EXTENDED-TELLING SEQUENCES, QUESTION DESIGN, AND FEEDBACK IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS: A STUDY OF TALK-IN-INTERACTION IN JAPANESE AND NEPALESE EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS

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ABSTRACT

Extended-Telling Sequences, Question Design, and Feedback

in English as a Foreign Language Classrooms:

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Nepalese Educational Contexts

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This study examines the sequential phenomenon observed in naturally occurring interaction of English as a foreign language classrooms in Japan and Nepal. Applying the methodological approach of conversation analysis, this study documents three phenomenal aspects of teacher talk: (a) extended-telling sequences, (b) question design, and (c) feedback.

The data explicated in this study are built on approximately twenty-two hours of audio-video recordings of naturally occurring English language lessons in Japan and Nepal. The selected instances were transcribed and analyzed from a conversation analytic perspective to observe how the sequential aspects were carried out through the interaction, instead of attempting to explore predefined research questions. In other words, the researcher chose to analyze the abovementioned three phenomenal aspects as they emerged through the examination and observation of the data.

The analysis of extended-telling sequences revealed that the teachers in the classes recorded deployed two varieties of extended tellings: (a) extended tellings as a normal teacher-talk phenomenon, and (b) extended tellings in the form of personal stories. The

instances analyzed highlight how the teachers deployed extended tellings to achieve specific pedagogical goals, and as a consequence, how these tellings led to public displays of student understanding.

In another phenomenon explicated in this study, the analysis of question design, two broad categories: (a) questions related to sequential positions and actions, and (b) questions based on the participants' possible knowledge, emerged from the data. In the first category, four different types of utterances embodying the action of questioning are explicated. The different types of teacher-turns deployed as questions include: (a) initiation of a sequence with a written question from the teaching materials, (b) initiation of a sequence with an online question, (c) initiation of a new sequence based on a previously asked question, and (d) pursuit of a response by a modified form of a question previously asked. The utterances are interpreted as questions not based on their syntactic form, but based on the participants' orientation to the utterances as being so.

In addition, the second category of questions consisted of two varieties: (a) known-answer questions, and (b) unknown-answer questions. The instances of known-answer questions disclosed the common feature of classroom interaction where teachers elicit student responses to evaluate their understanding of the content of the lesson. On the other hand, when the teachers asked unknown-answer questions, they were deployed to elicit truly unknown information, such as the students' personal opinions or experiences. However, it was found in the analysis that teachers provided feedback even for the unknown-answer questions. This demonstrates one feature of classroom talk in which student utterances are normatively evaluated by teachers.

Another aspect of teacher talk analyzed in this study is the provision of feedback in classroom interaction. The analysis accentuated the empirical practices of evaluative techniques that emerged from the data. Examination of the data revealed five varieties of

teacher evaluative moves: (a) explicit positive evaluations, (b) acknowledgement of a response with appreciation and repetition, (c) acceptance of a response with repetition, (d) acceptance of the previous action by the initiation of a new action, and in some cases, (e) negative evaluations. It is explicated through the analysis that all of the types of evaluations demonstrated the teacher's interpretation of student responses by signifying the appropriateness or inappropriateness of the answers.

The findings of this study offer some important implications to pedagogy as they provide an explicit description of language teachers' empirical practices. For instance, the findings serve to contribute to awareness of specific pedagogical practices found in the second language classrooms and therefore can be applied to teacher training programs. Furthermore, this study suggests the requirement of the alertness for language teachers to make contingent decisions when student responses do not occur in a timely manner. Thus, the observations of the findings of this study might be beneficial for researchers, teacher trainers, and language teachers to work together to discover the types of decisions teachers need to take during the course of conducting a lesson.

要旨

Extended-Telling Sequences, Question Design, and Feedback in English as a Foreign Language Classrooms: A Study of Talk-In-Interaction in Japanese and Nepalese Educational Contexts

外国語としての英語教室における語りのシークエンス、質問デザイン及びフィードバック：日本とネパールにおける教育場面の相互行為分析

本研究では、日本とネパールの英語の授業における教師と生徒の相互行為、特に教師による (a) 語りのシークエンス、(b) 質問のデザイン、(c) フィードバックの３つの現象を会話分析の手法を用いて分析した。

本研究で扱ったデータは日本とネパールの英語教室の相互行為を約 22 時間録音録画したものである。録音録画されたデータを会話分析の手法を使用して、詳細なトランスクリプトを作成し、元の録音録画データとトランスクリプトを繰り返し観察することで、前述の３つに当てはまる現象を選択した。分析するにあたり事前に定義されたリサーチクエスチョンを使用せず、あくまでもデータ内で観察された現象のみを分析することが会話分析の手法である。よって、本研究でも、データ内で観察された現象を忠実に分析した。

第 5 章では教室内における、通常のティーチャートークのシークエンスと、教師が自らの経験をもとに語る物語のシークエンスの２種類を分析した。分析の結果、教師が特定の教育目標を達成するために語りのシークエンスを展開していることが明らかになった。また、語りのシークエンスを通じて、学生の理解の程度も明確に示された。

第 6 章では教室で観察された質問のデザインを検討した。質問のデザインを分析した結果、第 1 に連鎖的な位置と行為に関する質問、第 2 に参与者の知識に基づく質問が見られた。第 1 の連鎖的な位置と行為に関する質問では、更に 4 つのカテゴリーに分類された質問が観察された。それらで行われた行為は、(a) 教材に書かれた質問で始まる連鎖、(b) 教師が偶発的にする質問で始まる連鎖、(c) 以

前に用いた質問に基づいて始まる新しい連鎖、および (d) 応答を追求するために以前の質問の形を変更し始まる連鎖であった。これらの発話は文法的にではなく、発話に対する参与者の志向に基づいて質問として捉えられた。

更に、第 2 の参与者の知識に基づく質問では、教師があらかじめ答えがわかっている質問と答えがわかっていない質問の両方を行なっていることがわかった。あらかじめ答えがわかっている質問の例では、教室内の相互行為では、教師が学生から応答を引き出し、その応答を評価することで学生の理解度を確認しているという共通の特徴が示された。一方、答えがわかっていない質問の例では、学生の経験や個人的な意見など、教師が知らない情報を引き出す行為を行っていた。しかしながら、分析では答えがわかっていない質問に対しても教師は評価を与えていることが分かった。このことから、いかなる学習者の応答であっても、教師による評価の対象になっているという教育場面の特徴が立証された。

第 7 章では教室内の相互行為における教師によるフィードバックを分析した。分析では、データ内で見られた評価手法の例に焦点を当てた。データを考察した結果、教師は (a) 明白な肯定的評価、すなわち、"great," "good job" などを用いて与える評価、(b) 生徒の応答への感謝の意を述べ、その応答を繰り返すことによる承認、(c) 生徒の応答を繰り返すのみの承認、(d) 新たな行為を開始することによる直前の行為の承認、(e) 否定的な評価の 5 つの評価方法を用いていることが明らかになった。

