

Vol. 13, No. 3  
pp. 429-452  
July &  
August 2022

## A Multisemiotic Investigation of Iranian EFL Teachers' Turn-allocation Strategies in their Classroom Interactions

Farhad Ghiasvand \* 

### Abstract

Second/foreign language classroom interaction is believed to have its own idiosyncrasies and peculiarities. Many studies have focused on the importance of turn-taking systems for students to gain and hold the floor. Nevertheless, a limited number of studies has explored teachers' turn-allocation strategies in their instructional interactions. Motivated by this gap, through the methodological framework of Conversation Analysis (CA), the present study attempted to investigate the frequently employed turn-allocation strategies that Iranian EFL teachers use in their classroom interactions with their students. To this end, a corpus of nine hours of English instruction was video-recorded and analyzed through Sacks et al.'s (1974) model of turn-allocation. The results of in-depth qualitative analysis indicated that Iranian EFL teachers used multiple resources to allocate the turn to their students. More specifically, it was found that Iranian teachers generally allocate turns to their students through directing their gaze towards them as well as nominating them by their names. Moreover, the teachers, in this study, used non-verbal strategies of head nods and pointing gestures to nominate the next speaker to take the turn. The study ends with some implications for the EFL teachers in that they can manage their turn-allocation techniques more efficiently in their instructional interactions.

**Keywords:** classroom interaction, turn-allocation strategies, EFL teachers, multisemiotic

Received: 22 April 2022  
Received in revised form: 13 June 2022  
Accepted: 1 July 2022

## 1. Introduction

It is widely believed that the discursive nature of English language classes like many other contexts has its own idiosyncrasies and particularities (Thomson, 2022; Young, 2009). Such peculiarities have aroused and led to conducting numerous research studies on classroom setting by scholars from different fields such as linguistics, pedagogy, psychology, and sociology (Xin et al., 2011). Among such studies, classroom discourse analysis has been a popular topic in both classroom research and SLA (Mickan, 1997; Rumenapp, 2016; Rymes, 2015; Thomas, 2008; Walsh, 2006). The term refers to the analysis of the language that teachers and students use to communicate with each other in the classroom (Maghfur, 2021; Tsui, 2008; Walsh, 2021). Needless to say, classroom talk is the only medium through which most teaching aspects take place. To put it simply, the efficacy of teaching is, to a large extent, contingent upon teacher-student interactions in the actual classroom teaching practice (Ong, 2019; Xin et al., 2011). Consequently, classroom talk has a special place in most L2 classrooms and students' success in foreign language is closely reliant on the quality of such talks between the teacher and the students (Jing & Jing, 2018).

Given its significance, over the past couple of decades, classroom discourse analysis has witnessed a surge of interest among the scholars focusing on various aspects of the classroom instructional interactions (Baleghizadeh, 2010; Chalak & Karimi, 2017; Li & Zhang, 2022; Tajeddin & Ghanbar, 2016; Walsh, 2006; Yu, 2013, to name a few). In a similar manner, turn-taking patterns in classroom talks have been the focus of many studies, especially teacher practices for nominating next speakers (e.g., Amar, 2020; Ishino, 2021; Kääntä 2010; Mortensen 2008) and student hand-raising practices (Böheim et al., 2020; Preston 2009; Sahlström 1999, 2001; Takahashi, 2016). Moreover, some other studies have described students' self-selection practices (Cekaite 2006; Takahashi, 2018) or their negotiation of how to organize task interaction in group work situations (e.g. Hasegawa & Mori, 2010; Hellermann et al., 2010; Kääntä, 2012). All these studies signify that conversation analysis studies on teachers' turn-taking is not an uncharted research territory. What seems to be missing, or under-researched, in the literature is taking a multimodal approach towards teachers' turn-allocation and management techniques in EFL contexts as teachers may construct their next speaker nominations through embodied allocations, which do not entail the use of talk, or entail only very little of it (Kääntä, 2012; Lauzon & Berger, 2015).

In response to this gap, using the methodological framework of CA, the current study attempted to explore the multimodal ways through which Iranian EFL teachers shape, manage, and carry out their next speaker nominations using video-recorded interactions in the classrooms.

**Research Question:**

1. What multi-semiotic resources do Iranian EFL teachers use in their turn-allocations in the classroom?

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 Classroom Discourse

The concept of classroom discourse denotes the language used by teachers and students in their attempts to communicate with each other within the classroom setting (Ong, 2019; Walsh, 2011). Classroom talking is the medium by which most teaching occurs, hence the study of classroom discourse refers to the investigation of the process of face-to-face classroom instruction (Huth, 2011; Thomson, 2022). As put by Jocuns (2012), classroom discourse points to all of those sorts of talk that one may encounter in a classroom or other educational venues. Meticulous analysis of the classroom discourse has progressed from studies that scrutinized teacher-student interaction to a more fresh emphasis on learning and identity construction over and done with discourse (Weizheng, 2019; Yuan & Mak, 2018). Like any other social environment in the real world, a language class is socially-constructed and has socially transformative agenda (Derakhshan, 2021; Walsh, 2006). In other words, classroom is the elemental and institutionalized place of any formal education (Benson, 2011).

