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**Documenting Feedback during Formal Formative Reading Assessment:
Writing-in-Interaction and its Consequences for Second Language Students**

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Faculty of
Hokkaido University in partial fulfillment
of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

by

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates how feedback is provided to second language (L2) students during formal formative reading assessments in K-12 education, with a focus on the role of writing in these interactions. L2 students often face challenges in both language and academic learning, leading to lower reading scores and graduation rates. Understanding feedback - both as an evaluative event and as an ongoing process - can improve teaching practices and better support these students.

The research highlights two key perspectives on feedback: one sees it as a discrete event focused on reviewing past performance, while the other views it as a continuous process aimed at enhancing current performance within assessment. Although feedback in K-12 education has been well-studied, the role of writing in feedback during formative assessment interactions is underexplored. Writing plays a crucial role in documenting student performance and guiding feedback, particularly for L2 learners who may struggle with key academic subjects (e.g. reading). While teachers often rely on written records for feedback, previous studies have not deeply analyzed these writings or how they are accomplished.

Using Conversation Analysis (CA), the research addresses three main questions: (1) how feedback is provided after formative assessment performance and documented in writing, (2) how feedback is provided during formative assessment performance and documented in writing, and (3) how these feedback processes affect L2 students' engagement in such assessments. The findings show that written documentation aids feedback but can result in a selective focus, sometimes prioritizing language corrections over comprehension. This can limit meaningful interaction and hinder L2 students' learning. The study calls for a reevaluation of feedback structures. It underscores the importance of collaboration between teachers and students and the impact of writing on formative assessment outcomes.

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CITATIONS

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

Educational assessment is often shown to parents and decision-makers using numbers or statistics, but this isn't how students and teachers experience it. For them, assessments are social interactions. Teachers ask questions, and students respond with words, gestures, or writing, in specific places and at specific times. Researching what is behind the numbers and statistics means looking at the social interactions that comprise educational assessment. We cannot wait until final reports or other products arrive; the *process* of assessment needs attention.

Juxtaposing processes and products foregrounds a distinction between the formative and summative functions of assessment (Black and William, 1998). The summative has a backward orientation toward the measured results of past learning. This dissertation focuses instead on the formative, which is concerned with learning as an ongoing process. So-called formative assessment (FA) has a forward orientation toward future actions by teachers and learners, toward the future process of learning.

But what about the process of FA activity *itself*? Distinguishing between assessment's summative and formative functions sheds little light upon the everyday experiences of either. The results of FA activities influence educational decisions by classroom teachers, building administrators, students and their parents. But how do those results *themselves* emerge within instances of everyday social interaction? This dissertation focuses on FA as an interactional phenomenon: words, gestures, and writing by teachers and students in specific places and at specific times.

While there is a growing body of research on interaction during FA activities in compulsory school (or K-12) settings, social interaction during *formal* FA activities is still

understudied. Formal assessments are defined as structured, planned methods that are designed to evaluate a student's skills and knowledge, providing both teachers and students with an overview of academic achievement (Brown and Abeywickrama, 2010). Such formal assessments can be juxtaposed against relatively informal measures.

Informal assessments include spontaneous opportunities that emerge in the midst of whole-class instruction (e.g. student utterances) that provide teachers with evidence of their students' current understanding. This distinction is based not on the type of education (e.g. formal-schooling versus informal-apprenticeship) but, rather, on the systematization and planning of the assessment event.

Recent research on social interaction during *informal* FA (e.g. Can Daşkın and Hatipoğlu, 2019) provides a necessary perspective on how FA activities emerge within the everyday experiences of students and teachers. Unfortunately, informal FA activities may not leave a trace, disappearing with the stream of speech. This evanescence makes it difficult to systematically analyze how processes of informal FA might eventually influence the numbers and statistics which are used by stakeholders (e.g., parents, administrators, policy makers) to make important educational decisions.

Formal FA, on the other hand, provides an opportunity for both immediate feedback to students and teachers, as well as delayed feedback to other stakeholders. This is made possible by the written records which emerge from formal FA. Surely, planning formal FA makes it less dynamic than informal FA, which emerges during classroom interaction. Still, formal FA produces written records that are converted into numbers or statistics.

Formal FA produces numbers and statistics that may be used to drive educational decisions. For example, class-level aggregation of student reading achievement may be used to create instructional groups or to allocate support resources (e.g. paraprofessionals). But how these numbers are created in the first place remains a mystery. As long as that process

remains a mystery, there is little chance of analyzing or improving it. Thus, understanding how formal FA takes place as social interaction is crucial for helping educators improve teaching for students who need it the most, in a way that is documentable and accountable.

One of the most vulnerable groups of students is those who are not yet fully proficient in the language of instruction, known as L2 students. These students face a double challenge: they need to learn academic subjects while also learning the language used for teaching. Because of this, it's not surprising that they often struggle to meet educational goals.

In the United States, national reading tests over the past ten years show that L2 students in fourth and eighth grades score much lower than their peers who are fully proficient in English (The Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students (OELA), 2015). Reading is a crucial skill; students learn to read in early grades, which helps them learn more in later school years and in life. If students struggle with reading, it can lead to serious issues.

Additionally, the graduation rates for L2 students in the U.S. are over 15% lower than those of fully proficient students (OELA, 2015). Low graduation rates are linked to lower wages and higher unemployment. This means L2 students are at risk of failing academically, which can affect their future. It is important to take special steps to support their reading development.

Statistics from agencies like the US Department of Education have limits. They do not show how students and teachers actually interact during reading instruction, how this teaching is assessed, or how these assessments can help plan future lessons. To effectively support L2 students, whose lack of full proficiency makes them especially vulnerable, it's crucial to understand how educational assessments are carried out in everyday settings.

In other words, while it's important to look at overall statistics on L2 students' reading skills, we also need to focus on the detailed, everyday aspects of their reading

development. This detailed perspective is different from informal assessments that happen during lessons, which provide immediate feedback to teachers and students. These “instructional dialogues” (Ruiz-Primo, 2011) help teachers adjust their teaching in real time and are very important for responsive teaching. However, informal assessments do not create written records, so they might not be available later to help with future lesson planning.

This study aims to explore how feedback is given to L2 students during formal reading assessments in K-12 schools. It will specifically look at how this feedback is organized in relation to writing activities when teachers document students' performance and support.

While educational research has looked at instructional design, feedback, reading assessments, and language support, many studies overlook that assessment is actually a social interaction. There is some research on the organization of formal assessments in K-12 settings, but it often treats writing activities as less important. However, writing is a major part of these assessments. Teachers need to meet both their official responsibilities and interact with students while producing written records of their performance. As a result, writing activities play a big role during FA.

In fact, the research literature attests to the pervasiveness of writing during FA interaction, if indirectly. Certainly, writing is seldom the focus of research into FA interaction. Still, recurrent observations are made throughout the literature; teachers and students who are engaged in FA make notes, manipulate documents, talk about writing and write about talking. However, pervasive as these observations may be, they do not amount to analysis. Until writing becomes the *focus* of analytic attention, this central facet of FA will remain epiphenomenal.

In particular, the role of writing in organizing formal FA interaction, as well as the content of such written documents, needs more attention. As long as teachers and students

manipulate written documents during FA, it is not sufficient to analyze their feedback interaction as comprised of talk alone. Without information on the content of writing and how such writing is produced, research cannot know how teachers document the performance of their students. Furthermore, research into how teachers and students engage in feedback will fail to identify, analyze or disseminate best practices. Writing is an inseparable component of such practices.

All students, including vulnerable groups like L2 students, need feedback. However, we lack information on how writing can help or hinder feedback for these learners. L2 students face a double challenge, so they need support in both their academic performance and language development. Feedback that is given during or after formal reading assessments is crucial for this support and should be accessible to students, teachers, principals, and parents.

To prepare for exploring these important resources, this chapter introduces the research background, outlines the problems, questions, and aims of the study, explains its significance, and describes the structure of the remaining chapters.

1.2 Background

The current study is set within the context of educational research, as outlined below.

1.2.1 Instructional Design Research

The main issue in K-12 education is how to design effective teaching. One-to-one teaching is the best way to help students learn (Bloom, 1984), but in K-12 classrooms around the world, one teacher usually has to teach many students at once. This means that successful teaching must be designed to work well even with a large number of students.

However, teaching large groups effectively is challenging. In traditional classrooms, the results often show a "bell curve" distribution of student achievement. This means that a

few students perform very well, a few do poorly, and most students are in the middle, either slightly above or below expectations. This bell curve is a common challenge in designing effective K-12 instruction.

The bell curve is a common pattern in education, but it's not a new idea. Almost 50 years ago, Benjamin Bloom challenged the belief that this pattern is a natural result of teaching methods (Fendler and Muzaffar, 2008). He argued that the bell curve represents a major obstacle to effective teaching. If we don't address it, classroom instruction will simply reflect the differences in skills and resources that students already have when they come to school. As long as bell curves exist in education, Bloom's goal of reducing social inequality and ensuring that everyone has the right to learn will not be fully achieved.

Bloom's solution to the problem of varying student achievements was to create sequences of teaching and assessment that provide ongoing feedback. This feedback can then be used to improve future lessons. Traditional teaching often uses a single method for all students and measures success only at the end with final assessments. To address the bell curve that these assessments usually create, Bloom recommended using shorter teaching sequences that include formative assessments. These assessments are designed to give useful information that can help tailor instruction to meet students' needs.

FA can help teachers identify which students are ready to move on to more advanced activities and which ones need extra help and time with the initial material. Giving targeted support to those who need it requires a lot of a teacher's time and focus. Therefore, it's important that this support is based on evidence and free from bias. Bloom's approach, termed Learning for Mastery (LFM) emphasizes repeatedly checking student learning needs against specific goals. The key part of this approach is the regular collection and use of formative feedback, which helps improve teaching and learning.

This research on feedback within LFM is not without its criticism. For example, in a landmark review, Black and William (1998) discuss work by Slavin (1987) who problematizes the use of meta-analysis methodology as well work by Gusky and Pigott (1988) who criticize the reporting practices of LFM research. In addition, Bennett (2011) echoes many of Black and William's points in a more recent but also influential, critical review of formative assessment research.

An important overlap between the literature reviews of Black and William (1998) and Bennett (2011) is their similar argument that the research on FA lacks a set of common understandings. In particular, issue is taken with the variety of phenomena analyzed under the rubric of feedback. A unified definition for the concept of feedback appears to be necessary in order to move the field forward.

1.2.2 Feedback Research

Since Bloom's work, feedback has continued to be a major focus in education research. A recent survey found 67 different models of feedback in educational studies (Panadero & Lipnevich, 2022). The authors identified fourteen key theoretical models, which have developed over several decades, from classic papers such as Ramparasad (1983) to more recent influential work like Carless and Boud (2018).

These models represent a growing area of research, with newer models often building on earlier ideas (Lipnevich & Panadero, 2021). A notable example is the model by Hattie and Timperley (2007), which defines feedback as "information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding (81)." Among the feedback models reviewed by Lipnevich and Panadero (2021), Hattie and Timperley (2007) was not only chosen unanimously by experts but also received the highest number of citations.

The claims of Hattie and Timperley (2007) regarding the influence of feedback on learning is based upon a subsequently-published, quantitative synthesis by Hattie (2009) of two meta-analytic studies (Burns and Symington 2002; Fuchs and Fuchs, 1986). These meta-analytic studies both focus on a teaching method called formative program evaluation. This method involves formal procedures that give teachers information about how effective their previous teaching was, so they can use this information to improve future lessons.

Originally developed for special education, this practice has evolved in response to U.S. laws that ensure students with disabilities have the right to learn. In his quantitative synthesis of Burns and Symington (2002) and Fuchs and Fuchs (1986), Hattie (2009) highlights the importance of these feedback processes for general teaching design. Evidence shows that giving systematic feedback to teachers can improve their students' academic success, even for those who are often harder to teach. This suggests that if feedback can help these students, it can benefit all students.

Hattie (2009) draws ideas about effective feedback for teachers mainly from a review of two studies, particularly focusing on Fuchs and Fuchs (1986). Hattie (2009) emphasizes that feedback helps students learn by giving teachers information about how their previous teaching affected student performance. This allows teachers to adjust their future lessons.

The idea of making teaching effectiveness "visible" is key to the work of Hattie (2009). To support this, Hattie (2009) references a finding from Fuchs and Fuchs (1986) that shows how the way data is presented affects the effectiveness of evaluations. For instance, they discovered that when teachers graphed student performance data instead of just writing it down, the evaluation process was more effective (Fuchs and Fuchs, 1986, p. 181).

Fuchs and Fuchs (1986) found that when assessment administrators graphed student performance results, those students did significantly better than those in a control group. They suggested that graphing helps teachers analyze student performance more accurately

and frequently. Another benefit they considered is that these visual graphs can provide teachers with an effective tool to provide students feedback on their own progress. This finding has the potential to be a breakthrough for improving teachers' practices of formative feedback.

The potential has been squandered by research which followed Fuchs and Fuchs (1986). Knowing the *fact* that using graphs to provide feedback correlates with increased gains in subsequent student performance does not equal knowing *how* they are used or *why* that use is effective. Later studies on visual representation during formal program evaluation (e.g., Van Norman et al., 2013; Newell & Christ, 2017) have not looked at how visual graphs are used during the social interactions where feedback is given.

Importantly, Hattie (2009) missed the point by Fuchs and Fuchs (1986) regarding the potential for documentation to provide teachers with tools for giving feedback to students. This oversight was repeated by Hattie and Timperley (2007) who incorporated the quantitative synthesis of Hattie (2009) into their model of feedback. If Hattie and Timperley (2007), the most influential model of feedback, fails to examine documents as tools for feedback interaction, who will? It is no wonder the practical potential of written documents as tools for feedback remains underexamined by feedback literature.

1.2.3 Reading Assessment Research

Formal reading assessment programs often use commercially available tools (Kame'enui et al., 2006) to help teachers and administrators systematically track students' reading performance. This allows them to better address students' needs when planning future language arts lessons.

One example of such an assessment tool is the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS®, University of Oregon, 2024), used in many public schools in the

USA. With DIBELS®, a teacher assesses a student's skills in decoding words, completing sentences, and reading fluently. This is done by providing short reading passages. The teacher notes any mistakes on a copy of the text while counting the words line by line.

The assessment takes just one minute, during which the teacher can measure the student's reading rate (how many words are read per minute), accuracy (how many words are read correctly), and error rate (how many mistakes are made compared to correct words). The evaluation is supported by word counts and grade-level benchmarks included in the tool.

Formal reading assessment tools help teachers measure and evaluate students' reading performance, and they also create important written records, such as notes on a student's oral reading. These records are essential for planning future lessons because they show the skill levels of students, helping teachers choose the right reading materials and form appropriate instructional groups.

Additionally, these documents can be reviewed by school leaders later to assess teachers' decisions, such as how students are grouped for instruction and which reading materials are chosen based on each student's level of difficulty. Thus, the main benefit of formal reading assessments is that they provide standardized procedures for the collection and evaluation of student performance. The hope is that these procedures will allow teachers to obtain unbiased information on their students' abilities. Standardization should make the process more transparent to wider stakeholders (e.g. school leaders). It should also help teachers provide feedback to students, and plan instruction that will meet those students' needs more effectively.

The drawback of using standardized FA tools is the risk of deprofessionalizing teachers. This is especially true in regards to feedback. The American Psychological Association (APA, 2017) provides guidelines for the explanation of test results as well as the maintenance of test security; test administrators must provide feedback whenever possible

but they must do so without disclosing the details of the testing materials themselves. In other words, feedback should not contain information about the test itself (e.g. specific misread words). This limits the authenticity of feedback that classroom teachers might provide to students after FA is finished.

Not only are teacher-administrators discouraged from discussing test materials after FA is complete, but they are also prohibited from providing feedback during the ongoing assessment. The DIBELS® test (University of Oregon, 2024), introduced above, provides a clear example. The administration and scoring guide distinguishes between accommodations, or changes to the testing procedure that won't affect valid measurement, and modifications, or changes that will. The DIBELS® rules prohibit modifications such as changing the instructions or, importantly, giving unstandardized prompts and feedback. Teachers are only allowed to read the script, as is.

The prohibition of feedback during test administration does not reflect the reality in either psychological clinics or K-12 classrooms. There is a long tradition of sociological research on the local procedures that test administrators develop and use. One example is the standardized educational tests analyzed by Marlaire and Maynard (1990, see also Maynard and Marlaire, 1992). Here, children are referred to a psychological clinic by their schools for diagnosis of potential learning disabilities. The researchers' analyses show the delicate interactional work that test administrators and test takers engage in to accomplish the standardization of these tests. In other words, the participants may engage in feedback *for the purpose of* achieving valid results.

It is important to document the reality of test administration as social interaction. Clearly, the prohibition of feedback during standardized FA administration possess a problem for teachers; without feedback and modifications, the assessment may not be valid at all. Thus, teachers' ability to navigate this problem (e.g. provide feedback that doesn't

compromise the validity of the assessment) is a core element of their professional literacy for conducting FA.

1.2.4 Assessment Literacies Research

Another important area of research for classroom-based FA is assessment literacies (AL). This field studies the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for effective engagement in educational assessment (Brookhart, 2011; DeLuca et al., 2016; Pastore and Andrade, 2019; Michigan Assessment Consortium, 2020). Researchers in AL aim to improve learning outcomes for K-12 students by influencing teacher training materials, certification criteria, and professional development programs. Interest in this area grew in the early 2000s as accountability in education increased, leading to policy proposals aimed at improving assessment practices (DeLuca, LaPointe-McEwan & Luhanga, 2016).

Today, AL has expanded to include conceptual, practical, and emotional skills for teachers, students, and other educational stakeholders (Pastore and Andrade, 2019; Michigan Assessment Consortium, 2020). Given the importance of writing in formal FA, it makes sense that AL research would explore how this writing is done.

However, despite the advancements in AL research, there is still a lack of focus on the actual practices involved in administering assessments. Often, these practical skills are treated as minor details or overlooked altogether (Schmeiser et al., 1995; Pastore and Andrade, 2019). This trend is not unique to AL; other educational researchers, like Heritage and Heritage (2013), also criticize the neglect of the specific interactions between teachers and students during assessments. They argue for more detailed studies of classroom interactions, including how FA is conducted.

Some researchers have begun to question traditional FA methods, like self-assessment, which can create difficulties in how students engage with the feedback process (Skovholt et al., 2019). These competencies are crucial for meaningful participation in K-12

FA. Yet, AL does not offer many tools to analyze how people engage in these assessment interactions. Instead, it tends to focus on how assessments are designed, aligned with curriculum, or understood by various stakeholders. As a result, the ways teachers and students work together in giving and recording feedback are not currently explored within AL research.

1.2.5 Linguistic Accommodations Research

One area of educational research that can help understand how to assess L2 students is linguistic accommodations. This research looks at how assessments can be adjusted to better evaluate the skills of L2 students. A key idea in recent studies is that accommodations should be part of teachers' everyday practices (Schissel, 2014). Many findings show that the accommodations which may be required by law (i.e. in the United States) for large standardized tests are often not practical in regular classrooms (Pope et al., 2009; Clark-Gareca, 2016; Cho, 2019). One example is bilingual test materials; teachers often do not have the resources or expertise to produce these.

Research notes that teachers and support staff can implement simple, flexible accommodations directly in the classroom as an alternative to large-scale accommodation. Examples include reading aloud, providing context, rephrasing, or simplifying questions (Schissel, 2014). Other supports can include talking with students and translating parts of a test, as well as reminding students to check their work (Clark-Gareca, 2016; Schissel, 2014). Research on these classroom practices shows that teachers can influence how accommodation strategies are developed.

While most studies in this area use surveys and interviews (Clark-Gareca, 2016; Cho, 2019), some recent studies have started to gather observational data (Schissel, 2014; Clark-

Gareca, 2016). For instance, Schissel's work includes field notes that show how teachers often apply these accommodations in a general way.

Despite the potential of this observational research, there are challenges in how these observations are analyzed. The most detailed studies, by Schissel (2014) and Clark-Gareca (2016), focus on broader patterns of communication rather than the specific interactions during assessments. They point out that teachers often mix up the needs of L2 students with those of students who have cognitive disabilities.

Schissel (2014) argues that this mixing is influenced by larger historical views on testing and how classroom practices are often guided by research agendas. Ironically, instead of closely examining what teachers do during assessments, Schissel's analysis seems to pull her focus away from classroom interactions. She categorizes teachers' strategies based on existing educational literature rather than observing how these strategies naturally develop during assessments. As a result, her conclusions rely on a surface-level understanding of accommodations without considering how these strategies arise from the interactions in the classroom.

1.3 Problem

In the previous section, we saw that educational research has looked at related topics like feedback and linguistic accommodations. However, this research often misses the important role of social interactions in educational assessment. There is some research that does focus on this interaction, using audio and video recordings of formal FA in K-12 settings. But none of this research looks specifically at reading assessments. Still, it offers useful insights for studying feedback during formal reading FA. One important point is the difference between feedback given after the assessment and feedback given during it. Additionally, writing activities are very important but have not been studied enough.

1.3.1 Established Knowledge

Some research was discussed above that addresses more or less the phenomena of feedback, to a variety of learners, during FA, in K-12 contexts. This is not an exhaustive discussion. It is possible to expand the discussion to include how feedback and assessment are conceptualized in more distant but also related fields, such as school psychology, special education, or clinical psychology more generally. Feedback, in particular, is a concept shared across a range of fields, from education to acoustics, from physiotherapy to engineering. There is not space for them all.

It is prudent to note how feedback is conceptualized within the field of education. Within education, feedback is generally conceptualized as information provided to the learner about past performance. Hattie and Timperley (2007), discussed earlier, argue that instruction happens first, followed by student performance and some assessment of that performance; feedback emerges as a consequence of assessing performance. This creates the impression that instruction, performance, assessment and feedback are separate and distinct; segregated from one another.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) warn against the segregated view. They draw upon the work of Kulhavy (1977) and describe an ideal situation in which instruction and feedback are intertwined. Rather than segregate instruction from assessment, and student performance from feedback, Hattie and Timperley (2007) imagine a constant stream of feedback emerging within ongoing instruction. Although this aptly describes what is called instructionally-imbedded assessment, this will not be discussed further because of the tendency for this to be informal FA. Instead, our focus is on feedback as an interactional phenomenon: how feedback emerges within social interactions that produce documented evidence of student performance during formal FA.

Research on feedback interactions during FA in K-12 education shows two different ways to understand feedback. The first approach sees feedback as a specific event that happens at a certain time, focusing on discussing past assessments and evaluating how students performed in the past. The results of previous research indicate it is important for teachers and students to achieve a shared understanding of the student's past performance; this is often initiated by the teacher, using formulations (e.g., "you did X", "you did X in way Y"). The results of previous research also indicate that, after the teacher and the student achieve a shared understanding of the past performance, they must achieve a closing to the feedback conversation; this is often initiated by the student, using displays of commitment to act on the advice from the teacher.

The second approach views feedback as something that happens in the moment, aiming to improve students' current performance through the conversation that is part of the assessment itself. The results of previous research indicate that it is important that the student recognize the teacher's response as feedback on the student's current performance; this is often encouraged by the teacher, using neutral receipts (e.g., "okay" with continuing intonation, "uh huh") rather than acknowledgement (e.g. "okay" with falling intonation) or overt appraisal (e.g. "good"). The results of previous research also indicate that it is important for the student to explicitly respond to the teacher's feedback; responding explicitly is often problematic for the student.

1.3.1.1 Feedback as a Time-Bound, Interactional Event. One way to understand feedback in K-12 formal formative assessments is to see it as a distinct event. In this view, feedback occurs when teachers and students come together to discuss and evaluate a student's past performance based on a completed assessment. Simply put, this approach treats feedback as a meeting where they talk about the results after the assessment is finished.

1.3.1.1.1 Studies of Feedback After Performance. Four studies have looked at how feedback is organized after student performance. Each study comes from a different area of research, be it classroom ethnography, second language teaching, or teacher education. However, they all share a common focus on how feedback is given and organized in K-12 settings.

1.3.1.1.1.1 Pryor and Torrance (1996, 1998). The findings of these studies come from a larger investigation into classroom assessment practices in elementary schools. Data were collected from an English elementary school, including over 100 hours of audio and video recordings of classroom interactions. The participants in these recordings include an unknown number of students and teachers.

From this extensive collection, the researchers selected specific examples for analysis. Each example features direct interaction between first-year elementary students and their teacher during spelling assessments, with the transcripts starting after a spelling test when the teacher discusses the results with the students.

The study uses a method called "parallel texts" (Davies, 1982), where the transcripts of the recorded interactions are shown alongside the researchers' detailed interpretations. This method highlights the researchers' viewpoints and allows readers to evaluate the accuracy of those interpretations. Additionally, the study includes a post-analysis step for participant validation, meaning that those involved can confirm or discuss the findings.

In the first report by Pryor and Torrance (1996), the authors analyze data from spelling assessment conferences to explore how a teacher provides oral feedback. Their main research question focuses on how classroom-based assessments are understood by those involved. They conclude that feedback is a unique and evolving part of a teacher's practice in early elementary classrooms. The authors also emphasize that feedback is influenced by the

management needs that arise during assessment interactions. Essentially, feedback serves both instructional purposes and reflects the sociocultural context of the assessment.

In the second report (Pryor and Torrance, 1998), the authors examine the same spelling assessment conferences to understand how students participate during oral feedback. Their main question investigates how learning is collaboratively developed during these assessment moments. They find that social learning is co-constructed in classroom assessment interactions. Additionally, they highlight how gender roles play a role in these interactions, noting that behaviors like girls' learned helplessness and boys' confident defiance are shaped through their interactions with the teacher.

1.3.1.1.2 Adair-Hauck and Troyan (2013). This study analyzes audio-visual recordings of interactions between a senior high school student and her teacher during formal FA of oral language. The main research question focuses on how the feedback interaction influences the student's ability to self-reflect and self-regulate.

The data was collected in an American high school and includes multiple recordings featuring the student and her teacher. For analysis, the authors selected one specific instance and provided an extended transcript of it. They used critical discourse analysis as their methodological approach, combining ethnographic methods like surveys to support their detailed examination of this social interaction. Their work is influenced by the discourse analyst Gee (2011).

The findings reveal how the teacher and student organize their feedback conversation. The researchers emphasize the importance of using pronouns, designing questions effectively, and giving descriptive feedback. The key takeaway is that these practices can help teachers create opportunities for students to self-reflect, which in turn promotes self-regulation.

1.3.1.1.3 Skovholt (2018). This study examines audio recordings of interactions between senior high school students and their teacher during formal feedback conversations about oral presentations. The main research question looks at how these feedback conversations are organized and how students participate, as well as the educational implications of this organization.

The data was recorded in a Norwegian senior high school and consists of about two and a half hours of recordings featuring nine students and one teacher. From this larger collection, nine specific instances were selected for analysis. The paper presents a transcript of one of these instances as evidence for the findings. The researcher used conversation analysis (CA) as their method, focusing on one case while also noting features that appeared in other cases.

The study identifies how oral feedback conversations are structured and the actions that occur in different phases of these conversations. Five main phases were found: opening the feedback session, starting with positive comments, giving negative feedback, offering advice, and closing the session. The author also highlights that key actions, like giving assessments and advice, are often guided by questioning techniques that prioritize the teacher's agenda. The main takeaway is that teacher training materials do not adequately address the complexities and challenges of managing feedback interactions in the classroom.

1.3.1.1.2 Formulating Prior Performance and Responding to Feedback. Feedback as a time-bound, independent event focuses on the challenge of discussing student performance that has already occurred. At this point, the performance exists only in memory, making it difficult for both the teacher and student to agree on what happened. For feedback to start, they need to recognize a shared understanding of the student's past performance, often done through specific formulations (e.g., "you did X", "you did X in way Y") from the

teacher. However, just because the teacher describes the performance doesn't mean the student will remember or accept that description.

Once they have established this recognition, the next challenge is how to wrap up the feedback conversation. The student needs to show that they understand the feedback and are willing to act on it, which can be tricky if either party misunderstands or disagrees with each other.

Skovholt (2018) provides solutions to these challenges. In her study of high school students' oral presentations, feedback sessions were held separately from peers, allowing focused discussions. The teacher guided these sessions with an agenda to deliver feedback and advice. By using questions that encourage positive responses and selectively reusing the student's own words, the teacher framed any performance issues as simple mistakes rather than signs of incompetence. This approach reduced student resistance and helped keep the conversation productive.

Pryor and Torrance's studies (1996, 1998) support these findings. They looked at feedback sessions in a first-grade classroom after spelling tests. Here, the teacher aimed to foster both academic growth and positive attitudes toward learning. When students made mistakes, the teacher attributed these to the difficulty of the material rather than the students' abilities. He used self-answered questions to highlight errors while framing them positively, helping students align with his perspective without feeling defensive.

Adair-Hauck and Troyan (2013) offer a different perspective in their study of feedback in a high school French class. Participants' student-centered method contrasts with the teacher-centered approaches of Skovholt (2018) and Pryor & Torrance (1996, 1998). The teacher avoided directives and judgmental comments, instead using open-ended questions to help the student reflect on their performance. Written feedback prompts encouraged the student to engage more deeply with their assessment, leading to less teacher involvement.

This shift emphasizes the student's active role in the feedback process, highlighting a different way to approach feedback conversations.

1.3.1.2 Feedback as an Action-Bound, Contingent Accomplishment. Another way to think about feedback in K-12 assessments is to see it as a dynamic process where participants actively adjust the student's performance through conversation. In simpler terms, this approach views feedback as a series of discussions and actions that lead to immediate improvements in the student's work during the assessment itself.

1.3.1.2.1 Studies of Feedback During Performance. Three studies have looked at how feedback is organized during performance. While these studies come from different areas of research such as classroom discourse (Jones and Beck, 2020; Beck and Jones, 2023) and teacher education (Heritage and Heritage, 2013), they all provide valuable insights into how feedback interactions happen in K-12 settings.

1.3.1.2.1.1 Heritage and Heritage (2013). This study uses audio-visual recordings of interactions between fifth-grade students and their teacher during formal writing assessments. The main research questions focus on what interactional practices define formative assessment in this setting and whether any classroom routines support those practices. The data, collected in an American elementary school, consists of two hours of recordings involving 26 students and one teacher. From this larger set, a smaller selection of examples was chosen for analysis, with transcripts of two instances presented in the paper.

The study employs CA, a method that closely examines natural sequences of social interactions. The authors aim to show that this approach is effective for educational research.

The findings reveal how the teacher uses questioning techniques during one-on-one writing assessments. The authors note that the teacher designs her questions to be non-threatening, encouraging students to think more deeply. They also point out that these diagnostic questioning practices help the teacher differentiate between issues related to language proficiency and those related to reading comprehension. The main takeaway is that such diagnostic questioning practices are uncommon in education and should be encouraged, but this requires the detailed analysis provided by CA to understand how they function.

1.3.1.2.1.2 Jones and Beck (2020). This study uses audio recordings of interactions between senior high school students and their teacher during formal writing conferences. The main research question explores how these interactions influence students' roles as authorities on their own writing identities within the established social structure of the conference.

The data was collected in an American senior high school, consisting of about one and a half hours of recordings involving three students and their teacher. From this larger set, the researchers analyzed a smaller selection of seven instances, which are presented as transcripts in the paper.

The study employs discourse analysis, focusing on how identities are shaped through conversation, particularly using critical discourse analysis based on Gee's framework (Gee, 2014).

The findings reveal how students negotiate their identities during writing conferences. Rather than just accepting their teacher's feedback, some students actively resist it and the identities that come with it. The main takeaway is that both students and teachers should be aware that feedback on writing is influenced by power dynamics.

1.3.1.2.1.3 Beck and Jones (2023). This study uses audio recordings of interactions between senior high school students and their teachers during formal writing conferences.

The main research question explores how teacher feedback during these assessments can support students' agency in achieving their writing goals.

The data was collected in American senior high schools and includes an unspecified number of recordings with twelve students and four teachers. From this larger collection, the researchers analyzed a smaller selection of six instances, which are presented as transcripts in the paper.

The study employs a qualitative case study approach, using a coding framework based on previous research by one of the authors.

The findings reveal how teacher feedback during writing assessments can both encourage and hinder student agency. On one hand, the feedback helps students develop important academic discourse skills. On the other hand, these same practices can make students passive participants, limiting their opportunities to take charge of their learning. The main takeaway is that teachers need to be mindful of how their feedback affects student agency.

1.3.1.2.2 Responding to Initial Performance and to Feedback Itself. Feedback as an action-bound, contingent accomplishment is characterized by its close connection to student performance within an ongoing interaction. When feedback occurs immediately after a student's performance, participants can recognize it as related to that performance. However, this recognition isn't always guaranteed. For example, a teacher might acknowledge a student's performance, which signals acceptance and moves the interaction toward closure, rather than providing feedback that critiques or expands on the performance. Another option is receipting, where the teacher recognizes the performance without offering evaluation, allowing space for feedback. A key challenge in these situations is ensuring that the teacher's response is recognized as feedback.

Without this recognition, feedback cannot begin. However, even if recognition occurs, it's not enough to complete the feedback process. The next step requires the student to respond to the teacher's feedback in real-time. This means that the student must explicitly acknowledge the feedback and adjust their performance accordingly, which can be difficult. The student might recognize the feedback but may not understand how to apply it or might choose not to make the suggested changes.

Solutions to these challenges are explored in Heritage and Heritage (2013), who studied formative assessments of expository writing in upper elementary classrooms. They found that teachers used formative questioning or open-ended questions that encourage students to consider alternatives without explicitly stating what to do. For instance, a teacher might ask, "Do you think the reason is [A] or [B]?" This questioning allows students to develop their own responses, as seen when a student offers a new option by saying, "Or maybe the reason is [C]." This method helps students recognize their initial responses and provides a framework for modifications.

The findings from Heritage and Heritage (2013) are supported by Jones and Beck (2020), who examined dialogic writing assessments. In these assessments, teachers initiated questioning sequences targeting specific aspects of students' writing. For example, they might ask, "Why [X]?" or use directive prompts like "Let's try to [X]." These prompts often included clear instructions for modifications, but they also allowed for open-ended responses that encouraged student participation, similar to the formative questions discussed earlier.

Beck and Jones (2023) further expand on this research by looking at formative writing conferences in senior high schools. They found that teachers often initiated feedback with WH-questions or prompts that encouraged specific responses. Techniques included interjections starting with "but" followed by directives, self-answered questions, and IRE sequences (Initiation-Response-Evaluation, Mehan, 1979). These methods helped teachers

focus on students' performances while guiding them toward specific modifications, resembling the structured feedback agendas seen in Skovholt (2018).

Overall, these studies highlight the complexities of providing effective feedback during formative assessments and suggest that both open-ended and directed approaches can play a crucial role in supporting student performance and agency.

1.3.1.3 Formative Feedback to Second Language Students. This section looks again at two studies, one from each earlier part, focusing on L2 students. These studies help us compare how feedback given during and after performance affects language learning.

1.3.1.3.1 Second Language Students in Adair-Hauck and Troyan (2013). As mentioned earlier, Adair-Hauck and Troyan (2013) analyze social interactions that happened after an FA of speaking skills called the IPA. In this task, a student had to discuss famous people in French with a classmate. The assessment took place in a French class, focusing on the student's performance in the L2. However, the feedback discussions were conducted in English. We don't know the student's level of English proficiency, but it's likely she was either a native speaker or very skilled, considering the high school context in the USA.

These details matter because Adair-Hauck and Troyan view language learning and the student's status as an L2 student as very important. The study shows participants reading and discussing a rubric that evaluates the student's French performance. The student actively engages in this process by reading the rubric aloud, assessing her past performance, and providing examples to support her evaluations. She frequently refers back to the rubric at the start of each discussion, reading the descriptions out loud. The role of this assessment material is crucial; the teacher encourages the student to read these descriptors and connects

her evaluations to the wording in the rubric. Overall, the way they use the rubric helps shape their understanding of L2 learning and the student's role as a L2 student.

1.3.1.3.2 *Second Language Students in Heritage and Heritage (2013)*. As mentioned earlier, Heritage and Heritage (2013) analyze social interactions during semi-structured writing conferences between students and their teacher. These conferences took place in an English language arts class, so they weren't specifically focused on the students' second language (L2) performance. However, all the students were native Spanish speakers, and many were receiving support for learning English, which means the assessment also functioned as an evaluation of their English skills.

Heritage and Heritage do not assume that the students' language learning status is always important, but they do explore it when it becomes relevant in their analysis. For instance, in one excerpt, the teacher responds to a student's non-standard language use (e.g. vocabulary mistakes) by subtly including the correct forms in her replies instead of directly correcting the student. The teacher also asks questions to understand the reasons behind the student's errors, rather than giving immediate feedback. This approach allows the teacher to identify whether the issue is a misunderstanding of concepts or a matter of language proficiency. If it's a language proficiency issue, the teacher chooses to set it aside and focuses on the academic goals of the writing conference instead.

1.3.2 *Missing Knowledge*

Despite valuable research on feedback during formal assessments in K-12 settings, there is a lack of understanding about writing activities in this context. Writing is crucial for formal assessments because teachers must create written records of their students' performance. These records are often used to give feedback later on. However, writing is not

just about documenting student performance; it is essential for recording the feedback itself. Previous studies have only hinted at this idea.

For example, in Pryor and Torrance's studies (1996, 1998), the researchers recorded conversations between a teacher and students after a spelling test. These feedback sessions depended on written records, as the teacher had the students' spelling work in front of him. During these conversations, the teacher also took notes, but the researchers did not analyze what he wrote or how it influenced the feedback process.

The need to analyze written records is even more important in the feedback during performance examined by Heritage and Heritage (2013). In this case, the students were writing when the teacher started giving feedback. The study reveals that the teacher took notes on both the students' mistakes and her feedback, which she planned to use for future instruction.

Additionally, in one instance, the teacher documented the outcomes of her formative questioning, which helped her adjust her feedback based on the student's language proficiency while focusing on content learning. This highlights that writing is central not only to documenting feedback but also to assisting L2 students in formal assessments. However, the researchers missed a critical analysis of the writing itself. We don't know what the teacher wrote, how it might benefit her or others (e.g., school principals, colleagues, parents, or the students themselves), or how the teacher managed to give feedback and take notes at the same time.

1.3.3 Problem Statement

The lack of research on the role of writing in formal FA in K-12 education poses significant risks, especially for L2 students. In the United States, reading achievement levels are below 100%, which is concerning and should motivate further investigation into

improving literacy. This issue is even more critical for L2 students, who often perform worse than the national average.

There are many factors affecting overall literacy outcomes, and finding solutions is complex. Many efforts, including research, initiatives, and professional development, aim to address these challenges, particularly through formal reading assessments mandated by various educational policies. This raises an important question: why do students, especially L2 students, continue to underperform despite these assessments?

Understanding why students struggle with reading, even with formal FA in place, should inspire new approaches to educational research. A promising area to explore is the role of writing in how feedback is organized during assessments interactions.

Feedback is crucial for formal FA, but if it isn't documented, there's little chance it will influence future reading instruction. Without written records, how can teachers, colleagues, principals, parents, or the students themselves expect to benefit from tailored instruction? Furthermore, if research continues to overlook how teachers document feedback, it will be difficult to identify and improve best practices.

The danger of neglecting this issue is not just theoretical; it impacts students daily. Low literacy levels can hinder their success in school and beyond, affecting their families and communities. This problem is even more pressing for L2 students, who face additional challenges in reading instruction. The need for educational research to investigate the role of writing during formal reading assessments is urgent, and this study aims to begin that exploration.

1.4 Aims

The current study will focus on specific objectives questions outlined below.

1.4.1 Objectives

To understand how feedback during FA can help all students succeed, this study has three objectives:

1. The first objective is to explore how writing and feedback are connected in interactions that occur after students complete formal reading assessments. Since student performance and feedback happen at different times, it's important to understand how to link these two parts of the feedback process. Previous research has noted the importance of written documents in feedback after performance, but we lack knowledge about how these interactions are organized. This study aims to address that gap.
2. The second objective is to examine how writing and feedback relate to each other during formal reading assessments. Here, student performance and feedback happen simultaneously, meaning that students must adjust their responses based on the feedback they receive. It's essential to encourage these modifications and document them. Like the previous objective, research has recognized the role of written documents in feedback during performance, but we still need to understand how these interactions are organized. This study aims to fill this gap as well.
3. The third objective is to investigate how the relationship between writing and feedback, both during and after performance, affects L2 students that participate in formal reading assessments. L2 students must demonstrate their abilities in the L2 while receiving feedback in that same language, which can blur the lines between their language skills and their assessed literacy skills. While previous studies have highlighted the importance of feedback and its written documentation for L2 students, we still need to explore how these interactions are organized. This study seeks to address this gap.

The three objectives above require an empirical investigation into the relationship between writing and feedback during reading FA interaction and the potential consequences for L2 students. Such an investigation will require careful design; the principled study of social interaction requires researchers to avoid preconceptions regarding the significance of various characteristics, including categories such as "proficient speaker" or "language learner." Thus, investigation must begin with instances of feedback during formal reading FA interaction where teachers and students *themselves* make such categories relevant. A single instance will suffice.

After identifying a single instance, that instance must be analyzed in three ways. First is a single-case analysis; the instance is orderly all by itself. If this order is properly described, the investigation will have specificity. However, the single instance is part of a larger set of experiences; therefore, the second way is to examine it chronologically, or what took place before, and after, the single instance. If this temporal perspective is achieved, the investigation will have consequentiality. However, the order of the single instance may rely on an interactional practice that transcends it; therefore, the third way is to examine a collection of cases in which that practice emerges. If this emergence is properly described, the investigation will have generality.

