on her sheet))

P1: Men skal a stå før?
But isn't a supposed to come first?
((T stops, turns towards P1, but remains a little away from her table.
P3 gazes quickly up at T,
then down towards her sheet again))

T: Det behøver det ikke.
It doesn't have to.
((T shakes her head slightly))
Det må gerne stå hvor det står.
It can stay where it is.
((T takes a quick step towards P1, gazing down at her sheet.
Then she turns again and begins to leave))

P3: Jeg synes det lyder åndssvagt.
I think it sounds stupid.
((All three pupil leans forward and begins to write on their sheets))
((Three girls are working together.
The teacher is engaged in assisting them.
She is bent over their table.
They have been through one sentence,
and as the extract clip begins,
P1 moves on to the following sentence))

T: [Så derfor så er det et adverbium]
[So therefore it's an adverb]
((T gazes at P2. She has been pointing
at P2's sheet but now begins to remove her hand.
P2 and P3 are both gazing at P2's sheet.
P1 gazes down at her own sheet))

P1: [Men sådan noget som careful.]
[But something like careful.]
(1.5) ((T turns her head to gaze at P1's sheet))
Careful. Betyder det det fortæller vel
Careful. Does that mean I suppose that says
noget om graden.
something about the degree.
((P1 gazes up at T.
T continues to gaze at P1's sheet))

P2: Carefully
Carefully

P1: Carefully
Carefully
((P3 turns her head to gaze at her own sheet))

T: Jamen det prøv lige at se på
Well it try to look at
hvad for et ord lægger det sig til her
which word it qualifies here
((P1 gazes down at her sheet again))
P3: Jeg har skrevet careful
    I have written careful
    ((P3 gazes from her sheet up at T [still 1]))
T: Ja, men hvad lægger (det sig til?)
    Yes, but what does (it qualify?)
    ((T turns her head to gaze at P3.
    They gain eye contact [still 2]))
P2:
        [Carefully]
        [Carefully]
P3: Consideration
    Consideration
T: Ja, og hvad ordklasse er det?
    Yes, and which word class is that?
    ((P3 gazes sideways towards the blackboard.
    T still gazes at P3. P1 and P2 gaze down at
    each their sheet))
P2:
    Det er et substantiv. (.)
    That's a noun. (.)
    ((P3 gazes back at T.
    T moves her gaze from P3 to P2.
    P2 moves her head to the side
    in a quick move [still 3 and still 4]))
P3:
    Så det er careful.
    So it is careful.
T:
    °Ja°
    °Yes°
    ((T performs the same quick move
    with her head as P2 has just done [still 5 and still 6]))
P2:
    Så rigtigt så skal det være
    right so it has to be
    ((P1 and P2 lean forward and begin
    to write on their sheets))
P3:
    et adjektiv fordi det lægger sig
an adjective because it qualifies
((T turns her head slightly
to gaze down at P1's sheet.
P3 gazes back down at her sheet))
til et substantiv.
a noun.
P3: Altså jeg (.) altså alle dem her ord
well I have actually only
har jeg sådan set kun skrevet
written all these words
((T turns her head in the direction of P3,
sits down on the table in front of P3
and gazes down at P3's sheet))
fordi at
because
(.) ((P3 gazes up at T. T looks up.
Mutual eye contact is established))
det lyder rigtigt for mig
it sounds right to me
T: Ja. Men det er også fint at have det
Yes. But it's also fine to have that
((T points towards P3's sheet.
Her gaze shifts between P3 and P3's sheet
several times during these lines))
som udgangspunkt.
as a starting point.
Men du bliver bare nødt til
But you have to
også lige at vide det
know it as well
((P3 gazes from T down at her sheet))
fordi nogle gange kan du måske
because sometimes you might
komme i tvivl
be in doubt
[og så er det godt=]
[and then it's good=]
P3: [Ja ja]

[Yes yes]

((P3 moves a hand through her hair and gazes quickly up at T, then down at her sheet again))

T: =lige at kunne gå ind og så sige hvorfor.

=to be able to go in and say why.
Extract 40, clip 3.10, Teacher 2, Class C, 03.12.2009

(6.0) ((T stops in front of P1's desk, gazing at her worksheet.
P1 gazes at the sheet too as she is engaged in inserting
the right word in the sentences. T appears to be checking
P1's insertions and spotting an error))

T: (.hhh)
(.hhh)
((T tightens the corners of her lips.
At the same time T changes her body position, taking a step to the right
and placing her hands on the table so that she can lean on it
and thereby get closer to the worksheet. She checks P1's answers again))

(7.0)

T: /P1 name/ hvis (nu, når du) kigger på den der (.)
/P1 name/ if (now, when you) take a look at that (.)
((T uses her right hand and index finger to point
at the sentence in question. P1 turns her head slightly))
lasted med interested.
((P1 gazes at the sentence, joggling her rubber in her left hand
and holding her pen in her right hand))
Hvad lægger det sig til.
What does that qualify.
((P1 puts down the rubber and moves her left hand to her forehead,
leaning her head against it))

P1: (1.0) Ehm:: (7.0)
(1.0) Ehh:: (7.0)
((P1 gazes at the sentence and moves her right hand
with the pen in it slightly to the right at a slow pace))
Teachers.
Teachers.
((P1 moves the pen in her hand so that it comes to function as a pointer [still 1].
She continues to gaze down at the worksheet))

T: Ja. (.)
Yes. (.)
((T gazes at the sheet too))

Og et ord der lægger sig til et substantiv?

And a word which qualifies a noun?
((With her left hand P1 picks up her rubber
and moves it from her left to her right hand))

((P1 rubs out her previous answer [still 2]))

P1: Det et adjektiv [tiv.]

That's an adjective [tive.]

T: [Det] jo som bekendt et adjektiv ja.

[That's] as we know an adjective yes.

((T raises her upper body and turns to walk away.
P1 puts down the rubber and uses her left hand to wipe the paper
after the rubbing. She then writes the correct answer on the sheet
as the teacher walks away))
Extract 5, clip 3.11, Teacher 1, Class A, 02.11.2009

(T is positioned in front of P1's table, with his hands on it and leaning forward, gazing at P1's worksheet. P1 is erasing something from her sheet with her rubber)

T: Men eh:: hvis vi ser på den første sætning, /P1 name/

But eh:: if we take a look at the first sentence, /P1 name/

P1: Åh (.) ja

Oh (.) yes

T: Nu skal du nok lige få lov at viske færdig ((smiling voice))

I'll let you finish your rubbing ((smiling voice))

P1: ((Laughing silently))

T: Fordi hvad er det der er fejl i den?

Because what is the error in that?

(0.5) ((P1 is still using her rubber on the sheet))

P1: Altså er det ikke private?

Well isn't it private?

((P1 stays focused on her sheet and continues rubbing))

T: Jo.

Yes.

((T turns his gaze from P1's sheet to his own correction sheet that he has placed on the table between his hands))

P1: Okay.

Okay.

T: Og hvordan er fejlen der?

And what is the error there?

((P1 begins to wipe off her paper))
Det er fordi det skal nemlig være private
It's because it has to be private
i stedet for privately
instead of privately
((T gazes at P1's sheet again. P1 puts down her rubber, picks up her pen and prepares to write on the sheet))

P1: Ja præcis. Det det skal (inaudible)
Yes exactly. It it has (inaudible)
((P1 crosses something out on her sheet))

T: Yep.
Yep.

P1: Ehmm:
Ehmm:
(1.5) ((P1 writes something on her paper))
ja. Hvad (inaudible)
yes. What (inaudible)

T: Men hvorfor er det at det skal det?
But why is that so?
((Still gazing at P1's sheet, T moves his left arm forward and points at P1's sheet [still 1]))

P1: Jamen det er det jeg synes der er så svært
But that is what I find so: difficult
((P1 wipes her paper off a second time with her left hand [still 2] and then moves her hand to her cheek, resting her head in it. She gazes up quickly, but does not meet T's gaze before she gazes down at her sheet again [still 3]))
og forklare hvorfor. Ehmm: (.)
to explain why. Ehmm: (.)

T: Ja.
Yes.
(. ) ((T kneels down in front of P1's table, now resting his elbows on it [still 4]. P1 looks up at T.
T stays focused on P1's sheet, and P1 turns her gaze in that direction again))
Det er fordi dem med l y endelsen (.) det er eh
It's because those with the l y ending (.) they are eh
det er altid (.) adjektiv-
they are always (.) adjectiv-
((T shakes his head briefly))
eller hvad hedder det (.) adverbier.
or what's it called (.) adverbs.
Det vil sige de lægger sig (.) til (.)
That means that they (.) qualify (.)
verber og adjektiver
verbs and adjectives
[eh]
[eh]
P1: [Yes] nå ja med l y der også.
[Yes] oh yes with l y there too.
((P1 points towards a specific space on the sheet with her pen in her right hand [still 5]))
T: Ja.
Yes.
((T moves his left hand forward and places it on top of P1's paper, pointing towards the sentence they are talking about [still 6]))
P1: Ja.
Yes.
T: Ehh (1.0) og her, hvad lægger private sig til?
Ehh (1.0) and here, what does private qualify?
Hvad siger det noget om.
What does it say something about.
P1: Ehh (inaudible sounds from reading the sentence to herself)
Ehh (inaudible sounds from reading the sentence to herself)
((P1 moves her pen along the sentence line in coordination with her reading of the sentence))
matter?

matter?

[er det ikke det? matter]

[isn't that it? matter]


[Yes, but yes yes] precisely. Yes yes.

Altså en ehh et privat anliggende

So a ehh a private matter {in Danish}

((P1 gazes briefly up at T. T stays focused on the sheet.
P1 gazes down again))

(.hhh) ehmm og det er et substantiv

(.hhh) ehmm and that's a noun

altså navneord

that is, a noun

så adjectiver ligger sig til substantiver

so adjectives qualify nouns

så når vi har en konstruktion der hedder

so when we have a construction which reads

a (. ) private or eh matter ja-

a (. ) private or eh matter yes-

((T still points at the sentence))

sådan altså a og så et (. ) substantiv til sidst

so that is, a and then a (. ) noun at the end

og så et ord ind imellem

and then a word in betwee

((T points towards the specific words in the sentence

that he is talking about [still 7]))

så er det altid

then it is always

et adjektiv vi har med at gøre der.

an adjective we are dealing with.