Classroom interaction is hence the organizational tool through which the teaching and learning of different languages and academic subjects are equally co-constructed, managed, and achieved by teachers and students (Mercer, 2010; Walsh, 2011). Just like other situational contexts, classroom discourse has its own particularities and peculiarities (Thomson, 2022). It is a special kind of discourse that happens in classrooms. Special characteristics of classroom discourse include; unequal power relationships, turn-taking, interactional patterns and so forth (Gardner, 2019; Sert, 2019). Classroom discourse is regularly diverse in form and function from language, which is used in other contexts owing to specific social

roles that learners and teachers take in classrooms and the type of activities they accomplish there (Walsh, 2021).

In the pertinent literature, different interpretations have been given to language classroom discourse. Nunan (1993) maintains that classroom discourse is the unique type of discourse that happens in classrooms. In a language classroom, discourse refers to the oral use of language (Grifenhagen & Barnes, 2022). The origin of working in this area dates back to at least 35 years ago when a significant line of inquiry in education was set to understand the nature and implications of classroom interactions, known as “classroom discourse” (Walsh, 2021). In sum, classroom studies can be divided into three categories, each taking a different standpoint (Johnson & Johnson, 1998) including: 1) from the perspective of interaction, 2) from the perspective of the impacts of instruction on learners’ language development, and 3) from the perspective of whether diverse instructional methods have diverse effects on language development.

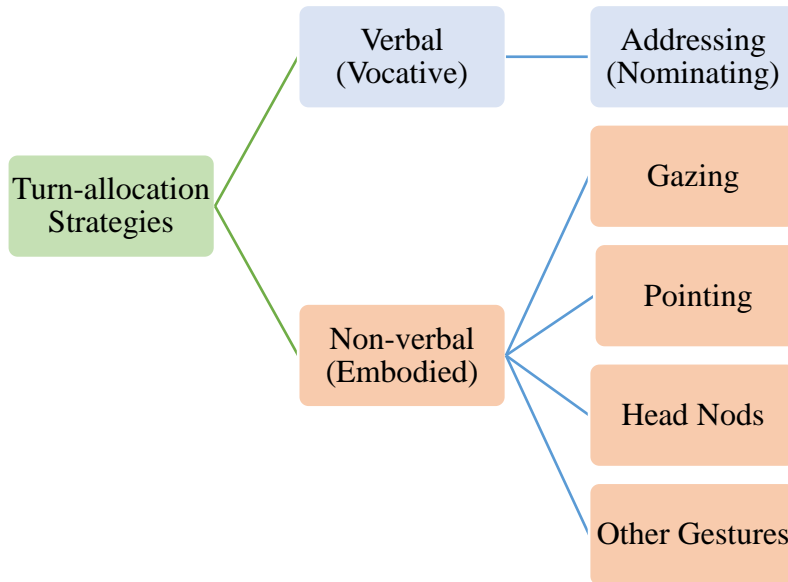
## ***2.2 Turn-allocation Techniques***

There are various ways to allocate the turn to the next interactant, ranging from most direct to indirect strategies, verbal, and non-verbal embodiment (Xie, 2011). However, Sacks et al. (1974) proposed a model that encompassed three techniques for turn-allocation: 1) the current speaker selects next, 2) another speaker self-selects, and (c) the current speaker continues.

These techniques can materialize verbally (vocatively) or non-verbally (semiotically) using interactional resources such as facial and gestural expressions, body postures and movements, and the general physical milieu. In other words, Sacks et al.’s (1974) model is composed of vocative strategies and embodied (semiotic) strategies (gazing, pointing, head nods, and other gestures) as depicted below:

**Figure 1**

*Schematic Representation of Sacks et al.'s (1974) Model of Turn-allocation*



In interpersonal interactions, interactants apply these multisemiotic resources dynamically and as the interaction unfolds sequentially and temporally, they make them pertinent and publicly observable to each other as meaning-making resources (Danielsson, 2016; Goodwin, 2000).

### 2.3 The Basic Features of the Organization of Turn-Taking

As leading figures in this research domain, Sacks et al. (1974) proposed two systematic organizations for turn-taking, namely Turn Constructional Component (TCC) and Turn Allocational Component (TAC). According to TCC, turn-taking happens at the point known as Transition Relevance Place (TRP), which is at the completion of Turn Constructional Unit (TCU). It means that the first sentence, clause, phrase, or lexical item out of which a turn can be constructed (Chalak & Karimi, 2017). Research corroborates that TRPs are not fixed at the end of TCUs because of speakers' capacity to project the completion of TCUs (Meredith, 2019; Sacks et al., 1974; Schegloff, 1996). But, Sacks et al. (1974) accentuated that interlocutors are more prone to circumvent gaps and overlaps in their talks.

Moreover, they divided turn-allocational techniques into two groups; a) those in

which the next turn is allocated by the present speaker and b) those in which the next turn is allocated by self-selection. These scholars also enacted some rules for turn-allocation. The first rule concerns the TRP of a turn. It states; a) where the next speaker is nominated by the existing speaker, the existing speaker must stop talking and next speaker must take the turn, b) where the next speaker is not chosen by the existing speaker, any speaker may self-selects, with the first speaker obtaining rights to take a turn, and c) where the next speaker is not nominated by the present speaker, the present speaker may continue if no other speaker self-selects. The second rule states that any choice being made, a-c operate again.