The three methods described above draw inspiration from the research tradition of CA, described by Stivers and Sidnell (2013) as the most important methodology for the study of social interaction. Among the interactional research into feedback during FA in K-12 contexts that was discussed above, CA methodology was represented by two studies: Heritage and Heritage (2013) and Skovholt (2018). Heritage and Heritage (2013), in particular, came closest among all the previous studies to examining the phenomenon of writing-in-feedback interaction. Therefore, CA is naturally the strongest choice of methodology for the current study.

1.4.2 Questions

To address the objectives outlined above, the current study will explore three key questions:

1. *How does writing organize feedback after assessment performance?* This question emphasizes the multimodal nature of feedback, highlighting that it is delivered sequentially, through physical actions, and in written form. It specifically focuses on feedback that occurs after formal assessments, excluding feedback given during instruction.
2. *How does writing organize feedback during assessment performance?* This question also emphasizes the multimodal nature of feedback. It recognizes that writing and feedback happen simultaneously, involving multiple actions at once. Like the first question, it focuses on feedback that occurs within formal assessments, not during instructional periods.
3. *What does this organization mean for L2 students?* This question addresses the challenges L2 students may face when participating in feedback practices, particularly those related to writing during formal reading assessments. However, it does not delve into the cognitive aspects of academic language learning.

1.5 Significance

Writing plays a vital role in formal reading assessments, as teachers need to document student performance for future instruction and for other stakeholders. This documentation distinguishes formal assessments from informal ones, where feedback is more immediate but materially ephemeral. Devoid of documentation, informal feedback prioritizes the local FA context. Conversely, during formal assessments, feedback may be separated from future performance by time gaps, making it essential to document feedback. The process of "inscription" transforms spoken feedback into material records that can be used later.

Producing material records regarding feedback events also offers the promise of accountability; teachers and students may revisit those documents in order to design future teaching and learning. What is more, those documents provide vital resources in the decision-making processes of wider stakeholders whose job it is to support teachers (e.g. building-level administrators) or students (e.g. parents). Thus, documentation during FA serves a dual purpose. In the local context of FA, writing is a tool for making FA meaningful. In the institutional context of K-12 schooling, writing is a tool for making education accountable.

There is an obstacle to the analysis of written records that emerge from FA. Namely, writing activity is difficult to analyze if we only look at the final, completed inscriptions. The reason is because writing creates what Garfinkel and Wieder (1992), call "Lebenswelt Pairs," meaning that while observing the process of writing reveals both the text and how it was created, the final product does not explain the practical reasoning which led to its creation. Understanding the ramifications of this deceptively simple observation requires a thought experiment. Consider the phenomenon of the shopping list: items to be purchased at the store.

The shopping list is a simple document; in perhaps its simplest form, the list consists of single words or phrases, separated by commas or line breaks. This minimal form is fit for purpose: it reminds the shopper of what the shopper planned to buy. If the shopper is able to execute that plan, then the list has become a tool for cognition across time, space and even across individuals. That is, the list may be handed over, or sent electronically, to another person. Thus, the list is not only a cognitive tool but also a form of social organization.

What is the shopping list *not*? At least in the form described above, the shopping list provides very limited information about the process of reasoning which led to its production. For example, there may no formal indication that the list was created through a process of social interaction. Two partners sitting at the dining room table may have created the list collaboratively, discussing possible dishes for the evening. Alternatively, the list may be the

result of dictation; imagine a father looking in the pantry and talking, over his shoulder, to his daughter who holds the pencil. The final product will likely be mute about these processes.

Why does it matter that the shopping list poorly represents the interaction which gave birth to it? If the daughter goes to the store and comes back without the flour, but the father remembers telling her to write it down, the list may become the object of their scrutiny. The daughter may point to absence of the word "flour" on the list as evidence that her father never told her to buy it. Being sure that he told her, the father may point to the same absence as evidence that she wasn't doing her job properly (e.g. that she failed to write what he said because she was watching television during the dictation). This argument may run aground; the shopping list is not designed to enable list-makers to reconstruct its birth in interaction.

The results of the thought experiment have an important implication for the study of written documentation during reading FA in K-12 contexts. In the same way as the shopping list, FA documentation may or may not represent the interaction from which it emerged. However, the ramifications of this similarity could not be more critical. The first ramification emerges from the contexts in which these documents are used. Failure to reconstruct the interaction which gave birth to a shopping list may result another trip to the supermarket. On the other hand, failure to reconstruct the interaction which gave birth to documentation of reading FA may result in failure to meet the instructional needs of a developing reader.

The second ramification emerges from the contexts in which these documents are studied. If the father and daughter will struggle to reconstruct the details of their interaction from the shopping list alone, then so will the social scientist who attempts to do the same. Depending on the academic field of study, this may result in the search for more effective methods to study the processes of writing. In fact, the last decade of research on social interaction has pointed out the need for such methods. This has culminated in a research program which aims to study writing-in-interaction (Mondada and Svinhufvud, 2016).

Notwithstanding, research on social interaction during formal FA in K-12 contexts has not focused on writing activity. For instance, Skovholt (2018) notes that participants interact with assessment documents, indicating that these physical objects are essential to the feedback process. However, the study doesn't analyze the physical gestures or the details of the documents involved. On the other hand, Heritage and Heritage (2013) mention that a teacher documented feedback to use later but do not analyze the written notes or the act of writing itself.

These two studies come closest to the phenomenon of interest because they share a methodology: CA. CA focuses on the minute details of social interaction. However, although CA clearly offers a strong framework for studying social interaction, it has limitations. Particularly, its practitioners sometimes prioritize the analysis of talk-based resources over those emerging from the physical and material aspects of interaction. This is especially true in the CA-based literature on FA activity in K-12 contexts, which focuses on talk and largely ignores writing. Such a lack of attention to writing is crucial, and this dissertation aims to address it by employing a multimodal CA approach that focuses on writing as an interactional activity.

This dissertation builds on previous CA work on formal FA in K-12 contexts by specifically examining writing and feedback during formal reading assessments. It aims to understand how feedback and writing interact as a Lebenswelt Pair across a multimodal corpus that includes audio-visual recordings and electronic scans of assessment forms. By analyzing this corpus using multimodal CA, the current study provides new insights into the sequential, embodied, and material aspects of writing during formal reading assessments.

1.6 Structure

The current study will be reported across four remaining chapters. Chapter two begins by outlining the research tradition of CA, highlighting its key characteristics. It then introduces important analytical concepts central to CA. Finally the chapter explores how CA is applied to the analysis of writing-in-interaction.

Chapter three presents the analytical framework and methodological procedures used in the current study, organized into three sections. The first section outlines the study's aims. The second section describes the characteristics of the data. The third section focuses on the analysis of the data.

Chapter four presents the results of three empirical investigations that form the original contribution of the current study. It is organized into three sections. The first section focuses on the chronological analysis of feedback and writing-in-interaction over time during a formal reading assessment. The second section examines the interactional practice of documenting feedback. The third section features a single-case analysis of how documenting feedback can impact the engagement of L2 students in the feedback process.

Chapter five discusses the results of the current study, organized into four sections. The first section presents the findings. The second section outlines the study's contributions. The third section explores the implications of the study. The fourth and final section provides a conclusion.

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2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Characteristics of Conversation Analysis

According to Stivers and Sidnell (2012) CA is distinguished by its theoretical assumptions, analytical goals, data, preparation methods, and analytical techniques. The following subsection will introduce each of these elements in turn, referencing both Stivers and Sidnell (2012) and foundational literature on CA methodology.

2.1.1 Theoretical Assumptions

Sidnell and Stivers highlight CA's uniqueness in its focus on talk as an orderly process, accomplished by participants using shared practices. The introductory literature on CA supports this view but also expands it to position CA as a scientific method for studying social interaction. They describe the orderliness of talk as a methodical result of shared procedures (Sidnell, 2010), leading to a decentralized and distributed understanding of action.

In addition to emphasizing orderliness, CA places talk at the core of human social interaction (Clift, 2016; Hepburn & Potter, 2021). This focus helps differentiate basic CA from its applied aspects. CA is also marked by its strong commitment to observation as a foundation for theory, as noted by Psathas (1994). This approach rejects pre-existing explanatory frameworks, favoring discovery through unbiased observation.

Regarding interactional materials, CA is committed to detailed analysis of individual cases (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). This reflects CA's core assumption of achieved orderliness, as each case is valued for the procedures that produced it.

2.1.2 Goals of Analysis

Stivers and Sidnell highlight CA's unique structural analytical goals within the study of language and social interaction. Introductory literature balances this focus on context-free organizational structures with CA's aim to document how these structures apply in specific contexts.

CA starts by defining interactional phenomena in both empirical and normative terms. The empirical aspect focuses on recurrent patterns of interaction (Sidnell, 2010), aiming for a formal description of social action, rather than relying on common vernacular interpretations. This empirical description serves a normative purpose: to reveal underlying social organization (ten Have, 2007). Therefore, CA's overarching goal is to clarify empirical behavioral patterns as they relate to normative frameworks.

Beyond just identifying context-free structures, CA also seeks to understand how these structures function in specific contexts. It examines how participants recognize and interpret social actions through sequential features (Psathas, 1994). This concern revolves around explaining how conversationalists generate local actions from general, context-free structures. Additionally, CA investigates how participants design their conduct based on their awareness of conversational structures (ten Have, 2007). Ultimately, CA aims to document actions as they unfold, showcasing how interactants skillfully use conversational practices.

2.1.3 Approach to Data

Stivers and Sidnell (2012) emphasize that CA relies on recordings of naturally occurring social interactions as its primary data. This commitment to the material nature of data is further distinguished in introductory literature, which highlights CA's unique conceptualization of data in scientific research.

To qualify as primary data, CA materials must capture unprompted, naturally occurring interactions (Liddicoat, 2021). This means that CA focuses on ordinary conversations or institutional talk that would happen regardless of whether data collection is taking place. Additionally, the documentation must consist of mechanical recordings using audio-visual media, allowing for repeated viewing (Clift, 2016). This emphasis on repeated viewing enables analysts to closely examine the intricate details of interaction.

Introductory literature also discusses how CA views data in relation to social reality. In CA, data are not seen as mere representations of reality; instead, they are considered integral components of that reality (Liddicoat, 2021). CA recordings provide rich, detailed reproductions of lived experiences, free from the subjective biases that can affect other forms of data collection. Moreover, data corpora are compiled not to represent a broad population of phenomena but to exemplify specific categories of phenomena (ten Have, 2007). This perspective links the irrelevance of sampling in CA methodology to the belief that each datum is valid and authentic in its own right, irrespective of its representativeness.

2.1.4 Preparation of Data

Stivers and Sidnell highlight that CA uniquely prepares data for analysis through standardized transcription practices. Introductory literature emphasizes that these transcripts serve a dual purpose: enabling analysis and fostering critique.

Firstly, CA views transcriptions as theoretical research products. Their role as representations of data makes them important theoretical objects (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). The theory behind CA transcripts emphasizes the sequential organization of talk, bringing attention to how sequences of interaction are structured. This focus on sequential phenomena aligns with CA's methodological commitments (Clift, 2016; Liddicoat, 2021), as the analysis aims to capture the aspects of interaction that participants consider relevant.

Secondly, transcription is seen as a practical research process that supports CA's goal of being a natural observational science. One key aspect is that transcription enables detailed observation of interactional phenomena (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). The act of transcribing acts as a noticing device, allowing researchers to focus on the fine details necessary for analysis. Another important aspect is that transcription facilitates critique by providing shared access to the data (Hepburn & Potter, 2021). CA emphasizes this practice to ensure rigor and transparency in research, allowing others to engage with and evaluate the findings.

2.1.5 Analytical Methods

Stivers and Sidnell describe CA's analytic methods as a careful balance between generalization across cases and fidelity to the specific details of individual instances. This involves focusing on distributional regularities, contextual similarities, and recognizing deviant cases. The introductory literature reinforces this characterization, presenting CA's methods as a blend of single-case analysis and collection-based analysis.

First, single-case analysis is central to CA's approach, emphasizing the detailed examination of individual episodes. This analysis focuses on the procedural competencies participants use to construct unique interactional events (Psathas, 1994). Researchers identify abstract conversational structures and explore how these structures are operationalized meaningfully by participants in each instance. Single-case analysis also leverages insights from prior CA research to inform empirical exploration (ten Have, 2007), allowing researchers to draw on established findings to focus their inquiries.

Collection-based analysis, on the other hand, aims to build a broader understanding of interactional practices through systematic comparison of multiple cases. This process involves a repeated and thorough confrontation of initial findings with new empirical examples (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). Single-case analysis plays a crucial role within this

collection-building framework, as it refines and sharpens the overarching account of the interactional practice under study (ten Have, 2007). While collections may be large, the method remains fundamentally qualitative; decisions about which instances to include or how to categorize them are rooted in detailed single-case analysis.

2.2 Tools of Conversation Analysis

The CA approach offers various tools for analyzing social interaction, categorized into two main classes: those focused on the organization of talk-in-interaction and those addressing embodied and material action-in-interaction. Below is a core, albeit non-exhaustive, list of these tools.

2.2.1 Turn-Taking Organization

In face-to-face conversations, especially those involving spoken language, people take turns speaking. This is partly because of how our bodies work; only one person can talk at a time. A key challenge in conversations is how to switch who is speaking in an orderly way. In some situations, such as in a classroom or courtroom, one person (e.g., a teacher or judge) controls who speaks. However, in most everyday conversations, participants manage this switching themselves.

In an important study (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson, 1974), CA researchers found ways that people organize their speaking turns. They introduced the idea of "turn-constructional units" (TCUs). These are parts of speech where a speaker might end and another might begin. At the end of each TCU, there are opportunities for someone else to take their turn.

2.2.2 Sequence Organization

Looking at how people take turns in conversation helps us understand how they start and stop speaking, but it doesn't tell us what they do while they're talking. To grasp this, we need to focus on the sequence of the conversation; essentially, where it's headed compared to where it has been.

A key issue in conversations is figuring out not just how to pass the speaking turn, but also what action has just occurred and what responses it invites. This is important for all kinds of interactions, whether formal or casual, although different settings can influence how these actions unfold.

In a famous lecture, Sacks (1992) explained how conversations typically progress based on the sequence of exchanges. For instance, if someone greets you with "hello," it usually prompts a greeting in return. Similarly, if someone introduces themselves, it often leads to more introductions. By examining the sequence of dialogue, we can see where the first speaker is trying to guide the conversation. The responses from others show how they interpret that speaker's actions and whether they want to continue in the same direction.

2.2.3 Repair Organization

CA has also looked at how people handle misunderstandings or mishearings in social interactions. Since human interaction is largely self-organized, it can face challenges when things go wrong. Sequence organization refers to how one person's actions lead to responses from others, creating a shared understanding. When a misunderstanding happens, speakers have ways to address it through practices of "repair." This involves identifying the issue and then correcting it (e.g. replacing a wrong word).

The distinction between starting and completing a repair was first discussed by CA researchers in an important paper (Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks, 1977). While it might

seem that completing a repair always requires two people, the focus of their work was on self-initiated, self-completed repairs. This means that speakers often check their own speech for problems and use various techniques (e.g. cutting off their speech) to correct themselves (Schegloff, 2013).

2.2.4 Organization of Turn Design

Just as researchers can analyze when speakers take their turns in conversation and what they do during those turns, they can also study how they construct those turns. This means looking at the ways people use language and other resources to shape their interactions. Unlike the established areas of turn-taking, sequence, and repair, there isn't a single foundational paper on turn design. However, Drew (2012) emphasizes that all CA research is interested in how speakers put their turns together and how listeners understand these designs to recognize the social actions involved.

Examining turn design, such as the wording, key phrases that show a speaker's attitude, and other elements, reveals how a speaker is responding to what has happened before while also considering what might happen next. Importantly, turn design isn't just about language; it also includes aspects like prosody, rhythm, and other physical cues, which can be used with or without spoken words to shape interactions.

2.2.5 Gaze Direction

While some early CA data mainly consisted of telephone conversations, researchers in this area have always focused on face-to-face interactions. A key aspect of these interactions is that people can see each other and their surroundings. For instance, in a study by Goodwin (1979), a speaker changes what he says based on whether his listeners are looking at him. He starts with a simple statement and gradually makes it more detailed, adjusting his words as he

notices which listeners are paying attention. Goodwin's work shows that successful social interaction depends on being aware of where others are looking, as this indicates their engagement and affects how the conversation progresses.

2.2.6 Gestural Resources

Face-to-face interactions rely on many different resources, including both spoken language and body movements. A major resource is gesture; people use their whole bodies to emphasize or clarify their speech in relation to their surroundings. Observing how gestures are used can help analyze the accompanying talk. For instance, in a study by Schegloff (1984), he examines how gestures, like pointing, can reveal insights about turn-taking in conversation. He shows how gestures can indicate when a listener might expect the speaker to finish, allowing them to take their turn. Schegloff's work highlights how analyzing gestures can help understand when a listener starts to anticipate the end of a speaker's turn, even before that person actually speaks.

2.2.7 Postural Configurations

Embodiment offers many resources for social interaction, with gestures being the most obvious due to their clear, physical movements. However, postures, also known as bodily comportment, play a crucial role as well. These involve how the body is positioned, often over longer periods, and can influence how interactions unfold. For example, someone might twist their body or turn their head in different directions. In a key study, Schegloff (1998) explored these postures, particularly focusing on "body torque." Unlike gestures that often happen alongside speech, postures can last longer and create a framework for how speech and gestures occur. They also show how engaged a person is in different activities during a conversation. For instance, if someone is typing on a computer and a person

approaches them, they might turn their body toward the newcomer, displaying that they are trying to balance their attention between typing and talking.

2.2.8 Material Objects

Recognizing that social interaction is fundamentally embodied means also understanding that it happens in a physical world where people don't just talk about objects; they also manipulate them. While this awareness of materiality is a relatively recent focus in CA, researchers studying writing as an interactional activity have long emphasized the importance of objects. For instance, Streeck and Kallmeyer (2001) explored how writing is not just a result of interaction but is also an integral part of it; the act of writing, or "graphic gesture," can be a complete turn in a conversation. These written inscriptions are powerful social actions because they are not only visible as gestures but also make tangible changes to the paper (e.g. leaving marks). This physical change is crucial, as it helps others recognize the significance of these actions during and after the interaction.

2.3 Conversation Analysis and Writing-in-Interaction

Building on CA research about inscription as social action (e.g. Streeck and Kallmeyer, 2001), the past decade has seen the emergence of a research program focused on "writing-in-interaction." This section will outline the key concepts of this program and discuss how they relate to the current study of feedback documentation.

2.3.1 Basic Concepts

In a detailed overview of ethnomethodology and conversation analysis (EMCA) research on writing, Mondada and Svinhufvud (2016) identify four important distinctions relevant to the study of writing-in-interaction. These distinctions are essential for understanding how writing functions in social settings, and they will be discussed below.

Additionally, the concept of multiactivity will be addressed, as it plays a crucial role in this area of research.

The first distinction is between handwriting and typewriting. This refers to where writing occurs, on a document in front of someone (De Stefani et al., 2016) versus on a computer screen (Salomaa & Lehtinen, 2023), and how it is physically executed (using a pen versus typing). This difference affects how attention is organized during the interaction.

The second distinction involves the role of writing: it can be central (e.g. creating text for a group project, Magnusson, 2021) or peripheral (e.g. taking notes during a discussion, Hall & Butler, 2017). Writing can either be an independent task or a support for collaborative work.

The third distinction concerns decision-making in writing. Sometimes, what gets written down is determined by one person, like in note-taking (Svinhufvud, 2016) or filling out forms (Moore, Whalen & Gathman, 2010), while at other times, decisions are made collectively (e.g. when a non-writer corrects another's writing, Monteiro, 2016).

The final distinction is about the visibility of writing. Writing can be made public to others, either visually, like writing on a large paper in a room (Mondada, 2011, 2016b), or audibly, like talking while writing (Mortensen, 2013). On the other hand, it can also be private, where others do not have access to what is being written .

Alongside these distinctions, the concept of multiactivity is foundational to understanding writing-in-interaction (Haddington et al., 2014). Multiactivity refers to how different activities can overlap and influence each other during social interactions. Importantly, activities may progress at different speeds, and one activity can take priority over another. This relationship is dynamic and visible through how participants organize their actions.

Mondada (2014) highlights different ways that activities can relate to each other. They can occur simultaneously without coordination, or one activity might be delayed in favor of another. Often, however, activities are interconnected, where one activity becomes part of another. Analyzing how this embedding respects or disrupts the flow of each activity, like interruptions or restarts, offers valuable insights for researchers.

2.3.2 Writing-in-Educational Interaction

The study of writing-in-interaction also needs to consider the specific context of institutions. In the ‘people-processing organizations’ (Hasenfeld, 1972) that are schools, particularly in K-12 education, students often work in groups but are evaluated individually. This raises important questions about the distinction between public and private writing, especially in the context of handwriting during classroom interactions.

For instance, Szymanski (1999, 2002) explored collaborative writing in elementary schools and showed how a student's writing can prompt conversations among peers. Similarly, Jakonen (2016) examined individual writing tasks in secondary schools and found that access to a classmate's writing is not automatically granted; it must be requested or negotiated, especially if someone is still working on their task.

Mlyňař (2023) studied high school students’ collaborative writing and highlighted that even when students can see each other’s writing, it’s often the movements of the pen or gaze, rather than the written words themselves, that guide their interactions, such as asking for help.

These studies form a focused body of research on handwriting in K-12 classrooms and set the stage for the current study, which aims to explore how visual access impacts the public-private distinction. However, analyzing this distinction requires additional tools

because the current research focuses on interactions between a teacher and a student, rather than among peers.

The next sections will review studies that look at one-on-one writing interactions between institutional agents (e.g. teachers) and their clients (e.g. students) in educational and other contexts. By narrowing the focus to these interactions, the goal is to identify the best analytical tools for examining how writing influences the feedback process during formal reading assessments.

2.3.3 Accomplishing Private Writing

In their manifesto on writing-in-interaction, Mondada and Svinhufvud (2016) highlight the importance of privacy and publicity in writing activities. Ruusuvuori (2001) explores how private writing functions in doctor-patient interactions. During medical consultations, doctors often read and write notes while patients explain their issues. Ruusuvuori shows that patients' speech can become disfluent when they notice doctors disengaging to write. This creates tension because patients need doctors' attention while they speak. To minimize this conflict, doctors can time their gaze shifts to their notes with the ends of patients' TCUs, allowing for smooth transitions in both writing and conversation.

Hazel and Mortensen (2014) find another solution in university counseling sessions. They demonstrate how students adapt their talk to accommodate counselors who are writing. Students modify their gestures and facial expressions based on where counselors are looking. For example, when a counselor begins writing, a student might stop using facial expressions or two-handed gestures, opting instead for lower-placed, single-handed gestures instead to ensure their actions are recognized.

Svinhufvud (2016) highlights that the challenges of writing and listening affect both speakers and listeners. In counseling sessions, counselors must show they are listening while

also taking notes. Svinhufvud notes that counselors use nods to indicate they are engaged in the conversation even while focusing on their writing. This allows them to participate in both listening and writing activities simultaneously.

These studies illustrate how writing plays a critical role in creating shared understanding in conversations. In each case, written records are not only present but also discussed as part of the interaction. However, these studies often overlook the actual written materials produced. Only Hazel and Mortensen (2014) touch on a specific writing example, and even that is brief.

Overall, these studies focus on how writing helps shape conversation rather than analyzing the material products of writing. A common theme across these interactions is the intersection of actions initiated by speakers and the listening-writers. This interaction shows how both parties navigate the significance of what is being written down and how they ensure important points are recognized and noted.

2.3.4 Making Private Writing Public

The concept of private writing as an interactional accomplishment extends to its transformation into public writing through various means, including materiality, embodiment, and talk. Analyzing this process reveals how writing not only serves as a record of interaction but also as a resource for ongoing conversation.

Moore, Whalen, and Gathman (2010) illustrate this dynamic in their study at a reprographics service counter, where the interaction between customers and employees relies heavily on order forms. These forms not only document orders but also become visible artifacts that customers can assess as they are filled out. The materiality of these inscriptions facilitates a collaborative process where customers monitor the details and quality of the record being created, highlighting the interactional significance of written forms.

In contrast, Pälli and Lehtinen (2014) focus on performance appraisal interviews where the embodied practices of writing take center stage. Here, employees and supervisors write on their own forms, often positioned in a way that makes it difficult for each to see the other's work. The forward-facing orientation leads to a situation where each participant's writing is largely private. In this context, the performance of writing, such as gestures or verbal acknowledgments of what is being written, becomes crucial for sharing the writing process without visual access to the content itself. This illustrates how embodied displays can serve to bridge the gap created by the lack of visibility in private writing.

Monteiro (2016) further expands on this idea by examining social work interviews where social workers write down clients' addresses. Unlike the previous studies, clients can observe the social workers' writing, allowing them to adjust their own speech pace to match the writing speed. Here, the act of reading aloud while writing enhances transparency and coordination, emphasizing the multimodal nature of writing-in-interaction. The interplay of visual access and vocalization helps solidify the connection between the written content and the ongoing conversation.

While these studies contribute to understanding how material objects influence interaction, they often focus on the present use of inscriptions without delving into how past inscriptions inform current actions. Although Moore et al. (2010) and Monteiro (2016) note the relevance of past writing for future actions, a deeper exploration of how specific past inscriptions are utilized in present interactions remains largely unexamined. This presents a gap in understanding how the material remnants of writing can shape the trajectory of interaction over time, necessitating further investigation into the role of past inscriptions as resources for present and future communicative actions.

2.3.5 Writing-in-interaction and Feedback

The literature on writing-in-interaction highlights significant challenges for educators when providing feedback through written documentation, particularly in regards to formal FA in K-12 contexts. While previous studies have focused on feedback and writing in educational settings outside K-12, there is a noticeable gap in research addressing how these dynamics play out within K-12 formative assessment, particularly regarding feedback documentation.

Leyland and Riley (2021) explore the concept of deferred feedback during Enhanced Conversations-for-Learning (ECfL) in a private language school. They illustrate how instructors navigate the tension between allowing students to speak freely and needing to address errors later. Instructors achieve this by writing down errors while encouraging students to continue talking. Interestingly, both students and instructors engage in a form of "civil inattention" (Goffman 1963), where the act of writing becomes an unnoticed background activity that nonetheless plays a critical role in the interaction. This raises important questions about how materiality and embodiment facilitate the later use of these private inscriptions for feedback.

Ro (2023) builds on this by analyzing how tutors at a university reintroduce previously inscribed records during practice sessions. The challenge lies in reintroducing these past inscriptions in a way that maintains interactional continuity. Ro shows that successful reintroduction involves not just verbal or gestural references but also the creation of composite graphical objects (e.g., circles and arrows) that help anchor the feedback discussion. In this collaborative process, visual access to the writing surface is crucial, allowing students to engage with the inscriptions actively.

These studies contribute valuable insights into how feedback can be organized around both the production of inscriptions and their subsequent utilization. Leyland and Riley's

(2021) work highlights how initial inscriptions may not be explicitly tied to student errors, while Ro's (2023) analysis demonstrates the potential for transforming private inscriptions into public, collaborative resources. However, both studies focus on planned inscriptions, which may differ fundamentally from the spontaneous, standardized documentation generated during formal reading assessments.

In formal reading formative assessments, teachers create numerous inscriptions in real time, documenting mispronunciations, omissions, and other reading behaviors without the foresight of these notes being used for specific feedback later. This difference in the nature of the inscriptions prompts the need for further research into how teachers can leverage these unplanned documents as resources for feedback.

Investigating how teachers mobilize the potential of these spontaneous inscriptions during formal reading assessments can enhance our understanding of the interactional dynamics at play. This inquiry could reveal the strategies educators employ to transform real-time observations into constructive feedback, ultimately enriching the field of writing-in-interaction within K-12 contexts.

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3 METHODS

3.1 Introduction

3.1.1 Objectives

The study seeks to understand the relationship between inscription and feedback during formal formative reading assessments, specifically focusing on how this relationship impacts the assessment of L2 students. To effectively explore this, it's essential to first outline the general practices of inscription and feedback.

3.1.2 Questions

In order to pursue the aims of the study, it will be guided by the following questions:

- (1) How do K-12 teachers and student accomplish feedback *after* performance and its written documentation during formal reading FA?
- (2) How do K-12 teachers and student accomplish feedback *during* performance and its written documentation during formal reading FA?
- (3) How might the interactional and material organizations of both types of feedback affect the purposeful participation of L2 students in formal reading FA?

3.2 Data

3.2.1 Site

To answer the research questions, data was collected from a school where formal reading assessments happen regularly and where there are L2 students. The study took place at an English-medium international school in a large city in Japan. This school is accredited by a U.S. organization and follows a U.S.-based curriculum for kindergarten through 12th grade. Its students come from diverse backgrounds, including expatriates, diplomats, and

business professionals, and about one-third of them were receiving help to improve their English when the data was collected.

At this school, English language arts are taught using a reader's workshop model. In this approach, students create personal collections of books that are suitable for their reading levels. The classroom library organizes books based on how difficult they are to read. Knowing a student's reading level is important for many stakeholders. Each book shows its reading level on the cover, allowing students to compare themselves. Parents are informed about their child's reading level and may question the teaching methods affecting their child's progress. Teachers' choices are also assessed by school administrators, who use reading level data to determine what support teachers might need.

During this data collection, the researcher worked as a teacher at the school.

3.2.1.1 Participants. To answer the study's questions, participants need to include both students who receive help with their English and those who do not, ensuring a mix of proficiency levels in the language used for instruction and assessment. The language skills of their teachers do not affect this requirement.

For the study, 20 students and six teachers from kindergarten to grade five were recruited. Most of the students (n=16) used English as a second language, but only eight were receiving support for their English development at the time of data collection. This means that a majority of the student participants (n=12) were highly proficient in English, and many used it at home as their first language.

3.2.1.2 Assessment. To answer the study's question, participants need to be observed while taking formal reading assessments. These assessments are a key part of the school's personalized approach to reading instruction. In the reader's workshop model, elementary teachers assign each student a suitable reading level based on their development.

Formal reading assessments are conducted regularly throughout the school year, and teachers can administer them as needed. These assessments help the school meet external accreditation standards. The teacher documents each assessment in writing and files it in a folder that follows the student throughout their time at the school. All elementary students, regardless of their language learning status, take these formal assessments to find the right reading level for language arts. The results are shared among teachers, school officials, students, and their parents.

3.2.1.3 Instrument. At the school, teachers must use the second edition of a commercial assessment tool called the Developmental Reading Assessment 2, or DRA®2 (Beaver and Carter, 2006). This tool includes a collection of leveled reading passages, a shorter version for progress monitoring, resources to help with instruction, and documentation for reporting results. DRA®2 focuses on oral reading fluency and reading comprehension by assessing a student's reading performance during the test (Pearson Education Inc., 2011).

When administering the DRA®2, teachers guide students through various reading tasks using standardized materials, such as reading passages and evaluation rubrics. The quality of these tasks can vary. All levels of the DRA®2 assess oral reading fluency, while some levels also test skills like decoding and vocabulary. Students might be asked to identify important story elements, retell the story from memory, or make personal connections to the story's message and characters.

The test materials (e.g. administrator guide) are not explicit about the degree to which teachers are allowed to make accommodations or modifications to the procedure. However, it does say in a frequently asked questions (FAQ) at the end of the guide that teachers should avoid additional prompts during the test. In reality, teachers make a range of modifications,

both during and after the test administration. In doing so, the teachers appropriate the DRA®2 as tool to initiate discussions with their students about their reading development.

3.2.2 Procurement

3.2.2.1 Ethics. To ensure the study followed ethical practices for research involving humans, the researcher consulted the Research Ethics Committee at the school. An application was submitted and approved before any data was collected.

3.2.2.1.1 Review. To apply to the Research Ethics Committee, the researcher submitted a research proposal, drafts of emails to inform parents and guardians about the study, and drafts of consent and assent forms for students and teachers. After receiving feedback, changes were made to the wording of the forms to ensure they were suitable for the school environment.

3.2.2.1.2 Recruiting. Teachers were invited to join the study individually, and all agreed to participate. They received consent forms to read and return later. Next, the researcher approached students in groups during break time in their classrooms, with their teacher present. Each child received an explanation of the study and, depending on their age, an assent form to take home. On the same day, parents or guardians were contacted electronically to invite their child to participate and informed that their child would bring home documents from the researcher.

3.2.2.1.3 Consenting. Teachers received two copies of the consent form, which outlined the study's goals, procedures, potential benefits, and possible drawbacks. The form also included contact information for the researcher and the Ethics Review Committee chair

for any questions or if they decided to withdraw from the study later. Teachers signed one form and kept the other for their records.

3.2.2.1.4 Assenting. Students aged 7-12, whose parents had agreed to their participation, received two copies of an assent form written in simple language. The researcher read and explained the form to the students in small groups during breaktime in a nearby classroom. Students signed one form and took the other home for their parents to keep.

3.2.2.2 Recordings.

3.2.2.2.1 Logistics. To analyze formal formative reading assessments, the researcher needed to record multiple sessions using audio-visual equipment. Over one school year, about five hours of video recordings were collected, documenting 25 instances of the DRA®2 assessment. The researcher, who was a full-time teacher at the school, worked with classroom teachers to schedule these tests. The assessments occurred in various locations, both inside and outside the classroom, often near other students engaged in their own work. Each test lasted between five and 20 minutes and was recorded without an observer present, using one or two fixed cameras and high-definition lapel microphones.

3.2.2.2.2 Videos. The five-hour audio-visual collection includes 25 unique sessions of the DRA®2 assessment. Table 3.1 below shows key details about this data, such as the student's grade level, the DRA®2 materials used, the duration of each recording, and the number of camera angles employed. Excerpts marked with asterisks were used in the analysis presented in the next chapter.

Table 3.1*Overview of Audio-Visual Recordings From DRA®2 Administration*

Datum	Grade Level	DRA®2 Level	Recording Time	Camera Angles
DRA01	5	Level 50	07:42	2
DRA02	5	Level 40	10:12	1
DRA03	5	Level 40	12:22	1
*DRA04	K	Level 02	14:09	2
DRA05	3	Level 28	11:26	1
*DRA06	K	Level 06	22:42	2
DRA09	2	Level 18	09:50	1
DRA10	3	Level 24	11:06	1
DRA11	K	Level 01	07:23	2
DRA12	2	Level 02	06:24	1
*DRA13	3	Level 38	21:44	1
*DRA14	K	Level 06	12:18	2
DRA15	3	Level 16	12:52	2
DRA16	3	Level 18	09:56	1
DRA17	3	Level 38	10:19	1
DRA18	K	Level 01	09:57	2
DRA19	2	Level 28	16:14	1
DRA20	2	Level 04	10:40	2
DRA21	3	Level 20	12:48	2
DRA22	3	Level 24	12:15	2
DRA23	3	Level 28	10:30	2
DRA24	2	Level 30	13:56	2
DRA25	1	Level 18	16:11	2
DRA26	1	Level 03	09:12	2
DRA27	1	Level 16	12:45	2

3.2.2.2.3 Protection. To keep the study participants anonymous, I replaced their names with fake names and changed most proper nouns to alternatives in the data transcripts. Additionally, I used iMovie (Apple, 2024) to blur the faces of participants in screenshots taken from video recordings, ensuring their identities are protected.

3.2.2.3 Documentation.

3.2.2.3.1 Procedures. During each DRA®2 assessment, teachers write notes directly on their administrator scripts, which are standardized forms that come with the DRA®2 tool. These forms encourage handwriting by providing places to circle, check, or underline student

responses, as well as blank spaces for longer answers (e.g. story retellings). These handwritten notes are part of the data for this study and were collected in two ways. First, the researcher made electronic scans of the assessment materials after the assessments were completed. Second, video cameras were used to capture the teachers' writing as it happened, adding this process to the video record. This decision to record the writing was made during the study, and due to issues such as equipment problems, changes in lighting, and unexpected movements by participants, this method was not possible for every assessment.

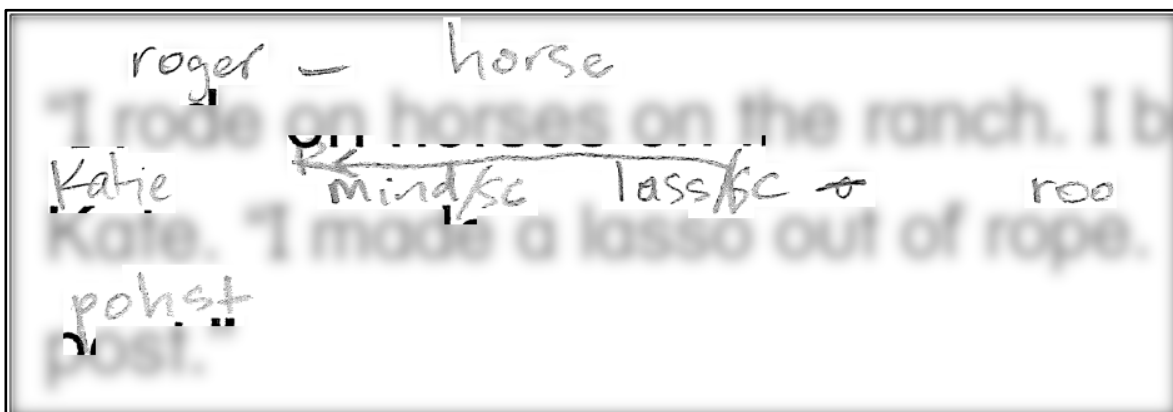
When analyzing the documents, the focus always began on the inscriptions rather than on the details of the DRA®2 materials themselves. Thus, when presenting scanned excerpts of the administrator scripts throughout this dissertation, steps were taken to reduce the readability (i.e. redact by blurring the image) of the DRA®2 materials. By doing so, the aim was to prevent readers of this dissertation from reconstructing the DRA®2 test, in its parts or its entirety. However, focusing on the inscriptions sometimes required analysis of specific details of the DRA®2 test materials (e.g. location of inscriptions vis-à-vis printed text consisting of test prompts and possible answers; c.f. Figure 4.17 and Table 4.2, chapter 4, subsection 4.3, below). In these instances only were images of the DRA®2 not redacted.

3.2.2.3.2 *Inscriptions.* Electronic scans were made of the teacher's administrator script for each of the 25 DRA®2 assessments, and each video in Table 3.1 is paired with one of these scans. Table 3.2 provides key details about this data, including the length of the scanned script and the level of visibility of the writing process in the videos. This means whether the camera shows the teacher's writing movements, how the pen touches the paper, details on the document (e.g., paragraphs or pictures), or the shapes of the notes being made. It's important to note that even when the video captures these details, the teacher's movements can sometimes block important information from being seen.

Table 3.2*Data Records of the Inscriptions Made During DRA®2 Administration*

Datum	Scan Length	Access to Inscribing activity			
		Implement	Contact	Surface	Inscriptions
DRA01	8 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DRA02	8 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DRA03	8 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DRA04	4 pages	Yes	Yes	No	No
DRA05	8 pages	Yes	No	No	No
DRA06	6 pages	Yes	No	No	No
DRA09	8 pages	Yes	No	Yes	No
DRA10	8 pages	Yes	No	No	No
DRA11	2 pages	Yes	No	No	No
DRA12	4 pages	Yes	No	Yes	No
DRA13	4 pages	Yes	No	No	No
DRA14	6 pages	Yes	No	No	No
DRA15	8 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DRA16	8 pages	Yes	No	Yes	No
DRA17	8 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DRA18	2 pages	Yes	Yes	No	No
DRA19	8 pages	Yes	Yes	No	No
DRA20	6 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
DRA21	8 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
DRA22	8 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DRA23	8 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DRA24	8 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DRA25	8 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DRA26	4 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
DRA27	14 pages	Yes	Yes	Yes	No

Figure 3.1 below provides an example of the inscriptions which were recovered by scanning.

Figure 3.1*Inscriptions Recovered by Scanning the Administrator Script From Datum DRA15*

Figures 3.2-3.5 show the variety of access to inscribing to be found in the audio-visual corpus.