P1: Okay. Så der skal ikke l y på.

Okay. And then you don't add l y.

((The camera zooms in on the sheet))

T: Der skal ikke l y på.

You don't add l y.
P1: Nej.

No.

T: Så det det er forklaringen.
So that's the explanation.

P1: Yes.
Yes.
### Transcripts for collection 4

*Extracts employed in collection 4*

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Extract 6, clip 4.1, Teacher 1, Class A, 02.11.2009

(T stands behind his desk, gazing over his right shoulder at what he has just written on the blackboard behind him)

T: Så did not think.

So did not think.

((T turns his head and gazes down at the sheet in his right hand [still 1]))

(hhh) ehh numeral three

((T raises his head and gazes at the class))

hrm hrm

(hrm hrm)

(4.0) ((T moves his head and gazes around. He stops when his gaze hits P1 in the back row [still 2]. While stating her name he turns his gaze down at his sheet again [still 3]))

/P1 name/, hvad har du der.

/P1 name/, what's your suggestion.

((T begins to turn towards the blackboard, shaking the chalk in his left hand [still 4]. The camera moves to P1 in the back row))

P1: Eh, der har vi sat l y på awful.

Eh, we've added l y to awful.

((P1 gazes down at her sheet and rests her head against her left hand))

T: Ja.

Yes.

((T begins to write on the blackboard (not visible on the recording)))

P1: Eh, og det er fordi at eh good er et adjektiv ehm

Eh, and that's because eh good is an adjective ehm

og så (1.5) og så skal der l y på adjek

and then (1.5) and then l y have to be added to the adject

((P1 lifts her upper body, takes down her left hand

85
and gazes up towards the blackboard and the teacher))

alså når det er et adverbie
when it's an adverb

T:  
Ja. Og det er et adverbie når der kom,
Yes. And it is an adverb when you add,
det skal være et adverbie=
it has to be an adverb=

P1:  
Ja.
Yes.

(2.5) ((the camera moves back to the teacher.
He is writing on the blackboard as he is talking))

T:  
=ehm, fordi det lægger sig til (1.0)
=ehm, because it qualifies (1.0)
((T draws an arrow from 'awful' to 'good' [still 5]))
et (1.0) adjektiv
an (1.0) adjective
(5.0) ((T writes 'adj' next to 'good'. Takes a step back,
looks at what he has written, then takes a step forward and adds more))
Så der skal l y på.
So (1.5) you can say that the adjective awful
skal laves om til adverbiet awfully.
has to be made into the adverb awfully
((while recapitulating, T is gazing at what he has written at the blackboard,
his back towards the pupils [still 6].
He then gazes down at his sheet and begins to walk to his right [still 7]))
(.hhh) Yeps. Nummer fire?
(.hhh) Yep. Number four?
Extract 32, clip 4.2, Teacher 2, Class B, 27.11.2009

T: Right. The next eh exercise you are not supposed in the exam to do anything apart from inserting the (.)
the article that is needed. You don’t have to explain.
Perhaps we will have to explain anyway here but (.)
how would the first sentence go. (1.0)
((T now stands with her front turned towards the class.
She gazes up from her paper at the pupils.
Several pupils raise their hands [still 1]))
/P1 name/,
((T gazes down at her sheet again [still 2] (P1 is not in the picture)))
did you get as far as that?

P1: Yes [ehm]

T: [Yeah]

P1: Since when you have become such a pupil of the human nature.

T: ((T bends her upper body a little forward in the direction of P1 [still 3] and then returns to standing straight))
(.hhh) Since when have you become such a pupil of
((As T reads the sentence aloud, she takes several small steps back and forth. When she finishes reading,
she looks up towards P1 and puts down her paper on the table in front of her [still 4]))

P1: The

T: The human nature.
((T tips her head quickly to the left [still 5] and back again when saying 'the'.
She then gazes from P1 down at her sheet again and begins to pick it up))
Or perhaps just
((T gazes up at the class again.
When saying 'just' she makes a slight nod towards P2 in the back row.

P2 gazes at T. He holds his right hand next to his cheek, his finger is not raised.

P2: I've said the as well.
((P2 moves his hand down. He gazes briefly down towards his worksheet and then up at T again. T holds her sheet in both hands and is now gazing at it. P3 who sits right in front of T gaizes up at T and stretches her arm so that her raised finger comes closer towards T.))

T: (2.0) Sorry?
((T gazes from her sheet back at P2))

P2: I've said the [as well].

T: [Ja. "Ja"]
[Yes. "Yes"]
((T is nodding twice. With the last nod she shifts gaze towards P3.))

P3: Eh or nothing.
((P3 takes down her hand, gazing at T. T gazes at her sheet))

T: Or nothing
((T nods and takes a step back.))

P3: Just of human nature

T: Of human nature. Yes.
((T takes another step back, gazing at the class and nodding. She then takes down her arm with the sheet in it and gazes up at the class. She holds the sheet with its front towards her stomach. P4 raises her hand))

Usually when it's an abstract.

when it's something that's an abstract used.

sort of without any limitations
((T turns the sheet and gazes at it again))

you would use it without the ehh. without the article.
((T flips the sheet again and gazes at the class))
You can sometimes because we have the the adjective
((T again gazes at the sheet))
in front of it perhaps find it with the.
(.hhh) I once heard a lecture (2.0)
((Without lifting her head, T gazes from her sheet towards P4
who sits nearby in the right side row with her hand raised [still 11]))
/P4 name/?

P4: ((P4 takes down her hand [still 12]. T gazes at her own sheet
while P4 is reading the sentence aloud))
I once heard a lecture eh on the (. colour yellow in art.

T: Ja. Good. (.)
Yes. Good. (.)
((T nods slightly))
On the colour yellow in art.
((T gazes at her sheet while repeating P4's line))
Art is also sort of an abstract used without limitations here
and the colour yellow
((T gazes from her sheet up at the class))
ehh (.). here we have (.)
((T is about to place her sheet on the table in front of her,
but raises her hand again and turns her gaze towards the sheet again))
it's all actually defined so we know which colour it is,
consequently the definite article.
(.hhh) The film version (1.5)
((T bends forward and turns her head to gaze at P5
who sits next to P4 and closest to the teacher [still 13].
P5 is bent forward and has her head turned in the opposite direction,
away from the teacher. Her left hand is placed next to
the right side of her face [still 14]))
/P5 name/, did you get as far as that?

P5: <"Yes”>

T: Yes? Are you going to-
((T places her sheet on the table in front of her
and leans forward with both hands on the table.
Her gaze is on the sheet [still 14]))
P5: *Ehh no because I'm not sure.*

((Slowly, P5 moves her left hand down so that her chin rests on it and turns her head to gaze towards T [still 15]. She then turns her head away again [still 16]))

T: *(3.0) No?*

P5: *Em em*

(3.0) ((T gazes down at her sheet. P5 turns her head to gaze at T again, and T lifts her head to gaze at P5 [still 17]))

T: *Which possibilities would you say that there are?*  

((T gazes down at her sheet again. P5 also bends her head to gaze down at her own sheet [still 18]))

P5: *Ehh the and a.*

T: *(1.5) (P5 turns her head and gazes at T. T stays focused on the sheet)) Okay (.hhh) *The film version of the life of Oscar Wilde was praised by reviewers. That sounds alright,*

((T raises her head and meets P5's gaze))

doesn't it?

P5: *[Em em]*

T: *(T stands up straight and with both hands makes a gesture of something that is being followed by something else)) [Of the] *life and then it's defined by which life,*

((T gazes down at her sheet again and begins to pick it up))

*it's the life of Oscar Wilde.*

A *life of Oscar Wilde*  

((T gazes from her sheet at P5. P5 turns her head away again and raises her right hand towards her face))

*that would more or less indicate*  

*that he had more than one life* *(1.0)*
((T takes a step back and gazes from P5 down at her sheet again))

**ehh so the life is fine.**

((T begins to walk in the opposite direction of P5. She gazes up from her sheet))

(.hhh) *Ja, what about the next one? (1.5)*

(.hhh) *Yes, what about the next one? (1.5)*

((T sees a pupil in the back row with his pen raised in his right hand. At the same time, this pupil raises his head and gazes at T. T turns her gaze away from him and towards her sheet))

*/P6 name/?*

((The pupil bends his head and gazes at his sheet while taking his hand down))
Extract 48, clip 4.3, Teacher 2, Class C, 20.11.2009

(T is positioned in front of the blackboard on which several pupils have written a sentence that they have translated from Danish into English at home)

T: Okay. Where is number four?
((T gazes at the blackboard and walks forward pointing towards the place on the blackboard where sentence four has been written))

That's here. Who was that?
((T gazes around at the class))

P1: Det var mig.
That was me.

T: Ja.

((With her side to the blackboard T turns her head to gaze at the sentence again [still 1]))

Can you read it [/P1 name/]? 

P1: [Ehh] You may restrict yourself to answer the question
((P3 who sits on the front row raises his left hand))

T: Ehm hm,
(5.0) ((T turns her head away from the blackboard and gazes down at her desk while walking towards it. She begins to leaf through her papers on the desk))

"Whatever happened to mine?"
((T turns a paper over and places it on the desk again))

Her.

Here.

(.hhh) Yeah.
(T looks up at the class [still 2] and begins
to walk backwards to the blackboard)

**Anything to correct there?**
(6.0) (T looks around at the class.
She juggles the blackboard eraser in her hands
and takes a few slow steps forward.
She fixes her gaze on a pupil (not in the picture))
/P2 name/, does that correspond to what you wrote?

/P2 name/: Ehh::: yes. I,
((Camera switches from T to P2.
P2 gazes at his sheet))
ehh (2.0) yeah, yeah.
((P2 smiles and gazes up at the teacher))

T: Okay. ((smiling voice))
/P3 name/ what do you say?
((Camera switches back to T. She gazes at the blackboard))

/P3 name/ Eh yourself er ét ord.

Eh yourself
((P3 uses his raised finger to point briefly
towards the sentence on the blackboard before taking down his hand))
is one word.

T: ((T walks to the sentence and draws a connecting line
between the two words [still 3]))
Okay. Yes, sure. Good.
(4.5) ((T walks back again, turns her head and gazes at the class.
She fixes her gaze on another pupil at the other end
of the class (not in the picture))
/P4 name/?