#### ***2.4 Turn-Taking Organization and Mechanisms of Classroom Interaction***

On the basis of research studies conducted on everyday conversations, it is agreed that interactants construct their social interaction through the ways by which they consolidate turn-taking (Gardner, 2019). It means how they negotiate who talks, when, and for how long (Sacks et al., 1974; Walsh, 2021). Like other interactional contexts, the institutional interaction of classrooms is at variance with everyday conversations in that turn-taking in complete interaction is prearranged to the degree that teachers have the right to manage who speaks and when (Markee, 2000; Mehan, 1979; Weizheng, 2021; Xie, 2011). This is obviously seen in cases, in which teachers allocate lots of turns to students during a single lesson and the students' turns are followed by teacher's turns almost automatically. As pinpointed by Sahlström (1999), in principle, there are two parties who take turns; the teacher and the collective student. The latter is characterized by the student whom the teacher has selected as the next speaker. From this perspective, in teacher-centered instruction every other turn comes from the teacher and there is no chance for students to self-select (Kääntä, 2012) nor is there room for students to allocate turns to each other (Lee, 2017).

Nevertheless, fresh classroom interaction studies have revealed that classroom interaction contains various types of classroom context (Grifenhagen & Barnes, 2022; Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2021). In such contexts, students have the probability to negotiate how turn-taking is organized (e.g. Gardner, 2019; Lee, 2017; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Mortensen, 2008; Mortensen & Hazel, 2011). Moreover, these studies have emphasized the dynamic nature of classroom interaction, in the sense that all participants' actions affect how and when teachers can allocate turns to students (Kääntä 2012; Sert, 2019; Walsh, 2021). It is

contended that a core feature of an effective turn-taking, in both everyday and classroom interaction, is participants' shared understanding of when existing turns are finished and when next speakers can initiate their turns (Amar, 2020; Sacks et al., 1974). In other words, interactants should understand how the turns are constructed and what they are achieving. To do so, they parse unfolding talk and expect when a turn is reaching its end by considering the structural, prosodic, and pragmatic features of turns (Levinson & Torreira, 2015). Likewise, interactants can screen the speaker's bodily-visual conduct (including gaze, gesture, body position, head nod) and use it as a foundation to represent and manage the speaker change (Ford et al., 2012; Lerner, 2003; Li, 2014; Mondada, 2007; Streeck, 2009).

In classroom contexts, the teachers' turn-allocation is typically a clear symbol for the students to know whom the next speaker will be and when the next turn will be produced (Amar, 2020). However, the success of a teacher's turn-allocation relies on when it is implemented and in what manner (Levinson & Torreira, 2015). So, it can be stated that although teacher-directed instruction is mainly structured by the teacher, there is always considerable interactional work and locally-situated negotiation by both teacher and learners considering who the next speaker will be and at which point speaker transition will ultimately occur. It is critical to note that teachers' use of gaze, head nods, and pointing gestures in nominating the next speakers is by no means an uncharted territory.

Numerous investigators have talked about their use in the organization of classroom turn-taking (Amar, 2020; Mortensen, 2008; Walsh, 2021). But, to date, little is known about the ways in which they figure in teacher turn-allocations. As a landmark study, Mehan (1979) stated that teachers, in his study, utilized heads nods and pointing gestures to allocate turns to previously nominated students to continue their response turn, in that way allowing them to hold the floor a bit longer. In contrast, Mortensen (2008), identified how the turn-taking resources are tied not only to the interactants' larger actions, but also to their positioning to diverse pedagogical materials and tools. He also argued that successful turn-allocations that are produced by embodied means need participants, who are physically co-present and see each other. It is also contended that students are required to gaze towards the teacher and go for a turn to show their willingness to be the probable next speaker (Morell, 2018; Waring & Carpenter, 2019).

### 3.5 Research on Teacher Turn-allocation in Classroom Interaction

In different classroom research studies, it has been highlighted that the use of address terms such as a student's name and gaze directed towards the addressed recipient are two ways of allocating turns to the students (e.g. Evnitskaya & Berger, 2017; Lauzon & Berger, 2015; Lee, 2017). Additionally, teachers can allocate turns to the students by signaling the next speaker by means of different kinds of pointing gestures with different parts of the body like chin, arm, and fingers. (Lee, 2017; Margutti, 2004). Also, head nods along with speech are a way of nominating a next speaker in the classroom (Kääntä, 2015).

In spite of a solid body research, only few studies have systematically scrutinized how different turn-allocation devices are used to negotiate turn-taking or how they are matched with their sequential context in the unfolding interaction. For instance, in China, Zhang and Zhou (2004) identified two frequent techniques used by EFL teachers to summon learners' participation, namely *individual nominations* and *invitations to reply*. Furthermore, Xie (2011) ran a study on three English classrooms at two Chinese universities to identify how Chinese teachers' turn management influence students' classroom discourse participation. The results of data gathered by observations, audio and video-recording, and stimulated reflection revealed that teachers' turn-allocation and management led to an interactive context that enhanced students' participation in the classroom interactions.

