Classroom discourse in L2 English instruction

A video study of teacher questions and responses in lower secondary classrooms

Ingrid Handeland

Master's thesis in English subject didactics

Department of Teacher Education and School Research
Faculty of Educational Sciences

UNIVERSITY OF OSLO

Spring 2020

Classroom discourse in L2 English teaching

A video study of teacher questions and responses in lower secondary classrooms

Copyright © Ingrid Handeland

2020

Classroom discourse in L2 English teaching: A video study of teacher questions and responses in lower secondary classrooms.

Ingrid Handeland

http://www.duo.uio.no

Trykk: Reprosentralen, Universitetet i Oslo.

Abstract

There are documented learning benefits of having students engage in whole-class discourse when aiming for English language development. Previous research on second and foreign language (L2) development has shown how teachers use questions and responses to organize, monitor and motivate learners in whole-class discourse. In order to provide valuable information on how teachers of L2 English can provide students with opportunities for whole-class discourse, this master's (MA) study investigates *what is characteristic of teacher questions and responses* in eight purposefully sampled 15-minute lesson segments collected from 60 video recorded L2 English classrooms in Norway. The purpose was to examine whether this sample can reveal what types of questions and responses teachers use to give students opportunities for participating in beneficial whole-class discourse, and discuss whether the unveiled characteristics can be argued to give evidence of *dialogic teaching* (Alexander, 2017).

The segments of video recorded whole-class discourse that were observed and qualitatively analysed with an abductive approach in this study were sampled from a large pool of video recordings, collected as part of the Linking Instruction and Student Experiences (LISE) project at the University of Oslo. The video material had a priori received scores ranging from 1 to 4 by certified PLATO raters (Grossman, 2015), and these scores were used in the sampling of video segments in this MA study. The purposeful sampling procedure identified eight segments that had received the highest possible score (4) in the so-called Classroom Discourse element. These segments were found to portray whole-class discourse of high quality.

The findings of this MA study show that teachers offered a lot more responses (*n*=302) than questions (*n*=70) in the sampled whole-class discourse, and that these responses were mainly positive evaluations of student answers. Furthermore, there was an overall majority of *open* (40% of all teacher questions) and *authentic questions* (30%), which are characteristic of dialogic teaching. However, these types of questions were not evenly distributed throughout the sample of whole-class discourse. This study also reports on the large proportion of *positive vague evaluative responses* (30% of all teacher responses) and *revoicings* (29%), which were more evenly distributed throughout the segments, and argued to contribute to dialogic teaching.

Sammendrag

Det å få elever til å involvere seg i helkassesamtaler på engelsk gir dokumentert lingvistisk og sosialt læringsutbytte for deres utvikling av engelsk som andrespråk. Tidligere forskning på undervisning og læring av fremmedspråk har dokumentert hvordan lærere bruker spørsmål og respons for å organisere, styre og motivere elever i helklassesamtaler. For å bidra med verdifull informasjon om hvordan engelsklærere kan sørge for å gi elever mulighet til å delta i helklassesamtaler, undersøker dette masterprosjektet hva som kjennetegner læreres spørsmål og responser i 8 nøye utvalgte 15-minutters undervisningssekvenser, valgt ut blant 60 videofilmede engelsktimer i Norge. Målet med denne studien er å undersøke om disse undervisningssekvensene tydeliggjør hvilke spørsmål og responser lærere bruker for å gi elever mulighet til å delta i fordelaktige helklassesamtaler, og diskutere hvorvidt de avdekkede karakteristikkene portretterer *dialogic teaching* (Alexander, 2017).

Videoopptakene av helklassesamtalene som ble observert og analysert kvalitativt med en abduktiv tilnærming i dette prosjektet, ble valgt ut blant de mange videoene i Linking Instruction and Student Experiences (LISE)-prosjektet ved Universitetet i Oslo. Videomaterialet hadde i forkant av dette masterprosjektet blitt delt inn i sekvenser på 15 minutter, og kodet med et tall mellom 1 og 4 i ulike kategorier av sertifiserte PLATO-kodere. Disse kodene ble brukt i utvalgsprosedyren i dette masterstudiet. Det hensiktsmessige utvalget identifiserte åtte undervisningssekvenser med den høyest mulige skåren (4) innen Classroom Discourse-kategorien, som avbildet helklassesamtaler av god kvalitet.

Et av hovedfunnene i dette masterprosjektet er at lærerne gav flere responser (*n*=302) enn spørsmål (*n*=70) i de utvalgte helklassesamtalene, og flesteparten av disse responsene var positive evalueringer av elevenes utsagn. Det ble også avdekket et flertall av *åpne* (40% av alle spørsmål fra lærer) og *autentiske spørsmål* (30%), hvilke er ofte funnet i *dialogic teaching*. Disse spørsmålene var ikke jevnt distribuert over hele utvalget av helklassesamtaler. Dette studiet rapporterer også om en stor andel positive *vague evaluative responses* (30% av alle lærerresponser) og *revoicings* (29%) – disse var mer jevnt distribuert over videosekvensene og påstått å bidra til *dialogic teaching*.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Pia Sundqvist, at the Department of Teacher Education and School Research, University of Oslo. Thank you for all your insightful feedback, as well as your patience and encouragement when tested with my indecisiveness. I will miss our encounters through Zoom Video Communications. I would also like to acknowledge the Project leader of the LISE project, Lisbeth M. Brevik, for providing access to the project, and for all support and guidance throughout my study. Likewise, a special thanks to Bjørn Sverre Gulheim for invaluable help at the TLVlab at ILS.

I would also like to express my gratitude to Ulrikke Rindal for helping me assemble my ideas, and prompt my interest for spoken interactions in L2 whole-class contexts. Furthermore, I would like to thank project manager of the Protocol for Language Arts Teaching Observations (PLATO), Lindsey Brown, at Stanford Center for Education Policy Analysis, for providing me access to the scoring support for the observation manual. I am also very grateful to Emilia Andersson-Bakken, Associate Professor at Oslo Metropolitan University, for answering my e-mails regarding the question categories in my thesis, and to Chief editor at Lunde publishing, Katrine Masvie, for proofreading my thesis.

There is no denying that the final semester (Spring 2020) of writing this thesis has been somewhat different than I expected. The coronavirus pandemic put an abrupt halt to long days with study companions at the Faculty of Educational Sciences. Thank you to everyone who has helped me stay sane when confined to my room in 'Sorgenfri'. Thank you to my family for encouragement and food supplies, and 'Lunsjgruppa 11.30' for academic and social companionship via Microsoft Teams. I am especially grateful to my flatmates, Kristine Mongstad and Sigrid Halsos, for all shared meals, card games, and laughter.

Finally, I would like to offer my deepest gratitude to Eirik Odén Evertsen. Thank you for helping me broaden my perspective.

Oslo, June 2020,
Ingrid Handeland

Table of contents

1 Introduction 1

1.1 The LISE project 1

1.2 The English subject curriculum 2

1.3 Oral English in whole-class settings 3

1.4 Aim and research questions 4

1.5 Outline of the thesis 5

2 Theory and previous research 6

2.1 A sociocultural approach to second language learning 6

2.2 Whole-class discourse 7

2.3 Monologic and dialogic teaching 8

2.3.1 Monologic teaching 9

2.3.2 Dialogic teaching 10

2.3.3 Why aiming for dialogic teaching in second language instruction? 11

2.4 Mediation of whole-class discourse 12

2.4.1 The teacher in SLA whole-class discourse 12

2.4.2 Types of teacher questions 14

2.4.3 Types of responses 15

2.5 Previous research 17

2.6 Summary of theory chapter 21

3 Methodology 22

3.1 Research design 22

3.2 Sampling 26

3.2.1 Phase one: Overview 26

3.2.2 Phase two: Accessing and examination of the PLATO scores 27

3.2.3 Phase three: Operationalisation and identification of whole-class discourse 29

3.3 Data material 31

3.3.1 LISE data 31

3.3.2 Reuse of qualitative video data and secondary analysis 31

3.4 Video observation 32

3.5 Analysis 33

3.5.1 Analysis 1: Inductive thematic analysis 33

3.5.2 Analysis 2: Theoretical thematic analysis 35

3.6 Research credibility 40

3.6.1 Validity 40

3.6.2 Reliability 43

3.6.3 Ethical considerations 44

3.6.4 Limitations of this MA study 45

4 Findings......46
4.1 Teacher questions in whole-class discourse......46
4.1.1 Overview of distribution of questions......47
4.1.2 Open questions......48
4.1.3 Authentic questions......50
4.1.4 Closed questions......53
4.1.5 Quasi-authentic questions......54
4.1.6 Summary of teacher questions......55
4.2 Teacher responses in whole-class discourse......56
4.2.1 Overview of response distribution......56
4.2.2 Vague evaluative responses......58
4.2.3 Revoicings......59
4.2.4 Neutral responses......60
4.2.5 Uptake......61
4.2.6 Other responses......62
4.2.7 Specific evaluative responses......65
4.2.8 Summary of teacher responses......66
4.3 Summary of findings chapter......67
5 Discussion......68
5.1 Does whole-class discourse portray teacher questions and responses characteristic of dialogic teaching?......68
5.1.1 Teacher questions and dialogic teaching......68
5.1.2 Teacher responses and dialogic teaching......69
5.1.3 More teacher responses than questions......72
5.2 Why does the teacher Ylva stand out?......73
5.3 Characteristics of the sampled whole-class discourse......75
5.4 Didactic implications......76
6 Conclusion......78
6.1 Suggestions for further research......79
References......81

List of figures

Figure 3.1: Overview of the MA research design and how it is a part of the LISE project p. 26.

Figure 4.1: Distribution of teacher questions, represented according to segment ID and teacher ………..………..……………………..……..………..…..………… p. 49.

Figure 4.2: Overview of total distribution of teacher questions (*n*=70)………………….. p. 56.

Figure 4.3: Distribution of teacher responses, represented according to segment ID and teacher …………..……………………..…..……..……………..…..………… p. 58.

Figure 4.4: Distribution of other responses (*n*=34) ………………………………………. p. 64.

Figure 4.5: Overview of total distribution of teacher responses (*n*=302) ..…...…………... p. 67.

List of tables

Table 2.1: Dialogic teaching moves ……………………………………………….…... p. 19.

Table 2.2: Authoritative teaching moves ………………………………………….... pp. 19-20.

Table 3.1: Number of video-recorded English lessons (N=60) …………………….. pp. 27-28.

Table 3.2: Total sample of segments scored 4 in both sub-categories in the PLATO element *Classroom Discourse* ..………………………..…………………….. p. 31.

Table 3.3: Overview of analytical constructs in the theoretical thematic analysis of teacher questions in the sampled whole-class discourse …………………….. pp. 37-38.

Table 3.4: Overview of analytical constructs in the analysis of teachers' responses to student utterances ……………………………………………………….. pp. 39-41.

Table 4.1: Number of identified questions in each segment, represented according to teacher, grade, and segment ………………………………………….……….. p. 49.

Table 4.2: Number of identified responses in each segment, represented according to teacher, grade, and segment ………………………….....…………….. pp. 57-58.

1 Introduction

The sociocultural shift in educational research led to an increased validation of classroom discourse (e.g., Cazden, 2001; Halliday, 1993; Vygotsky, 1981; Wells, 1999). In order to identify instructional strategies with pedagogical value, there are multiple theories and research examining the characteristics of classroom discourse (e.g., Alexander, 2005; Freire, 1993; Mead, 1962; Nystrand, Gamoran, Kachur & Prendergast, 1997). The importance of interacting in the target language (i.e., English in this thesis) is also acknowledged within the field of second language learning. Talk gives students the opportunity to practice and acquire target language structures and experience in how to use the target language in communication (e.g., Nunan, 2001; Swain, 2000). Furthermore, studies of classroom discourse have found that the types of questions and responses teachers provide are highly influential for whether or not beneficial collaborative dialogue unfolds in the whole-class contexts (e.g., Andersson-Bakken, 2017; Nystrand et al., 1997; Swain, 2000). Nevertheless, many teachers find it challenging to create communication with and among students (see section 2.5), especially in whole-class discourse where students are supposed to speak their second language in front of the entire class (Tsui, 2001). With this as a backdrop, I will argue that L2 English teachers need more knowledge of how to pose questions and responses that encourage target language whole-class discourse. This is especially important in Norwegian classrooms, as there is limited empirical knowledge from this specific context (Rindal & Brevik, 2019; Howe & Abedin, 2013). Therefore, the aim of this master's (MA) thesis is to provide a description of teacher questions and responses that can be found in whole-class discourse where students are given opportunities to interact in L2 English. This thesis will contribute to an enhanced understanding of the field of whole-class discourse in the lower secondary (grade 9 and 10) English school subject.

1.1 The LISE project

At the Department of Teacher Education and School Research, University of Oslo (UiO), the aim of linking observation of naturally occurring teaching with students' perceptions of said teaching, generated the large-scale video study *Linking Instruction and Student Experiences* (LISE) research project, designed by professor Kirsti Klette and led by Lisbeth M. Brevik (Brevik & Rindal, 2020). The research team collected video material from teaching in six different subjects, at seven different schools, providing valuable visual and audial access to classroom instruction (Brevik, 2019). In order to examine whole-class discourse in L2 English

lessons within a Norwegian context, I was fortunate to be invited to participate in this project. I got access to video and audio recordings of 60 English lessons from grade 9 and 10 (ages 13-15), which made it possible to conduct a systematic sampling from a large-scale source of video material that was already coded, and ready for secondary observations, analyses and descriptions.

Furthermore, the LISE project gave me access to a priori categorisations of said video material. I used these in the sampling procedure of this MA study (see section 3.2). All the video material had been analysed and coded by trained and certified raters within the project, who utilised the *Protocol for Language Arts Teaching Observation* (PLATO) manual to assess the quality and quantity of classroom discourse within the video recorded lessons (Grossman, 2015). An identification and examination of all the video recordings that had received the highest possible score of 4 out of 4 in the Classroom Discourse element of the manual (i.e., portraying high quality classroom discourse) made it possible for me to sample lesson segments suitable for addressing the aim of my study.

1.2 The English subject curriculum

The benefits of interaction as a means for language learning are identified in both the current curriculum, ENG1–03 (UDIR, 2013), and the upcoming one ENG01–04 (UDIR, 2020). In this thesis, I refer to the 10th grade competence aims within both the current and the upcoming English subject curricula (ENG1-03 and ENG01-04), as these give reasons for why I chose to focus on whole-class discourse in L2 English teaching. The material used as data in this MA thesis was collected when the ENG1-03 was operative, while ENG01-04 will come into use in lower secondary school in August 2020. Both curricula are therefore relevant for my study.

The English subject curricula (ENG1-03 and ENG01-04) emphasise the appreciation for *classroom discourse* through focus on orality, communication and interaction. Oral competence and communication have been and remain “key competences” in the English subject, and both curricula emphasise the aim of having students use spoken English to produce meaning, as well as listen and understand others, in different settings. In essence, both curricula state that English education in Norway should provide opportunities for students to explore and interact in both written and spoken communication (UDIR, 2013;

2020). However, with the upcoming curriculum (ENG01–04) we get a structural change in the summative assessment of the English subject, and we will no longer have two separate grades for oral and written competence, respectively. The students in year 10 will get one grade on their overall English competence (UDIR, 2020). Nevertheless, there is a remained focus on oral communication and competence, both in the competence aims and in the core elements (UDIR, 2020). Therefore, one can argue that it is still important, and maybe even more so, to equip teachers with instructional strategies for whole-class discourse, to ensure that the teaching of oral competence prevails in English lessons, despite no longer having a natural focus in a separate oral grade. This thesis will offer characteristics of how some teachers have met the aim of oral communication in whole-class discourse up until now, which is valuable knowledge for anyone interested in English instruction.

1.3 Oral English in whole-class settings

Research done on whole-class teaching in classrooms both internationally (e.g., Burns, & Myhill, 2004; Dillon, 1990; Lyle, 2008; Hardman, Smith, & Wall, 2003) and in Norway (e.g., Dysthe, 1995; Haug, 2003; Imsen, 2003; 2004; Klette, 2003) show that whole-class teaching is a very common practice. There is also evidence that the teacher does most of the talking in these lessons (e.g., Aukrust, 2003; Bellack Hyman, Smith, & Kliebard, 1966; Cazden, 2001; Klette, 2003; Mehan, 1979), and previous research depicts plenary situations that lead to little student talk (e.g., Cazden, 2001; Einarsson, & Hultman, 1984; Mercer, 1995). This MA study has analysed lesson segments that had a priori been identified as portraying classroom discourse where teachers are supposedly succeeding in their mediation of whole-class discourse (see section 3.2 Sampling), in order to identify what characterise teacher questions and responses in whole-class discourse where students get multiple opportunities to communicate.

Rindal (2014) claims that the role of English in Norwegian settings has changed considerably due to “increased intra-national exposure and transnational travel” (p. 314). Norwegian learners’ level of oral proficiency might therefore exceed that of foreign language learners. This has granted the English language a status akin to a second language (English as a second language, L2) in Norway (Brevik & Rindal, 2020), and findings from research of whole-class discourse in other contexts (e.g., Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Cazden, 2001; Mercer, 2003; Nystrand et al., 1997) might quite understandably not hold for Norwegian L2 contexts.

Therefore, this MA study will give valuable insight into how whole-class discourse in English is mediated through teacher questions and responses in the distinct Norwegian L2 context.

1.4 Aim and research questions

The sampling procedure of this MA study (see section 3.2), resulted in the identification of eight 15-minute video and audio recorded segments from lessons in grades 9 and 10. These segments met the sampling criteria of portraying whole-class discourse that was deemed to be of high-quality (i.e. scored 4) by the aforementioned PLATO scorings. However, despite the fact that PLATO raters have identified these segments as portraying successful classroom discourse, I wanted to provide an overview of the video material that was qualitative in terms of overarching characteristics of such classroom discourse. Therefore, I examined instructional means (specifically teachers' questions and responses) that previous theory and research have deemed to be either beneficial or disadvantageous when teachers want to encourage students to participate in whole-class discourse. This MA study aims to provide an overall description of how teachers provide students with opportunities to participate in whole-class discourse scored 4, through posing questions and responding to student utterances in different ways.

The systematic observation of the eight video segments enabled me to answer the following main research question (MRQ):

> ***What is characteristic of the types of questions and responses teachers provide students with in whole-class discourse identified as high quality in L2 English (grades 9 and 10)?***

Furthermore, I decided to divide the overarching research question into two sub-questions for ease of observation, analyses and presentation:

> RQ1: *What types of questions do teachers pose in the sampled whole-class discourse?*
> RQ2: *How do teachers respond to student utterances in the sampled whole-class discourse?*

1.5 Outline of the thesis

This introductory chapter is followed by the theoretical framework for this thesis, chapter 2, in which relevant theory and research are presented. Chapter 3 conveys the methods and data utilised to answer the research questions, as well as the validity, reliability, ethical considerations, and limitations of the present MA study. In chapter 4, the main findings will be presented and illustrated, identifying the distribution and characteristics of the types of questions and responses teachers offer in the sampled whole-class discourse. The findings are subsequently discussed in chapter 5, which will also address the implications of the results from this study for the field of English didactics. The final chapter, chapter 6, presents the conclusions, as well as suggestions for further research.

2 Theory and previous research

This chapter will present the theoretical framework that has been utilized in this research project. It contains theories and previous research related to spoken English in whole-class discourse. English didactics in Norway is grounded in multiple academic disciplines (Rindal & Brevik, 2019) – my MA study is conducted in the same field of research and is consequently interdisciplinary by character. The main theoretical frames of references are derived from Alexander (2017), Cazden (2001), Mercer and Littleton (2007), and Nystrand, Gamoran, Kachur and Prendergast (1997) while theories and previous research from English didactics are mainly derived from Hall and Verplaetse (2000), Long (1981, 1996), Swain (2000), Tharp and Gallimore (1991), and Tsui (2001). Furthermore, this MA study was conducted within the sociocultural paradigm, and relevant perspectives of this theoretical framework are presented in the following section, 2.1. Section 2.2 will operationalise whole-class discourse, and give theoretically grounded reasons for my examination of these instructional contexts. Then, theory on dialogic and monologic teaching will be presented in sections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2. Such theory has informed my distinction between 'beneficial' and 'disadvantageous' characteristics of whole-class discourse. I will then provide the theoretical framework used in this thesis to validate the acclamation of dialogic teaching (2.3.3). Section 2.4.1 will provide a description of how teachers are responsible for mediating, monitoring, assessing, and organising whole-class discourse, through utilisation of the following instructional and semiotic tools: teacher questions (2.4.2) and teacher responses (2.4.3). The last section of this chapter (2.5) presents relevant previous research on whole-class discourse.

2.1 A sociocultural approach to second language learning

The examination of what types of teacher questions and responses reside in whole-class discourse, presupposes that interaction is beneficial for second language acquisition (SLA). This section will present why this MA study can be placed within the sociocultural paradigm.

In educational research, Vygotsky (e.g., 1978, 1986) has had a substantial impact on oral communication research. He developed the sociocultural theory at the beginning of the twentieth century, where he aimed at explaining human mental development. A paradigmatic shift in educational research evolved from his theory on how a learner develops 'intramentally' through 'intermental' interaction with a more capable interlocutor, such as a

teacher, within a *zone of proximal development* (ZPD) (e.g., Mercer & Littleton, 2007; Nystrand et al., 1997; Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky's theory on how learners develop their language through speech and other sociocultural activities, is supported by a wide range of research on language learning where more competent participants are involved in guiding and supporting the development (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). Vygotsky (1978) described language as a *tool for thought*, that learners can use when engaging with their external environment, for instance through communication in classrooms. These interactions enable language development, as they provide learners with opportunities to use the *tool for thought* to bridge the distance between the proficiency levels of the interlocutors through communication (Ahmed, 1994; Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2019).

In L2 research informed by sociocultural theory, spoken interaction in L2 is viewed as essential for development of learners' language proficiency (e.g., Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). Ortega (2011) called the development that followed the social shift in educational research a *social turn* in SLA research: a "long-ranging deployment of socially oriented reconceptualizations of second/additional language (L2) learning" (p. 167). The focus shifted from a cognitive to a social perspective on SLA, where knowledge was no longer considered an abstract entity existing and acquired only inside the mind of the learner, but rather depended on social actions and processes between interlocutors in dialogues (Ortega, 2009). Therefore, a central focus of studies on L2 research that is informed by sociocultural theory, is if and how learners use L2 when they interact. Rather than focusing on how the interlocutors in the sampled whole-class discourse use L2 English to interact, I have chosen to examine how the teachers give the students opportunities to communicate in English. I presuppose that these opportunities are beneficial for the students' L2 development, which is in line with sociocultural theory.

2.2 Whole-class discourse

Classroom discourse is commonly used about all oral interactions between teachers and students and among students in a lesson context (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). Despite this term (classroom discourse) often being used overarchingly to refer to all spoken classroom communication, I will refer to all the specific interactions between teachers and students in plenary as *whole-class discourse*. The chosen term, whole-class discourse, contributes to emphasize the scope of this thesis, which is to examine what happens in lessons where

students are requested to participate in classroom discourse in plenary. This section will state why whole-class discourse is crucial for students' L2 learning (cf. Hall & Verplaetse, 2000), and also how teachers use certain strategies to engage students in this kind of interaction (cf. Mercer & Littleton, 2007).