/P4 name/: Answering.
T: **Answering. Yes.**
   ((T walks to the sentence again and adds 'ing' to 'answer' [still 4]))

   *Why is that, /P4 name/?*
   ((T turns to gaze again at P4))

P4: **Arhh**

T: ((T smiles audibly, takes a step forward towards her desk, gazes at her sheet and touches it briefly. 

   *Why is that, answering?* 
   (2.0) ((T then turns her head to her right and gazes at P5 {not in the picture}))

   * /P5 name/?*

P5: **I don't know** [actually]

T: **[Am I] interrupting your line of thought?**
   ((Brief laughter))

T: ((T raises her right hand with a piece of chalk in it and moves it towards the sentence on the blackboard))

   *It's got something to do with this word*
   ((T draws a square around 'to' in the sentence [still 5].

   She then turns to face the class))

   *to. What (. ) which word class is to in this connection?* 
   (2.5) ((T turns her head slightly and fixes her gaze at P6 {not in the picture}))

   * /P6 name/?*

   ((T makes a slight nod towards P6))
P6: **Preposition.**

((T turns towards the blackboard again))

104 T: **A preposition, yeeah.**

((T draws a line from 'to' and writes 'prep.' [still 6]))

106 **You could try**

(0.5) ((T takes a few steps back, turns her body

and gazes at the class))

109 **you have to restrict yourself to (.)**

(.hhh) **short answers.**

((Simultaneously as the pronunciation of both words,

T twice performs a gesture with her right hand,

putting it forward in a firm manner,

palm rounded and facing downwards

as if placing an entity onto something))

116 **So you could actually put a noun instead.**

((During this line, T gestures with her left hand

and then turns her body and walks towards the sentence again))

119 **So that's a preposition**

((T points with her right hand at 'to' in the sentence,

gazing at it [still 7]))

122 **and that cannot be followed**

((T turns her head to gaze at the class))

124 **by an infinitive but has to be followed by an ing-form.**

((T takes her hand down and turns her head
to gaze at the sentence again))

127 **So to answering.**

((T moves her right hand along the last part of the sentence

as she is reading it aloud.

She then moves her hand
towards the first part of the sentence))

132 (.hhh) **You may,**

((Without writing on the blackboard,

T makes an underlining gesture under 'may'))

((Simultaneously as the pronunciation of both words,

T twice performs a gesture with her right hand,

putting it forward in a firm manner,

palm rounded and facing downwards

as if placing an entity onto something))

116 **So you could actually put a noun instead.**

((During this line, T gestures with her left hand

and then turns her body and walks towards the sentence again))

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gazing at it [still 7]))

122 **and that cannot be followed**

((T turns her head to gaze at the class))

124 **by an infinitive but has to be followed by an ing-form.**

((T takes her hand down and turns her head
to gaze at the sentence again))

127 **So to answering.**

((T moves her right hand along the last part of the sentence

as she is reading it aloud.

She then moves her hand
towards the first part of the sentence))

132 (.hhh) **You may,**

((Without writing on the blackboard,

T makes an underlining gesture under 'may'))
that means that you're allowed to.

((T turns her head to gaze at the class again, pointing at 'may'))

Du må could also mean du skal and then it would be (1.5)

You may could also mean you have to and then it would be (1.5)

Instead of you may (1.0) then you could put

(.). ((T turns her head slightly and fixes her gaze

at a P7 to her right (not in the picture).

T makes a slight head nod towards P7))

Yeah?

P7: Shall.

T: No.

((T shakes her head and gazes up, away from P7))

Not shall. That says something about the future

you can't use that. Ehh

((T's gaze is now on P8 (not in the picture).

She makes a slight head nod towards her))

Yeah?

P8: Must.

T: Must, yearh.

((T turns her head to gaze at the blackboard

and writes 'must' over 'may'))

Or, even

(2.0) ((T turns her head to look at the class again.

P9 who sits in the front row gazes at T

and raises his right hand.

They gain eye contact. T nods slightly towards him))

P9: Have to?

((P9 shakes his head minimally
and turns his raised right hand into
a questioning gesture with the palm facing upwards
before he takes it down)

T:  
  
((T turns her head towards the sentence again
and writes 'have to' over 'must'))
  
*have to.*

((Gazing at the sentence, T takes a few steps back))
Extract 85, clip 4.4, Teacher 2, Class D, 27.11.2009

(T is positioned in front of the blackboard, facing the class. She holds a sheet in her left hand)

T: Ja. Vi talte om sidste gang at der var noget

Yes. Last time we talked about it that there is something

der hed ægte adverber og der er noget

which is called genuine adverbs and there is something

der hedder u (.)

which is called f (.)

((T begins to walk slowly to her right, gazing towards the back left corner of the horse shoe (seen from the back of the class)))

eftledte adverbier eller
derivatives or

kald dem ægte eller kald dem hvad I vil.
call them false adverbs or call them what you want.

Men altså hvad er et ægte adverbium for eksempel.

But what would be an example of a genuine adverb.

((P3 raises her hand))

/P1 name/? (.)

/P1 name/? (.)

Hvad kunne det være der var et ægte adverbium?

What word could be a genuine adverb?

((T maintains her gaze at P1 who sits in the back left corner (not in the picture)))

P1: Århh

Well:

P2: Snakkede vi om det?

Did we talk about that?

T: Ja, det gjorde vi,
Yes, we did,
(8.0) ((T nods and takes a step to her right and gazes around at the class.
P3 sits close to T with her hand raised.
She turns her head and meets T's gaze [still 1]))
/P3 name/?
/P3 name/?
P3: Eh
Eh
((P3 takes down her hand))
always [og never]
always [and never]
T: [Always]
[Always]
((T takes a step back and turns her head away from P3, gazing up at the left side of the class))
og never og ever
and never and ever
go sådan nogle. Hvorfor er de ægte adverbier?
and words like that. Why are these genuine adverbs?
Hvorfor kan vi kalde dem ægte adverbier?
Why can we call them genuine adverbs?
Født adverbier kalder vi dem også sommetider.
Born adverbs, we also call them that sometimes.
((T continues to gaze in the direction of P4 {not in the picture}))
/P4 name/?
/P4 name/?
P4: Fordi at der er ikke l y på.
Because l y has not been added.
De er bare automatisk.
They are automatically so.

T: Ja.
Yes.

((T nods))

De er simpelthen født som adverbier.
They are simply born as adverbs.

Men så er der nogle som er (.) uægte
But then there are also some which are (.) false adverbs
eller afledte adverbier
or derivatives
og hvad kunne det være for nogen?
and what words could that be?

(3.0) ((P5 who sits in the front row
raises her left hand and turns her head and torso
in the direction of T, gazing at her.
T turns her head towards the other side of the class
and gains eye contact with P5 [still 2]))
/P5 name/?
/P5 name/?

((T begins to walk towards the blackboard,
gazes down at the sheet in her hand [still 3],
then up at P5 again))

P5: Beautifully
Beautifully

((P5 takes down her hand.
T nods [still 4] and gazes from P5 back at her sheet))
for eksempel.
for example.

Det er alle dem som normalt er et adjektiv
It's all the words which are normally an adjective
og så hvis der bliver tilføjet l y

for eksempel.
for example.

It's all the words which are normally an adjective
og så hvis der bliver tilføjet l y
and then if $l$ $y$ is added
så bliver det til et
it becomes an adverb.

((T arrives behind her desk,
places her sheet on it and gazes down at the sheet [still 5]))

T:  
Lige præcis. Ja. (.hhh) Så er der nogle som
Exactly. Yes. (.hhh) Then there are some which
(.) fungerer både som
(.) function both as
((T picks up her sheet again
and gazes up at the class.
She begins to move to her left))
adjektiv og adverbium i samme form.
adjective and adverb in the same form.
((T gazes down at the sheet in her left hand))
Og det er faktisk det vi har i den øvelse
And that's actually what we have in the exercise
der hedder b her så kan I lige prøve at kigge på øvelse b.
called b so could you please try to take a look at exercise b.
((T gazes up at the class again))
Det var vist ikke en I skulle lave hjemme
You were not supposed to make it at home
men derfor kan I jo godt kigge på den.
but you can take a look at it anyway
(.hhh) Ehh
(.hhh) Ehh
((T is back behind her desk,
places her sheet on it and gazes down at the sheet))
(10.0) ((T bends her head further and moves her head
slightly from side to side as if reading.
She then picks up the sheet again
and continues to gaze at it))
(.hhh) How early does the early train come in?
(.hhh) How early does the early train come in?

((T walks a little to her right, takes down her hand and gazes up at the class))

Det I skal tage stilling til her det er (.) jo

What you have to note here is that (.)

((T walks further to her right))

at der er to (.) ord der er ens

that there are two (.) words which are identical.

((T places her sheet on an empty table and turns towards the blackboard))

namlig her i den her sammenhæng

in this connection

((T begins to write 'early' on the blackboard [still 6]))

early og (.)

early and (.)

((T turns to face the class again))

det ene af dem står adjektivisk,

one of them qualifies an adjective,

det andet står ad adverbielt.

the other one qualifies an ad adverb.

hvil hvilket et er hvilket et i den sammenhæng.

Who which one is which one in this connection.

((Several pupils have raised their hands in the right side of the class. T has her gaze fixed at P6 in the left side of the class (not in the picture) [still 7]))

/P6 name/

/P6 name/

((T nods towards P6))

S K eh /P6 surname/,

S K eh /P6 surname/,

((T points briefly towards P6))

starter du?

could you start?
((T lowers her head to gaze at her sheet))

P6: Ehmm:::
Ehmm:::
((T picks up her paper, gazes up towards P6))
em em em em em nej.
em em em em em no.

T: Nej.
No.
((T quickly places her sheet on her own desk, then gazes back up at P6))
Okay
Okay
((T laughs loudly and turns her head in the other direction [still 8]))
(4.0) ((T looks over the right side of the class. Several pupils sit with raised hands. T fixes her gaze on P7 {not in the picture}))
/P7 name/, hvad med dig?
/P7 name/, what about you?

P7: Jeg vil rigtig gerne tage to'ern.
I would really like to take number two.

T: Nå, okay.
Well, okay.
((T nods, gazes in the opposite direction and then back at P7))
Men ikke ret gerne etteren [forstår jeg.]
But not the first one [I understand.]

P7: [Nej.]
T: Nej. Okay.

No. Okay.

