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Exploring Teacher Agency in Textbook Use: An Interactional Sociolinguistic Investigation of Chinese University ELT Lessons

by

Yi Zhang

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in ELT and Applied Linguistics

University of Warwick, Centre for Applied Linguistics

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I'll set my cloud-like sail to cross the sea which raves."

——*Li Bai, translated by Xu Yuanchong*

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Declaration

This thesis is submitted to the University of Warwick in support of my application for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. It has been composed by myself and has not been submitted in any previous application for any degree.

Abstract

This thesis investigates English Language Teaching (ELT) teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction in Chinese university settings. It aims to understand ELT teachers' mobilisation of textbook resources in classrooms and ELT textbooks' affordances for classroom instruction.

Taking a sociocultural perspective, this study conceptualises ELT teacher agency in textbook use in classrooms as teachers' capacity to interact with students, through the mediation of textbooks. Grounded in this understanding, the study employs an Interactional Sociolinguistics (IS) approach to examine classroom interaction data. Specifically, it investigates four ELT teachers' classrooms and explores how the teachers verbally and embodiedly mobilise textbook resources in classroom interaction, analysing mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks, examining interactional and instructional goals achieved by the mediational interaction, and identifying strategies teachers employ to achieve these goals.

The analysis shows that teachers not only use textbook content to achieve pedagogical goals, but also mobilise textbook materiality and voice in classroom interaction, to guide students through and engage them in instructional processes, while simultaneously working on the teacher–student relationship and establish classroom rapport or discipline. The findings reveal the multifaceted teacher agency in textbook use, demonstrating that it is discursively enacted through verbal, prosodic, embodied, and emplaced strategies. Overall, the study challenges the long-standing views that teaching is prescribed by textbooks and teachers exercise agency only when they adapt or supplement them. It extends focus in ELT textbook use research beyond textbook adaptation, and addresses a significant gap in understanding textbooks in classroom interaction studies.

In doing so, the thesis makes a **theoretical contribution** by reconceptualising teacher agency in relation to textbook use, an **analytical contribution** by advancing our understanding of teacher–textbook–student interaction in classroom discourse, and a **methodological contribution** by pioneering the use of IS to investigate human–artefact (object) interaction in ELT. The study also carries important implications for future research on textbook use and teacher agency, and for professional practice in teacher education on textbook use literacy and textbook development.

Chapter 1 Introduction

This thesis investigates how Chinese university English language teaching (ELT) teachers use textbooks in classroom instruction. Taking a sociocultural approach which views teachers and textbooks as mutually mediating agents and artefacts, I aim to provide insights into ELT teacher agency in using textbooks for effective classroom instruction and teacher–textbook relationships in situ. To this end, this study applies Interactional Sociolinguistics (IS) approach that frames classroom instruction as social interaction to analyse and understand classroom interaction data, and explores how ELT teachers mobilise textbooks as artefacts to achieve effective classroom instruction.

1.1 Rationale of the Study

ELT textbook research has long been recognised as a crucial domain of the ELT field both for the extensive adoption of textbooks in ELT programmes worldwide and the significant contributions textbooks have brought to language teaching and learning (e.g. Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Riazi, 2003; Richards, 2001a). In recent years, researchers in the ELT textbook field have advocated for investigation into actual textbook use, considering that teachers' actual textbook use involves factors beyond the textbook content per se (Harwood, 2014; Tomlinson, 2012). However, despite this, there remains a lack of empirical studies into teachers' textbook use in the classroom context.

A number of ELT textbook use studies relied on teachers' self-report data (e.g. Bosompem, 2014; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007). Taking a self-report data approach to the understanding of textbook use often treats claimed textbook use as actual textbook use. It presents a critical gap in understanding the real textbook use in context and may encounter the problem of inadequate or even incorrect representation of textbook use, due to an inherent limitation of self-report data (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). Seeing the necessity of examining classroom data, an increasing number of researchers conducted classroom observations in their studies (e.g. Grammatosi & Harwood, 2014; Li & Li, 2021; Rathert & Cabaroğlu, 2024; Seferaj, 2014; Smith, 2022). When classroom observations were conducted, researchers were able to access actual textbook use. However, most of these studies focused on how teachers follow, adapt or supplement textbook content, with research foci primarily on the rationale of and approaches to textbook adaptation (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018). While

greatly advancing the knowledge of the field, the overemphasis on textbook adaptation highlights a significant gap in understanding how a textbook as a socioculturally constructed artefact contributes to classroom instruction in situ. Additionally, it assumes a single-dimension of teacher agency in using textbooks to teach, overlooking the complexity of human agency.

This study responds to these gaps by investigating the enacted ELT teacher agency in using textbooks in Chinese university classrooms, with a specific focus on what types of agency teachers are enacting and how they are enacted during the process of textbook use. Taking a sociocultural perspective, this study conceptualises agency as "a socioculturally mediated capacity to act" (Ahearn, 2001, p. 112). ELT teachers and textbooks are understood as agents and socioculturally constructed tools. When teachers use textbooks to teach, they act together with the textbook as a unit (Wertsch, 1993) to interact with students in classrooms. By drawing on the IS approach to classroom interaction data, the research seeks to understand ELT teacher agency in using textbooks by exploring (1) the interaction between the "teacher-acting-with-textbook" unit and students; (2) the interaction within the "teacher-acting-with-textbook" unit.

The findings aim to contribute both theoretically and practically. Theoretically, this study seeks to refine the understanding of ELT teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction, in order to provide insights into ELT teachers' textbook use in situ and the underlying teacher–textbook relationships. Practically, this study intends to inform ELT teacher education in raising teachers' awareness of textbook use beyond textbook adaptation and thereby enhancing their capacity of using textbooks for effective classroom instruction. It also seeks to inform ELT textbook development in designing textbooks which afford teachers' classroom instruction and which are likely to support and guide novice teachers' classroom practices of textbook use. Additionally, this study explores a new line of methodological inquiry in research on textbook use in classrooms. Taking the IS approach to analyse not only teacher–textbook–student interaction, but also teacher roles and textbook roles arising from the interaction, the present study showcases the implementation of a sociolinguistic approach to gain insights into teacher–textbook interaction and teacher–textbook relationships. Given the prevalence of textbook use in ELT programmes worldwide, the long-standing primary emphasis of research on ELT textbook adaptation, and ongoing criticism of restricted teacher agency in using textbooks to teach, this study offers a timely contribution to the understanding of ELT teachers' textbook use in classroom instruction. It holds relevance for ELT practitioners, teacher educators, and

textbook development programmes, as well as researchers seeking to understand lived textbook use and in-situ teacher–textbook relationships.

1.2 Motivation for the Study

The motivation for this study stemmed from my 14 years of working in ELT textbook publishing for Chinese university teachers and students. When I started my career as an editor for university ELT textbooks, I was strongly motivated by the aspiration to produce textbooks that would enable teachers to teach with suitable input materials and appropriate teaching methods, and to support students with engaging and motivating activities so that their learning could be transformed into knowledge and skills. However, a few years later, my belief in my efforts in doing the right thing was challenged when we received feedback from teachers on a type of activity we introduced in one of our published textbook series. In that textbook series, the textbook development team introduced an activity to guide students to notice idiomatic expressions in filmed conversations. It was designed in the form of a while-listening blank-filling activity. Because this activity was intended as a noticing activity instead of a listening comprehension activity, scripts of each conversation were given in the textbook activity except for five or six idiomatic expressions which were designed as blanks. There was also a box next to the scripts, listing all the idiomatic expressions in the video but in random order. The students were expected to watch the conversations and notice what expression was used at each blank. They could select expressions from the box and put correct ones into the blanks. Because the language and accents in the filmed conversations were assessed slightly difficult for most students, the provided scripts in the textbook could also help students follow the conversations. The textbook development team considered this activity type well-designed due to the dual purposes it achieved. It realised the aim of leading students to pay attention to idiomatic language use, and it helped lower the difficulty level of the conversations by providing almost the complete scripts. However, when we collected teacher feedback after a few years of use, most teachers got back with criticism of this activity. Some teachers criticised the activity type for being too easy because nearly all the scripts were given to students; others complained that the activity type was too difficult because the conversations were of natural speed and there was no pause after each blank so that students were unable to write down an expression of four or five words long in the blank while listening to the conversation; and another group of teachers blamed this activity for giving answers to a previous listening comprehension activity based on

the same conversation. The teacher feedback on this one activity type brought to light issues concerning how different actual textbook use could be from textbook design: Teachers' interpretation of an activity's aim could be totally different from textbook designers' intention; activity forms could influence how teachers interpret the aim of an activity; teachers might use the textbook activities, not for the only purpose of instructing, but to evaluate students' language proficiency or check if students were engaged; teachers could use textbook activities in a non-linear sequence. All these issues prompted our team to rethink how we should take teachers' classroom practices into consideration when developing textbooks.

Ever since then, when I sat in meeting rooms discussing what teaching methods we should incorporate in our textbook design with ELT experts and scholars, when I read through piles of books trying to find the "perfect" reading passages to put into our textbooks, when I moved my gaze between the monitor screen and the printed scripts while filming footage for our textbooks, when I sat at my desk trying to modify an activity in the authors' manuscripts so that they can better suit Chinese university classrooms, when I sat together with the textbook designer discussing which illustration would be better for the textbook page, … all these moments and many more, I could not help but ask myself the question: How would teachers use our textbooks to teach their students?

The question led me to talk to teachers and sit in classrooms. In these classrooms, I saw teachers using the same textbook series in different ways: Teachers selected different units from a textbook for classroom instruction and they chose to teach different sections from a unit; they used different media in teaching, some using print textbooks, and the others relying more on PowerPoint (PPT) slides; teachers used the textbook sections in different orders; some teachers preferred to organise pair work or group activities, but the others spent most time interacting with the whole class. However, despite all these varied ways of using textbooks to teach, teachers were blamed by many ELT researchers and teacher educators for "blindly" following textbooks if they mostly relied on textbook materials for teaching. The criticism pushed teachers to supplement more additional materials which were by no means easy to find and design, further intensifing an already demanding workload. Many teachers felt trapped in this vicious circle, particularly those less experienced teachers.

My experiences in a great many classrooms which contradicted the abovementioned criticism sparked my curiosity about teacher agency in using textbooks: Are teachers merely

blindly following textbooks if they do not adapt the textbook design or if they do not supplement additional materials? What unacknowledged efforts are undertaken by teachers when they use textbooks to teach in classrooms? It is to find out answers to these questions that I embarked on this PhD journey.

1.3 Research Aims and Questions

Contextualised in Chinese university ELT settings, this study aims to contribute to the use and development of ELT textbooks by advancing our understanding of ELT teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction. Specifically, the study aims to understand the enacted teacher agency when teachers use textbooks to teach in classrooms, the teacher–textbook interaction when teachers enact agency, and the strategies teachers employ during the interaction. To address these aims, the study is guided by the following three questions:

RQ1: What agency do ELT teachers enact when they use textbooks to teach in classrooms?

RQ2: How do ELT teachers interact with textbooks when they enact teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction?

RQ3: What strategies do ELT teachers employ to enact teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction?

The three research questions are interconnected, forming an investigative curve from function/meaning (RQ1) to forms (RQ2 and RQ3); from inter-unit interaction between teacher–textbook units and students (RQ1) to intra-unit interaction between teachers and textbooks (RQ2); and from interactional modes (RQ2) to interactional strategies (RQ3).

Specifically, RQ1 addresses the types of teacher agency in using textbooks. This research question is answered through examining how teachers use textbooks to interact with students, as classroom instruction, particularly language classroom instruction, is achieved through interaction (Walsh, 2006). RQ2 addresses the interactional modes between teachers and textbooks. This research question is answered through exploring teacher–textbook interaction. Specifically, this study is to find out how teachers verbally and embodiedly interact with textbooks as semiotic, sociocultural, and physical artefacts (Herbel-Eisenmann, 2007; Kolbeck & Röhl, 2018; Macgilchrist, 2018; Remillard, 2009). RQ3 investigates specific strategies teachers employ to achieve teacher–textbook interaction, and aims to arrive at a typology of strategies that teachers implement to enact agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction.

The structured progression of the three questions reflect this study's theoretical understanding of agency as socioculturally mediated, teachers' use of textbooks as mutual mediation between agents and artefacts, and classroom instruction as mostly achieved through classroom interaction, which will be further explicated in Chapter 2 and 3; its methodological choice of employing the IS approach to analyse multimodal interaction data, which will be elaborated on in Chapter 4; and its commitments to provide insights into ELT teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction, mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks, and strategies for the enactment of teacher agency, which will be further discussed in Chapter 7.

1.4 Thesis Overview

The thesis starts with two literature review chapters respectively focusing on theoretical frameworks (Chapter 2) and analytical frameworks (Chapter 3). Positioning this study as ELT textbook use research, Chapter 2 begins by reviewing the research field, moving from ELT textbook research to ELT textbook use research. The review draws attention to the failure to address teacher agency in textbook research and the limitations of prior textbook use research on textbook adaptation. The chapter then draws on textbook use research in mainstream education and critically reviews two theoretical frameworks for understanding teacher–textbook interaction and relationships in lived textbook use. The review has informed this study's theoretical stance of viewing teachers and textbooks as agents and artefacts and seeing teachers' use of textbooks as a process of mutual mediation. The chapter then explores this study's understanding of teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction through a critical review of existing literature and arrives at a working definition of *teacher agency*. The chapter concludes with reviewing existing studies on ELT textbook use effects, which informs this study's understanding of classroom textbook use effects as impacts on classroom interaction.

Chapter 3 is the second literature review chapter, explicating this study's analytical framework through examining existing studies on classroom interaction. This chapter begins with a review of the view that classroom interaction is classroom pedagogy, to further understand classroom textbook use as contributing to effective classroom interaction and instruction. The chapter then moves on to review two frameworks that apply Conversation Analysis (CA) to the study of classroom interactional structures, revealing existing CA studies' limitations in understanding classroom textbook use. Situated in a context where textbooks are

pervasively used in ELT classrooms, this study argues that classroom textbook use needs detailed multimodal interaction analysis to reveal its patterns. The chapter then explains how IS as an analytical approach can help address the limitations and lead to a better understanding of teachers' textbook use in classrooms.

Chapter 4 details the methodological choices for data collection and analysis. The chapter first describes the research context of this study, detailing ELT programmes in Chinese universities, the adoption of commercially published ELT textbooks in the programmes, and the online emergency mode of course delivery during the Covid-19 pandemic. It then moves on to explain the ontological and epistemological positioning of the study and how it informs the methodological choices. Specifically, it explicates how this study positions itself as an ethnography-informed interactional study: explaining how ethnographic approach informs this study's choices for the overall research design and its understanding of reflexivity and generalisation. The following sections present a chronological description of the research design, including participant recruitment, data collection, and data analysis. The chapter concludes with a discussion of how the research design observes principles of ethical practices.

Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 present the findings of the study. Chapter 5 is the first analytical chapter and focuses on teachers' embodied actions in classroom instruction. It first identifies the interactional map of the four ELT classrooms in this study by observing where the participating teachers use textbooks to teach in their respective classrooms. Based on the interactional space identified in each classroom, the chapter examines physical/virtual positioning of each teacher in relation to the textbook and their embodied actions involving textbooks when they interact with students, and analyses interactional purposes teachers achieve through different ways of positioning and different embodied actions. Drawing on selected extracts from the datasets as evidence, the chapter reveals how positioning and embodied interaction contribute to the advance of classroom processes and classroom power dynamics, and arrives at a categorisation of embodied and emplaced strategies teachers employ to interact with textbook materiality, such as textbook layout, structure and format, in classroom instruction.

Chapter 6 is the second analytical chapter. It first shifts focus to teachers' verbal interaction with students and then draws on analysis in Chapter 5 to examine teachers' multimodal interaction as a whole. The chapter begins with examining when teachers use textbooks in classroom instruction, revealing *(in)direct quoting* and *referring* as the basic ways

teachers verbally interact with textbooks. The analysis also identifies *giving directions* and *asking questions* as the two most frequent types of textbook relevant episodes (TREs) which refer to interactional events in which teachers use textbooks. The rest of the chapter comprises two main sections, each focusing on one type of TRE. Each section starts with the identification of pragmatic functions in each TRE, followed by the presentation and illustration of the emerging typology of linguistic forms employed by teachers to realise these functions. Each section ends with the presentation of interactional patterns arising from iterative analysis of TREs, and the interpretation of these patterns in relation to classroom power dynamics.

Chapter 7 is last chapter of the thesis. It synthesises the key findings in relation to the research questions and concludes the thesis. The chapter critically discusses multifaceted teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction, mediational relationships between teachers and textbooks in classroom instruction, and discursive strategies teachers employ to mediate textbook content, voice, and materiality and enact multifaceted teacher agency. The chapter also highlights how this study problematises and addresses the neglect of textbooks in classroom interaction studies, as well as challenges existing views on ELT teacher agency in using textbooks and the long-standing research focus on textbook adaptation in textbook use studies. In doing so, the chapter articulates this study's theoretical contributions and methodological innovations. Based on the discussion, the chapter highlights this study's implications for ELT teacher education and ELT textbook development. It then concludes the thesis with limitations of this study and suggestions for future directions.

Chapter 2 ELT Textbook Use: Teacher–Textbook Interaction and Teacher Agency

This chapter and the next chapter set the theoretical and analytical framework for this study. I begin this chapter by situating my study within the context of ELT textbook use research. Through a brief overview of the inception and evolution of ELT textbook research, particularly the shift in its research agenda to ELT textbook use research, I trace the ontological and epistemological transition from the conceptualisation of the textbook as it is to textbook-in-action in relation to its users. Within the ELT textbook use research domain, I review relevant studies to illustrate how the ontological and epistemological shift enhances the understanding of ELT textbooks and underscores the need for changes in research methods. Paying special attention to how teacher agency has been positioned and understood in these studies, I map out a trajectory of the emergence of teacher agency in the field of textbook research and textbook use research.

Acknowledging the limited research on ELT textbook use, I then draw on textbook use research of other subject matters to gain insights into the interrelationship between teachers and textbooks. Specifically, I review two theoretical frameworks which take a sociocultural perspective and conceptualise teachers' use of curriculum materials as interaction between agents and mediational tools. Through close examination, I demonstrate how these two frameworks underpin the theoretical foundation of my study, which also employs a sociocultural lens to investigate the teacher–textbook relationship. Simultaneously, I bring attention to the limitations within these two frameworks, stressing the need for conducting classroom interaction analysis to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the teacher–textbook relationship.

I then explicate the sociocultural understanding of teacher agency to provide a rationale for the analytical focus of my study. Taking the sociocultural perspective, I understand teacher agency as mediated and enacted through interaction between teacher–textbook units and students as well as interaction within teacher–textbook units. Through reviewing relevant studies, I illustrate how ELT teacher agency is mediated by various tools, and identify the gap of investigating textbooks as a mediational tool of ELT teacher agency.

I conclude the chapter by reviewing studies on textbook use effects and explaining how this study understands classroom textbook use effects as impacts on classroom interaction.

2.1 ELT Textbook Research and Limited ELT Teacher Agency

Research on ELT textbooks can be traced back to preliminary examinations of textbooks' efficacy in facilitating the application of ELT teaching methods (Howatt, 1984; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). In the early phases, the field viewed the textbook as a static classroom instruction plan which embodies a particular language teaching and learning approach. Studies in the following decades on ELT teaching materials development and evaluation mostly continued with similar conceptualisations. From the perspective of language teaching and learning methodology, there have been discussions on the efficacy of teaching materials in reflecting a particular advocated teaching method, from the structural approach (e.g. Fries, 1945; Lado, 1964) to the communicative approach (e.g. Breen et al., 1979; Cunningsworth, 1984; Ellis, 1998, 2011). The view of textbooks or teaching materials held by these studies separated the conception of a plan from the execution of it (Littlejohn, 2011), and conceived textbooks as a methodological guide provided to teachers. Although there was advocacy for good teaching materials to allow more teacher involvement in the instructional process and encourage teachers to adapt and modify (e.g. Breen et al., 1979), very few early textbook studies have investigated how teachers could adapt and modify textbooks (Tomlinson, 2012).

Building on this line of conceptualising textbooks, researchers have developed frameworks for evaluating ELT textbooks concerning various aspects of textbook content to facilitate teachers in selecting the most appropriate textbook for them and for their students (e.g. Cunningsworth, 1995; Masuhara, 2011). These evaluation tools are usually in a checklist format, consisting of questions grouped under different headings. In applying the list(s) of questions to analyse textbooks, teachers are guided to evaluate them and make decisions. Compared with earlier research, the evaluation tools take teachers' and students' needs into consideration. The questions are not only about textbooks' efficacy in embodying a certain teaching approach, but also on their appropriateness for specific contexts, such as "Are the staging and sequencing suitable for the learners?" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 61), "Are the social and cultural contexts in the coursebook comprehensible to the learners?" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 92). However, the checklist approach implied that there should be an appropriate textbook, if not a perfect one, that

contains particular content and features and can help teachers better teach. The implied authority of textbooks in teaching persisted in the textbook evaluation frameworks.

Later frameworks further recognised teacher agency in selecting textbooks and using textbooks. McGrath (2002, 2016) proposed a systematic three-phase model for textbook evaluation, involving pre-use, in-use and post-use evaluation and advocating collaborative analysis, which emphasised teachers' interpretation and reflection. Moreover, teachers were not only guided to make considered and informed decisions on textbook selection, but also facilitated in making adaptation and supplementation. Teacher agency was further emphasised in Littlejohn's (2011) model in which he refuted the idea of using a checklist asking subjective questions to guide teachers, but suggested that a detailed description of textbooks' tangible features and underlying principles is more informative. This approach to textbook evaluation required teachers to thoroughly examine the material to develop a comprehensive understanding of the textbook under evaluation, conduct analysis, and make inferences. It acknowledged and promoted teacher agency in evaluating textbooks. Nevertheless, the idea that textbooks take control of classrooms was still assumed, at least when teachers decide to follow textbooks during classroom instruction. As Littlejohn (2011) suggested, tasks in textbooks embody materials designers' idea of the best language learning approach and define teacher roles. Teacher agency in textbook use was still considered as peripheral in these models, if not understood as non-existent.

While the above studies were committed to the development of a framework of textbook evaluation for practitioners to utilise, there have also been empirical studies that focused on evaluating certain aspects of a particular textbook or textbooks. For example, researchers devoted themselves to the study of language in textbooks, evaluating it against the language used in real life and assessing the learning results of using the textbook(s), including vocabulary (e.g. Criado & Sánchez, 2012; Davis & Face, 2006; Donzelli, 2007; Gouverneur, 2008; Koprowski, 2005; Matsuoka & Hirsh, 2010; Milton, 2009), pronunciation (e.g. Chan, 2014; Gao, 2025; Kiczkowiak, 2021; Levis & Sonsaat, 2016), pragmatic use of language (e.g. Angouri, 2010; Bardovi-Harlig et al, 1991; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Grant & Starks, 2001; Vellenga, 2004; Wong, 2002), etc. Influenced by the communicative language teaching and learning approach, these studies focused on the authenticity of textbook language or its representativeness of user needs. Although the majority of the studies found that the textbook(s) examined were not

representative of the real-life language and thus argued that changes need to be initiated, the underlying rationale for these studies still viewed textbooks as the authority in language teaching and learning, seeing textbook language as model language.

With the rise of critical pedagogy in ELT, many scholars started to view ELT textbooks not only as language resources but also as cultural representations. Taking a critical approach to the ideologies represented in ELT textbooks, researchers have investigated the representation of culture, gender, etc. in ELT textbooks, revealing unbalanced or biased representation of ideologies and calling for adjustments and improvements by textbook developers (e.g. Gray, 2010; Lee & Collins, 2009, 2010; Marefat & Marzban, 2014; Setyono, 2018; Yang, 2016; Zhang et al., 2022; Ziad & Ouahmiche, 2019). Although the critical approach to textbook research has broadened the scope of the field, most of the studies have focused on the analysis of cultural and ideological representations in textbooks, with only a few exceptions (e.g. Chun, 2016; Smith, 2022) that explored how cultural and ideological representations were negotiated by teachers and students in classrooms.

While varying in endorsement of language teaching methods and differing in research scope, the majority of the above studies centred on textbooks or teaching materials per se and paid limited recognition of teacher agency in textbook use. Even when processes of selection and adaptation were covered in the research agenda, they were examined and discussed in relation to a static teaching plan, which is nevertheless different from the actual textbook use. Although researchers have emphasised the reality of teachers constantly evaluating and adapting textbooks and stressed the importance of teachers deploying agency in using textbooks (e.g. Bell & Gower, 2011; Harmer, 2001; McGrath, 2016; Tomlinson, 2012), ELT textbook studies reviewed above paid limited attention to teacher agency in using textbooks in classrooms. Recognising the inadequacy of these studies in reflecting and revealing the reality of ELT textbooks in teaching and learning, researchers called for a shift from ELT textbook research to ELT textbook use research.

2.2 ELT Textbook Use Research and Recognition of Teacher Agency

Noting research on textbooks has overlooked the users in understanding textbook evaluation and development, Tomlinson (2011) suggested more fine-tuned research into user feedback and the effect of material use and advocated the importance of teachers' participation in textbook research while acknowledging the resource-consuming nature of this type of research.

Similarly, noting the paucity of studies on textbook consumption, Harwood (2014, 2021) pointed out the limitations of content analysis frequently used in textbook research and proposed that sound methodological procedures should be designed to incorporate analysis on how teachers use textbooks so that the actual effect of a particular textbook can be uncovered. The call has been embraced by textbook researchers. As a result, textbook use has been incorporated as a vital part of their research agenda, and new methods have been employed.

Examining self-report data, researchers have investigated ELT teachers' perceptions of textbooks and their own textbook use. Using questionnaires and interviews, Bosompem (2014) tried to understand a group of Ghanaian teachers' attitudes towards adapting the textbook, the ways they adapt, and the rationale for their adaptation. The study found out that while the teachers possessed similar positive attitudes towards adapting the textbook, their actual practices varied greatly for diverse reasons. It revealed that the teachers were aware of their own textbook use if they were prompted to reflect. It also showed their textbook use was based on well-reasoned decisions. Unlike previous textbook evaluation and development studies which primarily centred on the textbook per se, both the research focus and the methods of Bosompem's (2014) study recognised teacher agency, and the findings evidenced that teachers agentively adapt textbooks when using them to teach.

Concerning teachers' actual practice, researchers have employed classroom observations, together with other methods, to examine different ways of using textbooks in classrooms. From the perspective of curriculum enactment, Shawer (2010) distinguished between three types of EFL teachers with varying degrees of agency: *curriculum-makers*, *curriculum-developers*, and *curriculum-transmitters*, and conducted classroom observations and interviews to examine each teacher type's strategies of using curriculum materials (including textbooks) in classrooms. Shawer (2017) further examined teacher-related motives behind different approaches to curriculum materials in classrooms and found that teachers' different styles were influenced by textbook-relevant, teacher-relevant, and context-relevant factors. Similar to Shawer's studies, researchers examined teachers of different experience levels and of different teaching styles and beliefs in various university-level contexts, and investigated their different ways of using textbooks and/or factors impacting on teachers' textbook use (e.g. Bolster, 2014, 2015; Canagarajah, 1993; Grammatosi, 2020; Grammatosi & Harwood, 2014; Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Li & Li, 2021; Menkabu & Harwood, 2014; Seferaj, 2014; Tasseron, 2017; Wang &

Zhang, 2024; Yakhontova, 2001).

Focusing on textbook use practice, researchers taking a critical approach have also examined classroom interaction to understand how teachers and students negotiate representations of cultures and ideologies in textbooks. Chun (2016) took a mediated discourse analysis approach which understands discourse meaning as always mediated by social actors, and analysed how a teacher problematised a racialised text in an EAP textbook in classrooms. The study revealed that the teacher could lead students to alternative readings of the text based on their own experiences. As a result, the discursive engagements the teacher and students achieved in the classroom helped create learning opportunities for students. Smith (2022) combined critical discourse analysis with multimodal conversation analysis method to examine how culture was represented in multimodal discourses in ELT textbooks and how the representation of culture was negotiated in real classrooms. Triangulating the textbook data and classroom interaction data with data from interviews with the teachers and students, Smith (2022) proposed that teachers and students were actors whose voices contribute to the accomplishment of a curriculum.

Although few studies have so far pursued ELT textbook use compared with studies examining textbooks per se, studies such as the above have pushed the understanding of ELT textbooks to an ontologically and epistemologically different path. In these studies, the distinction between *materials as they are* and *materials-in-action* has been proposed and demonstrated. *Materials as they are* refers to the material content and the beliefs and values they represent; whereas *materials-in-action* refers to the practice of using the materials in classrooms and the outcome of using them (Littlejohn, 2011; Tomlinson, 2013). Following this distinction, there is no single version of a textbook, but multiple versions of the textbook being used in practice. As also revealed by these studies, textbooks are context-bound and emergent in situ. Different conceptualisations of textbooks in ELT textbook research and ELT textbook use research also led to different understanding of teacher agency in textbook use. In textbook use research, teachers are understood as the central player in the textbook use process (Lloyd, Remillard & Herbel-Eisenmann, 2009). The meaning and functions of textbooks are understood through how teachers perceive, understand, and actually use textbooks in context. Teachers' interpretation of textbooks, together with other factors such as their belief in language teaching and learning and their understanding of students' needs, entails how textbooks are used in

classroom instruction (McGrath, 2016; Tomlinson, 2011). Through examining how teachers challenged, adapted, or supplemented teaching materials in classroom instruction, researchers have evidenced teacher agency in utilising textbook content in diverse ways to promote learning and achieve effective instruction.

Some researchers have also moved beyond textbook content and started to recognise the leeway textbooks allow for teachers even when teachers follow textbook content. Ur (2015) noted that teachers had to decide how to teach a textbook even when they made the choice of following it. According to Ur (2015), apart from substantial adaptations to activities, teacher also made minor adaptations to teaching procedures or styles based on their interpretation of textbooks and the local "culture of learning" (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999, p. 212). Although Ur (2015) provided no empirical evidence of what teachers did during these minor adaptations, her study highlighted the pervasiveness of teacher agency in using textbooks to teach and suggested a "symbiotic" (p. 15) relationship between teachers and textbooks.

While limited in number, there have been empirical studies that investigated ELT teachers' use of textbooks beyond textbook content. One such study is by Matsumoto (2019), which investigated how materials use led to and solved classroom miscommunication. In the study, the researcher investigated how teachers and students use materials, including textbooks, teacher-prepared worksheets, and a projection screen in a L2 writing classroom. Highlighting that previous studies (e.g. Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013) mostly analysed teacher talk but failed to attend to the material aspect of classroom materials, Matsumoto (2019) employed a multimodal analytical approach to understand how teachers and students use both verbal and non-verbal interaction to clarify meaning and resolve misunderstanding. Although the study only focused on moments of miscommunication, it has evidenced that teacher agency in using teaching materials in classrooms surpasses textbook content in scope. Not only does teachers' use of textbook content contribute to classroom instruction, but also their manipulation of textbook materiality.

Building on previous ELT textbook use studies that conceptualised textbooks as materials-in-action and teachers as central players in textbook use, and in accordance with the perspectives advanced by Ur (2015) and Matsumoto (2019), this study regards teacher agency in using textbooks as encompassing teachers' engagement with textbook content while also extending beyond it. When teachers use textbooks for classroom instruction, they are not only

using textbook content, but also interacting with other features or qualities of textbooks, for example, textbook materiality as addressed in Matsumoto (2019).

To further explain how this study understands interaction between teachers and textbooks in classrooms and teacher agency enacted in the interaction, the next three sections turn to studies both within and beyond the ELT field for frameworks of understanding the teacher–textbook relationship in textbook use (2.3), teacher agency in using textbooks (2.4), and textbook use effects (2.5), and discuss how they have informed this study.

2.3 Understanding Teacher–Textbook Interaction and Relationship

There has been limited textbook use research in the ELT field investigating the teacher–textbook relationship, but relatively more work in this respect has been done by researchers working in mainstream education. Through examining textbook use and textbook use studies, researchers have proposed frameworks for understanding interaction between teachers and textbooks. This section first presents two such frameworks (2.3.1 and 2.3.2) and then explains the understanding of teacher–textbook interaction and relationship in this study (2.3.3).

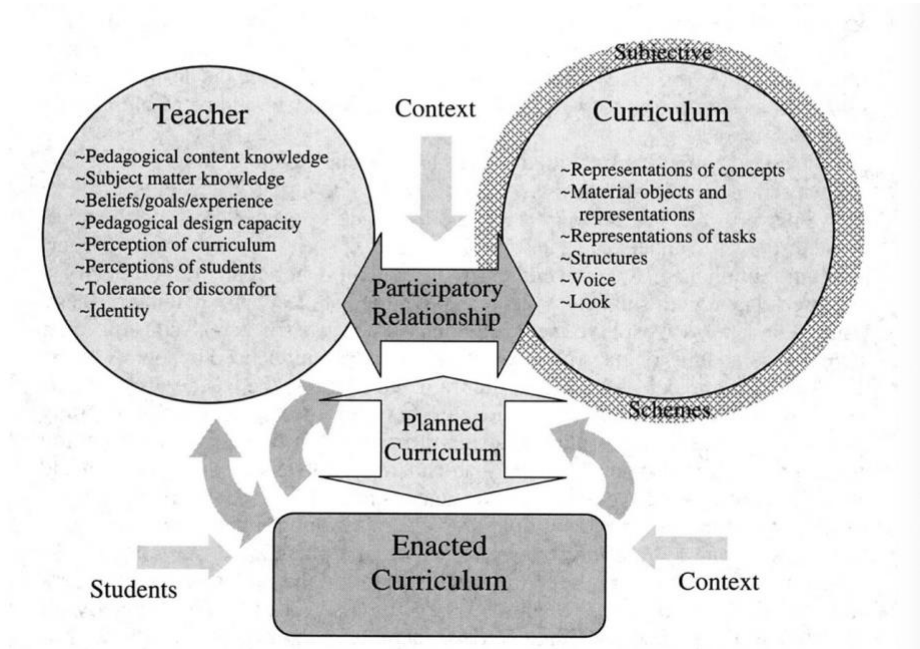
2.3.1 Curriculum Use as Participatory

Reviewing 25 years of studies on mathematics curriculum materials use, Remillard (2005) pointed out that the studies held different and sometimes conflicting theoretical perspectives towards the teacher–curriculum relationship although all of them took curriculum use as their core research focus. By curriculum use, Remillard referred to teachers' use of "printed, often published resources designed for use" (p. 213). Acknowledging that there can be no clear-cut categories, Remillard (2005) identified four ways of conceptualising curriculum use in the reviewed studies: "*as Following or Subverting the Text*" (p. 216), "*as Drawing on the Text*" (p. 218), "*as Interpretation of Text*" (p.219), and "*as Participation With the Text*" (p. 221). It was noted by Remillard (2005) that different ways of conceptualisation led to different research focus, and the fourth type which takes a sociocultural perspective enabled researchers to focus on the actual activities of using curriculum materials.

Highlighting the need for research to focus on interaction between teachers and curriculum materials, Remillard (2005) proposed a framework for understanding the teacher–curriculum relationship based on a sociocultural understanding of curriculum use (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1

Framework of Components of Teacher–Curriculum Relationship (Remillard, 2005, p. 235)



The framework foregrounds the participatory relationship between the teacher and the curriculum. Both the teacher and the curriculum bring their own resources into the participatory relationship. The left circle in Figure 2.1 illustrates multifaceted resources brought by the teacher, including knowledge, skills, perceptions, experiences, affect, etc. The right circle lists curriculum resources that contribute to the participatory relationship, including representations, objects, voice, look, etc. Acknowledging the tentative nature of the resource list in the curriculum circle, Remillard (2005) pointed out there was insufficient exploration of curriculum resources in existing studies compared to that of teacher resources, and therefore called for more scholarly treatment of the resources curriculum materials could bring to the arena. Also noting existing studies' inadequate treatment of curriculum materials other than their content and pedagogy, Remillard (2005) further advocated research be done to examine components such as curriculum voice, look, etc. The participatory relationship in-between the two circles emphasises the active participation of both teachers and curricula in curriculum planning and enactment, but as pointed out by Remillard (2005), further examination is needed to achieve a better understanding of this relationship. The bi-directional interaction between teacher resources and

curriculum resources then results in the planned curriculum. When teachers instruct students, the planned curriculum is later implemented as the enacted curriculum. According to Remillard (2005), enacted curricula are different adapted versions of planned curriculum in diverse contexts. However, the framework does not further explain how planned curriculum is enacted in classrooms; instead, it assumes that teachers mobilise the same set of resources when they plan a curriculum or enact one. In the present study, I argue that teachers may need to mobilise additional resources in order to enact a curriculum. As shown in Matsumoto's (2019) study, enacting a curriculum in a classroom involves more than adapting the planned curriculum, but also other resources such as teachers' miscommunication management. This indicates that the teacher–textbook relationship in enacting curriculum may be different from that in planning curriculum, and how teachers and textbooks interact during classroom instruction may need to be understood not only in relation to planned curriculum but also be examined as an independent phenomenon in its own right.

Before elaborating on the present study's understanding of the teacher–textbook relationship and teacher–textbook interaction, the next section reviews another framework which adopts the same sociocultural perspective towards the teacher–curriculum relationship but focuses more on interaction between teachers and curriculum materials.

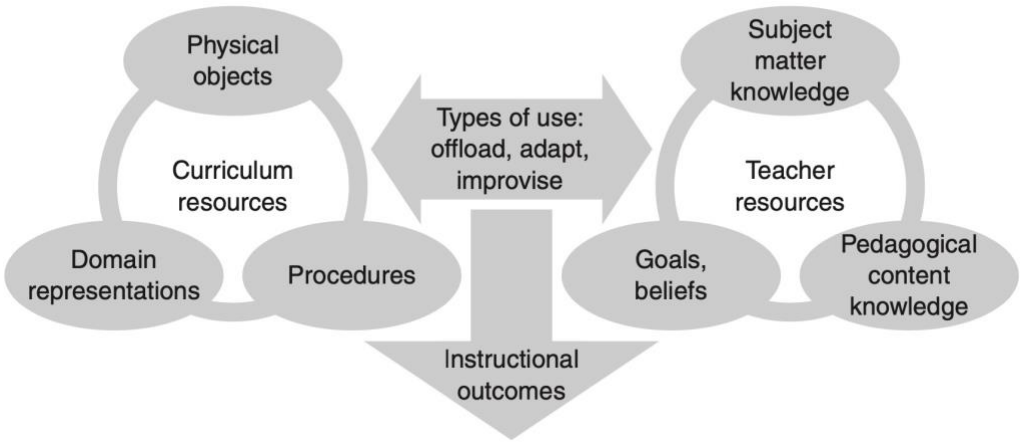
2.3.2 Teaching as Design

Another framework theorising the teacher–curriculum relationship was proposed by Brown (2009) based on his work on using materials of the science subject. Taking a sociocultural understanding of teachers' materials use, Brown framed teachers' practice as a design activity and proposed that the interaction between teachers and curriculum materials can be understood as "artifact appropriation", that is, to what extent agency is distributed to the textbook during instruction. Depending on the degree to which the teacher appropriates the material in actual instructional contexts, Brown (2009) suggested three types of teacher–material interaction, namely, "*offloading*, *adapting* and *improvising*" (p. 24). According to Brown (2009), when teachers offload, they usually closely follow materials and thus they offload agency onto the materials; when teachers adapt materials, both teacher resources and material resources are mobilised and agency is distributed between the teacher and the material; when teachers improvise, they mainly use their own resources and agency is shifted to the teacher. In order to understand the reasons behind a particular way of teacher–textbook interaction, Brown (2009)

proposed the Design Capacity for Enactment (DCE) framework (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2

The Design Capacity for Enactment Framework (Brown, 2009, p. 26)



Similar to Remillard's (2005) framework, the DCE framework takes a sociocultural perspective and understands the teacher–textbook relationship as bi-directional and that both teachers and curriculum materials bring resources into the interactive and dynamic relationship. Regarding curriculum resources, the DCE framework proposes three major aspects: *physical objects* referring to the material qualities of the curriculum resources; *procedures* referring to representations of tasks in materials; and *domain representations* referring to representations and structuring of domain concepts and their interconnections. From the perspective of teachers, three basic elements are suggested: *subject matter knowledge*, *pedagogical content knowledge* referring to "knowledge of how to teach a particular domain", and *goals and beliefs* referring to "teachers' orientations toward the material they teach" (Brown, 2009, p. 27).

Seeing the framework as illustrating what resources teachers and curriculum materials bring into classroom enactment, Brown (2009) proposed *teachers' pedagogical design capacity* which refers to "a teacher's capacity to perceive and mobilise existing resources in order to craft instructional episodes" (p. 29), to further account for how teachers mobilise these resources to achieve their instructional goals.

Compared with Remillard's (2005) framework, the DCE framework includes limited resources in the curriculum circle, but as Brown (2009) pointed out, this is not an exhaustive list

and reflects his particular research contexts. Moreover, the DCE framework further categorises teacher–textbook interaction into three types (*offloading*, *adapting*, and *improvising*). Each type reflects a different degree of agency distribution between teachers and curriculum materials. Compared with Remillard's (2005) framework which understands the teacher–textbook relationship as participatory, this categorisation allows a more refined understanding of the dynamic interplay between teachers and textbooks.

2.3.3 "Teacher-Acting-with-Textbook" as a Unit to Interact with Students

The above two reviewed frameworks have informed this study in three interrelated aspects.

(1) Sociocultural understanding of the teacher–textbook relationship

This study follows the sociocultural view proposed in both frameworks and understands the teacher–textbook relationship as participatory and teacher–textbook interaction as dynamic interchange between agents and artefacts. In this vein, textbooks are understood as artefacts which are products of "sociocultural evolution" (Wertsch et al., 1993, p. 341), emerging as societies and cultures change and develop over time, and teachers' use of textbooks to instruct students involves teachers mediating textbooks to achieve their instructional goals and being mediated in turn (Vygostky, 1978; Wertsch, 1993, 1998).

As Remillard (2005) proposed, the sociocultural approach of viewing the teacher–curriculum relationship as participatory allows research to focus on teacher–curriculum interaction, which well serves the present study's aim to investigate teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction. The sociocultural positioning allows the present study to explore not only how teachers adapt textbook content, but also how teachers interact with all types of textbook resources through examining teachers' activities of mobilising textbook resources in classroom instruction.

(2) Teachers and textbooks as co-contributors to classroom instruction

Following Brown (2009), this study views teachers as agents who enact agency and distribute it between textbooks and themselves when using textbooks to teach. The DCE framework, together with teachers' pedagogical design capacity, sees teachers as designers of classroom instruction who perceive and mobilise affordances of textbooks. It acknowledges teacher agency in classroom instruction, but at the same time, recognises the mediating

affordances and constraints of textbooks. When teachers enact agency in using textbooks in classrooms, both teachers and textbooks are contributing to classroom instruction.

(3) Textbook affordances as context-bound

As suggested by both frameworks, the list of textbook resources that come into play in classrooms is context-bound. Likewise, this study does not assume a pre-determined list of textbook resources but analyses the actual data to find out what resources of textbooks are mobilised by teachers in classrooms. Both frameworks go beyond textbook content in their list of textbook resources. As shown in 2.2, ELT textbook use research has mostly focused on textbook content, without due attention paid to other resources such as textbook voice and textbook materiality. While this study takes a bottom-up approach to natural data, it is appropriate at this point to explain how this study understands textbook voice and textbook materiality.

It has been largely agreed that textbooks have an embedded voice which is shaped by the perspectives, values, and assumptions of textbook writers, publishers, and the larger educational context. Textbooks have embodied the sociocultural expectation of epistemological authority (de Castell, 1990). They have been regarded by most users as intrinsically "the authorized version of a society's valued knowledge" (Olson, 1989, p. 192), and I argue this is also true for most textbook writers and publishers. Within the broader sociocultural context, textbooks are also associated with the state authority in that they usually represent the national curriculum (Samarn & Savski, 2024). Apart from these sociocultural beliefs of textbooks' authoritative status, researchers have also argued and shown that textbooks use language that helps reinforce such status. Herbel-Eisenmann (2007), for example, drew on Systemic-Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1973) and analysed language choices in expressing interpersonal, ideational, and textual functions in one unit of a mathematics textbook. The analysis showed that the unit's language use such as its being devoid of first person pronouns, pervasiveness of imperatives, etc, contributed to the authoritative voice of the textbook. Later in Herbel-Eisenmann (2009), the researcher also examined how teachers interact with textbook voice to negotiate power and authority, revealing that textbooks' authoritative voice, although embedded in textbooks, can be negotiated through interaction. Following these studies, I argue that ELT textbooks used in this study's context have the same socioculturally constructed authority and are written mostly in language that expresses authoritative voice. Moreover, the authoritative voice is not static, but negotiable in classroom interaction.

Textbook materiality has been suggested as a textbook resource that interacts with teachers in both Remillard's (2005) and Brown's (2009) models of the teacher–textbook relationship. Kolbeck and Röhl (2018) proposed two aspects of textbook materiality that are pertinent to textbook use: "(1) the spatial organisation of the text and (2) the material qualities of the book itself" (p. 404). On the one hand, the spatial organisation and visual layout are carriers of meanings (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, 2021); on the other hand, the non-linear use of the textbook is enabled by the spatial organisation of the text (Kolbeck & Röhl, 2018). Additionally, textbooks have certain material qualities. For example, they need to be of a suitable size, thickness, etc. so that they can be easily handled by users (Kolbeck & Röhl, 2018). Drawing on Kolbeck and Röhl (2018), this study sees textbook materiality as of two layers. Firstly, ELT textbooks are usually structured into units, and each unit contains various sections. Secondly, ELT textbooks possess various material qualities. Apart from physical qualities, such as size, thickness, flippable pages, etc, textbooks are movable objects that can be sensorily experienced (Nevile et al., 2014). Teachers can handle textbooks and move them in the physical space; they can orient their bodies to textbooks; they can point to textbooks; and they can verbally refer to them.

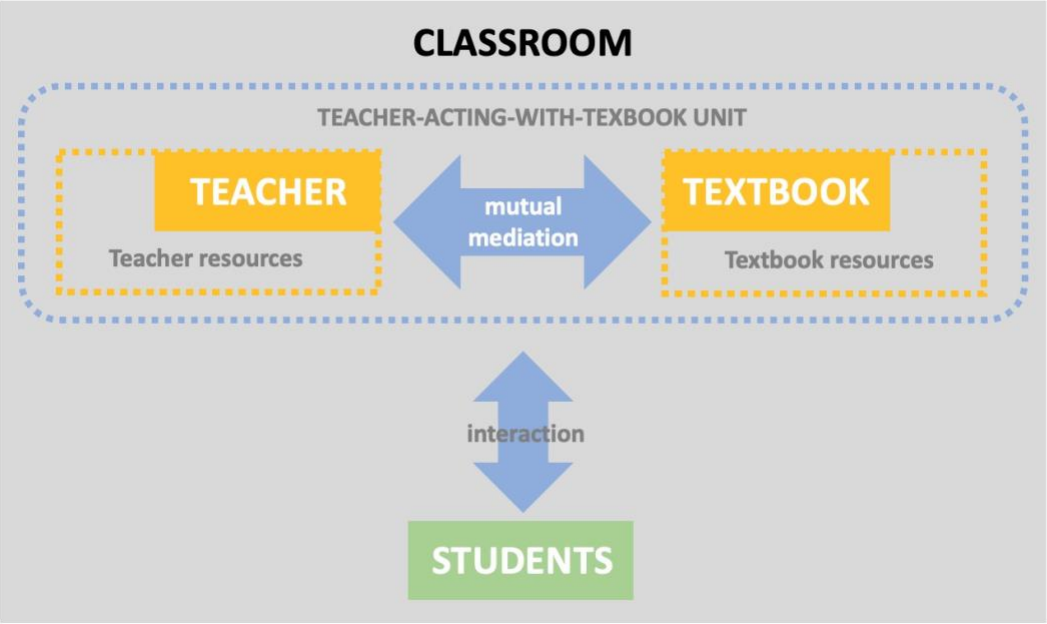
Building on the two frameworks of the teacher–curriculum relationship, this study responds to the call for further exploration of the participatory relationship and curriculum resources by investigating the mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks and examining textbooks' participation in the interaction.

Moving beyond the two frameworks, this study follows Wertsch (1993) in further understanding the mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks, and its relation to classroom instruction. Recognising the fundamental relationship between action and mediational tools, Wertsch (1993) suggested that it is inevitable to refer to "individual(s)-acting-with-mediational-means" when talking about agents, and it is always the unit of "individual(s)-acting-with-mediational-means" that enacts actions (p. 12). Following Wertsch (1993), this study understands teachers' use of textbooks in classroom instruction as involving two layers of interaction. The first layer is interaction between teacher–textbook units and students. It involves how teachers use textbooks to teach students. The focus is on what teachers do with the affordances of textbooks. The second layer concerns interaction within the unit, that is, interaction between teachers and textbooks. The focus is on how teachers mobilise textbooks

when instructing students in classrooms. It is with the examination of these two layers of interaction that this study endeavors to reveal what "teacher-acting-with-textbook" units achieve in classrooms and how teachers and textbooks co-contribute to the achievement. Figure 2.3 illustrates this study's understanding of the teacher–textbook relationship within classroom instruction.

Figure 2.3

Teacher–Textbook Relationship Within Classroom Instruction



While there are diverse layers of interaction happening in classrooms, e.g. teachers interacting with students without textbooks, students interacting with each other, etc., Figure 2.3 illustrates the major layers of interaction involved when teachers use textbooks to instruct students. Grounded in this understanding of the teacher–textbook relationship, this study focuses on the mutual mediation between teachers and textbooks, the resources textbooks bring into classroom instruction, and the teacher–textbook unit's interaction with students, with the aim of revealing teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction.

Having explained this study's positioning towards teacher–textbook interaction and the teacher–textbook relationship, I now proceed to illustrate how agency is defined and understood in this study from a sociocultural perspective.

2.4 Mediated Teacher Agency in Using Textbooks for Classroom Interaction

There has never been an agreed upon definition of agency in the literature. Researchers holding different theoretical lenses and working in different disciplines have different understandings of the concept. Distinguishing between actor and agent, researchers working in the field of action theory defined agency as an individual's intention. To answer the question of whether an event involves agency, Davidson (1971, 2001) proposed that "a man is the agent of an act if what he does can be described under an aspect that makes it intentional" (p. 46). In contrast, researchers working in the field of practice theory linked agency to structure and held the view that agency refers "not to the intentions people have in doing things but to their capability of doing those things" (Giddens, 1984, p. 39). Instead of viewing agency as intention, researchers following this line of theoretical positioning regarded agency as doing.

Also understanding agency as doing, researchers who take a temporal-relational perspective towards agency further emphasised the interplay between agency and structure, and defined agency as "*the temporally constructed engagement by actors of different structural environments … which … both reproduces and transforms those structures in interactive response to the problems posed by changing historical situations*" (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998, p. 970). Emirbayer and Mische (1998) regarded agency as multifaceted due to its diverse temporal orientations and actors' simultaneous engagement in diverse temporal-relational contexts. In order to account for both variability of human agency and its change over time, Emirbayer and Mische (1998) distinguished agency into three constitutive dimensions, namely, the iterational dimension, the projective dimension, and the practical-evaluative dimension, each dimension corresponding to a type of temporal orientation: the past, the future, and the present. According to Emirbayer and Mische (1998), the iterational dimension is manifested in "actors' abilities to recall, to select, and to appropriately apply the more or less tacit and taken-for-granted schemas of action that they have developed through past interactions" (p. 975); the projective dimension refers to actors' efforts to engage with imaginative future, which "give shape and direction to *future* possibilities" (p. 984); and the practical-evaluative dimension lies in actors' reflection, interpretation, and judgment in response to "the demands and contingencies of the present" (p. 994). Besides, Emirbayer and Mische (1998) built on Goffman's (1974) view that different frames can be at play at any moment of human action, and suggested that agency can be of different temporal orientations within different frames at play, further emphasising the

multifaceted nature of agency.

Likewise, the sociocultural perspective understands agency as doing and defines it as "the socioculturally mediated capacity to act" (Ahearn, 2001, p. 112). Similar to the temporal-relational understanding of agency as achievement rather than power (Biesta & Tedder, 2007), the sociocultural perspective also views agency as enacted in action (Wertsch, 1993). However, the sociocultural perspective differs from the temporal-relational understanding in that it underscores mediation between humans and objects and emphasises moment-to-moment interaction (Tao & Gao, 2021). Highlighting the central role mediational tools such as language and maps play in human action (Vygotsky, 2019), the sociocultural perspective conceptualises human agency as mediated (Wertsch & Rupert, 1993) and enacted in human action (Wertsch, 1993). To understand the concept of mediation (Vygotsky, 1978), Wertsch (1993) suggested that agents employ sociocultural tools when they act, and these tools mediate, that is, they "shape the action in essential ways" (p. 12).

In alignment with this study's focus on teacher–textbook interaction and understanding of classroom instruction as achieved through moment-to-moment classroom interaction (more discussion in Chapter 3), this study takes a sociocultural perspective towards the understanding of human agency, while drawing on the temporal-relational perspective of understanding human agents as simultaneously engaging in multiple temporal-relational contexts.

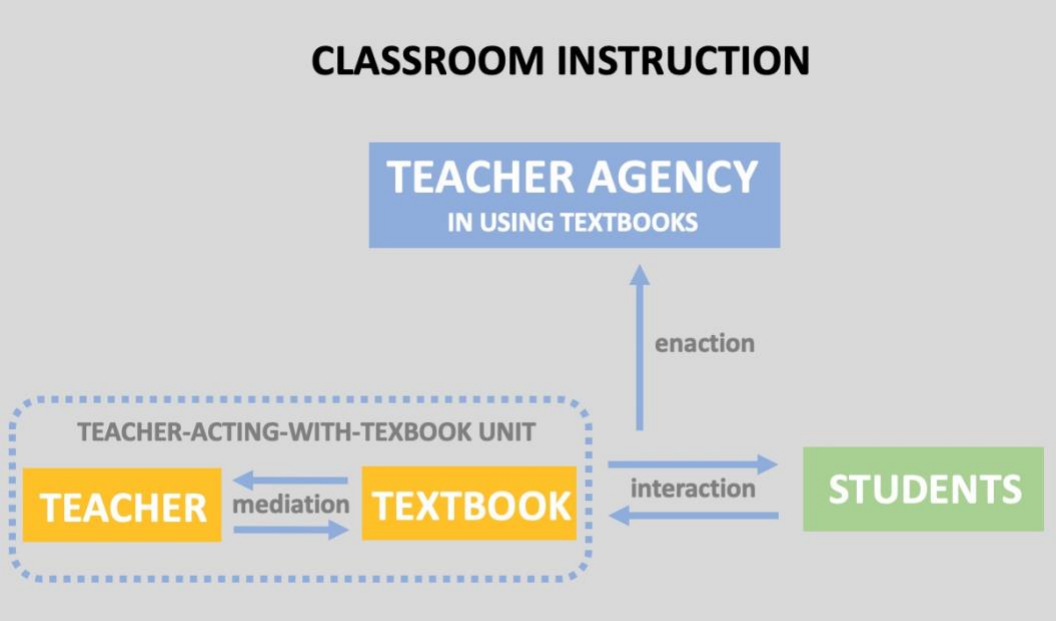
Since agency is viewed as enacted in human action (Wertsch, 1993) and it is through mediated action and interaction that humans construct and negotiate agency (Lipponen & Kumpulainen, 2011), the sociocultural approach takes "action and interaction as the basic analytical categories" (Wertsch, 1993, p.9). Taking a sociocultural approach to agency in the present study entails taking teachers' mediated action and interaction in classroom instruction as the analytical focus. As the sociocultural understanding of agency emphasises the mediational interplay between agents and sociocultural artefacts (Wertsch et al, 1993), it enables the present study to conceptualise teachers as agents of action whose capacity to use textbooks to deliver classroom instruction is mediated by textbooks. The conceptualisation facilitates the researcher in probing into teachers' mobilisation of textbook resources and textbooks' affordances for classroom instruction through examining mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks. Furthermore, although both teachers and textbooks contribute to the enactment of agency, agency is still viewed as the property of teachers. Taking the example of pole vaulting in

which the introduction of fiberglass poles has helped athletes to surpass an enduring world record set by athletes using bamboo poles, Wertsch (1993) illustrated that although poles with new material facilitated the achievement, it was still the human athlete who conducted the action. Following this line of thinking, this study views agency emerging from teachers' textbook use as teacher agency, instead of teacher–textbook agency or textbook agency.

Figure 2.4 illustrates how this study understands and approaches teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction.

Figure 2.4

Teacher Agency in Using Textbooks for Classroom Instruction



As illustrated in this figure, teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction is perceived as emerged and enacted through classroom interaction between the teacher–textbook unit and students, and teachers' enactment of agency is mediated by textbooks.

Also following the temporal-relational tripartite suggested by Emirbayer and Mische (1998), this study understands teacher agency enacted in the "here and now" as informed by the past and oriented to both the present and the future. It is informed by the past so that agency is exercised through recurrent patterns of classroom interaction; it is oriented to the future so that teachers agentively employ strategies to achieve instructional goals; it is oriented to the present so that agency is enacted as teachers respond to demands and provisions of the on-going

classroom interaction. Drawing on the temporal-relational perspective towards agency, this study views teachers' action of using textbooks as engaging in diverse temporal-relational contexts at the same time.

Empirical research concerning teacher agency in textbook use has been scarce, but there is growing interest in language teacher agency. In the field of language teacher education, a domain closely related to this study's area of inquiry, while the conceptualisation of agency has been diverse drawing on a range of theoretical foundations (Tao & Gao, 2021), sociocultural theory has been the predominant approach that underpins studies of teacher agency (White, 2018). Taking the sociocultural perspective, researchers have explored how various sociocultural tools, from broad sociocultural developments to micro-level language use, support or constrain language teachers' construction of teacher agency (e.g, Feroyk, 2012; Fones, 2019; Ishihara et al, 2018; Tao & Gao, 2017; Tran & Li, 2025; Trent, 2010; Tsui, 2007; van Lier, 2008).

Feroyk (2012) conducted a seminal study on how an ELT teacher in Armenia developed agency from a broadly sociocultural perspective. Framed within activity theory (Galperin, 1989, 1992; Leontiev, 1978, 1981) which follows Vygotsky and views social activities as mediational means, Feroyk (2012) conducted email interviews, on-site classroom observations, and on-site oral interviews and examined the teacher's actions and her perception of the activity system. The analysis revealed that the image emerging from the participant teacher's earlier experience with her English teacher guided her actions later as a language learner, teacher, and teacher trainer, and thus mediated her agency.

The sociocultural approach has also been taken by researchers to examine English language teacher agency in the Chinese context. For example, from a sociocultural developmental perspective, Tao and Gao (2017) examined eight Chinese ESP teachers' agentic choices and actions during a time of curriculum reform. Mainly analysing life history interview data, their study revealed how these teachers' identity commitment to an ESP teacher, together with their prior experiences, mediated their enactment of teacher agency in their professional development.

While the above two studies focused on ideological mediational tools, such as an image constructed from past experience and teachers' identity commitment, there are other studies that investigated how semiotic tools such as language appropriate teacher agency. One such study was conducted by Ishihara et al (2018), which examined how translingual practice supported two

language teachers in the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme to construct their teacher agency of L2 teachers. Specifically, the researchers examined where verbal and non-verbal means that involves more than one language were drawn upon for negotiating identity in the two teachers' narratives, revealing how the translingual practice supported the teachers with their rapport building with colleagues and students, and their pedagogic development.

While studies have supported the sociocultural perspective towards the understanding of language teacher agency as mediated by various sociocultural tools, there have been few studies investigating how teacher agency is mediated by textbooks. Textbooks, which are socioculturally constructed artefacts (Canagarajah, 2016; Curdt-Christiansen & Weninger, 2015; Gray, 2010; Littlejohn, 2012), are one of the major tools that mediate teachers' action of teaching in classrooms. To understand teacher agency, it is important to understand the mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks. To address the gap, the present study takes classroom instruction when textbooks are of relevance as the analytical focus and examines what teacher agency is enacted by the "teacher-acting-with-textbook" unit and how it is enacted through the mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks.

The above two sections (2.3 and 2.4) explained this study's sociocultural perspective of understanding the teacher–textbook relationship in textbook use and teacher agency in using textbooks, the next section focuses on this study's understanding of textbook use effects.

2.5 Textbook Use Effects as Impacts on Classroom Interaction

As explained in 2.4, the sociocultural perspective views agency as achievements enacted in human actions. In order to understand what agency is enacted by teachers when they use textbooks, it is essential to examine the effects resulting from teachers' textbook use, that is, what is achieved through teachers' textbook use. Although limited in number, there has been textbook or teaching materials use research investigating the effects of materials use (e.g. Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Hadley, 2014). The issue of materials use effects in these studies mainly fall into two categories, immediate effects and long-term effects. Immediate effects are usually concerned with the effect that textbooks bring to the classroom, and long-term effects refer to whether textbook use has helped students acquire and develop the target language knowledge and use. Since impacts on students' learning usually require longitudinal studies to examine and understand (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018) and fall beyond the scope of this study, the effects of teachers' textbook use in this study is understood and discussed in terms of its

immediate effects in classrooms.

Guerrettaz and Johnston's (2013) study on teaching materials' roles in classroom ecology is an example of studies examining immediate effects of textbook use. The researchers followed van Lier (2004) in understanding classrooms as an ecosystem, and examined the interrelationships teaching materials have with other crucial elements in a language classroom. Specifically, the researchers focused on three classroom elements that the textbook was found to establish a significant relationship with: the curriculum, classroom discourse, and language learning. Based on classroom observations, interviews, and artefact analysis, the study showed that the textbook served as the curriculum; it substantially influenced the topic, type, and structure of classroom discourse; and language learning affordances of the textbook extend beyond intended affordances, and emerge from the process of classroom interaction. When analysing and discussing emergent language learning affordances, Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) considered interaction that initiated personally meaningful interaction as effective in supporting learning. By personally meaningful interaction, the researchers refer to interaction in which learners talk about their own life or discuss their own learning concerns.

The present study follows Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) in examining classroom interaction to understand teachers' textbook use effects. However, while Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) regarded textbook use that initiates personally meaningful interaction as producing language learning opportunities, this study takes the position that textbook use that fosters effective classroom interaction/instruction has the potential to contribute to students' language learning (Allwright, 1984; Walsh, 2002, 2006, 2011, 2013; Seedhouse, 2004; Sert, 2010, 2019). This view is explained in greater depth in Chapter 3 with reference to literature on language classroom interaction.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have first provided a brief overview of ELT textbook research and ELT textbook use research, highlighting the emergence of teacher agency in previous studies. At the same time, I have drawn attention to the predominant focus of ELT textbook use studies on teachers' adaptation of textbook content and emphasised the need for investigations into teacher agency beyond textbook adaptation and into textbook resources beyond textbook content. Drawing on two sociocultural frameworks for understanding the teacher–curriculum relationship, I have explained this study's understanding of the teacher–textbook relationship in classrooms as

a mediational relationship between an agent and a tool. I have also drawn attention to the limitations within the two frameworks and argued for a more detailed and in-depth understanding of the mediation between teachers and textbooks. I have then drawn on relevant literature to define teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction. The present study takes a sociocultural perspective and understands teacher agency in textbook use as enacted in classroom interaction and mediated by textbooks. Viewing teacher agency in textbook use as achievements, I have briefly explained this study's understanding of textbook use effects as impacts on classroom interaction, which is explored in greater depth with reference to research on classroom interaction in the next chapter.

Chapter 3 ELT Textbooks in Classroom Interaction

Chapter 2 positioned this study in textbook use research by highlighting the growing acknowledgement of teacher agency in the field. The chapter also explained this study's understanding of the teacher–textbook relationship, teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction, and textbook use effects as impacts on classroom interaction. This chapter builds on the understanding and elaborates on the analytical approach of this study by drawing on classroom interaction research. I begin by situating classroom interaction as social interaction and highlight its centrality to language teaching and learning. Drawing on the understanding of classroom interaction as classroom pedagogy, I further explain how this study understands effective textbook use as contributing to effective classroom interaction and instruction. I then review critical studies on language classroom interactional structures. The review traces the development from a simplistic understanding of classroom interaction as Initiation-Response-Feedback moves to more refined models recognising its nuances and in-situ nature using CA. I demonstrate the later models' contribution to a better understanding of classroom interaction. Simultaneously, I bring attention to the limitations within them, stressing the need for more detailed understanding of classroom interaction involving textbooks in my research context and the need to address social relationships arising in classroom interaction. To address the limitations, I discuss using IS as the analytical approach for this study.