Hall and Verplaetse (2000) draws on socioculturally informed L2 research when arguing that "the role of classroom discourse in additional language learning is especially important", because it is in these settings that teachers and students interact and collaborate "to create the intellectual and practical activities that shape both the form and the content of the target language as well as the processes and outcomes of individual development" (p. 10). In other words, the development of the students' individual L2 competence is found to be dependent on the interactions in classroom discourse. In order to uncover strategies that improve L2 learning, researchers within a sociocultural approach should examine and describe classroom discourse (Mitchell et al., 2019).

The situatedness of spoken language in the classroom context is different from that of written language, which impacts how teachers mediate whole-class discourse. According to Bakhtin (1986), a single utterance in whole-class discourse cannot "be regarded as a completely free combination of forms of language", as this communication is dependent on the social structures in the classroom context (p. 81). In other words, participation in whole-class discourse is different from everyday conversation, and put restraints on both teachers' and students' oral participation (see section 2.4.1). Therefore, Mercer and Littleton (2007) argue that teachers need specific *strategies for talk* if or when they want their students to participate in whole-class discourse. Studies examining such teacher strategies in classroom discourse (e.g., Andersson-Bakken, 2015; Nystrand et al., 1997; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, 1992) have portrayed interactional patterns across lessons. In this MA study, characteristics of types of questions and responses, which have been argued and identified to produce effective teaching and learning, will be examined in light of the overarching acclamation of dialogic teaching. The following section (2.3) will present the characteristics of monologic teaching (2.3.1), and dialogic teaching (2.3.2), and give reasons for dialogic teaching being the main frame of discussion in this MA study (2.3.3).

2.3 Monologic and dialogic teaching

Descriptions of overarching patterns within whole-class discourse, do often differentiate between monologic and dialogic teaching. In this MA study, I will draw on theories that emphasise the benefits of dialogic teaching (see section 1.2, and e.g., Alexander, 2017; Nystrand et al., 1997; Cazden, 2001, Mercer & Littleton; 2007). Nevertheless, the patterns of monologic and dialogic teaching are not mutually exclusive within whole-class discourse, as these interactions are never only monologic or dialogic, respectively (Juzwik, Nystrand, Kelly & Sherry, 2008). I will therefore include descriptions of both categories.

2.3.1 Monologic teaching

Monologues consist of one-way communication (Andersson-Bakken, 2017), where the classroom discourse is clearly mediated and monitored by the teacher (Mercer, 2003). The power and control of the L2 interaction remain with the teacher throughout the whole-class discourse, and it is therefore also often referred to as authoritative teaching (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016). The characteristics of monologic whole-class discourse have been identified and described by multiple researchers, and these have been categorised and referred to as both reciting/recitative classroom discourse (e.g., Alexander, 2017; Nystrand et al., 1997), triadic dialogues (e.g., Lemke, 1990; Nassaji & Wells, 2000), initiation, response and evaluation (IRE) (e.g., Cazden, 2001; Mehan, 1979) and initiation, response, and feedback (IRF) (e.g., Cazden, 2001; Lyle, 2008; Mercer, 2003; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

Multiple researchers have identified the IRE/(F)-exchanges as the most characteristic teacher-students pattern of interaction in whole-class discourse (e.g., Cazden, 2001; Mercer, 2003). These exchanges consist of a “three-part sequence of teacher Initiation, student Response, and teacher Evaluation (IRE) or teacher Feedback (IRF)” (Cazden, 2001, p. 30). Cazden (2001) deems these exchanges the *unmarked pattern* or the *default option* of classroom discourse: “doing what the system is set to do ‘naturally’ unless someone makes a deliberate change” (Cazden, 2001, p. 31). In line with Cazden (2001), Lyle (2008) argues that this pattern constitutes as much as 60% of talk in classrooms. Lyle (2008) does also support the claim of how IRE/(F) exchanges create monologues which “focuses power on the teacher[, and] stifles dialogue and interactions between pupils and their ideas” (p. 225).

In contrast to the researchers emphasising how traditional IRE/(F) exchanges are mainly monologic, Neil Mercer (2003) argues that this pattern can have a range of different communicative functions in whole-class discourse. He acknowledges that educational

researchers have debated the forms and functions of these traditional exchanges. In line with Mercer (2003), I will not classify all exchanges that share characteristics with monologic teaching as inherently monologic, but rather examine what characterises the initiation (operationalised as teacher questions in my study) and evaluations or feedback (operationalised as responses in my study) identified within these overarching patterns (monologic or dialogic).

2.3.2 Dialogic teaching

Alexander (2017) introduced the "distinctive pedagogical approach called *dialogic teaching*" in 2004, when arguing that talk is "the true foundation of learning" (p. 9). All references to Alexander's work are made to his latest and fifth reprinted edition from 2017. Alexander (2017) examined and described what characterise teaching "in which talk is given the prominence" (p. 9). Mercer and Littleton (2007) acknowledge dialogic teaching as a beneficial approach to classroom discourse, and argue that it is both prescriptive and descriptive in demanding a restructuring of how teachers organise classroom discourse. According to Alexander (2017), whole-class discourse that are categorised as dialogic share five essential features. These dialogues are:

1. Collective: "teachers and children address learning tasks together, whether as a group or as a class, rather than in isolation;"
2. Reciprocal: "teachers and children listen to each other, share ideas and consider alternative viewpoints;"
3. Supportive: "children articulate their ideas freely, without fear of embarrassment over 'wrong' answers; and they help each other to reach common understandings;"
4. Cumulative: "teachers and children build on their own and each other's ideas and chain them into coherent lines of thinking and enquiry;"
5. Purposeful: "teachers plan and facilitate dialogic teaching with particular educational goals in view" (Alexander, 2017, p. 28)

These descriptions of the characteristic features of dialogic teaching, will be used in the discussion of the findings in this MA thesis (see chapter 5).

Swain (2000) is a renowned scholar on the importance of dialogues in second language acquisition. She identified and operationalised the benefits of mediating a *collaborative dialogue* in SLA. According to Swain (2000), the duality of language learning in speaking (or writing) resides in the opportunity to both use the language as a semiotic tool, as well as reflecting on linguistic choices: "Their 'saying' is cognitive activity, and 'what is said' is an

outcome of that activity" (p. 113). The duality of speaking and reflecting on semiotic choices, develops a learners L2 proficiency (linguistic knowledge). Swain (2000) labels these *knowledge-building* or *collaborative dialogues*, in which "language use and language learning can co-occur" (p. 97). I will link Swain's (2000) description of collaborative dialogues to Alexander's focus on dialogues as collective and cumulative. The collective and cumulative aspects of dialogic teaching entail that the interlocutors have to collaborate in order to reach a common understanding of the subject content of discussion. Despite *collaborative dialogue* being used more in some SLA research, I have chosen to use Alexander's operationalisation of *dialogic teaching* in this thesis because of the level of English proficiency in Norwegian secondary school (see section 1.3). I presuppose that I will not identify much discussion of linguistic choices in the sampled whole-class discourse, based on the high proficiency level of secondary school L2 learners in Norway (Rindal, 2010; Rindal & Brevik, 2019). Therefore, I find a discussion of whether the teachers' questions and responses in the sampled lesson segments give evidence of dialogic teaching highly relevant, as it will enable me to discuss and reflect on more aspects within whole-class discourse (not only these being collaborative), that have been identified as beneficial by multiple researchers (e.g., Alexander, 2017; Mercer, 2003; Mercer & Littleton, 2007).

2.3.3 Why aiming for dialogic teaching in second language instruction?

All whole-class discourse consists of both monologic and dialogic teaching, and it is important to emphasise that the overall aim of every L2 instruction should not be to always ensure dialogic teaching. However, language is fundamentally communicative (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000), and learning a new language is acknowledged as residing in sociocultural settings involving a more capable peer or teacher. Therefore, I will draw on Alexander (2017), Cazden (2001), Mercer (2003), Mercer and Littleton (2007) and Nystrand et al. (1997) when arguing that teachers of L2 English in Norwegian classrooms should try to incorporate the five features of dialogic teaching when mediating whole-class discourse.

Edwards (2003) states that the contrast between whole-class question-and-answer sequences (i.e. monologic teaching moves) and "whole-class dialogue, is that different and even competing ideas can be kept in play without being subjected to one participant's authoritative arbitration" (p. 40). The teacher encourages students to disagree, and allows them to pose problems instead of providing them with solutions.

Mercer (2003) posits that brief factual teacher answers in IRF exchanges will not give children suitable opportunities for practice, whereas being drawn into more extended explanations and discussions will. This is why 'whole-class dialogue' is considered "a valuable kind of educational experience" (Mercer, 2003, p. 76). In line with aforementioned theory, I argue that teachers should strive to pose questions and responses that encourage dialogic teaching in whole-class discourse if they want students to participate in interaction, for the following reasons:

1. Opportunities for extended explanation, dialogues and discussions will lead to more effective L2 learning, as learners construct their own deep understandings, rather than receiving information and instruction through recitation;
2. Dialogic teaching will empower students to engage in and construct their own L2 learning; and
3. Dialogic teaching will lead to theoretical disruption in the mind of the individual, because the students are provided with opportunities to situate their thoughts and understandings (Alexander, 2017; Mercer, 2003; Nystrand et al., 1997)

The incorporation of a dialogic teaching approach to classroom interaction will provide the students with opportunities to engage in meaningful dialogues beneficial for their development of both content and linguistic knowledge, and also empower them as L2 learners. When teachers mediate dialogic teaching in whole-class discourse, they conduct L2 learning *with* the students, instead of providing linguistic content knowledge *for* them. *How* teachers can facilitate dialogic teaching, however, will be elaborated upon in the following section (2.4).

2.4 Mediation of whole-class discourse

As mentioned above, this MA study argues that collaboration in whole-class discourse is beneficial for L2 learning within a sociocultural paradigm. In the classroom setting, there are two main groups of interlocutors, namely teachers and students. Section 2.4.1 addresses how the institutional role of the teacher impacts the mediation of whole-class discourse. I will then present theory on the different types of questions that teachers have been found to provide in whole-class discourse, and how these might impact whole-class discourse (section 2.4.2). Finally, section 2.4.3 depicts responses that are identified in whole-class discourse, and which can be linked to the features of dialogic teaching.

2.4.1 The teacher in SLA whole-class discourse

According to Cazden (2001) the natural roles of teachers and students create an asymmetry in classroom discourse, of which the greatest impact resides in the interlocutors' right to speak. Teachers are the ones expected to take on the role as mediators, and how they do so impact student engagement in the whole-class discourse (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000). Therefore, an examination of how teachers are found to utilise questions and responses in whole-class discourse, provide valuable insight into how teachers can use their institutional role to the students' advantage (i.e. ensure L2 learning gains).

Teachers have "the role-given right to speak at any time and to any person", they can interrupt a student if they want to, address any student whenever they like, and use their tone of voice, gestures and expressions as instructional tools (Cazden, 2001, p. 82). Teachers are also responsible for monitoring and assessing the student participation, in order to ensure equitable L2 learning opportunities for all students (Cazden, 2001). Therefore, teachers have to use tools of instruction to mediate "both the quantity and quality of opportunities the students will have to participate in and learn from" L2 communication in plenary (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000, p. 10). Teachers' awareness and enactment of this responsibility is crucial, and Mercer and Littleton (2007) argue that teachers are responsible for incorporating the right communicative approach for a particular topic, to ensure that "the dialogue supports the development of understanding for as many of the children in the class as possible" (Mercer & Littleton, 2007, p. 54).

Furthermore, Tharp and Gallimore (1991) argue that the aim of the teacher should be for the dialogue to appear spontaneous, despite being monitored by the teacher. As some students might fear speaking in front of the class, and especially in their L2, some teachers struggle to engage students in whole-class discourse. Therefore, dialogic teaching demands more of teachers than lessons with monologic characteristics do. Teachers mediating dialogic teaching have to expect and be prepared to have their opinions contested and opposed, while at the same time monitoring seemingly spontaneous whole-class discourse. In agreement with Tharp and Gallimore (1991), Nystrand et al. (1997) emphasise that these teachers have to abandon "the security of their roles as authoritative repositories and referees of unproblematic knowledge in favour of the more subtle and ostensibly risky roles of […] organizer of dialogue" (p. 89). Teachers mediating dialogic teaching do therefore need "a quite deliberate and self-controlled agenda", with "specific curricular, cognitive, and conceptual goals" (Tharp & Gallimore, 1991, p. 4). In order to uncover how teacher use instructional tools to

mediate their agenda, I examine teacher questions and responses, which both are found to impact whether whole-class discourse unfolds as dialogic or monologic teaching.

2.4.2 Types of teacher questions

One of the main instructional tools teachers use to mediate, monitor, and assess student participation in whole-class discourse, is questions. All utterances that ask the interlocutors to give a spoken reply on something that does not concern the topic of the previous speaking turn, are classified as questions (Myhill, 2006, see section 3.5.2). The teacher can pose questions for many different reasons, for instance, "to recall, elicit, probe, instruct, develop or manage" whole-class discourse (Alexander, 2017, p. 25). Throughout educational research, researchers and theorists have identified and labelled question categories, which operationalise the observed purpose of the different teacher questions in whole-class discourse. In this section, I will provide a theoretical overview of the categories that are used in the analyses employed in this MA study (see section 3.5.2): *open*, *closed*, *authentic*, and *quasi-authentic questions*.

Open and closed questions

Open and closed questions are often considered a mutually exclusive dichotomy. When a question is deemed *open* or *open-ended*, there are multiple ways to answer it, as there are many possible answers (Andersson-Bakken, 2017; Nystrand et al., 1997). *Closed* questions, on the other hand, are often posed in order to assess students' understanding of a subject matter, and there is only one possible answer to the question (Nystrand et al., 1997). In other words, both open and closed questions presuppose that the teacher has either one or more answer(s) in mind when posing the question. However, while open questions provide students with an opportunity to give different responses on a subject matter, closed questions do not allow contrasting opinions (Andersson-Bakken, 2015; 2017). Therefore, closed questions are often described as more authoritative than open questions, as the teacher controls what the students are expected to answer. Nystrand et al. (1997) use the term *test question* for these questions, because of the inherent element of assessment. A teacher who mainly asks closed questions therefore controls the subject content of the lesson, and appears to have a monologic approach to whole-class discourse. Lyle (2008) agrees with Nystrand et al. (1997) when confirming that closed questions are often identified in monologic IRE/F-exchanges, and argues that a majority of closed questions in whole-class discourse uphold the traditional institutional roles of whole-class discourse, and thus inhibiting dialogic teaching.

Authentic and quasi-authentic questions

All teacher questions that request students' personal opinions are categorised as *authentic* questions (Cazden, 2001; Nystrand et al., 1997). Teachers do not know what students will answer when posing this type of question, which renders them authentic (Nystrand, 1997). Authentic questions signal to students that the teacher is interested in their thoughts and opinions rather than their knowledge of a subject matter, for instance through asking: "How did this short story make you feel?". These questions have no restraint on what teachers consider right or wrong opinions (Nystrand et al., 1997). In other words, authentic questions invite students to resonate and reflect, rather than to answer what they believe the teacher wants to hear, or repeat something they have learnt (Andersson-Bakken, 2015; Lyle, 2008; Nystrand, 1997). Therefore, Nystrand et al. (1997) argue that authentic questions are more suitable for dialogic teaching, as they open up whole-class discourse for multiple as well as contrasting opinions.

Quasi-authentic questions, on the other hand, identify questions that have *one specific answer*, but where the teacher *adds a personal element to the requests* for this answer, for instance when asking, "What do you think could be the main plot of the short story?". The teacher could also ask, "What is the main plot of the short story?", which would be classified as a closed question. However, through the incorporation of the personal, "Do you think…?", the teacher allows students to talk from their own point of view, which supposedly make it less intimidating to participate in whole-class discourse (Dysthe, 1995).

2.4.3 Types of responses

The responses that are provided within whole-class discourse, are also found to impact if and how dialogic teaching unfolds. In the traditional pattern of IRE/F (initiation, response, and evaluation/feedback), *response* is used about students' contributions to classroom discourse (Mercer, 2003). However, I will use *response* as a general term for all teacher phrases that follow directly after a student utterance, which equals the feedback or evaluations in the IRE/(F) exchanges. If teachers want to create cumulative and collective whole-class discourse (cf. dialogic teaching, Alexander, 2017), they should respond in ways that encourage students to elaborate (Grossman, 2015; Nystrand et al., 1997). Do teachers follow up on students' utterances in a way that elicits more student talk, or do teachers' responses create a break of the dialogue? This section will present theory on the following types of teacher responses:

evaluation, *revoicing* and *uptake* of student utterances. As with the teacher questions, it is important to emphasise that the different responses are not mutually exclusive within whole-class discourse, but that the descriptions of patterns of responses enable a distinction between characteristics of monologic and dialogic teaching.

Evaluation of student utterances

One way that teachers respond to student utterances is as evaluative assessments of student comments. These responses consist of all teacher utterances that reflect teachers' opinions on whether or not a student message was correct, for instance: "No, Queen Elizabeth is not the ruler of all of the British Isles". Nystrand et al. (1997) argue that evaluations have to be more than "Right!" or "Good!" for these to elicit dialogic teaching: "The teacher must push the student's contribution further, validating it in such a way that it affects the subsequent course of the discussion" (p. 21). Nystrand et al. (1997) state that the topic and/or direction of the dialogue has to change after the response, in line with the previous student comment, for the evaluation to create dialogic teaching. When teachers incorporate evaluations that change the direction of the dialogue according to what a student said, he or she "notes the importance of a student's response in shaping a new understanding, and the course of interaction changes somewhat because of what the student has said" (Nystrand et al., 1997, p. 21).

The scholar behind the PLATO manual, Pam Grossman (2015), elaborates on the difference between *vague* and *specific* responses in classroom discourse. All responses that do not indicate what a student has done correctly or incorrectly are described as *vague* responses, for example, "Yeah" or "No" (Grossman, 2015). If a teacher provides students with specific descriptions of what was correct or incorrect in their utterances, these responses are categorised as *specific* (Grossman, 2015). In other words, specific responses both address the correctness of the student utterance, and give reasons for the evaluation. A teacher might, for instance, give the following specific response: "Yes, that is a great concluding statement, because you emphasize all the main arguments of your text".

Revoicing of student utterances

Teachers have also been found to *revoice* student utterances in whole-class discourse. This term, *revoicing*, is used about all teacher responses that recast "part or all of a student's utterance to clarify content, to reinforce new terminology, and to amplify students' contributions" through repetition or reformulation of the student message (Duff, 2000, p.

113). O'Connor and Michaels (1993) emphasise the sociocultural function of revoicings in IRE exchanges. They argue that these "moment-to-moment language practices may be linked with larger patterns of socialization" (O'Connor & Michaels, 1994, p. 331), which gives the students in whole-class discourse a more important voice in the classroom. Cazden (2001) draws on O'Connor and Michaels (1996) when arguing that revoicings are important in order to create dialogic teaching, as such responses foster community and support within whole-class discourse. The repetitions of student messages might create a common understanding based on both teacher and student perspectives, which can produce collaborative and cumulative dialogues (e.g., Cazden, 2001; Duff, 2000; O'Connor & Michaels, 1996). In other words, revoicings have been found to be beneficial for dialogic teaching, as they validate students' contributions and encourage a supportive, collaborative and cumulative classroom setting.

Uptake of student utterances

Grossman (2015) argues that the main type of response to produce elaboration in whole-class discourse are *uptakes of student utterances*. Nystrand et al. (1997) draw on Collin (1982) when defining *uptake* as follows: "when one conversant, for example, a teacher, asks someone else, a student, about something the other person said previously" (p. 39). In other words, teachers use uptake when incorporating the previous student response into subsequent questions. Nystrand et al. (1997) uphold that this is an essential dialogic recourse, because this type of follow-up on student utterances leads to validation of "students' ideas" (p. 6). In other words, this line of teaching encourages the students to continue engaging in the dialogue, because they believe that their contributions are valuable and/or they get a sense of being taken seriously (Nystrand et al., 1997). When the teacher takes on the answer from a student and asks a follow-up question directed at either that particular student or the whole class, the dialogue is continued in the direction of the student comment, and the students will most probably feel that their contributions were important and valued (i.e. high-level evaluation, Nystrand et al., 1997). Contrastingly, a student utterance followed up by "Good!" and no uptake, is more likely to create a break of the dialogue (Nystrand et al., 1997).

2.5 Previous research

This section will provide an overview of previous research that has influenced my MA project. These earlier studies include examinations of the difference between monologic and dialogic teaching, and studies of teacher questions and responses in whole-class discourse.

Nystrand et al. (1997) report on their large-scale research project, where they examined the "general effects of dialogic practices on achievement and learning" (p. 30). Through surveys and interviews, class observations, and hypothesis testing of a sample consisting of hundreds of eight and ninth grade lessons over two years in Great Britain, they created a comprehensive understanding of classroom discourse. The purpose of their research was to "investigate the effects of instructional organization on student learning, contrasting the epistemologies of recitation and discussion" (Nystrand et al., 1997), which makes their report of their research design and results highly relevant to the scope of this MA thesis. I have already drawn on some of their theoretical contributions, and will incorporate some elements from their results here. Nystrand et al.'s (1997) report depicts classroom discourse that was "overwhelmingly monologic" (p. 33), and they state that this reflects most previous studies "documenting the historical and widespread prevalence of recitation in American schools" (p. 42). Some of their reasons for concluding on a 'monologic majority', were that "teachers asked nearly all the questions, few questions were authentic, and few teachers followed up student responses" (Nystrand et al., 1997, p. 33). However, Nystrand et al. (1997) also identified classroom discourse portraying dialogic teaching, and through regression analyses they found this approach to be beneficial for students' achievement levels. The elements that were found to produce the beneficial dialogic teaching consisted of "time devoted to discussion, authentic questions, uptake, and high-level teacher evaluation" (Nystrand et al., 1997, p. 33). In other words, their research illustrates which instructional tools that are most influential when creating dialogues in classrooms. I have chosen to focus on teacher questions and responses in this MA study, which is also in line with the following research projects.

In a Norwegian context, a more recent study on teacher questions and responses was conducted by Andersson-Bakken (2015) as part of her research project for her doctorate in pedagogy. I will draw on the representation of her research (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016). The study presents how teachers were found to use questions and responses as instructional tools in whole-class sessions. Andersson-Bakken and Klette (2016) aimed to unveil how teacher questions "enable dialogue between teachers and students and support student learning" (p. 63). In their analyses, they used a framework influenced by Furtak and

Shavelson (2009), which distinguishes between so-called *dialogic* and *authoritative teaching moves*. Andersson-Bakken and Klette's (2016) analytical framework is presented in *Table 2.1* and *Table 2.2*. Their framework serves the purpose of operationalising authoritative and dialogic teaching moves.

Table 2.1: Dialogic teaching moves (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016, p. 69).

Dialogic teaching moves – teachers and students jointly construct narrative/discussion	
Asking 'real' or open questions	Teacher asks a question of a student or entire class to which the answer is not necessarily known or expected by the teacher.
Revoicing/reflecting student responses	Teacher repeats verbatim what a student has responded without changing or altering the meaning of the statement. Includes when a teacher repeats in a question-style format or asks student to clarify what she/he said, or to refer that comment to another student
Providing neutral responses to students	Teacher repeats student responses, or provides comments that do not indicate whether students' statements are correct or incorrect.

Table 2.2: Authoritative teaching moves (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016, p. 69).

