

The Use of Teachers' Repetitions in One-on-one EFL Tutoring Interactions: A Case Study of a Korean English Learner

Jieun Ko *

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Adopting a conversation analytic framework, this paper examined the delay and potential indeterminacy of teacher's repetition as an other-initiated repair (OIR) strategy, which took place at the third turn of the Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) sequence in one-on-one tutoring sessions. Tutor-tutee interactions for a Korean secondary student were transcribed and analyzed along with notes used in the class. Data showed that when repetition was used as an OIR strategy, it was delayed and inaccurate. The learner was sometimes unsure whether the teacher's repetition constituted a repair initiation regarding her prior turn. Furthermore, the learner could not successfully recognize which part of the repeated phrase should be repaired. Prior studies have confirmed that repetition can promote learners' interactions rather than simply highlighting error while also giving learners an opportunity to correct their errors themselves. However, the analysis in this paper suggests a potential risk associated with using repetition as an OIR strategy at feedback turn in instructional discourse.

Key words: speaking repetition, feedback, other-initiated repair, teaching method

*Author: Jieun Ko, Graduate Student, Department of English Education, Sungkyunkwan University; 03064 35-22 Myeongryun 3-gil, Jongno-gu, Seoul, Korea; Email: ji930620@naver.com
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1. INTRODUCTION

Repetition has attracted attention from numerous researchers across different theoretical backgrounds by virtue of the fact that it is among the most basic verbal behaviors and common in everyday speech in addition to fulfilling diverse functions (Brown, 1999; Duff, 2000; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Rodríguez & Roux, 2012; Rossi, 2020; Schegloff, 1997). In the field of language learning, several studies have examined the use of repetition by teachers and learners in the classroom (Bennett-Kastor, 1994; Chang, 2017; Duff, 2000; Hellermann, 2003; Kirchner & Prutting, 1987; Seo, 2019). And some confirmed repetition located at the third turn of the Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) sequence, a ubiquitous pattern in instructional discourse. Repetition at the third turn of the IRE sequence may indicate confirmation of the prior turn, a request for further clarification, or inducement of repair practice, depending on its intonation and context (Hellermann, 2003; Rodríguez & Roux, 2012; Seo, 2019; Shahidzade, Razm, & Tilwani, 2022; Simin, 2018). Among many functions, this paper analyzed the use of teacher's repetition as an other-initiated repair (OIR) strategy (Hellermann, 2003; Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977)¹. Lyster and Ranta (1997) emphasized the importance of learners' self-repair because learners' attention to the differences between their errors and the target words promoted learning. However, learners were not always successful in recognizing their errors (McHoul, 1990). This paper raised questions about the usefulness of repetition as an indirect approach to correcting learners' mistakes in the process of analyzing tutoring data.

Using conversation analysis, this paper examined the interaction between the teacher and student to discuss teachers' repetition at the third turn of the IRE sequence in one-on-one tutoring situations. Given that correcting learners' errors in classrooms is important and meaningful, many teachers adopt various teaching strategies to correct learners' errors. Many studies have also confirmed that inducing repair through repetition promotes learners' interaction and gives learners the opportunity to correct errors themselves (Chang, 2017; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Shahidzade et al., 2022). However, this paper reports that repetition was delayed and potentially indeterminate when used as an OIR strategy in one-on-one tutoring situations, in which the teacher can focus on a single learner. This paper leaves room for reconsideration about the role of OIR repetition in one-on-one tutoring interactions, which is not encountered in class consisting of a single teacher and multiple learners. Most studies, observing Korean English learners, have been limited to confirming the functions of repetition at the third turn of the IRE sequence. In the absence of conclusive studies of indeterminacy and delay in repetition as an OIR strategy in the

¹ In OIR, the other person who co-constructs the turn-taking induces the repair of the previous trouble-turn by querying or repeating it (Schegloff et al., 1977).

classroom, this study will support various approaches to further studies on teacher's third-turn repetitions.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Context of Repetition

Repetition is an iterative conversational phenomenon in which a speaker repeats all or part of what the previous speaker has just said in their next turn. It occurs cross-linguistically as one of the most basic verbal behaviors that people engage during conversation, and people naturally employ repetition as an interaction strategy from childhood (Brown, 1999; Newman, 1996; Rossi, 2020). Repetition's functions are highly pluralistic encompassing consent, contrast, emphasis, and repair depending on the prosodic element, the location in turn sequences, or the speaker who is engaging in the repetition. The range of repetition spans from strict repetition of the words uttered during the prior turn to broad and slight modification of the words of the prior turn. The modification may take various forms, such as grammatical transforms, deictic shifts, prosodic variations, or omissions. Repetition can be divided into self-repetition that re-utter their own words and other-repetition, whereby the speaker re-utters the words spoken by their conversation partner (Brown, 1999; Rossi, 2020; Schegloff, 1997).