Furthermore, in a recent study, Klattenberg (2020) inspected a corpus of 58 hours of teaching English in Germany, focusing on the turn-constructive position of address terms. The study found that teacher initiations and using address terms functioned as next speaker allocations. Likewise, Shepherd (2014) revealed that in different turn-constructive positions, the use of a student's name constructs participation in interactions and serves as an effective way for the teacher to ensure the progressivity of the instructional plan. In Japan, Ishino (2021) explored teachers' turn-allocation to see if it mitigates their unwillingness to interact. Through multimodal CA, the author analyzed video recordings of English language classrooms in secondary education. The results indicated that teachers' turn allocations mitigated students' unwillingness without violating the classroom's social norms.

These studies signify the importance and the richness of classroom interaction analysis for understanding classroom talks and contributing to L2 education. In particular, exploring teachers' turn-allocation techniques is essential in that the way



EFL teachers allocate turns on the speaking floor is critical for both classroom interaction and realizing the social participation structures of the class. Nevertheless, a yawning gap exists in the EFL context of Iran regarding teachers' turn-allocation techniques or semiotic resources that they employ when constructing their turn-allocations. Against this shortcoming, the present study intended to scrutinize how and through what techniques Iranian EFL teachers carry out their next speaker nominations in real L2 classes.

### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1 Data and Method**

The empirical research method utilized in the current study was CA, which allows the observation of interaction as it is experienced and understood by the participants (Seedhouse, 2004). In this method, the analysis of the interaction remains on a description level and no judgments are made about whether the actions performed are didactically good or bad. By concentrating on naturally occurring interactions and their thorough transcription, CA affords analytical tools through which the analyst can ensue the interactants' orientation towards their interactional practices (Liddicoat, 2021). It can also compare different forms of situated actions within different kinds of classroom interaction.

The data for this study came from a corpus of classroom conversation collected in a language institute located in Iran, Tehran. The video-recorded corpus included six formal English classes each taking 90 minutes for a period of two months. The proficiency level in classes ranged from elementary to upper intermediate and they were taught by 5 Iranian EFL teachers (3 males, 2 females) whose experience ranged from 3 to 8 years of teaching. The size of the classes varied from 3 to 6 EFL students. As the study attempted to investigate Iranian EFL teachers' turn-allocation techniques (verbal and non-verbal), the corpus included a large amount of data. From that data, though, only those turns coming from the teacher were considered and those of the students were excluded from the analysis. The analysis was done with the theoretical and methodological framework of CA to pinpoint different semiotic resources that were used by the teachers in nominating the next speaker in the EFL classrooms. With respect to sampling, it is noteworthy that the target participants were selected based on convenience sampling and their willingness to participate in the research. Before initiating the study, the participants were

informed of the purpose of the study and ethical considerations of privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality of data and their identity were ensured.

### 3.2 Data Collection Procedure

In order to find out which turn-allocation strategies Iranian EFL teachers' use more frequently in their classroom talks, six classroom instructions were video-recorded in a private English language institute in Tehran, Iran. Each of the recorded classes took 90 minutes, making a corpus of 9 hours of classroom conversation. The teachers were teaching Iranian EFL learners at different levels with their age ranging from 26 to 46 years old ( $\bar{x}$ = 31.86,  $SD$ = 5.81). The participants were teaching "passages", "Oxford Word Skills", and "Four Corners" book series in the class. In each class, the number of the students varied from 5 to 10 students. To fulfill the requirements of the study, which sought for unpacking different semiotic ways of allocating the turn to the next speaker, the researcher used video-recording instead of audio-recording to glean the data.

However, in order to prevent the threat of "observer paradox" and not being obtrusive, the researcher requested the authorities of the language institute to permit him to use videos recorded by their surveillance cameras that teachers were used to them. Having the data being prepared, the researcher watched and re-watched the videos several times with a table containing the strategies proposed by Sacks et al. (1974) for determining the type and the number of turn-allocation strategies in different modalities. After analyzing the data, the participants carried out member checking to secure the principles of trustworthiness offered by Lincoln and Guba (1985). Additionally, a second coder was asked to examine 30 percent of the data and extracted techniques in order to ensure inter-rater reliability ( $k=.95$ ), as calculated by Cohen's Kappa coefficient. Likewise, an experienced university professor, who had taught and conducted research on discourse and pragmatics were plead to audit trial the whole process of data analysis to ensure the confirmability of the findings. Finally, the frequency and the type of turn-allocation strategies were presented in a table along with their sample extracts.

### 3.3 Data Analysis

For the data analysis, the videotaped classes were carefully watched and transcribed

for an in-depth analysis of the frequently employed turn-allocation strategies that Iranian EFL teachers used in nominating the next speaker. Having extracted the tokens, the researcher analyzed the data according to a combination of methodological frameworks including CA and Sacks et al.'s (1974) model. It should be noted that teacher turn-allocations that occurred during individual and group work tasks were excluded from the analysis. Moreover, the students' self-selections, bids for speaking turns, and their semiotic construction were left out as the main concern of this study was teachers' multi-semiotic strategies for allocating the turn. In the end, the results were represented through frequency counts and percentages.

#### 4. Results

In order to answer the research question formulated in this study, which concerned the inspection of the turn-allocation strategies that Iranian EFL teachers employed in their classroom interactions, the video-recorded corpus was examined in detail. The results of qualitative analysis of the corpus, which comprised a total of 563 turn-allocation strategies indicated that Iranian EFL teachers mostly allocated turns to their students through directing their gaze towards the students and by nominating them by their names. Nevertheless, the teachers also used head nods and pointing gestures to nominate the next speaker to take the turn (Table 1).