Authoritative teaching moves – teacher controls course of narrative/discussion	
Cued elicitation of student contribution	Teacher asks questions while simultaneously providing heavy clues, such as the wording of a question, intonation, pauses, gestures, or demonstrations, to the information required
Sequence of repeated questions	Teacher asks the same/similar questions repeatedly to seek a particular answer, and continues asking the question/s until answer is provided by students
Reconstructive paraphrase or recap	Teacher recasts or paraphrases what students has said in a more complete or acceptable form, or in preferred terminology, including when teacher adds to or changes the meaning of what the student has said
Providing evaluative responses	Teacher clearly indicates, through words or intonation, that a student's comment is correct or incorrect.

I will draw on Andersson-Bakken and Klette's (2016) operationalisation of *neutral responses* and *evaluative responses* in my analyses of teacher responses (see section 3.5.2), and their distinction between dialogic and authoritative teaching moves is influential in my dichotomy between dialogic and monologic teaching. Furthermore, Andersson-Bakken and Klette's (2016) research project identifies patterns within the teacher questions and responses, which were important for my analytical work (see section 3.5.2 for details). The teachers were found to use questions as instructional tools more than responses, and they used almost as many dialogic as authoritative questions in their teaching (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016). The overall majority of teacher responses were also of a dialogic character, "thus providing opportunities for dialogue and student engagement" (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016, p. 81).

McCormick and Donato (2000) studied how an ESL teacher used questions in "a semester-long integrated skills ESL class in a university setting" (p. 187). They found that the teachers' questions, "when effectively used, enabled the students (novices) to achieve tasks they were not able to achieve alone" (McCormick & Donato, 2000, p. 196). Furthermore, they emphasized that teacher questions are more than elicitation techniques, and rather tools that can be used to mediate classroom interaction (McCormick & Donato, 2000).

Verplaetse (2000) reports on research on interactional patterns conducted by a middle school science teacher. This study is relevant to my thesis, because of the similarities in how teacher instruction was sampled in our respective studies. Verplaetse (2000) focused her attention on one of three teachers (teacher A), because this particular teacher used strategies to create "exceptionally high-quality class involvement" (p. 221). Similarly, I sampled lesson segments from a large pool of video material that certified raters had coded as portraying high-quality and quantity of classroom discourse (see section 3.2 Sampling). Verplaetse (2000) studied how the teacher was able to create an "interactive classroom during full-class, teacher-fronted discussion" (p. 224), through an examination of the following teacher moves of instruction: *initiation*, scaffold/initiation, *response*, and *feedback*. She reports on how more open-ended questions than closed questions were found with teacher A than with the other two teachers who were also participating in the study. Furthermore, teacher A issued as much corrective feedback as listening acts (response without evaluation), "unlike teacher B and C, who issued considerably more corrective acts [72% and 81%, respectively] than listening acts" (Verplaetse, 2000, p. 231). Thus, her research shows that an examination of teacher questions

and responses can shed light on why some teachers succeed in creating whole-class discourse where students participate, by using certain instructional tools (questions and responses) in their teaching.

My MA study has also been influenced by theory and methods from an MA study conducted within Norwegian didactics by Jahnsen (2017), who observed and analysed teacher questions and responses within video recorded whole-class discourse. She drew on Dysthe's (1995) large-scale research and theory on whole-class discourse, as will I when analysing for quasi-authentic questions (see section 3.5.2). Furthermore, I am influenced by Jahnsen (2017) when drawing on theory and research from Alexander (2017), Andersson-Bakken (2015), Andersson-Bakken and Klette (2016), and Nystrand et al. (2007). The findings from Jahnsen's (2017) thesis that I find most relevant for my study, is the overall identification of less dialogic than monologic questions and responses, and inherent differences in identification according to which teacher conducted the whole-class discourse.

2.6 Summary of theory chapter

This chapter has presented a sociocultural perspective on L2 learning, which emphasises the benefits of engaging learners of English in Norwegian secondary school in whole-class discourse. Furthermore, the two overarching categories of monologic and dialogic teaching within whole-class discourse were described, and the benefits of participating in dialogic teaching for L2 learners were presented. I also offered some theoretical reasons for my focus on the teacher as the main mediator of whole-class discourse, and how teachers can use questions and responses as semiotic and instructional tools to facilitate and monitor the whole-class discourse. Finally, I summarized research projects on whole-class discourse that have influenced my study. In essence, Nystrand et al. (1997) contribute with a theoretical framework, Andersson-Bakken and Klette (2016) influence my analyses and discussion, McCormick and Donato (2000) validate my focus on questions as important instructional tools in SLA whole-class discourse, Verplaetse (2000) validate my examination of seemingly 'successful' whole-class discourse, and Jahnsen (2017) contributed with an overview of relevant theories. The following chapter (Chapter 3) will present how this MA study was conducted (the methods and data that were used), give reasons for my choices, and address the validity, reliability, and ethical concerns of my research.

3 Methodology

The aim of this MA is to identify patterns that are observed to be characteristic of whole-class discourse scored 4 in the Classroom Discourse element in the PLATO manual, and discuss whether these patterns are found to portray dialogic teaching. This chapter will present and describe the methods that have been used when examining the main research question: *What is characteristic of the types of questions and responses teachers provide students with in whole-class discourse identified as high quality in L2 English (grades 9 and 10)?* Section 3.1 will present an overview of the qualitative research design. Then a thorough description of the sampling procedure is provided (3.2), as well as a presentation of the video data (3.3). Section 3.4 will address my choice of observing video data, and my role as a covert observer. Furthermore, the two steps of the thematic process of analysis will be outlined (3.5), and the credibility of the study will be addressed (3.6). This chapter will also present the ethical measures and regulations that have been taken into account in the present study (3.7), as well as some limitations that have been considered (3.8). All the methodological choices were made in order to answer the overarching research question through the two subordinate research questions in a valid, reliable, ethical, and efficient manner.

> RQ1: *What types of questions do teachers pose in the sampled whole-class discourse?*
> RQ2: *How do teachers respond to student utterances in the sampled whole-class discourse?*

3.1 Research design

This study makes use of a research method that mainly portrays a qualitative research design. However, section 3.2 will provide a thorough description of how I utilised quantitative data in the sampling of the qualitative data. I chose to use the quantitative material in the sampling process, because it made it possible to sample whole-class discourse that were identified as successful (PLATO score 4) by other researchers than myself (the benefits of this sampling strategy will be further addressed in section 3.2). However, because the qualitative findings in this research is based on my observations and analyses of video data, in line with Patton (2014), I argue that the overarching research design of this thesis is qualitative. Patton (2014) states that qualitative research makes use of methods that enable in depth observations of few and information-rich cases, which is what I do in this MA study.

All the data in this MA project is drawn from the material in the large-scale LISE project (Brevik, 2019). I used video data collected by others as my main data, and PLATO scores of the videos, conducted by certified raters, as a sampling device (see section 3.2). The material from the LISE project was collected and assessed by other researchers than myself, and therefore comprise secondary data in my study (Dalland, 2011; Creswell, 2014). In other words, I acknowledge that I have not participated in the collection of these video data, and might therefore have missed out on contextual information (Dalland, 2011).

The aim of this thesis calls for an *abductive approach* to the analyses. I used theoretical constructs in my analyses, which deems my approach deductive (Larsen, 2017; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). At the same time, I wanted to view the video material without predefined assumptions from theories and previous research, in order to be open for novel characteristics of the displayed whole-class discourse. In addition to examining both monologic and dialogic teaching moves, I therefore included examinations of the video material before applying the aforementioned theory, research, and coding manual. I also included "other categories" in my analyses, to allow for patterns that did not fit with a priori codes to emerge (i.e. inductively, Larsen, 2017; Miles et al., 2014). The duality in the analyses would make this an abductive approach (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 1994), as the observed patterns (derived both deductively and inductively) are described and juxtaposed with theoretical concepts from both the PLATO manual and previous theory and research, and because I constantly moved back and forth between the inductive and the deductive approach to the analyses. Denzin (1978) states that an abductive observer "records the occurrence of a particular event, and then works back in time in an effort to reconstruct the events (causes) that produced the event (consequence) in question" (pp. 109-110). In the present study, this reconstruction consisted of checking whether the presence of dialogic teacher questions and/or responses could be the reason why the segments of whole-class discourse had been deemed to be of high quality (score 4) by the certified PLATO raters. The analyses were conducted through two analytical approaches (more thoroughly explained in section 3.5):

Method 1: Inductive thematic analysis
Method 2: Theoretical thematic analysis

Overview of the research design of the present study:

1. Developing the research question.
2. Observing video recordings (LISE material).
3. Consulting PLATO ratings and identify relevant video segments.
4. Transcribing sampled video segments.
5. Analysing video data with codes derived both inductively and deductively, pertaining to RQ1 and RQ2.
6. Comparing and contrasting own findings with previous research and theory on dialogic teaching.

Figure 3.1 is a model of the research design of this MA study. It clarifies how this study is part of the LISE project, how I used the PLATO scores as a sampling strategy, and the video recordings from the project as data. The ellipses in the figure represent processes, squares signal data/tools/participants/findings, and arrows represent how data/tools/participants/findings were applied in a process. The purple colour signals video data, green colour signals procedural processes, and orange colour signals processed data/findings.

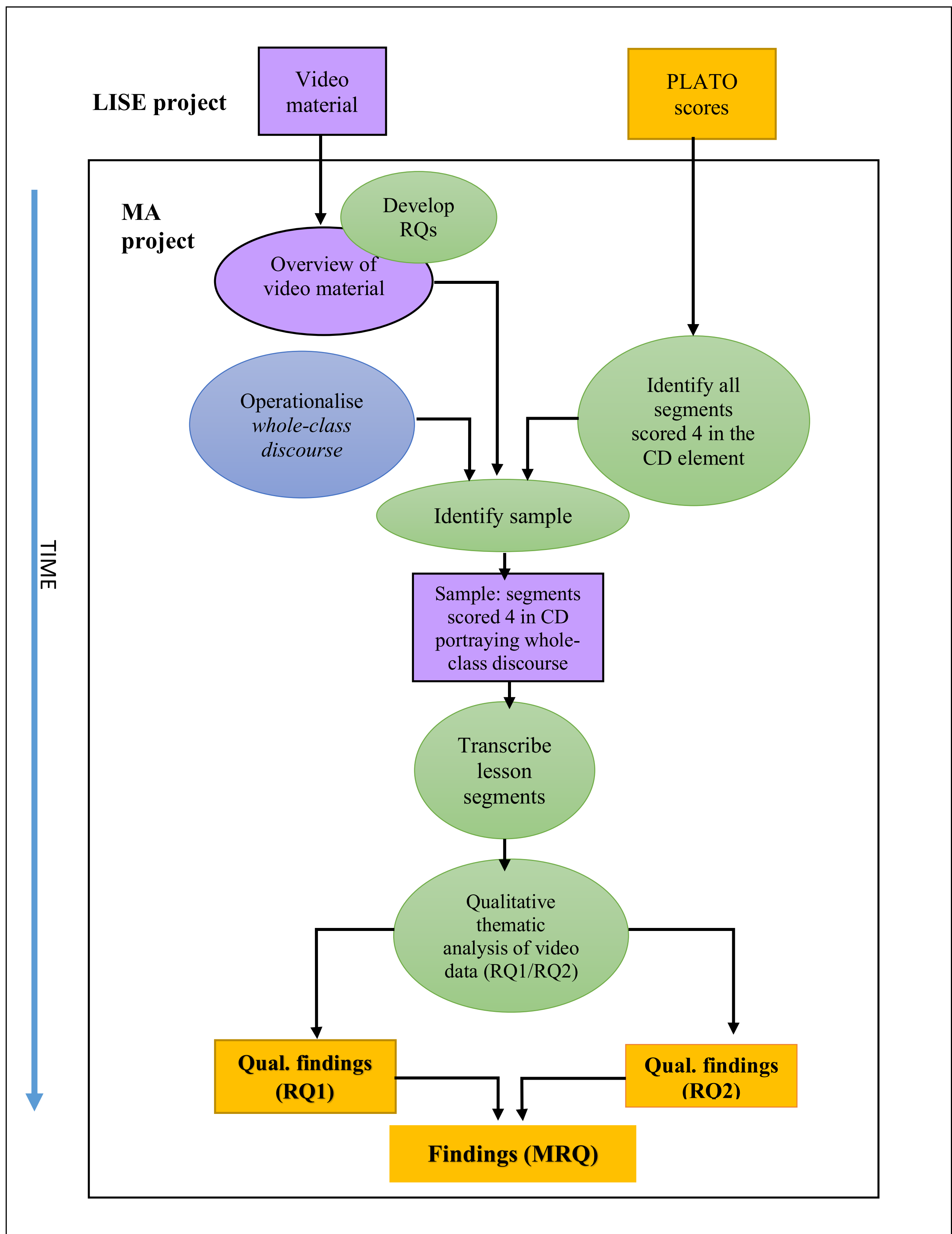

Figure 3.1: Overview of the MA research design and how it is a part of the LISE project.

3.2 Sampling

This MA project makes use of a sample consisting of eight video recorded 15-minute segments, in total 120 minutes, collected in two English lessons in grade 9, and in six English lessons in grade 10. This subsection describes how the sample was generated through a purposeful criterion sampling procedure: “a kind of purposeful sampling of cases on preconceived criteria, such as scores on an instrument” (Sandelowski, 2000, p. 248). The choice of utilising the observation manual, PLATO, in the sampling process, enabled me “to compare quality of instruction” across the eight sampled lesson segments (Klette & Blikstad-Balas, 2018, p. 135). The sampling procedure was conducted in the following three phases:

Phase 1: Overview
Phase 2: Accessing and examination of the PLATO scores
Phase 3: Operationalisation of whole-class discourse

Each phase will be presented and explained in the following sections.

3.2.1 Phase one: Overview

The sampling started with me getting an overview of the video material. The video recordings in the LISE project are gathered from seven schools (coded S02, S07, S09, S13, S17, S50, S51) (Brevik, 2019; Brevik & Rindal, 2020). The sampling of these schools was based on the individual students’ achievement level, whether their results on the national reading test (in grade 9 and 10 respectively) were “high (*n* = 3), average (*n* = 2), [or] below average (*n* = 2)”, and also based on geographic and demographic variation “across three school districts: urban (*n* = 2), suburban (*n* = 3), and rural (*n* = 2) schools in areas characterised by low (*n* = 1), medium (*n* = 3), and high (*n* = 3) socioeconomic status” (Brevik & Rindal, 2020, pp. 6-7). The recordings of English lessons were conducted in both grade 9 and grade 10 by members of the LISE team in the years 2015 through 2017, and resulted in 60 video and audio recorded lessons (see table 3.1 for distribution within grades and schools).

Table 3.1: Number of video-recorded English lessons (N=60) (Brevik & Rindal, 2020, p. 8).

	School							
Grade	S02	S07	S09	S13	S17	S50	S51	Total
9	6	4	6	4	4	5	4	33

10	0	4	5	4	5	5	4	27

The primary criterion for using these videos as data in my thesis was that they included examples of whole-class discourse. I was pleased to learn that quite a few lessons consisted of this kind of interactions, and noted some initial observations that could be interesting to look at when I was to analyse the whole-class discourse, such as "Teacher validates student's answer", "Teacher asks questions that elicit student elaboration", and "Students talking without being called". These notes were derived with an inductive approach, and influential when I later decided on the categories I was going to use when analysing the sampled video data (see section 3.5).

3.2.2 Phase two: Accessing and examination of the PLATO scores

All lesson segments in the LISE material that were found to portray classroom discourse of high quality, were formally identified through an examination of the PLATO ratings from the project. I got access to all the ratings of the video material within the element called *Classroom Discourse* (CD). As mentioned in the introduction (see section 1.1), the coding procedure had been conducted as part of the LISE project by professional, trained raters, who scored all the video material according to the *Protocol for Language Arts Teaching Observation* (Grossman, 2015). The protocol was developed in 2009 by Pam Grossman and her colleagues, and "builds on existing observation tools and research on effective teaching practices in ELA in an attempt to parse the different facets of teaching practice" (Grossman, Loeb, Cohen & Wyckoff, 2013, p. 450). Despite this manual being used and validated in the field of educational research, the scores from the CD element have, to my knowledge, not been used in video studies in English didactics in Norway before, which makes this MA study highly important. I have, however, identified some similar MA studies in Norwegian didactics (Jahnsen, 2017; Jensen; 2017) and social studies didactics (Aashamar, 2017).

The use of PLATO as a sampling strategy in this research design made it possible to map the large-scale video material systematically, and identify which segments suited my research questions. The chosen strategy assured that the qualitative observation of the material was based on systematic and deductive sampling strategies, which enhanced the credibility of the project (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). In line with writings of Patton (2014), this

ensured a purposeful sampling of "information-rich cases" that portrayed classroom discourse which suited my "purpose of inquiry" (p. 230).

The CD element examines the opportunities "students have for conversations with the teacher or among peers, as well as whether the discourse is perfunctory and minimal, at the low end, or elaborated and purposeful, at the high end" (Grossman et al., 2013, p. 455). The assessment within this element is divided into two *components*: *Opportunities for student talk* and *Uptake of student responses* (Grossman, 2015). When the material was coded, each 15-minute segment received a score of 1-4 in each component, according to the following degrees: (1) Almost no evidence, (2) Limited evidence, (3) Evidence with some weaknesses, and (4) Consistent strong evidence (Grossman, 2015). When a 15-minute segment received a low score (1-2), the teacher was identified as doing most of the talking in the classroom discourse, while at scores 3 or 4 students were found to "engage in elaborate, coherent, and focused discussions, in which the teacher and other students build on each other's contributions and prompt each other to clarify and specify their ideas" (Kohen & Borko, 2019, p. 2). The analyses of the video material were validated in the LISE research team, "to ensure high levels of ongoing inter-rater agreement (≥80% exact-score agreement; Cohen et al., 2016)", of which 82% of the analyses were in agreement, "and all analyses without initial exact-score agreement were discussed until agreement was reached" (Brevik, 2019, p. 2289). As I wanted to examine classroom discourse where teachers were found to involve students in whole-class interaction, I chose to sample all the 15-minute segments that had received a score of 4 in the CD element by the PLATO raters. Consequently, I ensured that all the lesson segments I included in my analyses portrayed classroom discourse containing characteristics identified to be of high quality by others.

The *Opportunity for student talk* category measures to which extent and how students get opportunities to participate in classroom discourse. The lower scores in this category are characterised by no or few opportunities for student participation in classroom discourse (score 1-2). Sequences where the students only listen to teacher talk are examples of this. IRE/F-exchanges are usually scored in the middle of the scale, while dialogues usually score at the higher end of the scale (score 4) (Grossman, 2015). The sampled segments (scored 4 in *Opportunity for student talk*) include, according to the certified PLATO raters, the following characteristics:

> Teacher provides opportunities for at least 5 minutes of ELA-related conversation between teacher and students, and/or among students. The majority of students participate by speaking and/or actively listening, and students are responding to each other, even if the teacher is still mediating the conversation. The questions that guide the conversation are mostly open-ended, and the focus of the conversation is clear and stays on-track (Grossman, 2015)

The *Uptake of student responses* category assesses whether the participants in the classroom discourse follow up on and/or build on each other's utterances and initiative. The lower end of the scale includes the segments of little or no response on student talk (score 1-2), while the higher end portrays segments where the participants ask for and provide clarifications, elaborations and explanations for each other's utterances (score 4) (Grossman, 2015). All the segments that were singled out in the present study because they were scored 4, have, according to the PLATO raters, the following characteristics:

> Teacher or students consistently engage in high-level uptake of students' ideas, responding in ways that expand on student ideas or enable students to further explain, clarify and specify their thinking (Grossman, 2015)

In other words, the ratings I got access to captured the quality and quantity of student talk in the lessons from the LISE material. All the 15-minute video segments that had been scored 4 in both *Opportunity for student talk* and *Uptake of student responses*, were systematically mapped in Excel. This resulted in a sample consisting of four segments from grade 9, and nine segments from grade 10.

3.2.3 Phase three: Operationalisation and identification of *whole-class discourse*

The sample was further restricted according to the criteria of identifying whole-class discourse. In line with Nystrand et al. (1997) and Cazden (2001), I wanted to examine interactive discourse conducted in plenary, where English subject content was discussed. Therefore, I excluded all segments that did not portray classroom discourse "shared with all members of the class" (Mercer, 2003, p. 75). This sampling was achieved through systematic observations performed by me, and resulted in the following exclusion:

> Grade 9: Segments 1 and 2 from school S51 were excluded, because these portrayed group discussions and not whole-class discourse.

Grade 10: All segments from school S51 were also excluded because of the depiction of group discussions instead of whole-class engagement.

As a consequence, the complete sample in this MA study consists of two lesson segments from grade 9, and six lesson segments from grade 10, in total eight segments. In line with other research studies within the LISE project, each segment is presented (in Table 3.2) according to the following characteristics:

a) which school the segment is from (e.g., S07 equals school number 7 in the LISE project),
b) which lesson the segment is from (4-6 consecutive English lessons were filmed in each classroom in grade 9 and 10, respectively),
c) which event in the lesson the segment is from (E1=event 1; the first 15 minutes of the lesson, 00:00-15:00),
d) and the common pseudonyms the teachers have received in the LISE project.

Furthermore, I have included an identification code for each of the segments in my sample, for the ease of identification and reading in this MA thesis. These are presented as segment IDs ranging from s1 to s8 in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Total sample of segments scored 4 in both sub-categories (i.e, the two components) in the PLATO element *Classroom Discourse*.

Grade	**School**	**Lesson**	**Event**	**Teacher pseudonym**	**Segment ID in this MA**
9	S07	4	E2	Michael	s1
	S51	2	E3	Henry	s2
10	S07	4	E1	Michael	s3
	S09	1	E4	Ylva	s4
		2	E1	Ylva	s5
		2	E2	Ylva	s6
		4	E2	Ylva	s7
		4	E3	Ylva	s8

Note. E1=event 1: the first 15 minutes of the lesson (00:00-15:00). E2=event 2 (16:00-30:00). E3=event 3 (31:00-45:00). E4=event 4 (46:00-60:00).

3.3 Data material

The main reason for me utilising video and audio data in my research project, is that such data give rich details of and insights into *how* whole-class discourse are conducted in English lessons. The following section (3.3.1) will present the methods used for collecting and storing the video material in the LISE project, as well as how I accessed these video recordings at the University of Oslo (UiO). Then, I will provide a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of using data collected by others (3.3.2).

3.3.1 LISE data

The video recordings from classrooms in the LISE material were attained through two video cameras and two microphones in each lesson (Hjeltnes, Brevik & Klette, 2017). One small camera at the back of the classroom focused solely on the teacher, while the other at the front, recorded the students. The audio recording was ensured through one teacher microphone, and one microphone fastened in the middle of the classroom to record the students, that "provided reasonably good video and audio recording of whole-class discourse and student interactions" (Brevik, 2019, p. 2288). I got access to these recordings in the secure TLVlab at the Department of Teacher Education and School Research, University of Oslo, after I signed a confidentiality form. I also accessed some transcriptions of the videos contributed by other master students in a secure UiO Dropbox folder, and used these as a template for some of my own transcriptions. The PLATO scorings were encrypted with identification codes, and also retrieved from the secure UiO Dropbox folder.

3.3.2 Reuse of qualitative video data and secondary analysis

The archived LISE video material is a rich source of data, available for reuse by MA participants in the project. In section 3.1 I identified the video segments that were sampled in my study as *secondary data* in my research design. Furthermore, the video data have been analysed in other research projects as well (for instances when assessing the CD PLATO scores), and my *analyses* are therefore also secondary. I draw on Corti (2000), Dalland (2011), and Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls, and Ormston (2014), when concluding that I have to assess the strengths and weaknesses of utilising secondary analyses, and that I have to ensure that the original video data suit my research project.