本研究の結果は、教育学にいくつかの重要な意味を与える。例えば、第二言語の教室にある特定の教育実践の意識を高めるうえで役に立ち、教員育成に応用できる。また、教師は生徒の応答を引き出す際に、生徒の反応に注意し、その時々の瞬時の判断が必要であることを示唆している。

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To my family

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Overview

This study aims to examine some sequential aspects of naturally occurring interaction in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in Japanese and Nepalese educational contexts. The sequential aspects are scrutinized by using Conversation Analysis (CA) (Jefferson, 1972; Lerner, 1989; Sacks, 1972; 1987; Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974; Schegloff, 1980; 1982; 1987; Schegloff, Koshik, Jacoby, & Olsher, 2002; Sidnell, 2010; Sidnell & Stivers, 2012) as an approach to understand members' methods in social interaction. There has been some research observing the Nepalese educational context from different perspectives (e.g., Hayes, 2018; Mathema, 2007; Nepal Ministry of Education, 2016; P. Bhatta, 2009; Phyak, 2011; 2013; Suzuki, 2006). However, there have been no studies documented to date that analyzed the sequential aspects of teacher-student interaction in Nepalese EFL classrooms utilizing conversation analysis. Additionally, in relation to the sequential aspects of Japanese EFL classrooms, a number of studies reported interactional intricacies as they appeared in naturally occurring lessons (e.g., Aline & Hosoda, 2005; 2006; Farooq, 2000; Hauser, 2003; 2009; Hosoda, 2014; 2016; Hosoda & Aline, 2010a; 2010b; 2013; King, 2013; Mori, 2002; Nagatomo, 2013; Ohta, 2001). Although there have been a great number of studies examining the interactional aspects of classrooms in both Japanese and Nepalese contexts, there have been no studies comparing and contrasting the sequential phenomenon of either context. Thus, it is fundamental to study the under researched Nepalese classroom context and comparatively well-documented Japanese classroom context by using conversation analysis for a deeper understanding of foreign-language classrooms. In this respect, this study is one of the primary attempts to utilize the CA perspective to carefully

observe the interactional architecture of the Nepalese and the Japanese English-language classroom contexts.

This study also documents the phenomena of teacher talk as observed in the language classroom contexts from two different nations in Asia. Using the methodological approach of conversation analysis, this study endeavors to examine three aspects of teacher talk: (a) extended-telling sequences, (b) question design, and (c) feedback, and explicate the forms they take. Also, it observes the on-line decisions teachers make in pursuing responses from students and in evaluating those responses.

First, I look at the sequential features of the multi-unit turns teachers take. Under this phenomenon, two aspects of extended-telling sequences are discussed as (a) extended-telling sequences as a form of teacher talk, and (b) extended-telling sequences in the form of storytelling. The analysis focuses on how teachers make their pedagogical goals apparent through the deployment of extended-telling sequences. Furthermore, the analysis also highlights the association of teacher explanation through extended tellings to pursue public demonstration of student understanding.

The second phenomenon to explicate through the analysis in this research is questions teachers deploy in classroom interaction to pursue student responses. Traditional teacher classroom talk predominantly consists of three-turn sequences, basically understood as Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) (Mehan, 1979a) sequences in various conversation analysis studies of classroom interaction. Teachers in classrooms design the turn of the IRE sequence, the initiation, with a question, generally known-answer questions (Heritage, 2005; Lerner, 1995; Mehan, 1979b; Schegloff, 2007) that aim at pursuing responses from the students that are subject to evaluation by the teachers. Thus, questions in this research are understood not in terms of their grammatical form of interrogatives, but in relation to their occurrence in certain sequential contexts and the actions they perform. The analysis presents

questions from two broad perspectives as they appeared in the data: (a) questions in relation to sequential positions and actions, and (b) questions in terms of the participants' possible knowledge. The questions in the first section, questions in relation to sequential positions and actions, will be discussed in detail with examples from the data under different subsections. The subsections include teachers' pursuit of response through different actions, such as: (a) initiation of a sequence with a written question from the teaching materials, (b) initiation of a sequence with an online question, not from class materials, (c) initiation of a new sequence based on a previously asked question, and (d) pursuit of a response by a modified form of a question previously asked. Additionally, some examples of known-answer questions (questions to which the questioner has information required to produce an answer), and unknown-answer questions (questions to which the questioner does not possess the information requested), are discussed in the second section, questions in terms of the questioners' possible knowledge. With the empirical analysis of naturally occurring classroom data, the analysis reveals the existing practices of teacher talk and their on-line decisions in the course of teaching.

Third, in this study, I examine some of the feedback techniques teachers deploy to evaluate student responses. The analysis centers on empirical observations of some of the evaluative moves teachers deploy. These are categorized in terms of their actions in their sequential contexts. The basic practices of feedback to discuss in the analysis, as they emerged from the data, include: (a) explicit positive assessments, (b) acknowledgement of responses with appreciation, (c) appreciation of responses and repetitions, (d) acceptance of previous actions by initiation of new actions, and (e) negative evaluations. The analysis also highlights how the above different types of evaluation are carried out in the sequential context and how the participants demonstrate their understanding of the actions accomplished.

This study is grounded in the conversation analysis tenets of observing data from an a priori perspective. In other words, this study attempts to explore the sequential aspects of teacher-student interaction as they appeared in the data and were understood by the participants themselves in and through the interaction. Because of the nature of the data, the conversational aspects of classroom context, used in this study, it would seem obvious that the participants are teachers and students. However, in the course of analysis, the participants' identity is considered as being such only when it is made relevant through the sequential positions and actions they accomplish.

1.2. Contributions of the Study

In its basic sense, this study joins the emerging body of conversation analytic research on how participants, through language use, talk into being their social institutions, including those co-constructed in the educational realm. In general, the present study contributes to expand and enrich the classroom database, specifically, to better enrich our understanding of the sequential characteristics of classroom interaction, and to advance interpretation of questions and feedback in the classroom.

One of the major contributions of this study is its benefit to language educators through its microanalysis of teaching behaviors. Language teachers will benefit from this study because they can observe the interactional intricacies of naturally occurring EFL classrooms and deploy the same practices in their teaching, or reflect on their prevalent teaching methodologies. Furthermore, this study adds to the area of conversation analytic research centered on classroom studies, in particular, second language classrooms.

Additionally, this study broadens research into classroom interaction already conducted in the Japanese context and initiates CA research in Nepal. With the introduction of CA informed research in the Nepalese educational context, it further contributes to the

generalizability of findings and supports the claim that basic conversational aspects manifest similar features despite variations in socio-cultural contexts. By comparing the two pedagogical contexts, the Japanese and the Nepalese, this study brings out further possibilities for researchers to develop a deeper understanding of EFL classrooms in and across varying cultural and social settings.