(6.0) (T gazes away from P7 and slowly scans the class. Several pupils sit with their hands raised. T fixes her gaze on P8 {not in the picture})

/P8 name/ har du efterhånden fået det

/P8 name/ have you by now

(.) lært nu. Kan du tage etteren?

(.) learned it. Can you take number one?

P8: Em jeg vil gerne være fri for etteren.

Eh I would prefer not to take number one.

T: Nå. Okay.

Well. Okay.

/P9 name/

/P9 name/

((T still gazes in the same direction (P9 sitting next to P8 {not in the picture},

turns her body and begins to walk in that direction [still 9]))

hvad med dig /P9 name/.

what about you /P9 name/.

Nu har [du da underholdt om den]

Now you [have entertained about it]

((Camera moves to capture P9))

P9: [Ehh jamen jeg] jeg vil sige at early (.).

[Ehh well I] I would say that early (.)

((P9 gazes from his sheet up towards T))

el ler det andet early er et adjek adjektiv

or the second early is an adjec adjective
forå det lægger sig til train.

because it qualifies train.

T: Okay, (0.5) og (.) den første?
Okay, (0.5) and (.) the first one?

((P9 gazes down at his sheet))

P9: Jamen
Well

((P9 gazes up at T again))
det må så være et adverbium.
then that has to be an adverb.

T: Em hm, hvad lægger det sig til?

Em hm, what does it qualify?

((Camera moves back to capture T))

P9: Jamen det var jeg så lidt i tvivl om
Well I was a little in doubt about that

((T gazes from P9 down at her sheet on the desk))
men (.)
but (.)

((T picks up her sheet, still gazing at it))
det må næsten være does så.
it must be does then.

T: (.hhh)

(.hhh)

((Breathing in, T takes a step to her right))

P9: Eller er det how?
Or is it how?

T: Ej det da
No it's
((T gazes from her sheet up towards P9))
det lægger sig i hvert fald
it definitely doesn't
ikke til how. Det kan vi være helt [stensikre på]
qualify how. We can be completely [sure about that]

P9: [Det er jo
[It isn't
heller ikke does]
does either]
((T turns her gaze from P9 back at her sheet))
er det?
is it?

T: Eh neej altså du
Eh no: well you
((T gazes up at P9))
hvad hedder hovedverbet,
what is the main verb,
det hedder jo ikke does.
it isn't does.

P9: Come in?
Come in?

T: Jah.
Yes.
((Gazing at P9, T shakes her head minimally
while lowering her chin))
Det kunne jo lægge sig ikke,
It could qualify right,
((T makes a nod towards P9, takes a step back
and gazes down at her sheet))
ja så how early does it come in.
yes so how early does it come in.
(.hhh) Så det
(.hhh) So it
((T places her sheet on her desk))
altså og et ord
well and a word
((T gazes from her sheet up at the class))
der lægger sig til et verbum
which qualifies a verb
det er jo som bekendt et
that is as we all know an (.)
((T gazes down at her sheet again))
<adverbium.>
<adverb.>
(.hhh) You don’t have to drive fast
(.hhh) You don’t have to drive fast
((T gazes from her sheet up at the class))
in a fast car.
in a fast car.
((T turns her head to gaze in the direction of P7 [still 10]))
Og den vil
And that one
((T turns her head and gazes back at her sheet [still 11]))
/P7 name/ rigtig gerne have.
/P7 name/ would really like to have.
Extract 104, clip 4.5, Teacher 3, Class E, 04.03.2010

((T stands in front of the blackboard, facing the class with a sheet in her hand. She is just done writing on the blackboard what adverbs can contain meaning about (time, manner, place etc.)))

T: Godt.

Good.

((T shifts her gaze down at her sheet and then lifts her head and turns around, raising her right hand with a piece of chalk in it and preparing to write on the blackboard again))

Så er der jo noget vi skal have lært

Then there is something we have to learn

((T begins to write on the blackboard))

og det er nemlig at skelne adjektiver fra adverbier.

and that is distinguishing between adjectives and adverbs.

((T writes 'adj. vs. adv.' on the blackboard))

(.) ((T underlines her writing [still 1], making it appear as a headline))

Og det vi gør

And what we are going to do

((T turns towards the class))

det er at vi skal finde ud af

is that we have to figure out

hvad for nogen ord (.)

which words (.)

((T stretches her left arm backwards, pointing at what she has just written on the blackboard [still 2]. Many pupils sit and talk with each other))

shhhhh

((T turns her head to gaze briefly at the blackboard, then gazes back at the class))

hvad for nogen ord kan adjektiver sige noget om.

which words adjectives can say something about.

Hvad for nogen andre ordklasser (.) kan adjektiver
Which other word classes (.) can adjectives say something about, can they qualify?
((T moves her pointing hand down towards her hair and scans the class, turning her head slightly from side to side))

P0: Har vi ikke haft det?
Haven't we been through that?

T: Jo, det har vi haft, vi repeterer nu.
Yes we have, we are revising now.
((T smiles and takes a step forward, thereby getting closer to the pupils))

P0: °Okay°
°Okay°

T: Så vi vil gerne have rigtig mange
So we would like to see a lot of pupils
der kan svare på det.
who can answer that.
((T scans the class))

(.).
((Common laughter))

T: (.hhh) /P1 name/.
(.hhh) /P1 name/.
((Camera begins to move to P2))

P2: Udsagnsord?
Verbs?

T: Nej, nu det det jeg spurgte om adjektiver.
No, now it it I asked about adjectives

P2: Ja. Hvad de kan sige noget om.
Yes. What they can say something about.
T: Ja, hvad for nogen andre ordklasser.
Yes, which other word classes.
Du nævnte en ordklasse,
You mentioned a word class,
men du nævnte bare ikke en
but you just didn't mention one
som adjektiver kan sige noget om.
that adjectives can say something about.

((Common mumbling))

T: Så blev det lidt for kompliceret. /P2 name/?
Then it got a little too complicated. /P2 name/?
((Camera moves back to T. She is gazing at P2))
P2: "Kan det ikke handle om adverbier?"
"Can't it be about adverbs?"
(P2 not in the picture)

T: Shhh. Hvad siger du?
Shhh. What are you saying?
((Still gazing at P2, T bends a little forward
to be able to hear what she says))

P2: Ej, jeg ved det ikke.
No, I don't know.
Kan de ikke sige noget om <adverbier.>
Can't they say something about <adverbs.>

T: ((T gazes away from P2 and briefly up at the blackboard.
Then she turns her head to gaze at the class))
Nej,
No,
(2.0) ((T fixes her gaze at P3 who sits
in the middle row with her hand raised,
but bend forward and with her head turned towards
the pupils sitting next to her, on her left [still 3]))
/P3 name/.
/P3 name/.  
P3: ((P3 takes down her hand, sits back and looks up  
at the teacher and they gain eye contact [still 4]))
Tillægsord. 
Adjectives (P3 states the Danish version  
of the latin term 'adjektiv'.  
This is lost in the English translation)
T:  
Adjectives.  
((T withdraws her gaze and turns  
to write on the blackboard, lifting her hand  
to the blank space beneath the underlined 'adj.' [still 5]))
Ja det er tillægsord
Yes this is adjectives  
((T turns her head back in the direction  
of P3 and they gain eye contact again [still 6].  
P3 then withdraws her gaze))  
(1.0)  
men tillægsord kan ikke sige noget om tillægsord  
but adjectives cannot say something about adjectives  
((T still points towards the place on the blackboard  
where she wants to list the words  
that adjectives qualify))  
(1.5)  
Oka:y.  
OKA:Y.  
((T takes down her hand and turns her torso  
so that she has her front towards the class.  
She raises both her hands in a wide gesture  
with the palms turned towards each other [still 7]))  
Kan I komme med et adj adj adj adjektiv.  
Could you come up with an adj adj adj adjective.  
Prøv lige at komme med et eksempel på et adjektiv.  
Please give me an example of an adjective.  
P3:  
[Fæl]  
[Horrible]
P4: [Nåååh]  
[Ahhhh]

T: Fæl. (.) Prøv lige at lave en sætning  
Horrible. (.) Please make a sentence  
hvor det indgår (.) fæl.  
where that is included (.) horrible.  
((T maintains her gesture, gazing at the pupils))

((Common noise))

P5: Du er fæl.  
You are horrible.  
(Not in the picture)

T: Du er fæl. Hvad fortæller fæl noget om i den sætning.  
You are horrible. What does horrible say something  
about in that sentence.  
Hvad for et ord? (. ) Du er fæl. (. ) Hvafr, d?  
Which word. (. ) You are horrible. (. ) Which, you?  
Hvad for en ordklasse er du?  
Which word class is you?  
((T still maintains her gesture and gazes  
from side to side at the class))

((Common noise))

P6: Nåååh, stedord.  
Ahhhh, pronoun.  
(Not in the picture)

T: Nåååh ((mocking, distorted voice))  
Ahhhh ((mocking, distorted voice))  
Et stedord ja tak. Må jeg få det latinske.  
A pronoun yes, thank you. Can I have the latin term.  
(3.0) ((T scans the class and moves her hands slightly  
up and down out of time with each other)
and still in the wide gesture. T fixes her gaze on P7
(not in the picture))

T: /P7 name/?
/P7 name/?

P7: Pronomen.
Pronoun {the latin term 'pronomen'}

T: Pronomen.
Pronoun.
((As T repeats P7's answer, she turns
to write it on the blackboard))

(4.0) ((T writes 'pronominer' on the blackboard,
turns towards the class again and gazes up
at the ceiling))

T: Hvad så hvis nu at jeg siger at
What if I then say that
(.) ehhh det er en fæl mand.
(.) ehhh it is a horrible man.
(1.5) ((T makes a scared face and shakes her head slightly [still 8].
Pupil laughter))

Hvad for et ord i sætningen siger fæl så noget om?
Which word in the sentence does horrible then
say something about?
(.
((Teacher scans the class and fixes her gaze at P8
{not in the picture}))
/P8 name/?
/P8 name/?

P8: Substantiver.
Nouns {the latin term 'substantiv'}

T: Ja. Hvad for et ord i i sætningen, du [har ret.]
Yes. Which word in the sentence, you [are right.]
((T still gazes at P8. Camera moves to P8))
P8: [Mand.]

Man. Which is a noun (the latin term 'substantiv')

T: Hvad siger du?

Hvad er det for noget?

