Chinese Language Instructors’ Approaches to Repair in the Context of Hybridized Secondary-Language Education: Implications for Pedagogy

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**Abstract**

 Hybridized education that draws on a range of both online and in-person formats within a class, is an increasingly common educational practice following the COVID-19 pandemic. This widespread adaptation poses the question of how foreign language teachers and students can use the features on platforms such as Zoom to orient to repair sequences, face-needs and code-switching. Based on previous research done on these facets of language learning, this study examines Chinese teachers’ and students’ application of repair strategies, use of code-switching, and orientation to face-needs during one-on-one speaking ‘tutorials’ over Zoom by means of discourse analysis. This study presents an image of how these teachers have utilized the Zoom interface to approach repair sequences and prevent face-threatening repairs in order to keep students speaking through the corrections; how these adaptations positively alter the way students respond to repair, and how code-switching presents students as active participants in repair sequences rather than outsiders to it. The analysis of this study concludes that repair sequences are an inevitable aspect of language learning that can and should be reframed as a positive thing, and online environments such as Zoom provide valuable resources for teachers to enact repair in a way that demonstrates student competence rather than challenge their capabilities.

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**Chapter 1: Introduction**

Hybridized education that takes place both in-class and over the online platform Zoom within a class is becoming increasingly common post-COVID (Kohnke, 2020; Welnitzova, 2020). This method of being able to conduct education regardless of proximity or environmental restrictions makes the adaptation convenient for both teachers and students. However, the widespread adaptation prompts the question of how this platform can be used by instructors during the process of students learning and becoming proficient in a foreign language; and the ways both teachers and students interact with Zoom as a learning tool in addition to the common aspects of language learning, namely repair sequences, face-needs, and code-switching.

Repair sequences, code-switching, language learning, face-needs, and education conducted over mediated platforms are widely discussed topics. Repair sequences are understood as alterations in speech that are made to manage a particular issue (Zeng, 2019). These repairs can pertain to the speaker’s own construction or to the receivers’ understanding in their interaction (Zeng, 2019). In the context of language learning, this sequence can either be self-repair or repair conducted by the instructor, and can include both verbal and nonverbal methods for adjustment and repair. In the context of secondary-language education, instructors will frequently offer feedback by highlighting imprecise utterances or errors (Clark, 2020). When there is an issue detected between the student’s desired message and the perception of it by the instructor, students will often alter their speech in order to repair their error (Cooper et al., 2021). A modification in their utterance as a method of repair is pivotal in conversations between a student and instructor, or learner and native, and is crucial to language learning (Cooper et al., 2021).

Repair sequences in this context include a variety of methods and can vary in regard to who is initiating the repair. Research conducted by Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) identified two stages of repair which include initiation (realization of an issue in prior speech) and the outcome (which can also be identified as the repair itself). In addition, the repair can either be self-repair (in which the speaker identifies an issue and corrects it), other (a correction initiated by someone other than the speaker); or a combination of both. Repair, then, according to Schegloff et al. (1977) and Cooper et al. (2021) can assume four arrangements: “self-initiated self-repair, other-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, and other-initiated other-repair” (Cooper et al., 2021: 252; Schegloff et al., 1977). Finally, the repairs highlighted in this study can be verbal (both initiated and enacted by teacher or student) or written (on a document for students to read over Zoom).

 Code-switching and face-needs are also important aspects of speech and language learning. Code-switching is a feature of bilingual speech that entails the use of both languages during speech (Johannson, 2014; Liu, 2022; Milroy, 2012; Tudini, 2016). Code-switching between both the native and target language works to convey meaning, promote understanding of both language and corrective feedback, and fulfills communication objectives with minimal loss of face (Tudini, 2016). Face is defined as “the positive image you seek to establish in social interactions” (Goffman, 1955:338).In the case of language learning, corrective feedback and repairs are often interpreted as criticism and interruptions occur out of necessity, which can be face-threatening (Salman, 2020; Tudini, 2022). Face-threats can take on many forms, and in the context of classroom and language learning, there is a face-threatening nature of corrective feedback or other-repairs (Tudini, 2016). The way repairs are initiated and enacted by both student and instructor including the use of code-switching during the tutorials, provides valuable insight into language learning, repair strategies in regard to successful language acquisition and face-needs, as well as the way repair is approached over Zoom as a mediated platform.

This study was conducted within the intermediate level Chinese courses offered at CU Boulder. A requirement of the Chinese courses at this institution is participation in a weekly Zoom tutorial. During these fifteen-minute tutorials, students meet one-on-one with the head instructor or a teaching assistant over Zoom. These tutorials allow for students to practice concepts, grammar structures and course material being learned throughout the week in class. The one-on-one setting allows the instructor to both evaluate the students’ understanding, as well as provide more nuanced guidance for improvement. During the tutorials, students are prompted to practice grammar, pronunciation, read excerpts from the textbook, and engage in conversational Chinese speaking with the instructor, however the instructors often speak English to students when explaining new concepts or words the student may be unfamiliar with.

As a student in the Chinese program, I personally participate in these tutorials, and they have served as a focal point of my research. I had never participated in a language course with the feature of these weekly one-on-one meetings before, and I found the innovative use of the platform interesting. In a Zoom setting, there were times I felt flustered because I had the capacity to self-repair, but the instructors’ repair was preemptive. There were other moments I was unable to make the correction and was assisted, but I immediately forgot the correction. There was a lot of distress in being corrected verbally numerous times on the same thing but being unable to remember because I was unable to retain the verbal correction. I frequently utilized English as a safety net when I needed assistance, as initiating a repair in English was far less threatening than misspeaking it in Chinese. Over Zoom, I often had to listen more closely with none of the physical resources I relied on in class to formulate understanding or retain corrections. Physical resources such as a guided in-class activity with a prompt being displayed on the board that I could read back as many times as I needed to, or the ability to take notes while the teacher spoke. I needed to comprehend in-the-moment speech and respond based on prior knowledge and memory. These differing methods of feedback and repairs contributed to constructing my research question in regard to effective feedback from instructors and student/instructor repair sequences during secondary language education, particularly with the variable of these repairs being conducted over a mediated platform such as Zoom.

As a result of my experiences in class and on Zoom, I decided to look in more depth at the role of repair sequences and the variety in which they can occur during language learning. Through my personal experience, I have found a significant difference in both instruction and personal understanding in regard to approaching these repairs and feedback methods engaging over Zoom and in a shared physical space, as well as the ways in which repair sequences are initiated and enacted. My project aims at joining existing research about aforementioned topics (repair sequences, feedback methods, code-switching, face, and secondary language acquisition) in order to discuss how these aspects interact with one another during the course of language learning.

Due to the nature of this study, it is important to understand the role the mediated interface plays. Virtual communication platforms are unique in their capacity to create live discourse regardless of proximity restrictions. As a physical space is not shared, instructors are often forced to rely on methods of explicit feedback and repairs during speech, in contrast to an in-classroom capacity to visually display corrections, such as writing on a whiteboard. Reliance on explicit feedback often increases reliance on student memory and attention, which often comes at the cost of the feedback or repair being overlooked (Cooper et al., 2021). However, what makes these tutorials interesting is the adaptation of using the Zoom platform’s screen sharing function to display a live note sheet on the screen, emulating a classroom whiteboard.

There are numerous studies on language education over Zoom, as well as repair sequences, code-switching, and face-needs during language education. However, this research aims to contribute to the existing research by looking at a case where all of these aspects are functioning at once. This study aims to explore repair sequences by students and instructors and how they pertain to face-needs, code-switching as both a learning tool and repair initiation marker, and how these facets of language learning are conducted and approached over Zoom as a mediating platform.

**Chapter 2: Literature Review**

This section will introduce various aspects related to this study; it is imperative to understand the topics as areas of preexisting research.

*Repair Sequences*

*Repair* is a term within conversation analysis research and language acquisition research used to describe alterations in speech in order to manage problems during speech (Cooper et al., 2021; Zeng, 2019). The term originated as a result of conversational analysis (Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks, 1977), and it is classified as behavior that occurs during conversation, and it used to remedy errors in knowledge or during language use (Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks, 1977; Zeng, 2019). The “problems” may relate to speaking, receiving or understanding, and can be related to the speaker’s construction or the receiver’s interpretation or understanding during the interaction (Cooper et al., 2021; Zeng, 2019).

There have been four types of repair sequences identified in terms of “self” and “other” (in this study, the “self” is the student, and the “other” is the instructor), and is classified based on initiation and completion of repair (Zeng, 2019). A self-initiated self-repair occurs when the speaker or producer of the error identifies the error and produces the repair; other-initiated self-repair occurs when someone other than the speaker identifies the error and initiates repair, which is then completed by the source of the error; self-initiated other-repair occurs when the producer of the error initiates repair, but it is successfully carried out by the other (student understands there has been an error but is unable to repair it); finally, other-initiated other-repair occurs when the other (instructor) both initiates and produces the repair (Cooper et al., 2021; Zeng, 2019; Schegloff et al., 1977).

*Repair Sequences During Language Learning*

According to research conducted by Zeng (2019) there is a notable preference for self-initiated self-repair. This is due to the inherent violation of the turn-taking system of speech in which each speaker has their turn during the conversation. The nature of a repair or a repair sequence often means the other violating the norms of turn-taking by interjecting with the repair (Schegloff et al., 1977; Zeng, 2019). This is especially true during the course of language education, when instructors are required to initiate and complete a repair, following an error made by the student. A common habit amongst native speakers interacting with individuals learning their native language as a second language is alienating them as vastly different than native speakers (Zeng, 2019). Research has shown that student’s learning a second language often have the implicit tools to recognize errors and resolve or “repair” them, the difference between native speakers and non-native learners is simply their linguistic competence, which continuously improves as they are further socialized into the language (Cooper et al., 2021; Zeng, 2019). This means that the teacher’s reaction to an error is important; other-repair of an error provides students with the necessary knowledge to understand the error and resolve it. In contrast, consistent other-initiated repair and interjection as reactionary by the teacher limits the opportunity for students to initiate self-repair. Long-term, reactionary correctional behavior in which teachers interrupt with repairs or corrections inhibits students’ ability to use the target language in a social environment and maintain interaction. Additionally, it can cause students to engage in a planning mentality of speaking the language, in which they fixate on language accuracy and avoidance of errors, which can cause socially unacceptable speaking habits in the target language (Zeng, 2019).

*Code-Switching*

Code-switching is an aspect of bilingual societies and language classrooms where people use two or more languages to communicate (Johansson, 2014). People who have the ability to speak more than one language often code-switch, wherein they use both languages as resources to convey meaning (Johansson, 2014). Research conducted on code-switching in a fully bilingual classroom has provided significant evidence into the social and cultural importance code-switching communicates. In a bilingual classroom, teachers and students will use code contrasts to distinguish different types of discourse, to negotiate referential frames, and to exchange meanings (Milroy, 2012). However, in a classroom setting where a secondary language is being learned, research needs to take into account code-switching related to language proficiency and the intentions of the speaker (Milroy, 2012). Code-switching is evident where the speaker renegotiates the terms of the interaction by switching between different languages (Tudini, 2016). Code-switching between the target and native language of students is not uncommon, and it can be utilized as a tool to scaffold the learning process (Liu, 2022), or as an interactional resource to achieve understanding and affiliation within potentially face-threatening other-repair sequences (Tudini, 2016). In the context of learning a second language, both students and teachers code-switching to the learner’s native language can work to promote understanding of corrective feedback, and fulfill social objectives with minimal loss of face (Tudini, 2016).