3.1 Classroom Interaction as Social Interaction

The centrality of classroom interaction in teaching and learning has long been recognised by researchers (e.g. Edwards & Westgate, 1994; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Mercer, 2000; van Lier, 1988). For language classrooms, particularly second language or foreign language classrooms, the shift from the communicative perspective (e.g. Dinsmore, 1985; Kramsch, 1981; Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Legutke & Thomas, 1991; Long & Sato, 1983; Nunan, 1987) to social interaction perspective on classroom interaction (e.g. Allwright, 1984; van Lier, 1988) has advanced the view that classroom interaction with its own interactional structures and features is part of the real world. As van Lier (1988) pointed out, "the classroom is in principle and in

potential just as communicative or uncommunicative as any other speech setting, no more, no less" (p. 267).

3.1.1 Classroom Interaction as Classroom Pedagogy

Chapter 2 (2.5) presented this study's understanding of teachers' textbook use effects as impacts on classroom interaction following textbook use studies on immediate effects. This section continues with the idea from the perspective of effective classroom interaction. Drawing on Allwright's (1984) ideas on the relationship between classroom interaction and actual learning, this section explains effective classroom interaction outcomes that contribute to learning. Teachers' textbook use for classroom instruction, if leading to effective classroom interaction outcomes, should be effective to support learning.

Allwright (1984) proposed that interaction in language classrooms is "*the* fundamental fact of classroom pedagogy" (p. 156) as lessons are accomplished and can only be accomplished via interaction. When discussing the relationship between classroom interaction and actual learning, Allwright (1984) argued that teachers and students manage classroom interaction for the management of learning and "successful pedagogy, in any subject, necessarily involves the successful management of classroom interaction" (p. 159) by both teachers and students. Although Allwright's (1984) argument does not explicitly focus on textbook use in classrooms, it underpins not only this study's interpretation of textbook use effects as impacts on classroom interaction, but also this study's view that teachers' textbook use agency is enacted through interaction between teacher–textbook units and students.

According to Allwright (1984), there are three outcomes of classroom interaction that are related to learning. The first is receptivity, a term from Stevick (1976) and strongly related to the concept of learning community, which refers to a positive socio-emotional climate resulted from classroom interaction, in which students are willing to engage so that successful acquisition can happen. The second outcome is labelled practice opportunities which includes opportunities to practice both learning targets and learning strategies. The third one is input which includes all utterances in classroom interaction in the form of language samples and guidance, with guidance further consisting of explanations of target language, clues to draw attention to target language features and feedback.

The classroom interaction outcomes proposed by Allwright (1984) have been echoed by research on second language acquisition and studies in teaching practice. From a language

acquisition perspective, the three outcomes proposed by Allwright (1984) echo findings from studies on instructed second language acquisition (ISLA). The first outcome on socio-emotional classroom climate is also a major concern of ISLA research on learner difference. For example, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) proposed a set of motivational strategies for motivating students, many of which are related to social relationships in classrooms and socio-emotional climate of classrooms. For example, they suggest that teachers "[c]reate a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom" and "[d]evelop a good relationship with the learners" (p. 215). The second outcome is related to a variety of ISLA hypotheses towards practice in L2 learning. One example is Skill Acquisition Theory (DeKeyser, 2007) which emphasises that it is through practice that learners' declarative knowledge becomes proceduralised and automised. The third outcome Allwright suggested may well be summarised as explicit instruction in ISLA terminology. Norris and Ortega (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of 49 ISLA research studies and concluded that explicit instruction was both effective and durable in terms of learning outcomes. An influential theoretical justification is Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis that learners need to be aware of the linguistic forms before they acquire them (Schmidt, 1990, 1995).

Suggestions on good classroom teaching practice have also aligned with Allwright's (1984) ideas on effective classroom interaction related to learning (e.g. Danielson, 2007; Rosenshine, 2012). Based on research in cognitive science, research on master teachers "whose classrooms made the highest gains on achievement tests" (p. 12), and research on cognitive support, Rosenshine (2012) proposed a list of principles for effective instruction. Among them, giving clear instructions and explanations, asking a large amount of questions, and providing temporary scaffolds in classrooms are particularly relevant to teachers' classroom interaction with students. According to Rosenshine (2012), clear instructions and explanations provide the necessary instructional support; a large number of questions allow teachers to understand how well teaching materials have been learnt and identify student needs in learning; temporary scaffolds assist students in accomplishing difficult tasks; all three principles contribute to effective classroom instruction and in turn lead to students' learning. Drawing on theoretical and empirical studies on teaching, Danielson (2007) proposed a framework for four domains of teaching responsibility, two of which are most relevant to classroom interaction: the classroom environment and instruction. The good practices Danielson (2007) suggested in the instruction domain echo Rosenshine (2012) in communicating directions and procedures with students,

giving explanations, and asking questions. Within the domain of the classroom environment, Danielson (2007) further proposed creating rapport through interacting with students, managing transitions of activities in class, and engaging students as good practices of classroom instruction.

According to Allwright (1984), the three classroom interaction outcomes are co-produced by teachers and students through their co-management of classroom interaction in five aspects: turn, topic, task, tone, and code, all referring to management of interactional features:

> *Turn*-management and *topic*-management are probably familiar, with turn referring to each individual contribution, and topic referring to the content of each contribution. *Task*-management refers to the demands any one contributor may make on other participants, in terms of the mental operations required of them. … *Tone*-management refers to the important business of establishing the appropriate socio-emotional atmosphere for the interaction. … *Code*-management … refers to the management of the basic means of deliberate communication – most obviously, but not exclusively, the language itself. (p. 162)

Building on this line of inquiry, the present study explores what types of teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction are enacted by looking at the outcomes produced by the interaction between teacher–textbook units and students in classrooms. Following Allwright's (1984) understanding, teacher agency in using textbooks lies not in what pedagogical activities teachers deliver in classrooms by following or adapting textbooks, but how they use textbooks to manage classroom interaction, specifically, how teachers use textbooks to establish the socio-emotional climate of the classroom, create practice opportunities, present and explain target language knowledge and skills, draw students' attention to teaching content, give feedback, etc.

While proposing that teachers and students co-manage the turn, topic, task, tone, and code of classroom interaction to achieve the outcomes, Allwright (1984) did not provide an in-depth discussion of how these interactional domains were managed or could be managed in classrooms. However, in response to the interactional shift in understanding classroom teaching practice and pedagogy, many studies on language classroom instruction have shifted their research agenda from evaluating whether classroom interaction is authentic and communicative to understanding the structures and features of classroom interaction. In the following section,

some of these studies are reviewed to provide a more detailed account of the analytical framework guiding this study.

3.1.2 Conversation Analysis (CA) Approach to Classroom Interactional Structure

The most well-known and widely researched classroom interaction model is probably the IRF (Initiation–Response–Feedback) model first proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and elaborated in detail by Cazden (1988, 2001). Taking a function-structural linguistics perspective (Siegel & Seedhouse, 2019), the researchers examined the speech acts of classroom interaction and proposed that teachers' classroom interaction mostly consists of three moves: Initiation–Response–Feedback. In most free conversations, turn-taking is managed cooperatively by all participants according to socially agreed rules by which any participant can select the next speaker or self-select (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974). In contrast, the classroom interaction as an institutional interaction has its unique system of turn management. The IRF model describes the most prevalent and easily recognised interactional pattern in classroom interaction: The teacher initiates interaction, students give responses, and then the teacher gives feedback. While the model has described the structure of most classroom interaction and helped researchers and practitioners better approach the phenomenon (e.g. Hall, 1998; Mehan, 1979a; Nystrand, 1997; Wells, 1993), it has been pointed out by later researchers that classroom interaction is much more complex than what the model suggests. For example, Cazden (1988, 2001) showed that there are structures other than IRF in classroom interaction. Lee (2006, 2007, 2008) also showed that even within the IRF structure, the teacher's initiation and feedback can have various functions.

Drawing on Levinson's (1983) criticism of the Discourse Analysis approach as simplifying the form–meaning–function relationship and overlooking contextual factors, Seedhouse (1996) conducted Conversation Analysis of classroom interaction extracts from four datasets: (1) seven teachers' complete L2 lessons in Norwegian schools, (2) L2 lesson extracts from published and unpublished sources, (3) 16 L2 lessons in four different European countries, and (4) a French lesson in a British college and an EFL lesson in a British university. He demonstrated that IRF sequences can perform different interactional work within different contexts and not all classroom interaction is of typical IRF sequences. By matching the interactional structures with pedagogical purposes and analysing turn management and topic development, Seedhouse (1996) identified six L2 classroom contexts from his datasets: "Form-

and-Accuracy Context", "Meaning-and-Fluency Context", "Task-Oriented Context", "'Real-World Target Speech Community' Context", "Text-Based Context", and "Procedural Context" (pp. 127, 128, 131, 132, 133, 134). Using CA, Seedhouse (1996) described each context's turn-taking sequence and the organisation of repair, and demonstrated that each context had a particular pedagogical purpose and a distinctive interactional structure. Understanding and analysing classroom interaction adopting the CA institutional-discourse approach helps unpack the complex and dynamic interactional work teachers conduct in order to achieve diverse pedagogical purposes (Seedhouse, 2004).

Taking a similar position towards understanding and analysing classroom interaction, Walsh (2006) studied L2 classroom interaction and identified a range of classroom modes with the aim of building an initial framework for describing and understanding language classroom interaction. A classroom mode refers to "an L2 classroom microcontext that has a clearly defined pedagogical goal and distinctive interactional features determined largely by a teacher's use of language" (Walsh, 2006, pp. 62-63). Based on the analysis of 14 university EFL lessons, Walsh (2006) identified four patterns of turn-taking and termed these four patterns classroom modes, including: "managerial mode, classroom context mode, skills and systems mode, materials mode" (p. 64). The four modes are similar to the six classroom contexts proposed by Seedhouse (1996) in their aims of capturing and categorising different interactional structures in relation to pedagogical purposes in L2 classrooms. In the subsequent analysis of the data, Walsh (2006) showed that when teacher talk was mode convergent as it aligned with pedagogic goals, it facilitated learning opportunities; otherwise, it hindered learning opportunities. Based on the analysis, Walsh (2006) proposed the concept of "classroom interactional competence (CIC)", defined as "teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning" (p. 132). In a later study, Walsh (2011) further elaborated CIC and proposed strategies that teachers and students can adopt to facilitate learning, such as "make appropriate responses 'in the moment', seek and offer clarification, demonstrate understandings, afford opportunities for participation, negotiate meanings, and so on" (p. 177).

Both Seedhouse's (1996, 2004) framework of classroom contexts and Walsh's (2006, 2011) framework of classroom modes and CIC have helped us better understand the interactional structure in ELT language classroom instruction and demonstrated how interaction can be better managed to facilitate learning. Moreover, they showed how CA as a method could describe and

interpret the relationship between pedagogical purposes and interactional structures from the perspective of sequential organisation and repair. However, these two frameworks have limitations that would seriously restrict our understanding of how teachers use textbooks in classrooms.

The first limitation is fundamental. Both frameworks focused on teacher–student interaction, but marginalise the use of teaching materials. The researchers did not regard teaching materials as an active contributor to classroom interaction. This is probably the reason that both researchers identified interaction involving texts as a separate context or mode parallel to other contexts or modes. However, in the present study's research context, teaching materials such as textbooks are pervasively used and play a significant role in classroom interaction, as discussed in Chapter 2. Therefore, it is insufficient if we do not consider textbooks' participation in classroom interaction in relation to classroom pedagogy and learning. From the perspective of CIC, it would also be inadequate to interpret teachers' CIC without the understanding of how they interact with teaching materials.

Secondly, the two frameworks' treatment of classroom interaction has been limited to teacher talk and student talk. However, this study would argue that codes other than language also contribute to classroom interaction and the achievement of pedagogical purposes. The significance of non-verbal elements in social interaction has long been recognised by researchers (e.g. Goffman, 1963; Gumperz, 1982; Kendon, 2004; Goodwin, 2000). With the aim of fully understanding how textbooks are used by teachers in classrooms, the present study considers teachers' actions in classrooms, particularly their embodied interaction with textbooks, a significant contributing factor to classroom instruction.

Thirdly, while CA allows the analysis of how teachers manage turn, topic, and task, the two frameworks have greatly overlooked how they manage tone in Allwright's (1984) terminology. This then leaves an important contributing factor of classroom interaction to learning, the socio-emotional climate of classrooms, largely unaddressed. However, research from psychological and educational perspectives have shown that classroom atmosphere greatly impacts students' engagement and participation (e.g. Fraser, 1986, 2011; Patrick et al., 2007; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). To account for this key factor, this study advocates an investigation into how classroom interaction between teacher–textbook units and students contributes to classroom atmosphere or climate.

Due to these limitations, it is inadequate to apply the existing frameworks to the understanding of teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction. Nor is it suitable to use CA in analysing classroom interaction to achieve a full picture of teacher agency in using textbooks, considering that CA primarily focuses on interactional structure within interaction, but pays no attention to the wider sociocultural context. In order to examine whether and how teachers' textbook use in classrooms contributes to classroom atmosphere, this study advocates for the use of the IS approach in analysing classroom interaction data.

3.2 Interactional Sociolinguistics (IS) Approach to Classroom Interaction

IS is "a qualitative, interpretative approach to the analysis of the language of real interaction in the context of social relationships" (Gordon & Tannen, 2021, p. 181). IS as a methodology of studying interaction traces back to Gumperz, and draws on works of Goffman (Angouri, 2018; Schiffrin, 1994). With its origin in linguistic anthropology and sociology, IS takes the view that language use is a way of not only "conforming to norms of appropriateness, but is a way of conveying information about values, beliefs and attitudes" (Gumperz, 1982, p. 27). One major goal of IS is to explain "how people integrate social knowledge in interaction" (Gumperz, 1977, p.193).

IS shares with CA in its ethnomethodological root and understands interaction as structured and co-constructed by interactants. Therefore, an IS approach allows the researcher to employ CA tools such as turn organisation, repair, etc. to understand the interaction. However, IS is different from CA in how it treats context. While CA focuses on what happens within interaction, IS focuses on the relationship between interaction and context (Angouri, 2018). IS holds the conviction that interaction is situated in context and at the same time creates the context (Gordon & Tannen, 2021). It enables the researcher to understand how people integrate their social knowledge into their interaction and how their interaction creates social relationships and identities. In this way, it complements the CA approach in helping the present study to understand whether and how the interaction between teacher–textbook units and students contributes to the creation of social relationships between teachers and students.

IS as a methodological approach interprets how speakers mobilise linguistic variables, such as language codes, phonetic variants, prosodic options, etc., to assess the situated intent so that they can interpret, negotiate, and co-create interaction (Gumperz, 1982). In the interpretation process, contextualisation cues play a vital role.

> Roughly speaking, a contextualization cue is any feature of linguistic form that contributes to the signalling of contextual presuppositions. Such cues may have a number of such linguistic realizations depending on the historically given linguistic repertoire of the participants. The code, dialect and style switching processes, some of the prosodic phenomena we have discussed as well as choice among lexical and syntactic options, formulaic expressions, conversational openings, closings and sequencing strategies can all have similar contextualizing functions. Although such cues carry information, meanings are conveyed as part of the interactive process. (Gumperz, 1982, p.131)

The inferencing conventions of contextualisation cues are established by speakers through their prolonged interaction, and once established, they become the resources that speakers can mobilise to facilitate communication. This study views the participating classrooms as established institutionalised settings considering the fact that the experienced teachers and university-level students were well acquainted with classroom instructional settings and had engaged with each other in classroom interaction for at least one term when the data were collected. Thus, contextualisation cues should have already established among these participants and the investigation into them would reveal the reality of teacher–textbook interaction and the interaction between teacher–textbook units and students.

3.2.1 Embodied and Emplaced Cues

Contextualisation cues are not exclusively linguistic forms, but include other non-verbal cues as well. Although Gumperz (1982) referred to linguistic forms when defining contextualisation cues and focused on verbal cues in his analysis, he did not exclude non-verbal contextualisation cues. In fact, the definition of contextualisation cues was later expanded to include non-verbal cues by IS researchers. For example, Schiffrin (1995) defined contextualisation cues as "aspects of language and behavior (verbal and nonverbal signs) that relate what is said to *contextual presuppositions*" (p. 313). Non-verbal cues' contribution to human interaction was included by many IS researchers in their studies on human interaction though not as an essential focus (e.g. Tannen, 2005). It also been studied by researchers focusing exclusively on gestures (e.g. Kendon, 2004) though not as contextualisation cues from an IS perspective.

Concerning non-verbal cues in human interaction, one body of research particularly pertinent to the present study is studies on material surround, such as physical objects or graphics

in the environment, and objects as situated resources in human interaction, such as how people use objects to interact with others. Arguing against the usual separation of language from other resources and the treatment of everything apart from language as context, Goodwin (2000) analysed two sets of video-recorded data, one of which is girls playing hopscotch and the other is archaeologists classifying colours, and demonstrated how talk, human bodies, and material surround were simultaneously employed by interactants to construct action. For example, when the two girls playing hopscotch disagreed with each other, one girl (the actor) used verbal means to express the disagreement: She called the other girl (the recipient) "cheater"; used a contrastive language structure to show the dispute; put stress on the two numbers they were disputing on when expressing disagreement. While verbally expressing herself, the actor also employed the frame of embodied actions to communicate the disagreement. She walked towards the recipient to discontinue her movement, leant towards the recipient, and used her hand to gesture the two disputed numbers in front of the recipient's line of sight. However, the recipient shifted her gaze away from the actor and looked at the grid on the ground. When this happened, the actor accordingly stopped the employment of her body and hand, and shifted to the employment of her foot and the grid on the ground to communicate the dispute. Exploiting the deictic meaning achieved by her foot stomping on a specific square in the grid, the actor also employed the materiality of the hopscotch grid to achieve her communicative goal at the particular moment.

The analysis shed light on some important points for this study's approach to contextualisation cues. Firstly, human interaction is achieved through the juxtaposition of various types of semiotic resources, and the human body became the site at which different semiotic resources display and construct social actions. Meanings can be created and interpreted through not only speech, but also bodily actions. When teachers interact with textbooks and students in classrooms, their actions are not secondary to talk, but constitute participation frameworks that deserve as much attention as the language system. Secondly, as Goodwin (2000) explained, human actions are organised through reflexive awareness. As illustrated in the hopscotch example, one girl's actions were constructed depending on her analysis of the recipient's orientation in situ. Similarly, in classroom interaction, teachers' actions oriented towards textbooks would impact how students interpret the interaction and enact their actions. Thirdly, the material objects like the hopscotch grid on the ground are semiotic resources that interactants utilise to construct action. Similarly, the textbook, as one of the most conspicuous

objects in the material surround, constitutes a semiotic resource whose materiality teachers can draw on at different points during the process. This study echoes Goodwin's (2000) proposal that the analytical task is to describe both what resources are employed by interactants in an event and how the interactants' choices structure the event.

Goodwin (2000) used "embodiment" in his analysis of situated human interaction to refer to visible actions of the human body and his study has been considered one of the studies that started the "embodied turn" in social interaction research (Nevile, 2015). However, the use of the term *embodied actions* or *embodiment* is not universal among researchers. On the one hand, researchers studying the same phenomenon use different terminologies such as non-verbal, multimodal, or embodied when addressing the relation between language and other resources (e.g. Mondada, 2014; Nevile, 2015). On the other hand, the term *embodied actions* or *embodiment* has been used by researchers to include different types of actions of the body. For example, while some researchers use the term to distinguish those bodily resources from verbal resources (e.g. Haddington et al., 2012), others consider it as encompassing of all resources as human interaction is embodied in nature (e.g. Hazel et al., 2014). In order to both analytically prioritise embodied interaction which has been largely overlooked in classroom interaction research and enable investigations into the coordination between and contextual configuration of teacher talk and teacher actions, this study follows social interaction studies which distinguish embodied interaction from verbal interaction (e.g. Haddington et al., 2012; Haddington et al., 2013; Mondada, 2007; Streeck et al., 2011). It understands embodied cues as visible, but not audible, actions displayed by the human body and engaging other human participants or material surround. Therefore, in the present study, embodied cues cover resources brought into interaction by the human body such as "gestures, facial expressions, gaze, head movements, body movements, postures" (Mondada, 2014, p. 138).

Another type of contexualisation cue that is closely related to participants' embodied actions, particularly their bodily movements and postures, is how they position themselves towards each other and in relation to physical artefacts in the material space through these actions. As also shown by the hopscotch example, the two girls' postural orientation in relation to the space created by the grid on the ground contributes to the organisation of the interactional event. The grid on the ground, according to Goodwin (2000), built lived spaces in which participants can move through and within and established a structure that can be mobilised by

participants through their bodily movements to create and make sense of meaning. Although not explicitly stated, Goodwin's (2000) analysis has shown that human actions are emplaced. This is also the case with many multimodal interaction studies. Although the term *emplaced* was not used, many of these studies have examined how the relative positioning of participants in material space contributes to interaction (e.g. Day & Rasmussen, 2019; De Stefani, 2019; Goodwin & Goodwin, 2004; Mondada, 2012, 2013). Proposing and employing a "topographies of practices" framework which views workplace practices as spatiolinguistic and which brings together situated encounters and ideologies, Angouri and Humonen (2023) have shown that human interaction is emplaced. By analysing the interactional data in a professional and multilingual kitchen in Finland, they showed recurrent spatial patterns in staff's positioning in the material space and their language practice, either Finnish which is the dominant language or English which is mainly used by migrants. Through these emplaced interaction, the kitchen staff enacted spatial and social inclusion and exclusion and negotiated their professional roles. The present study views classrooms as a semiotic resource and an institutional setting that similarly contributes to progression of interaction and negotiation of power and roles. Therefore, the analysis also focuses on emplaced cues that teachers mobilise to interact with students. In this study's context, teachers' emplaced cues refer to their ways of placing themselves in relation to students and textbooks in classrooms through embodied actions such as postures, bodily movements, etc.

Taking the IS approach, this study uses contextualisation cues (verbal, prosodic, embodied, and emplaced) involved in teachers' textbook use as an analytical tool. Specifically, this study looks for patterns in classroom interaction to investigate what kind of teacher–textbook mediation produces these contextualisation cues, and then interprets how these cues work on classroom interaction and social relationships in classrooms (the procedure is further explained in 4.5.3 in Chapter 4). This approach allows the present study to look into not only teachers' interaction with textbooks through verbal means, but also their interaction with textbooks, particularly textbook materiality, through non-verbal means. Moreover, the approach enables the analysis to both focus on and go beyond classroom interaction per se, to examine how the interaction affects the power dynamics in the classroom and works on the social relationship between teachers and students.

3.3 Conclusion

Building on my argument in Chapter 2 that analysing interaction between teacher–textbook units and students and interaction within teacher–textbook units in situ uncovers mediated teacher agency in using textbooks, I have positioned my research within the field of classroom interaction in this chapter to further explain the rationale and elaborate on the analytical approach. Beginning with an acknowledgement of classroom interaction's central role in language teaching and learning, I have reviewed the conceptualisation of classroom interaction as classroom pedagogy and further elaborated on the understanding of effective classroom textbook use as contributing to effective classroom interaction and instruction. I have then briefly reviewed the shift from understanding classroom interactional structure as IRF to a much more nuanced understanding through CA. Reviewing two CA models of classroom interactional structure, I have highlighted their limitations in understanding the present study context and argued for a refined understanding of textbook roles in classroom interaction and a detailed analysis of not only teacher talk but also teacher actions, not only interactional patterns but also social relationships. To this end, I then propose and argue for adopting IS as this study's analytical approach.

In Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, I have reviewed relevant theoretical and empirical studies to explain the research focus of this study, key concepts, and the analytical focus and lens. In the next chapter, I present a detailed account of my methodological choices and their underpinning rationale.

Chapter 4 Methodology

Chapter 2 has explained this study's research focus on teacher agency, its sociocultural stance towards a participatory teacher–textbook interrelationship and mediated teacher agency as enacted in actions, and its understanding of textbook use effects as impacts on classroom interaction. Chapter 3 has discussed the rationale for taking IS as the analytical approach and using contextualisation cues as the tool to understand interaction between teacher–textbook units and students and interaction within teacher–textbook units. This chapter proceeds to describe the research design, and explain the rationale behind the methodological decisions I made. I begin with the specific research context to provide clearer grounding for the present study. Subsequently, I discuss the research paradigm in which the present study is situated, outlining my ontological and epistemological positioning, discussing how ethnographic studies taking a social constructivist perspective have informed my methodological choices, and explaining how I conceptualise reflexivity and generalisation within this paradigm. I then give a detailed description of the data collection and analysis methods and procedures, and conclude the chapter with ethical considerations and measures taken.

4.1 Research Context

4.1.1 English Courses in Chinese Universities

My study examines Chinese university ELT teachers' use of textbooks in classroom instruction. In China, nearly all universities offer compulsory English Courses to first-year (and very often second-year) non-English major students. In the majority of universities, the course is skill-based, consisting of courses in reading and writing, and listening and speaking. In some universities, both courses are offered in a face-to-face mode. In some other universities, the Reading & Writing Course is delivered face-to-face, and the Listening & Speaking Course is completed by students on a self-study online platform. Since the research aim is to understand the multifaceted interrelationships between teachers and textbooks, this study focuses on courses delivered by teachers, but not self-studies courses on an online learning platform.

The courses for English major students are different as the curricula for English major students are more sophisticated in terms of components and time durations. Skill-based English courses usually comprise only a part of the curricula, and are often offered to students in their

first and second years of study. They are often single-skill courses, for example, Intensive Reading Course, Extensive Reading Course, Writing Course, Listening Course, Speaking Course, and Translation Course. Apart from skill-based courses, there are other courses usually offered at third and fourth years of study to introduce students to more theoretical and disciplinary knowledge. Depending on different pathways students take, they may be offered different courses at the advanced stage, such as Second Language Acquisition for the ELT pathway, Introduction to Translation Studies for the Translation and Interpreting pathway, and Business English Communication for the Business English pathway. Since this study is interested in how teachers use ELT textbooks to teach in classroom, only teachers of skill-based courses for English majors were approached when recruiting participants.

4.1.2 Use of Commercially Published Textbooks

For English courses for non-English majors, commercially published textbooks are used by teachers for classroom instruction, and it is usually universities or departments instead of individual teachers who decide on what textbook series to adopt for the courses. The academic year in Chinese university has two terms, the spring term and the autumn term. One level of a textbook series will be used in one term for each course. Depending on the number of terms English courses are offered in a university and students' average language proficiency levels in that university, the university may adopt different levels of a textbook series. This means some universities will start from Level 1 of a textbook series, but other universities may start from Level 2 or Level 3, even though they may adopt the same textbook series. Due to limited course delivery time, teachers often cannot finish teaching all the units in one textbook level in one term. In this case, teachers teaching the same course in a university will usually work together to agree on how many units and which units are to be taught in each academic term, and sometimes to agree on what content in each unit is to be taught.

The situation regarding skill-based courses for English majors is different in terms of textbook adoption. Teachers have more flexibility and autonomy in choosing textbooks for these courses, and sometimes, they may choose not to adopt any single textbook, but use materials from various resources or their self-compiled materials. If a commercially published textbook series is adopted for a course, individual teachers usually have the autonomy to use the textbook content selectively.

If a commercially published textbook is used for classroom instruction, students usually have their own textbooks they bring to class, regardless of whether the course is for non-English majors or English majors. Apart from using print textbooks, the majority of teachers use PPT slides in classrooms. Publishers usually provide PPT slides that accompany print textbooks so that teachers can use them to display teaching content in classrooms. The slides usually allow easy editing, so sometimes teachers may make adjustments, particularly to add new materials. In most classrooms, there is a computer on the teacher's desk on a platform at the front of the classroom. Teachers can use the computer to manipulate slides displayed on a big screen on the front wall of the classroom for students to view. In some universities, English courses are delivered in specially equipped language labs. In these language labs, apart from a big display screen in the front of the classroom, each student has a computer in front of them, displaying the same content as that on the teacher computer and the big screen. Therefore, teachers may interact with print textbooks, PPT slides on teacher computers, or PPT slides displayed on display screens when they use textbooks to instruct students. Students, on the other hand, may view textbook materials through looking at print textbooks, display screens, or computers in front of them.

4.1.3 Online Mode of English Course Delivery

When the pandemic broke out in 2020, university students were on winter holiday and staying at home. When the new term started, students were unable to go back to campus. Universities started with all courses, including English courses, delivered in an emergency online mode and all students attending classes from home. At that time, there was no pre-designed online teaching platform for English Courses, so teachers and students used Tencent Meeting, a platform designed for long-distance meetings. Similar to many other online meeting platforms, Tencent Meeting platform allows participants to view each other if cameras are turned on, hear each other if microphones are turned on, share screen, send files, and chat in the chat box.

Various challenges for the emergency online teaching arose. Two major ones are that most teachers had to teach in online classrooms where students were not on camera, and where the majority of students had no print textbooks at hand. Cameras were kept off during classes due to Internet speed. Teachers could not know the environment in which students were in during classes and could not perceive students' reactions to instruction unless they were called on to give feedback or answer questions, either using the microphone or typing in the chat box.

Because the new term began with students studying from home, students had no access to print textbooks. To solve the second problem, teachers would share scanned textbook pages on the computer screen when delivering the course, or they would share PPT slides on the computer screen to display teaching content.

4.2 Research Paradigm

The present study distinguishes how textbooks are actually used in classrooms from how textbooks are compiled and presented and how teachers perceive and interpret textbooks and plan textbook use. In this sense, situated textbook use is distinguished from prescribed textbook use and intended textbook use, and it is the context-specific, situated use of textbooks that constitutes the primary focus of this study. Taking a social constructivist positioning to knowledge, this study sees reality as neither objective nor mental, but social and interactive (Berger & Luckman, 1967; Knoblauch, 2020; Pfadenhauer, 2019). It aims to understand teacher agency and the teacher–textbook interrelationship through studying teachers' practices of using textbooks in context. Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 have discussed how sociocultural theory and IS, both of which situate in the social constructivist paradigm, have informed this study's conceptualisation and understanding of research focus and analytical lens. This section mainly explains how the overall research design has been informed by ethnographic research adopting a social constructivist approach.

4.2.1 Ethnography Informed Approach

Epistemologically, ethnographic research values natural data occurring in its original context (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2019). Aligning with this epistemological positioning, this study takes teachers' in-situ actions of using textbooks as the primary analytical focus and collected natural classroom data through video-recording. To achieve this, this study ensures that the classroom data collected remain as complete and unaltered as possible by taking the participatory approach (Holmes and Stubbe, 2015; Angouri, 2018) and an appreciative inquiry perspective (Angouri, 2018). Following the tradition of participatory research, I was not present in classrooms when data was collected, and recording was conducted by participating teachers themselves. The teachers were also given the autonomy to decide on which lessons and/or which part of a lesson to record. These measures ensured that data was collected in its most naturally occurring state. Besides, they enabled the researcher to draw on teachers' insider views and expert knowledge. As teachers themselves decided which lessons and which parts of a particular

lesson to record, this helped avoid the lessons or sections that teachers themselves felt uncertain about and instead encouraged them to identify the kind of good practice this study is interested in. Taking an appreciative inquiry perspective which advocates that inquiry into an organisation's or institution's potential should start with appreciation and discovery should be the first step to any positive changes and development (Cooperrider & Srivastva, 1987; Cooperrider et al., 2008), this study believes that identifying good teaching practice is crucial to our understanding of teacher agency in using textbooks for effective instruction (see also Smith et al. (2017; 2021) on the value of an "enhancement approach" to (research for) teacher development). To achieve the aim of identifying good practice, apart from building on participants' insider knowledge and perceptions of good practice when collecting data, I also specifically approached *expert teachers* when recruiting participants. Expert teachers can be expected to demonstrate good practice in how they respond to their teaching contexts and accomplish the teaching tasks (Tsui, 2003). Their ways of teaching can function as models from which other teachers, particularly novice teachers, can learn. Following Tsui (2003) in using a combination of criteria to identify expert teachers, I identified expert teachers in my research context as those experienced teachers who worked as teacher trainers, presented demo lessons, won national teaching awards or competitions, or were accredited by their universities. The recruitment approach ensured access to good practice, while enabling me to examine data in its natural state.

Methodologically, ethnographic research within a social constructivist paradigm favours a non-interventionist and unstructured data collection method over experimental methods and structured interviews, and features observation as the principal means of data collection (Bow, 2002; Hammersley & Atkinson, 2019; Williamson, 2006). This will ensure no preconceived assumptions of analytical and interpretative units and thus maximise an insider view. It usually focuses on small-scale cases to ensure in-depth investigation into the meaning and functions of human action (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2019). Guided by this methodological orientation, the present study adopted a qualitative approach to a small-scale dataset in order to facilitate an in-depth investigation. Video-recordings of natural classroom instruction were collected to facilitate sustained and repeated engagement with the data and enable a detailed line-to-line analysis of classroom interaction. In this way, classroom observations in the most detailed manner were conducted.

Ethnographic research usually takes an exploratory orientation, starting with "foreshadowed problems" (Malinowski, 1922), but refining research questions as the investigation into the situation deepens. According to Hammersley and Atkinson (2019), a lack of prior research on a phenomenon or process could be a common starting point for ethnographic studies. This is the case with the present study where I saw the limited recognition of teacher agency in textbook use and a lack of invetigation into how ELT teachers actually use textbooks in classrooms. Taking this positioning and considering the current lack of knowledge, this study started with a broad research aim of understanding Chinese university ELT teacher agency in textbook use, with no pre-defined research questions. While the research aim and ontological and epistemological positioning guided me to make the methodological choices of data collection and data analysis, the research questions were developed out of my repeated immersion in the data. This enabled me to pinpoint the research questions through immersing in the natural data and guaranteed the core issues of the data be addressed during the process of meaning-making.

Having explained the ontological and epistemological positioning taken by this study and how it informed the research design and methodological choices, I now turn to two key issues often related to qualitative research design, reflexivity and generalisation, and explain how I understand and address them in my research design.

4.2.2 Reflexivity

Reflexivity in qualitative research is "the acknowledgement of the researcher's own subjectivity, maintained throughout the research project" (McKinley, 2020, p. 4). According to Hammersley and Atkinson (2019), it is inevitable that researchers rely on their existing knowledge when conducting research and it is unavoidable that their presence affect people and phenomena being studied. Following Hammersley and Atkinson (2019), I see my presence as an integral part of the study. Rather than denying or trying to eliminate the impact of the researcher's presence, I tried to understand how my presence would affect the study and took conscious efforts to address the issue in the course of making research-related decisions.

I had worked in the ELT textbook publishing for Chinese universities for 14 years before working on the present project. The 14 years' working experience allowed me to understand the research context, which facilitated my decision-making in the research process. In particular, my understanding of the research context guided me in participant recruitment. First, it facilitated me in pinpointing English courses that are representative of ELT in Chinese universities (4.1.1) and

that involve the most use of commercially published ELT textbooks (4.1.2). Second, it provided me the knowledge that Chinese universities are categorised into different tiers. Students from universities of different tiers usually have different levels of English language proficiency and their goals of learning English are generally different (4.2.3 and 4.3.2). Third, my working experience also enabled me to understand how teacher expertise is recognised in the context (4.2.1 and 4.3.1.1), which helped me to identify expert teachers as potential participants. The insider view I held was drawn on to determine the criteria for recruiting teachers so that the research settings of the present study can be diversified and at the same time representative of the research context.

Moreover, my working experience as an ELT textbook editor provided me the opportunity to understand both the textbook publishing industry and textbook use in a majority of university classrooms. My understanding then influenced my decision on research object(s). I was aware that PPT slides that contain textbook content, though not a standard component of textbook packages, are provided to teachers by publishers, and many teachers heavily rely on these slides for classroom instruction. The knowledge then prompted me to include both print textbooks and PPT slides in the analysis when examining how teachers use textbooks.

My working experience also provided me the knowledge of institutional cultures of many universities, which then informed my communication with participating teachers. Many universities carry out classroom observations as a way to evaluate teachers. A lesson being recorded is very likely to be taken by students as evaluation being conducted of their teachers, so students may act differently. There is also the practice of novice teachers sitting in experienced teachers' classrooms as a way to develop their teaching proficiency in many universities. If teachers know their lessons will be recorded and viewed by others, they tend to engage in more thorough preparation and may deliver lessons in a manner that differs from their usual practice. Therefore, one important point I emphasised to teachers when having preparatory discussions with them and also to students when paying preparatory visits to classrooms is that the study involved no evaluation of teachers' performance. Thus, the research aim was not to evaluate individual teachers' textbook practice as effective or not, but to investigate the teacher–textbook interrelationship in its natural state through examining expert teachers' everyday teaching practice. Nevertheless, the data were collected from expert teachers' classrooms and the analysis focused on classroom interaction where there was no major interactional disruption. Taking this

approach, the study was able to provide a non-judgmental, descriptive account of these teachers' textbook use practice, but at the same time link micro-level interactional details to broader instructional effectiveness. Collecting data from expert teachers' classrooms enabled the study to assume teachers' expertise in effective instruction, instead of the researcher imposing external evaluation of the teachers' instructional practice. I also paid special attention to avoid imposing external interpretation when selecting TREs for analysis. For this, I relied on sequential evidence observable in the interaction, such as students' uptake and teachers' turn-by-turn interactional decisions. In this way, I was able to minimise any external evaluation but maximise insider views and knowledge.

Acknowledging it is inevitable that my knowledge and action will affect the study in various ways, I explored ways during the process to utilise my knowledge and experience to make research decisions and to minimise the impact my actions would bring to the natural state of teachers using textbooks in classrooms.

4.2.3 Generalisation

One question that researchers taking an ethnography approach have been repeatedly asked regards the generalisation of the findings (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2019). Instead of denying generalisation as the aim of ethnographic research (e.g. Abu-Lughod, 2014; Lincoln & Guba, 1985), I see the present study as engaging in empirical generalisation, which concerns a study's general relevance instead of the generalisability of its theoretical inferences (Hammersley, 1992). According to Hammersley (1992), "generalisation from a study of a single case (or a small number of cases) to a larger population is a legitimate means of making ethnographic findings generally relevant" (p. 91), and can be achieved through (a)typicality of the particular settings being studied. Taking this perspective, I have made an effort to achieve representativeness of the data so that the findings can be of general relevance. Accordingly, by "representativeness" here, I mean the extent to which the contexts in which the data are collected are reflective of typical and diversified university types in the Chinese context. Therefore, the findings can be of relevance to different types of Chinese universities. Towards this end, a set of strategies were employed.

Following Glaser and Strauss's (1999) complementary strategies of sampling to ensure the representativeness of participants, this study tried to first minimise the differences among the participant teachers and then maximise the difference among them when recruiting participants.

Through approaching expert and experienced university teachers of skill-based English courses, I minimised the differences among participant teachers in terms of the basic properties relevant to the research aim and analysis, that is, teachers with extensive experience of using textbooks and with recognised expertise in teaching. In order to increase the density of the data, I kept checking if the participants recruited could represent the diversity of the teacher categories in the Chinese university context. Following Lofland et al.'s (2006) distinction between member-identified categories and observer-identified categories and how the two categories interact with each other during the process, I drew on my experience of working in the university ELT context and working with over 1,000 universities in China and identified three important distinctions that need to be considered in terms of how teachers understand the categories of their own identity, in order to achieve a better representation of the target population. The first one is the broader distinction between English major teachers and non-English major teachers. The second one is related to different types of universities in terms of the academic disciplines they specialised in. The third one is a criterion relating to academic/practical orientation or academic excellence that is used to categorise universities in China. In China, universities are categorised into first-tier, second-tier, and third-tier universities. The first-tier universities are research oriented and admit students who achieve highest scores on the national university entrance examination; the third-tier universities are practice oriented and their students usually have low scores on the entrance examination; the second-tier universities are those in-between. To achieve the diversity of teacher categories and representativeness of the context, I recruited participants teaching both non-English majors and English majors, and from a comprehensive university, a polytechnic, a medical school, and a teacher training college. Besides, these four universities include universities from three tiers. This is not to say that the resulting research settings encompass all types of universities, but the aim was to enhance representativeness by recruiting teachers from different types of universities.

The second strategy to promote generalisation following enthnographic tradition is to take a recurrent mode of collecting data (Jeffrey & Troman, 2004). To achieve a systematic coverage of participant teachers using textbooks, this study recorded at least one unit of each teacher's instruction. This allowed one full cycle of each teacher's textbook use to be observed and analysed. For two participant teachers, multiple units (3 units and 5 units respectively) were recorded, which further enabled comparison between different units in these two teachers'

datasets.

Through the above strategies, the present research aims to promote the general relevance of the findings to researchers and practitioners in the ELT context in Chinese universities.

4.3 Research Design

The previous section explained how ethnography has informed my research design, particularly in terms of how I understand the research context and approach data. In this section, I will describe in detail this study's research design, explaining the data collection and data analysis methods and procedures.

4.3.1 Data Collection

4.3.1.1 Participant Recruitment (First Round). In order to understand how ELT textbooks are actually used by Chinese university teachers, this study utilises video-recording of natural classroom interaction data as the data source. In particular, video recording allows me to observe teachers' verbal and embodied interaction with textbooks and students, which is unattainable through self-report data. On the one hand, it provides a linear presentation of textbook use, which allows me to understand not only what is happening, but also how one action leads to the other. On the other hand, the video-recording enables me to gain access to the physical settings in which textbook use happens. Both the linear presentation of actions and the presentation of physical environments provide me a better understanding of the textbook use practice, as it allows me to view the classroom interaction from a participating perspective.

To obtain the video-recorded classroom interaction data, I utilised convenience sampling and self-selection (Bryman, 2016; Creswell & Creswell, 2018) to recruit participating teachers. I first identified *expert teachers* from my acquainted university ELT teachers. By *expert teachers*, I refer to teachers whose teaching has been highly recognised. For example, they have been working as teacher trainers, they have been working as demo class teachers, they have won national teaching awards, they have won university-level teaching competitions, or they have been voted by students as excellent teachers. An appreciative inquiry perspective (Angouri, 2018) which focuses on good practice in an organisation was taken by this study so that invitations were extended only to these teachers who were recognised as expert teachers. During my 14 years' professional experience of college English textbook publishing, I have made acquaintances with these teachers through organising teacher training programmes and national teaching contests.

In addition, convenience sampling was utilised because I believe an amicable relationship between the researcher and the participating teachers is crucial for the success of participant recruitment and the data collection process. The first round of data collection (of online data) was started at a time when English courses were delivered in an online emergent mode. When the courses were delivered in an online emergent mode, teachers had many first-time encountered difficulties and challenges they needed to tackle, for example, technical issues. Participating in this study would certainly add to their already heavy workload. The second round of data collection (of face-to-face data) was conducted when universities enforced restricted access policy. When universities resumed face-to-face teaching later during the data collection process, only internal staff and students were allowed on campus and in classrooms. I was thus denied access to university classrooms, and the participating teachers would need to set up the cameras and upload the recordings. Convenience sampling had helped me to approach and recruit teachers with whom I had pre-established amicable relationships, which helped ensure that recruited teachers were willing to devote their time and energy in assisting me with data collection.

When potential participating teachers were identified and approached, I followed the self-selection procedure of participant recruitment, as self-selected participation can form a solid basis for joint collaboration in participatory research due to participants' enthusiasm for the study and their willingness to invest time and energy in it (Bryman, 2016; Cohen et al., 2018). I circulated invitations to the identified teachers through phone calls and gave teachers opportunities to consider and contact me if they were interested in participating. Self-selected teacher participants interested in the project were then recruited.

The first round of participant recruitment started in the spring of 2022. After circulating the invitations to potential teachers, three teachers self-selected to be participants of this study. I then held one-on-one discussions with these three teachers about the context they were working in, including the courses they were delivering, the textbooks they were using, the students they were teaching, the platform they were using, and the units the teachers felt comfortable with video-recording, to further understand the course and the classroom. During the discussion, one teacher shared with me her concern about participating in the study. Although she was an ELT teacher of over 15 years of experience, she was at that time shifting to a new teaching position in a new university. When the data collection process began, she would be in the new position,

using a textbook she had never used to teach a course in which she had no prior teaching experience. Considering that the teacher would need extra time to prepare for her teaching, and that the present study takes an appreciative approach to examine experienced teachers' textbook use practice, we decided that no data from this teacher be used for this study. Therefore, the first round of participant recruitment resulted in two participating teachers.

4.3.1.2 Video Recording (First Round). I then conducted preparatory visits to the two online classrooms. I joined the online classrooms to socialise with the students, explaining the project to them and answering their queries about the project. I then invited students to consider their interest in participating in the study and confirm their consent for video-recording in two weeks' time if they were willing to participate. I emphasised that the study was independent of their learning and usual classroom practices, and thus either participation or non-participation would not affect their academic results. After two weeks of the preparatory visits, consent forms from all students of the two classes were received.

From April to June 2022, the online classes of the two participating teachers (T3 and T4) were recorded, resulting in video-recordings of four units taught by T3 and those of two units taught by T4. Depending on how teachers wanted to do the recording, I was either present or not present in the classrooms. T3 preferred the non-presence of the researcher in the classrooms due to her concern about the uneasiness students might experience as a result of knowing that an outsider was in the classroom. Therefore, T3 recorded her classes and then shared with me. T4 preferred the researcher to be in the classroom and take the responsibility of recording the classes. To minimise any negative feelings and impact caused by the presence of an outsider, I kept my microphone and camera off all the way through the data collection process.

4.3.1.3 Participant Recruitment (Second Round). At the end of the spring term of 2022, many universities planned to resume face-to-face teaching in the coming term in autumn. I considered it an opportunity to collect face-to-face classroom data. I then started a second round of participant recruitment during the summer holiday of 2022. Repeating the procedure taken in the first round, two more teachers were recruited for face-to-face classroom data collection. I then discussed with the two teachers about their working contexts and made arrangements for the video recording. One teacher (T1) was going to deliver the course in a multi-media classroom with a built-in camera, and the other teacher (T2) was going to deliver her classes in a classroom with no built-in cameras. Since external personnel were not allowed access to classrooms at that

time even if face-to-face teaching was to be resumed, the recording responsibilities were shouldered by the two participating teachers. Together with each teacher, we decided that T1 was going to use the built-in camera and T2 used one camera provided by me.

4.3.1.4 Video Recording (Second Round). At the beginning of the autumn term of 2022 when T1's classes resumed face-to-face mode, I conducted an online preparatory meeting with T1's students. The meeting resulted in four students asking for exemption from the study, while the remaining students expressed their willingness to participate. The angle of the camera was then adjusted so that the four students were not recorded. At the beginning of the spring term of 2023 when T2's classes resumed face-to-face mode, I conducted an online preparatory meeting with T2's students. The meeting resulted in all students expressing their interest in participating and giving their consent for video-recording.

In September 2022, face-to-face lessons of T1 delivering one unit were recorded and in April 2023, face-to-face lessons of T2 delivering one unit were recorded.

4.3.1.5 Informal Discussion. I watched every lesson immediately after it was recorded and arranged a short informal meeting with the teachers to discuss any confusions arising during the first watching and invite teachers to share any concerns related to the study or the recording. Informal meetings instead of interviews were arranged due to the participating teachers' tight schedule. During the discussions, I had the opportunity to better understand the context and to clarify any confusion about the classroom interaction, which will be further elaborated on in the data analysis section.

In the following section (4.3.2), I describe the resulting datasets for this study.

4.3.2 Collected Datasets

4.3.2.1 Participating Teachers. Two rounds of participant recruitment resulted in four participating teachers. The background information of the teacher participants when they were recruited is as follows:

Table 4-1

Background Information of Teacher Participants

Teacher	Teaching experience	Reason for being "expert teacher"	Course	Student	University	Education background
T1	14 years	Demo course teacher	Reading & Writing	non-English majors	Medical University	MA
T2	21 years	Teacher trainer & students-voted "favourite teacher"	Listening & Speaking	non-English majors	Technology University	MA
T3	17 years	Teaching competition winner in her university and later nationally awarded teacher	Reading & Writing	non-English majors	Independent College of Engineering University	MA
T4	16 years	Teaching competition winner in her university	Listening	English majors	Normal University	PhD

The table gives an overall idea of these teachers' long teaching experience and their accreditation for being *expert teachers*. All four recruited teachers were Chinese teachers of English language in universities. They were experienced university ELT teachers when they were recruited, with their English language teaching experience in Chinese universities ranging from 14 years to 21 years. There were different reasons why I identified these teachers as *expert teachers*. T1 had been acting as the demo-class teacher to record demo classes for teachers of other universities. T2 had been working as a teacher trainer for various national teacher training programmes and had been voted by students from her university as their "favourite teacher" multiple times. T3 had won teaching competitions in her university. She also received an award in a national teacher competition shortly after the data collection. T4 had also won several teaching competitions in her university. While T1, T2, and T3 held an MA degree, T4 held a PhD degree.

The table also shows the diversified contexts these teachers were working in. The universities represent a diversified profile in terms of the discipline focus. The universities these teachers worked at included a Medical University, a Technological University, an Engineering

University, and a Normal University specialising in teacher education. In terms of universities' research/practice orientation and academic excellence, the universities are also diversified, including the first-tier (T2), the second-tier (T1 and T4) and the third-tier (T3) universities, which means that the English language proficiency of students from these universities can vary greatly and they are likely to have different goals of English language learning. The profile of the courses delivered by these teachers is also diversified. T1, T2, and T3 were teaching non-English major courses, and T4 was teaching English major students. All teachers were delivering language skills courses, but their courses varied in the specific skill(s) focused on. T1 and T3 were delivering Reading and Writing courses to non-English major students, T2 was delivering a Listening and Speaking course to non-English major students, and T4 was delivering a Listening course to English major students.

4.3.2.2 Textbooks. The teachers were using different textbook series, published from 2013 to 2021. The two textbooks used for Reading and Writing courses are the Integrated Course component of two different textbook series. The two textbooks used for the Listening & Speaking course and the Listening course are the Listening and Speaking component of two different textbook series. One textbook (*New Advanced*) was compiled by Chinese ELT scholars and practitioners and published by a Chinese press, and the other two (*New Standard & Pathways*) were co-published by a Chinese press with an international publishing house. *New Standard* was compiled by a committee of native textbook writers and Chinese ELT scholars and practitioners, particularly for the Chinese market. *Pathways* was originally compiled and published for the global market, and later adapted for the Chinese market. The four textbooks used by the teachers are as follows:

Table 4-2

Textbooks Used by Participating Teachers

Teacher	Textbook	Publishing date	Design & mode
T1	*New Standard College English (2nd Edition): An Integrated Course 3,* FLTRP & Macmillan	2016	16mo (sextodecimo) size with full colour; with PPT slides and CD-ROM
T2	*New Standard College English (2nd Edition): Listening and Speaking 1*, FLTRP & Macmillan	2016	16mo size with full colour; with PPT slides and CD-ROM

T3	*New Advanced College English: Integrated Course 3*, SFLEP	2021	16mo size with full colour; with PPT slides and CD-ROM
T4	*Pathways: Listening, Speaking and Critical thinking 3*, Cengage & FLTRP	2013	16mo size with full colour; with PPT slides and CD-ROM

All four textbooks come with PPT slides that teachers can adapt and use in classroom instruction. The Integrated Course textbooks have CD-ROMs that contain the audio recordings of all the reading passages and vocabulary. That of *New Advanced* also contains video clips for pre-reading activities. The Listening and Speaking textbooks have CD-ROMs that contain audio clips and video clips.

The basic unit structures of the four textbooks are listed below. The expressions in blue are the actual headings used in the textbooks. The sections highlighted in yellow are the sections used by the teachers for classroom instruction in the first recorded unit of the datasets.

Table 4-3

Unit Structure of New Standard College English (2nd Edition): An Integrated Course 3

Active reading (1)	*Pre-reading activities*
	Reading passage 1: A reading passage of about 900 words long
	Reading and understanding *Comprehension activities on information retrievable from the passage*
	Dealing with unfamiliar words *Vocabulary activities*
	Reading and Interpreting *Reading activities requiring students to make inferences*
	Developing critical thinking *Critical thinking questions*
Talking point	*A speaking activity*
Active reading (2)	*The same structure as that of* Active reading (1)
Talking point	*A speaking activity*
Language in use	*Activities on grammar and translation*
Reading across cultures	*A passage of about 350 words on culture*
	Reading comprehension questions
	Discussion questions on Chinese culture

Guided writing	*A writing task with guiding activities*
Unit task	*A real-life task on the unit theme*
Unit file	*Lists of vocabulary and skills covered in the unit*

Table 4-4

Unit Structure of New Standard College English (2nd Edition): Listening and Speaking 1

Inside view	Conversation 1 *A short video clip of a conversation among three Oxford undergraduates with a pre-watching activity and two while-watching comprehension activities*
	Conversation 2 *A short video clip of a conversation among three Oxford undergraduates with a pre-watching activity, a while-watching comprehension activity, a matching activity of everyday English and a guided speaking activity of making a conversation*
Talking point	*A speaking activity*
Outside view	*A pre-watching activity*
	Watching and understanding *A video clip with while-watching activities*
	Developing critical thinking *Critical thinking questions*
Listening in	News report *A short news report with a while-listening activity*
	Passage 1 *A listening passage with a pre-listening activity, two while-listening activities and a set of critical thinking questions*
	Passage 2 *A listening passage with a pre-listening activity, two while-listening activities and a set of critical thinking questions*
Presentation skills	*Skills of one presentation type with guided steps of preparing a presentation*
Pronunciation	*Listen-and-repeat activities on various pronunciation skills*
Unit task	*A real-life task on the unit theme*
Unit file	*Lists of functional language and skills covered in the unit*

Table 4-5

Unit Structure of New Advanced College English: Integrated Course 3

Overview	
Part I: Pre-reading task	
Part II: Reading task	Text A *A reading passage of about 900 words long*
	Comprehension: Text analysis *Comprehension activities on text structure and organisation*
	Comprehension: Structured rewriting *Recounting the passage with the first sentence given for each paragraph*
	Comprehension: Translating / Interpreting difficult sentences *Translating sentences from the text into Chinese / Interpreting sentences from the text in students' own words*
	Comprehension: Discussion questions *Questions on both comprehension and students' own experience and reflection*
	Language sense enhancement *Memorising a paragraph from the text, appreciating a poem and quotes*
	Language focus: Vocabulary *Vocabulary activities*
	Language focus: comprehensive exercises *Cloze and translation*
Part III: Home reading task	Text B *A reading passage of about 900 words long*
	Comprehension check *A reading comprehension activity*
	Language Practice *A vocabulary activity*
Part IV: Comprehensive language practice	Viewing & comprehension practice *A video clip with comprehension activities*
	Speaking practice *A speaking activity*
	Practical writing *A writing assignment*

Table 4-6

Unit Structure of Pathways: Listening, Speaking and Critical Thinking 3

Exploring the theme	*Lead-in activities designed around illustrations*
Analytical listening	Listening 1: Before listening *A before-listening activity*
	Listening 1: Listening *A listening passage with while-listening activities*
	Listening 1: After listening *After-listening activities*
	Listening 2: Before listening *A before-listening activity*
	Listening 2: Listening *A listening passage with while-listening activities*
	Listening 2: After listening *After-listening activities*
Sharing your ideas	*A discussion activity*
Viewing the world	Before viewing *A before-viewing activity*
	While viewing *A video clip with while-viewing activities*
	After viewing *After-viewing activities*
Engaging	*A presentation task with guided activities*
Further listening	Listening 1 *A listening passage with two while-listening activities*
	Listening 2 *A listening passage with two while-listening activities*
	Listening 3 *A listening passage with a dictation activity*

All four participating teachers used textbooks selectively. T1 and T3 who taught Reading & Writing courses mainly used the first reading passage of a unit and its related activities in class. T2 who taught a Listening & Speaking course and T4 who taught a Listening course selected different sections for different units. According to the teachers (both in the first meeting

and in subsequent informal meetings), there were a variety of reasons that the teachers decided to teach a section in class, for example, its relevance to students, its interest level, its difficulty level, etc.

4.3.2.3 Courses. All four courses taught by the participating teachers are university English courses. Three courses (T1, T2, and T3) are for non-English majors: Two are Reading & Writing, and one is Listening & Speaking. One course (T4) is for English-major students: Listening. Two courses recorded were delivered online (T3 and T4), and two courses were delivered face-to-face (T1 and T2). A detailed description of the courses is provided in Table 4-7. Also see Appendix A for screenshots of the four classrooms.

Table 4-7

Courses Delivered by Participating Teachers

Teacher	Course	Course mode	Students
T1	Reading & Writing	• face-to-face (There were also some students attending online, but the teacher mainly interacted with students in the classroom, and the recording captured the face-to-face mode only.) • teacher and students using print textbooks • teacher using a big screen to display PPT slides • students sitting behind a computer screen	• non-English majors • freshers • 13 students in the classroom
T2	Listening & Speaking	• face-to-face • students using print textbooks • teacher using a big screen to display PowerPoint slides • students sitting in rows	• non-English majors • freshers • 28 students
T3	Reading & Writing	• synchronous online course using Tencent meeting	• non-English majors

		• teacher's camera on • students' cameras off • teacher using print textbook • students using Microsoft Word documents of the reading passages and some of the exercises in the textbook • T sharing PPT slides of textbook content on screen	• sophomores • 44 students
T4	Listening	• synchronous online course using Tencent meeting • teacher's camera off • students' cameras off • T sharing scanned textbook pages on screen	• English majors • sophomores • 20 students

4.3.2.4 Video-recordings. The amount of lessons recorded by each teacher ranges from 3 lessons to 16 lessons, depending on how many units the teachers recorded and how many lessons the teachers spent on the instruction of one unit. The data collected for each participating teacher are listed in Table 4-8.

Table 4-8

Data Collected from Each Participating Teacher

Teacher	Video-recordings	Units
T1	3 Lessons * 45 mins per lesson	Unit 1
T2	4 Lessons * 45 mins per lesson	Unit 2
T3	15 lessons * 45 mins per lesson	Units 3-6
T4	11 lessons * 45 mins per lesson	Units 5 and 7

This section first described the data collection process which involves two rounds, the first round on online classroom interaction data and the second round on face-to-face classroom interaction data. The two rounds of data collection underwent the same process, including the

identification and recruitment of potential teacher participants, discussions with teachers regarding data collection arrangements, preparatory visits to classrooms, the recruitment of student participants, video-recording, initial viewing of video-recordings, and informal follow-up meetings with teachers. The process ensured that an appreciative inquiry and participatory research approach was adopted to obtain natural classroom interaction data of *expert teachers*. After two rounds of data collection, the resulting datasets present a variety of contexts in terms of university type, course type, course mode, student major, and class size. The classrooms both present diversity and represent the typical types of ELT classrooms in Chinese universities.

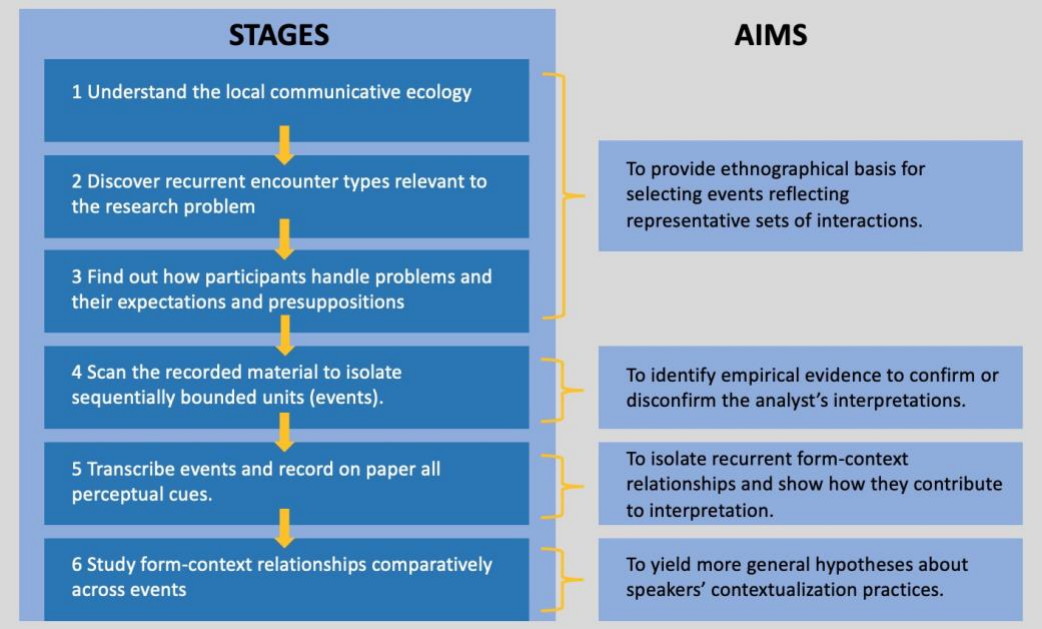
4.3.3 Data Analysis

The rationale for this study taking an IS approach to understand and interpret classroom interaction data has been given in 3.2 in Chapter 3. This section focuses on the data analysis process taking the IS approach.

With a focus on how teachers use textbooks to interact with students, this study draws on the strengths of interactional sociolinguistic analysis, which prioritises the significance of real life data in local contexts (Gumperz, 1982; Tannen, 2005), and pivots on the interpretation of speaker intent encoded in both speech and embodied actions (Goffman, 1972; Goodwin, 2000; Nevile et al., 2014). Taking an interactional sociolinguistic approach to data analysis, this study draws on CA's turn-to-turn sequential analysis techniques to focus on "here and now", but at the same time, values the wider sociocultural contexts and institutional norms in the interpretation of "here and now" (Stubbe et al., 2003). To achieve this, Gumperz (2015) suggested some key stages of the analytical procedure, summarised in Figure 4.1 below.

Figure 4.1

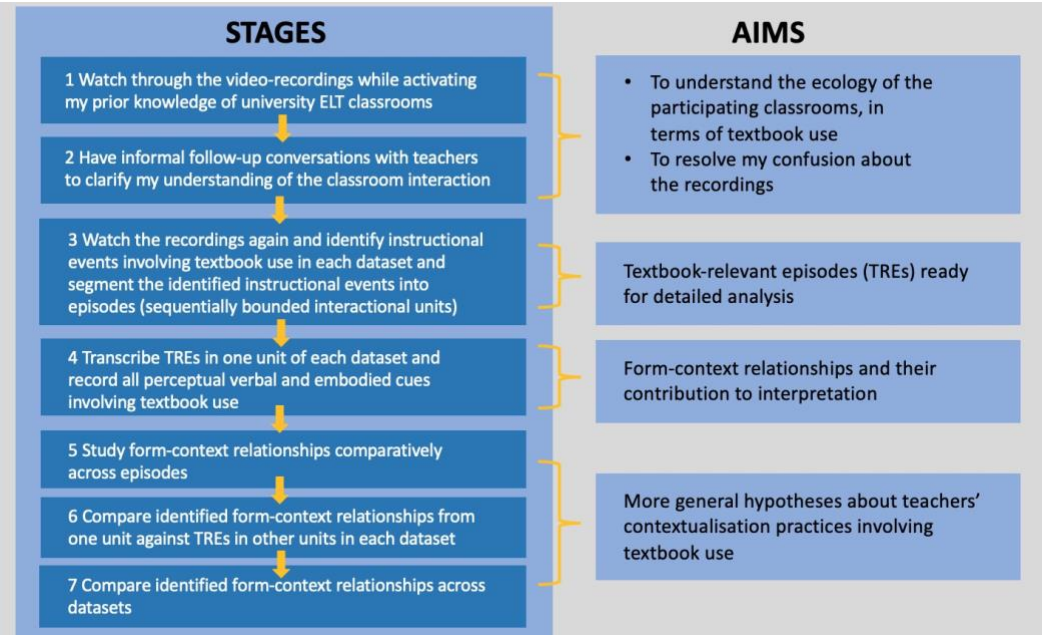
Key Stages of IS Analytical Procedure (Gumperz, 2015, pp. 317-318)



This study drew on the suggested procedure (Gumperz, 2015), and adapted the key stages based on the current research context and research focus. The data analysis process of this study can be summarised in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2

Current Study's Data Analysis Stages



4.3.3.1 Initial Stage of Data Familiarisation. The first stage involved my watching and understanding the video-recordings through activating my knowledge of Chinese university ELT classrooms gained through my 14 years' experience of working with university ELT teachers and sitting in university ELT classrooms. The first watching provided me a general understanding of textbook use in each dataset, including: textbook format in each classroom (print and/or digital), use of textbook content (selective or sequential), and mode of teachers' interaction with textbooks (verbal and/or embodied).