P9: Det ved jeg ikke, jeg har bare hørt det.

I don't know, I've just heard it.

T: Du har bare hørt det.

You've just heard it.
Det er ikke (.)
It is not (.)
Er der nogen der ved hvad hvad
Does any of you know what what
hvis man slår op i en etymo etymologisk ordbog
if you look in an etymo etymological dictionary
hvad man så finder ud af?
what you find there?
((T scans the class, still pointing at the blackboard))
((Common mumbling answers))

T: Hvad?
Sorry?
((T gazes at P10 (not in the picture)))
P10: Er det også,
It it also,
så det kan være det samme som verber?
so it can be the same as verbs?
Nej, det er synonymer.
No, that's synonyms.
((She turns her head and fixes her gaze at P1))
/P20 name/?
P20: Noget om adverbier.
Something about adverbs.
Nej, det er ikke noget om adverbier.
No, it is not something about adverbs.
((T takes down her hand, laughing.
She turns her head back again))
Ej, jeg forvirrer jer også lidt nu.
Well, I’m confusing you all now.
((T takes two steps forward and positions
herself behind her desk))
Det er fordi det handler om
It's because it's about
hvor ordene kommer fra
where words come from
((T performs a gesture with her right hand))
men her i det her tilfælde
but here in this case
((T turns her head to gaze at the blackboard, points towards it with her left hand and then walks towards it again))
det kan også godt forklare
it can also explain
hvordan ord er sammensat nemlig ad verbier.
how the word is composed, namely ad verbs.
Adverbier det betyder til verber.
Adverbs means to verbs.
((T performs a beat gesture))
( . ) Så adverbier det betyder nogen
( . ) So adverbs means words
der fortæller noget om verber,
that says something about verbs,
nogen der lægger sig til verber.
that qualify verbs.
((Gazing at the class, T several times during these lines with her pointing hand performs a gesture by moving her hand downwards in a smooth movement.
She then takes down her hand and gazes quickly at the blackboard, then back at the class))
Så hvis jeg nu spørger
So if I now ask
hvad for nogen ordklasser
which word classes
siger adverbier noget om,
adverbs say something about,
så kan I godt allesammen svare.
then you can all answer.
((T gazes at the right side of the class
(seen from the back of the class))

P11: Verber.
Verbs.
(P11 is not in the picture, but in the middle row in the right side of the class)

T: Ja.
Yes.
((T turns towards the blackboard and lifts her hand to write on it))
/P11 name/, du skal række hånden op.
/P11 name/, you have to put up your hand.
((T writes 'verber' on the blackboard))

P12: /P11 name/.
/P11 name/. ((Ironically reproachful tone))
((Common quiet laughter))

T: Hvad for nogen andre ordklasser
Which other word classes
((T turns towards the class again and walks towards her desk))
(1.5) ((T scans the class))
fortæller adverbier også noget om.
can adverbs also say something about.
Selv om de ikke er verber.
Even though they are not verbs.
((Common noise))

P13: Jeg har et spørgsmål.
I have a question.
(((P13 is not in the picture) T fixes her gaze at him))

T: Ja, /P13 name/.
Yes, /P13 name/.
P13: Kan man ikke sige at noget er i bevægelse

Is it possible to say that something is in movement
og noget er stilstand.
and something is on standstill.

T: Arh nej.

((T maintains her gaze at P13, but twists her head a little))
P13: Nå.

Okay.

((Common loud laughter))

T: Det er nok et andet sted
It's probably somewhere else
man kan snakke om det.
you can talk about that
Jeg ved ikke lige hvor.
I don't exactly know where.
((T laughs, turns her head towards P14, who sits with her hand raised))
Det kommer nok på et tidspunkt.
We'll probably get to that in time.
((T lifts her right arm and performs a pointing gesture towards P14))
P14: Kan de ikke også sige noget
Can't they also say something
om hele sætninger?
about entire sentences?

T: ((T begins to turn her body))

De kan sige noget om sætninger, ja.
They can say something about sentences, yes.
((T walks towards her list on the blackboard and begins to write 'sætninger'))

Kan du komme med et eksempel på det?

Can you give an example of that?

P14: Ehm::

Ehm::

((T is done writing and turns towards P14 again and walks back behind her desk))

altså

well

T: ((T takes a step back so she ends up on the other side of the list that they have already produced beforehand on the blackboard))

Du kunne jo bruge det her

You could use this (. ((T points at 'heldigvis' in the list))

Du kunne jo bruge det her

((T points at 'heldigvis' in the list))

P14: Ja (. ) det kunne jeg.

Yes (. ) I could.

Eh (. ) Heldigvis:: (3.5)

Eh (. ) Luckily:: (3.5)

sidder /P next to P14 name/ ved siden af mig.

/P next to P14 name/ sits next to me.

T: Ja da, hvor er du god.

Yes, how good you are.

((T points at 'heldigvis' again and gazes at P14))

Heldigvis sidder /P next to P14 name/ ved siden af mig.

Luckily /P next to P14 name/ sits next to me.

Den siger noget om heldigvis i forhold til

That says something about luckily in relation to
din holdning til at /P next to P14 name/ sidder

your attitude to /P next to P14 name/ sitting

ved siden af dig.

next to you.
Hvad for nogen ordklasser mere?

What other word classes?

(P15 name/, din hånd er højst oppe ((T laughs)))
/P15 name/, your hand is the highest ((T laughs))

P15: Ha- Andre adverbier.
Ha- Other adverbs.

T: ((T begins to turn her body))
Andre adverbier.
Other adverbs.
(2.0) ((T walks to the blackboard and writes 'adv' on the list. Camera moves to P15 and P16 sitting next to each other in the back row. P16 has his hand raised))
Det var godt. Så mangler vi lige en.
That's good. Then we only need one
((Camera moves back to the teacher. She has her gaze fixed at P16))

T: Shh. /P16 name/.
Shh. /P16 name/.
((T takes a small step to her left towards the list))

P16: Adjektiver.
Adjectives.

T: Adjektiver.
Adjectives.
(2.0) ((T writes 'adj' on the blackboard.
T then turns to face the class)

Er der nogen af jer der kan komme
Can any of you provide
med et eksempel på
an example of

(1.0) ((T lifts her left hand to point at 'adj'
on the blackboard, gazes briefly
at where she is pointing
and then back at the class))
en sætning
a sentence

hvor et ad(.)verbium siger noget om et adjektiv.
in which an ad(.)verb says something about an adjective.

(4.0) ((T scans the class, still pointing
at 'adj' on the blackboard. She fixes her gaze at P16
(not in the picture)))

T: /P16 name/, det kan du få lov til.
/P16 name/, you can do that.

P16: Hun er meget smuk.
She is very beautiful.

T: Hun er meget smuk, ja.
She is very beautiful, yes.

((T begins to turn towards the blackboard,
but gazes back at the class
and instead uses her hand to point
to an imaginary sentence on the blackboard))

Meget er et adjektiv som fortæller

Very is an adjective which tells

noget om smuk, nemlig graden af

something about beautiful, namely the degree of

hvor smuk hun er, ikke?

how beautiful she is, right?

(..) ((T gazes quickly at the blackboard
as she moves her hand to point
at 'adv' in the list.
What about a sentence in which an adverb says something about another adverb?

Can I put an adverb here too?

Now I have made it easy for you

håber jeg.

I hope. ((smiling voice))

Are there not more of you who can answer that?

Hun synger (.) smukt.

She sings (.) beautifully.

Can you put an adverb there
der fortæller noget om smukt?

which says something about beautifully?

P17 raises her hand (P17 not fully in the picture))

/P17 name/?

P17: Meget?
Very?

T: Hun-ja, og hvad
She-yes, and what
hvordan kommer sætningen til at lyde?
how does the sentence sound?
((Camera moves back to T. She gazes at P17))

P17: Hun synger meget smukt.
She sings very beautifully

T: Ja,
Yes,
((T turns her gaze away from P17
and walks towards her desk))
lig præcis.
exactly.
(1.0) ((T gazes down at her sheet,
then turns her head to look at the lists on the blackboard
and lifts her left arm to point at them))
Det her, det her oppe
These things, up here
(. ) ((T performs a beat gesture on the blackboard))
venner,
my friends,
det har jeg sagt til jer før,
I have told you that before,
det skal I altså kunne udenad (.)
you have to know this by heart (.)
((T scans the class,
moving her head from side to side))
Det skal I lære udenad, det der skema der.
You have to learn that by heart, the diagram there.

P18: Jeg mangler den der bog.
I need that book.
((P18 is not in the picture,
but he is seated in the left side of the class,
and T gazes at him as he speaks))
Jamen I skal lære det udenad,

But you have to learn it by heart

så mangler I jo ikke nogen bog. (.)

so you don't need a book. (.)

Så kan du bare slå op inden i der

Then you can just look up inside

hvor du har lagret det inde i dit hoved

where you have stored it in your head


Eller i dine noter.

Or in your notes.

Eller i dine noter ja,

Or in your notes, yes.

(T gazes from P18 to P19

who sits right in front of her,

and then back at P18))

men du skal jo kunne det udenad (.)

But you know you have to know it by heart (.)

Godt. Det skal i kunne.

Right. You have to know that.

Der dem der ikke allerede har

Those who haven't already

skrevet det ned de skriver det lige ned,

written it down write it down now,

og så hører jeg jer i det i næste time

and then I'll see to it that you remember it next time

((T is still pointing at the blackboard

and makes several beats

as she utters these lines))

(7.0) ((T places her sheet on her desk

and bends forward to write on the sheet))

Hrm hrm.

Hvordan kan vi så kende

How do we then recognise

et adverbium på engelsk?
an adverb in English?
Extract 36, clip 4.6, Teacher 2, Class C, 03.12.2009

((T is positioned behind her desk.
The screen for the overhead projector is down
and the projector is started. The room is rather dark))

T: What we are going to deal with now is
((T picks up a transparency from her desk))

(.) adverbs (. as opposed to adjectives.
We've talked about it before
but now we are going to (. repeat it.
((T takes a step sideways towards the projector
and moves the transparency to her right hand
closest to the projector.
T gazes briefly down at the transparency,
then up at the class))

Ehh and you don't have to write anything down
right at the beginning so I'd like you to close
((T places the transparency on the table next to the projector
and corrects her collar with both hands
(the microphone is placed here)))
your computers so that you're sure
that you look the correct direction.
Thank you, and (.)
((T gazes down at the transparency, picks it up
and places it on the projector))

the reason why you don't have
to write anything down is of course for one thing
((T turns towards the screen to check
that the transparency is visible there
and then turns back again, gazing towards her desk))

that I've written it here and secondly
((T turns towards the screen again
and then starts to walk to her left))

that what I have written here is also in your grammar book.
((out of the picture T switches off the blackboard light,
thereby trying to make it easier for the pupils

((T gets the microphone and puts it on her right ear.))