**Table 1**  
*Frequency and Percentage of Turn-allocation Strategies*

Turn-allocation Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Vocative	143	25.39
Gazing	205	36.41
Pointing	70	12.43
Head Nods	123	21.84
Other Gestures	22	3.90
	563	

As illustrated in Table 1, most of Iranian EFL teachers utilized gazing and vocative strategies more than other ways in nominating the next speaker or allocated the students the speaking turn (36.41%, 25.39%, respectively). Moreover, they resorted to head nods as another way of passing the turn to the students in their

classroom interaction (21.84%). The next frequent turn-allocation strategy that the participants utilized was pointing to the student and indicating he/she can take the floor (12.43%). Aside from these, the teachers, in this study, took advantage of other gestures and postures to give the turn to their students (3.90%). They included: moving their eyes and heads from side to side and shaking their hands, fingers, and chins. In sum, it can be pinpointed that Iranian EFL teachers used a variety of strategies (i.e., multi-semiotic resources) in allocating the turn to the next speaker in their classroom interactions. More specifically, they utilized verbal and non-verbal ways for allocating the turn. It is essential to note that, in many cases, there was a combination of techniques like *vocative + gazing*, *gazing + head nods*, and *pointing + head nods* and so forth, which are excluded from the analysis. What these signify is that Iranian EFL teachers make use of both verbal and embodiment allocations in their instructional classroom interactions. The following extracts represent the abovementioned turn-allocation strategies used by the teachers in their interactions:

### **Vocative**

#### ***Excerpt 1:***

T: *So how are you today, Sara?*

(The teacher named the student to take the turn)

#### ***Excerpt 2:***

T: *you are Amir Hossein Habibi? How was your last day?*

(The teacher nominated the student by posing a question and with a gaze and a head nod)

#### ***Excerpt 3:***

T: *Yalda, what's your plan* (The teacher calls the students by her name and nominates her directly to take the turn)

S: for the New Year?

**Gazing**

**Excerpt 1:**

T: *I told my friend to go....*(The teacher gazes at the student at this moment)

S: *but he didn't*

**Excerpt 2:**

T: *how are you? What's up?* (The teacher directs her gaze at the student).

S: *nothing*

**Excerpt 3:**

T: *what's new* (The teacher gazes at the student)

S: *I studied a lot....*

**Pointing**

**Excerpt 1:**

T: *Let's share some ideas about contagious diseases* (The teacher points at one of the students asking him to talk).

**Excerpt 2:**

T: *do you know any festivals? Have been on a festival?* (The teacher points at one of the students now)

**Excerpt 3:**

T: *Tell me some activities of a week* (The teacher points her finger towards one of the students)

S: *ice cream eating*

T: *yeah, ice cream eating*

### Head Nods

#### *Excerpt 1:*

T: *you will become better at the end of the term.....* (Signaling the student with a head nod)

S: *maybe.*

#### *Excerpt 2:*

T: *some diseases are dangerous and incurable.....* (The teacher nods his head and looks at the student to transfer the turn to him)

S: *yes some diseases are contagious....*

#### *Excerpt 3:*

T: *Do you remember last week's topic?* (The teacher nods his head to give the turn to one of the students at this moment)

S: we reviewed local people

### Other Gestures

#### *Excerpt 1:*

T: *what is your opinion about this issue?* (The teacher raises his eyebrows to allocate the turn to the student).

#### *Excerpt 2:*

T: *do you think tax should be paid in this country?* (The teacher moves his eyes from left to right to see if a student bids for the turn)

S: yes. But we don't pay.

## 5. Discussion

According to the obtained results, Iranian EFL teachers used “gazing” and

“vocative nomination” more than other turn-allocation strategies in their classroom talks. This finding is in line previous studies (e.g., Ford et al., 2012; Lee, 2017; Li, 2014) that endorsed these two techniques for allocating the turn to others in classroom interactions. Moreover, this finding echoes those of Kääntä (2010), who ran a similar study on teachers’ turn-allocation and repair strategies. The findings of her study indicated that teachers normally allocate turns to students via the selected student’s name and by aiming their gaze towards him/her. The present study approved the importance of using gaze in the management of turn-taking, as teachers would be unable to select the next speakers if they are not able to direct their gaze towards the class. By directing their gaze towards the class teachers obtain an understanding of who is attempting and who is not and whose gaze is directed towards the teacher and whose is not. A possible reason for this frequent use of gazing might be the culture of teaching and learning in EFL classes in Iran. It means that, teachers look at the students when they are speaking to them as eye contact is very important in the Iranian culture.

Moreover, in this study it was identified that Iranian teachers employed head nods and pointing gestures either along with the student’s name, with various kinds of discourse particles, or on their own. This is in tune with various researchers like Amar (2020), Li (2014), and Kääntä (2015), who found head nods to be a means for allocating turns to next speakers in institutional interactions. In the same manner, the participants of this study used non-verbal strategies of allocating the turns to the students. They signaled the next speaker through various kinds of pointing gestures and via different parts of the body (e.g. chin, arm, and finger). This is consistent with the results of studies conducted by Lee (2017), Margutti (2004), and van Lier (1994). These signify the fact that teachers’ turn-allocation strategies are by no means randomly produced, but instead they are significant interactional resources for the organization of turn-taking and the students’ participation in classroom interaction. Furthermore, in harmony with recent studies on classroom interaction, the findings indicate that paying attention to interactants’ bodily-visual conduct is critical, as the other parties use it in their meaning-making efforts. Hence, it can be claimed that focusing solely on talk in social interactions misses a great amount information in comparison to taking advantage of other semiotic resources that go on well in organizing the talk.