Dalland (2011) emphasises the benefits of conducting secondary analysis, as it makes available data that researchers might not be able to collect themselves. Being part of the LISE project, I was allowed to access large-scale video material, that I would not have been able to collect myself. Furthermore, it would not have been possible to identify my purposeful sample in such a credible and valid way, had I not been part of the project, as it gave me access to the most important sampling criteria in my study (the PLATO scores). Only trained and certified raters are allowed to use this coding manual when categorising their observations. Therefore, I could not have used it in my purposeful sampling had I not been part of the project.

3.4 Video observation

Video observation was chosen as a method because it enabled me to analyse "live" data from naturally occurring classroom interactions and dialogues, which is one of the benefits Cohen et al. (2011) emphasis. Furthermore, in line with Patton's (2014) argumentation, the observation of video material made it possible for me to give detailed descriptions of how the teacher posed questions and responded to student utterances in the sampled segments, as well as scrutinising the "full range of interactions and organizational processes" in the context of the sampled classroom discourse (p. 4). The choice of video data as observation source, was also fuelled by Cazden's (2001) call for more use of videotapes in discourse analyses, as she argues this to be the only possible tool that enable "close attention to the words of a particular classroom" (p. 7). As I did not participate in gathering the videos, I was a complete covert observer in my encounters with the video material (Cohen et al., 2011, Creswell & Creswell, 2018, Patton, 2014), which will be further addressed in section 3.6.1.

Observation of video recordings from lower secondary school enabled me to decompose the sampled lessons into shorter 15-minute segments, in line with the PLATO manual. Klette and Blikstad-Balas (2018) state that for this particular reason, video observation is a beneficial tool when conducting systematic observation of classroom discourse. The recordings of the English lessons made it possible for me to approach the same segment multiple times from different foci (Blikstad-Balas, 2017; Blikstad-Balas & Sørvik, 2015), strengthening the credibility and trustworthiness of my findings.

3.5 Analysis

The abductive analysis of the present study was conducted through two phases: (1) inductive thematic analysis (3.5.1), and (2) theoretical thematic analysis (3.5.2), which enabled me to identify findings portraying the types of teacher questions and responses identified in the sampled whole-class discourse. All the phases were part of the holistic process of analysis in the present study. Braun and Clark (2006) describe the thematic analysis as a common method in qualitative research, and define it as follows:

> Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in (rich) detail. However, frequently it goes further than this, and interprets various aspects of the research topic (Braun & Clark, 2006, s. 79)

The method is therefore suitable in the present research project, because it can be used to describe patterns within data, which is the aim of this study.

Before the two structured phases of analysis were conducted, I observed all the video material thoroughly in the sampling process (see section 3.2.1). Fangen (2004) states that the analysis of observational data starts at the moment you encounter the material for the first time. All my observations of the video material should therefore be viewed as components in the overall analytical process of this study, because these are all influential in how I chose to present my findings and which elements I chose to include in the discussion. Nevertheless, the following sections (3.5.1 and 3.5.2) present the main structured analyses of this MA study.

3.5.1 Analysis 1: Inductive thematic analysis

The first part of the observational analyses was conducted with an inductive thematic approach. According to Braun and Clark (2006), this approach describes analysis where material is coded without a pre-existing frame, neither a manual nor the researcher's analytic preconceptions. As part of the sampling process (see 3.2.1) I observed all the LISE video material before I applied the theoretical framework, in order to inductively identify patterns that appeared to be characteristic of the whole-class discourse. As previously mentioned, these patterns were influential when I decided which theoretical frameworks I was to include in the second phase of the analyses, the theoretical thematic analysis.

Transcription

After having familiarized myself with the material through the inductive thematic analysis, I transcribed all the video material scored 4 in the CD element, as well as contextual video data that I found to be relevant in the examination of types of questions and responses. This was done in order to get a more holistic overview and in-depth understanding of the sampled segments, as well as valid presentations of video excerpts for the findings chapter. According to Patton (2014), the act of transcribing video material provides a researcher with the "opportunity to get immersed in the data" (p. 441), which generates emergent insights. Furthermore, the transcriptions enabled me to re-examine the lessons throughout my analyses, because the "written word is available for endless scrutiny after the event" (Alexander, 2017, p. 9).

The transcriptions were conducted at the TLVlab, utilising the digital media transcription software, Inqscribe.[1] The video data contains sensitive information that could identify the participants in the LISE project, and my encounters with the material were therefore authorised and controlled by formal restrictions. Inqscribe enabled me to transcribe all audible interaction between the students and the teacher. I also took a note of their tone of voice when I found that relevant to the analyses of responses. For instance, a *questioning tone of voice* was identified as a raising pitch at the end of an utterance, and marked with a question mark in the transcriptions. Pauses were indicated with "…" . The utterances were presented as close to the audio-recorded utterances as possible, which means that some of the excerpts from the transcriptions include original syntax- and spelling inaccuracies. All sensitive information, such as names, were anonymised, to ensure the anonymity of the participants (Cohen et al., 2011). The teachers' pseudonyms were derived from the LISE project, and the students' were referred to as "Student 1", "Student 2", etc.

Despite rigorous systematics and techniques, transcriptions cannot be regarded as completely objective written representations of oral communication (Kvale, 2001), as the transcriber is unable to present all aspects of the classroom discourse in a written format. I experienced that I had lost some interesting information in my first transcriptions (such as identification codes for which student spoke, thinking time, and tone of voice), so I went back to the TLVlab multiple times to edit and elaborate my transcriptions. Therefore, the final transcriptions,

---

[1] https://www.inqscribe.com

presented in this thesis, are represented as close to the original whole-class discourse as I was able to do.

3.5.2 Analysis 2: Theoretical thematic analysis

The final and main structured analyses in my study, was conducted in line with Braun and Clark's (2006) theoretical thematic analysis: "a 'theoretical' thematic analysis would tend to be driven by the researcher's theoretical or analytic interest in the area, and is thus more explicitly analyst-driven" (p. 84). As my research question examines what is characteristic of specific kinds of classroom discourse, where the students are identified to engage in whole-class discourse of high quality (according to PLATO scores), it called for a more theoretical approach to the analysis – as opposed to an inductive approach where the research question might "evolve through the coding process" (Braun & Clark, 2006, p. 84). Braun and Clark (2006) state that this will provide "a detailed analysis of some aspect of the data" (p. 84), which consists of teacher questions and responses in this thesis. Based on my inductive encounters with the video material, I decided to use the CD element from the coding manual (PLATO 5.0), and the aforementioned theory and previous research (see Chapter 2), in the examination of teacher questions and responses in the sampled segments. I went back and forth between the inductive and deductive approach throughout my analyses, thus enabling what has already been referred to as an abductive process of analysis (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 1994; Denzin, 1978).

The analyses of questions and responses were conducted with some general rules of identification. For either a student or a teacher utterance to be registered, they had to be relevant to the ELA subject content. Therefore, questions such as, "May I use the toilet?" or, "Where have you been?" and interlocutors' responses to these, were not coded. Throughout my analyses and presentations of findings I refer to *comments*, *messages*, *statements,* and *utterances*. These terms are all used about one interlocutors' spoken words within a particular speaking turn. *Speaking turn* or *turn* is used interchangeably about every student or teacher utterance in the whole-class discourse. *Dialogic turn* is used when multiple speaking turns appear to create a whole-class discourse that portray dialogic teaching.

Analyses of types of questions

The description of the CD element in the PLATO manual states that a score 4 identifies segments where the majority of the questions are open-ended. Furthermore, I have identified

theories and previous research identifying open and authentic questions as the main types of questions in dialogic teaching within whole-class discourse. This is one of the reasons why I wanted to examine if the types of questions in the sampled segments portrayed evidence of dialogic teaching. For this examination to be reliable and valid, I included analyses of all questions in my material, which yielded findings portraying the overall patterns of teacher questions in the sampled segments.

Questions were operationalised as all utterances that were worded or expressed to elicit one or more answer(s), and asked interlocutor(s) to give spoken reply on something that did not concern the topic of the previous speaking turn (Myhill, 2006). In other words, all utterances that requested subject content information from any of the interlocutors in the whole-class discourse, were classified as questions. The questions were always followed by a question mark in the transcriptions. Initially, I identified questions posed by both the students and the teachers, but as the aim of this thesis is to uncover characteristics of teacher questions, further analyses of student questions were not conducted. In the analyses of teacher questions, I used the operationalisations of different types of questions from Andersson-Bakken (2015; 2017), Alexander (2017), Cazden (2001), Dysthe (1995), and Nystrand et al. (1997) when identifying and coding the different types of questions, which are operationalised in Table 3.3: *open questions*, *closed question*, *authentic question*, *quasi-authentic questions*, and *other questions*.

Table 3.3: Overview of analytical constructs in the theoretical thematic analysis of teacher questions in the sampled whole-class discourse.

Question construct	**Operationalisation and example**
(1) Open questions (Andersson-Bakken, 2015, 2017; Nystrand et al., 1997)	The teacher allows multiple answers to the question. The teacher appears to have expectations as for what the students will answer. For example: [00:33:58.04] Teacher: What are some of the symbols that are used?
(2) Closed questions (Andersson-Bakken, 2015, 2017; Nystrand et al., 1997).	The teacher allows only one answer to the question. The teacher appears to have expectations as for what the students will answer. For example: [00:02:29.21] Teacher: What happened on Tuesday?

(3) Authentic questions (Andersson-Bakken, 2015, 2017; Alexander, 2017; Nystrand et al., 1997)	The question invites the students to contribute their personal opinions and thoughts. For example: [00:51:33.08] Teacher: What do you think about these arguments? Personally. Any thoughts?
(4) Quasi-authentic questions (Dysthe, 1995).	Same criteria as for open questions (multiple answers allowed), but the teacher adds a request for the students' personal opinions on a subject matter by adding something like: "what do you think?". For example: [00:33:17.13] Teacher: Why do you think the Sniper goes to see the person he has just killed?
(5) Other types of questions	This category was derived inductively, and consists of any questions that did not fit with the aforementioned types of questions.

Yes/no questions can be challenging to code as either open or closed. While Nystrand et al. (1997) classify all questions that either expect the respondent to confirm (e.g., *yes*, *yeah*) or refute the content (e.g., *no*) as open-ended, others (e.g., Sommervold, 2011) argue that this type of question do not lead the discussion forward, and should therefore be categorised as closed. Therefore, I have not coded all yes/no questions exclusively in one of these categories, but according to the analytical constructs presented in Table 3.3.

Analyses of teachers' responses to student utterances

My analytical framework in the examination of teachers' responses builds on Andersson-Bakken and Klette (2016), but was also influenced by theoretical constructs from Alexander (2017), Cazden (2001), Grossman (2015) and Nystrand et al. (1997). I operationalised *teacher responses* as all teacher utterances that followed directly after a student utterance, meaning that every time the teacher said something after a student, it was classified as a response.

Andersson-Bakken (2015) states that analysing responses is very fleeting and time-consuming research. In order to make it as accurate and efficient as possible, I consulted both theory and previous research on analyses of classroom discourse before analysing the responses in my sample. Then, I coded and divided all the responses into six different categories: (1) *Vague*

evaluative response, (2) *Specific evaluative response*, (3) *Uptake of student utterance*, (4) *Neutral responses*, (5) *Revoicings*, and (6) *Other responses*. These are all operationalised in table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Overview of analytical constructs in the analysis of the teachers' responses to student utterances.

Response constructs	**Operationalisation and example**
(1) Vague evaluative response	"Teacher clearly indicates, through words or intonation, that a student's comment is correct or incorrect" (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016, p. 69), but without providing any specifications of what is or is not correct. For example: [00:33:37.08] Student: Well, uh, it's kind of you know you get to follow his thoughts, so he says that this was a good shooter. [00:33:46.29] Teacher: *Yeah*. All the vague evaluative responses were coded as either positive or negative evaluations after all responses were categorised (inductively). All the vague evaluative responses that confirmed or validated a student's comment were coded as positive, and those who indicated that a student's contribution was incorrect were coded as negative.
(2) Specific evaluative response	"Teacher clearly indicates, through words or intonation, that a student's comment is correct or incorrect" (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016, p. 69), and explains why. For example: [00:25:25.20] Student: Yeah well it could be we should not waste money and effort on buying new chairs. [00:25:34.27] Teacher: *There we go. Right. So you just turn it around a little bit.* All the specific evaluative responses were also coded as either positive or negative evaluations (inductively). All the specific evaluative responses that confirmed or validated a student's comment (e.g., Yes, because…) were coded as positive, and those who indicated that a student's contribution was incorrect were coded as negative (e.g., No, because…).

(3) Neutral responses	"Teacher provides comments that do not indicate whether students' statements are correct or incorrect" (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016, p. 69). For example: [01:19:45.08] Student: And Styles might have lost respect to the army and weapons, because he was dishonorably discharged, and he wanted to take revenge to society. [01:19:56.17] Teacher: *Yeah?*
(4) Uptake	The teacher is taking on the student responses in a new question (Nystrand et al., 1997). For example: [00:16:43.15] Student: I think the problem is the international attention. People would react very strongly to England just taking over Ireland like that [00:16:55.28] Teacher: *They would and why? What will be the big problem, there is an organization here?*
(6) Revoicing	The teacher repeats what the student said and "rebroadcasts it back to the group – often reformulating it in the process" (Cazden, 2001, p. 90). For example: [00:32:26.17] Student: There's a guy on the rooftop shooting people. [00:32:35.05] Teacher: *There's a guy on a rooftop shooting people*. Do we know where?
(7) Other responses	This category was derived inductively, as there were some responses that did not fit into the aforementioned categories. These were further coded in three sub-categories: 1. The teacher validates the student utterance without addressing the content of the student utterance (see Excerpt 4.19). 2. The teacher asks for clarification. For example: [00:18:39.16] Student: You're not completely wrong, but I believe it is called the third eye actually. [00:18:44.10] Teacher: *Sorry?* [00:18:45.04] Student: That's something called gift he has. It's not called a sixth sense, I believe it's called third eye.

	3. The teacher provides their own points of view on a subject matter. For example: [00:05:32.13] Student: He hasn't done anything yet, so … [00:05:34.17] Teacher: *Well he's not the President yet, so we'll just wait and see how it turns out.*

3.6 Research credibility

This MA project is intrinsically interpretative. The sampling is first and foremost based on interpretations done by trained raters, and the qualitative findings are based on my interpretations of the sampled video data, in light of relevant theoretical constructs. This interpretative aspect is one of the elements that I will consider when assessing the validity and reliability of the present study. It is a common understanding within the sociocultural paradigm that no interpretative method can generate absolute objective and truthful findings (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Therefore, the researcher has to be aware of and examine credibility threats, and present the strategies used to meet these (Patton, 1999). The following section will present and discuss what I have done to make my MA research more credible and trustworthy.

3.6.1 Validity

As the analysis in the present study is qualitative, the research validity refers to an assessment of whether or not the study and its findings are "plausible, credible, trustworthy, and therefore defensible" (Johnson & Christensen, 2013, p. 299). The researcher has to question whether the findings are arrived at in a trustworthy manner, in order to argue for a valid research project. The strategies I have used to enhance validity will be presented according to the following categories: *internal validity*, *external validity*, *descriptive validity*, *interpretive validity* and *theoretical validity* (e.g., Johnson & Christensen, 2013; Maxwell, 2013; Patton, 1999).

Internal validity "refers to the degree to which a researcher is justified in concluding that an observed relationship is causal" (Johnson & Christensen, 2013, p. 303). In order to enhance internal validity, one has to make sure that the interpretations and findings appear trustworthy (Kleven, 2014). In my study, this refers to whether the findings actually portray the questions and responses that reside in the sampled segments from English lessons. The video data

provides a detailed and complex overview of the whole-class discourse, making it easier to observe and portray questions and responses accurately, which strengthens the internal validity (Maxwell, 2013). However, the qualitative analyses are based on my observations, which might, had I not been aware of it, create a *researcher bias* within my study. This term is used about all the predispositions and conceptions of the researcher, that might impact the choices and inferences drawn in a study (e.g., Creswell & Miller, 2000; Johnson & Christensen, 2013; Patton, 1999). These predispositions could reduce the *interpretive validity* of the research as well, had I not been aware of and transparent about them. I wanted to describe successful whole-class discourse, and this aim influenced both the sampling of video segments and which elements I included in the discussion of my findings. I had expectations as for which questions and responses I would identify in the sampled segments. However, I included analyses of questions and responses that theorists (e.g., Andersson-Bakken, 2017; Nystrand et al., 1997) argued were not beneficial in whole-class discourse, as well as *other* categories, which, as already mentioned, made me open for emerging insights and surprising findings. In line with Patton (2014), I ensured that the sampling procedure (using PLATO), and my interest in uncovering patterns of dialogic teaching, did not confine the analytical possibilities in my research project.

Furthermore, while the re-use of other qualitative data of for instance field notes might create a researcher-bias, this is not as much of a danger with video material (Dalland, 2011). The videos were observed in hindsight (i.e. covert observer, Cohen et al., 2011), so I did not have the option of making inferences on how or for what purpose the recordings were conducted. It rather enhanced the credibility of my study that other researchers gathered and scored my material, as my expectations as for what I wanted the teachers and students to do in the lessons did not impact the collection process. This process was therefore not biased by my pre-assumptions, which is something multiple researchers are concerned with (e.g., Fangen, 2004; Johnson & Christensen, 2013; Patton, 2014).

The participants in the study were aware that they were being recorded and filmed, and *reactivity* threatens the study's internal validity (Maxwell, 2013). Maxwell (2013) states that interactions between participants in a study might change because they know they are being recorded. However, as Blikstad-Balas argues (2017), although this often occur at the beginning of video recorded lessons, it usually do not last for long, which could indicate that participants tend to get accustomed to the cameras and microphones. Half of the video

segments in my sample were derived from the fourth lesson recorded at the particular schools within the LISE study, three segments are from the second lesson, and the final segment consists of the last 15-minutes of lesson one. I do not think, then, that reactivity is a major threat to the internal validity of my study.

The *external validity* is assessing where, other than for the sampled lessons in my study, my findings are applicable (Kleven, 2014). According to Johnson and Christensen (2013), one could also call this *generalising validity* in qualitative research, as the term refers to "the extent to which the result of a study can be generalised to and across populations of persons, settings, times, outcomes, and treatment variations" (p. 291). Qualitative research is often considered weak in external validity, and does therefore not often aim towards this type of validity (Johnson & Christensen, 2013). As the findings from my study are only representative for the segments scored 4 in the Classroom Discourse element, portraying whole-class interaction, I only aim towards generalisation to lessons that share these characteristics. However, the rich descriptions of how I conducted the purposeful criterion sampling and the structured thematic analyses, enhance the external validity, because these descriptions enable other researchers to assess if my findings are representable for their sample as well, presupposing that they share the characteristics of my sample (Johnson & Christensen, 2013, Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, Klette and Blikstad-Balas (2018) argue that the utilization of a validated, pre-defined manual, ensures that the phenomenon of interest is analysed in line with a common taxonomy, which is available for other researchers as well. In choosing to incorporate PLATO as a sampling device, I make it easier for other researchers to assess if they are conducting a research project similar to mine. The technical vocabulary and supporting rubrics from PLATO enable other researchers to assess both the internal validity and the generalisability of the present study (Blikstad-Balas, 2017).

Including a pre-defined manual as a sampling device, might also impair the validity of my study. Some researchers emphasise the danger of magnifying certain observational aspects in the material, when using codes that only focus on specific aspects of the research data (Klette & Blikstad-Balas, 2018). Being aware of and transparent about this validity-threat in order to avoid magnification, is therefore important, and I also included other categories in my analyses to reduce the risk of magnification. However, I will argue that there are more validity benefits of using this manual in my study, than there are drawbacks. In addition to the aforementioned advantages, PLATO provides a theoretical framework that has been identified

and validated by professional researchers as influential in the field of classroom discourse research, and drawing on these theories in my analyses enhances the *theoretical validity* of my study. The manual provides "multiple theoretical perspectives" that is validated to fit with my observational data (Johnson & Christensen, 2013, p. 199). However, Cohen and Grossman (2016) emphasise that there might be limitations within the PLATO manual as well. Therefore, I did not build my analyses solely on this manual and the ratings done by others, but utilised multiple methods and theoretical perspectives in my study, especially in the analyses, in order to enhance the validity.

Furthermore, my participation in the LISE project enhanced the validity of my study because *multiple investigators* have interpreted and observed the data (Johnson & Christensen, 2013). Despite conducting the transcriptions myself, they were influenced by transcriptions done by both professional researchers and other MA students. The transcriptions are therefore also more valid, than if I had been all alone in conducting them. The internal validity of this study is further enhanced by the fact that I contacted one of the researchers that influenced the categories of analysis and discussion in this study, namely Emilia Andersson-Bakken, and got her input on my classifications of the questions in my MA study.

3.6.2 Reliability

Qualitative reliability indicates the quality of the measures in a research project, and assess whether there are sufficient descriptions of the methods for other researchers to conduct the same or similar projects (Creswell, 2014; Kleven, 2014; Patton, 1999). In observational studies, subjectivity is a major threat to the reliability, as the researcher is both analysing the material and conveying it in the research report. In addition to steps already being presented, this threat is taken into account in this research project in the following manner.

The rigorous explanations of both the sampling procedure and the analyses enhance the inter-rater reliability of this study. *Inter-rater reliability* determines whether different researchers would be able to arrive at the same findings when utilising the methods of the present MA study (Hallgren, 2012). For this to be possible, the methodology in a study has to be "transparent and explicit" (Klette & Blikstad-Balas, 2018, p. 133), which is achieved in this methods chapter. The inter-rater reliability of this study is further enhanced because of the use of a validated coding manual, as this enables other researchers to conduct the same sampling process as the present study (Klette et al., 2017).

Moreover, the reliability of this research project is strengthened according to some of the procedures presented by Johnson and Christensen (2013, p. 307), such as re-examination of transcriptions to ensure accuracy, and deriving the themes and sub-themes from triangulation of theoretical constructs and analytical constructs.

3.6.3 Ethical considerations

In Norway, all research projects involving personal data, have to be approved by The Norwegian Centre for Research Data[2], that assesses whether or not the research project follows the national guidelines of ethics. My MA study is certified as it is part of the approved LISE project (project no. 827448). However, there are still ethical guidelines that I had to consider when conducting my qualitative study. Ryen (2016) describes three "classic and frequently raised concerns" within the field of research ethics: (i) trust, (ii) codes and consent, and (iii) confidentiality (p. 32). I will use his descriptions when presenting how I have met and dealt with ethical concerns in my MA project.

Trust "refers to the relationship between the researcher and the participants, and to the researcher's responsibility" to ensure that the participants would want to be studied again (Ryen, 2016, p. 33). I am trusted with video material that portray subjects who agreed to participate in the LISE project, including all MA studies that are conducted within this overarching project. According to Ryen (2016), this puts the responsibility of portraying the informants perspectives as truthfully and representative as possible, to ensure that the participants would want to be studied again. I hope that my focus on the successful segments rather than what the teachers do not succeed with, will ensure that the participants do not regret having trusted ILS with the video recordings. In other words, my study aims at protecting the integrity of the participants.

Codes and consent refers to how participants in a research have to agree to be part of a study (Ryen, 2016). There is consensus in research ethics that informed consent is a necessity (Befring, 2015). Ryen (2016) writes: "research subjects have the right to know that they are being researched, the right to be informed about the nature of the research and the right to withdraw at any time" (p. 32). Reuse of video data adds ethical concerns to the consent that

[2] http://www.nsd.no

was given by participants in the original setting for the recording (Dalland, 2011). Therefore, the LISE project secured written informed consent from the participants, teachers, students and parents of the students (as these are minors), and they also consented to the video material being accessed for research within the LISE project (Brevik & Rindal, 2020, p. 6).