Figure 3.2

Camera Angles That Provide Access Only to Movement of the Writing Implement

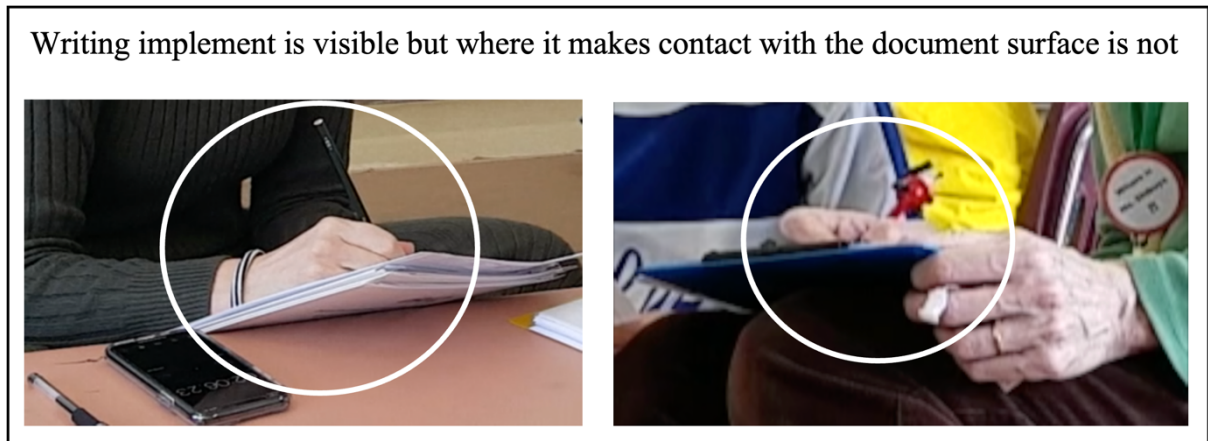


Figure 3.3

Camera Angles Providing Access to Contact Between Implement and Document

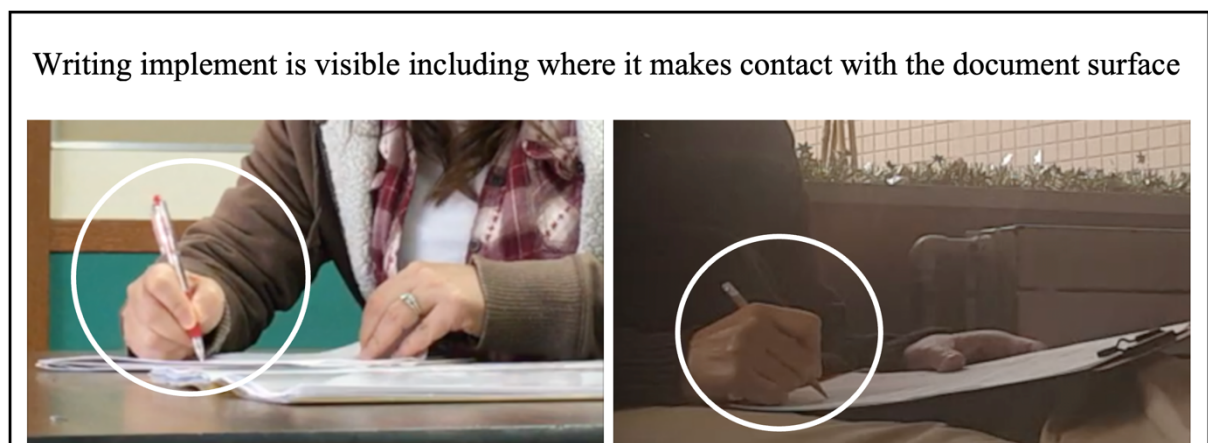


Figure 3.4

Camera Angles That Provide Access to Details of the Document Surface

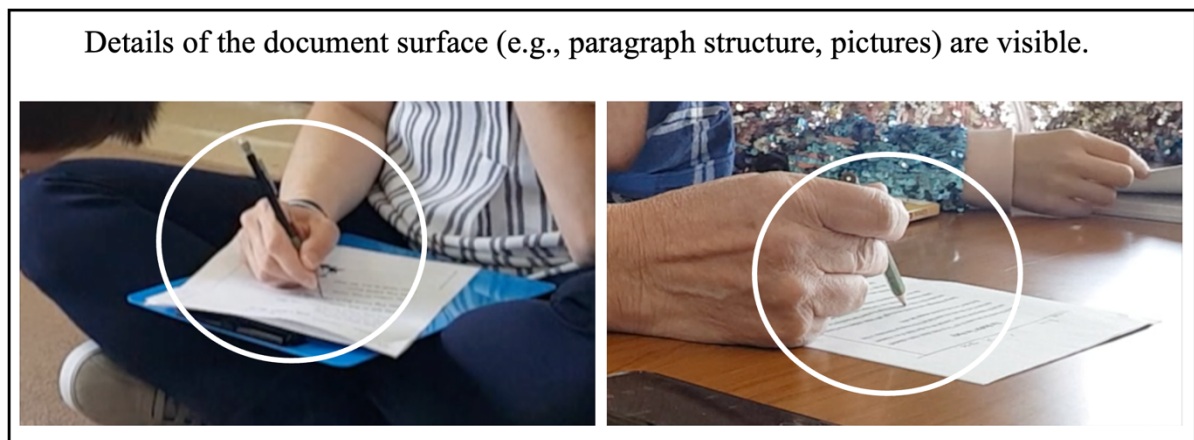
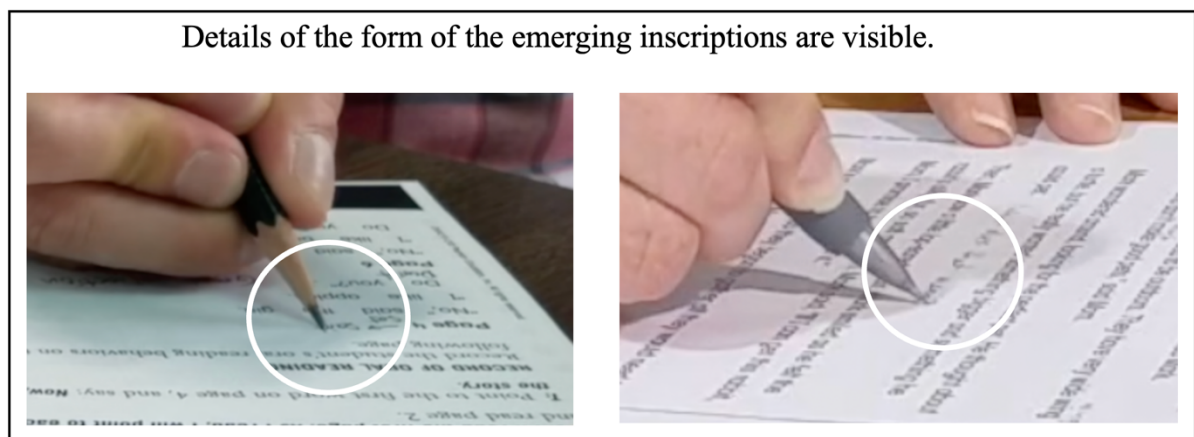


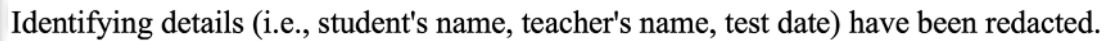
Figure 3.5

Camera Angles That Provide Access to the Form of Emerging Inscriptions



3.2.2.3.3 Redaction. To protect the anonymity of study participants, any information that could identify them has been removed from the electronic scans of the assessment materials used in this paper (i.e. background for data analysis). Figure 3.6 below shows examples of this redaction.

Anonymized Administrator Scripts



3.3.1 Analytical Focus

3.3.1.1 Locating. Identifying an analytical focus started with "unmotivated looking." This is a method used in CA, where the researcher observes data without a specific idea in mind. By not assuming what is important before looking at the data, the researcher can find unexpected phenomena. In this study, the first data collected (DRA13) was reviewed multiple times, leading to the identification of a specific interaction sequence for deeper analysis. This resulted in the single-case analysis described in section 4.3 of the analysis chapter. During this process, the practice of *documenting feedback* was discovered, which was initially reported in Tomasine (2022a).

3.3.1.2 Situating. After completing the single-case analysis of the identified interaction sequence, the next step was to place that sequence within the larger context of the entire interaction event from which it came. This involved watching the full video (DRA13) multiple times and closely examining the teacher's administrator script. By doing this, the researcher could identify a series of interaction sequences throughout the assessment event, which provided context for documenting feedback. These sequences were collected and analyzed, leading to the chronological analysis presented in section one of the analysis chapter. Through this process, practices related to documenting feedback were uncovered, which were first reported in Tomasine (2024a).

3.3.1.3 Expanding. After situating the single-case analysis within the larger interaction event and institutional context, the final step was to broaden this analysis into a general understanding of the practice of documenting feedback. This involved searching through the entire data set, including more than just the original video (DRA13) and the teacher's administrator script, to find other examples of this practice.

Once potential instances were identified, each one was analyzed individually as a single case. This process helped determine which instances would be included in a developing collection of the practice. The collection was then analyzed as a whole, comparing and contrasting the individual cases, while also examining each instance in relation to the collection. The detailed methods for this collection-based analysis will be outlined in the following subsections, leading up to the presentation of results in the next chapter. Results of the collection-based analysis were first reported in Tomasine (2024b).

3.3.2 Single-Case Analysis

Each piece of data selected for analysis, whether from the initial data (as discussed in 3.3.1.1), the chronological data it was taken from (in 3.3.1.2), or the expanded collection (in 3.3.1.3), went through a single-case analysis. The goal of this analysis is to understand the internal structure of social interactions, which participants experience as a single event.

While single-case analysis can lead to its own research findings (e.g. in Tomasine, 2022a), it also plays a crucial role in analyzing larger collections of data (as seen in Tomasine, 2024b).

3.3.2.1 Talk-in-Interaction. A key part of any single-case analysis is understanding how the social interaction is organized, especially in the talk between participants. This involves closely observing how they manage turn-taking, organize sequences of conversation, handle misunderstandings, and design their responses. These structures can be analyzed through the process of transcription, which captures the details of the interaction.

3.3.2.1.1 Transcription. All data excerpts in this study were transcribed using the conventions of Jefferson (2004) for analyzing conversation. These conventions help highlight important features of how people interact. For example, turn-taking is shown by placing each new turn on a new line, making it clear where one person stops talking. The timing of pauses between turns helps the reader see if the responses are connected. Additionally, the way repairs (corrections) and turn designs are presented allows the reader to notice details in speech, like how long a vowel is held or if someone cuts off their words. This helps to understand how speakers emphasize or downplay certain parts of their conversation. Table 3.3 below lists some symbols used in these transcriptions.

Table 3.3*Symbols for Transcribing Talk-in-interaction, Adapted From Jefferson (2004)*

Symbol	Convention
< >	Indicates utterance (part) is slowed down compared to the surrounding talk.
> <	Indicates utterance (part) is speeded up compared to the surrounding talk.
—	Indicates some form of stress via pitch and/or amplitude.
::	Indicates prolongation of prior sound. More colons denote longer prolongation.
(1.8)	Indicates elapsed time by tenths of seconds.
(.)	Indicates brief interval ($\pm$ tenth of a second) within or between utterances.
-	Indicates utterance is cut-off.
° °	Indicates sounds are softer than the surrounding talk.
CAP	Indicates sounds are louder than the surrounding talk.
. , ı ?	Indicates falling, continuing, slightly rising and rising intonation, respectively.
=	Indicates no break or gap. Also indicates single speaker's talk is produced continuously.
[]	Indicates the onset and offset of overlapping talk.
£	Indicates talk produced through the suppression of laughter.

Excerpt 3.1 presents an example of how these symbols are used in Jeffersonian transcription.

Excerpt 3.1: Jeffersonian Symbols Used in Transcription

```

01  T:      Okay next. (0.2) so ↑what di-↑ (0.4)
02          Can you make any connections.
03          (0.8)
04  S:      Mm:
```

3.3.2.1.2 Roughing. Transcription is not just about preparing the data; it is a key part of the analysis itself. The way data is transcribed reflects the ideas and theories of the person doing the transcribing. However, transcription by itself isn't the complete analysis. Instead, the researcher uses the transcript to examine how basic interactional structures, like turn-taking, function within the data. This process is known as "roughing the data surface."

3.3.2.1.2.1 Turns. Roughing the data's surface in terms of turn-taking means examining how each turn is structured in relation to the turns before and after it. This involves looking at how a turn is gained (e.g. whether given by someone else or taken independently), how it's constructed (e.g. if the turn is spoken with a single intonation contour or not), and how it indicates who speaks next (e.g. if the turn is allocated through a question or invitation).

Table 3.4 shows an example of this analysis for the turn that starts in line 05 and continues until line 07 in Excerpt 3.2 below.

Excerpt 3.2: Roughing for Turn Taking Organization

01 T: Okay next. (0.2) so ↑what di-↑ (0.4)
 02 Can you make any connections.
 03 (0.8)
 04 S: Mm:
 05 T: What did the story make you think of.
 06 (0.8)
 07 T: Remember we talked about connections last time?
 (...)

Table 3.4

Example of Roughing for Turn Taking Organization for the Turn From Lines 05-07

Line	Talk	Turn-acquisition	Turn-construction	Turn-allocation	Notes
05-07	"What..." -	C self-selects	Two TCUs with continuous intonation contours, separate by a gap/pause*	C selects N	*S's response was absent and T pursued with second TCU
	"...of." "Remember..." - "...time?"	C self-selects		C selects N	

3.3.2.1.2.2 Sequences. Roughing the data's surface regarding sequence organization involves analyzing how parts of conversations are structured. This means looking at

adjacency pairs (e.g. the first part of a question and the expected response) and how these adjacency pairs relate to each other (e.g., through pre-sequences, base sequences, or post-expansions).

Table 3.5 below shows an example of this analysis for the sequence that starts in line 07 and continues until line 07 in Excerpt 3.3 below.

Excerpt 3.3: Roughing for Sequence Organization

```

    (...)
05  T:    What did the story make you think of.
06        (0.8)
07  T:    Remember we talked about connections last time?
08  S:    Yeah;
09  T:    °Okay.°
10        (0.2)
11  T:    So when you read this story, (0.4) ↑what- (.) ↑what do
12        you think of.
13        (0.4)
14  T:    About yourself.=°°How do you think?°°
15        (9.6)
16  S:    I- (0.2) I think (.) no:.
17        (3.2)
18  T:    Okay (...)

```

Table 3.5

Example of Roughing for Sequence Organization for the Sequence From Lines 05-17

Sequence	Structure	Line	Talk	Notes
#2	FPP ^{base}	05	"What..." - "...of."	
	FPP ^{pre}	07	"Remember..." - "...time?"	
	SPP ^{pre}	08	"Yeah;"	
	SCT ^{pre}	09	"Okay."	
	FPP ^{base}	11-12	"So..." - "...of."	
	FPP ^{base}	14	"About..." - "...think?"	
	SPP ^{base}	16	"I..." - "...no."	
	SCT ^{base}	17	"Okay"	

Note. The gross structure of a larger sequence can be schematized by identifying the smaller sequences which comprise it, including the base sequence and any pre-sequences (pre), as well as first-pair parts (FPP), second-pair parts (SPP) and sequence-closing thirds (SCT).

3.3.2.1.2.3 Repairs. Roughing the data's surface regarding the organization of repair involves analyzing how corrections in conversation are started and completed, if they are completed at all. This includes identifying the source of the trouble, who initiated the repair, who finished it, what type of repair was made, and where the repair occurred in the conversation.

Table 3.6 below shows an example of this analysis for the repair that starts in line 01 and continues until line 02 in Excerpt 3.4 below.

Excerpt 3.4: Roughing for Repair Organization

01 T: Okay next. (0.2) so ↑what di-↑ (0.4)
02 Can you make any connections.

Table 3.6

Example of Roughing for Repair Organization for the Repair From Lines 01-02

Line	Talk	Trouble source	Initiation	Completion	Operation	Position
01-02	Okay next. (0.2) so ↑what di-↑ (0.4) Can you make any conne <u>ct</u> io ns.	question format: "so what did..." (potential: "...you connect to?")	Self	Self	Replacement	First position: same- turn self- repair

3.3.2.1.2.4 Designs. Roughing the data's surface concerning the organization of turn design means examining how the way a turn is formatted relates to the action it performs. This involves considering the type of action, the structure of the sentences, and any features of speech, all in the context of the ongoing interaction.

Table 3.7 below shows an example of this analysis for the turn that starts in line 07 in Excerpt 3.5 below.

Excerpt 3.5: Roughing for the Organization of Turn Design

07 T: Remember we talked about connections last time?

Table 3.7

Example of Roughing for the Organization of Turn Design for the Turn at Line 07

Line	Talk	Construction	Action	Production Features	Notes
07	"Remember we talked about connections last time?"	Positively formatted polar interrogative	request for confirmation, pre-	prefaced by "remember", back to "connections" from the earlier formatting, "connections" is punched up	mobilizes Ss moral responsibility to be able to answer a question of this type by topicalizing her past experience (learning about how to answer them)

3.3.2.2 Multimodality. Just as analyzing spoken language is essential, examining how people use different forms of communication (e.g., body language and gestures) is also important when they are together. This means paying attention to how participants use their bodies (e.g., eye contact and posture), handle objects (e.g., pens or papers), and interact with their environment (e.g., touching walls or floors).

These actions can be captured through a method called multimodal transcription, which involves watching the recordings multiple times and noting down details. This process can be enhanced with video-editing software (e.g. ELAN; Wittenburg et al., 2006) to help organize and analyze these different forms of communication effectively.

3.3.2.2.1 Scrubbing. Multimodal resources, such as gestures and body language, are just as important as spoken language in communication. However, in social science research, there's often an unexamined focus on language, overshadowing other resources. To address this, the researcher repeatedly watched the audio-visual recordings with the sound turned off, a technique known as "scrubbing." This practice helps the researcher pay closer attention to how people use their bodies and the materials around them during interactions. Table 3.8 below shows examples of the unstructured notes that came from this process.

Table 3.8

Example of Notes Generated Through Scrubbing of First 25 Seconds of DRA06

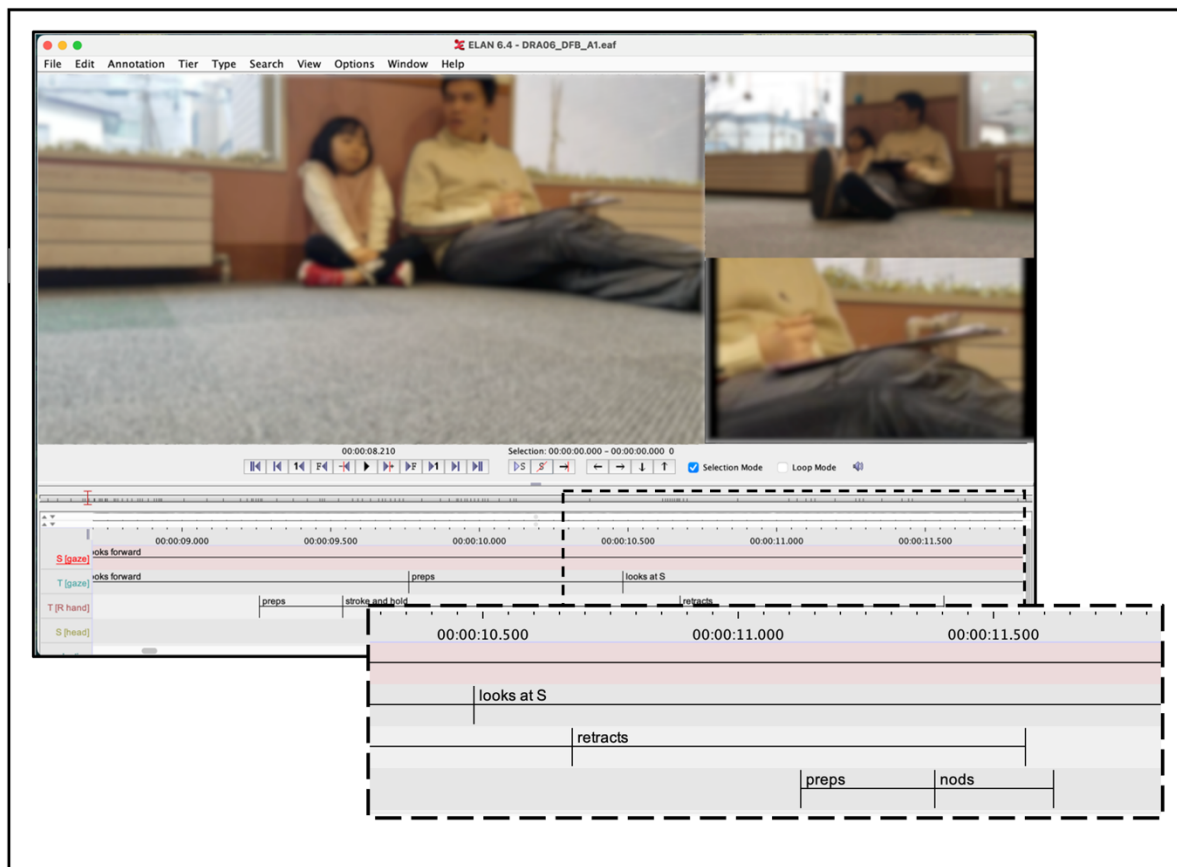
Time	Observation
00:00	T is gazing at and writing on his script, S is gazing at T's script
00:08	T does wrist-curl gesture repeatedly, gazes in the direction of S, S gazes away
00:11	T does small wrist curls, S gazes down and nods
00:15	T picks up the book and gestures to it, S gazes at the book, T puts the book down
00:19	T gestures and shoulder shrugs and gazes toward S
00:24	T assumes writing posture with pencil poised on the script and is gazing at the script, S gazes outward and away, cocks head to the side, T gazes toward her, S cocks her head to the other side, and to the other side again, T gazes slightly away from her, T nods once and writes

3.3.2.2.2 Annotation. While scrubbing helps researchers see how participants use multiple forms of communication at the same moment, the process of annotation allows for a deeper analysis of how these forms develop over time. This analysis uses the software ELAN (Wittenburg et al., 2006). ELAN enables researchers to combine and synchronize multiple audio and video files from different camera angles. Once everything is aligned on a common timeline, the researcher can annotate the data, adding details about each participant's various forms of communication, such as speech, eye movement, gestures, and posture. Within this framework, the timeline shows how each form appears, continues, and then disappears,

allowing for coordination between different resources (e.g. when a gesture is made and then withdrawn). Figure 3.7 below shows an example of this process.

Figure 3.7

Example of Annotations Within ELAN for Lines 07 and 08 in Datum DRA06



3.3.2.2.3 Multimodal Transcription. After annotating the development of different multimodal actions using ELAN (Wittenburg et al., 2006), researchers can then transcribe these interactions for closer analysis, comparison with other data, and presentation to audiences. In this study, the transcription of multimodal resources started by linking the development of these actions to the speech captured earlier through Jeffersonian transcriptions. The study used Mondada’s (2018) conventions for multimodal transcription,

which highlight the timing of physical actions that may or may not match the spoken words (Mondada, 2016a).

The aim of using Mondada's conventions is to help readers engage with the analysis by providing detailed transcripts. In these transcripts, spoken words are in bold for clarity and serve as a foundation against which the multimodal actions are coordinated, shown in a lighter font. The beginning, continuation, and end of these actions are marked with specific symbols (e.g., %, ø, +). These symbols are placed alongside the bold text and are aligned with brief descriptions of the actions for each participant (e.g. "t" for teacher). Table 3.9 below lists some of the symbols used in these multimodal transcriptions.

Table 3.9

Transcription Conventions Adopted From Mondada (2018)

Symbol	Convention
**	Descriptions of embodied actions are delimited between
++	two identical symbols (one symbol per participant and per type of action)
ΔΔ	that are synchronized with correspondent stretches of talk or time indications.
*--->	The action described continues across subsequent lines
--->*	until the same symbol is reached.
->(l. 48)	The action described continues to a (place) that is much later.
(l. 04)->	The action described continues from a (place) that is much earlier.
>>◇	The action described continues to a (place) that is after the excerpt ends.
◇->>	The action described continues from a (place) that is before the excerpt begins.
.....	Action's preparation.
----	Action's apex is reached and maintained.
,,,,,	Action's retraction.
ric	Participant doing the embodied action is identified in small caps in the margin.
fig	The exact moment at which a screen shot has been taken
#	is indicated with a sign (#) showing its position within the turn/a time measure.

Excerpt 3.6 below provides an example of multimodal transcription for lines 07 and 08 in in datum DRA06.

Excerpt 3.6: Mondadan Symbols used in Multimodal Transcription

```

07 T:      %øRe+member+we talkøed about conne:ctionø+last tiçme?+
s          >>%looks forward->>
t          >>ølooks forward---ø.....ølooks at S->>
t          +.....+gestures-----+,,,,,,,,,,,,,+
s                                          ç...->
08 S:      çYeahç
s          >çnodsç

```

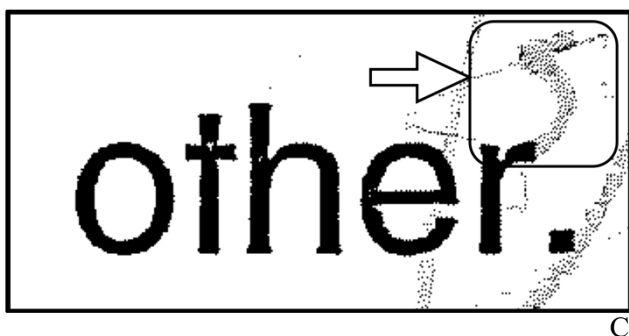
3.3.2.2.3 Reconstruction. There are limitations when transcribing multimodal actions, especially concerning how well we can capture everything using standard camera angles. For example, to accurately show written inscriptions, we need camera angles focused on the writing surface without any obstruction from the hand or pen. In this study, the need for such angles became clear as the researcher collected data and the camera positions were adjusted to highlight important activities. However, not all data met this standard (see Table 3.2 and Figures 3.3-3.6 above). Thus, when written inscriptions weren't visible in the video recordings, the researcher relied on electronic scans made of the teacher's scripts after the assessments (e.g., Figure 3.2, above).

This creates important methodological challenges. Without direct visual access to the writing during the assessments, we can't analyze these inscriptions in real-time, meaning they can't be transcribed as thoroughly. While we can estimate when these inscriptions appeared and how they developed from the scans, we must clearly communicate the level of confidence in this reconstruction to the audience. In the transcripts provided in this study, screenshots will be labeled (e.g., Fig 1, Fig 2, Fig 3) while the scans will be identified with letters (e.g., A, B, C) and clearly separated or labeled (e.g., Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3). Additionally, each transcript will include details about the camera angles and the quality of the data related to the inscriptions.

Excerpt 3.7 below demonstrates how reconstruction is used in a transcript from the datum DRA13.

Excerpt 3.7: Reconstructing Inscriptions within Transcriptions

29 S: ·hh In÷class, their teacher said I need a volunteer to=
t ÷writes 's' above 'other' [C]



3.3.3 Collection-Based Analysis

3.3.3.1 Search. The collection for this study started by looking at the single-case analysis reported in Tomasine (2022a). In that analysis, a teacher's intervention changed a typical test-item sequence, which usually includes a prompt, a response, and an acknowledgment. Here, the teacher's intervention happened after the student responded, which altered the usual order. Importantly, the teacher not only spoke (by initiating a correction) but also physically wrote down the student's initial response before intervening. The intervention continued until the student adjusted his answer, and the teacher updated her initial writing to reflect this change.

These aspects guided the researcher to search through the five-hour video data for similar test-item sequences where (a) the teacher's intervention expanded the sequence after the student's response, and (b) the teacher made an initial inscription that was later revised. In total, 25 such sequences were found in the corpus. All of these sequences were transcribed using Jefferson's (2004) conventions for conversation. After that, Mondada's (2018)

conventions for embodied actions were used to transcribe the teacher's movements in and out of writing and coordinate them with the spoken dialogue.

3.3.3.2 Screening. To decide which sequences to include in the collection, careful single-case analysis was conducted. Each potential instance was closely examined to understand how participants provided feedback, both in their words and their actions. Many cases were removed from consideration because, while teachers wrote down students' responses before and after their interventions, the later writings couldn't be directly linked to the earlier ones.

The final collection included six cases where participants delivered feedback through an expanded question-answer sequence and also through written inscriptions that documented this feedback. The core collection was then analyzed to identify the underlying norms that influenced its specific details.

3.3.3.3 Comparison. Comparing cases in the collection revealed that the practice could be understood by how its progression may be more or less straightforward. These categories were not determined by the number of turns in the conversation or how long the interactions lasted. Instead, they emerged from how participants recognized and responded to issues in their interactions.

Examples of such orientation include mismatches between the production of first and second actions or second actions and the receipt of those actions, to the effect that these various parts were either not contiguous or otherwise absent completely. Additionally, when problems were addressed and the interaction got back on track, participants recurrently displayed their orientations to that interaction as having been put on hold or otherwise interrupted by the intervening trouble. When such phenomena were absent and things moved

along smoothly, the interaction progressed in a straightforward manner. In complex cases, progression was neither uniformly more or less straightforward, but shifted back and forth contingently.

3.3.3.4 Synthesis. To synthesize the results of the comparative analysis, it was essential to understand how the act of writing (inscription) both structured and was structured by the feedback interactions. This involved examining how inscriptions were created during the feedback sequences and analyzing the content of these writings.

The analysis revealed a connection between what was written, and thereby made accessible to others who might read the assessment later, and the accuracy of the interactions represented in those documents. This insight allowed for a deeper understanding of how the results of the interactions related to the written outcomes.

Ultimately, the synthesis showed that documenting feedback relies on a typical sequence of events: the initial response, the teacher's intervention, and the modified response. Participants recognized and followed this structure to produce feedback both through conversation and as formal records. This understanding provided a framework for examining how this practice could either help or hinder the assessment of L2 students in reading.

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4 RESULTS

This chapter shares findings from the current study. I looked closely at one example of a practice involving feedback, writing, and an L2 student. I explored this example from three perspectives.

First, I examined its background and future interactions. This chronological analysis revealed important details about how writing plays a role in feedback, both during and after reading activities. However, I also noticed some missing information about how feedback is documented while students are performing. These insights are discussed in section 4.1.

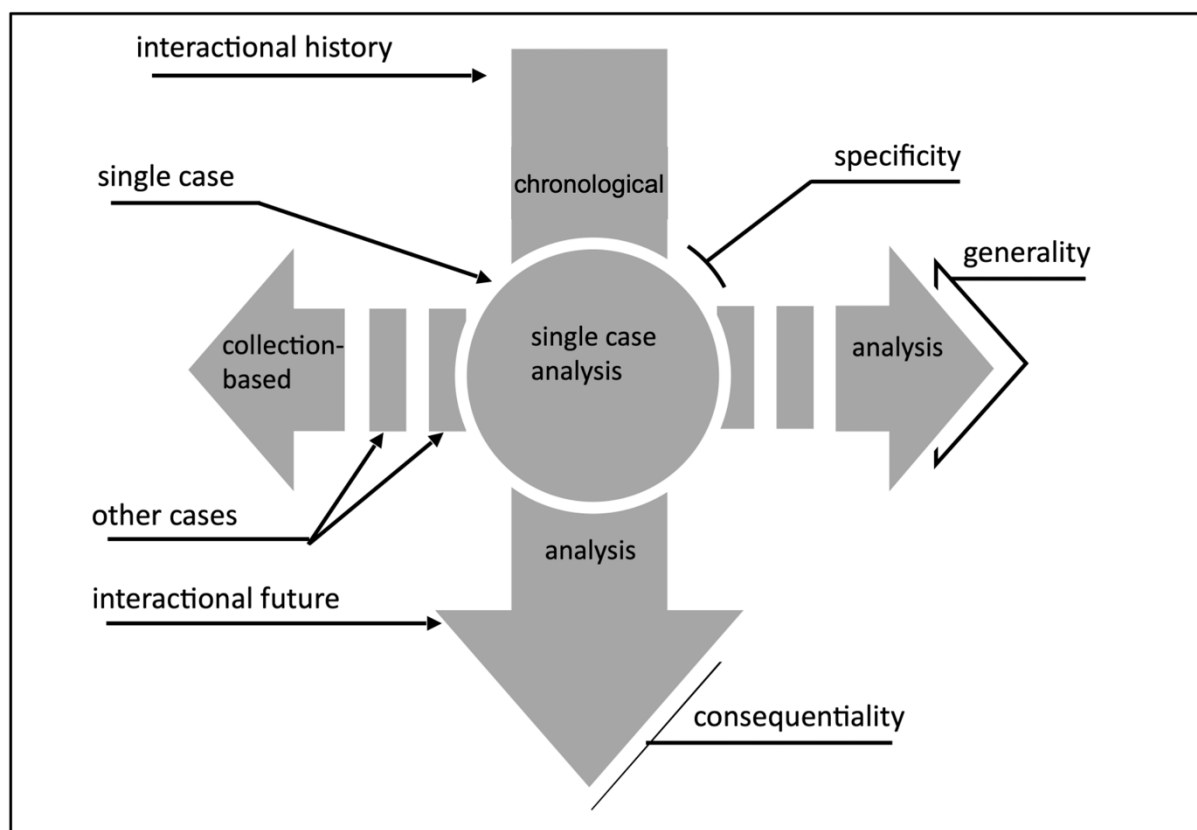
Second, I compared this example to other similar instances, especially focusing on how feedback is documented in writing during reading assessment activities. This analysis provided more information about how written feedback occurs during these activities, which adds to my earlier findings. Still, I found some gaps regarding the potential effects of this practice on L2 students. These points are covered in section 4.2.

Finally, I returned to the original example, now that I understood its context and its relation to other instances. This allowed me to explore how feedback and writing can impact L2 students during reading assessment activities. This analysis is presented in section 4.3.

Figure 4.1 below provides a representation of the three steps of the analytical process.

Figure 4.1

Model of This Dissertation's Analysis



4.1 Accomplishing Feedback through Inscription

4.1.1 Introduction

To understand how writing and feedback are connected in formal reading assessments, especially for L2 students, we need to look for real examples where all three elements are present and acknowledged by the participants. This section provides such examples using about six minutes of audio-visual recordings and digital scans of assessment materials to show how writing supports feedback.

The idea that written notes can help provide feedback isn't new. Previous studies have shown how people collaborate while writing (e.g. Mondada & Svinhufvud, 2016), which can help teachers record student performance during oral reading assessments. Research has also highlighted how teachers can use these written notes later to give feedback (e.g., Leyland and

Riley, 2021; Ro, 2023). However, while there's been some investigation into these topics, there are still gaps in understanding how writing supports feedback in K-12 settings, especially for L2 students.

Most previous research has focused on planned writing in higher education, overlooking the spontaneous writing that occurs during assessments. For instance, teachers often record students' mistakes or corrections during oral reading assessments, but past studies haven't explored how these unplanned notes can be used for feedback later.

Additionally, existing research hasn't adequately examined how these written notes can serve as resources for future actions, both for the original participants and others. There's a risk that these notes could be ignored after the assessment, which would mean they're only useful for immediate feedback and not for future reference. This is crucial because the documents created during assessments are official records, and ignoring them could impact teachers' accountability.

With these issues in mind, this analysis aims to explore how feedback notes can be understood as part of an ongoing process. It will look at how notes are created in real-time and how they can support both current and future interactions. This requires combining audio-visual recordings and scans of assessment forms, which will be carefully coordinated.

The analysis will focus on three specific interactions that occurred during a 20-minute assessment session. It will argue that these notes can emerge unexpectedly as valuable feedback resources, and that participants often adjust their interactions based on the presence or absence of these notes. Furthermore, the analysis will show that these notes can connect past events with ongoing feedback actions.

Finally, this study will not only examine how notes are used for current feedback but also how they might not help others in the future. This highlights the importance of studying

how feedback is documented, as well as the necessity of analyzing specific cases to gain deeper insights into these interactions.

4.1.2 Background

This section presents a detailed analysis of three interactions from about 20 minutes of a DRA®2 reading assessment conducted by a third-grade teacher (T) with her student (S) near the end of the school year. S, who has been at the school since kindergarten, was taking this assessment at level 38, which is important because it aligns with the reading level expected by the end of third grade. S's performance on this test was significant: if he was deemed proficient, he could read more challenging books and be on track with his reading development.

Reaching grade-level reading proficiency is crucial not just for selecting appropriate reading materials but also for determining which educational services S qualifies for, including English language development services, which he was receiving at the time. Although S's status as an L2 student is important, it is highlighted here because it becomes relevant through the participants' interactions during the assessment.

In the last interaction, T discusses S's need for a bilingual dictionary to help with unfamiliar words and references his language learning status when she talks about his code-switching. However, this code-switching moment is not analyzed here because T does not use any notes made during that event as part of her feedback. While the participants might have remembered that moment, the analysis focuses on how T refers to the code-switching to help S understand her feedback.

The analysis includes three specific excerpts from the assessment. The first excerpt captures T starting the oral reading after giving S the text. During this time, T makes various notes on her script, which matches the text S is reading. The second excerpt occurs after S

finishes reading, where T asks diagnostic questions about words S might have struggled with, using her notes to assess his vocabulary knowledge. Finally, in the third excerpt, T provides feedback on S's performance, again referencing her earlier notes to guide him in expanding his vocabulary.

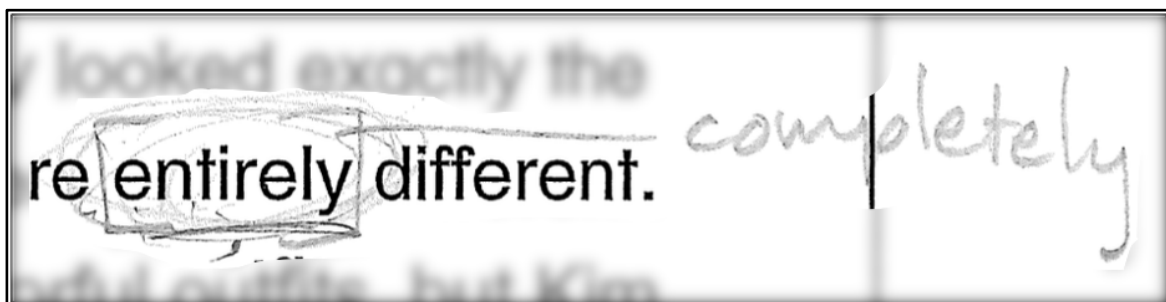
The analysis will focus on how these written notes both support and limit the feedback process.

4.1.3 Analysis

In this section, we will analyze the writing that occurs during a single DRA®2 assessment as a "Lebenswelt Pair," which highlights the connection between writing and interaction. To understand this relationship better, we will first look at the page from T's administrator script, where she documented S's oral reading. Please refer to Figures 4.2-4.5 below for visual examples.

Figure 4.2

Close up Scan Shows the Word 'entirely' is Surrounded by a Range of Inscriptions



Note. These are made at different temporal locations during the interaction. First, brackets are drawn on the left and right sides of the word, followed by a line intersecting the right bracket, as well as the word 'completely'. Next, multiple circles are drawn around 'entirely'. Finally, the word is underlined.

Figure 4.3

Close up Scan Shows Word 'chattering' is Surrounded by a Range of Inscriptions



Note. These are made at different temporal locations during the interaction. First, brackets are drawn on the left and right sides of the word, followed by a line intersecting the right bracket, then the word 'new'. Second, the word 'chattering' is circled (this is faintly visible near the letter 'c'). Finally, the word is underlined.

Figure 4.4

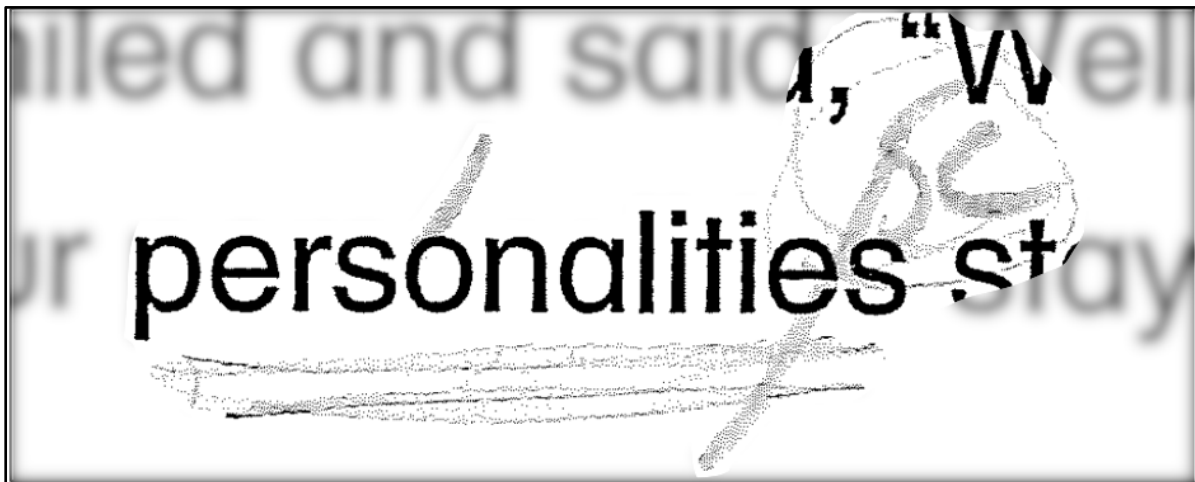
Close up Scan Shows Word 'instantly' is Surrounded by a Range of Inscriptions



Note. These are made at different temporal locations during the interaction. First, two marks (one resembles a 'check mark') are made above the word. Next, brackets are drawn on the left and right sides of the word, followed by a line extending from the right bracket, and then the word 'new' is written. Next, the word 'instantly' is circled multiple times and, then, underlined. Finally, the sentence containing 'instantly' is underlined.

Figure 4.5

Close up Scan Shows Word 'personalities' Surrounded by a Range of Inscriptions



Note. These are made at different temporal locations during the interaction. First, two 'slash marks' are made, one intersecting the 'o' of 'personalities' and the other between the 'e' and the 's' of the same word. Next, the letters 'SC', an abbreviation of the phrase 'self-correction', are written to the top right of the word. Next, the word 'personalities' is underlined. Finally, the letters 'SC' are circled.

The texts shown in Figures 4.2 to 4.5 were handwritten by the teacher (T) while assessing the student (S)'s oral reading fluency using the DRA®2. We can make several observations about these written notes.

First, these notes are composite objects; the pencil marks interact with the printed text underneath them. For instance, the horizontal pencil lines under the word "personalities" serve as underlining, indicating emphasis rather than just random marks. This relationship extends to the inscriptions themselves; not only do the printed words matter, but the handwritten notes also reference other marks. For example, in Figure 4.5, the letters "SC" are encircled by repeated pencil lines, showing how these notes build on one another.

These composite inscriptions exemplify the concept of a Lebenswelt Pair, highlighting how the interactions that led to each mark cannot be understood from the text

alone. Each layer of writing not only reflects previous inscriptions but also alters them in ways that can't be undone. This creates a complex structure that is both challenging and intriguing to analyze.

To effectively analyze these inscriptions, we need to reconstruct them step by step, considering the social interactions that occurred while they were created. The following sections will focus on the oral reading assessment where the first layers of these inscriptions were produced, helping us understand how writing connects to feedback on reading performance.