1.3. Organization of the Study

This study is organized in seven chapters. Chapter 1, this chapter, introduces the study and summarizes the main themes. In addition, this chapter discusses some of the contributions of this study and describes the organization of the chapters.

Since this study focuses on analyzing communication in Nepalese and Japanese English as a foreign language classrooms, Chapter 2 summarizes the history and discusses the current situation of English education in Japan and Nepal. First, I provide a summary of the historical development of English education in Japan and Nepal. Then, I briefly describe the current situation of modern Japanese and Nepalese English education. Finally, in Chapter 2, I comparatively summarize the historical enrichment made in English language education in both countries.

Chapter 3 summarizes the relevant literature considered in this study in two sections. The first section provides a detailed introduction of conversation analysis and its fundamental aspects, including: (a) the turn-taking system, (b) recipient design, (c) sequence organization, and (d) repair organization. In addition to the fundamental aspects of conversation analysis, the first section reports on how questioning practices have been understood and analyzed in conversation analysis research.

In the second section of Chapter 3, I review some CA informed studies of classroom interaction. The section goes into detail on specific aspects of classroom interaction, such as

(a) the turn-taking system and (b) sequence organization. In addition to highlighting the basic conversational features found in classroom interaction, the section focuses on the three-turn sequences, understood as Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) sequences (Mehan, 1979a), which dominantly occur in teacher-fronted classroom contexts.

The methodological issues concerned with this study are explained in Chapter 4. The chapter first provides an overview of the data set, the method of data collection, and the two contexts. Then, I explain some of the analytical moves considered during analysis. The chapter also discusses the ethical issues considered in this research project. Finally, Chapter 4 explains how this study meets the scientific standards of reliability, validity, and generalizability.

This research focuses on three aspects of classroom talk: (a) extended-telling sequences, (b) question design, and (c) feedback. Among them, Chapter 5 deals with the first aspect, extended-telling sequences. Chapter 5 discusses two phenomena of extended-telling sequences: (a) regular teacher-talk practices, and (b) teacher's use of stories, overwhelmingly, from their personal experiences.

In Chapter 6, instances of question design are explicated from a conversation analytic perspective. The chapter examines different practices teachers deploy in pursuing responses from students. The chapter analyzes questions from two broad perspectives emerged from the data. The first section includes questions as related to sequential positions and actions, and the second section covers questions in terms of the participants' probable status of knowledge. The first section includes questions that teachers deploy as they are written in the teaching materials, and questions teachers ask to fulfill the contingent requirements of the pedagogy. In other words, the analytic interest is on observing the teachers' use of the questions available to them as well as on observing their deployment of contingent questions that become essential in the course of teaching to maintain progressivity. In the second section of

Chapter 6, questions in terms of the participants' possible knowledge are discussed as known-answer questions and unknown-answer questions (as opposed to known-answer questions). The varieties of known-answer and unknown-answer questions emerged from the data as based on whether or not the questioner possessed prior information required to produce an answer.

Subsequently, Chapter 7 explores the evaluative moves teachers take upon the production of student responses. Focusing on the third position of IRE sequences, the chapter summarizes the types of evaluative feedback teachers provide. The evaluative moves ranging from explicit positive assessments to overt negative evaluations are examined in the chapter.

Finally, Chapter 8 concludes this study by summarizing the main findings of the research. In addition to summarizing, Chapter 8 discusses some implications related to the findings, and then concludes with a discussion of some of the limitations of this project while suggesting some directions for future research.

CHAPTER II

BACKGROUND OF ENGLISH EDUCATION IN JAPAN AND NEPAL

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a descriptive picture of the historical development of English language education in Japan and Nepal. The first section describes the historical development of English language education in Japan in relation to the socio-political history of Japan. The discussion in the second section is concerned with the development of English language as an aspect of foreign language education in Nepal in relation to the socio-political changes in the history of that country. In the final section, the chapter summarizes the progress made in English language education in both countries and highlights their historical similarities and disparities.

2.2. Overview of the History of English Language Education in Japan

2.2.1. Background

The history of English education in Japan can be fundamentally understood in relation to the socio-political history of that nation and the globalization of the English language. In Japan, history is usually categorized in terms of the Japanese Imperial Calendar, in which each emperor's name begins a new era. After highlighting some of the aspects of the beginning of English language education in Japan, I focus on educational developments in the following four periods of Japanese history: (a) the Meiji Period (1868-1911), (b) the Taisho Period (1912-1925), (c) the Showa Period (1926-1988), and (d) the Heisei Period (1989-present). I then discuss some major aspects of English education in each era.

The English language, along with some other European languages, began to spread rapidly to different parts of the world with the process of colonization in the fifteenth century.

Europeans were looking for wider markets for their manufactured goods and greater access to natural resources in areas such as Africa, the Americas, and Asia, and so began to establish various economic zones around the world. However, around that time Japan had isolated itself from the rest of the world except for a modicum of trade with Holland and China under the Tokugawa Bakufu government (1603-1867). Then, a crucial incident during the Tokugawa government opened the doors of Japan to the outside world and to the influx of English education as well. During the period of isolation, a sailor from America, Ranald MacDonald, landed in Japan by pretending that he had been shipwrecked. Some Japanese officials took him to Nagasaki, where the nation was conducting a small amount of trade with China and Holland, and he was imprisoned. Some local traders who knew Dutch and a little English communicated with him during his confinement. Later, MacDonald started teaching English to a small group of merchants and thus became the first English teacher in Japan. Though MacDonald taught English to a few Japanese people, the nation was still a closed realm until the year 1854, when Commodore Perry entered Japanese waters with his fleet and worked toward establishing a treaty with the Japanese government (Ishikawa, 1997). Though the treaty functioned as a triggering point for the opening of trade with Japan, the formal opening of English language education did not take place until the establishment of the Meiji government.

2.2.2. The Meiji Era

After Japan signed trade agreements with various foreign countries, the Meiji government selected and sent specially selected Japanese researchers to a number of Western countries in order to study Western technology, education, politics, and languages. The government's policy was to try to achieve an equal standard with all aspects of Western life. Since the government placed specific emphasis on the so-called "English" way of life, the

first half of the Meiji Era ushered in an English boom in Japan. The establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1871, and their decision to send Japanese students abroad to study the language, culture, and values of the outside world, strongly affected English education. The government policy emphasized English education so much that Arinori Mori, the founder of Japan's modern educational system and the first Minister of Education in Japan, argued for the use of English as the official language to assist university students to study abroad (Fujimoto-Adamson, 2006). Furthermore, Japan welcomed many scholars specializing in education from Western countries so that Japanese academics and other interested parties could learn about the many advancements that researchers in the West had achieved in the fields of science, technology, and medicine, among others. For example, Fujimoto-Adamson (2006) reports that the number of Western scholars working in the field of education in Japan was almost 3,000 during the Meiji Era. In addition, in 1881, foreign language education was highly prioritized, with six foreign language classes per week in junior high schools. Furthermore, one well-established institution of higher education, the University of Tokyo (Kaisei School at that time) used English as the medium of instruction regardless of the subject taught. In this period, people developed the view that English was a language of civilization, technology, and science and it was held in high regard by the majority of the educated populace.