Confidentiality implies that all researchers are "obliged to protect each participant's identity, places and the location of the research" (Ryen, 2016, p. 33). As previously mentioned, all the names of the teachers in my study are therefore pseudonyms, and students are referred to with numbers within each presented excerpt in the findings chapter (chapter 4). Furthermore, in order to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants, the videos were only accessed at the secure TLVlab at UiO.

3.6.4 Limitations of this MA study

In line with Nystrand et al. (1997), I had to make sure that my role as the main assessor of which category the different questions and responses belong in, did not impair the credibility and trustworthiness of my analyses. I did, then, in line with the writings of both Dysthe (1995) and Nystrand et al. (1997), examine the context in which both the questions and the responses were posed, and I believe this gives sufficiently good reason to conclude on what category each teacher question and response belongs to. The thorough illustrations of the categories in the findings chapter do also enhance the credibility of my analyses and categorisations. However, there are some limitations in my distinction between the neutral responses and the vague evaluative responses. Some might argue that the neutral responses "ok" and "mm", are difficult to code, as they can indicate that the teacher confirms the content of the student message. However, I have deemed all teacher utterances that *clearly* indicates an assessment of the student statement, without giving reasons for that assessment, as vague evaluative responses, such as "Yes", "No" or "Yeah", while neutral responses contain no clear assessment element, and consist of either "Ok", "Mm", or "Yeah*?*".

4 Findings

This chapter presents the findings of this MA study, which answer the main research question: *What is characteristic of the types of questions and responses teachers provide students with in whole-class discourse identified as high quality in L2 English (grades 9 and 10)?* The findings will be presented in two sections. The first section (4.1) presents the findings pertaining to RQ1: *What types of questions do teachers pose in the sampled whole-class discourse?* The second section (4.2) will present the findings that inform RQ2: *How do teachers respond to student utterances in the sampled whole-class discourse?* The presentation of the main findings of this MA study will depict which teacher questions and responses that were identified in the sampled whole-class discourse, and describe what was found to be characteristic of these. The main findings answering RQ1 (4.1) portray an overall majority of *open* and *authentic questions* within the whole-class discourse, which were, however, not evenly distributed throughout the sampled segments (i.e. more of these questions in some segments than others, see section 4.1.1). The findings pertaining to RQ2 (4.2) present a large proportion of *positive vague evaluative responses* and *revoicings*, which were more evenly distributed throughout the segments. Furthermore, an overall characteristic that will become evident throughout this chapter is the identification of more teacher responses than questions throughout the sample, as well as within each segment.

All findings are presented according to the Segment ID, together with the pseudonym of the teacher conducting the lesson. Michael and Ylva taught more than one of the sampled segments. Therefore, this double identification, teacher and segment ID, is necessary because it enables a presentation and discussion of what was found to be characteristic of each of the 15-minute segments scored 4 by the PLATO CD raters, as well as which teacher taught each segment.

4.1 Teacher questions in whole-class discourse

This section will present the findings that answer RQ1: *What types of questions do teachers pose in the sampled whole-class discourse?* These findings reveal how the teachers tried to elicit subject content information from the students through all the categories of questions. I will provide an overview of how many and which types of questions that were identified in the different segments (4.1.1). Then, I will describe and illustrate what was found to be

characteristic of each question category. These will be presented from the most to the least frequently occurring category: *Open questions* (4.1.2), *Authentic questions* (4.1.3), *Closed questions* (4.1.4), and *Quasi-authentic questions* (4.1.5). As none of the questions fits into *other questions*, this category has been excluded from the presentation and description of questions.

4.1.1 Overview of distribution of questions

In total, the teachers posed 70 out of 92 identified questions (76%). In other words, the teachers were identified as the interlocutors who asked the most questions in the whole-class discourse. Furthermore, the analysis of what types of questions the teachers posed revealed a quite complex pattern, with no even distribution of types of questions across segments mediated by different teachers. This is illustrated in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1, which show the distribution of teacher questions according to the five question categories.

Table 4.1: Number of identified questions in each segment, represented according to teacher, grade, and segment (*n*=total number of questions posed by each teacher).

	Michael		**Henry**	**Ylva**				
	Grade 9	**Grade 10**	**Grade 9**	**Grade 10**				
	s1 (*n*=10)	**s3** (*n*=4)	**s2** (*n*=14)	**s4** (*n*=15)	**s5** (*n*=12)	**s6** (*n*=2)	**s7** (*n*=5)	**s8** (*n*=8)
Open	2	1	7	12	3	-	-	3
Closed	8	1	5	-	3	1	-	1
Authentic	-	2	-	3	6	1	5	4
Quasi-authentic	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
Other types of question	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

In Figure 4.1, all the types of questions are colour-coded. Each bar represents the total number of the particular type of question identified within each segment, and in total.

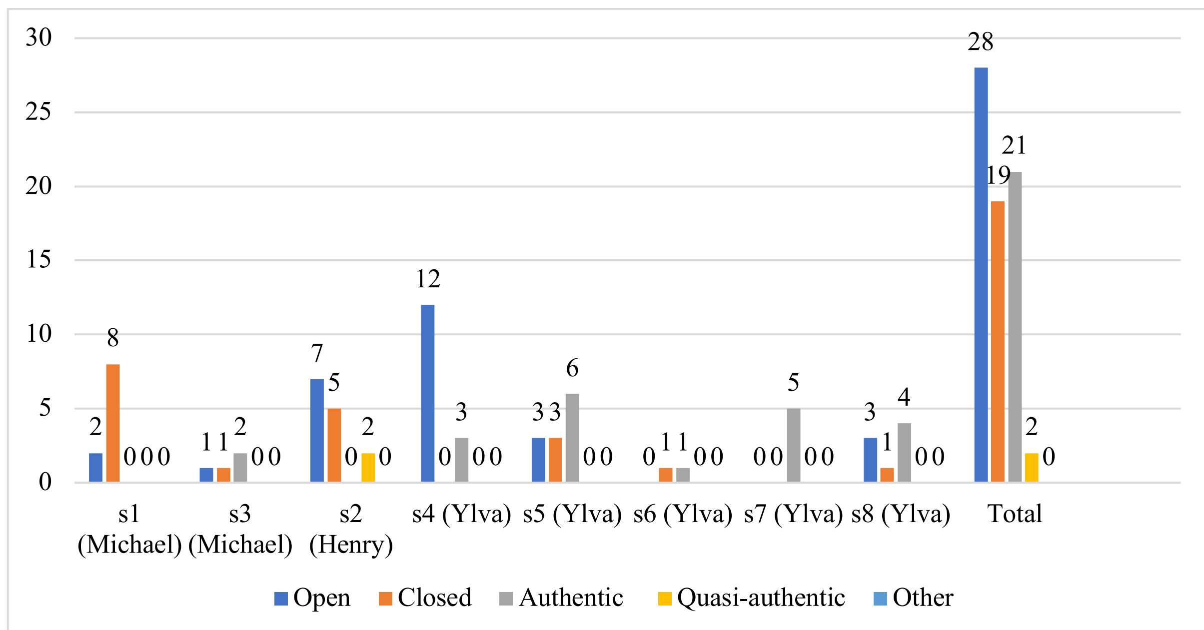

Figure 4.1: Distribution of teacher questions, represented according to segment ID and teacher.

Both Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 illustrate that the most frequently used question type overall was *open questions* (*n*=28), which corresponds to an overall percentage of 40% open questions. The second largest category of questions consisted of the *authentic questions* (*n*=21, which equals 30%). Next was the category of *closed questions* (*n*=19, equalling 27%), followed by the category of *quasi-authentic questions* (*n*=2, equalling 3%). I will in the following describe and illustrate what was found to be characteristic of the different types of questions.

4.1.2 Open questions

The questions posed by the teacher that were identified as having more than one possible answer, and where the teacher appeared to have expectations as for what the students would answer, were coded as open questions (see Theory chapter, 2.4.2; Methods chapter 3.5.2). As mentioned, open questions were the most common type in the sampled segments. The teacher who had the highest percentage of open questions in one segment was Ylva, with 12 out of 15 questions in s4, and Henry with 7 out of 14 in s2. Therefore, I have included one excerpt from each of these segments, s2 and s4 (Excerpts 4.1, and 4.2), to illustrate the characteristics of the open questions. All excerpts from the transcriptions are presented with numbers representing speaking turns. Furthermore, the teacher turn in Excerpt 4.1 is followed by

multiple student turns, to illustrate how open questions allow for more than one student answer.

Excerpt 4.1 **Open questions (1)** [from transcription s2; my italics]

1. [00:34:30.24] Henry: *What could a theme be if you have a lot of weapons and things like that*?
2. [00:34:46.15] Student 1: Well … War [inaudible]
3. [00:34:50.06] Henry: War as a nation. This isn't a war against a nation, this is a civil war.
4. [00:34:53.03] Student 1: Assassination not as a nation.
5. [00:34:55.07] Henry: Assassination. Sorry. Thank you for clearing that up. It obviously has a lot to do with assassination. Yes. Because his title is a sniper. [Student name]?
6. [00:35:04.10] Student 2: I would say … kind of the theme is conflict.
7. [00:35:08.14] Henry: Okay?
8. [00:35:08.14] Student 2: Because it gets kind of obvious that this person is tired, he doesn't really want to kill someone, there's like this point in the story where he kind of gets a real adrenaline rush. Kills the person, he's like, yeah! And then gets really sad, because he didn't actually want to kill someone.
9. [00:35:30.18] Henry: Yeah.

Excerpt 4.1 illustrates the importance of including analyses of complete dialogic turns (i.e. contextual student answers and teacher responses) when categorising teacher questions. Turn 1 illustrates how teacher Henry asked for *one* specific theme ("*a* theme") within the short story they had been working with (The Sniper). Henry's response in turn 3 indicates that he had some expectations as for which student answers he considered correct. That would categorise this question as closed. In turn 3 he responded negatively to the student comment in turn 2, but changed the correction in turn 5, as it was based on a mishearing of the student comment. However, the answers from student 1 and student 2 in turn 4, 6, and 8 were neither opposed nor disproved by Henry. Therefore, the teacher question in turn 1 appeared to be open for multiple answers from the students, a fact the students seemed to be aware of, as they responded differently. Therefore, this question is a representative illustration of the open questions in Henry and Michael's lessons. The following excerpt (4.2) illustrates how Ylva posed open questions.

Excerpt 4.2 **Open questions (2)** [from transcription s4; my italics]

[00:49:29.20] Ylva: What are your arguments?

The open question from teacher Ylva's lesson (Excerpt 4.2) is highly characteristic of how she posed questions in two of the segments (s4 and s5). From [00:45:00.0] (start of s4) to [01:15:00.00] (end of s6) Ylva posed the open questions "Any other arguments?", "Anything else", "What are your arguments" or "What else?" 9 times in total. In other words, Ylva was found to elicit opposing arguments on subject content throughout her teaching, as she asked for new arguments repeatedly. Some researchers might argue that these questions are more quasi-authentic than open, as the teacher explicitly asks for "*your* arguments". However, the utilisation of a possessive determiner in this classroom context did not ask for the personal opinions from the students, but rather the arguments that a group of students prepared before the lesson was conducted. The students had worked in groups to come up with arguments supporting a statement that the teacher had given them, and the teacher now asked them to contribute these group arguments. All the aforementioned teacher questions are therefore categorised as open, because they allow for multiple possible arguments that both supports and opposes the prepared statements (provided by the teacher).

4.1.3 Authentic questions

The teacher questions that appeared to be posed in order to elicit the students' personal opinions on a subject matter were categorised as *authentic questions*. Henry did not ask any authentic questions, while two were found in Michael's lesson segment from grade 10 (s3), and as many as 22 in the segments from Ylva's lessons. This category of questions corresponded to 30% of all the teacher questions in the sampled segments. I will illustrate what appeared to be characteristic of these authentic questions with as much as one excerpt from Michael and two excerpts from Ylva, to show how differently the authenticity within the sample was identified, and how these questions appeared to impact the overall teaching of Ylva's whole-class discourse.

Excerpt 4.3 **Authentic questions (1)** [from transcription s3; my italics]

1. [00:09:09.19] Michael: I want you to look at each other right now, and then this question may sound a bit biased, but I'll still ask it. *How many of you were angry when Donald Trump was elected?*
2. [00:09:30.22] Michael: Ok, 7-8 of you. *Why … what is the point of being angry here*?
3. [00:09:56.02] Student 1: I'm not, maybe I'm not angry, I'm scared. Because I'm scared about the world and how him becoming President will affect especially NATO, because he has … want to put it down, and that is not good for Norway, and I'm scared about women's rights and the amount of racism, dropout
4. [00:10:29.28] Michael: Good. Student 2?

5. [00:10:31.11] Student 2: Because it's scary when a person, when he can say the things he does and still become president, because it's really a danger to the minorities in America.
6. [00:10:45.07] Michael: Possibly, yes. Student 3?
7. [00:10:49.13] Student 3: Well, I'm not angry, but I become … but I became, frustrated and disappointed … because Hillary still got more votes. Which is kind of ironic.
8. [00:11:02.24] Michael: Yeah, kind of.
9. [00:11:03.03] Student 3: But I'm also really angry with Hillary during this election.
10. [00:11:10.17] Michael: Yes, that's an interesting way of looking at it, isn't it. Being angry with the losing party. Instead of being angry at the winner.
11. [00:11:17.02] Student 3: Well, not because they lost, because that have tweeted the focus and was the topic like whenever [inaudible] than Democrats they could be assholes [inaudible]
12. [00:11:32.21] Michael: Nice way of putting it. Good point. Student 4?
13. [00:11:44.19] Student 4: Well the reason that I'm not angry about Trump getting elected President is that Trump is not a very smart man … [*the remaining student argument is omitted from excerpt, as it is not relevant for the identification of open questions*]
14. [00:12:40.19] Michael: That's quite scary and quite interesting I would say. I say it's right, not at all, but I mean it's interesting, these reactions. Ok, we'll do the last ones. Student 5, Student 3 and Student 1, and then we'll take a look at the actual results.
15. [00:12:57.28] Student 5: It's, China and Russia where very happy to see that Trump had become president.
16. [00:13:11.08] Michael: Quite interesting, isn't it?
17. [00:13:13.17] Student 5: China said that they were happy because Hillary is an experienced politician and that Trump isn't.
18. [00:13:27.14] Michael: Good point. Student 3?
19. [00:13:30.07] Student 3: Just a part of the Democrats [*the remaining student argument omitted from excerpt, as it is not relevant for the identification of open questions*]
20. [00:13:56.19] Michael: Absolutely. Student 1, final comment.
21. [00:14:01.08] Student 1: What really makes the [inaudible] is that Hillary won the popular vote and that more than 40% of people in the US didn't vote … [*the remaining student argument omitted from excerpt, as it is not relevant for the identification of open questions*]
22. [00:14:49.01] Michael: Yes.

Michael asked for the students' personal opinions in both turn 1 and turn 2, Excerpt 4.3. The first question did not elicit any student responses, as it only called for a raise of hands, while the question in turn 2 elicited ten student answers from five different students in turns 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, and 21 (with teacher responses in between). That is more student answers than followed after any other questions in the sampled segments from his lessons. Michael asked explicitly for the students' personal reasons for being angry in turn 2, leading to this question being categorised as authentic.

The following excerpts are derived from s4 and s7. Despite s5 being the segment where I identified the most authentic questions, I will argue that the authentic questions asked in Excerpt 4.4 and 4.5 paved the way for the overall authenticity of the whole-class discourse in Ylva's lessons. Another reason for including an excerpt from s7, is that all the teacher questions identified in this specific whole-class discourse were authentic.

Excerpt 4.4 **Authentic questions (2)** [from transcription s4; my italics]

> [00:51:33.08] Ylva: Now we have quite a lot of arguments both in favor of and against death penalty for all the three persons involved. If you now were to put aside the group that you are working in, and you were to *go into yourself and to view these arguments*. *How would you view* these arguments? *What would you think* is reasonable, *what would you think* is non-reasonable? Is it reasonable that Andy Smith should get a death penalty because he killed a child, *do you personally think that*, is it reasonable that Jim Styles should go free because he eh … even though he was contributing? Do you get where I want to? Yes? *I want you to make up your own mind*. What do you think about these arguments? *Personally*. Any thoughts? Ines.

Excerpt 4.5 **Authentic questions (3)** [from transcript s7; my italics]

> [00:19:34.03] Ylva: We are going to talk a little bit more together. If we were to eh sort of sum up and reflect upon what we have been talking about when it comes to death penalty … I have made some questions for you to eh … to discuss. Eh … I have presented to you a lot of facts a lot of numbers a lot of yeah … everything about the topic. *What from the discussion, the work you have been done, has made the strongest impression on you*? … Astrid.

Excerpt 4.4 portrays how Ylva is creating a transition from the students arguing for a predetermined group statement to arguing for their own personal opinions. The students had, up until this moment, provided arguments supporting the predetermined statements on the matter of death penalty, and these arguments were all written on the whiteboard. I have italicised multiple words and phrases in Excerpt 4.4 that indicate how the teacher really wanted the students' personal opinions on the arguments (i.e. authentic questions): *go into yourself*, *what would you think*, *I want you to make up your mind*, and *personally*. I found that the authenticity reflected in this segment appeared to impact the whole-class discourse in s5 as well, where the students continued to discuss their personal opinions on whether or not the characters in the text they had read deserved death penalty, as well as questioning the arguments on the white board.

Excerpt 4.5 illustrates another transition in the whole-class discourse, where the teacher facilitated a move from discussing a court case on death penalty, to a meta discussion of what the students felt most strongly about in the discussion. Therefore, the teacher appeared to consolidate what the students had learned, since the students were asked to state how they felt about the subject content of the classroom discourse. The italicised question in Excerpt 4.5 was classified as authentic, as it asks for personal opinions from the students.

4.1.4 Closed questions

All questions that were found to ask for and elicit only one student answer, were categorised as closed (see section 3.5.2). I found that the teachers asked 27% closed questions in total (*n*=19). The majority of these questions were identified in Michael's s1 segment (8/19) and in Henry's segment, s2 (5/19) – the only sampled segments from the ninth grade. Ylva was the only teacher to teach segments in which no closed questions could be identified (s4 and s7). However, Ylva used some closed questions in all the other segments she taught (5 in total). The closed questions are illustrated in Excerpt 4.6.

Excerpt 4.6 **Closed questions** [from transcription s2; my italics]

1. [00:32:45.00] Henry: Ok. So that's basically an outline there. There's a man shooting. *He ends up doing what* (points at student with raised hand)?
2. [00:33:00.24] Student 1: Ehm … To save his own life, he has to shoot another sniper on the other roof.
3. [00:33:04.17] Henry: Yeah.
4. [00:33:05.04] Student 1: And he manages to do this and then he goes to look at this sniper because he kind of admires this person
5. [00:33:12.13] Henry: Yeah.
6. [00:33:12.16] Student 1: The sniper. And then he eh sees that it's his brother.
7. [00:33:16.21] Henry: Good.
8. [00:33:17.03] Student 1: That he killed.
9. [00:33:17.13] Henry: So that's the plot twist at the end, right? So a typical question I would ask you, if I want you to reflect some, is, why do you think the Sniper goes to see the person he has just killed?

Excerpt 4.6 illustrates what was found to be a typical dialogic turn following a closed teacher question. Henry asked for specific content information about the plot of a short story (turn 1). The excerpt (4.6) portrays four student turns (2, 4, 6, and 8). Some might count these as four different answers. However, as these turns are taken by the same student, and only divided by short responses from the teacher (i.e. positive vague evaluative responses, see section 4.2.2), I argue that these four turns are all part of one student answer. Therefore, the teacher question

in turn 1 is categorised as a *closed question*. The teacher question in turn 9 will be addressed in the following section.

4.1.5 Quasi-authentic questions

Quasi-authentic questions were operationalised as questions that asked for more than one answer, and where the teacher added a request for the students' personal opinions on the subject matter. Two quasi-authentic questions could be identified, both in the segment from Henry's ninth grade lesson (s2), illustrated with Excerpts 4.7 and 4.8.

Excerpt 4.7 **Quasi-authentic question (1)** [from transcription s2; my italics]

1. [00:33:17.13] Henry: So a typical question I would ask you, if I want you to reflect some … is *why do you think the sniper goes to see the person he has just killed?*
2. [00:33:31.17] Student 1: plot.
3. [00:33:32.04] Henry: For a plot? Well it's a part of a plot, but *why* has the author decided to do that (points at student with raised hand)?
4. [00:33:37.08] Student 2: Well, uh, it's kind of … you know you get to follow his thoughts, so he says that this was a good shooter
5. [00:33:46.29] Henry: Yeah.

Excerpt 4.8 **Quasi-authentic question (2)** [from transcription s2; my italics]

1. [00:33:58.04] Henry: So because he's in the military he obviously admires people that are good at shooting, so suddenly he gets this thought about maybe I should also go see who it was. *What do we think the theme could be in this story*? ... Or actually, what might be easier for you guys … what are some of the symbols that are used? In The Sniper.
2. [00:34:27.11] Student: I think that the Sniper is a kind of shooter.

The question in Excerpt 4.7, turn 1, is deemed authentic first and foremost because Henry said "do you think", and allowed the students to speak from their own point of view. However, the reason why this question was categorised as *quasi*-authentic is because of the response the teacher gives in line 3. The response indicates that the teacher had expectations as for what content information his question would elicit; he followed up on the student utterance with an uptake in turn 3 ("…why has the author decided to do that?"), asking the students to elaborate on the answer. When he got the student answer in turn 4, he confirmed it with "yeah" (in turn 5). Therefore, I concluded that the question in Excerpt 4.7, turn 1, is not fully authentic, as it was not open for any student answer, and categorised it as *quasi-authentic.*

The italicised question in Excerpt 4.8 depicts how Henry used the pronoun "we" when trying to elicit student content information on the theme of the story, allowing the students to answer from their own point of view. In other words, the question allows for personal opinions (authentic), but as it asks for specific subject content information, it is classified as quasi-authentic.

4.1.6 Summary of teacher questions

The analyses of types of questions in the sampled lesson segments pertain to research question one: *What types of questions do teachers pose in the sampled whole-class discourse?* An overview of the overall distribution the frequencies of types of teacher questions in the sampled lesson segments is presented in Figure 4.2.