Excerpt (1) Schegloff et al. (1977, p. 373)

01 Steven: One, two, three, ((pause)) four five six, ((pause)) eleven eight nine ten.

02 Susan:→ Eleven? eight, nine, ten?

Excerpt (2) Curl (2005, pp. 1-2)

01 A: d'you sing noche de pa:z?

02 (0.9)

03 B: is the what?

04 (.)

05 A:→ do you sing n:oche de pa:z?

06 B: .hhh oh y:es::::: uh huh

Excerpt 1 is taken from a group interaction and includes a typical example of other-repetition. The speaker was giving the numerical order in line 1, but this was a trouble-turn as they gave the wrong order. The other speaker then repeated the part, one after the other. Excerpt 2 shows an example self-repetition after the other person's uncomprehending

response. This paper concentrates on other-repetition, whereby the speaker repeats the words of others rather than repeating their own words.

Numerous studies have examined other-repetition in conversation in light of the various functions that it fulfills (Bolden, 2009; Brown, 1999; Hsieh, 2011; Rossi, 2020; Schegloff et al., 1977; Seo, 2019). By repeating the other speaker's utterance, the speaker can indicate that they are concentrating on the conversation or can check their understanding of the conversation's contents. Alternatively, the previous turn may be repeated as an expression of consent and understanding of the other person's utterance and can also constitute an expression of interest in the other person and save their face (Hsieh, 2011; Rossi, 2020; Seo, 2019). In addition, other-repetition may repeat an ambiguous element in another person's speech thus seeking further clarification (Hsieh, 2011; Seo, 2019). It may also play a role in the inducing other person to correct themselves through repetition without directly pointing out or correcting the error that occurred in the previous turn (Rossi, 2020; Schegloff et al., 1977; Seo, 2019). This paper focuses on the OIR strategy, which corrects other people's errors among the numerous functions of other-repetition.

Excerpt (3) Mackey, Gass, & McDonough (2000, p. 486)

01 NNS: Three key.

02 NS:→ Three?

03 NNS: Key er keys.

Schegloff et al. (1977) asserted that repair practices are initiated by speakers themselves, but people are sometimes induced to initiate repair practices by others, classified respectively as self-initiation, in which the repair outcome derives from the speaker themselves, and other-initiation, in which the repair outcome is directed by others. In other words, OIR occurs when another person who co-constructs turn-taking induces their conversation partner to repair their previous trouble-turn by questioning or repeating it (Schegloff et al., 1977). The morphologically incorrect part of Excerpt 3 was corrected in line 3 following the other-repetition in line 2, which may be classified as an OIR. This may be observed both in everyday conversations, and in instructional discourse.

2.2. Repetition in Language Learning

Repetition strategies in the field of language learning began to develop based on confirmations of the interaction's benefits for children's language acquisition and socialization. Kirchner and Prutting (1987) confirmed that repetition serves as a tool to support the acquisition of language structure and the development of verbal skill for both children with linguistic disorders and children without linguistic difficulties. Newman (1996)

summarized verbal behaviors in interactions between parents and children while reading storybooks into 11 major categories, including repetition. Subsequently, the importance of repetition in the process of second language learning beyond children's language acquisition came to be recognized (Hsieh, 2011). For example, Bennett-Kastor (1994) argued that repetition was effective for acquiring grammatical knowledge. Repetition, however, attracted greater attention in context of teachers' strategies and teaching methods involving active classroom interaction than in context of its positive contributions in terms of knowledge acquisition. Duff (2000) confirmed that the repetition used by teachers fulfilled various functions, including eliciting students' interest and as a response to students' participation in class. Seo (2019) also confirmed that teachers and learners' repetition functioned as a learning strategy, teaching strategy, or communication strategy in the second language learning classroom. Rodríguez and Roux (2012) reported that repetition was used as a strategy for confirming students' understanding. In other words, repetition produced by teachers is recognized as a key teaching method for helping students understand and acquire language and to encourage students' participation in classroom interactions (Duff, 2000; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Rodríguez & Roux, 2012; Shahidzade, Razm, & Tilwani, 2022)².