((T gazes down at the transparency, picks it up
and places it on the projector))

to write anything down is of course for one thing
((T turns towards the screen to check
that the transparency is visible there
and then turns back again, gazing towards her desk))

that I've written it here and secondly
((T turns towards the screen again
and then starts to walk to her left))

that what I have written here is also in your grammar book.
((out of the picture T switches off the blackboard light,
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((T turns towards the screen to check
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and places it on the projector))

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((T turns towards the screen to check
that the transparency is visible there
and then turns back again, gazing towards her desk))

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((T turns towards the screen again
and then starts to walk to her left))

that what I have written here is also in your grammar book.
((out of the picture T switches off the blackboard light,
thereby trying to make it easier for the pupils

((T gets the microphone and puts it on her right ear.))

((T gazes down at the transparency, picks it up
and places it on the projector))

to write anything down is of course for one thing
((T turns towards the screen to check
that the transparency is visible there
and then turns back again, gazing towards her desk))

that I've written it here and secondly
((T turns towards the screen again
and then starts to walk to her left))

that what I have written here is also in your grammar book.
((out of the picture T switches off the blackboard light,
thereby trying to make it easier for the pupils

((T gets the microphone and puts it on her right ear.))

((T gazes down at the transparency, picks it up
and places it on the projector))

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((T gets the microphone and puts it on her right ear.))

((T gazes down at the transparency, picks it up
and places it on the projector))

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((T turns towards the screen to check
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that I've written it here and secondly
((T turns towards the screen again
and then starts to walk to her left))

that what I have written here is also in your grammar book.
((out of the picture T switches off the blackboard light,
thereby trying to make it easier for the pupils

((T gets the microphone and puts it on her right ear.))

((T gazes down at the transparency, picks it up
and places it on the projector))

to write anything down is of course for one thing
((T turns towards the screen to check
that the transparency is visible there
and then turns back again, gazing towards her desk))

that I've written it here and secondly
((T turns towards the screen again
and then starts to walk to her left))

that what I have written here is also in your grammar book.
to see what is written on the transparency))

And as you can see paragraphs 52 to 61
((T back in picture, gazing at the screen))
and it these paragraphs deal with adverbs
((T turns towards the projector, gazing down at it))
as opposed to adjectives.
(4.0) ((T gazes up at the class. She holds a chalk in her hand))
(.hhh) First of all we usually distinguish between
two types of adverbs. (.)
Some adverbs which we might call the genuine adverbs.
They are
((T performs an iconic gesture with her right hand, flexing her fingers as if holding something and then placing it onto something by moving the hand down in a marked movement))
born as adverbs that means they
((T moves her right hand from side to side while shaking her head slightly [still 1 and still 2]))
haven't had another
been another word class before.
((T turns her head to gaze at the screen [still 3]))
So for instance here there always
((T turns her head again to gaze back at the class))
ever ever already.
Ehh and and (.) there are a lot of others.
They're always adverbs
((T turns her head to gaze at the screen))
and they usually don't
((T turns her head again to gaze back at the class))
give rise to a lot of problems. Perhaps
((T raises her right hand and performs an iconic gesture twice, again pretending to place something onto something [still 4]))
where you put them,
((T gazes at the screen and begins to walk towards the projector))
but otherwise
they wouldn't give rise to a lot of problems.
The adverbs that might give rise to problems (1.0) are those that are derivatives (1.0) of adjectives. 
So if you have an adjective called beautiful, you can make that

You

I've put a couple of examples, nicely beautifully usually

Obviously, but as you know we also have adjectives

that are nice beautiful usual
obvious.

So they are actually
formed on the basis of an adjective
to which we add *ly*. (1.0)

Ehh just one thing
you have to keep in mind is of course
that there are adjectives which in themselves end in *ly*.
Which are
not adverbs.

We'll come back to them,
but if you think of a word,
you probably can't see a great deal here,
but for instance if you think of words like
they are actually adjectives
despite the fact
that they end in *ly*.

Then turns to gaze at the class again
and takes a few steps forward)
They give rise to some other problems then
(T begins to walk towards the projector
and makes a quick deictic gesture of pointing back
at the words on the blackboard)
and we'll come back to that.

(2.0) ((T walks towards the projector))
((T arrives at the projector and bends forward
to adjust the cover paper again))
(.hhh) We've also talked about it that
(2.5) ((Camera zooms in on the screen [still 8]))
an adjective can qualify (. ) four different things.
Can be (. ) a verb, could be an adjective,
((Camera zooms out again.
T gazes at the left side of the class
{seen from the back of the class}))
can be another adverb, or it can be
((T turns her head to gaze at the screen))
a whole sentence.
((T walks towards the projector and shifts her gaze
from the screen to the projector))
So let's just have a look at a couple of examples
in that connection.
((T adjust the cover sheet again,
uncovering more text on the transparency))
If for instance we have this one,
((T stands up and gazes at the screen))
can you actually see that, it's
((T turns her head to gaze at the top of the projector.
T moves her hand to rub the glass with a finger.))
extremely dirty this,
((T gazes back up at the screen,
removes her hand and takes a few steps back))
°I don't think we can do much about it.°
(.hhh) Okay-
Ehh I slept badly last night.
((Camera zooms in on the screen))
The adverb is underlined so that goes without saying.
What does it qualify in that sentence?
/P name/?
Transcript for collection 5

Extracts employed in collection 5

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Extract 107, clip 5.1, Teacher 3, Class E, 09.03.2010

((T is instructing class E in their next group task.

They are working on a theme on obesity.

As the extract clip begins,

she has told them that they first have to read the text aloud
to each other, exaggerating the pronunciation.

When the extract clip begins,

she turns to describing a syntax task
in which the pupils have to consider
the relation between two headlines
in the texts they have read))


T: ((T's gaze is on the blackboard

and she holds up her right hand

with a piece of chalk in it,

ready to write on the blackboard))

After you've done this

(3.0) ((T writes 'syntax' on the blackboard [still 1].

She then turns her head and torso to gaze at the class))

I want you to focus on

((T gazes down at the sheets

that she holds in her right hand))

the syntax

((T gazes up at the class again))

because it's as if these two articles

(2.0) ((T gazes down at her papers and arranges them so

that the headline of both texts are displayed,

she holds the papers up for the class to see [still 2]))

(1.5) they ehh (2.0)

((T gazes up at the class,

still holding the paper for the class to see))

well they are part of the same article in a way.

((T gazes down at the sheet again,

then up at the class,

turning her head first to her right

and then to her left))

This headline continues down here.

(.) ((T points at the two headlines,
So I want you to explain the syntax of these two headlines, how are they connected?
Okay?

((T turns towards the class again))
Extract 108, clip 5.2, Teacher 3, Class E, 09.03.2010

((T is positioned next to the blackboard, facing the class. She has a piece of chalk in her right hand. The two headlines are written on the blackboard))

1 T: How are these two headlines connected.
2 (1.5) ((T scans the class. None of pupils raise their hands))
3 Okay det kan godt være vi skal tage det på dansk.
4 Okay we might have to do this in Danish.
5 Try to: can you see what happens here?
6 Der er jo to overskrifter,
7 We have two headlines,
8 ((T gestures 'two' by raising two fingers on her left hand [still 1]))
9 to artikler
10 two articles
11 som har stået efter hinanden i avisen.
12 that have been placed after each other in the paper.
13 ((T takes a step back and turns her head and upper torso to gaze at the blackboard [still 2]))
14 På en eller anden måde er de bundet sammen
15 in one way or another they are connected
16 og hvordan er de det?
17 and how is that?
18 (8.0) ((T scans the class))
19
20 P1: (Inaudible)
21
22 T: Det var rigtig nok.
23 That was right.
24 (1.0) ((T scans the class again))
25 Ehmhm ((smiling sound. T fixes her gaze at P2 (not in the picture)))
26 /P2 name/?
27 /P2 name/?
28 ((T walks in the direction of P2)
and stops in front of the blackboard)

P2: Damen sætningerene da ville give
Well the sentences would make
meget god mening som en sætning
very good sense as one sentence

T: Ja, lige præcis.
Yes, precisely
(.) ((with the back of her right hand,
T points towards the sentences on the blackboard))
Det er ligesom
It's like
Vi kunne læse det her som en sætning
We could read this as one sentence
((T waves her hand to each side,
indicating the sentences and turns her head
to gaze at the blackboard))
bare se bort fra de der eh
just disregard those eh
((T points at the full stop after the first sentence,
then gazes back at P2))
punktum og så sætte et komma i stedet for.
full stops and then insert a comma instead.
Ja, men eh så har vi ligesom to nexus ik osse?
Yes, but eh we have like two nexus right?
((T gazes towards the blackboard, back at the pupils,
and towards the blackboard again))
Ví har
We have
(2.0)((T steps forward to draw nexus signs
in the first sentence))
den der. Og så har vi
this one. And then we have
(1.5)((T draws nexus signs in the second sentence [still 3])
den der ik osse?
this one right?
((T takes a few steps back and faces the pupils again))
Så men vi har kun en af dem der er en hovedsætning.
So but we have only one of these which is a main clause.

You can have two main clauses.

men det er der altså ikke her

but that is not the case here

en hovedsætning og hvad?

a main clause and what?

((P3 raises her hand.

T gazes from the pupils towards the blackboard))

(10.0) (several pupils talk inaudibly) ((T scans the class. She fixes her gaze on P3 who sits with her hand raised))

T: /P3 name/?

/P3 name/?

((P3 takes down her hand))

P3: En hovedsætning og en ledsætning.

A main clause and a subordinate clause.

((P3 gazes at the blackboard))

T: Der er en hovedsætning og en ledsætning ja.

We have a main clause and a subordinate clause yes.

Hvad er først? Den as (.)

What is the first one? The one as (.)

((T gazes from P3 towards the blackboard))

fourteen million Africans bla bla.

fourteen million Africans bla bla.