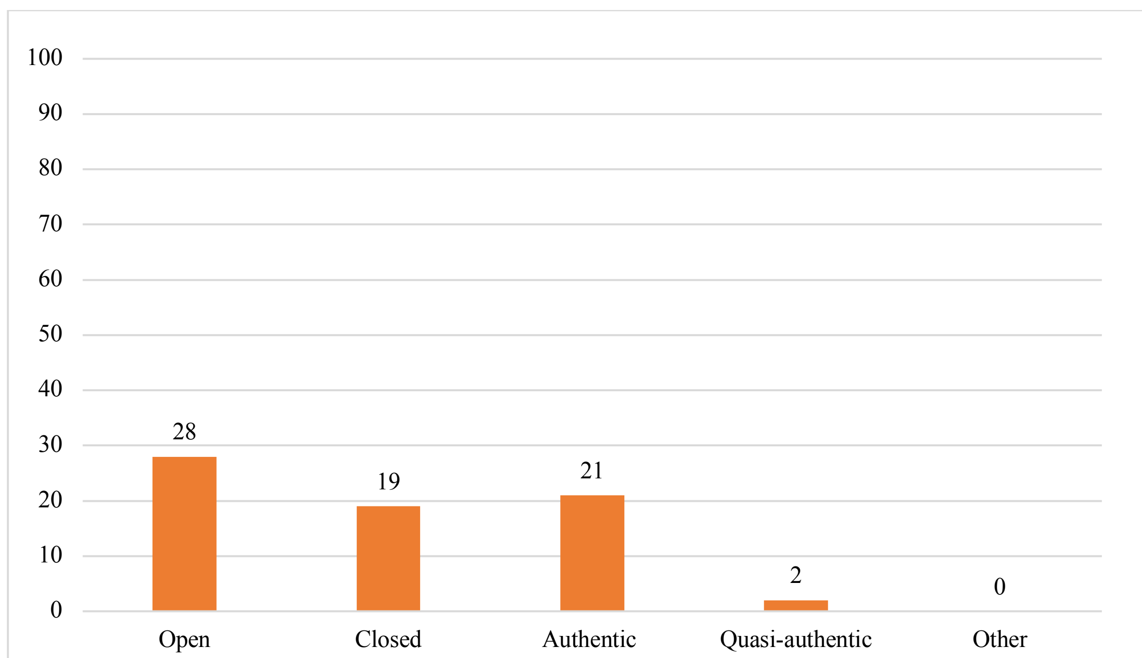

Figure 4.2: Overview of total distribution of teacher questions (*n*=70).

As Figure 4.2 conveys, the teachers posed most *open questions* (40%) in the whole-class discourse, and least *quasi-authentic questions* (3%). The open questions elicited multiple student answers. Ylva was identified as asking the most open questions within a segment (12/15). She was also the teacher who contributed the most to the authentic questions category, with 19 out of the 21 authentic questions being identified in her segments. 19 teacher questions were categorised as closed, as they asked for and elicited only one student answer each. Finally, only two questions were categorised as *quasi-authentic*, because, despite these questions requesting students' personal opinions on subject matters, the

responses that followed the student answers indicated that the teacher only allowed certain answers.

This sub-section, 4.1, has conveyed how the teachers of the sampled whole-class discourse posed all the different types of questions, and that all three teachers had different distributions of these types within their segments.

4.2 Teacher responses in whole-class discourse

Every student utterance in the sampled whole-class discourse was followed by either another student utterance or a teacher response. When aiming to uncover characteristic patterns within the segments scored 4 for the CD element in the PLATO manual, I operationalised *teacher responses* as all the teacher utterances that followed directly after a student comment.This section will present the response patterns that were uncovered in the analyses, pertaining to RQ2: *How do teachers respond to student utterances in the sampled whole-class discourse?* First, I will present an overview of which and how many teacher responses that were identified in each segment. Then I will illustrate and describe what was found to be characteristic of the most frequently occurring to least frequently occurring types of teacher responses in the following declining order*: Vague evaluative responses* (4.2.2), *Revoicing* (4.2.3), *Neutral responses* (4.2.4), *Uptake* (4.2.5), *Other responses* (4.2.6), and *Specific evaluative responses* (4.2.7).

4.2.1 Overview of response distribution

A total number of 302 teacher responses were identified in the sampled segments. I did not include an examination of the student turns that followed directly after student utterances, as these did not share the characteristics of my operationalisation of teacher responses. Table 4.2 provides an overview of how many and what types of teacher responses that were identified in each sampled segment in my MA study.

Table 4.2: Number of identified responses in each segment, represented according to teacher, grade, and segment (*n*=total number of responses by each teacher).

	Michael		**Henry**	**Ylva**
	Grade 9	**Grade 10**	**Grade 9**	**Grade 10**

	s1 (*n*=20)	**s3** (*n*=30)	**s2** (*n*=42)	**s4** (*n*=42)	**s5** (*n*=50)	**s6** (*n*=41)	**s7** (*n*=33)	**s8** (*n*=44)
Vague evaluative response	7	15	14	4	9	3	19	18
Specific evaluative response	1	-	1	-	2	2	-	-
Neutral response	2	4	8	11	8	8	1	4
Uptake	2	1	1	6	10	10	1	10
Revoicing	5	6	11	21	18	16	3	6
Other	3	4	7	-	3	2	9	6

Figure 4.3 provides an overview of the distribution of responses in the sampled segments, making it possible to distinguish what types of responses were most and least common in each segment. As in the presentation of question types (see Figure 4.2), each response category received its own colour (see Figure 4.3).

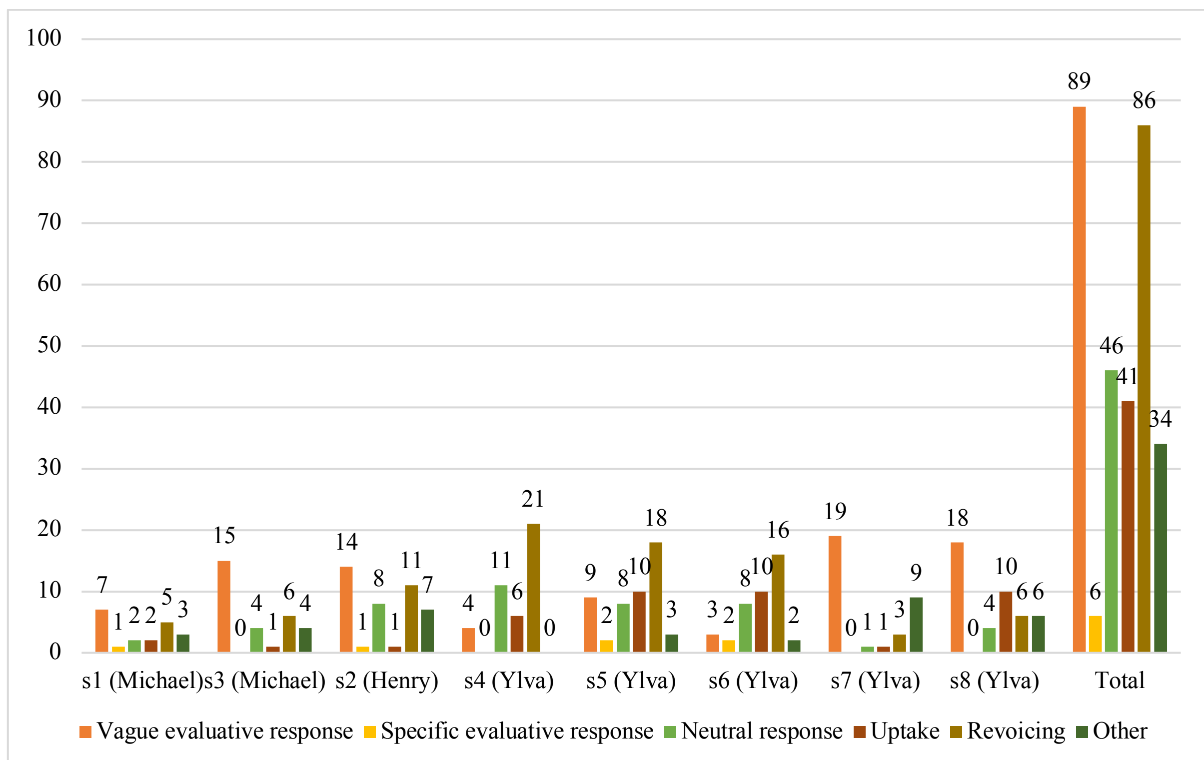

Figure 4.3: Distribution of responses, presented according to segment ID and teacher.

The overview of all the responses in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.3, reveals how it was most common for the teachers to give *vague evaluative responses* (*n*=89, which equals 30% of all responses). The second most common category of responses was the *revoicings* (*n*=86, equalling 29%). Then came the category of *neutral responses* (*n*=46, equalling 15%), followed closely by the *uptake* (*n*=41, equalling 14%), and the *other* categories (*n*=34, equalling 11%). The smallest category to be identified consisted of the *specific evaluative responses* (*n*=6, equalling 2%). The total percentage of these responses equals 101% (i.e., not 100%) due to percentages that were rounded off. The distribution of responses within each segment will be utilised in the upcoming description of what characterises each of the different response categories.

4.2.2 Vague evaluative responses

Vague evaluative responses were operationalised as all teacher responses that indicated whether the student response was considered correct or not, without explaining why. The 89 identified vague evaluative responses were distributed throughout all the segments in the sampled classroom discourse, but some segments portrayed more examples of this type of response than others. A majority of vague evaluative responses were found in both of the segments that had Michael as teacher, in Henry's segment, and in two of the segments from Ylva's teaching (s7 and s8). Excerpt 4.9 from Michael's tenth grade segment (s3) serves the purpose of illustrating the phenomenon of vague evaluative responses (see italics):

Excerpt 4.9 **Vague evaluative response** [from transcription s3; my italics]

1. [00:06:38.02] Michael: *Right* … but what will be exciting is to see … will he be able to do all this? Will Congress support him? That's the big issue here. Actually I said two final comments, but this time I mean it. Final comments [student name] and then [student name] and then we'll take a look at the board.
2. [00:06:57.18] Student 1: Yeah, well one thing a lot of people forget about the President, especially Donald Trump, is that he's not a king. I mean if he tries to make gay marriage illegal people will probably react to that very strictly, so nobody will like him.
3. [00:07:16.10] Michael: *Good point.*
4. [00:07:17.22] Student 1: Maybe even most Republicans
5. [00:07:19.03] Michael: *Good point*! Sofia?
6. [00:07:21.09] Student 2: The KKK came out and said that they supported Donald Trump.
7. [00:07:27.02] Michael: *Right.*

Excerpt 4.9 conveys a typical example of a dialogic turn in which the teacher provides vague evaluative responses. Michael indicates through the confirmative words “Good point” (turn 3 and 5) and “Right” (turn 7) that the student comments (turn 2, 4, and 6) are correct and valued, but provides no explanation of why. As shown in Excerpt 4.9, these vague evaluative responses appeared to encourage the students to continue talking in the sampled classroom discourse.

Positive or negative evaluation

All the vague evaluative responses were coded as either positive or negative evaluations. *Positive* evaluations were identified as all vague evaluative responses that confirmed or validated the student comment. The responses indicating that a student’s contribution was incorrect were coded as *negative* evaluation. Out of all the vague evaluative responses, only one was identified as negative, meaning that 88 out of the 89 vague evaluative responses were validating and confirming the student comment. The positive affirmations are illustrated with Excerpt 4.9. The teachers most often provided either single word affirmations (such as *right, absolutely, yes*) or affirmative sounds (such as *mhm*, *aha*). There were also examples of affirmative phrases, such as, “This is good!”, “Good point!”, and “Interesting thought”. The only negative vague evaluative response is presented in Excerpt 4.10:

Excerpt 4.10 **Negative vague evaluative response** [from transcription s5; my italics]:

1. [01:01:31.23] Ylva: Ok, that’s an interesting question. He is actually mentally, mentally... what’s it called … mentally...
2. [01:01:42.20] Maren: He is childish, underage?
3. [01:01:48.02] Ylva: *No*, help me with the word.

The italicised teacher response in turn 3 (Excerpt 4.10) was coded as a *negative* vague evaluative response because it signals that the student answer was incorrect, without explaining or addressing the reasons behind that devaluation.

4.2.3 Revoicings

Utterances from the teacher that repeated what a student had said, either through stating exactly the same thing or reformulating it, were identified as *revoicings.* Responses classified as revoicings compiled the second to largest category of responses in my analyses (*n*=86, equalling 29%). All the teachers were found to revoice student utterances. However, Ylva had

the largest proportion of this type of response both overall and within a segment, and a majority of revoicings were identified in s4, s5 and s6 (taught by Ylva). Revoicings are illustrated with an excerpt from s1, portraying explicit repetition of student utterances, and another excerpt from s6, illustrating reformulations of student utterances.

Excerpt 4.11 **Revoicing (1)** [from transcription s3; my italics]

1. [00:02:29.21] Michael: What some days we had since Tuesday. No reactions, ok. What happened on Tuesday? Ok … so 5, 6, 7 of you have paid attention to what has happened recently. [Student name], what has happened?
2. [00:02:49.21] Student: Donald … Donald Trump won the election.
3. [00:02:50.17] Michael: *Donald Trump won the election*. Anything else to add?

Excerpt 4.11 turn 3 conveys how Michael repeats the exact words of the student utterance from turn 2. The explicit repetition of student utterances did not always elicit student elaboration directly, and sometimes the teachers' revoicings were followed by questions, such as in turn 2 where the teacher adds a request for further elaboration ("Anything else to add?"). However, other revoicings were not followed by new teacher questions, but teacher perspectives on a subject matter instead. In those cases the student utterance followed after the revoicing and teacher statement without new teacher questions. This is illustrated in Excerpt 4.12, where the teacher revoiced what the students said in turn 2 and 4:

Excerpt 4.12 **Revoicing (2)** [from transcription s6; my italics]

1. [01:21:20.11] Student 1: In some states they actually … if you are over sixteen you are allowed to drive a car. So I think everyone could have droven the car.
2. [01:21:28.06] Ylva: Yeah, *everyone could have driven the car*. Even though Jim Styles provided it, everyone could have driven it, and everyone could have given the order that he would provide the car. Yep. [Student name]?
3. [01:21:38.16] Student 2: Walton might be a bad influence because they both testified that Sam did it.
4. [01:21:45.29] Ylva: *Both of them testify that Sam Walton is behind, is the brain behind everything*.

4.2.4 Neutral responses

The *neutral responses* in my analyses consist of all the teacher responses that did not evaluate student statements, but provided short comments on what students' said. However, none of the revoicings (nor teachers providing their personal opinion on a subject matter) were included in this category. All the segments portrayed this type of teacher response, 46 identifications in total (15% of all). These responses consisted of either a one-word comment,

ok (*n*=24), non-evaluative sounds, *mm* (*n*=14), short teacher comments that neither confirmed nor disproved the student utterance, such as "Well it could, or …" or a questioning vague evaluative response, "Yeah?" (*n*=8). Ylva was identified as the teacher who provided both the most and the least neutral responses within a segment (11 times in s4 and 1 time in s7). Excerpt 4.13 from s4 shows the characteristics of dialogic turns in which the teacher provides neutral responses.

Excerpt 4.13 **Neutral response** [from transcription s4; my italics]

1. [00:48:09.28] Ylva: Yes, any other arguments?
2. [00:48:11.15] Student: Eh, he was the only one who was sober, so he could easily control himself.
3. [00:48:17.10] Ylva: *Ok.*
4. [00:48:17.18] Student: Eh … and eh yeah … he says the other ones forced him to do it, and he is sober and the other ones are drunk, how could they force him?
5. [00:48:28.16] Ylva: *Mm ... Jepp*.

Turn 3 in Excerpt 4.13 exemplifies a clear representation of a neutral response. Ylva did not evaluate nor comment on what the student said, and the student continued to elaborate on his answer. Then Ylva provided what was categorised as vague evaluative response in turn 5, when she indicated that the student comment was correct by uttering the positive validating Norwegian word "Jepp" after the neutral response "Mm". These neutral responses did not appear to deter the flow of student comments in the whole-class discourse, but rather encouraged the students to continue talking, as is illustrated with the student turn 4 following the teacher's neutral responses in turn 3.

4.2.5 Uptake

Another type of response that all the teachers used was uptake of student utterances (41 instances, equalling 14% of all teacher responses). All responses that portrayed a teacher building on what a student said when asking a follow-up question, were coded as uptake. Ylva was identified to use the uptake technique the most within a segment: 10 uptake responses were identified in s5, s6, and s8 respectively. The dialogic turns in the sampled segments revealed two overarching patterns of uptake responses: (1) In 14/41 uptake turns, the teacher asked for confirmation of his/her interpretation of what the student said (illustrated in Excerpt 4.14), and (2) in the remaining 27 uptake turns, the teacher question provided the students with an opportunity to elaborate on what they had just said (illustrated in Excerpt 4.15).

Excerpt 4.14 **Uptake (1)** [from transcription s6; my italics]

1. [01:17:39.05] Student: It was pretty obvious that Jim Styles was driving the car, cause if he had the car why would he like … don't drive it.
2. [01:17:50.16] Ylva: *So he eh ... He found the car. He eh ... was it he*?
3. [01:18:00.23] Student: Yeah.

The teacher response in turn 2, Excerpt 4.14, was coded as uptake because Ylva took on what the student said and then asked for confirmation of her own interpretation of the student message. The uptake is followed by a short confirmation from the student in turn 3, "Yeah". However, this was not always the case with uptake sequences, as there were more frequent instances where teachers' uptake of student utterances provided opportunities for the students to elaborate, illustrated in the following Excerpt 4.15.

Excerpt 4.15 **Uptake (2)** [from transcription s6; my italics]

1. [00:41:18.28] Ylva: What purpose do you think death penalty serves in today's society? ... Why do we need death penalty today? Or do we need it? [student name]?
2. [00:42:09.16] Student 1: Because we have old politicians that doesn't want to listen to younger people.
3. [00:42:14.24] Ylva: *Everywhere?*
4. [00:42:15.28] Student 1: Mostly yeah.
5. [00:42:18.20] Ylva: Okay. So what you're saying is that if young people ehm have the power then death penalty would not be allowed.
6. [00:42:26.18] Student 1: I don't think it would be allowed in so many countries as it is now.
7. [00:42:31.07] Ylva: *You think it has only to do with age?*
8. [00:42:33.07] Student 1: No but I think that it's a big part of it.
9. [00:42:37.00] Ylva: *What about gender?*
10. [00:42:37.00] Student 1: That too. Also like eh the highest leading people in the world are men. And I don't think that this is anything that men decide and the gender men is are killers, I don't think that just that I just believe that elder men that are politicians have a less open mind than younger people.

The italicised teacher responses in Excerpt 4.15 illustrate the second type of uptake techniques identified in the sampled segments. In turns 3, 7, and 9, the teacher took on what the student said and asked questions that gave the student opportunities to elaborate.

4.2.6 Other responses

I identified 34 teacher responses (11% out of all the teacher responses) that did not fit into any of the deductively derived categories used in the analytical work, so these were categorised as

other responses. A further scrutinising of the *other responses* revealed a pattern of three overarching characteristics within this response category: (1) *The teacher provides his/her perspective on a subject matter*, (2) *The teacher asks the student to repeat what was said, because he/she appears not to have comprehended the student message,* and (3) *The teacher validates a student question, without evaluating the subject content*. Figure 4.4 illustrates how these sub-categories of other responses were categorised in the different lesson segments.

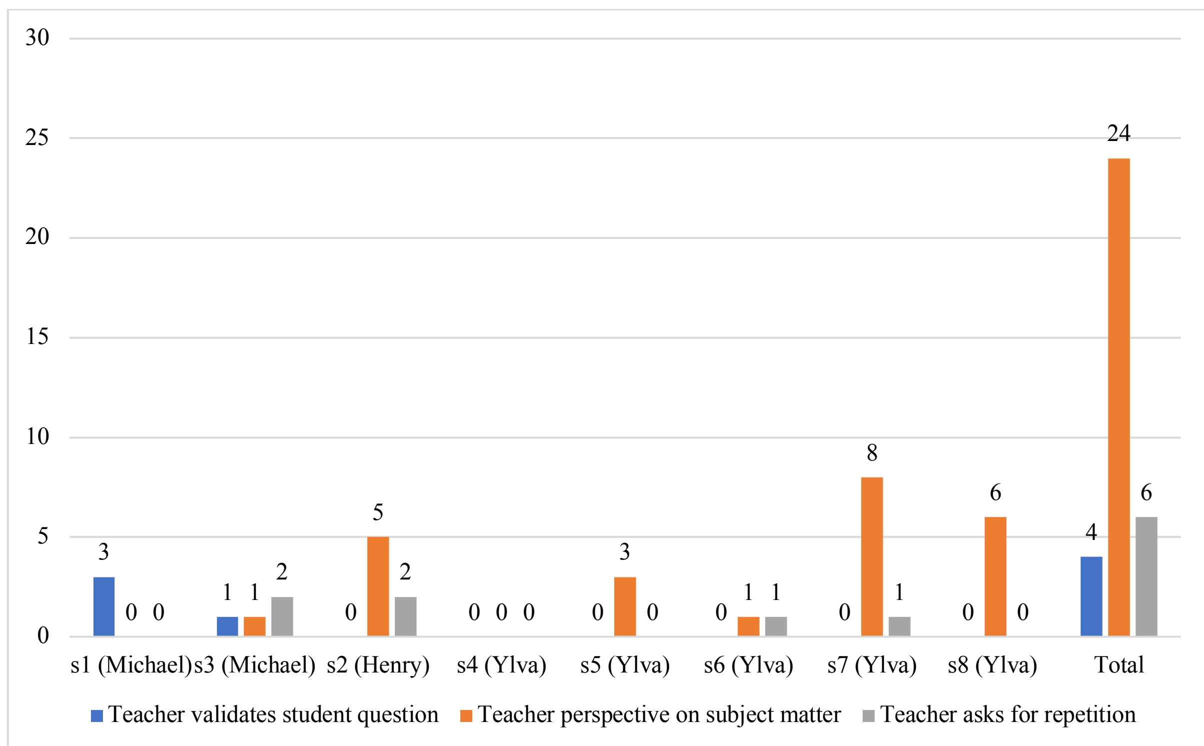

Figure 4.4: Distribution of other responses (*n*=34).

The following excerpts illustrate the characteristic patterns of a dialogic turn where teachers were found to provide responses that fit in one of the three sub-categories of *other responses*.

Excerpt 4.16 **Teacher give his perspective on a subject matter** [from transcription s2; my italics]

1. [00:43:28.07] Henry: Maybe (points at student with hand raised)
2. [00:43:30.12] Student: We talked about that. I think there is a pretty high chance that he may have known the possibility of the one he shot being his brother.
3. [00:43:52.24] Henry: *They could have known that they had fallen out at least. That he was disagreeing with him* (points at student with raised hand)

Excerpt 4.16 portrays how Henry gave his own perspective on the short story that was discussed. There were 24 identifications of these responses in my sample. I found no

instances of this type of response in Michael's segment from ninth grade (s1), neither in one of Ylva's segments (s4). Some might argue that this resembles the teacher uptakes in my analyses, as the teacher builds on what the student said. However, the teacher response did not question the content of the student message, thus, making these responses stand out from the uptake responses.

Excerpt 4.17 **Teacher do not hear what a student says and asks for repetition** [from transcription s3; my italics]

1. [00:02:50.17] Michael: Donald Trump won the election. Anything else to add [student name]?
2. [00:02:56.15] Student: We had an English lesson.
3. [00:02:56.23] Michael: *I'm sorry?*
4. [00:02:58.17] Student: We had an English lesson since last Tuesday.
5. [00:03:00.05] Michael: On Tuesday, Yeah we did.

Turn 2 in Excerpt 4.17 presents an illustration of the responses categorised as "Teacher did not hear what a student said, and calls for repetition". These were either framed as questions, "I'm sorry?" (s3), or as imperatives, "A bit louder on the last sentence please" (from transcription s3). I identified six instances of this type of response in the sampled segments, and these were distributed across all teachers, but not across all segments. Furthermore, Excerpt 4.17 portrays how these responses often elicited longer student answers: the student turn following the teacher response (turn 4) consists of more words than the original student answer (turn 2). One could therefore argue that the students might have understood the teacher response "I'm sorry?" as corrective feedback from the teacher (which would deem this a vague evaluative response). That would have made them rephrase or elaborate on their argument to make it fit with what they thought the teacher wanted to hear (which is characteristic of dialogic turns following open and closed questions), instead of just repeating the exact same thing. However, for these responses to be categorised as *vague evaluative responses*, the evaluation aspect would have had to be more explicit. Therefore, they were coded as *other responses*.