With the passage of time, the attitude towards English began to shift and its popularity gradually declined. Tokyo University, which had initiated English medium education, changed its main medium of teaching to Japanese in 1883. Imura (2003) explains that the reason behind the alteration was that the students sent by the government to study in Western countries returned to Japan around this time and adopted the Japanese medium of education in the universities. Furthermore, they also translated academic books into Japanese, which shifted the concept of Japanese so that English was no longer a requirement for direct access

to developed culture and knowledge. As English became less necessary, its status as a subject of importance switched to that of a minor subject that was considered to be of less importance than previously thought.

The tendency of returning Japanese lecturers to teach knowledge from the West using Japanese, the movement stressing the Japanese and Chinese languages, and also the values espoused by the then Minister of Education, Kowashi Inoue (Ministry of Education, 2002), all worked to alter the attitude towards English education into a downplay of Western values and knowledge. The government policy became more focused on Japanese values and identity.

Towards the end of the Meiji Era, two conflicting practices appeared in the field of English education: the government policy and the actualization of the policy at the local level. The government invited scholars from English speaking countries to promote new methods in language teaching, with focused attention on communicative aspects of English. Contrastingly, the whole education system was focused on preparing students to perform better on examinations. Sakui (2004) describes this as the existence of two forms of curriculum at the same time, in other words, there was a clear mismatch between government policy and its implementation in the schools.

2.2.3. The Taisho Era

A less than positive response of much of Japan towards English education from the Meiji Era continued in the Taisho Era. That is, a contradictory relationship between policy and practice dominated English education in this period. On the one hand, the government invited scholars from the United Kingdom to spread the Oral Method in English teaching, but on the other hand, an anti-English sentiment was at its height. In 1924, United States (US) immigration law forbade Japanese immigration, which led to political and social antagonism

with the US and crafted an even stronger anti-English atmosphere. Moreover, the translation of English grammar study materials into Japanese and other publications in Japanese further focused students on entrance examination preparation and decreased the popularity of English. To sum up, during the Taisho era, the negative feelings towards English education which began in the Meiji era were prevalent in Japan and there were even arguments in favor of abolishing English education.

2.2.4. The Showa Era

About one year after the establishment of public radio in 1926, a radio program focused on helping its listeners learn English was initiated in Japan. However, despite such efforts at disseminating and popularizing English education, the beginning of the Showa era is recorded as being the peak of the anti-English temperament in Japan. According to Imura (2003), Fujimura, professor at Tokyo University at that time, severely criticized the use of English in Japan, claiming it was a meaningless burden on students. Fujimura also rejected the copying of Western ideas and published a paper entitled "*Urgent, Abolition of English Education*" in 1927. As the anti-English sentiment became stronger, the government reduced the number of English lessons in public schools in 1931. When Prime Minister Tsuyoshi Inukai was assassinated and the military took over the government in 1932, English education was regarded as being inappropriate for the then current Japanese education policy. As a result, one year after World War II began, in 1942, almost all English and American lecturers from Japanese universities, including English education policy makers, were forced to leave the country. With the abolition of English education and the government's strict draconian system of militaristic nationalism, English was seen as having a negative impact on society. Yoshino (1992) described this form of Occidentalism as "*nihonjinron*" – a theory of Japanese uniqueness with a strong rejection of everything imported from the West.

Then, the situation changed at the end of the Second World War. During the US occupation, Japanese interest in English gradually began to rise in a way similar to the beginning of the Meiji era. English communication programs on the radio, restitution of English lessons in schools, and the national curriculum under US supervision played significant roles in the revival of English education. As reported by Imura (2003), many English teachers and educators began arriving in Japan during this time. However, the two differing streams of foreign language education, the government policy of importing new methods and the local practice of focusing on entrance examinations, came into existence again. This period was also the first in which practitioners focused on practical English due to the fact that business leaders wanted to recruit employees who could handle international trade. The private sector introduced the Society for Testing English Proficiency (STEP) Test in 1963 for assessing English linguistic competence. However, no other comparable testing system was established by public or private universities. The STEP Test was a nationwide test to assess language abilities as per the need for a more practical and strong connection between business and English education.

Although examination oriented English education was prevalent, the popularity of practical English was rising with the coming of the 1964 Tokyo Olympic Games. In the 1970s, a debate appeared about English education in which it was argued that the language should be taught only to those who needed it, instead of making it compulsory for every student. As a result, the number of English classes was limited to only three in a week as a reformation step in education in order to develop the overall abilities of the students rather than simply focusing on the study of language as only an object. On the other hand, teachers rejected the idea of reducing English classes and led a campaign to support English language education. They even felt it necessary to promote research on language education and instituted the "*Eigojyugyo Kenkyukai*" (Association of Research for English Teaching in the

Classroom) as a platform for professional development of teachers by fostering interaction among experienced professionals and new teachers in the field. Many teachers started using the communicative approach, which gradually increased in popularity in the 1980s (Littelewood, 1981). The government's scheme to improve English education was also furthered with the initiation of the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program in junior and senior high schools.

2.2.5. The Heisei Era

In the current period, the government has been attempting to develop students' communicative competence with the introduction of oral communication classes in the curriculum by releasing an action plan (Butler & Iino, 2005). The popularity of the JET Program and the availability of the Internet have helped to reestablish the popularity of English. The government plan to cultivate Japanese who can use English in situ is being emphasized with a focus not only on English language education but also on English-medium instruction of other subjects too. English-medium instruction is helping to develop students' general English communicative skills as well as knowledge of technological terms. In present day Japan, English has expanded from a mere language subject to include the use of English as a medium for teaching other subjects in many schools and universities. With the availability of various teacher-training resources, the national policy on language education is also driving further development in English education. The increasing popularity of English language classes in the public sector, the private sector, and in universities is also addressing the practical requirements of the business community. These wide-ranging and readily available resources have made the present Heisei period the peak of English education in Japan.

