

## Built-In Learner Participation Potential of Locally- and Globally-Designed ELT Materials

**Mostafa Pourhaji \***  
PhD Student  
University of Tehran  
m.pourhaji@ut.ac.ir

**Seyed Mohammad Alavi**  
Associate Professor  
University of Tehran  
smalavi@ut.ac.ir

**Sedigheh Karimpour**  
PhD Student  
University of Tehran  
sedighehkarimpour1367@yahoo.com

### Abstract

This study aims at empirically measuring a universal criterion for materials evaluation, i.e., learning opportunities, in a locally- and a globally-designed materials. Adopting the conceptual framework of sociocultural theory and its conceptualization of learning as participation (Donato, 2000), the researchers utilized the methodological power of conversation analysis to examine how opportunities for learner participation and, by extension, learning are created whilst the materials are being used. Thirty teachers' naturally-occurring classroom interactions, evolving from the two types of materials, was videotaped and transcribed line-by-line to identify the interactional contexts in which learner participation opportunities are embedded. Four interactional contexts affording different levels of learner interactional space were prompted by both types of materials. Examining the distribution of contexts revealed that management-oriented and form-oriented contexts were sustained significantly longer in classes with the locally-designed material. The globally-designed material, however, tended to unfold significantly longer skill-oriented and meaning-oriented contexts suggesting higher levels of built-in learner participation potential. The findings of this study raise materials developers' awareness, especially in periphery communities, about how materials can either marginalize or empower learners in classroom interaction.

*Keywords:* conversation analysis, interactional contexts, learner participation, materials evaluation, sociocultural theory

“The core resources that teachers and learners depend on” (Richards, 2010, p. ix), “an almost universal element of teaching” (Hutchinson & Torress, 1994, p. 315), “the visible heart and the route map of any ELT program” (Sheldon, 1988, p. 238), and “the lubricator of ‘the wheel of learning’” (Nunan, 1988, p. 98) are samples taken from a large corpus of quotes that unanimously acknowledge the significant role played by ELT materials, especially textbooks, in the teaching-learning process. “The route map”, however, does not take all adventurers to the desired destination everywhere at every time. In other words, the suitability and relevance of materials need to be assessed through materials evaluation so that they match the specificities of a language learning-teaching context.

A large number of evaluation checklists have been developed (e.g., Brown, 1997; Candlin & Breen, 1980; Cunningsworth, 1995; Skierso, 1991) based on theoretical principles, pragmatic considerations, and sometimes impression to cover various aspects of materials either before, during, or after they are being used. A common thread running through all such checklists is that they approach evaluation from an etic perspective. In other words, the criteria for evaluation have been determined a priori and have been imposed on the object of evaluation. The result has been the underrepresentation of an important criterion from the checklists, i.e., learning opportunities. Learning has been theoretically defined as participation in social, e.g., classroom, interaction within Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory. Opportunities for participation and, by extension, learning are socially and collaboratively constructed (Lantolf, 2000) by teachers and learners in turn-taking sequences in relation to certain pedagogic goals (van Lier, 2000; Walsh, 2006). Both the structuring of turn-taking sequences and pedagogic goals emerge and evolve from the material in use. Therefore, different materials can have different degrees of built-in participation potential. Exploring this potential requires an emic perspective. A methodological tool capable of capturing and portraying the construction of participation opportunities in interaction from such a perspective is conversation analysis (Waring, 2008; Wong & Waring, 2010).

Two types of materials are widely used in Iranian EFL context. There are internationally-produced materials that are imported to the country, and there exist materials that are designed and developed within the country. Besides defining the curriculum and the objectives of the course, ELT materials tend to shape the 'face validity' of English language learning programs in Iran. In other words, Iranian learners are inclined to choose a certain program based on the type of materials being used. Quite recently, there has been an increase in the number of learners opting for programs with locally-designed materials; the common recognition is that, with a better grasp of the context and learners' needs and wants, such materials can provide learners with more participation opportunities than the 'one-size-fits-all' universally-designed materials that tend to "assume a common clientele with common goals, needs and wants" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 165). Therefore, it is worth examining whether the local materials respond to the expectations set for them and how they compare with to their global counterparts in this respect.

In this respect, this study aims at identifying the interactional contexts, in which participation opportunities are embedded, that emerge from putting ELT materials in use by pursuing the CA-for-SLA enterprise (Markee & Kasper, 2004). Using conversation analytic findings along with quantitative procedures, it investigates the distribution of the identified contexts between one globally- and one locally-designed materials to examine whether these materials differ in terms of providing learners with opportunities for participation and, by extension, learning.

### Literature Review

Materials for language learning, according to Tomlinson (2012), refer to "anything that can be used to facilitate the learning of a language, including course books, videos, graded readers, flash cards, games, websites and mobile phone interactions" (p. 143). Concerning their mode of presentation, materials can be linguistic, visual, auditory, kinesthetic, or multimodal. As to their form of presentation, they can be printed such as textbooks or virtual like computer-based materials.

The importance of materials can be realized by considering the various roles they play within the process of language learning and teaching. Cunningsworth (1995, p. 5) asserts that materials (coursebooks) serve as:

- a resource for presenting material (spoken or written)
- a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction
- a reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and the like
- a source of stimulation and ideas for classroom activities
- a syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined)
- a resource for self-directed learning or self-access work
- a support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence.

The roles listed above resonate with those assigned to materials by Tomlinson (2001, p. 66), i.e., “instructional (informing the learners about the language), experiential (providing exposure to the language in use), eliciting (stimulating language use) and exploratory (facilitating discoveries about language use)”. Nunan (1988) believed that materials can also play a role in teacher development by providing “concrete models for desirable classroom practice” (p. 98). However, reviews of the materials used so far revealed that “instructional materials” that focus on “teaching and practice” have had the leading role in materials development (Masuhara, Haan & Tomlinson, 2008, p. 296).

Materials are not the ends in themselves, but they constitute an important means to reaching the objectives of a language program. Although “perfect book does not exist” (Grant, 1987, p. 8), there exists a need for selecting the best possible one that would fit the objectives of a certain program and the needs and wants of a particular group of learners and also teachers (McDonough & Shaw, 2003; Nunan, 1998). With the ever-increasing number of materials, evaluation is deemed necessary for adopting or adapting appropriate ones. Moreover, the strengths and

weaknesses of a particular material can be identified through evaluation (Cunningsworth, 1995). It also raises the evaluators', especially teachers', awareness of what works and what does not in what particular context. In other words, materials evaluation can be considered as one way of carrying out action research that can contribute to reflective practice (Ellis, 1997).

Materials evaluation, by definition, "is a procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning materials" (Tomlinson, 2003, p. 15). 'The value' can refer to the appeal, credibility, validity, reliability, short-term and long-term effects, teachers and learners' perceptions, and flexibility of the materials together with its ability to motivate and interest the teachers and the learners, its contribution to teacher development, and its match with administrative requirements, to name but a few (Tomlinson, 2013).

Based on 'when' it is conducted, materials evaluation has been classified into three different categories, i.e., pre-use or predictive, whilst-use or in-use, and post-use or retrospective (Ellis, 1997; McGrath, 2002; Tomlinson, 2011). Pre-use evaluation involves "making predictions about the potential value of materials for their users" (Tomlinson, 2013, p. 30). It is often carried out with the purpose of selecting appropriate materials. However, it tends to be the most subjective type of evaluation because it is, to a great extent, impressionistic. The more reliable and objective type is whilst-use evaluation which aims at measuring the value of materials through observing them being used. The criticisms usually leveled at this type of evaluation are that it can merely account for what is observable and it can also measure just short-term effects of the materials (Tomlinson, 2011). Measuring both short-term and long-term effects of the materials is possible after the materials are being used, i.e., post-use or retrospective evaluation (Ellis, 1997). However, this type of evaluation is time-consuming and requires expertise to design, administer and analyze measurement instruments reliably (Tomlinson, 2013).