Excerpt 4.18 **Teacher validates a student question** [from transcription s1; my italics]

1. [00:15:57.18] Student: Just a question. The British are of course superior in the war because, yeah you know, second world war and stuff, and therefore they got this eh stridsvogner da, why don't they just take like hundreds of these and just roll them into Ireland and just Ireland is ours? Because Britain is...
2. [00:16:21.03] Michael [interrupts]: *Well that's an interesting question.*

3. [00:16:23.18] Student: Well, I mean, they are so much more powerful than Ireland are.
4. [00:16:25.24] Michael: *That's an interesting question my friends*!

There are two examples of Michael validating the student's question in Excerpt 4.18, in turn 2 and 4. I identified four responses that fit into this category in the sampled segments, and all of them were provided by Michael (three in grade 9 and one in grade 10). What made these responses stand out from the a priori categories of responses, was the clear validation of the students' contribution, without addressing the content of the student utterance. These did not fit into what might seem like a suitable category, the *vague evaluative responses*, as there was no evaluation of the subject matter in these four responses.

4.2.7 Specific evaluative responses

All teacher responses that indicated why and how a student's contribution to the classroom discourse was correct or incorrect were identified as *specific evaluative responses*. I identified least responses of this type in the sampled segments (*n*=6), and only four out of eight segments portrayed specific evaluative responses. However, all the teachers were found to provide specific evaluative responses in one or two of their segments, and I have included an excerpt from the second segment from Ylva's lessons (s5) to illustrate this:

Excerpt 4.19 **Specific evaluative response** [from transcription s5; my italics]

1. [00:59:57.28] Ylva: High school. So, high school, are you a child if you attend high school?
2. [01:00:06.11] Student: Its, a few years of it yeah. You turn like, you become, is it eighteen that eh, you turn eighteen in high school so if, she might be a child.
3. [01:00:17.00] Ylva: *Mm, but, she attend high school, so she's between sixteen and eighteen.*
4. [01:00:22.12] Student: Probably, yes.

Turn 3 in Excerpt 4.19 depicts how Ylva first provided a neutral response ("Mm"). I would argue that this teacher response do not indicate whether the student statement is deemed correct or not by the teacher (i.e. neutral response). However, the rest of the teacher response in turn 3 indicates that the teacher deemed the student message incorrect ("but…") and went on to explain why the student statement should be altered ("…she attended high school…").

Positive or negative evaluation

All the specific evaluative responses were coded as either positive or negative evaluations. If the specific evaluative responses confirmed or validated a student comment, these were coded as *positive* evaluations, whereas those indicating that the student message should be altered were coded as *negative*. All of the six specific evaluative responses within the sampled segments were coded as negative. This type of responses is illustrated with Excerpt 4.19, where the teacher provides an explanation as for why the student message should be changed.

4.2.8 Summary of teacher responses

Section 4.2 has presented the main findings of this MA project pertaining to research question two: *How do teachers respond to student utterances in the sampled whole-class discourse?* The distribution of the different types of responses is presented in Figure 4.5.

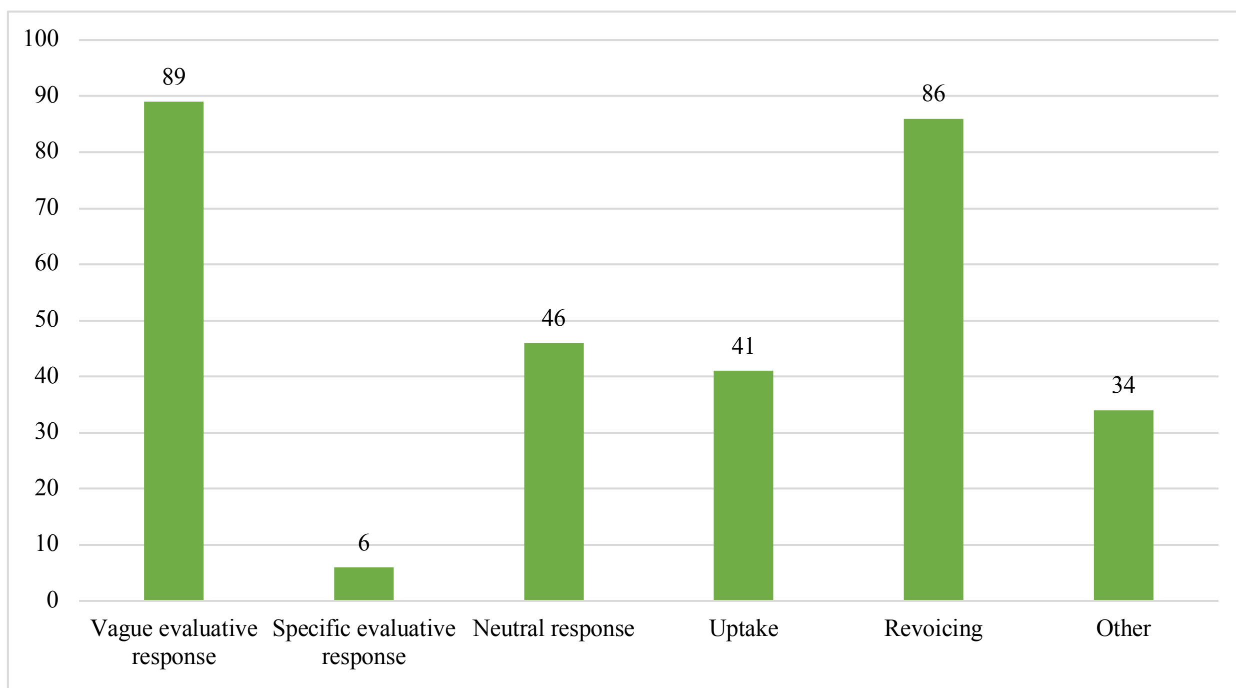

Figure 4.5: Distribution of teacher responses (*n* = 302).

My analyses identified 302 teacher responses coded according to the categories in Figure 4.5. As the figure portrays, this chapter has identified a highest proportion of *vague evaluative responses* (30%) in the sampled segments, and least *specific evaluative responses* (2%). There were almost as many *revoicings* as vague evaluative responses (86 and 89, respectively), and these were both identified in all the different segments. Out of all the vague evaluative responses, 99% were identified as positive evaluations. Furthermore, this section has presented what characterized the 46 neutral responses, and the 41 uptake responses, as well as described the three sub-categories of responses that were derived inductively through an

examination of the ‘other’ responses (*n*=34), namely ‘Teacher gave his perspective on a subject matter’ (24), ‘Teacher did not hear what a student said and called for repetition’ (6), and ‘Teacher validated a student question’ (4). Finally, I presented what characterised the six specific evaluative responses, and identified all of them as negative evaluations.

4.3 Summary of findings chapter

This section has presented the overarching patterns of types of questions and responses the teacher provides in the sampled whole-class discourse identified as being of high quality, as they were all coded ‘4’ according to PLATO. In answering RQ1, this chapter has identified and described *open questions* as the most common type of all questions (*n*=28, equalling 40%). These questions were to some extent distributed evenly throughout the segments (identified in six out of eight segments). As for *authentic questions*, there were 21 identifications (30%), and these were also found in six out of eight segments. While there were almost as many *closed questions* as authentic ones (*n*=19, equalling 27%), most of them were identified in Michael’s s1 and Henry’s s2 segments (14/19). In other words, the overall teacher questions were not distributed evenly throughout the sampled whole-class discourse. In terms of teachers’ responses (RQ2), it was unveiled that there were most *positive vague evaluative responses* (*n*=89, equalling 30%) and *revoicings* (n = 86, equalling 29%) in the sampled whole-class discourse, and these were identified in all the segments. The findings convey that there were many more teacher responses than questions in the sampled whole-class discourse. Furthermore, the segments where Ylva was teaching stood out from the rest, as she was the only teacher who had as much as five segments scored 4 in the CD element of the PLATO manual. The following section will include a discussion of whether previous theory and research can elucidate whether the identified questions and responses in her whole-class discourse can be why she had five segments scored 4 (see section 5.2).

5 Discussion

This chapter will discuss the findings in light of the aforementioned theory and previous research (see chapter 2 Theory). Section 5.1 will discuss the following: Does whole-class discourse portray teacher questions and responses characteristic of dialogic teaching? Section 5.2 will focus on possible reasons to why as many as five segments from Ylva's lessons fit into the sampled material selected for this thesis. Section 5.3 will present a summative discussion of what I found to be most characteristic of the total sample of whole-class discourse. Finally, section 5.4 will present didactical implications that can be drawn from this MA study.

5.1 Does whole-class discourse portray teacher questions and responses characteristic of dialogic teaching?

The theory chapter reported on instructional tools that have been found to produce the desired whole-class discourse, namely questions and responses that teachers use to mediate dialogic teaching (see section 2.3.1). This section will discuss whether uncovered patterns and characteristics of teacher questions and responses can be linked to characteristics of *dialogic teaching* (5.1.1 and 5.1.2). I will then address the identification of more teacher responses than questions, and argue that this overarching characteristic indicates that the sampled whole-class discourse portrayed dialogic teaching (5.1.3).

5.1.1 Teacher questions and dialogic teaching

The overall patterns of teacher questions involved a majority of open questions (40%). These questions give students the opportunity to oppose each other's arguments in whole-class discourse (e.g., Andersson-Bakken, 2015, 2017; Nystrand et al., 1997), and have been found to encourage dialogic teaching. Furthermore, there were 30% authentic questions in the sampled segments, indicating that the teachers allowed for and requested students' personal opinions (e.g., Cazden, 2001; Nystrand et al., 1997). Authentic questions have been reported to create dialogic teaching because they give students opportunities to discuss and reflect from their own points of view (Nystrand et al., 1997). All the teachers posed open and/or authentic questions, and either of these was the most frequently asked question type in six out of eight segments. The majority of open and authentic teacher questions give the students opportunities to engage in "discussions […] which explore and support the development of

their understanding of content" (Mercer & Littleton, 2007, p. 42). Therefore, the overall pattern of teacher questions can be argued to give room for dialogic teaching in the sampled whole-class discourse. However, if one examines the question patterns within two of the segments (s1 and s2), the picture becomes somewhat different.

Michael posed closed questions most frequently in his teaching in s1 (8/10), and while Henry did in fact pose seven open questions, his segment (s2) also included five closed questions and no authentic ones. Previous research and theories have found that closed questions often produce monologic and authoritative teaching (Andersson-Bakken, 2015, 2017; Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Lyle, 2008; Nystrand et al., 1997). The frequency of closed questions in the segments from the ninth grade, taught by Michael and Henry, might therefore indicate that these segments (s1 and s2) share more of the monologic teaching characteristics than dialogic. However, the teacher questions do not give enough evidence for me to conclude on this matter, and I will, consequently, also assess whether the teacher responses portrayed characteristics of dialogic teaching.

5.1.2 Teacher responses and dialogic teaching

This section will present discussions of the responses that were identified in the sampled segments. First, I will address the type of response that was found to be most characteristic of the sampled segments, namely the vague evaluative responses, and discuss how these responses might impact the whole-class discourse. Then I will discuss the other types of responses that were identified, from most to least frequently posed; *revoicings*, *neutral responses*, *uptake*, and *other responses*.

If teachers aim to engage students in dialogic teaching, they should provide responses that encourage students to elaborate, build on or contest each other's answers (e.g., Alexander, 2017; Cazden, 2001; Grossman, 2015; Nystrand et al., 1997). Andersson-Bakken and Klette (2016) identified all evaluative responses as authoritative teaching moves, and argued that these do not give students opportunities to elaborate. Furthermore, Nystrand et al. (1997) argue that evaluative responses should change the course of the dialogue for these to be deemed high-level and indicative of a dialogic teaching. According to Nystrand et al. (1997) this is first and foremost achieved through uptake of student utterances (Nystrand et al., 1997). Following this line of reasoning, I was surprised to identify *vague evaluative responses* as the overall most frequent response type in the segments (30%), as well as in five out of

eight segments. I thought these responses would indicate and promote monologic teaching, and that I would not find many of these in the sample of 'successful' whole-class discourse. Therefore, I included an examination of whether all evaluative responses were positive or negative evaluations of the student utterances, to see if that could provide any explanations for the surprising identification of so many vague evaluative responses. As section 4.2.1 illustrates, all but one (88/89) of the vague evaluative responses were positive affirmations of student utterances (e.g., Excerpt 4.10). Therefore, I would argue that the positive vague affirmations in my sampled whole-class discourse share some of the characteristics of revoicings and uptake (i.e. indicative of dialogic teaching), namely that these responses validates the students' contributions, and are important means of creating a supportive environment for whole-class discourse (ref. Alexander, 2017; Nystrand et al., 1997; O'Connor & Michaels, 1993). Contrastingly, section 4.2.6 reveals that there were only negative *specific evaluative responses* (6/6). This might reflect the teachers' attitude towards student answers: when the student utterance is appreciated or correct, there is no need for explanation, but when the student contribution is incorrect or slightly off, the teacher has to explain why (e.g., Excerpt 4.19). Therefore, the majority of positive vague evaluative responses might indicate an overall positive attitude towards, and appreciation of, all student comments, hopefully creating an environment where "children articulate their ideas freely, without fear of embarrassment over 'wrong' answers; and [where] they help each other to reach common understandings" (i.e. supportive dialogic teaching, Alexander, 2017, p. 28).

The theory chapter presented *revoicings* as one type of response that teachers could pose to encourage dialogic teaching, as these responses have been found to foster collaborative and supportive learning contexts (Cazden, 2001; Duff, 2000; O'Connor & Michaels, 1993). Due to my sampling of whole-class discourse with seemingly high quality, I was therefore not surprised to identify 86 revoicings (29%) in the sampled whole-class discourse. All the teachers reformulated and recasted student utterances to the class. However, as section 4.2.3 presents, the revoicings did not always produce student elaboration directly, and were often followed by a teacher comment or question. Therefore, I argue that the main feature of the revoicings that give evidence of dialogic teaching in my thesis, resides in the empowering of the students that these responses offer. In line with O'Connor and Michaels (1993) and Cazden (2001), the characteristics of dialogic teaching that can be drawn from the categorised revoicings are these profound sociocultural functions. As was mentioned in the previous paragraph, these responses might reduce the students' fear of embarrassment, and hence

encourage supportive, cumulative, reciprocal and collective dialogues (cf. dialogic teaching, Alexander, 2017). Thus, my identification of dialogic revoicings can be argued to be in line with Andersson-Bakken and Klette (2016). Despite me not being able to fully conclude on these matters, this might be a reason why I identified frequent revoicings in the seemingly 'successful' whole-class discourse: The teachers are succeeding in creating a supportive and encouraging learning context through validation of student utterances.

The third largest proportion of responses consisted of *neutral responses* (15%). These responses did not appear to deter the flow of student comments in the sampled whole-class discourse, indicating that these might also promote dialogic teaching (cf. Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016). The students continued talking, and did not seem affected by the neutral responses from the teacher, even though these responses did not indicate whether their answer was correct or not. One could argue that this also indicates a supportive learning context (cf. Alexander, 2017), as the students continued articulating their ideas, despite not knowing whether their comments were correct. The students who participated in the whole-class discourse did not appear to be frightened nor embarrassed. However, based on my data and method (observations of the videos), this line of reasoning remains speculative.

All the teachers used *uptake* techniques in their segments to some extent (14% out of all teacher responses). The benefits of uptake of student utterances have been emphasised throughout this MA study, as these both validate, follow up and contest student answers, and thus provide students with opportunities to elaborate on and discuss each other's arguments (e.g., Grossman, 2015; Nystrand et al., 1997). In line with previous research and theory, the teachers were found to build on student answers or comments, and provide affirmative uptake of these in the sampled whole-class discourse, indicating that these functioned as dialogic teaching moves in the sampled segments (cf. Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016). The unveiled presence and characteristics of *uptake* did, in line with Nystrand et al. (1997), appear to create dialogues where students built on each other's ideas and considered alternative viewpoints (cf. reciprocal and cumulative dialogues, Alexander, 2017, p. 28). These uptake responses could therefore be classified as high-level evaluation (cf. Nystrand et al., 1997).

There were 33 teacher responses in the sampled segments that did not fit into any of the a priori categories of responses (11%). Out of these, 24 depicted teachers who gave their opinion on a subject matter, six consisted of teachers asking the students to repeat their

utterances, and three illustrated teachers validating students' questions. I would argue that the two latter types share the validation characteristics with the aforementioned positive vague evaluative responses and revoicings, argued to be beneficial for dialogic teaching. As was stated in the findings section 4.2.6, the 24 uncovered *teacher comments* share some characteristics with the uptake of student utterances, because the teacher comments most often build on something a student said, either contesting or confirming the student message. However, in contrast to the uptake sequences, consisting of follow-up questions, these were not formulated as questions, and did therefore not always elicit student elaboration. Nevertheless, Tharp and Gallimore (1991) argue that the teacher's aim should be for the dialogue to appear spontaneous and authentic, that is, according to Mercer and Littleton (2007), characterised by both students and teachers contributing to the dialogue. Thus, whole-class discourse might appear unnatural and more authoritative if teachers only monitor and organise whole-class discourse without providing any opinions or perspectives themselves. The even distribution of teacher comments in the segments (present in all but s1) might actually indicate that the teachers engage in a natural, cumulative, and collective dialogue *with* the students (cf. Alexander, 2017; Swain, 2000), instead of, for instance, providing linguistic content *for* them.

5.1.3 More teacher responses than questions

I find it interesting that there were more teacher responses than teacher questions, despite the fact that both previous research and the PLATO manual have identified questions as common and especially important instructional tools in mediation of whole-class discourse. I expected to identify more teacher questions than responses in segments that were identified a priori to give students opportunities to talk. However, there were a total of 302 teacher responses and only 82 teacher questions in the sampled whole-class discourse. One possible explanation for this characteristic could be that the students posed more questions than the teachers did throughout the sampled whole-class discourse. However, the findings revealed that students only asked 22 questions in total (see section 4.1.1). Therefore, I will draw on Alexander (2017) when arguing that the identification of more teacher responses than questions might give evidence of dialogic teaching.

As mentioned, Alexander (2017) argues that whole-class discourse has to be collective, reciprocal, supportive, cumulative and purposeful to be classified as dialogic teaching. The sampling criteria of this MA study ensured that the whole-class discourse portrayed lessons

where the teachers and students addressed "learning tasks together" (cf. collective, Alexander, 2017, p. 28). Furthermore, I would argue that the majority of responses indicate that these segments portray reciprocal and cumulative whole-class discourse. Reciprocal teaching is used about classroom discourse where students and teachers "listen to each other, share ideas and consider alternative viewpoints", while cumulative teaching is characterized by students and teachers building on "each other's ideas and chain[ing] them into coherent lines of thinking and enquiry" (Alexander, 2017, p. 28). When the teachers responded to what the students said rather than asking a new topic question to restart the dialogue, the selected examples of whole-class discourse were found to evolve as reciprocal and cumulative; the teachers listened to the students and responded to their comments or arguments, rather than asking new questions that did not build on students' utterances. This argument is supported by the aforementioned frequency of positive evaluations and affirmations of student utterances, indicating that the teachers had an overarching positive attitude towards student contributions (i.e. supportive dialogic teaching, Alexander, 2017, p. 28).

5.2 Why does the teacher Ylva stand out?

This section will present a discussion of whether the patterns of teacher questions and responses can explain why Ylva was the only teacher who had more than two segments that fit into the sampling method of this MA study. The sampling criteria identified segments that consisted of whole-class discourse scored 4 in the CD element of PLATO. There were eight segments out of the total 213 that were identified, and at the moment of sampling I was surprised that there were so few of them. However, when I started to work with the aforementioned theory, it became evident that the CD element depicts classroom discourse that shares quite a few characteristics with dialogic teaching, such as a majority of open questions, opportunities to participate in content discussion, uptake of student utterances and opportunities to elaborate on student messages. Therefore, when I realised how challenging and demanding it might be for teachers to create this kind of dialogues with their students, and how previous research has identified a majority of monologic and authoritative teaching moves (e.g., Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016; Cazden, 2001; Nystrand et al., 1997), I concluded that eight out of 213 might not be as few segments as I initially thought. The curious case was rather that I identified five whole-class segments scored 4 in the same class, conducted by the same teacher (Ylva). I will draw on characteristics of dialogic teaching and

the findings from my study when discussing why Ylva's whole-class discourse scored 4 in as many as five segments.

Ylva posed 19 out of the 21 authentic questions (91%), and these 19 authentic questions were distributed quite evenly throughout her segments (3/15 in s4, 6/12 in s5, 1/2in s6, 5/5 in s7, and 4/8 in s8). Furthermore, 18 out of the 28 open questions (64%) were identified in her segments (12 in s4, 3 in s5, and 3 in s8), and she posed overall fewer closed questions than both Henry and Michael did, respectively. In other words, Ylva's posing of open and authentic questions was the only reason why there were more open and authentic questions than closed questions in my overall sample. As authenticity and open questions have been identified as indicative of dialogic teaching (Andersson-Bakken & Klette, 2016, Nystrand et al., 1997), I would argue that Ylva's lesson segments consisted of questions that provided students with many opportunities to participate in dialogic teaching, at least more so than Michael and Henry's lessons. Ylva was also the only teacher who portrayed more revoicings than any other response within three of her segments (21/42 in s4, 18/50 in s5, and 16/41 in s6), which already has been claimed to elicit dialogic teaching (cf. Cazden, 2001; O'Connor & Michaels, 1993).

In addition to questions and responses, the distinct structure and organisation of Ylva's whole-class discourse might have impacted the identification of multiple segments from these lessons. Ylva was the only teacher who told her students at the very beginning of lesson 1 (within the LISE material from grade 10, school 9) that she was going to assess the students' oral English proficiency based on their participation in whole-class discourse. It appeared that she had planned and organised lessons that gave the students opportunities to participate in whole-class discourse. In other words, Ylva was the only teacher to explicitly fulfil the fifth characteristic of Alexander's (2017) description of dialogic teaching being purposeful: "teachers plan and facilitate dialogic teaching with particular educational goals in view" (p. 28). As the findings from Excerpt 4.5 and 4.6 in section 4.1.3 (Authentic questions) illustrate, she appeared to have planned whole-class discourse that moved from a discussion of prepared statements and arguments, to a more spontaneous and authentic discussion of students' personal opinions on the death penalty. Most of the segments from Ylva's lessons that portrayed a discussion of prepared arguments did not fulfil the criteria of my sample, and only the first six minutes of s4 depict discussions of the prepared statements. The rest of the sampled segments depict whole-class discourse with more authentic characteristics, where

students discussed their personal opinions of the prepared arguments and on the topic of capital punishment.

In summary, I would argue that the segments taught by Ylva depict whole-class discourse that shares multiple characteristics with Alexander's (2017) definition of dialogic teaching. The outcome of the organisation of whole-class discourse with open and authentic questions, and positive affirmation of most student utterances, appeared to create a purposeful, collective and cumulative dialogue that lasted throughout the five sampled segments, where both the teacher and the students listened to and opposed each other's arguments (cf. reciprocal, Alexander, 2017). I am not able to conclude whether or not the students' felt that they could state their arguments freely (cf. supportive dialogues, Alexander, 2017), but I would argue that the positive affirmations and seemingly 'anything goes attitude' of the teacher probably created less fear of giving 'wrong answers', enabling the interlocutors in this whole-class discourse to "reach common understandings" (Alexander, 2017, p. 28). These might all be reasons why the whole-class discourse thought by Ylva lasted for as many as five 15-minute segments.