## 6. Conclusion

In light of the findings of this study it can be concluded that EFL classroom interaction in the context of Iran has its own peculiarities as it is a especial discursive milieu. Most of the times, these are the EFL teachers, who give the turn to the next speaker and students rarely self-select. This is heavily rooted in their culture. They usually wait for the teacher to transfer the turn by using different allocation strategies. It was stated that teachers try to signal the allocation of the turn using both verbal and non-verbal techniques which indicates that EFL classes in Iran are not teacher-oriented or laden with teacher-talk. Instead, they try to engage the students in the class by constantly giving the turn as a student is bidding for it. This cycle of giving and getting the turn continues owing to the nature of the English courses, where the teachers attempt to create a multiparty interaction with their students. The interpretation that Iranian EFL teachers utilize these resources in a dynamic and temporary unfolding participation-framework, which comprises multi-party interaction, obviously exhibits how and when they discern who is bidding. It also demonstrates how teachers make use of varied semiotic resources and their amalgamations in classroom context in order for the turn-allocations to be formed and adjusted both to the emerging interaction, the individuals' ongoing actions, and the participation framework generated.

The findings of the current study have verified the multi-layered nature of classroom interaction by explaining how the multisemiotic construction of teacher turn-allocation may influence the sequential organization of talks in the classroom. The most important contribution of the study is that it depicts the highly “creative and transformable nature of classroom discourse” (He, 2004). This relates particularly to how interaction is conditionally created to reflect the different contextual formations of specific activity frameworks. This study has, thus, casted light on how classroom interaction differs and is shaped by a multiplicity of factors. The results also adds to the existing body of research on embodiment in classroom interactions along with strategies of allocating the turn to the next speaker. Pedagogically, the findings are momentous for learners in that they can get to know the frequent turn-allocation techniques that their teachers employ and have a better interaction in the class. As for the teachers, the results are helpful in that they recognize different resources that they can use in nominating the next speaker. They can used multiple strategies including both verbal and non-verbal ways of allocating the turn in their classroom talks with their students. Moreover, EFL teacher



educators can use this study as a guide to run teacher professional development courses, workshops, and seminars to raise novice and experienced EFL teachers' knowledge of semiotics, turn-allocation techniques, and their criticality in L2 classroom discourse structure.

Despite such insights and contributions, the present study suffered from some limitations like any piece of research. The corpus was limited to nine hours of English language teaching, while a larger corpus would end in richer findings. It gathered the data from only six EFL teachers, which limited the generalizability scope of the findings to other contexts. Moreover, the only data collection technique in this study was video-recording, while a mixture of research instruments like observation, interview, think-aloud protocol, and questionnaires could also add to the richness of the data. Therefore, future studies are recommended to use different qualitative and mixed-methods research designs instead of running only one-shot studies. The impact of teachers' turn-allocation techniques on EFL students' willingness to communicate (WTC), agency, autonomy, enthusiasm, rapport, interpersonal communication skills, and the like is also highly suggested for future passionate researchers in this area.

**References**

- Amar, C. (2020). Turn allocation practices for selecting a speaker and pursuing a response in English classroom interaction. *Journal of the School of Languages and Communication, Kobe University, 16*, 80–100.
- Baleghizadeh, S. (2010). The impact of student-initiated interaction on EFL reading comprehension. *Studies in Literature and Language, 1*(4), 20–28. [doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.410](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.410)
- Benson, P. (2011). Language learning and teaching beyond the classroom: An introduction to the field. In *Beyond the language classroom* (pp. 7–16). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Böheim, R., Knogler, M., Kosel, C., & Seidel, T. (2020). Exploring student hand-raising across two school subjects using mixed methods: An investigation of an everyday classroom behavior from a motivational perspective. *Learning and Instruction, 65*, 101250. doi:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2019.101250
- Cekaite, A. (2006). *Getting started. Children's participation and language learning in an L2 classroom*. Linköping studies in Arts and Science No. 350. University of Linköping, Sweden.
- Chalak, A., & Karimi, M. (2017). Analysis of turn taking and repair strategies among male and female Iranian intermediate EFL learners. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research, 4*(2), 1–9.
- Danielsson, K. (2016). Modes and meaning in the classroom—the role of different semiotic resources to convey meaning in science classrooms. *Linguistics and Education, 35*, 88–99.
- Derakhshan, A. (2021). ‘Should textbook images be merely decorative?’ Cultural representations in the Iranian EFL national textbook from the semiotic approach perspective. *Language Teaching Research, 136216882199226*. doi: 1362168821992264.
- Evnitskaya, N., & Berger, E. (2017). Learners’ multimodal displays of willingness to participate in classroom interaction in the L2 and CLIL contexts. *Classroom Discourse, 8*(1), 7–94. doi:10.1080/19463014.2016.1272062.
- Ford, C. E., Thompson, S. A., & Drake, V. (2012). Bodily-visual practices and turn continuation. *Discourse Processes, 49*(3), 192–212. doi: 10.1080/