Three excerpts will be analyzed; each contains the same participants: a student (S) and his teacher (T). Excerpt 4.1.1 presents the interaction during S's oral reading of a text passage. Excerpt 4.1.2 takes place immediately after Excerpt 4.1.1 and presents T's diagnostic questioning of S. Finally, Excerpt 4.1.3 takes place ten minutes after Excerpt 4.1.2; here, T provides feedback and instructs S on how to improve his reading skills in the future.

4.1.3.1 Inscription During Oral Reading Performance. The following interaction occurs during the oral reading fluency assessment at the beginning of the DRA®2 test. The teacher (T) starts by reading the test prompt directly from her administrator script. The student (S) has a copy of the assessment passage, a fictional story called *Twin Sisters* (Beaver and Carter, 2006).

In *Twin Sisters*, the main characters are identical twins with very different personalities. For instance, Kate loves bright, colorful outfits and chatting with friends, while Kim prefers dark clothing and quiet reading. The story begins at their house, where the twins decide to play a prank by pretending to be each other at school. This leads to a funny situation when Kim, while disguised as Kate, unexpectedly agrees to write a book report, which puts Kate in a tricky spot. The climax happens when the real Kate stands up to object,

revealing their true identities to their classmates and teacher. The story wraps up with the teacher laughing and saying, "Well, I guess you could switch your clothes, but your personalities stayed the same!"

After T's prompt, S begins reading the *Twin Sisters* passage aloud. As he reads, T makes various notes (labeled scans A through H) to document S's pronunciation. Throughout the reading (from lines 04 to 48), both T and S focus intently on their respective materials.

Excerpt 4.1.1: Oral Reading Fluency

01 Tea: Alright now I'd like you to read it aloud,
 02 Um in this story? (1.0) Twin Sister:z, Ka:te and Ki:m
 03 ar[e i]dential twins. #&
 04 Stu: [U n]
 'Yeah'
 t #gazes at script->(1.48)
 s &gazes at own paper->(1.48)

05 T: 'h Read aloud to find out what ha:ppens when they try to
 06 (.) play a joke (.) on their (.) class[mates.] =Okay?
 07 S: [U n]
 'Yeah'

08 ÷+#((timer beeps))
 t ÷presses button on timer
 s +nods
 #fig 1



Fig 1

09 T: You may begin.
 10 S: Kate and Kim were inden(.)tical twin sisters.
 11 'h They looked exactly the same.
 12 'h÷#Yet in every other way, the (.) two girls were 'h=
 t ÷underlines 'identical' [A]
 #fig 2



Fig 2



A

13 =entire(.)ly (.) different.
 14 'h For example; Kate liked to dress in bright color-
 15 colorful 'hh outfits but k- Kim uh pref::erred dark colors.
 16 'hh In their free time=while Kate enjoyed uh cha:ttering
 17 noise- noisily with÷# 'h friends=Kim often could be found=

t

÷underlines 'noisily' [B]

#fig 3



Fig 3



B

18 =in the library silent(.)ly reading a book.
 19 (0.6)
 20 One morning Kate said Hey Kim 'h let's do fun (.) i-
 21 expiriment by 'h pretending to be each other today.
 22 'h You dress in my clothes and I (.) will (.) dress (.) in
 23 (.) your.
 24 'h (0.6) We:'ll see how many teachers and friends we can
 25 fool in school.
 26 (1.0)
 27 Kim liked (.) the idea so two s- two sisters went to school
 28 dressed as each others.

```

29      ·hh In÷#class, their teacher said I need a volunteer to=
t      ÷writes 's' above 'other' [C]
      #fig 4

```



Fig 4



C

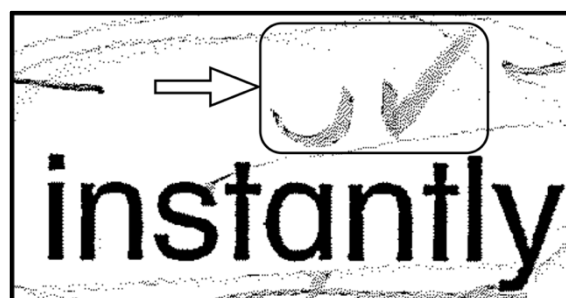
```

30      =read a book=tonight (·h) and give a report on (.) it
31      tomorrow.
32      (0.6)
33      ·h Kim raised her hand in(.)stant(.)ly:
34      I will do: it÷#she said exac- (0.6) excite(.)idly
t      ÷draws two marks above 'instantly' [D]
      #fig 5

```



Fig 5



D

```

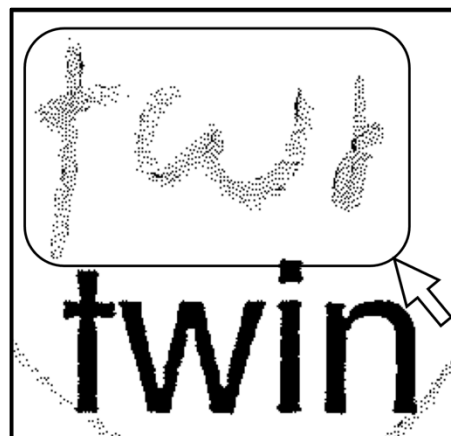
35      Thank you Kate, the teacher replied
36      (.)
37      No I- I won't the real Kate cried;
38      ·hh The teacher and students looked confused.
39      (.)

```

40 Suddenly, the two sister (0.6)÷#burst out laughing
 t ÷writes 'two' above twin [E]
 #fig 6



Fig 6

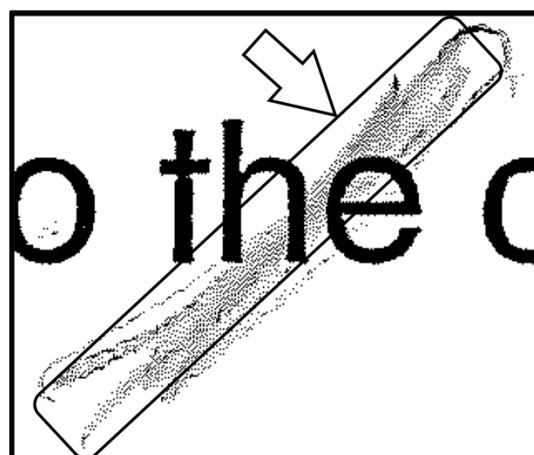


E

41 (0.2)
 42 They explained everything to class.
 43 Teacher smiled and said (.)÷#well I guess you could switch=
 t ÷crosses out 'the' [F]
 #fig 7



Fig 7



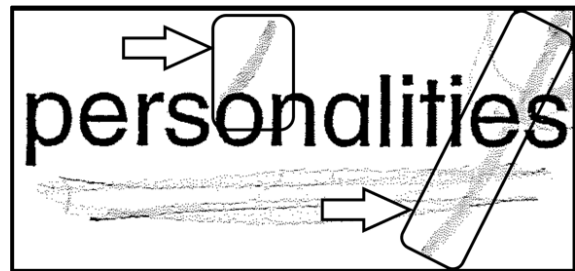
F

44 =your clothes but your p- 'hh (.)
 45 pers::on(.)ali(0.2)ties stayed the same?

```

46      ÷ (0.4) % (0.8) %
t      ÷ draws two slash marks [G]
s      %.....%tilts head back and to side->

```



```

47  S:      Oh#%personalities.%
        #fig 8
s      ->% ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,%

```



Fig 8



```

48      (0.2) @ (0.2) ÷ (1.6) @   ‡   &
t      @nods-----@
t      ÷ writes 'SC' [H]
t      (1.04) -> ‡ gazes at timer
s      (1.04) -> & gazes at timer

```

```

49      ÷ ((timer beeps))
t      > ÷ presses button on timer

```

```

50  T:      Okay.

```

We can begin with the observation that T makes a handful of inscriptions during S's oral reading. Notably, the two marks she writes above 'instantly' (line 34, D) are recognizable from Fig. 4.4 (see subsection 4.1.3, above), and the slash-marks (line 46, G) and letters 'SC' (48, H) are recognizable from Fig. 4.5 (see subsection 4.1.3, above). In fact, T makes a range of inscriptions during S's oral reading and comparing these inscriptions reveals a variety of timings for the onset of her writing activity. The first group of inscriptions are initiated during the same sentence as S continues to speak it; compare 'noisily' (17, B), 'two' (40, E) and the crossing-out of 'the' (line 43, F). The second group of inscriptions are initiated during a subsequent sentence; compare the underline of 'identical' (line 12, A), the 's' above 'other' (line 29, C) and the two marks above 'instantly' (line 34, D).

The difference between these two groups appears to be the location of the error in S's ongoing reading of the sentence. In the former group, the error appears relatively early (e.g. 'the', line 43); in group two, it appears rather late (e.g. 'instantly', line 34). Despite this difference, both groups of inscriptions are initiated during an ongoing sentence; T does not wait for a sentence to be finished to initiate inscription but, rather, appears to start writing at the first opportunity. Further, even though T ends up writing while he continues to talk, S does not adjust or halt his production of that talk. It appears, thus, that oral reading and inscription may occur in parallel (Mondada, 2014), without being coordinated to one another's units.

One set of inscriptions deserves special attention: those indexing the textual object 'personalities'. These are unique because, unlike the others discussed above, the participants coordinate their activities to coincide with one another's units. Notice how S has trouble pronouncing the word 'p- ·hh (.) pers::on(·)ali(0.2)ties', from the last line of his reading text (lines 43–45). Once his reading of that line comes to completion (line 45), T inscribes two slash marks through the word 'personalities' (G). 0.4 seconds later (line 46), S tilts his head

backward (lines 46-47, Fig 8) and produces a change-of-state token ‘Oh’ (line 47; Heritage, 1985). He then returns to his original posture and produces the standard form ‘personalities.’ (line 47). In the silence that follows (line 48), T nods and inscribes ‘SC’ (line 48, H), educational shorthand that abbreviates ‘self-correction’.

Coordination between these activities begins with S's sentence-final intonation, which he produces with a strongly rising contour, marking it as problematic. He does not correct the problem, however, until he has first done discovering his mistake at the apex of a posture shift. That shift itself begins after T has first moved to write (line 46). Within the repair frame (Kitzinger, 2012) opened up by S's rising intonation, T's move to write displays to S that he needs to repair his initial pronunciation of ‘personalities’. Further coordination between talk and writing is observable when T inscribes that self-correction. Even before she initiates the inscription ‘SC’, T produces an embodied recognition of it; she nods (line 48) and thus displays orientation to the self-correction as something inscribable as such.

The interaction analyzed here highlights the importance of writing in providing feedback during formal reading assessments. In this case, writing serves as a resource that helps both the teacher and the student organize the reading process. For oral reading, especially at this level of the DRA®2, the interaction revolves around a single, extended turn taken by the student.

As a collaborator in this performance, T must write notes while listening to S. Previous research has shown that this can be challenging. For example, Ruusuvuori (2001) found that doctors and patients often disengage at certain points in conversation, while Hazel and Mortensen (2014) observed students using gestures visible to their counselors to maintain engagement. Similarly, Svinhufvud (2016) noted that counselors nod while writing to show they are paying attention.

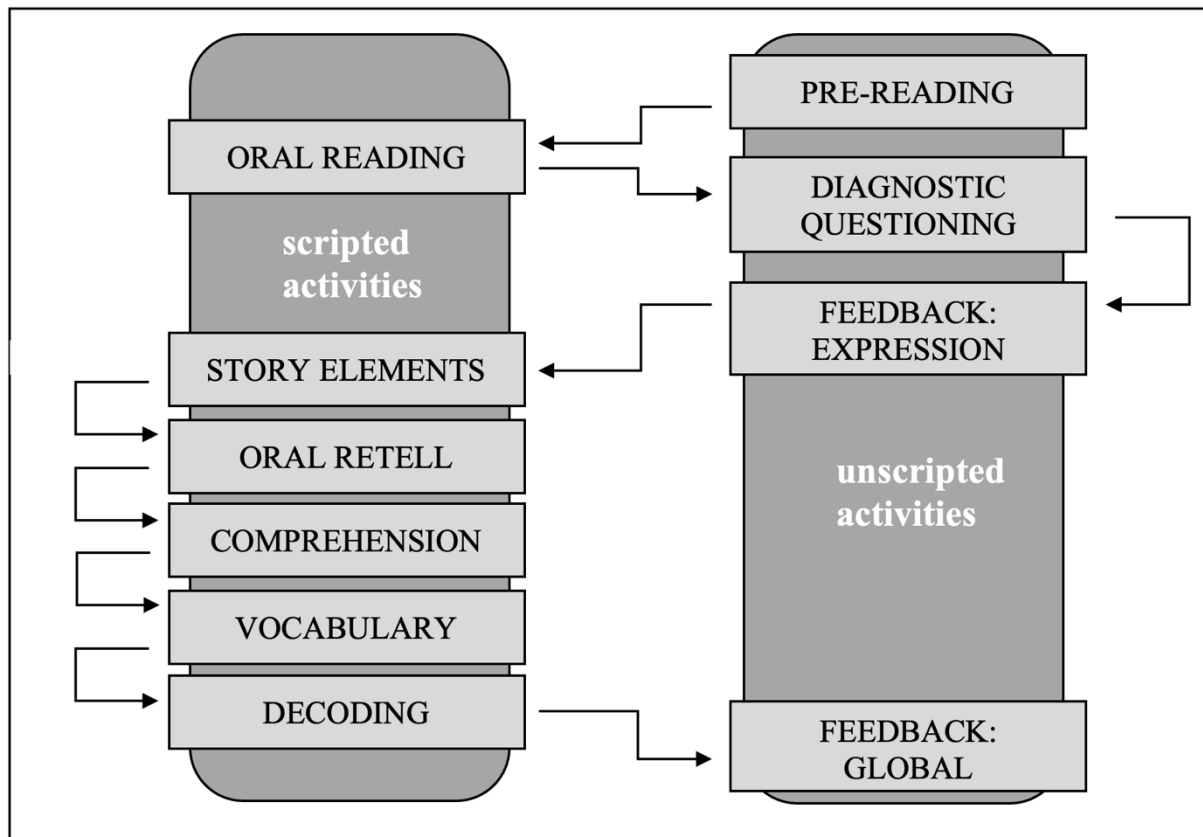
A unique challenge emerged in this context: the need for S to self-correct his pronunciation. Here, T's physical writing became a resource for S's efforts to improve his reading; case in point was the moment when T's moving into writing displayed to S that he needed to repair his initial pronunciation of 'personalities' (lines 45-47). In previous studies on private writing (Leyland & Riley, 2021), such movements were noted by the researchers to be seen but left unnoticed by students. In contrast, here, S actively drew upon the resources provided by T's embodied and material actions. The analysis thus shows that the dynamics of writing-in-interaction influenced his reading performance and the documentation of it.

4.1.3.2 Inscription During Diagnostic Questioning. In the next excerpt, which comes right after S's oral reading (i.e. Excerpt 4.1.1 above), the same participants engage in diagnostic questioning. This interaction isn't part of the planned assessment; T deviates from the script to explore whether some words in *Twin Sisters* were unfamiliar to S.

Figure 4.6 below shows a diagram highlighting which parts of the test are prescribed and which sections, like this diagnostic interaction, were added by T at her discretion.

Figure 4.6

Flowchart of Scripted (Left) and Unscripted (Right) Activities During DRA13



The interaction during the diagnostic questioning is different from the previous reading activity. In this case, there are no pre-set questions or answers, and the DRA®2 assessment materials can be used in various ways that the participants must determine on the spot. This means that T and S collaboratively navigate this part of the assessment, figuring things out as they go along.

Excerpt 4.1.2: Diagnostic Questioning

52 Tea: Okay were there any wo:ds you di:d not know.
53 Stu: Yes=
54 T: =What were some words you didn't know in the story.
55 # (1.6)
#fig 9



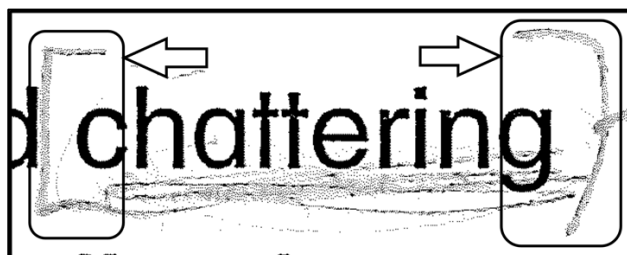
Fig 9

56 S: Um (4.0) this^{one} (.) °chattering°
s ^{points at own paper}
57 T: Chattering?
58 S: Yeah
59 T: Okay you read it very well
60 (0.4)
61 T: In their free time while Kate enjoyed chattering noisily
62 with friends.
63 (.)
64 T: Chattering noisily (.) with friends.
65 (.)
66 T: [Ch-]
67 S: [C h]atting?
68 T: Chatting.=Yes.=Yes.=Alright¿=Good¿
69 (0.6)
70 T: Okay any others?
71 (1.4)

72 S: nn*This one÷entire- °tirely?°
 s #points at own paper
 t ÷draws brackets around 'chattering' [I]

I

73 (0.2)

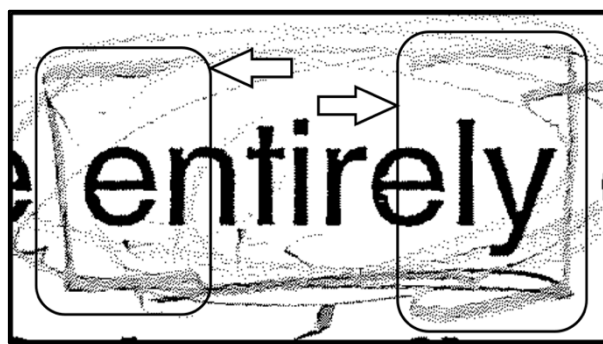


74 T: Entirely.=The girls were÷enti:rely#different.=Means (.)=
 t ÷draws brackets around
 'entirely' [J]
 #fig 10

75 T: =comple#tely=
 t #gazes at S



Fig 10

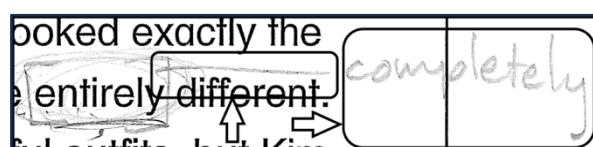


J

76 S: =Oh
 77 T: #Completely different.÷#
 t #gazes at script
 s &gzs at T's script
 t ÷draws line, writes 'completely' [K]
 #fig 11



Fig 11



K

78 (0.6)
 79 T: Entirely different.
 80 (0.8)
 81 T: Entire means#\$whole#,
 t #gazes at S
 t \$gestures
 #fig 12

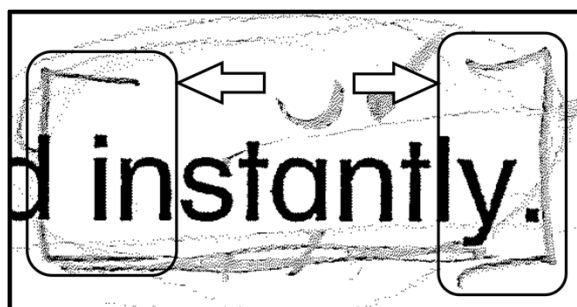


Fig 12

83 T: So#completely=wholly different.=Okay?
 t #gazes at script
 84 (0.4)
 85 T: U::m: (0.6) dju kn- did you know this word =Kim raised=
 86 T: =her: ha:nd (0.4)
 87 S: Ins(.) tan:t=[In-]=No
 88 T: [In-]÷#
 t ÷draws brackets around 'instantly' [L]
 #fig 13



Fig 13



L

89 (0.6)
 90 S: [Oh] yeah that one I [(didn't know)]
 91 T: [In-] [Tha::t one]=Cause you didn't
 92 pronounce that correct- [in]stantly#=
 93 S: [In]-
 t #gazes at S
 94 S: =Instantly=

95 T: =Instantly 'h=Do it\$in an in&stant;S#
t \$.....\$gestures-->
s &gazes at T
#fig 14

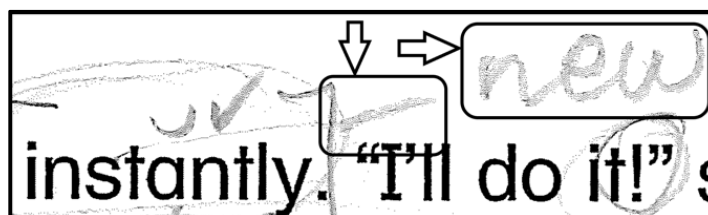


Fig 14



Fig 15

96 T: Do you know instant?
97 S: No:=
98 T: =Means (0.2)\$#(0.6) quick [s e c]ond.
99 S: [Oh :::]
t ->\$snaps fingers
#fig 15
100 (0.2)
101 T: An instant
102 (.)
103 T: To do it instantly means immediately.
104 S: Immediately=
105 T: =Immediately.=Yeah#&
t #gazes at script
s &gazes at own paper
106 (.)
107 T: Mokay=So you- that was a new word for you too.÷
t ÷draws line
and writes 'new' [M]



M

108 T: 'h An:d how abou::t÷ u:m&(1.0) Any otherz:=Did you know=
t ÷draws line and writes 'new' [N]
s &gazes at T's script



N

```

109 T:      =this word÷becau%se#(.) >Oh@then yo[u]#<
110 S:      [P]ersonalities=
      t      ÷points to text->
      s      %leans toward T
              #fig 16
      t      @nods repeatedly->
              #fig 17

```



Fig 16



Fig 17

```

111 T:      =÷you%(. )self corre%cted that one.÷=Okay@
      t      >÷taps text repeatedly-----÷
      s      %nods-----%
      t      ->@

112      (.)
113 T:      Alri:ght (.) Okay.

```


We can begin by observing a difference between this and the previous excerpt: namely, how the participants organize writing activity as private or public. Previously, participants gazed at their respective test materials throughout while T took notes privately; here, the participants draw upon a range of multimodal resources to share access to ongoing inscription. That sharing is facilitated firstly by the organization of visual access to document surfaces. Notice how S secures access to T's emerging inscription of 'completely' (line 77, K), or how S prepares to secure similar access in anticipation when T launches her final sequence with '·h An:d how abou::t '(line 108). This later example is interesting because S leans in, secures and displays independent visual access by producing 'Personalities' (line 110) even as T abandons the material referent in her own verbal turn (line 109).

This sequence also demonstrates how embodied resources are deployed to share access to private writing. Immediately after S produces 'Personalities', T displays her own access to the textual object, using a repeated tapping gesture to indicate where the referent of "that one" namely, "personalities" is located on her administrator script (line 111). Deictic gestures such as this demonstrate how gesture may be combined with talk-based and material resources in the interactional achievement of visual access. Another example is when T encourages visual access to a material object, while simultaneously encouraging S to produce it (line 87), by reading aloud the text leading up to 'instantly' (lines 85–86). Shared attention to such material objects is taken for granted in Excerpt 4.1.1; here, in Excerpt 4.1.2, is it actively sought.

Another point of divergence between this and the previous excerpt is the relationship between material resources and the sequential organization of action. In Excerpt 4.1.1, a single sequence was set in motion when T read aloud the DRA®2 prompt. Inasmuch as S had a passage to read aloud, T had material resources with which to anticipate, to some degree, the progression of S's subsequent action. This is not true for diagnostic questioning. The

sequences of question and answer that organize this part of reading assessment are not so-called test-questions, where the answers are known in advance. Case in point: T's initial question (line 54) sets S on a silent search (line 55) after which he responds with the word 'chattering' (line 56). T first defers receipt of this response by requesting confirmation (line 57) and thus makes observable that it is unanticipated.

After receiving confirmation from S, T makes an account for her lack of anticipation with a positive assessment of S's oral reading 'Okay you read it very well' (line 59). That observation is possible because there exists no previous inscription to indicate a problem with S's prior pronunciation of 'chattering' (see vicinity of line 16, Excerpt 4.1.1). In other words, the fact that no prior inscription exists provides a resource for the accountable observation of reading performance, in much the same way as do the marks above 'instantly', inscribed in Excerpt 4.1.1 (line 34, D), for T's account for her subsequent observation here (lines 91–92): 'Cause you didn't pronounce that correct-'.

The interaction during the diagnostic questioning offers valuable insights into the role of writing in providing feedback during formal reading assessments. Here, writing serves as a resource that helps participants engage in discussions about vocabulary knowledge. To determine if S understands specific words, both T and S use various modes of communication, which allows them to share access to the inscriptions on the test documents.

Previous research highlights that this access depends on the physical and embodied nature of writing. However, talk-based resources are also crucial. Participants can engage with the writing through their gaze (Moore, Whalen & Gathman, 2010) or by observing how others interact with the writing (Päli & Lehtinen, 2014). That said, inscriptions can be also woven into the conversation, thereby making them objects of public focus (Monteiro, 2016).

During the diagnostic questioning, S leans in to see the inscriptions T points out (lines 110-111), and T encourages S to read along with her (lines 85-87). Moreover, T connects her

questions to previous inscriptions or notes (lines 91-92), sometimes highlighting what isn't present (lines 59). This observation challenges earlier approaches (Leyland & Riley, 2021; Ro, 2023) that consider inscription-based feedback as a practice strictly governed by pre-planned actions. Instead, it shows how the interaction can evolve organically based on what is available in the moment.

4.1.3.3 Inscription During Post-Assessment Instruction. The final part we will look at happened about ten minutes after the questioning discussed earlier (i.e. Excerpt 4.1.2 above), as shown by the ongoing line numbers. During that time, the same participants completed several assessment activities, both planned and spontaneous.

T gave S mostly positive feedback on his performance but suggested he make his oral reading more lively, especially during dialogue. After this, T focused on checking S's reading comprehension. She first asked him to identify parts of the story (like main characters and setting), then to retell the story from memory, and finally to answer some questions about it. T found S's performance in these tasks to be good, meaning the text was at the right level for him to understand independently.

Next, they did two planned activities: one focused on vocabulary and the other on word reading (decoding). T considered only the decoding task to be at a level where S would need some support to read effectively.

Right after S finished the decoding assessment, T collected his copy of the passage *Twin Sisters* and started the last recorded activity: giving general feedback and teaching him how to use a dictionary as a vocabulary strategy. It was common for teachers at the school to provide such feedback. This was important for assigning new reading levels, scheduling more assessments for those who did really well, or giving guidance to those who needed to improve.

What makes this feedback session different is that it happened right after the assessment, while many sessions are held later. T tells S that he did well enough to move up to the next reading level. However, she also mentions that he needs to improve his vocabulary knowledge. This is when she introduces using a bilingual dictionary to help with new words at this new level.

T's notes from earlier assessments become a valuable tool during this feedback session. Although S no longer has the passage, T keeps her notes handy, especially the one from the "Twin Sisters" oral reading fluency assessment. She refers back to these notes, making them visible for S. In addition to pointing out these notes, T explains them further. This way, she uses past information to guide S in the present and prepare him for future challenges with new words at his new reading level.

Excerpt 4.1.3: Feedback and Instruction

397 Tea: Oka:y ((name)). that is the end of you:r (.) rea:ding (0.6) 398
 u::m ((smacks lips)) your >runnning record<
 399 ·hh This: was level: (0.4) "P".
 400 #(0.6)
 #fig 18



Fig 18

401 T: Okay?
 402 ·hh So this tells me tha:t you di:d (0.4) >well enough< on
 403 this (0.6) that you could move into reading level "P"
 404 books.
 405 (0.6)
 406 T: Which is exactly right on target for the e:nd of 3rd
 407 grade.
 408 ·hh You can still read "O" books of course, and (0.2)
 409 because you're gonna build more vocabulary[:.] if you read=
 410 S: [U]n
 'Yeah'
 411 T: =O books, ·h But you're also ready to move up to level "P".
 412 ·h You need to be sure you (.) uh:: (0.6) try tog (0.4)
 413 catch those words that you don't know#the me:aning of.
 t #gazes at script
 s &gzs T's script

437 T: So: you can u:m: have a ↑ bili:ngual dictionary:
 438 (.)
 439 T: will help you¿=Have you talked to your mom and dad about
 440 getting a dictionary?
 441 S: Yeah I- I do have it but I °didn't° I don't really use it?
 442 T: Oka[y,
 443 [usually use it.
 444 T: Okay.#But if you [(sf)-] if you're moving up in your=
 445 S: [Un-]
 t #gazes at script
 s &gazes at T's script

446 T: =level:(, (0.2) like today's (0.4) I would have <these are=
 t ÷points rapidly between two places->

447 T: =the places÷that (it) would be÷good÷to sto:p#and check.
 t ->÷ ÷points at text->
 #gazes at S->
 #fig 20

448 %(0.2)÷(0.1)÷
 s %nods
 t ->#,,,->
 t ->÷....->

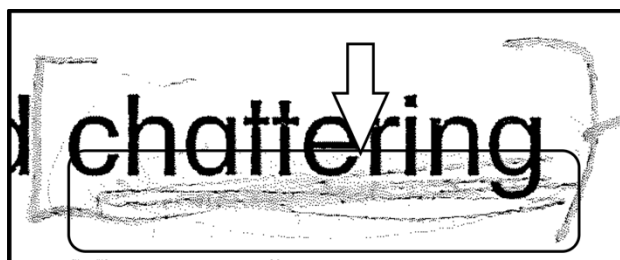


Fig 20

449 T: If÷you can't figure out from the sentence, what it=
 t ->#gazes at script

450 T: =mea:ns.=This one you ÷ figured out from the sentence.
 t ÷underlines 'chattering' [R]

451 S: Un
 'Yeah'
 452 T: You said chat
 453 (0.4)



R

454 T: You knew÷chat=Chattering.=
 t ÷underlines 'chattering' [R]

455 S: =°Un°
 'Yeah'
 456 T: Thi÷:s one you didn't quite know. =and it's ha:rd to=
 t ÷underlines 'entirely' [S]
 457 T: =tell. [what-] what does that one mean.
 458 S: [U n]
 'Yeah'



S

459 T: And this one. (.)÷she raised her hand instantly
 t ÷underlines 'instantly' [T]
 460 (0.2)
 461 T: Fro÷m the÷sentence here, it's-\$(0.2)#you cannot tell what=
 t ÷underlines 'ed her hand instantly.' [U]
 t \$gestures
 #fig 21



Fig 21



T



U

462 T: =that me[ans.
 463 S: [Un
 'Yeah'
 464 (0.4)
 465 T: U:m so (0.2) thi÷:s÷one and ÷this one÷would be good ones to=
 t ÷pnts 'entirely' ÷pnts 'instantly'
 466 T: =look up÷in the dictionary so you'll know what they mean.
 t ÷points at 'entirely'
 467 (.)
 468 T: Oka:y?
 469 S: Okay.
 470 (.)

471 T: And then this one you self÷#corre:cted; but yet (.)=
 t ÷underlines 'personalities' [V]
 #fig 22



Fig 22



472 =you÷said seikaku#=You still÷didn't#[quite] (0.2)=
 473 S: [U n]
 'personality' 'Yeah'
 t #looks up and away #gazes at S
 #fig 23 #fig 24



Fig 22

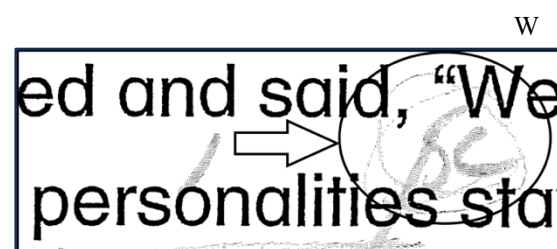


Fig 24

474 T: =remembe[r='hh]=So,÷#(.) this would've÷been a good one to=
 475 S: [U n]
 'Yeah'
 t #gazes at script
 t ÷circles 'SC' [W]
 #fig 25



Fig 25



476 T: =list#in your notebook too.
t ‡gazes at S->

477 ‡(0.2)‡
s ‡nods
t ->‡,,, ->

478 T: ·Hh‡And if you keep tra:ck of those words you don't kno:w=
t ->‡gazes at script

479 T: =um:(0.8) youh'll be reading them and I'm sure you'll
480 come across them more than once. in the levels that you're
481 reading.
482 (.)

483 T: That'll help you build your °vocabulary okay?°

484 S: Okhay

485 T: °fBut you are ready to move on to level "P"¿f°
(...)

We can begin by observing that throughout this feedback event, S's advancement to the next reading level 'P' is made contingent upon his display of determination to systematically tackle unknown vocabulary. This contingency is made explicit from the beginning, when T rushes through a delicate announcement that S has performed 'well enough' (line 402), or when she provides unsolicited permission for him to continue reading at the current, lower level 'O' (lines 408–411). In what unfolds next, T repeatedly recruits S's alignment to her instructions for future reading behavior; namely, that he record unknown words and look them up later in a dictionary.

First, T exemplifies the words that S did not know, making a three-part list (Jefferson, 1990) by circling 'entirely' (line 415, O), 'chattering' (line 415, P) and 'instantly' (417, Q). S aligns to the list with a continuer (line 416) and then responds to the T's tag-question (line 419) with a minimal affirmative token (line 420). He also aligns (line 424) to T's so-prefaced upshot (lines 421–423; Raymond, 2004) which formulates the material objects as discursive ones. That is, the circled textual objects are talked into being as examples of words S should look up in the dictionary.

A closer look at how the participants accomplish the instruction regarding dictionary use allows us to consider how S's status as an L2 student emerges as relevant to this feedback on his reading performance. That relevancy is delicately introduced by T, who selects between several different formulations of the object she is suggesting that S procure. Initially, she mentions possession of an "electronic dictionary" (lines 425, 432) as a condition for using a secondary strategy of note taking. Subsequently, T constructs an upshot of her previous suggestion to buy one (line 437); notice how she reformulates the object of her suggestion from an "electronic dictionary" (lines 425, 432) to a "bilingual dictionary:" (line 437). T thus makes language S's learner status relevant to the feedback on his reading performance.

S's response displays his orientations to language learning as relevant to the feedback. On his way to sidestepping T's question about talking to his parents (lines 439-440), S restarts his talk several times, including once when he repairs a tense marking ("I °didn't° I don't") and once when he replaces an adverb ("really use it ", line 441; "usually use it ", line 443). In addition to displaying proactive attention to grammatical accuracy and lexical specificity, S's turn format displays tentativeness regarding his alignment with T's projectable instruction. His is a go-ahead response to T's preliminary; simply informing her that he possessed a dictionary would block the upcoming instructional sequence. However, the first clause of S's compound construction, "Yeah I- I do have it but I °didn't° I don't really use it?" (lines 441-442), allow him to establish a modicum of knowledgeability; they now discuss *his* dictionary.

T's orientation to S's display of knowledgeability is observable in the way she acknowledges it. She produces "Okay." (line 444) with emphasis on the initial vowel and strongly falling intonation; producing it in this way allows her to do recognizing it, rather than simply moving on with her instruction.

Having recognized S's knowledgeability, S moves to the instruction. Here, she reiterates the conditional nature of her permission to read at a higher level by returning her gaze to the documents at hand (line 444) and, joined immediately by S's gaze direction (line 445), she begins pointing (line 446). The demonstrative adjective (i.e. "these") in T's verbal turn 'these are the places that (it) would be good to sto:p and check.' (lines 446-447) presume S's mutual attention upon the referential field toward which she is rapidly pointing. This pointing is related to her choice of the demonstrative adjective rather than a pronoun (e.g. "they"); T uses the materiality of her previous inscriptions to literally point out hard physical evidence of S's errors in pronunciation.

What is more, she makes a subsequent point, and then shifts her gaze toward S (Fig 20), not retracting either (line 448) until after S displays his embodied alignment with a nod

line (448). Thus, T deploys material resources provided by the text in order to encourage S's embodied display of commitment use a dictionary in the future.

The interaction continues along in this embodied and material configuration, as T returns to the three words. This time, she underlines them (lines 449–469). By underlining, T further articulates her own previous inscriptions, and the textual objects they index, so as to recruit S's alignment (lines 451, 455, 458, 463, 469) to the inconsistency of prior knowledge and guessing from context. This is followed by T's verbal (line 471) and graphical (V) reference to 'personalities' which recruits S's alignment, via affirmative tokens (lines 473, 475), to this example of his unstable vocabulary knowledge. Then, a final alignment (line 477) is recruited and allows for closing off the entire episode (lines 414–477) of interaction regarding problematic vocabulary.

As material evidence of past mistakes, inscriptions provide powerful resources for mobilizing alignment towards future remedial actions. First, the teacher uses the simple past tense, together with deictic inscriptions (i.e., circling, underlining) to make a three-part list of words the student 'didn't know' (lines 414–417). Then, she addresses how the student 'figured out from the sentence' (line 450) what 'chattering' meant, or that he 'didn't quite know' (line 456) the meaning of 'entirely'. She also consolidates these past references with an upshot formulation (lines 465–466), presenting them as relevant to her present instruction, regarding his future actions, with the conditional construction 'would be good ones to look up in the dictionary'.

Later, the teacher again deploys the conditional, accomplishing even more dynamic incorporation of past and future events. First, she underlines 'personalities' (line 471, V), referring to it with the simple past as one that the student 'self-corrected' (line 471). Then she incorporates another past event, during which the student code-switched into Japanese when he 'said seikaku' (which translates literally to 'personality'; line 472) and 'still didn't quite

(0.2) remember’ (lines 472–474). Then, with an upshot formulation, she instructs him on dictionary use by reaching into the future, though the past, with the conditional construction: ‘So, (.) this would’ve been a good one to list in your notebook too.’ (lines 474–476).

This analysis has focused on how written notes (inscriptions) play a key role in providing feedback during formal reading assessments. In this case, the inscriptions help both the teacher and student organize their feedback and instruction, especially about vocabulary study strategies. For the teacher’s instruction to be effective, S needs to be committed to improving his vocabulary, as he will be responsible for this work.

After the assessment, T uses previous notes to highlight S’s vocabulary weaknesses. Research has shown that bringing up past mistakes into current conversations can be done effectively, especially when participants can see the writing. However, they go further by actively discussing these notes, which helps connect past mistakes to future goals. This process involves using various methods, including speaking, gestures, and eye contact, to engage S and encourage his commitment.

T emphasizes using a dictionary to help S at a higher reading level. This connection between the current discussion and past notes is crucial. They engage with the written notes by pointing to them, talking about them, and acknowledging their relevance. The result is not just new discussions about S’s vocabulary challenges but also tangible records of those challenges. These visible and touchable materials create a shared focus for both T and S, making their instructional process more effective.

4.1.4 Summary of Chronological Analysis

The previous section analyzed the role of writing in providing feedback during formal reading assessments, specifically using data from three excerpts of a DRA®2 assessment. It highlighted how different types of written notes were created and discussed, serving as

resources for various feedback activities. Two activities focused on teacher feedback after performance, while one activity, which wasn't originally meant as feedback, turned out to provide feedback during the assessment itself.

This section connects the findings to previous research on feedback in K-12 education, emphasizing the relationship between writing and feedback in formal reading assessments.

However, there are two important issues still to explore. First, we need to understand how writing practices can help participants think about long-term goals and institutional timelines. For formative assessments to be effective, feedback should not only happen but also leave clear, lasting records that can inform future actions.

The second issue is how writing practices can either support or hinder the effective assessment of L2 students. For learners to benefit from formative feedback, they must be able to engage in the interactions where this feedback is given during assessment events. The next sections will address these two problems in more detail.

4.2 The Multimodal Organization of Feedback and its Documentation

4.2.1 Introduction

The previous analysis showed how writing practices (inscriptions) can be used to provide feedback on L2 students' reading performance during formal assessments. This involved two key types of feedback. First, there was feedback during performance, where a student used the teacher's written notes to help correct his own mistakes, prompting the teacher to document this correction. Second, there was feedback after performance, where the teacher assessed the student's vocabulary based on previous notes, then gave targeted feedback and instructional strategies.

These inscriptions served as important tools for both the teacher and student, allowing them to focus on specific evidence of vocabulary challenges and address sensitive topics about the student's developing language skills. The ability to reference and engage with these written notes helped make discussions about the student's performance more concrete and manageable.

However, a limitation of the analysis was that it assumed the same individuals would continue to be involved. Specifically, the abrupt and largely non-verbal inscriptions (e.g., bracketing, underlining, circling) would not provide sufficient resources for a third party to understand how they had been used in feedback. It's important to explore how feedback can be made visible and relevant to a wider audience, such as school administrators, who might review this documentation later. That requires analyzing inscriptions that explicitly refer to feedback and how they are produced during FA interaction. Producing such involved, likely verbal inscriptions poses a problem to teachers: how can they engage in writing and feedback itself, at the same time? In order to answer this question, this section examines multimodal interactional practices for organizing writing during feedback activity. These practices make feedback accessible across broader institutional timelines and legible to its stakeholders.

4.2.2 Background

The upcoming analysis will focus on social interactions from three different DRA®2 assessments. While the previous section discussed activities (i.e., diagnostic questioning and post-assessment instruction) that were improvised, the interactions in this analysis are drawn from scripted parts of the DRA®2. These sections differ from the earlier oral reading assessment, which had a straightforward, sequential organization. During the oral reading, both the teacher and student primarily focused on their materials, rarely making eye contact.

In contrast, the interactions analyzed here come from sections that assess reading comprehension or decoding. Even though these sections are also scripted and organized around questions and answers, they differ in that teachers intervene when a student struggles. These interventions extend the typical question-and-answer format, indicating not just trouble in the student's initial response but also in their reaction to the teacher's feedback.

As the interactions become less straightforward, we see more variation in how participants engage. Generally, teachers focus on their scripts to document the student's spoken responses. In sections where longer responses are expected, teachers often shift their attention back to their scripts after presenting a question. However, if a student has difficulty responding, teachers may maintain their focus on the script while speaking to the student, requiring further intervention. During these moments, teachers often shift their gaze to the student to establish eye contact and use gestures, allowing for a more interactive exchange.