5.3 Characteristics of the sampled whole-class discourse

This section will provide a summative discussion of the characteristics that were identified in the sampled whole-class discourse, specifically in terms of how the teachers used questions and responses to facilitate whole-class discourse, and link this to the description of the CD element in the PLATO manual.

Michael posed more closed questions than any other type of questions. Henry posed a majority of open questions (*n*=7), but almost as many closed questions (*n*=5). In Ylva's segments there were either most authentic or open questions, or an equal amount of authentic and closed questions (in s6). The overall majority of questions were open, followed closely by authentic questions. I would argue that the complex overview of characteristics derived through an examination of the types of questions across the *total* sample of whole-class discourse, do not explain why all these segments received the score of 4 in the CD element of PLATO. Despite the description of the CD element indicating that there would be mainly open questions in the segments scored with a 4, there was too much variation in types of questions within each segment, for a conclusion to be made regarding what types of questions create high quality whole-class discourse. However, the large proportion of positive,

affirmative and encouraging teacher responses were distributed throughout all the segments. As has been argued already, these responses appear to create reciprocal, supportive, and cumulative dialogic teaching (cf. Alexander, 2017, Cazden, 2001). In line with the description of segments scored 4 in the CD element, these responses leaves room for elaboration of student answers and comments. Therefore, the majority of teacher responses that confirm and support student reasoning might be more important than the questions, in creating dialogic teaching within the sampled whole-class discourse.

5.4 Didactic implications

This MA study has reported on some similarities and differences in how teachers mediate whole-class discourse identified as being of high quality. This MA therefore provides valuable insight into how English teachers can facilitate whole-class discourse in lessons where they aim to give students opportunities to participate in dialogic teaching of essential educational value. The following paragraphs will address some didactic implications that can be drawn from this MA study.

The first implication is the importance of providing encouraging, positive responses to student comments. My study identified many more responses than questions in the sampled segments, and these were profoundly positive towards the students' comments. Therefore, I would argue that a positive attitude towards student answers will not only produce, but also promote, whole-class discourse.

This MA study also indicates the importance of the teacher's role in planning and facilitating whole-class discourse. This was emphasized through the discussion of Ylva's five segments, which revealed how she planned for oral participation, shared this plan with the students, and used questions and responses to mediate whole-class discourse. Therefore, this study reflects what Alexander (2017), Cazden (2001), Mercer and Littleton (2007) and Nystrand et al. (1997) emphasize; teachers need an agenda when orchestrating whole-class discourse of educational value, especially if they want the whole-class discourse to last longer than 15 minutes. Teachers are responsible for assuring that their mediation of questions and responses provides opportunities to participate in whole-class discourse, and ensure that the purposes of said interactions are conveyed to the students.

The identification of many different types of questions and responses in this MA study also reflect that there are multiple ways to conduct successful whole-class discourse, thus, supporting Mercer's (2003) argument of monologic teaching moves not always leading to less student participation in whole-class discourse. A final didactic implication of this study is therefore that teachers of L2 English should not only pose questions and responses that have been identified to produce dialogic teaching, but rather consider which functions these instructional tools have in their teaching, in order to pose questions and responses that they believe are suitable for the particular lesson.

6 Conclusion

This MA study aimed to answer this overarching research question: *What is characteristic of the types of questions and responses teachers provide students with in whole-class discourse identified as high quality in L2 English (grades 9 and 10)?* A systematic purposeful criterion sampling of video data from the LISE project identified eight 15-minute lesson segments portraying whole-class discourse that had received the score 4 in the Classroom Discourse element of the PLATO manual (Grossman, 2015). These video segments were carefully observed, transcribed, and scrutinised in accordance with Braun and Clark's (2006) thematic analysis. An abductive approach to the analyses enabled me to answer the following two research questions that guided my study:

> RQ1: *What types of questions do teachers pose in the sampled whole-class discourse?*
> RQ2: *How do teachers respond to student utterances in the sampled whole-class discourse?*

When answering RQ1, this MA study found an overall majority of *open* (40%) and *authentic questions* (30%) within the sampled whole-class discourse. These types of questions were not evenly distributed throughout all the sampled whole-class discourse (that is, there were more open and authentic questions in some segments than others). Furthermore, the findings pertaining to RQ2 present a large proportion of *positive vague evaluative responses* (30% of all responses) and *revoicings* (29%), more evenly distributed throughout the segments. Therefore, what all the sampled whole-class discourse segments have in common are the following characteristics: more teacher responses than questions, and these responses reflect an overarching positive attitude towards student answers.

With these empirical findings, this MA study contributes to an enhanced understanding of how whole-class discourse identified to be of high quality are conducted in some L2 English lessons in Norwegian lower secondary school. This thesis provides a description of the different types of teacher questions and responses that can be used to facilitate, monitor and organize whole-class discourse of high quality; that is, both teacher and students engage in elaborate and purposeful discourse where they build on each other's contributions (Grossman, 2015). The identification of more teacher responses (with overarching positive characteristics) than questions is especially interesting, as it emphasizes the importance of creating a

supportive environment in the classroom setting. Furthermore, in agreement with previous theory and research, this study reports on the benefits of encouraging dialogic teaching in L2 language learning in a Norwegian setting. However, despite suggesting characteristics of dialogic teaching, the sampled whole-class discourse also portrayed questions and responses that were classified as monologic. It is argued that these monologic questions and responses illustrate how teachers should not only incorporate questions and responses that have been found to be dialogic in their teaching, but rather ensure that they facilitate whole-class discourse that meet the aim of the particular lesson. With this MA study I hope to encourage teachers to reflect on how they use questions and responses in their own L2 English classrooms, in order to give students opportunities to participate in whole-class discourse that will be of high educational value.

6.1 Suggestions for further research

When I started this journey of writing my MA thesis, I struggled to find research projects examining oral interactions in whole-class contexts from L2 (English) teaching in Norwegian settings. Nevertheless, the benefits of providing students with opportunities to participate in oral communication is heavily emphasized both in the current and the upcoming Norwegian English subject curricula (ENG1-03 and ENG01-04), as well as in international research and theory on secondary language learning. Therefore, I would like to see more research on what teachers can do to give students opportunities to participate in beneficial whole-class discourse, and I will end by offering some specific suggestions.

Firstly, it would be of value to examine how different teacher questions and responses might affect students' rate of oral participation. For instance, one could examine the participation rate within whole-class discourse scored 1 or 2 in the CD element of the PLATO manual and compare it to a sample similar to mine (Grossman, 2015). There were only eight out of 213 segments in the LISE material that fit my sampling criteria. Thus, an examination of whether classroom discourse scored 1 or 2 portrayed similar patterns of teacher questions and responses, as well as similar participation rates, to that of my study would enable a discussion of whether teacher questions and responses appear to impact student participation in classroom discourse. In such a comparative study (e.g., Bingham, Dean & Castillo, 2019), it would be possible to argue if the choice of questions and responses impact how many and/or which students that participate in whole-class discourse.

I would also like to see a study of students' perception of teacher responses. It would yield interesting findings regarding whether students feel encouraged by positive responses (cf. Nystrand et al., 1997), and whether they believe that these create more supportive whole-class discourse (cf., Alexander, 2017). This research could, for instance, be conducted through an examination of observed teacher instruction portraying different types of responses, followed by interviews with participating students regarding their perception of those varying teacher instructions (cf. Nystrant et al, 1997).

Finally, I believe we need more research on what types of questions and responses *students* provide in whole-class discourse. Are teachers the only participants who are found to use these instructional strategies, or do students also take on the role as mediators of oral communication in classroom settings? The acclamation of dialogic teaching in this MA thesis emphasizes that students would benefit from participating in collective, reciprocal, supportive, cumulative and purposeful dialogues (cf. Alexander, 2017). Therefore, students should participate in the whole-class discourse, but does that also entail posing questions and responses in a more spontaneous classroom discourse (cf. Tharp & Gallimore, 1991), or are the teachers still the main mediators of both these instructional tools? Furthermore, this MA study found that teachers pose more questions than students do, but what about responses? A comparative analysis of teacher questions and responses, and student questions and responses would provide valuable insight into how both groups of participants in whole-class discourse mediate oral interactions.

References

Aashamar, P. N. (2017). *Diskusjon og demokrati: En videostudie av muligheter for diskusjon om samfunnsfaglige tema* (Master's thesis, University of Oslo). Retrieved from http://urn.nb.no/URN:NBN:no-60620.

Ahmed, M. K. (1994). Speaking as cognitive regulation: A Vygotskian perspective on dialogic communication. In J.P. Lantolf, & G. Appel, (Eds.), *Vygotskian Approaches to Second Language Research* (pp. 157-171). New Jersey, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Alexander, R. (2017). *Towards dialogic teaching: rethinking classroom talk* (5th edition). North Yorkshire, UK: Dialogos.

Alexander, R. J. (2005). *Culture, dialogue and learning: Notes on an emerging pedagogy*. Paper presented at the Conference of the International Association for Cognitive Education and Psychology, University of Durham, UK.

Alvesson, M., & Sköldberg, K. (2009). *Reflexive Methodology. New Vistas for Qualitative Research* (2nd edition). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Andersson-Bakken, E. (2015). Læreres bruk av spørsmål og responser i helklasseundervisning på ungdomstrinnet (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Oslo). Retrieved from: https://www.duo.uio.no/handle/10852/51881.

Andersson-Bakken, E. (2017). *Dette vet vi om spørsmål og interaksjon i klasserommet*. Oslo: Gyldendal akademisk.

Andersson-Bakken, E., & Klette, K. (2016). Teachers' use of questions and responses to students' contributions during whole class discussions: comparing language arts and science classrooms. In K. Klette, O. K. Bermem, & A. Roe, (Eds.), *Teaching and learning in lower secondary schools in the era of PISA and TIMSS* (pp. 63-84). New York, NY: Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-17302-3_5.

Aukrust, V. G. (2003). Samtaledeltakelse i norske klasserom – en studie av deltakerstrukturer og samtalebevegelser. In K. Klette (Ed.), *Evaluering av Reform 97. Klasserommets praksisformer etter Reform 97.* (pp. 77–110). Oslo: Unipub AS.

Bakhtin, M. M. (1986). *Speech genres and other late essays*. Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.

Bellack, A., Hyman, R., Smith, F., & Kliebard, H. (1966). *The language of the classroom.* New York: Columbia University Press.

Bingham, A. J., Dean, S., & Castillo, J. (2019). Qualitative comparative analysis in educational policy research: Procedures, processes, and possibilities. *Methodological innovations: Sage Journals*, *12*(2), 1-13. https://doi.org/10.1177/2059799119840982.

Blikstad-Balas, M. (2017) Key challenges of using video when investigating social practices in education: contextualization, magnification, and representation. *International Journal of Research & Method in Education, 40*(5), 511-523. https://doi.org/10.1080/1743727X.2016.1181162.

Blikstad-Balas, M., & Sørvik, G. O. (2015). Researching literacy in context: Using video analysis to explore school literacies. *Literacy*, *49*(3), 140-148. https://doi-org.ezproxy.uio.no/10.1111/lit.12037.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3(2), pp. 77–101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa.

Brevik, L. M. (2019). Explicit reading strategy instruction or daily use of strategies? Studying the teaching of reading comprehension through naturalistic classroom observation in English L2. *Reading and Writing*, *32*(9), 2281–2310. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-019-09951-w.

Brevik, L. M., & Rindal, U. (2020). Language Use in the Classroom: Balancing Target Language Exposure With the Need for Other Languages. *Tesol Quarterly*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.564.

Burns, C., & Myhill, D. (2004). Interactive or inactive? A consideration of the nature of interaction in whole class teaching. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *34*(1) 35–49. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764042000183115.

Cazden, C. B. (2001). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Cohen, J., & Grossman, P (2016). Respecting complexity in measures of teaching: Keeping students and schools in focus. In Teacher and Teacher Education ed. 55 (Elsevier Ltd.). http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.01.017.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education* (8th ed.) New York, NY: Routledge.

Corti, L. (2000). Progress and problems of preserving and providing access to qualitative data for social research – the international picture of an emerging culture. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research 1*(3), Art. 2. Retrieved from https://search-proquest-com.ezproxy.uio.no/docview/867756680?accountid=14699.

Creswell, J. (2014). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (4th ed.; International student ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. H., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). Research design qualitative, quantitative & mixed methods approaches (5th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. D., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory Into Practice, 39* (3), 124-130. Retrieved from http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1207/s15430421tip3903_2.

Dalland, C. P. (2011). Utfordringer ved gjenbruk av andres kvalitative data. *Norsk pedagogisk tidsskrift*, *95*(06), 449-459. Retrieved from https://www.idunn.no/npt/2011/06/art04?mode=abstract_no&skipDecorating=true.

Denzin, N. K. (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Dillon, J. T. (1990). *The practice of Questioning*, London: Routledge.

Duff, P. A (2000). Repetition in foreign language classroom interaction. In J. K. Hall, & L. S. Verplaetse, (Eds.) *Second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (pp. 109-138). New Jersey, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dysthe, O. (1995). *Det flerstemmige klasserommet. Skriving og samtale for å lære*. Oslo: Ad Notam Gyldendal.

Edwards, T. (2003). Purposes and characteristics of whole-class dialogue. In Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, *New perspectives on spoken English in the classroom: Discussion papers*. London: Guardian standards. Retrieved from https://dera.ioe.ac.uk/6062/.

Einarsson, J., & Hultman, T. G. (1984). *Godmorgon pojkar och flickor: Om språk och kön I skolan.* Stockholm: Liber, University Press.

Fangen, K. (2004). *Deltagende observasjon*. Bergen: Fagbokforlaget.

Freire, P. (1993). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York, NY: Continuum.

Furtak, E., & Shavelson, R. (2009). Guidance, conceptual understanding, and student learning: An investigation of inquiry-based teaching in the US. In T. Janík & T. Seidel (Eds.), *The power of video studies in investigating teaching and learning in the classroom* (pp. 181–206). Münster: Waxman.

Grossman, P. (2015). *PLATO 5.0: Training and Observation Protocol*. CSET. Stanford.

Grossman, P., Loeb, S., Cohen, J., & Wyckoff, J. (2013). Measure for measure: The relationship between measures of instructional practice in middle school English

language arts and teachers' value-added scores. *American Journal of Education*, *119* (3), 445–470.

Hall, J. K., & Verplaetse, L. S. (2000). *Second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction*. New Jersey, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1993). Towards a language-based theory of learning. *Linguistics and Education*, *5*, 93–116. https://doi.org/10.1016/0898-5898(93)90026-7.

Hallgren, K. A. (2012). Computing inter-rater reliability for observational data: an overview and tutorial. *Tutorials in quantitative methods for psychology*, *8*(1), 23-34. Retrieved from http://www.tqmp.org/RegularArticles/vol08-1/p023/.

Hardman, F., Smith, F., & Wall, K. (2003). 'Interactive whole class teaching' in the National Literacy Strategy. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *33* (2) 197–215. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057640302043.

Haug, P. (2003). *Evaluering av Reform 97*. Oslo: Noregs forskingsråd.

Hjeltnes I., Brevik, L. M, & Klette, K. (2017). Videoobservasjoner av engelskundervisning på ungdomstrinnet. *Bedre Skole*, *1*, 70-77.

Howe, C., & Abedin, M. (2013). Classroom dialogue: a systematic review across four decades of research. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, *43* (3) 325-356. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305764X.2013.786024.

Imsen, G. (2003). *Skolemiljø, læringsmiljø og elevutbytte. En empirisk studie av grunnskolens 4., 7. og 10. trinn*. Trondheim: Tapir akademisk forlag.

Imsen, G. (Ed.). (2004). *Det ustyrlige klasserommet. Om styring samarbeid og læringsmiljø i grunnskolen*. Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.

Jahnsen, M. L. (2017). *Det dialogiske klasserommet - finnes det? En videostudie av fem læreres tilnærming til dialogisk undervisning* (Master's thesis, University of Oslo). Retrieved from http://urn.nb.no/URN:NBN:no-60638.

Jensen, S. (2017). *Norsklæreres bruk av underveisvurdering i muntlig kontekst - En videostudie av fem klasserom* (Master's thesis, University of Oslo). Retrieved from http://urn.nb.no/URN:NBN:no-60961.

Johnson, B. B., & Christensen, L. (2013). *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Approaches*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Juzwik, M., M., Nystrand, M., Kelly, S., & Sherry, M., B. (2008). Oral narrative genres as dialogic resources for classroom literature study: A contextualized case study of conversational narrative discussion. *American Educational Research Journal, 45*(4), 1111–1154. https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831208321444.

Klette, K. (2003). Lærernes klasseromsarbeid: Interaksjons- og arbeidsformer i norske klasserom etter Reform 97. In K. Klette (Ed.), *Evaluering av Reform 97. Klasserommets praksisformer etter Reform 97* (pp. 39–76). Oslo: Unipub AS.

Klette, K., & Blikstad-Balas, M. (2018). Observation manuals as lenses to classroom teaching: Pitfalls and possibilities. *European Educational Research Journal 17*(1), 129-146. https://doi.org/10.1177/1474904117703228.

Klette, K., Blikstad-Balas, M., & Roe, A. (2017). Linking Instruction and Student Achievement – Research design for a new generation of classroom studies. *Acta Didactica Norge 11*(3) Art. 10, 1-19. https://doi.org/10.5617/adno.4729.

Kleven, T. A. (Ed.) (2014). *Innføring i pedagogisk forskningsmetode: En hjelp til kritisk tolkning og vurdering* (2nd. ed.). Oslo: Unipub.

Kohen, Z., & Borko, H. (2019). Classroom discourse in mathematics lessons: the effect of a hybrid practice-based professional development program. *Professional Development in Education*. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2019.1706186.

Lantolf, J. P, & Poehner, M. E. (2014) *Sociocultural theory and the pedagogical imperative in L2 education: Vygotskian praxis and the research/practice divide.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Larsen, A. K. (2017). En enklere metode: Veiledning i samfunnsvitenskapelig metode. Bergen: Fagbokforlaget.

Lemke, J. (1990). *Talking science: Language, learning and values*. New York, NY: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Long, M. H. (1981). Input, interaction, and second-language acquisition. *ANNALS of The New York Academy of Science 379*(1), 259-278. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-6632.1981.tb42014.x.

Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie, & T. K. Bhatia, (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-192). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Lyle, S. (2008). Dialogic teaching: Discussing theoretical contexts and reviewing evidence from classroom practice. *Language and Education, 22*(3), 222–240. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500780802152499.

Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: an interactive approach* (3rd edition). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

McCormick, D., R., & Donato, R. (2000). Teacher questions as scaffolded assistance in an ESL classroom. . In J. K. Hall, & L. S. Verplaetse, (Eds.) *Second and foreign*

language learning through classroom interaction (pp. 183–203). New Jersey, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Mead, G. H. (1962). *Mind, self, and society from the standpoint of a social behaviorist*. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons: social organization in the classroom*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Mercer, N. (1995). *The guided construction of knowledge: talk amongst teachers and learners*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Mercer, N. (2003). The educational value of 'dialogic talk' in 'whole-class dialogue'. In Qualifications and Curriculum Authority. *New perspectives on spoken English in the classroom: Discussion papers*. London: Guardian standards. Retrieved from https://dera.ioe.ac.uk/6062/.

Mercer, N., & Littleton, K. (2007). *Dialogue and the development of children's thinking: A sociocultural approach*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Miles, M., Huberman, A., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, California: Sage.

Mitchell, R., Myles, F., & Marsden, E. (2019). *Second language learning theories* (4th ed.). Abingdon: Routledge.

Myhill, D. (2006). Talk, talk, talk: teaching and learning in whole class discourse. *Research papers in education*, *21*(1), 19-41. https://doi-org.ezproxy.uio.no/10.1080/02671520500445425.

Nassaji, H., & Wells, G. (2000). What's the use of triadic dialogue? An investigation of teacher student interaction. *Applied Linguistics*, *21*(3), 376–406.

Nunan, D. (2001). Second language acquisition. In R. Carter, & D. Nunan, (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 87-92). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nystrand, M., Gamoran, A., Kachur, R., & Prendergast, C. (1997). *Opening dialogue: Understanding the dynamics of language and learning in the English classroom*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

O'Connor, M. C., & Michaels, S. (1993). Aligning academic task and participation status through revoicing: analysis of a classroom discourse strategy. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, *24*(4) 318-335. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/3195934.

O'Connor, M. C., & Michaels, S. (1996) Shifting participant frameworks: Orchestrating thinking practices in group discussion. In D. Hicks (Ed). *Discourse, learning, and schooling* (pp. 63-103). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Ortega, L. (2009). *Understanding second language acquisition*. London, UK: Hodder Education.

Ortega, L. (2011). SLA after the social turn: Where cognitivism and its alternatives stand. In D. Atkinson (Ed.), *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition* (pp. 167–180). London, UK: Routledge.

Patton, M. Q. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *Health Services Research*, *34*(5 pt. 2), 1189-1208. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1089059/.

Patton, M. Q. (2014). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Rindal, U. (2014). Questioning English standards: Learner attitudes and L2 choices in Norway. *Multilingua: Journal of Cross-Cultural and Interlanguage Communication*, 33(3–4), pp. 313–334.

Rindal, U. & Brevik, L. M. (Eds.) (2019). *English didactics in Norway: 30 years of doctoral research*. Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.

Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. M., & Ormston, R. (Eds.) (2014). *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students & researchers* (2nd edition). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Ryen, A. (2016). Research Ethics and Qualitative Research. In D. Silverman (Ed.), Qualitative Research, (4th edition) (pp. 31–48). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Sandelowski, M. (2000) Combining qualitative and quantitative sampling, data collection, and analysis techniques in mixed-method studies. *Research in Nursing & Health*, *23*(3), 246-255. https://doi-org.ezproxy.uio.no/10.1002/1098-240X(200006)23:3<246::AID-NUR9>3.0.CO;2-H.

Sinclair, J., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.

Sinclair, J., & Coulthard, M. (1992). Towards an analysis of discourse. In M. Coulthard (Ed.), *Advances in spoken discourse analysis* (pp. 1-34). London: Routledge.

Sommervold, T. (2011). Læreren og den litterære samtalen. Om å legge til rette for litterær og diskursiv tenkning i klasserommet. *Norsklæraren*, *35*(4), 32–40.

Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tharp, R. G., & Gallimore, R. (1991). The instructional conversation: teaching and learning in social activity. UC Berkeley, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence. Retrieved from https://escholarship.org/uc/item/5th0939d.

Tsui, A. M. B. (2001). Classroom Interaction. In R. Carter, & D. Nunan, (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (pp. 87-92). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

UDIR (2013). *English subject curriculum (ENG1-03)*. Retrieved from http://data.udir.no/kl06/ENG1-03.pdf?lang=http://data.udir.no/kl06/eng.

UDIR (2020). *English subject curriculum (ENG01-04)*. Retrieved from https://www.udir.no/lk20/eng01-04.

Verplaetse, L. S. (2000). Mr. Wonder-ful: Portrait of a dialogic teacher. In J. K. Hall, & L. S. Verplaetse, (Eds.) *Second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (pp. 221–243). New Jersey, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press (English translation).

Vygotsky, L. S. (1981). The genesis of higher-order mental functions. In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology* (pp. 144–188). Armonk, NY: Sharpe.

Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic inquiry: Towards a sociocultural practice and theory of education*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.