Regardless of the time at which evaluation is conducted, there exist three basic methods of evaluation: impressionistic, in-depth, and checklist (McGrath, 2002). As its name suggests, the impressionistic method, or what Cunningsworth (1995) termed 'impressionistic overview', involves

gaining a general impression of the value of the material by glancing at the layout, the writer(s) and the publisher's names, content page, topics, visuals, etc. In other words, this method is concerned with the face validity of the material. Although it provides a quick and general introduction to the material, it is neither adequate nor systematic. The more systematic one is in-depth method that focuses on and analyzes representative samples of the materials, e.g., units, instructions, exercises, etc. However, this method may not be adequate because it examines only specific samples or features of the material; the samples may not be a good representative of the whole material (McGrath, 2002). This method has therefore been criticized for its partial and limited scope. The burgeoning demand for systematicity and adequacy led to the emergence of checklists in materials evaluation. A checklist is a systematic, cost-effective and convenient instrument in which criteria for evaluation are explicitly listed to be checked off (Cunningsworth, 1995; McGrath, 2002) either before, during, or after material use.

A large number of checklists have been developed (e.g., Brown, 1987; Candlin & Breen, 1980; Cunningsworth, 1984; Dauod & Celce-Murcia, 1979; Masuhara et al., 2008; Roberts, 1996; Skierso, 1991; Ur, 1996; Williams, 1983) to evaluate materials based on external criteria, internal criteria, or both (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). They typically consist of items designed to measure constructs such as objectives, methodology, teaching aids, layout, general appearance, visuals, content, organization, social and cultural contexts, language skills and components, etc. In their review of 48 checklists from 1970 to 2008, Mukundan and Ahour (2010) criticized the majority of them for being context-bound, confusing, vague, and invalid. In other words, some of those checklists have items that (1) involve impressionistic judgments and may be interpreted in different ways; (2) ask two questions in one item and are double-barreled; (3) are limited to a specific methodology or approach; (4) are dogmatic, unclear, and unanswerable; and (5) measure concepts that are hard to quantify. Mukundan and Ahour (2010) argued instead for the development of a flexible, clear and concise composite framework that includes not only checklists but also reflective journals, computer analysis, and the like.

Similarly, Tomlinson (2003) proposed and advocates a framework consisting of two types of criteria. On the one hand, there are universal criteria that originate from theories and principles of language learning and teaching and “can be used to evaluate materials for any learner anywhere” (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 148). McGrath (2002, p. 31) refers to them as “general criteria” and consider them as “the essential features of any good teaching-learning material”. On the other hand, there are local criteria that are context-specific and are generated from contextual and pragmatic considerations.

A universal criterion mentioned by Tomlinson (2010, 2013) as one of the principles of effective materials evaluation and also development is the potential of the material for providing learners with learning opportunities. Converting this principle into an evaluation criterion and including it in a checklist by formulating a question, e.g., “Are the materials likely to maximize learning opportunities?” is barely adequate. Checklists fail to measure the criterion objectively and reliably. Imposing this criterion on the material yields an impressionistic evaluation because the phenomenon, i.e., learning opportunities in classroom, is by nature participant-relevant; it is “collaboratively constructed” (Lantolf, 2000, p. 17) in interaction, rather than as a result of interaction, (Ellis, 2008) and could be prompted by materials in use. Measuring this criterion requires a composite framework. This study combines a specific method of evaluation, i.e., an in-depth method, with a specific type of evaluation, i.e., whilst-use evaluation, and adopts a specific methodological framework, i.e., conversation analysis (CA), and pairs it with a conceptual framework, i.e., sociocultural theory (SCT), which can provide a definition of the phenomenon. Within Vygotsky’s (1978) SCT, learning has been conceptualized as participation (Donato, 2000) in social interaction, e.g., classroom interaction. CA has been used in the literature as a methodological tool to address issues of second language acquisition (CA-for-SLA, Markee & Kasper, 2004). One way to pursue this enterprise is to pair CA with SCT not as “strange bedfellows” but as “useful partners” (Vine, 2008, p. 673) because CA has the potential to detail “how opportunities for L2 learning arise in interactional activities” (Kasper,

2006, p. 83). Given the conceptualization of learning as participation within SCT, this study explores the construction of participation opportunities between globally- and locally-designed ELT materials to examine which one provides learners with more opportunities for participation and, by extension, learning.

Quite recently, scholars and practitioners of the field have noted the paucity of research on the actual use of materials in the classroom and have called for classroom-based studies on the role of materials (Brown, 2014; Garton & Graves, 2014; Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Larsen-Freeman, 2014; Tarone, 2014). A sizeable body of research can be found in the literature on materials design and development (Harwood, 2010; Jolly & Bolitho, 2011; McGrath, 2002), materials evaluation (Islam & Mares, 2003; Littlejohn, 2011; McDonough, Shaw & Masuhara, 2013), and materials adaptation (McGrath, 2002; Nation & Macalister, 2010; Richards, 2001). Materials use, however, has been “a neglected area of research” (Garton & Graves, 2014, p. 654). The present study aims to answer this call for further research by adopting CA and showcasing the use of ELT materials in the moment-by-moment structuring of classroom interaction.

CA views classroom as consisting of a series of interrelated contexts (Walsh, 2006). Some studies have been conducted to identify such contexts in classroom interaction (Jarvis & Robinson, 1997; Pourhaji & Alavi, 2015; Seedhouse, 2004; van Lier, 1988; Walsh, 2006). A common thread running through the previous studies is that each context entails different levels of learner participation opportunities. However, in their identification of contexts, previous studies either analyzed the collaborative construction of classroom interaction evolving from one specific material or made extensive use of classroom transcripts without clarifying the relationship between types of materials and the identified patterns of interaction, i.e., whether different materials structured different patterns of interaction or different amount of a particular pattern. For example, Pourhaji and Alavi (2015) studied 52 EFL teachers’ classroom interaction and uncovered pedagogic goals within turn-taking sequences. By so doing, they identified four interactional contexts and termed them



as management-oriented, form-oriented, skill-oriented and meaning-oriented contexts. They also found that the identified contexts differ in terms of the amount of learner space they afford due to their unique pedagogic goals and the extent to which turn-taking sequences are controlled by the teacher. They thus ordered the contexts listed above on a continuum from the least to the most learner space, respectively. Locating the identified contexts on such a continuum, ranging from management-oriented (the least space) through form-oriented and skill-oriented to meaning-oriented (the most space) tended to signify the inherent and potential levels of participation within each context. However, the contexts they identified were prompted by one specific material. Therefore, this study aims to examine whether locally- and globally-designed materials being used in Iran differ in their structuring and distribution of interactional contexts or, more precisely, learner participation opportunities.

Unlike Schegloff (1993) who argued that 'pure' CA and quantification are mutually exclusive due to differences in their design, approach, sample, tools, purpose, etc., Heritage (1999, p. 70) anticipated the use of statistics in CA studies at the turn of century:

Some [...] new research questions will arise because of the current success of CA in generating empirically grounded findings that will support quantitative analysis. The accumulation of these findings makes it increasingly likely that questions about the *distribution* of interactional practices can be asked with some likelihood of success.

In line with the anticipation, we have paired CA with quantitative procedures. The pairing has enabled us to focus on the "statistics of interactional sequences" rather than individual turns (Heritage, 2005, p. 141) and to find answers to the following research questions:

1. What interactional contexts emerge from the locally- and the globally-designed ELT materials?
2. What is the distribution of interactional contexts between the two types of materials?