The second stage involved informal conversations with teachers to understand their pedagogical beliefs and their attitudes towards the textbooks they were using. The background information helped enhance my understanding of the specific context in which the teachers were using the textbooks to teach. T1 shared that her lessons were to help students enhance their academic skills although she was using a textbook of English for general purposes. T2 shared with me her belief that EGP courses for non-English majors should not become a burden to students but should provide a space for students to breathe amidst their tight schedule and heavy workload. She would always give an orientation session at the beginning of a course to share her perspectives on the course with her students and encourage students to ask questions and share thoughts whenever they wanted to throughout the course. T3 shared that she believed that holistic education should be a crucial goal of English courses and that she would create opportunities to conduct moral teaching or develop students' critical thinking whenever suitable. Such sharing, while informal, helped me to further understand the context of the data, and contributed to the interpretation of the data, which will be further explained in subsequent analysis chapters, Chapter 5 and Chapter 6.

The informal meetings also helped me to gain an insider view of the classroom interaction, particularly when I found it hard to make sense of an interaction. For example, in T3's and T4's online data, there were times when the teachers invited students to enter their answers or share their ideas in the chat box. However, the video-recording could not capture the chat box. Asking the teachers about what was happening during these moments helped me to get an insider view of the interaction. Another example would be from T1's face-to-face classrooms. There were moments when T1 read from her textbook, but I could not identify or locate the relevant information in the textbook. Later discussion with T1 revealed that the teacher was

looking at her notes in the textbook, and prompted T1 to share with me her notes on the textbook pages. These notes then helped me better understand teachers' interaction with the textbook.

4.3.3.2 Identifying Textbook-Relevant Episodes (TREs). Based on the general understanding of textbook use and classroom ecology gained at the initial two stages, I then watched all video-recordings again, to mark out all the events that involve textbook use and segment the events into sequentially bounded units. This comprised the third stage of data analysis. To distinguish interactional units from instructional units, the present study refers to instructional units as instructional events and uses episode to refer to what Gumperz (2015) termed as event. Therefore, episodes refer to sequentially organised units which are "marked off from others in the recorded data by some degree of thematic coherence, and by beginnings and ends detectable through co-occurring shifts in content, prosody, or stylistic and other formal markers" (Gumperz, 2015, p. 317). Episodes which involve textbook use were then termed textbook-relevant episodes (TREs).

To further clarify, textbook use in this study refers to the use of not only print textbooks, but also other material artefacts that contain textbook content, for example, scanned textbook pages and PPT slides. Meanwhile, teachers' use of textbooks includes both their verbal reference to textbooks and their embodied interaction with textbooks such as pointing at them, turning the pages, etc. In T1's classrooms, T1 used both print textbooks and PPT slides that contain textbook content. The PPT slides were simultaneously displayed on a big screen on the front wall of the classroom, on a teacher computer located on the teacher's desk, and on students' computers on students' desks. Therefore, any teacher interaction, whether verbal or embodied, that involves textbook content or any of these artefacts was treated as textbook use. In T2's classroom, T2 mainly used PPT slides which were simultaneously displayed on the display screen on the front wall and on a teacher computer located on the teacher's desk. In this classroom, students did not have computers in front of them. T2's textbook use mainly involves her verbal interaction with textbook content and her embodied interaction with the screen on the front wall and the screen of the teacher's computer. In T3's online classrooms, T3 shared PPT slides that contain textbook content on screen. Thus, T3's textbook use mainly involves her verbal interaction with textbook content and her embodied interaction with the PPT slides through manipulating the mouse. In T4's online classrooms, T4 shared scanned textbook pages on screen. T4's textbook use involves

her verbal interaction with textbook content and her embodied interaction with the scanned textbook pages through manipulating the mouse.

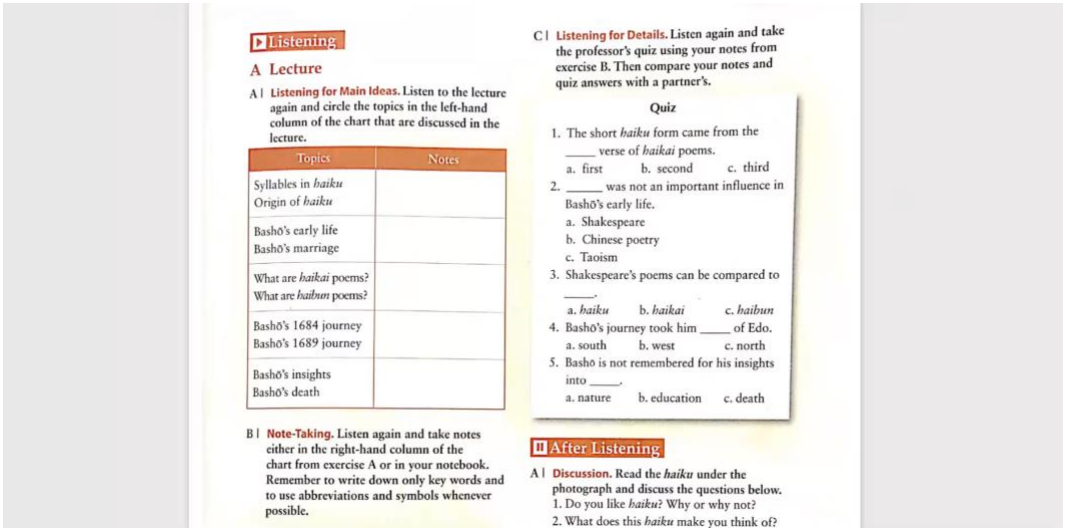
4.3.3.3 Data Transcription. At the fourth stage, I transcribed all the TREs in one unit of each dataset. This means transcribing all the TREs in the full datasets of T1 and T2, and those in the first unit of T3 and T4. The transcription follows the conventions in Day and Wagner (2019). See Appendix B for transcription conventions. Apart from capturing the speech using CA's turn-by-turn tradition, the transcriptions also capture actions. The main line capturing speech is numbered. It is followed by a line in italics, which is the English translation of the main line if the speech is in Chinese. If there is an embodied action involving interaction with textbooks, the main line is followed by an action description line starting with a slash "/". Meanwhile, there is a slash "/" in the main line and its place indicates when the action begins. Sometimes, screenshots are used to illustrate actions. At these times, the screenshot(s) are placed under a screenshot number line starting with "#". Meanwhile, there is "#" in the main line and one in the action line to indicate when the action shown in the screenshot(s) begin. Below is an example from the data. Note that this extract is numbered 4-4. The number before the hyphen indicates which teacher's dataset the extract is from, and the number after the hyphen indicates the order the extract is presented in the analysis (Chapter 5 and Chapter 6). Therefore, this extract is from T4's dataset, and it is the fourth extract of T4's data presented in the analysis. If an extract is numbered Extract 1-2, it means the extract is from T1's dataset, and it is the second extract from T1's dataset presented in the analysis. In addition, one extract may appear multiple times in different sections of the analysis, as it is used to demonstrate different teacher–textbook interaction. However, the number of the extract is assigned according to the first time it appears in the analysis and remains the same throughout.

Extract 4-4

1 T4: /# All right.

/# T shows the page of the textbook on the screen.

Screenshot 4-4-1



Listening

A Lecture

A | Listening for Main Ideas. Listen to the lecture again and circle the topics in the left-hand column of the chart that are discussed in the lecture.

Topics	Notes
Syllables in *haiku* Origin of *haiku*	
Bashō's early life Bashō's marriage	
What are *haikai* poems? What are *haibun* poems?	
Bashō's 1684 journey Bashō's 1689 journey	
Bashō's insights Bashō's death	

B | Note-Taking. Listen again and take notes either in the right-hand column of the chart from exercise A or in your notebook. Remember to write down only key words and to use abbreviations and symbols whenever possible.

C | Listening for Details. Listen again and take the professor's quiz using your notes from exercise B. Then compare your notes and quiz answers with a partner's.

Quiz

1. The short *haiku* form came from the _____ verse of *haikai* poems.
   a. first b. second c. third
2. _____ was not an important influence in Bashō's early life.
   a. Shakespeare
   b. Chinese poetry
   c. Taoism
3. Shakespeare's poems can be compared to _____.
   a. *haiku* b. *haikai* c. *haibun*
4. Bashō's journey took him _____ of Edo.
   a. south b. west c. north
5. Bashō is not remembered for his insights into _____.
   a. nature b. education c. death

II After Listening

A | Discussion. Read the *haiku* under the photograph and discuss the questions below.
1. Do you like *haiku*? Why or why not?
2. What does this *haiku* make you think of?

2 So, part 1, lecture. /Ah, part 1, listening for main ideas.

/T uses the mouse to underline the heading for the activity "A| Listening for Main Ideas".

3 We'll listen to the lecture again

4 and circle the topics in the left-hand column of the chart, OK?

5 Pay attention. <It's, it's not one out of two choices.> OK?

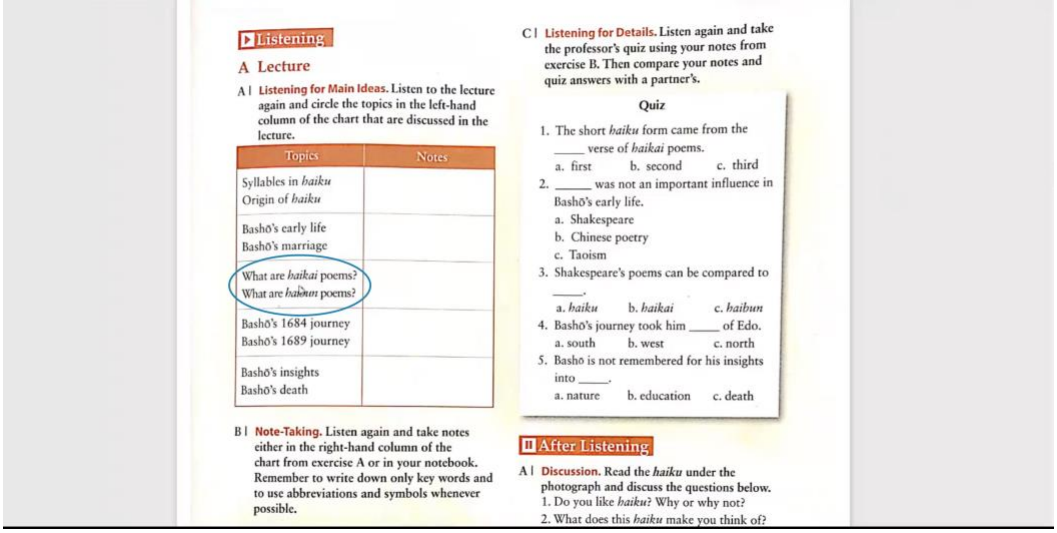
6 不是二选一哈.

It's not one out of two choices.

7 So sometimes, /# <we may choose both choices from each grid.>

/# T uses the mouse to circle around the two items in the third table of the left column.

Screenshot 4-4-2



Listening

A Lecture

A | Listening for Main Ideas. Listen to the lecture again and circle the topics in the left-hand column of the chart that are discussed in the lecture.

Topics	Notes
Syllables in *haiku* Origin of *haiku*	
Bashō's early life Bashō's marriage	
What are *haikai* poems? What are *haibun* poems?	
Bashō's 1684 journey Bashō's 1689 journey	
Bashō's insights Bashō's death	

B | Note-Taking. Listen again and take notes either in the right-hand column of the chart from exercise A or in your notebook. Remember to write down only key words and to use abbreviations and symbols whenever possible.

C | Listening for Details. Listen again and take the professor's quiz using your notes from exercise B. Then compare your notes and quiz answers with a partner's.

Quiz

1. The short *haiku* form came from the _____ verse of *haikai* poems.
   a. first b. second c. third
2. _____ was not an important influence in Bashō's early life.
   a. Shakespeare
   b. Chinese poetry
   c. Taoism
3. Shakespeare's poems can be compared to _____.
   a. *haiku* b. *haikai* c. *haibun*
4. Bashō's journey took him _____ of Edo.
   a. south b. west c. north
5. Bashō is not remembered for his insights into _____.
   a. nature b. education c. death

After Listening

A | Discussion. Read the *haiku* under the photograph and discuss the questions below.
1. Do you like *haiku*? Why or why not?
2. What does this *haiku* make you think of?

8 OK? <Let's listen to the lecture once more and check>,

9 and, and circle the topics that are mentioned in the lecture.

4.3.3.4 Identifying Verbal and Embodied Strategies and Form-Context Relationships.

Following the transcription, I then examined teachers' interaction with textbooks and identified the embodied and verbal cues employed by teachers. All the embodied actions and utterances that involve the teachers' interaction with textbooks were marked out. Each such action was annotated with a description of movements, its stages in the episode, and its alignment with speech. Each such utterance was annotated with a description of linguistic forms, its function in the episode, and the teacher–textbook interaction in it. Based on the annotations, form-context relationships were identified and interpretations were developed. The following two tables give an example of the annotations for embodied actions and verbal utterances used during the process.

Table 4-9

Annotation Example for Embodied Actions with Identified Form-Context Relationships

Event No.	Event types	Episodes	Mouse movements	Stages of interaction	Mouse movement & speech alignment	Strategy types
Event 1	T introducing the unit theme	Episode 1: T introducing the unit theme on cover page	Manipulating the mouse to move the textbook pages up and down and display the Unit title	When starting the lesson	Mouse movement together with a filled pause "Er …", and before the verbal reference	A
Event 2	T presenting the three pictures of three writers	Episode 1: T orienting Ss to the next page	Manipulating the mouse to move the textbook pages	When shifting to a new textbook page	Mouse movement together with the discourse marker signaling transition "now" and verbal directive "let's turn to the next page"	A
		Episode 2: T orienting Ss to the three pictures on textbook page	Manipulating the mouse to move the textbook page and display the three pictures	When starting a new activity	Mouse movement together with boundary marker "Right. Yeah.", and before the verbal reference	A
		Episode 3: T asking students questions about Li Bai in Picture 1	Circling the picture	When drawing attention to the first picture when presenting the picture	Mouse movement starts with filled pause "Ah …", and circling together with verbal reference	A, B
			Manipulating the mouse to move the textbook page and display the timeline	When T is about to teach knowledge	Mouse movement starts with discourse marker signaling transition "All right.", and before the verbal reference	a
			Circling the timeline	When drawing attention to the timeline	Mouse movement together with verbal reference	b

- **TYPE A: mouse movement before verbal reference**
  This type happens at the moment when the teacher starts a lesson, shifts to a new section/part of the textbook or a new activity, or returns back to the textbook.
- **TYPE B: mouse movement together with verbal reference**
  This types usually happens following TYPE A, to highlight the relevant section/part/activity; a few times when the teacher giving instructions on epistemic knowledge and the information referred to being considered knowledge already covered in the lesson.
- **TYPE C: mouse movement together with stressed and/or slow-paced verbal reference**
  This type happens when the teacher giving instructions to linguistic or epistemic knowledge or sometimes giving directions to activities.

Table 4-10

Annotation Example for Verbal Utterances with Identified Form-Context Relationships

Event No.	Event types	Episodes	Linguistic forms	Teacher-student interaction	Teacher-textbook interaction	Strategy types
Event 1	T introducing the unit theme	Episode 1: T introducing the unit theme on cover page	Imperative *So please open your textbook to page 65.*	Orienting students to the textbook page	T verbally refers to the textbook page. *Teacher foregrounded*	a
			Yes/no interrogative asking for ability *Can you see it?*	Checking if students have been oriented to the textbook page	T verbally refers to the textbook page using "it". *Teacher foregrounded*	a
			Nominal groups *Unit 5 A World of Words*	Presenting the unit title to students	T verbally quotes the textbook *Textbook foregrounded*	b
			Explanatory declaratives *What we are going to learn in Unit 5 is closely related to literature.*	Explaining the theme of the unit	T explains the unit title *Teacher foregrounded*	c

TYPE a: T verbally referring to textbook materiality to guide students' attention to a new unit or section.
TYPE b: T verbally quoting textbook content to guide students' attention to a new unit or section.
TYPE c: T explaining the textbook content to instruct on the unit theme.
...

Through the process, recurrent form-context relationships in each dataset were identified. While the teachers utilise various embodied and verbal cues in their interaction with textbooks and students, this process helped the researcher to narrow down to those cues that were repetitively used by each teacher to realise certain function. One such example is T1's positioning of the textbook on the teacher desk. Throughout the lessons, T1 recurrently walked to the teacher desk and put down the textbook on it when she was going to shift the instructional focus from the textbook content to teacher-supplemented content. Analysis of this type of recurrent behaviour was presented in the thesis to demonstrate each teacher's textbook use patterns. However, if a recurrent relationship could not be identified between an embodied or linguistic feature and its contextual meaning and function, the feature was not included in the final analysis and presentation. One such example is teachers' use of code-switching from English to Chinese. Although code-switching was found in each teacher's interaction with the textbook and students, no recurrent relationship could be identified of teachers' code-switching to Chinese with any contextual meaning and function in the current datasets. For instance, T2 most frequently used code-switching in her classroom, but she used it with diverse functions, such as explaining textbook activity procedures, asking textbook questions, and justifing textbook design. Meanwhile, for all these functions, both code-switching and non-code-switching could be found in T2's data and a clear pattern could not be identified.

At stage five, identified form-context relationships were first compared across episodes, and then at stage six, across units if the datasets contain more than one unit. Through the two stages of comparison, a more generalised interactional pattern of each teacher's textbook use was derived. This then led to the final stage of data analysis, in which I compared the interactional patterns across datasets and made further interpretations of the similarities and differences.

The seven stages of data analysis provided a picture of interactional patterns of textbook use in the four teachers' university ELT classrooms, revealing intended/achieved interactional goals and verbal and embodied textbook use strategies that teachers employed to achieve the goals. The findings shed light on the understanding of teacher agency in using textbooks and how it constructs teacher–textbook interrelationships.

4.3.4 Selection of Extracts for Presentation

While all the TREs in (the first unit of) each teacher's classroom interaction data were transcribed and analysed, the following chapters (Chapter 5 and Chapter 6) only present selected TREs from the datasets to demonstrate patterns of interaction in each teacher's textbook use practice.

Three criteria were used to identify the extracts of TREs for presentation in the thesis. The first criterion was the representativeness of the extracts. The extracts chosen to be presented were illustrative of recurrent contextualisation cues identified in the datasets, for example, recurrent trajectories of T1's and T2's positioning of the textbook and themselves in C1 and C2, recurrent moving trajectories of the mouse cursor on the shared screen in C3 and C4, and recurrent use of inclusive or exclusive pronouns by the teachers.

The second criterion was uptake of student participants involved in the interaction. When selecting TRE extracts for presentation, extracts were favoured where students' uptake could be well displayed.

The third criterion was clarity for presentation. For the purpose of clear presentation, extracts that were not overly long and with relatively clear contextual information were selected. Moreover, as for extracts demonstrating interactional patterns, the extracts that could allow the focal interactional patterns to be examined in relative isolation without being confounded by overlapping interactional trajectories were selected for presentation.

Based on these three criteria, the researcher selected extracts from each teacher's datasets for presentation in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 to demonstrate embodied, emplaced and verbal

contextualisation cues employed by the teachers and the interactional patterns identified in each dataset.

4.4 Ethical Considerations

All data in this study were collected and analysed observing ethical principles for conducting social science research involving human participants. To ensure ethical practices, three core principles for conducting applied linguistics research: "(1) respect for persons, (2) yielding optimal benefits while minimising harm and (3) justice" (De Costa et al., 2020, p. 122) were followed.

Prior to data collection, all participants were provided participant information sheets (see Appendix C and Appendix D), explaining the research aim, research procedure, and participant rights. To help with students' understanding with the language used in the information sheet, I paid an online preparatory visit to every potential participating class, explaining the information sheet in Chinese and inviting questions from students. Voluntary participation was emphasised during the visits, and ample time was given to both teachers and students after the visits to decide if they would participate. Written consent forms (see Appendix E and Appendix F) were sought from every participant before data collection and participants were reassured that they could withdraw at any stage of the study.

Confidentiality was maintained during data analysis and presentation. Teachers and students were pseudonymised by using T1, T2, T3, and T4 for teachers and S1, S2, S3, … for students. Any identifying details in the transcription were deleted and faces were covered in any screenshots from the videos. Data were stored securely on Warwick server and password protected.

Apart from the practices described above, there were two aspects of the study that needed to be addressed specifically. One was related to the special period of time in which data were collected. The other was related to the unbalanced power relationship between teachers and students.

4.4.1 Addressing Issues Arising in the Pandemic

Following Kubanyiova's (2008) and De Costa's (2015) distinction between macroethics and microethics and the proposal on conducting value examination along the process (De Costa et al., 2020), I also managed ethical dilemmas as they emerged throughout the research process.

Efforts were made to avoid affecting the teaching arrangements and activities. When

courses were delivered in the online emergency mode, all students' cameras were kept off. The lack of student images in the online classrooms posed a challenge for my data analysis. However, to avoid adding extra workload or uneasiness to the already existing challenges brought by the pandemic to the teachers and students, I decided to follow the usual practice the teachers and students were having for their emergency online classrooms. This was also the case for the face-to-face classrooms. Since I was not allowed to be present in the classrooms when the data were collected, adding one more camera would add to the teachers' workload. After discussing with teachers, we decided to use a single camera to record the classrooms. It turned out students felt more reassured and at ease knowing that the recordings would only capture their rear-view images.

4.4.2 Addressing the Unbalanced Power Relationship Between Teachers and Students

To enact ethical practices for a study situated in a classroom context is to seek social justice for all participants including teachers and students in the process (Hafernik et al, 2013). In this study, teacher–student power unbalance needs to be carefully dealt with.

To avoid making students feel pressured to take part in the study due to the power relationship between teachers and students, the researcher directly invited students for participation during the online preparatory visits. I emphasised during the visits that non-participation would not affect students' academic performance and participation would not involve assessment or evaluation of students' classroom performance or that of their teachers.

What measures would be taken to work with non-participating students were explained in detail: If there were students who were not willing to be video-recorded or participate in the study, the teacher would work with all the students to plan the seat arrangements and shooting angles in the face-to-face classrooms, in order to avoid uneasiness of the students who exempt themselves from either the video-recording or the study. In the online classrooms, teachers would pause the recording when any non-participating students were involved in the class activities, that is, having the possibility of being either video-recorded or audio-recorded. Having explained all of the above, students were given two weeks' time to decide if they wanted to participate. If they were willing to, they could send back the consent form either to their teacher or the researcher. If they did not send back the consent form in two weeks' time, the student would be considered as not participating in the study.

4.4.3 Involving Participants and Achieving Reciprocity

In order to pay due respect and justice to participants, extra measures were also taken during the process.

This study took an appreciative inquiry approach, with an aim to identify and enhance good practice (Ludema et al., 2003). Taking this approach, the study was not to address problems from an outsider view, but to seek answers in the insiders' practice. Taking a participatory research approach, the study also invited the recruited teachers to share the power of designing the data collection process (Angouri, 2018). The teachers worked in collaboration with me to decide the data collection time and procedure, including when to start data collection, which units to record, and when to pay preparatory visits. Inviting the teachers to participate in the data collection design showed respect for the teachers' insider knowledge, and did justice to their understanding of their classrooms and students. It recognised the significance of researching with the participants, instead of researching on them or for them (Schubotz, 2020).

Meanwhile, informal conversations with the teachers after each lesson helped maintain the constant interaction during data collection. During these conversations, apart from teachers helping me better understand classroom interaction, I also gained the opportunity to attend to reciprocity (Creswell & Poth, 2018). I was invited by the teachers to share my understanding of the textbooks, since I had the experience of working in the university ELT textbook development and publishing industry. I was even invited by one teacher to work together on a teaching design that she was developing at that time for a national teaching contest. Through these conversations concerning the teachers' needs and work, I was able to make my contribution to the collaborative relationship and develop a long-term relationship with the teachers to ensure ethical practices (De Costa, 2015).

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have described the research design of the present study and explained the rationale behind my methodological choices. I have described the research context, focusing on ELT courses in Chinese universities, textbook use in these ELT courses, and emergency online mode caused by the pandemic. I then outlined my ontological and epistemological positioning, discussing how it informed the research design, and reflected on issues of reflexivity and generalisation within the chosen research paradigm, explaining how these were addressed in the study. Subsequently, I described in detail the data collection methods and procedures and the

datasets resulted from data collection. This was followed by a detailed description of the data analysis procedure drawing on IS. I then concluded the chapter with ethical considerations and mitigating measures.

Thus far, I have situated this study within both scholarly literature and practical contexts, and have explained its theoretical underpinnings and methodological standpoints. I now proceed to the analysis chapters, in which I present my findings. Chapter 5 is the first analytical chapter and focuses on teachers' embodied and emplaced interaction with textbooks in classroom interaction, exploring its interactional affordances. I thus identify recurrent embodied and emplaced strategies employed by teachers to interact with textbooks and how they contribute to classroom interaction. The second analytical chapter, Chapter 6, builds on the findings in Chapter 5 and brings embodied/emplaced interaction and verbal interaction together. Focusing on two frequent types of interaction involving textbook use, (1) giving directions and (2) asking questions, I thus identify recurrent verbal strategies employed by teachers to interact with textbooks. Viewing teachers' embodied/emplaced and verbal interaction as a coherent whole, I further identify interactional patterns adopted by teachers, examining how they contribute to the classroom power dynamics and social relationships. The analysis in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 should then uncover recurrent context-function-form relationships in the datasets and reveal what teacher agency in using textbooks is enacted through teachers' interaction with students, and how agency is enacted through their interaction with textbooks.

Chapter 5 Embodied Interaction with the Textbook as an Object

This chapter focuses on the embodied interaction between teachers and textbooks and specifically looks into emplaced and embodied strategies used by the teachers to position themselves in relation to textbooks in the material space and to interact with textbook materiality. By identifying embodied cues and examining their interactional and instructional functions, the chapter intends to illustrate how teachers embodiedly interact with textbooks as objects and how the embodied interaction helps achieve interactional and instructional goals. The analysis thus reveals how the teachers agentively mobilise textbook materiality in classroom instruction and how textbook materiality affords the one-to-many classroom interaction and instruction. The investigation into physical positioning also demonstrates how teachers foreground textbooks in classrooms and how they group themselves with either textbooks or students in classrooms, further revealing how the emplaced interaction contributes to the enactment of different power dynamics and establishment of classroom authority.

I begin this chapter with the interactional reading of the classroom material space. Based on the interactional map of the space, I identify embodied strategies employed by the four teachers to interact with textbooks and position textbooks in relation to themselves in the material space, and I examine their in-situ functions using extracts from the four datasets. I then move on to the analysis of the teachers' positioning in relation to textbooks and students in the classroom, further examining how the teachers group themselves with the textbook or students and thereby create different power dynamics. I end the chapter with a section explaining the reasons for focusing on embodied interaction first and leading to the next chapter.

5.1 Interactional Reading of the Classroom Space: Where Do the Teachers Place Textbooks?

Before going into details about the embodied and emplaced strategies used by the teachers to interact with the textbook as an object, it is important to map out interactional spaces in the classrooms, as it shows how the teachers deliver instructions in the classroom, and how the classroom affords and constrains the teachers' embodied and emplaced interaction with the textbook. *Interactional space* refers to the "situated assemblages of bodies within space"

(Mondada, 2016, p.347) which create a focus for mutual orientation and joint attention (Mondada, 2009). Although interactional space in classrooms is dynamic and emergent throughout lessons, the analysis of the datasets shows that there is a relatively fixed pattern of interactional space construction in each classroom. My datasets comprise two modes, online and face-to-face, and therefore manifest two distinctive types of material space. I illustrate the two types one by one, first focusing on the face-to-face classrooms and then the online classrooms.

5.1.1 Face-to-Face Classrooms

In the face-to-face classrooms, the interactional space is co-constructed by the teacher, the students, and all the other artefacts in the physical space, and is emergent as the interaction itself. In the two face-to-face classrooms in my datasets, only the teacher is the body agentive of shifting positions in the space. Therefore, the teachers' physical positioning and their embodied interaction with the textbook to position the textbook are crucial in the construction of interactional space where students' joint attention is directed to.

The two face-to-face classrooms in the datasets are both typical arrangements of Chinese university classroom settings. Screenshots 5.1 and 5.2 are video shots respectively from dataset 1 and dataset 2, and they offer a panorama view of the two classrooms.

Screenshot 5.1

Classroom 1



Screenshot 5.2

Classroom 2



5.1.1.1 Classroom 1 (C1). C1 is a multi-media classroom. From Screenshot 5.1, it can be seen that it is similar to traditional classrooms in that it has a blackboard on the front wall of the classroom. In the middle of the backboard, there is a digital display screen which displays the content on the teacher computer. In the front of the classroom, there is a platform where the teacher desk is placed, and the teacher desk is where the teacher computer is located. Students sit in rows in fixed seats and desks. What distinguishes it from a traditional classroom is that a computer screen is set up on every desk in front of each student and there is a panel between every two desks, which creates a semi-cubicle for each student.

There are two ways that textbook content can be accessed by the teacher and students in this classroom. One way is through the physical textbooks used by the teacher and students. T1 has a print textbook at hand when teaching and students have their own print textbooks which are usually placed on the desks in front of them. The other way is through the computer screens. Apart from the print textbook, T1 is also using PPT slides which contain textbook content, for example the reading passages, when teaching. When T1 uses the PPT slides to display textbook content, students have access to it through looking at the computer screens in front of them or the display screen in the front of the classroom.

When we examine T1's movements in C1 throughout all lessons, we can identify two spots on the platform that are frequently occupied by the teacher. They are (1) behind the teacher desk (①) and (2) near the edge of the platform's left side (②), shown in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1

T1's Spots in the Classroom

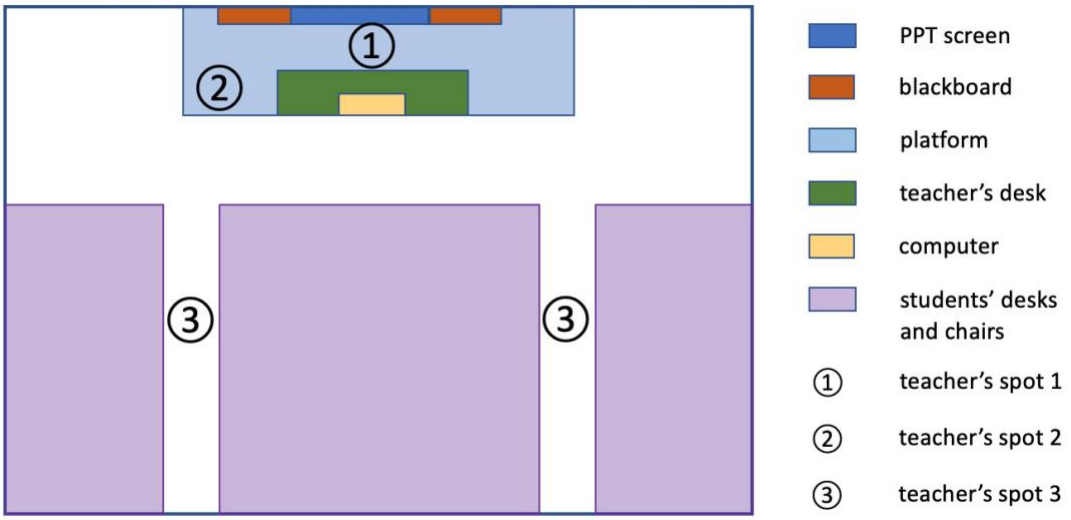


Figure 5.1 shows the two spots ① and ② on the platform that T1 positions herself for most of the time throughout the lessons. T1 can either interact with students at Spot ① or Spot ②, and move between the two spots. ③ is also where the teacher sometimes positions herself. It is different from the two spots on the platform in that it does not refer to a specific spot but covers the two aisles in the student area as shown in Figure 5.1. When T1 comes to the student area, she usually does not stand still at one spot, but moves from student to student. I therefore term these three spots or areas as the three interactive spots in C1. It is usually around these three interactive spots that interactional space is constructed in C1.

The data shows that the teacher positions herself at different interactive spots when she is conducting different instructional tasks. T1 is found to position herself at Spot 1 when performing two instructional actions. One is when T1 is instructing students on language forms. At these moments, T1 usually sits before the teacher desk and interacts with students through the computer/display screen. The other is when T1 is moving from Spot 2 to Spot 1 to put down or

pick up the textbook. At these times, T1's positioning at Spot 1 is usually temporary. Most of the time, when T1 accomplishes the action of placing the textbook on the desk or picking up the textbook, she moves from Spot 1 back to Spot 2. These movements happen when T1 is shifting from interacting with students on the textbook content to interacting with students on non-textbook content, or vice versa. When T1 occupies Spot 2, she is usually interacting with the whole class on knowledge or understanding, either of or beyond the textbook. When T1 moves into Spot 3, she is usually inviting individual students to answer questions which can be either on or not on the textbook content.

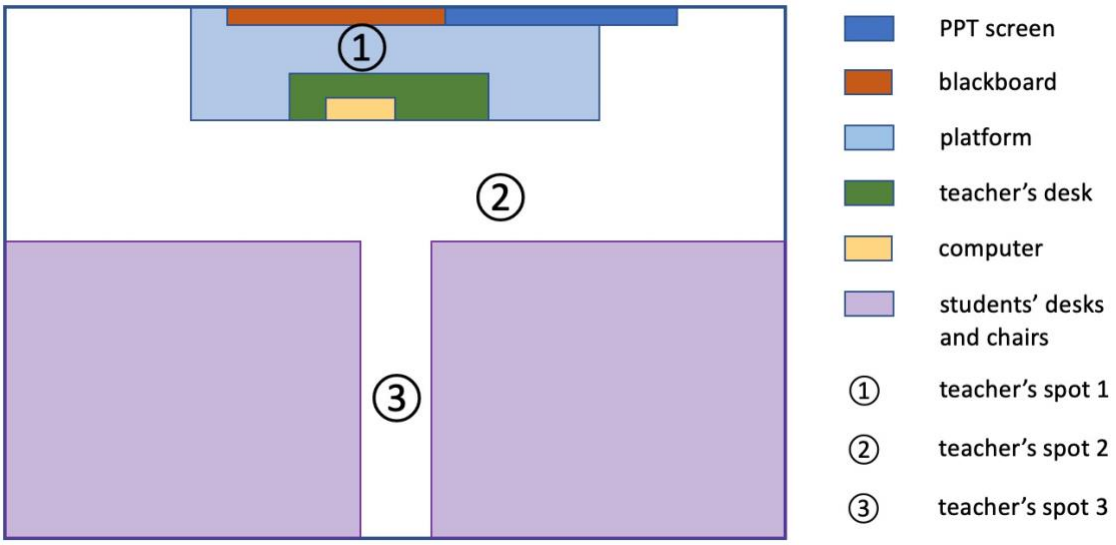
5.1.1.2 Classroom 2 (C2). C2 is a typical classroom found in Chinese universities. As shown in Screenshot 5.2, there is a teaching platform at the front of the room. On the teaching platform, there is a teacher desk which has a computer on it. Behind the teacher desk and on the front wall, there is a blackboard. Also on the front wall, to the right side, there is a screen displaying the content on the teacher computer. Student desks and chairs are fixed and arranged in rows. There is an aisle in the middle of the student area.

Similar to C1, there are two ways in which the textbook can be accessed by students in C2. One is through the print textbook. Students each have their own print textbook, and they can look at their own textbooks placed on the desks in front of them throughout the lessons. Another way for students to access the textbook content is through the display screen on the front wall on which the teacher displays the textbook content when using it. The teacher, however, does not use the print textbook to teach, but displays the relevant textbook content on PPT slides. When using PPT slides, the teacher can use the computer to manipulate the slides, and the display screen on the front wall can display the slides so that students can have access to the textbook content.

Three spots emerge as T2's usual spots from the close examination of T2's movements in the classroom. Spot 1 is on the platform behind the teacher desk, Spot 2 is between the platform and the student area, and Spot 3 is in the aisle in the student area. It is around these three spots that interactional space is constructed in C2. Figure 5.2 illustrates these three spots in the classroom.

Figure 5.2

T2's Spots in the Classroom



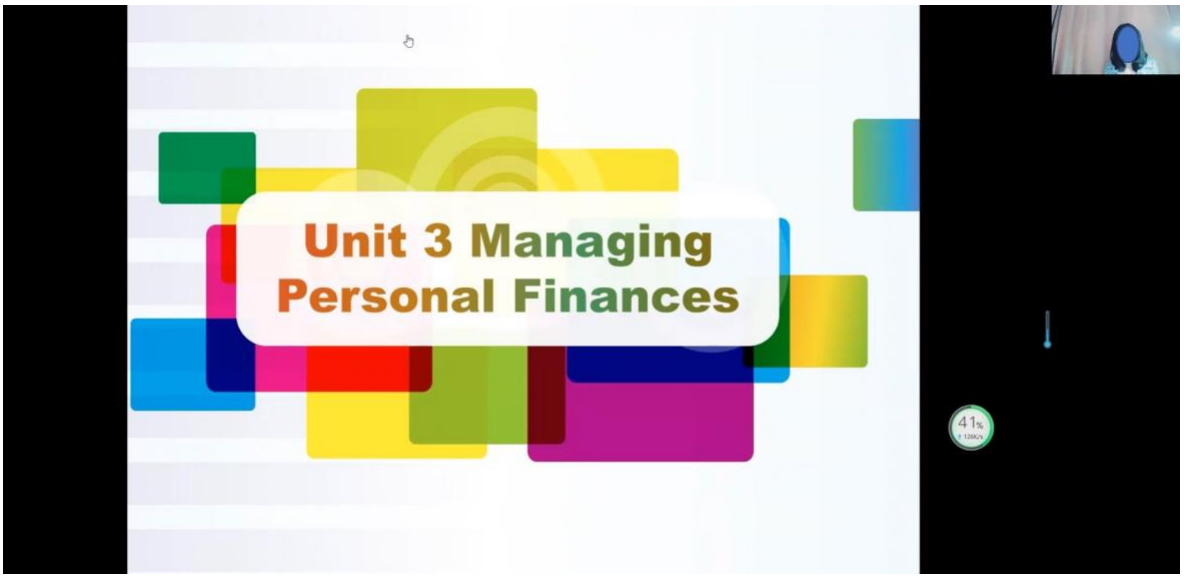
The data of T2's lessons also show that T2 usually conducts different instructional activities when she positions herself at different spots. T2 usually starts a lesson or a new activity at Spot 1. This may due to the fact that T2 needs to manipulate PPT slides to display the new activity before she starts it. Spot 1 is also occupied when T2 plays an audio clip or a video clip. A third instructional action performed by T2 at Spot 1 is to instruct students on language forms or new information. Spot 2 is where T2 interacts with students and invites them to share their answers to questions. T2 usually positions herself at Spot 3 when students are doing group work or pair work on their own.

5.1.2 Online Classrooms

Two of my datasets are of online classrooms where interactional space is differently constructed compared to the face-to-face classrooms. In online classrooms, interactional space for each participant can be different as each is surrounded by different physical environment. However, the computer screen through which courses are delivered is usually at the centre of joint attention, and thus should be the shared interactional space of all participants. In the two online classrooms in my datasets, different things are shared on the computer screen by teachers. Screenshots 5.3 and 5.4 illustrate the shared computer screens in the two online classrooms.

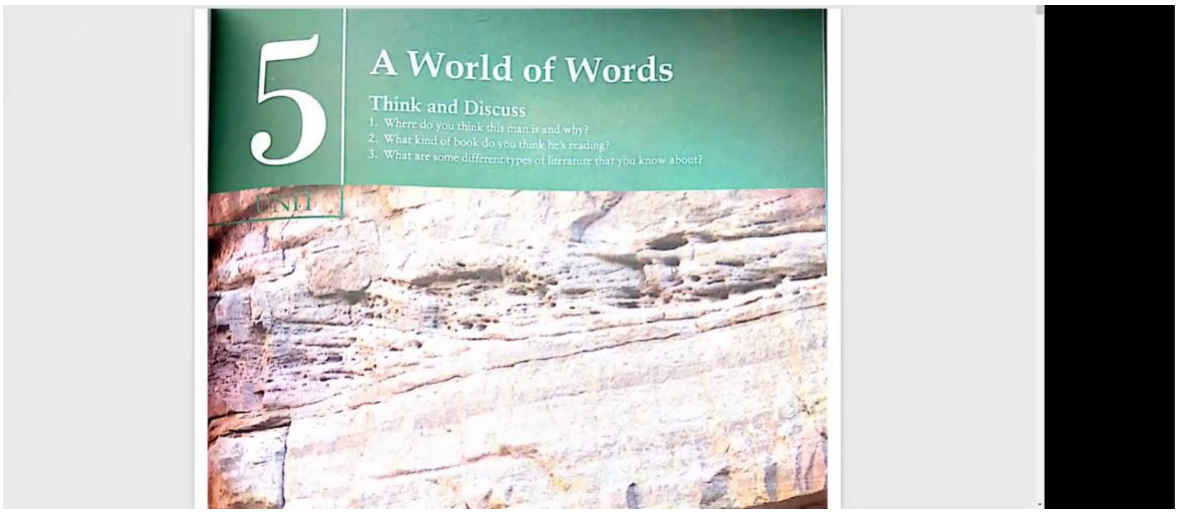
Screenshot 5.3

Classroom 3



Screenshot 5.4

Classroom 4



5.1.2.1 Classroom 3 (C3). In C3, most of the time T3 uses the computer screen to display teaching materials on PPT slides, and sometimes, Microsoft Word documents. As can be seen from Screenshot 5.3, the teaching material occupies most of the shared screen. T3 keeps her camera on throughout the lessons, but all students keep their cameras off. While T3 has no sight of students, students can see the teacher. However, the teacher frame on the computer screen is

very limited in size, occupying a small corner of the computer screen. The teaching material is the most prominent in the shared interactional space.

Since the new term starts with students attending the classes from home, students have no print textbook with them. The only access students have to the textbook in the classroom is through the shared computer screen. T3 mostly uses PPT slides to display textbook content and sometimes Microsoft Word documents when using the textbook for instruction. Through the shared textbook content, T3 instructs students or interacts with students on language forms, meaning, or new information.

5.1.2.2 Classroom 4 (C4). In C4, T4 uses the computer screen to share scanned textbook pages. T4 and students all keep their cameras off throughout the lessons. Therefore, all the participants in the classroom have no sight of each other. As can be seen in Screenshot 5.4, the scanned textbook pages are the only visible object in the shared interactional space. Since students in C4 have no print textbook at hand, the scanned textbook pages are the only access to the textbook that students have in the classroom.

Similar to T3, T4 can be instructing students or interacting with students on language forms, meaning, and new information through the shared textbook pages.

In both C3 and C4, the shared textbook content (PPT slides and scanned textbook pages) is the interactive interface around which the teachers and students construct interactional space and perform all kinds of instructional activities. Although T3 is visible to students in C3, it can be seen that the visibility is very limited. T3' gestures, gazes, and bodily movements in relation to the textbook are not as visible as those from traditional face-to-face classrooms, both to the researcher and arguably to students, and those of T4 are totally inaccessible to students. However, in both C3 and C4, teachers' embodied actions towards the textbook are clearly demonstrated through the screen display and the movement of the mouse. Displaying certain content on the screen and manipulating the mouse to interact with the displayed content are the two means to bring changes to the interactional space. When the teachers change the displayed content, the interactional space changes with the content. When the teachers manipulate the mouse to interact with the displayed content, the interactional space moves with the mouse. I then consider the displaying action and the manipulation of the mouse as the teachers' embodied interaction with textbook materiality. In this way, fine-grained analysis of embodied teacher–textbook interaction in online classrooms becomes feasible.

This section has analysed the four classrooms in terms of their interactional space for instructional activities. The interactional reading of the classrooms shows that the two face-to-face classrooms have different teacher spots around which interactional space is constructed and different instructional activities are carried out, and the two online classrooms have the shared textbook on screen as the shared interactional space for all kinds of instructional activities. In the face-to-face rooms, the teachers' embodied and emplaced interaction with textbooks is mainly achieved through their bodily movements. In the online classrooms, the teachers' embodied interaction with the textbook is achieved through the screen display and the manipulation of the mouse. In the next section, I examine the embodied cues of teachers interacting with textbooks identified in the four teachers' classrooms which contribute to classroom interaction and instruction.

5.2 Embodied Cues of Interacting with Textbook Materiality

In this section, I examine the teachers' embodied interaction with textbooks and the positioning of the textbook in relation to interactional space in classrooms. Through interaction analysis, I intend to uncover the embodied strategies teachers employ to interact with textbooks and how these strategies act as contextualisation cues to afford the teachers' instruction and interaction with students.

5.2.1 Placing the Textbook at the Centre of Joint Attention

The four datasets show that when the teachers are using textbooks to teach, they usually bring the textbook into interactional space and place it at the centre of joint attention. This is achieved through various embodied strategies. I now demonstrate the embodied strategies employed by the four teachers by using extracts from the four datasets. The extracts should also show how the embodied strategies can work alone or together with verbal interaction to help direct students' joint attention and afford the teacher's classroom interaction as well as instruction.

5.2.1.1 Displaying Textbook Content on the Screen. In C1, when the interactional space is at Spot 1, T1 is instructing students on language forms in the textbook reading passage. At these moments, the print textbook is usually placed on the desk and T1 uses the display screen to interact with students. To bring the textbook content into the interactional space and place it at the interactive interface, T1 displays textbook content using PPT slides, as shown in Screenshot 5.5.

Screenshot 5.5

T1 Displaying Textbook Content on the Screen



As shown in Screenshot 5.5, T1 is sitting in front of the computer, looking at and manipulating the textbook content shown on the computer/display screen. The textbook is brought into the interactional space through T1's display of it on the computer screen. Extract 1-1 gives an example of how T1 brings the textbook into the interactional space.

Extract 1-1

1 T1: /那么关于这个, 这篇文章里头还有几个地方, 我们给大家再讲一讲.

Then about this, this passage, there are some points, we need to instruct you on them.

/T starts to turn off the "slide show" mode.

1 /可能在理解上, 大家觉得会有一点难哈.

Perhaps you will find it a bit difficult to understand.

/T locates another PPT slides document which displays the reading passage.

3 /有几个句子, 大家看一下.

There are a few sentences you need to look at.

/T opens the PPT slides document which displays the reading passage.

4 First let's look at paragraph 1. /# (2.0)

/# T turns the PPT slides to the page showing the first paragraph.

Screenshot 1-1-1



5 How did the author describe /# (1.0) the busy state?

/# T turns the PPT slides to the next page showing the latter half of the first paragraph.

Screenshot 1-1-2



6 /# (1.0) OK, let's look at this one.

/# T changes the PPT slides to "slide show" mode.

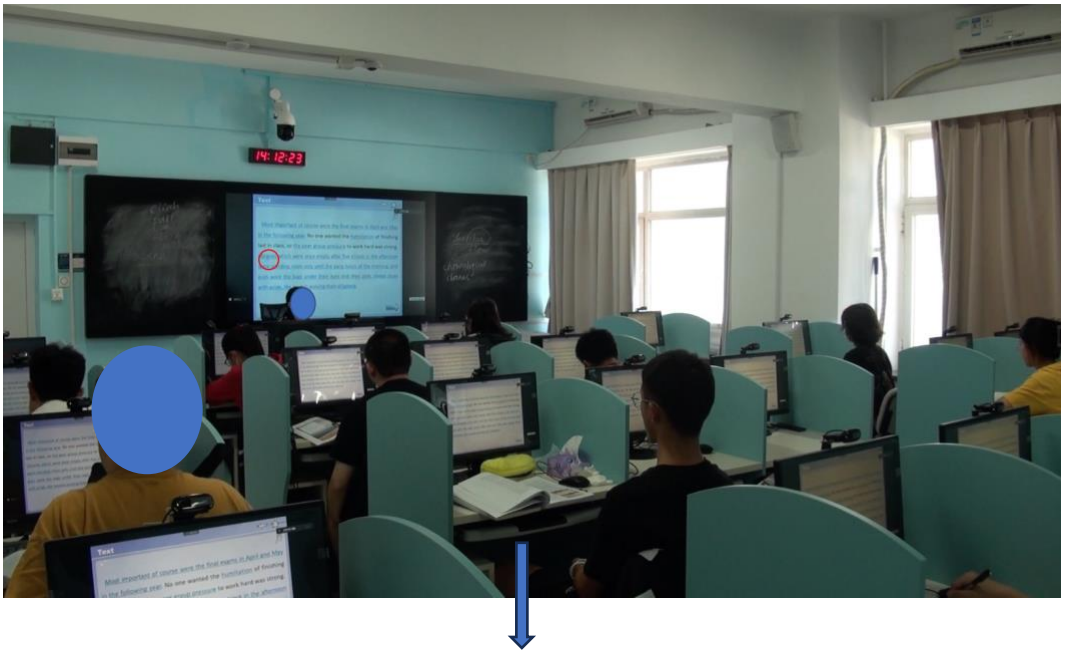
Screenshot 1-1-3



7 /# “Libraries which were once empty after five o’clock in the afternoon

/# T uses the mouse to underline the sentence as she reads it out.

Screenshot 1-1-4





8 were standing room only ...”

9 Can you analyse the sentence structure here?

This extract starts with T1 shifting from instructing on the meaning of the reading passage in the textbook to instructing on the forms in the reading passage. It can be seen from the screenshots in the extract that T1 is at Spot 1 and the textbook content is displayed through the computer/display screen. From line 1 to line 3, T1 explains to students that they are shifting the focus from meaning to form. Meanwhile, from line 1, T1 starts to change the displayed PPT slides document and in line 3, the PPT slides document that displays the textbook content is opened. In line 4, T1 uses a speaker-inclusive imperative to invite students to first look at paragraph 1. The invitation is then followed by two-second silence. During the two-second silence, the teacher scrolls down the PPT slides to display the first paragraph. In line 5, when using a rhetorical question to lead into the sentence in focus, T1 turns the PPT slides to the next page, displaying the latter half of the first paragraph where the sentence to be taught is located. Before using a speaker-inclusive imperative to invite the students to look at the sentence in line 6 and reading out the sentence in the reading passage in line 7, the relevant textbook content has been successfully placed on the display/computer screen where the joint attention of the teacher and students is directed at. During this episode, students’ attention is drawn to the computer screens in front of them. It can be seen in the screenshots that most students except two are looking at the computer screens.

In order to instruct students on language forms, T1 uses the computer screen to display the relevant textbook content, bringing the textbook into the interactional space and places the relevant content at the centre of joint attention. Displaying the textbook on the computer screen allows the teacher to zoom in for a close-up of the textbook, which facilitates instruction on language forms. Displaying the textbook content on the display/computer screen also directs students' joint attention to it. It can be seen from the extract that T1's embodied interaction starts immediately when she begins to shift the instructional focus, and the relevant sentence has been placed in the interactional space before T1 starts the instruction. The extract shows how displaying the textbook on the computer screen is employed by T1 to achieve the goal of directing students' joint attention to details of textbook content, which affords instruction on language forms. Through the embodied interaction of displaying textbook content on the display/computer screen, T1 also achieves the interactional goal of directing students' joint attention during the teaching process and orienting students to the upcoming instructional focus. Pedagogically, the textbook provides teaching/learning content. Interactionally, the teacher leads students through the instructional process, which is achieved through the teacher's embodied strategy of displaying the textbook content on the display/computer screen.

Displaying the textbook content on screen is also an embodied strategy used by T2 in her classroom. As the interactional reading of C2 demonstrates, T2 also displays the textbook content on the screen on the front wall when interacting with students. This usually happens when T2 is standing at Spot 1 in C2 and shifting to a new activity. Extract 2-1 demonstrates how T2 shifts to a new activity through displaying the textbook activity on the screen.

Extract 2-1

1 T2: /# (1.0) OK.

/# T turns the PPT slides to a page with the questions from the textbook and a picture with the term "Table Manners" in the middle.

Screenshot 2-1-1



2 /(1.0) First we are going to talk about table manners.

/T looks at the computer screen.

3 Suppose you have a friend, who is a foreigner and he wants to know the,

4 /um, table manners in China. OK?

/T looks at the students while using her left hand to point at the computer screen.

5 /Now, you are going to work in pairs. 接下来两个人一组.

Next work in pairs.

/T puts the PPT slides into slide show mode and displays the eight questions from the textbook on the screen.

6 /# 一个同学扮演那个外国人, 就那个 foreign friend.

One student plays the role of the foreigner, the foreign friend.

/# T looks at the students and uses her left index finger to point at the screen.

Screenshot 2-1-2



7 Another one is you. You need to tell /them

/T uses her left index finger to point at the screen.

8 about our table manners in China, OK?

9 /大家可以轮流地扮演外国人和咱们自己.

You can take turns to role-play the foreigner and ourselves.

/T looks up at the students and uses her hands to gesture “take turns”.

10 /就可以, 八个问题嘛,

You can, eight questions,

/T looks down at the computer screen.

11 /可以四个问题他问, 四个另外一个同学问.

four questions can be asked by one student, and four questions asked by another student.

/T gestures about taking turns to ask questions.

12 OK, 给大家四分钟时间,开始.

OK, I will give you four minutes, start.

Before this extract, T2 has given comments on student presentations given at the beginning of every week’s lessons. While finishing her comments, T2 is standing at Spot 1 and turning the PPT pages. When the PPT slides are turned to the page displaying “Table Manners” in line 1, T2 stops and uses the exclamation “OK” to indicate that the correct PPT page has been successfully displayed. After the relevant textbook content has been displayed on the screen and

thus placed in the interactional space, T2 starts to give directions to the new activity in line 2. It can be seen from the extract that T2 starts giving directions with her gaze directed towards the computer screen (lines 2 and 3), showing how the displayed textbook content affords T2's giving directions to students. In line 5, T2 turns on the "slide show" mode and makes the questions more discernible and thus more salient in the interactional space. This embodied action enables students to have a better view of the questions and thus facilitate T2's further direction on the activity continued from line 6 to line 11. It can be seen from the screenshots of the extract that most students' attention is directed towards the screen on the front wall which displays the textbook activity when T2 shifts to the new activity and gives directions to it.

Extract 2-1 shows that T2 places the relevant textbook content in the interactional space through displaying it on the screen on the front wall. The embodied interaction takes place before T2 verbally announces the start of a new activity. The teacher's embodied interaction of turning the PPT slides pages to display the textbook content orients the students to the shift to a new activity and establishes the teacher's authority over the teaching procedure. The display of the textbook content also affords the teacher's giving directions as it allows the teacher to make reference to the activity and students to have a clear picture of what the activity is like so that they can better follow the teacher's instructions. Through displaying the textbook content, T2 directs students' joint attention to the instructional focus. The embodied cue also enables T2 to orient students to the upcoming shift in instructional activities. Through this embodied strategy, T2 successfully leads students through the instructional process.

The strategy of displaying the textbook content on the display screen happens frequently in C2 as T2 rarely uses the print textbook in the classroom but mostly employs PPT slides to teach. Although the same strategy is employed by both T1 and T2, it can be seen that this embodied cue occurs at different moments in the two classrooms. Since T1 uses both the print textbook and PPT slides to teach, the textbook content is only displayed on the screen when the instruction is on language forms. In C2, however, T2 employs the embodied strategy of displaying the textbook content on the screen whenever initiating a shift to a new activity. This explains why T2 not only occupies Spot 1 when focusing on language forms and new information, but also does so when she is shifting to a new activity, giving directions to the new activity and playing the video/audio clips. It also shows how textbook materiality can impact the way teachers interact with textbooks and students.

The two online classrooms (C3 and C4), as shown in the interactional reading, rely more on the screen as it constitutes the shared interactional space for all participants. Therefore, the embodied strategy of displaying textbook content on the shared screen is to some extent the most frequently employed embodied cue to direct students' attention and orient them to shifts in instructional focus. The following two extracts demonstrate how T3 and T4 display textbook content to place the relevant teaching content on the shared screen, which then facilitates their interaction with students in their classrooms.

Extract 3-1

1 T3: OK, now, /# let's um, begin …

/# T turns the PPT slides to the next page which shows a video clip.

Screenshot 3-1-1



2 Um, let's try to turn to the passage.

3 But before we turn to the passage, I want you to watch a video clip here.

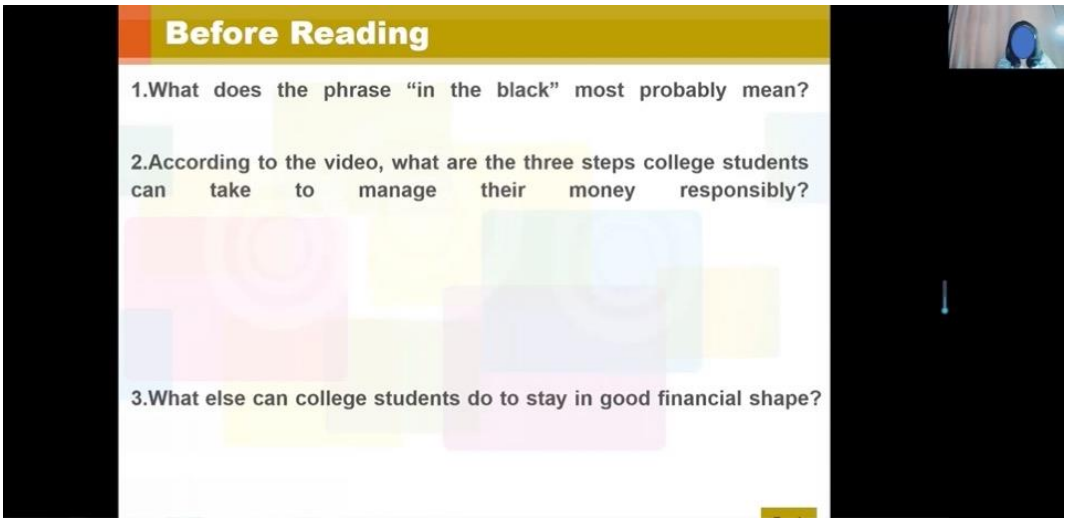
4 So, this video clip is about how to build a <strong financial foundation

5 during college years>, so <build a strong financial foundation during college years>.

6 /# And you are expected to answer the three questions here

/# T turns the pages of the PPT slide to show the three questions on the screen.

Screenshot 3-1-2



7 after you finished watching the video.

Extract 3-1 is from T3's online classroom. Before the extract, T3 uses some well-known quotes related to the unit theme "money" as a lead-in activity to introduce the unit theme to students. The extract begins with T3 putting an end to the lead-in activity by saying "OK" and turning PPT slides to the next page in line 1. While performing the action of turning PPT slides, T3 starts a verbal invitation to students using a speaker-inclusive imperative "let's …", leading them to the upcoming activity. It can be seen from line 1 that the embodied action happens prior to T3's verbal reference to the new activity. This is similar to the embodied cue of displaying textbook content in face-to-face classrooms C1 and C2.

However, Extract 3-1 presents an unusual moment when the displayed content is different from the teacher's expectation. The invitation ends unfinished and abruptly in line 1 when the next page of the PPT slides is displayed. In line 2, after short hesitation expressed through "um", T3 rephrases the imperative, using a verbal expression that is rarely used when inviting students to a new activity, "let's try to turn to …". In line 3, T3 rephrases the invitation again. This time, T3 verbally refers students to the new activity displayed on the PPT slide, changing from "the reading passage" to "a video clip". Lines 2 and 3 reveal the reason for T3's abrupt end in line 1. In line 1, T3 is going to invite students to the reading passage, but the next page of PPT slides shows a video-watching activity instead of the reading passage. The display of the video-watching activity, which is different from T3's expectation, prompts T3 to pause in line 1 and rephrase in line 2 and line 3. Although these few lines present a potential breakdown in classroom instruction, they further confirm that the embodied cue of turning PPT slides to

display textbook content usually precedes verbal interaction. In classroom instruction, the embodied cue would orient students to an upcoming shift in activity or instructional focus before the teacher verbally introduces it, and direct students' joint attention to the new activity or focus.

In line 6, T3 turns PPT slides again to the next page to display three questions as she starts to give directions and before she verbally refers to the three questions. The embodied cue of displaying the questions again orients students to a transition in instructional focus and directs students' joint attention to the new focus.

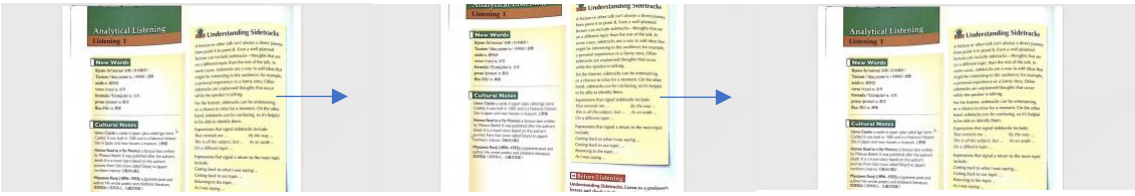
Extract 3-1 gives an example of how the embodied strategy of displaying textbook content on the shared screen is performed by T3. Although C3 is an online classroom, the embodied cue of T3 displaying textbook content is similar to that of T1 and T2 in face-to-face classrooms in terms of its interactional functions. In order to place the relevant textbook content in the interactional space, T3 manipulates the PPT slides. Similar to the previous two extracts, this extract also demonstrates how the embodied strategy of displaying textbook content and the verbal invitation are coordinated to achieve the goal of orienting students to a shift in instruction and directing their joint attention to the new instructional focus.

Extract 4-1

1 T4: All right. /# (1.0)

/# T scrolls the page up and down a bit to show a full picture of the "Understanding Sidetracks" box.

Screenshot 4-1-1



2 Now, let's /READ the paragraphs on the right-hand side.

/T uses the mouse to circle around the paragraphs.

3 /Understanding sidetracks.

/T uses the mouse to underline the heading of the box "Understanding Sidetracks" as she speaks.

4 Understanding sidetracks. Think about two questions. >Think about two questions.<

5 What is the function, or purpose of sidetracks? This is the first one.
6 Second one: Give some examples of expressions
7 <that signal sidetracks as well as that signals return to the main topic>. OK?
8 Give examples of the e, the, of the exa, ☺expressions that signal sidetracks☺
9 as well as the expressions that signal a return to the main topic.
10 That's easy.
11 I will give you two minutes to READ these paragraphs and answer the two questions.
12 Then I'll ask you one to answer the two questions.
13 Go ahead, please.

Extract 4-1 is from T4's online classroom. In line 1, T4 concludes the previous activity by saying "All right". Then, in the following one-second silence, the teacher quickly scrolls up and down the scanned textbook page to give a full picture of the "Understanding sidetracks" skill box (Screenshot 4-1-1). This embodied interaction of displaying textbook content occurs before T4 verbally guides students to the next activity, which is to read the paragraphs on the right-hand side, in line 2.

In this extract, the displaying of the relevant content is achieved by T4's manipulation of the scanned textbook pages. Before verbally inviting students to a new activity, the teacher's embodied strategy of displaying the relevant textbook content places it in the interactional space and draws students' joint attention to it. Similar to that in the previous three extracts, the embodied interaction initiates a shift in teaching focus and orients students to the change before the teacher verbally invites them to do so. The embodied interaction shows that the teacher is guiding students through the instructional process while the textbook provides the teaching content.