2.3. Overview of the History of English Language Education in Nepal

2.3.1. Background

The beginning of English language education in Nepal is strongly related to parallel socio-political and historical incidents that occurred in the nation under the rule of various political leaders. Thus, to understand the initiation of English language education, it is equally important to consider the general background knowledge of historical events. For example, May (2003) argues that the "presentist" study of language policy that ignores historical elements does not properly convey the development of language policies at the present level. Similarly, Wiley (2006) notes that language policies sometimes appeal to "the authority of history to bolster their claims about how the past informs us about contemporary issues" (p. 136) and that such assumptions provide evidence that "there is a correct, empirically based, true story of what happened in the past" (p. 136). Hence, the following section outlines some of the major political events in Nepal and their relation to the development of English language education. To maintain a better understanding of the events, this section classifies the historical developments and their connection to English education into three different stages: (a) the early period (before the 1850s), (b) the developing period (1850s – 1950), and (c) the modern period (after 1950).

2.3.2. The Early Period

In the historical development of Nepal, it is reported that there were some Englishmen living in the Kathmandu valley during the late 1700s (Awasthi, 1979; Bista, 2011; Giri, 2014; and others). They were missionaries who were residing in Kathmandu and were working to increase the number of believers in Christianity. At that time they also started translating the Hindu religious scriptures into English. That was the initial period in which English culture and beliefs began to influence Nepalese society, culture, and beliefs. However, the then king,

Prithvi Narayan Shah, a strong believer in Hinduism, expelled all foreigners from Nepal and kept the nation closed to them (Whelpton, 2005) as it was believed that they would contaminate Hindu culture, beliefs, and philosophy. With the decision to expel all foreigners, the nation moved towards an era of isolation.

During the period of isolation before the 1850s, Nepal was divided into many small states and the rulers of the local states were involved in many local territorial disputes. King Prithvi Narayan Shah initiated a unifying campaign to establish a single nation out of all the local states. After his demise, his successors continued the campaign and established a unified Nepal. Once the unification was complete, his successors, with rising power and ambition, attacked some of the then British Indian territories and captured them for Nepal. As a result, the quarrel between Nepal and British held India escalated into war. Nepalese rulers were pushing to expand their territory with each increase in power on the one side and on the other side the British government was tempted by the natural resources of Nepal, which became the chief cause for the Gurkha War (1814-1816), also known as the Anglo-Nepalese War.

After great loss of life for both Nepal and British India, the war ended with a treaty in 1816, recorded in history as the Sugauli Treaty. The Sugauli Treaty was between Nepal and the British East India Company, which opened the door for the British to reside in Kathmandu valley. This allowed British people to officially enter the country, and gradually their language and culture began to influence Nepalese culture and society. However, formal English education was yet to be implemented, which would enter the Nepalese curriculum much later, in the 1850s.

2.3.3. The Developing Period

English education in Nepal began formally through some complex circumstances. During the late 1840s, the rulers were still strict in enforcing the Hindu code of conduct.

While across the southern border, in India, a country closely related to Nepal in terms of its cultural and economic aspects, the British colonial government was at the height of its power. In 1846, an important incident took place in Nepalese politics. The commanding general of the Nepalese Army, Jung Bahadur Rana, took over political power by assassinating almost all of his rivals and seized power to become the Prime Minister. It was four years after Rana became Prime Minister, when his hold on power was secured, that he managed to travel to Britain. His visit to Britain in 1850 greatly influenced the importation of English to Nepal. Like King Prithvi Narayan Shah before him, Rana was also a strong devotee of Hinduism. During his visit to London, he refused to eat from the hand of English people and strictly followed the Hindu code of conduct. Actually, he considered his counterparts as untouchables. But it is interesting that he who had repudiated the 'English' way of life, was highly impressed by the English language and introduced it to his own country.

Two years after his return from England, Jung Bahadur established a school on the ground floor of his palace with two teachers from England. This establishment of an English school in 1853 marked the formal beginning of English education in Nepal. Furthermore, this also marked the beginning of schooling in Nepal since there were no formal educational institutions except for the traditional Hindu and Buddhist religious schools, where the medium of instruction was Sanskrit or various Tibetan languages (Phyak, 2011). Thus, the first government founded school in Nepal was a school that offered classes in the English medium.

Since the rulers of the Rana Dynasty, the dynasty Jung Bahadur founded, were autocratic rulers, education was confined within the boundaries of the ruling families for decades. Though the school later welcomed non-Ranas, it was still restricted to elite families (Eagle, 1999). The Ranas also established a higher level institution, Tri-Chandra College, in 1918 so as to provide further education opportunities to the Palace School graduates who,

otherwise, would have traveled to India to pursue higher education. In line with the medium of instruction in the school they founded, English continued to be the medium of instruction at Tri-Chandra College. Later on, the Rana rulers established some other schools, which were limited to candidates who wanted to enlist in the British army. As a result, even after its formal beginning, English education was exclusively for elite members of society. In consequence, little can be said about the curriculum and syllabus design at that time since there was no official organization supervising and administering the educational system.

2.3.4. The Modern Period

In the course of time, in the late 1940s to early 1950s, English was finally given a place in public school education. The first School Leaving Certificate (SLC)[1] graduates were required to appear in examinations on two English papers. However, when the British withdrew from India in 1947, the Nepalese National Education Planning Commission took English off the school curriculum, considering it to be of little use for most students. Established in 1956, the Nepal National Educational Planning Commission (NNEPC) deemed English schools to be a "third-hand" version of an educational system which was not designed for Nepal. This was at a time that the government was paying more attention to cultural unification and had adopted the policy of "one language, one way of dress, one religion, one nation", which focused on disseminating Nepalese as a language and Hinduism as a culture to create a national unified identity (Malla, 1977; Whelpton, 2005). The position taken to focus on only Nepalese as a language was clearly mentioned in the NNEPC statement that "if the younger generation is taught to use Nepali as the basic language, other languages will gradually disappear, and greater national strength and unity will result" (NNEPC, 1956, p. 97). But English re-entered the curriculum in 1963 when it was prescribed by the Panchayat government-funded National Education Committee. This education

committee decided on one compulsory English course for the lower secondary level and one additional English course for the secondary level. With its re-entry to the school system, English education flourished in the Nepalese curriculum.

In spite of the increasing importance of English, the National Education Committee in 1971 eliminated English as a required course and replaced it with a choice of languages from a number of United Nations (UN) countries. This period was quite similar to the early days of Nepalese foreign contact, when politics defined Nepalese nationalism in opposition to everything that was foreign. The Panchayat nationalism at that time forcefully excluded everything that was related to other countries. However, in 1981, Tribhuvan University, the leading university in the country at that time, generated a huge change in the structure of English curriculum. The change in university curriculum hugely affected the high-school curriculum and as a result, English has been taught as a compulsory subject in high-schools as well (Shrestha, 2008).