3. Is there a significant difference in the distribution of the identified contexts between the two types of materials?

## Method

### Participants

The data for the study come from six experimentally accessible institutes in a city within the province of Mazandaran. The six institutes were selected because of their materials; four of them had the globally-designed, i.e., Top Notch Series, and two of them had the locally-designed materials, i.e., the Iran Language Institute (ILI) English Series. In the six institutes, there were 59 teachers teaching adult language learners and 364 learners from 26 classes at intermediate levels. Thirty non-native Iranian teachers (17 females and 13 males) and 180 Iranian EFL learners (102 females and 78 males) constituted the participants of the study. They were all selected based on their availability to participate. To make sure that both locally- and globally-designed materials are taken into account, half the teachers and the learners were selected from the two institutes in which the locally-designed materials had been used while the other half were recruited from the four institutes with the globally-designed materials. At the time of data collection, the teachers ranged in age from 28 to 40 and the majority had been within the profession for over five years. They were graduates of English language teaching ( $N = 14$ ), English literature ( $N = 9$ ), and English translation ( $N = 7$ ). Out of thirty, 24 teachers had taken teacher training courses. The learners within the age range of 16 to 31 ( $M = 23.48$ ,  $SD = 4.57$ ) were selected from the classroom lists provided by the six institutes and were assigned to groups through matching. They were high school and university students learning English as a foreign language for general purposes at language institutes and were considered as having intermediate level of language proficiency based on the syllabi of their respective institutes. The teachers were paid a small fee for their participations. Some of the learners were given two bonus points added to their classroom-activity grades while others opted for free materials.

### **Locally- and Globally-Designed Materials**

The locally-designed materials were ‘the Iran Language Institute (ILI) English Series’ consisting of student’s book, workbook, teacher’s manual, video booklet, audio tapes, and CDs. The ILI is a well-known language institute in the country and is affiliated with the Ministry of Education. It has over 240,000 language learners and up to 225 branches throughout the country. There are six main levels at the ILI: Basic, Elementary, Pre-intermediate, Intermediate, Higher-intermediate, and Advanced. Each of the main levels has three sub-levels with separate materials. On the back cover of the student’s books and the workbooks, a short description has been provided:

The ILI English Series is a multi-level series exclusively designed for adult students who would like to learn English at the Iran Language Institute. The carefully developed eclectic methodology which has been adopted by the ILI aims at meeting the diverse expectations of the English language learners. The series, containing a variety of supplementary materials, enhances fluency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing while it helps students express themselves with greater accuracy.

From among the globally-designed materials being distributed in Iran, Top Notch Series (Saslow & Ascher, 2011) has recently become very popular in private institutes. In addition to its increasing popularity, the rationale behind choosing Top Notch series was its compatibility with the locally-designed materials of the study, especially at the intermediate level of language proficiency. That is, they are both general-purpose, integrated ELT coursebooks having the same basic objectives and almost the same mix of activities. They both aim at enhancing learners’ fluency and accuracy and contain the usual mix of vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, listening, speaking and reading. The only difference in terms of content is that Top Notch has a separate section on writing skill while ILI textbook has writing embedded in other activities and tasks.

Top Notch includes student’s book and workbook which are put together as one book. Moreover, there is an ‘ActiveBook’, i.e., the

student's book in digital format with interactive practice, printable unit study guides and classroom audio program. Teacher's Edition and Lesson Planner is the manual of the materials, but this manual is not easily accessible in Iran. Top Notch program has been designed and developed in six levels from A1 and A2 through B1 and B2 to C1 based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The data for this study come from the B1 (intermediate) level with Top Notch 3 as its materials. The reason for limiting language proficiency to just one level, i.e., intermediate, was the significant effect of learners' levels of language proficiency on the distribution of interactional contexts (Pourhaji & Alavi, 2015).

### **Data Collection**

The 180 learner participants of the study were assigned to 30 groups (or classes) through randomized matching based on the materials of their respective institutes. In order for the classes to represent the population, gender segregation was also added to the assignment procedure since holding coeducational language classes is against the law in Iran. Then, the teacher participants were randomly assigned to the classes. There was a thirty-minute introduction session called 'Let's socialize' for each of the classes. In that session, informed consent was obtained from all participants of the study. The teachers were asked to teach one unit from the ILI textbook during three sessions and one unit from Top Notch for another three sessions. Therefore, the materials served as curriculum, i.e., "organizer of planned content" (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013, p. 784). Four units from each of the two materials were randomly selected for investigation (see Appendix A). Counterbalancing was used to control the potentially contaminating effect of order. In other words, half of the teachers taught the locally-designed materials first and then the globally-designed materials, while it was the other way round for the other half. Each session (or lesson) lasted 90 minutes. To record classroom events and interaction as they naturally occur, the lessons were videotaped using wall-mounted cameras without the researchers' participation in classes. The data were collected in two weeks.

### **Data Analysis**

Analyses of the recorded data were launched based on the tenets of conversation analysis (ten Have, 2007). The lessons were transcribed in their entirety using Jefferson's (1983) transcription system (see Appendix B). Two coders who had already received training in conversation analysis helped with the transcription of the recorded data. The accuracy of the transcripts was meticulously examined vis-à-vis the audio and video recordings. Two researchers of the study did the analyses of the data. An interrater reliability analysis using Kappa statistics was performed to determine consistency between the two raters; the analysis showed an almost perfect agreement between the two raters ( $k = .89, p < .005$ ). The pedagogic goals prompted by the materials were traced in the unfolding of discourse. In other words, only those patterns of interaction or contexts "mirrored by the materials" (Walsh, 2006, p. 70) were selected and analyzed. To identify materials-based interactional contexts where turn-taking, turn sequence and topic choice all flow from the materials, participants' orientations to the materials were traced in the moment by moment unfolding of discourse (Kasper, 2004; Waring, 2008). As a result, the selected instances of interaction contained contributions to discourse, i.e., elicitation, responses and feedback, being made in relation to a prior, current or following piece of material. After the interactional contexts prompted by the locally- and globally-designed materials were identified, the distribution of each context within the materials was explored through measuring in minute the duration of each context. Finally, a one-way repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to examine whether there is a significant difference in the duration of the identified contexts, each embodying different levels of learner participation, between the two types of materials.

## **Results**

### **Identification of Contexts**

Analyzing turns, sequences and structural organization of interaction and uncovering their pedagogic goals showed that the contexts identified earlier by Pourhaji and Alavi (2015) were prompted by both locally- and

globally-designed materials. Four extracts exemplifying the four recurring patterns of interaction prompted by both types of materials are presented and described in the following subsections.

**Management-oriented context.** Extract 1 has been selected from a session with the ILI textbook. The class is focusing on a pre-listening activity in which the students are supposed to match movie genres with a list of descriptions.

**Extract 1**

- 173 T        ↓Yes, that's right. A:nd number 6. Bita, you please.
- 174 L4        Number 6, comedy matches (0.5)“E. a movie that tries to make people laugh”.
- 175 T        ↓Yes, very good.(2.0) Okay, now let's go to the next page(.) page 101. >Here we will listen to two critics discussing a movie.< “Check (√) if the speaker likes the following. Use (x) if he/she doesn't. And I also want you to tell me the reason. If, for example, the critic likes the story, tell me why. So let me put the CD in the player(5.0). We will listen to it twice=
- 176 L2        = Excuse me, we must write the reason in the book?=  
 177 T        =you can take notes. But first check the elements of the movie after the first time. Then we listen to it again. At the second time, you can jot down the reasons. So let's listen to the critics' opinions about the story, characters, acting, and the movie itself.