0163853X.2012.654761

- Gardner, R. (2019). Classroom interaction research: The state of the art. *Research on language and social interaction*, 52(3), 212–226. doi.org/10.1080/08351813.2019.1631037
- Goodwin, C. (2000). Action and embodiment within situated human interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 32(10), 1489–1522.
- Grifenhagen, J. F., & Barnes, E. M. (2022). Reimagining discourse in the classroom. *The Reading Teacher*, 75(6), 739–748. doi.org/10.1002/trtr.2108
- Hasegawa, A., & J. Mori. (2010, July 4–8). *Scripts or partners? That is the question: Opening sequences of pair work activities in Japanese language classrooms*. Paper presented at the International Conference on Conversation Analysis, ICCA10, in Mannheim, Germany.
- He, A. W. (2004). CA for SLA: Arguments from the Chinese language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 88(4), 568–582. doi:10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.t01-19-.x.
- Hellermann, J. (2008). *Social actions for classroom language learning*. Multilingual Matters.
- Hellermann, J., & S. Pekarek Doehler. (2010). On the contingent nature of language-learning tasks. *Classroom Discourse* 1(1), 25–45. doi.org/10.1080/19463011003750657
- Huth, T. (2011). Conversation analysis and language classroom discourse. *Language and Linguistics Compass*, 5(5), 297–309. doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-818X.2011.00277.x
- Ishino, M. (2021). Teachers' embodied mitigation against allocating turns to unwilling students. *Classroom Discourse*, 12(2), 1–22. doi: 10.1080/19463014.2021.1918194
- Jing, N., & Jing, J. (2018). Teacher talk in an EFL classroom: A pilot study. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(3), 320–324. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0803.07>
- Jocuns, A. (2012). Classroom discourse. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 620–625). Blackwell Publishing.

- Johnson, K. & Johnson, H. (1998). *Encyclopedic dictionary of applied linguistics*. Blackwell.
- Kääntä, L. (2010). *Teacher turn-allocation and repair practices in classroom interaction: a multisemiotic perspective* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Jyväskylä, Finland.
- Kääntä, L. (2012). Teachers' embodied allocations in instructional interaction. *Classroom Discourse*, 3(2), 166–186. doi.org/10.1080/19463014.2012.716624
- Kääntä, L. (2015). The multimodal organization of teacher-led classroom interaction. In C. Jenks & P. Seedhouse (Eds.), *International perspectives on ELT classroom interaction* (pp. 64–83). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Klattenberg, R. (2020). Address terms as reproaches in EFL classroom management. In F. Lenz, M. Frobenius, & R. Klattenberg (Eds.), *Classroom observation: Researching interaction in English language teaching* (pp. 117–144). Peter Lang.
- Lauzon, V. F., & Berger, E. (2015). The multimodal organization of speaker selection in classroom interaction. *Linguistics and Education*, 31(2), 14–29. doi: 10.1016/j.linged.2015.05.001
- Lee, J. (2017). Multimodal turn allocation in ESL peer group discussions. *Social Semiotics*, 27(5), 671–692. doi.org/10.1080/10350330.2016.1207353
- Lerner, G.H. (2003). Selecting next-speaker: The context-sensitive operation of a context-free organization. *Language in Society* 32(2), 177–201. doi:10.1017/S004740450332202X
- Levinson, S. C., & Torreira, F. (2015). Timing in turn-taking and its implications for processing models of language. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6, 731. doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00731
- Li, D., & Zhang, L. (2022). Exploring teacher scaffolding in a CLIL-framed EFL intensive reading class: A classroom discourse analysis approach. *Language Teaching Research*, 26(3), 333-360. doi.org/10.1177/1362168820903340
- Li, X. (2014). *Multimodality, interaction and turn-taking in Mandarin conversation*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Liddicoat, A. J. (2021). *An introduction to conversation analysis*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Sage.
- Maghfur, B. (2021). A classroom discourse analysis of teacher-students interaction: A case study on Sinclair and Coulthard's model at Madrasah Tsanawiyah NU 15 Jurangagung. *Journal of English Language and Pedagogy*, 4(1), 40–47. doi.org/10.36597/jelp.v4i1.9272
- Margutti, P. (2004). *Classroom interaction in an Italian primary school: Instructional sequences in pedagogic settings*. (Unpublished PhD dissertation). University of York, UK.
- Markee, N. & G. Kasper. (2004). Classroom talks: An introduction. *The Modern Language Journal*, 88(4), 491–500.
- Markee, N. (2000). *Conversation analysis*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons. Social organization in the classroom*. Harvard University Press.
- Mercer, N. (2010). The analysis of classroom talk: Methods and methodologies. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80(1), 1–14. doi.org/10.1348/000709909X479853
- Meredith, J. (2019). Conversation analysis and online interaction. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 52(3), 241–256. doi:10.1080/08351813.2019.
- Mondada, L. (2007). Multimodal resources for turn-taking: pointing and the emergence of possible next speakers. *Discourse Studies* 9(2), 194–225. doi: 10.1177/1461445607075346
- Morell, T. (2018). Multimodal competence and effective interactive lecturing. *System*, 77(1), 70–79. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2017.12.006.
- Mortensen, K. (2008). Selecting next speaker in the second language classroom: How to find a willing next speaker in planned activities. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 5(1), 55–79. doi.org/10.1558/japl.v5i1.55
- Mortensen, K., & Hazel, S. (2011). Initiating Round Robins in the L2 classroom: Preliminary observations. *Novitas-Royal*, 5(1), 55–70.
- Nunan, D. (1993). *Introducing discourse analysis*. Penguin Books.
- Ong, J. (2019). A case study of classroom discourse analysis of teacher's fronted reading comprehension lessons for vocabulary learning opportunities. *RELC*