Teachers' repetition fulfills various functions, but one of its most prominent uses is repair practice in, OIR strategy. Classroom discourses have different social situations, contexts, and structures from other social situations. In general, classroom discourse follows three patterns: the teacher poses a question to the student and sets an initial goal (initiation), the student answers the question or responds to the previous turn that sets the direction for learning (response), and the teacher evaluates the response (evaluation). This initiation–response–evaluation (IRE) pattern is the dominant interaction pattern in the classroom, sometimes transformed into IRF by substituting feedback for the last evaluation (Rymes, 2008). The use of repetition as an OIR strategy is mainly associated with the third and final turn for feedback. Excerpt 4 provides an example of repetition as an OIR strategy at the third turn of an IRF sequence. The teacher specifically selects one student and asks them for the answer. After the student's response was not what he expected, the teacher repeated the student's answer at the third turn and waited for another response.

Excerpt (4) Jeon (2009, pp. 20-21)

01 T: Uhm, number 3 please James.

02 (1.5)

² Both students and teachers use repetition in learning situations, but teachers' repetition has been afforded more scholarly attention (Rodríguez & Roux, 2012; Shahidzade et al., 2022). The reason why the teachers' repetition in the classroom is drawing attention is probably because of the specificity of the environment of the classroom in which teachers should lead interactions if there is no group work or collaborative tasks.

- 03 S1: () at four stages.*
 04 (1.0)
 05 T:→ fo::ur↑ stages? Feedback turn
 06 ((a teacher checks to know whether students have different answers))
 07 S2: five.

Many studies have reported that teachers employ repetition as an OIR strategy in the classroom and that it helps students to recognize their mistakes while simultaneously eliciting their participation in classroom interactions (Chang, 2017; Seo, 2019). Shahidzade et al. (2022) investigated preference for how to correct students' errors, confirming that teachers and students preferred repetition over explicit correction. In their interviews, teachers noted that explicit corrections could deter students from participating in interactions, and that teachers' direct corrections could deprive students of opportunities to correct themselves. By contrast, repetition could help students recognize their mistakes while simultaneously inducing them to participate in classroom interactions. Some researchers have pointed out that the use of repetition as an OIR strategy could cause failed correction or reaffirmation (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; McHoul, 1990). Many other studies, however, have agreed that the use of repetition, to provide feedback on students' incorrect responses, is effective in promoting student interaction or meaning negotiation, while also giving learners the opportunity to correct their own errors (Chang, 2017; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Shahidzade et al., 2022).

The present paper agrees that repetition can promote student interaction more effectively than explicit or direct corrections by teachers, while also admitting the possibility that it may not be suitable for some learners. This paper examines the interaction between a teacher and a learner in one-on-one tutoring situations and focuses on problematic repetitions that hinder its suitability as an OIR strategy. One-on-one tutoring is the most crucial and essential form of classroom experience for both learners and teachers. Given that the teacher can adjust their curriculum for a single learner, several researchers have agreed one-on-one tutoring is among the most effective teaching modes for students learning to read and write foreign languages (Alexandrowicz, 2002; Erick, 2010). The present paper approaches this type of tutoring from a different perspective, whereby one-on-one tutoring creates a situation in which the learner must interact alone with their teachers to enhance their academic competence in the absence of their peers. This is certainly an effective environment for enhancing students' academic competence, but is likely to produce different interactions from those in the classroom, a space in which verbal or non-verbal interactions between teachers and learners are constantly performed. Participants co-construct classroom discourses while attempting to fulfill their roles or achieve their goals, which do not invariably correspond to teaching or learning. Rymes and Pash (2001) reported that students

would follow their peers' answers in a bid to protect their identities as ordinary students and avoid becoming stigmatized. In other words, in classroom situations, students can employ alternative strategies, such as maintaining silence until their peers answer or imitating their peers' answers during interactions with teachers, to give the impression that they are learning. In light of this, the absence of peers in one-on-one tutoring situations might reduce the learner's fear and anxiety at the prospect of evaluations by other's evaluations while reducing the available options for potential interaction strategies that they may employ. One-on-one tutoring situation oblige students to respond to their teacher's teaching strategies, whether questions or feedback alone. Studies demonstrating the potential indeterminacy of repetition in instructional discourse are few. Therefore, it is worth examining what might happen if the learner fails to immediately recognize their error in one-on-one interactions wherein the learner cannot avoid responding to the teacher's repair initiation. This paper examines the interaction between a teacher and a learner in one-on-one tutoring situations and focuses on problematic repetitions that hinder its suitability as an OIR strategy, which takes place at the third turn of the IRE sequence.