*Face*

Goffman (1955:338) defines face as “the positive image you seek you establish in social interactions”. *Facework* is defined as “the actions taken to deal with the face-wants of one or another” (Huang, 2014). It involves verbal and non-verbal acts, self-presentation and impression management, and it is essential in understanding language learning processes (Huang, 2014). A face-threat or face-threatening act refers to a communication act that threatens the speakers’ self-image or positive face, which includes the desire that the person’s self-image is approved and appreciated (Chen, 2017; Salman, 2020). Researchers Lim and Bowers (1991) suggest that positive face needs cover two distinct wants; the fellowship face (the want to be included) and the competence face (the want that one’s abilities be respected). Face is additionally a display of one’s identity, perceptions of oneself and their face are influenced by social interpersonal variables such as language production and comprehension (Haugh, 2009). Studies on face needs or face work are focused on people’s concern about what others think of them, and in turn how they perceive themselves, which are contextualized in places like courtrooms, conflict management, management, organizational behavior and second-language learning (Haugh, 2009). In an interpersonal interaction, a hearer’s positive face-threats can include complaints, criticisms, accusations, interruptions (Salman, 2020). In the case of language learning, corrective feedback and repairs often take the form of criticizing and interrupting out of necessity, which can be face-threatening (Salman, 2020; Tudini, 2016). Face-threats can take on many forms, and in the context of classroom and language learning, there is a face-threatening nature of corrective feedback or other-repairs (Tudini, 2016). This nature of repair means that teachers can utilize different strategies to maintain students positive face. For example, tact facework uses indirect strategies such as suggestions and directions in order to avoid specific directives and maximize the freedom of action in students (Huang, 2014). However, facework and the avoidance of face-threats is highly contextual, and varies amongst student’ classroom needs and personal wants, which makes face-threats inevitable during the language learning process, though there is room for mitigation (Huang, 2014).

*Native English Speakers Learning Chinese*

Proficient second-language acquisition is a long process. It is more than knowing words; “one must learn more than just the pronunciation, the lexical items, the appropriate word order; one must also learn the appropriate way to use those words and sentences in the second language” (Gass, 2001). It is difficult for speakers to garner awareness and practical use of language pragmatics because they generally lack awareness of the subject. Additionally, non-native speakers of a secondary language are generally unaware of the negative perceptions native speakers will have of them, as a result of fundamental pragmatic errors (Gass, 2001; Qin, 2014). Pragmatic errors during the course of conversation are not only a cause of miscommunication, but relational tensions, as well (Gass, 2001). When pragmatic errors are made which lead to misunderstanding or miscommunication, it is usually attributed to a cultural defect, rather than a difficulty of the speaker who is speaking in a non-native language making a pragmatic error (Gass, 2001; Qin, 2014). Secondary language acquisition, then, is more than obtaining a fundamental understanding of words and their meanings. It is also understanding the pragmatics of a language, and some degree of cultural awareness when the language is being spoken.

Within a language learning context, Chinese as a secondary-language for American students produces a wide range of difficulties. English linguistically belongs to the Indo-European languages, whereas Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language category. Their significant lack of linguistic similarity makes Chinese incredibly difficult for American students to learn (Qin, 2011). The Chinese language relies heavily on the employment of four tones (flat, rising, falling to rising, and falling), which is difficult for Americans to produce naturally. Additionally, Chinese grammar structures differ heavily; and words are written in characters which do not provide information on how the word is pronounced, as English words written with letters from the alphabet do (Liu, 2007; Qin, 2011).

Reading and writing in Chinese, unlike English words, requires the mastery and understanding of thousands of characters, rather than learning the 26 letters that can construct all English words. Chinese characters possess components which make up the characters and potentially give them subsequent meaning (Liu, 2007). For English speakers with no prior long-term exposure to these characters, they have no preexisting sense of relation between characters, and learning them can feel unattainable (Liu, 2007; Qin, 2011). Curriculums for teaching Chinese place emphasis on sentence structure familiarization, speaking fluency, and aspects of proficiency in both reading and writing (Qin, 2011).

*Mediated Communication*

Reproduced communication as a symptom of mediated technology dependency not only has an influence on how people understand each other during communication (particularly those of different cultural or linguistic backgrounds), but it also affects the form and content of information and messages (Chen, 2012; Lauring, 2011). Technology creates communication gaps between different cultural and ethnic groups, and has created a fragmented nature in which members of differing cultural backgrounds are forced to realign their communication behaviors and worldview both during intercultural communication and within their own (Chen, 2012; Danisile, 2012). This type of in-the-moment reframing of communication as a result of mediation forces people to cognitively alter their standard for producing and approaching communication, within the context of communicating with someone hailing from a different cultural/linguistic background (Ward, 2019). As the widespread adoption of mediated technology surges, the result entails intercultural convergence, unlike never before (Chen, 2012). Researchers often explore how communication is performed by individuals based on their culture and social expectations they live in. The subsequent adjustment of speakers is an essential factor in digital intercultural communication; the resulting acculturation is an adaptation forced to be made that changes the cultural patterns of all groups involved (Seyfi, 2016).

*Global Hybridization of Communication Post-Pandemic*

COVID-19 is a significant social marker in the modern world, one that disrupted all regularity and routineness: something that pointed to the unpreparedness of institutions across the world (Pandit, 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic forced various institutions to transition operations from face-to-face to online contexts, in an ultimate attempt to limit contact with other people, and halt the spread of the novel virus. In particular, it forced educational institutions to transition to online, distanced learning. The shift to online learning, as a response to the pandemic, allowed educators to incorporate technology into lessons, and provided valuable insight into how they can improve their remote teaching and methods when in-person resumed (Blonder, 2022). The transition to distanced learning over platforms such as Zoom requires an adaptation in both teacher and student roles, and demands an alteration in the teaching processes (Seryakova, 2022). Subsequently, it also demanded an alteration in the learning process. Students ranging from kindergarten all the way through higher education had to make adjustments in the way they were receiving and processing new information.

As social distancing and lockdown requirements increased amongst the attempt to stop the spread of the virus, normal means of education (in a physical classroom) were replaced with technology-mediated online platforms. “According to a UNESCO report. 1.38 billion learners worldwide were affected by national school closures initiated in the aftermath of COVID-19” (Pandit, 2021). The pandemic has a reputation of abruptly changing the inherent reality of education, but that was already happening; simply at a much slower pace (Pandit, 2021). There was a former hybridization of many educational contexts already happening, the severity of the pandemic rapidly accelerated the nature of using technology as a means for education (Pandit, 2021; Gardinetti, 2022). The pandemic forcing all education to be conducted online has also created a post-virus scenario in which a hybrid method of teaching, both in person and online, is becoming our new normal (Pandit, 2021; Blonder, 2022).

Beyond the exploration of the ways in which speakers from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds approach mediated communication en large, it becomes essential to investigate universal aspects of communication. Paralanguage (tone, loudness of voice, pauses, hesitations, and rate of speech) (Elftheriadou, 1996; Welnitzova, 2020) is a natural aspect of all human communication. Additionally, it is often a vital component of speakers’ attempts to give and receive contextual clues, for the purpose of conveying and understanding information, during communication (Welnitzova, 2020). This feature of speech is significant in both interpreting and translating (whether into first language or into the foreign tongue); and is contingent upon identification of verbal and nonverbal elements. The inability to either perceive these aspects of communication or appropriately contextualize them can cause misinterpretation of reality and misunderstandings among communicative partners (Welnitzova, 2020).

Understanding how mediated platforms work in an educational setting requires a general baseline of perceptions of mediated communication (technologically mediated, specifically), as well as the ways in which differing modes of education influence inhibit or alter students’ perceptions and absorption of material or information. Though it is reactionary to claim facilitation platforms inhibit students’ ability to learn, researchers seek to understand whether it is the fault of the medium in which information is being shared, or the preexisting beliefs of the attendees and recipients on their capacity to learn in this manner (Kohnke, 2020). It, then, becomes relevant to understand the differentiation of virtual mediation in conjunction with face-to-face education. Understanding inherent social processes allows absorption and comprehension to be understood in the context of education.

Zoom education, as an adaptive mode of hybridizing classes to be both in-person and online, can then be translated into the context of secondary-language education. This type of adaptation is becoming increasingly popular in post-COVID education (Kohnke, 2020; Welnitzova, 2020; Pandit, 2021; Gardinetti, 2022). In respect to students learning a second language over Zoom, there is often an implicit anxiety of error (Kohnke, 2020). This anxiety of error contributes to why Zoom is often discounted as a useful mode of language teaching, despite the benefits. Yet the online platform has several features, such as the capacity to share the screen and annotate, which emulate authentic language education seen in person contexts (Kohnke, 2020). In the context of language education, these features provide a range of resources for teachers to use outside of verbal correction. It gives teachers the necessary means to visually display things like corrections and vocabulary, which is necessary as it gives instructors something to rely on outside of student memory, and it gives students a variety of resources that make learning and active speech in the target language easier.

*Intercultural Communication*

Intercultural communication generally refers to the “communication between people from different cultural backgrounds” (Dai, 2022). Intercultural communication extends past basic communication between cultural others, it also includes the features of both translation and interpretation. The topic of intercultural communication is vast, when speaking about people’s language expressions or communication styles, they are restricted by social and cultural factors, as well as “phonetic, vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatics, of the internal elements of the language systems are all intricately linked with social and cultural factors” (Dai, 2022). The intricate nature of communication and socio-linguistic factors requires awareness of pragmatic features of language; namely, pragmatic failures (Gass, 2001; Dai, 2022). There have been established categories of pragmatic failure: Pragmalinguistic failure, sociopragmatic failure, and nonverbal pragmatic failures (Dai, 2022). Pragmalinguistic failure is a term that covers the notion that the language used by foreign language learners fails to conform to the customs of native speakers (Gass, 2001; Dai, 2022). This type of pragmatic failure is not novel to the majority of people. Learning a second language is more than learning the words and the meanings, a fundamental aspect of secondary language learning is learning the ways in which these words are used, and how they are culturally important to native speakers (Gass, 2001). Sociopragmatic failure addresses the failure of a speaker to connect the relationship between language and culture (Dai, 2022). Language carries a significant aspect of cultural importance; an individual’s language proficiency should also be adaptable and informed to adhere to social culture. That is, speakers should be aware of how language fits into a broader relational importance on a social level (Gass, 2001; Dai, 2022). Finally, the pragmatic failure of nonverbal communication addresses a nonverbal action that is familiar to society, but contains no words (Dai, 2022). A failure of appropriate nonverbals is a fundamental failure in intercultural communication, differing cultures require differing nonverbals (Dai, 2022; Pennycook, 1985). The pragmatics of intercultural communication cover the aspects that span beyond language and word recognition and understanding.

Additionally, communication in High Context cultures utilize an abundance of shared information, which means during speech, they actually ‘transmit’ very little information. Whereas communication in Low Context cultures hold little background information as a commonality, and ‘transmit’ a lot of information during communication (Hall, 1976). Americans tend to utilize low-context communication, whereas Chinese utilize more high-context communicative styles (Hall, 1976; Barnlund, 1989). The Chinese language relies on a variety of context and shared background, as the speech tends to be less detailed than English. During intercultural communication between the two groups, Chinese people may feel annoyed when American’s seek explanation and feel varying degrees of confusion. On the opposite end, American’s will feel frustrated when Chinese people make communicative inferences without providing explanation (Qin, 2011). These aspects of communication can be directly linked to the errors many students will make during language learning and the repairs Chinese instructors will engage in explaining.

*Paralanguage*

Paralanguage is particularly important during the course of second language education (Pennycook, 1985). The majority of the time, we use all available means to effectively communicate, which makes that availability pivotal in language learning. Additionally, paralanguage and nonverbals play a significant role in not just overall understanding, but also in retention and broader concept implication (Chai, 2022; Danisile, 2012; Welnitzova, 2020). Within the modernized context of socialization and education over mediated platforms (i.e. Zoom, Skype, WebEx, Google Meets etc), withholding nonverbals from students, during the course of the familiarization and socialization with a new topic of concept, has a direct impact on students’ perceptions (McArthur, 2021), as well as the ability to comprehend the content, and the ability to place the content to some degree of relevance (McArthur, 2021). Implicating prior research regarding paralanguage into the context of mediated technologies substantiates the notion that speakers of the same native language utilize paralanguage for contextual cues and concept understanding (McArthur, 2021; Welnitzova, 2020). This can be spoken twice for in regard to speakers of different native languages, particularly for individuals teaching their native language to a foreigner.

There is a significant amount of existing research pertaining to the various aspects important in grounding this study. Understanding repair and repair during language learning, code-switching and face-needs are crucial; as well as the difficulty native English speakers will have in learning Chinese, and the nuances of hybridized and synchronous online education over platforms like Zoom. The literature also includes aspects of paralanguage during speech, and the role intercultural communication can play in native Chinese speakers orienting to native English speakers during conversation. This study is grounded in understanding how these previously researched aspects of communication and education work simultaneously, and how that informs language education practices further.