((T gazes back at P3 and points briefly towards the first sentence))

Den der. Er det en hovedsætning

That one. Is that a main clause

eller en ledsætning?

or a subordinate clause?

((T gazes from P3 towards the pupils))

P3: Ledsætning.

A subordinate clause.
Det er ledsætningen.

That's the subordinate clause.

((T walks towards the beginning of the sentence on the blackboard, raising her right hand, preparing to write))

 Hvordan er det lige man kan

How is it you can

(..) definere en ledsætning?

(..) define a subordinate clause?

(1.0) ((T draws a line beneath the entire first sentence [still 4]))

Jamen den måde jeg kan kende den på

Well the way I can recognise it

((T turns to gaze at P3 again))

det er at hovedsætningen den kan stå

is that the main clause can stand

alså den kan man sige for sig selv

well you can say it alone

((P3 is gazing at T))

uden ledsætningen.

without the subordinate clause.

Ja, lige præcis. Men så er der også

Yes, exactly. But then there is also

((T points towards the first sentence and gazes at the class))

en ting mere med en ledsætning.

one more thing about a subordinate clause.

Og det er at i og med at det

And that is in so far as it

hedder en ledsætning.

is called a subordinate clause

((T gestures with her right hand, separating the words with two beats in the air [still 5]))

(1.0) ((T scans the class and fixes her gaze at P4))

/P4 name/?

/P4 name/?
Ej, det ved jeg ikke, men det er noget med:: det der om ikke,
man kan sætte ikke ind.
you can insert not.

No, I don't know but it is something about that not.

That's right, that's how you can recognise it.

Men altså det er kun sådan en regel to be able to recognise it.

Den siger egentlig ikke særlig meget for at kunne kende den.

It does not say a lot about om sætningen om ikke står
the sentence whether not stands før [eller efter et eller andet vel?]
before [or after something right?]

[nej nej, men det er jo::]
[no no, but it is eh::]

Ja. Vi kan også godt bruge det
Yes. We can use it som huskeregel men vi kan også godt
as a rule of thumb but we can also
((T gazes from P4 towards the blackboard, then at the class))
bruge den regel der om den kan use the rule whether it can
stå selv eller ej.
stand alone or not.

Ehh men hvad er det vi kan
Ehh but what is it we can med sådan en ledsætning /P5 name/?
with such a subordinate clause /P5 name/?
P5: Er det ikke noget med as
   It is not something with as
   som man kan se på=
   that you can look at=

T: Jo, Yes,
P5: =hvad for en slags ordklasse
   =which word class

T: Jo.

P5: Ehh det er et biord
   Ehh it's an adverb
   er det ikke det?
   isn't it?

T: Ehhmm det er vel egentlig en konjunktion
   Ehhmm I guess it is actually a conjunction
   ((T turns her head to gaze at 'as',
   then out of the window, reflecting))
   eller hvad er det de hedder
   or what are they called
   (..) ((T takes a few steps forward
   and bends her head,
   moving her right hand to her mouth, reflecting))
[Er det ikke rigtig nok]
[Isn't that right]

P6: [Ja det::]
[Yes i::t]

T: Jo. Det er rigtig nok.
Yes. That's right.  
((T looks up and quickly points her right index finger in the air, before moving it downwards))
Ja eh ((smiling sound)) ja.
Yes eh ((smiling sound)) yes.

Hvad kan I
What can you
er er nogen der kan huske hvad for
Can any of you remember which
et tegn vi sætter neden under dem?
sign we put beneath these
(3.0) ((P7 raises her hand))
/P7 name/?
/P7 name/?

P7: Er det ikke en pil?
Isn't it an arrow?

T: Jo, skal pilen pege til siden
Yes, does the arrow have to point to the side
eller nedad.
or downwards.

P7: (.) Nedad.
(.). Downwards.
((T and P7 have mutual eye contact.  
P7 shakes her head slightly while answering))

T: Nedad. Ja. ((laughing)) Det så ud
Downwards. Yes. ((laughing)) It looked as if

som om du gættede.
you were guessing.

((T takes a few steps forwards and draws a downward pointing arrow beneath 'as' [still 6]))

How can you remember whether it

((T steps back and turns to gaze at P7 again))

skal pege nedad eller henad.

has to point downwards or sidewards.

P7: Er det ikke noget at gøre med ordlyden?

Hasn't it got something to do with the text?

T: Neej det er noget med det den funktion

No: it is something about the function

((T gazes from P7 toward the blackboard, pointing loosely at the sentence. Then she gazes back at P7))

af det den har her. (.) Altså nedad

of what it has here. (.) So downwards

det betyder underordnende og henad

means subordinating and sideways

det betyder sideordnende.

means coordinating

(/P8 name/?

/P8 name/?

P8: Når den peger nedad så siger den

When it points downwards it says

noget om hele sætningen. Hvis det

something about the entire sentence. If it

er henad så siger den noget

is sidewards then it says something

om den

[(inaudible)]

about the

[(inaudible)]

T: [Hrm hrm em den] har jeg

[Hrm hrm em I] haven't

ikke lige hørt om før men
really heard that before but

[Ehh]

[Ehh]

P8: [((Laughing))]

T: Men her kan man sige
But here you can say
((T points towards the arrow beneath 'as'))
den peger nedad fordi
that it points downwards because
den indleder en ledsætning
it initiates a subordinate clause
((T moves her pointing hand along the first sentence))
altså noget der er underordnet hovedsætningen
that is something which is subordinated the main clause.
((T points at the second sentence))
Det var måske det
Perhaps that was what
du mente?
you meant?

P8: Ja. ((smiling voice))
Yes. ((smiling voice))

T: Ja. ((smiling voice)) Godt.
Yes. ((smiling voice)) Good.
((T points at the first sentence))
Men fordi det her det nu er en ledsætning
But because this is a subordinate clause
så betyder det også at den fungerer som et led
then it means that it also functions as a member
((T points at the second sentence))
i forhold til hovedsætningen.
in relation to the main clause.
Hvad for et led er den her sætning
What member is this clause
((T points at the first sentence [still 7]))
i forhold til hovedsætningen.
in relation to the main clause.

(T points at the second sentence [still 8])

Hvad siger den her noget om

What does it say something about

(T points at the first sentence)

i forhold til det hernede?

What does it say something about

(T points at the second sentence)

i forhold til det hernede?

in relation to the one down here?

(i 0) (T scans the class)

/P9 name/?

/P9 name/?

P9: Den siger noget om årsagen.

It says something about the cause.

(Jeg mener) det bliver et adverbium.

(I believe) that it becomes an adverb.

T: Det bliver hvad skal vi sætte nedenunder.

It becomes what do we have to put underneath.

Det kan vi lige starte med.

Let us start with that.

P9: Ehh et (0.5) det er

Ehh it (0.5) it's a

hvad hedder det

what it is called

((P9 gestures a wavy line in the air

with her right index finger [still 9]))

et adverbialled

an adverbial clause

T: Det er et adverbialled

It's an adverbial clause

((T turns away from P9

and walks towards the sentence on the blackboard))

så vi sætter en bølgestreg under.

so we put a wavy line beneath it.

((T draws a wavy line beneath the first sentence [still 10]))

Nu er det der ord as det kan det kan be
Now that word as it can mean

det kan lægge op til flere forskellige betydninger.

it can signal several different meanings.

((With her right hand T gestures back and forth in the air))

Her der betyder det at

Here it means that

(..) ((T gazes from P9 towards 'as',
pointing in the same direction, then gazing back at P9))

imens

as

altså det indikerer at det foregår samtidig med ikke?

so it indicates that it takes place at the same time right?

((With her right hand, T gestures up and down,
including both sentences))

Imens der er nogle der sulter

As some are starving

((T gazes towards the blackboard and points briefly
towards the first sentence))

så er der nogle der bliver anklaget for

others are being sued for

((T points briefly towards the second sentence,
then gazes back at P9))

at der er nogle andre der bliver for fede.

other people becoming too fat.

Så den udtrykker altså noget med det tidspunkt

So it expresses something about the time

((T walks towards the blackboard
and points at the first sentence))

som de bliver anklaget for hernede ikke? (.).

in which they are being sued down here right? (.).

((T points at the second sentence, gazing at the class))

Vi behøver ikke gå mere ind i syntaksen

We don't have to go further into the syntax

med mindre der er nogen

unless some of you

((T points towards the blackboard with the right hand,
gazing at the class))

der gerne lige vil sætte de sidste tegn her vi mangler?

would like to add the last signs that we need here?
None of the pupils raise their hands.
T places her piece of chalk in the chalk holder and puts both hands into her pockets)

Hvad hvad synes I (.)
What what do you think(.)
Okay now back to English ((laughing)).
Ehmm so we have concluded now that we can see this
as one sentence
((T moves her hand in one long gesture in front of her))
and it is suggested
that it is at the same time as people are starving
((T lifts her right hand in the direction
of the first sentence))
other people are sued for (.)
((T moves her hand downwards a little,
thereby loosely pointing towards the second sentence))
for making other people fat.
So what do you think is the idea of eh
from the journalist's point of view of eh
((T raises her right hand in the direction of blackboard
and twists her hand back and forth,
thereby comprising both sentences visually))
to eh to combine these two articles?
Because they are about two different things aren't they.
One of them is about starvation in Africa
and the different causes of starvation
And the other one is about (.). ehmm (.).
how fast food companies are sued for (.). hrm hrm
for making people fat
because the food they serve is not healthy. (.)
So what is the point
in combining these two articles this way?
Extract 122, clip 5.3, Teacher 3, Class E, 18.02.2010

((P1 and P2 are sitting next to each other and working together. T is seated behind her desk (not in the picture)))

P1: (Inaudible) Ligesom du siger heller ikke
   (Inaudible) Like you don’t say
   (1.0) politiet i flertal altså du siger
   (1.0) police in the plural so you say
   the police was after me.

   (2.0) ((P1 breaks the mutual eye contact with P2
   and gazes to her left, reflecting.
   Then she gazes back at P2))
   Jo, the police was after me.
   Yes, the police was after me.
   Fordi at du snakker om politiet,
   Because you talk about the police,
   ((P1 forms a unity by placing her fingertips on the table))

P2: Ja.
   Yes.