3. METHOD

3.1. Participants

The data for this paper consisted of recordings of one-on-one tutorials between a learner and a teacher. Jisu (an assumed name) who participated in this study, was a female student in Seoul, Korea. She was 16 years old and in the 3rd grade of middle school. She attended the language learning academy intermittently from the 4th grade of elementary school, but it was only during the 2nd grade of middle school that she began to study English grammar. At the beginning of the recording, she had been attending class with her teacher for a year and two months and had known her teacher for six years because the teacher had taught her older sister before teaching her. Because of this relational background, Jisu was chosen. Given that Jisu and her teacher had known one another for quite some time, Jisu could express her difficulties more easily when problems arose during class (e.g. when she was unable to answer the teacher's question, or forgets to bring materials to class, etc.).

Jisu could be categorized as a typical Korean middle school student, with a good friendship circle, and no particular difficulties or problems in her home environment. As a typical student in Korea, she occasionally felt negative emotions about English learning. Her mother had initiated Jisu's English tutoring, and for this reason, Jisu was not particularly happy to be studying English. She expressed reluctance to memorize English words and read aloud during the English learning process. She preferred to be given more exercise questions

or simple written homework rather than word memorization homework and preferred to write instead of reading or answering sentences aloud.

The teacher was a Korean who had taught English to middle and high school students for 10 years, and met students mainly through academies and tutoring. She was in her early thirties and had a graduate degree in English Language and Literature. She preferred to elicit students' responses through questions rather than through unilateral teaching. As such, the teacher attempted to promote interaction by giving Jisu more opportunities to talk and ask more questions in class.

3.2. Data Collection

The data collection took place at Jisu's home for two months from March 11 to May 13, 2022. The fact that the class would be recorded and used for research was primarily conveyed through Jisu's mother. Before the data collection, the class was held for two weeks from February 25 with a recorder next to Jisu, concerning that recording would affect the learner. A total of 22 hours' worth of data were recorded, of which only the parts that included repetition were transcribed and analyzed using conversation analysis. Each conversation was transcribed by the transcription convention proposed by Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974) (see Appendix A for further details). A researcher who transcribed the recording data and the teacher of the data was the same person to reproduce the original discourse as accurately as possible. The transcription was compared several times with the data to enhance accuracy. Following line-by-line analysis by the researcher who transcribed the data, two discussions were held with another researcher on the analysis results. In addition to class recording, the notes used in the class were also analyzed. Each class time lasted two hours, and the main contents of the class consisted of grammar explanation and problem-solving using textbooks. All classes were conducted in Korean with the exception of example sentences used for explanation. From the entire corpus of recorded data, the parts used for analysis were those that focused on reviewing what had previously been learned or correcting errors. In other words, in the analyzed data, the teacher asked questions to determine whether Jisu, the learner, was sufficiently familiar with what she had already learned, and used repetition if the wrong answer was returned.

The scope and definition of repetition vary because research on repetition has long been conducted across various fields, including education and pragmatics in different perspectives. As such, the scope of repetition analyzed herein should be clarified. This paper focused on the teacher's repetition located in the feedback position, the third turn of the IRF sequence³.

³ The learner's error type has been recognized as an important variable affecting learner's perception of feedback and response to it (Lyster, 1998). However, this paper did not distinguish in detail the types of errors because this paper examined 1) teacher's repetition as an OIR strategy, which takes place at

The range of repetition was defined as the repeated parts or all of words, phrases, and clauses of the previous turn without slight transformation. Another important factor was the prosodic cues given that repetition functions differently depending on the prosodic cues (Curl, 2005). The repetition positioned at the third turn of the IRF sequence in the data had two phonetic patterns: one had a falling intonation, and the other had an elongated intonation that ended with a rising intonation. Since the repetition with falling intonation was primarily used to confirm or positively assess for the learner's answer (Hellermann, 2003; Rossi, 2020), this paper only examined repetition with rising intonation as an OIR strategy.

4. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1. Repetition Triggering Non-immediate Repair Practices

One-on-one tutoring interaction constitute an environment in which the teacher must interact with a single learner. Therefore, the learner must answer the teacher's questions alone when asked. Troubles may arise when the learner does not know the answer or answers incorrectly. Excerpt 5 below shows the learner's response to teacher's attempt at OIR using repetition.