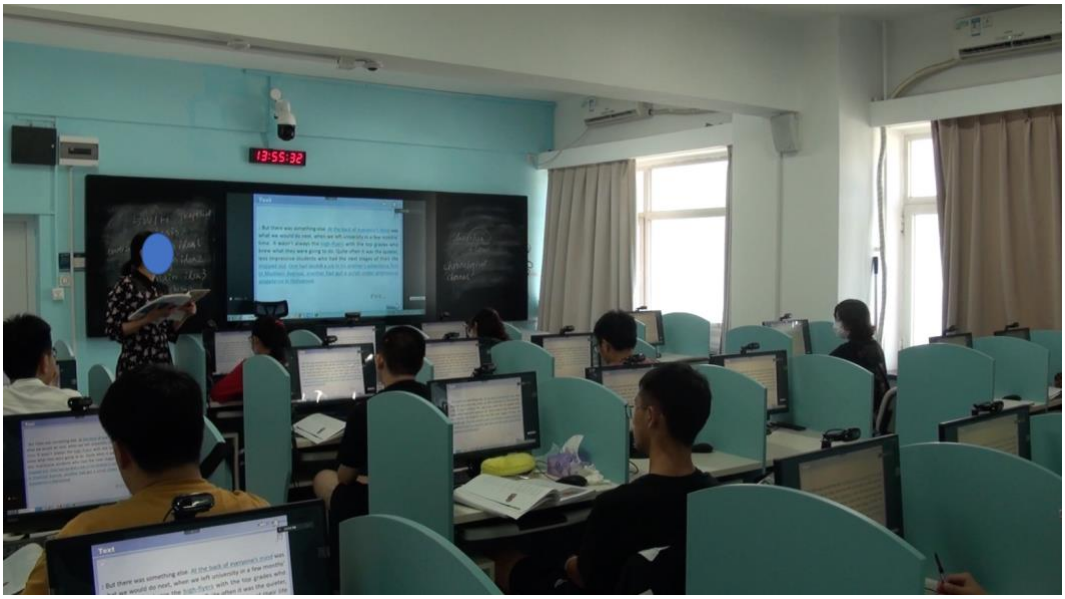
The embodied cue of displaying textbook content on the computer screen while shifting to a new activity or a new teaching focus is found in all four teachers' lessons. It does not happen at the same instructional moments in all four classrooms. For example, T1 only uses this strategy when she is going to instruct on language forms. However, in all classrooms, it achieves the interactional goal of orienting students to an upcoming shift and directing their joint attention to the new activity or focus.

5.2.1.2 Taking up the Textbook and Bringing It to Spot 2. While the strategy of displaying the textbook on the screen has been found to be used by all four teachers, two distinctive strategies unique to T1's classroom to bring the textbook into the interactional space are also identified. One strategy is taking up and holding the print textbook, and the other is pointing to the print textbook on the teacher desk. They are unique in C1 because T1 is the only teacher in the datasets who uses the print textbook in the classroom. I now illustrate these two strategies one by one using extracts from the data, focusing on how they afford T1's interaction with students and thus the classroom instruction.

When T1 is at Spot 2 and when the interaction is on the textbook reading passage, T1 usually holds the textbook, as shown in Screenshot 5.6.

Screenshot 5.6

T1 Standing at Spot 2 and Holding the Textbook



In Screenshot 5.6, T1 is holding the opened textbook to her chest level when she is interacting with students on the textbook reading passage. The textbook is placed in the interactional space by T1's holding gesture. Throughout T1's lesson, T1 instructs students on the structure of a narration and the message of the textbook reading passage, in response to students' insufficient and inaccurate summaries of the textbook reading passage in their homework prior to the lessons. Therefore, T1's interaction with students alternates on general knowledge and the

textbook reading passage. From the data, it can be seen that T1's embodied interaction with the textbook is in accordance with the instructional focus. When the instructional focus is on the textbook, T1 takes up the textbook from Spot 1 and moves to Spot 2 to interact with the class, holding the textbook. When the instructional focus changes to narrations in general, T1 moves back to Spot 1 and puts down the textbook on the teacher desk. When T1 comes into Spot 3 and invites individual students to answer questions about the textbook reading passage, T1 holds the textbook and brings it with herself into Spot 3.

Extract 1-2 gives an example of how T1 brings the textbook into the interactional space when she interacts with students on the textbook content, and then places it out of the interactional space when the interaction is not specifically on the textbook content.

Extract 1-2

1 T1: Um, I got all your work, and I have applauded you for what you have done, but still,
2 I have something to discuss with you. Um, in the last class, we (1.0)
3 distinguish between four types of writing. Right? Still remember?
4 These four types of writings have different purposes. They are? (3.0)
5 Ss: [xxx]
6 T1: They are what? The four types of writing.
7 Ss: To entertain-
8 T1: To entertain the ears, so that belongs to (1.0) narration, right? And then, to describe
9 a person or thing, or a SCENE. This is called?
10 Ss: Descrip[tion].
11 T1: [Descrip]tion. And we have exposition and um,
12 Ss: Argu[ment].
13 T1: [Argu]/#ment.
/# T stands at the left side of the platform, turning her body from facing the students to facing the desk on which the textbook is put.
/# Ss look at the teacher.
Screenshot 1-2-1



14 /# So which type does, does this article belong to?

/# T walks from left side of the platform towards the desk, looks down at the textbook on the desk and takes it up from the desk.

/# Ss' gaze moves with the teacher.

Screenshot 1-2-2



15 /# This is um what?

/# T holds the textbook, walking towards Spot 2.

Screenshot 1-2-3



16 /# Catching crabs. (2.0)

/# T taps her left index finger on the textbook page while continuing walking towards Spot 2.

Screenshot 1-2-4



17 Ss: [xxx]

18 T: Description.

19 Ss: Narration.

20 T1: Oh, narration. It's about a story.

21 Right?

22 /# A narration, um.

/# T turns around, walks back to the desk, and puts the textbook down.

/# Ss' gaze move with the trajectory of the teacher.

Screenshot 1-2-5



23 Um, so what do you think is the purpose of a narration?

This extract begins with the teacher asking students to recall the four types of writing they learnt in the previous lesson. From line 4 to line 13, T1 and students recall together the four types of writing. In line 14, T1 echoes what students give as the fourth type of writing, standing

at Spot 2. Before she finishes the word “argument”, T1 begins to turn her body and withdraw her gaze from students. This body rotation initiates a change in the relative positioning between the teacher and the textbook which is brought by the teacher walking towards the teacher desk in line 15. At the end of line 15, the textbook is brought into the interactional space when T1 takes it up from the desk. T1’s change of bodily positioning in relation to the textbook starts before T1 finishes her interaction with students on the activity of recalling types of writing. T1’s turn of body away from students and towards the textbook indicates that the current interaction is coming to an end, and a transition is to come. This initiation is followed by T1 walking towards the textbook and taking it up. Although T1 makes no explicit verbal guidance on the transition of instructional focus, her embodied interaction with the textbook indicates that the class activity is shifted from an activity on general writing types to an activity that concerns the content in the textbook. During the interaction on the textbook reading passage from line 15 to line 20, the textbook is held in T1’s hands, and thus remains in the interactional space. In line 20, T1 once again turns her body away from students, walks towards the desk and puts the textbook down on the desk. By putting the textbook out of the interactional space, T1 demonstrates embodiedly that the current activity concerning the textbook content is coming to an end, and a new activity is to begin. T1’s embodied interaction precedes her verbal utterance. It is after T1 puts down the textbook that she asks the students the question on the purpose of a narration which is of general knowledge and not specifically concerned with textbook content.

This extract shows that T1 places the textbook in the interactional space by getting hold of it from Spot 1 and keeping it to her chest level when she is interacting with students at Spot 2. This strategy allows the teacher to bring the textbook into the interactional space and maintains it in the interactional space. Similar to the embodied strategy of displaying the textbook content on the screen, this embodied strategy precedes the teacher’s verbal interaction with students. More importantly, as shown in the extract, the teacher’s embodied interaction is not accompanied or followed by any verbal utterance of the teacher to direct students’ attention to the textbook. The embodied cue itself signals to students that a shift of the instructional focus is initiated by the teacher, and thus orients the students to the shift in instructional focus. The textbook as a physical object affords the interaction as it prepares students for the focus of the forthcoming interaction. The teacher, at these moments, plays the role of designing the instructional process and leading students through it.

5.2.1.3 Pointing to the Textbook. The embodied strategy of taking up the textbook and placing it in the interactional space is employed when the teacher has positioned themselves in close proximity with the textbook as shown in 5.2.1.2. There is a second type of embodied cue in T1's classroom that brings the textbook into the interactional space when the teacher and the textbook are positioned physically apart from each other. At these moments, T1 does not walk back to Spot 1 to pick up the textbook, but uses her left index finger to point at it. Extract 1-3 gives an example of it.

Extract 1-3

23 T1: Um, so what do you think is the purpose of a narration?

24 /# Or what is the purpose of

/# T uses her left index finger to point at the textbook on the desk.

/# Most Ss look at the teacher.

Screenshot 1-3-1



25 /# this article? Of the story?

/# T looks at students and points at the textbook on the desk.

/# Some Ss start to look down at their textbooks and some turn their textbook pages.

Screenshot 1-3-2



26 /# Of course it's about catching crabs.

/# More Ss start to turn their textbook pages.

Screenshot 1-3-3



27 /# But it's more than catching crabs.

/# More Ss start to turn their textbook pages.

Screenshot 1-3-4



28 The author tries to use the story of catching crabs to

29 /# (2.0) to what?

/# More Ss start to turn their textbook pages.

Screenshot 1-3-5



30 S1: To what he really wants to do.

31 T1: ☺ YES! ☺

32 He was trying to find out what he really wants to do. Right?

33 To discover what he really wants to do.

34 So catching crabs is actually a journey of self-discovery. Right?

35 Um, and then, a second question.
36 Um in the last class, we spent a lot of time discussing thesis, right?
37 So what is a thesis?

This extract is a continuation of Extract 1-2. It begins with T1 asking students about the purpose of a narration. As shown in Extract 1-2, the textbook has just been put out of the interactional space by T1 before she asks the question in line 23. When the question is asked, T1 is at Spot 2 while the textbook is on the teacher desk at Spot 1. Then in lines 24 and 25, T1 rephrases the question from asking about general knowledge to asking about the textbook reading passage, "What is the purpose of this article? Of the story?". At the start of line 24, before verbally referring to the reading passage, T1 extends her left hand out with a pointing gesture directed at the textbook on the teacher desk. The trajectory of the pointing direction helps extend the interactional space and thus brings the textbook into it. The pointing gesture is maintained by T1 until she finishes the rephrased question in line 29.

The embodied strategy of pointing at the textbook helps the teacher place the textbook in the interactional space when the teacher is physically away from the textbook. Using the embodied strategy of pointing instead of taking the textbook up and holding it may be mostly due to the fact that the teacher has just put down the textbook and walked away from it before asking a question on general knowledge. It can also be seen from the later interaction in lines 35 to 37 that after the rephrased question on textbook reading passage, the instructional focus is shifted back to narration in general. The temporary digression of focus onto the textbook is probably the reason that triggers the teacher to employ the strategy of pointing to bring the textbook into the interactional space. Similar to the strategy of displaying the textbook on the screen, the pointing strategy is performed by the teacher before she verbally refers to the textbook reading passage, "this article" (line 25). The pointing gesture helps extend the interactional space to include the textbook which is physically apart from the teacher. It orients students to the upcoming shift in instructional focus and draws students' attention to the textbook, which is shown in the screenshots in the extract. In this way, it affords the teacher's interaction with students and facilitates the instruction on the purpose of the textbook reading passage, particularly when the shift of focus is temporary. Functionally, the pointing gesture works in a way similar to the strategy of taking up the textbook and bringing it to Spot 2. The

teacher, at these moments, guides students' joint attention and leads them through the instructional process through her embodied interaction with textbook materiality.

5.2.1.4 Summary. Extracts from four classrooms have been used in this section to demonstrate how the embodied cues of displaying textbook content on the screen, taking up the textbook and holding it, and pointing to the textbook have been employed by the teachers. T1 and T2 position themselves behind the teacher desk and manipulate PPT slides, such as open the slides, turn the pages, turn on the "slide show" mode, to display textbook content on the screen. T3 also manipulates PPT slides to display the textbook content, though on the shared computer screen. T4 manipulates the scanned textbook pages, such as open the file, scroll the pages up and down, zoom in and out, to display the relevant textbook content on the shared computer screen. T1, using the print textbook in the classroom, also employed physical positioning to embodiedly interact with textbook materiality. T1 moves from Spot 2 to Spot 1 to take up the textbook and bring it back to Spot 2, and sometimes points to the textbook positioned in Spot 1 when she is interacting with students at Spot 2. Different ways of enacting embodied interaction with textbook materiality reveal the teachers' capability of making use of different types of physical space and material resources available to achieve effective interaction and instruction in the classroom.

Interactionally, all these embodied strategies have helped draw students' joint attention and orient them to upcoming shifts in instructional focus. While the four teachers employ this type of embodied strategies when conducting different types of instructional activities, they all mobilise the physical space and textbook materiality to bring the textbook into the interactional space. When teachers display textbook content on display/computer screen, textbooks provide the teaching material, and the embodied strategy of displaying it affords classroom instruction, particularly in the context where the teachers are instructing on language forms or detailed information or where students have no access to physical textbooks. The textbook as a physical representation of all its content also allows the teachers to make reference to the teaching content by embodiedly interacting with textbook materiality as an object, such as taking it up, holding it, and pointing to it. The embodied interaction with the physical object supports the teachers' instruction and interaction in that it signals to students if the instruction is (to be) on the textbook or not and clarifies the referent in the teachers' verbal utterances.

The interactional achievements of drawing joint attention and orienting to upcoming shifts in instructional focus are afforded by textbook materiality in that the teachers' change of physical positioning in relation to the textbook as an object can change its position in relation to interactional space, either placing it in interactional space or placing it out of interactional space. The physical trajectories of the textbook in classrooms projected by the teachers direct students' attention onto the textbook or off it.

Through the employment of these embodied strategies, the teachers mobilise the physical/virtual space and material resources to lead students through the instructional process. By physically orienting students to the upcoming instructional focus, the teachers guide students through the transitions in instructional processes. By physically directing students' joint attention to the instructional focus, the teachers render classroom instruction possible. The interaction reveals that it is usually the teachers who have the authority over the teaching pace as they decide when to proceed to the next activity. While the textbook provides teaching content, with or without teachers' adaptations, teachers mobilise textbook materiality to lead students through the instructional process.

Table 5-1 summarises the embodied strategies used by the four teachers to place the textbook in the interactional space, their functions, and the instructional activities they afford.

Table 5-1

Embodied Strategies to Place the Textbook at the Centre of Joint Attention

<table>
<tr><th>Ts</th><th>Embodied strategies</th><th>Instructional activities</th><th>Interactional functions</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">T1</td><td>Positioning herself at Spot 1 and manipulating PPT slides</td><td>Instruction on language forms</td><td rowspan="6">Drawing joint attention and initiating a shift in instructional focus or to a new activity</td></tr>
<tr><td>Taking up the textbook at Spot 1 and bring it to Spot 2</td><td rowspan="2">Instruction on the understanding of the textbook reading passage</td></tr>
<tr><td>Positioning at Spot 2 and pointing to the textbook at Spot 1</td></tr>
<tr><td>T2</td><td>Positioning at Spot 1 and manipulating PPT slides</td><td rowspan="2">Various types of instruction on textbook content, including instruction on</td></tr>
<tr><td>T3</td><td>Manipulating PPT slides</td></tr>
</table>

T4	Manipulating scanned textbook pages	language forms, instruction on the understanding of textbook materials, and instruction on textbook activities.	

5.2.2 Raising Modal Intensity When Embodiedly Interacting with the Textbook

The previous section has illustrated the embodied strategies employed by the four teachers to interact with textbooks, and thereby bringing textbooks into interactional space. This section will examine the moments when textbooks have already been taken into interactional space and placed at the centre of students' joint attention. At these moments, the teachers are also found to employ various embodied strategies to interact with textbook materiality during classroom instruction. Compared with the strategies illustrated in the previous section which add *modal complexity* (Norris, 2014; Pirini, 2014) as they bring bodily movements into interaction, these strategies add *modal intensity* (Norris, 2014; Pirini, 2014) to the embodied interaction as they intensify it. This section examines these embodied cues that add modal intensity in the interaction and analyse how they afford classroom interaction and instruction.

Since modal intensity is built on the existing modality-in-action, different embodied strategies of bringing the textbook into interactional space will trigger the employment of further distinct embodied strategies.

5.2.2.1 Tapping on the Textbook Page. This embodied cue is found to be employed by T1 when she is holding the textbook. As analysed in the previous section, T1 takes up the textbook from Spot 1 and brings it to Spot 2 when the instructional focus is to be shifted to the textbook reading passage. When interacting with students on the textbook reading passage at Spot 2, T1 holds the textbook to the chest level, most of the time with no further bodily interaction with it. However, there are moments when T1 performs further embodied interaction with the textbook. One such interaction is tapping on the textbook page. This is found when T1 invites students to answer a question on the textbook reading passage, as demonstrated in Extract 1-2.

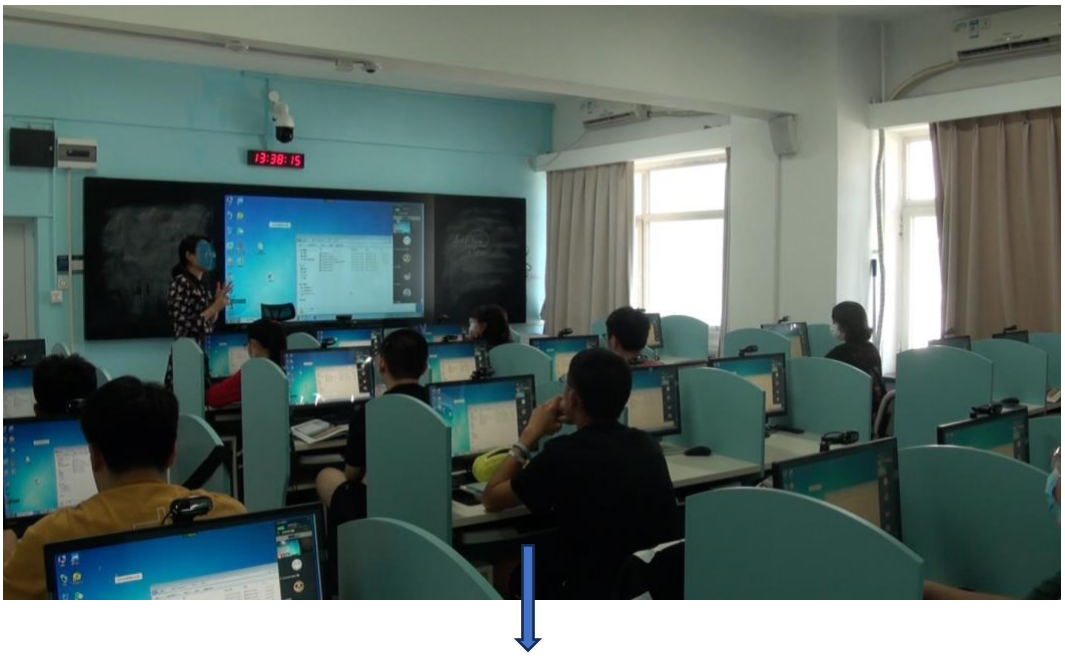
Extract 1-2

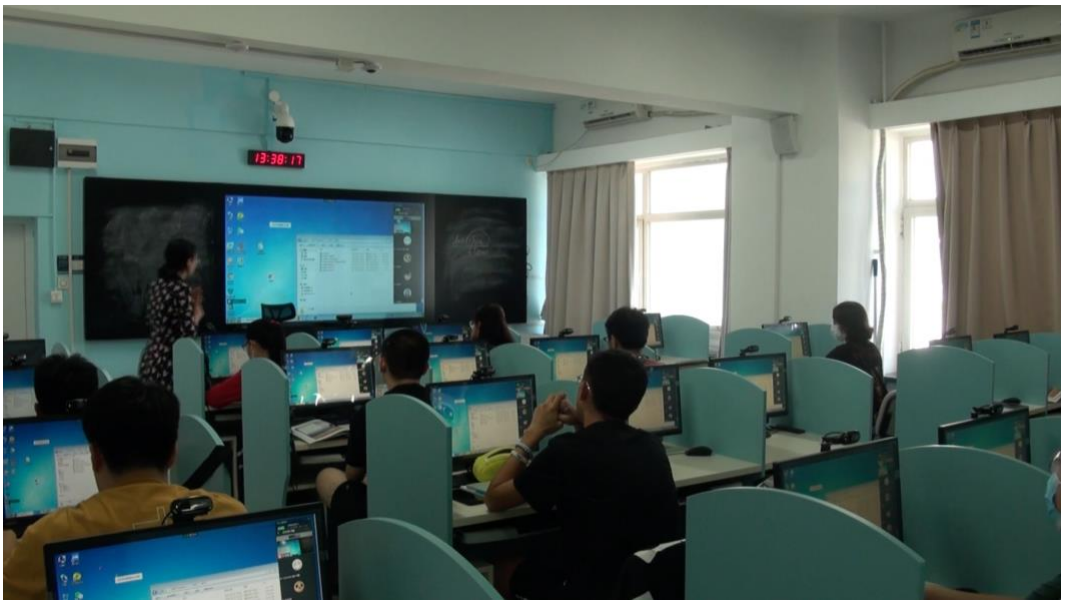
1 T1: Um, I got all your work, and I have applauded you for what you have done, but still,
2 I have something to discuss with you. Um, in the last class, we (1.0)
3 distinguish between four types of writing. Right? Still remember?
4 These four types of writings have different purposes. They are? (3.0)
5 Ss: [xxx]
6 T1: They are what? The four types of writing.
7 Ss: To entertain-
8 T1: To entertain the ears, so that belongs to (1.0) narration, right? And then, to describe
9 a person or thing, or a SCENE. This is called?
10 Ss: Descrip[tion].
11 T1: [Descrip]tion. And we have exposition and um,
12 Ss: Argu[ment].
13 T1: [Argu]/#ment.

/# T stands at the left side of the platform, turning her body from facing the students to facing the desk on which the textbook is put.

/# Ss look at the teacher.

Screenshot 1-2-1



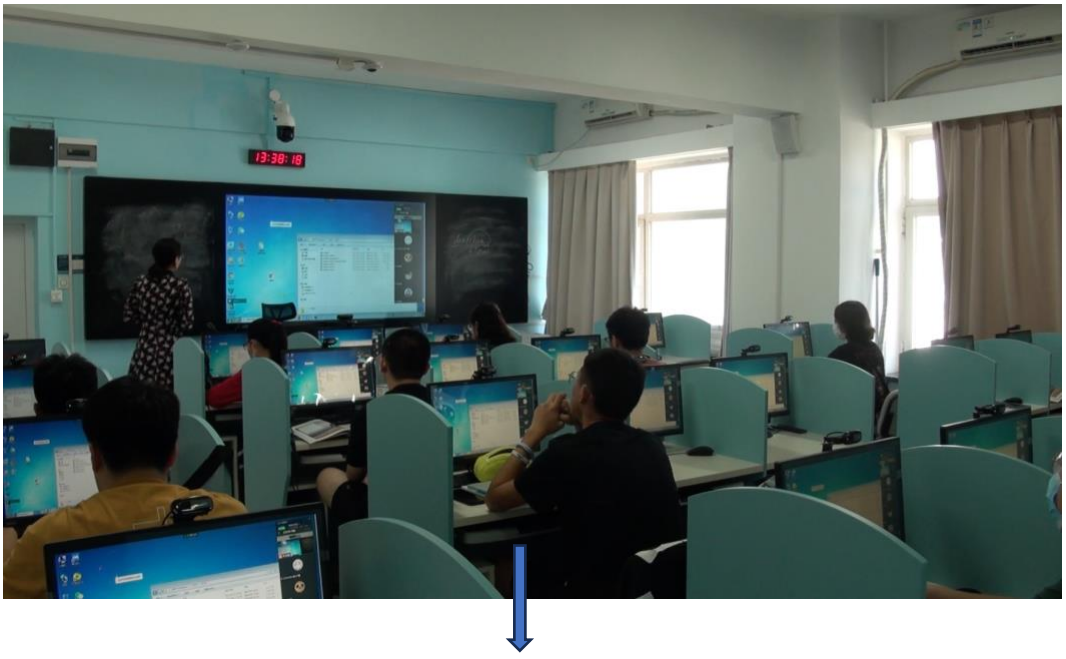


14 /# So which type does, does this article belong to?

/# T walks from left side of the platform towards the desk, looks down at the textbook on the desk and takes it up from the desk.

/# Ss' gaze moves with the teacher.

Screenshot 1-2-2





15 /# This is um what?

/# T holds the textbook and turns the reading passage page to face the students, walking towards Spot 2.

Screenshot 1-2-3



16 /# Catching crabs. (2.0)

/# T taps her left index finger on the textbook page while continuing walking towards Spot 2.

Screenshot 1-2-4



17 Ss: [xxx]

18 T: Description.

19 Ss: Narration.

20 T1: Oh, narration. It's about a story.

21 Right?

22 /# A narration, um.

/# T turns around, walks back to the desk, and puts the textbook down.

/# Ss' gaze move with the trajectory of the teacher.

Screenshot 1-2-5





23 Um, so what do you think is the purpose of a narration?

As explained in the previous section, T1 brings the textbook to the centre of students' joint attention through taking it up from the teacher desk, holding it and bringing it to Spot 2. When embodiedly performing the actions, T1 asks students a question about the reading passage in lines 14-15. In line 14, T1 poses a question on the textbook reading passage. Embodiedly, she takes up the textbook from the teacher desk and walks towards Spot 2 while holding it. In line 15, T1 rephrases the question into a declarative with rising intonation. Meanwhile, she turns the textbook page to face the students. In line 16, T1 quotes the title of the reading passage, "Catching crabs". After that, T1 allows two seconds of waiting time for students to answer the question. While verbally quoting the title of the reading passage and giving two seconds of waiting time, T1 taps her left index finger on the reading passage page in a high frequency. The tapping gesture ends when students begin to produce answers to the question after the two-second waiting time in line 17. It can be seen from the classroom setting that C1 is a large classroom and many students sit relatively far away from the teacher. Even if T1 turns the textbook around to let the reading passage page face the students, most students will not be able to see the content on the page. The action of turning the textbook around to face the students should be mostly of a referential function. It clarifies that the teacher is referring to the reading passage in the textbook when she says "this" (line 15). Similarly, the tapping action following the turning of the textbook should not be a way to invite students to look at the textbook page in

the teacher's hands. Instead, the embodied interaction of tapping on the reading passage coincides with the verbal quoting of the reading passage title and the two-second silence. While the action is a way to further draw students' joint attention to the reading passage, its co-occurrence with the two-second waiting time reveals that it also acts as a means to urge students to respond to the question. This embodied cue is taken up by students as they speak out their answers in line 17. When T1 accidentally gives an incorrect answer in line 18, students immediately correct her in line 19. Students' reaction shows that the embodied cue has been taken up and interpreted by them as an invitation for responses.

The embodied strategy of turning the textbook page to face students and tapping on it adds modal intensity to the gesture of holding the textbook to face the students. With its motion and high frequency, it functions as an invitational gesture. However, as explained above, the intention is not to invite students to look at the textbook in the teacher's hands, but should be to invite students to answer the question. Here, T1 is employing the strategy to facilitate her interaction with students to enhance students' participation. After the teacher poses a question in line 14 and uses a declarative with rising intonation in line 15 to prompt students to answer, there is no response from students at that time. This may have prompted the teacher's embodied interaction of tapping on the textbook page, which is successfully taken up by students. The embodied strategy of further interacting with textbook materiality reveals the teacher's role of managing classroom engagement and participation. It also shows how the textbook as an object can afford the teacher's classroom management.

5.2.2.2 Pointing at the Textbook. The previous section 5.2.1.3 has explicated on how T1 employs the strategy of pointing to the textbook to bring it into interactional space. The embodied cue of pointing at the textbook is also found when the textbook has already been placed in the interactional space, for example, when it is held by the teacher. At these moments, the pointing gesture is adding modal intensity to the embodied interaction. Since the instruction is already on the textbook reading passage at these moments, the embodied cue is not to initiate a shift in instructional focus. T1's dataset shows that the cue is identified at the moments when T1 is referring to certain details in the textbook or asking students questions about the reading passage and waiting for students to respond. When being employed at different moments, the strategy realises different functions. Extract 1-4 illustrates T1's use of the pointing strategy when emphasising details in the textbook and when inviting students to answer questions.

Extract 1-4

1 T1: But why is he <hesitating>?

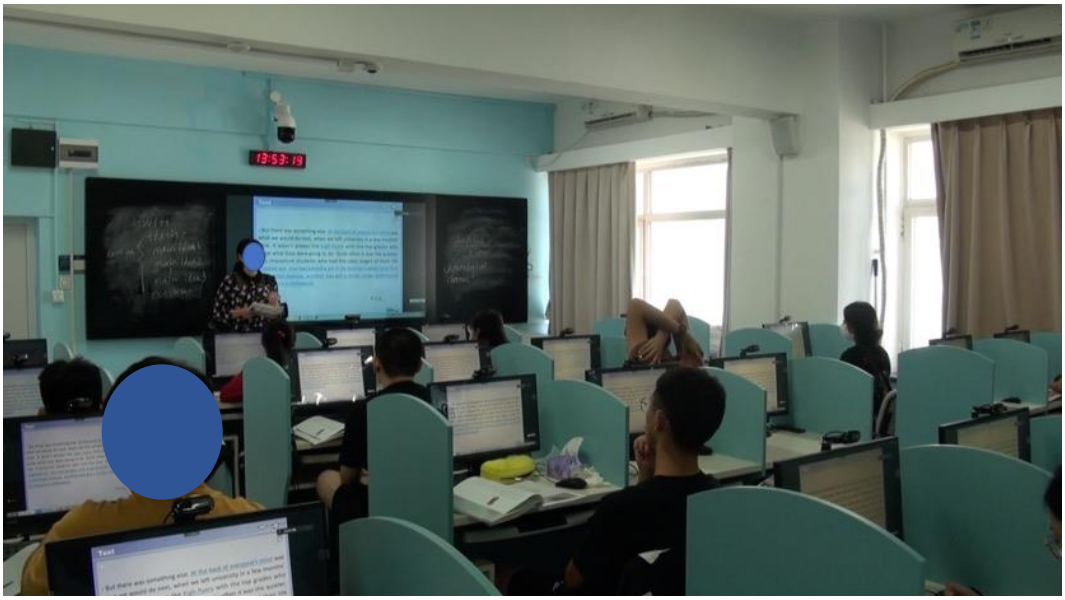
2 S1: Because a lot of opposition.

3 T1: Yes! Because he, he, he may be faced with some (1.0) opposition,

4 or /# in this textbook, he uses the word resistance, from his family members. Right?

/# T uses her left index finger to point at the textbook.

Screenshot 1-4-1



5 T1: And /from the dialogue

/T uses her left index finger to point at the textbook.

6 /between his father and the author, you know that

/T moves her left index finger from one point to another.

7 /his father? (1.0)

/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook, and moves her gaze from the left side of the classroom to the right side.

8 S2: /A lawyer.

/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook.

9 T1: /Was a lawyer. Right?

/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook.

10 /And what is his attitude towards the author?

/T moves her left index finger from one point to another.

11 /(3.0)

/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook.

12 S3: /He was supportive.

/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook.

13 T1: /Supportive?

/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook.

14 S3: /Yes.

/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook.

15 /Is he supportive? (2.0)

/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook and moves her gaze around the classroom.

16 Ss: /Yes.

/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook.

17 Or is he skeptical?

…

This extract begins with T1 asking students a question about the reading passage, standing at Spot 2 and holding the textbook in her hands. After one student gives an answer in line 2, T1 gives her feedback in line 3, acknowledging and echoing the student's answer. To further feedback on the answer to the question, T1 refers to the exact wording in the textbook reading passage. When verbally referring to the textbook in line 4, T1 simultaneously uses her left index finger to point at the textbook in her hands. The pointing gesture is maintained till the end of line 4 when T1 finishes her feedback. Through the pointing gesture, T1 indicates to the students that she is referring to a particular word used in the textbook reading passage. Here, T1 is not shifting instructional focus. There is no ambiguity in T1's verbal utterance with her reference to the textbook. The pointing gesture to the textbook is better to be understood as emphasis rather than clarification. T1 is using the pointing gesture to stress that the word used in the textbook is "resistance". The pointing gesture may be interpreted as emphasising that the textbook uses a different word, or as drawing students' attention to the relevant textbook content which validates the student's answer. Either interpretation shows that the teacher is agentively

highlighting the word used in the textbook. The teacher at these moments plays the role of a learning guide, directing students' attention to the specific knowledge and information in the textbook. From line 5 to line 13, T1 continues to interact with students on the meaning of the textbook reading passage, through asking students questions. In lines 5-7, T1 asks a new question about the author's father. When referring to the dialogue in the reading passage, T1 again uses her left index finger to point at the textbook, further drawing students' attention to the details in the textbook. In line 6, when verbally describing the dialogue as between the author and his father, T1 uses her left index finger to move from one point to another point, gesturing the relationship between two interactants. This gesture is what described by Kendon (2004) as a metaphoric gesture that depicts a relationship in a concrete way, to both facilitate speakers with expression and listeners with comprehension. Moving her finger to point at two different points on the textbook page, T1 is again highlighting the details in the textbook, and at the same time, facilitating her verbal instruction. From line 1 to line 6, T1 employs the embodied cue of pointing at the textbook to highlight the textbook details, which helps maintain students' joint attention to the textbook and facilitates students' understanding of the interaction.

T1 finishes the question in line 7 with an unfinished declarative with rising intonation. When finishing the question, T1 maintains a still pointing gesture towards the textbook. What is significant here is that the pointing gesture is maintained during the following one-second waiting time before S2 gives an answer in line 8. Although verbally T1 has finished presenting the question, the pointing gesture to the book indicates that the interaction is still on the question about the father in the textbook dialogue. Together with the silent waiting time, the embodied cue acts as an invitation to students. T1's invitation for responses is also evidenced by her gaze movements. While maintaining her pointing finger towards the textbook, T1 engages her gaze with students and moves her gaze direction from one side of the classroom to the other side. The embodied cue of pointing at the textbook as a prompt for student response is also evidenced in the later interaction in this extract. In line 8 and line 9, the pointing gesture is maintained when S2 gives a response and T1 acknowledges the student's response. However, from the question in line 1, we know that T1 is working with students on the father's reaction to the author's decision. Therefore, while it is true that the father was a lawyer, this is not the correct answer T1 is expecting from students. This prompts T1 to rephrase the question in line 10 and clarifies that she is asking about the father's attitude. While rephrasing the question, T1 also maintains her

pointing gesture towards the textbook. In line 11, T1 waits for three seconds. In line 12, S3 responds with an answer, and in line 13, T1 gives feedback to S3's answer by initiating a repair with rising intonation. After S3 further confirms their previous answer in line 14, T1 uses a yes-no question to initiate a repair from the whole class and waits for two seconds in line 15. In line 16, the class confirms the answer given by S3. From line 11 to line 16, T1 maintains her pointing gesture towards the textbook. It is only in line 17 when T1 gives the answer through another yes-no question that she puts her hand down to hold the textbook and ends the pointing gesture. It can be seen from the extract that the embodied cue of pointing at the textbook is maintained when T1 is expecting responses from students. The pointing gesture ends at the point when T1's expectation comes to an end. The function of the embodied strategy here is very similar to the tapping strategy described in 5.2.2.1. It serves the purpose of inviting responses from students. At these moments, the strategy of pointing at the textbook affords the teacher's management of students' participation. While the textbook provides the teaching material, the teacher manages the instructional process through encouraging and prompting student engagement and participation.

The embodied cue of pointing at the textbook in interactional space is also found in T2's dataset. When T2 gives directions to textbook activities, she usually stands at Spot 1 behind the computer. As illustrated in 5.2.1.1, at these moments the textbook directions or activities are displayed on both the computer screen in front of the teacher and the display screen on the front wall, which brings the textbook into interactional space, and places it at the centre of joint attention. When textbook content is displayed, there are times when T2 points at the computer screen or the display screen while giving directions. Extract 2-1 provides an example of such a moment.

Extract 2-1

1 T2: /# (1.0) OK.

/# T turns the PPT slides to a page with the questions from the textbook and a picture with the term "Table Manners" in the middle.

Screenshot 2-1-1



2 /(1.0) First we are going to talk about table manners.

/T looks at the computer screen.

3 Suppose you have a friend, who is a foreigner and he wants to know the,

4 /um, table manners in China. OK?

/T looks at the students while using her left hand to point at the computer screen.

5 /Now, you are going to work in pairs. 接下来两个人一组.

Next work in pairs.

/T puts the PPT slides into slide show mode and displays the eight questions from the textbook on the screen.

6 /# 一个同学扮演那个外国人, 就那个 foreign friend.

One student plays the role of the foreigner, the foreign friend.

/# T looks at the students and uses her left index finger to point at the display screen.

Screenshot 2-1-2



7 Another one is you. You need to tell /them

/T uses her left index finger to point at the display screen.

8 about our table manners in China, OK?

9 /大家可以轮流地扮演外国人和咱们自己.

You can take turns to role-play the foreigner and ourselves.

/T looks up at the students and uses her hands to gesture “take turns”.

10 /就可以, 八个问题嘛,

You can, eight questions,

/T looks down at the computer screen.

11 /可以四个问题他问, 四个另外一个同学问.

four questions can be asked by one student, and four questions asked by another student.

/T gestures about taking turns to ask questions.

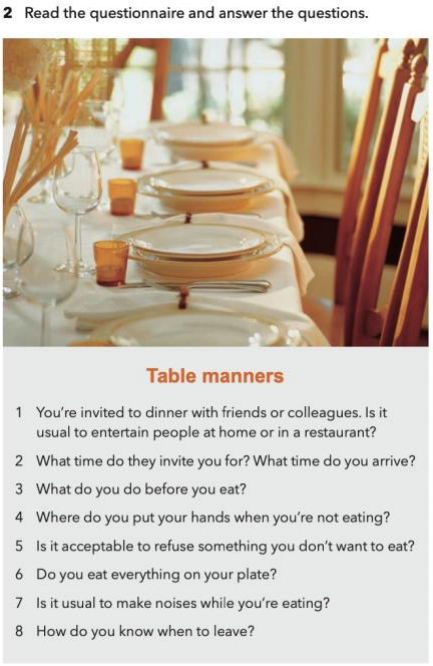
12 OK, 给大家四分钟时间,开始.

OK, I will give you four minutes, start.

As explained in 5.2.1.1, this extract is of a moment when T2 gives directions to a textbook activity. In the textbook, the activity is in the form of a questionnaire and students are asked to answer the questions in the questionnaire, as illustrated in Picture 1-1 below.

Picture 1-1

Questionnaire Activity in the Textbook



2 Read the questionnaire and answer the questions.

Table manners

1 You're invited to dinner with friends or colleagues. Is it usual to entertain people at home or in a restaurant?
2 What time do they invite you for? What time do you arrive?
3 What do you do before you eat?
4 Where do you put your hands when you're not eating?
5 Is it acceptable to refuse something you don't want to eat?
6 Do you eat everything on your plate?
7 Is it usual to make noises while you're eating?
8 How do you know when to leave?

(Greenall & Wen, 2017, p. 22)

In the classroom, T2 does not follow the textbook activity, but adapts it into a pair-work activity. The adaptation then requires T2 to justify why one Chinese student needs to ask another Chinese student the questions about Chinese table manners as this should be shared knowledge among students. In order to rationalise the communicative activity, T2 asks students from each pair to take turns to role-play a foreigner who wants to find out more about Chinese table manners. When mentioning the "foreign friend", T2 uses her left index finger to point at the computer/display screen. The first time T2 does this is in line 6, when she asks one student in each pair to play the role of a foreign friend. As she gives directions, she employs a pointing gesture directed at the display screen. The textbook displayed on the display screen is employed by T2 to embody the foreign friend through her pointing gesture. The pointing gesture indicates that the foreign friend introduced into the activity by T2 refers to the person behind the textbook questions. Again in line 7, when T2 specifies what students need to tell the foreign friend, she uses her left index finger to point at the display screen again. The embodied cue happens when T2 verbally refers to "them" (the foreign friend) in line 7. The strategy of pointing at the

textbook assists T2 to give directions to the activity in which she introduces an additional role (a foreign friend). It facilitates the instructional process as it enables the clarity of interaction and instruction. Additionally, the gesture suggests that the questions in the textbook/on the screen come from the foreign friend. This affords T2's instruction in that it rationalises the teacher's adaptation of the questionnaire activity into a communication activity. In the interaction, the textbook as an object embodies the people who ask the questions. Here in this activity, T2 portrays them as a foreign friend. The textbook serves the function beyond teaching material, but acts as a "real-life" character communicating with the students. Apart from co-designing the activity with the textbook, the teacher also actively guides students through the activity by clarifying directions with her embodied interaction with textbook materiality.

It can be seen from the two extracts from C1 and C2 that the strategy of pointing at the textbook, either the print textbook in the teacher's hands or the screen which displays textbook content, facilitates both the classroom interaction and instruction. The pointing strategy adds modal intensity to the teacher's embodied interaction, which helps emphasise particular textbook content, prompt students' engagement and participation, or clarify and justify activity design. While the textbook, and sometimes together with the teachers, provides teaching materials, the teachers manage the classroom interaction and guide students through the instructional process by mobilising textbook materiality.

5.2.2.3 Turning Upper Torso to Face the Textbook. There is also one unique embodied cue found in T2's classroom which adds modal intensity to the teacher's embodied interaction with the textbook. When T2 is at Spot 2, interacting with students on textbook questions, there are moments when T2 turns her upper torso from facing students to facing the display screen on the front wall. As revealed by the interactional reading of C2, Spot 2 is the area in which T2 interacts with students. When T2 is in Spot 2, she is usually facing students, asking students questions and interacting with them on these questions. However, when T2 presents questions, she usually turns her upper torso away from students to face the screen on the front wall which displays textbook questions. This embodied strategy of turning her upper torso towards the screen adds modal intensity to the action of displaying textbook questions on the screen. Textbook questions are not only displayed on the screen, but are embodiedly oriented to by the teacher in the interactional space. T2's bodily positioning further ensures that students' attention

be directed to the textbook content displayed. Extract 2-2 from T2's classroom demonstrates this embodied cue and its interactional function.

Extract 2-2

1 T2: /# 好.

OK.

/# T turns around to look at the screen.

Screenshot 2-2-1



2 Next one, what time do they invite you for, and what time

3 /# do you arrive?

/# T turns back to look at the students.

Screenshot 2-2-2



4 就大概会约我们几点吃饭, 就大概的时间,

approximately what time they may invite us for dinner, the approximate time,

5 因为外国人他什么都不知道嘛, 所以什么问题都要问.

because the foreigner knows nothing (about Chinese customs), they ask all kinds of questions

6 OK, (laugh) S10.

7 S1: They invite us for half past six pm. And, um, we arrive at their home at 6 o'clock.

8 T2: OK, OK. So it's like half an hour earlier than the scheduled time, right? OK, thank you.

This extract is from T2's classroom. The extract starts with T2 directing students to a new question from the textbook. In line 1, T2 uses "OK" to signal an end to the interaction on the previous question. Simultaneously, T2 turns her upper torso from facing students to facing the display screen on the front wall, before she verbally leads students to the next question in line 2. At this moment, the participants' relative positioning in the interactional space is changing from a facing formation which usually happens when people are directly interacting with each other to a linear formation in which all participants orient themselves towards an object in the local environment. Similar to T2's embodied cue of displaying the textbook content on the screen which signals a shift in instructional focus, the embodied cue of turning to face the screen during interaction signals to students that the current interaction is coming to an end and a shift in instructional focus is anticipated. The display of the questions on the display screen brings them into interactional space, but students' joint attention may or may not be on them when T2 is interacting with students. It is through T2's turning of her upper torso to face the screen that students' joint attention is further secured on the displayed textbook questions, as evidenced by students' gaze directions shown in the screenshots. In line 3, conversely, when T2 is finishing reading out the question, she turns back to face students. This embodied cue indicates that she is finishing presenting the textbook question and ready to interact with students, either to further explain the textbook question as she does in this extract or to wait for students to self-select to answer the question demonstrated at other moments of T2's classroom interaction with students.

The embodied interaction of turning the upper torso to face the screen is a strategy frequently employed in T2's classroom, although it is not found in T1's classroom. The reason is probably that T2 does not use the print textbook in her classroom, and thus the screen on the front wall functions as a useful tool to facilitate the teaching procedure and provide the teacher

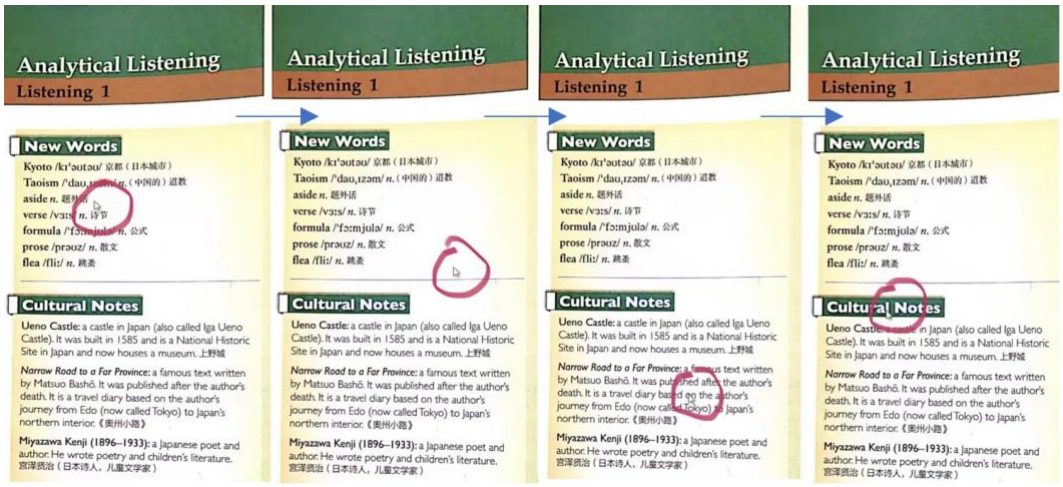
with the teaching content. It orients students to the shift to the next question, and draws their joint attention to the next question displayed on the screen. In this way, the teacher is the learning guide in charge of the interactional and instructional process, leading students from one question to the other. Meanwhile, the textbook provides the teaching content and the teacher follows the textbook as she asks students questions in the textbook.

5.2.2.4 Manipulating the Mouse to Interact with the Textbook. The above identified three embodied strategies which add modal intensity to the teachers' embodied interaction are all found in the face-to-face classrooms. They involve the teachers changing their physical positioning in relation to the textbook or using gestural interaction with the textbook in the physical space. These strategies are not possible in the virtual space of the online classrooms, or at least, it is difficult for students to perceive these types of embodied cues in online classrooms. However, it is found in the two online classrooms that the teachers are able to utilise the mouse to interact with the displayed textbook page or textbook content, to achieve similar interactional goals.

Extract 4-2 is from T4's online classroom. It demonstrates how T4 uses the mouse to interact with the scanned textbook page to direct students' joint attention to certain textbook content.

Extract 4-2

1 T4: YOU have already prepared for the new words and the cultural notes. Right?
2 Um, we won't spend time,
3 /# to read the words and the cultural notes anymore in the class.
/# T uses the mouse to circle around the new words and the cultural notes.
Screenshot 4-2-1

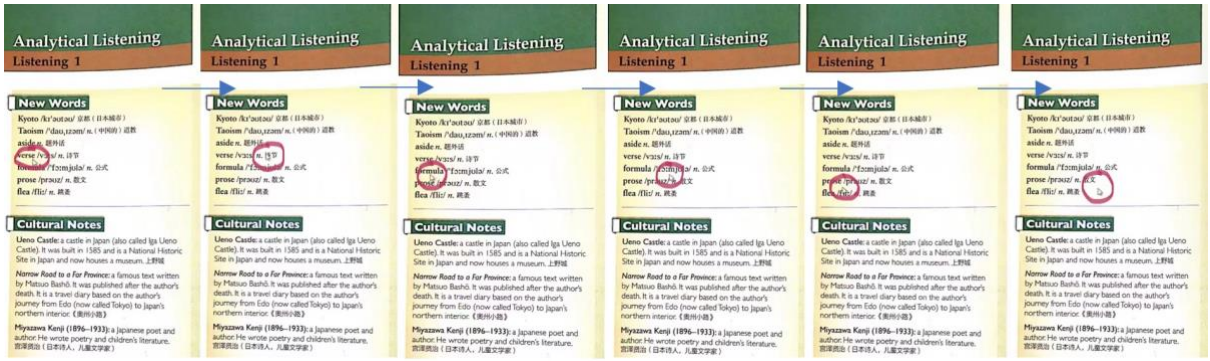


4 Pay special attention to some NOUNS, related to poems,

5 like /# verse, formula, prose. OK?

/# T uses the mouse to underline the word “verse”, “formula” and “prose” in the New Words box as she speaks.

Screenshot 4-2-2



6 And pay attention /to <the pronunciation of Ueno Castle, Ueno Castle>.

/T moves the mouse to “Ueno Castle” in the Cultural Notes, and underlines the words as she speaks.

7 All right. /Now, let’s …

/T scrolls the page up and down a bit.

8 /READ the paragraphs on the right-hand side.

/T uses the mouse to circle around the paragraphs.

Before this extract, T4 leads students to a new section of the unit, “Analytical Listening 1”. The extract starts with T4 drawing students’ attention to the New Words and Cultural Notes

boxes in Analytical Listening 1. While verbally mentioning the words and expressions in the two boxes, T4 uses the mouse to circle or underline the printed texts on the page. In line 3, when T4 explains to students that they will not spend time in reading all the entries in the New Words box and the Cultural Notes box in class, she uses the mouse to circle the boxes. In alignment with her verbal references to the two boxes, T4's embodied cue of circling around the boxes directs students' attention to the content on the textbook page. After that, T4 verbally draws students' attention to some words in the New Words box and the Cultural Notes box which she thinks will pose a challenge to students in the forthcoming listening activity. In congruent with what is being said, the teacher uses the mouse to underline the words in lines 5 and 6. The underlining action further directs students' joint attention to the words and expressions in focus by the teacher. It is by means of this embodied cue that students can quickly orient to the instructed words and expressions.

The extract shows how T4 uses the mouse to underline and circle around the relevant content under instruction. Throughout her classes, T4 maintains constant embodied engagement with scanned textbook pages through manipulating the mouse, highlighting certain teaching content through movements of the mouse on the textbook page. Meanwhile, as shown in this extract, compared to T1's embodied interaction with the print textbook and T2's embodied interaction with the screen, T4's embodied interaction with the textbook page through manipulating the mouse engages with more specific content of the textbook. This is enabled by the very fact that in online courses, the teacher is sharing the textbook on screen. The textbook is brought into a physical proximity to students. While the teacher verbally interacts with students, this "extra" engagement with the textbook materiality adds force to secure the students' attention to the material (Goodwin, 2000). In the online classrooms, students' cameras remain off throughout. The teacher is thus unable to observe students' responses to any pedagogical actions. The embodied engagement with specific parts of the scanned textbook pages could provide the teacher a possible resource to cope with the interactional challenge brought about by the situation and ensure that students are engaged throughout the instructional process.

The strategy of manipulating the mouse to interact with displayed textbook content is also found in T3's online classrooms. T3 is using PPT slides to display textbook content in her classroom and she also frequently manipulates the mouse to underline or circle around certain textbook content to further direct students' attention. Extract 3-2 gives an example of how T3

manipulates the mouse to interact with textbook content, to ensure clarity in interaction, and direct and maintain students' joint attention.

Extract 3-2

1 T3: OK, so, /now,

/ T turns the PPT pages to display a blank-filling activity of "Attractions of Manhattan".

2 let's turn to the story

3 and find out <HOW the author left herself in debt, in deeper and deeper debt>.

4 Yeah. At the beginning, she thought that the borough of New York,

5 that is Manhattan, has a lot of attractions, <INCLUDING>

6 So now I'd like you to

7 /# turn to these, um, to turn to the different paragraphs, turn to different paragraphs,

/# T uses the mouse to point at the paragraph numbers on the PPT slide.

Screenshot 3-2-1



8 /# and find the <proper words> here.

/# T uses the mouse to point at the first blank on the PPT slide.

Screenshot 3-2-2



9 Turn to the different paragraphs, and found, and find the proper words here.

10 /后面标注的这些数字是

The numbers at the end of each bulletin point are

/T uses the mouse to point at the paragraph numbers on the PPT slide.

11 /这些词, 或者说这些表达所在的段落.

the paragraphs these words, or these expressions are located in.

/T uses the mouse to point at the blanks and the expressions on the PPT slide.

12 那么大家找一下哈, /这些地方应该填什么.

So you find out what should be filled in these places.

/T uses the mouse to point at the first blank on the PPT slide.

In this extract, T3 gives directions to a reading activity following the textbook reading passage. The reading activity asks students to complete a chart which summarises the main ideas of the reading passage. The original activity in the textbook provides the initial letter of missing words, as shown in Picture 1-2. T3 adapted it and provides the paragraph number in which each missing word is located as prompts, as shown in Picture 1-3.

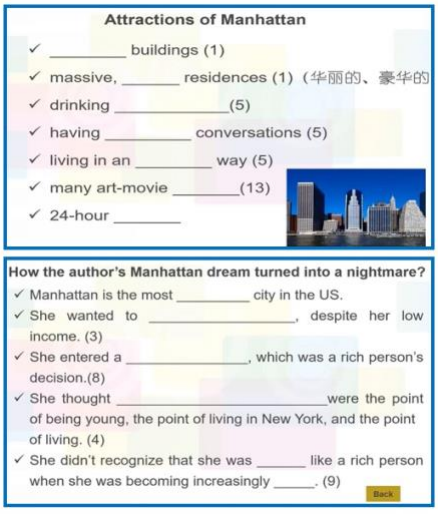
Picture 1-2



Attractions of Manhattan	How the author's Manhattan dream turned into a nightmare
☐ g_____ buildings	☐ Manhattan is the most e_____ city in the USA.
☐ massive, o_____ residences	☐ She wanted to keep up a_____, despite her low income.
☐ drinking g_____ and t_____	☐ She entered a g_____ program, which was a rich person's decision.
☐ having i_____ conversations	☐ She thought Martinis and expensive dinners were the p_____ of being young, the p_____ of living in New York, and the p_____ of living.
☐ living in an a_____ way	☐ She didn't recognize that she was acting like a rich person when she was becoming increasingly p_____.
☐ many art-movie h_____	
☐ 24-hour t_____	

(Li, 2021, p. 87)

Picture 1-3



When giving directions, T3 manipulates the mouse to interact with the displayed textbook activity. In line 7, when T3 verbally asks students to look at different paragraphs, she manipulates the mouse to point at different paragraph numbers provided in the activity. Later from line 8 to line 12, when T3 verbally mentions the words and expressions that need to be filled in, she uses the mouse to point at the blank indicated by a line, and when she verbally mentions the numbers, she uses the mouse to point at the numbers provided as prompts. The display of the activity brings it into interactional space, and the embodied interaction with details in the activity through manipulating the mouse further directs students' attention to these details. The strategy helps with the clarity of the interaction, and affords T3's giving directions to the activity.

Although it is impossible for both the teachers and the researcher to perceive students' bodily reactions to this embodied cue, it can be understood from the fact that little misunderstanding or non-understanding arise from the two online classrooms that this embodied cue is attended to by students in both classrooms. When the teachers are using this embodied cue along with their verbal interaction, students may well understand that the teachers are instructing on textbook materials, and these highlighted details should be attended to.

This embodied cue is also observed in T1's and T2's face-to-face classrooms. As explained above, T1 and T2 display textbook content on screens when they instruct students on language. At these moments, they are also found to manipulate the mouse to interact with the displayed textbook content to further direct students' attention thereby facilitating the clarity of the interaction and the efficacy of the instruction. It can be seen from students' gaze directions in the face-to-face classrooms that when the teachers are employing this embodied strategy, more students' attention is drawn to the screen or the textbook, but less to the teacher. Such an example can be shown in Screenshot 5.7 when T1 is manipulating the mouse to underline the relevant sentence on the slide, compared with Screenshot 5.8 when T1 is holding the textbook.

Screenshot 5.7

T1 Underlining Sentences on Slides



Screenshot 5.8

T1 Holding the Textbook



When the teachers use the mouse to interact with relevant content in the textbook, the textbook provides teaching materials. Regardless of whether the teachers are following the textbook or adapting it, they use embodied strategies to lead students through the teaching

process by maintaining students' attention on the textbook and directing their attention to important learning points or key information.

5.2.2.5 Summary. Extracts from four classrooms have been used in this section to demonstrate how the teachers employ embodied strategies of tapping on the textbook, pointing at the textbook, positioning upper torso towards the screen, and manipulating the mouse to point at, underline, and circle around textbook content on the screen when the textbook has already been placed in interactional space. T1 points at the textbook in her hands when she emphasises a particular detail in the textbook and when she invites students to respond to questions on textbook content. When she encourages students to give an answer to a question on the textbook content, T1 is also found to tap on the textbook page. Pointing at the textbook is also employed by T2 when she gives directions to textbook activities, which facilitates the clarity of the directions and which portrays the textbook as not only teaching/learning content but also a hypothetical participant in the activity who has genuine interest in students' knowledge and opinion to justify the activity design. Turning the upper torso to face the textbook displayed on the screen is another embodied cue T2 employs to further direct students' joint attention to the textbook and orient students to upcoming instructional transitions. Manipulating the mouse to interact with the textbook content displayed on the shared screen is the most frequently employed embodied strategy used by T3 and T4 in their online classroom, which is also found in T1's and T2's face-to-face classrooms when they display textbook content on the screen and instruct students on language forms. This strategy helps secure students' attention when physical interaction between the teacher and students, such as eye contact, bodily proximity, etc., are difficult to enact.

All these strategies are employed when the textbook is already placed in interactional space by the teachers. The employment of these strategies increases modal intensity to the embodied interactional mode while adding modal complexity to the verbal interaction. In this way, the strategies enhance the clarity of teachers' interaction in leading students through the instructional process as such strategies clarify referential meanings and highlight key information. Moreover, the strategies facilitate the classroom management in that they provide a means for the teachers to orient students to the forthcoming interaction and to encourage students' participation in the interaction. Table 5-2 summarises the embodied strategies which

raise modal intensity in embodied interaction, the interactional functions of these strategies, and the instructional activities they afford.

Table 5-2

Embodied Strategies Raising Modal Intensity in Embodied Interaction

Ts	Embodied strategies	Interactional functions	Instructional activities
T1	Tapping on the textbook	Inviting answers	To instruct on the understanding of the textbook reading passage
	Pointing at the textbook	Enhancing reference to the textbook	
		Inviting answers	
	Manipulating the mouse to interact with PPT slides	Further directing students' attention to textbook details	To instruct on language forms
T2	Pointing at the textbook	Enhancing reference to the textbook	To give directions to textbook activities
		Justifying activity design	
	Turning upper torso to face PPT slides on the display screen	Initiating shift in instructional focus and directing students' joint attention	To present textbook questions
T3	Manipulating the mouse to interact with PPT slides	Securing attention to textbook details	To give directions, to instruct on language forms and new information, to instruct on the meaning of the reading passage
T4	Manipulating the mouse to interact with scanned textbook pages	Securing attention to textbook details	To give directions, to instruct on language forms and new information

It can be seen that different strategies are employed in different classroom modes. In face-to-face classrooms, physical positioning and gestures are frequently employed by the teachers to achieve effective interaction and instruction. In online classrooms, however, bodily

cues are difficult to employ and discern. The teachers then utilise the mouse to interact with the computer screen which displays the textbook. The embodied strategies through manipulating the mouse facilitate teachers in securing students' attention in online classrooms and to achieve what other embodied strategies help teachers accomplish in face-to-face classrooms. The textbook formats used by the teachers also influence the embodied strategies utilised by the teachers. For example, in the face-to-face classrooms, it can be seen that T1 and T2 use different strategies because T1 mainly uses the print textbook to teach and T2 mainly uses PPT slides. In addition, at the moments when PPT slides are used in T1's face-to-face classrooms, T1 uses strategies different from the ones she employs when she uses the print textbook, but similar to the strategies employed by T3 and T4 in their online classrooms.

While these embodied strategies demonstrate that the textbook plays important roles in classroom instruction, they also reveal the teachers' authority over the teaching procedure and the interactional process. Functioning as the locus of attention in classrooms, the textbook as an object affords the teacher's guidance on the interactional process as the teachers' anticipatory bodily orientation towards the textbook signals to students a forthcoming shift in the instructional focus. Textbook materiality allows the teachers to encourage students' participation in the interaction by adding modal intensity to the embodied interaction. It ensures the clarity of interaction as it helps the teachers clarify references to textbook details and highlight key information. The teachers, through mobilising textbook materiality, agentively lead students through classroom instruction. These embodied strategies facilitate pedagogical instruction on knowledge and skills, such as highlighting instructional focus and justifying activity design. Meanwhile, these embodied strategies facilitate the instructional process by directing and maintaining students' joint attention, orienting them to instructional transitions, and prompting their classroom participation.

5.2.1 and 5.2.2 have demonstrated with extracts from data the embodied strategies the teachers use to mobilise textbook materiality, and how these strategies contribute to classroom instruction and interaction. The analysis so far has focused on the interactional process and instructional goals. However, as the teachers embodiedly interact with textbook materiality to facilitate instructional and interactional purposes, they are also positioning themselves, textbooks and students in different relationships in the classroom space. Through foregrounding and backgrounding textbooks or themselves, the teachers enact different classroom power dynamics.

The next section focuses on the relative positioning of teachers and textbooks in physical classrooms and examines how the emplaced strategies contribute to classroom power dynamics and work on teacher-student social relationships.

5.3 Teacher–Textbook–Student Dynamics

When the teachers employ embodied strategies to mobilise textbook materiality in physical classrooms, they also adopt different relative positions with respect to textbooks and students. This section focuses on how the embodied interaction changes the relative physical positioning of teachers, textbooks, and students, in particular how the teachers group themselves with the textbook or students in interaction. The analysis intends to reveal what interpersonal functions are realised by the teachers' emplaced interaction with textbooks in physical classrooms.

5.3.1 Grouping with the Textbook

When the teachers embodiedly interact with the textbook, the textbook is brought into interactional space through different embodied strategies, as illustrated in 5.2.1. At these moments, the textbook is foregrounded together with the teachers in interaction. When T1 takes up the textbook from the teacher desk at Spot 1, carries it to Spot 2 and holds it while interacting with students, both the teacher and the textbook are foregrounded in the physical space to obtain students' joint attention and they act as a group to interact with students. During the process, the teacher and the textbook are in physical proximity. When the teacher and the textbook are physically apart from each other, with T1 standing at Spot 2 and the textbook on the teacher desk at Spot 1, the teacher can also direct students' attention to the textbook through her pointing gesture. Through pointing, T1 brings the textbook into interactional space with the extended trajectory of her pointing finger and groups the textbook together with the teacher as the focus of students' joint attention. At these moments, the teacher and the textbook as a group is positioned as facing students as a group in an F-formation (Kendon, 1990) where the two groups of participants are positioned in a way to interact with each other.

T2 uses PPT slides to display textbook content, so the textbook is brought into interactional space. When displayed on the screen, the textbook is foregrounded in the physical space. The teachers place themselves in a position where they can manipulate the content displayed. In this way, the teacher and the textbook can form a group to interact with students, for example, when T2 displays textbook questions on the screen as she gives directions to an

activity that requires students to work in pairs and ask each other these questions. At this moment, students' joint attention is directed to both the teacher and the textbook. The teacher and the textbook form a group which is positioned as facing students in interaction.

However, there can be another case in which the teachers and students form a group whose joint attention is centred on the textbook, no matter whether it is held in hands or displayed on screens.

5.3.2 Grouping with Students

There are moments when the teachers group themselves together with students. In C1, when T1 reads from the textbook at Spot 2, she looks down at the textbook held in her hands, taking the same position as that of students in terms of how they face the textbook. At these moments, T1 is not embodiedly engaged with students, but with the textbook, a position taken by most students at the same time. In terms of attention focus, students' joint attention is on the textbook, and so is the teacher's attention. The teacher and students as a group is focusing their attention on the textbook, rather than on each other.

The teachers grouping themselves with students can also be identified when T1 and T2 display textbook content on screens. There are moments when T1 sits behind the teacher desk, looking at the computer screen and reading aloud the displayed textbook content, while students all look at computer screens on their desks. T2 is also found to stand behind the teacher desk when video clips or audio clips are played on the display screen. At these moments, both T2 and students focus their attention on the displayed content.

Another way of the teacher grouping themselves with students is also identified in C2. As explained in the interactional reading, T2 usually positions herself at Spot 2 when she is interacting with students. At Spot 2, T2 is between students and the textbook displayed on the screen. Most of the time, T2 faces students, but there are moments when T2 turns her upper torso to face the textbook displayed on the screen, as demonstrated in 5.2.2. At these moments, T2 places herself in the same position as that of students in relation to the textbook. It is the teacher together with students as a group that focus their attention on the textbook and interact with it.