The teacher nominates a learner (turn 173) and asks her to read out the answer to an item in the book. Teacher's initiation is followed by a response move by L4 in turn 174. To complete the tripartite, initiation-response-feedback/follow-up (IRF; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) exchange structure, the teacher makes the F move of the sequence and approves L4's response with a positive feedback. The teacher's use of the transition marker “Okay” after a two-second pause functions as a sequence closing third (Schegloff, 2007) signaling the ending of an activity and the beginning of a new one (listening comprehension). By taking two extended

turns (175 & 177), the teacher oriented to the material and manages this transition. In turn 175, the teacher draws learners' attention to a specific page number and focuses on the rubric of the listening task and elaborates on the responding procedure the learners need to follow to do the new activity. It was the task in the material that prompted managerial discourse to a large extent instigated and controlled by the teacher. Whereas Seedhouse (2004) and Walsh (2006) suggested that procedural contexts or managerial modes are devoid of learner contributions, this extract rejects their hypothesis and shows that learners may use the least interactional space available to voice problems with the procedural information in a task or activity rubric (turn 176).

**Form-Oriented Context.** Extract 2 taken from Top Notch 3B is a continuation of grammar practice centering on the use of 'too + an adjective and an infinitive'. The practice requires learners to complete some sentences using the grammatical form already dealt with. The teacher has given learners time to complete the items individually. After learners are done with the practice, the teacher starts checking their answers by asking learners to read out the sentences.

### Extract 2

- 253 T *Finished everybody? =*
- 254 LL *=yes*
- 255 T *so let's start with number one.> Who wants to answer the first one?< Just raise your hands.(2.0) Mohammad, go ahead.*
- 256 L1 *number one, "It's too dangerous for you to go to that neighborhood alone."*
- 257 T *Yes, TOO dangerous for you to go, °very good°. Reza, you answer number two please.*
- 258 L6 *"The pyramid at (1.0) ↑Teotihuacan ((mispronunciation))*
- 259 T *Teotihuacan ((correcting mispronunciation)) Teotihuacan is located in Mexico.*  
*Teotihuacan((looking at L6 with nodding))*
- 260 L6 *"Teotihuacan is too steep to older tourists" =*

- 261 T = *too* ↑*steep*=  
 262 L3 =*for older tourists*=  
 263 T =*yes, for older tourists. ((Looking at L6))You should use FOR. To clarify a warning or explanation, we use a for-phrase. So read your answer again, please.*

Instead of using individual nominations to allocate the turns, the teacher asks learners to raise their hand (turn 255) and express their willingness to reply; thereby, her turn regulation procedure is invitations to bid (Mehan, 1979; cited in Xie, 2011). She then cedes the turn to L1. After L1's response, she partially echoes L1's contribution and provides a positive affective feedback (turn 257) to render L's second pair part as preferred due to its accuracy. She then nominates another learner (L6) for the next item. As L6 expresses uncertainty about the correct pronunciation of a word signaled by high pitch (↑) and mispronunciation, the teacher corrects the mispronunciation by latching (=) onto his turn and modeling the correct one. In addition to clarifying the pronunciation of the word, the teacher also mentions what the proper noun 'Teotihuacan' refers to by providing geographical information. Then, the teacher repeats the correct pronunciation and nonverbally asks L6 to continue. Another instance of latching occurs in turn 260. When the preposition used by L3 to form a phrase is incorrect, the teacher interrupts L6 mid-flow and provides him with feedback on form using indirect corrective repair by echo and rising intonation (turn 261). By highlighting the locus of trouble, the teacher tries to help L6 implement other-initiated self-repair. Another learner (L3), however, self-selects himself and provides other-initiated other-repair (Wong & Waring, 2010). The teacher confirms L3's contribution and starts clarifying the accurate form of the prepositional phrase (263).

**Skill-Oriented Context.** The class is focusing on a passage in the ILI student's book entitled 'Sleep'. The reading skill of the lesson which the teacher and learner orient to and collaboratively shape the discourse is skimming for main ideas.



**Extract 3**

- 411 T *Yes, the main idea of this paragraph is in the first sentence “what goes on in people’s head while they sleep”. ↑Very ↓good. Now please go to the next paragraph. Read it please ((silent reading))(47.0)Finished?=  
=YES*
- 412 L2 *=YES*
- 413 T *Good. Anybody else? (3.0)*
- 414 L3 *finished. (1.0)*
- 415 T *good. > So what is the main idea? <  
((looking at L2))*
- 416 L2 *The first sentence “You have dreams every night, even if you don’t remember them.” (2.0)*
- 417 T *we::ll=*
- 418 L4 *=no, “theories about why we dream”.*
- 419 L2 *no, that is the second sentence.*
- 420 T *That’s right. ((Looking at L2))  
Look, Maryam. Topic sentence is not always the first sentence. It can come in the middle or at the end of the paragraph in case it is explicit. Just take a look at the body. There are two important transition markers at the beginning of the sentences. What are they? (2.0)*
- 421 L3 *Excuse me, two what?*
- 422 T *Transition markers, two words at the beginning of the sentences.*
- 423 L4 *‘one is that’ and ‘another is that’*
- 424 T *Good. What do they refer to?*
- 425 L4 *‘theories about why we dream’=*
- 426 T *=Exactly. Then the topic sentence is not always the first sentence.*

After identifying the main idea of the third paragraph, the teacher asks learners to read the next paragraph individually and find its topic sentence (turn 411). She gives learners time to do the task and checks its completion

(turns 411 and 413). Then, she nonverbally nominates L2 who has emphatically announced her willingness to take the floor for the second part of the adjacency pair. However, the teacher's interactional practices of implementing wait-time (Rowe, 1974; Yaqubi & Pourhaji, 2012) after L2's response and the lengthening the vowel sound of the word 'well' in turn 417 renders the second pair part as a dispreferred contribution (Schegloff, 2007) in need of further clarification and expansion. The unfolded sequence, from turn 416 onwards, evolves from L2's misperception of the topic sentence being always the first sentence. To clear up the misperception, the teacher raises learners' consciousness about how to benefit from the rhetorical devices, i.e., transition markers, used in supporting sentences to come up with the main idea of the paragraph.

**Meaning-Oriented Context.** Learners have worked in pairs on part A of an oral communication task and discussed controversial issues listed in their Top Notch student's book based on a given conversation model.

#### Extract 4

388 T Part B, "Discuss another issue, giving reasons to support your opinion." Well we, boys, haven't talked about an important issue.> How do you feel about compulsory military service? <

389 L2 military service is not bad=

390 T =How come?

391 L2 I finished my military service in Shiraz ((a city in the southern part of the country)) three years ago. I have a lot of friends from Shiraz now =

392 L4 =I agree with Saman. (3.0)

393 L3 but you can't see your other friends or send messages to them.

394 L2 No, there is a telephone there.

395 L4 and your friends can come to see you if they want.

396 T ↓yes, and we boys cannot hang out with friends at any time we'd love to=

- 397 L6        *=teacher, do you think just boys should go to military service?*
- 398 T        *we:ll, \$that's a difficult question\$ (.) but I think yes=*
- 399 L6        *=why?*
- 400 T        *because it is both physically and mentally difficult for women.*
- 401 L6        *but a lot of countries have very good female soldiers better than men=*
- 402 T        *=Yes, you're right, >but I still think being a soldier is difficult for women.<*

To introduce a new activity (Part B), the teacher asks the whole class a referential question prompted by the book with quickened pace in turn 388. L2 self-selects himself, takes the floor and makes a contribution. The teacher asks a follow-up question in turn 390 to have L2 expand and elaborate on his contribution. L4 latches onto L2's turn and announces agreement (392). The teacher's withdrawal from providing the F move of the sequence after L4's contribution led to the expansion of the sequence. In other words, the teacher does not close the sequence by his feedback; rather, he implements, knowingly or unknowingly, post-response wait-time of three seconds and thus paves the way for the structuring of learner-learner interaction (turns 393-395). The sequence is closed later with the teacher's content feedback in turn 396. At the end of turn (396), there is a period which indicates a falling intonation and a possible completion of turn constructional unit (TCU). In other words, the period is a transition-relevant point (TRP) which gives the green light to speaker transition (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974). Orienting to this interactional rule, L6 initiates a turn by moving out of IRF sequences to pose a subtopic (turn 396). In a reversal of roles, L6 holds the floor, becomes the initiator of the sequences with the teacher providing responses and the learner giving feedback on the teacher's responses.