To understand how feedback is documented during oral reading assessments, we must consider how participants manage this multiactivity. This includes analyzing the form and content of the written notes teachers create while documenting responses and feedback. This analysis is challenging because it would benefit from clear visual access to these documents during the video recordings. In the subsequent materials, such access is not available. Thus, inscriptions need to be reconstructed from post-assessment scans and what can be heard and seen in the videos. The accuracy of these reconstructions varies depending on camera angles and the length of the notes. Short markings (e.g., checks or circles) can be reconstructed with more confidence than longer responses.

The analysis will include reconstructed images of the written documents, carefully selected and highlighted using image editing software. However, major analytical claims will not rely on uncertain reconstructions, ensuring that the conclusions drawn are based on solid evidence.

4.2.3 Analysis

The following analysis will provide a structured overview of how feedback is documented during assessments. Following the framework from Mehan (1979; see also ten Have, 2007), this presentation will cover a subset of data while also being informed by a thorough examination of the entire dataset. The analysis is presented across three excerpts: one more straightforward, another less straightforward, and a final that is complex. This structure allows for an exploration of the interactional factors that influence how feedback is typically documented.

The analysis will include partially reconstructed inscriptions alongside transcripts, and complete images of post-assessment scans will also be provided. These images will be analyzed for both their content and structure, comparing them to the social interactions that produced them. This step is crucial for linking the immediate outcomes of these interactions with their broader institutional implications, which extend beyond the specific context of the assessment.

Like all written documents, records of feedback are each only one half of a Lebenswelt Pairs; attention must first be paid to the interaction in which they were created. After looking at this interaction first, the documents will then be examined. In particular, interest will be paid to how these documents provide, or do not provide, resources for future stakeholders, such as school principals, who might review the interactions through the written records. By doing so, the subsequent analysis aims to shed light on how feedback practices might contribute to larger educational processes.

4.2.3.1 More Straightforward Example. To begin the analysis of documenting feedback, we'll look at a relatively straightforward example. In this case, although the student's initial response is incorrect, the feedback leads to a smooth transition where the

student successfully modifies their answer, receives acknowledgment from the teacher, and brings the interaction to a close. This process might require the teacher to rephrase their prompts for clarity, but ultimately, the student is able to produce a revised response.

In this first example, the interaction's straightforward progression is evident as the student's correction follows the teacher's intervention without significant difficulty. This smooth interaction indicates a shared understanding between the participants, effective management of the dialogue, and the production of written documentation that accurately reflects the sequence of events. The analysis will explore how this interaction is possible through mutual monitoring of each other's engagement in both verbal and physical activities.

In Excerpt 4.2.1, the participants are a teacher (T) and his kindergarten student (S), who are seated together on the floor in a spacious area of the school. This is a typical setting for T to conduct DRA®2 assessments, with other students working individually at their desks nearby. As the test nears its conclusion, T and S have already completed several scripted sections, including a reading engagement survey and S's oral reading of a book. They are now starting a series of decoding questions, using the book *I Can See* (Beaver and Carter, 2006), which has a page open to the text "I can see a red flower."

While our primary focus will be on the second question, we will start with the first question to provide context for the interaction. After presenting the relevant inscriptions in Figures 4.7-4.8, the interaction will be documented in Excerpt 4.2.1. The first test prompt is scripted as "Find a word that begins with this letter (g)" (see Figure 4.7, immediately below); the interactional turn which produces (a slight modification of) this prompt emerges at lines 03-07. The second test prompt is scripted as "Find a word that ends with this letter (r)" (see Figure 4.8, below); the interactional turn which produces (a slight modification of) this prompt emerges at lines 14-17.

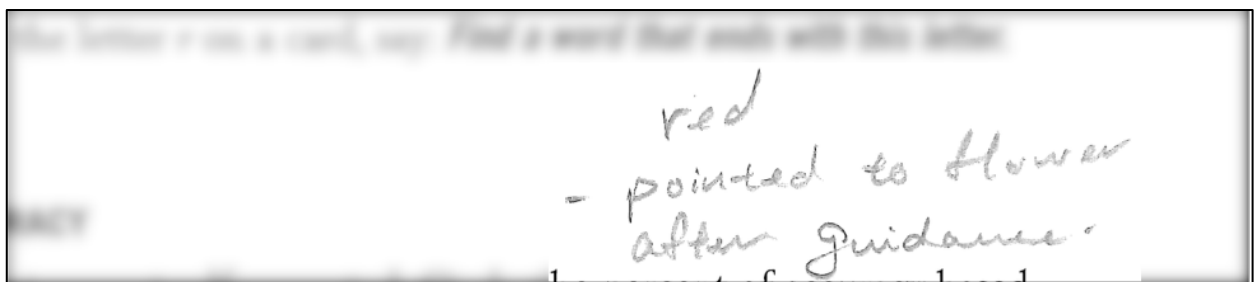
Figure 4.7

Inscription From First Question With Text From Administrator Script



Figure 4.8

Inscriptions From Second Question With Text From Administrator Script



Excerpt 4.2.1: More Straightforward Case

01 T: øAll right nOw. #(0.7)ø(.)øif you look at this page,=Page=
 s >>%looks at book->
 t >>ølooks at script----ø...ølooks at book->
 #fig 26

02 =four, (0.9)ø(1.0)ø(.) Okay,=
 t ->ø.....ølooks at script->



Fig 26

03 T: =((sniff)) Can you find (0.4) a Word (0.6) that begi:ns=
 04 T: =(0.6) wi:th (0.2)ø(0.3)ø(0.5)ø(0.2)øG.
 t ->ø.....ølks bkø....ø->

05 +(0.2)+(0.2)+(2.6)+(0.6)
 t +.....+pnt bk+----+...->

06 T: +Can you find+øa Wordø(0.2)+(1.2) that begi:ns (0.3)=
 t +points to book+,,,,,,,,,,,,,+
 t ->ø.....ølooks at script->

07 T: =&(0.3)ØwithØG:.
 s &...->
 t ->Ø....Ølooks at book->

08 (0.5)&#(0.2)
 s ->&points at book--->
 #fig 27

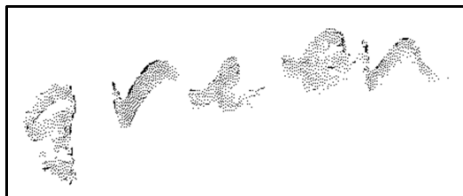


Fig 27

09 T: ØOh=+Very good.
 t >Ø,,, ->
 t +...->

10 (.)%(.)Ø&(0.3)
 s ->%,,, ->
 t ->Ølooks at script->
 s ->&,,, ->

11 T: %+°All right¿°
 s >%looks forward->
 t >+writes [X] -->
 #fig 28



X



Fig 28

12 (0.4)&% (0.2)% (0.9)Ø(.)+(0.2)+(0.3)Ø
 s ->&
 s ->%.....%looks at book->
 t ->Ø.....Ølooks at book->
 t ->+,,,,, +

13 T: Now. (1.3) ((sniff)) >All right.< (.) Now. (1.4)
 14 Can you find a wor:d (1.3) that EN ds: (.) with R:..
 15 (.)&(0.4)
 s &...->

16 T: >I'll say it&again¿< (0.4)=
 ->&---->

```

17 T: =Can you find a word that ENds. (.) with R.
18 (0.2)&(0.6)&(1.5)+(.)ø(.)
s ->&.....&points at book->
t +...->
t ->ø...->

```

```

19 T: #°Mm¿°
#fig 29

```

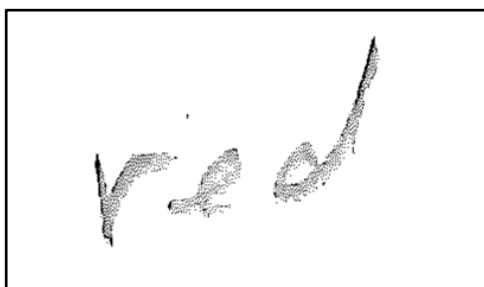


Fig 29

```

20 &(.)ø(0.4)+(0.3)&(0.2)%#(0.2)+(0.2)ø(0.2)+(0.7)
s >&,,,,,,,,,,,,,&
t ->ølooks at script-----ø...->
t ->+writes [Y]-----+,,,,,,,,,,,,+
s ->%.....%looks at script->
#fig 30

```



Y

```

21 ø(.)%(0.3)%(.)+(.)
t ølooks at book->
s ->%.....%looks at book->
t +...->

```



Fig 30

22 T: Is+that the end,ø(0.4)ø&of&the word?#
 t ->+points to book->
 t ->ø.....ølooks at S->
 s &...&---->

#fig 31



Fig 31

23 (1.1) & (0.5) & (0.2) # (0.2) & (0.2)
 s ->&.....&-----&...->
 #fig 32



Fig 32



Fig 33

24 T: orø the beøgi&nning.#
 t ->ø.....ølooks at book->
 s ->&points to book->
 #fig 33


```

25      (0.6)+(0.2)&#
t          ->+,,, ->
s          ->&,,, ->
          #fig 34

```



Fig 34

```

26  T:      O:%:::h&%
s      ->%.....%looks at script->>
t      ->+
s      ->&

27  T:      °I see:..°
28  T:      +So, remember (.) this+is the beginning, (0.2)+and=
t      +.....+points to book-----+...->

29  T:      =this+is the+end.ç=°Alright?°ç
t      ->+points to book--->
s      çnodes-----ç

30      (.)
31  T:      +So ending with+R: (0.2)+is flo+wer.
t      >+.....+pnts book+,,,,,+

32      (0.4)
33  T:      +ø°Okay¿°
t      +...->
t      >ø...->

34      (0.5)ø(.)+
t      ->ølooks at script->>
t      ->+writes->>

(...)

```

We can begin our observations by recognizing that the first question-answer sequence in the series (lines 4-9) is successful in producing a correct response and is not expanded, while the second (lines 14-19) is unsuccessful and is expanded (lines 22-26). This is an empirical recurrence throughout the corpus of documenting feedback and suggests that the practice is oriented toward the remediation of incorrect responses. Considering that incorrect responses may emerge during any question-answer sequence, examining how a successful one plays out will provide important perspective on the interactional context from which incorrect responses emerge and in which the practice of documenting feedback is deployed.

Our first examination focuses on the turn design of T's test prompt (lines 03-04; repeated at lines 06-07). This prompt is scripted but produced ad hoc; the administrator script encourages the teacher to show the student a card with the letter *g* on it and to say "Find a word that begins with this letter." Rather than doing so, T emphasizes salient characteristics of the object which S is to find by increasing the pitch or volume of his voice while pausing repeatedly (lines 03-04).

T deploys this turn design again when he repeats the test prompt (lines 06-07) after pointing repeatedly to the book page (line 05-06), thus indicating the referential field from which S should find (i.e., touch, point to) the word. However, even before that repetition is complete, S prepares her response by stretching out her hand (line 07), making contact with the book page in the silence after T has completed his turn (line 08, Fig 27). T immediately receipts this response with a change of state token "Oh" followed immediately by a positive evaluation of it "Very good." (line 09), at which time he also prepares to record S's answer (line 09, X) by drawing his gaze away from the book and bringing it, along with his writing hand, toward the administrator script.

Having moved into writing position, T quietly acknowledges the response and closes the test-item sequence ("°All right_i°", line 11), filling the interactional space opened up by

his simultaneous writing activity. Having withdrawn her hand from the point and her gaze from the book (line 10), S's orientation to T's being engaged in writing as a normal state of affairs is observable in the fact that she stares outward into space (line 11). That is, even though T moves his gaze toward the administrator script after receipting and acknowledging S's embodied response, S does not join him by gazing at the script. Instead, she gazes outward (fig 28) and then at the book (line 12). This is where she gazed at the beginning of the sequence (line 01); she returns her gaze to this position as she waits for the next prompt. Thus, by not watching T write, she co-constructs that writing as a normal state of affairs.

The way the participants co-construct the second test-item sequence stands in stark contrast to the first. Here (lines 14-26), the participants not only conduct themselves differently but that conduct also evidences their orientations to the state of affairs as being different. Things start out roughly the same, with T signaling the shift into a new test-item sequence (line 13), much as he had previously (line 01), with ">All right.< (.) Now." and the ad hoc production of a test prompt that emphasizes salient features of the desired referential object ("Can you find a world (1.3) that EN ds: (.) with R::.", 14; cf. lines 03-04). S treats this a complete action and initiates her embodied response almost immediately by beginning to lean forward for the point (line 15). Here we find evidence that S is treating the single production of the testing prompt as sufficient, even though the prompt was produced twice in the previous example; if the prompt is to be reproduced, then a single instance should be sufficient if S is able to produce a relevant response to it.

Interestingly, however, T does not let S follow through with that response but, instead, prospectively formulates his upcoming repeat (">I'll say it again<", line 16); the compressed production of this formulation, as well as S's interruption of her forward movement (line 16) indicate that it was designed and understood to be a preempting of S's turn before it is completed. T is encouraging S to be cautious. The necessity for that caution

emerges in the design of T's repeat, which breaks from the pattern of the three test prompts that have come before (lines 3-4; lines 06-07; line 14).

Here, instead of emphasizing multiple parts of the prompt, T emphasizes only one element; notice how "ENds." (line 17) is produced with increased pitch, amplitude and tempo. He is warning S that she should search for a lexical item of the open book page that has a word-*final* "R", rather than a word-initial one.

T's subtle warning is unsuccessful; S points at what appears to be the word "red," with its word-initial "R", as is evidenced by the inscriptions T makes (Fig 30, Y) immediately afterwards (line 20). It is within this environment, where we discover the participants engaging in feedback and its documentation. What is more, their orientations to this environment as being different than before are clearly observable in their talk and embodied conduct.

First, notice how T receipts (line 19) S's incorrect response, after which he engages in writing (line 20) and does not initiate feedback on that incorrect answer (line 22) until that writing is already finished. The fact that T writes down S's response indicates that he recognizes it as something that is writable; S's response is incorrect but it is recognizable to T and, therefore, is documentable *as* a response.

Nevertheless, the way T receipts it is markedly different from the way he receipted the correct response during the previous sequence (03-09). There, T's receipt consisted of a change-of-state token combined with an explicit evaluation of the answer (line 09). Here (line 19), the receipt is minimal; it is non-lexical, the intonational contour is not final, there is no evaluative component and it is quietly produced more than 1.5 after S's finger has made contact with the surface of the book page (line 18). T works up S's response "red" as problematic in the way that he responds to it, both sequentially and in the design of his turn.

No matter how divergent this sequence may be from the one previous, S and T are nevertheless successful in achieving an intersubjective understanding of what they are doing as well as how they should proceed. Understanding how this is possible requires attention to how the participants monitor the progression of one another's verbal and embodied actions. Notice how their embodied conduct emerges in relation to their verbal turns.

For example, S responds to T's prompt by pointing to the open page (line 18, Fig 29), retracting (line 20) only after T has verbally receipted it (line 19). Before receipting, however, T prepares for writing activity and gaze movement (line 18), indicating that he interprets S's point to be her response. These embodied actions by T are carefully monitored by S. First, she follows T's gaze movement toward the administrator script by gazing there herself (line 20). Then, as T finishes writing and shifts his gaze back toward the book page, S follows; she also shifts her gaze toward the book page (line 21).

With both participants gazing together, T questions the accuracy of S's previous response, pointing to the book page and holding that point as he shifts his gaze toward her (line 22). T's gaze arrives at S as his turn comes to a grammatical point of completion; S orients to this convergence by initiating a point toward a different location on the page (line 22). She pauses that initiation, however, when T continues his turn with an increment (line 22, Fig 31). S then vacillates between preparing the point and pausing it (line 23, Fig 32) finally reaching the page as T completes yet another increment (line 24, Fig 33). Although glare and the camera angle makes it impossible to be sure, based upon the relative location of her point on the book page it appears that S has pointed to the word "flower." Only then does T retract (line 25) the point he has been holding. S again monitors T, beginning to retract her point after T has begun to retract his (Fig 34) and, in synch with T's change of state token (line 26), S moves her gaze from the book page to the administrator script. These details

illustrate how the participants closely monitor the progression of one another's actions in order to determine when and how to initiate their own.

It is important to note that the material production of the writable (line 20) precedes T's verbal reaction (line 22) to S's initial response. At line 18, S points at the page. Although glare and the camera angle make it impossible to verify, based on the relative location of her point as well as the inscription T makes at this point "red" (line 20; Y), it is highly likely she has pointed to the word "red" on the book page. After S points at the page, T begins to move his writing hand and gaze toward his script (line 18), thereby configuring writing. He does receipt S's response (line 19). However, this receipt, "°Mm¿°", is not only minimal and non-lexical but it is also muted and produced within a rising intonation contour. Furthermore, after focusing on writing, T begins to retract his writing hand before beginning to gaze to at the book (line 20); completing the writing takes precedent over configuring the intervention.

Prioritization of writing over talk is also observable in S's monitoring of T's writing activity. Recall the first question-answer sequence (lines 03-09) analyzed above. There, T swiftly and overtly receipted S's correct answer, positively evaluated it, and engaged in writing; S did not monitor that writing and instead stared out into space. In contrast, here, the potentially problematic nature of S's response (line 18), adumbrated by T's minimal receipt (line 19) and immediate engagement in writing (lines 18-20), occasion S's monitoring of T's embodied activity. That monitoring continues and is evident in S's sensitivity to T's deconfiguring of the writing (line 20); she carefully attends to T's work with the administrator script and times her gaze shift, in synch with him, toward the book page (line 21).

The ensuing intervention puts the writing activity on hold. T has directed his gaze from the administrator script toward S (line 22) and has repurposed his writing implement for use as a pointer (Fig 31). Although talk has taken priority over writing at this moment, this is

only temporary. S relies on T's manual retraction (line 25) to determine that she should retract her point (line 25), even before he receipts S's modified response with a change of state token ("O:::h", line 26). Furthermore, S orients to T's retraction (line 25) as his potential preparation for writing; observe that she independently shifts her gaze toward the administrator script (line 26). T then acknowledges the modified response °I see:.° (line 27).

However, rather than move directly into writing, T reaches out to point toward the book (line 28). As T does this he initiates an instructional sequence (lines 28-31). The core of that sequence is T's multimodal demonstration (lines 28-29) of where a word begins and where it ends and S aligning response (i.e. a nod, line 29). T then builds an upshot to the instructional sequence (line 31). From the verbal content of that upshot (i.e. "So ending with R: (0.2) is flower."), we are able to confirm that S's modified response (line 24) was in fact a point at the word "flower."

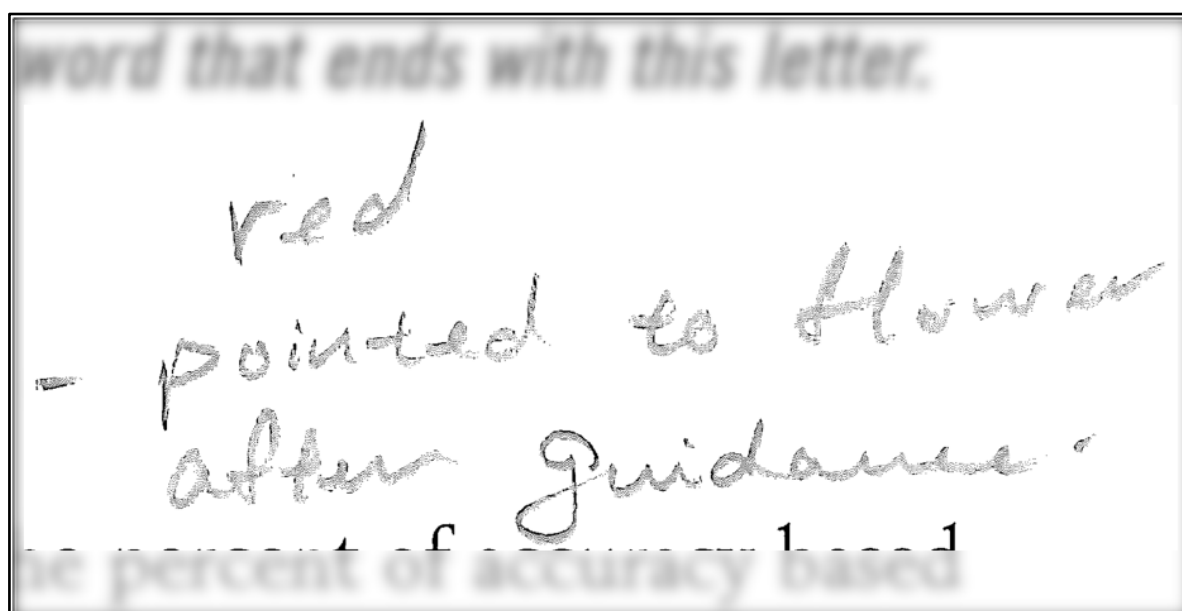
After T completes the upshot, he marks the transition toward another activity ("°Okay¿", line 33) and begins to write. Although glare and the camera angle make it impossible to verify, based upon the relative location of T's pencil upon his administrator script, it appears that his inscriptions at this point (line 34) comprise the dash (i.e. "-") and the words "pointed to flower after guidance" which are visible in Figure 4.9 below. Before he finishes writing, T congratulates S on her hard work and dismisses her to return to the classroom (not included in the transcript).

In summary, although the participants encounter a challenge when S gives an incorrect response despite T's subtle warnings, they successfully navigate the situation. This success stems from their mutual monitoring of each other's involvement in conversation and physical actions. By staying attuned to each other's engagement, they establish a shared understanding that emphasizes the importance of documenting both the initial incorrect response and the revised one.

T's intervention proves effective as a form of feedback; by adjusting the multiactivity configuration, T prompts S to quickly provide a corrected answer. These dynamics make Excerpt 4.2.1 a clear example of a straightforward feedback documentation process. Notably, this straightforwardness is also observable in the resulting material record, as shown in Figure 4.9 below, which visually represents the sequence of feedback that occurred during this interaction.

Figure 4.9

Inscriptions Produced During Excerpt 4.2.1



Note. From top to bottom: “red”, “—pointed to flower after guidance.”

This document represents not only the response (“red”), the intervention (“guidance”), and the modified response (“pointed to flower”) but also their serial relationship (“after”). It should also be noted that these are, of course, formulations. For example, the inscription “red” is a rather loose gloss for action that occurred in sequence (i.e., that on line 18, Fig 29, Y) and which has been discussed here as pointing. Compare this with the next inscription, which also formulates the student’s embodied action (i.e., “pointed to”) in addition to the

graphic object that is its material referent (i.e., “flower”). More or less detailed, both of these formulations are rather specific compared with the formulation of the teacher’s action (“guidance”).

Surely, the manner of the student’s pointing gestures could be formulated in (perhaps infinitely) more detail. Nevertheless, the gloss for the teacher’s action is much more general. The reader is not privy to whether such guidance was provided using embodied resources (e.g., T’s manual gesture on line 22, Figs 31–33) nor how the talk-based components (e.g., T’s polar interrogative on line 22; its transformation into a choice between “end” and “beginning” at line 24) were designed. As such, these inscriptions are less documents of the feedback, per se, than they are documents of the feedback’s sequential organization. That is, by explicitly serializing S’s response (“red”), T’s intervention (“guidance”), and S’s modified response (“pointed to flower”), the documents are made accountable to the reader as a record of normative feedback activity but are, nevertheless, considerably selective and asymmetrical.

4.2.3.2 Less Straightforward Example. In the previous subsection, we explored a relatively straightforward example of documenting feedback, highlighting how participants work together to organize the sequence of test items, interventions, and feedback documentation. This process was primarily linear but occasionally simultaneous; for instance, the teacher acknowledged the student’s response while preparing to write down the initial feedback. The inscriptions created during this interaction reflected a clear sequence: the test prompt, the incorrect response, the intervention, and the modified response.

Now, let’s examine a less straightforward example. In this case, feedback does not smoothly lead to the student’s revised response. Unlike the previous instance, where a delay in response was manageable, here, the participants struggle to understand each other,

affecting the interaction's progression. Specifically, the teacher's pursuit of an absent response and the student's anticipation of the teacher's next action lead both to ignore one another completely. As a result, the student's attempts at a modified response are systematically excluded from the inscriptions that emerge from the interaction. In other words, the student's efforts to provide a modified response are left out of the final documentation.

A key point of contrast between this and the previous excerpt is the relative prioritization of either talk or writing. In the previous example, feedback activity (i.e. second test-item sequence on lines 14-27 in excerpt 4.2.1, subsection 4.2.1 above) was characterized by a prioritization of writing over talk. However, in the less straightforward example to be analyzed below, the opposite is true; the participants' problems in accomplishing the feedback result in their prioritization of talk over writing activity.

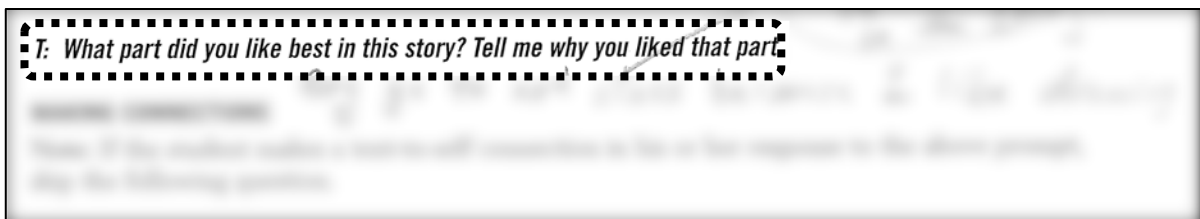
It should be noted that the relative prioritization of writing or talk is a biproduct of the participants attempts to achieve a shared understanding of what they *should be* doing. After the student is unsuccessful in producing an initial response, the teacher sets aside the writing activity to provide talk-based feedback which might enable the student to produce a modified response. Therefore, it would be incorrect to analyze this prioritization of talk over writing as their interactional accomplishment.

Even though the participants are focused on understanding one another, and thereby co-construct the FA interaction, the fact that their co-construction deprioritizes writing is important for our analysis. This is because written documentation is always a Lebenswelt Pair; written documentation cannot be understood fully until it is compared with the interaction from which it emerged. Furthermore, in the case to be examined below, the final documents selectively and implicitly represent both the content *and* the ordering of the events they purportedly document. This result emerges from the prioritization of talk over writing.

Before beginning the analysis, it's important to note that the upcoming excerpts involve open-ended questions. Although these questions are scripted in the DRA®2 materials, there are no predetermined answers like in the previous example. This distinction can be observed in Figures 4.10, which shows the teacher's script from the DRA14 administration, the source of the following excerpt. The two-part test prompt is scripted as "What part did you like best in this story? Tell me why you liked that part" (see Figure 4.10, immediately below). The interactional turn which produces (a slight modification of) the first part of the prompt emerges at lines 01-03; the interactional turn which produces (a modification of) the second part of the prompt emerges at line 24.

Figure 4.10

Close-up of Test Prompt (Boxed) for Excerpt 4.2.2



Note. Test prompt reads "What part did you like best in the story? Tell me why you liked that part." Notice lack of possible responses.

The lack of predefined responses in the script significantly affects how the test-item sequences unfold, both in terms of interaction and documentation. Interactionally, the teacher must take a more proactive role in understanding what the test prompt is intended to elicit from the student. Since the script doesn't provide any example responses, the teacher has to interpret the prompt on their own. Additionally, as the student gives longer answers, the teacher must engage in sustained writing to document these responses accurately, requiring

them to write down the student's words verbatim. Our analysis will explore how the participants manage this writing while also engaging in interaction.

In Excerpt 4.2.2, we observe the same teacher (T) and a different student (S) in a similar seating arrangement as in Excerpt 4.2.1. T holds the administrator script, as shown in Figure 4.11 (below), and a pencil. One key difference is that the book they were discussing has been removed from the scene. We join the interaction as T prompts S (line 01).

Excerpt 4.2.2: Less Straightforward Case

01 T: ∅%What part (.) did you like the best.

t >>∅looks at script->

s >>%looks at script->

02 (.)

03 T: %>in the story.<%

s >%.....%looks up and away->

04 (2.1)∅(0.5)∅#(23.8)

t ->∅.....∅looks at S->

#fig 35



Fig 35

05 S: °I don't kno:w.°=

06 T: =∅You told me the+∅story ju+st+°now.°=You+said+they=

t >∅.....∅looks at script->

t +.....+gstr+,,,,,,+ +...->

14 T: Scuse+ME?+
t ->+pokes S's leg w/ thumb+...->

15 (0.3)+(.)+%(.)+(.)#+(.)
t ->+pks+....+pks-+...->
s ->%...->
#fig 38



Fig 38

16 T: Sc+use+me.=I want you to+focus.
t ->+pks+,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,+

17 S: Art%claøss¿#
s ->%looks at T->
t ->ø...->
#fig 39



Fig 39

18 (0.2)ø(0.2)%(.)
t ->ølooks at script->
s ->%...->

19 T: And on%FRiday,=the boy and girl play together.
s ->%looks at script->>

20 (0.4)

21 T: So+Øtell me+which+part that you like+="°°Okay?°°=
t +.....+gstrs+,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,+
t ->Ølooks at S->

22 T: =Øwhich+part [you Ølike.]

23 S: [Boy (.) go](.) to (.) art+(.) class,
t >Ø.....Ølooks at script->>
t +.....+writes->

24 T: Okay.= Tell me (.)why you+like this one °the best.°
->+lifts and lowers pencil->

25 (.)+(.)
t ->+writes [Z]->

26 S: Be(.)cause (0.2) I like (.) dra:wing.
27 (0.4)
28 T: °Oh=I see.°
29 (7.4)
32 T: Very good.
33 (0.6)
34 T: Now. (1.0)+conne+ctions. (...)
t ->+,,,,,,+

best in this story? Tell me why you liked that part.

Boy go to art class because I like drawing

kes a text-to-self connection in his or her response to the above prompt,

Z

Our observations must begin by noticing how a lack of mutual attention is at the heart of the participants' struggles to achieve a shared understanding. More specifically, it is a lack of mutual attention by the participants for one another's multimodal engagements that precipitates their flagrance of the boundaries of each other's actions. For example, notice how their embodied orientation and attention are problematically dispersed. This begins as T orients to the absence of S's response; T rapidly produces the prepositional phrase ">in the story.<" (line 03). Although this phrase is scripted as part of the test prompt, his first turn "What part (.) did you like the best." (line 01) is produced with strongly falling intonation. Thus, it can be said that T rushes to complete the prompt, as an increment, when S's response is not immediately forthcoming.

S, on the other hand, diverts his gaze away (line 03). T further pursues the response, shifting gaze toward S (line 04). T maintains that gaze, pursuing S's response across a long gap (line 04, Fig 35). When S finally responds, he does so quietly and while gazing up and away from T (line 05). T immediately shifts his gaze toward his administrator script (line 06) and begins reading off his notes from S's previous retelling of the story, gesturing with each unit (lines 06–08). S does not display reciprocity to T's gestures or his reading, however, only shifting eye gaze toward T as he produces a new response between two units of T's ongoing turn (line 09, Fig 36).

This shift does not occasion mutual gaze, however, as T continues gazing at his script and produces two more units in his ongoing turn (lines 10–12). Again, S does not display reciprocity to these units; he shifts his gaze away (line 10, Fig 37) and maintains it. It is this lack of embodied attention that is held accountable by T, who interrupts his ongoing turn to look at (line 13), touch, and verbally summon (line 14) S. T's subsequent touch (lines 15–16, Fig 38) and talk (line 16) recruit S's gaze direction (Fig 39) and, incidentally, verbal participation (line 17); the latter is, like before (line 09), ignored by T, who continues his turn

(line 19). By continuing his turn and thereby ignoring S's attempt to modify his previous response, T unilaterally progresses the sequence without regard for S's participation in it.

The participants' lack of mutual monitoring for one another's ongoing multimodal actions and the negotiation it precipitates result in a prioritization of the talk over the writing activity. Importantly, the material production of a writable is delayed. S initially responds by claiming insufficient understanding (line 05). T does not receipt this response, nor does he initiate writing it down; instead, he immediately begins to read aloud from his administrator script (line 06). By doing so, T displays his disregard for S's display of insufficient understanding as a potential writable. Interestingly, he also disregards S's subsequent, substantially-modified reference to a scene from the story (line 09). Although at this point T gazes at his administrator script (the location of a potential inscription), he opens up his writing hand, palm upward, and extends his arm forward at the elbow in a gesture (line 09; faintly visible in Fig 36) which he continues despite S's production of "Art (.) class."

The design of S's next attempt displays an orientation to T's lack of receipt for his previous response; similar topical content is now produced tentatively, with slightly rising intonation (line 17). This too fails to get receipted or ratified as writable; rather than regarding S's production of "Art class;" as a writable, T returns his attention to the administrator script (line 18) and continues talking (line 19). S's unsuccessful attempts to modify his response only come to fruition once T has reformatted the test prompt (lines 21–22). T prefaces this turn with “so” (line 21), orienting to the prompt as emerging from incipency (Bolden, 2009) and, thus, as having been displaced by the intervening feedback talk. S then produces a reformatted response (line 23) and this is receipted by T (line 24) who simultaneously writes it down. That writing is short lived, however, because T pauses it in order to produce another prompt (line 24). This is a further example of how the progression of writing is repeatedly and consistently subordinated to the progression of the talk.

It should be noted that the verbal content of both S's first ("Art (.) class.", line 09) and second ("Art class₆", line 17) attempts at modifying his response are quite similar to that which is finally ratified as writable by T: S's third attempt namely, "Boy (.) go (.) to (.) art (.) class," (line 27). They differ in two important ways. Firstly, the first two attempts are noun phrases, while the third attempt is a complete sentence. Although there may be a normative rule which promotes the use of full sentences in elementary education, there is little evidence in the current data that this is a concern for T. It is thus inconclusive as to whether such a concern may have prevented T from regarding S's first two attempts as writable or not.

On the other hand, S's three attempts at modification differ in another important way. That is, the first two attempts were produced in the midst of T's ongoing turn. Recall that T was recounting the story that S had told him earlier, in an apparent attempt to encourage S to modify his initial response ("°I don't kno:w.°", line 05). The fact that the first two modified responses which were not regarded by T as writable were produced (lines 09 and 17) before T's recounting was projectably complete (line 19) may be significant. It suggests that T may regard a writable to be a response that is not only substantial but, also, one that is produced *in sequence*. If these are the two conditions for a response to be writable, it is possible to account for why both S's initial response (sequentially produced by unsubstantial) and his first two attempts at modification (both substantial but out of sequence) were not recorded.

In Excerpt 4.2.2, the dynamics of managing writing and talking during the feedback process become apparent, especially under the pressures of an open-ended question format. The teacher's approach highlights two potential methods for handling the interplay between these activities.

First, a teacher may manage writing-in-multiactivity by intertwining speech and inscription. This allows him to shift focus between talking and writing dynamically, pausing the conversation with S to concentrate on his writing when necessary. These dynamic shifts

ensure that T can document S's responses while still engaging in the interactive process of the assessment.

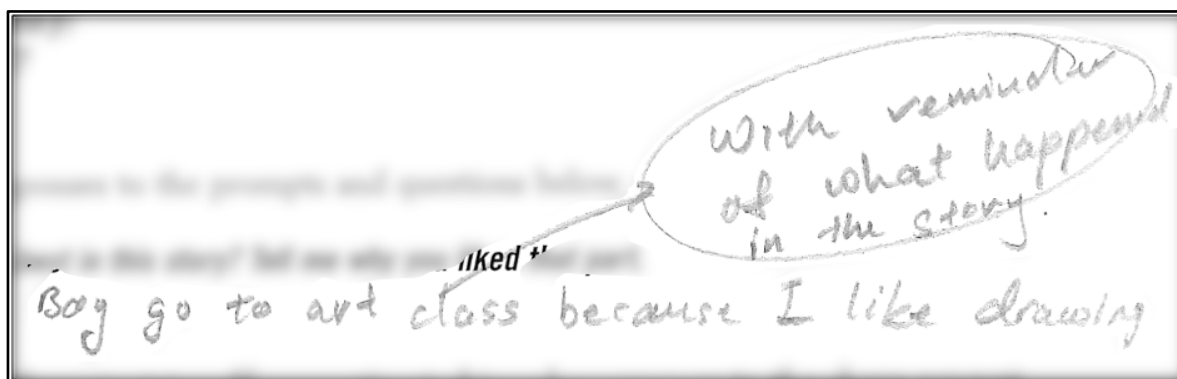
Second, a teacher may instead separate talking and writing. By delaying his writing at the beginning of the interaction, he prioritizes engaging in feedback with S. This separation enables him to focus fully on providing feedback or intervention before he turns his attention back to the written documentation.

These strategies provide ways to navigate the complexities of the assessment process. The implications for the material record are significant; the way T manages these interactions is reflected in the resulting inscriptions. In Figure 4.11 below, we see how the sequential flow of T's intervention and S's response is represented. The inscriptions serve not just as a record of what was said but also as a reflection of the interactional challenges faced during the assessment.

This detailed documentation thus becomes a critical resource for understanding both the immediate feedback process and the broader institutional expectations tied to student performance assessment. Figure 4.11 below shows the inscriptions.

Figure 4.11

Inscriptions Produced During Excerpt 4.2.2



Note. From bottom-left to top-right: “Boy go to art class because I like drawing”; “With reminder of what happened in the story.”

This document represents only the modified response (“Boy go to art class because I like drawing”) and the intervention (“With reminder of what happened in the story”). What is not represented includes the student’s response that preceded the teacher’s intervention (line 05) as well as those that interrupted it (lines 09, 17). Consequently, the sequential organization of these elements also fails to be explicated; e.g., it must be inferred by the reader when the intervention took place. Notwithstanding, as in the previous example, such inference is both necessary and possible because of the normative organization of the feedback sequence. That is, the reader can (or must) infer that the student produced some “non-response” that precipitated the teacher’s intervention (“...reminder of what...”) which was, itself, succeeded by the modified response that is recorded here (“Boy go to...”).

In this way, the feedback agenda and its documentation reflexively constitute one another. Furthermore, some parts of the interaction are curiously absent from the document. Case in point are S’s repeatedly ignored attempts at producing a modified response (lines 09, 17). Surely, these actions were delicately timed by S so as to fit between the units of T’s ongoing intervention. They do not, however, fit neatly into the normative, serial ordering of a

feedback's sequential organization. Furthermore, their exclusion results in documents that not only selectively and asymmetrically represent the interaction's topical content but also its sequencing.

Reflecting on the characteristics of the less straightforward example, it becomes clear that delays in both the student's initial and modified responses significantly hinder the feedback activity. The student's initial refusal to engage not only complicates the assessment process but also disrupts the flow of feedback. This refusal creates a gap where the teacher must navigate the silence, leading to challenges in documenting the interaction effectively.

When the student eventually attempts to respond, the repeated interruptions and the teacher's interventions become critical. The minimal nature of the student's modified response further exacerbates the situation; although he selects a relevant plot point, he fails to articulate his reasoning, prompting further intervention from the teacher. This results in a fragmented production of the response, where the student struggles to complete his thoughts, leading to a piecemeal interaction.

The inscriptions that emerge from this interaction reflect these challenges. Rather than providing a clear account of the conversation, they tend to obscure the dynamics at play. The representation of the student's contributions as a single, continuous utterance misrepresents the iterative nature of the interaction. For instance, the inscription "Boy go to art class because I like drawing" implies a seamless delivery that did not occur in reality. Instead, it erases the crucial interruptions and the back-and-forth nature of their exchange. But that is not all; the inscriptions here also obscure the teacher's unilateral progression of the exchange.

The mismatch between the participants is most striking when S attempted to modify his response (line 09) but was ignored by T (line 10). Although S may have ignored the developing sequence embodied by T's ongoing telling, he does in fact produce an aligning response to T's previous question (lines 01-03). T's response to S, or lack thereof (line 10),

does not align at all. Case in point: T's turn here begins with "On Wednesday, " and is thus a grammatical continuation of his previous utterance, "on Tuesday, the girl went to Granma's °house,°" (line 08). He thus continues on with his telling, as if S's utterance had not even occurred. Later on (lines 18-19), T again ignores S's attempt at modifying his response (line 17). How is this unilateral progression by T related to his written representation of it?

The two-part structure of the written record is essentially an embodiment of T's unilateral progression of the interaction. In other words, the strict segregation of the student's response, "Boy go to art class because I like drawing" (Figure 4.11) and his teacher's feedback "with reminder of what happened in the story." (Figure 4.11) parallels the segregation of the feedback (i.e. T's telling from lines 06-19 and his re-prompt at lines 21-22) from the modified response (i.e. S's third attempt at modifying his response at line 23). In this way, it is possible to argue that the written record faithfully, if implicitly, represents the progression of the interaction.

Regardless of how well the written record represents the interaction, there are important educational concerns to be raised about their reliability as records of the interaction. Consider the task facing stakeholders who might attempt to use these documents at a later time; this might include building administrators, literacy coaches, academic support staff, teacher colleagues, parents and even the student himself. The Lebenswelt nature of this document presents significant challenges to its legibility. Because the documents fail to indicate the pauses and interventions, and because it fails to explicitly represent the unilateral progression of the interaction, such stakeholders are presented with a simplified narrative that does not capture the complexity of the feedback process. As a result, the material record may not adequately support future assessment or instructional decisions. This highlights the need for a more nuanced approach to documenting feedback in such contexts.

4.2.3.3 Complex Trajectory. In examining the complexities of documenting feedback, Excerpt 4.2.3(a-d) presents a nuanced case that oscillates between a more and less straightforward progression. This excerpt involves the same teacher (T) prompting a different student (S) to reflect on a personal connection to the story *Time to Play* (Beaver and Carter 2006). Unlike the previous instance, where the student initially refused to respond, here the student actively claims that she has no connection to the narrative. A single interaction is presented across four excerpts (i.e. Excerpts 2.2.3a through Excerpts 2.2.3d).