Excerpt (5) New recording 13, 70:54

- 01 T: ca, yolen mwuncang-i iss-ess-e-yo. keuy hupsahacyo, cikum.
 okay this sentence there-be almost same now
 Okay, there was a sentence (like) thos. (It's) almost same, now.
- 02 kkuchyo, ca, i chinkwu-lang i chinkwu-uy chai-nun mwelkkayo?
 right then this thing-and this thing difference what-Q
 Right, Then, What's the difference (between) this thing and this thing?
- 03 i that-tulul ettehkey kwupwun-hal swu issulkkayo?
 these 'that'-PLU how-Q separate-can
 How can (you) separate these 'that's'?
- 04 wiyey issnun that-un mwenkayo?
 above be 'that' what-Q
 What is (the part of speech of) 'that' above?
- 05 Jisu: (0.7) ce, wiyey issnun that-iyo?

the third turn of the IRE sequence and 2) the main contents of the class consisted of grammar explanation and problem-solving using textbook. By controlling factors other than the learner's error type, it could be judged that if there was an error in learner's answers (response) to questions based on teachers' initial learning goals (initiation), learner had little linguistic knowledge.

- there up-there be 'that'
 (0.7) there, is 'that' up there?
- 06 T: Uhem?
- 07 Jisu: (0.3) ku, kwankyeytaymyengsa?
 uh relative-pronoun
 (0.3) Uh, relative pronoun?
- 08 T:→ uhem? kwankyeytaymyengsa?
 uhem relative-pronoun
 Uhem? Relative pronoun?
- 09 Jisu: anieyyo? hu,
 wrong hhh
 (Am I) wrong? hhh
- 10 T: a::nicyo?
 wrong
 (You got it) w::rong?
- 11 Jisu: a, ney.=
 ah yeah
 Ah, yeah.=
- 12 T: =mwelkkayo?
 what-Q
 =What (could it be)?
- 13 Jisu: kulem yay-ka kukeeyyo?=
 then this be-one
 Then is this the one?=
 14 T: =mweyo?
 what-Q
 =What (does one mean)?
- 15 Jisu: kangco?
 kangco
 Emphasis?
- 16 T:→ kangco?
 kangco
 Emphasis?
- 17 (4.0)
- 18 anicyo,
 no
 No, (it's not)
- 19 Jisu: Uh, uh::

- 20 T: Uuh,
- 21 Jisu: a, aa. cepsoksa?
ah aah conjunction
Ah, aah. Conjunction?
- 22 T:→ cepsoksa,
cepsoksa
Conjunction,
- 23 (3.0)
- 24 waycyo?
why-Q
Why (do you think so)?
- 25 Jisu: (2.0) twismwun, twismwuncang? twismwuncang-i wancenhayyo.
last-se last-sentence last-sentence perfect
(2.0) Last se, last sentence? The (structure of) last sentence is perfect.
- 26 T: huh? yay-to wancenhacanha.
why-Q this-too complete
Huh? This (sentence at the bottom) is complete, too.
- 27 my strange was stran a, my sister was strange, ttokkathuntye?
same
'my strange was stran' ah, 'my sister was strange', (Are they) the same?
- 28 Jisu: (2.0) kulekeyyo?
true
(2.0) (That's so) true?

The situation recorded in Excerpt 5 was reviewing the usage classification of 'that'. The teacher presented two sentences and asked what part of speech 'that' was, as used in the above sentence (see Appendix B for more detailed instruction notes). The questions in lines 2 and 3 represent the teacher's initiation, asking about the usage of 'that'. This was clearly a display question, but Jisu did not respond immediately. Bolden (2009) noted that questions limit what respondents can do on their next turn, but respondents, who are active agents, can resist questions by delaying their answers or using exclamations, such as 'oh'. The long silence and the checking question in line 5 indicate that Jisu did not know the answer to the teacher's question, or likely did not want to answer it. However, the teacher remained silent after nodding with a short exclamation in a positive response to her question, and after a brief delay, Jisu responded to the teacher's initiation. Looking at Jisu's response, the meaning of line 5's silence and questions became more solid again. Smith and Clark (1993) summarized the responses that are typically encountered when people answering questions

do not know the correct answer, and meaningless exclamations, such as ‘eh’ or ‘um’ and rising intonation, were used to express uncertainty. Because Jisu was uncertain as to the correct answer, she responded with rising intonation and exclamation. As expected, this was not the answer the teacher expected, and in line 8, the teacher attempted to use OIR for feedback using repetition with rising intonation. However, Jisu reaffirmed that she was wrong in line 9. Later, in line 12, the teacher returned to the first question and asked again which part of speech ‘that’ was. Jisu did not delay any further but asked another question using a pronoun in line 13. This could be classified as a response because Jisu had yet to find an accurate answer. Jisu having given the wrong answer again at line 15 and after initiating OIR using repetition, the teacher waited for Jisu’s answer in line 17. When no answer was forthcoming, however, the teacher clarified that Jisu’s response was wrong. Jisu reached line 21 and provided the response that the teacher sought. Considering that this conversation took place in the process of reviewing what Jisu learned in the last class, the teacher’s persistent OIR attempts using repetition in lines 8 or 16 may be interpreted as indicating that the teacher wanted Jisu to recall what she had learned. When Jisu provided the correct answer, the teacher confirmed her response by repeating it, and proceeded to the next learning activity.