### Distribution of Contexts

Upon identifying the interactional contexts emerging from materials in use, the whole data were revisited to measure the distribution of each context in the two types of materials. To do so, the duration of each context was timed in minute for both the locally-designed (ILI) and globally-designed (Top Notch) materials (table 1).

Table 1

*Duration and Percentage of Interactional Contexts in the two Series*

Contexts	Materials	Duration (Min.)	Percentage (%)
<b>Management-Oriented</b>	ILI	14.87	17
	Top Notch	12.70	14
<b>Form-Oriented</b>	ILI	36.30	40
	Top Notch	18.63	21
<b>Skill-Oriented</b>	ILI	25.37	28
	Top Notch	27.90	31
<b>Meaning-Oriented</b>	ILI	13.46	15
	Top Notch	30.77	34
<b>Total</b>		90	100

As shown in Table 1, management-oriented context constituted nearly 17 percent (14.87 min.) of interaction in classes with the locally-designed materials and nearly 14 percent (12.70 min.) in those with the globally designed materials. Around 40 percent of interaction in ILI classes and 21 percent of interaction in Top Notch classes entailed form-oriented context. Skill-oriented context comprised approximately 28 percent (25.37 min.) and 31 percent (27.90 min.) of interaction in classes with ILI and Top Notch, respectively. Finally, about 15 percent (13.46 min.) of interaction in ILI classes and 34 percent (30.77 min.) of interaction in Top Notch classes were devoted to meaning-oriented context.

The locally-designed series tended to structure, to a larger extent, turn-taking sequences tightly controlled by the teacher with the pedagogic

goals of managing the class and practicing and developing formal accuracy. Skill-oriented and meaning-oriented contexts, which entail ample learner space, emerged to a larger extent from the globally-designed series.

Whether the differences between the two types of materials are statistically significant or not will be discussed below in the next section.

### Effect of Materials: Statistical Analysis

A one-way repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to compare the distribution of interactional contexts in EFL classes using locally- and globally-designed materials. The within-group independent variable was materials with two levels (Materials 1: ILI as locally-designed & Material 2: Top Notch as globally-designed). Management-oriented, form-oriented, skill-oriented and meaning-oriented contexts were the four dependent variables and were all measured on an interval scale (in minute).

To reduce the risk of Type 1 error, a Bonferroni adjustment was applied and thereby a more stringent alpha value (.012) was set. Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure no violations of the assumptions of normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and multicollinearity (table 2).

Table 2

#### *Multivariate Test of Significance*

Within Subjects Effect	Value	F	df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	
<b>Materials</b>	Pillai's Trace	.983	5.275	3	27	.000	.983
	Wilk's Lambda	.017	5.275	3	27	.000	.983
	Hotelling's Trace	58.611	5.275	3	27	.000	.983
	Roy's Largest Root	58.611	5.275	3	27	.000	.983

As shown in Table 2, multivariate test of significance showed a substantial main effect for materials on the combined dependent variables, Pillai's Trace = .983,  $F(3, 27) = 5.275$ ,  $p = .000$ , partial eta squared = .98.

Within-subjects univariate analyses indicated that there was a significant difference with a very large magnitude in the distribution of all four interactional contexts, (table 3).

Table 3

*Effect of Materials on Interactional Contexts*

Effect	Dependent Variables	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
<b>Materials</b>	Manage	70.417	1	70.417	49.706	.000	.632
	Form	4681.667	1	4681.66	579.381	.000	.952
	Skill	96.267	1	96.267	9.909	.004	.255
	Meaning	4489.350	1	4489.35	1.313	.000	.978

*Mean Length of Time between Materials is represented in table 4 below.*

As shown in the above table, management-oriented context,  $F(1, 29) = 49.706$ ,  $p = .000$ ; partial eta squared = .63, form-oriented context,  $F(1, 29) = 579.381$ ,  $p = .000$ ; partial eta squared = .95, skill-oriented context,  $F(1, 29) = 9.909$ ,  $p = .004$ ; partial eta squared = .25, and meaning-oriented context,  $F(1, 29) = 1.313$ ,  $p = .000$ , partial eta squared = .98, between the two types of materials.

Table 4

*Mean Length of Time between Materials*

Contexts	Materials	N	Mean	SD
<b>Management-oriented</b>	ILI	30	14.87	1.28
	Top Notch	30	12.70	1.05
<b>Form-oriented</b>	ILI	30	36.30	2.57
	Top Notch	30	18.63	2.52
<b>Skill-oriented</b>	ILI	30	25.37	2.97
	Top Notch	30	27.90	3.29

Contexts	Materials	N	Mean	SD
Meaning-oriented	ILI	30	13.46	1.33
	Top Notch	30	30.77	2.47

An inspection of the mean length of time showed longer sustenance of skill-oriented in classes with Top Notch ( $M = 27.90$ ,  $SD = 3.29$ ) than classes with ILI materials ( $M = 25.37$ ,  $SD = 2.97$ ). Meaning-oriented context was sustained longer in classes with Top Notch ( $M = 30.77$ ,  $SD = 2.47$ ) than those with ILI ( $M = 13.46$ ,  $SD = 1.33$ ). Longer management-oriented ( $M = 14.87$ ,  $SD = 1.28$ ) and form-oriented ( $M = 36.30$ ,  $SD = 2.57$ ) contexts unfolded from ILI materials than the respective contexts, ( $M = 12.70$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ) and ( $M = 18.63$ ,  $SD = 2.52$ ) from Top Notch. These findings suggest that the globally-designed materials, i.e., Top Notch, inherently structure more learner participation opportunities than the locally-designed materials, i.e., ILI.

### Effect of Materials: Discourse-Oriented Analysis

To uncover what it was in the two materials that led to differences in levels of learner participation, meaning-oriented contexts prompted by both materials were revisited using conversation analysis. Analyses of the transcripts revealed that the materials influenced the organization of classroom discourse (van Lier, 1998) which refers to its structural features, the way it is constructed and controlled, and its quality and quantity (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013). Although the ‘type of discourse’ prompted by the two materials were found to be similar, i.e., conversations and discussions of the themes in the materials, ‘emergent affordances’ of the materials for learner participation were found to be different. The difference lays in the interaction between topics or content of the materials and the learners (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013). Young Iranian EFL learners of the study showed interest in sociopolitical issues like justice, equality, democracy, freedom, etc. The texts and tasks within the globally-designed material were in line with their interests, tapped into their social, political, environmental, and economical sensitivities and stimulated them to have contributions, make initiations, control the discourse and pose subtopics. Local materials developers, however, seem to refrain from

focusing on sociopolitical issues and thus base the content of ELT materials on 'neutral' issues such as health, sleeping, brain, etc.

Ample instances of change in learners' interactional practices due to change of (topics or) materials could be detected in the corpus. In what follows, two extracts are presented showcasing two learners, *Shayan* and *Payam* (pseudonyms), who exhibited in practice different orientations toward the issues prompted by the two types of materials.