The teacher's response to this assertion is crucial. Initially, he attempts to guide her toward a more productive engagement by clarifying the expectations for a sufficient response. This moment exemplifies the interactional dynamics at play: the teacher's role as both an evaluator and a facilitator of the student's thinking. His intervention, however, introduces a tension. While it is aimed at prompting deeper reflection, it also risks creating a scenario where the student feels pressured or frustrated, leading to potential disengagement.

As the interaction unfolds, at times the dialogue flows smoothly with the teacher successfully eliciting a response. However, there are also moments when the student appears to struggle, creating a back-and-forth dynamic that complicates the progression of the feedback process. These fluctuations between productive and unproductive exchanges highlight the rich complexity inherent in the practice of documenting feedback.

The material organization of the inscriptions also reflects this complexity. At points, the documentation captures the essence of the interaction, illustrating the teacher's supportive prompts alongside the student's evolving responses. Yet, in regards to moments of difficulty, the resulting inscriptions do not fully convey the nuances of the interaction, obscuring the challenges faced by the student.

In one sense, this is simply yet another example of the *Lebenswelt* nature of written documentation. Perhaps the written documents of feedback may never fully represent the

feedback interactions. That said, when the documents involved influence educational decision making, it is critically important to analyze when and how the process of documenting feedback might influence the quality of its final written products.

The following case (4.3.2a-d, below) provides a particularly fruitful opportunity to examine how the process of documenting feedback may be related to the documents of feedback which emerge. This is because the case below illustrates that the practice of documenting feedback is not merely a binary categorization of more or less straightforward progressions. Instead, it is characterized by a rich interplay of actions, interactions, and material representations that collectively shape the feedback process. This complexity emphasizes the need for a more holistic approach to analyzing feedback interactions, recognizing that they can simultaneously encompass elements of both clarity and confusion.

The test prompt is scripted as "What did this story make you think of? or What connections did you make while reading this story?" The interactional turn which produces (a modification of) this prompt emerges at lines 01-04.

Excerpt 4.2.3a: Complex Case

01 T: ∅%So when you rea:d this sto:ry, #(0.6) ↑what- (.) ↑what do=
t >>∅looks at book->
s >>%looks at book->

#fig 40

02 =you think of.



Fig 40

03 (0.4)
04 T: ∅About yours∅elf.%="°How do you thi%nk?"°°
t >∅.....∅looks at S->
s ->%.....%looks at T->

05 (0.5)∅(0.3)+(.)∅(0.8)%(3.0)+%∅(0.3)
t ->∅,,,,,,∅looks at script->
t +.....+positions pencil->
s ->%.....%looks up->
s ∅...->

At the start, this excerpt is characterized by the participants' mutual monitoring of one another's multimodal actions. Notice how they display their waxing and waning engagements in writing and in talk. First, S and T shift their gaze toward one another as T's prompt comes to completion, orienting to the relevance of turn transition (line 04). T further displays his orientation to S's upcoming response by moving his gaze and hand, entering into writing position (line 05). A silence ensues when S produces no verbal response ("0.8", line 08). This first display of difficulty in producing an immediate response is then followed by a series of embodied actions.

By looking up (line 05) and tilting her head (line 06, Fig 41), S displays her participation in the sequence and her problems in producing a response. S's troubles do not go unnoticed. First, T orients to her embodied conduct by shifting his gaze toward her (line 06). Next, he does encouraging by nodding when perturbations emerge in S's incipient verbal response (line 07). Finally, T determines that S has finished her response by attending not only to the grammatical and prosodic completion of her verbal turn but also to its embodied elements. That is, T begins configuring writing only after S begins retracting her posture and shifting gaze toward his administrator script (line 08, Fig 42).

The participants' mutual monitoring of one another's multimodal actions enables them to prioritize the writing over the talk. Importantly, the material production of the writable is immediate. That production is configured even before S begins to produce her verbal response; T moves his gaze and hand toward the script soon after he completes his prompt (line 05). Surely, T does nod his head during S's incipient response (07), but this cannot be analyzed as doing receipting. Its sequential emergence after a long silence, after perturbations have begun to emerge and simultaneous with the verb, but before its complement, mean that this nod should be analyzed, rather, as doing encouraging to continue.

After S continues, however, and produces the verb complement, T does not do verbal

receipt of it. Instead, he writes. In fact, before T says anything out loud (see Excerpt 4.2.3.1b, below), he shifts his gaze and moves his pencil to the document surface, writes and brings that writing to completion (line 08). The emerging relevance of T's writing activity is projected by S, who shifts her gaze to the administrator script even before T does (line 08, Fig 42).

Further evidence for the prioritization of writing can be found nearly 2 s after T's pencil makes contact with the administrator script. Here, T silently mouths the word "kay" (line 08), recognizable on the visual record as a form of the receipt token "okay." Here, T's orientation to the fact that talk is being put on hold for writing approaches, but does not break, the interactional surface. Nevertheless, that orientation vividly demonstrates how prioritizing writing over talk is a reality for the participants themselves.

We return to the action as the writing activity comes to a close; in Excerpt 4.2.3b T has brought his hand to rest on the administrator script at his lap. Now he receipts ("Okay," line 09) S's response and, simultaneously, moves his gaze and extends his left hand toward the book "I Can Play."

Excerpt 4.2.3b: Complex Case

09 T: $\emptyset$ Okay=~~Let's~~ think toge:ther.

t > $\emptyset$...->

t $\neq$...->

10 +(.) $\emptyset$ %(0.3)

t +...->

t -> $\emptyset$ looks at book->

s ->%...->

11 T: What is the~~st~~o%ry about.~~#~~=This story is about+two=

t ->~~#~~holds up book->

t ->+taps book repeatedly-----+...->

s ->%looks at book->

#fig 43



Fig 43

12 =people,+(.) who like to:

t ->+drags pencil over book->

13 $\emptyset$ (.) $\emptyset$ (0.5)

t > $\emptyset$.. $\emptyset$ looks at S->

14 S: Pla:y[?
 15 T: +[They+like to play together=Right?
 t ->+.....+taps book repeatedly->

16 +(0.3)+(.)∂(0.2)∂
 t >+,,,,,+
 s ∂nods-∂

17 T: However, do+they+al#ways have+time+to play together?
 t +....+gestures-----+,,,,,+
 #fig 44



Fig 44

18 (0.4)
 19 S: °No¿°
 20 T: +Sometimes+they don't have+time=Right?+
 t +.....+gestures-----+,,,,,,,,,,,,,+

21 (.)
 22 S: °°(Right/Yeah)°°
 23 T: +But there are some+times+that they ha:ve time.+
 t +.....+gstrs+,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,+

24 (0.4)∂(0.5)∂
 s ∂nods-∂

25 T: (Aright / Okay).

26 T: So:, (0.4)+what about+you?+
t +.....+gstr+,,, ->

27 (0.2)+(1.0)
t ->+

28 T: Do: you+always+get to+play+with your friends?
t +.....+gstrs-+,,, +

29 (1.0)
30 S: No:¿
31 T: Mhn¿
32 T: øSo can you#tell me about it?
t >ø,,, ->
t ->#,,, ->

33 (0.9)#ø(.)%(0.6)%#(.)
t ->#places book down
t ->ølooks left->
s ->%.....%looks at script->
#fig 45

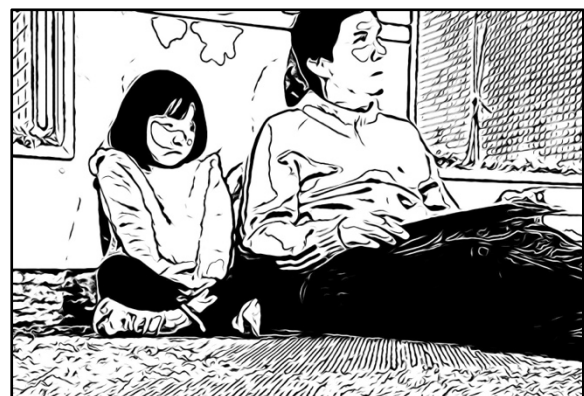


Fig 45

34 T: ((cou+gh))
t ->+...>

35 (0.4)+(0.9)%(.)%(.)
t ->+positions hand->
s ->%...%looks at T->

Here, shared understanding of the activity is achieved by carefully negotiating the necessary elements of an appropriate response. This can be observed in how the questions are tilted toward the answers they tentatively receive. First, T immediately begins to answer his own question with a designedly incomplete utterance (lines 11–12), looking at S (line 13) as he points to the book (lines 11–12, Fig 43). S produces an aligning response, but after a gap (line 13) and with strongly rising intonation (line 14). T reformats their collaborative utterance as agreeable with a tag question (line 15), to which S aligns with a nod, after another gap (line 16).

This pattern of question-answer-agreement is repeated. T prefaces the next question with “however” and gestures while punching up “always” (line 17, Fig 44), displaying preference for a negative answer. S produces one, although very quietly and after a gap, with rising intonation (line 19). T then produces an agreeable with another tag question (line 20), and S aligns, again quietly, again after a gap (line 22).

T prefaces the next question with “but” and punches up “sometimes” (line 23); S aligns to his displayed preference for an affirmative answer, nodding after a gap (line 24). This last sequence bucks the trend. Rather than seeking agreement, here, T does acknowledgment (line 25) and then upshots the entire series of “think(ing) together” (line 09) as relevant to S’s upcoming telling (line 26).

The participant’s negotiation of the sequence’s progression results in their prioritization of the talk over the writing. Critically, no writables emerge, while the writing implements are instead repurposed for gestural action. Throughout the wider corpus, writables that represent a student’s reading performance are regularly produced during test-item sequences but here, from the start, T prospectively formulates the ensuing interaction to be something different; notice the action projection at line 09.

This turn has two parts: first, T distinguishes his talk as a transition with "Okay"; second, T formulates the upcoming interaction with a volitional construction " Let's think toge:ther." It is of particular interest that T emphasizes the word "think"; by punching it up, T highlights the contrast between thinking and what he and S have been doing so far (e.g., reading, testing, talking). It is also notable that he stretches out the word "together"; by stretching it out, T highlights the contrast between who will be doing the thinking (i.e. both of them) and whose actions have been in focus so far (i.e. S, as the assessed student).

With his action projection, T temporarily suspends the relevance of producing writables; apparently, he and S will be taking an interactional detour, of sorts, from the assessment activity they are otherwise involved in. In fact, T's suspends that relevancy in three ways: (1) prospectively by his action projection (line 09); (2) continually each time he uses his writing hand to make contact with the book (lines 11–12, Fig 43; line 15) or to gesture in the air (lines 17, Fig 44; lines 20, 23, 26, 28), and (3) retrospectively when he formulates the talk-based intervention as having displaced the production of writable answers when he restarts the prompt from incipency (Bolden, 2009) by prefacing it with "so" (line 32).

Now T's intervention is coming to a close; in Excerpt 4.2.3.1c T has moved his hand into writing position above the paper, and S has shifted her gaze toward him. Now she begins to respond ("Be(.)cau:s:e...", line 36) to T's guiding question, and T begins writing (line 36).

Excerpt 4.2.3c: Complex Case

36 S: Be(.)cau:s[:e (0.2)] (1.0)+I nee-%(0.3)%#(0.7)=
 37 T: [M+h m ɿ]
 t ->+.....+writes [b]->
 s ->%.....%looks at script->
 #fig 46

With guidance -

b

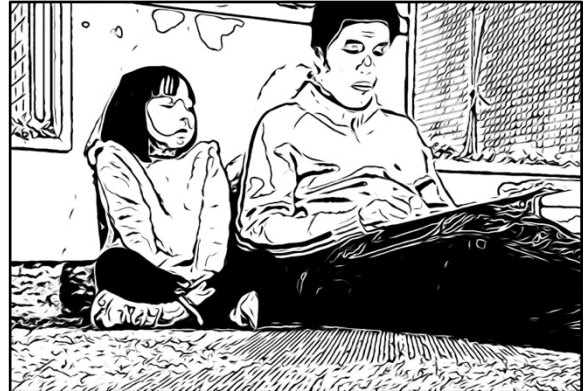


Fig 46

38 S: =%(0.3)%need to go schoo:l
 s >%,,,,,%looks at T->

39 T: Mhmɿ
 40 S: Um (0.2)+and (0.4) everyday °on Mon°day,
 t ->+writes [c]->

I need to go school

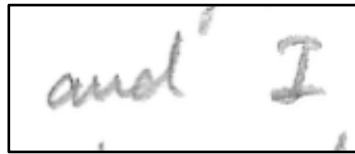
c

41 T: Mhmɿ
 42 S: And Tuesday=Wenday,
 43 T: Mhmɿ
 44 (0.2)+(0.2)
 t ->+writes [d]->

everyday

d

45 S: Thursday Fri↓days[: :]
 46 T: [Mhm̩]
 47 S: And I-(0.2) and%+(0.8) I%(.)%c*om:e+back==
 s ->%.....%lks scr%,,,%looks up/away->>
 t ->+writes [e]-----+lifts pencil-->



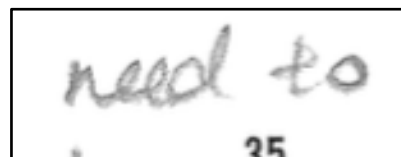
e

48 S: =(1.4)∅(0.6)∅#(1.2) I need to do (0.2)∫(0.2)∫=
 t ->∅.....∅looks toward S->
 t ∫nods-∫
 #fig 47

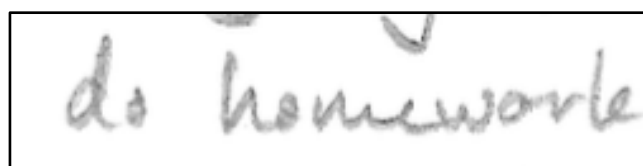


Fig 47

49 S: =∅+m: (0.5)∅(0.3)+(3.0) my homework̩
 t >∅.....∅looks at script->>
 t ->+.....+writes [f]->



50 T: Mhm̩
 51 (0.2)+(1.2)
 t ->+writes [g]



g

52 S: And I need to go do: (.) (0.5) Kumon,
 53 =[o r] + (0.8) um
 54 T: [°°Mhm̩°°]
 t ->+writes [h]->

35
 and kumon
 h

55 T: °Mhm̩°
 56 (0.4)
 57 S: Some- soøomethingø(0.4)%else̩
 t ->ø.....ølooks at S->
 s ->%...->

58 T: %Mhm̩̩
 s >%looks at T->

59 S: So,+(.)%(.)+I (.) %#+ø cannot ø+ (0.4) I do:n't have time=
 t ->+.....+gesture-+,,,,,,,,,,,,+writes [i]->
 s ->%,,,,,,,,,,,,,%looks away->
 #fig 48
 t ->ø.....ølooks at script->

so I don't have
 i

60 =for (0.2) dat*.

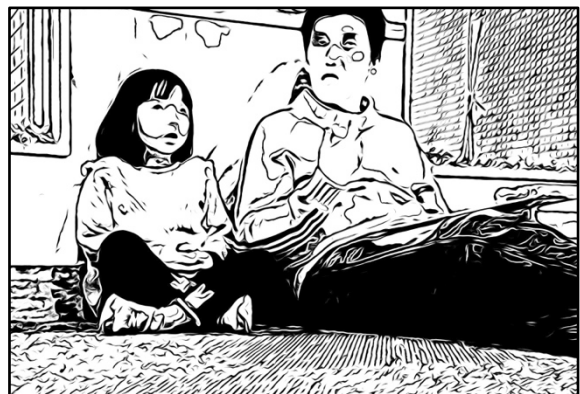


Fig 48

Here, the participants are able to achieve a shared understanding of the sequence's progression because they carefully monitor one another's verbal and embodied actions. This is evidenced by how their conduct concentrates not only between, but also within, the boundaries of S's emerging units. For example, T produces continuers in the turn space with no gap and no substantial overlap after S produces the first unit of her telling (line 39), after a first list item (line 41), and after each of the remaining items in that list (lines 43, 46). T thereby returns speakership to S and displays alignment to her ongoing telling.

When the progressivity of that telling becomes problematic, however, T's conduct occurs within S's units. First, T orients to S's trouble when he gazes at her (line 57). S then completes her unit with a slightly rising intonation (line 57) and seeks T out with her gaze (line 58). T does encouraging verbally (line 58) and then curls his wrist forward repeatedly (line 59, Fig 48) in a symbolic gesture interpretable as imperative to "hurry up" or "keep going."

It is the participants' careful monitoring of one another's multimodal actions that enables them to prioritize writing or talking contingently, moment-to-moment. Crucially, each participant temporarily disengages from their own activity in order to monitor the progression of the other's. First, S disengages from her talk in order to focus on T's writing. One example is when she shifts gaze toward the administrator script to monitor it (lines 36–38, Fig 46, b); here, S restarts her turn by repeating the verb "need," orienting to the perturbation occasioned by her change in focus.

Another example occurs when S has just finished producing the list (line 45). At this point in the interaction, T is engaged in writing the representation of S's school obligations; specifically, he is completing his inscription for the word "everyday" (line 44, d; see also line 40, c). As he writes, T is able to manage a continuer "Mhm̩" (line 46) just as S completes her list with "Fri↓days::" (line 45). Here, S vacillates before continuing on with her telling. That

vacillation is embodied by gaze toward T's administrator script and the inscriptions T is writing there (line 47). Although S only looks there for less than a second, this attention to T's writing activity occasions a restart of the entire unit. That is, she repeats both the sequential connector "And" as well as the pronoun "I" before producing the predicate "c*om:e back" (line 47). This is a clear case where S prioritizes the progression of the writing over the production of her ongoing talk.

T can also be seen to adjust the multiactivity configuration by temporarily disengaging from his writing in order to focus on problems in S's talk. For example, returning to S's repetition of "And I" (line 47), T pauses his writing to attend to S. As her turn becomes perturbed, T lifts his pencil off the writing surface (line 47). Then, when a longer pause emerges, T shifts his gaze toward S (line 48), only to nod (line 48) and return to writing (line 49) as soon as S's turn gets on its way.

Similarly, T disrupts his writing and deploys not only gaze but also manual resources to encourage S's talk when problems reemerge (lines 57-59). Here, T disengages from writing to gesture in encouragement (line 59) and resumes writing as the talk progresses. Thus, the participants manage multiactivity from moment to moment, remaining deeply sensitive to each other's situation. This sensitivity is put on display each time one of them puts talk or writing on hold. As a result, the multiactivity configuration is both dynamic and contingent.

Returning to the data, in Excerpt 4.2.3d, S's response is now winding down; both participants have retracted from mutual gaze and S completes the upshot of her telling and brings her turn to a close. Now, as she begins to shift her gaze (line 61) toward T, he initiates repair (line 62).

Excerpt 4.2.3d: Complex Case

61 +(.)%(0.6)
t >>+writes->
s ->%...->

62 T: You don't have%time to+øplay with °fdad?f°
s ->%looks at script->
t ->+,,->
t ->ø...->

63 ø(.)ø(0.4)#+(.)ø
t >ølooks at S->
s ->ønodes-----ø
#fig 49
t ->+...>



Fig 49

64 T: øOh¿
t >ø...->

65 (.)ø+(1.0)
t ->ølooks at script->
t ->+writes [j]->

time for

j

66 T: +Interesting.
>+writes [k]->

dad.

67 (1.0)

k

68 T: >But,< (0.2)%are there times when%#you have+ø(0.4)+ti:me=
 s ->%.....%looks at T->
 t ->+,,,,,,+
 t ->ø...->

#fig 50

69 T: =toøplay?
 t ->ølooks at S->

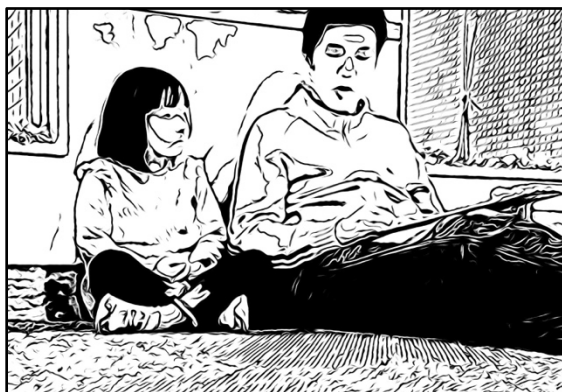


Fig 50

70 S: Yeah¿

71 (.)ø+(0.5)ø(.)
 t ->ø.....ølooks at script->
 t +...->

72 T: M:.
 73 (.)%(0.3)%(0.4)+(0.8)(...)
 s ->%.....%looks script->>
 t ->+writes [l]->>

But there are times

l

74 (6.2)
 75 T: Do you like to pla:y with Dad?
 76 S: °°Yea:h¿°°
 77 (.)+(1.0)
 t ->+writes [m]->>

when I can play with him.

m

Here, the participants rely on multimodal resources to negotiate the progression of the sequence. This is observable in the ways talk and gaze are deployed in order to organize shared attention. First, S orients to T's writing activity when she shifts her gaze to his administrator script (line 61–62). This shared focus of attention is temporarily deconfigured as T shifts his gazes toward S and initiates repair (line 62–63). S orients to the relevancy of T's gaze when she completes the repair with a nod (line 63, Fig 49), thus deploying an embodied resource that can be seen by T.

Having seen the nod, T receipts it (line 64) and gazes again at the script (line 65). T then evaluates S's response in parallel with his writing (line 66), an engagement S continues to monitor with her gaze. She relinquishes that monitoring, however, when T produces a negative sequential connector and pauses (line 68); S gazes at T and finds him writing while he initiates a follow-up question (lines 68, Fig 50). T then pauses this question, retracts his writing hand and begins to shift his gaze (line 68), reaching S just as his turn comes to completion (line 69). S responds affirmatively, and T begins to configure subsequent writing (line 71) before producing a minimal receipt token (lines 72).

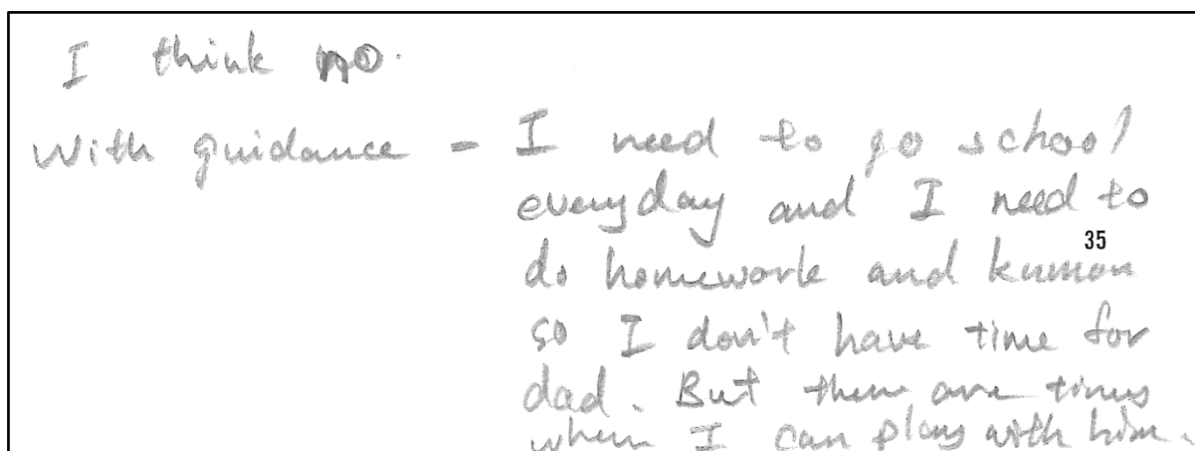
The participants' negotiation of the sequence's progression results in their prioritization of the talk over the writing. This is evidenced by the fact that postponement and resumption of writing recurrently prioritize the units of the talk. This can be seen first when T interrupts his writing to initiate repair (line 62). Here, T first produces talk in parallel with writing (continuing from line 59 and *i*; see Excerpt 4.2.3c, above). Furthermore, even his embodied shift of attention (manual retraction, gaze preparation, line 62), does not perturb the ongoing talk. Furthermore, T begins to receipt S's subsequent response (line 64) before his gaze has shifted back to the writing surface (line 65). As such, T can be seen to prioritize the repair talk over his writing.

Such orientation can also be found in the expansion sequence that follows. Here, as before (line 62), T begins by talking and writing (line 68, Fig 50). And again, T makes an embodied shift of attention, retracting his hand from writing while preparing to gaze at S. One difference is that, in the former, T's turn comes to completion without perturbation: "You don't have time to play with °£dad?£°" (line 62). In contrast, here, T pauses twice before completing the unit: ">But,< (0.2) are there times when you have (0.4) ti:me to play?" (line 68-69). That said, although progressivity does slow down, the grammatical parsing remains congruent and no linguistic material is repeated. It would thus be inappropriate to analyze the perturbation here as a lingering prioritization of the writing over the talk.

The participants' contingent accomplishment of shared understanding and the concomitant shifts in how they manage multiactivity throughout Excerpts 4.2.3 (a-d) has implications for the material record. Specifically, both the sequential organization and the content of the feedback are variably represented in Figure 4.12 below, the document that was produced during Excerpt 4.2.3 (a-d).

Figure 4.12

Inscriptions Produced During Excerpt 4.2.3 (a-d)



Note. From top-left to bottom-right: “I think no.” “With guidance” “— I need to go school every day and I need to do homework and kumon so I don’t have time for dad. But there are times when I can play with him.”

This document represents the response (“I think no.”), the intervention (“With guidance”), and the modified response (“I need to go school every day and I need to do homework and kumon, so I do not have time for dad. But there are times when I can play with him”). The interactional sequencing of these elements is also represented, although not verbally as in Excerpt 4.2.1 (c.f. Figure 4.9) but, rather, graphically. In the writing system employed here, top-to-bottom and left-to-right conventions contribute to the readability of this document as a serial organization of its elements: a response, followed by an intervention, followed by a modified response.

It is important to stop at this point and consider the document in isolation from the other half of its Lebenswelt Pair. That is, we should consider what resources this document might provide to stakeholders (e.g., building principals, teaching colleagues, parents) who were to read it at a later date. Such stakeholders would likely be able to grasp that (1) the

student was initially unable to produce a response but, (2) with guidance from the teacher, (3) she produced a detailed personal connection to the story's plot and its characters.

What information does the other half of the Lebenswelt Pair provide? With access to the transcripts, it is also possible to identify what is not represented in the documents above. This includes the teacher's intervention that succeeded the first part of the student's modified response. Recall that the student produced her telling to conclude with an upshot (lines 59–60, Excerpt 4.2.3c). This upshot occasioned T's initiation of repair (lines 62–66, Excerpt 4.2.3d) to confirm its details. That interaction is represented in T's inscriptions here not as confirmation but, rather, as a seamless part of S's modified response.

It may also be noted that T followed up the repair sequence with a question (lines 68–72, Excerpt 4.2.3d), during which he suggested an understanding that was, unlike the repair sequence, not based on anything S had said. Although S aligned tentatively to that suggestion (line 70, Excerpt 4.2.3d), it is represented in T's inscriptions here as a part of her modified response (it is, however, separated with a period). In summary, this document resembles both of the documents in Figures 4.9 and 4.11. Like the former, here, a serial ordering is explicitly represented between (some) parts of the feedback sequence. Like the latter, here, elements of the interaction that fall outside of that normative sequencing fail to be rendered in the documentation. Like both, here, the content is thus selective and asymmetrical.

Reuniting the Lebenswelt Pair provides important insight into the resources which are (not) provided by records emerging from documenting feedback. At least two important resources are missing from these documents: (1) information on the nature of T's intervention (lines 09–35, Excerpt 4.2.3.b above) and, (2) information on the continuity of S's modified response (lines 61–67, Excerpt 4.2.3.b above).

Without knowing the kind of feedback T provided (e.g. a recounting of the story's plot and its characters combined with tilted-questions to S regarding her life situation), other

stakeholders (e.g. next year's homeroom teacher) may not be able to provide similarly effective feedback. It should be noted that this feedback was provided by T during a section of the interaction in which he prioritized feedback (as talk) over writing activity.

Without knowing which parts of the student's modified response were produced continuously (lines 36-60, Excerpt 4.2.3.c above) and which were produced in response to additional prompts (line 62, Excerpt 4.2.3.c above) or conjectures (lines 68-69, Excerpt 4.2.3.d above), other stakeholders (e.g. literacy coaches) may struggle to verify the evaluation made by the assessing teacher. It should be noted that these responses were recorded by T during a section of the interaction in which he prioritized feedback (as talk) over writing.

The examples above illustrate how the progression of documenting feedback is contingent upon how, and how well, mutual understanding is achieved by the participants. When such mutual understanding is straightforward, the participants can focus on getting the assessment underway (i.e. producing the documentation of student performance). However, mutual understanding of the assessment task or of the feedback itself may require careful attention. Such attention is paid by putting the writing on hold to talk through the feedback. Excerpt 4.2.3 particularly illustrates how the progression of documenting feedback is contingent, moment-to-moment, based upon how the interaction unfolds.

4.2.4 Summary of Collection-Based Analysis

After analyzing the practice of documenting feedback, we can summarize some key insights.

1. The practice involves a clear sequence of steps that are often interconnected.
2. There are different paths the practice can take, depending on specific situations that arise during the interaction.

3. The activity of documenting feedback is closely linked to the written records that result from it.

The analysis shows that documenting feedback happens through a series of connected steps: the teacher asks a question (the test prompt), the student responds, and the teacher acknowledges or gives feedback. Sometimes, this acknowledgment can take time because the teacher may need to provide extra prompts to help the student improve their response. These three elements (the test prompt, the intervention, and the documentation) might seem to happen in a clear order, but this is a simplification. In reality, the process can shift between more and less straightforward progressions based on what happens during the interaction.

We identified contingencies resulting in more and less straightforward progressions for documenting feedback. More straightforward progressions are characterized by smooth, aligned interactions, while less straightforward progressions involve delays or misunderstandings. Sometimes, a straightforward progression can become less straightforward if the student struggles to respond, and the teacher needs to intervene again.

The analysis in this section also demonstrates that the feedback documents which are created through the practice of documenting feedback are of a distinct form and content. Namely, these documents are oriented to a normative composition of elements which includes a test prompt, a student's (initial) response, the teacher's feedback and the student's modified response. Furthermore, these documents are also oriented to a normative serial ordering of those elements, such that the test prompt *is followed by* the (initial) response *which precipitates* the teacher's feedback *which prompts the student to produce* the modified response.

These normative orientations are most visible (to the analyst, at least) when elements of the above ordering are absent as physical inscriptions; for example, the lack of an

inscription representing initial performance relies upon the reader to orient to the normative ordering in order to interpret the meaning of a feedback inscription. Such absence may occur in both more and less straightforward cases, but the similarity is only surface deep.

There are important differences between the documents that emerge from more and less straightforward cases. The former more explicitly represent the interaction which gave birth to them, while the later provide relatively opaque representations. That said, even straightforwardly produced documents are incomplete representations of the interaction which they reflexively describe (e.g., verbal action is rendered but embodied action is ignored; actions are rendered as formulations). Nevertheless, both interactional events and the temporal relationships between them are systematically ignored in the documents which emerged from less straightforward progressions.

This contingency characterizes documenting feedback. Specifically, the more straightforward the progression, the more the participants prioritize writing activity and, as a result, the more faithfully the teacher represents the content and timing of their respective contributions. The less straightforward the progression, the less often the teacher picks up the pencil in the first place and the less numerous and detailed are her resulting inscriptions.

4.3 Documenting Feedback and Second Language Proficiency

4.3.1 Introduction

This section explores the implications of documenting feedback specifically for L2 students. In the previous section, we analyzed how this practice generally works, using a collection of examples that showed how feedback is documented. This documentation makes the feedback available for future reference to various stakeholders, including teachers and students. However, we found that this practice often leads to a selective representation of what actually happened during the interaction. Even when the feedback process goes

smoothly, the records created tend to summarize rather than accurately capture the exact words spoken by the participants. When the interaction becomes more less straightforward, the documentation can become even less complete, focusing more on the conversation than on writing it down. This shift can lead to a lack of accountability regarding the student's language proficiency, which is crucial for understanding their challenges.

To delve deeper into these observations, this section will analyze a specific case that falls outside the core collection of documented feedback instances. Although this example includes key elements of the practice like test prompts, teacher interventions, and documentation, it does not provide explicit documentation of feedback. Despite this, I will argue that it still exemplifies the practice of documenting feedback.

Studying this case allows us to clarify a puzzling aspect from earlier analysis. In that analysis, a teacher referred to a past event where the student's language skills affected their performance. This reference was puzzling because the teacher did not refer to any previous written records from that event, despite often referencing past inscriptions in other situations. Understanding how this past event unfolded and what documentation was produced (or not produced) will shed light on the teacher's later instructions and the student's language proficiency challenges.

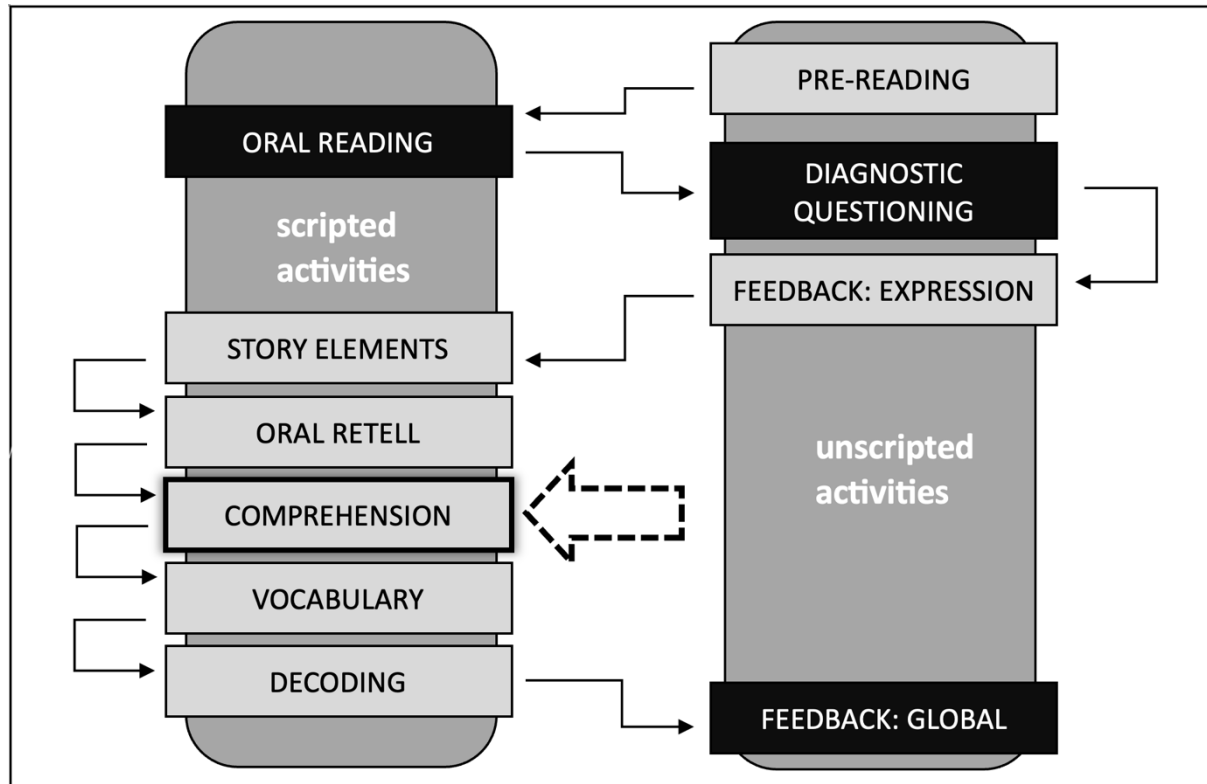
4.3.2 Background

The interaction we will analyze here occurred during the assessment event described in the first section (see 4.1, above). To clarify, let's recap some key details from that description. The assessment event included both structured activities (e.g., oral reading, comprehension, and decoding) and spontaneous tasks introduced by the teacher (e.g. as assessing vocabulary knowledge).

Figure 4.13 below revises Figure 4.6 from above and outlines these elements, highlighting the sections we will focus on in the transcript.

Figure 4.13

Flowchart of Activities Both Scripted (Left) and Unscripted (Right) During DRA13



Note. Dark-color indicates interaction has been transcribed and presented in a previous excerpt; dashed arrow indicates location of the single-case.

As shown in Figure 4.13, the case we're examining occurs during the structured section of the DRA®2 assessment, which focuses on reading comprehension. By this point, the student has already read aloud the assigned passage, a fictional story titled *Twin Sisters* (Beaver and Carter 2006). The story features two identical twin sisters with very different personalities: Kate enjoys bright, colorful outfits and chatting with friends, while Kim prefers dark clothing and quiet reading.

In the story, the twins play a prank by pretending to be each other at school. When disguised Kim accidentally agrees to write a book report, she unintentionally volunteers Kate. The real Kate protests, revealing their true identities. The story concludes with their teacher humorously noting, "Well, I guess you could switch your clothes, but your personalities stayed the same!" (Beaver and Carter 2006).

During the student's mostly fluent reading of *Twin Sisters* (presented as Excerpt 4.1.1 in section 4.1, above) he made a self-correction on the word "personalities," which the teacher noted. Following the reading, they discussed the student's understanding of specific vocabulary, including some words he had mispronounced. Importantly, the teacher chose not to assess the student's grasp of "personalities," considering his self-correction as sufficient evidence of understanding.

Before starting the comprehension questions, they engaged in additional feedback activities, discussing basic story elements and having the student retell the story from memory. Although "personalities" wasn't explicitly discussed, the student referred to the sisters' differing traits, mentioning that they were "entirely different" and even using the word "personalities" during the retelling.

This focus on the twins' contrasting personalities is central to the plot of *Twin Sisters*. Table 4.1 below illustrates two test prompts from the comprehension task, designed to assess the student's ability to compare and contrast. Notice how the prompts address both the similarities and differences between the sisters, especially in terms of their personalities.

Table 4.1

Prompts and Responses from Administrator Script for Compare and Contrast Tasks

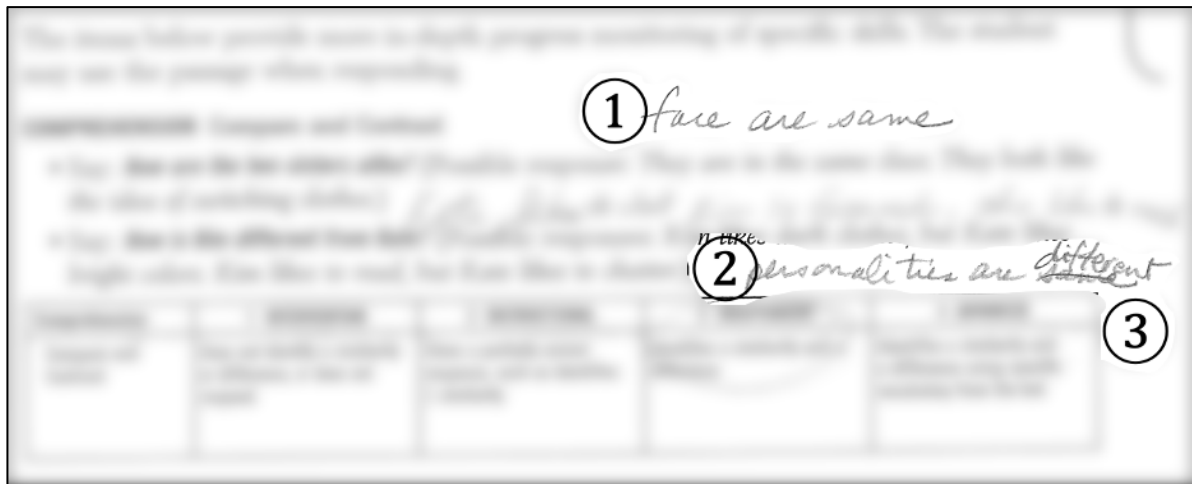
Test Prompt	Possible Response #1	Possible Response #2
How are the two sisters alike?	They are in the same class.	They both like the idea of switching clothes.
How is Kim different from Kate?	Kim likes dark clothes, but Kate likes bright colors.	Kim likes to read, but Kate likes to chatter.

4.3.3 Analysis

The interaction we'll analyze begins 13 minutes and 50 seconds into the video recording of DRA13, which is about eight and a half minutes after the diagnostic interaction discussed earlier (Excerpt 4.1.2). The participants are in the same setup as before: the student (S) has a copy of "Twin Sisters" in hand, while the teacher (T) holds her administrator script for the passage. Figure 4.14 below shows the relevant part of this script. Note that some inscriptions visible in the figure were made by T after the focal excerpt, including a long line of text starting with "Kate" and a circle on the rubric, which are not relevant for our current analysis. The analysis will instead focus on the inscriptions located above the list of possible responses for the first test prompt (① 'face are same', as well as those located below the list of possible responses for the second test prompt (② 'personalities are same', and ③ the revision of 'same' (i.e. ~~same~~) to 'different'.

Figure 4.14

T's Inscriptions on the Administrator Script

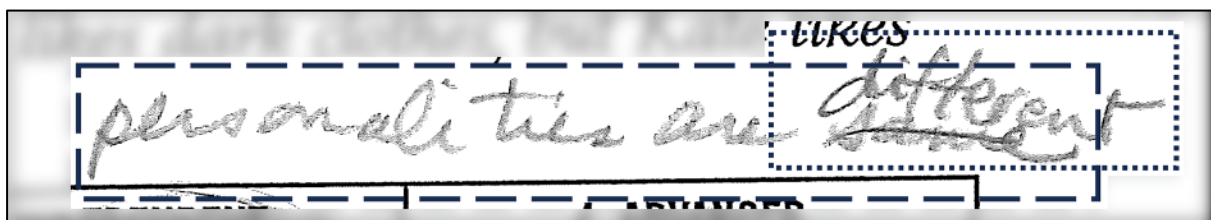


Note. Text reads ① “face are same”, ② “personalities are same” and ③ “~~same~~ different”; inscriptions beginning with "Kate" were made later and are not analyzed.