5.3.3 Teacher–Textbook Unity vs Teacher–Student Unity

Through different ways of grouping themselves with either the textbook or students in the physical space, the teachers create different dynamics among the teacher, the textbook, and students. When the teachers group themselves with the textbook, they are the major focus of

attention in the classroom and presented as using the textbook to teach students. The teacher guides students through the instructional process by designing teaching procedure and sometimes teaching content, while the textbook, sometimes together with the teacher, provides the teaching material. Epistemologically and procedurally, the teacher is positioned at the higher end of the power dynamics in the classroom in relation to students. A traditional asymmetrical social relationship is enacted between teachers and students where the teachers hold a superior level of epistemological knowledge in comparison to students and take a role of evaluating student performance and giving them feedback.

When the teachers group themselves with students, the textbook is further foregrounded in the physical space and becomes the major focus of attention. The textbook's epistemological authority is acknowledged, while the teacher's is downplayed. Teachers and students are grouped together as a learning community who together use the textbook. The textbook is enacted as the classroom authority as it provides knowledge and designs activities. The teachers are presented as facilitating students in using the textbook to learn. Compared with the traditional asymmetrical relationship between teachers and students, a more equal power relationship is enacted, which contributes to a more relaxed classroom atmosphere.

Through physically forming these two types of units, the teachers enact different classroom authorities in terms of how they become the focus of joint attention in interactional space during classroom instruction and interaction. Through these emplaced means of positioning textbooks and themselves in the classroom, the teachers construct different types of social relations with students, either a relationship more defined by the asymmetrical power relations traditionally recognised in the teacher–student relationship or a more egalitarian relationship between teachers and students. Most of the time, the teachers' grouping with the textbook or students is accompanied by their different ways of using language, which will be further examined in Chapter 6.

Through embodiedly mobilising textbook materiality, the teachers do not only instruct students on knowledge, but also facilitate effective interaction and construct different social relationships. However, all these goals are not achieved solely through embodied interaction. Although the analysis focus has been on embodied interaction, all the extracts in this chapter have shown that embodied interaction works together with verbal interaction. The next chapter moves on to analyse teachers' verbal interaction and then bring the two modes of interaction

together as a coherent whole. Before turning to verbal interaction and interaction as a whole, it is worthwhile to explain why the study "isolates" the embodied mode for separate analysis first.

5.4 Why Embodied Interaction First?

While previous studies have investigated how teachers use textbook content which is usually examined through teacher talk, the affordances of textbook materiality have been largely overlooked. Focusing on embodied interaction between teachers and textbooks helps reveal how teachers mobilise textbook materiality in classroom interaction and how textbook materiality affords classroom instruction. 5.2 has demonstrated how the teachers' embodied interaction with the textbook as an object contributes to classroom interaction and instruction. The extracts from the datasets have shown how the embodied actions place the textbook at the centre of joint attention, and how they serve various interactional functions. Investigation into the embodied interaction also reveals how the teachers' physical positioning in relation to the textbook helps group themselves with the textbook or students, which contributes to the establishment of power dynamics and social relationships in classrooms (5.3). The analysis of embodied interaction reveals that the teachers, through mobilising textbook materiality, are actively working on the managerial and interpersonal aspects of the classroom instruction when they use the textbook to teach, and the classroom authority is acted into being by the teachers. The understanding enables us to have a more comprehensive picture of teachers' use of textbooks in the classroom and reveals embodied interaction as a crucial component of teachers' ELT textbook use.

Examination of teachers' embodied interaction with textbooks not only affirms the importance of textbook materiality in classroom interaction and reveals teachers' agentive work in using textbooks, but also allows us to delve into the relationships between embodied interaction and verbal interaction, and thus understand how the two modes of interaction work together to achieve different interactional goals. The extracts demonstrate that there are various ways in which embodied interaction works in collaboration with verbal interaction. Timewise, embodied interaction can be a precedent signal to shifts in verbal interaction. Before the teachers give verbal directions which signal a shift in instructional or interactional focus, their embodied interaction with the textbook can help orient students to the upcoming shifts. Embodied interaction and verbal interaction can also work complementarily. Embodied interaction can be a silence-filler in verbal interaction, which acts as a prompt to encourage students' participation. The two modes of interaction can also work in synchrony. Embodied interaction can co-occur

with verbal interaction to serve as an attention-grabber, in order to single out the textbook from all the participating entities in the interaction, to emphasise the textbook in the interaction, or to direct students' attention to certain details in the textbook. The analysis supports the value of separating embodied interaction out from the multimodal interaction to focus on its contribution to the classroom interaction and instruction.

Analytically, it is fruitful to separate embodied interaction from the whole, but interaction itself is happening in a multimodal way, with embodied interaction and verbal interaction working together to ensure effective interaction and instruction. Apart from the analysis of embodied interaction illustrated in this chapter, it is vital to examine how the teachers verbally interact with the textbook and students. Most important of all, the two modes need to be brought together. The interaction needs to be viewed and analysed as an organic whole to understand teachers' textbook use in classroom instruction. With this in mind, I now proceed to the next analytical chapter.

Chapter 6 Giving Direction and Asking Questions: Pragmatic Functions, Verbal Strategies, and Interactional Patterns

Chapter 5 provides an interactional reading of the physical/virtual space of the classrooms under study, which illustrates how teachers position themselves differently in the space for different interactional activities. Based on the interactional reading, I then identify the teachers' embodied and emplaced strategies of interacting with textbook materiality, and analyse and interpret the interactional functions and goals of these strategies. The analysis reveals that the embodied and emplaced strategies the teachers employ to interact with textbooks afford the classroom instruction and interaction and help enact different power dynamics in the classroom.

Chapter 6 continues with interaction analysis of the classroom data. It first shifts the focus onto verbal interaction and then brings the two modes of verbal interaction and embodied interaction together. The shift of focus allows me to delve into the nuances of the teachers' use of textbooks as a socioculturally constructed semiotic tool in classroom interaction, which completes the picture delineated in Chapter 5. Through examining the pragmatic functions realised in TREs (4.3.3.2), and the linguistic forms used to realise the functions, the chapter uncovers pedagogical and procedural goals achieved through the teachers' verbal strategies of mobilising the textbook. The analysis also reveals recurrent interactional patterns of how the teachers use the textbook to interact with students in classrooms. Examining the negotiation between voices in teachers' verbal interaction in each interactional pattern, and building on the analysis of how the teachers group themselves with textbooks or students through their embodied interaction in Chapter 5, the analysis uncovers power dynamics and social relationships enacted by different interactional patterns, further revealing interpersonal functions of the teachers' classroom textbook use.

In this chapter, I first identify the interactional types of all TREs and describe the three basic ways teachers verbally present the textbook, *direct quoting*, *indirect quoting*, and *referring*. Focusing on the frequent TRE types of *giving directions* and *asking questions*, I then examine the pragmatic functions realised in TREs and the linguistic forms used to realise the functions.

Then, I bring together verbal interaction and embodied interaction, and uncover recurrent interactional patterns in each TRE type. Within each interactional pattern, I further examine the negotiation of voices between teachers and textbooks. Building on the analysis of how the teachers foreground the textbook materiality and group themselves with the textbook or students in Chapter 5, I investigate how the teachers' verbal and embodied interaction with the textbook discursively constructs power dynamics and establishes social relationships in each interactional pattern.

6.1 Textbook-Relevant Episodes (TREs): When Do the Teachers Use Textbooks?

Chapter 5 has mapped out where the teachers use textbooks in classrooms, what forms of textbook materiality the teachers are using at different physical positions, and what instructional activities the teachers are conducting, focusing on the embodied interaction and examining the physical spaces in classrooms. To understand how the teachers are verbally interacting with textbooks, this chapter further delineates when the teachers use textbooks in classrooms, identifying in what types of interactional events the teachers use textbooks. The four participant teachers, the same as probably all other teachers, do not use textbooks throughout their lessons, nor do they follow textbooks faithfully. In the four classrooms, there are moments when the teachers use textbooks to conduct instruction, and there are moments when the teachers supplement materials or instruct on knowledge/skills outside the textbook. To achieve instructional goals, different teachers may enact different types of interactional events. The same type of interactional events may also be used for realising different instructional goals. I now present the types of TREs in each classroom one by one.

6.1.1 Reading and Writing Courses

In the datasets, T1 and T3 are teaching Reading & Writing courses. The textbooks used in these two classrooms are the Integrated Coursebook component of two textbook series. In each unit of the two textbooks, there are two reading passages and other multimedia input and activities. Both T1's and T3's lessons focus on the first/main reading passage of the unit.

6.1.1.1 T1's Classroom (C1). T1's lessons are devoted to giving feedback to students on their homework which is to write a summary of the first reading passage in Unit 1, Book 3 (*New Standard*). The reading passage is entitled "Catching crabs", in which the author writes about how he was unsure if he should pursue a career as a writer considering its instability or follow

suit and pursue a financially promising career as his peers, and how his father took him to catch crabs and let him watch the crabs dragging each other down and back into the mesh when they struggling out, to help the author make up his mind. In the lessons, T1 instructs students on the understanding of the reading passage, in order to help them better summarise it. In T1's classroom, the TREs consist of mainly T1 asking students questions. No matter whether T1 is instructing on the meaning of the passage or the language used in the passage, the instruction is mainly achieved through questions and answers between the teacher and students.

6.1.1.2 T3's Classroom (C3). T3 is also delivering a Reading & Writing Course. The lessons of the unit focus on the main reading passage. Apart from instructing students on the meaning and language of the passage, T3 uses the pre-reading video-watching activity and post-reading comprehension and language activities in the textbook. In T3's lessons, the TREs mainly cover four interaction types. Two are related to the use of textbook activities in the classroom, including T3 giving directions to textbook activities and T3 asking students textbook questions. The other two are related to the reading passage, including T3 asking students to read aloud some paragraphs of the passage and T3 asking students questions about the passage to guide them on language learning.

6.1.2 Listening (and Speaking) Courses

In the datasets, T2 and T4 are teaching Listening (and Speaking) Courses. The textbooks used in these two classrooms are the Viewing, Listening and Speaking Coursebook component of two textbook series. In each unit of the two textbooks, there are video clips, audio clips, and speaking activities, all of which are related to one theme. In both T2's and T4's lessons, the teachers use the textbook content selectively.

6.1.2.1 T2's Classroom (C2). T2's course is a Listening & Speaking course. In T2's dataset, the lessons focus on a unit with "food and drink" as the unit theme. In the lessons, TREs involve T2 using a speaking activity and an audio clip from the textbook. The interaction types of TREs include T2 giving directions to the activities, asking students textbook questions, presenting the audio clip, and asking students questions about the audio clip.

6.1.2.2 T4's Classroom (C4). T4 is delivering a Listening Course. In T4's lessons, T4 uses the warm-up activity of the unit called "Exploring the Theme" and various audio clips from the textbook. The interaction types of TREs include T4 presenting the textbook content, asking

students questions about the textbook content, giving directions to textbook activities, and asking students textbook questions.

When the TREs in the four classrooms are put together, two interactional types of TREs emerge from the data as the most frequent ones. They are giving directions and asking questions. To understand how teachers verbally interact with the textbook and how the teacher–textbook interaction affords classroom interaction and facilitates classroom instruction, the interaction analysis in this chapter focuses on these most frequent two types. However, before moving to the analysis of these two interactional types, it is appropriate to start with the description of how teachers verbally present the textbook to students in the four classrooms.

6.2 Verbally Presenting the Textbook

Any interactional type of using textbooks involves the teachers presenting the textbook to students, either embodiedly or verbally. Chapter 5 has explored the embodied strategies the teachers use to direct students' attention to the textbook. While embodiedly bringing the textbook into interactional space and directing students' joint attention to it, the teachers also verbally present the textbook.

Three prominent ways of the teachers verbally presenting the textbook in classrooms are found in the datasets. Two types involve the teachers quoting textbook content. One is the teachers directly quoting the textbook, and the other is the teachers indirectly quoting the textbook. The two types are different from each other in the extent to which the teachers are foregrounding the textbook voice and also the pragmatic functions they afford the teachers. The third type is different from the other two in that the teachers do not quote textbook content, but refer to the textbook or the content in it in their verbal interaction. I now use example extracts from the datasets to demonstrate these three ways of verbally presenting the textbook.

6.2.1 Direct Quoting

The teachers often directly read out textbook content when they present it to students. For example, in lines 7 and 8 of Extract 1-1, T1 presents the reading passage by reading it out to students while displaying the passage on the computer screen.

Extract 1-1

…

6 /# (1.0) OK, let's look at this one.

/# T changes the PPT slides to “slide show” mode.

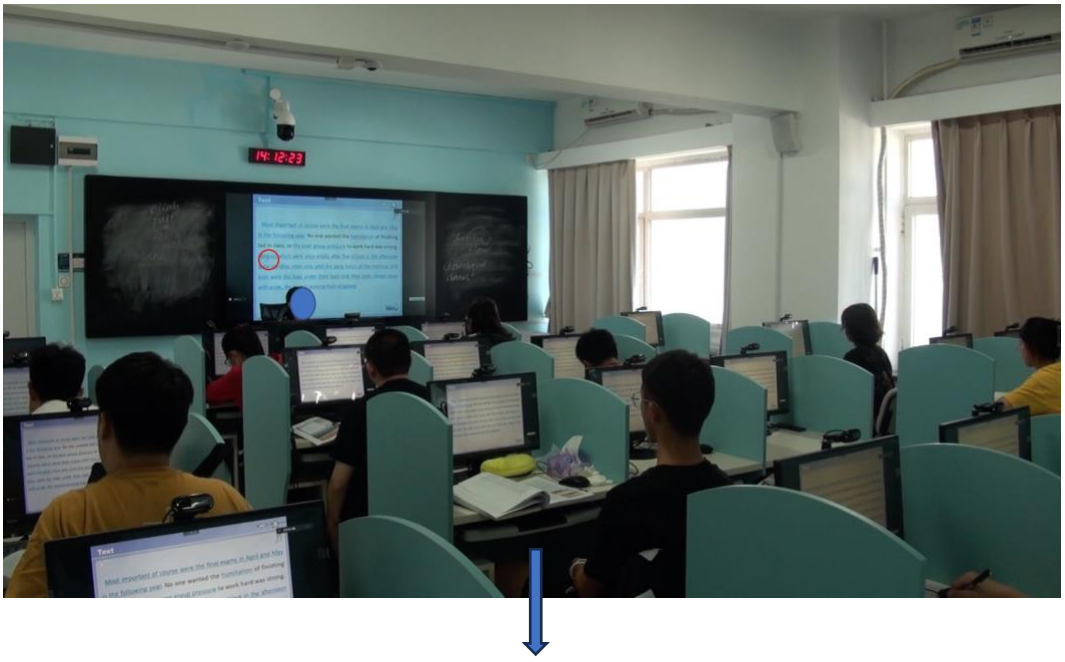
Screenshot 1-1-3

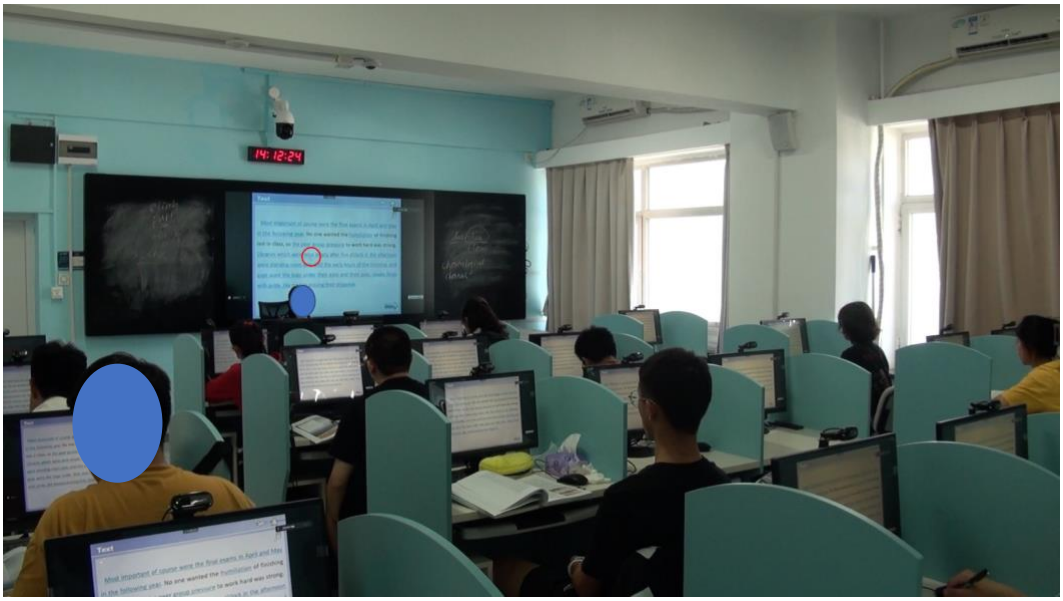


7 /# “Libraries which were once empty after five o’clock in the afternoon

/# T uses the mouse to underline the sentence as she reads it out.

Screenshot 1-1-4





8 were standing room only ...”

9 Can you analyse the sentence structure here?

Directly quoting the textbook is found in all four teachers’ classrooms. At these moments, students are mainly interacting with the textbook rather than the teacher although it is the teachers who are verbalising the content. The fact that students are interacting with the textbook is probably most evident from the way the teachers read out the reading passage. As the teachers read out the reading passage, they often adopt the author voice. For example, the reading passage in the textbook used in T1’s classroom contains dialogues between a father and a son. T1 does not only read out the dialogues when she verbally presents them, but also acts them out, adopting the tone of the father and the son in the passage. The textbook, at these moments, is in direct interaction with students. This is also supported by students’ embodied positioning towards textbooks at these moments. For example, in screenshots 1-1-3 and 1-1-4, it can be seen that students are either looking at the print textbook on their desks or the computer screen in front of them. The textbook rather than the teacher enjoys a more important position in terms of interactional attention. In terms of power dynamics, it enjoys a more authoritative status than the teachers as it acts as the source of knowledge or the model of language use that students need to understand or master.

6.2.2 Indirect Quoting

A different type of quoting the textbook found to be used by the teachers when they verbally present the textbook is to indirectly quote textbook content. Instead of reading out textbook content, the teachers refer to certain content in the textbook when using other language forms. Indirect quoting can be found in many language forms, such as interrogatives and declaratives, but the language form that is frequently used by the teachers to indirectly quote textbook content is imperatives. Using imperatives, the teachers direct students' action. Extract 4-2 from T4's classroom demonstrates how imperatives of indirectly quoting the textbook are used by the teachers to not only present certain textbook content but also instruct students on the learning points.

Extract 4-2

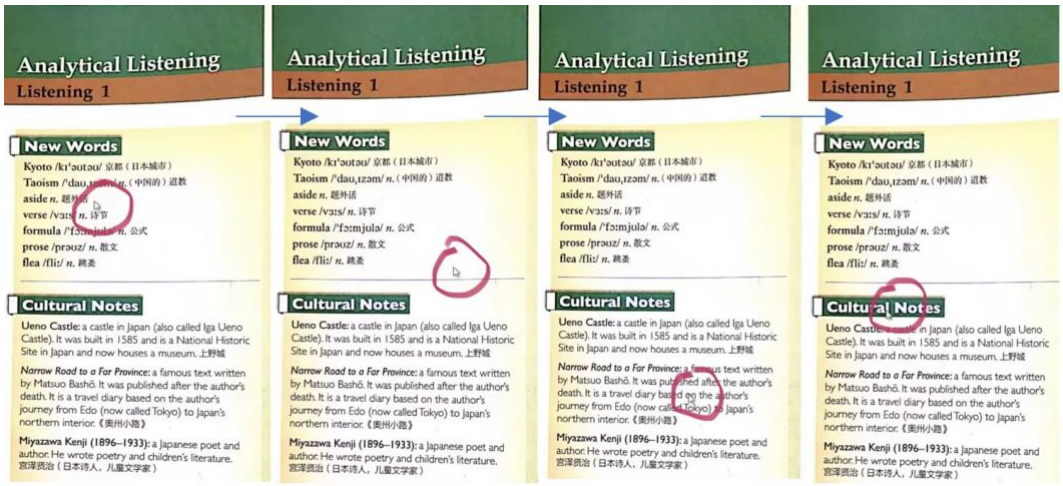
1 T4: YOU have already prepared for the new words and the cultural notes. Right?

2 Um, we won't spend time,

3 /# to read the words and the cultural notes anymore in the class.

/# T uses the mouse to circle around the new words and the cultural notes.

Screenshot 4-2-1

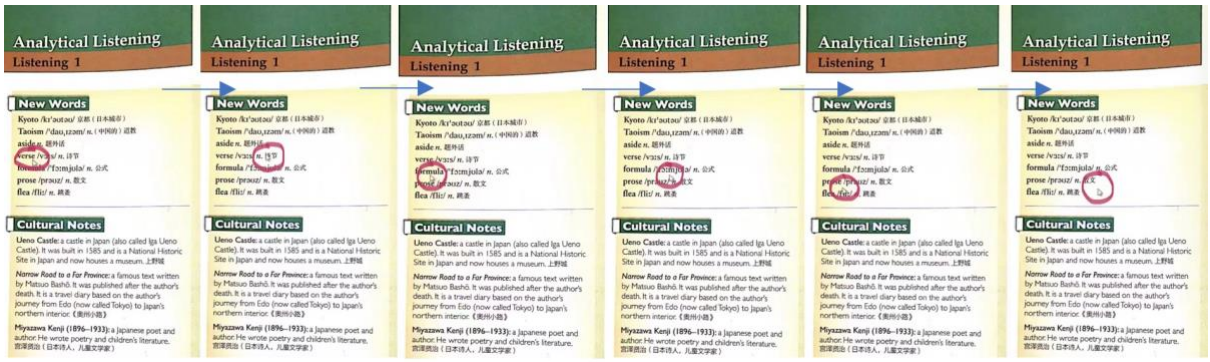


4 Pay special attention to some NOUNS, related to poems,

5 like /# <u>verse</u>, <u>formula</u>, <u>prose</u>. OK?

/# T uses the mouse to underline the word "verse", "formula" and "prose" in the New Words box as she speaks.

Screenshot 4-2-2



6 And pay attention /to <the pronunciation of Ueno Castle, Ueno Castle>.

/T moves the mouse to "Ueno Castle" in the Cultural Notes, and underlines the words as she speaks.

7 All right. /Now, let's …

/T scrolls the page up and down a bit.

8 /READ the paragraphs on the right-hand side.

/T uses the mouse to circle around the paragraphs.

From line 4 to line 6, T4 uses imperatives to direct students' attention to certain words and expressions in the textbook, and to emphasise the importance of learning the meaning of the words "verse", "formula" and "prose", and the pronunciation of the expression "Ueno Castle". Using imperatives, T4 indirectly quotes the textbook by verbalising the words and expressions.

What is significant in this extract is that T4 markedly slows down her speaking speed and uses stress when she quotes the words and expressions in the textbook. All these prosodic features, together with the embodied action of manipulating the mouse to underline the quoted content, contribute to the highlighting of these words and expressions (Gumperz, 1982). Students' attention is directed to certain content of the textbook, which is marked out by the teacher's prosodic and embodied interaction with textbook content. Another significant point is that T4 repeats the expression "Ueno Castle" twice when presenting it in line 6. This strategy further secures students' attention to the expression. By using these strategies, T4 is not only presenting textbook content, but also instructing students on the words and expressions. Not only is students' attention drawn to the relevant textbook content, but the teacher is highlighting the learning points for students.

Direct quoting and indirect quoting differ from each other in the dynamics between teacher voice and textbook voice (Wertsch, 1993). When the textbook is directly quoted, the textbook voice is foregrounded. Although it is the teacher who is verbalising textbook content, the textbook is brought into direct interaction with students. When the textbook is indirectly quoted, teacher voice is the more prominent one in interaction. Interactively, textbook voice is mitigated so as to support the teacher's directive to students. Pedagogically, while the textbook provides the learning material, the teacher acts as the authoritative guide to highlight learning points for students.

Drawing on Wertsch's (1993) analysis of how direct quoting and indirect quoting privileges different voices, the analysis shows that the two verbal strategies the teachers use to present textbook content foreground different voices in the interaction and thus enact different power dynamics. While the above analysis of extract 4-2 demonstrates how quoting textbook content can be used to achieve the pragmatic function of highlighting learning points, it provides a limited illustration of interaction. The interactional functions achieved and the dynamics enacted in classrooms are more carefully examined and presented in the following sections on giving directions and asking questions.

6.2.3 Referring to the Textbook

Apart from quoting textbook content, the teachers are found to verbally refer to the textbook in their interaction with students. When verbally referring to the textbook, the teachers do not present the specific content in the textbook, but use indexical expressions to indicate the textbook or a particular part in the textbook. Extract 2-2 and Extract 3-2 are from T2's and T3's classrooms where both teachers initiate a shift in the instructional focus. T2 is initiating a transition from discussion on one question to the next, and T3 is initiating a shift from one section in the textbook to the other.

Extract 2-2

1 T2: /# 好.

OK.

/# T turns around to look at the screen.

Screenshot 2-2-1



2 Next one, what time do they invite you for, and what time

3 /# do you arrive?

/# T turns back to look at the students.

Screenshot 2-2-2



…

Extract 3-2

1 T3: OK, so, /now,

/T turns the PPT pages to display a blank-filling activity of “Attractions of Manhattan”.

2 let’s turn to the story

3 and find out <HOW the author left herself in debt, in deeper and deeper debt>.

…

In Extract 2-2, when initiating a shift to the next question, T2 uses “next one” (line 2) to refer to the next question displayed on the screen and directs students’ joint attention to it. Before quoting the question later in line 2, T2 refers students to it using an indexical expression. In Extract 3-2, similarly, when T3 initiates a change from a video-watching activity to a reading activity, she uses an imperative to direct students’ joint attention. While inviting students to the reading passage, she uses an indexical expression “the story” in line 2 to refer to the reading passage in the textbook. In both examples, the teachers use indexical expressions to refer to the textbook or particular content in the textbook in their verbal interaction with students.

Apart from using indexical noun phrases to refer to the textbook, the teachers are also found to frequently use the indexical pronoun “it” to refer to the textbook. Extract 4-3 from T4’s classroom gives such an example.

Extract 4-3

…

5 T4: Um, now, I’d like one to tell me, <what was his work mainly about,>
6 what is the topic, or what were the topics of his works,
7 and, (.) WHO did him has, have, have great influence on.
8 (2.0) Anybody?
9 That’s easy, if you read it.
10 (3.0) Then, how about S1?
11 S1: The subject he wrote about, mainly about nature, friendship, and, passage of time.
12 T4: Uh huh.

…

In Extract 4-3, T4 asks students a question about a well-known poet in Tang Dynasty, Li Bai. In the textbook, there is an image of Li Bai, and beneath the image, there is a caption describing the themes of his poetry and his influences on poets after him. From line 5 to line 7, T4 presents two questions. In line 8, she waits for two seconds and invites volunteers to share their answers. After that, in line 9, T4 encourages students to respond by evaluating the question as “easy”. When doing this, T4 uses “it” to refer to the caption beneath the image. Textbook

content is not presented through quoting the textbook, but referred to in the teacher's utterances through the pronoun "it".

This section presents different ways employed by the teachers to quote or refer to the textbook or textbook content in their verbal interaction with students. All TREs involve the teachers presenting the textbook in one way or another, or a mixture of different ways. It is through quoting and referring to the textbook that textbooks are verbally brought into interaction. Next, I proceed to examine the two most frequent types of TREs in the datasets, giving directions and asking questions, to map out the various pragmatic functions achieved in these TREs, the interactional patterns emerging from them, and the verbal strategies the teachers employ to realise these functions and mitigate social relationships in different interactional patterns.

6.3 Giving Directions

6.3.1 Pragmatic Functions and Linguistic Forms in Giving Directions

When using the textbook in class to guide students to do activities, the teachers need to give students directions. In order to understand how the teachers verbally interact with the textbook when giving directions, I examine all the moments when the teachers give directions to textbook activities or activities related to textbook content and look into the pragmatic functions to understand how teachers do things through the use of language (Austin, 1975; Levinson, 1983; Searle, 1969, 1975) and the language forms employed by the teachers to realise the functions. The close examination of all the moments when the teachers give directions to textbook activities gives rise to seven pragmatic functions, illustrated in Table 6-1.

Table 6-1

Pragmatic Functions Realised in the Interaction of Giving Directions

Types	Pragmatic functions
1	Drawing joint attention
2	Setting the goal
3	Explaining the procedure
4	Justifying activity design
5	Clarifying textbook design
6	Explaining classroom arrangement

7	Giving suggestions

Seven pragmatic functions are found in TREs of giving directions, including drawing joint attention, setting the goal, explaining the procedure, justifying activity design, clarifying textbook design, explaining classroom arrangement, and giving suggestions. To realise these pragmatic functions, various linguistic forms are found to be used by the teachers. I now use example extracts from the datasets to illustrate the linguistic forms employed by the teachers to realise each function.

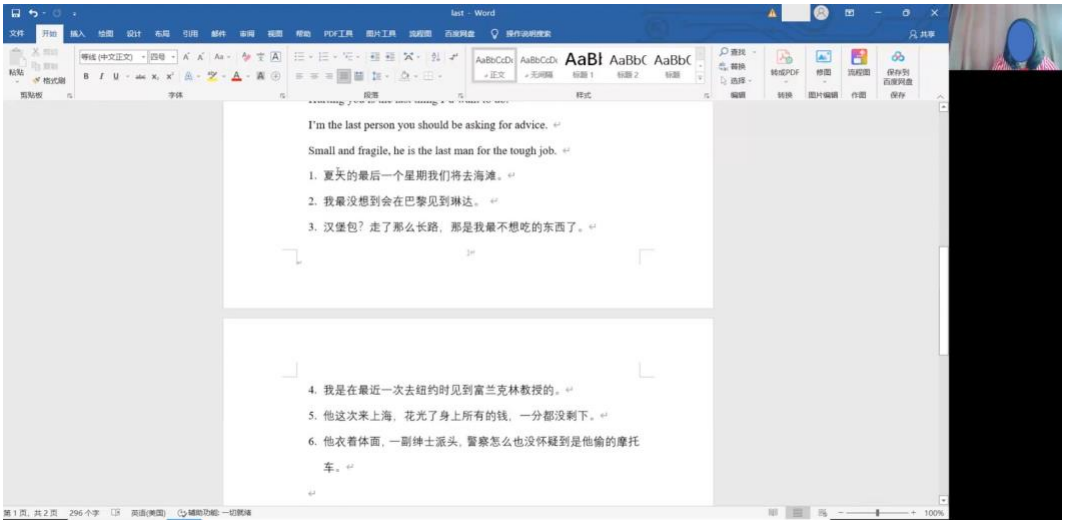
6.3.1.1 Drawing Joint Attention. Before giving directions to an activity, the teachers usually direct students' attention to the activity. Apart from using embodied interaction of displaying the activity on the screen in physical classrooms or the shared computer screen in online classrooms, the teachers are found to use speaker-inclusive imperatives "let's …" to direct students' attention to the relevant activity. Extract 3-3 demonstrates such an example.

Extract 3-3

1 T3: /# And then, let's turn to these sentences

/# T scrolls the DOC down to display a few Chinese sentences at the centre of the screen.

Screenshot 3-3-1



2 and find out how we can translate these different sentences by using the word "last".

…

This extract is from T3's online classroom on reading and writing skills. The extract starts with T3 shifting to a new activity. Before giving directions regarding the requirements/procedure of the activity, T3 first draws students' attention to the activity. In line 1, T3 draws students' attention to the sentences of the activity by the verbal strategy of using the speaker-inclusive imperative. It can be seen that the verbal interaction is also accompanied by T3 embodiedly displaying the sentences on the shared computer screen, which also helps draw students' attention to the relevant textbook content as analysed in Chapter 5.

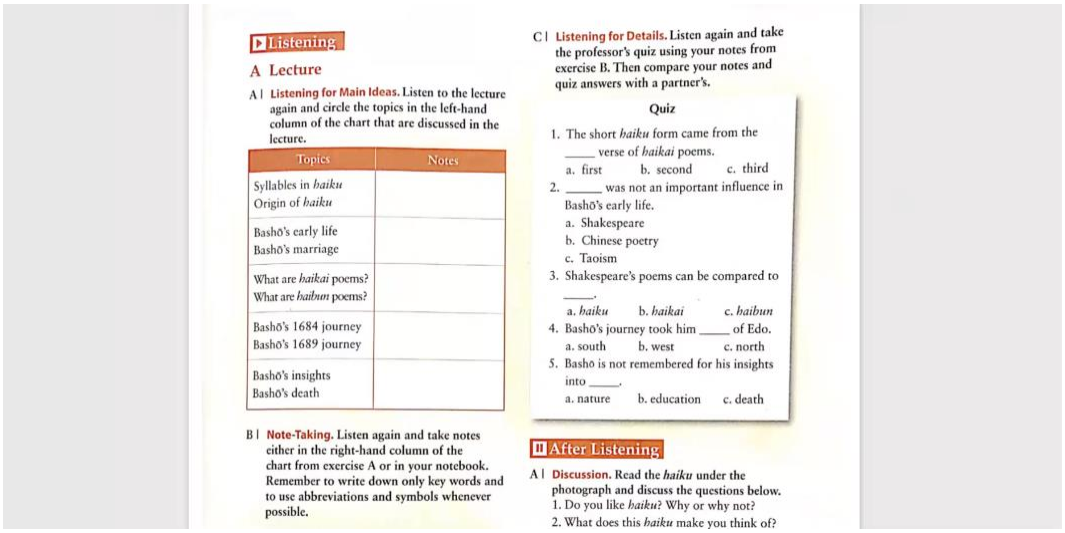
Directly quoting the textbook is another verbal strategy the teachers use to draw students' joint attention. Extract 4-4 gives such an example.

Extract 4-4

1 T4: /# All right.

/# T shows the page of the textbook on the screen.

Screenshot 4-4-1



Listening

A Lecture

A | Listening for Main Ideas. Listen to the lecture again and circle the topics in the left-hand column of the chart that are discussed in the lecture.

Topics	Notes
Syllables in *haiku* Origin of *haiku*	
Bashō's early life Bashō's marriage	
What are *haikai* poems? What are *haibun* poems?	
Bashō's 1684 journey Bashō's 1689 journey	
Bashō's insights Bashō's death	

B | Note-Taking. Listen again and take notes either in the right-hand column of the chart from exercise A or in your notebook. Remember to write down only key words and to use abbreviations and symbols whenever possible.

C | Listening for Details. Listen again and take the professor's quiz using your notes from exercise B. Then compare your notes and quiz answers with a partner's.

Quiz

1. The short *haiku* form came from the _____ verse of *haikai* poems.
   a. first b. second c. third
2. _____ was not an important influence in Bashō's early life.
   a. Shakespeare
   b. Chinese poetry
   c. Taoism
3. Shakespeare's poems can be compared to _____.
   a. *haiku* b. *haikai* c. *haibun*
4. Bashō's journey took him _____ of Edo.
   a. south b. west c. north
5. Bashō is not remembered for his insights into _____.
   a. nature b. education c. death

II After Listening

A | Discussion. Read the *haiku* under the photograph and discuss the questions below.
1. Do you like *haiku*? Why or why not?
2. What does this *haiku* make you think of?

2 So, part 1, lecture. /Ah, Part 1, Listening for Main Ideas.

/T uses the mouse to underline the heading for the activity "A| Listening for Main Ideas".

…

This extract starts with T4 putting an end to the previous activity by saying "all right" and displaying the activity on the shared computer screen to orient students to the shift to a new activity. In line 2, T4 quotes the activity heading to further draw students' attention to the

relevant textbook content. It can be seen that T4 also manipulates the mouse to underline the heading as she verbally directs students' attention to it.

Table 6-2 summarises the verbal strategies the teachers use to draw students' attention before they give directions to the activity.

Table 6-2

Verbal Strategies Used to Draw Joint Attention

Functions	Forms	Examples
Drawing joint attention	The speaker-inclusive imperative	*Let's turn to …* *Let's move to …* *Let's look at …*
	Quoting the textbook heading	*"Lecture"* …

6.3.1.2 Setting the Goal. In some of the TREs of giving directions, the teachers are found to explain to students the goal of the activity after students' attention has been directed to the relevant textbook content. When doing so, the teachers use either speaker-inclusive imperatives or declaratives to realise the function.

When the speaker-inclusive imperative is used, it is usually combined with the attention-drawing function. When the teachers invite students to pay attention to an activity in the textbook, the invitation for action sometimes extends to the goal of the activity which is usually expressed through a major action that students need to take after paying attention to the relevant activity. Extract 3-2 demonstrates such an example.

Extract 3-2

1 T3: OK, so, /now,

/T turns the PPT pages to display a blank-filling activity of "Attractions of Manhattan".

2 let's turn to the story and find out

3 <HOW the author left herself in debt, in deeper and deeper debt>.

…

This extract starts with T3 inviting students to pay attention to the blank-filling activity by using a speaker-inclusive imperative to direct students' attention to the reading passage (story) in line 2. Apart from drawing students' attention to the blank-filling which is a reading activity about the passage, T3 at the same time invites students to find out how the author left herself in debt as narrated in the reading passage. By using the speaker-inclusive imperative, T3 uses an invitation for action to explain to students the goal of the activity. While the activity is designed in the form of blank-filling focusing on form, the goal of the activity is explained by the teacher as focusing on meaning. This also explains why T3 adapts the form of the activity, changing the prompts for words from the initial letter in the textbook to the paragraph number.

A different verbal strategy used by the teachers is using declaratives to describe the upcoming action. By using declaratives with future tense, the teachers explain to students the goal of the activity. Extract 2-1 gives such an example.

Extract 2-1

1 T2: /# (1.0) OK.

/# T turns the PPT slides to a page with the questions from the textbook and a picture with the term "Table Manners" in the middle.

Screenshot 2-1-1



2 /(1.0) First we are going to talk about table manners.

/T looks at the computer screen.

…

This extract starts with T2 displaying the upcoming activity on the screen in line 1, which is to draw students' joint attention as illustrated in Chapter 5. After that, T2 uses a future-tense declarative in line 2 to explain the intended action. By using future-tense "we are going to …", T2 sets the goal of the activity, that is, to talk about table manners.

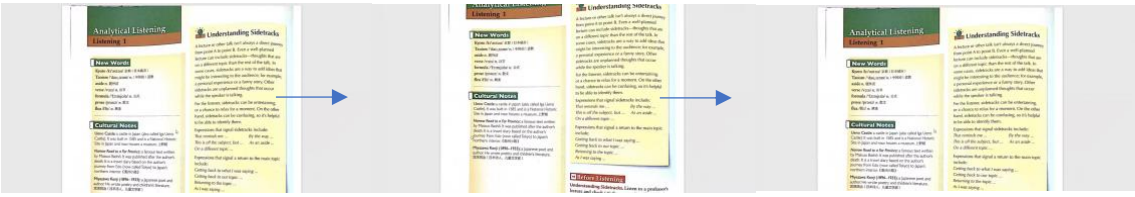
In the above extract, T2 indirectly quotes the textbook when she describes the goal. There are also TREs in which the teachers directly quote the textbook to explain the goal. Extract 4-1 gives such an example.

Extract 4-1

1 T4: All right. /# (1.0)

/# T scrolls the page up and down a bit to show a full picture of the "Understanding Sidetracks" box.

Screenshot 4-1-1



2 Now, let's /READ the paragraphs on the right-hand side.

/T uses the mouse to circle around the paragraphs.

3 /Understanding sidetracks.

/T uses the mouse to underline the heading of the box "Understanding Sidetracks" as she speaks.

…

This extract starts with T4 initiating a shift to a new activity by scrolling the scanned textbook pages and displaying the skills box in line 1. In line 2, T4 uses a speaker-inclusive imperative to direct students' attention to the paragraphs in the skills box, while in the meantime, manipulating the mouse to circle around the paragraphs in the box. In line 3, T4 explains the goal of the upcoming activity by directly quoting the textbook. To quote the textbook, T4 reads out

the heading of the skills box. This is also accompanied by T4 manipulating the mouse to underline the heading.

It can be seen that if the textbook has headings summarising the main goal of a section or an activity, the teachers usually quote the textbook headings, either directly or indirectly, to present the instructional goal. In this way, the textbook affords teachers' setting goals, which is considered as an effective way to deliver instructions and engage students (Rosenshine, 2012). When the textbook does not have a heading summarising the main goal, the teachers use their own words, exercising agency in clarifying instructional goals to students. When using speaker-inclusive imperatives, the teachers invite the students to take action. When using future-tense declaratives, the teachers explain the goal as an intended action. Table 6-3 summarises the verbal strategies the teachers employ to realise the function of "Setting the activity goal".

Table 6-3

Verbal Strategies Used to Set the Activity Goal

Functions	**Forms**	**Examples**
Setting the goal	Speaker-inclusive imperative	*Let's find out …*
	Declaratives: Explaining intended action	*We are going to …*
	Declaratives: Expressing expectations	*you are required to …*
	Quoting the heading	*Understanding sidetracks.* *… table manners.*

6.3.1.3 Explaining the Procedure. When the teachers give directions to textbook activities, a large part of the interaction is devoted to the explanation of the procedure. While the function is observed in every TRE of giving directions, the teachers are found to use various verbal strategies to realise this function.

One strategy is to use declaratives with future-tense to explain to students the procedure of action they need to take. For example, in line 5 of Extract 2-1, T2 explains to students the first action they need to take, using a declarative explaining a future plan.

Extract 2-1

…

5 /Now, you are going to work in pairs. 接下来两个人一组.

Next work in pairs.

/T puts the PPT slides into slide show mode and displays the eight questions from the textbook on the screen.

6 /# 一个同学扮演那个外国人, 就那个 foreign friend.

One student plays the role of the foreigner, the foreign friend.

/# T looks at the students and uses her left index finger to point at the display screen.

Screenshot 2-1-2



7 Another one is you. You need to tell /them

/T uses her left index finger to point at the screen.

8 about our table manners in China, OK?

9 /大家可以轮流地扮演外国人和咱们自己.

You can take turns to role-play the foreigner and ourselves.

/T looks up at the students and uses her hands to gesture “take turns”.

…

A close examination of TREs of giving directions reveals declaratives of different degrees of modalities are employed by the teachers to explain the procedure to students. For

example, in Extract 2-1, after T2 explains to students about the form of the activity, i.e. working in pairs, she uses declaratives expressing obligations “you need to tell them about our table manners in China” in lines 7 and 8, and declaratives making suggestions “you can take turns to role-play the foreigner and ourselves” in line 9 to explain the procedure of the activity.

Another example is from Extract 3-2. In lines 6 to 8, T3 uses the declarative “I’d like you to …” to make a request for action.

Extract 3-2

…

6 So now I’d like you to

7 /# turn to these, um, to turn to the different paragraphs, turn to different paragraphs,

/# T uses the mouse to point at the paragraph numbers on the PPT slide.

Screenshot 3-2-1



8 /# and find the <proper words> here.

/# T uses the mouse to point at the first blank on the PPT slide.

Screenshot 3-2-2



…

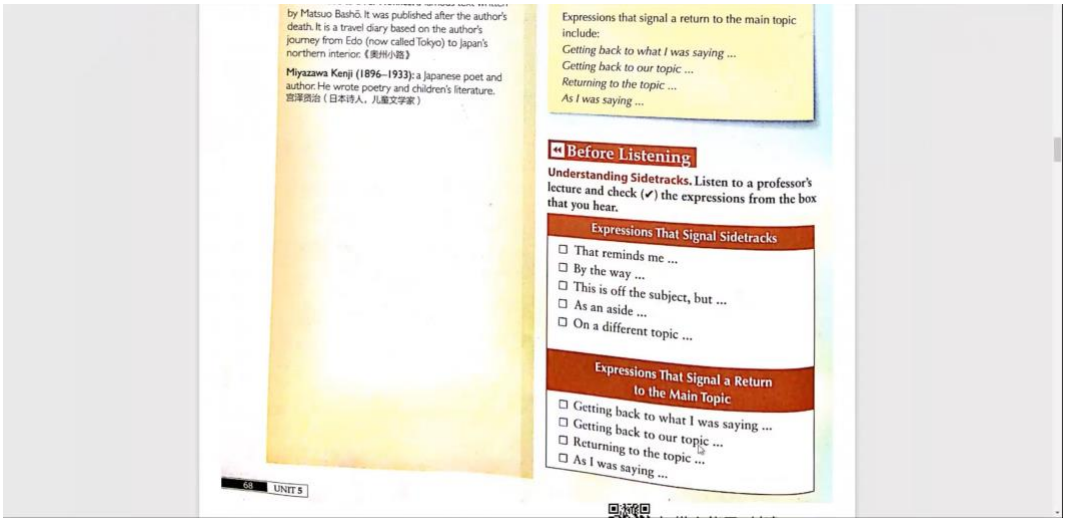
While the declaratives in the above extracts all start with “you” as the agent of the activity, there are declaratives with “we” as the agent. At these times, the teachers are usually indirectly quoting the textbook. Extract 4-5 below demonstrates such an example.

Extract 4-5

1 T4: /# OK. Let’s move to (.) <find out some sidetracks>.

/# T scrolls the page down to the section “Before Listening” below the “Understanding Sidetracks” box.

Screenshot 4-5-1



2 We are going to listen to a professor’s lecture.

3 /The part of Before Listening you have, if you have the book with you.

/T moves the mouse back and forth below the heading “Before Listening”.

4 Um, we are going to /check the expressions

/T uses the mouse to underline the words “check the expressions” in the rubric.

5 /that signal sidetracks,

/T uses the mouse to underline the expression “signal sidetracks” in the heading of the expression box.

6 /as well as the expressions that signal a return to the main topic.

/T moves the mouse to the second heading of the expression box and underlines the heading “Expressions That Signal a Return to the Main Topic” as she speaks.

7 OK? Remember, we’re going to listen <ONCE ONLY>,

8 but I still think the um exercises are not difficult.

9 Just pay attention to the expressions. OK?

This extract starts with T4 drawing students' joint attention to the relevant textbook content in line 1. Starting from line 2, T4 indirectly quotes the textbook directions and headings using declaratives with "we" as the action agent. Through using these declaratives and indirectly quoting the textbook, T4 explains to students the steps they need to take to accomplish the activity.

Apart from declaratives, the teachers also use imperatives to explain activity procedure. For example, T2 in Extract 2-1 and T3 in Extract 3-2 both use imperatives to explain to students the procedure of the activity. In line 5 of Extract 2-1, after using the declarative to explain the next step, T2 uses an imperative to reiterate it.

Extract 2-1

…

5 /Now, you are going to work in pairs. 接下来两个人一组.

Next work in pairs.

/T puts the PPT slides into slide show mode and displays the eight questions from the textbook on the screen.

…

In line 9 of Extract 3-2, after using the declarative to explain the procedure (lines 6-8), T3 also uses an imperative to reiterate the procedure. Compared to declaratives, imperatives are of higher degree of modality (Halliday, 1973; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Martin & White, 2005) as speakers use imperatives to express a stronger level of certainty, obligation, or inclination. Using imperatives, the teachers direct students' actions.

Extract 3-2

…

6 So now I'd like you to

7 /# turn to these, um, to turn to the different paragraphs, turn to different paragraphs,

/# T uses the mouse to point at the paragraph numbers on the PPT slide.

Screenshot 3-2-1



8 /# and find the <proper words> here.

/# T uses the mouse to point at the first blank on the PPT slide.

Screenshot 3-2-2



9 Turn to the different paragraphs, and found, and find the proper words here.

…

The following table summarises different language forms the teachers employ to explain activity procedure.

Table 6-4

Verbal Strategies Used to Explain Activity Procedure

Functions	Forms	Examples
Explaining the procedure	Imperatives: giving a command	*Turn to …* *Find out …* *Think about …*

	Declaratives: Making a request	*I'd like you to …*
	Declaratives: Expressing obligations	*You need to …*
	Declaratives: Expressing expectations	*You're expected to …*
	Declaratives: Making suggestions	*You can …*
	Declaratives: Explaining intended action	*You are going to …*
		We are going to …

From imperatives to declaratives, the teachers use verbal strategies expressing different degrees of modality to quote textbook content to give directions on the activity procedure.

6.3.1.4 Justifying Activity Design. When giving directions on a textbook activity, the teachers sometimes justify the textbook design by using evaluative declaratives. Using evaluative declaratives, the teachers evaluate the difficulty level of the activity for students. Extract 4-5 demonstrates such an example. After explaining the activity procedure, T4 uses a declarative to express her evaluation of the activity as "not difficult".

Extract 4-5

…

7 T4: OK? Remember, we're going to listen <ONCE ONLY>,

8 but I still think the um exercises are not difficult.

…

In line 7, T4 reminds students that the textbook requires them to listen to the audio clip once only. There are multiple activities following this audio clip. Students need to listen to the audio clip once for each activity. Because this activity is the first one in the section, students are only able to listen to the audio clip once when doing this activity, while they will have listened to the audio clip multiple times when they do the following activities. In line 8, T4 presents the reason by evaluating the activity as not challenging. The activity has been designed as an activity of low difficulty level, so it should not pose too much a challenge to students even if they are only going to listen to the audio clip once to accomplish the activity. In this way, T4 justifies the activity design.

Table 6-5 lists some example sentences that the teachers use to justify activity design.

Table 6-5

Verbal Strategies Used to Justify Activity Design

Functions	Forms	Examples
Justifying activity design	Declaratives: Making evaluation	*(I think) … not difficult.* *(I think) … easy.*

6.3.1.5 Clarifying Textbook Design. The teachers may also clarify textbook design when they feel it can cause confusion. Another extract from T4's classroom can demonstrate how the teacher uses explanatory declaratives to clarify textbook design.

Extract 4-4

…

3 We'll listen to the lecture again and circle the topics

4 in the left-hand column of the chart, OK?

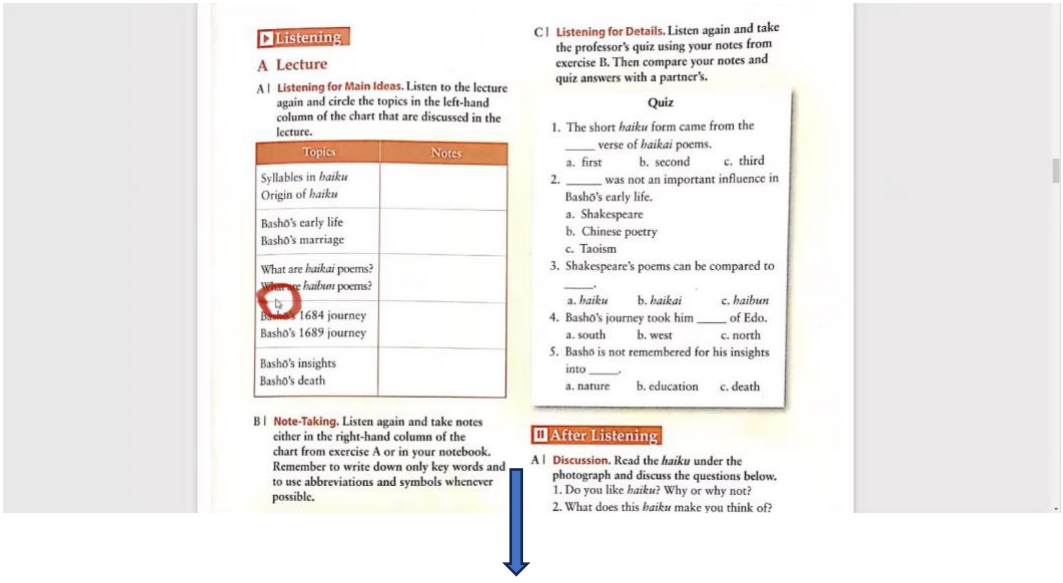
5 Pay attention. <It's, it's not one out of two choices.> OK? 不是二选一哈.

It's not one out of two choices.

6 So sometimes, /# <we may choose both choices from each grid.>

/# T uses the mouse to circle around the two items in the third table of the left column.

Screenshot 4-4-2



Listening

A Lecture

A | Listening for Main Ideas. Listen to the lecture again and circle the topics in the left-hand column of the chart that are discussed in the lecture.

Topics	Notes
Syllables in *haiku* Origin of *haiku*	
Bashō's early life Bashō's marriage	
What are *haikai* poems? What are *haibun* poems?	
Bashō's 1684 journey Bashō's 1689 journey	
Bashō's insights Bashō's death	

B | Note-Taking. Listen again and take notes either in the right-hand column of the chart from exercise A or in your notebook. Remember to write down only key words and to use abbreviations and symbols whenever possible.

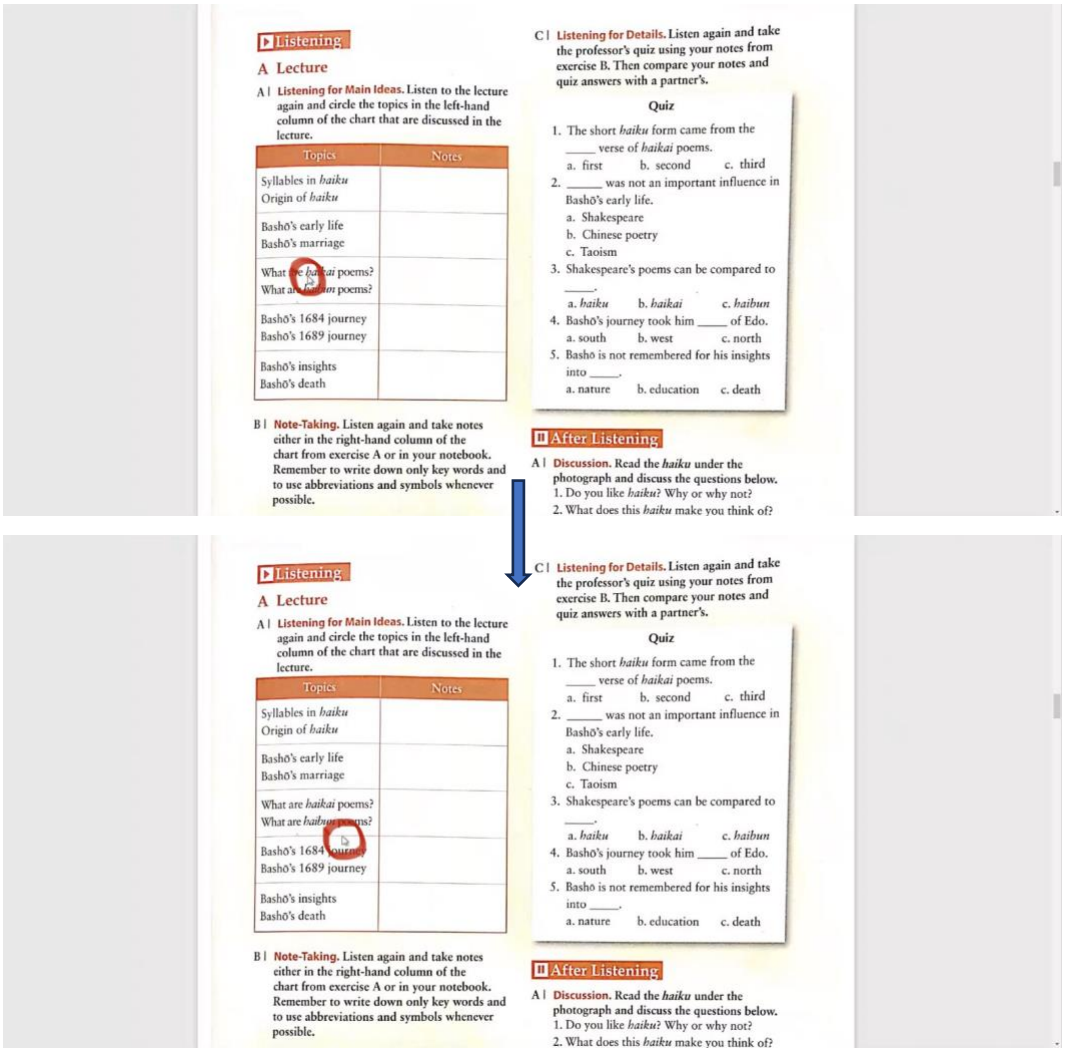
C | Listening for Details. Listen again and take the professor's quiz using your notes from exercise B. Then compare your notes and quiz answers with a partner's.

Quiz

1. The short *haiku* form came from the _____ verse of *haikai* poems.
   a. first b. second c. third
2. _____ was not an important influence in Bashō's early life.
   a. Shakespeare
   b. Chinese poetry
   c. Taoism
3. Shakespeare's poems can be compared to _____.
   a. *haiku* b. *haikai* c. *haibun*
4. Bashō's journey took him _____ of Edo.
   a. south b. west c. north
5. Bashō is not remembered for his insights into _____.
   a. nature b. education c. death

II After Listening

A | Discussion. Read the *haiku* under the photograph and discuss the questions below.
1. Do you like *haiku*? Why or why not?
2. What does this *haiku* make you think of?



7 OK? <Let's listen to the lecture once more and check>,

8 and, and circle the topics that are mentioned in the lecture.

In lines 3 and 4, T4 uses a declarative explaining intended action to give directions on the activity procedure. In line 5, T4 first uses an imperative to call for students' attention and then uses explanatory declaratives to clarify that the activity is not asking students to choose one from the two items in each grid. This clarification is first given in English, and then repeated in Chinese.

Table 6-6 lists some example sentences that the teachers use to clarify textbook design.

Table 6-6

Verbal Strategy Used to Clarify Textbook Design

Functions	Forms	Examples
Clarifying textbook design	Declaratives: Clarifying	*It is not …* *It is …*

6.3.1.6 Explaining Classroom Arrangement. Declaratives with "I" as the agent of action is found to be used when the teachers explain the classroom arrangement. The teachers usually use "I will …" or "I'd like to …" to explain an intended action. For example, in line 12 of Extract 2-1, T2 uses a declarative with "I" as the agent to explain her intended action, and thus to give directions on the time arrangement.

Extract 2-1

…

12 OK, 给大家四分钟时间,开始.

OK, (I) will give you four minutes, start.

Different from when the teachers use declaratives starting with "you" or "we", when the teachers use declaratives starting with "I", they are usually not giving directions on the activity procedure. They are usually explaining the arrangement for the activity in the classroom. The teachers are positioning themselves as the agent who organises the activity. Table 6-7 lists some example sentences the teachers use to explain classroom arrangements.

Table 6-7

Verbal Strategy Used to Explain Classroom Arrangements

Functions	Forms	Examples
Explaining classroom arrangement	Declaratives: Explaining intended action	*I will give you … minutes.* *I would like to give you … minutes.* *I will invite …*

6.3.1.7 Making Suggestions. The teachers are found to sometimes give suggestions to students on how to better accomplish an activity. The function usually occurs together with the function of "Justifying/Clarifying activity design". When the teachers justify or clarify activity design, it is usually because they expect that students may experience difficulty or confusion. In that case, the teachers may give students suggestions on how to better accomplish an activity. Both Extract 4-5 and Extract 4-4 demonstrate how teachers give suggestions.

In line 9 of Extract 4-5, after T4 justifies the activity design, she uses an imperative to give suggestions to students.

Extract 4-5

…

7 T4: OK? Remember, we're going to listen <ONCE ONLY>,

8 but I still think the um exercises are not difficult.

9 Just pay attention to the expressions. OK?

…

Using an imperative, T4 suggests that students pay attention to the expressions only, which will help students accomplish the activity even if they are going to listen to the audio clip once only.

Similarly, in line 6 of Extract 4-4, after T4 clarifies the activity design, she also uses a declarative expressing possibility to make a suggestion on what students need to do in order to better accomplish the activity.

Extract 4-4

…

5 T4: Pay attention. <It's, it's not one out of two choices.> OK? 不是二选一哈.

It's not one out of two choices.

6 So sometimes, /# <we may choose both choices from each grid.>

/# T uses the mouse to circle around the two items in the third table of the left column.

Screenshot 4-4-2

Listening

A Lecture

A | Listening for Main Ideas. Listen to the lecture again and circle the topics in the left-hand column of the chart that are discussed in the lecture.

Topics	Notes
Syllables in *haiku* Origin of *haiku*	
Bashō's early life Bashō's marriage	
What are *haikai* poems? What are *haibun* poems?	
Bashō's 1684 journey Bashō's 1689 journey	
Bashō's insights Bashō's death	

B | Note-Taking. Listen again and take notes either in the right-hand column of the chart from exercise A or in your notebook. Remember to write down only key words and to use abbreviations and symbols whenever possible.

C | Listening for Details. Listen again and take the professor's quiz using your notes from exercise B. Then compare your notes and quiz answers with a partner's.

Quiz

1. The short *haiku* form came from the _____ verse of *haikai* poems.
   a. first b. second c. third
2. _____ was not an important influence in Bashō's early life.
   a. Shakespeare
   b. Chinese poetry
   c. Taoism
3. Shakespeare's poems can be compared to _____.
   a. *haiku* b. *haikai* c. *haibun*
4. Bashō's journey took him _____ of Edo.
   a. south b. west c. north
5. Bashō is not remembered for his insights into _____.
   a. nature b. education c. death

After Listening

A | Discussion. Read the ***haiku*** under the photograph and discuss the questions below.
1. Do you like *haiku*? Why or why not?
2. What does this *haiku* make you think of?

Listening

A Lecture

A | Listening for Main Ideas. Listen to the lecture again and circle the topics in the left-hand column of the chart that are discussed in the lecture.

Topics	Notes
Syllables in *haiku* Origin of *haiku*	
Bashō's early life Bashō's marriage	
What are *haikai* poems? What are *haibun* poems?	
Bashō's 1684 journey Bashō's 1689 journey	
Bashō's insights Bashō's death	

B | Note-Taking. Listen again and take notes either in the right-hand column of the chart from exercise A or in your notebook. Remember to write down only key words and to use abbreviations and symbols whenever possible.

C | Listening for Details. Listen again and take the professor's quiz using your notes from exercise B. Then compare your notes and quiz answers with a partner's.

Quiz

1. The short *haiku* form came from the _____ verse of *haikai* poems.
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   a. Shakespeare
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   a. nature b. education c. death

After Listening

A | Discussion. Read the ***haiku*** under the photograph and discuss the questions below.
1. Do you like *haiku*? Why or why not?
2. What does this *haiku* make you think of?

Listening

A Lecture

A | Listening for Main Ideas. Listen to the lecture again and circle the topics in the left-hand column of the chart that are discussed in the lecture.

Topics	Notes
Syllables in *haiku* Origin of *haiku*	
Bashō's early life Bashō's marriage	
What are *haikai* poems? What are *haibun* poems?	
Bashō's 1684 journey Bashō's 1689 journey	
Bashō's insights Bashō's death	

B | Note-Taking. Listen again and take notes either in the right-hand column of the chart from exercise A or in your notebook. Remember to write down only key words and to use abbreviations and symbols whenever possible.

C | Listening for Details. Listen again and take the professor's quiz using your notes from exercise B. Then compare your notes and quiz answers with a partner's.

Quiz

1. The short *haiku* form came from the _____ verse of *haikai* poems.
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   a. south b. west c. north
5. Bashō is not remembered for his insights into _____.
   a. nature b. education c. death

After Listening

A | Discussion. Read the ***haiku*** under the photograph and discuss the questions below.
1. Do you like *haiku*? Why or why not?
2. What does this *haiku* make you think of?

...

Table 6-8 summarises the verbal strategies the teachers use to make suggestions:

Table 6-8

Verbal Strategies Used to Make Suggestions

Functions	Forms	Examples
Making suggestions	Imperatives	*Just pay attention to …* *Remember to …*
	Declaratives: Expressing possibility	*We may …*

This section has illustrated the pragmatic functions identified in the TREs of giving directions about a textbook activity or activities related to textbook content, and mapped out the linguistic forms employed by the teachers to realise these functions. Seven pragmatic functions are identified in the TREs of giving directions. The interaction usually starts with the teachers drawing students' joint attention to the relevant textbook content. After the joint attention has been secured, the teachers sometimes verbalise the goal of the activity. If the textbook has explicitly set the goal for the activity, in headings for example, the teachers are usually found to directly or indirectly quote the textbook. If the textbook has no explicit goals explained, the teachers are found to summarise and explain the goal to students. The teachers then present to students the procedure or steps of doing the activity. To do this, teachers mainly quote the textbook, though using language forms of different levels of modality and set different agents for the actions. After that or sometimes during the process, the teachers may justify or clarify activity design. This is achieved through teachers using evaluative declaratives or explanatory declaratives to evaluate or explain textbook content. When the procedure of the activity has been described, the teachers explain to students the classroom arrangement for the activity, usually including the time arrangement and the feedback arrangement. Sometimes, the teachers are found to give students suggestions on how the activity can be better accomplished. The last two steps of explaining classroom arrangement and giving suggestions are usually not provided in the textbook, but given by the teachers.