**Chapter 3: Methods**

 For this investigation, I conducted a qualitative study by collecting recorded Zoom calls during the course of students’ in the Chinese program’s weekly ‘tutorial’ sessions. In the Chinese language program at CU Boulder, a requirement of the course(s) is participating in weekly ‘tutorials’ which are fifteen-minute, one-on-one Zoom calls with the head instructor or a teaching assistant. During these tutorials, students practice concepts and material introduced in class in a setting which gives them more opportunities to receive feedback, and allows the instructors to gauge their proficiency and understanding. Students are often prompted to read dialogues from the textbook, quizzed on vocabulary from the lessons, use speaking structures, or engage in conversational Chinese dialogue to demonstrate speaking competence, in addition to the ability to read characters. It is important to note that both Chinese and English are utilized throughout the tutorial. For my research, I recruited students in the Chinese program at CU Boulder to participate in my study by recording their Zoom tutorials. The recordings were watched and analyzed for conversational observations, I did not transcribe the entirety of each recording, only the moments I detailed in my notes as primary data were transcribed. They were then translated and organized by means of qualitative analysis, which included highlighting the moment a repair sequence occurred and what type of repair (self-initiated self-repaired, other-initiated self-repaired, self-initiated other-repaired, other-initiated other-repaired), moments when a verbal correction was not retained, and the times the written note sheet was utilized by the professor or student.

 It is important to note that as a student in this Chinese course actively participating in the Zoom tutorials, there is notable research subjectivity present. My experiences participating in the tutorials shapes the interpretation of data and what the participants are doing. Some of the actions, responses or speech patterns the students enacted during tutorial, I recognized as something I do as well, which gives me an indication of what is happening that previous research wouldn’t otherwise tell me. My personal experiences gave me the resources to recognize face-wants, and empathize with the students in a way that gives me more information on their actions during tutorial than I would have as an outside researcher.

 In this chapter I detail the participants that took part in the study and the selection process. As well as the subsequent data collected from the recordings of weekly Zoom tutorials, and finally, the method of data analysis.

**Participants**

 As a student in the Chinese program at CU Boulder, I utilized my small, tight-knit classes to recruit my classmates as participants. With permission and assistance from the head instructor, I recruited participants from a body of CU Boulder students enrolled in an intermediate Chinese language course to participate in voluntarily recording their Zoom tutorials for qualitative discourse analysis. Two different approaches were taken for recruitment. In the beginning stages, I had the head instructor distribute a recruitment email to students enrolled in the course, detailing the study and communicating to students what they were being asked to do. Additionally, I gave a short in-class announcement which also gave students information about my study. It is important to note, that as students become participants in the study, the head instructor and teaching assistants subsequently became eligible to participate, as leaders of the Zoom tutorials. To account for this, during the course of recruitment, the head instructor and teaching assistants were also addressed as potential participants. The recruitment email was also sent to them in order to give them information about the study. If a student an instructor had tutorial with enrolled as a participant, a secondary email was sent to them notifying them that one of their students is interested in participating, and they could choose whether to participate and give consent to be recorded, as well. The result of my recruitment procedures provided five student participants from intermediate Chinese, and three instructors which included the head instructor, and two teaching assistants.

**Procedures**

 In order to appropriately conduct research under an ethical scope, I received Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval to conduct this study utilizing my classmates. In addition to the recruitment email sent to both students and instructors, I attached a consent form which detailed their responsibilities, the scope of the research, how their identities were to be protected and their right to withdrawal as participants. Prior to the recording and sharing of the Zoom tutorials with me, I sent a signable PDF version of the consent form and obtained signed consent from all participating parties; a copy of the signed document was sent, in addition. The saved videos and resulting transcriptions were saved on a personal computer file saved under specific student’s names for organizational purposes. For clarification, there was no additional data collected on the participants as individuals, rather, about the conversation. For the purpose of the study and the protection of both the students and instructors, there will be no visual evidence of their participation in the tutorials. Additionally, in the following data analysis, I will utilize pseudonyms to protect all identifying information of the participants. Students had the option to withhold tutorial recordings, and upon the decision to do so, could also opt to edit or cut the videos to protect any information. Requests were also allowed to be made for specific aspects of calls to be left out of the paper. All participants, both students and instructors, were able to withdrawal as participants in the study at any time with no penalty, in which case the request was to be granted immediately, and all subsequent recordings and any collected data was immediately erased from my computer.

 Upon agreeing to participate in the study and signing the consent form, the subject(s) (both student and instructor) engaged in their weekly Zoom tutorial, however, the tutorial was recorded through the available recording software within the Zoom platform. Prior to engaging and recording, both the student and the instructor needed to have mutual understanding that the particular session was to be recorded, and it would be shared with me. I received a total of thirteen recordings, each fifteen minutes long. Each week I would receive three to five videos, depending on who was participating with a TA who gave consent. I transcribed sections of all thirteen tutorials where categories of repair were present. The sections I transcribed were chosen based on how the teacher approached the repair and the student’s response to it. I chose sections that provided the best examples of repair sequences, or worked to detail a pattern either by the teacher or student, as well as the moments where the student’s response or the method the instructor used to prompt further response was noteworthy. These transcribed sections provided a total of sixteen pages of transcriptions. Additionally, both the transcriptions and analysis were done in Chinese. Doing both the transcriptions and the analysis in the language it occurred in provided the most accurate and nuanced analysis of what was happening, without the variable of translation overlooking important speech details.

I identified that I wanted to focus on repair sequences, and upon receiving the recordings, I first watched through and noted the repair sequence which was time stamped and transcribed in the original language. Additionally, I noted other aspects of the tutorial that utilized the Zoom interface. These transcriptions are utilized in the paper for data, and are written in under pseudonyms to protect all personal information of the participants.

**Data Analysis**

My data was derived from the Zoom tutorial recordings in which I conducted qualitative observation. The method of data collection and analysis was informed by the framework of Discourse Analysis, which is about studying and analyzing the use of language (Hodges et al., 2008). Discourse usually means the actual instances of communication in the medium of language, analyzing discourse means not just focusing on language as abstract, but what happens when people draw on the knowledge they have about language to do things (Johnstone, 2011:2). Upon receiving a tutorial, it would be paired with a document in which I noted the instructor who they participated with. I watched through and noted the different types of repair sequences enacted by both the student and the instructor. On the document, repairs were organized by type derived by Schegloff et al. (1977), (self-initiated self-repaired, other-initiated self-repaired, self-initiated other-repaired, other-initiated other-repaired), which were time-stamped and transcribed.

I additionally noted overlapping situations in which the student was corrected on an error and then corrected on the same error later because the original correction was not retained, and how the instructor approached altering their repair to aid in the student’s understanding. In these cases, the instructor would type on a note sheet shared on their screen to visually display the correction, which could be revisited by the student. Due to the use of the shared screen feature on the Zoom interface, I also noted the moments the note sheet displayed on the screen was utilized by the instructor or the student. Throughout the duration of the tutorial, the professor or TA speaks to the students in predominantly Chinese, often utilizing English to explain concepts the student is likely unfamiliar with. The student attempts to respond in Chinese, but often use English words in the middle of their Chinese sentences, generally filler words and utterances, and particularly if they do not know how to say something, which I have discussed as a code-switch. During the course of transcription, I transcribed in the respective language being spoken, and transcribed sentences in which students code-switch precisely how the sentence was spoken. However, in this paper, I also included a section beneath the original transcription in which I translated the Chinese into English for the purpose of reader understanding.

In this paper, the repair sequences, feedback methods, and the use of the note sheet will be accompanied by the transcription of both what was said and done by the participants and the instructors in the moment; both English and Chinese transcriptions provided. Because this paper is focusing on errors, code-switches, discussing Zoom interface use during instruction, and targeting predominately English-speaking readers, I have also developed other conventions specific to this thesis. Below each of the Chinese transcriptions is the English translation in italics. Because the student sentences as uttered contain errors, the word that was incorrectly spoken and/or would not make sense as a character or in English would it be written in pinyin is underlined. Code-switches are written inside of curly brackets ({}) in the English translation for understandability, and below is the discussion of the conversation context. Additionally, I created a section dedicated to depicting instructor use of the Zoom interface during tutorials, and how they use it during speech. In that section, I included descriptions of how participants use the technological interface such as when the instructor spoke while simultaneously typing, when the note sheet gets pulled up during self or other speech, and when it gets utilized by the student. Because there are no established conventions to detail that, I developed a method that communicates when the note sheet is pulled up on Zoom, and when it gets used during speech, which is detailed at the beginning of the “written repairs” section.

Finally, utilizing existing research, I highlighted what types of repairs I was seeing more frequently in regard to the four categories devised by Schegloff et al. (1977), in addition to the repairs I was seeing typed out on the shared screen over Zoom. Aspects of transcriptions were written according to the Jefferson Transcription System to annotate speech details that occur in any language. Such as a pause in speech (.), the slowing of speech <>, laughter in speech ($), overlap in speech ([]), an elongated word (::) a rise or drop in pitch (↑)(↓), quieter speech (°), the abrupt start of a sentence (=), falling intonation (¿), rising intonation (?), or breathiness in speech (h).

**Chapter 4: Findings and Analysis**

 By analyzing the Zoom tutorials and the conversations recorded between the head instructor or teaching assistant and student, I was able to identify a total of 87 repairs in the thirteen videos that served as my data. Figure 1 provides the visual distribution of repairs seen during the conversations. During the course of analysis, repairs were identified in regards to the model constructed by Schegloff et al. (1977), self-initiated self-repair (SISR), self-initiated other-repair (SIOR), other-initiated self-repair (OISR), and other-initiated other-repair (OIOR). Additionally, I noted the instances the Zoom interface was used to by the instructor to type a repair for the student to see, or by the student to glance at a previous repair during speech, as well as the speech that occurred during these moments. This is separate from the four aforementioned categories since it can happen in multiple categories.

Examples of identified repair sequences seen in the Zoom tutorials will be discussed, in these examples, the student is the “self” and the instructor is the “other” in the repair sequences. The following sections are samples of the data collected that show overlapping patterns in how these repair sequences are initiated and enacted by student and teacher. This establishes consistency in the work that is being done over the course of the tutorials, and presents an image of when and how these things occur during language learning.

**Self-Initiated Self-Repair**

 Below are notable examples of self-initiated self-repair found in the Zoom tutorials, in which there are noticeable patterns in how it is happening and how the teacher orients to it. These are examples of students recognizing the error and both initiating and repairing the sentence. Under the dialogue will be a short contextual statement and analysis of the interaction.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher  | (h) 这个考试你觉得会不会很难? |
|  |  | *Do you think this test will be hard?* |
| 2 | Student 1 | U::h 不太难。但是我 (.) zui uh wait no (.) 我在数学(.)上不太强 (,).  |
|  |  | *U::h not too hard. But I (.) zui uh {wait no} (.) In the aspect of math(.) I am not too strong (,).*  |
| 3 | Teacher | = 你在数学上不太强 (,) |
|  |  | *=In the aspect of math you are not too strong (,)* |
| 4 | Student 1 | = 对. |
|  |  | *= Correct.*  |
| 5 | Teacher | O::h. |

In this example of SISR, the student was explaining to the teacher that their upcoming test won’t be too hard, but math is not their strongest subject. During the sentence, the student used the word (zui) instead of 在 (zài), which in this sentence structure, is paired with 上 (shàng), to convey “in the aspect of” something. The student initiated the repair by verbally recognizing their mistake, which can be seen by them code-switching and uttering “wait no” in English. This code-switch is an important initiation marker, as it serves as a method of communicating there is trouble in their speech. The student code-switches into their native language to communicate that they are aware there was an error made, which prevents the teachers reactional other-repair. The student self-repaired the sentence without assistance by this error recognition and code-switch.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 如果常常吃汉堡会怎么样?  |
|  |  | *If you eat hamburgers often what will happen?* |
| 2 | Student 4 | [如果常常吃汉堡-]  |
|  |  | *[If you eat hamburgers often-]* |
| 3 | Teacher | [Use the more the more.] |
|  |  | *Reference to a speaking structure.* |
| 4 | Student 4 | (.) 越吃汉堡，uh 你的健康越 (.) or 你的身体越不健康. |
|  |  | *The more you eat hamburgers, uh your health is more… {or} the unhealthier your body is.* |
| 5 | Teacher | 很好很好!  |
|  |  | *Very good!*  |