*Journal*, 50(1), 118–135. [doi.org/10.1177/0033688217730138](https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217730138)

- Preston, A. (2009). *The contribution of interaction to learner motivation in the MFL classroom*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Southampton, UK.
- Rumenapp, J. C. (2016). Analyzing discourse analysis: Teachers' views of classroom discourse and student identity. *Linguistics and Education*, 35, 26–36. doi: 10.1016/j.linged.2016.04.002
- Rymes, B. (2015). *Classroom discourse analysis: A tool for critical reflection*. Routledge.
- Sacks, H., E. A. Schegloff & G. Jefferson. (1974). A Simplest Systematics for the Organization of Turn-Taking for Conversation. *Language*, 50(4), 696–735.
- Sahlström, F. (1999). *Up the hill backwards. On interactional constraints and affordances for equity-constitution in the classrooms of the Swedish comprehensive school*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Uppsala, Sweden.
- Sahlström, F. (2001). The interactional organization of hand raising in classroom interaction. *Journal of Classroom Interaction* 37(2), 47–57.
- Schegloff, E. A. (1996). Turn organization: one intersection of grammar and interaction. In E. Ochs, E. A. Schegloff & S. A. Thompson (eds.), *Interaction and grammar* (pp. 52–133). Cambridge University Press.
- Seedhouse, P. (2004). The Interactional Architecture of the Language Classroom: A Conversation Analysis Perspective. *Language Learning*, 54(Suppl1), x-300. doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2004.00266.x
- Sert, O. (2019). Classroom interaction and language teacher education. In S. Walsh & S. Mann (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education* (pp. 216–238). Routledge.
- Shepherd, M. A. (2014). The discursive construction of knowledge and equity in classroom interactions.” *Linguistics and Education*, 28(1), 79-91. doi:10.1016/j.linged.2014.08.006.
- Streeck, J. (2009). Forward-Gesturing. *Discourse Processes*, 46(2), 161–79. doi.org/10.1080/01638530902728793
- Tajeddin, Z., & Ghanbar, H. (2016). Discoursal structure of class opening and closing in EFL teachers' talk: A conversational analytic perspective. *English*

*Language Teaching*, 10(1), 87–108. doi:10.22132/TEL.2016.53614

- Takahashi, J. (2016). Contribution with hand-raising in graduate student self-selection: Bringing legitimacy to the focal shift of talk. *Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 16(2), 35–39.
- Takahashi, J. (2018). Practices of self-selection in the graduate classroom: Extension, redirection, and disjunction. *Linguistics and Education*, 46, 70–81. doi: 10.1016/j.linged.2018.06.002
- Thomas, J. (1997). Discourse in the marketplace: The making of meaning in annual reports. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 34(1), 47–66.
- Thomson, K. (2022). *Conceptualizing teachers' L2 classroom discourse competence (CDC): A key competence in foreign language teaching*. Gunter Narr Verlag.
- Tsui A.B.M. (2008) Classroom Discourse: Approaches and Perspectives. In J. Cenoz & N. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Language and Education* (pp. 261–272). Springer.
- Van Lier, L. (1994). *The classroom and the language learner. Ethnography and second language classroom research*. Longman.
- Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating classroom discourse*. Routledge.
- Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse: Language in action*. Routledge.
- Walsh, S. (2021). Classroom discourse. In K. Hyland, B. Paltridge, & .L.L. Wong (Eds.), *The Bloomsbury handbook of discourse analysis* (pp. 207–218). Bloomsbury Academic.
- Waring, H. Z., & Carpenter, L. B. (2019). Gaze shifts as a resource for managing attention and reciprocity. In J. K. Hall & S. D. Looney (Eds.), *The embodied work of teaching* (pp. 122–141). Multilingual Matters.
- Weizheng, Z. (2019). Teacher-student interaction in EFL classroom in China: communication accommodation theory perspective. *English Language Teaching*, 12(12), 99–111. doi: 10.5539/elt.v12n12p99
- Xie, X. (2011). Turn allocation patterns and learning opportunities. *ELT Journal*, 65(3), 240–250. doi-org.eres.qnl.qa/10.1093/elt/ccq064
- Xin, L., Luzheng, L., & Biru, S. (2011). EFL Classroom discourse analysis of a

vocational college and some reflections. *US-China Education. Review*, 6, 752–755.

Young, R. (2009). *Discursive practice in language learning and teaching*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Yuan, R., & Mak, P. (2018). Reflective learning and identity construction in practice, discourse and activity: Experiences of pre-service language teachers in Hong Kong. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 74, 205–214. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2018.05.009

Zhang, Y., & Zhou, D. J. (2004). Study of students' participation pattern in college English classroom. *Foreign Language World*, 6(1), 28–33.