Of these inscriptions, the two sets which are labeled ② (“personalities are same”), and ③ (“~~same~~ different”) are of particular interest. Figure 4.15 below provides a close-up view of these inscriptions.

Figure 4.15

Two Sets of Inscriptions Were Made Which Share Some Parts



Note. First, T writes “personalities are same” (dashed box) and, later on, she crosses out a word “~~same~~” and writes "different" (dotted box).

There are some key observations regarding the inscriptions here. First, as mentioned earlier, there is no documentation that feedback occurred. Instead, our only evidence of this feedback comes from analyzing the video recording. Readers might notice that the student's response has been changed, indicating something unusual happened. Specifically, the teacher crossed out the word "same" and wrote "different" above it, changing the documented response from "personalities are same" to "personalities are different."

Importantly, the teacher didn't erase the original word; she left it and added a mark to show that the student had changed his answer. This means we have both the original and the modified responses documented, which are part of the feedback process, even though there's no direct mention of an intervention. To understand if an intervention did happen and what led to this change, we need to look closely at the video recording.

The analysis of the interaction will be done in two parts. First, building on what was discussed earlier (see section 4.2), a detailed multimodal transcript will help us understand how the participants handle writing while engaged in feedback activity. Specifically, we will look at how the focus shifts from writing to talking, especially when the student has trouble understanding the feedback. This analysis will not only support the earlier findings about documenting feedback but will also help identify special cases like this one.

Once we confirm that this example indeed fits the pattern of documenting feedback, we will move to the second part of the analysis. In this stage, we will simplify the interaction to emphasize the talk and how the conversation is organized. By focusing on the talk, we can better understand this specific case as not just feedback but as a well-structured instance of social interaction. This is important for understanding how documenting feedback works for L2 students.

To help with understanding the interaction and to keep things clear, it might be helpful for readers to look at the simpler talk-based transcript in stage 2 (subsection 4.3.3.2) before going back to the detailed multimodal transcript provided below.

4.3.3.1 Multimodal Analysis of the Single Case. The interaction starts after the student (S) and teacher (T) finish the story retelling task. Once S confirms that there's nothing more to add, T turns the page in her script and clips it to her board (see Fig 51 below). She then reads the next test prompt from this new page (line 01). The presentation of T's notes along with the transcript is based on images taken after the assessment, shown in Figures 4.19 and 4.20. Since it is not possible to directly see these notes in the video, they have been reconstructed from what was visible and audible.

Excerpt 4.3.1a: Single-Case (multimodal)

01 T: %øSo,#(0.4) <Ho:w are the two sisters (.) alike.>
s >>%gazes at script->
t >>øgazes at script->
#fig 51



Fig 51

02 (1.8)
03 S: Uhn:
04 T: How are they alike.
05 (0.8)ø(.) (0.3)% (0.2)
t ->øgazes at S->
s ->%gazes at text->

06 S: They're like (1.0)((click)) (0.8) uh f-ø(1.2)
t ->øgazes at script->


```

07      (.)%(0.3)∂The:~y'∂re (0.4) m:∅(0.7)#∂(0.4)∂%(.)
s      ->%gazes upward-----%gazes at txt->
s      ∂.....∂leans backward----∂,,,,,∂
t      ->∅gazes at S->
      #fig 52

```



Fig 52



Fig 53

```

08      The °fa:ce° are sa:~me∅~#
t      +...->
t      ->∅gazes at script->
      # fig 53

```

```

09      T:      Nka:y,+
      ->+wrts [n]->

```

10 (2.2)

face are same

n

Having previously examined the core collection of documenting feedback, several features of this interaction are particularly salient. Firstly, T and S organize their bodies into a postural configuration which promotes writing-in-interaction. From the start (line 01), both participants have their eyes on T's administrator script; this underscores the centrality of T's imminent writing activity, which ostensibly will commence as soon as S produces his response. The participants only shift their attention away from the administrator script, and thereby deconfigure writing, after S's response becomes absent (lines 02-03). Even still, T's first attempt is to pursue the response orally (line 04). When that pursuit fails to produce a response for nearly a second, she turns her gaze toward S and this occasions his gaze shift toward the passage text in his hands (line 05).

Thus, the participants are oriented towards the relevance of writing and only shift their gaze away from the administrator script when the due response is not forthcoming. Case in point: S returns his gaze to his text (line 07) on route to completing the unit "The °fa:ce° are sa:me;" (line 08); T also shifts her gaze back toward the administrator script once that unit become projectable as imminently complete (line 08). What is more, she displays her regard for it as writable; she receipts it ("Nka:y", line 09) before beginning to write it down. By receipting it immediately and writing it down, T treats this response as unproblematic.

Moving forward with the analysis below, we will find that the student continues to add to his response. This continuation is not unsurprising because although the test-item sequence is successful and T engages in documentation, her receipt token "Nka:y," (line 09) is neutral (c.f. "Oh=Very good," line 09, Excerpt 4.2.1, section 4.2) and therefore open to interpretation by S as doing continuing. When S does continue (line 11, below), T is very sensitive to the addition being made; relinquishing her writing configuration, T immediately shifts her gaze to S (line 12). It is here, within an expansion to the previously closed test-item sequence (notice S's "Bu°ht°", line 11), that the feedback becomes less straightforward.

Excerpt 4.3.1b: Single-Case (multimodal)

11 S: °M:°+(0.2) Bu°%ht°#=
t ->+
s ->%gazes outward->
#fig 54



Fig 54



Fig 55

12 =(0.2)ø(0.6) person%#alities are the=
t ->øgazes at S->
s ->%gazes at text->
#fig 55

13 =°sa-°ø·hh s:t- are same too?
t ->øgazes at script->

14 (0.4)
15 The pers:- the personçali stay#same too,ç·hh
s çlifts feet up-----ç
#fig 56

16 (0.8)+(.)+(1.2)
t +...+wrts [o]->>



Fig 56

0

personalities are different

17 T: The personal#ities are the same¿=
#fig 57



Fig 57

18 S: =Ye#ah.
#fig 58



Fig 58

20 S: °Stay the#same.°
#fig 59



Fig 59

21 (2.0)

Having previously examined the core collection of documenting feedback, several features of the way this interaction has developed are particularly salient. Firstly, the practice of documenting feedback is being deployed in the wake of S's expanded response. Specifically, T pauses before silently initiating inscription (line 15) and does not initially receipt S's expanded response (lines 11-13). As was demonstrated in the previous section (see 4.2, above), such prioritization of the writing activity by the teacher, in the face of a substantially problematic response by the student, is characteristic of the practice.

Another salient feature emerges while T is engaged in that writing; namely, the participants take a step into simultaneously organized multiactivity when T engages S in talk (line 17-20). Recall that the previous sequence (lines 01-10) was characterized by a sequentially embedded organization. That is, T receipted the S's response while configuring but before actually engaging in the writing; her writing took place in silence, after the sequence of talk was complete (line 10). In contrast, here, T talks and writes in parallel, smoothly managing both without perturbations to either.

This smooth operation may be due to the similarity of the linguistic units being produced in both talk ("The personalities are the same₆", line 17) and writing ("personalities are same", lines 16-22, o). Regardless, the participants display no orientation to the multiactivity as being problematic. In fact, they continue to interact within the same postural configuration, maintaining the same bodily orientations toward their respective test materials. This allows T to continue writing while she talks to S; S, as well, does not shift his gaze direction toward T.

What is more, S does not deploy gestures, facial expressions or other multimodal resources which would require T's gaze direction. As such, both participants collaboratively maintain the multiactivity configuration as one which supports writing and talking; interaction is sustained through talk while gaze direction and gestures are minimalized (or, in

T's case, deployed for the purpose of material inscription). Nevertheless, the intervention is not progressing.


```

25  T:      =Personality. hm:.=
26  S:      =Not (0.4) really becauøse (1.0)=
      t
      ->øgazes at script->

27
      =Kate (.) is%liøke#(0.6) si:lliness†but,
      s
      ->%gazes at T-----†gazes at text->
      t
      ->øgazes at S->
      #fig 63

```

```

28      (0.4)

```

```

29  T:      Møhm=
      t
      ->øgazes at script->

```



Fig 63

```

30  S:      =Kjim (0.2) Kim is like (0.3)∫(0.3)=
      t
      ∫nods
      ∫nods

```

```

31
      =#>h%ow do#call.<=
      s
      #lowers text down->
      s
      ->%gazes outward->
      #fig 64

```

```

32
      =(.)∫(0.5)‡=
      t
      ∫nods
      s
      ->‡,,, ->

```



Fig 64

```

33  T:      Okay [ S o ] (...)
34  S:      =#[boring.]
      s
      ->‡

```


Experience with the core collection of documenting feedback makes several features of the way this interaction is now developing particularly salient. Firstly, problems in the progression of the intervention lead to a switch from multiactivity to monoactivity. Notice that S, having completed her inscription, publicly deconfigures the writing-ready posture by lifting her hand up behind her neck (line 22, Fig 60) and then placing it down, over her left wrist (line 24, Fig 62). She is thus no longer in a position to write down S's responses; the multiactivity configuration now excludes writing and embodies a commitment to talk-in-interaction as the monoactivity which will occupy the participants for some time to come.

Notice secondly that this switch to monoactivity is embodied by a change in the organization of attention. With her change in postural configuration (lines 22-24), T shifts her embodied attention away from the administrator script and toward S; this is particularly clear when she directs her gaze toward him (line 23, fig 61). Soon after, S will reciprocate and the participants will engage in mutual gaze (line 27; fig 63) while S responds (lines 26-34). Note that T only takes a turn at line 29 ("Mhm") in order to encourage S after a perturbation emerges (0.4 second pause, line 29). Although T's turn intervenes between the S's two clauses (i.e. lines 27, 30-34) which describe the two sisters, his design of this as a single TCU is evident in the contrastive stress S places on "Kate" when he begins on line 27.

Although mutual gaze indeed happened here, the possibility for it emerged much earlier. Notice that S begins to shift his gaze as early as line 22, when T's "so" prefaced turn encourages him to look towards T rather than at the text in his hands (c.f. Fig 60 and 61). Such modifications to the embodied organization of S's attention are also observable at the end of his turn (line 31), when he disengages from the postural framework. Notice how S orients to sequence closure as he enters a word search (line 31) for the adjective complement which would complete the unit "Kim is like..." (line 30). Rather than gazing at T and potentially recruiting her in the word search, S does the opposite; by looking away, he

displays his commitment to complete the unit on his own. T also appears to see it that way; notice how she nods and waits for S to finish, instead of starting a turn, at line 32.

In the current excerpt, the monoactivity continues when T implicitly rejects S's response and, instead, launches yet another attempt at feedback. Using a turn-initial "So" and an embodied deconfiguration of the writing activity, both recycled from before, T prompts S to try again (lines 35-37).

Excerpt 4.3.1d: Single-Case (multimodal)

33 T: Okay[S o] (0.6)=
34 S: [boring.]

35 T: =how are they di+fferent is the ne~~o~~xt#question.
t +moves r.hand behind neck--->
t ->øgazes at S->
#fig 65



36 (0.4)

Fig 65

37 S: They're d- ·h different by °h° (0.2)

38 °how do call°%#°°seikaku.°°
s ->%gazes at T->
#fig 66



Fig 66

39 S: A: [:]
 40 T: <[Tha]t's (p) (0.6)
 41 *Seikaku mea+:ns#(.)%#(0.3)
 t *.....+extends finger forward--->
 #fig 67
 s ->%gazes at finger->
 #fig 68



Fig 67



Fig 68

42 +fper+so+na[+lity.f]
 43 S: #[fAh yeah]+%#Personality.f=
 t >+stab+ +stab+,,,,,,+
 s ->%gazes at text->>
 #fig 69 #fig 70



Fig 69



Fig 70

44 T: =Huh huh huh hu:h

Having previously examined the core collection of documenting feedback, several features of the way this interaction has developed should be particularly salient to us. First, we find T repeating her deconfiguring of the writing activity. Recall that her right hand, pencil and all, has remained draped over her left wrist since she launched the previous "so" prefaced prompt (lines 22-24, Figs 60-62). Here we find a repetition of the first part of that action; T brings her right hand back up to rest behind her neck while prefacing a new prompt with "so" (lines 33-35, Fig 65), paralleling the previous (line 22, Fig 60). T is doing re-prompting.

Secondly, we find forms of interaction that rely upon the participants' fine-grained attention to the deployment of manual gesture. Notice in particular how T's re-prompting leads the participants to construct a front facing orientation (line 38). That orientation is necessary for T to deploy the gestural complex (lines 41-43, Figs 67-70) which accompanies her response to S's request for translation.

The argument here is not that T drew S's attention to her so that she could deploy the gesture but, rather, that drawing his gaze direction in order to deal with problems in the progression of the intervention led to an interactional environment in which gesture could be purposefully deployed to accomplish such progression. Lastly, we find that successful completion of the intervention leads to reconstruction of the writing-ready postural configuration. As S acknowledges (line 43) T's translation (lines 41-42) and aligns with T's invitation to laugh (i.e. 'smiley voice,' line 42), he returns his gaze and posture toward the text passage in his hands. This constitutes a return by S to the earlier framework of embodied attention toward their respective test materials.

These features of the interaction expand our understanding of how embodied resources are deployed in order to progress intervention sequences toward completion. While above it was noted that the negotiability of postural frameworks provides for the organization

of attention, we see here that participants may negotiate for certain configurations (i.e., front facing posture, mutual gaze) that provide the resources (i.e. gesture) which are necessary to solve specific problems in the intervention sequence.

We return to the action to find that, although the participants have successfully produced a modified response (lines 37-44), T does not immediately acknowledge it. Instead, she launches (lines 45-54, below) a sequence aimed at confirming the content of S's response, in the context of her original prompt.

45 T: So do you [wa]nt to say=
46 S: [So]
t ¢...->

[illegible]

```

51  S:      =Different.
52  T:      +øThey'reødifferent.+
t   +.....+writes [p]->
t   ø.....øgazes at script->>

```



LIKES

~~different~~

```

54  T:      O:wkay.#çThat's#çseikaku.##ç
      s      ç.....çlower text#,,,->
      s      ç.....çlifts feetç,,,->
                                     #fig 72

```

```

55  T:      So:‡Ç(.) their(.) personalities are=
      S      ->‡
      S      ->Ç

56          =different[, ]=
57  S:          [m.]
58  T:      =Okayç+Now. (.)+ ·hh u::m: (0.8)
      t      ->+, , , , , , , , +

59          >how are they different.<
          (...)

```

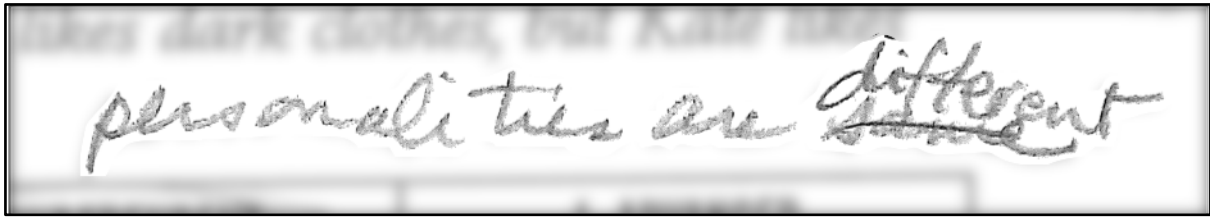

Our previous examination of the core collection of documenting feedback makes several features of the way this interaction closes particularly salient. Firstly, T engages in a procedural confirmation of the status of S's response *as his modified response*. Notice how she sets up his (initial) response ("the personalities are the same...", line 47) in a grammatical contrast ("Or...", line 49) with his modified one "personalities are different." (lines 49-51). What is more, S is confirming for T what he was *trying* to say (c.f. "want to say" lines 45; "wanna say" line 49) and, thus, collaborates in the formulation of the previous interaction as an instance of feedback. The procedurality of this confirmation can also be observed by the way attention is organized; T and S's attention is not mutually directed toward one another.

Case in point: T is gesturing (i.e. downward 'chops', lines 48, 49, 50; Fig 71) but S gazing not at T; instead, he gazes at his text passage (Figs 71-72). This lack of orientation to the trajectory of T's action, projected by both her grammatical construction as well as her forward lean (lines 46-53, c.f., Fig 71 and 72), is lost on S; he twice prematurely produces a responding turn (lines 46, 48). Thus, S alignment combines with his lack of gaze attention as evidence that he treats the confirmation as little more than a procedural step on the way to completion. That completion occurs when T acknowledges S's modified response *as a modified response* ("O:wkay. That's seikaku.", line 54), and the participants transition toward the next test prompt (lines 55-59).

After the previous analysis, it will be fruitful to return to the documents emerging from the interaction.

Figure 4.16

Inscriptions Made During the Interaction



Note. From left: "personalities are ~~same~~ different".

As mentioned earlier, the documents from the interaction show the student's initial response ("personalities are same"), how he changed it from "same," and then modified it to "different." However, there's no record of the teacher's feedback, leaving readers to guess how the response changed from "same" to "~~same~~ different." These documents are different from those discussed earlier in section 4.2, as they resemble the documents analyzed in section 4.1. They don't provide enough information for others to understand the feedback event, highlighting the Lebenswelt nature of writing as a documentary process.

These documents don't offer clear evidence that feedback occurred since there's no written record of it. However, by analyzing the interaction that led to these documents, we can recognize this as an instance of the feedback practice. The complexity arose when the teacher shifted focus from writing to oral communication, which resulted in unclear documents. This shows that analyzing feedback documentation can help identify similar cases that require video analysis, as they cannot be understood through documents alone.

In summary, the earlier multimodal analysis found that while this case lacks complete documentation (i.e., the initial response, feedback, and modified response), it still constitutes an example of the documenting feedback. After an initial response from the student, the teacher attempted to provide feedback, but problems with the feedback led to a shift toward talking instead of

writing. This shift resulted in unclear documents that failed to show that feedback happened. Still, the interaction led the student to realize that language proficiency was a barrier to modifying his response. Importantly, the student didn't acknowledge the teacher's input on language proficiency and presented his request for translation as if it were his own idea. Therefore, our analysis must consider that the real issue might not have been the student's language skills, but rather the teacher's focus on those skills that limited the student's ability to engage in the feedback process.

4.3.3.2 Talk-based Analysis of the Single Case. The following analysis will explore three connected topics. First, it will examine how the interaction was carefully managed by the participants, focusing on the process rather than just language proficiency-oriented feedback. Second, it will look at how the practice of documenting feedback creates both knowledge and gaps regarding the student's language skills and reading comprehension. Lastly, it will discuss how the assessment materials, previous interactions, and the student's lack of experience with feedback documentation led to a feedback event that may not have been needed.

The arguments in this analysis are based on the Jeffersonian transcript provided below. Note that the line numbers in this transcript differ from those in the multimodal transcript.

Excerpt 4.3.2: Single-Case (talk)

01 T: So, (0.4) <Ho:w are the two sisters (.) alike.>
 02 (1.8)
 03 S: Uhn:
 04 T: How are they alike.
 05 (1.4)
 06 S: They're like (1.0) ((click)) (0.8) uh f- (1.6)
 07 The:y're (0.4) m: (1.2) The °fa:ce° are sa:me:
 08 T: Nka:y,

09 (2.2) ((T writes "face are same"))

10 S: °M:° (0.2) Bu°ht° (0.8) personalities

11 are the °sa-° ·hh s:t- are same too?

12 (0.4)

13 The pers:- the personali stay same too, ·hh

14 (2.2) ((T begins to write "personalities are same"))

15 T: The personalities are the same¿=

16 S: =Yeah.

17 (0.6)

18 S: °Stay the same.°

19 (2.0) ((T finishes writing))

20 T: So, (0.2) they're the same kind of people?

21 (0.4)

22 S: N: (0.4) no: but,=

23 T: =Personality. hm:.=

24 S: =Not (0.4) really because (1.0) Kate (.)

25 is like (0.6) si:lliness but,

26 (0.4)

27 T: Mhm=

28 S: =Kim (0.2) Kim is like (0.6) >how do call.<

29 (0.6)

30 T: Okay [So] (0.6) how are they different=

31 S: [boring.]

32 T: =is the next question.

33 (0.4)

34 S: They're d- ·h different by °h° (0.2)

35 °how do call° °°seikaku.°°

personality

36 A :[:]

37 T: <[Tha]t's (p) (0.6)

38 Seikaku mea:ns (0.4)

39 fpersona[lity.f]

40 S: [fAh yeah] Personality.f=

41 T: =Huh huh huh hy:h

42 So do you [wa]nt to say=

43 S: [So]

44 T: the personalities ar[e th]e [same]¿=

45 S: [Yeah] [Okay]

46 T: =Or do you wanna say the personalities are

47 different.=

48 S: =Different.

49 T: They're different.

50 (.) ((T strikes out "same"))

51 T: O:wkay. That's seikaku. ((T begins to write "different"))

personality

52 T: ·h So: (.) their (.) personalities are

53 different[,]=

54 S: [m.]

55 T: =Okay; Now. (((T finishes writing)) ·hh u::m: (0.8)
 56 T: >how are they different.<

4.3.3.2.1 Documenting Feedback as a Sequential Phenomenon. Understanding how the above interaction was accomplished methodically in two seemingly divergent ways requires, first and foremost, attention to its sequential organization. A useful tool for attending to the sequential organization of T and S's interaction is, of course, what Marlaire and Maynard (1990) term the 'test-item sequence' which consists of a testing prompt, a response and an acknowledgement. Just as interaction in classrooms may be organized by teachers and students into instructional sequences (Mehan 1979), interaction during educational assessment may be organized into test-item sequences. S and T organize their interaction into a test-item sequence between lines 01 and 08.

For instance, S displays his interpretation of T's turn at line 01 as a test prompt, one that requires a response he is not prepared to give, when he produces the non-lexical vocalization in line 03. If it were time to think which S needed, he might simply take that time in silence. Instead, he produces the non-lexical vocalization and displays to T his involvement in the test-item sequence. Similarly, when T reissues the test prompt in line 04, she relieves her own obligation to interpret S's non-lexical vocalization as his answer to her question. Surely, few teachers would likely accept 'Uhn:' (line 03) as the response to a test prompt.

In practical terms then, restarting the test-item sequence provides T with a method for dealing with S's cooperative but noncommittal display of hesitation. In contrast, T immediately acknowledges S's utterance 'The °fa:ce° are sa:me;' (line 07) and records it (line 09). At the same time, her inscription (line 09) disregards the speech perturbations and displays of hesitation which preceded S's eventual production of this answer (lines 06–07).

Thus, *which* talk constitutes *which* social action emerges as a locally and recurrently managed problem, a problem solved by the participants with sequential resources.

One resource provided by the test-item sequence for managing action ascription is the withholding of acknowledgement (Marlaire and Maynard 1990). Compared to her immediate uptake (line 08) of S's initial response, T's reaction (line 15) to his expanded response (lines 10–13) is delayed. Furthermore, she eventually uses her turn at talk to request confirmation regarding the utterance rather than to acknowledge it as a proper response. Considering the resources provided by the levelled passage and the administrator script, 'The pers:- the personali stay same too, 'hh' (line 13) would appear to be an incorrect answer. Correct or not, it is a substantial response (c.f. the non-lexical vocalization in line 03). This lack of acknowledgement for a substantial response provides the procedural basis for T's conduct to be recognizable as feedback. T avoids acknowledging S's turns not only in lines 10–13, but also in lines 16–18, 22 and 24–31.

Rather than acknowledgement, T produces two requests for confirmation (lines 15, 20), a directive (line 23) and a meta-interactional corrective (lines 30–32). These actions provide S with the opportunity to reject (lines 15, 20), to address (line 23) or to notice and fix (lines 30–32) the incorrect nature of his previous comparison between the sisters' personalities. T finally produces acknowledgement in line 51, after S confirms his disavowal of the incorrect answer (line 48). Feedback, embodied as encouragement for S to self-correct his problematic response, emerged in the interactional space which T created by withholding acknowledgement.

Correction requires that a correctable be noticed by the corrector. Thus, one method for encouraging self-correction is to deploy talk which increases the salience of that correctable. In the first turn which delays acknowledgement (line 15), T produces a question-intoned partial repeat 'The personalities are the same¿' which locates S's comparison

between the sisters' personalities as a trouble source. When S affirms this (line 16) rather than rejecting it, T delays acknowledgement again by producing a second request for confirmation (line 20). This time, T uses circumlocution to reformat 'personalities' as 'kind of people.' Reformatting the word 'personalities' allows T to display her interpretation of S's failure to grasp the meaning of this word.

In other words, T's interpretation attributes S's failure to self-correct to a deficit in his vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, when S defends his comparison with the stance display 'but,' (line 22), rather than reject the reformatted confirmation request, T makes her interpretation unambiguous. Rather than acknowledging S's utterance, she immediately produces an implicit directive that S address 'personality' (line 23). Embodied as reformatting from 'personalities' to 'kind of people' and back again, T's attempts to pursue S's participation in oral feedback orient to vocabulary knowledge as the obstacle to that participation.

Social interaction requires that participants recognize not only the meaning of words, but also the social actions which those words embody. If S failed to recognize the interactional import of T's utterances as encouragement to self-correct, then attributing his failed participation in feedback to a vocabulary deficit would be premature. There is evidence to support this hypothesis.

The first piece of evidence comes from S's response to T's initial request for confirmation (line 15). Rather than recognizing T's withholding of acknowledgement, S's affirmative token (line 16) and self-repeat (line 18) display his interpretation of T's request as a repair initiation targeting a problem of hearing or misunderstanding. Subsequent evidence comes from S's response to T's reformatted request for confirmation (line 20). In order to act upon T's request as encouragement to self-correct through rejection, S must orient to her turn-initial 'So,' as a method for providing an upshot of his prior talk (Raymond 2004).

Notwithstanding, ‘So,’ can also be used to manage the overall structural organization of testing interaction, such as T’s use of ‘So,’ to introduce a new test prompt in line 01. If S oriented to T’s request for confirmation at line 20 as a new test prompt, rather than as acknowledgement-delaying feedback initiation, his struggle to participate in that feedback implicates his orientation to sequential organization rather than vocabulary deficit.

Further evidence for this hypothesis comes from S’s response to T’s meta-interactive corrective (lines 30–32). Meta-interactive turn formats make the sequential organization of the interaction a topic of the interaction itself (Clarke, Bloch, and Wilkinson 2013). T’s turn is meta-interactive because it encourages S to self-correct by presenting his prior talk regarding the sisters’ differences as appropriate for the ‘next question’ (and, therefore, inappropriate for the current one). To be effective, this turn format requires S to recognize the ‘news’ it delivers. Namely, his previous utterance fails to address the interactive task set by T of self-correction with explicit reference to ‘personalities.’ Notwithstanding, S’s response (line 34) does not indicate that he has attended to this news because he starts that turn without a change-of-state token (Heritage 1984).

In fact, the Japanese change-of-state token ‘A : :’ (Endo 2018) does appear (line 36) but only after S has produced the request for translation (line 35). Producing the change-of-state token here enables S to ‘do’ discovering the unexpected interactive import of his request. T also orients to his request as unexpected with her initial receipt of it using ‘<[Tha]t’s (p)’ (line 37), indicating the request was not exactly what she was encouraging him to do. This evidence suggests S did not produce the request in response to T’s utterance as a meta-interactive corrective, but that the request emerged spontaneously from his attempt to respond to T’s turn as a completely new test prompt.

S’s orientation to T’s turn as a new test prompt has a sequential basis, in addition to the fact that she actually mentions the ‘next question’ (line 32). That is, T not only prefaces

her turn with ‘So’ (line 30), but she also preemptively receipts S’s nearly complete turn (lines 28–29, 31) with ‘Okay’ (line 30). This turn design provides for S’s orientation to sequential organization, rather than a vocabulary deficit, as a constraint on his participation in the feedback.

Recognizing the news delivered by T’s meta-interactional turn format would require that S orient to her ‘Okay’ as a method for cutting off his ongoing turn, and her ‘So’ as providing an upshot of his prior talk. The alternative use of ‘So’ to launch new test prompts has already been discussed, as has the use of acknowledgements to close test-item sequences. In addition to its function in cutting off ongoing turns, various forms of ‘Okay’ are recurrently employed as acknowledgement to close down test-item sequences (see, for example, lines 08 and 51). S interprets T’s meta-interactional corrective as closing off the previous test-item sequence and initiating a new one, rather than cutting him off to further withhold acknowledgement as encouragement to self-correct. This is further evidence that S’s struggle to participate in oral feedback emerged from his divergent, although nonetheless methodical, orientation to sequential organization, rather than a vocabulary deficit.

4.3.3.2.2 Documenting Feedback as Knowledge Construction. Understanding how the practice of documenting feedback both generates and conceals information about S requires attending to how his status as an L2 student becomes relevant to the interaction. A useful tool for analyzing the accomplishment of S’s situated identity as an L2 student is, of course, to examine how it emerges as a sequential phenomenon. The nexus of that emergence is S’s request for translation (line 35). Here, S positions the category of ‘Japanese-language user’ as relevant to the interactional organization of his and T’s discourse.

That is, S casts both himself and T as members of the category of people who would understand the meaning of the Japanese word ‘seikaku’ (literally, ‘personality’). Furthermore,

by requesting she translate ‘seikaku’ for him, S positions himself as ‘unknowing’ and T as ‘knowing.’ The epistemological differential which emerges from this action is levelled when T responds to the translation request (lines 38–39).

In other words, by providing ‘personality,’ T ratifies S’s situated identity as a “Japanese-language user who lacks access to the English word ‘personality’” and enables him to move from a state of unknowing to a state of knowing. This movement is an interactional phenomenon because S invokes the situated identity of ‘L2 student’ as a resource in order to construct his responding action in sequence.

Identifying the role of S’s unknowing stance in the situated accomplishment of his L2 student identity provides the analytical purchase necessary to consider how it may have emerged over the course of the interaction. Despite the perturbations that populate S’s turn at lines 10–13, he produces ‘personalities’ twice therein without taking an unknowing stance towards it. Furthermore, S makes no indication during his turn at lines 16–18, in response to T’s confirmation request (line 15), that the word is in any way problematic.

Nevertheless and as discussed previously, T treats S’s turns as indication of a vocabulary deficit which she proceeds to address in her own subsequent turn at talk (line 20). It is important thus to separate analytically the interactional import ascribed by T to these turns from the way in which they were designed by S, in terms of his epistemic stance display.

It is also necessary to separate S’s stance display from considerations regarding whether or not he actually knows the word. What is at issue for the participants, and thus open for analysis, is the fact that S does not at first adopt an unknowing stance towards a word which eventually becomes the target of the very stance display which mediates his participation in the oral feedback discourse. As such it is possible to consider, if not develop

further in the present analysis, the possibility that T's feedback may have led S to adopt the unknowing stance.

Another useful tool for analyzing the accomplishment of S's situated identity as an L2 student is to examine how knowledge was constructed about him during the assessment discourse. The nexus of that construction is also S's request for translation or, more accurately, immediately after (lines 36, 37). Here, S displays realization by deploying the Japanese change-of-state token 'A : :' (line 36) that his request for translation has some unexpected interactional import. Similarly, T displays surprise by producing '<[Tha]t's (p)' (line 37) to receipt S's request for translation. This exchange is followed by T's response to the translation request (lines 38–39), mutual production of smile voice (lines 39, 40) and T's production of laughter tokens (line 41).

Following this, T explicitly conducts (lines 42, 44, 46–47) what she has so far (lines 15, 20, 23, 30–32) only implicitly attempted: confirmation that S wants to say that the sisters' personalities are different, not the same. Having receipted (line 49) S's confirmation (line 48), T inscribes his disavowal of the incorrect comparison (line 50) before acknowledging it and invoking the situated identity associated with his request for translation (line 51). She then records his correct response (line 51). T's inscriptions constitute her construction of S as an L2 student.

T's construction of S as an L2 student may come to the interactional surface in the wake of his translation request, but it begins much earlier. In fact, its beginning coincides with T's initial withholding of acknowledgement, previously analyzed to emerge with her first confirmation request (line 15). It may be argued that this withholding actually begins at line 14, when T records S's expanded response before producing her verbal turn in response to it (line 15). This is in contrast with the immediate acknowledgement 'Nka:y,' she produces at line 08, before recording (line 09) S's initial response 'The °fa:ce° are sa:meꞤ'. T does not

produce an inscription again until she records (line 50) S's explicit disavowal (line 48) of the incorrect comparison he had made between the sisters' personalities.

Thus, the oral feedback, embodied by T's repeated attempts (lines 15, 20, 23, 30–32) to encourage S's self-correction, coincide with her record-keeping of those same events. Put differently, T's record-keeping, embodied by her inscriptions of S's mistake (line 14) and eventual disavowal (lines 50, 51), is accomplished as a sequential phenomenon through her engagement in the discursive practice of feedback. More aptly, T's record-keeping and the feedback discourse which it represents are mutually constitutive: two sides to the same coin.

Viewing T's record-keeping as mutually constitutive with her engagement in feedback activity allows us to analyze the relationship between the situated accomplishment of S's L2 student identity and his construction of knowledge during the assessment. The knowledge S produces about the text can be found in his initial answer (line 06–07) to the test prompt, its expansion (lines 10–13), his responses (lines 16–18, 22, 24–31) to T's feedback, his request for translation (lines 34–35) and his disavowal (line 48) of the incorrect comparison.

Among these, only his expanded answer (lines 10–13) and his response (lines 16–18) to T's first attempt at feedback are readily interpretable as incorrect. Importantly, S responds (lines 22 and 24–31) to T's second and third attempts at feedback by constructing knowledge of the text which is correct. First, he correctly rejects (line 22) T's proposition that the sisters are 'the same kind of people?' (line 20). Then, S responds to T's directive regarding 'Personality. hm:.' (line 23) by producing an extended turn that contrasts the sisters' personalities. Although S relies on non-standard uses of the noun 'silliness' (line 25) and the adjective 'boring' (line 31), his contrasting account of the sisters' personalities roughly matches the characterizations provided by Possible Response #2 for the second test prompt in the administrator script (see Table 4.1, above, or its reproduction, 4.2, below).

Despite its potential to evidence S's reading comprehension, the knowledge he constructed about the text during his responses to T's second and third attempts at feedback is not included in her inscriptions. These epistemological positions do not amount to the explicit self-correction which is required by T's feedback. Thus, they are disregarded in order to make way for T's production of subsequent attempts at encouragement for explicit self-correction. This is the procedural basis upon which T prioritizes construction of knowledge about S as an L2 student, as well as his responsiveness to feedback, over knowledge constructed by S about the text.

4.3.3.2.3 Documenting Feedback as Educational Practice. In order to understand how this deployment of the practice and, therefore, the entire feedback event may have been methodical but unnecessary requires attending to S's unfamiliarity with the interactional practices of reading assessment, the assessment materials, and the interactional history. One useful tool for attending to these elements is provided by the design of S's self and other-corrections. Throughout his participation in the feedback interaction, S provides several formats for his initial comparison regarding the sisters' personalities. He begins with "personalities are the °sa-° ·hh s:t- are same too?" (lines 10-11), and follows this closely with "The pers:- the personali stay same too," (line 13).

Furthermore, in response to T's subsequent initiation of correction "The personalities are the same¿" (line 15), S agrees with "Yeah." (line 16) but, soon after, adds to this "°Stay the same.° " (line 18). These seemingly incorrect propositions are treated by T as problematic enough to deploy the practice of documenting feedback. Notwithstanding, there appears to more than meets the eye; notice S's vacillation between the verbs "be (are)" (line 11) and "stay" (e.g., lines 11, 13). In particular, lines 10 and 11 are fascinating; S aborts his first format for the turn (arguably "personalities are the same") replaces the verb "be(are)" with an

incipient version of "stay" ("s:t- ", line 11), only to abandon that and return to "be(are)" with "...are same too?" (line 11) and, moments later, revert back to "...stay same..." (line 13).

This vacillation might be analyzed as unsureness with regards to the correctness of his proposition, rather than a commitment to precise turn design. However, it is clear that S is in fact orienting to being precise when he later commits to the verb "stay" rather than "be(are)" in response to T's initiation of correction (line 18). Instead of simply agreeing (line 16) with T, S corrects her formulation (line 15) of his expanded answer (line 13) by changing the verb to "stay". What then can be made of S's consistent, if hesitant commitment to proposing that the sisters' personalities 'stay the same'?

The details of these repairs indicate that, although S's answer is treated as incorrect by T, he may in fact be drawing skillfully upon the evidence provided by the text passage and, incidentally, by T herself. As has been mentioned above, the story *Twin Sisters* revolves around the trope whereby two sisters who are identical in outward appearance but whose personality characteristics are opposite switch clothes and pretend to be one another at school. The substance of S's response with which T takes issues is his apparent misunderstanding of that trope; namely, when S says the sisters' personalities "...are same too?" (line 11), "...stay same too" (line 13) and "°Stay the same.°" (line 18), S appears to equate the sisters personalities.

However, it may in fact be that S is proposing quite the opposite. The test materials provide a useful tool for considering this possibility. Recall that the final line in the text is dialogue uttered by the twin sisters' classroom teacher. In the story, when the sisters reveal their deception, their teacher is quoted as saying "Well I guess you could switch your clothes but your personalities stayed the same!". There is no denying the similarity between the final clause of that quoted utterance and the proposition that S appears, after vacillating, to commit to: the sisters' personalities *stay* the same.

It is possible, then, that S is proposing not that the sisters' personalities *are* similar, but rather that their personalities are similar *in that they* remain unchanged despite changes to the sisters' outward appearances and, thus, *remain* distinct from one another's. Along this line of analysis, S's utterance at line 13 "The pers:- the personali stay same too" may be appreciated as a self-correction which allows him to align more closely with the textual evidence provided by *Twin Sisters*. That self-correction may have, in turn, been occasioned when his initial utterance "'M:° (0.2) Bu°ht° (0.8) personalities are the °sa-° ·hh s:t- are same too?" (lines 10–11) did not receive an acknowledgement from T; notice the silence in line 12. Although T saw this as an erroneous equation of the twins' personalities, it is actually S's counterintuitively articulated, but nonetheless correct, display of reading comprehension.

An important analytical question arises from this analysis: Namely, why doesn't T orient to the distinction drawn by S between 'are the same' and 'stay the same.'? Attending to that question requires reconsidering the role of the test materials, in particular the administrator script, as a framework for T's interpretation of S's utterances during the assessment interaction.

Firstly, as discussed above, there is the story passage's climax, during which the sisters' deception is revealed, as well as its resolution, when their teacher exclaims that their personalities 'stayed the same'; the story itself revolves around the fact that the sister's personalities are different. As such, the design of the assessment materials take for granted not only that the student-test taker will orient to this contrast but, also, that the teacher-administrator who runs the assessment will also orient to it.

Then there is the administrator script, which was presented earlier as Table 4.1 and is partially reproduced below as Table 4.2. In particular, the list of possible responses for the second test prompt (e.g. "Kim likes...but Kate likes...") encourages the test administrator to expect her student to produce a contrasting description of the sisters' personalities. In fact,

there is evidence that T was primed by the emphasis made in the administrator script for the contrast between the sisters' personalities. Notice the different locations of her inscriptions of S's responses regarding the similarity between the sisters' personalities, highlighted in Figure 4.17 below.

Table 4.2

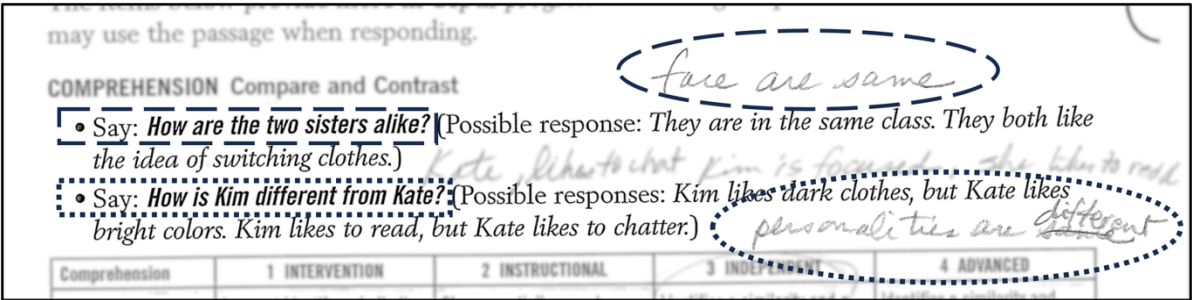
Prompts and Responses From Administrator Script for Compare and Contrast Tasks

Test Prompt	Possible Response #1	Possible Response #2
How are the two sisters alike?	They are in the same class.	They both like the idea of switching clothes.
How is Kim different from Kate?	Kim likes dark clothes, but Kate likes bright colors.	Kim likes to read, but Kate likes to chatter.

Note. This is a re-presentation of Table 4.1.

Figure 4.17

Connections Between Locations of T's Inscriptions



Note. "face are same" is located above the list of possible responses for the first prompt; "personalities are ~~same~~ different" is located below the second.

Notice how T has inscribed S's unproblematic response "face are same" (dashed oval, Figure 4.17) above the list of possible responses for the first test prompt "How are the two sisters alike?" (dashed box in Figure 4.17) on her administrator script. This can be contrasted with the location for her subsequent inscriptions; T has inscribed S's expanded, problematic

(initial) response "personalities are same" (dotted oval, Figure 4.17) above the list of possible responses for the first test prompt "How is Kim different from Kate?" (dotted box in Figure 4.17). Clearly, T's is treating S's proposition regarding the relationship between the sisters' personalities differently than his proposition regarding their outward appearance.