In this SISR, the student is utilizing a (yuè越…yuè越) structure, which works as a “the more A happens, the more B happens” structure. In this case, the student was attempting to say “the more hamburgers you eat, the unhealthier your body gets.” The student immediately recognized the misplacement of “your health” before 越, and initiated the repair when they code-switched and stated “or” to signal they were going to fix it, they then executed the repair by reframing the sentence to make it correct. The teacher can be seen giving explicit praise to the student for their self-repair, which emphasizes the competency demonstrated by the student.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | Teacher | 有的人觉得衣服越小越好看，你同意吗? |
|  |  | *Some people think the smaller the clothes are the better they look, do you agree?*  |
| 2 | Student 4 | uh 我不同意，我一定不同意 (.) OR wait 我不同意 (.) 衣服 (.) 越小不一定越好看 can you say that?. |
|  |  | *Uh I don’t agree, I definitely don’t agree (.) {OR wait} I don’t agree (.) smaller clothes don’t necessarily look better {can you say that?}.* |
| 3 | Teacher | 很好! |
|  |  | *Very good!* |

The student in response to the aforementioned 越…越 structure also utilized 不一定 (bù yīdìng), which means ‘not necessarily’. On the contrary, 一定 (yīdìng) means ‘definitely’. The student wanted to utilize ‘not necessarily’ for their answer. The self-initiation of the repair can be seen when the student utters “or wait”, which works to signal that they know there is an issue, and it gives them time to fix it before an other-repair occurs. The student doesn’t just repair the one phrase they errored; they restate the entire sentence. This can be seen as work to both start where they are confident they were correct, and repair not just the error but the entire sentence. This has a hand in saving face by preventing other-repair and demonstrating their language competence. The student reframes the order of “不一定/一定不”, utilized the “more and more” structure, and self-repaired the sentence without other intervention. Again, the teacher is seen orienting to the self-repair by giving the student explicit praise for it, and explicitly recognizing the way they both recognized and resolved the error.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 5 | 我都走楼梯. 我的宿舍在五楼，(.) 我每天都去上. |
|  |  | *I always take the stairs. My dorm is on the fifth floor, (.) I go up every day.* |
| 2 | Student 5 | Oh (↑), 我每天都走上去. |
|  |  | *Oh* (↑)*, I walk up every day.* |

In this example, the student is talking about their daily habits that also serve as exercise. In Chinese, the directional verb phrases often require an action prior to the direction (up, down, in, out etc.). The student needed to place 走 (zǒu), the verb ‘walk’, before the directional ‘up the stairs’ phrase. You can see the student utter “oh”, which is the marker for the self-initiation, the student doesn’t just repair the error, they go back and repair the entire sentence. This can be both an attempt at saving face following the error, and a repair that formulates a correct sentence.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 你在网上买东西吗? |
|  |  | *Do you buy things online?* |
| 2 | Student 5 | (3.2) 一般我在网上不(↑)买东西因为 (.) 去 uh 自己 (.) u::h到商店比买东西在上网比较难. Or uh the opposite! $ 对不起 $，买东西在网上比(↑)去商店比较难. |
|  |  | *(3.2) Typically I don’t* (↑) *buy things online because (.) going uh myself (.) it’s harder to get to the store than to buy things online.* {Or uh the opposite!} $*Sorry*$*, it’s harder to buy things online than (.) go to the store.*  |

The student in this scenario was commenting on their preference to buy things at the store rather than online. The student utilized the 比 (bǐ) comparison structure to compare the difficulty of buying things online versus going to the store. However, the student mixed up the order of the phrases, which made the original sentence that buying things in the store is more difficult than buying things online, which was not the intention. The self-initiation can be seen when the student code-switches and says “or uh the opposite!”. The student code-switches and shows some degree of urgency in their words, the code-switching does this work to abruptly signal that they know there is an issue, and to hold off assistance and repair from the teacher so they can self-repair. The student then reformats the entire sentence to make it understandable, and completes the self-repair.

This section provides examples of self-initiated self-repair actively happening during the tutorials. In these examples, the act sequence of self-repairing an incorrect sentence takes the form of self-initiating the repair by code-switching. The abrupt nature of the code-switch suggests the students are interjecting utterances that signal they are aware of the error, which prevents the teacher from interjecting with a correction, and gives them the opportunity to fix the sentence on their own. Students don’t just correct the phrase or word they made an error on, they go back and restate the entire sentence with the inclusion of their repair. This provides strong evidence that this code-switch is an attempt to prevent the face-threatening other-repair, and demonstrate language competency by correctly restating the entire sentence, rather than just the errored word. This is conferred by praise from the instructor, the ability to do self-initiated self-repair is a sign of competency beyond the ability to do something fluently. Teachers acknowledge this competency as they give explicit praise and recognition to the students when they successfully enact this repair sequence. This is notable and important because it not only reinforces the competency face of the student, but it turns a potentially face-threatening situation into a self-correction.

**Other-Initiated Self-Repair**

This section details some examples of other-initiated self-repair seen in the tutorials. In this category, errors are seen being flagged and initiated by the teacher using a variety of methods that give the student the necessary cue to repair the sentence on their own.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 你今天是<怎 (↓) 么>去学校的？ |
|  |  | *<How>*(↓) *did you get to school today?* |
| 2 | Student 3 | (2.4) 我今天去学校 or uh, 我 (.) 八点去学校. |
|  |  | *(2.4) Today I went to school, {or} uh, I (.) went to school at 8.* |
| 3 | Teacher | mm (¿) 你是<怎(↓)么> 去的？坐车还是开车，[还是走路?] |
|  |  | *Mm* (¿) *<How>*(↓) *did you go to school? Did you ride in the car, or drive, [or walk?]* |
| 4 | Student 3 | [我开车.]  |
|  |  | *[I drove.]* |

In this example of an OISR, the teacher asked the student how (by means of travel) they got to school that day. The student gave an incorrect answer by stating the time they went to school. The teacher restated the question, putting tone emphasis and slowing down the pace of speech on 怎么 (*how)*, which marks the initiation of the repair. The teacher then gave options in the form of an “or” (还是 háishì) option question, which signals the student wasn’t aware of the error here, and the teacher wanted to give the student the opportunity to self-repair. Drawing the attention to the error by restating the question phrase of the sentence (怎么) is a way to alert the student that there is a speech problem. By giving them options for further hints, the teacher gives the student the resources to self-repair. This method of initiation without automatically other-repairing the sentence is a way to alert to an error and allow for self-repair without threatening the students face. The student repairs only the errored phrase, but answers the teachers question correctly which repairs the sentence.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 3 | 一把桌子. |
|  |  | *One [incorrect classifier, bǎ] table.* |
| 2 | Teaching assistant 1 | 一:: (.) 什么? |
|  |  | *On::e (.)what?* |
| 3 | Student 3 | Oh, sorry! 一张桌子. |
|  |  | *{Oh, sorry!} One table.* |

In this example, the student was saying the phrase “one table”, but the classifier they used (把bǎ) was incorrect. The classifier for table is 张 (zhāng) which is used to classify items that are flat. The teaching assistant prolonged the word ‘one’, and similar to the above example used a question phrase, in this example the phrase was “what” (什么) to draw the students’ attention back to the incorrect utterance, which marks the initiation of the repair. The student code-switched to signal understanding that there was an error, and completed the repair using the correct classifier.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 你说在网上买东西比较麻烦，为什么? |
|  |  | *You said buying things online is relatively troublesome, why?* |
| 2 | Student 5 | (.) 因为:: (.) 你 (.) 不会试一试东西, u::m 也东西太多了. |
|  |  | *(.) Becau::se (.) you (.) can’t try things, u::m also there are too many things* |
| 3 | Teacher | 也(↑)还是… |
|  |  | *Also*(↑) *or…* |
| 4 | Student 5 | 而且 (.) 东西太多了. |
|  |  | *In addition (.) there are too many things.*  |

The student was reporting on the inconveniences of shopping online. They stated you aren’t able to try the item you are purchasing, and there are too many things to choose from. The teacher initiated the repair by using a variety of indirect methods to mark this as incorrect, such as rising pitch emphasis on the unpreferable word the student used ‘also’ 也 (yě), and the use of the option question (还是 háishì), which prompts the student to use a different connector word for these sentences. This indirectness is a way for the teacher to give the student the opportunity to self-repair. In this case, the student was able to select a better word when prompted to do so, which captures the student drawing on existing knowledge during this discourse. The use of this indirect method of restating the error prompts the student to utilize existing knowledge to supply something different, and gives them the space to enact the self-repair by utilizing the more appropriate term ‘in addition’ (而且 érqiě).

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 5 | uh在家的时候我 (.) 买书:: 在网上(↑)*.* |
|  |  | *Uh when I am at home, I (.) buy boo::ks on the internet (↑).* |
| 2 | Teacher | mm 我在网上… \*Raises hand to the camera and moves across the screen\* |
|  |  | *mm on the internet…* |
| 3 | Student | Oh, 我在 (.) 在网上 (.) 买书. |
|  |  | *Oh, I (on the internet) buy books.* |
| 4 | Teacher | 很好！在网上买书. |
|  |  | *Very good! On the internet buy books.* |

This error requires more background information, as it is not a grammatical error, but a sentence order error. The student made the error on the placement of the location phrase (在网上: on the internet) in their sentence. In Chinese, the sentences follow the structure (subject, time, place, verb, object). In this example, the location 在网上 (on the internet) must come before the verb phrase, which in this case would be 买书 (buy books):

我在网上买书- *I on the internet buy books.*

The teacher restated the location (being on the internet) as an initiation marker, and raised their hand during speech and moved it across the screen to signal something should come after the location. By restating the location phrase and indicating something should come after that, the professor is signaling that those words should come first. The student took the initiation and enacted the repair by beginning at the location and following it with the verb phrase ‘buy books’ which repaired their sentence by reordering it.

 This section provides examples of other-initiated self-repair during tutorials. In these examples, the act sequence follows instructors’ indirect behavior patterns in order to signal there is an issue in speech. This type of indirectness is characteristic of tact facework (Huang, 2014), which prioritizes suggestions, direction, and the avoidance of explicit directives, which maximizes the freedom of action in the learners. Instructors can be seen utilizing questions words or using option questions to cue students in on a repair that needs to happen. Instructors’ will also restate the errored phrase or word, changing pitch and stretching sound of the word to initiate a repair to be enacted by the student. By restating or using question words, instructors initiate repair, and by cueing students in on the existence of an issue, allow them to both draw on existing knowledge to demonstrate proficiency, as well as self-correct and avoid the face-threatening other-repair. The teacher is seen orienting to the self-repair by giving the student praise. Despite the failure to recognize there was an error by the student, the teacher still responded to their ability to self-repair in a positive way, which works to reinforce their competency face despite the original error.

**Self-Initiated Other-Repair**

This section provides some examples of self-initiated other-repair. In these examples, students are seen orienting to and recognizing an error or proficiency issue during the course of speaking, errors or proficiency issues that they are unable to repair. The student is often seen code-switching to mark this error, and either directly or indirectly requests assistance from the teacher who completes the repair.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 那，你觉得能源有没有好坏? |
|  |  | *So, do you think [natural] energy is good or bad?* |
| 2 | Student 1 | Uh (.) 我 (.) 觉得 um (1.2) 有 (.) 有一些能有 (.) 有 (.) 坏(?) Is that bad? |
|  |  | *Uh (.) I (.) think um (1.2) some energy…(.) bad? {Is that bad?}* |
| 3 | Teacher | 有一些能源不好是吗? |
|  |  | *Some energy is not good, yes?* |
| 4 | Student 1 | 不好. |
|  |  | *Not good.* |

This is another error that requires explanation of Chinese language specificities. In Chinese, they often combine two opposite one-syllable adjectives to indicate an abstract aspect that can be used in discussion to talk about the abstract notion. For example, 胖瘦 (pàng shòu) is literally fat/thin, but the combination of the one-syllable adjectives makes up the abstract notion of weight or figure, but cannot be used when talking about exactly how much you weigh. 难易 (nán yì) is literally hard/easy, and the combination is the abstract notion for difficulty level, and so on. The term 好坏(hǎo huài) which the teacher uses in their original question, literally means good/bad, but it is used in discussion to talk about whether something is perceived as good or bad. 坏 (huài) is not often used as the word for bad, it is part of the abstract, and it is generally replaced with 不好（bù hǎo）when someone wants to indicate something is not good.