By examining the pragmatic functions realised in TREs of giving directions, it can be seen that teachers are not only quoting the textbook to direct students, but also leading students

through the instructional process by directing their joint attention, repeating important steps, and explaining classroom arrangements. Moreover, they are facilitating students' classroom performance by explaining activity goals, justifying or explaining textbook design, and offering guidance on students' performance. While the textbook designs activities, with or without teachers' adaptations, the teachers are actively exercising agency in providing students pedagogical and procedural guidance. Even when teachers quote the textbook to give directions, they are using language forms of different levels of modality and different agents, which helps the teachers to enact different power dynamics in the classroom and different social relationships with students. This point is further elaborated on in the next section when interactional patterns of giving directions are identified and examined.

While most TREs of giving directions observe similar pragmatic functions, the teachers are found to employ different linguistic forms to realise the pragmatic functions. The difference in linguistic strategies gives rise to two different interactional patterns considering how the teachers negotiate with textbook voice. The next section will then demonstrate the two interactional patterns arising from the TREs of giving directions and examine the negotiation of voices between the teacher and the textbook in each pattern, illustrating how the teachers' negotiation with textbook voice contributes to the classroom interaction and instruction. Building on the negotiation of voices and bringing in the teachers' embodied interaction with the textbook, the next section will also investigate how classroom power dynamics are negotiated and teacher–student social relationships are enacted within the two interactional patterns.

6.3.2 Interactional Patterns: Following the Activity vs Leading the Students

When the pragmatic functions and linguistic forms in each TRE of giving directions are examined, two interactional patterns displaying different ways of negotiating with textbook voice can be observed. In Pattern 1, the teachers use declaratives explaining intended actions with "we" as the agent of action to present the activity procedure. In this pattern, the teacher, together with the students, is presented as following the textbook design. I thus term the pattern as "Following the activity". In Pattern 2, the teachers use declaratives with different degrees of modality and imperatives to explain the activity procedures, all with "you" as the agent of action. This pattern sees the teacher, together with the textbook, presenting their demands on students. I thus term the pattern as "Leading the students". In the two patterns, the teachers have different ways of negotiating with textbook voice. To demonstrate the negotiation of voices through

verbal and embodied strategies, two extracts from the datasets are presented, each displaying one interactional pattern.

6.3.2.1 Pattern 1: Following the Activity. The extract is from T4's online classroom on Listening skills.

Extract 4-5

Drawing joint attention

Explaining activity procedure

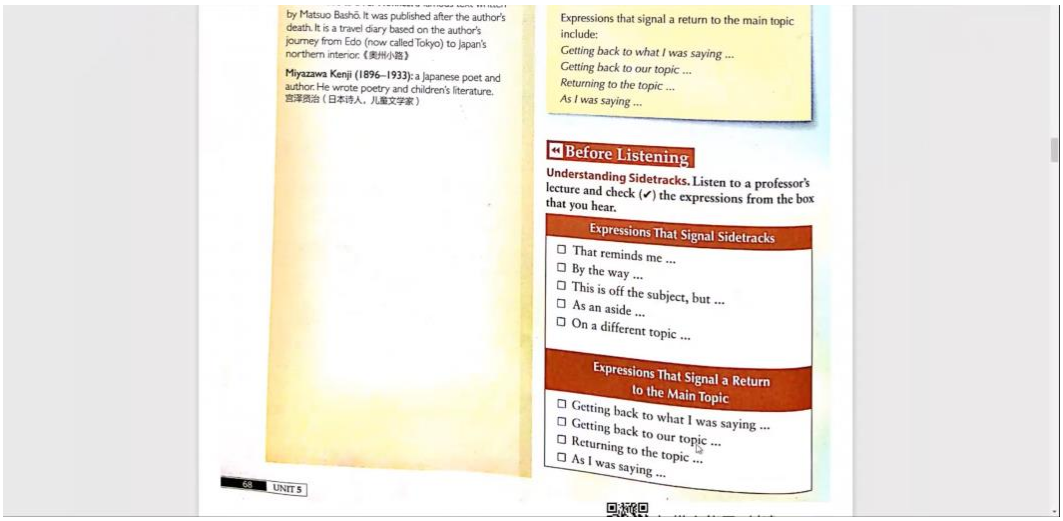
Justifying textbook design

Making suggestions

1 T4: /# OK. Let's move to (.) <find out some sidetracks>.

/# T scrolls the page down to the section "Before Listening" below the "Understanding Sidetracks" box.

Screenshot 4-5-1



2 We are going to listen to a professor's lecture.

3 /The part of Before Listening you have, if you have the book with you.

/T moves the mouse back and forth below the heading "Before Listening".

4 Um, we are going to /check the expressions

/T uses the mouse to underline the words "check the expressions" in the rubric.

5 /that signal sidetracks,

/T uses the mouse to underline the expression “signal sidetracks” in the heading of the expression box.

6 /as well as the expressions that signal a return to the main topic.

/T moves the mouse to the second heading of the expression box and underlines the heading “Expressions That Signal a Return to the Main Topic” as she speaks.

7 OK? Remember, we’re going to listen <ONCE ONLY>,

8 but I still think the um exercises are not difficult.

9 Just pay attention to the expressions. OK?

Extract 4-5 starts with T4 initiating a transition to a new activity in the textbook in line 1, by using “OK” to signal an end to the previous activity and using “let’s move to …” to initiate a change to a new activity. Meanwhile, T4 scrolls down the pages to display the new activity in the textbook. The verbal invitation and embodied display draw students’ joint attention to the relevant textbook content. When using the speaker-inclusive imperatives, the teacher is using the inclusive “we”. By using “us” to refer to both the teacher and students, the teacher constructs the collectivity of students and herself as a group, as opposed to textbook voice. Textbook voice is privileged in the sense that the teacher and students are together following the textbook. Negotiation with textbook voice in the teacher utterance enables T4 to not only foreground the textbook content and thus draw students’ attention to it, but also construct a textbook learning community with students and thus build the classroom rapport.

Students’ joint attention is again drawn to the textbook activity in line 3 when T4 quotes the activity heading. When doing this, T4 also embodiedly manipulates the mouse to underline the activity heading in the textbook. In the teacher utterance, textbook voice is fully privileged as the teacher quotes the textbook and uses “we” to group herself with students. Privileging textbook voice in the teacher’s verbal interaction, together with her embodied interaction to foreground the textbook in the physical space, affords the teacher to direct students’ joint attention, and also to enact the textbook as classroom authority and establish a more balanced relationship between the teacher and students.

The explanation of the activity procedure starts in line 2 and resumes in line 4 and goes through to line 7. In line 2, T4 explains to students the first step, “to listen to a professor’s lecture”, by quoting the textbook and presenting herself as a part of the teacher–student group.

From line 4 to line 7, T4 gives textbook directions by continuing to use "we" to refer to students and herself as a group and indirectly quote the textbook. The verbal presentation of the activity procedure is also accompanied by T4's embodied interaction of manipulating the mouse to underline the expressions in the textbook. In these lines, the teacher continues to privilege textbook voice as she quotes the textbook and groups herself together with students as "we". The privileging of textbook voice, together with the teacher's embodied interaction, affords the teacher to lead students through the explanation of activity steps. Meanwhile, when the teacher privileges textbook voice in the verbal interaction, she also actively groups herself with students through the use of the "inverted we" to work on the power balance between the teacher and students and establish a more equal relationship between them.

Till now in the extract, textbook voice is privileged in verbal interaction and textbook materiality is foregrounded through embodied interaction. The privileging of textbook voice works effectively as the teacher is following the activity design. The quoting of the textbook directions and underlining the textbook content successfully directs students to the relevant textbook content and leads them through the textbook directions. Moreover, the privileging of textbook voice allows the teacher to background her own voice as the instructor but take the role of a member of the learning community. Verbal interaction, together with embodied interaction, constructs the textbook as the authority in the classroom interaction and instruction. The teacher, through the verbal and embodied strategies, works on the classroom rapport.

However, even when the teachers are following textbook design as demonstrated in this extract, the teachers are not always privileging textbook voice in their verbal interaction. The negotiation between voices is situated and discursive. In line 8, to justify the textbook design of asking students to listen to the audio clip once to complete the activity, T4 uses an evaluative declarative to assess the difficulty level of the textbook activity. Through evaluation of the textbook activity in terms of its difficulty level, the teacher is privileging her own voice, as the teacher is the evaluator and the textbook is the evaluated. The privileging of teacher voice facilitates the teacher in supporting the textbook design, and in the meantime, encourages students to participate in classroom activities.

In line 9, T4 uses an imperative to direct students' action, in order to explain to students how the activity can be better done. Teacher voice is privileged at the moment as the teacher is the commander and initiator of students' action, and the textbook is the material that affords the

teacher's command. The privileging of teacher voice enables the teacher to provide guidance to students.

In the last two lines of the TRE, the privileged voice has shifted from textbook voice to teacher voice, further evidencing that even when the teacher is following the textbook activity design in classroom instruction, she is agentively working on providing better guidance to students. The verbal interaction constructs the teacher as the classroom authority. While the textbook provides teaching materials, the teacher manages the classroom by encouraging students to participate and supports student performance by providing guidance.

The extract illustrates that the negotiation of voice between the teacher and the textbook in the teacher's verbal utterance is situated in interaction. When the teachers are following the textbook activity design, they usually privilege textbook voice in verbal interaction, which together with embodied interaction enacts the textbook as the classroom authority. However, as shown in the extract, if the textbook activity needs justification or suggestions, the teacher takes agency and leads the students. The authority in the classroom is then claimed by the teacher.

The extract also demonstrates that even when the teacher is following the textbook in delivering classroom instruction, she is actively working on the social relationships between the teacher and students. Through using "inverted we" to present both students and herself as following the textbook in doing the activity and manipulating the mouse to foreground the textbook, the teacher is actively grouping herself with students, and alleviating the power asymmetry between the teacher and students.

6.3.2.2 Pattern 2: Leading the Students. Extract 2-1 is from T2's face-to-face classroom on listening and speaking skills.

Extract 2-1

Drawing joint attention

Setting the activity goal

Explaining activity procedure

Making suggestions

Explaining classroom arrangement

1 T2: /# (1.0) OK.

/# T turns the PPT slides to a page with the questions from the textbook and a picture with the term “Table Manners” in the middle.

Screenshot 2-1-1



2 /(1.0) First we are going to talk about table manners.

/T looks at the computer screen.

3 Suppose you have a friend, who is a foreigner and he wants to know the,

4 /um, table manners in China. OK?

/T looks at the students while using her left hand to point at the computer screen.

5 /Now, you are going to work in pairs. 接下来两个人一组.

Next two people form a pair.

/T puts the PPT slides into slide show mode and displays the eight questions from the textbook on the screen.

6 /# 一个同学扮演那个外国人, 就那个 foreign friend.

One student plays the role of the foreigner, the foreign friend.

/# T looks at the students and uses her left index finger to point at the screen.

Screenshot 2-1-2



7 Another one is you. You need to tell /them

/T uses her left index finger to point at the screen.

8 about our table manners in China, OK?

9 /大家可以轮流地扮演外国人和咱们自己.

You can take turns to role-play the foreigner and ourselves.

/T looks up at the students and uses her hands to gesture “take turns”.

10 /就可以, 八个问题嘛,

(You) can, eight questions,

/T looks down at the computer screen.

11 /可以四个问题他问, 四个另外一个同学问.

four questions can be asked by one student, and four questions asked by another student.

/T gestures about taking turns to ask questions.

12 OK, 给大家四分钟时间,开始.

OK, (I) will give you four minutes, start.

Extract 2-1 starts with T2 initiating a shift to a new activity using “OK” as a signal to indicate an end to the previous activity and drawing students’ joint attention to the new activity by displaying it on the screen in line 1. Here, there is no negotiation of voice in the verbal interaction when the teacher draws students’ attention to the relevant textbook content, but the textbook is foregrounded in interactional space through T2’s embodied cue.

In line 2, T2 uses a declarative explaining intended action with "we" as the agent of action to introduce the activity goal, indirectly quoting the heading in the textbook. The teacher privileges textbook voice in her utterance through quoting the textbook and using the plural self-referential pronoun to group students and herself together. Till now, the textbook is presented as classroom authority and the teacher is presented as a member of the textbook-using group.

The privileged voice starts to change from line 3. From line 3 to line 8, T2 uses an imperative (line 3), a declarative explaining intended actions (line 5) and a declarative expressing obligations (line 7) to present to students the activity procedure. The language used by T2 presents students as the agent of action. The teacher is no longer a part of the learning group. Instead, the teacher is the person who gives commands and sets up plans. From line 9 to line 11, T2 gives suggestions on how the activity can be better accomplished. To realise the function, T2 employs declaratives with the modal verb "can" to make suggestions. T2 suggests in line 9 how the students in each pair can take turn to role-play the foreigner, and in lines 10 and 11 how the questions can be shared between the students in each pair. All the linguistic forms again acknowledge students as the agent of action. Since T2 has adapted the textbook activity from an individual work to a pair work, line 9 to 11 can also be interpreted as T2 explaining the activity procedures. No matter how these three lines are interpreted and understood, T2 is privileging teacher voice through using declaratives of making suggestions. The privileged teacher voice affords the teacher's guidance on the activity. It enables the teacher to present the activity procedure which is different from the textbook activity design, and affords the clarity in giving directions and leading students through the instructional process. In the meantime, the asymmetrical power relationship between the teacher and students is established. In line 12, T2 uses declaratives expressing intended actions to explain the time arrangement for the activity. The teacher voice is privileged in the utterance as it is the teacher who sets up the timeframe for the activity. The privileged teacher voice further affords the teacher's management of the classroom, enacts the teacher as the classroom authority and highlights the power asymmetry between the teacher and students.

The extract presents a TRE of giving directions in which the teacher adapts the textbook activity. While the extract starts with the teacher privileging the textbook voice when securing and directing students' joint attention and introducing the activity goal to students, the teacher shifts to privilege teacher voice when she is presenting the activity procedure. The privileged

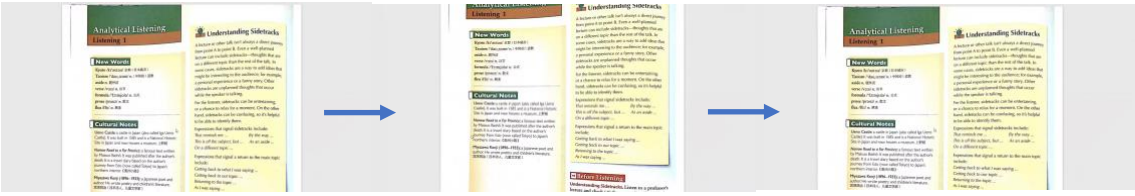
teacher voice affords the presentation of procedure that is different from textbook design, attributing agency to the teacher and thus ensuring clarity. The extract also illustrates that the shifts between different privileged voice in the teacher's verbal interaction is situated in interaction. Through negotiation between voices and embodied interaction, the classroom authority and social relationship is talked and acted into being.

6.3.2.3 Interactional Patterns in Different Ways of Using Textbook Activities. The above two extracts demonstrate how the teachers negotiate with textbook voice in different interactional patterns. It can be seen from the analysis the major difference lies in the way the teachers foreground textbook voice or teacher voice when they explain the activity procedure. Different ways of privileging teacher voice or textbook voice may be related to the fact that the teacher is following textbook design or adapting it. While Extract 4-5 shows an episode in which the teacher follows the textbook activity design, Extract 2-1 demonstrates an episode in which the teacher adapts the textbook activity design. This is found to be the interactional norm in T4's dataset. In most TREs of giving directions, T4 follows the textbook design and adopts Pattern 1 of interaction. However, if T4 adapts the textbook activity, the interaction is more characteristic of Pattern 2. Extract 4-1 presents such an example.

Extract 4-1

	Drawing joint attention		Setting the activity goal
	Explaining activity procedures		Justifying activity design
	Explaining classroom procedures		

1 T4: All right. /# (1.0)
/# T scrolls the page up and down a bit to show a full picture of the "Understanding Sidetracks" box.
Screenshot 4-1-1



2 Now, let's /READ the paragraphs on the right-hand side.
/T uses the mouse to circle around the paragraphs.
3 /Understanding sidetracks. Understanding sidetracks.
/T uses the mouse to underline the heading of the box "Understanding Sidetracks" as she speaks.
4 Think about two questions. >Think about two questions.<
5 What is the function, or purpose of sidetracks? This is the first one.
6 Second one: Give some examples of expressions
7 <that signal sidetracks as well as that signals return to the main topic>. OK?
8 Give examples of the e, the, of the exa, ☺expressions that signal sidetracks☺
9 as well as the expressions that signal a return to the main topic.
10 That's easy.
11 I will give you two minutes to READ these paragraphs and answer the two questions.
12 Then I'll ask you one to answer the two questions.

This extract starts with T4 initiating a shift to a new activity. Through displaying the skills box on the shared screen, manipulating the mouse to circle around it, and using a speaker-inclusive imperative to invite action, T4 directs students' joint attention to the skills box on the textbook page in lines 1 and 2. Textbook voice is privileged and textbook materiality is foregrounded, which affords the direction of joint attention.

In line 3, T4 sets the activity goal by quoting the textbook heading and embodiedly manipulating the mouse to underline the heading. Textbook voice is again privileged and textbook materiality foregrounded to afford the presentation of activity goals. Till now, the textbook is attributed authority in the classroom interaction. The teacher is presented as a member of the learning group.

Starting from line 4, T4 explains to students the steps they need to take, using imperatives to give commands on what students need to do. Here, it is the teacher who commands students to

think about two questions while reading the skills box. These steps are different from the textbook design which presents the skills box as a reading input without any comprehension questions. When presenting the activity procedures, the teacher privileges her own voice and enacts the teacher as the commander and initiator of the action.

In line 10, T4 evaluates the activity as easy to encourage students. In lines 11 and 12, T4 uses declaratives with future tense to explain the time arrangement and feedback arrangement for the activity. In these three lines, teacher voice is continued to be privileged, which affords the teacher's management of the classroom and promotion of student participation. Meanwhile, when teacher voice is privileged over textbook voice and when the teacher is presented as the commander of action and manager of classroom, her power over students is highlighted and thus a more disciplined and clearly-structured instruction is delivered.

The above three extracts demonstrate how the teachers negotiate teacher voice with textbook voice in different interactional patterns and how the negotiation between voices is related to the ways the teachers use textbook activities in classrooms. When the teachers are following the textbook, they usually privilege textbook voice in verbal interaction and place the textbook at the centre of joint attention through embodied strategies. However, there are moments when the teachers privilege their own voice, to justify textbook design, to clarify textbook design, to give suggestions, and to explain classroom arrangements. When they are adapting the textbook activity, they usually privilege teacher voice over textbook voice when explaining the procedure, even though the teachers start the episode by privileging textbook voice, in order to direct students' joint attention or explain the activity goal. It can be seen that how the teachers use the textbook activity, either following it or adapting it, affects the interactional patterns they develop. If they are following textbook design, they tend to privilege textbook voice more, but if they are adapting textbook design, they tend to privilege their own voice. The negotiation between voices helps the teachers to provide clearer instruction on activity procedure. Besides, the extracts demonstrate that within both patterns, the privileged voice is discursively negotiated and situated in interaction. At the beginning of each TRE of giving directions, textbook voice is privileged to direct students' joint attention. When explaining activity procedure, the teachers either privilege their own voice or textbook voice, depending on how they use the textbook activity. After activity procedure has been explained, teacher voice is

usually privileged to promote students' participation in classrooms, to provide students further guidance on doing the activity, and to set up clear classroom arrangements.

To effectively give directions to activities, the teachers both offload agency to textbooks and claim agency, no matter whether they are following the textbook design or adapting it. However, when they privilege different voice and position the textbook differently in interactional space, different power dynamics are also negotiated and different teacher–student relationships are established. While this section has presented how different ways of using textbooks impact on teachers' adoption of different interactional patterns, and thus establish different teacher–student relationships, the next section focuses on another teacher's interactional pattern where maintaining teacher authority in classrooms is emphasised over different ways of using textbook activities.

6.3.2.4 Negotiation of Voices as a Way to Maintain Teacher Authority. While the above illustrated interactional norms in which teachers privilege textbook voice when explaining activity procedure if they are following textbook design, and privilege teacher voice if they are adapting textbook design holds true for C2 and C4, it is not observed in C3. C3 contains TREs of giving directions in which T3 either follows or adapts textbook design. For both types of TREs of giving directions, T3 adopts the "Leading the students" pattern. Extract 3-2 and Extract 3-3 below demonstrate how T3 interacts with students in the same pattern no matter whether she is adapting textbook design or following it.

Extract 3-2

Drawing joint attention

Setting the activity goal

Explaining activity procedure

Making suggestions

1 T3: OK, so, /now,

/ T turns the PPT pages to display a blank-filling activity of "Attractions of Manhattan".

2 let's turn to the story

3 and find out <HOW the author left herself in debt, in deeper and deeper debt>.

4 Yeah. At the beginning, she thought that the borough of New York,

5 that is Manhattan, has a lot of attractions, <INCLUDING>

6 So now I'd like you to

7 /# turn to these, um, to turn to the different paragraphs, turn to different paragraphs,

/# T uses the mouse to point at the paragraph numbers on the PPT slide.

Screenshot 3-2-1



8 /# and find the <proper words> here.

/# T uses the mouse to point at the first blank on the PPT slide.

Screenshot 3-2-2



9 Turn to the different paragraphs, and found, and find the proper words here.

10 /后面标注的这些数字是

The numbers at the end of each bulletin point are

/T uses the mouse to point at the paragraph numbers on the PPT slide.

11 /这些词, 或者说这些表达所在的段落.

the paragraphs these words, or these expressions are located in.

/T uses the mouse to point at the blanks and the expressions on the PPT slide.

12 那么大家找一下哈, /这些地方应该填什么.

So you find out what should be filled in these blanks.

/T uses the mouse to point at the first blank on the PPT slide.

In Extract 3-2, T3 adapts the prompts of the blank-filling activity. In the textbook, the prompts are the first letter of target words, but T3 revises the prompts and uses the number of paragraphs in which the words appear as the prompts. It can be seen from line 6 to line 9 that T3 uses a declarative expressing requirements and an imperative to explain activity procedure. When doing so, the teacher presents herself as the commander of action and privileges teacher voice. Clarity of interaction is achieved through the privileging of teacher voice, and simultaneously, the teacher is claiming authority in the classroom as she is the one who gives commands and sets requirements.

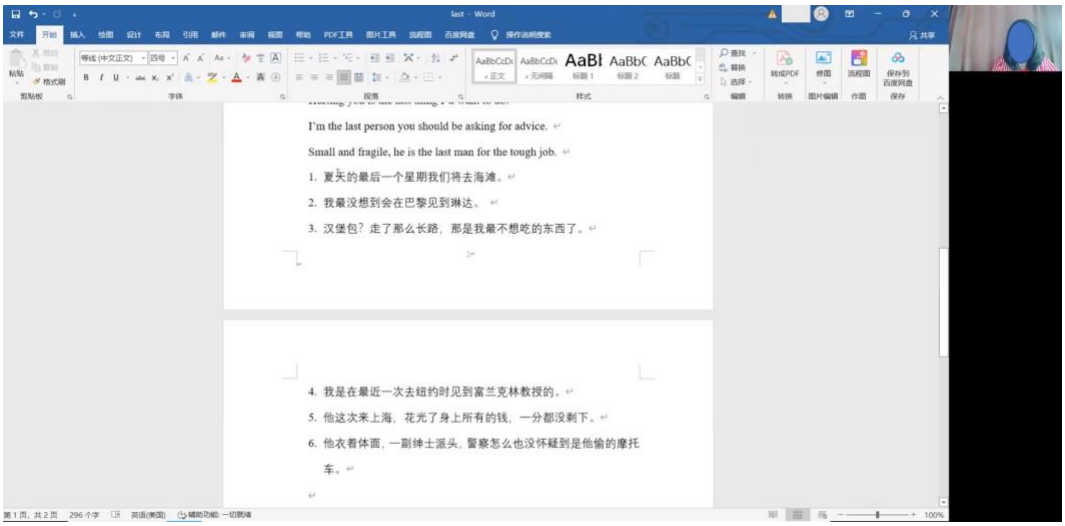
Extract 3-3

	Drawing joint attention		Setting the activity goal
	Explaining activity procedures		Explaining classroom procedures

1 T3: /# And then, let's turn to these sentences

/# T scrolls the DOC down to display a few Chinese sentences at the centre of the screen.

Screenshot 3-3-1



2 and find out how we can translate these different sentences by using the word "last".

3 Now, turn to, there are six sentences.
4 I'd like to give you five minutes.
5 You're expected to go over these sentences
6 and try to translate them from Chinese to English.
7 OK, five minutes, please get ready and then I will invite students to have a try. OK?
8 So please get ready in five minutes. (2.0) Get ready in five minutes please.

Extract 3-3 shows a TRE in which T3 closely follows the textbook design. The textbook activity is to translate sentences from Chinese to English using "last" and this is also what T3 closely follows in the classroom. However, different from T4's practice which adopts the "Following the activity" pattern, T3 follows the "Leading the students" pattern in her interaction with students. In this extract, when T3 explains activity procedure, she uses an imperative and a declarative expressing her expectation of students, privileging her own voice instead of textbook voice. Meanwhile, rather than grouping herself with students, T3 positions herself as the commander of students' action. The authority in the classroom is attributed to the teacher, and the power asymmetry between the teacher and students is emphasised.

The analysis of all the TREs of giving directions reveals that different classrooms can observe different interactional norms of teachers giving directions. T3 adopts the "Leading the students" pattern in all TREs of giving directions, regardless of the way the textbook is used. Teacher voice is privileged when activity procedure is presented even if the textbook activity design is closely followed. The power dynamics created in C3 are then different from the other classrooms. The teacher is mostly presented as the commander and initiator of students' actions, and possesses a position higher than the textbook and students in classroom interaction. Adopting the "Leading the students" pattern even when the textbook design is closely followed enables the teacher to maintain her authority in the classroom. In this way, a more disciplined classroom instead of a relaxed one is created.

6.3.3 Summary

This section focuses on TREs of giving directions. Through identifying the pragmatic functions and language forms, the verbal strategies teachers use to interact with textbooks and the goals achieved by these strategies have been revealed. The analysis illustrates that teachers' verbal strategies of mobilising textbooks, together with their embodied strategies, achieve

various pedagogical goals of instructing students and procedural goals of effectively leading students through the instructional process. These goals are achieved not only through following the textbook, but also through the teachers agentively leading students' joint attention, giving explanations, giving suggestions, promoting participation, and explaining classroom arrangements. Besides, two interactional patterns, the "Following the activity" pattern and the "Leading the students" pattern, are identified in the TREs of giving directions. The negotiation of voices within each pattern has been further analysed, revealing that the teachers negotiate with textbook voice throughout each TRE of giving directions. In C2 and C4, the teachers usually privilege textbook voice when presenting activity procedure if they are following textbook design. However, they also shift to privilege their own voice and claim their authority and agency to achieve other pedagogical and procedural goals during interaction. Besides, the teachers adopt different ways of negotiating with textbook voice not only when they use textbooks differently, but also as a way to claim authority or establish learning community. Analysis reveals that in two classrooms, C2 and C4, how the textbook activity is used can affect the negotiation of voices in teachers' verbal interaction and their relative physical positioning to the textbook in their embodied interaction. However, this interactional norm is not observed in all classrooms. In C3, teacher voice is mostly privileged in classroom interaction and the negotiation of voices is used by the teacher as a way to maintain teacher authority and thus create a more disciplined classroom. Building on the analysis of the teachers' embodied strategies in Chapter 5, the analysis further reveals that classroom authority, power dynamics and the teacher–student relationship is talked and acted into being by the teachers.

6.4 Asking Questions

6.4.1 Pragmatic Functions and Linguistic Forms in Asking Questions

Asking questions is another frequent type of TREs that occur in the datasets. To understand how the teachers verbally interact with the textbook and the instructional and interactional goals achieved during these episodes, I identify all the TREs of the teachers asking students questions, either questions from the textbook or questions about the textbook content. I then analyse how the teachers initiate the interaction, ask questions and promote responses, identifying the pragmatic functions realised in the interaction and examining linguistic forms that the teachers employ to realise each function.

The analysis reveals seven pragmatic functions realised in TREs of asking questions. Table 6-9 presents a list of the functions.

Table 6-9

Pragmatic Functions Realised in the Interaction of Asking Questions

Types	Pragmatic functions
1	Presenting the question
2	Setting the goal
3	Drawing joint attention
4	Justifying the question
5	Inviting responses
6	Encouraging responses
7	Providing scaffoldings

Seven pragmatic functions can be identified from the four datasets. To realise each function, the teachers employ a variety of linguistic forms. I now use examples from the data to illustrate each pragmatic function and the linguistic forms the teachers use to realise each function.

6.4.1.1 Presenting the Question. To ask students questions, either from the textbook or about the textbook content, the core of the interaction is to present the question. While the presentation of the question occurs in every interactional event of such, the teachers are found to use various linguistic forms to present the questions. Questions are found to be directly presented through wh-interrogatives asking for information/knowledge. For example, "what does it mean?" The questions are also found to be presented through wh-interrogatives asking for opinions. For example, "what do you think would be …?" A third type of interrogative used by the teachers to present questions is yes-no interrogatives used to elicit actions. For example, "could you please tell me …?" Apart from using interrogatives, declaratives are also found to be used to present questions. The teachers sometimes use declaratives expressing a request for actions to present a question. For example, "I want you to tell me …" Table 6-10 lists the language forms found to be used by the teachers to present questions with examples from the data.

Table 6-10

Verbal Strategies Used to Present the Question

Functions	Forms	Examples
Presenting the question	Wh-interrogatives: Asking for information/knowledge	*What does it mean?* *What does it refer to here?* *What is the most important …?*
	Wh-interrogatives: Asking for opinions	*What do you think would be …?* *Based on your understanding, how would you …?* *What about your understanding of …?*
	Yes-no interrogatives: Making a request for actions	*Could you please tell me …?*
	Declaratives: Making a request for actions	*I'd like you to …* *I want you to tell me …*

The table above summarises the language forms that are found to be used by the teachers to present questions. Different teachers tend to use different sentence forms, and the same teacher is found to use different language forms to present questions at different moments during the instructional process, which is further examined in later sections on interactional patterns of asking questions.

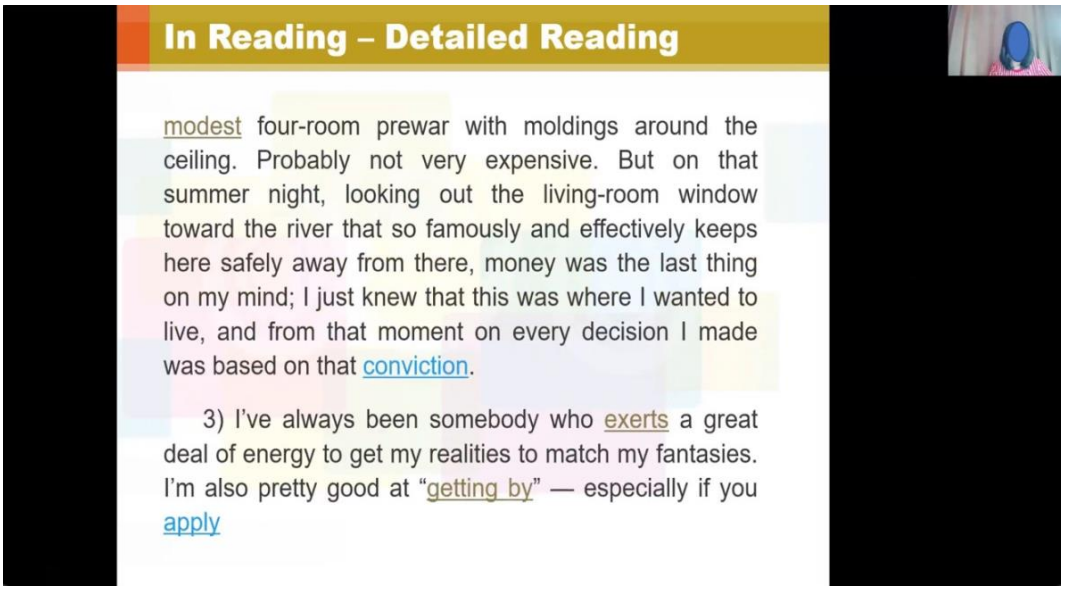
6.4.1.2 Setting the Goal. For a majority of the time, the teachers do not start TREs of asking questions with the presentation of questions. At the very beginning of the TREs, the teachers sometimes explicate the goal of the following interaction. Two types of goals are found to be explicitly expressed by the teacher. One is to check students' ability, and the other is to work together to find out the answer. To realise this function, the teachers usually use the speaker-inclusive imperative. Extract 3-4 shows how T3 verbally explains to students the goal of the following interaction.

Extract 3-4

1 T3: /# Now, let's begin to check your understanding.

/# T turns the PPT slides back to display the first half of paragraph 3.

Screenshot 3-4-1



2 Um, first, let's begin with the word "exert".

3 How do you understand the word "exert"?

4 S13, please. S13, mm. [Exert, what does it mean?]

5 S13: [Hello, teacher.]

In this extract, T3 first uses the speaker-inclusive imperative "let's …" to invite students to join her in the upcoming interaction. The invitation explicates that they are going to check students' understanding. It sets the goal of asking the following questions as "checking the answer". Meanwhile, it helps explain the teacher's choice of using a wh-interrogative emphasising students' understanding to present the question later in line 3.

A different extract from T1's data can give an example of a different type of goal the teacher intends to achieve by asking students' questions.

Extract 1-5

7 T1: /那我们看教材上是怎么去描写的.

Let's find out how the textbook describes (what happens in the basket).

/T uses her left index finger to point down at the textbook on the desk in front of her.

8 我们怎么去增加更多的细节呀?

How do we add more details?

9 How do we add more details? Into the description.

In this extract, T1 starts the interaction using the speaker-inclusive imperative in Chinese, to set the goal of the forthcoming interaction. Different from the goal in Extract 3-4 which is to check students' understanding, the goal in this extract is to find out how the textbook describes a scene. It can be seen that the interactional goal also influences how the teacher presents the question in the following interaction. T1 uses language forms different from that used by T3 in the previous extract to present the question. In this extract, the question is presented by wh-interrogatives asking for knowledge/information. Besides, while the question in the previous extract addresses students only, the question in this extract addressed "we" which includes the teacher and students. The different choices of language forms to present questions under different interactional goals is further analysed in later sections on interactional patterns.

6.4.1.3 Drawing Joint Attention. Before presenting the actual question, the teachers usually direct students' joint attention to the question in the textbook or the specific part of the textbook about which the question is going to be asked. Three language forms are found to be used by the teachers to draw students' joint attention. Table 6-11 lists the three forms with example sentences from the data.

Table 6-11

Verbal Strategies Used to Draw Joint Attention

Functions	Forms	Examples
Drawing joint attention	Wh-interrogatives: Making suggestions	*How about the last sentence …?* *How about this one?*
	Imperatives: Making suggestions	*First, let's begin with the word "exert".* *So let's look at this one.*
	Declaratives with deictic expression	*Next.* *Next one.*

Extract 3-5 gives an example of how the teacher uses wh-interrogatives to direct students' joint attention to the relevant textbook content.

Extract 3-5

1 T3: So how about this one? How about /the last sentence of paragraph 3?
/T uses the mouse to underline part of the last sentence of paragraph 3.
2 What is the most important subject in the sentence,
3 the predicative verb, and the object?

In this extract, before presenting the question in lines 2 and 3, T3 first directs students' attention to the last sentence of paragraph 3 in line 1. This is achieved by using the suggestive interrogative "how about …?" to present the last sentence of paragraph 3 as the focus of interaction. As illustrated in Chapter 5, T3 in the meantime uses the mouse to underline the sentence to embodiedly mark out the relevant textbook content, helping secure students' attention.

Apart from the suggestive interrogative "how about …?", the speaker-inclusive imperative "let's …" is also used by the teachers to direct students' joint attention. Extract 1-6 gives an example of this. Similarly, the extract shows how the attention engagement is realised by the joint work of verbal strategies and embodied strategies.

Extract 1-6

1 T1: OK. /So let's look at this one.
/T turns around, walking towards the desk and looking down at the textbook in her hands.
2 Um, in this article, /who is involved, and when is the story set? (1.0)
/T uses her left hand to point at the textbook.
3 /OK? Who's it about? When does the story happen? It was?
/T opens the PPT slides and turns to the page which shows the reading passage.
4 S10: Fall of the final year.

Before this extract, T1 has guided students to the key elements of a narration, *what, when, where, who and how*. In this extract, T1 questions students about these elements of the reading passage in the textbook. The extract starts with the teacher directing students' attention to the reading passage in the textbook. In line 1, T1 uses the speaker-inclusive imperative "let's

look at this one" to direct students' attention to "this one". While verbally inviting students to look at "this one", T1 shifts the direction of her gaze from students to the textbook in her hands. Here, the realisation of the function is accomplished by the teacher's embodied interaction with the textbook together with her verbal interaction with students. The teacher's proximity to the textbook and her gaze towards it explicate that "this one" refers to the reading passage in the textbook. Through both the verbal cue and the embodied cue, T1 draws students' joint attention before she presents the actual questions in lines 2 and 3.

6.4.1.4 Justifying the Question. After presenting the question, the teachers are found to enact further interaction with students and the textbook before students produce any response. Interaction analysis of the post-questioning phase of all the TREs reveals four pragmatic functions. During this phase, the teachers are found to justify the textbook questions, invite respondents, prompt responses, or provide scaffoldings. I now use examples from the data to illustrate how the teachers use different sentence forms to realise each function.

After presenting the question, the teachers sometimes use declaratives to explain to students why the specific question is asked. This is different from the "Setting the goal" function. While Setting the goal at the very beginning explicates the purpose of the whole interaction, here the teachers justify why a specific question is asked by the textbook. Extract 2-2 demonstrates how the teacher uses explanatory declaratives to justify the question.

Extract 2-2

1 T2: /好, next one, what time do they invite you for, and what time

OK

/T turns around to look at the screen.

2 /do you arrive?

/T turns back to look at the students.

3 就大概会约我们几点吃饭, 就大概的时间,

approximately what time they may invite us for dinner, the approximate time,

4 因为外国人他什么都不知道嘛, 所以什么问题都要问.

because the foreigner knows nothing (about Chinese customs), they ask all kinds of questions

5 OK, (laugh) S10.

6 S10: They invite us for half past six pm. And, um, we arrive at their home at 6 o'clock.
7 T2: OK, OK. So it's like half an hour earlier than the scheduled time, right? OK, thank you.

The extract starts with T2 positioning herself between the textbook questions on the display screen and students and turning her upper torso away from students to face the screen. In this way, the teacher is taking a physical positioning similar to that of the students. After drawing students' attention to the question using her embodied interaction with the screen and the indexical phrase "next one", T2 presents the question by reading out the textbook question. Immediately after the presentation of the question, T2 turns back to face the students and shifts from using English to Chinese which is a shared language between the teacher and students. Using explanatory declaratives in Chinese, the teacher explains to students that the question should be asking about an approximate time in line 3 and the reason why the textbook asks this question in line 4, in order to justify the textbook design.

6.4.1.5 Inviting Responses. Inviting responses is a frequent pragmatic function realised in the post-questioning phase. To invite students to answer the questions, the teachers are found to use wh-interrogatives starting with who, yes-no interrogatives eliciting actions, declaratives with rising intonation, and the speaker-inclusive imperative "let's …" Extract 3-6 gives an example of how the teacher uses the wh-interrogative, the declarative, and the yes-no interrogative to invite responses from students.

Extract 3-6

1 T3: And there is one more.
2 What about the word "last"? What about the word "last" here?
3 How do you translate the sentence /"money was the last thing on my mind"?
/T uses the pen tool to underline the sentence on the PPT slide as she says it.
4 How do you translate this one?
5 Who would like to have a try? Any volunteers?
6 What about the word "last" here?
7 How do you translate the sentence /"money was the last thing on my mind"?
/T uses the pen tool to underline the sentence as she says it.
8 How do you translate this one?

9 Who'd like to have a try? Any volunteers? Any volunteers?
10 Money was the last thing on my mind. What does it mean?
11 Money was the last thing on my mind.
12 Could anybody have a try? Any volunteers?

In this extract, T3 first draws students' attention to the word "last" in lines 1 and 2, and then presents the question in lines 3 and 4. After that, the teacher invites volunteers by using a wh-interrogative and then a declarative sentence with rising intonation in line 5. As not all questions presented by the teachers are expected to be responded to by students in classroom interaction but many of them are used as signposting, using verbal strategies to explicitly invite students makes the teacher's expectation explicit to students. The invitation of responses is later repeated in line 9, using the who-interrogative and the declarative sentence with rising intonation again, and in line 12, using a yes-no interrogative to elicit actions and the declarative sentence with rising intonation.

Using verbal interaction to invite responses from students is found to be frequent in online classrooms. In the face-to-face classrooms, it is found that the teachers less frequently employ these verbal strategies to realise this function. Their invitation of students to answer the question is usually achieved by silent waiting time, accompanied by their embodied interaction with the textbook and students. For example, T1 shifts her gaze from the textbook to students to signal her expectation of responses from students and T2 changes her physical positioning from towards the textbook to students to show that she is expecting students' answers. Extract 1-7 and Extract 2-3 demonstrate how T1 and T2 achieve this function by silent waiting time, together with embodied interaction, in face-to-face classrooms.

Extract 1-7

1 T1: /# And then, we can see that they have a problem and they try to solve the problem.
/# T turns to the next page of the textbook and looks at the textbook while walking back to the desk.
Screenshot 1-7-1



2 /# How did they solve the problem? (2.0) They went to catch crabs.

/# T looks up at the students and walks towards the students.

Screenshot 1-7-2



3 /So what's interesting about catching crabs?

/T walks back to the desk and turns around to face the students.

4 /(2.0) What's interesting about catching crabs?

/T looks at the students and moves her gaze around the classroom.

5 The crabs, they, (1.0) they try to escape, /(1.0) and?

/T turns around to look at the screen displaying the paragraph.

6 /(1.0)

/T turns back to look at the students.

7 Ss: the other crabs pull him back in.

8 T1: Others tried to pull them back.

In this extract, T1 frequently shifts her gaze between the textbook/screen and students. In line 1, when the teacher is talking about the textbook content, her gaze is directed towards the textbook in her hand. In line 2, when the teacher presents the question, she moves her gaze up from the textbook and directs it towards students. This can be a signal that the teacher is expecting students to answer the question. The expectation is also supported by the subsequent two-second waiting time. In line 3, T1 rephrases the question. The rephrased question is then followed by two-second waiting time and the repetition of the question in line 4. This is accompanied by T1 directing her gaze towards students and moving it around the classroom. When no responses are given by students, T1 then uses an unfinished sentence to prompt students to answer in line 5. This is once again followed by the one-second waiting time with T1 shifting her gaze from the screen to students. It can be seen that verbally, the teacher uses silent waiting time to invite responses from students, which is accompanied by her gaze towards students.

Extract 2-3

1 T2: /# OK.

/# T stands behind the computer on the platform.

Screenshot 2-3-1



2 /# So why did the government ban the junk food ads? (2.0)

/# T walks from behind the computer on the platform to the space in front of the students.

Screenshot 2-3-2



3 为什么? 大家能用一句话总结吗? (5.0)

Why? Can you summarise in one sentence?

4 <OK.> Oh, S27.

5 S27: I think the fast food company aims their ads to the children, to increase their profits.

In this extract, T2 moves from the space behind the computer to the space between the screen and students when she presents the question in line 2. While the teacher does not verbally

invite responses from students, her positioning in interactional space from behind the teacher desk to directly facing students, together with the two-second and five-second waiting time, signals to students that she is expecting students to interact with her, and thus to answer the question.

To sum up, the teachers often allow waiting time in face-to-face classrooms after presenting a question. Although there is no verbal interaction during the waiting time, the teachers' embodied interaction with students usually signals that they are expecting students to give a response. However, in online classrooms, the teachers are found to more frequently use verbal strategies to realise the function. This could largely be due to the insufficient visibility of participants in online classrooms. Table 6-12 lists the language forms used by the teachers to invite responses with examples from the data.

Table 6-12

Verbal Strategies Used to Invite Responses

Functions	Forms	Examples
Inviting responses	*Who*-interrogatives	*Who can have a try?* *Who can tell me …?*
	Yes-no interrogatives: Making a request for actions	*Can anybody have a try?*
	Declaratives with rising intonation	*Anybody would like to have a try?* *Any volunteers?*
	Speaker-inclusive imperative	*Let's think about it.*

6.4.1.6 Encouraging Responses. Another post-questioning function that can be seen in the data is to encourage students to respond. It is different from the previous function of "Inviting responses". It is to persuade students to give an answer. To persuade students, the teachers are found to use declaratives expressing expectations and declaratives making evaluations. Using these language forms, the teachers encourage students to respond by emphasising their expectation of students or their evaluation of the difficulty level of questions. The following two extracts demonstrate how the teachers use these two sentence forms to encourage responses from students.

Extract 4-3

…

5 T4: Um, now, I'd like one to tell me, <what was his work mainly about,>

6 what is the topic, or what were the topics of his works,

7 and, (.) WHO did him has, have, have great influence on.

8 (2.0) Anybody?

9 That's easy, if you read it.

10 (3.0) Then, how about S1?

11 S1: The subject he wrote about, mainly about nature, friendship, and, passage of time.

12 T4: Uh huh.

…

In this extract, after presenting the questions in lines 5 to 7, the teacher waits for two seconds before she verbally invites responses from students in line 8. After that, in line 9, the teacher uses an evaluative declarative to evaluate the difficulty level of the question. Assessing the question as easy, the teacher is encouraging students to respond.

Extract 3-5

1 T3: So how about this one? How about /the last sentence of paragraph 3?

/T uses the mouse to underline part of the last sentence of paragraph 3.

2 What is the most important subject in the sentence,

3 the predicative verb, and the object?

4 那么最后的这个句子当中, 它最重要的主语是什么?

Then in the last sentence, what is its most important subject?

5 谓语动词是什么? 宾语是什么?

What is the predicate verb? What is the object?

6 So could you please tell me your understanding?

7 Could you please tell me your analysis of the sentence?

8 Anybody would like to have a try?

9 Anybody would like to have a try?

10 So what about the subject, predicative verb, and also object of the sentence?

11 By understanding the trunk, it will be easier to understand the sentence.
12 Who can have a try?
13 This one is a bit difficult, but I hope you can have a try,
14 you have the courage to have a try.
15 Any volunteers?
16 ☺ Hmhmhm, you are frightened? ☺
17 And now, how about S11 please?

After drawing students' attention to the sentence under discussion in line 1, presenting the question from line 2 to line 7, and inviting responses from the students in lines 8 and 9, T3 repeats the question in line 10 and explains why she asks this question in line 11. After that, T3 invites responses again in line 12. In lines 13 and 14, T3 verbally encourages students to have a try. She first evaluates the difficulty level of the question and then expresses her expectation of students to make an attempt. Even though the task is "a bit difficult", the teacher still expects the students to "have a try".

It can be seen from the above extracts that the teachers can verbally encourage students to respond by evaluating the task as an easy one or a difficult one, or by emphasising their expectations of students to make an attempt. Table 6-13 lists the sentence forms used by the teachers to encourage responses with examples from the data.

Table 6-13

Verbal Strategies Used to Encourage Responses

Functions	Forms	Examples
Encouraging responses	Declaratives: Expressing expectations	*I hope you can have a try.*
	Declaratives: Making evaluation	*This one is a bit difficult.* *I think this is not difficult.* *That's easy, if you read it.*

6.4.1.7 Providing Scaffolding. Another pragmatic function frequently realised in the data is providing scaffolding to help students find the answer. It is different from the "Encouraging responses" function in that it does not merely give encouragement, but provides

clues to the answer. The usual way that the teachers provide scaffolding is to ask subsequent questions by using wh-interrogatives asking for information/knowledge, yes-no interrogatives checking information/knowledge, and unfinished sentences with rising intonation. Using interrogatives, the teachers break the original question down into "smaller" questions which are "easier" to answer. For example, if the original question is an exploratory question asking for reasons, the follow-up questions could be referential questions asking for information. These close questions not only invite for knowledge display, but guide students to the answer of questions that need deeper thinking (Purdy, 2008). Using unfinished declaratives with rising intonation, the teachers provide part of the answer and invite students to complete the remaining part, which scaffold students in giving answers. I now demonstrate the teachers' use of these language forms to provide scaffolding, using extracts from the data.

Extract 1-7

1 T1: /# And then, we can see that they have a problem and they try to solve the problem.

/# T turns to the next page of the textbook and looks at the textbook while walking back to the desk.

Screenshot 1-7-1



2 /# How did they solve the problem? (2.0) They went to catch crabs.

/# T looks up at the students and walks towards the students.

Screenshot 1-7-2



3 /So what's interesting about catching crabs?

/T walks back to the desk and turns around to face the students.

4 /(2.0) What's interesting about catching crabs?

/T looks at the students and moves her gaze around the classroom.

5 The crabs, they, (1.0) they try to escape, /(1.0) and?

/T turns around to look at the screen displaying the paragraph.

6 /(1.0)

/T turns back to look at the students.

7 Ss: the other crabs pull him back in.

8 T1: Others tried to pull them back.

Extract 1-7 has been used to demonstrate how the teacher uses silent waiting time and embodied interaction to invite responses. The subsequent interaction in it also reveals how T1 provides scaffolding to students after presenting the question. In line 2, T1 first presents the question, and gives a two-second waiting time. After that, when there is no response from students, T1 breaks the question down by giving part of the answer in line 2 and asking a follow-up question in line 3. Here, the wh-interrogative *what's interesting about …?* is used by the teacher as a prompt to the previous question in line 2. The original question in line 2 is a procedural question, which requires students to describe a series of actions. T1 first gives part of the answer in line 2, describing the first step. Then in line 3, T1 asks a follow-up question about

later steps. Although T1 intends to ask for factual information, which is evidenced in the following prompts T1 gives in line 5, the follow-up question in line 3 is presented as an evaluative question which asks for students' opinion. This may pose difficulty for students. Once again, T1 waits for two seconds in line 4. With no response from students, T1 repeats the follow-up question in line 4. In line 5, T1 provides part of the answer with an unfinished declarative as scaffolding to students. The scaffolding is given in line 5 in steps. T1 begins by giving the subject of the answer, "that crabs", and waits for one second. When the prompt is not responded to by students, T1 finishes the prompt with the crabs' action. One-second waiting time is again given to students to allow them to finish the answer. While no student takes up the prompt, T1 verbally uses the conjunction "and" with rising intonation to invite students to finish the sentence and thus complete the answer to the question. This is finally responded to by students in line 7. In this extract, the teacher uses both the wh-interrogative and the unfinished declarative to provide scaffolding to students, in order to guide students to the answer.

Apart from wh-interrogatives and unfinished declaratives, the teachers also use yes-no interrogatives to provide scaffolding. Extract 1-4 provides such an example.

Extract 1-4

…

10 /And what is his attitude towards the author?
/T moves her left index finger from one point to another.

11 /(3.0)
/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook.

12 S3: /He was supportive.
/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook.

13 T1: /Supportive?
/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook.

14 S3: Yes.

15 /Is he supportive? (2.0)
/T holds her left index finger still towards the textbook and moves her gaze around the classroom.

16 Ss: Yes.

17 Or is he skeptical? Skeptical, dubious. Um, disbelief. /(5.0)

/T writes the word “skeptical” on the blackboard.

18 /怀疑的. Skeptical?

/T turns back to look at the students.

19 /Is he skeptical? Let’s look at the dialogue here in paragraph 4.

/T looks down at the textbook.

…

In this extract, T1 uses yes-no interrogatives to guide students to the answer. In line 10, T1 presents a question and then waits for three seconds for students to respond in line 11. In line 12, one student self-selects themselves to give an answer. In line 13, T1 repeats the student’s answer, but with rising intonation, functioning as a teacher-initiated repair. When the other-initiated repair is not taken up by the student in line 14, T1 shifts her gaze around the classroom and uses a yes-no interrogative to check the answer with all students in line 15. By using a yes-no interrogative to check the student’s answer again with the whole class, the teacher is again providing scaffolding. However, students give no acknowledgement of the teacher’s scaffolding, chorusing “yes” in line 16. T1 then uses another yes-no interrogative to provide scaffolding in line 17. Using “or” to present “skeptical” as an alternative answer, T1 use a yes-no interrogative to hint that “skeptical” should be the correct answer. The extract demonstrates how the teacher uses yes-no interrogatives as rhetorical questions to guide students to the answer.

Table 6-14 lists the language forms used by the teachers to provide scaffolding to students, with examples from the data.

Table 6-14

Verbal Strategies Used to Provide Scaffolding

Functions	Forms	Examples
Providing scaffolding	Wh-interrogatives: Asking for information/knowledge	*Why did his dad take him to catch the crabs?* *And, what happens next?*
	Yes-no interrogatives: Checking information	*So did the author have any puzzles?*

		Is he supportive?
	Unfinished declaratives with rising intonation	*He wanted to be?* *So actually, he was trying to say, it sounds like an interesting idea, but seems to be a little bit?*

This section demonstrates the language forms that the teachers use when they ask students textbook questions and questions about the textbook content. The data show that asking a question does not involve presenting the question only. It also involves the teachers preparing students for the upcoming question, including orientating students' joint attention to the content and promoting their understanding of the interactional goal. Asking questions does not end with the presentation of the questions either. Before students correctly produce a response, the teachers are also found to justify the question, invite responses, encourage responses, and provide scaffolding. This section provides a typology of the pragmatic functions and demonstrates the various language forms the teachers use, usually in collaboration with embodied strategies, to realise these functions.

While there are a group of pragmatic functions found in the data, the analysis shows certain functions tend to co-occur with each other, which gives rise to patterns of interaction. Besides, the analysis also shows that different language forms of the same function tend to be used in different patterns. Close examination of the functions and language forms and embodied strategies used to realise these functions then reveals two distinctive interactional patterns in the data. The next section then demonstrates the two interactional patterns arising from the TREs of asking questions, illustrating what pedagogical and procedural goals are realised in each pattern. Examining the negotiation of voices in each pattern and bringing in the teachers' embodied strategies of interacting with the textbook, the next section also investigates how classroom authority is established and what teacher–textbook social roles are established within the two patterns.

6.4.2 Interactional Patterns: Finding the Answer vs Checking the Answer

The close examination of all the TREs of asking questions reveals that most of these TREs contain three phases of interaction, in relation to the actual presentation of the question: pre-questioning, questioning and post-questioning. Listing the pragmatic functions realised in

each phase of the TREs reveals that most TREs of asking questions see similar functions at pre-questioning and questioning phases, but two different groups of functions are found to be realised in the post-questioning phase. Table 6-15 illustrates the functions found in the two patterns.

Table 6-15

Pragmatic Functions Realised in Two Interactional Patterns of Asking Questions

Phases	Pattern 1	Pattern 2
Pre-questioning	Clarifying the interactional goal	Clarifying the interactional goal
	Drawing joint attention	Drawing joint attention
Questioning	Presenting the question: Addressing "we"	Presenting the question: Addressing "you"
Post-questioning	Justifying/clarifying the question	Inviting responses
	Inviting responses	Encouraging responses
	Providing scaffolding	

It can be seen from the table that at the pre-questioning phase, both patterns involve the function of "Drawing joint attention" and may contain the function of "Clarifying the interactional goal". In both patterns, the teachers present the question after they draw students' joint attention. Differences lie in the post-questioning phase. In Pattern 1, the teachers are found to sometimes justify the rationale of the question or clarify the question, which is not found in Pattern 2. Meanwhile, both patterns see the function of "Inviting responses", but if there is no prompt response, the teachers mainly provide scaffolding to students in Pattern 1 and mainly encourage responses in Pattern 2.

Another difference between the two patterns is the language forms used to realise the function of "Presenting the question". In Pattern 1, the teachers usually directly quote the textbook if the question is from the textbook. If the question is about the textbook, they use interrogatives asking for information or knowledge. The questions are presented as addressing no particular person or as addressing "we" which includes both the teacher and students. However, in Pattern 2, the teachers usually indirectly present the question. Instead of presenting an interrogative asking for information or knowledge, the teachers use wh-interrogatives asking for

students' opinion, or they use yes-no interrogatives or declaratives to request actions from students. It can be seen that all the language forms the teachers use in Pattern 2 present the questions as addressing "you" which refers to the students. Table 6-16 lists the language forms respectively used in Pattern 1 and Pattern 2 to present questions.

Table 6-16

Verbal Strategies Used to Present Questions in Two Interactional Patterns of Asking Questions

Patterns	Sentence forms	Examples from the data
Pattern 1	Wh-interrogatives: Asking for information/knowledge	*What does it mean?* *What does it refer to here?* *What is the most important …?* *How do we …?*
Pattern 2	Wh-interrogatives: Asking for opinions	*What do you think would be …?* *Based on your understanding, how would you …?* *What about your understanding of …?*
	Yes-no interrogatives: Making a request for actions	*Could you please tell me …?*
	Declaratives: Making a request for actions	*I'd like you to …* *I want you to tell me …*

The third difference between the two patterns is related to the interactional goal. When the teachers explicitly clarify the interactional goal of asking questions, it can be seen that the teachers are expecting to achieve two different types of goals. If the interactional goal is presented in Pattern 1, the teachers use the speaker-inclusive imperative to explain that the goal of the interaction is to find out certain information. The interactional goal presented in Pattern 2, however, by the speaker-inclusive imperative or the declarative with future tense is to check students' understanding or knowledge. Based on the interactional goals presented by the teachers, I thus term Pattern 1 as "Finding the answer" pattern and Pattern 2 as "Checking the answer" pattern. The next section then examines the negotiation between teacher voice and textbook voice in each pattern and how it contributes to classroom interaction and instruction. To

demonstrate how negotiation between voices is achieved through verbal and embodied strategies, extracts from the datasets are presented, displaying different interactional patterns.

6.4.2.1 Pattern 1: Finding the Answer. The first extract is from T1's face-to-face classroom. It demonstrates a TRE of the "Finding the answer" pattern.

Extract 1-5

Drawing joint attention

Setting the interactional goal

Presenting the question

Providing scaffoldings

1 T1: /So, you can see that um,

/T looks down at the textbook while walking towards the desk.

2 /the description of the scene there,

/T turns back to face the students, looking up at them and using her right index finger to point at the textbook.

3 /in the crab-catching, it's a basket, right?

/T walks towards the students, holding the textbook and looking at the students.

4 那么在这个篮子里面到底发生了什么?

Then what on earth happened in the basket?

5 /如果让我们去描述的话, 我们可能就会用这几个动词哈.

If we are required to describe it, we can probably use only the few verbs.

/T walks back towards the desk, neither looking at the textbook nor the students.

6 一个是 pull, 一个是 pull back, /还有就是 started pulling others, 对不对?

One is "pull", another is "pull back", and then "started pulling others", right?

/T puts down the textbook on the desk and looks up at the students.

7 /那我们看教材上是怎么去描写的.

Let's find out how the textbook describes the scene.

/T uses her left index finger to point down at the textbook on the desk in front of her.

8 我们怎么去增加更多的细节呀?

How do we add more details?

9 How do we add more details? /Into the description.

/T uses her left index finger to point down at the textbook on the desk in front of her.

10 它是怎么样被拽下来的? 怎么样被拽下来的? (1.0)

How did it get pulled down? How (did it) get pulled down?

11 S23: 在顶上被拽下来的.

It was pulled down from the top.

12 T1: 在顶上, 对, 在顶上被拽下来的, 对不对?

From the top, yes, pulled down from the top, right?

13 /那么, (1.0) 它是怎么到顶上去的? (2.0)

So, (1.0) how did it get to the top? (2.0)

/T cleans the blackboard.

14 S24: Climbed up the mesh towards the lid.

15 T1: /Yes, (1.0) 对吧? 我们先有一个 climb.

Yes, (1.0) right? We first have a word "climb".

/T writes the word "pull" on the blackboard, and then writes the word "climb" above it on the blackboard.

16 /那么我们书上用的不是 climb.

Then the word used by our textbook is not "climb".

/T turns back.

17 S25: 是.

It is.

18 S26: 是啊.

It is.

19 T1: /是☺ climb, OK. ☺

It is

/T walks from the blackboard to the desk and looks down at the textbook.

20 Ss: (laugh)

21 T1: /Climb up, OK?

/T looks up at the students.

22 /And they try to?

/T looks down at the textbook on the desk.

23 /他们想爬出来. 还有一个表示爬的词. (2.0) 比这个 climb 更加地形象一点.

They wanted to climb out. There is another word which means "climb". (2.0) Slightly more expressive than this word.

/T looks up and walks towards the students.

24 /(5.0)

/T walks slowly towards the blackboard.

25 S28: Crawl.

26 T1: /Crawl, very good.

/T writes the word "crawl" on the blackboard.

Before this extract, the teacher has led students to understand the story of a father taking his son to catch crabs. This extract begins with T1 makes a transition from instruction on meaning to instruction on form.

Lines 1-3 constitute the first part of the pre-questioning phase of the interaction, in which T1 draws students' joint attention to the description of the scene of crabs in the basket in the reading passage. T1 first uses a declarative with the deictic word "there" in lines 1-3. Meanwhile, she embodiedly engages herself with the textbook, holding it, looking at it, and at one moment pointing at it. The embodied cue of pointing at the textbook clarifies the reference of the word "there". It also foregrounds the textbook in the physical space as the teacher assumes a position similar to that of students in relation to the textbook in line 1, and uses her index finger to highlight the textbook in interactional space. The foregrounding of the textbook complements the verbal interaction and clarifies to students it is the textbook that the teacher wants them to pay attention to.

Line 4 to line 7 constitute the second part of the pre-questioning phase of the interaction in which the interactional goal is explained by the teacher. From line 4 to line 6, T1 makes a speculation about how "we" may produce an unimaginative description of the scene with the use of a limited vocabulary. This speculation then leads to the clarification of the interactional goal, which is to learn from the textbook reading passage about how to describe a scene. In line 7, T1 uses the speaker-inclusive imperative "let's find out how the textbook describes the scene" in

Chinese to explicitly clarify the interactional goal. Embodiedly, when T1 explains to students the goal of the following interaction, she engages herself with the textbook through pointing at it. The pointing gesture helps draw students' attention back to the textbook, and foregrounds the textbook in interactional space. Verbally, the teacher is also privileging textbook voice. The teacher is grouped together with students as a learning community through the use of first-person plural pronoun "we". Textbook voice, on the other hand, is privileged in the sense that the teacher and students need to learn how to describe a scene from the textbook.

The teacher presents the question in lines 8 and 9. T1 uses an wh-interrogative asking for knowledge "how do we add more details?" in Chinese to present the question. Here, the question is presented as one addressing both the teacher and students. This echoes T1's explanation of the interactional goal in line 7 and entails how she interacts with students in the upcoming interaction. The question is first presented in line 8 and then repeated in line 9. When it is repeated, T1 uses embodied interaction with the textbook of pointing to signal that the question focuses on the description in the textbook, clarifying references and maintaining students' joint attention.

Starting from line 10, the interaction comes to the post-questioning phase. T1 uses a series of wh-interrogatives and unfinished declaratives to guide students to find out the details of description in the textbook reading passage. When using wh-interrogatives, such as in lines 10 and 13, T1 uses the interrogatives asking for information. When using unfinished declaratives, T1 quotes the sentences from the textbook reading passage, as she does in line 22. Embodiedly, T1 mostly engages herself with students through her bodily positioning of facing the students and her gaze directed at them. However, in line 22, when T1 uses an unfinished declarative to prompt students, she quotes the textbook, reading out the beginning of a sentence from the reading passage. Through the follow-up questions and unfinished declaratives, T1 manages to provide scaffolding to students and guide students to the answer of the question. When providing the scaffolding, the teacher privileges textbook voice in verbal interaction. The two wh-interrogatives in lines 10 and 13 focus on the information in the textbook, and the unfinished declarative directly quotes the textbook. The teacher's embodied interaction also foregrounds the textbook as she engages her gaze with the textbook in line 22, which places her in a position similar to that of students in relation to the textbook.