Though the development of English education in the Nepalese educational system experienced a number of setbacks, it is at present considered to be a cornerstone of education in Nepal. The country that once excluded everything related to 'foreign' cultures is following a pronounced trend in information technology and education practices imported from other nations. The political changes of 1990, a successful peoples' movement to establish democracy, provided all Nepalese citizens with opportunities in education and, in the process, a significant number of private schools were established to promote English education. Presently, Nepalese society includes thousands of university graduates with years of experience in academic based English. English, which was once confined to an elite society and the ruling class, has come to the local level and reached schools in the remotest parts of the country. Furthermore, English has become a symbol of academic achievement and socio-economic indicator. Fluency in written and spoken English is considered important for

better opportunities in every sector of life. English, rejected in the past, is on its way to firmly establishing its place as a second language in Nepal in the present day. But there still remains an emerging debate on its importance as a foreign or second language (Giri, 2014).

2.4. Chapter Summary

Upon reviewing the history and examining the present status of English education, it would appear that the journey of English as a foreign language has followed a similar path in both of the countries, Japan and Nepal, studied in this research. Essentially, it was resisted in the past due to the need to preserve the power structure found at that time in each respective country. But with changes in the local socio-political contexts of both Japan and Nepal, English received much more attention as a language of education, technology, and innovation. Table 1 below provides a comparative summary for this section of a few significant factors of the development of English language education in Japan and Nepal.

Table 1

Historical Overview of English Language Education in Japan and Nepal

Country	Japan	Nepal
Initiated	in the 1600s	in the late 1700s
Cause for introduction of English education	Foreign economic influence	British economic influence
Reason for later proscription of English education	Desire to protect country's local culture	Desire to protect country's local culture
Resumption	in the 1850s	in the 1850s

With many similar aspects regarding development, both Japan and Nepal are focusing on the development of communicative aspects of English education for now and for the future.

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter introduces conversation analysis as one of the major methods applied to the analysis of social interaction in contemporary research. It first briefly discusses the introduction of conversation analysis (CA) in various research fields, then the section outlines the general features of conversation analytic studies, focusing on the fundamental organizations of conversations examined in CA, such as turn-taking, sequence organization, preference organization, and repair in talk-in-interaction.

3.1. Conversation Analysis

3.1.1. Overview of Conversation Analysis

Conversation analysis has developed into a major contemporary means for analyzing social interaction. CA explicitly adopts two major ideas developed from sociologists Harold Garfinkel and Erving Goffman. As described by Harold Garfinkel in his book *Studies in Ethnomethodology* (1967), ethnomethodology observes the mutual recognition of common sense utilization of resources, practices, and procedures by the members of a society. Through this mutual recognition, ethnomethodology focuses on the minimal aspects of social order as interpreted by the members of a society and relates that interpretation to the social world. Garfinkel's focus was on the observation of the construction of everyday social life. With a strong rejection of the contemporary sociologists' explanation of social phenomena, Garfinkel (1967) undertook to study "how the structures of everyday activities are ordinarily and routinely produced and maintained" (pp. 35-36). Ethnomethodologists do not view social order within an *a priori* framework, but in their view, the social order is constructed through the actions the participants accomplish. In order to understand the social order, the members

of any interactional situation choose a specific pattern from various facets of social interaction and use the pattern to understand future social interaction. Garfinkel (1967), building on Karl Mannheim's notion, calls this pattern formation "the documentary method of interpretation", where the established patterns can be used as a framework to interpret other similar facts occurring in social situations. With "the documentary method" Garfinkel also highlighted the importance of context in understanding social interactions. He argued that context plays an extremely important role in the interpretation of social order since the participants understand real world factors with reference to the context in which they appear. People in a society make use of the documentary method and develop a "taken-for-granted" understanding of everyday incidents and relate them to the patterns they have built up.

Another key element that gave birth to CA was Goffman's (1963, 1964, 1967, 1971, 1983) idea of studying actual instances of social interaction. He revealed how significant matters could be observed in the study of every event of social life. For Goffman, interacting does not mean a simple game of language and linguistic elements, but, as he maintains, it has its own systems, rules, and structures. Thus, he claimed that the study of linguistic forms is insufficient for understanding how language is used in social interaction. Goffman (1964) clearly addresses the importance of the study of social interaction with the argument that:

> Talk is socially organized, not merely in terms of who speaks to whom in what language, but as a little system of mutually ratified and ritually governed face-to-face action, a social encounter. (p. 65)

Goffman's notion in the study of social interaction was that social interaction consists of much more than simple linguistic elements. He asserted that in order to understand the structure of the interaction, a qualitative description and analysis of the actual interaction is the requisite tool. In this way, he rejected the then prevalent methods applied in the quantitative research approach adopted by researchers in sociology and social psychology.

Rejecting the prevalent research approach of hypothesis testing, both Goffman and Garfinkel strongly suggested the idea of studying social interaction with a greater focus on the interactional phenomena and the orderliness of social life and how that orderliness is achieved by the interactants themselves in and through the interaction. The concepts and methods Goffman and Garfinkel pioneered were later carried forward into the realm of CA by Harvey Sacks in his *Lectures on Conversation* (Sacks, 1992). As a result, by the early 1970s, CA began to stand out as an independent area of study through the works of Harvey Sacks, Emmanuel A. Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson. Some artistic combination of the ideas by Goffman and Garfinkel were skillfully pursued by CA researchers in the earliest papers. Schegloff and Sacks (1973), for instance, analyzed telephone conversations and uncovered the orderly nature of conversation closings. The analyses revealed that the parties in conversation achieve closings through an order of (a) a pre-closing exchange and (b) a terminal exchange. Through their detailed analyses, such steps can be seen as conditionally necessary elements in talk that demonstrate the participants' mutual willingness to bring the talk to closure and negotiate collaboratively to move the interaction to actual completion. In other words, as the interactants' regular monitoring of the talk is related to reflections of past actions as well as projections of future actions (Sacks, 1992), they can demonstrate "where they are" in the conversation.

CA focused on the development of understanding the social organization of talk and the application of such understandings for the achievement of the goals of communication. According to Schegloff, as he explains in the introduction to Sacks' *Lectures on Conversation* (Sacks, 1992), CA researchers were looking for some alternative approaches in the sociological field to see if the conversational data from naturally occurring interaction could provide some insights into the understanding of social discourse. At the initial stage, Sacks began analyzing a series of tape-recorded calls to a suicide prevention center, and focused on

the organization of membership categorization to observe how social order is established. As Sacks was focusing on the organization of social order in natural interaction and how membership categorization helped to achieve that order, he began analyzing a series of tape-recorded calls to a suicide prevention center. At that time, CA research was focused on the understanding of interactional architecture of talk but did not distinguish between daily conversation and professional communication. Later, in the 1970s, as more data were analyzed, they came to note that institutional interaction represented some distinct features that were not observed in analyzing interaction from mundane settings (Drew & Heritage, 1992). That is to say, institutional interaction employs the same or similar set of resources as mundane conversation but uses them in a constrained manner for specific institutional goals.