In this example of a SIOR, the teacher asks the student what they think about natural energy. The student can be seen initiating the repair and recognizing there is an issue when they use their pitch to indicate unsureness, turning the end of the Chinese sentence into a question, which is considered an indication of a problem. The student then code-switches into English to ask if 坏 (huài) is the word for bad. The student-initiation of the repair in the form of an English question indicates they are unable to self-repair. The teacher repairs the sentence by uttering the correct term for bad, and turning it into a tag question (是吗? shì ma?) to clarify that is what the student was attempting to say. The student repeats the repair which works to both confirm that was their intended outcome, and correctly conclude their original sentence.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 你觉得以后会不会人们只(↓)在网上买东西? |
|  |  | *Do you think people will only buy things online in the future?* |
| 2 | Student 1 | uh (.) 不是 (.) 我觉得 (.) oh boy. Uh, 我觉得 always (.) 只有商店. |
|  |  | *Uh (.) no. (.) I think (.) {oh boy} Uh, I think {always} (.) only have stores.* |
| 3 | Teacher | 只有什么? |
|  |  | *Only have what?* |
| 4 | Student 1 | Um, 商店。我忘了怎么说 always. |
|  |  | *Um, stores. I forgot how to say {always}.* |
| 5 | Teacher | 总是. |
|  |  | *Always.*  |
| 6 | Student 1 | 总是有商店. |
|  |  | *Always have stores.* |
| 7 | Teacher | Ah, 可以总是会有商店对不对? |
|  |  | *Ah, you can say we will always have stores, right?* |
| 8 | Student 1 | \*nods\* |

In this example, the student can be seen recognizing there is an issue when they begin to code switch back and forth between English and Chinese. The student recognizes there is an issue with their existing grammar knowledge for this term and initiates the repair by using English to say “always”. The teacher attempts to use a question to get clarity in Chinese, but the student informs the teacher they forgot how to say the word for ‘always’. The teacher repairs the sentence when they give the student the forgotten word, and also repair the sentence by adding in the missing modal verb 会 (huì), completing the other-repair. This is an example of how code-switching can work to initiate repair, when the student uses their native language to fill in the blanks. The student nodded in response to the repair, but in this example the teacher immediately moved on to ask an entirely different question. The student is not orienting to this repair in a negative way that suggests there was a perceived face-threat, they still signaled they understood the correction as the teacher kept speaking.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 3 | 我喜欢 Denver 的商店uh (.) Denver 比 Boulder uh 有(4.2) like贵的商店 I guess, like nicer (↑) stores maybe? |
|  |  | *I like Denver’s stores uh (.) Denver (compared to) Boulder (4.2) {like} expensive stores {I guess, like nicer (↑) stores maybe?}* |
| 2 | Teacher | 你可以说 Denver 的衣服更好. |
|  |  | *You can say Denver’s clothes are better.* |
| 3 | Student 3 | Okay. |

In this example, the student code-switches to English to initiate the repair. The use of the English question phrase is considered an initiation of a repair, as a problem occurred during speech, the student was unable to use Chinese to say ‘Denver’s stores are nicer’, so they stated the sentence they were attempting to say in English. The teacher gives the student the sentence they would be able to use to convey that the stores in Denver are higher-end, therefore repairing the conversation. The student does not repeat the repair, and additionally responds to the repair in English, which signals the student did not want to attempt this again. It is possible that the difficulty of this sentence and the nature of the repair was face-threatening to the student, which could help explain why no further attempt was given to it and the teachers repair was responded to in English.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 3 | 星期一(.)我 (2.3) 我去看病，um我的 “*yan se(?)*” (.) (Points at throat). 这是什么? |
|  |  | *On Monday (.) I (2.3) I went to see a doctor. Um my (yan se (?)) (.) (points at throat). What is this?* |
| 2 | Teaching assistant 1 | 嗓子. |
|  |  | *Throat. [Sǎngzi]* |
| 3 | Student 3 | 我的嗓子疼. |
|  |  | *My throat hurt.*  |

In this example, the student used a nonverbal gesture to initiate the repair of the troubled sentence. The student was unable to remember the word for throat, so instead they pointed to their throat and asked what it was in Chinese. The teaching assistant gave the student the word, which is considered the other-repair of the conversation. The nonverbal gesture and the use of Chinese to ask for assistance helps the student to maintain discourse in the target language as well as maintain face, while simultaneously asking for assistance with the word.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 你现在还常常做运动吗? |
|  |  | *Do you still do sports often now?* |
| 2 | Student 4 | (.) 我现在 u::m (.) 常常做运动. (3.1) 我去(.) we learned this grammar structure. |
|  |  | *(.) Now I u::m (.) often do sports. (3.1) I go (.) {We learned this grammar structure.}* |
| 3 | Student 4 | 我去五次 (.) How do you say per week? I forgot. |
|  |  | *I go five times (.) {How do you say per week? I forgot.}* |
| 4 | Teacher | 每个星期 or 每周. |
|  |  | *Two different ways to say ‘every week’* |
| 5 | Student 4 | So can you say 我每周五次去做训练？ |
|  |  | *{So can you say} I (do) training 5 times a week?* |
| 6 | Teacher | 训练是 verb, 对不对？我每周训练五次. |
|  |  | *xùnliàn is a {verb}, right? I train five times a week.* |
| 7 | Student 4 | = 我每周训练五次. |
|  |  | *= I train five times a week.* |

*This interaction is continued on page 61 in the “written repairs” section.*

In this example, the student runs into an issue using a time frame structure and simply asks the teacher for assistance by code-switching into English. The teacher provided the sentence the student was unsure of, and when the student reiterated the sentence with the given structure, and then asked for clarification on whether or not that was appropriate to say by code-switching into English. The teacher provided further repair on the misuse of the verb 做zuò, which was then repeated by the student. This is a simple example of self-initiated other-repair when the “self” agent requests assistance by code-switching, resulting in the other-repair. This is also a good example of frequent code-switching by a student prior to speaking the target language. This is strong evidence of face-protection, where the student seems to be weary of making an error, so they code-switch into English to consistently ask for clarification prior to attempting it in the target language.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | $怎么能让人瘦一点儿? $ |
|  |  | $ *How can people get thinner?* $ |
| 2 | Student 4 | (.) 你可以出去跑 (.) Actually I guess it would be (.) 你可以 (.) 跑去步 no(↓). |
|  |  | *(.) You can go run(.) {Actually I guess it would be} You can (.) (error) {no}*(↓). |
| 3 | Teacher | 出去跑步. |
|  |  | *Go out for a run.* |
| 4 | Student 4 | 出去跑步对. |
|  |  | *Go out for a run, correct.*  |

For this unit, the students were focusing on exercise-related vocabularies. The teacher asked the student what a person could do to lose weight, in which the student attempted to state that going for a run could aid in weight-loss. The student was attempting to order the words 出去 (chūqù), to go out, and the word for running 跑步 (pǎobù). They attempted different variations, code-switching to English promptly after each try, which is seen when they say ‘actually I guess it would be’ and abruptly saying ‘no’ afterwards. These abrupt code-switches served as an initiation cue for the teacher; who enacted the repair for the student. Additionally, it appears to be a reaction to anticipate the sentence is wrong. By the student consistently second-guessing what was just said, they are protecting their face by anticipating the likelihood that the sentence is both wrong, and an other-repair is likely to come of it.

 In these examples of self-initiated other-repair, students often run into problems and request assistance. This assistance or other-repair is often met with positive reactions. Despite the research that states other-repairs are usually face-threatening (Tudini, 2016; Salman, 2020), that seems to not be the case when the student is able to initiate the repair on their own terms. This pertains to the face-want of autonomy (Lim and Bowers, 1991; Huang, 2014), which involves people feeling that they are in control of their own fate, they are composed and self-sufficient. The ability for students to receive other-repair *only* when they prompted it by their own will suggests that code-switching to ask for assistance on their own is a way to prompt other-repair while still being sensitive to face-needs by both using their native language and recognizing on their own that there is an issue. The repair is met with much less resistance.

**Other-Initiated Other-Repair**

This section provides examples of the other agent (instructor or TA) both initiating and completing repair. In this section, interjections and interruptions to both initiate and repair an error are frequently seen, and it provides a useful grounding of what OIOR can look like when done without the use of the external resources such as the Zoom note sheet.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **1** | Teacher | $现在中国的问题是什么$? |
|  |  | *$What is China’s problem now$?* |
| 2 | Student 1 | U::m (5.2) <太多人>(.) 没有很多地方住在. |
|  |  | *U::m (5.2) <too many people>, not many places to live.* |
| 3 | Teacher | 没有很多地方住(↓)对不对? |
|  |  | *There aren’t many places to live* (↓)*, right?* |
| 4 | Student | 住(↓) mhm. |
|  |  | *Live (↓)* *mhm.* |

In this example of an OIOR, the teacher was correcting the students misuse of the word 在 (zài). This word is commonly a location marker (among other things) and in this context, the student placed it after the word for live (住) at the end of their sentence, which is incorrect. The teacher followed the students answer with a restatement of their sentence with the exclusion of 在, and then placed a correct/incorrect question phrase at the end to prompt student recognition of the error. The student only repeated the word for ‘live’ 住 (zhù), and uttered a confirmation sound with nothing further. Drawing on both personal experience and comparing to the reactions given by students in response to SISR or SIOR, this suggests there is some resistance from the student amidst this other-initiated other-repair, where they did not want to repeat the sentence in its entirety, but accept the other-repair and continue.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 从你的宿舍开过来得多长时间？ |
|  |  | *How long does it take to drive to school from your dorm?* |
| 2 | Student 3 | U::m 从家里(.)开过去学校 [u::m] |
|  |  | *U::m to drive from home (.) to school [u::m]* |
| 3 | Teacher | [Uh no 学校]. |
|  |  | *[Uh {no} “school”].* |
| 4 | Student 3 | 开过去like七分钟. |
|  |  | *Driving takes {like} seven minutes.*  |

In this OIOR, the student is answering the teachers’ question about how long it takes to drive to school. The student incorrectly places 学校 (xuéxiào) at the end of their sentence. The teacher interrupts while the student is still speaking with the correction, the student doesn’t outwardly acknowledge the correction, rather, they reframe the sentence beginning from where they left off originally, excluding the word for school (学校). This suggests that there is some degree of face-concern, where the student didn’t want to be stopped in their sentence entirely but rather demonstrate their competency face by correctly reframing the sentence without acknowledging there was an interjected repair.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 3 | So (.) um (.) 学习一和学习三我 (.) 五点钟起床. Uh (.) [学习]. |
|  |  | *{So} (.) um (.) Monday and Wednesday I (.) wake up at (.) 5 am. Uh (.) [xuéxí]* |
| 2 | Teacher | [星期]. |
|  |  | *xīngqí* |
| 3 | Student 3 | Oh, $谢谢$. 星期二，星期(.)四，星期五(.)六点钟起床. |
|  |  | *Oh, $thank you$. Tuesday, Thursday (.) and Friday I wake up at 6:00.* |

The student, during the course of naming days, repeatedly used 学习 (xuéxí), which means to study, instead of 星期 (xīngqí). For naming days of the week in Chinese, 星期 (xīngqí) precedes the number, for example, 星期一 (xīngqí yī) is Monday; 一 (yī) is the word for one, and Monday is the first day of the week. The student did not recognize the error while the teacher recognized the repetitive error and briefly interrupted during the students speech with the correction of 星期 (xīngqí).The student laughed and thanked the teacher, and continued speech using the correct word, however they did not start over, they continued where they left off. This laughter and thanking the teacher suggests that the teacher is not giving the student any new information, or repairing anything the student wouldn’t have otherwise been able to. It was a mistake that didn’t reflect the student’s competency because it was a seeming mix-up, which the student found entertaining rather than threatening. This is important because it provides an example of the moments where these other-repairs aren’t completely and solely face-threatening as suggested by Tudini (2016).