Excerpt 5 demonstrates that repetition as an OIR strategy required a long sequence and effort to derive the correct repair outcome from the learner if the learner did not know the precise answer that the teacher sought. In addition, there remains a possibility that the learner may not know precisely which part of their answer was incorrect or how to correct it during continued long-interactions. That is, the learner may accidentally reach the correct answer without actually knowing it by presenting potential candidates one by one. In fact, Jisu failed to provide a satisfactory answer to the question of why she answered ‘Conjunction’ in line 24 of Excerpt 5. It was suspected that she did not know the different features according to the usage of ‘that’ and did not distinguish them properly. She might have lined up the various parts of speech to which ‘that’ belongs and eliminated them one by one. After the session represented in Excerpt 5, the teacher again taught Jisu how to distinguish the usage of ‘that’. Repetition with rising intonation as an OIR strategy located at the third turn of the IRF might induce learners to pay attention to their errors, but learners with insufficient academic competence may struggle to accurately identify and correct their errors.

4.2. Repetition Hindering Exact Repair Practices

When repetition was used as an OIR strategy, several cases arose in which the learner could not grasp precisely where she was incorrect. The sequences detailed in Excerpts 6 and 7 further highlight this potential indeterminacy of repetition.

Excerpt (6) New recording 8, 07:56

- 01 T: ca, ikey heyskalli-myen, yaylul tongsalo mantule ponunkeeyyo.
okay it confuse-if it verb make-into
Okay, if it's confusing, (you could) make it into a verb.
- 02 ca, kongwen-eyse nolta. (.) yenge-lo mwela kulayyo?
then park-in play English-in how-Q say
Then, 'kongwen-eyse nolta'. (.) How (could you) say (it) in English?
- 03 Jisu: the, playing:
- 04 T:→ I play.
- 05 Jisu: a, ney, I play (0.2) the park?
Ah, yeah, I play (0.2) the park?
- 06 T:→ I play the park? isanghantey?
I play the park? (Isn't that) weird?
- 07 Jisu: .hhh a park?
- 08 T: anicianicianici.=
nonono
Nonono.=
- 09 Jisu: =yey?
pardon
=Pardon?
- 10 T: ca, play-hako twiey palo naonun ken play the soccer ilen sikinkeeyyo.
see 'play' after right come thing 'play the soccer' this like
(Let's) see, the thing (that) comes right after 'play' is like this 'play the soccer'.

Excerpt 6 includes exactly the same repetition as the previous turn in line 6, just as in Excerpt 5, and a repetition that corrects the learner's error in line 4. This sequence was a situation in which Jisu was learning the usage of the to-infinitive and the necessity of prepositions while completing exercise (see note and exercise problem in Appendix C for further details). The teacher sought to use forms that were more familiar to Jisu, such as 'I play in the park,' because she did not fully understand the necessity of preposition 'in' in the last position of the phrase 'park to play in'. However, in line 3, Jisu's response was completely at odds with the teacher's intension, 'the, playing'. The teacher corrected and repeated the answer so that she could get the answer she wanted. Jisu then responded by immediately applying and reuttering it. The answer in line 6, applying the teacher's correction, was similar to the initial goal set by the teacher in line 2, but the preposition 'in' was still missing. The teacher repeated Jisu's utterance to let her know that the preposition was missing. Unlike in line 4, the teacher did not correct Jisu's utterance, because this excerpt was recorded during a class that illustrated the necessity of prepositions. The teacher wanted the learner to recognize that certain sentences require a preposition. The teacher

revealed her intention in this repetition more directly than in Excerpt 5 by saying ‘weird?’ after she repeated Jisu’s answer. Jisu knew that her answer included an error through the teacher’s feedback, but she did not know exactly what her mistake. This may be seen as an attempt to change the article ‘the’ to ‘a’ after delaying it with a brief laugh at line 7. Eventually, the teacher could no longer wait for an answer and began to explain in more detail in line 10. That is, through repetition, the teacher can inform the learner that their previous turn—the learner’s response—included an error. This method can promote learners’ interaction rather than directly pointing out that they have done ‘wrong’ (Chang, 2017; Jensen & Vinther, 2003; Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Shahidzade et al., 2022), but learners with low academic competence may be unable to identify precisely where they made the error.