The core focus of study under conversation analysis is the ordered accomplishment of actions in interaction. Sacks (1992) explains that the orderly nature of conversation is demonstrated at every point in the process of working toward interactional achievements by the participants based upon local interactional contingencies. To achieve their goals in each moment in interactions, the interactants produce their actions in an orderly manner within particular contexts. Moreover, CA is not concerned merely with "talk" in social life. Rather, it takes into consideration all facets of verbal and nonverbal behaviors. Because of the nature of study under CA, the term "conversation analysis" refers to the study of talk-in-interaction that focuses on every aspect of conversation. Psathas (1995) argued that research in conversation analysis should focus on the orderliness and the organization of how members of a society accomplish certain social actions. He puts forward the fundamental assumptions of talk-in-interaction, as follows:

1. Order is produced orderliness.
2. Order is produced by the parties in situ; that is, it is situated and occasioned.
3. The parties orient to that order themselves; that is, this order is not an analyst's

conception, not the result of the use of some preformed or pre formulated theoretical conceptions concerning what action should/must/ought to be, or based on generalizing or summarizing statements about what action generally/frequently/often is.

4. Order is repeatable and recurrent.
5. The discovery, description, and analysis of that produced orderliness is the task of the analyst.
6. Issues of how frequently, how widely, or how often particular phenomena occur are to be set aside in the interest of discovering, describing, and analyzing the structures, the machinery, the organized practices, the formal procedures, the ways in which order is produced.
7. Structures of social action, once so discerned, can be described and analyzed in formal, that is, structural, organizational, logical, atopically contentless, consistent, and abstract terms. (pp. 2-3)

The above tenets succinctly outline the orderly nature of conversation that is observable in the course of interaction. This provides an outline of the basis for CA's claim that conversation is not random but structured. However, it is crucial to remember that the structured quality of conversation should not be assumed to be found in all talk-in-interaction since the orderliness is created and managed by the participants in the situation in which the talk is accomplished. Thus, the orderly nature of conversation is the construct of the participants but not of the analyst; having said that, the task of the analyst is to observe and analyze this structural ordering of actions. The orderliness of the conversational actions is further supported by the notion of turn-taking, sequence organization, and repair, which are discussed in detail under the basic principles of conversation analytic studies in the following section.

Though research on CA initially began with the analysis of institutional interaction, such as tape-recorded calls to a suicide prevention center (Sacks, 1992), group therapy sessions (Sacks, 1979), or police calls (Schegloff, 1968), it then shifted more to observing mundane conversation by the end of the 1960s, although institutional talk continued to be analyzed. After the 1970s, contributors to CA research uncovered differences between mundane and institutional talk as they started observing instances from institutional interaction, such as meetings, courtroom proceedings, news interviews, medical interaction and educational interaction. They found similar features of basic conversational practices, a different type of interaction in the construction of these social institutions which are unique to each institution. Specially, researchers discovered that institutional interaction was made up of a subset of the interactional phenomena found in mundane interaction. Heritage (1997) summarizes institutional CA and basic CA and attempts to distinguish them. According to him:

> There are, therefore, at least two kinds of conversation analytic research going on today, and, though they overlap in various ways, they are distinct in focus. The first examines the institution of interaction as an entity in its own right; the second studies the management of social institutions in interaction. (p. 162)

In other words, the first type of CA studies "the institution of interaction," which is the study of the aspects of mundane talk-in-interaction and society as an institution itself. While the second type of CA examines institutional interaction, and observes how the participants manage to co-construct "social institutions" (e.g., courtrooms, classrooms, medical institutions) within the interaction through their talk and other conducts.

In conversation analytic field, both mundane and institutional interaction have received much attention. Various findings from both types of interaction continue to deepen conversation analytic research. Ten Have (1999) further categorizes two foci of CA and

classifies them as (a) Pure CA, and (b) Applied CA (p. 189). Within the applied branch of CA, he explains that there are basically two areas of interest among researchers. Researchers have dominant interest in studying basic features, such as turn-taking, distribution of actions, and rights to speak within institutional interaction. In addition, they also focus on the analysis of institutional activities, situations, and participants' orientations towards institutional requirements.

In spite of the varying forms it embodies, the main focus of study in conversation analysis is the orderly structure of social interaction as the interactants perform different actions remaining within the same basic principles of conversational practices. The core focus of CA study is in analyzing naturally occurring social interaction as it is "the primordial site of sociality" (Schegloff, 1986, p.112) and it is the talk through which participants in societies develop and maintain social relationships. CA assumes that any actions produced by participants in interaction are sensible and meaningful. The sensibility and the meaningfulness of the actions are preserved because the participants design and interpret the actions by some shared procedures within the context. Heritage (1984) describes the importance of context in interaction and refers to any participants' contribution in conversation as "context-shaped" and "context-renewing." Talk is context-shaped because what the participants say is shaped by the context in which it occurs and interpreted in the light of what has taken place in the previous context, with each next turn reacting to the context created by the previous turn. Simultaneously, it is context-renewing because the present utterance designs a relevant context for an upcoming utterance. Because of this context-shaped and context-renewing nature of conversation, participants equally monitor the talk so that they can maintain mutual understanding of the interaction (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1992). Thus, context plays a vital role in the interaction. For conducting analysis, Schegloff (1991a, 1992, 1995) warns that the contexts have to arise from the interaction rather than

from the analyst defining them. The analyst has to be cautious to monitor the relevant aspects of the context in the interaction as built by the interactants themselves. The sequential nature of the conversational analytic context is further explained in the next section under the basic assumptions of conversation analytic studies.

3.1.2. Basic Principles of Conversation Analysis

In this section, I explain some of the basic concepts of conversation analytic studies. Social interaction is a collection of different systems that administrate the function of the whole organization. This section focuses on the aspects of the systematic organization of turn-taking (Goodwin, 1979; Lerner, 2003; Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974; Schegloff, 1982), recipient design (Sacks et al., 1974), sequence organization (Schegloff, 2007), preference organization (Pomerantz, 1984), and the organization of repair (Hayashi, Raymond, & Sidnell, 2013; Schegloff, 1979; Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977).