### Extract 5

#### Discourse Prompted by the Locally-Designed Material

- 234 T *Now the next question. Everybody, >“how do you try to keep in shape?”<*  
*(2.0)((looking at L2 and nodding))*
- 235 L2 *exercise*
- 236 T *EXERcise, good. How often do you do exercise?*
- 237 L2 *Twice a week*
- 238 T *Twice a week, good. Shayan, what do you do exactly?*
- 239 L2 *jogging*
- 240 T *alone?*
- 241 L2 *sometimes*
- 242 T *and sometimes with a ↑friend*
- 245 L2 ↓*yes*
- 246 T ↓*ok, who else? Raise your hands.*  
*(2.5)*  
*((looking at learners)) Who tries to keep in shape?*  
*((Looking at L3))*  
*(3.0) Payam*
- 247 L3 *yes=*
- 248 T *=do you try to keep in shape?*
- 249 L3 °*oh, no. I talked about it.*°
- 250 T *pardon*
- 251 L3 *every term I talk about sport, exercise*
- 252 T *\$you've got tired of the topic\$ ((laughs))*
- 253 L1 *Excuse what is “index”?*
- 254 T *“calculate the index”. Index means number ...*



Extract 5 has been taken from the ILI book, unit two (page 25). The teacher addresses with quickened pace the whole class a question posed by the book. Although wait-time of two seconds happens after the teacher's invitation to reply, nobody seizes the turn. The teacher changes his turn allocation strategy and nonverbally nominates L2 (*Shayan*, a 24-year-old learner) to reply. The unfolding turns (235-246) follow the IRF exchange structure. By employing follow-ups and emphatic stress on prior learner contributions, the teacher tries to encourage L2 to take the floor and expand his contributions, but L2 makes just lexical and phrasal responses (Fox & Thompson, 2010). In turn 246, the teacher asks the question again and makes an invitation to bid (Mehan, 1979). When nobody self-selects himself at the next speaker, the teacher nominates L3 (*Payam*, a 19-year-old learner). L3 expresses in sotto voce his unwillingness to talk about the issue in turn 249 and expresses the reason later in turn 251. Finally, L1's initiation in turn 253 closes down the sequence and the meaning-oriented context is switched to focus on forms by the teacher's provision of the second pair part.

### Extract 6

#### *Discourse prompted by the globally-designed material*

- 678 T        ↓ok. Next question, "Are there places where certain  
                  clothes would be inappropriate?"
- 679 L5        for men or ↑women
- 680 T        first for men
- 681 L3        casual inappropriate everywhere
- 682 T        \$but you have casual clothes on right now\$
- 683 L3        here no problem. I was at University some days ago. I  
                  wanted to enter, but there was somebody (1.0)((borrowing  
                  a word from L1)) negahban(guard) at the door said no to  
                  me. He said go change your clothes=
- 684 T        = what did you have on?
- 685 L3        a T-shirt with a picture. It was my favorite singer.
- 686 T        [ Uh huh ]

- 687 L2 *I think in some universities in other countries (.)force students wear formal=*
- 688 T *=Yes, suit with a tie*
- 689 L3 *ok I want to wear tie. ((looking at the teacher)) can I wear a tie?*
- 690 T *we:::ll, umm \$no\$ ((laughter))*

Extract 6 depicts the same teacher and the same learners but this time with the globally-designed material in use. The class is discussing a list of questions on “cultural awareness” (unit one, page nine). The teacher asks the questions, listed in the book, one by one and learners respond. The teacher asks the whole class a question on clothing customs in the country (turn 678). At this time, L3 (*Payam*) who preferred not to talk in the previous extract self-selects himself as the next speaker and makes a contribution to discourse (turn, 681). L3 supports his contribution by taking the floor and telling the class a memory (turn 683). In turn 686, as the teacher is uttering the discourse marker “uh huh” to project further talk by L3, an overlapped talk breaks the IRF sequence. *Shayan* (L2) moves out of the IRF sequence, initiates a turn (687) and poses a subtopic (Slimani, 1989). The teacher latches onto L2’s turn and confirms his contribution. However, the second pair part provided by the teacher was dispreferred for L3 as he overtly disagrees with the teacher, exercises agency in the post-expansion sequence (Jacknick, 2011) and challenges the teacher with a question (turn 689).

### Discussion and Conclusions

In this paper, the researchers attempted to empirically measure a universal criterion for materials evaluation, i.e. learning opportunities, in a locally- and a globally-designed ELT materials. They adopted the definition of learning as participation within Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory and utilized conversation analysis to examine how participation opportunities are created in classroom interaction, embedded in interactional patterns, and structured at different levels by different materials. Examining turn-taking sequences together with moment-by-

moment pedagogic goals of 30 teachers' naturally-occurring classroom interaction led to the identification of four interactional contexts, i.e., management-oriented, form-oriented, skill-oriented, and meaning-oriented, prompted by and emerging from both the locally- and the globally-designed materials. The interactional features and the pedagogic goals of each context were illustrated via extracts from the data. Examining the distribution of contexts between the two types of materials revealed that management-oriented and form-oriented contexts, which naturally structure teacher-fronted interaction with little learner participation, were sustained significantly longer while using the locally-designed material. The globally-designed material in-use tended to unfold significantly longer skill-oriented and meaning-oriented contexts suggesting higher levels of built-in learner participation potential.

From a methodological perspective, this study contributes to the growing recognition that checklists alone fail to capture the complexity of materials evaluation (Mukundan & Ahour, 2010; Tomlinson, 2012). Many scholars and practitioners of the field have concentrated on the development of evaluation criteria (McGrath, 2002; Rudby, 2003; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004; Wallace, 1998). However, what has been 'too vague to be answerable' in the literature are not the evaluation questions listed in checklists, but the procedure to find answers to the questions. How to measure a criterion requires its own specific methodological framework. This study showcased the implementation of conversation analysis as a tool capable of portraying how concepts like learning opportunities deriving from principles of second language acquisition (SLA) are situated in minute details of interaction (Waring, 2008). Contrary to Walsh's (2012) suggestion that opportunities for learning are not based on materials but on interaction (Fernandez del Viso Roman, 2012), the researchers argue, deeply grounded in the data, that ELT material is one of the important factors that shapes interaction. Materials should be considered, according to Thornbury (2014, p. 109), "as a key factor in determining teachers' classroom decision-making". Teachers orient to materials in instigating and sustaining interaction. Tasks and activities included in materials can structure different degrees of

opportunities for participation and, by extension, learning. By pursuing CA-for-SLA and then pairing CA with quantitative procedures, this study demonstrated how the two types of materials provided different levels of learning opportunities.

In ideological terms, we conducted this study and compared the locally- and the globally-designed materials with the intention of making an attempt to legitimize local knowledge (Canagarajah, 2004). However, the findings of this study revealed that ‘periphery’ materials developers in Iran who are gaining and expressing louder voices are setting the scene for ‘banking model of education’ (Freire, 1970) in second language learning classes. The sustained structuring of management-oriented and form-oriented contexts from the locally-designed material of the study positions the teacher as the one who not only controls but also monopolizes classroom interaction. Although management-oriented and form-oriented contexts have their own unique contributions to classroom discourse and are not devoid of learner participation as indicated in Extracts 1 and 2, their pedagogic goals and interactional features are generous to the teacher and parsimonious to the learners in affording interactional space. The prevalence of these two types of contexts in classroom interaction ‘marginalizes’ the learners and prevents them from gaining ‘liberatory autonomy’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). In other words, learners seldom take initiatives, exercise agency, and drive their own learning because the IRF sequences within such contexts incarcerate learners’ interactional space. When learners get out of this ‘straightjacket’, they can actively participate in the collaborative construction of learning opportunities that cater not only to their linguistic needs but also to their social needs. However, as Kumaravadivelu (2006, p. 178) aptly asserted, “such a far-reaching goal cannot be attained by learners working alone; they need the willing cooperation of all others who directly or indirectly shape their educational agenda, particularly that of their teachers”. Therefore, teachers should make interactive decisions that are in line with the pedagogic goal of increasing learners’ participation opportunities (Walsh, 2002). Since the majority of teachers are living in “an era of textbook-defined practice” (Akbari, 2008, p. 647) in a sense that it is the textbook that determines

what and how to teach, their decision-making is influenced, to a large extent, by materials developers. As a result, materials developers are indirectly shaping the nature and quality of learners' participation in classroom discourse.