At the time of recording, Jisu had not been learning English grammar for long, and the structure of the English was likely still unfamiliar to her. It is possible that even if she was reviewing what she had already learned, Jisu could not immediately catch the errors she had made. The pattern wherein she could not immediately identify her error appeared in the following conversation in Excerpt 7 as well.

Excerpt (7) New recording 12, 108:55

01 T: ca, yaynun that-i toynta antoynta?

okay this ‘that’ change or-not

Okay, (can) this be changed ‘that’ or not?

02 Jisu: antoynta.

cannot

(It) cannot.

03 T:→ that-i antoynta, that-i toynun ken: khomma-ka epsnun-ccok,

‘that’ cannot-be ‘that’ could-be thing comma without

Cannot be ‘that’, the thing that could be ‘that’ (is): without comma,

04 kulem yay-nun mwe-lang pakkwessunta?

then this what can-be changed

then, what (can) be changed to this?

04 Jisu: e, camsimanyo. (3.0) far

well wait ‘far’

Well, wait (a minute, please). (3.0) far

05 T:→ for

06 Jisu: which?

07 T:→ which?

08 Jisu: for, for which.

09 T:→ (2.0) for which?

10 Jisu: (3.0) for-un macayo?

- ‘for’ right?
(3.0) Is ‘for’ right?
- 11 T: a:nicyo,
nope
Nope:
- 12 Jisu: .hhh e, hinthu com cwuseyyo.
uh hint some give
.hhh uh, (Please) give (me) some hints.

The teacher also used repetition when teaching about differences in the usage of relative pronouns. She had taught in class prior to this sequence that ‘which’ could be replaced with ‘and they’ in the sentence ‘I have two books, which have blue covers’, and the class represented by Excerpt 7 was reviewing this (see Appendix D for further details). However, Jisu could not recall exactly what she had learned, and this was revealed in lines 4 to 8. When the teacher asked what ‘which’ could be replaced with, Jisu uttered exclamations such as ‘uh’ and kept a short silence, which are elements of the behavior patterns in which respondents engage when they do not know the answer to the question, as identified by Smith and Clark (1993). Jisu then said, ‘Wait a minute’ directly in line 4, and she continued to answer very slowly, slow enough for the teacher to cut in the middle of the turn. In line 5, the teacher corrected Jisu’s pronunciation,⁴ and she re-uttered with correct pronunciation in line 8 after completing all the answers she intended. The teacher hesitated for a moment before remarking that Jisu’s answer was incorrect at line 9 because she had just given negative feedback on Jisu’s pronunciation in line 5. Following a brief silence, however, the teacher used repetition with rising intonation to indicate the presence of an error in the previous turn, Jisu’s response. Jisu noticed an error in her answer due to the teacher’s feedback, but did not know precisely which part was incorrect. After three seconds of silence, she checked that some of her answers were correct. Eventually, as can be seen from line 12, she asked for some hints.

Jisu responded well to her teacher’s feedback as Excerpts 6 and 7 show. While she noticed a problem with her response due to her teacher’s feedback, she did not know exactly where the error was. If the long interaction continued, as in Excerpt 5, there was the possibility that she would ultimately identify her error. However, such long-running interaction also contains a loophole whereby, the learner may eventually find errors in their response and correct them by simply eliminating candidates without knowing the relevant linguistic knowledge.

⁴ Jisu sometimes confused the pronunciation of prepositions—for example, ‘off’ and ‘of’, or ‘for’ and ‘far’.

In sum, this paper examined the use of repetition as an OIR strategy at the third turn of the IRF sequence used by the teacher in a one-on-one tutoring situation. The data indicated that the learner had a little sensitivity to her teacher's attempts to repair. Jisu mostly noticed that the teacher's repetition constituted a repair initiation regarding her response and, that her answer contained an error. However, she sometimes missed her teacher's intention and could not successfully determine which part of her answer was incorrect, leading to lengthy tutor-tutee interactions in which both participants tried to locate and correct the error.

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This paper analyzed tutoring data from a learner who had just begun studying English grammar to consider teachers' repetition in feedback turn as an OIR strategy that may be overlooked in general language classrooms. It indicated the potential indeterminacy of repetition. The tutoring data reported herein highlighted that long interactions might be necessary for successful repair outcome, or that the learner might ask precisely where their mistake is when repetition as a repair practice does not function properly. One of the factors contributing to these findings appeared to be that the analyzed sequences took place between a learner with low academic competence and a teacher. The student Jisu had learned English grammar for a year and two months, and even if all interactions had occurred in the process of reviewing what she had learned in the previous class, the course consisting of the usage classification of 'that' or the usage of to-infinitive would have been difficult for her.⁵ At the same time, the fact that this was a one-on-one tutoring situation may also have contributed to the sequence presented herein. If it had been a classroom situation involving multiple students, the interaction presented in this paper would likely not have occurred because it would not have been possible to give Jisu so many opportunities. In classes that are not one-on-one scenarios, there is the possibility that the repair practice would be carried out by another student rather than student who made the error.