P1: og det: du snakker ikke så snakker du om ja
   and that: you don’t talk so you talk about yes
   (1.0) så er det politiet du snakker om
   (1.0) then it is the police you talk about
   [selv om at det er personer]
   [even though it's persons]

P2: [Så det, så det]
   [So that, so that]
   ((P2 moves her right hand with a pen in it
   towards where P1 just had her fingertips))

P1: så er det stadigvæk.
   then it is still.
P2: Okay.

Okay.

((P2 bends forward and begins to write on her sheet))

P1: Så jeg tror
So I think
(det er derfor (1.5) Jeg er ikke sikker men altså)
(that's why (1.5) I'm not sure but you know)

P2: The staff was skal der så stå
The staff was it has to say
((P2 is still writing on her sheet.
P1 gazes down at her own sheet
and moves her right hand through her hair [still 1]))

P1: (men jeg ved det ikke (.hhh) det tror jeg)
(but I don't know (.hhh) I think so)
(11.0) ((P1 lifts her head and gazes in front of her.
She moves her lips, talking silently with herself.
She then gazes at T))

P1: /T name/?
/T name/?
((P1 gazes down at her table and moves her eraser.
She then gazes back up at T))

T: Ja?
Yes?
((P1 moves her gaze towards her sheet))

P1: Der i tre'ern det der med eh the staff were
In number three the one with eh the staff were
((P1 gazes back at T))

T: Ja,
Yes,

P1: Er det så ligesom er det ikke ligesom med politiet
Is that the same as isn't it the same as with the police
(.) der siger man også the police was selv om at (.)
(.) there you also say the police was even though (.)
((P1 draws the sentence on the table with her right index finger.
P2 stops writing and sits up, gazing at T as well))

T: Nej. Police er altid flertal.
No. Police is always plural.
[Så den er ikke li:ge]
[So it is not exactly:]

P1: [Så er det omvendt]
[Then it is the opposite]
((P1 turns her head towards P2))

T: i kategori med police. Den er i kategori med et andet ord.
   in the same category as police. It's in the same category as another word.
((P2 drops her pen, picks up her eraser
   and begins to erase what she has just written))
(1.0) Med nogle andre ord (3.0) staff, family:
(1.0) With some other words (3.0) staff, family:

P1: Nå family, det er det jeg tænker på.
Right family, that's what I'm thinking about.
Selv om at det sådan er en helhed
Even though it is a kind of a unity
så sætter man det stadig i ental ik' os'
then you still have it in the singular right

T: Jamen man kan nemlig (0.5) det
   Well you can (0.5) it
   nogle ord kan man sætte både i ental og flertal
   some words can be both singular and plural

P1: Så man kan begge dele?
So you can do both?

T: Ved nogle ord, ja.
   With some words, yes.
(...)

((P1 turns her gaze from T towards her sheet [still 2 and still 3]))

117
118 P2: Så man kan begge dele her ved nogle ord
119 So you can do both here with some words
120 ((P2 gazes at P1. P1 laughs silently [still 4]))
121
122 T: Kan I ikke huske de der my families are (.)
123 Can't you remember those my families are (.)
124 my family are all doctors eller (1.0) ehh
125 my family are all doctors or (1.0) ehh
126 my family is (2.0) from Russia
127 my family is (2.0) from Russia
128 eller sådan noget
129 or something like that
130
131 P2: Nå, ja.
132 Right, yes.
133
134 T: Kan I huske nogen af de eksempler?
135 Do you remember some of those examples?
136
137 P2: Ja.
138 Yes.
139
140 T: Staff er et af de samme ord.
141 Staff is one of the same words.
142 The staff committed mutiny [(inaudible)]
143 The staff committed mutiny [(inaudible)]
144
145 P2: [Så skal det da] være were
146 [Then it has] to be were
147
148 T: Jamen det er rigtig nok
149 But it is correct as it is
150
151 P1: Ja
152 Yes
153
154 T: Men men jeg siger bare
All I'm saying is that the grammar control has marked it as an error. Why has it done that?

P1: Fordi det også kan være was

Because it can also be was

T: Ja.
Yes.

((T nods))

P1: Ja.
Yes.
Extract 121, clip 5.4, Teacher 3, Class E, 18.02.2010

(T is positioned in front of the blackboard. The class is going through the group text work they have just been doing. Half of the class has been working outside and has not entered yet. T is performing a transition from one discussion point to the next)

T: (Inaudible) welcome (to think of that one) in Danish. Because when I had this text this article in my Word eh program it said that there was a grammar mistake but there wasn't. ((T picks up the text and leafs through it))

It says staff were ((T turns to write 'staff were' on the blackboard [still 1])

(T finishes writing on the blackboard and turns to face the class))

why why did it indicate that there might be a mistake in this one? You may answer it in Danish. (6.0) ((T gazes down at the text, then up at the class. She fixes her gaze at P1))

/P1 name/?

P1: Det kan godt være det er fordi staff det er ental (inaudible)

It might be because staff is singular (inaudible) ((P1 gazes at T. The pupils who have been working outside begins to enter the class behind P1. P2, sitting next to P1, raises her hand))

T: Hvis staff er ental hvorfor er det så rigtigt at skrive were?

If staff is singular why is it then correct to write were?

P1: Så er det jo så heller ikke rigtigt at skrive were. But then it isn't correct to write were.

T: Jo det er rigtigt at skrive were. I det her tilfælde. Yes it is correct to write were. In this case.
Okay, then it is probably because it in a staff there has to be several persons.

Yes. Is staff always singular? (There is a lot of noise because of entering pupils.
T gazes at P2 and points briefly towards her)
/P2 name/?
Shh

The thing is that if you talk about if you saw it as a unity

Ja, Yes,

then it can also be was (inaudible)
if you say the staff was: (.) from Russia
for eksempel, så er det was
for example, then it is was
((P2 gazes at T while talking))

Ja.

Men når når man snakker om personerne i
But when when you talk about the persons in
for eksempel the staff were chefs
for example the staff were chefs

Ehm ehm, ((supportive sound))
Så er det jo personerne deri
Then it's the persons within it
så er det jo ikke en helhed længere
then it is not a unity anymore

Lige præcis. Så det kommer an på
Precisely. So it depends

((T points at 'staff' on the blackboard and gazes at the class))

om vi opfatter det her ord her staff i det her tilfælde
whether we understand the word here staff in this case

((T fixes her gaze on two pupils talking together))

(./P name/ og /P name/ nu følger i lige med her.
(./P name/ and /P name/ now you pay attention.

((T briefly looks at the blackboard, then back at the class))

Om man opfatter det som en mængde
Whether you understand it as one unity

((T makes a circular movement with her pointing hand [still 2]))
altså noget der står i ental
that is something which is written in the singular
fordi det er en
because it is one

((T raises her left index finger, signaling 'one' [still 3]))
en en samlet enhed
a a coherent unity

((T repeats the circular movement))
eller om man opfatter det som en række enkeltindivider
or whether you understand it as individuals
og så skal det i flertal.
and then it has to be in the plural.

I det her tilfælde der er det at de were chefs,
In this case it's that they were chefs,

((T takes a step forward to gaze at her paper on the desk))
er det ikke sådan.
Isn't that right.

Jo.
Yes.

((T gazes back up at the class))
Og det er jo noget de er eh hver især.
And that's something that they are eh each of them.
Det er jo ikke noget en gruppe er,
That's not something a group is,
det er noget de er hver især.
that's something they are each of them.

((T steps back and again points at 'staff were' on the blackboard))
Derfor skal det være were i det her tilfælde.
Therefore it has to be were in this case.

(.) Kan I huske det?
(.) Do you remember this?
Kan I huske nogen af de andre ord som optræder ligesom staff?

Do you remember some of the other words which act like staff?

((P3 raises her hand, T fixes her gaze at her))
/P3 name/?
/P3 name/?

P3: Family.
Family.

((T turns to write 'family' on the blackboard))

T: Ehm ehm, ((supportive sound))
Ehm ehm, ((supportive sound))
(1.0)

Og? Hvad har vi mere?
And? What else have we got?
(1.5) Jeg er heller ikke sikker på
(1.5) I'm not so sure
at jeg lige kan huske flere
that I can remember others either

((T fixes her gaze at P4 and points briefly towards him))

/P4 name/?
/P4 name/?

P4: Jamen det, jeg ved heller ikke om:
Well that, I don't know if:
jeg har ikke et ord men det må bare generelt være
I don't have a word but in general it must be
en betegnelse for en gruppe mennesker
a term for a group of people
eller et ord der kan stå for som betegnelse for en gruppe.
or a word which can function as a term for a group.

((P4 gazes at T while talking))

T: Ja. Jeg ved ikke om den liste bare er uendelig lang.
Yes. I don't know whether that list is just endless.
Ehh vi har staff, vi har family, vi har crew tror jeg.
Ehh we have staff, we have family, we have crew I believe.
Og så har vi også noget med jeg synes også
And then we also have something with I think
der var noget ved government
there was also something with government
((T writes 'government' on the blackboard))
eller nogen slags politikere, ikke?
or kinds of politicians, right?
Government som enten kunne være (0.5) ses som enkelte politikere
Government which can either be (0.5) seen as individual politicians
((T turns to face the class, pointing towards the list on the blackboard))
eller som en samlet enhed.
or as a coherent unity.
Så der er sådan en række ord her
So there is a list of words here
og det er pointen netop at de kan ses
and the point is exactly that the can be seen
enten som en samlet enhed eller som en række
either as a coherent unity or as a several people
(1.0)
kollektiver kalder man dem
collective nouns they are called
(4.0) ((T turns to write 'kollektiver' on the blackboard [still 4],
then faces the class again))
Og det var jo noget vi havde
We had about this
((T points towards 'kollektiver' on the blackboard))
dengang vi havde om eh om kongruens.
when we had about eh about concordance.
Det kapitel i grammaatikbogen der hedder kongruens.
The chapter in the grammar book which is called concordance.
(1.0) Fordi kongruens handler jo om hvordan man får verbet
(1.0) Because concordance is about how you get the verb
194  ((T points back and forth between 'were' and 'staff' on the blackboard))
195  (. ) verballeddet til at stemme overens med
196  (. ) the verbal clause to match
197  (0.5) subjektet i sætningen.
198  (0.5) the subject in the sentence.
199  Der spiller det her jo ind.
200  This plays a role in that.
201  ((T takes a step forward to look at her sheet on the desk))
202  Okay, we better move on.