*This transcript comes from a student reading a text, but it provides an example of a prior correction that was not recalled by the student.*

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teaching assistant 1 | Ya:::o. |
| 2 | Student 3 | It’s like lock, it’s lock.  |
| 3 | Teaching assistant 1 | No no, lock is this one \*highlights the word for lock in a different section\*. |
| 4 | Student 3 | Oh, then it’s key, sorry.  |
| 5 | Teaching assistant 1 | 宿舍钥匙. |
|  |  | *Dorm key.* |
| 6 | Student 3 | Okay. |

This is an example of an other-initiated other-repair, in the context of a former correction that was not recalled. During this tutorial, the teaching assistant had corrected the student on this word earlier in the reading. When the student saw this word again, they were unable to remember. This provides a good example of reliance on memory being ineffective, especially when verbal corrections are not recalled by the student. This recall error is what makes the shared Zoom note sheet particularly useful in these contexts, as the student is able to refer back to the corrections and repairs the teacher made which serves both face-needs and learning purposes.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 3 | 别 (dao) 心 (.) 他们 (.) 很快就到. |
|  |  | *Don’t dao (.) they (.) will be there soon.* |
| 2 | Teaching assistant 1 | 别什么心? |
|  |  | *Don’t what?* |
| 3 | Student 3 | (4.9) |
| 4 | Teaching assistant 1 | 别担心对吧? |
|  |  | *Don’t worry, right?* |
| 5 | Student 3 | Oh 别担心. |
|  |  | *Oh, don’t worry.* |

In this repair sequence, the student made an error in their use of 担心 (dānxīn), wherein the student said (dao) instead of (dān). The TA initiated the repair by replacing the errored speech with 什么 (what), in order to aid the student in initiating repair, which was met with a pause and the student was unable to make the repair. The error was ultimately repaired by the TA, which was reiterated by the student. The student did not repeat the entire sentence again, only the correction. This suggests that there is perceived face-threat, as seen in the examples of OISR or SISR, the student didn’t have the confidence to attempt the entirety of the sentence again, signaling there is some threat to their competency face. The restatement of the correction only is an indication of the desire to restate it to keep the teacher moving forward.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 3 | 我出去买东西在 Denver, 我喜欢 (.) 买 (jin) 的衣服. |
|  |  | *I go out to Denver to buy things, I like (.) buying jin clothes.* |
| 2 | Teacher | 买 (↑) 什么衣服？[新]. |
|  |  | *Buy* (↑) *what clothes? New.* |
| 3 | Student 3 | [OH] >新的<(.)>新的< °衣服°. |
|  |  | *[OH], >new< (.) >new<* °*clothes* °*.* |

The student was attempting to tell the teacher where they like to go buy clothes. In this example, the student makes an error on the word for new (新 xīn) and says “jin”, which was not initially recognized by the student. The teacher uses the question structure (buy… what clothes?) and then gives the correction immediately after, at the same time, the student abruptly calls out “OH” at the same time the teacher is providing the word for new. This has been categorized as an other-repair, because the teacher did repair the sentence before the student. However, the nature of the student abruptly and loudly calling out “OH” suggests they were able to make the repair, coupled with the fast reiteration of 新的 (xīn de) and the much quieter speech during 衣服 (yīfú) captured the student slightly flustered, as though they could make the repair but were not given the time to do so.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 你觉得(.)你状不壮? |
|  |  | *Do you think (.) you’re strong?* |
| 2 | Student 4 | U::m 我比 Lü Xiaojun [u::m] |
|  |  | *Comparison structure: Student is comparing themselves to Lü Xiaojun* |
| 3 | Teacher | [我<没>(↑) 有] |
|  |  | *This is a structure used to signify “not as much as”.* |
| 4 | Student 4 | 我没有 (.) 壮(?). |
|  |  | *I’m not (.) strong (?)* |
| 5 | Teacher | Uh (.) $ not as strong as $. |
| 6 | Student 4 | O::h 我没有那么壮. |
|  |  | *O::h I am not as strong.* |
| 7 | Teacher | 很好. 我没有Lü Xiaojun 那么壮. |
|  |  | *Very good. I am not as strong as Lü Xiaojun* |
| 8 | Student 4 | Oh okay.  |

The teacher asked the student if they are strong, and the student first used the 比 (bǐ) structure, which is used in Chinese as a way to make a comparison between two things. In this case, the students’ comparison was to say they are ‘not as’ strong as the Olympic weightlifter Lü Xiaojun, which requires the use of a different structure. The teacher interjected during the students speech with “我没有” (wǒ méiyǒu), which served as the initiation for the original sentence to be changed. The student did not quite understand and made an error in the repair, and the teacher provided clarification by saying “not as strong as”. The student used the correct structure; however, they left out the use of the Olympians name, which serves as the agent they are saying they are ‘not as strong as’, that must be included. The teacher then uttered the correct sentence, which served as the other-repair. The student did not repeat the final repair, they simply acknowledged it as they responded in English.

As seen in previous literature, other-initiated other-repairs are inherently face-threatening (Tudini, 2016). They often require interruption and interjection (Salman, 2020) and can threaten positive face-needs in terms of competency wants, the individuals’ abilities are respected (Lim and Bowers, 1991). These other-repairs show many instances where students faced with an other-initiated other-repair meet it with silence, a restatement of the single word, or a simple sound to signal acceptance. In the previous examples of self-initiated other-repair and other-initiated self-repair, the students met the corrections by often repeating the entirety of the sentence with the addition of the correction. In these instances, students are not showing a strong desire to attempt again with the inclusion of the other-repair given, or they continue speaking without acknowledging the interjection by the teacher. This is not to say there is an issue with other-initiated other-repair, as it often needs to happen during language learning. However, this provides valuable insight into students’ perceptions and reactions to OIOR, and gives valuable insight into the role of face-needs during language learning.

**Written Repair**

 In this section, I will detail the corrections and repairs that included the use of the Zoom platform screen sharing function. These examples include multiple categories of repair excluding self-initiated self-repair, and they show how Zoom is used to approach different repairs. For transcription purposes, in this section I will utilize brackets ([]) in order to detail when speech and writing is happening at the same time. The upper line will contain what the instructor is speaking in brackets, and the line directly below in the same row will contain what is being typed simultaneously in brackets. In the occasion where the instructor types after speech, the line below will contain what they typed not inside of brackets. I will also use the caret symbol (^) to indicate when the note sheet gets pulled up, and the pound symbol (#) to indicate when a student is utilizing the note sheet to aid in speech.

Figure 1 and Figure 2 provide examples of what the shared note sheet looks like during tutorial. During tutorial, the participants Zoom windows are located along the side of the screen, however, these images have been cropped for participant privacy.



Figure 1: Shared note sheet during tutorial.



Figure 2.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 那你每次都找得到你喜欢的衣服吗? |
|  |  | *Do you find clothes you like every time?* |
| 2 | Student 3 | (5.4) 对，我喜欢的衣服. |
|  |  | *((5.4) Correct, clothes that I like.* |
| 3 | Teacher | ^ [<你每次都找得到你喜欢的衣服吗>]? (1.2) 每次, every time. [你每次都找得到你喜欢的衣服吗?] |
|  |  | *^[<Do you find clothes that you like every time?>] (1.2) měi cì, {every time}.* |
| 4 | Student 3 | Okay so (2.3) Oh um, 有的次我#找得到我喜欢的衣服. |
|  |  | *Okay so, (2.3) Oh um, sometimes I # find clothes that I like.* |

In this OISR, the teacher asked the student if they find clothes that they like every time they go shopping. The students’ response was incorrect in that it did not include the “find every time” aspect (每次找得到 měi cì zhǎo dé dào). The teacher asked the question again slowly, and utilized the note sheet to type out the question as she spoke it so the student could read it, and put emphasis on 每次 (měi cì). By restating the question and typing it out for the student to visually comprehend while emphasizing the missing components, the teacher was able to prompt self-repair, in which the student restated the entire sentence correctly.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 怎么少用水? |
|  |  | *How can we use less water?* |
| 2 | Student 1 | u::m (.) 你可以 u:::m (↑) (.) 不知道怎么说 (.) 洗的太e::h $不知道$. |
|  |  | *U::m (.) you can u:::m* (↑) (.) *I don’t know how to say (.) wash too much e::h* $ *I don’t know* $*.* |
| 3 | Teacher | = 少用水是不是得少喝水，我们少喝一点儿水怎么样？ |
|  |  | *=Does using less water mean drinking less water? How about we drink less water?* |
| 4 | Student 1 | Uh不是，你应该°多喝水°. |
|  |  | *Uh no, you should* °*drink more water*°*.* |
| 5 | Teacher  | 多喝水很好，做什么事(↑)情的时候可以少用水？ |
|  |  | *Drinking more water is good, what things can you do to use less water?* |
| 6 | Student 1 | (4.9) I’m trying to figure out how to say it uh 洗澡的(.)不太长. |
|  |  | *(4.9) {I’m trying to figure out how to say it} uh shower (.) not too long.* |
| 7 | Teacher | 很好 (1.8) ^ 你也可以说[<洗澡的时间短一点儿>].[洗澡的时间短一点儿] |
|  |  | *Good (1.8) ^ you can also say the [<shower time is shorter>]* |
| 8 | Student 1 | # Mm 洗澡的时间短一点儿. |
|  |  | *(# Mm shower time is shorter.*  |

In this example of a SIOR, the teacher is asking the student how they can use less water for energy conservation. The student can be seen initiating the repair when they communicate that they do not know how to say what they are thinking. The student utters “I don’t know”, which is considered the initiation, as they realize there is a ‘problem’ with their speech. The teacher asks questions and repairs the sentence for the student by asking fill in the blank questions, the student provides a sentence that insinuates they are thinking about shower time being shorter. The teacher gives the student an alternative way to say what they are thinking, and types the phrase the student was missing in their original attempt. The student repeats the corrective sentence as they read what the teacher has just typed out for them. This is an example of an other-repair that does not rely solely on memory, but gives the student something to visually comprehend as they hear it being spoken. Comparing this other-repair using the note sheet to the other-repair analyzed above, there is more discussion, more participation by the student, and more resources for them to use in order to participate. Having the note sheet on the screen with the missing pieces of information in front of the student’s face gives them the resources to be an active participant in the other-repair. Rather than just being redirected and guided during speech, the student has the means necessary to be a more active participant in this repair and speak rather than just listen through it. Being given the ability to be an active participant in the other-repair also allows students to practice the target language more effectively.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 2 | (.) 我昨天交::了一个 (.) report (↑) (2) um 二十张纸(?) |
|  |  | *(.) Yesterday I submi::tted a (.) {report}* (↑) *20 pieces of paper(?)* |
| 2 | Teacher | A::h 我们说二十页(↓) 一页是 one page^.页 yè, page (classifier) |
|  |  | *A:hh we say 20 pages* (↓)*. yī yè is {one page}^.* |
| 3 | Student 2 | #二十页. |
|  |  | *# 20 pages.* |

The student attempted to tell the teacher they had to submit a 20-page essay, but couldn’t find the word for both report and pages. The student raised their pitch at the end of their sentence when they utilized “二十张纸” (Èrshí zhāng zhǐ), which literally means 20 sheets of paper. The student initiated the repair both when they code-switched during the utterance of ‘report’ and when they substituted the term for pages, and used pitch to indicate unsureness. The teacher completed the repair by giving the student the proper word to convey meaning, and typed it out for them to see, which completed the other-repair. This is an instance where the instructor uses the note sheet to give the student new vocabulary they have not come across yet. The teacher provides the verbal pronunciation of the word, and the character with the pinyin on the note sheet. By repeating the words, the student is uttering the new vocabulary in a manner that could be considered facework for drawing on the competence face, where one has the want for their abilities to be respected as established by Lim and Bowers (1991).

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 3 | (2.3) 健身房 (1.9) and 我 (.) 我喜欢去 u::h 学校 (5.8) 学 or 去 (.) or 开车的时候 (3.1) 方便 like convenient times?  |
|  |  | *(2.3) Gym (1.9) {and} I (.) I like to go u::h school (5.8) {or} when I drive (3.1) convenient {like convenient times?}* |
| 2 | Teacher | ^ 开车比较方便是吗? |
|  |  | *Driving is relatively convenient, yes?* |
| 3 | Student 3 | 对. |
|  |  | *Correct.* |
| 4 | Teacher | 你是不是想说如果你开车<你能[开进学校里]>，你可以(4.3) like enter the campus 是吗? [开进学校里] |
|  |  | *(Are you trying to say ‘if you drive <you are able to [drive into the school]>, you can (.) {like enter the campus} yes?)*  |
| 5 | Student 3 | °对° .  |
|  |  | *°Correct °.* |

In this example, the student was having a difficult time communicating to the teacher that if they drive to school, they are able to park on the campus. The student initiated the repair amongst the code-switching to English, and the difficulty in finding the appropriate words to convey meaning. Following the student’s speech, the teacher pulled up the note sheet and began asking questions to decipher what the student’s intention was. The teacher typed out the words for drive into campus or ‘enter the campus’, which was a destination the student was unable to say in their original speech, therefore repairing the sentence. The student uttered the word for correct based on their original intention, and the quiet nature of their utterance could suggest the immense trouble the student had initially, compared to the nature of the answer, caused some degree of face-threat for the student. They did not repeat any of the given information, but still acknowledged the repair.