Excerpt (8) Simin (2018, p. 38)

100 L4: =and finally in (Angolush) (.) Angolush (0.1), it will be snow.

101 T:→ Uh-hah. It wi::ll?

102 LL: It will snow.

⁵ This is one of the chronic problems afflicting Korea's English education system. Recently, attempts to strengthen practical English education have been made, but in actual education field, problem-solving approaches that value grammar and reading for entrance examinations continue to be disproportionately emphasized. Teaching methods centered on structural analysis and classification of phrase rather than actual use of the target language can impede learners' progress (Park & Chang, 2017).

103 L4: [It will snow]

Excerpt 8 presents, data analyzed in Simin's (2018) study, which explored repair strategies implemented in English learning classrooms in the United States and China, and demonstrated that other learners understood what the teacher's repetition meant and corrected the error first not the learner who made the error. Jisu's response, and her failure to accurately understand and correct her errors, did not belong to the special case. It can be reproduced among other students. Based on child-adult conversation data, McHoul (1990) mentioned that repetition as an OIR strategy in classroom interactions might prompt additional turns. He reported that self-repair did not necessarily follow other-initiation, and reaffirmation (described as failed correction) could be continued after third turn. However, few studies have confirmed or observed that repetition might be a potentially indeterminate or problematic repair initiation in the actual instructional discourse.

As an OIR strategy, repetition indubitably causes additional interaction rather than directly pointing out errors or correcting errors unilaterally by teachers. However, promoting interaction is not the only reason that teachers employ repetition in the third turn of the IRF sequence. Shahidzade et al. (2022) reported that teachers believed learners could learn more from their mistakes and that repetition might grant opportunities to realize and correct their errors. In other words, teachers use repetition as an OIR strategy to encourage learners to repair their own errors and develop academic competencies. However, this study's findings suggest that for many students repetition may not be successful as an OIR strategy: it is a possible that the error would be corrected by another student before the learner who made the error realizes it.

This paper examined the interaction between the teacher and student in one-on-one tutoring. The data showed the indeterminacy and delay of teachers' repetition as an OIR strategy, which takes place at the third turn of the IRE sequence. Correcting learners' errors in classrooms is important and repetition as an OIR strategy is widely used in language learning (Seo, 2019; Shahidzade et al. 2022). Teachers should be aware of these risks. Given the inadequacy of the available research on the potential indeterminacy of repetition in instructional discourse is insufficient, this paper is significant in highlighting the potential risks of teacher repetition used at the third turn of IRE sequence.

This study has several limitations. First, it analyzed the interaction between a single learner and teacher, and it is necessary to confirm and compare problematic interactions that ensure from the use repetition as OIR strategy in actual classroom discourse. Moreover, the main content was grammar explanation or problem solving, which can be particularly difficult for learners. It is also necessary to consider interaction centered other content, such as reading comprehension.

Applicable levels: Elementary, secondary

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APPENDIX A

Transcription Conventions

(0.0)	length of silence in tenths of seconds
(.)	micropause
=	contiguous utterances
::	lengthened sound
underlining	relatively increased volume or high pitch
.	falling intonation
,	continuing intonation
?	rising intonation
hh	hearable outbreath
.hh	hearable inbreath

APPENDIX B

Note of Excerpt 5

that절 = 명사절 = 접속사 that절
 It is true [that my sister is strange].
 가S 진S

It be that 뒤로 보내도 되는 문장 = 강조 문장

It was yesterday that my sister was strange.
 강조

APPENDIX C
Example of Excerpt 6

2. 우리말에 맞게 틀린 부분을 고쳐 문장을 다시 쓰시오.

그 아이들에게 놀 수 있는 가까운 공원이 필요하다.
The children need a nearby park to play.

Note of Excerpt 6

I play the baseball.

I play with my friend.

놀 친구 = friend to play with

I play in the park.

놀 공원 = park to play in

APPENDIX D

Note of Excerpt 7

* 관계대명사 계속적 용법

계속적 용법 = 전치사 + 관계대명사

I have two books, which have blue cover

≠that

=and they

제한적 용법

I have two books, which have blue cover

=that