Extract 1-5 presents a typical TRE of asking questions about textbook content in T1's classroom interaction with students. It demonstrates the "Finding the answer" pattern, starting from the pre-questioning phase of drawing students' joint attention and setting the interactional goal, moving to the phase of presenting the question, and continuing with the post-questioning phase of providing scaffolding to students through follow-up wh-interrogatives asking for information and unfinished declaratives prompting students to complete the answer. During the TRE, T1 verbally privileges textbook voice and groups herself with students. Embodiedly, she foregrounds the textbook in interactional space. Privileging textbook voice and foregrounding textbook materiality in the physical space secure students' joint attention to the relevant textbook content. Meanwhile, placing the textbook at a relatively higher position in terms of knowledge and skills in relation to the teacher and students presents the textbook as the classroom authority and groups the teacher and students together as a learning community. The verbal and embodied strategies help the teacher to downplay power asymmetry between the teacher and students and build rapport with students by grouping themselves together with students.

The interactional goal of Extract 1-5 has been verbalised by the teacher in line 8 at the very beginning of the interaction. Analysis shows that not all TREs of the "Finding the answer" pattern have the interactional goal clarified at the beginning. However, the interaction follows the interactional routine of "drawing joint attention" – "presenting the question" – ("inviting responses") – "providing scaffoldings". Besides, when asking questions, the teachers present the questions as addressing both the teacher and students. At the post-questioning phase, the teachers usually ask follow-up questions or use unfinished declaratives to guide students to the answer. Extract 2-4 gives an example of such.

Extract 2-4

Drawing joint attention Presenting the question

Inviting responses Providing scaffoldings

1 T2: /Next one.

/T turns around to look at the screen.

2 Where do you put your hands when you are not eating?

3 /就这个,大家会有些什么情况.

This one, what does everyone do?

/T turns around to look at the students.

4 When you are not eating, where do you put your hands?

5 大家想一下这个.

Everyone thinks about this.

6 /(3.0)

/One student puts his hands in his pockets.

7 You put your hands in your pockets?

8 Or you take your mobile phone?

9 On your lap?这是 on your lap.

This is on your lap.

10 /我想一下, 我不吃饭的时候, 手放哪里?

Let me think, where do I put my hand when I am not eating?

/T walks to the first row of the chairs, sits down, and puts her hands on her lap, facing students.

11 Ss: xxx.

12 T2: /OK, you, you, you scroll your mobile phone.

/T stands up, facing the students.

13 但是好像跟大家一起吃饭, 我们能这样吗?

But can we do that when we have dinner with others?

14 Ss: xxx.

15 T2: Everyone! ☺Everyone look at their mobile phone. ☺

16 OK, but that's bad table manners. Bad table manners.

17 So we set out something to talk, maybe, and then, our, our /(3.0)

/T turns around and sits down on a chair in the first row.

18 /可能是, put on our lap, 对不对?

Probably, put on our lap, *right?*

/T stands up, turns around to face the students and puts her hands on the lap.

19 坐在这里, 对不对? Put on our lap, OK.

Sit here, right?

20 Is it OK, is it OK in your household, in your home, that you, /you put your elbow on the table?

/T bends forward and puts her elbow on the table.

21 大家把 elbow 放在 table 上, 在你们家是被允许的吗?

Is it allowed in your family that you put your elbow *on the* table?

22 Ss: Yeah. Yes.

Extract 2-4 is from T2's face-to-face classroom. It starts with T2 initiating a new question. There is no interactional goal explained at the beginning of the interaction. However, the interaction follows the "Finding the answer" pattern.

In line 1, T2 uses an indexical expression "next one" to draw students' joint attention to the next question. This function is jointly achieved by T2's embodied interaction with the textbook question. The verbal interaction in line 1 is accompanied by T2's change of positioning, shifting from facing the students to facing the screen which has the textbook questions on it. As analysed in Chapter 5, the change of the teacher's positioning initiates a shift in instructional focus and draw students' attention to the next question on the screen.

From line 2 to line 4, T2 presents the question. In line 2, when T2 first presents the question, she reads aloud from the screen, quoting the textbook. When quoting the textbook, T2 takes a position similar to that of students, facing the textbook content displayed on the screen. Both the verbal cue and the embodied cue show that the question is presented as one addressing the teacher and students together. In line 3, T2 turns back to face students and rephrases the question using a wh-interrogative asking for information which addresses "everyone". It is hard to tell at this moment if the teacher is addressing students only or addressing the teacher and students as a group by using "everyone". However, later exchanges in the TRE show that T1 presents the question as addressing both the teacher and students. In line 10, T2 talks about and acts out what she herself does if she is not eating. The inclusive "we" is also used when T2 summarises the answer from line 15 to line 19, which also evidences that the teacher presents the question as addressing the teacher and students as a group. Grouping the teacher and students together works on the teacher–student relationship and builds the classroom rapport. Both quoting the textbook and using the inclusive "we" privilege textbook voice in interaction. While

the textbook is presented as the enquirer, the teacher and students, as a group, are presented as the enquired. The textbook is presented as the classroom authority.

In lines 5 and 6, T2 invites responses from students. T2 first invites students to think about the question, which is then followed by three-seconds of waiting time, during which the teacher engages her gaze with students. The invitation and the silence are understood by students as inviting responses as students are starting to give responses which are unintelligible as they speak at the same time. However, there is one student who gives a response using his body language, putting his hands in his pockets. This is then picked up by the teacher and verbally repeated by the teacher in line 7.

In lines 8 and 9, T2 uses declaratives with rising intonation to provide more ways of behaving and students are invited to agree or disagree. When students confirm that they would take out their mobile phone and play with it when they are not eating, T2 uses a yes-no interrogative for checking information in line 13. In line 20, T2 asks another follow-up question, providing another possible way of behaving for students to agree or disagree with. All these follow-up questions function as scaffolding which lead students to respond to the textbook question. When presenting these follow-up questions, the teacher positions herself as a member of the learning group, finding out answers to the textbook question together with students.

Although Extract 2-4 contains no explication of the interactional goal of finding out an answer to a question, the interaction follows the "Finding the answer" pattern as it undergoes the same routine as the interaction in Extract 1-5. Meanwhile, similar to the presentation of the question in Extract 1-5, the question in Extract 2-4 is presented as addressing the teacher and students together. The negotiation between voices, together with the foregrounding of the textbook in the physical space, helps draw students' attention to the textbook and the specific question. Interpersonally, the negotiation of voices also helps the teacher work on the classroom rapport, as it groups the teacher together with students. The textbook is established as the classroom authority and the teacher is a member of the classroom learning community. A more balanced teacher–student relationship is established, while the teachers guide students to learn writing skills in Extract 1-5 and to discuss table manners in Extract 2-4, and while they guide students through the instructional process.

6.4.2.2 Pattern 2: Checking the Answer. Having demonstrated the "Finding the answer" pattern with examples from the data, I now use two extracts from T3's online classroom to illustrate the "Checking the answer" pattern.

Extract 3-4

Drawing joint attention

Setting the interactional goal

Presenting the question

Inviting responses

1 T3: Now, let's begin to check your understanding.
2 Um, first, let's begin with the word "exert".
3 How do you understand the word "exert"?
4 S13, please. S13, mm.
5 [Exert, what does it mean?]
6 S13: [Hello, teacher.]
7 T3: Mm.
8 S13: Um, 能听到吗?
9 T3: Yeah, yeah, yeah, very clear.
10 So what about your understanding of the word "exert"? (2.0)
11 S13: Er, 尽力。
12 T3: Hmm. Exert, very good.

Before this extract, T3 has asked students to read Paragraph 3 and figure out the meaning of certain words, expressions, and sentences in the paragraph. This extract starts with students having finished reading Paragraph 3. The pre-questioning phase of the interaction consists of line 1 and line 2. In line 1, T3 uses a speaker-inclusive imperative "let's …" to explain the interactional goal which is to check students' understanding. In line 2, T3 uses a speaker-inclusive imperative "let's …" to draw students' joint attention to the word "exert". In line 3, T3 presents the question. Here, T3 uses an wh-interrogative asking for others' opinion. The question uses "you" to address students only, and is presented as seeking for the students' understanding.

Compared with a question which directly asks for information, this question emphasises students' understanding. In this way, the teacher is presented as the one who checks students' understanding. Textbook voice is not privileged but the textbook is presented as the materials that the teacher uses to teach students. The post-questioning phase of the interaction starts from line 4. In line 4, T3 invites responses by nominating one student to provide the answer. The teacher voice is again privileged as she selects the respondent to the question from students.

Through presenting herself as an evaluator of students' knowledge and abilities, the teacher highlights her power over students while guiding students to understand the passage and leading students through the interactional process. The verbal cues enact the teacher as the classroom authority and highlights the power asymmetry between the teacher and students. In this way, a more disciplined classroom is created.

The interactional goal of Extract 3-4 is verbalised by the teacher in line 1 at the beginning. Analysis shows that not all TREs of the "Checking the answer" pattern has the interactional goal clarified at the beginning. However, the interaction follows the interactional routine of "drawing joint attention" – "presenting the question" – "inviting responses" – "encouraging responses". Besides, different from the "Finding the answer" pattern, when presenting questions, the teachers present the questions as addressing students only, either enquiring about students' understanding or giving commands on students' action. At the post-questioning phase of the "Checking the answer" pattern, the teachers usually encourage responses instead of providing follow-up scaffolding. Extract 4-3 presents such an example. Although no interactional goal is explicitly set at the beginning, it is similar to Extract 3-4 in the way the teacher presents the question, and the way the teacher invites responses without providing follow-up scaffolding.

Extract 4-3



1 T4: So the three photos, or ☺not photos actually☺,
2 they are pictures, are three of the world's major writers.

3 Ah, /the first one, yes.

/T moves the mouse up and down across the first picture.

4 When we read the caption, we know it's Li Bai, right? Yes.

5 Um, now, I'd like one to tell me, <what was his work mainly about,>

6 what is the topic, or what were the topics of his works,

7 and, (.) WHO did him has, have, have great influence on.

8 (2.0) Anybody?

9 That's easy, if you read it.

10 (3.0) Then, how about S1?

This extract starts with T4 describing the three pictures on the textbook page. In line 3, T4 draws students' attention to the first picture by using an indexical phrase "the first one", and manipulates the mouse to mark the first picture out on the shared screen. From lines 5 to 7, T4 presents the question using a declarative, "I'd like one to tell me ...". The teacher frames the question as a request for students to act. Teacher voice is privileged in verbal interaction, placing emphasis on the students' role in providing the answers and positioning the teacher as the initiator and director of the action.

Following the presentation of the question, there is a two-second silence during which the teacher waits for students to self-select themselves. When there is no one self-selecting themselves, T4 invites responses from students using an indefinite pronoun with rising intonation in line 8. The invitation is followed by T4's evaluation of the question as "easy" in line 9, to encourage students' participation. The evaluation privileges teacher voice over textbook voice, presenting the teacher as the evaluator and the textbook question as the evaluated. After that, T4 waits for another three seconds. When there is still no student self-selecting themselves, the teacher nominates one student.

Extract 4-3 is of a "Checking the answer" pattern although there is no interactional goal of checking the answer explicated at the beginning of the interaction. Apart from "Drawing joint attention", "Presenting the question", and "Inviting responses" functions, Extract 4-3 also demonstrates how the function of "Encouraging responses" can be realised in the post-questioning phase. In both Extract 3-4 and Extract 4-3, interaction begins with textbook voice taking precedence over teacher voice, positioning the textbook as the primary authority in the

classroom that guides the instruction by providing the learning content. After students' joint attention has been secured, the verbal cues the teacher uses present herself as the commander of students' action and the evaluator of the textbook. Teacher voice is privileged over textbook voice in the verbal interaction, enabling the teacher to assess students' understanding, request specific actions from students, select individuals to answer questions, and evaluate the textbook to encourage student participation. In this way, the teacher claims authority and highlights her power over students and the textbook. While guiding students to understand the information in the picture caption in the textbook and leading students through the instructional process, the teacher works on the teacher–student relationship and creates a disciplined classroom atmosphere during the interaction.

The above extracts have demonstrated the two interactional patterns of asking textbook questions or questions about the textbook content found in the data. It can be seen that the two patterns serve different interactional goals. The "Finding the answer" pattern is adopted when the teacher is using the question to facilitate students' understanding or attainment of knowledge. The "Checking the answer" pattern is followed if the teacher is using the question to check students' understanding or knowledge.

The extracts demonstrate that the pre-questioning stages of the two patterns are very similar in the verbal and embodied strategies the teachers employ. Verbally and embodiedly, the teachers foreground the textbook in interaction and draw students' joint attention to the textbook.

When presenting the question, the two patterns observe different privileged voice in verbal interaction. In the "Finding the answer" pattern, the teachers usually quote the textbook if they are asking textbook questions. If the teachers are asking questions about the textbook content, they use wh-interrogatives addressing the teacher and the students as "we" or addressing no one in particular. Embodiedly, the teachers usually position themselves towards the textbook content in a way similar to that of the students in the face-to-face classrooms, grouping themselves together with the students. Textbook voice is continued to be privileged and the textbook is enacted as the classroom authority by the teachers. The teachers, on the other hand, are grouped with students and positioned as a member of the classroom learning community. In the "Checking the answer" pattern, the teachers present the questions using wh-interrogatives asking for students' understanding or opinion, or yes-no interrogatives and declaratives requesting for students' action. The questions are presented as addressing students only and the

teachers are presented as commanders or evaluators. The privileged voice shifts from textbook voice to teacher voice, and the teachers claim authority and highlight the power asymmetry between students and themselves.

After questions being presented, there are other functions realised before students provide a response. Apart from the "Inviting responses" function which is found in both patterns, the two patterns perform different functions. The post-questioning phase of the "Finding the answer" pattern usually consists of the "Justifying the question" and "Providing scaffolding" functions, both of which are intended to guide students to the answers. Textbook voice is privileged over teacher voice and the textbook remains enacted as the classroom authority. In the "Checking the answer" pattern, the post-questioning phase mainly consists of the "Encouraging responses" function. Using evaluative declaratives to assess the difficulty level of questions or expressing their expectations of students taking action, the teachers encourage students to give a response. Teacher voice is privileged over textbook voice through verbal cues and it is the teachers who are established as the classroom authority.

The interaction analysis reveals two interactional patterns of TREs of asking questions from the data. Each pattern is adopted by the teachers to achieve different interactional goals, and realise different pragmatic functions. Each pattern witnesses different privileged voices and foregrounded entities at different stages, and thus establishes different classroom authorities at different stages. To better understand how the interactional patterns relate to different ways of using the textbook, the next section zooms in to examine each classroom and analyse how each teacher adopts different interactional patterns.

6.4.2.3 Interactional Patterns in Different Classrooms. When the four datasets are taken together, it can be seen that different classrooms have different norms of following the two interactional patterns.

In C1, T1 uses questions and answers as a teaching technique all the way through her lessons. While she does not ask any textbook questions, T1 asks students questions about the reading passage in the textbook to help students understand it and learn the writing skills used in it. Even if these questions are mostly display questions to which the teacher already knows the answer and are thus used by the teacher to check knowledge and comprehension (Long & Sato, 1983), T1 mostly adopts the "Finding the answer" pattern, privileging textbook voice in her verbal interaction and foregrounding the textbook at the centre of joint attention. The teachers

use questioning as a teaching technique to guide students in understanding meaning and learning language and skills. Through the verbal cues, T1 positions the textbook as authoritative and herself as a member of the learning community. Interpersonally, the teacher and students in C1 enjoy a more balanced power dynamic, and thus a more relaxed classroom atmosphere is created in C1.

This is also the case in C2. T2 asks students both textbook questions and questions about textbook content. When T2 asks students textbook questions, most questions are referential ones, asking about students' own experience and opinion (Long & Sato, 1983). When T2 asks questions about textbook content, the questions are display questions, asking for students' understanding. No matter if the teacher is following the textbook or using questioning as a teaching technique to instruct students on textbook content, and no matter what types of questions are asked, T2 follows the "Finding the answer" pattern, privileging textbook voice in her verbal interaction and grouping herself with students through positioning and posturing. Through verbal and embodied strategies, T2 leads students to answers to questions and encourages them to share their experiences and views. Meanwhile, these strategies position the textbook as authoritative and position the teacher as more equal to students, and thus construct a more equal and relaxed classroom atmosphere.

In C3, the TREs of asking questions follow a different norm. T3 asks both textbook questions and questions about textbook content in her classroom. These questions include both referential questions and display questions. In contrast to the interactional norm in C2 where the teacher always adopts the "Finding the answer" pattern, T3 mostly adopts the "Checking the answer" pattern. While questioning is also used as a teaching technique to guide students to understand meaning and learn language and skills, the verbal and embodied strategies employed by T3 are in contrast to T1 and T2 in that they privilege teacher voice, enacting the teacher as the classroom authority and highlighting an asymmetrical power relationship between the teacher and students.

C4 is similar to C3 in that T4 mostly follows the "Checking the answer" pattern when she asks students questions. When T4 asks questions, no matter whether they are textbook questions or questions about the textbook content, T4 usually adopts the "Checking the answer" pattern, privileging teacher voice and establishes teacher authority.

However, in both C3 and C4, there are TREs of asking questions where the teachers shift from the "Checking the answer" pattern to the "Finding the answer" pattern. These shifts are typically prompted by students' inability to provide an answer. At these times, the teachers quote the textbook to provide scaffolding. I now use an extract from T4's data to demonstrate how T4 shifts from the "Checking the answer" pattern to the "Finding the answer" pattern.

Extract 4-3

Drawing joint attention

Presenting the question

Inviting responses

Encouraging responses

Providing scaffoldings

1 T4: So the three photos, or ☺not photos actually☺,
2 they are pictures, are three of the world's major writers.
3 Ah, /the first one, yes.
/T moves the mouse up and down across the first picture.
4 When we read the caption, we know it's Li Bai, right? Yes.
5 Um, now, I'd like one to tell me, <what was his work mainly about,>
6 what is the topic, or what were the topics of his works,
7 and, (.) WHO did him has, have, have great influence on.
8 (2.0) Anybody?
9 That's easy, if you read it.
10 (3.0) Then, how about S1?
…
25 T4: And the second question, who did he, who did he has, hav, have great influence on?
26 (3.0)
27 Ah, S1, can you continue?
28 S1: Ah, he influenced many generations of later poets.
29 T4: Like?
30 S1: Like? (laugh)

31 T4: Including?

32 S1: Ah, I don't know.

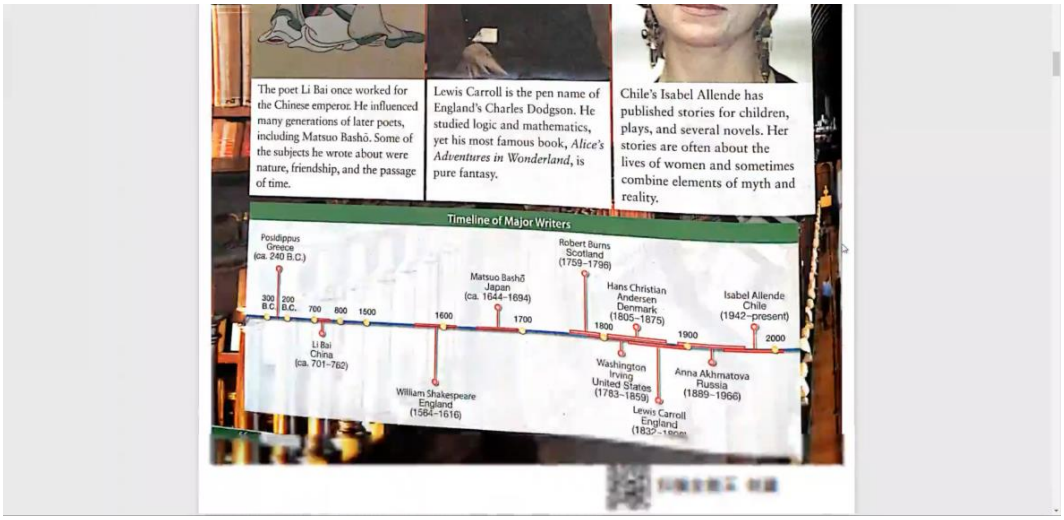
33 T4: The name?

34 S1: I don't know who is that.

35 T4: OK. Alright. /# So if we continue to read

/# T scrolls the page down to display the timeline below the three pictures.

4-3-1



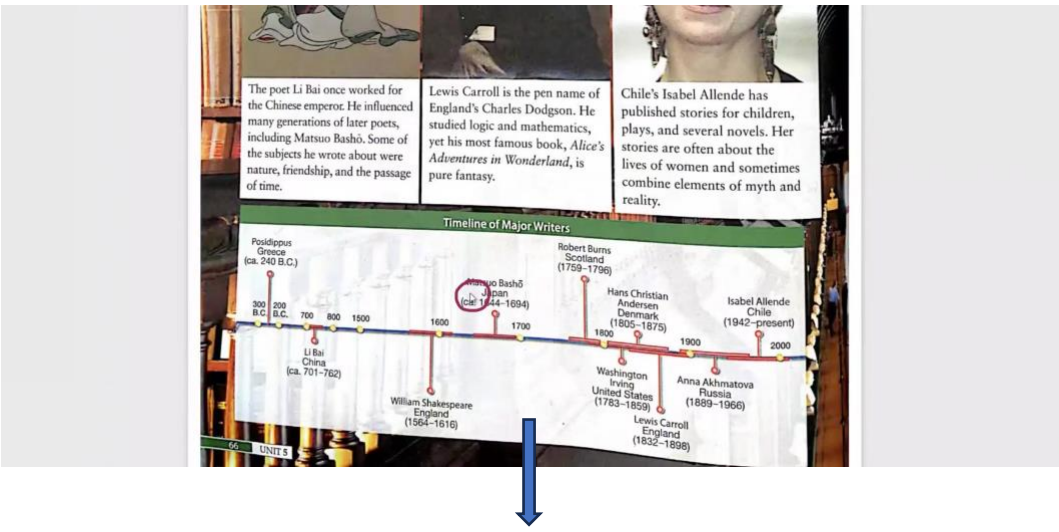
36 /the timeline of major writers, we may find the name,

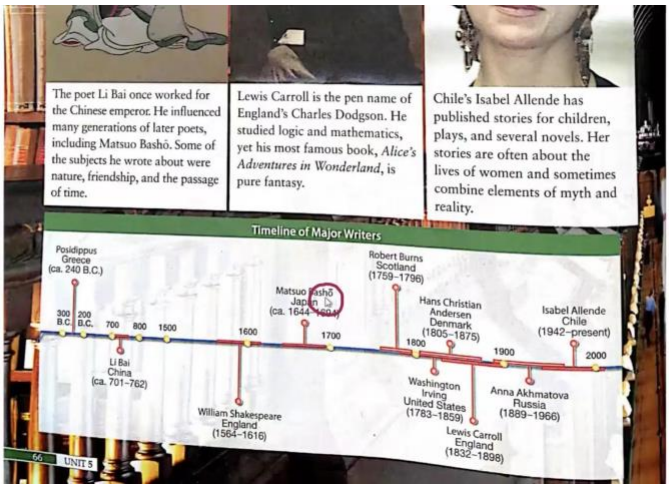
/T uses the mouse to circle around the timeline on the page.

37 /# Matsuo Basho, right? Japan.

/# T uses the mouse to underline the name Matsuo Basho on the timeline.

Screenshot 4-3-2

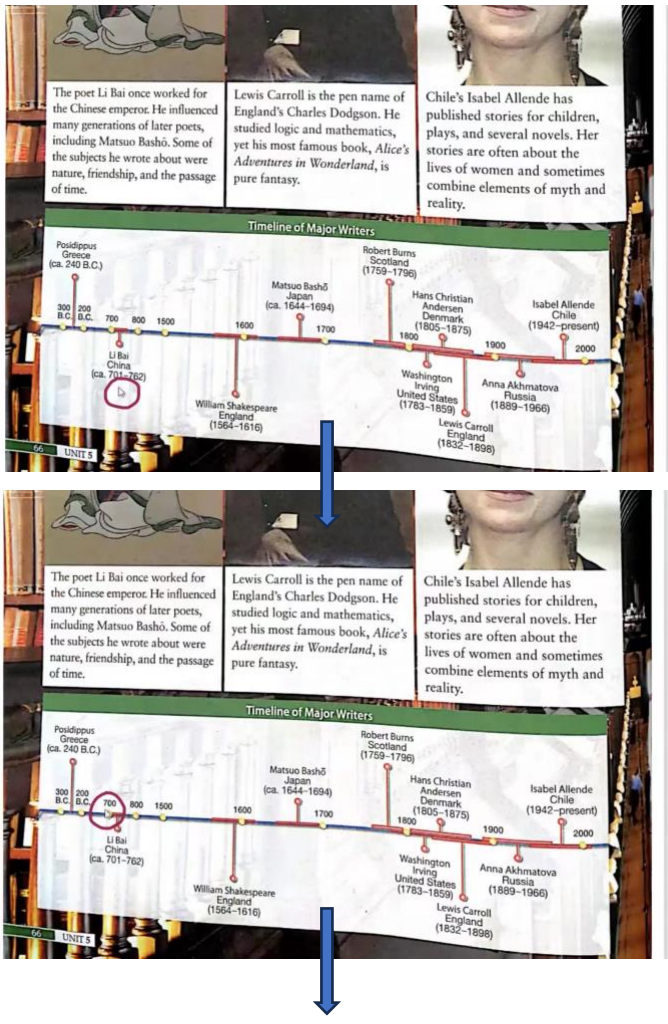


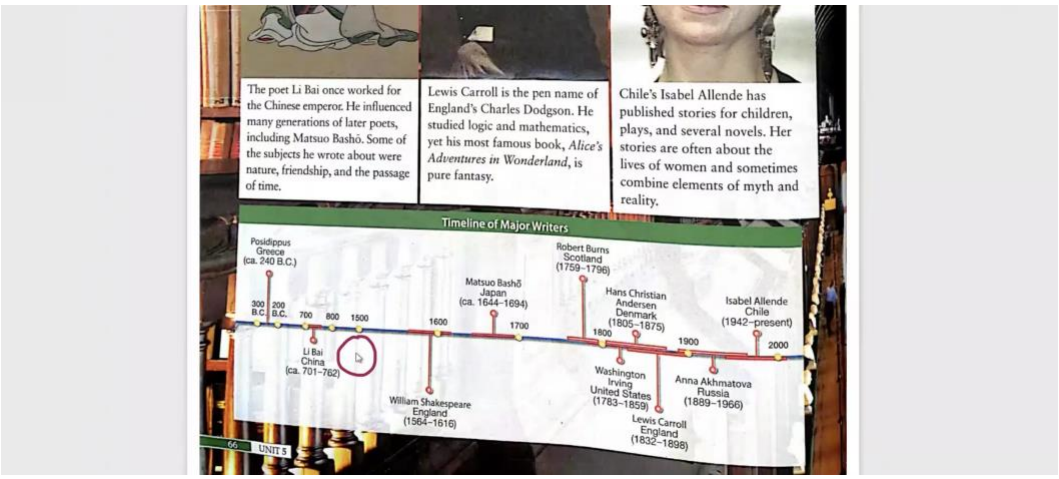


38 So several, several hundred years later, /# after Li Bai. Right? Yes.

/# T uses the mouse to circle around the name Li Bai on the timeline.

Screenshot 4-7-3





The first half of the extract (lines 1-10) has been demonstrated in previous section as a "Checking the answer" pattern. In lines 5 to 7, T4 uses a requestive declarative to present the questions, demanding students to make an action. In line 9, T4 evaluates the questions as easy to encourage students to give answers. The interactional routines and the sentence forms used to realise the functions reveal that teacher voice is privileged in the interaction. From line 11 to line 24 which are not shown here, T4's and S1's interaction is on the first question: "What were the topics of Li Bai's works?"

From line 25, the interaction is on the second question that T4 has presented in line 7: Who did Li Bai have great influence on? The question is presented again in line 25. This time, the teacher uses a wh-interrogative without addressing anyone in particular. In line 26, there is a three-second silence. It can be seen from line 27 that the question is intended to address S1, as T4 invites S1 to continue. When S1 fails to name a poet who was greatly influenced by Li Bai in line 28, T4 uses the word "like" to prompt S1 to give an example. Using rising intonation, T4 invites S1 to complete the sentence. However, the prompt is not understood by S1, which is evidenced by S1's repetition of the word "like" with rising intonation followed by their laughter in line 30. In line 31, T4 directly quotes the textbook and uses "including" which is the exact wording in the textbook to prompt S1. However, the student does not get the clue and responds "I don't know". In line 33, T4 continues to provide scaffolding by referring to "the name". After the student responds with his non-knowledge of the person and thus his name, T4 displays the timeline in the textbook and points out the name "Matsuo Basho" by verbally referring to it and embodiedly manipulating the mouse to underline it. The interaction follows the "Finding the

answer" pattern in which the teacher provides scaffolding to lead students to find out answers. Throughout the interaction on the second question, T4 is privileging textbook voice by quoting it, and foregrounding textbook materiality by manipulating the mouse to interact with the relevant content.

The extract shows how T4 shifts from the "Checking the answer" to the "Finding the answer" pattern. This is prompted by S1 showing his inability to answer the question. Although T4 usually adopts the "Checking the answer" pattern in her classroom, shifts in patterns can be initiated by disruptions in interaction where students show inability to answer questions. Shifts in interactional patterns facilitate the teacher in achieving instructional goals.

Analysis of each teacher's classroom data reveals that the teachers have different norms of adopting interactional patterns. While T1 and T2 follow the norm of adopting the "Finding the answer" pattern when asking students questions, T3 and T4 adopt the "Checking the answer" pattern. The interactional norm is observed no matter whether the teachers are following the textbook by asking textbook questions or employing questioning as a teaching technique to lead students in learning the textbook. Previous studies (e.g. Cazden, 2001; Johnson, 1995; Mehan, 1979b) have pointed out that when teachers ask display questions to check students' understanding, they are placed in a more authoritative position. However, interaction analysis of the data shows that the negotiation of voices and enacted authority can be different when the teachers adopt different interactional patterns. Even if the teachers are asking display questions, they may follow the "Finding the answer" pattern, privileging textbook voice and grouping themselves together with students. This is achieved through positioning the textbook as more authoritative. While asking referential questions usually places the enquirer in an inferior position in terms of knowledge and information, the teachers can claim authority through adopting the "Checking the answer" pattern when asking referential questions. Interaction analysis further reveals that the teachers can change from the "Checking the answer" pattern to the "Finding the answer" pattern when prompted by students' inability to produce answers.

6.4.2.4 Different Interactional Patterns to Foster Classroom Rapport or Maintain Classroom Discipline. In C1 and C2, even if the teachers are using questioning as a teaching technique, they adopt the "Finding the answer" pattern. When questioning is used as a teaching technique to lead students in learning the textbook, the questions are not quoted from the textbook, but designed by the teachers. However, T1 and T2 adopt the "Finding the answer"

pattern to ask these types of questions, presenting the questions as addressing the teacher and students together. T1 and T2 also adopt the "Finding the answer" pattern when they ask students display questions, for which the teachers know the answer and through which the teachers can check students' knowledge and comprehension. When teachers ask display questions, it is usually the teacher who possesses the power in interaction in terms of knowledge and information. Usually, the teacher is presented and understood by students as the more powerful in classroom interaction, as they are the more knowledgeable and the evaluator. Students are at the other end of the power equilibrium as they are requested to demonstrate their knowledge and understanding and assessed by the teacher. However, verbal strategies used in the "Finding the answer" pattern privilege textbook voice and group teachers with students, which allows the teachers to downplay the power asymmetry between teachers and students. When T1 and T2 ask questions, the questions are presented as addressing the teacher and students together as "we". The following interaction continues to privilege textbook voice as the teachers use unfinished declaratives to quote the textbook, in order to provide scaffolding. The verbal strategies present the textbook as the knowledge and information holder. They position the textbook, rather than the teacher, at the higher end of the power dynamics and thus downplay the power imbalance between students and themselves.

Privileging textbook voice in the verbal interaction in the "Finding the answer" pattern is usually accompanied by the teachers' embodied interaction to foreground textbook materiality in interactional space. When asking questions, T1 usually brings the textbook into interactional space and places it at the centre of joint attention, achieved through holding the textbook, pointing at it, and tapping on it. T2 usually stands between students and the display screen on the front wall, and turns away from students to face the screen when she asks questions. This physical positioning foregrounds the textbook and helps draw students' joint attention to the screen. Meanwhile, T1's looking down at the textbook in her hands and T2's turning to look at the screen place the teachers in a positioning similar to that of students. Taking a similar positioning towards the textbook, the teachers and students are grouped together.

Both verbal strategies and embodied strategies in the "Finding the answer" pattern contribute to the downplay of the power unbalance between the teacher and students. Similar to what Holmes and Stubbe's (2015) findings on workplace interaction, the downplay of the

teacher's power in the classroom contributes to a more collaborative classroom interactional environment and thus fosters the classroom rapport.

On the contrary, in C3 and C4, the "Checking the answer" pattern is usually adopted by the teachers. When T3 and T4 ask students questions, they privilege teacher voice and position the teacher as the commander of students' action and evaluator of students' knowledge and performance. This happens even when T3 and T4 are asking students questions designed by the textbook or when they ask students referential questions for which it is usually the students who possess knowledge and information. The verbal strategies that position teachers as the commander of students' action and evaluator of students' knowledge and performance help place the teachers as more authoritative and highlight the power asymmetry between teachers and students. In this way, a more disciplined classroom atmosphere is created.

6.4.3 Summary

Section 6.4 focuses on TREs of asking questions. Through identifying the pragmatic functions and language forms, the analysis reveals the verbal strategies teachers use to interact with textbooks and the pedagogical and procedural goals achieved by these strategies. The analysis shows that the teachers agentively use these verbal strategies to guide students in understanding the textbook and learning language knowledge and skills, and to lead students through the instructional process, directing their joint attention and promoting their classroom participation. The examination of TREs within each dataset and across different datasets also identifies two interactional patterns, the "Finding the answer" pattern and the "Checking the answer" pattern. Within the two patterns, different verbal strategies and embodied strategies are employed, highlighting different pedagogical and procedural goals and at the same time privileging different voices. Adopting different interactional patterns in their classrooms, the teachers enact different classroom authorities, establish different teacher–student relationships, and create different classroom atmosphere.

6.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have demonstrated how the teachers verbally interact with textbooks, specifically looking into the pragmatic functions, the linguistic forms used to realise these functions, and the interactional patterns emerging from the data. Analysing the negotiation between voices in teachers' verbal interaction and bringing together embodied interaction with the textbook as an object in Chapter 5, I have examined how these verbal and embodied

strategies work on the classroom power dynamics, and thus enact teacher–student relationships and create classroom atmosphere. With extracts of different interactional patterns, I have demonstrated how different classrooms observe different interactional norms, further revealing how the teachers' different ways of interacting with the textbook are related to different ways of using textbooks and different ways of managing classrooms.

I have shown in these two analysis chapters that, even if teachers are using textbook materials to teach, it does not mean that they are blindly following textbooks. There are moments in all textbook use episodes when teachers claim agency in providing pedagogical support. The teachers also systematically mobilise textbook content and materiality to lead students' joint attention and promote their engagement and participation in the classroom. Moreover, the teachers are found to negotiate with textbook voice in their verbal interaction and foreground the textbook or the teacher through embodied strategies to work on the power dynamics in classrooms and enact teacher–student relationships. The findings refute the idea that textbooks dictate classroom processes when teachers are using them for classroom instruction and instead reveal the nuances of teacher–textbook interrelationship. Moreover, teachers' use of textbooks involves much more work beyond following or adapting textbook content. I next consider how these findings contribute to the field.

Chapter 7 Discussion and Concluding Remarks

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the findings in response to the research questions, highlighting this study's contributions to knowledge, to review the methodological pathway this study has pioneered for textbook use studies, and to discuss the implications it brings to practice. It also addresses the limitations of the study and the ways in which they have been managed and offers suggestions for future research directions.

Investigating ELT teacher agency in using textbooks in classrooms in Chinese universities, this study employs an IS approach (3.2) to examine how teachers-acting-with-textbooks as a unit (2.3.3) interact with students in situ and how within the unit teachers interact with textbooks. The findings reveal that teachers employ verbal (6.2, 6.3 and 6.4), prosodic (6.2), embodied (5.2) and emplaced (5.2 and 5.3) strategies to interact with textbooks in classrooms to achieve pedagogical, procedural, and social goals. Specifically, Chapter 5 examined the embodied and emplaced interaction between teachers and textbooks, and revealed how embodied and emplaced cues (3.2.1) are employed by teachers to realise interactional functions of directing and maintaining attention, initiating transitions, and promoting participation; Chapter 6 brought together embodied, emplaced, verbal, and prosodic cues involving textbook use and examined two most frequent types of TREs in classroom interaction: giving directions (6.3) and asking questions (6.4). Through examining pragmatic functions realised in each TRE type and the prosodic features, the linguistic forms, the embodied actions, and the emplaced positioning used to realise these pragmatic functions, recurrent form-function relationships and interactional patterns in each dataset and across datasets were identified, revealing teacher agency in mobilising textbooks to provide instructional scaffolding, to deliver clear instructions, and to negotiate power dynamics among teachers, textbooks, and students.

Building on the key findings, I first discuss how this study contributes to the understanding of ELT teachers' agency in using textbooks as multifaceted and discursively enacted, and develop a typology of teachers' discursive strategies of mobilising textbook content, materiality, and voice to implement effective classroom instruction. Concerning ELT textbook

use, I also discuss how this study contributes to the understanding of ELT textbooks in classroom interaction and extends the understanding of ELT textbook use beyond textbook content use. I then discuss the methodological innovations of employing an IS approach to investigate ELT textbook use and how the approach leads to the contributions to knowledge. Following discussion of theoretical and methodological contributions, I move on to the practical implications for teacher education and textbook development, which is then followed by a summary of this study's limitations, along with an account of how these limitations were addressed. I conclude the thesis by offering suggestions for future research directions.

7.1 Theoretical Contribution: Multifaceted and Discursive Teacher Agency in Using Textbooks

Previous studies have proposed and shown that agency is multifaceted and discursive (2.4). Here I revisit these two features of agency in relation to the topic of this study and synthesise my findings, to redefine multifaceted and discursive agency in relation to ELT teachers' textbook use in classrooms.

7.1.1 Multifaceted Teacher Agency in Using Textbooks in Classrooms

While previous ELT textbook use research has viewed teacher agency in using textbooks as unidimensional and focused mainly on how teachers adapt or supplement textbooks (2.2), this study has revealed that teacher agency in using textbook for classroom instruction extends beyond adapting textbooks. It challenges previous ideas of teachers following textbook design in classroom instruction as offloading agency to textbooks (Brown, 2009) (2.3.2), and evidences that ELT teacher agency in using textbooks in classroom instruction is multifaceted. Teachers are not only using textbooks to teach knowledge and skills, but also using textbooks to lead students through the instructional process and to work on the classroom learning environment.

Teachers use textbooks to agentively lead students through the instructional process. Teachers are found to orient students' expectation when there are shifts in instructional focus; they are found to draw students' attention to relevant textbook content and maintain students' attention throughout the process; they also promote students' participation in classroom interaction on textbook content. Teachers enacted procedural agency which refers to their capacity of leading student through the instructional process by performing these interactional acts. All these agentive acts help ensure students' engagement in classroom instruction, without which, any instruction would be ineffective.

Teachers are also found to use textbooks to position themselves in different relationships with students, thus working on power dynamics in classrooms and creating different affect and atmosphere of the classroom. Teachers either position textbooks as the classroom authority and group themselves with students to alleviate the power asymmetry between students and themselves, or place emphasis on their own authority over textbooks and students, highlighting power asymmetry in classrooms. These two ways of positioning establish different classroom atmosphere. When power asymmetry is alleviated, solidarity is enhanced and group membership is emphasised, and thus a more relaxed and supportive classroom atmosphere is created. On the contrary, if the teacher authority is emphasised, a stricter classroom atmosphere stressing discipline is created. Teachers' in-situ use of textbooks to work on relations reflects their agentive creation of a classroom atmosphere that is appropriate to the specific context.

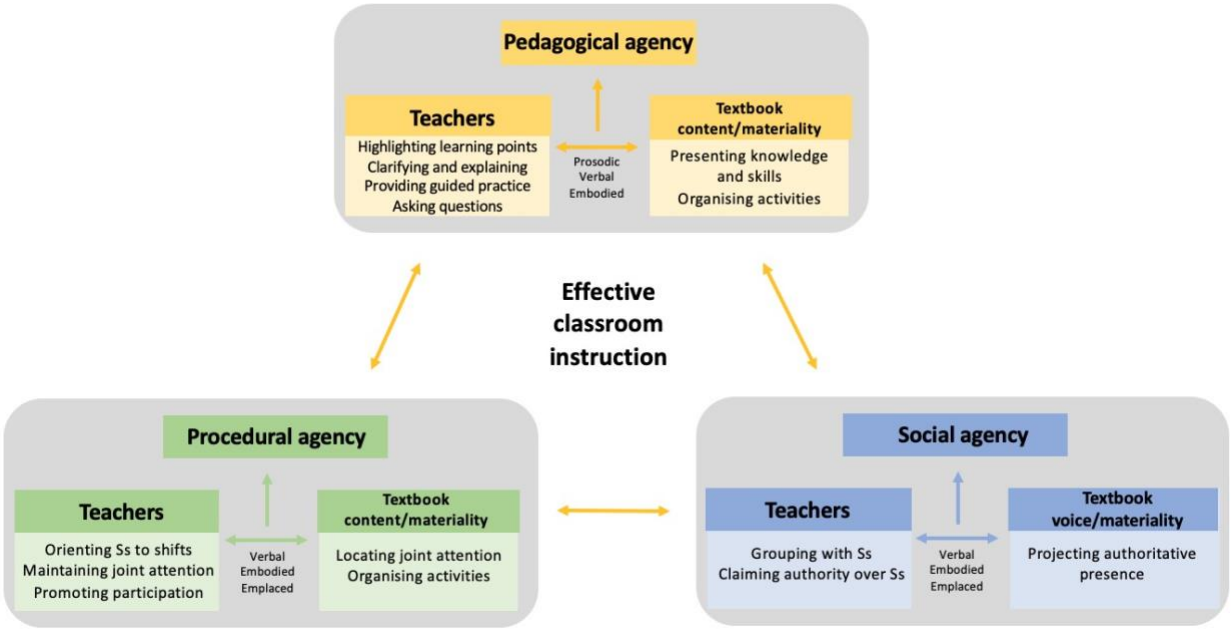
Teachers exercise pedagogical agency even when they rely on textbook content for instruction. When using textbook materials to teach and organise activities in classrooms, teachers agentively distribute pedagogical responsibilities between textbooks and themselves. Teachers offload the responsibility of providing instructional material to textbooks when they follow textbook design, but simultaneously they claim pedagogical agency in scaffolding students' learning. Teachers are found to highlight learning points, which directs students' attention to knowledge and skills of importance or of difficulty. This act can be a planned or in-situ reflection of teachers' agentive evaluation of student needs. Teachers can support students' understanding of textbooks through justifying and clarifying textbook design. This again reflects teachers' planned or in-situ evaluation of textbook design against the specific instructional context. Teachers also give students advice on strategies for doing activities, reflecting teachers' agentive guidance on students' learning techniques. Teachers are found to use questions and unfinished sentences to scaffold students' thinking process, agentively leading students to reach the required state of understanding of textbook materials. The findings support the view that the pedagogical agency in classroom instruction is dynamically enacted by teachers in collaboration with textbooks, rather than merely being offloaded to textbooks.

This study reveals that ELT teachers in the Chinese university classrooms are using textbooks to enact and distribute multifaceted agency, namely pedagogical, procedural, and social agency. Besides, the analysis demonstrates that these three types of agency are exercised collaboratively at any point of using textbooks to teach. It is through exercising multifaceted

agency that teachers take an active role in enhancing the effectiveness of instruction. Instead of merely adapting or supplementing teaching materials provided by textbooks, teachers exercise agency in mobilising various textbook resources in classroom instruction. Instead of acting as a passive follower of textbook content when using textbooks, teachers are actively mobilising the affordances of textbooks to build a meaningful, engaging and supportive classroom when they use textbooks. Figure 7.1 illustrates the multifaceted agency enacted by the teachers when they use textbooks for classroom instruction and how it is distributed between teachers and textbooks.

Figure 7.1

Multifaceted Teacher Agency in Using Textbooks in Classrooms



As demonstrated in Figure 7.1, teachers exercise multifaceted agency to achieve effective classroom instruction. Pedagogical agency is enacted through teachers' verbally interacting with textbook content and embodiedly interacting with textbook materiality; procedural agency is enacted through teachers verbally interacting with textbook content and embodiedly/emplacedly interacting with textbook materiality; social agency is enacted through teachers verbally interacting with textbook voice and embodiedly/emplacedly interacting with textbook materiality.

The findings challenge the dominant assumption that ELT teacher agency is rarely exercised when teachers follow textbooks in classroom instruction, but is mainly found when teachers adapt and supplement teaching materials (e.g. Cunningsworth,1995; Tomlinson, 2011, 2012; Ur, 2024). By showing teacher agency in using textbooks as multifaceted, this study draws attention to ignored aspects of teachers' agentive practices of using textbooks in classrooms. To use textbooks to conduct effective classroom instruction, teachers do not only select and/or adapt textbook content, but also agentively interact with textbook content, voice, and materiality through prosodic, verbal, embodied, and emplaced strategies. By enacting these multiple types of agency, teachers achieve clearer and more engaging instruction and build a classroom environment that is effective for their students' learning. This study shows that ELT teacher agency in using textbooks should not be narrowly understood as providing knowledge and skills and organising learning activities, but its conceptualisation should be broadened to include all types of teacher efforts in delivering effective classroom instruction.

7.1.2 Teacher Agency and Teacher–Textbook Relationship as Discursively Enacted Through Mediational Interaction

A second crucial feature revealed by this study is that ELT teacher agency in using textbooks in classrooms is talked and acted into being. This study's findings support a sociocultural understanding of teacher agency as a situated and emergent achievement emerging from moment-to-moment interaction (2.4), and extend this understanding by demonstrating that teacher agency in using textbooks in classrooms is discursively enacted by mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks (Figure 2.4). It was found that teachers mediate textbook content, materiality, and voice through verbal, prosodic, embodied, and emplaced means during classroom interaction, achieving the goal of interacting with students to deliver classroom instruction. Moreover, the refined understanding of teacher–textbook interaction in classrooms achieved in this study leads to a more nuanced understanding of the teacher–textbook relationship in situ. The ELT teacher–textbook relationship has long been understood as a prescriptive one. Using an ELT textbook has been generally understood as the textbook prescribing the teaching content and method (Akbari, 2008). Taking this stance, researchers have mostly given suggestions on how teachers can evaluate and adapt ELT textbooks to better suit their own instructional contexts (e.g. Cunningsworth, 1995; McDonough & Shaw, 2003; Richards, 2001a; Tomlinson, 1998, 2011) (2.1 and 2.2). However, the findings support

Remillard's (2005) and Brown's (2009) understanding of the teacher–textbook relationship as a mediating relationship between agents and artefacts (2.3.1 and 2.3.2), and extend it by revealing nuanced mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks. Instead of prescribing teaching, textbooks afford (and constrain) teachers' classroom instruction as semiotic, physical, and sociocultural artefacts, while teachers exercise agency in mediating textbook content, materiality, and voice to deliver classroom instruction. Through teachers' mediational interaction with textbooks, teacher agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction, as well as the teacher–textbook relationship, is enacted in situ.

Teachers utilise language, embodied actions, and emplaced positioning to mediate textbook affordances when they use textbooks to teach in classrooms. As a semiotic artefact, ELT textbooks have multimedia discourses that represent knowledge and skills. Teachers mobilise the semiotic content in textbooks to deliver classroom instruction. Previous studies have advocated that ELT teachers select, adapt, and supplement textbook content (e.g. Grossman & Thompson, 2008; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; McGrath, 2013; Tomlinson, 2012; Zhang et al., 2022) (2.1 and 2.2), but have largely overlooked teachers' agentive mediation of textbook content in delivering classroom instruction. This study, however, has demonstrated that adaptation of textbook content is only a part of the whole picture, and teachers, even when they fully rely on textbooks for classroom instruction, are actively interacting with textbook content through various prosodic, verbal, embodied, and emplaced means. To verbally interact with textbook content, teachers can quote textbook content (e.g. Extract 2-4), refer to textbook content (e.g. Extract 4-4), highlight certain content (e.g. Extract 4-2), evaluate it (e.g. Extract 3-5), explain it (e.g. Extract 2-2), or deconstruct it (e.g. Extract 1-5). To embodiedly interact with textbook content, teachers manipulate the mouse to highlight certain content on the shared screen, both in face-to-face classrooms (e.g. Extract 1-1) and in online classrooms (e.g. Extract 4-2). These mediational means of quoting, highlighting, explaining, and deconstructing are triggered by teachers' ongoing interpretation of textbook content. Through these means, teachers offload the responsibility of providing instructional materials to textbooks, but meanwhile scaffold students' learning of knowledge and skills in classrooms. By interpreting textbook content and agentively interacting with it based on the interpretation, teachers enact the pedagogical agency.

Apart from providing teaching content, textbooks are also objects with physical

boundaries and a particular physical structure. When teachers use textbooks for classroom instruction, they also mediate textbook materiality, which has been largely ignored by previous studies on ELT textbook use. This study has shown that textbook materiality has an impact on the effectiveness of instruction when it is mediated by teachers in classrooms. As a physical object, the textbook acts as an anchor of joint attention in the physical space (Goodwin, 2000; Heath & Luff, 2000; Mikkola & Lehtinen, 2014; Nielsen, 2012; Tomasello, 1995). Teachers' emplaced positioning and embodied actions of referring and highlighting direct and maintain students' joint attention and invite collaborative interaction (e.g. Extract 2-1, Extract 3-6). As a book with pages of specially designed layouts which are further organised into units with unit titles and sections with headings, textbook materiality is also mediated by teachers through verbal referring and embodied displaying, to direct students' joint attention to different parts of the textbook in non-linear order throughout classroom instruction (e.g. Extract 4-4). Teachers mediate the structured organisation of textbooks to achieve flexible instructional order which has been considered an effective way of instruction (e.g. Graves, 2000; Hutchinson & Torres 1994). When directing students' joint attention, teachers' embodied and emplaced mediation of textbook materiality usually precedes their verbal mediation (e.g. Extract 2-1), or sometimes occurs independently (e.g. Extract 1-2). The temporal asynchrony between embodied/emplaced interaction and verbal interaction also helps teachers prepare students for upcoming shifts in instructional focus, thus effectively orienting and guiding students through the instructional process. Moreover, teachers' embodied/emplaced interaction with textbook materiality and their verbal interaction can co-occur, which enhances the modal complexity and modal intensity and further invites students' engagement and participation (e.g. Extract 1-4). Through these verbal, embodied, and emplaced means, teachers and textbooks co-participate in the interaction to enact procedural agency.

Teachers also mediate the socioculturally constructed textbook authority during classroom instruction. Textbooks have embodied the sociocultural expectation of epistemological authority (de Castell, 1990). They have been regarded by most users as intrinsically "the authorized version of a society's valued knowledge" (Olson, 1989, p. 192). Within the broader sociocultural context, textbooks are also associated with state authority in that they usually represent the national curriculum (Samarn & Savski, 2024). Textbooks' authoritative status and voice perceived and shared by users makes it possible for teachers to

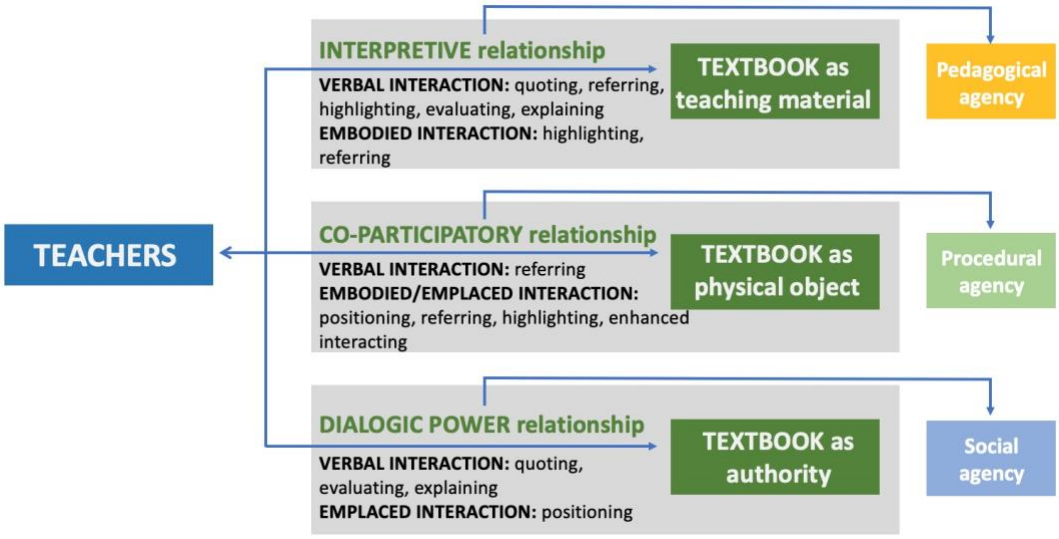
negotiate with textbook voice and materiality to work on the power dynamics in classrooms. Employing embodied and emplaced means to foreground textbook materiality in the physical space (e.g. Extract 2-2) and verbal means to quote textbook voice in verbal interaction (e.g. Extract 4-5), teachers highlight textbook authority, group themselves with students, and enact a more equal and collaborative power relationship between students and themselves. Using diverse verbal strategies to evaluate and explain textbook voice and embodied and emplaced strategies to background textbooks, teachers claim authority over textbooks and position themselves as the classroom authority, emphasising the asymmetrical power dynamics between students and teachers (e.g. Extract 3-2). Through negotiating voices and positioning in the physical space, teachers mediate textbook authority to create either a relaxed and supportive learning environment or a strict and disciplined one, and therefore enact social agency.

This study furthers the understanding of the mediating relationship by revealing nuanced mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks. Through mediational interaction with textbook content, teachers build an interpretive relationship with textbook content. Teachers are actively interpreting the textbook content in order to make the choice of quoting it as it is, highlighting it, explaining it, or deconstructing it. A co-participatory relationship between human agents and objects (Goodwin, 2000) is also established between teachers and textbooks. Through verbal, embodied, and emplaced mediational interaction, teachers and textbooks act together to direct students' attention and participation during the instructional process. Moreover, a dialogic power relationship is enjoyed between teachers and textbooks. Classroom authority is not a pre-assigned role, but negotiated into being through the verbal, embodied, and emplaced interaction between teachers and textbooks.

Figure 7.2 gives a summary of the mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks and the mediational relationships established.

Figure 7.2

Mediational Interaction and Relationships Between Teachers and Textbooks



Section 7.1.1 has discussed teachers' multifaceted agency in using textbooks for classroom instruction. This section further discusses how the multifaceted agency is enacted through outlining the mediational interaction between teachers and textbooks. As illustrated in Figure 7.2, teachers verbally, embodiedly, and emplacedly interact with textbooks as teaching material, as physical objects, and as classroom authority. Through the interaction, teachers enact different types of agency in using textbooks for effective classroom instruction. Through mediational interaction, dynamic and multifaceted relationships between teachers and textbooks also emerge. Rather than a pre-determined relationship, this study demonstrates a mediating relationship between teachers and textbooks (Remillard, 2005; Brown, 2009), and contributes to the understanding by further elucidating a more nuanced categorisation of the relationship, namely, interpretive relationship, co-participatory relationship, and dialogic power relationship.

7.1.3 Towards a Typology of Discursive Strategies to Enact ELT Teacher Agency in Using Textbooks for Effective Classroom Instruction

A further contribution this study makes to the scholarship of ELT teacher agency in using textbooks lies in the discursive strategies it demonstrates of teachers' prosodic, verbal, embodied, and emplaced interaction with textbook content, voice, and materiality to enact and distribute multifaceted agency in using textbooks to deliver effective classroom interaction. Taking an IS approach to ELT teachers' use of textbooks, this study illustrates recurrent patterns

of teachers employing prosodic, verbal, embodied, and emplaced strategies to interact with the textbook as an artefact, both within individual datasets and across multiple datasets.

This subsection builds on the findings and develops a typology of discursive strategies teachers employ to interact with textbook content, materiality, and voice, to achieve effective classroom instruction (Table 7-1).

Table 7-1

Emergent Typology of Discursive Strategies Across Datasets

Enacted agency	Discursive strategy		Example from data (Speech is in italics and actions are italics in brackets.)	Instructional/ Interactional function
Pedagogical agency	**Prosodic strategies**	• Stress • Slow pace • Loudness [Section 6.2.2]	*Pay special attention to some NOUNS, related to poems, like <verse>, <formula>, <prose>. OK?* [Extract 4-2]	(1) Highlighting key learning points [Section 7.1.3.1]
	Verbal strategies	Repetition [Section 6.2.2]	*And pay attention to <the pronunciation of Ueno Castle, Ueno Castle>.* [Extract 4-2]	(1) Highlighting key learning points [Section 7.1.3.1]
		• Using evaluative and explanatory declaratives [Section 6.3.1.4; Section 6.3.1.5; Section 6.4.1.4]	*<It's, it's not one out of two choices.>* [Extract 4-4]	(2) Giving clear instructions and explanations [Section 7.1.3.2]
		• Using declaratives expressing arrangements, expectations, suggestions, and requests for action [Section 6.3.1.2; Section 6.3.1.3; Section 6.4.1.1]	*First we are going to talk about table manners.* [Extract 2-1]	(3) Providing guided practice [Section 7.1.3.3]

		• Using imperatives [Section 6.3.1.3; Section 6.3.1.7; Section 6.4.1.2]	*Just pay attention to the expressions.* [Extract 4-5]	
		• Using wh-interrogatives [Section 6.4.1.1; Section 6.4.1.7]	*What is the predicate verb? What is the object?* [Extract 3-5]	
		• Using yes-no interrogatives [Section 6.4.1.1; Section 6.4.1.7]	*Is he supportive?* [Extract 1-4]	
		• Using unfinished declaratives with rising intonation [Section 6.4.1.7]	*The crabs, they, (1.0) they try to escape, (1.0) and?* [Extract 1-7]	
	Embodied strategies	• Manipulating the mouse to circle, underline or point [Section 5.2.2.4]	*(T moves the mouse to "Ueno Castle" in the Cultural Notes, and underlines the words as she speaks.)* [Extract 4-2]	(1) Highlighting key learning points [Section 7.1.3.1]
		• Using hand to point at textbooks/screens [Section 5.2.2.2]	*(T looks at the students and uses her left index finger to point at the screen.)* [Extract 2-1]	(2) Giving clear instructions and explanations [Section 7.1.3.2]
Procedural agency	**Emplaced strategies**	• Displaying textbook content on the shared screen [Section 5.2.1.1]	*(T scrolls the page down to display the timeline below the three pictures.)* [Extract 4-3]	(4) Initiating shifts in instructional focus [Section 7.1.3.4]
		• Placing textbooks in/out of the interactional space [Section 5.2.1.2]	*(T walks from left side of the platform towards the desk, looks down at the textbook on the desk and takes it up from the desk.)* [Extract 1-2]	

		• Backgrounding teachers and foregrounding textbooks [Section 5.2.1.1; Section 5.2.2.3]	*(T turns around to look at the screen.)* [Extract 2-4]	(5) Maintaining joint attention on textbooks [Section 7.1.3.5]
		• Foregrounding teachers and backgrounding textbooks [Section 6.4.1.5]	*(T walks from behind the computer on the platform to the space in front of the students.)* [Extract 2-3]	(6) Promoting student participation [Section 7.1.3.6]
	Embodied strategies	• Pointing at textbooks or display screens [Section 5.2.1.3]	*(T uses her left index finger to point at the textbook on the desk.)* [Extract 1-3]	(4) Initiating shifts in instructional focus [Section 7.1.3.4]
		• Manipulating the mouse to circle, underline or point at displayed textbook content [Section 5.2.2.4]	*(T uses the mouse to underline the word "verse", "formula" and "prose" in the New Words box as she speaks.)* [Extract 4-2]	(5) Maintaining joint attention on textbooks [Section 7.1.3.5]
		• Manipulating the print textbook for enhanced teacher–textbook interaction [Section 5.2.2.1; Section 5.2.2.2]	*(T turns the textbook page around to face the students and taps her left index finger on the textbook page.)* [Extract 1-2]	(6) Promoting student participation [Section 7.1.3.6]
	Verbal strategies	• Using imperatives [Section 6.3.1.1]	*Now, let's READ the paragraphs on the right-hand side.* [Extract 4-1]	(4) Initiating shifts in instructional focus [Section 7.1.3.4]
		• Quoting section headings in textbooks [Section 6.3.1.1]	*Lecture.* [Extract 4-4]	

		• Using indexical expressions [Section 6.4.1.3]	*Next one.* [Extract 2-2]	
		• Using evaluative declaratives [Section 6.3.1.4; Section 6.4.1.6]	*That's easy …* [Extract 4-3]	(6) Promoting student participation [Section 7.1.3.6]
Social agency	**Verbal strategies**	• Quoting textbooks [Section 6.3.2.1; Section 6.4.2.1]	*Um, we are going to check the expressions that signal sidetracks … (T uses the mouse to underline "check the expressions" and "signal sidetracks" in the textbook as she quotes them.)* [Extract 4-5]	(7) Acknowledging textbook authority [Section 7.1.3.7]
		• Using plural self-referential pronoun "we" [Section 6.3.2.1; Section 6.4.2.1]	*We are going to listen to a professor's lecture.* [Extract 4-5]	(8) Grouping teachers with students [Section 7.1.3.7]
		• Using speaker-inclusive imperatives to set the activity goal [Section 6.3.2.1; Section 6.4.2.1]	*let's … find out <HOW the author left herself in debt, in deeper and deeper debt>.* [Extract 3-2]	
		• Using unfinished declaratives [Section 6.3.2.1; Section 6.4.2.1]	*The crabs, they, (1.0) they try to escape, (1.0) and?* [Extract 1-7]	
		• Using second-person pronoun "you" [Section 6.3.2.2; Section 6.4.2.2]	*Now, you are going to work in pairs.* [Extract 2-1]	(9) Presenting teachers as commanders [Section 7.1.3.8]

		• Using requestive declaratives / interrogatives [Section 6.3.2.2; Section 6.4.2.2]	*Um, now, I'd like one to tell me, <what was his work mainly about> …* [Extract 4-3]	
		• Using imperatives [Section 6.3.2.2; Section 6.4.2.2]	*Turn to the different paragraphs …* [Extract 3-2]	
		• Using interrogatives asking for opinions [Section 6.3.2.2; Section 6.4.2.2]	*So what about your understanding of …?* [Extract 3-4]	
	Emplaced strategies	• Backgrounding teachers [Section 5.2.1.1]	*(T stands behind the computer on teacher desk and look at the computer screen.)* [Extract 2-1]	(8) Grouping teachers with students [Section 7.1.3.7]
		• Foregrounding textbooks [Section 5.2.2.3]	*(T turns around from facing students to facing the display screen.)* [Extract 1-7]	

The typology has been developed based on the types of agency enacted by teachers when they use textbooks to teach in classrooms. In the left column, I list the agency type exercised by teachers, namely, pedagogical agency, procedural agency, and social agency. Under each agency type, discursive strategies are further categorised into prosodic, verbal, embodied, and emplaced strategies, based on the mechanisms/resources teachers employ to mediate textbooks. An example from the data is given in the table to illustrate each strategy.

When the discursive strategies listed in Table 7-1 are utilised by teachers to enact agency in using textbooks, they also realise various instructional and interactional functions. In the right column of the table, I summarise the instructional and interactional achievements realised by the teachers mobilising textbooks through the identified strategies in the data. In line with Allwright's (1984) proposal on classroom interaction outcomes, findings from ISLA literature, and effective teaching practice research (3.1.1), these instructional and interactional

achievements elucidate that teachers' enactment of agency in using textbooks through the discursive strategies contribute to effective classroom instruction.

7.1.3.1 Highlighting Learning Points. One way to scaffold students' learning in classrooms is to highlight the most important or difficult learning points during classroom interaction (Ellis, 2001; Gibbons, 2015; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Schmidt, 1990, 1995). Highlighting is mostly realised through prosodic features. Prosodically, teachers use stress, slower pace, and increased volume (e.g. Extract 4-2) to highlight important or difficult learning points from the rest of the textbook content, and afford students opportunities to better notice and process them. Highlighting is also achieved through repetition (e.g. Extract 4-2). Through repeating certain textbook content, teachers draw students' attention to it and afford students the opportunity of learning.