We hope that the findings of this study raise materials developers' awareness, particularly in periphery communities, about the importance of including texts, activities, and tasks that promote those contexts that inherently structure ample opportunities for learner participation. Materials developers in periphery communities, who have experienced for long the constraints imposed on them in the process of marginalization, should not have learners self-marginalize themselves. Now that these materials developers are expressing their voices and visions through materials due to the increasing space they are getting in the materials-development industry, they should remember that space is a "coveted commodity" (Waring, 2009, p. 818). Both teachers and learners need space. Materials should contribute to teacher development by helping teachers make "principled decisions about which texts and tasks to use and how to use them to the best advantage of their learners" (Tomlinson, 2013, p. 9). They should help teachers fine-tune their interactional decisions with the pedagogic goal of providing learners with ample interactional space for participation.

In closing, this paper is by no means exempt from limitations that can be regarded as indicators of potential research directions and need to be addressed in future studies. First, as one of the reviewers of this paper aptly pinpointed, examining interactions prompted by different units requires checking the difficulty level of the units since they can affect the level of learner participation. This paper, however, did not consider the difficulty level of the units and selection of units was on a random basis. Moreover, this paper examined a locally-designed ELT material in-use only in Iran. More studies should be conducted in other periphery communities about the status quo of learner participation evolving from the materials being developed and used in those communities. Furthermore, studies need to be conducted to explore teachers and learners' attitudes towards the locally- and globally-designed materials after they are exposed to both types. Last

but not least, learning opportunities embedded in interactional contexts emerging from materials in-use were explored through conversation analysis and investigated via quantitative procedures just in intermediate classes. Further research is warranted to study the relationship between learners' levels of language proficiency and built-in learner participation potential of ELT materials.

### Acknowledgements

This paper was orally presented at the American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL) 2016 conference in Orlando, Florida, USA. We would like to thank the three anonymous reviewers for their detailed and insightful comments. Finally, we are grateful to all teachers and learners who participated in this study.

### References

- Akbari, R. (2008). Postmethod discourse and practice. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(4), 641–652.
- Brown, D. (2014). The power and authority of materials in the classroom ecology. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(2), 658–661.
- Brown, J. B. (1997). Textbook evaluation form. *The Language Teacher*, 21(10), 15–21.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (Ed.). (2004). *Reclaiming the local in language policy and practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Candlin, C. N., & Breen, M. (1980). Evaluating and designing language teaching materials. *Practical Papers in English Language Education Vol. 2*. Lancaster: Institute for English Language Education, University of Lancaster.
- Cunningsworth, A. (1984). *Evaluating and selecting EFL teaching materials*. London: Heinemann.
- Cunningsworth, A. (1995). *Choosing your coursebook*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Daoud, A. M., & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). Selecting and evaluating a textbook. In M. Celce-Murcia & L. McIntosh (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 302–307). New York: Newbury House.

- Donato, R. (2000). Sociocultural contributions to understanding the foreign and second language classroom. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 27–50). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1997). The empirical evaluation of English language teaching materials. *ELT Journal*, 51(1), 36–42.
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fernandez del Viso Roman, V. (2012). Optimizing classroom interaction: An interview with Steve Walsh. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching and Learning Language and Literature*, 5(4), 69–74.
- Fox, B. A., & Thompson, S. A. (2010). Responses to wh-questions in English conversation. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 43(2), 133–156.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (M. B. Ramos, Trans.). New York: Continuum.
- Garton, S., & Graves, K. (2014). Identifying a research agenda for language teaching materials. *Modern Language Journal*, 98(2), 654–657.
- Grant, N. (1987). *Making the most of your textbook*. Harlow, UK: Longman.
- Guerrettaz, A. M., & Johnston, B. (2013). Materials in the classroom ecology. *Modern Language Journal*, 97(3), 779–796.
- Harwood, N. (Ed.). (2010). *English language teaching materials: Theory and practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Heritage, J. (1999). CA at century's end: Practices of talk-in-interaction, their distributions and their outcomes. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 32, 69–76.
- Heritage, J. (2005). Conversation analysis and institutional talk. In K. L. Fitch & R. E. Sanders (Eds.), *Handbook of language and social interaction* (pp. 103–147). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hutchinson T., & Torres E. (1994). The textbook as agent of change. *ELT Journal*, 48(4), 315–328.

- Islam, C., & Mares, C. (2003). Adapting classroom materials. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Developing materials for language teaching* (pp. 86–100). London: Continuum.
- Jacknick, C. M. (2011). But this is writing: Post-expansion in student-initiated sequences. *Novitas-Royal (Research on Youth and Language)*, 5(1), 39–54.
- Jefferson, G. (1983). Notes on some orderliness of overlap onset. *Tilburg Paper in Language and Literature, No. 28*. Tilburg, The Netherlands: Tilburg University.
- Jarvis, J., & Robinson, M. (1997). Analyzing educational discourse: An exploratory study of teacher response and support to pupils' learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 18(2), 212–228.
- Jolly, D., & Bolitho, R. (2011). A framework for materials writing. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials development in language teaching* (2nd ed., pp. 107–134). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kasper, G. (2004). Participant orientations in German conversation-for-learning. *Modern Language Journal*, 88, 551–567.
- Kasper, G. (2006). Beyond repair: Conversation analysis as an approach to SLA. *AILA Review*, 19, 83–99.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond methods: Macrostrategies for language teaching*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*. Mahwah, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Lantolf, J. P. (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2014). It's about time. *Modern Language Journal*, 98(2), 665–666.
- Littlejohn, A. (2011). The analysis of language teaching materials: Inside the Trojan horse. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials development in language teaching* (2nd ed., pp. 179–211). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Markee, N., & Kasper, G. (2004). Classroom talks: An introduction. *Modern Language Journal*, 88(4), 491–500.
- Masuhara, H., Hann, M., Yi, Y., & Tomlinson, B. (2008). Adult EFL courses. *ELT Journal*, 62(3), 294–312.

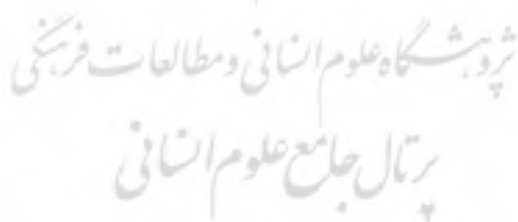


- McDonough, J., & Shaw, C. (2003). *Materials and methods in ELT*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- McDonough, J., Shaw, C., & Masuhara, H. (2013). *Materials and methods in ELT* (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- McGrath, I. (2002). *Materials evaluation and design for language teaching*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons: Social organization in the classroom*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Mukundan, J., & Ahour, T. (2010). A review of textbook evaluation checklists across four decades (1970–2008). In B. Tomlinson & H. Masuhara (Eds.), *Research for materials development in language learning: Evidence for best practice* (pp. 336–352). London: Continuum.
- Nation, I. S. P., & Macalister, J. (2010). *Language curriculum design*. New York: Routledge.
- Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Pourhaji, M. & Alavi, S. M. (2015). Identification and distribution of interactional contexts in EFL classes: The effect of two contextual factors. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning*, 7(15), 93–123.
- Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (2010). Series editor's preface. In N. Harwood (Ed.), *English language teaching materials: Theory and practice* (pp. ix–xi). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rowe, M. B. (1974). Wait time and rewards as instructional variables, their influence in language, logic, and fate control: Part 1. Wait time. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 11(2), 81–94.
- Roberts, J. T. (1996). Demystifying materials evaluation. *System*, 24(3), 375–389.
- Rubdy, R. (2003). Selection of materials. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Developing materials for language teaching* (pp. 72–85). London: Continuum.
- Sacks, H., Schegloff, E., & Jefferson, G. (1974). A simplest systematic for the organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language*, 50, 696–735.