*During this interaction, the note sheet was already displayed on the screen.*

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 周末你几点去健身房? |
|  |  | *What time do you go to the gym on the weekend?* |
| 2 | Student 3 | One more time or 可以再说一次? |
|  |  | *{One more time or} can you say it one more time?* |
| 3 | Teacher | [<周末>你几点去健身房?][周末你几点去健身房?]  |
|  |  | *What time do you go to the gym on the weekend?* |
| 4 | Student 3 | Like 几点没 or #周末时间没关系 like the time doesn’t really matter, like I’ll go whenever. |
|  |  | *{Like} what time {or} time on the weekend doesn’t matter {like the time doesn’t really matter, like I’ll go whenever.}* |
| 5 | Teacher | 时间 ah [时间没关系].[时间没关系] |
|  |  | *Time ah, [the time doesn’t matter].* |
| 6 | Student 3 | °没关系° |
|  |  | °*It doesn’t matter* ° |

In this example, the teacher’s initial question is not understood by the student, in which case they ask if the teacher could say it again. The teacher both speaks and types the question for the student to read. The student utilizes the note sheet to look at the question and replace the question phrase (几点jǐ diǎn) with their answer about time. The student attempts to convey the time is not a factor on the weekend, and code-switches to ask for assistance in trying to convey this in Chinese. The teacher both speaks and types out the phrase, which completes the other-repair. Additionally, the student whispers the last three words of the teachers repair (没关系 méiguānxì) to establish that was the issue they were having previously.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Teacher | 如果你的教室在几楼，你会开始坐电梯? |
|  |  | *If your classroom was on which floor, you will start taking the elevator?* |
| 2 | Student 1 | U::m (2.3) 如果我的 (.) 教师楼在 uh 五梯 (tī) 我会坐电梯. |
|  |  | *U::m (2.3) if my (.) classroom is on uh the fifth* (tī) *I will ride the elevator.* |
| 3 | Teacher | = 五楼. |
|  |  | *= Fifth floor* |
| 4 | Teacher | 你想说如果你的教室(↓) 不是教师楼 ^ |
|  |  | *You want to say if your classroom* (↓)*, not the faculty building. ^* |
| 5 | Student 1 | O::H 教室. |
|  |  | *O::H classroom.* |
| 6 | Teacher | mm 对. |
|  |  | *mm correct.* |
| 7 | Teacher | 教室在怎么说 fifth floor? [教室在:: 五楼] [教室在五楼] |
|  |  | *The classroom how do you say {fifth floor}?* *[The classroom is o::n the fifth floor.]* |
| 8 | Student 1 | 教室在五楼. |
|  |  | *The classroom is on the fifth floor.* |

This is an example of an OIOR, that also used the note sheet. In this conversation, the teacher asked the student which floor their classroom would have to be on for them to take the elevator rather than the stairs. In the students answer, they said “五梯” (wǔ tī) which is incorrect speech, and the error was not recognized by the student. The teacher recognized the error and quickly interjected in to the students speech with the correction “五楼” (wǔ lóu), (*fifth floor),* in which the student repeated the correction. The teacher then pulled up the note sheet and began prompting the student with a questions on how they would say the classroom building is on the fifth floor, typing the first half of the sentence, and finishing it with the correction “五楼” (wǔ lóu). This other-repair was met with the strategy on how to get the student involved in repairing the error, as well. By prompting them to state the same phrase they initially errored, the teacher was able to visually show the student the correct grammar, and also get them to correctly say it out loud, minimizing the face-threatening nature of the other-repair.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 2 | 那, 你换你买的衣服吗? |
|  |  | *Do you (change) the clothes you bought?)* |
| 2 | Teacher | 我们说退^ (4.2).退 return |
|  |  | *We say tuì ^ (4.2).* |
| 3 | Teacher | 换是如果你借东西you borrow something 你换。你是图书馆你换书。如果你买了东西你不想要了，你要把它退(↓) 回去. |
|  |  | *Huàn is if you borrow something* *{you borrow something}* *you give it back*. *In a library you give back books. If you buy something you don’t want anymore, you return* (↓) *it.* |
| 4 | Student 2 | mm. #那，你退吗? |
|  |  | *mm, # so, do you return them?* |

In this OIOR, the student is attempting to ask the teacher if they return clothes they don’t like. In this instance, the student used the word 换 (huàn), which means to change or exchange, however, in this context it was an inappropriate use of the word. The teacher steps in to correct the student, in which they explain and then type on the shared note sheet that the word they use in the context of returning items is 退 (tuì). The teacher also gave a brief explanation on why that is, rather than simply correcting the student with nothing further. This type of explanation following an other-repair can be a good way to maintain the students face-needs, giving them further context while providing correction. The student reframed their question, and utilizing the note sheet, used the correct word in the context of their question. The student’s willingness to ask the question again using the new vocabulary suggests that their face was not threatened to the point where they did not want to keep speaking on this subject.

*Continuation of pages 41-42:*

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Student 4 | 我每周重量训练五次. |
|  |  | *I weight train five times a week.* |
| 2 | Teacher  | OH ^ (2.3) 我们说 [做(↓)重量训练] 对不对? [做+重量训练] |
|  |  | *OH ^ (2.3) we say [do (↓) weight training], right?* |
| 3 | Student 4 | (3.4) |
| 4 | Teacher | 做(↓)是verb 我每周[做五次重量训练]. [做 + 五次 + 重量训练] |
|  |  | *Do* (↓) *is the {verb}. I weight train five times a week.* |
| 5 | Student 4 | So, if I took out the 重量, 训练 works as a verb itself? |
|  |  | *So, if I took out the {weight}, {training} works as a verb itself?* |
| 6 | Teacher | 重量训练 altogether is a noun phrase. |
|  |  | *Weight training {altogether is a noun phrase.}* |
| 7 | Student 4 | OK. |
| 8 | Student 4 | So 你也可以说 (.) 我每::周 (.) #训练五次. |
|  |  | *{So}, can you also say (.) I eve::ry week (.) # train five times?* |
| 9 | Teacher | 可以可以. |
|  |  | *You can.* |

In this example, the student is attempting to explain to the teacher how many times a week they lift weights (pertinent to the class lesson). The student makes an error in the sentence structure and misses the verb that must be included before 重量训练 (zhòngliàng xùnliàn), which is 做 (zuò). The teacher calls out ‘OH’ and pulls up the note sheet which is the initiation of the repair, and verbally makes the correction as they type the verb plus the noun phrase 重量训练 (zhòngliàng xùnliàn) to repair the sentence. The student, then, sought further clarification on the position and function of the words the teacher was using, trying to figure out what they could eliminate and what other ways they could say this. The student glanced at the notes the teacher typed out during the course of reframing the sentence, and was able to formulate a new sentence with the structural information the teacher had typed out. This attempt at reframing the sentence could indicate the student was attempting to serve the positive face-wants of competency, and demonstrated their language proficiency by other means after the other-repair, but the willingness to work on this sentence demonstrates the face-threat was minimal.

 This section is devised of some of the repair categories detailed by Schegloff et al. (1977), excluding self-initiated self-repair, with the inclusion of the Zoom interface being a part of the repair. This category shows the way teachers approach repair using the Zoom interface. In the examples shown, the teachers use the note sheet when explaining new vocabulary, when an explanation is long and they want to detail the most important part, or when an abrupt repair is given, they seem to soften the directness with a comprehensive use of the note sheet. The use of the note sheet on Zoom gives students more resources for success when they are engaging in discourse in their secondary language, and it becomes a continued resource for the longest sections that people have to work through most. When a question is asked that the student can’t comprehend, the teacher types it out for them to read, or in the case that the student is struggling with a structure, the teacher will utilize the note sheet, which the students can refer back to during speaking. This use of the Zoom interface screen-sharing feature not only gives the teacher ways to correct that don’t rely solely on student memory, but also give them a means to correct in a less explicit, and less directive way, that also benefits the student’s learning. The note sheet also gives teachers the necessary resources to allow students to become active participants in the other-repairs, rather than outsiders to it. The Zoom note sheet makes things easier for both student learning and teacher repair, which is what makes it so advantageous.

*Further Discussion*

All repairs seen in the tutorial data are not shown above, rather, the most concise examples of various kinds of repairs and how they can occur. Having presented identifiable repairs and specific types of repair sequences in the context of the Zoom tutorials, a graph was created from all repairs devised by Schegloff et al. (1977) identified in the primary data shown below.

Figure 3: Distribution of the total sum of repair sequences seen in the participants’ tutorial data.

 Figure 3 has provided a visual distribution of the data collected from the five participants’ and three instructors’ over thirteen recorded tutorials. The data shows that there is a much greater rate of repair happening by the “other” (instructor). Additionally, the data also shows an awareness by the students that the utterance or sentence has an issue, though they are unsure how to repair it, which is a facet of the language learning process. However, (not shown above), 14 of the 20 instances of self-initiated other-repair were initiated by students code-switching into English. The other 6 instances included students saying “I don’t know how to say it” in Chinese. This preference to code-switching suggests that switching into their native language is the most preferential way for students to communicate either a breakdown in speech, or a lack of proficiency.

 As OIOR is the most face-threatening form of repair, as well as the form met with the most resistance, it is worth discussing the methods the instructors in this program use that combat that resistance. Of the 41 total instances of OIOR, 19 of them were enacted using the note sheet as means of, or reinforcement to, the repair. Below is a table that documents student response to the various methods of introducing OIOR:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| OIOR (No note sheet) | OIOR (With note sheet)  |
| Sentence was completed or correction restated: 9 | Sentence was completed or correction restated: 15 |
| No response, single word or sound: 13 | No response, single word or sound: 4 |

Figure 4: Distribution of responses to OIOR with and without the note sheet.

 It is worth noting that the method of using the note sheet to both visually display the repair and communicate their way through, instructors use of this feature uses a more indirect way of enacting the face-threatening other-repair, which works to combat the face-threat other-repair so often creates. The data here shows the innovative use of displaying the shared note sheet is both beneficial for learning, and for counteracting face-threat responses from students which can inhibit learning, by working to make students active participants in the repair.

 In this chapter, I provided examples of the data I collected through participants’ recordings of their Zoom tutorials for Chinese class, which will inform my contributions to research about language education. Additionally, because mediation of these conversations is important in this context, I detailed key components of the instructors’ utilization of the features on Zoom, namely the screen-sharing feature to display their written repairs. The types of repairs were divided up into four categories constructed by Schegloff et al. (1977), with the facet of written repairs, in addition. The following chapter will elaborate on the key findings of the data. The discussion will elaborate on code-switching as an initiation maker, in conjunction with student response to various kinds of repairs, and how these correctional facets of language learning are conducted and approached by these instructors over Zoom, which can inform online teaching methods. The following chapter will further discuss repair sequences and written repairs in the broader context of language learning, code-switching, and face-needs.

**Chapter 5: Discussion**

**Summary**

The purpose of this study was to analyze sessions of the required Zoom tutorials within the intermediate Chinese course at CU Boulder, in order to dissect features of language learning and how they are approached over Zoom in this context. By looking at recorded sessions of individual tutorials, I was able to use repair sequences as a data baseline in order to take a more nuanced look at the purposes code-switching serves, the role face-needs play in both language learning and how students orient to repairs, and the innovative methods this course uses to aid students in language acquisition over Zoom.

 I first looked at previous research on repair sequences in order to garner a fundamental understanding of what they are and how people tend to respond to them, as well as on repair sequences in the context of classroom language education. I also looked at research conducted on repair sequences in hybridized education and online language education. Additionally, I looked at research regarding code-switching as both a marker of proficiency issues, and as a face-saving method of communicating those issues. Finally, I looked at literature on how face-needs are approached during language education, the role facework plays in how teachers orient to students, and the ways students respond to repairs in accordance with those face-needs. The preexisting research on the variety of facets important in understanding the logistics of language learning served as background for my study and data analysis.

 Throughout the recorded Zoom tutorials, I assessed the variety of repair sequences I was seeing throughout the duration, and I took note of how repairs were both initiated and enacted by both the teacher and the student. The four categories of repair introduced by Schegloff et al. (1977) served as an initial baseline for data collection. In the case of self-initiated self-repair, I noticed the use of code-switching by students was an indication that they understood there was an issue present, and communicated that in their native language as a method of preventing other-repair. The cases of self-repair recorded in these tutorials provides evidence of an orientation to repair that students are active participants in, rather than a force outside of them being non-native speakers.