While previous studies have mostly focused on teacher talk when investigating effective classroom instruction, this study also demonstrates evidence of teachers mobilising textbook materiality and voice through embodied strategies to highlight important or difficult learning points in textbooks. Both in face-to-face classrooms and in online classrooms, when a shared screen is used in classroom instruction, teachers manipulate the mouse to interact with the screen interface to highlight textbook content through underlining, circling, and pointing (e.g. Extract 1-1). Particularly in online classrooms, embodied strategies and verbal strategies are mostly employed in alignment with each other to compensate for the loss of visibility (e.g. Extract 4-2).

7.1.3.2 Giving Clear Instructions and Explanations. Giving clear instructions and explanations has long been understood as one of the top effective instructional practices (Danielson, 2007; Rosenshine, 2012). Teachers are found to interact with textbook content to achieve clear instruction if it is evaluated by teachers as unclear or insufficient. Using evaluative and explanatory declaratives to justify and clarify textbook design and content, teachers facilitate students' understanding of textbook design, and thus achieve clear instructions and explanations (e.g. Extract 2-2; Extract 4-4).

Expanding on previous studies on teachers using textbooks, this study further demonstrates that teachers mobilise textbook materiality through embodied strategies to achieve clear instructions and explanations. Using hand gestures to interact with print textbooks or screens in face-to-face classrooms (e.g. Extract 1-5; Extract 2-1), or utilising the mouse to interact with shared screens in online classrooms (e.g. Extract 4-4), teachers mobilise the

indexical functions of embodied interaction with textbook materiality to help achieve clear instructions.

7.1.3.3 Guided Practice. Guided practice has been suggested as another effective instructional practice (Rosenshine, 2012). To provide guided practice, teachers interact with textbook content to give students advice on completing activities. Shifting from speaker-inclusive imperatives to speaker-exclusive imperatives or using declaratives to express suggestions, teachers emphasise the importance of certain steps when doing an activity (e.g. Extract 4-5). In this way, teachers provide students guidance additional to steps given by textbooks, scaffolding students' classroom performance.

Another frequent way of providing guided practice to students is to ask questions (Gibbons, 2015; Rosenshine, 2012). In this study, questioning about textbook content is typically observed in situations when teachers guide students in the process of learning input materials in textbooks, for example, reading passages. Teachers frequently ask questions about textbook content to guide students to learn language forms in the reading passage and understand its meaning. Questioning is achieved through a variety of language forms. Teachers are found to use direct questioning (e.g. Extract 1-4; Extract 1-5; Extract 2-4) and unfinished declaratives with rising intonation (e.g. Extract 1-5; Extract 1-7; Extract 4-3) to offer step-by-step guidance that supports students in their learning process.

7.1.3.4 Initiating Instructional Focus Shifts. Clear procedures have been considered one of the crucial factors contributing to effective classroom instruction (Danielson, 2007; Harmer, 2007; Rosenshine, 2012; Ur, 2024). Spatial positioning of textbooks in and outside interactional space is found to be a frequent strategy teachers employ to orient students to procedural progression. Bringing the textbook into interactional space is a strategy to signal that classroom instruction is to be on textbook content, while placing it outside interactional space signals otherwise. To achieve this, teachers can physically transfer the textbook into or outside of interactional space, if the textbook is a moveable object in the classroom (e.g. Extract 1-2). If the textbook is presented in the classroom as content projected on fixed screens, then teachers position the textbook in interactional space through displaying it on the screen (e.g. Extract 1-1; Extract 2-1). Similarly, in online classrooms, teachers display the relevant textbook content on the shared screen to place it in and outside interactional space. This is usually achieved through teachers scrolling the scanned pdf pages or turning PPT slides (e.g. Extract 3-1; Extract 4-1).

Besides, teachers mobilise their torso movements (e.g. Extract 2-2; Extract 2-4) and hand gestures (e.g. Extract 1-3; Extract 1-5) to bring the textbook/display screen into interactional space. For example, through turning the upper body around to face the display screen, the teacher directs students' joint attention from on the teacher to on the display screen.

Teachers are also found to employ verbal strategies to initiate instructional focus shifts. To direct students' attention to a certain part or section in the textbook, teachers are found to use speaker-inclusive imperatives (e.g. Extract 1-6; Extract 3-3; Extract 3-4) or suggestive interrogatives (e.g. Extract 3-5) to invite students to look at it. Teachers can also use indexical expressions, such as "part 1" and "next one" to mediate textbooks' sequential/structured design to direct students' attention to the new instructional focus (e.g. Extract 2-4; Extract 4-4; Extract 4-3). However, the embodied and emplaced action of initiating the moving trajectory of the textbook in the physical space usually comes before any verbal interaction (e.g. Extract 1-6), and sometimes occurs independently (e.g. Extract 4-1). The temporal asynchrony signals to students that the teacher is ending the current activity or interaction and is starting a new activity or a new question, and thus orients students to the upcoming shifts in instructional focus, even if the new activity or question has not been verbally announced.

7.1.3.5 Maintaining Joint Attention. After students' joint attention has been directed to the textbook or a certain part of the textbook, teachers can continue to mediate the textbook to maintain students' attention. One embodied strategy employed to achieve this is through the teacher holding the textbook while interacting with students (e.g. Extract 1-4). In this way, the textbook is retained in the interactional space, signalling to students that the instruction remains focused on the textbook. An emplaced strategy employed by teachers is to foreground the textbook and background the teacher through positioning in the physical space. For example, through standing behind the teacher's computer screen to background themselves (e.g. Extract 2-1), the teacher is able to foreground the display screen on the front wall and maintain students' attention on it.

In online classrooms where mutual visibility is impaired, to maintain students' joint attention, teachers not only display textbook content to keep it remaining in interactional space, they also manipulate the mouse to interact with the screen through underlining, circling, and pointing to maintain students' joint attention (e.g. Extract 3-2).

7.1.3.6 Promoting Student Participation. Active student participation in classrooms has

been considered an important factor contributing to effective classroom instruction (e.g. Danielson, 2007). Teachers are found to use verbal strategies to mediate textbook content to promote students' participation. Using evaluative declaratives, teachers evaluate the difficulty level of activities or questions to encourage students to participate (e.g. Extract 3-5; Extract 4-3). Teachers are also found to enhance embodied interaction with textbook materiality (e.g. Extract 1-2; Extract 1-4) or position themselves rather than the textbook as the focal point in interactional space (e.g. Extract 2-3) to promote student participation in classroom instruction. When the textbook is already in interactional space, teachers add modal intensity to their embodied interaction with textbook materiality, such as tapping on the textbook page, or turning the textbook page to face students, to enhance the engagement of students' attention in face-to-face classrooms (e.g. Extract 1-2). Embodied and emplaced strategies are usually employed when classroom interaction is disrupted, for example, when there is no response from students to the teachers' questions. They co-occur with teachers' waiting time. While silence is used as a verbal signal of teachers' expectation of student participation, the teacher's embodied and emplaced interaction with textbook materiality enhances the clarity and salience of the expectations and thus promotes students' engagement and participation.

7.1.3.7 Establishing Learning Community and Creating Supportive Learning Environments. Creating supportive learning environments is highly recommended for effective instruction (e.g. Danielson, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Schempp et al., 2002; Smith & Strahan, 2004). Employing verbal strategies to negotiate with textbook voice, teachers are able to establish the textbook as classroom authority and group themselves with students, and thus establish a more power balanced relationship with students and create a more equal and supportive classroom climate. Through quoting textbooks to give directions and ask questions, teachers establish textbooks as the classroom authority as the class is following the textbook (e.g. Extract 2-4). Using first-person plural pronoun "we" in giving directions and asking questions (e.g. Extract 1-5; Extract 4-5), teachers group students and themselves together as the agent of learning or doing activities, and alleviate the power asymmetry between teachers and students. Using direct questions or speaker-inclusive imperatives to invite students to work together on questions and breaking them down into follow-up scaffolding questions (e.g. Extract 1-3), teachers are presenting themselves as facilitators, working together with students on finding answers to questions.

Spatial positioning of textbook materiality is another strategy teachers employ in face-to-face classrooms to group themselves together with students. When teachers foreground textbooks in classrooms and position textbooks as the focus of joint attention, they usually adopt a position that is similar to students' (e.g. Extract 2-4). The spatial positioning alleviates the power asymmetry between teachers and students, and groups teachers and students as a textbook-using community in classrooms.

Interactional patterns identified in the classrooms also contribute to the establishment of supportive classroom atmosphere. When teachers employ the "Following the activity" pattern to give directions (6.3.2.1), and when they adopt the "Finding the answer" pattern to ask questions (6.4.2.1), they foreground the textbook and group themselves with students together as a learning community, and thus establish a supportive classroom climate.

7.1.3.8 Establishing a Disciplined Classroom Climate. It has been argued that there is no right or wrong classroom climate, but effective classroom management involves teachers creating a learning environment that is appropriate to the context (Marzano et al., 2003). Teachers tend to use verbal strategies to emphasise power asymmetry between teachers and students and create a disciplined classroom learning environment in online classrooms. Using imperatives (e.g. Extract 3-3), declaratives such as "I'd like you to …" to express requests (e.g. Extract 3-2; Extract 4-3), and interrogatives addressing "you" (e.g. Extract 3-4), teachers set themselves as the commander of action and students as the agent of action. Teachers rather than textbooks are the classroom authority. Using "I" and "you" to refer to the teacher and students, teachers are not grouped together with students as using "we" indicates. Through these verbal strategies, teachers emphasise power asymmetry between teachers and students in the classroom and thus are more likely to establish a more disciplined learning environment.

The interactional patterns teachers employ can also contribute to the establishment of a disciplined learning environment. When adopting the "Leading the student" pattern, teachers give commands on students' actions (6.3.2.2). The teacher's authority is emphasised. Employing the "Checking the answer" pattern, teachers do not provide as many scaffolding questions as they do when they employ the "Finding the answer" pattern (6.4.2.2). Instead of facilitating students to arrive at answers to questions, teachers expect students to display their knowledge of the answers.

7.1.4 Summary

Through verbal, prosodic, embodied, and emplaced strategies, teachers and textbooks co-mediate each other, and their mutual mediation leads to the enactment of multifaceted teacher agency which in turn contributes to effective classroom instruction. The stratified realisational relationship between discursive strategies, mutual mediation, multifaceted agency, and effective classroom instruction is depicted in Figure 7.3.

Figure 7.3

A Model of Discursive Strategies for Enacting Multifaceted ELT Teacher Agency in Using Textbooks to Achieve Effective Classroom Instruction

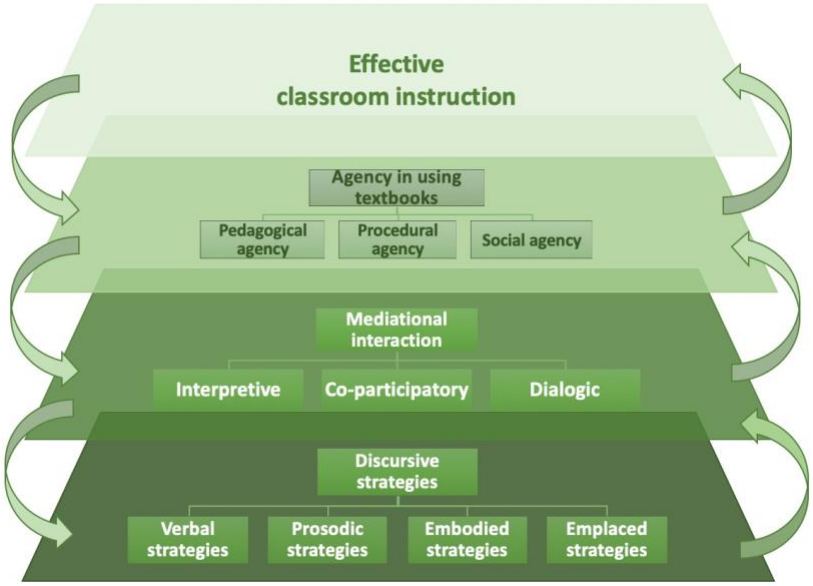


Figure 7.3 also illustrates the top-down instantiation relationship between the layers. With the aim of achieving effective classroom instruction, teacher enact various types of agency. While previous studies have mainly focused on teacher agency in adapting textbooks, this study has shown that teachers enact pedagogical agency, as well as procedural agency and social agency when using textbooks to deliver classroom instruction. In turn, the enactment of agency is instantiated in situ and realised by mutual mediation of interpreting, co-participating, and negotiating between teachers and textbooks. Subsequently, the mutual mediational interaction is achieved through teachers' verbal, prosodic, embodied, and emplaced strategies. As this study

shows, teachers are not transmitters of textbook knowledge. They are professionals who understand how to better work with instructional tools and with students, so that classroom instruction is not only delivered, but delivered with efficacy.

7.2 Textbooks: The Elephant in the Room?

In most ELT programmes around the world, textbooks have been used by teachers and students, particularly in contexts where the English language is taught by non-native teachers (2.1). It has been understood that textbooks support teachers in diverse ways ranging from macro-level framework such as curriculum (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994), to meso-level approach such as teaching methods (McGrath, 2013), and to micro-level input such as language models (Richards, 2001b). However, when we come to classroom interaction, textbooks become the elephant in the room. How they afford and constrain teacher–student interaction has gone largely unexamined (3.1.2). Classroom interaction involving textbooks has mainly been understood as one interactional type/structure parallel to other types/structures found in ELT classrooms (e.g. Seedhouse, 1996, 2004; Walsh, 2006, 2011). Classroom interaction studies have mostly been conducted to examine teacher–student interaction (3.1.2). Nevertheless, the findings of this study have shown that textbooks participate in diverse interactional types/structures through which teachers achieve various interactional and instructional goals. Using textbooks does not constitute one single type of interaction, but encompasses diverse types, all of which deserve careful study. When teachers use textbooks to instruct students, which occupies a large part of ELT lessons in Chinese universities, classroom interaction and instruction is co-constructed by teachers, students, and textbooks. Paying no attention to textbooks' presence in the process has failed to do justice to the affordances of textbooks in classroom interaction.

More importantly, this study's detailed interaction analysis has revealed textbooks' dynamic roles in classroom instruction. While research on textbook development and evaluation assumes that textbooks mainly prescribe how teachers teach (2.1), the findings have shown that the textbook–teacher relationship is much more nuanced than a unidirectional prescriptive one. As discussed in 7.1.2, textbook content, textbook materiality, and textbook voice are discursively mobilised by teachers through the mediational teacher–textbook interaction. Teachers and textbooks enjoy a multifaceted relationship: Teachers interpret textbook content when instructing for pedagogical purposes, teachers and textbook materiality jointly direct students' joint attention, and teachers negotiate with textbook voice to establish different power dynamics.

Teaching content, methods, and procedures are not set by textbooks, but different teachers have their own way of mobilising textbooks for instruction.

Moreover, the findings have demonstrated that teachers mobilise diverse strategies to mediate not only textbook content, but also textbook materiality, and voice, in order to achieve effective classroom instruction. Previous studies on ELT textbook use have mainly focused on teachers' interpretation of textbook content and textbook adaptation (2.2). However, this study has shown that teacher agency in classroom textbook use extends well beyond adaptation of textbook content. Even when teachers are not adapting or supplementing textbooks, they are agentively mediating textbooks. Instead of transmitting textbook knowledge to students, or making students work through textbook activities, teachers use textbooks to interact with students.

Understanding textbooks as a prescriptive force in teaching does justice to neither textbooks nor teachers. It overlooks teacher agency in textbook use and distorts textbook affordances. Placing heavy emphasis on textbook evaluation and adaptation in textbook research and textbook use research ignores teachers' agentive efforts in achieving effective classroom instruction. Most important of all, the presence of textbooks in classroom instruction is not destroying language teaching or learning. There are researchers (e.g. Thornbury & Meddings, 2001) who suggest that textbooks should be avoided by teachers as they hinder real interaction between teachers and students. Nevertheless, this study has shown that textbooks support classroom interaction with their multifaceted affordances. This is not to suggest that textbooks do not have their constraints. However, acknowledging textbook affordances (and constraints) and investigating how they contribute and can better contribute to classroom instruction is probably a better way of responding to the reality of ELT in many contexts around the world.

Next, I move on to the methodological contributions of the study.

7.3 Methodological Contributions: IS as a Tool to Investigate Teacher Agency in Textbook Use

The contributions of this study also lie in the methodological innovations it advocates and implements. Taking an IS approach to analyse teacher agency in using textbooks in classrooms, this study has showcased not only how a detailed line-to-line analysis of natural classroom data can enhance our understanding of the nuanced emergent interaction among teachers, students, and textbooks, but also reveals teachers' relational work achieved through their interaction with

textbooks, a previously neglected but crucial aspect of textbook use in classrooms. Moreover, the analysis contributes to the IS approach by broadening its scope to encompass human–artefact interaction and the resulting embodied and emplaced cues that contribute to and manage human–human interaction.

7.3.1 Towards a More Comprehensive Understanding of Textbook Use for Classroom Instruction

The IS approach enables the researcher to understand what teachers do through their language and their actions by looking into the ways they interact with textbooks to enact their roles and deliver effective classroom instruction. It allows us to relate to Discourse Analytic approaches that look into both the situated and the socially conditioned expectations teachers need to negotiate in their local practice (6.3.1 and 6.4.1). While emergent pragmatic functions reveal what teachers have achieved through their interaction with students, the contextualised mapping relationships between pragmatic functions and verbal strategies show how teachers mobilise textbooks to achieve their in-situ instructional goals. Through the analysis, we have arrived at an enhanced understanding of teachers' pedagogical actions and goals in using textbooks to teach.

Drawing on the refined line-to-line transcription and analysis techniques used in CA, the IS approach enables a detailed analysis of how classroom interaction is initiated, proceeded and transitioned from one interactional event to the other. Since classroom instruction is mainly achieved through interaction (3.1 and 3.1.1), the detailed line-to-line analysis of classroom interaction between teachers and textbooks and between teacher–textbook units and students helps uncover the interactive mechanisms and resources through which instruction is conducted and achieved. By looking at how teachers mobilise textbooks to initiate interaction, lead students through interactional transitions, and engage students in interaction, this study is able to uncover how teachers' textbook use contributes to classroom interaction and thus effective classroom instruction. Without the refined turn-by-turn analysis afforded by the IS approach, it would be challenging to identify the recurring verbal, embodied and emplaced cues teachers employ to orient students to the ongoing interaction and lead them through. Nor would it be feasible to identify how these cues involved the mobilisation of textbooks, or how students react to these cues. Employing the IS approach to understand classroom textbook use sheds light on the

interactional affordances of textbooks, which is largely unaddressed or at least poorly addressed in classroom interaction studies (3.1.2).

Emphasising the role sociocultural contexts play and the social relationships constructed in social interaction, the IS approach offers significant advantages in understanding the enactment of teacher–student relationships in classroom instruction, which is found to be a significant contributor to not only effective classroom interaction, but also effective classroom instruction (Danielson, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) (3.1.1). While previous interactional studies of classrooms have focused much more on collaborative participation of teachers and students in interaction (e.g. Matsumoto, 2019), and a very limited number of textbook studies have examined how teachers and/or students use textbooks in interaction (e.g. Smith, 2022), the relational aspect of classroom interaction has been largely overlooked, and so have been textbook affordances in this aspect. Bridging sociocultural context with in-situ interaction, IS allows us to examine issues related to power and role (Gordon & Tannen, 2021). In this study, the IS lens on social roles and power dynamics help us understand the reasons behind teachers' use of different verbal, embodied, and emplaced strategies to achieve the same pragmatic functions. The choices made in the use of interactional resources are the means for teachers to negotiate with the socioculturally constructed teacher authority, textbook authority, and power asymmetry between teachers and students. When analysing interaction in a context which recognises teachers' authority in knowledge and classroom management and acknowledges textbooks' epistemic authority over teachers and students, the verbal, embodied, and emplaced strategies teachers employ to privilege different voices and foreground different participants in interaction are the contextualisation cues that participants in interaction use to express and also interpret and understand social relationships. Through these cues, teacher–student relationships are dynamically enacted, and thus interactional contexts are constructed by and emerge from interaction. The detailed examination then brings to light the social or relational aspects of interaction that teachers are actively working on and the affordances of textbooks in facilitating teachers to achieve the relational goals in classrooms.

7.3.2 Towards an Expanded Application of the IS Approach

While the above three points have summarised how the IS approach has contributed to a more nuanced and in-depth understanding of teacher agency in textbook use, this study has also demonstrated its contributions to IS studies on social interaction. Focusing on a particular type of

interaction, this study has demonstrated how IS tools can be utilised to examine not only interaction involving humans, but also human-artefact interaction.

Existing IS studies have mainly focused on human-human interaction (e.g. Tannen, 2005). This study contributes to the field by demonstrating that the approach also offers the necessary framework and analytical tools for us to understand human-artefact interaction. Through analysing verbal, embodied, and emplaced cues, this study reveals how teachers interact with textbooks, and how the teacher–textbook interaction contributes to classroom interaction and instruction. The analysis has shown that humans can verbally interact with semiotic artefacts such as textbooks. Through quoting and referring, teachers verbally interact with textbook content. It also shows that humans interact with artefacts as physical objects in interaction. Through embodied actions and emplaced positioning, teachers interact with textbook materiality. Moreover, both within verbal interaction with semiotic content in artefacts and embodied and emplaced interaction with artefacts as physical objects, humans negotiate with socioculturally constructed voices of artefacts. As demonstrated in this study, teachers negotiate with authoritative textbook voice through privileging/downplaying their own voice in their verbal interaction with textbook content or foregrounding/backgrounding textbooks in interactional space through their embodied/emplaced interaction with textbook materiality. By taking textbooks into account in understanding classroom interaction, the investigation contributes to IS through exploring its potentials in understanding human–object interaction.

Besides, as the study undertakes a detailed examination of human–artefact interaction, it also broadens the scope of IS studies from verbal interaction to embodied interaction and spatial positioning. Although embodied cues have been acknowledged as important to social interaction (Gumperz, 1982; Schiffrin, 1995; Tannen, 2005), it is only very recently that researchers have started using the IS lens to examine embodied interaction and emplaced interaction (e.g. Angouri & Humonen, 2023; Kimura & Canagarajah, 2020; Mesinioti et al., 2020) and the number of empirical studies remains very limited. This study pioneered IS studies on embodied and emplaced interaction in a classroom context. It has drawn our attention to the key role of embodied and emplaced cues in classroom instructional contexts where one teacher is interacting with multiple students and the direction and maintenance of students' joint attention is crucial to the success of interaction and instruction. Investigating emergency online teaching classrooms, it has also shown the crucial role played by virtual embodied cues in visually-impaired contexts in

ensuring both management of joint attention and clarity of interaction. Besides, embodied and emplaced interaction has been shown to work collaboratively with verbal interaction to not only effectively proceed interaction, but also negotiate power and authority and thus enact dynamic social roles and interactional contexts, demonstrating that teachers mobilise resources from multiple semiotic fields to work on teacher–student relationships and classroom atmosphere.

The methodological contributions are bidirectional. From the perspective of textbook research, this study has showcased how an IS approach to classroom interaction can enhance our understanding of textbook use and how it can be implemented in textbook use studies. From an interactional research perspective, this study has applied IS to investigate human-artefact interaction and examine embodied and emplaced cues, exploring and demonstrating its applicability in understanding human interaction through and in diverse semiotic fields. Next, I turn to applied contributions of this study.

7.4 Applied Contributions: Implications for Teacher Education and Textbook Development

7.4.1 Developing Teachers' Textbook Use Literacy

This study has demonstrated that teacher agency in using textbooks is not unidimensional, but multifaceted. While enacting and distributing pedagogical agency, teachers are also enacting procedural agency and social agency. The findings expand on the previous understanding of teachers' capacity of using textbooks as teachers' design capacity of offloading, adapting, and improvising teaching materials for enacting curriculums (Brown, 2009). I have demonstrated that *enacting curriculum* represents only a part of teachers' mobilisation of textbooks for effective classroom instruction, and *designing* accounts for only a limited depiction of teachers' capacity of using textbooks to teach in classrooms. In light of the findings, I propose the concept of *textbook use literacy*, which encompasses teachers' pedagogical design capacity (Brown, 2009) (2.3.2) and teachers' capacity of mobilising textbooks as interactive resources. To develop textbook use literacy, teachers need to be equipped with capacity to mobilise textbook resources to design and implement instructional episodes, and meanwhile, possess the ability to mobilise textbooks to manage classroom interaction and negotiate teacher–student relationships. Apart from the pedagogical knowledge and skills needed, teachers also need to be endowed with interactional competence in using textbooks. Specifically, to achieve effective classroom

interaction, teachers are able to mobilise textbook content, materiality, and voice in situ to achieve clear instruction, maintain engagement, and create an appropriate affective environment.

To help teachers develop their textbook use literacy, this study suggests that teacher education on textbook use be expanded from its almost exclusive focus on evaluating and adapting textbooks, and broaden its scope to include teachers' competence of mobilising textbooks as interactive resources. To achieve this, a three-step approach is proposed below.

(1) Raising teachers' awareness of textbooks as interactive resources. Video-recordings of TREs in real classrooms that are from comparable contexts to trainee teachers' can be shown to them, or trainee teachers can video-record their own classrooms and be guided to look at TREs in their own classrooms. Guiding questions, such as "when and how does the teacher draw students' attention to the textbook content in their lesson?", "when and how does the teacher handle the textbook?", "when and how does the teacher refer to the textbook?", can be designed and provided to teachers, in order to draw their attention to recurrent ways of teachers interacting with textbook content, materiality, and voice in the TREs.

(2) Using the typology of discursive strategies developed in this study (Table 7-1) as a starting point to develop teachers' understanding of how textbook content, materiality, and voice can be mobilised to achieve diverse interactional and instructional goals. As explained in 7.1.3, the typology is what emerges from the specific classrooms examined in this study and reflects the particular interactional contexts. On the one hand, real-life classroom TREs obtained as in (1) above can be used by teacher educators together with the typology to demonstrate to teachers the possible relationships between diverse prosodic, verbal, embodied, and emplaced strategies and instructional achievements. On the other hand, it needs to be emphasised to teachers that each relationship is emergent from its specific classroom context. Therefore, the typology can be used as a prototypical coding manual for teachers to draw on, but the key information to be passed on to teachers is the mapping relationship between recurrent strategies identified in classrooms and their interactional and instructional achievements in situ.

(3) To guide teachers to use the methods of collecting and analysing classroom interaction data exemplified in this study as a model to examine their own textbook use and conduct self-reflections. This probably is the most challenging part and needs practice. However, as Schiffrin (1995) rightly explained, IS analysis is to understand and interpret social interaction, a task which is undertaken by everyone in our daily communication. To reduce the complexity of

the task, data analysis can be divided into steps (Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2) and teachers can be guided through each stage with practical and technical support. To further enhance the feasibility of the task, teachers can video their own lessons and watch through, but particularly focus on a few TREs in their classrooms where they find they have successfully achieved instructional goals or where they have failed to do so, when doing transcription and fine-analysis. By focusing on these revealing moments and understanding how they themselves interact with the textbook, teachers can reflect on their teaching practices and how their textbook use practices are effective (or not) for their own teaching contexts. Based on the reflections, textbook use practices can be improved and enhanced. Towards this end, establishing teachers' (virtual) learning communities is particularly recommended so that teachers can work together on decoding each other's textbook use practices, conduct team reflections on instructional efficacy and achieve peer mentoring in developing textbook use literacy.

This study has shown that teachers mobilise textbook resources, including textbook content, textbook materiality, and textbook voice, as interactive resources in classroom instruction. The diverse ways of mobilising textbook resources in achieving interactional goals greatly contribute to effective classroom instruction. The findings clearly imply that teacher education in developing teachers' textbook use literacy is needed. Particularly, teacher awareness of textbooks as interactive resources needs to be raised and skills of mobilising textbook resources for effective classroom instruction need to be developed. Through the suggested three stages of "awareness-raising – capacity-development – application and reflection", teachers can be guided to develop their textbook use literacy in mobilising textbooks as interactive resources.

7.4.2 Enhancing Textbooks' Affordances for Classroom Interaction

This study has demonstrated how textbooks are mobilised by teachers as interactive resources to afford their classroom interaction with students and therefore achieve effective classroom instruction. Previous studies have shown that language classroom instruction is achieved through classroom interaction, and that classroom interaction itself constitutes an authentic social interaction model for language learning (e.g. Allwright, 1984; van Lier, 1988) (3.1). This study has further shown that textbooks are an indispensable part of the authentic social interaction enacted by teachers and students in classrooms. For example, teachers are found to mobilise textbooks to negotiate their social relationships with students and create a different classroom atmosphere, which demonstrates to students how interpersonal relationships

can be negotiated through language and actions. From this perspective, excessive concern with content is not of primary importance. Moreover, in contexts like China, commercially published ELT textbooks usually cater for an extensive market which varies in diverse aspects of instructional contexts. Since a textbook is limited in its coverage of real-life scenarios and interactions and fixed in its content once published, it is unrealistic to develop textbooks that suit all, particular in contexts similar to Chinese university English education where there is a large student cohort with diverse levels of English proficiency and English learning needs. This study then suggests a viable solution to the dilemma. Taking the perspective of understanding classroom interaction as also the language input and model for students' language learning, the findings suggest that designing textbooks to better support classroom interaction warrants devoted efforts. Based on the research findings, the following gives suggestions on how this can be achieved from the perspective of textbook content, textbook materiality, and textbook voice.

Firstly, implications can be drawn on how textbook content can be better designed. Textbook content design needs to take into consideration how key learning points can be highlighted and emphasised in textbooks. On the one hand, highlighting can help direct and maintain students' attention which is fundamental to learning. On the other hand, it facilitates teachers, particularly novice teachers, in identifying key learning points and thus displaying to students how key information could be better communicated in interaction. Making the rationale for activity design explicit can also make sure that teachers explicate interactional goals at the beginning of an interactional event. Similarly, providing clear steps for activities in textbooks can also facilitate teachers in giving directions. These two ways of optimising activities in textbooks can better facilitate teachers and guide students as students benefit from clear goals and directions, and models of purposeful and effective interaction.

Secondly, this study offers implications for textbook materiality design. To ensure that textbook materiality can be mobilised by teachers to orient students to interactional and instructional transitions and lead students between on-textbook and off-textbook activities, textbook size, thickness, and weight should be reasonable so that teachers can easily handle them when conducting classroom instruction. Textbooks are usually modularised or sectionalised so that teachers can flexibly select from modules and sections for classroom instruction. In order to guide students to smoothly shift between modules or sections, they should be clearly labelled and designed so that teachers can effectively mobilise the design in interaction. PPT slides or other

similar display formats that allow teachers to zoom in on specific language points and concepts are particularly useful as they support teachers to deliver clearer and more engaging instructions on language and concepts in a multimodal way. Similarly, online teaching materials should be designed to allow teachers to make smooth transitions between modules and sections, and to enable teachers to zoom in on teaching foci with ease. Moreover, it is crucial that online teaching materials provide convenient tools for teachers to interact with the displayed content on shared screen so that students' joint attention can be directed and maintained. Since it is difficult for teachers and students in online classrooms to rely on many of the embodied and emplaced cues they employ in face-to-face classrooms, explorations of interactive channels that not only compensate for the loss of embodied and emplaced cues but also are more suitable for online interactional environments are called for. As explained above, all these means of developing textbooks to support teachers' classroom interaction with students contributes both to effective classroom instruction and better interactional models for students to engage in and learn from.

Finally, textbook voice should be taken into consideration when textbooks are developed. This study has shown that the socioculturally constructed authoritative voice of textbooks has been negotiated by teachers through speech and actions, and mobilised by teachers to work on interpersonal relationships and classroom learning environments. However, textbooks themselves, as semiotic artefacts, have the power of constructing diverse kinds of voice (e.g. authoritative voice or collaborative voice) through the choice of language. It merits careful consideration what kind(s) of voice are to be constructed when textbooks are developed. This requires textbook developers to pay special attention to not only what materials to be included in textbooks, but also how these materials are to be presented. Specifically, textbooks writers and publishers need to be careful and purposeful with the meta-language they use in textbooks. For example, using directive language in textbooks may reinforce textbook authority, while a dialogic approach to presenting materials will establish a more collaborative relationship between textbooks and users. Besides, providing step-by-step guidance to activities and questions is another way that textbook developers can utilise to create a more collaborative way of learning through textbook design. These means can surely support teachers, particularly novice teachers, in guiding students instead of "testing" them in classroom instruction, and therefore create more collaborative classrooms.

To answer the research questions, 7.1 has discussed this study's theoretical contributions.

When using textbooks to teach in classrooms, ELT teachers enact multifaceted agency, namely, pedagogical agency, procedural agency, and social agency, and distribute it between textbooks and themselves through verbal and embodied interaction. Employing diverse prosodic, verbal, embodied, and emplaced strategies, teachers mediate textbooks as semiotic, physical, and sociocultural artefacts. Mobilising textbook content, materiality, and voice, teachers are able to implement effective classroom instruction. Drawing on the empirical data, a typology of discursive strategies of using ELT textbooks in Chinese university classrooms has also been developed. Moreover, the findings have also helped us better understand textbook roles in classroom interaction (7.2). Textbooks are an active participant in classroom interaction, and they afford classroom interaction with multifaceted resources. In addition to outlining its theoretical contributions, 7.3 has discussed the study's methodological innovations and their role in advancing knowledge. Finally, 7.4 presents a discussion of practical implications for teacher education and textbook development.

Having discussed the theoretical and methodological contributions of this study and its practical implications, I now proceed to summarise the limitations of this study and further discuss how these limitations have been responded to. From the discussion, I identify directions for future research.

7.5 Limitations of the Study

The completion of the study has encountered numerous challenges. While I have taken steps to mitigate the challenges, there remain a number of limitations to be acknowledged.

Some of the challenges were posed by the specific timing of the project during the Covid-19 lockdown, in particular, the restrictions and uncertainties brought to the data collection. I have described how I responded to the challenges in the Methodology chapter (Chapter 4) by modifying the initial plan of collecting face-to-face classroom data to online classroom data, given the indeterminate duration of the emergency online teaching mode in Chinese universities at that time and considering the significant contributions the understanding of online emergency data would bring to the field. Besides, once the university classrooms went back to face-to-face teaching, another round of data collection was conducted. Although the emergency situation created persistent uncertainties and extended the period of data collection beyond its intended timeframe, the process resulted in rich data of ELT textbook use in both traditional in-person classrooms and emerging online classrooms, allowing fundamental teacher–textbook interaction

regardless of contexts to be discovered and context-dependent specifics to be studied and revealed. However, the lockdown restrictions did impose challenges to the final data I collected. In the emergency online classrooms, mostly due to the Internet speed, all students kept their cameras off throughout. This limited the examination of students' reactions to teachers. This was also a challenge in the in-person data collected in the second round. Even though the classrooms were back to face-to-face mode at that time, no external people were allowed to enter university campus. The situation left the participating teachers to shoulder the responsibilities of video-recording. After careful discussion with the teachers about the tasks they felt comfortable taking on, we decided that we would rely on the inbuilt video-recording technology of the room if there was one or we had only one camera set up at the back of the classrooms if there was no inbuilt video-recording technology. The outcome was that I had limited access to students' data in the in-person classrooms too. If there had been greater access to student data, the analysis could have benefited from more robust examination and discussion of students' uptake. Further explorations of the themes in response to the RQs could have been made and further discussions on the interrelationships among teachers, students, and textbooks could have been developed.

Another challenge was caused by the practicality issue of data collection that other studies with Chinese university ELT teachers may have also faced. The teachers were shouldering a heavy workload of teaching and researching apart from their family responsibilities. The circumstances brought about by Covid-19 placed additional strain on them as they needed to cope with online teaching technologies, classroom management in an online environment, different assessment requirements, etc. It became impractical and unethical to engage the teachers with further video-prompted recall interviews. As a result, I dropped the original plan of video-prompted recall interviews after each lesson. Instead, intermittent informal interviews were conducted to help me understand teachers' belief in education, English language teaching, etc. and clarify my queries and doubts on classroom interaction. Although the change left me without teachers' self-reflective data to triangulate my IS analysis, the meticulous analytical process suggested by IS to attend to details and repeatedly revisit the interaction data has enabled me to interpret the data as both a researcher and a would-be participant. However, if the teachers' self-reflective data had been collected, I would then be able to further discuss teachers' intentions behind their agentive acts and how they affect the teachers' actual textbook use.

A third practical challenge was related to participant recruitment, commonly encountered in research involving classroom video-recordings. While many teachers showed interest in participating in my study, most of them decided not to because of the data-collection method. They expressed diverse reasons why they would not want to participate if their classrooms were going to be recorded. The most prominent reason was their perceived sense of being evaluated if their classrooms were to be recorded even though they understood the study was not to evaluate their performance or their students' performance. The outcome was a longer participant recruitment process and infeasibility to recruit teachers from diverse contexts. All four teachers recruited were from an educationally highly developed region of China though their students were of diverse language proficiency levels and their classrooms were of different sizes. However, if it had been possible to recruit teachers and participating classrooms from more diversified contexts, the data would probably have given us more rich insights. Despite this, this practical challenge in retrospect ensured that all recruited participants had a thorough understanding of and fully supported the approach of collecting natural data and the manipulation of data. In particular, the tendency of teachers to deliver lessons in ways different from their daily practices if they were going to be observed/analysed by an outsider of the classroom was minimised.

7.6 Future Research Directions

To address the above limitations, there remains potential for extending the scope of data collection in future studies.

Firstly, future studies could include student data to further explore how teachers' textbook use is received and responded to by students in classroom interaction. To achieve this, more camera angles could be set up during data collection so that students' embodied interaction, including their bodily movements, gaze, facial expressions, etc., could be captured. Analysis of student data would reveal students' uptake of teachers' pedagogical, procedural, and social agency in using textbooks. It would further support the analysis of teacher data. More importantly, it could enable more detailed analysis of the impact of teachers' textbook use on students and allow us to better identify effective classroom practice. Additionally, student data would open up avenues for research into students' use of textbooks in ELT classrooms.

Secondly, future studies could incorporate video-stimulated recall interviews with teachers and students in the data collection process. Stimulated recall interviews with teachers

would support further investigation into teachers' intention behind their agentive acts, which would allow us to better understand the relationship between teacher belief and classroom practice of using textbooks. The understanding would also shed light on how textbooks could be developed to facilitate teachers' classroom instruction. Such interviews with students would also generate data useful for understanding students' intention behind their classroom behaviours, which would in turn inform how teachers could better support students and how textbooks could more effectively support student learning.

Thirdly, classrooms from different contexts could be studied to enrich the understanding of ELT teacher agency in using textbooks in classrooms and expand the typology of ELT teachers' discursive strategies of using textbooks for effective classroom instruction. Classrooms of diverse types could be examined. For example, future studies can focus on how teachers use textbooks to manage difficult classrooms, or how teachers use textbooks to teach students of low English language proficiency. More types of ELT courses could also be investigated. This study has focused on Reading and Writing classrooms and Listening and Speaking classrooms. Future studies could look into other ELT courses, such as Academic Writing courses, English for Specific Purposes courses, etc.

This study's contributions to knowledge could also be developed to address other classroom-related issues and conduct textbook development and use projects.

This study has demonstrated how an IS study can make a direct contribution to the understanding of ELT classroom instruction in general and ELT textbook use in particular. This approach could be applied in further classroom related studies. One promising direction would be employing the approach in action research. Teachers could adopt and adapt the methods used in this study to analyse and understand their own classroom practices of using textbooks, and make improvements. The analytical approach could also be used in studies focusing on novice teacher development. While this study took an appreciative approach and focused on classroom practices of experienced teachers, future studies could examine novice teachers' practices and identify areas for teacher education. As noted above, the methodological approach could also be utilised to study student agency in using textbooks in classrooms.

While this study's online classroom data was collected due to the disruptions to normal in-person classroom teaching brought about by Covid-19, it proved to be revealing on how teaching materials were used in online environments. Future studies could inquire into specially

designed teaching platforms and online ELT materials and examine how teachers interact with them in online teaching and how their ways of mobilising the online surroundings and tools afford and constrain effective instruction.

Finally, the methods pioneered in this study could also be developed to be applied in studies on textbook use in classrooms of other subjects and for students of other age groups.

In this thesis, I have pioneered a sociolinguistic approach to the understanding of ELT teachers' textbook use in classrooms and revealed ELT teachers' multifaceted agency in using textbooks, the mediational relationship between teachers and textbooks, and the discursive strategies teachers employ to use textbooks to achieve effective classroom instruction. It is my hope that this sociolinguistics-informed exploratory approach be embraced by future studies, leading to more discoveries of how teachers can better use textbooks and how textbooks can be better developed to facilitate teaching and learning.

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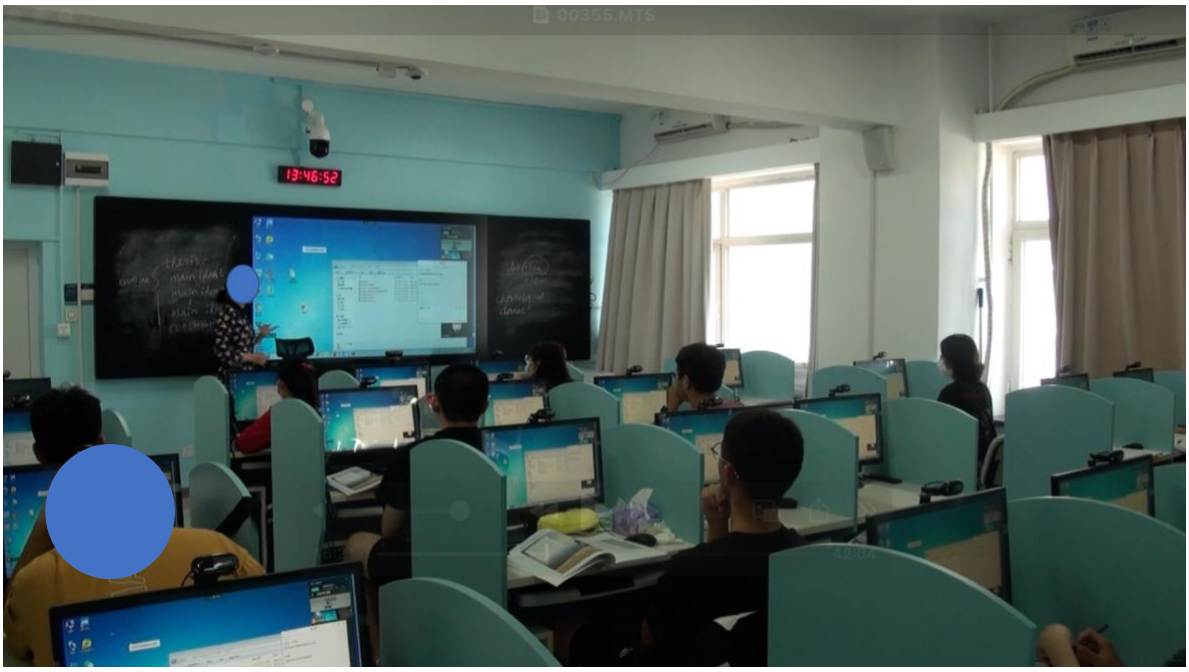
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Appendix A Screenshots of the Four Classrooms

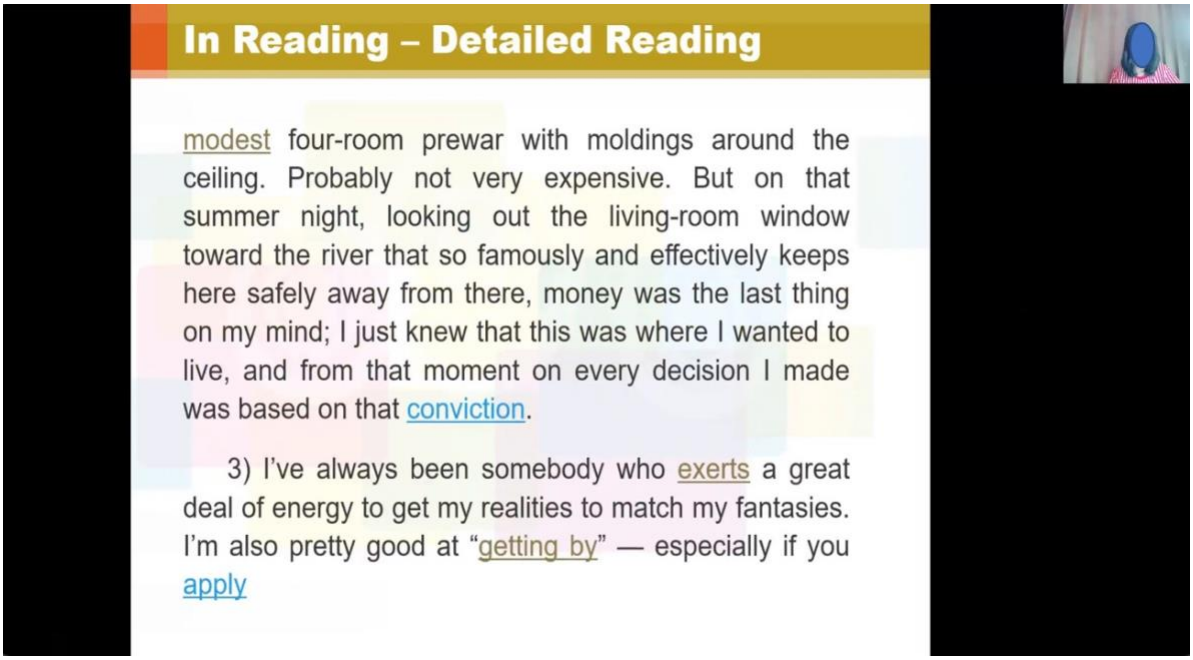
A.1 Classroom 1



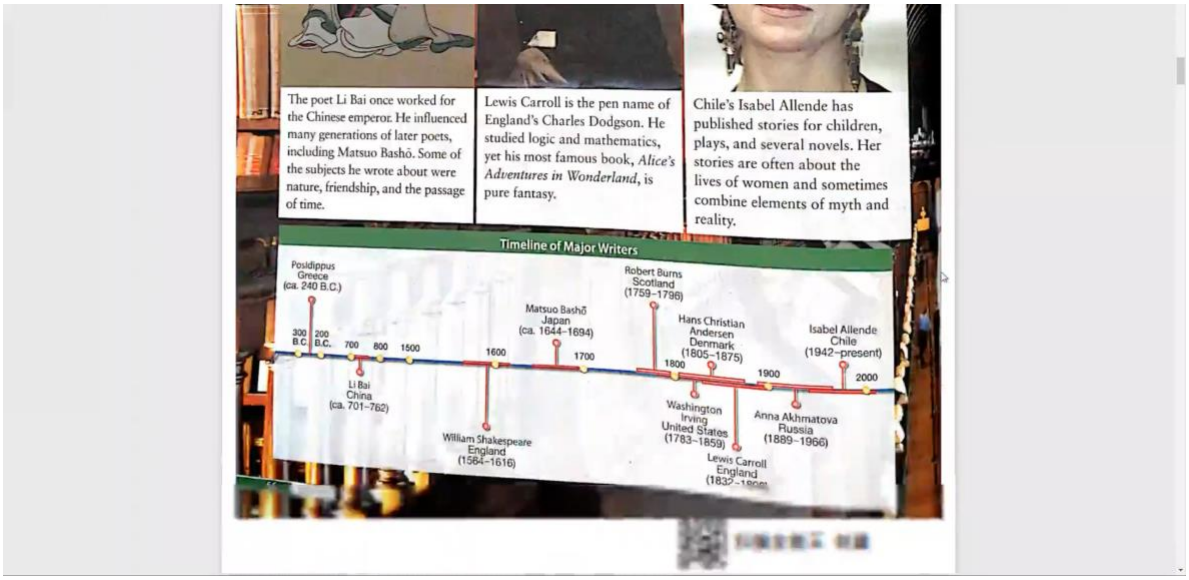
A.2 Classroom 2



A.3 Classroom 3



A.4 Classroom 4



Appendix B Transcription Conventions

w<u>o</u>rd	Underscoring indicates a stressed syllable, via pitch and/or amplitude.
Wo-	A dash indicates cutoff.
WORD	Capitals indicate loudness.
☺word☺	Smiley faces around a word indicate smiley voice.
>word<	These caret symbols indicate talk faster than surrounding speech.
<word>	These caret symbols indicate talk slower than surrounding speech.
xxx	xxx indicate unintelligible sounds or words.
(.)	A single dot in parenthesis indicates an untimed micropause.
(0.5)	A number in parentheses indicates a timed pause.
.	A dot indicates falling intonation.
,	A comma indicates level or slight rise intonation.
?	A question mark indicates rising intonation.
[ ]	Left and right brackets indicate beginning and end of overlap with talk or action in another line.
#	A hash indicates the position of a picture.
/	A forward slash indicates the position of an action description.

(Adapted from Day & Wagner, 2019, pp. xxiv–xxv)

Appendix C Teacher Participant Information Sheet

Study Title:	Chinese University English Textbooks: ELT Textbook Design and Use
Investigator:	Yi Zhang

Introduction

You are invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide, you need to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Please take the time to read the following information carefully. Talk to others about the study if you wish.

Please ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Who is organising and funding the study?

This study is not funded by any external body.

What is the study about?

This study is to examine university English textbooks design and use. It seeks to improve university English textbooks by looking into how teachers and students use the textbooks in real classrooms. The study is specifically situated in the Chinese university context and aims at a set of principles for developing College English textbooks to better facilitate the teaching of real-life language in university English courses.

What would taking part involve?

We aim to identify and further enhance good practice by teachers and are approaching teachers who are interested in innovation and implements interactive language teaching in classrooms. The length of your participation will last for one school term, involving the video-recording of about 5 lessons and the audio-recording of 5 subsequent interviews. The researcher will discuss with you which lessons can be recorded, and will then invite students to vote 5 lessons out of these. Both teacher participants and student participants are expected to be video-recorded in these lessons. Before the recording, you will work together with the researcher and the students about the classroom setup, including seat arrangements, shooting angles, etc, if not all students in the class agree to participate in the study. You will take the responsibility of recording the lessons, upload the recordings onto the Warwick server via files.warwick, and delete them after they have been successfully uploaded. After the recording of each lesson, you will participate in a one-on-one 90-minute interview conducted by the researcher which involves watching certain moments of the video-recording identified by the researcher and answering questions concerning these identified moments. You will also be invited to talk about any other

moments that you find significant to the study. The interviews will be audio-recorded by the researcher. Besides, if any student wants to withdraw from the study during the process, you will need to reorganize the classroom setup together with the students again.

Do I have to take part?

No. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and choosing not to take part will not affect you in any way. You can also choose to withdraw your participation without giving a reason by contacting the researcher. Further details about withdrawing from the study are provided later on in this document.

What are the possible benefits of taking part in this study?

While there are no financial benefits for those people participating in the project, it is hoped that you will find the experience rewarding. Your participation will help provide evidence supporting ways for improving English textbooks used in Chinese universities, which will provide foreseeable help to thousands of language teachers in universities, and millions of university students. Participants may also have the opportunity to learn more about textbook use during and after the phase of data collection, benefit from the process of engaging with students, and share good teaching practice with other participants through a digital “teaching toolkit” summarised and provided by the researcher.

What are the possible disadvantages, side effects or risks, of taking part in this study?

There shouldn’t be any disadvantages from taking part in this research and data will be used to inform the study from the perspective of good practice. If any unexpected disadvantages arise during the research, you can bring it immediately to the attention of the researcher. However, as you will be in control of the recording process, it would involve extra work such as setting up camera(s) in the classroom, pausing the camera(s) when non-participating students are involved in class interaction, etc. To help with the process, the researcher will hold preparatory sessions together with you and the students before the actual recording to answer students’ queries about the project and the recording, discuss about the seat arrangements, find the best shooting angles, experiment with the zoom, and explain what students can do if they do not want to participate in the study or if they want to withdraw from it.

Expenses and payments

Your participation is voluntary and there would be no payment for taking part in the study.

Will my taking part be kept confidential?

All the information that we collect about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. Personal information will be kept exclusively to the researcher. Video-recordings of the lessons and audio-recordings of the interviews will only be accessed by the researcher and the supervisors. All transcriptions and translations will be done by the researcher (not outsourced) and pseudonymised. All data will begin and remain in electronic form, and will be pseudonymised and stored on Warwick servers. Any traceable personal information will be stored separately on Warwick servers. The results of the study will be written up in a PhD thesis, and reported in envisaged conference presentations and publications. You will not be able to be identified in any ensuing reports or publications.

What will happen to the data collected about me?

As a publicly-funded organisation, the University of Warwick have to ensure that it is in the public interest when we use personally-identifiable information from people who have agreed to take part in research. This means that when you agree to take part in a research study, such as this, we will use your data in the ways needed to conduct and analyse the research study.

We will be using information from you in order to undertake this study and will act as the data controller for this study. We are committed to protecting the rights of individuals in line with data protection legislation. The University of Warwick will keep identifiable information about you for 10 years after the study has finished.

Research data will be pseudonymised as quickly as possible after data collection. This means all direct and indirect identifiers will be removed from the research data and will be replaced with a participant number. The key to identification will be stored separately and securely to the research data to safeguard your identity. You are free to withdraw no later than three months after the end of data collection without giving any reason.

Data Sharing

Your rights to access, change or move your information are limited, as we need to manage your information in specific ways in order for the research to be reliable and accurate. The University of Warwick has in place policies and procedures to keep your data safe.

This data may also be used for future research, including impact activities following review and approval by an independent Research Ethics Committee and subject to your consent at the outset of this research project.

For further information, please refer to the University of Warwick Research Privacy Notice which is available here:
https://warwick.ac.uk/services/idc/dataprotection/privacynotices/researchprivacynotice or by contacting the Legal and Compliance Team at GDPR@warwick.ac.uk.

What will happen if I don't want to carry on being part of the study?

Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw no later than three months after the end of data collection without giving any reason, without your rights being affected. Please contact the researcher directly if you want to withdraw from the study. If you decide to withdraw part way, no future classes will be recorded. If you also wish to withdraw some or all of your data already collected up to that point, so long as this is not later than three months after the end of data collection, it will not be used in this study.

What will happen to the results of the study?

The results will be written up in a PhD thesis, and reported in envisaged conference presentations and publications. The researcher is more than happy to share the results with participants. All participants will be emailed when the PhD has been completed. Please write to the researcher if you would like to see the finished PhD and your email has changed.

Who has reviewed the study?

This study has been reviewed and given favourable opinion by Warwick Applied Linguistics Graduate Progress Committee.

Who should I contact if I want further information?

Researcher: Yi Zhang, yi.zhang.10@warwick.ac.uk
Supervisors: Dr Richard Smith, R.C.Smith@warwick.ac.uk
Dr Jo Angouri, J.Angouri@warwick.ac.uk

Who should I contact if I wish to make a complaint?

Any complaint about the way you have been dealt with during the study or any possible harm you might have suffered will be addressed. Please address your complaint to the person below, who is a senior University of Warwick official entirely independent of this study:

Head of Research Governance
Research & Impact Services
University House
University of Warwick
Coventry
CV4 8UW
Email: researchgovernance@warwick.ac.uk
Tel: 02476 575733

If you wish to raise a complaint on how we have handled your personal data, you can contact our Data Protection Officer who will investigate the matter: DPO@warwick.ac.uk.

If you are not satisfied with our response or believe we are processing your personal data in a way that is not lawful you can complain to the Information Commissioner's Office (ICO).

Thank you for taking the time to read this Participant Information Leaflet

Appendix D Student Participant Information Sheet

Study Title:	Chinese University English Textbooks: ELT Textbook Design and Use
Investigator:	Yi Zhang

Introduction

You are invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide, you need to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Please take the time to read the following information carefully. Talk to others about the study if you wish.

Please ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Who is organising and funding the study?

This study is not funded by any external body.

What is the study about?

This study is to examine university English textbooks design and use. It seeks to improve university English textbooks by looking into how teachers and students use the textbooks in real classrooms. The study is specifically situated in the Chinese university context and aims at developing better College English textbooks for Chinese university students.

What would taking part involve?

The length of your participation will last for one school term, involving the video-recording of about 5 lessons. The researcher will discuss with your teacher about which lessons can be recorded, and will invite you to vote for about 5 lessons out of them. Both teacher participants and student participants are expected to be video-recorded in these lessons. After the recording of each lesson, you may be invited by the researcher to participate in a one-on-one 30-minute interview conducted by the researcher which involves watching certain moments of the video-recording identified by the researcher and answering questions concerning these identified moments. You will also be invited to talk about any other moments that you would like to share. The interviews will be audio-recorded by the researcher.

Do I have to take part?

No. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and choosing not to take part will not affect you in any way. You can also choose to withdraw your participation without giving a reason by contacting the researcher. Further details about withdrawing from the study are provided later

on in this document.

What are the possible benefits of taking part in this study?

While there are no financial benefits for those people participating in the project, it is hoped that you will find the experience rewarding. Your participation will help provide evidence supporting ways for improving English textbooks used in Chinese universities, which will provide foreseeable help to thousands of language teachers in universities, and millions of university students.

What are the possible disadvantages, side effects or risks, of taking part in this study?

There shouldn't be any disadvantages from taking part in this research and data will not be used to judge your performance as a student. The researcher will also pseudonymise (使用假名) the data when it is stored, analysed and reported. If any unexpected disadvantages arise during the research, you can bring it immediately to the attention of the researcher. However, some of you may experience uneasiness with the cameras in the classroom. To help avoid such uneasiness, preparatory sessions will be held together with you before the actual recording to answer queries about the project and the recording, discuss about the seat arrangements, find the best shooting angles, experiment with the zoom, and explain what you can do if you do not want to participate in the study or if you want to withdraw from it.

Expenses and payments

Your participation is voluntary and there would be no payment for taking part in the study.

Will my taking part be kept confidential?

All the information that we collect about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. Personal information will be kept exclusively to the researcher. Video-recordings of the lessons and audio-recordings of the interviews will only be accessed by the researcher and the supervisors. All transcriptions (转写脚本) and translations will be done by the researcher and pseudonymised. All video stills used will exclude any identifiable information of the participants. If images are shown in the stills, they will be edited to make sure that they are unidentifiable. All data will begin and remain in electronic form, and will be pseudonymised and stored on Warwick servers. Any traceable personal information will be stored separately on Warwick servers. The results of the study will be written up in a PhD thesis, and reported in conference presentations and publications. You will not be able to be identified in any ensuing reports or publications.

What will happen to the data collected about me?

As a publicly-funded organisation, the University of Warwick have to ensure that it is in the public interest when we use personally-identifiable information from people who have agreed to take part in research. This means that when you agree to take part in a research study, such as this, we will use your data in the ways needed to conduct and analyse the research study.

We will be using information from you in order to undertake this study and will act as the data controller for this study. We are committed to protecting the rights of individuals in line with data protection legislation. The University of Warwick will keep identifiable information about you for 10 years after the study has finished.

Research data will be pseudonymised as quickly as possible after data collection. This means all direct and indirect identifiers will be removed from the research data and will be replaced with a participant number. The key to identification will be stored separately and securely to the research data to safeguard your identity. You are free to withdraw no later than three months after the end of data collection without giving any reason.

Data Sharing

Your rights to access, change or move your information are limited, as we need to manage your information in specific ways in order for the research to be reliable and accurate. The University of Warwick has in place policies and procedures to keep your data safe.

This data may also be used for future research, including impact activities following review and approval by an independent Research Ethics Committee and subject to your consent at the outset of this research project.

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https://warwick.ac.uk/services/idc/dataprotection/privacynotices/researchprivacynotice or by contacting the Legal and Compliance Team at GDPR@warwick.ac.uk.

What will happen if I don't want to carry on being part of the study?

Your participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw no later than three months after the end of data collection without giving any reason, without your rights being affected. Please contact the researcher directly if you want to withdraw from the study. If you decide to withdraw part way through the recording process, please also inform your teacher so that the seat arrangements can be reorganized. If you also wish to withdraw some or all of your data already collected up to that point, so long as this is not later than three months after the end of data collection, it will not be used in this study, although your data cannot be erased from the recordings.

What will happen to the results of the study?

The results will be written up in a PhD thesis, and reported in envisaged conference presentations and publications. The researcher is more than happy to share the results with participants. All participants will be emailed when the PhD has been completed. Please write to the researcher if you would like to see the finished PhD and your email has changed.

Who has reviewed the study?

This study has been reviewed and given favourable opinion by Warwick Applied Linguistics Graduate Progress Committee.

Who should I contact if I want further information?

Researcher: Yi Zhang, yi.zhang.10@warwick.ac.uk
Supervisors: Dr Richard Smith, R.C.Smith@warwick.ac.uk
Dr Jo Angouri, J.Angouri@warwick.ac.uk

Who should I contact if I wish to make a complaint?

Any complaint about the way you have been dealt with during the study or any possible harm you might have suffered will be addressed. Please address your complaint to the person below, who is a senior University of Warwick official entirely independent of this study:

Head of Research Governance
Research & Impact Services
University House
University of Warwick
Coventry
CV4 8UW
Email: researchgovernance@warwick.ac.uk
Tel: 02476 575733

If you wish to raise a complaint on how we have handled your personal data, you can contact our Data Protection Officer who will investigate the matter: DPO@warwick.ac.uk.

If you are not satisfied with our response or believe we are processing your personal data in a way that is not lawful you can complain to the Information Commissioner's Office (ICO).

Thank you for taking the time to read this Participant Information Leaflet

Appendix E Teacher Participant Consent Form

Participant Identification Number for this study:

Title of Project: Chinese University English Textbooks: ELT Textbook Design and Use

Name of Researcher(s): Yi Zhang

Supervisors: Dr Jo Angouri & Dr Richard Smith

Please initial all boxes

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet (version 5, 18/11/21) for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. ☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw no later than three months after the end of data collection without giving any reason, without my education or legal rights being affected. The data collected will be deleted and will not be used in the study. ☐

3. I understand that data collected during the study, may be looked at by individuals from the University of Warwick, from regulatory authorities, where it is relevant to my taking part in this study. I give permission for these individuals to have access to my data. ☐

4. I consent to have my classes video-taped ☐ or audio-taped ☐.

5. I understand that I need to delete the video-recordings as soon as they have been uploaded to the Warwick server via files.warwick and will do so. ☐

6. I would like to take part in the interviews and consent to have the interviews audio-recorded. ☐

7. I consent to the use of video stills. ☐

8. I consent to the use of pseudonymised verbatim quotations (假名逐字引用). ☐

9. I am happy for my data to be used in future research. ☐

10. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

Name of Participant	Date	Signature
Name of Person taking consent	Date	Signature

Appendix F Student Participant Consent Form

Participant Identification Number for this study:

Title of Project: Chinese University English Textbooks: ELT Textbook Design and Use

Name of Researcher(s): Yi Zhang

Supervisors: Dr Jo Angouri & Dr Richard Smith

Please initial all boxes

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet (version 5, 18/11/21) for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. ☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw no later than three months after the end of data collection without giving any reason, without my education or legal rights being affected. The data collected up to that point cannot be deleted, but your data will not be used in the study. ☐

3. I understand that data collected during the study, may be looked at by individuals from the University of Warwick, from regulatory authorities, where it is relevant to my taking part in this study. I give permission for these individuals to have access to my data. ☐

4. I consent to have my classes video-taped ☐ or audio-taped ☐.

5. I would like to take part in the interviews and consent to have the interviews audio-recorded. ☐

6. I consent to the use of pseudonymised verbatim quotations (假名逐字引用). ☐

7. I consent to the use of video stills. ☐

8. I am happy for my data to be used in future research. ☐

9. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

Name of Participant	Date	Signature
Name of Person taking consent	Date	Signature

Appendix G List of Abbreviations

(In alphabetical order)

Abbreviation	Definition
CA	Conversation Analysis
CIC	classroom interactional competence
C1	Classroom 1
C2	Classroom 2
C3	Classroom 3
C4	Classroom 4
DCE	Design Capacity for Enactment
ELT	English language teaching
IRF	Initiation–Response–Feedback
IS	Interactional Sociolinguistics
ISLA	instructed second language acquisition
L2	second language
PPT	PowerPoint
RQ	research question
Ss	students
S1, S2, …	Student 1, Student 2, …
TRE	textbook-relevant episode
T1	Teacher 1
T2	Teacher 2
T3	Teacher 3
T4	Teacher 4