- Saslow, J., & Ascher, A. (2011). *Top notch: English for today's world*. NY: Pearson Education Inc.
- Schegloff, E. A. (1993). Reflections on quantification in the study of conversation. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 26, 99–128.
- Schegloff, E. A. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction: A primer in conversation analysis*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Seedhouse, P. (2004). *The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Sheldon, L. E. (1988). Evaluating ELT textbooks and materials. *ELT Journal*, 42(4), 237–246.
- Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Skierso, A. (1991). Textbook selection and evaluation. In M. Celce-Murcia, (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 432–453). Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Slimani, A. (1989). The role of topicalization in classroom language learning. *System*, 17, 223–234.
- Tarone, E. (2014). The issue: Research on materials and their role in classroom discourse and SLA. *Modern Language Journal*, 98(2), 652–653.
- Ten Have, P. (2007). *Doing conversation analysis: A practical guide* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Sage.
- Thornbury, S. (2014). Correspondence. *ELT Journal*, 68(1), 109–110.
- Tomlinson, B. (2001). Materials development. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 66–71). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tomlinson, B. (2003). Materials evaluation. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Developing materials for language teaching* (pp. 15–36). London: Continuum.

- Tomlinson, B. (2010). Principles of effective materials development. In N. Harwood (Ed.), *English language teaching materials: Theory and practice* (pp. 81–108). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tomlinson, B. (Ed.). (2011). *Materials development for language teaching* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tomlinson, B. (2012). Materials development for language learning and teaching. *Language Teaching*, 45(2), 143–179.
- Tomlinson, B. (Ed.). (2013). *Developing materials for language teaching* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). New York: Bloomsbury Academic.
- Tomlinson, B., & Masuhara, H. (2004). *Developing language course materials*. Singapore: RELC Portfolio Series.
- Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Van Lier, L. (1988). *The classroom and the language learner*. London: Longman.
- Van Lier, L. (2000). From input to affordance: Social- interactive learning from an ecological perspective. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 245–260). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Vine, E. W. (2008). CA and SCT: Strange bedfellows or useful partners for understanding classroom interactions? *Discourse Studies*, 10, 673–693.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wallace, M. J. (1998). *Action research for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Walsh, S. (2002). Construction or obstruction: Teacher talk and learner involvement in the EFL classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, 6(1), 3–23.
- Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating classroom discourse*. New York: Routledge.
- Walsh, S. (2012). Conceptualising classroom interactional competence. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 6(1), 1-14.

- Waring, H. Z. (2008). Using explicit positive assessment in the language classroom: IRF, feedback, and learning opportunities. *Modern Language Journal*, 92(4), 577–594.
- Waring, H. Z. (2009). Moving out of IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback): A single case analysis. *Language Learning*, 59(4), 796–824.
- Williams, D. (1983). Developing criteria for textbook evaluation. *ELT Journal*, 37(3), 251–255.
- Wong, J., & Waring, H. Z. (2010). *Conversation analysis and second language pedagogy: A guide for ESL/EFL teachers*. New York: Routledge.
- Xie, X. (2011). Turn allocation patterns and learning opportunities. *ELT Journal*, 65(3), 240–250.
- Yaqubi, B., & Pourhaji, R. M. (2012). Teachers' limited wait-time practice and learners' participation opportunities in EFL classroom interaction. *Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 4(10), 127–161.



**Appendix A. Units under investigation**

Units	Vocabulary	Speaking	Grammar & Pronunciation	Listening	Reading	Writing
2	- Health & fitness -Performing at one's best	-Keeping in shape -Strategies to lose weight -positive and negative effects of stress -How to get ready for exams?	-Gerunds & infinitives -Sound reduction	-staying healthy -Listening for details -Classifying Information	-Exam fitness -Summarizing -Scanning	None
5	-Sleeping -At the airport	-Checking in at the airport -Dreams & nightmares Reasons for insomnia -Controlling import/export	-Active & Passive Voice -Stress to emphasize meaning	-Sleep IQ quiz -Listening for detail	-Sleep -Identifying main ideas -paraphrasing	None
7	- Brain Functions -Making a mistake -Discussing a movie	-Reasons for forgetfulness -Remedies for the forgetful -Dangers threatening brain	-Conditional sentences Types I, II & III -Assimilation & contraction	critics discussing a Movie -specific information	-I am your Brain. -Inference -summary	None
8	- Improving mental ability -Stress	- Signs of stress -Handling & reducing stress -Predicting the future -Reasons for feeling run-down	-Inverted forms -Intonation patterns	- Suggestions for reducing stress -Listen to associate	-Developing your psychic ability -Prediction -Context	None
1	-Manners & Etiquette	-Making small talk -Describing busy schedules -Cultural changes	-Tag questions -Past perfect -Rising & falling intonation	-Radio call-in show on etiquette Main ideas	-Formal dinner etiquette - Prediction	-Formal and informal emails
6	Reasons for changing plans skills & abilities	Career choice Change in plans Regret about past actions	-Future in the past -Perfect modals -Reduction of have in perfect	-Changes in life plan Interviews -Classifying	-Five most effective working habits - Using context	writing a short Autobiography
9	-Political terms -political & social beliefs -controversial issues -debating issues politely	-Discussing politics -Bring up controversial issues -Discuss issues politely -Propose solutions to global Problems -Debate pros & cons of issues	- Abstract idea non-count nouns -verbs followed by objects and infinitives -Stress to emphasize meaning	-Political & social beliefs -Listen to summarize	-Current world Problems -Activate language from a text -Using context -Critical thinking	-An essay on pros & cons of a controversial issue
10	-Geographical features -Describing possible risks - Describing natural world & environment	-Describing a location -Warning about a risk -Describing a natural setting -Discuss solutions to global warming	-Prepositions of geographical Place <u>Too</u> + adjective and infinitive -Voiced and voiceless th	-Safe & dangerous Places -A memorable trip -Listen for details -Summary	Choose clean energy Guessing meaning from context -Summary	-Describe your country, state, or province
<b>Locally-designed</b>						
<b>Globally-designed</b>						

**Appendix B. Transcription notation**

(.)	untimed perceptible pause within a turn
<u>underline</u>	stress
CAPS	very emphatic stress
↑	high pitch on word
.	sentence-final falling intonation
?	yes/ no question rising intonation
,	phrase-final intonation (more to come)
:	lengthened vowel sound (extra colons indicate greater lengthening)
=	latch (direct onset or no space between two unites)
→	highlights point of analysis
[ ]	overlapped talk; in order to reflect the simultaneous beginning and ending of the overlapped talk, sometimes extra spacing is used to spread out the utterance
°soft°	spoken softly/ decreased volume
> <	increased speed
( )	(empty parentheses) transcription impossible
(words)	uncertain transcription
(3)	silence; length given in tenth of a second
\$words\$	spoken in a smiley voice
(( ))	comments on background, skipped talk or nonverbal behavior
{(( )) words.}	{ } marks the beginning and ending of the simultaneous occurrence of the verbal/ silence and nonverbal; absence of { } means that the simultaneous occurrence applies to the entire turn.
L1: L2: etc.	identified Learner
T	teacher
"words"	words quoted, from a textbook for example