Neither of the propositions are included in the list of possible responses (see Table 4.2, above) and, thus, might easily enough be inscribed in proximity to the prompt which occasioned them. Nevertheless, T has inscribed S's seemingly mistaken proposition regarding the sisters' personalities under the second, as of that moment not-yet issued, prompt "How is Kim different from Kate." Thus, T is clearly orienting toward the normative expectation, encouraged by the script, that S will contrast the sister characters' personalities.

So far, it has been argued that the student (S) effectively suggests that the sister characters have different personalities, but he does this in a way that relies on implicit communication via repairs. It has also been noted that the teacher (T) doesn't pick up on this implicit suggestion, partly because she expects a clear contrast, as indicated by her script.

To better understand how this misunderstanding happened, we need to consider the context of previous interactions. In the first analysis section (see 4.1 above), excerpts were presented to show how past notes about student performance can help shape future feedback. While the excerpts and the current single case come from the same recording, we shouldn't use the final excerpt from the chronological analysis right now because it happened after the events in the single case. Just like participants in a conversation don't think backward through time, our analysis can't depend on future events to explain the present.

However, the interactions in the earlier excerpts, especially the one involving the word "personalities," are still relevant to our current analysis. The key question is: how can we incorporate this interactional history into our understanding of the problems occurring in this case?

The interactional history is by no means omnirelevant and, thus, can only be analyzed as relevant when the participants can be observed orienting to that history in order to construct their present interaction. As such, it cannot be taken for granted that S's self-correction of "pers::on(.)ali(0.2)ties" to "personalities" (lines 45-47, Excerpt 4.1.1, section 4.1) during the oral reading fluency assessment, or T's aborted attempt to confirm the degree of his knowledge about that word (lines 108-111, Excerpt 4.1.2, section 4.1) are relevant to T's deployment of documenting feedback here. Notwithstanding, there is some evidence that T does in fact orient to this interactional history in the *way* she deploys the practice.

Specifically, T appears to rely on S's ability to recognize 'personalities' as trouble-source in the way that she builds her feedback to be as implicit as possible. It was noted above how the problems which emerge do so, in part, because S is not able to recognize the correctable that T indicated with her initiations of correction (e.g. lines 15, 20, 23). These become increasingly explicit, starting with a question-intoned partial repeat (line 15) and ending with a single-word "personality" followed by a nasalized token "hm:." (line 23) which accentuates the fact that T has said *it* (i.e. "personalities") and displays the stance that she will say 'no more.' Although this latest attempt by T to initiate S's self-correction is the most explicit, it is also the most minimal. T has thus provided what should be a powerful resource for S to identify the trouble source necessary for his completion of the self-correction.

The fact that S does not is, in fact, complete the self-correction stems, as argued above, from his methodical, if erroneous, action ascriptions and lack of experience with the practice of documenting feedback. Notwithstanding, the fact that S does not complete the self-correction does not require that we abandon the analysis of T's single word and stance display marker (line 23) as an initiation of repair. T attempts to initiate repair here by uttering the very word which was at the heart of a previous mistake (Excerpt 4.1.1, section 4.1) and the (aborted) subject of diagnostic assessment (Excerpt 4.1.2, section 4.1). Thus, T has

designed her turn to be recognizable to S who should be able to recall the previous interactional history. However, he does not, or cannot, because he was not mistaken in the first place.

4.3.4 Summary of the Single Case Analysis

The analysis of the single case discussed earlier aimed to build on the systematic account of documenting feedback presented in section 4.2 and address some unresolved issues from section 4.1, particularly regarding how this practice applies to L2 proficiency. Key findings from the single-case analysis, relating to earlier issues, will be summarized below, with a more detailed discussion planned for the next chapter.

The multimodal analysis of the single case shows that this is indeed an instance of documenting feedback, even if the documents produced do not clearly show that feedback occurred. The main insight is that the teacher's repeated but unsuccessful attempts to get the student to self-correct led to a focus on talking rather than writing. This neglect of the documents during a difficult part of the process resulted in poor representations of the interaction, confirming earlier findings from section 4.2. Moreover, the analysis extends these findings by highlighting how the procedures involved in documenting feedback (e.g. using expanded test-item sequences and prioritizing writing) help identify complex cases that can't be understood through written documentation alone.

The single case also adds to the previous discussion by showing how both the teacher and student negotiate their roles in the interaction, using gestures and body language to support their communication. This complex interaction contrasts sharply with the simplicity of the written documents.

In this instance, oral feedback was structured into sequences that encouraged the student to self-correct his earlier answer. The teacher created space for these interactions by

not acknowledging the student's incorrect answer or his following comments. This withholding of acknowledgment required the student to adapt to various ways of organizing the conversation. He needed to navigate the expected structure of the assessment activity, which typically ends with acknowledgment, as well as general conversational strategies, like using "So" to summarize previous points and "Okay" to interrupt ongoing turns.

The student struggled to self-correct not because of a lack of vocabulary but due to the demands of the oral feedback exchange. While language proficiency may have played a role in the interaction issues, it was more about the teacher's focus on it rather than being the root cause of the problem.

The way the teacher organized the feedback into social action sequences prioritized her perspective over the student's. Through her notes, she recorded the student's incorrect response and his eventual rejection of it, but she didn't capture the correct understanding he developed along the way. To self-correct as the teacher encouraged, the student had to reject his previous answer while addressing a specific vocabulary item. Ultimately, he reacted by taking on the role of an L2 student in response to what sounded like a new test prompt, rather than focusing on the teacher's attempts to guide him. Nevertheless, the teacher acknowledged this identity in her confirmation of the student's unsuccessful attempt to express his thoughts.

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5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Reflection

This dissertation began by asking how writing might help or hinder feedback provided to K-12 learners, especially vulnerable groups like L2 students, during formal, formative reading assessment. That led to a review of prior research and a series of interconnected investigations aimed at understanding the relationship between writing and feedback. The current chapter presents the dissertation's findings, contributions and implications.

Unmotivated looking at the data from this research led me to focus on a specific sequence of feedback interaction. In this instance, a student and his teacher faced challenges in the teacher's attempt to encourage the student to correct what seemed to be an incorrect response to a comprehension question. Writing, feedback, and language learning were clearly important not only for how this assessment interaction was structured but also for how the participants experienced and shared that experience.

This discovery was both exciting and confusing. It became apparent that the teacher's methodical approach to addressing issues related to the student's language abilities might have actually prevented her from recognizing his level of understanding. The key question that arose from my initial analysis was not just why these methods seemed to blur the student's language proficiency, but how this confusion could result from shared interactional practices.

To explore this question, I needed to study the practice more broadly, explaining how it operates outside of specific contexts before applying those findings back to the original case. Therefore, I had to create a general overview of the practice by examining multiple instances of its operation throughout the data set.

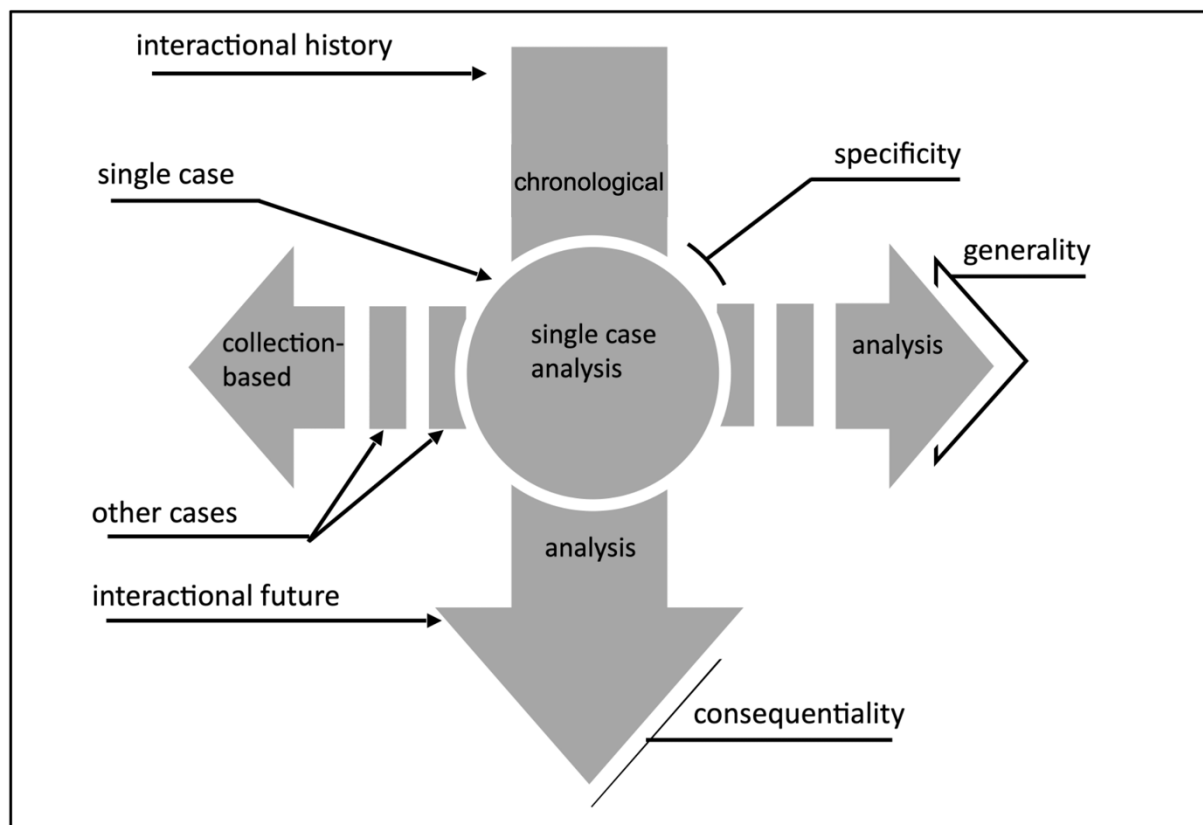
While insights from a general account of the practice can be valuable, they should be approached with caution. Understanding the practice reveals the challenges participants face

and the strategies they use to address them, providing useful material for analyzing how meaning is created in interaction. However, this does not establish a rigid framework that all participants must follow in every instance. Knowing how the practice generally functions serves as a starting point, but it is essential to analyze how it plays out in each individual case, as every case exists within its own interactional history and influences future interactions. Thus, I had to situate the single case of the practice within the interactional events that transpired before and after it during the same test administration.

Figure 5.1, below, schematizes the analytical perspective that were necessary for this dissertation's analysis.

Figure 5.1

Model of This Dissertation's Analysis



Note. This figure redisplayes Figure 4.1.

Examining the initially discovered instance of the practice from three perspectives (i.e., chronologically, through a collection, and as a single case) allowed the study to achieve the necessary levels of specificity, generality, and significance for the analysis. However, it was important to present the results in a way that readers could easily understand. To achieve this, the analysis was organized in reverse order: starting with the chronological analysis, followed by the collection-based analysis, and finally the single-case analysis. This approach enabled readers to appreciate the findings in an ecologically valid manner.

Beginning with the chronological analysis helped readers grasp the overall structure of formal, formative reading assessments and how these interactions unfold from start to finish. Understanding this organization was crucial for recognizing the need for both the collection-based analysis and the single-case analysis. The collection-based analysis further highlighted the necessity of the single-case analysis, echoing the first analytical step by encouraging readers to set aside their expectations for the single case until adequate preparation had been made.

Now that readers have explored all three aspects of the practice (i.e., specificity, generality, consequentiality) from different analytical angles, it is time to synthesize these individual strands into a coherent and comprehensive view. This chapter aims to accomplish that. The first section will summarize the findings from each phase of the analysis. The second section will outline the contributions of each analytical step. Finally, the third section will discuss the implications of each step, leading to the concluding section where the overall conclusions of the study will be presented.

5.2 Findings

5.2.1 Introduction to Findings

This dissertation aimed to investigate the relationship between writing and feedback during formal formative reading assessments in K-12 classrooms, particularly focusing on the potential effects for L2 students. After identifying a significant case through unmotivated looking, this dissertation proceeded with a chronological analysis. Following this, it conducted a collection-based analysis based on the findings from the chronological study. Finally, utilizing insights from both analyses, this dissertation revisited the original instance to perform a single-case analysis.

The research questions that guided this dissertation are listed below:

- (1) How do K-12 teachers and student accomplish feedback *after* performance and its written documentation during formal formative reading assessment?
- (2) How do K-12 teachers and student accomplish feedback *during* performance and its written documentation during formal formative reading assessment?
- (3) How might the interactional and material organizations of both types of feedback affect the purposeful participation of L2 students in formal formative reading assessment?

The following subsections will provide answers to the research questions based on the results from each analytical step. After presenting these findings, a synthesis of all three steps will be offered. This synthesis will reveal several key insights:

1. Written documentation can create opportunities for feedback during performance, but this may compromise the quality of the documentation itself.

2. Feedback after performance might not effectively use previous notes or lead to new ones.
3. Negotiating past student performances during feedback after performance is often challenging, if not impossible.
4. Language learning may become an unnecessary focal point of feedback activities.
5. Written documents that result from feedback activities may overlook crucial elements of language learning.

These insights highlight the complexities involved in the interplay between writing, feedback, and language learning in assessment contexts.

5.2.2 Findings of the Chronological Analysis

The first step in the analysis focused on understanding how writing practices and feedback relate during formal formative reading assessments. To do this, a series of interactions from a single administration of DRA®2 were extracted, transcribed, and analyzed. These interactions included various written inscriptions that evolved and were reintegrated in each subsequent interaction, allowing for an examination of the interactional history of writing and feedback over time.

The guiding question for this analysis was: *What role does inscription play in the accomplishment of feedback during formal reading assessment interactions?* The chronological analysis revealed that inscriptions play a crucial role in organizing performance, diagnosis, and instruction.

Firstly, feedback cannot occur without an initial performance. During the oral reading fluency assessment, the student's reading was organized around the teacher's writing activity. This was especially evident when the teacher's writing became a resource for the student to self-correct the word "personalities." When the student identified "personalities" as a

potential problem, the teacher's writing confirmed the need for correction. This correction was achieved through both verbal communication and physical action, highlighting how the teacher's writing supported the student's self-correction.

Oral reading fluency was not the only assessment organized this way; the subsequent diagnostic evaluation also relied on inscriptions as flexible resources for assessing the student's vocabulary knowledge. The teacher used the student's correct pronunciation of a word as a tentative indicator of his understanding. The terms "correctly" and "sufficiently" were contextually defined as the teacher referenced prior graphical marks to express her uncertainty about the student's vocabulary knowledge. During this diagnostic phase, inscriptions helped reconstruct past discursive objects and create new ones through discussion.

A similar use of inscriptions was observed during the instructional phase that followed the assessment. Here, past discursive objects, such as words the student could pronounce but didn't understand, provided resources for aligning the student with current instruction about future actions. The teacher used graphical marks as reference points for multiple past events, like the earlier self-correction of "personalities" and instances when the student couldn't recall it later. Importantly, these past events were not seen as fixed moments in time; rather, they were framed as future-oriented events that justified the teacher's current instructions about what the student needed to do moving forward.

5.2.3 Findings of the Collection-Based Analysis

The second step in the analysis explored how written inscriptions can document feedback activity during formal formative reading assessments. To do this, a search through the data was conducted to find instances where feedback and its documentation occurred simultaneously. These instances were analyzed individually and collectively, allowing for an

examination of the practice of documenting feedback; specifically, the interactional procedures that enable participants to engage in oral feedback while creating written records at the same time.

The guiding question for this analysis was: *How do participants achieve a shared understanding of their activity in documenting feedback, and how does this relate to managing multiple activities and the resulting documents?* The collection-based analysis found that mutual orientation to emerging units of talk and physical actions allowed participants to prioritize writing over talking, leading to effective feedback sequences that included a response, an intervention, and a modified response. However, as the interaction progressed, prioritizing talk over writing sometimes resulted in documentation that less clearly reflected the sequence of feedback.

The collection-based analysis highlighted methods participants used to achieve shared understanding, manage multiactivity, and produce written records of feedback events. This analysis, illustrated through three instances, showed that participants' mutual orientation to units of talk and embodied actions facilitated the successful completion of feedback sequences.

In one clear example, the feedback was organized within a testing sequence where the teacher's prompt was followed by the student's response. When the student didn't modify her response as expected, the teacher adjusted his questioning approach to encourage her to correct it. This intervention was organized in a way that combined both writing and verbal feedback. The teacher wrote down the student's response before verbally guiding her toward the correction, demonstrating how the participants monitored each other's actions. The student prepared and retracted her responses based on the teacher's verbal cues and writing movements. This mutual monitoring resulted in a structure that favored writing over speaking, ultimately producing documents that accurately reflected the feedback sequence.

These findings underscore the importance of shared interactional practices in organizing assessment events. Excerpts from the analysis vividly illustrate the competencies needed for effective participation in formal reading assessments. For instance, one excerpt showed how writing was prioritized collaboratively, with the teacher focusing on writing while the student observed silently. In contrast, another excerpt demonstrated how both participants interrupted their talk to monitor each other's actions, highlighting their collaborative efforts in managing the assessment process.

Overall, this collection-based analysis reveals that effective feedback in formal reading assessments relies heavily on shared practices of mutual monitoring during interaction, which are crucial for managing the complexities of the assessment environment.

5.2.4 Findings of the Single-Case Analysis

The third and final step in the analysis focused on the participation of L2 students in formal formative reading assessments, building on observations from the previous steps. The chronological analysis identified a key event where the teacher recalled a moment when the student, struggling with an English word, requested a translation. To understand how L2 students can be effectively engaged in these assessments, it was essential to closely examine this specific event or what I initially discovered as a single case.

In the collection-based analysis, it did not become clear whether a student's language proficiency was ever relevant to his difficulties in participating in the feedback process, or how this relevancy might emerge in interaction. This prompted an analysis of how language proficiency might influence a student's engagement with feedback, how that relevance is negotiated in interaction, and the implications for the practice of documenting feedback.

The guiding questions for the single-case analysis were: *How is oral feedback discourse organized during a formal formative reading assessment for an L2 student?* and *How does this organization relate to knowledge construction and identity?*

In the analyzed instance, the organization of oral feedback discourse was structured into sequences that encouraged the student to self-correct his previous answer. The teacher manipulated the normative test-item sequence by withholding acknowledgment of the student's incorrect response and subsequent attempts to engage. This withholding created a space where the student was required to dynamically navigate various methods for sequential organization. He was expected to adhere to the typical structure of assessment activities, which generally concludes with acknowledgment of responses. Additionally, the student needed to employ broader conversational strategies, such as using "So" to connect to earlier discussions, "Okay" to interrupt ongoing turns, and engaging in meta-discourse to question the organization of the interaction itself.

Ultimately, the student's challenges in self-correction were analyzed as emerging more from the interactional demands of the oral feedback than to a vocabulary deficit. The organization of the feedback prioritized the teacher's epistemological stance over the student's experience. Through her written inscriptions, the teacher constructed knowledge about the student as an L2 student, recording his incorrect responses but neglecting the correct insights he demonstrated about the text.

For the student to comply with the teacher's encouragement to self-correct, he was expected to reject his prior answer and directly engage with a specific vocabulary term. However, he ultimately invoked his identity as an L2 student when responding to what he interpreted as a new prompt, rather than adhering strictly to the self-correction process the teacher intended. Despite his unsuccessful attempt to articulate his thoughts, the teacher

acknowledged this identity, illustrating a complex negotiation of knowledge and participation.

This single-case analysis emphasizes how the organization of oral feedback discourse not only influences knowledge construction but also plays a significant role in shaping student identity within the assessment context. The interplay between feedback practices, student agency, and the acknowledgment of their L2 student identity highlights the importance of considering these factors when engaging L2 students in formal assessments.

5.2.5 Synthesis of Findings

The findings from the three analytical steps provide a comprehensive synthesis of the relationship between writing and feedback during formal formative reading assessments, particularly in the context of assessing L2 students.

The dissertation revealed that written documentation serves as a vital tool for feedback not just after performance, but also during it. For instance, during an oral reading assessment, a student's self-correction was facilitated by the teacher's writing, demonstrating the interactive and embodied nature of writing-in-interaction. This illustrates a broader phenomenon where written records create opportunities for immediate feedback during performance, reinforcing the idea that without initial documentation, subsequent feedback cannot occur. Each written inscription acts as a goal-oriented framework guiding the next steps in feedback activity.

However, a paradox emerged: while documentation provides opportunities for feedback, it can also compromise the richness of that feedback. In instances where the teacher focused narrowly on correcting a specific response, other valuable aspects (e.g. the student's comprehension) were overlooked in the documentation. This pattern was evident across various interactions, where a greater emphasis on correcting problematic responses often resulted in less comprehensive documentation of the conversation itself. As participants

concentrated on addressing problems in the talk, the resulting documents became selective, failing to capture the full complexity of the interaction.

The relationship between writing and feedback after performance further highlighted complexities. Feedback during these later interactions can draw on past written inscriptions, as seen in the chronological analysis where the teacher referenced prior documentation to inform her feedback. However, it is equally important to note that feedback can occur without relying on previous inscriptions, illustrating a disconnect between written records and ongoing feedback processes.

Moreover, feedback after performance often limits the potential for negotiating meanings from past interactions. During the chronological analysis, the contrast between diagnostic interactions and subsequent feedback showed a shift from collaborative discussion to a more unilateral feedback process, where the teacher dominated the interaction. This dynamic often leads to a lack of negotiation about past performances, as students are less likely to engage meaningfully when they perceive feedback as authoritative rather than collaborative.

The findings of this dissertation underscore significant implications for L2 students in these assessment contexts. A critical issue is that language learning may be misidentified as a barrier to participation, particularly with regards to feedback during assessment. The challenges students face may not stem solely from language proficiency but from how feedback is structured and delivered. In the single-case analysis, the student's attempts to negotiate feedback were often disregarded, highlighting how language learning was misaligned with the focus of the teacher's feedback.

Additionally, written documentation frequently fails to represent the full capabilities of L2 students. The emphasis on language deficits in written records can obscure students' competencies and insights. For instance, when a student offered substantial insights into

character dynamics but was primarily recorded for his struggles with specific vocabulary, the documentation reinforced a deficit view rather than a holistic understanding of his language use and comprehension.

In sum, the dissertation reveals a complex interplay between writing, feedback, and the participation of L2 students during formal formative reading assessments. While written documentation can enhance feedback opportunities, it often leads to selective representations that overlook essential aspects of student understanding and agency. The implications of these findings call for a re-evaluation of how feedback is structured and documented, ensuring that it recognizes and values the contributions of L2 students rather than framing them primarily through a lens of deficiency. This approach would not only enrich the feedback process but also foster a more inclusive and supportive learning environment for L2 students.

5.3 Contributions

5.3.1 Introduction to Contributions

This study focuses on how feedback is given during formal assessments in K-12 education, using interactional data. However, previous research has not thoroughly examined writing in these interactions, limiting its usefulness for this dissertation. To address this, the dissertation research also reviewed research on writing interactions outside of K-12 settings.

In the next section, we will discuss how this dissertation builds on earlier work about writing and feedback. We will combine these insights to show how they enhance educational research on feedback in K-12 assessments.

This synthesis will reveal new findings about how:

1. Teachers design feedback in specific, practical ways.
2. Teachers work with students to help them improve their responses.

3. Feedback references students' past performance.
4. Both teachers and students use feedback to show agreement.
5. Negative attitudes towards students' abilities can arise during writing interactions.
6. Misunderstandings about students' language skills can result from how feedback is given.

By exploring these points, the dissertation contributes to our understanding of how feedback is accomplished during K-12 educational interaction..

5.3.2 Contributions of the Chronological Analysis

This chronological analysis offers a detailed look at how writing is organized in K-12 FA interactions over time, particularly regarding the balance between public and private aspects of writing. Previous research has highlighted how sharing a peer's writing can help organize actions in the classroom (Szymanski, 1999; Mlyňár, 2023) and how this sharing can be negotiated among students (Szymanski, 2002; Jakonen, 2016). However, most of this research has focused on interactions between peers, with teachers often playing a minimal role.

This chronological analysis adds to the existing literature by showing how teachers, as important figures in education, create written records of students' performance. It connects K-12 writing research to studies in higher education (Leyland and Riley, 2021; Ro, 2023), where teachers are more often seen writing and giving feedback. For instance, this chronological analysis supports findings that students typically accept feedback from teachers without issues, but in this case, the student does not directly watch the teacher's writing; instead, he seems to monitor the teacher more subtly during an oral reading assessment.

Another key finding is how students and teachers can work together to address mistakes. Students may use talk and physical gestures to correct themselves, and if

they get their teachers' attention, they can ensure these corrections are recorded. This chronological analysis also sheds light on how private writing can be shared during feedback sessions, confirming earlier observations that teachers often refer back to previous writings to guide their feedback (Leyland and Riley, 2021; Ro, 2023).

Additionally, this chronological analysis shows that even unwritten ideas can be valuable for feedback. In earlier studies, written records were primarily used to identify problems (Leyland and Riley, 2021; Ro, 2023). In this chronological analysis, the writings were initially intended to document student performance, and any issues only became clear during follow-up questions. This analysis traces how these issues are identified and integrated into teaching after assessments, offering a fresh perspective on how feedback can emerge naturally rather than being strictly planned.

5.3.3 Contributions of the Collection-Based Analysis

This collection-based analysis adds to recent research on how various forms of communication help organize student performance in K-12 education, specifically focusing on how feedback is documented. The analysis shows that effective feedback involves clearly defining what good student performance looks like. This process includes a sequence: the student responds, the teacher intervenes, and then the student modifies their response.

In one example, the teacher does not write down the student's initial response, and the student does not pay attention to the teacher's ongoing help. This situation highlights the importance of being aware of each other's actions, echoing Jakonen (2016), which is crucial for participating in writing activities. Despite this, the student does recall details from a story to guide their response and gives two answers that meet the teacher's expectations. However, these answers are overlooked until similar ones are accepted later. This situation shows that a modified response needs to come after a teacher's intervention to count as such.

The written responses from this interaction also demonstrate that their validity depends on the order of the feedback process. The final written response implies that it came after the teacher's intervention, even though the initial student response isn't recorded. This corroborates findings of previous research that shows how feedback is often focused on the teacher's agenda (Skovholt, 2018).

These findings are important because they highlight how educational assessments are deeply tied to social interactions. For instance, when a teacher acknowledges a student's problematic response before helping them, it shows the importance of their relationship. In another example, the teacher encourages the student to think together about their response, creating chances for the student to correct their mistakes on their own (cf. Heritage and Heritage, 2013).

This collection-based analysis also illustrates how students can adapt their responses based on the teacher's actions. For example, a student focuses on the teacher's writing progress while responding, showing awareness of the interaction. This aligns with previous research that indicates that details in writing activities help all participants adjust their actions effectively.

5.3.4 Contributions of the Single-Case Analysis

This single-case analysis adds to discussions about education by exploring how social and cultural factors influence literacy, as introduced by the New Literacy Studies (Gee, 2014) and, in particular, the framework of academic literacies (Lea and Street 1998, 2006). This is the precursor to recent work on K-12 FA (e.g. Jones and Beck, 2020; Beck and Jones, 2023). Specifically, this single-case analysis provides a detailed look at how oral feedback is structured during formal formative reading assessments. These assessments are important because students are expected to read texts in a specific, socially normative way.

This single-case analysis treats oral feedback as a type of assessment discourse. The aim is to understand how its social structure relates to knowledge and identity issues. Oral feedback has not been studied as much as written feedback within the framework of academic literacies. Previous research has pointed out that oral feedback can be scarce or challenging when it comes to addressing how academic knowledge is constructed.

This single-case analysis supports those findings by showing that the way oral feedback is organized during reading assessments can limit opportunities for L2 students. It often overlooks important discussions about knowledge construction and identity, which are crucial for their educational development.

5.3.5 Synthesis of Contributions

This dissertation makes several important contributions to our understanding of feedback during formal reading assessments, especially for L2 students.

This dissertation illustrates how teachers design feedback through specific interactions. Previous research has laid a solid foundation, but this analysis expands it by highlighting how feedback involves not just spoken words but also the physical actions and materials used. For example, teachers might look at students to prompt responses, while students might look away to avoid attention. This focus on gaze and physical presence shows that feedback is not just about talking; it involves the environment and materials, like assessment sheets.

This dissertation also emphasizes the collaboration between teachers and students. It highlights that student responses are not created in isolation; they are shaped by teacher support through both verbal and embodied cues. For instance, teachers may use gestures or nods to encourage students when they struggle. This dissertation's multimodal approach

demonstrates that feedback is a joint effort, with both parties actively involved in the interaction.

When it comes to providing feedback based on past performance, this dissertation shows how teachers use both spoken words and written materials to refer back to what students have done. Previous research mostly focused on how this is achieved through conversation (c.f. Adair-Hauck and Troyan, 2013), but this dissertation extends that understanding by showing that written notes also play a crucial role. Teachers often reference written work to anchor their feedback, and the absence of such references can also be significant.

This dissertation highlights how students show their understanding of feedback through their interactions. They may lean in or focus on the teacher's materials to demonstrate their engagement. This aspect of feedback involves physical actions and is essential for effective communication between teachers and students.

This dissertation explores how negative perceptions of L2 students can emerge during feedback interactions. While some research suggests that interactive feedback can support students, this study reveals that feedback can sometimes reinforce deficit mindsets. Teachers might incorrectly assume that language proficiency is the main issue, even when it isn't. This misdiagnosis can stem from the structured way feedback is documented, where the focus on correcting responses might overshadow the actual understanding of the student's abilities.

Finally, this dissertation illustrates how teachers can misdiagnose the causes of a student's difficulties. While questioning practices can help differentiate between language issues and comprehension mistakes, this dissertation shows that the structured process of documenting feedback can lead to repeated misdiagnoses. The unilateral directionality of feedback (e.g. where teachers focus on their own documentation) can prevent them from recognizing the student's attempts to address their concerns.

In summary, this dissertation enriches the existing literature on feedback in K-12 settings, showing the complex interplay of interaction, materiality, and multimodal communication, particularly for L2 students.

5.4 Implications

5.4.1 Introduction to Implications

The findings of this dissertation about writing and feedback have important implications for research and practice in K-12 reading assessments, particularly for L2 students. These implications come from three interconnected steps in the analysis.

Specific implications for research and practice include:

1. Research should use formal assessments to discover students' strengths through feedback during performance.
2. Teachers need to recognize how they can effectively organize feedback in a way that includes physical actions and materials.
3. Research should focus on how assessment materials can be designed to help provide better feedback after a performance.
4. Educational practice should take advantage of feedback documentation, as it can enhance communication and understanding after assessments.
5. Research should examine the language requirements of assessments, especially for L2 students, to make them more accessible.
6. While documenting feedback can show students' understanding, it can also hide their true comprehension. Teachers need to be aware of this issue.

Together, these points suggest that educational research and practice should be more intentional about how feedback is documented in K-12 assessments. By focusing on students' strengths and the ways feedback is documented, educators can create effective assessment environments that support all learners, particularly those facing language challenges.

5.4.2 Implications of the Chronological Analysis

The findings from the chronological analysis highlight the importance of time in formal reading assessments. It focuses on how actions unfold over time, but the study has limitations because it couldn't fully capture the details of writing as it happens. To improve this, future research should use close-up camera angles on the writing surface, which would allow for more detailed analysis of how feedback is given and received.

In previous studies, both students and teachers often look at written materials while discussing past work. With detailed recordings, researchers could examine whether these interactions are structured around smaller, more specific actions than previously thought.

Despite these limitations, the challenges faced in this analysis also suggest new areas for research. For instance, the final version of written work is often created without fully discussing it in the moment. However, both the teacher and the student are aware of the original context of their writing. In one case, understanding a student's vocabulary relied on earlier notes taken during oral reading. Even after this initial writing, discussions can lead to new insights about which words the student knows and which ones they don't.

The implications of this analysis extend to educational stakeholders (e.g., teachers, administrators, parents) who might later interpret these written documents without having seen the original interactions. The final texts that they access might not fully convey how the performance and feedback evolved over time.

This chronological analysis showed that feedback can be oriented to local rather than institutional timeframes, making the processes of reading assessments opaque to stakeholders involved. For future research, it would be valuable to explore how these ideas apply not just to reading assessments, but to other subjects as well, examining how written materials are organized and understood in different educational contexts.

5.4.3 Implications of the Collection-Based Analysis

The findings from the collection-based analysis have important implications for research on K-12 educational assessments, particularly regarding how writing and talking interact during feedback. This collection-based analysis highlights a key difference between how feedback is delivered in social interactions and how it is structured institutionally. Specifically, whether and how teachers and students focus on writing after a student gives a response can significantly affect the flow of feedback.

For example, in the analysis of specific excerpts, after a student provided her initial answer, both the teacher and the student shifted their focus to writing rather than talking. This allowed them to document feedback in a way that emphasized writing over conversation. By doing this, they could bypass the usual acknowledgment from the teacher that typically follows a student's response, minimizing the need for the student to add more verbal comments.

Later in the same interaction, the focus shifted back to talking over writing. Interestingly, this shift was facilitated by simultaneous writing and speaking, which is a different approach from what has been seen in other studies. When they prioritized talking, the written notes that emerged became less clear in showing the student's reading performance as separate from the teacher's feedback.

These findings suggest that when feedback comes into focus mainly as spoken interaction, the written documentation can become less transparent. Future research should investigate how the timing of writing (e.g. whether it happens early or late during assessments) affects assessment of not only reading but also other skills.

These implications are crucial because they point to the interactions during assessments as valuable areas for studying competencies in educational assessment. If teachers and students cannot effectively engage in the multimodal interactions required during formal FA, they may struggle to utilize the assessment results to improve teaching and learning. For example, teachers rely on assessment outcomes to plan lessons, and students use them to set personal goals.

The collection-based analysis sheds light on how these interactions can be organized into clear feedback sequences: initial responses, teacher interventions, and modified responses. This organization is essential for successful feedback during formal reading assessments, as it helps create a coherent process for evaluating student performance.

However, while these findings are significant, they may not apply universally. More research is needed to explore how this feedback process functions in different contexts, especially outside formal assessments. Understanding these interactional practices is key to developing what could be called "interactional assessment literacy."

5.4.4 Implications of the Single-Case Analysis

The single-case analysis offers valuable insights for improving research methods within research on assessment interaction, particularly in studying how oral feedback is organized. By using CA methods, this research closely examines oral feedback discourse, which is more direct than methods used in previous studies, like reconstructed dialogue or retrospective interviews.

There are two main benefits to this approach. First, CA methods focus specifically on how oral feedback is delivered in real interactions. Second, they ensure that claims about the identities and backgrounds of participants are rooted in their actual observable orientations. This alignment helps researchers challenge the negative stereotypes often associated with L2 students.

Additionally, the single-case analysis can enhance best practices for conducting formal formative reading assessments with L2 students. It highlights the importance of teachers understanding the interactional dynamics at play when providing oral feedback. For instance, one student struggled with self-correction due to the complex demands of the feedback process. This struggle shouldn't be attributed solely to language difficulties; rather, it reflects the challenges posed by the way feedback was organized.

The single-case analysis demonstrates how teachers can effectively support their L2 students by being mindful of these dynamics. Professional development programs for current and future teachers can benefit from detailed accounts like this one, which provide insights into real classroom challenges and solutions. Future research should explore how this feedback practice varies across different contexts, particularly in settings with diverse L2 students. By recognizing and analyzing this practice, educators can build more effective professional development initiatives centered around documenting feedback.

5.4.5 Synthesis of Implications

This dissertation has important implications for understanding feedback during formal reading assessments and how L2 students participate.

First, it emphasizes that educational research should use formal assessments to identify student skills. While assessments can take many forms, such as writing conferences, teachers often rely on standardized tests. These tests aim to show what students should be

able to do, like reading fluently or comparing characters. However, students might not always have the specific skills needed to demonstrate their abilities during assessments. Therefore, assessments should consider the communication skills necessary for students to show their understanding of reading. The best way to study these skills is through the social interactions that happen during feedback sessions.

Additionally, this dissertation highlights the need for teachers to recognize how they organize feedback during assessments. Previous research has pointed out that teacher education often overlooks the real interactions in K-12 classrooms. This dissertation addresses that gap by showing how writing and feedback are linked in producing documented student performances. It suggests a new concept called "interactional assessment literacies," which are the skills teachers need to effectively give feedback during assessments. Understanding these skills is crucial because teachers play a key role in guiding students' learning through assessments.

This dissertation also discusses how to improve feedback organization after assessments. It suggests that research should focus on how standardized assessment materials are used during feedback. This includes looking at how materials are designed and how they can either help or hinder teachers in providing feedback. By studying how these materials are used in practice, we can improve their design to better support teachers and students.

Moreover, this dissertation points out that writing and documentation play a vital role in everyday teaching and learning. It shows how these documents can be used as tools for giving feedback during reading assessments. However, this dissertation was limited in capturing all the details about how writing is used, so future research should focus more on this aspect.

Importantly, this dissertation also sheds light on the interactional demands placed on L2 students during reading assessments. While previous research has examined the language

challenges of academic tasks, this dissertation reveals that difficulties can also arise from the interactions during assessments. Teachers need to learn how to effectively identify and address these challenges in real-time.

Lastly, this dissertation warns that documenting feedback can sometimes hide a student's true abilities. Instead of helping teachers see where a student struggles, this practice might obscure important information. Recognizing this possibility can help teachers improve their assessment practices and ensure that they fully engage L2 students in the assessment process.

5.5 Limitations

Despite the significance of the current study, it has two limitations discussed below.

5.5.1 Explaining the Biggest Picture

This dissertation focuses on a common situation in education: formal formative reading assessments, which happen daily for teachers and students in K-12 schools worldwide. Ideally, the results of these assessments should help teachers improve their lessons and support their students better. However, many students, especially L2 students, still struggle and fall behind.

This raises important questions: What causes these challenges? What factors affect student success? What are teachers doing well, and where might they be missing the mark? Are our expectations realistic, or are they set too high? How can we evaluate our assessment systems effectively?

While the social interactions during these assessments are crucial, not all questions can be answered by looking only at these interactions. What happens between teachers and students during formal assessments is important because it shows what students can do and gives them feedback. The outcomes of these assessments can impact both the interaction

itself and the students' educational paths. However, there may also be other factors influencing student success that are unrelated to how assessments are conducted. These broader issues are not addressed in this study. Instead, the study aims to show how well assessment events work on a local level and how that success may or may not affect future learning.

5.5.2 Capturing the Smallest Details

This dissertation focuses on a specific aspect of K-12 formal FA by closely examining the role of writing in these interactions. It shows that writing is not just part of the feedback process during formal reading assessments; rather, it is a key element around which feedback is organized. This insight opens up new research opportunities from various perspectives.

There are many questions to explore, such as: What strategies do teachers use to incorporate writing during formal assessments? Do these strategies apply across different assessment tools, subjects, grade levels, and teaching environments? How do students respond to their teachers' writing? Do students adjust their performance based on what their teachers are writing in real-time? What impact do the design of assessment materials have on how writing is organized? These are just a few of the intriguing questions that could be investigated.

While analyzing writing in social interactions offers exciting insights, not all answers can be found using the current data. Social interactions evolve moment by moment, and the relevant details may change over time. This means that how data is collected (e.g. camera placement and angles) may vary during the study. Additionally, the focus of analysis can also shift. For example, the specific aspect of writing practice that this study emphasizes (e.g. how feedback is documented) was not always captured in detail on the video recordings. Some videos were collected early on, before cameras were positioned to focus closely on the

documents being written on. As a result, this dissertation can only analyze writing practices to a limited extent, without getting down to the finest details of each pen stroke.

5.6 Conclusion

This dissertation began by questioning the effectiveness of K-12 education systems, especially when many students are not meeting learning expectations and are even expected to fail. This situation is particularly concerning in a democratic society, as it often affects students who bring important linguistic and cultural diversity, which is essential in our globalized world. To tackle this issue, this dissertation revisited foundational ideas, particularly that of feedback within formal reading FA, valued as an educational method that supports all students in mastering content.

While feedback is recognized as a powerful tool for supporting student success, the study found that much research fails to address how feedback is practically documented in classrooms. It's not enough to simply state that teachers should document their feedback for future lessons; educational research must examine how this documentation actually happens. This practical question remains largely unaddressed across various research areas focused on formative assessment.

To explore these practices, this dissertation reviewed educational literature on feedback during formal FA in K-12 settings. This highlighted the importance of writing in the feedback process. However, this dissertation encountered some methodological limitations and turned to multimodal CA studies to better understand the relationship between feedback and writing in formal reading FA at an elementary school.

An important starting point for this dissertation, and thus the basis for its theoretical significance, emerged from the nature of writing-in-interaction as a *Lebenswelt* Pair (Garfinkel and Wieder, 1992). If written documents provide insufficient tools for the

reconstruction of the interaction which they represent, then feedback documentation may be insufficient as a tool for making educational decisions.

However, this study did more than simply reaffirm this important finding. Rather, the current dissertation documented the process by which teachers and students themselves attempt to reconstruct their own interaction. Furthermore, the dissertation also described the mechanism by which documenting feedback may or may not result in sufficiently detailed documentation by means of its relative prioritization of talk or writing. Finally, the dissertation presented evidence that this mechanism may systematically exclude important information about L2 students and may result in their incorrect assessment.

While the findings of this dissertation and their implications have been discussed in detail, it's important to note that the dissertation does not provide a complete solution to the ongoing challenges faced by K-12 education, particularly in supporting L2 students. Nonetheless, this dissertation aims to inspire new initiatives in educational research and practice, believing that such efforts are essential to finding solutions to these critical problems.

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