Students also utilized code-switching in self-initiated other-repair when there was an issue in speech, and they needed assistance from the teacher. Code-switching often served as a face-saving method of communicating that assistance is needed, as students would code-switch out of the target language to fill the unknown utterance with an English word. This demonstrates the need to be seen as capable in Chinese as they speak in the target language both before and after the speech problem, and the initiation of repair seen in code-switching to English to communicate the speech problem.

In the case of other-initiated self-repair and other-initiated other-repair, teachers utilized different methods of initiating and enacting these forms of repair during tutorial. Teacher initiation prompting student self-repair often took the form of hanging on the last word the student spoke before the issue and either elongating or changing the pitch of the word, or adding a question word such as 什么 (what), in order to communicate the presence of an issue, and prompting student self-repair. Teachers also demonstrated an indirect method of prompting repair by restating the question and making it an option question. Teachers would use an “or” option question in order to indicate what it is they are asking without formally communicating there is a problem, which gives students the opportunity to self-repair without threatening their face. In the case of other-repair, teachers often interjected short corrections during student speech, either to correct a word, redirect thought, or prompt the immediate correction of an issue the student did not recognize. Other-initiated other-repair also took place when the teachers attempt at self-repair failed and the student was unable to correct the sentence or word, in which case the teacher would enact repair. What I noticed is these interjected other-repairs frequently resulted in students refraining from speaking further, or simply acknowledging with only an English word or restatement of the correction.

The teachers in this course utilize one unique teaching resource during these tutorials, which is the screen sharing feature on Zoom. Throughout the duration of the tutorials, the teachers would often display a large note sheet on the screen in which they would type on as they speak. This note sheet was used in multiple categories of repair excluding self-initiated self-repair, and provided a way for teachers to enact repair in an indirect way that prompted students to keep speaking. This note sheet served a variety of purposes, such as the typing of a question the student was unable to remember, the introduction of new words or phrases, the visualization of a better way to state something, but the most significant is the way the note sheet works to combat the effects of the other-repair. As stated by Tudini (2016), other-repairs are inherently face-threatening, as they often take an interjective or interrupting form. Other-repairs are necessary and inevitable in language learning, but it is often perceived in a way that challenges face and prompts the student to stop speaking. However, in many of the cases these teachers had to enact other-repair, they would couple it with the use of the note sheet and simultaneously type the correction they were giving, which is an indirect way of providing an other-repair while mitigating the potential presence and effect of a face-threat. They also used the corrective text as a way to prompt discussion, in which they would ask students further questions to help them practice and prevent them from silencing themselves (*seen on page 59, line 7*). This also allows them to enact repairs in a way that demonstrates student competence, rather than the opposite. Additionally, having the presence of visual corrections as the center focus for students to see also gives them reinforcement to try again, this is significant, because, as stated by Cooper et al. (2021), reliance on explicit feedback often increases reliance on student memory and attention, which often comes at the cost of the feedback or repair being overlooked. Having this as a resource for both instructor repairs and student use is an incredibly beneficial way to enact the facets of repair during language, without challenging the implicit fear of correction, because it can use another sense.

There is also a notable variety in teacher strategy in approaching the repairs, which also creates a variety in how students orient to different instructors. The head instructor approaches repair in a more direct way, and receives less resistance from students during repair. Whereas the teaching assistants tend to approach repair in a more indirect way. For the head instructors more direct methods, it can lead to an increase in the perception of face-threats by students, particularly in the repairs that take the form as interjection. However, the direct method coupled with the instructor’s tendency to engage the students in a discussion in the target language and use the note sheet as grounding for the repair works to keep them engaged and mitigates the potential of a face-threat, while also working to help students learn the target language. In contrast, the indirect method seen enacted by the TA’s may work to save face, but may also detract from students completing or understanding the repair, and potentially gives them more leeway to resist it. The variation of instructor’s repair methods is important to note in this study, because it shows how students respond to different methods, which can also indicate how they are absorbing and orienting to the correction based on how it is given.

These direct, indirect and unconventional methods of repair the Chinese instructors are enacting are useful practices, and they provide an incredible model to reframe the thought of repair sequences in language learning. Learning another language is a process, and within that process is the inevitable fact of errors, which students are often fearful of. Repair sequences, as shown in this project, are a positive thing that give students the resources to effectively move through the process of becoming proficient in a language different than their own. Repair is not just a reprimand; it is an inevitable aspect of language learning. This is significant because often times repair sequences, in particular other-repair, can be experienced that way. However, as demonstrated through the Chinese tutorials, it can be done in a way that demonstrates competence rather than challenge students’ cognitive capabilities.

Having conducted this study, I am in a position to offer ways in which this model of instruction can be utilized to effectively improve language courses and hybridized classes. In the following section, I will explain my contributions to the research previously discussed in chapter 2. Additionally, this research will further explain the benefits of using the external resources over platforms such as Zoom, and the ways in which teachers can effectively approach repair during language learning, as seen modeled in this Chinese course.

**Scholarly Contributions**

My study further informs research conducted by Zeng (2019) and Tudini (2016) on the nature of repair sequences during language education, and how face-needs contribute to students responses to repairs. The common abrupt nature of other-repair makes them inherently face-threatening (Tudini, 2016), and the previous research conducted on the way these other-repairs are conventionally approached by language teachers has created this fundamental preference for self-repair (Zeng, 2019). With these studies in mind, I also took into consideration how these repairs and facets of language learning are approached over a platform like Zoom, which require new tactics for teachers to approach repair, and new resources for teachers to enact them.

I have built my study upon previous research conducted by Huang (2014), and Zeng (2019) on repair sequences during language education, the importance of facework in an EFL classroom, as well as the use of code-switching as a face-maintaining initiation tactic for repair during learning. What I discovered was not necessarily a preference for one type of repair over another, but the importance of the student response post-repair to gauge their orientation to them. Students move through these tutorials with the inherent goal of proving and enacting language competency. There is no evidence they would rather have one repair happen over another; their focus is on the output of a grammatically correct, relatively fluent sentence. When they approach an issue, students’ use code-switching not for the entire sentence, but to fill in the gap where the issue is located, or ask for validation on correctness, this works to demonstrate both language competency to maintain face and communicate their desire to be helped. The instructor’s strategy in using tag questions or option questions, as well as the use of the note sheet as both an other-repair strategy and a discursive method of keeping students speaking proves effective. In the conventional interruption with an other-repair, students were responding to them with silence, a single English word, or by simply restating the repair to keep the tutorial moving. In the other-repairs with the use of the note sheet, coupled with instruction and more discussion, students continue speaking and orient to it in the way it is intended, as a way to learn. It is not the existence of repairs that create tension and face-threats, but rather how they are approached. These instructors’ methods of continuing the conversation by using the note sheet and consistently prompting for self-repair in an indirect way allows students to orient to repairs in a positive way, rather than overlook repairs or remain silent to move passed the face-threat, which is beneficial for effective education.

Given what I have discovered about the facets of language education by closely analyzing the recorded tutorials, the next section will explore the practical implications of these findings for foreign language students and teachers. The suggested practical implications can span across in-person, hybridized, or fully online language learning environments, however the degree of synchronicity needs to be taken into consideration.

**Practical Implications**

 My research has a variety of ways in which it can be applied to a language learning environment. Despite the fact this research was conducted within a college-level intermediate Chinese class, it can also be applied in language classes at any level. These facets of language learning are prevalent at any level and in any language, which means it can be applied to more than just Chinese language classes, as well. I suggest all in-school language courses have an addition like the ‘tutorial’ feature seen in the Chinese courses at CU Boulder, though this can also depend on staffing resources. Because language classes often have a number of students, instructors having the ability to evaluate student proficiency beyond a test or quiz gives students low-stakes opportunities to practice conversational speaking. Additionally, the tutorial being held over Zoom once a week for fifteen minutes is a convenient way to eliminate proximity restrictions, and not take an abundance of time out of student’s schedules to participate in them. Tutorial gives students external resources to engage in practical use of the language, learn new words and conversational structures, practice reading, and can give students who dislike speaking in class the opportunity to practice speaking in a more private environment. It also allows for teachers to give more nuanced direction, as their focus is on the individual student rather than the entire class.

 Additionally, the results hold pedagogical implications in which teachers have the capacity to alter repairs in a positive way, and students are given new ways to think about repair. For language teachers of any language at any level, understanding the perception of repairs is important to best tailor initiation and repair to students needs. As a language teacher, initiating and enacting repairs is important, particularly because the students do not yet have the proficiency to recognize or repair many of these errors. However, doing so in a way that demonstrates competence and allows the student to build upon the repair is crucial for developing language skills. As seen in this research, students’ response to a repair is an indication of how they are orienting to it, giving them cues to self-repair, or giving them visual correction in order to prompt a continuation of speaking is highly important in both effective language acquisition and a retention of repairs. Understanding that repairs are the responsibility of a language teacher is important, but using resources beyond verbal repair is an effective way to both give students resources beyond memory to learn, and do so in a way that both improves proficiency and prompts them to embody the repair rather than dismiss it.

For students, this research reframes the nature of the repair as something to be experienced as a positive thing. Repair is often perceived as criticism, and can implicitly be processed as an attack on face (Salman, 2020), but that is not necessarily the case. It can be enacted by both students and teachers, this study has shown that students are not outsiders waiting to be corrected, they are active participants in it, seen in the examples of self-initiated self-repair, and even self-initiated other-repair. Students are also participating in these classes with the goal of acquiring the ability to be proficient in a new language, and correcting errors are a crucial step in that goal. Having a new framework to think about repair can orient students to think about it as something that they can and perhaps unknowingly do participate in, and something that is happening in positive, not negative ways.

**Limitations and Future Research**

This study was limited by the number of tutorial participants, as well as the amount of time and subsequent number of tutorials collected in relation to the limited time. This study relied on students as well as their respective teaching assistant consenting to be recorded in order to collect tutorial videos every week. Two of the four Chinese teaching assistants consented to be recorded, which meant there were only two students who I was getting tutorial videos from every week. This also meant three of my participants were sending me tutorial videos every other week when they had tutorial with the head instructor, which limited the number of videos I was able to collect and analyze. Because there was a limited amount of time to collect data before analysis needed to be finished, the total number of tutorial videos was limited to thirteen. The number of videos that served as my primary data is a notable limitation in this study.

Furthermore, in addition to having no prior experience teaching a language, as a non-native speaker of Chinese, there may be aspects of what the Chinese teachers were doing during tutorial that culturally and linguistically I did not recognize. The instructors may be doing various things that native speakers would recognize as important, but I did not.

 Future research should also entail observation of these methods being enacted in various languages, not limited to Chinese only. Language learning has a specific way of being a similar experience for students no matter what the target language may be. Having data collected from more students and from a variety of language courses, and integrating the hybrid nature of this course into others would be crucial for future research. Meaningful future research would require more data, and more identifiable patterns across a variety of students, in order to formulate a more significant response pattern to these teaching methods. The outcome of future research could entail the development of new methods of language instruction in school that adopts the format seen in this Chinese course, and creating a new system of using Zoom to effectively teach language in a way that garners a more positive outcome for students, and orients them to repair as a positive thing.

**Conclusion**

Hybridized language education has been increasingly common since the COVID-19 pandemic, and the practice has garnered a variety of scholarly insights on language education over Zoom. However, as seen in the University of Colorado Boulder’s Chinese program, hybridized education can prove extremely beneficial when instructors approach repairs based on student response and face-needs, orient to their use of code-switching, and use the mediated platform to their advantage. Understanding the common negative perception of repair as an instructor is key in tailoring it in ways that prompt the desire to improve, while also reframing repair to be a positive thing students can engage in enacting, as well. Using methods of repair beyond verbal correction, such as the Zoom note sheet, prompt student engagement and the desire to speak through the correction, while also working to make students active participants in the repair rather than outsiders to it. As the Chinese instructors at CU have demonstrated, a hybridized method of providing nuanced instruction, combined with the unique methods of altering conventional repair, creates an efficient teaching strategy that garners a more positive response to repair, and improves student engagement in the target language. This is a teaching model that language courses should follow, in order for students to get the most out of their language education courses.

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