3.1.2.1. The Organization of Turn-Taking

Turn taking is one of the fundamental phenomena occurring in social interaction. Basically, any talk occurs as an exchange of interaction, turn-taking, among two or more participants. The seminal study on turn-taking by Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974) highlighted the systematic distribution of the aspects of talk during interaction. The principle behind the organization of turn-taking is, in most cases, one participant talks at a time. According to Sacks et al. (1974), participants equally orient to the "one at a time" principle by trying to minimize the occurrence of silences and overlaps. When participants find no participant is talking, they try to minimize the silence by taking a turn, and in the case of more than one participant talking at a time, one of the participants routinely relinquishes the floor before the end of the turn. Participants manage the "one at a time" system in a local (i.e.,

turn by turn) and systematic way through their orientation to the organization of turn taking. Furthermore, the distribution of turns, which means who speaks in the conversation at what time, is not predefined in mundane conversation. Turn-taking organization defines talk as a "locally managed" and "party administered" (Sacks et al., 1974, p. 696) form of interaction. It is locally managed in the sense that each previous turn creates a relevant context for the next turn. In this way, the upcoming turn is defined by the previous turn. Moreover, it is not previously defined for certain speakers to produce a certain type of turn or when to take a turn. The turn-taking system is party administered in the sense that the participants have to equally monitor each other's utterances to produce a relevant next utterance.

The organization of turn taking overwhelmingly functions on the basis of the turn allocation techniques proposed by Sacks et al. (1974). The systematics of turn allocation are clearly defined as: (a) current speaker selecting a next speaker, (b) self-selection by a next speaker, or (c) the continuation by the current speaker (p. 704), in which the order of (a)-(c) are always maintained. It must be remembered that the selection of other speaker or self-selection is not compulsory. In a situation where the current speaker does not select a next speaker, any potential next speaker may self-select. But, if the next speaker does not self-select, the current speaker might continue, which again gives a fresh start to the application of the turn allocation techniques from the beginning. Central to the systematics of turn allocation are the building blocks of a turn: turn-constructional units (TCUs). TCUs are the minimal form of any utterance that can stand as a turn. TCUs can be lexical, phrasal, clausal, or sentential and although a single TCU stands as a complete turn, a turn in talk in interaction might include multiple TCUs, but not necessarily.

Each TCU is independently complete in its context. And at the possible completion of each TCU, a change of speakership is likely to occur. In other words, TCUs are designed in such a way that their completion is projectable. This projectability makes it possible for the

recipients to take a turn at the transition relevance place (TRP). Hence, change of speakership is relevant at TRPs but not compulsory. TCUs and TRPs are related in such a way that, at the completion of a TCU, a TRP arises. Transition of the turns usually occurs at the end of a TCU and a possible completion of a TCU is projectable during its ongoing development. As discussed by Clayman (2013), some common elements that help to project the completion of an ongoing turn are syntactic features, prosodic features, pragmatic features, and gestural features of the speakers, among others.

3.1.2.2. Recipient Design in Conversation

Recipient Design (Sacks, 1992; Sacks et al., 1974; Sacks & Schegloff, 1979) is one of the underlying aspects of social interaction that the interactants always consciously or subconsciously consider for accomplishing actions in their talk. Sacks et al. (1974) elucidate recipient design as one of the ruling concepts behind conversation analysis because it deals with the participants' use of competence, knowledge, and relevant membership categories to design their utterances so that they are acknowledged and understood to fit to some particular recipients. From the context-shaped nature of talk, both the interlocutor and recipient can have some common understanding about what has been talked about in the prior talk. Interlocutors make use of shared knowledge and design their further utterances by relating them with the context of common understanding. Thus, a recipient designed utterance, in most cases, clearly selects the next speaker who will contribute the next turn so that the talk continues. Since recipients understand the proceeding talk by applying the framework of shared knowledge, the concept of recipient design is "not only a resource which speakers use to design a talk; it is also a resource listeners can use in interpreting talk" (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 6). Because participants in any interactional environment produce their talk basing it on shared knowledge, the recipients of any turns understand the talk by applying the framework

of the shared knowledge. For analysts, the application of recipient design is observable through the turns the participants take and how they interpret the talk.

Participants design their talk to be addressed to certain recipients by using different strategies. By using this practice, speakers demonstrate their knowledge, or assumption that there is an existence of mutual knowledge between speaker and recipient. Common techniques utilized in recipient design include, person and place reference, address terms (e.g., you), gaze, explicit selection with proper names, visible actions (e.g., gestures), among others. For example:

(1) [Sacks & Schegloff, 1979, p. 19]

```
01    A:    ... Well I was the only one other than the uhm
02          tch Fords? Uh, Mrs Holmes Ford? You know
03          uh [the cellist?
04    B:       [Oh yes. She's she's the cellist.
05    A:    Yes.
06    B:    Ye[s
07    A:      [Well she and her husband were there...
```

This extract demonstrates that Speaker A makes three different attempts in seeking mutual reference to a character in their talk, namely Ford (lines 2-3) but fails to establish mutual reference. First, Speaker A uses a general level of reference "Fords", then a specific level "Mrs Holmes Ford", and then proceeds to add a descriptive aspect that references the person more specifically "the cellist". It is important to note that this third reference is closest to both participants' mutual knowledge as Speaker B demonstrates her recognition of who the referent is in their talk. She apparently confirms her recognition by repeating "she's the cellist" in line 4. In this way, a recipient designed utterance assumes the recipients' knowledge and projects that the remaining talk is mutually comprehensible for both parties.

3.1.2.3. Sequence Organization in Conversation

The concept of recipient design discussed in the previous section demonstrates that turns in conversations are designed in certain ways so that certain participants take specific turns according to the nature of the interactional environment. In other words, turns at talk are designed in a way that some turns constrain who speaks next and what type of turn the respondent produces. This is highly related to another fundamental concept in conversation analysis, sequence organization. Sequence organization is the clustering of turns together within the context of their production. The organization of sequences highly emphasizes the importance of social action in many kinds of interaction.

One of the sequential organizations recurrently observable in interactions is the adjacency pair. Schegloff (2007, p. 13) explains that the basic features of adjacency pairs are that: (a) they are composed of two turns, (b) they are produced by different speakers, (c) the two turns are adjacently placed, (d) these two turns are relatively ordered, and (e) the two are related to their pair-type. In other words, an adjacency pair is composed of two turns: an action initiating turn and an action completing turn. For example, greeting, question-answer, request-grant, offer-acceptance, and many others exemplify the basic adjacency pair. The two turns in adjacency pairs are mostly adjacently placed in a sequence of turns. But in some interactional environments, where repair is initiated for the clarification of the initiating action, the adjacent position of the second pair part is violated and it is postponed by the repair. Some other types of insertion sequences may also postpone the occurrence of second pair parts of adjacency paired sequences. Paired utterances are always ordered in a sequence such that one of the turns always occurs before the other. For instance, in question-answer sequences, a question always precedes an answer.

The adjacent characteristic of the first and the second pair parts is not the only distinctive system of sequential organization, although it is the most basic. Schegloff (2007)

discusses another system of sequential organization in the form of "extended tellings," which are frequently applied in interaction in the form of a storytelling, where the normal turn-taking organization is suspended. The teller in a storytelling acquires the right to continue to produce more than one TCU so as to bring the extended telling to a completion after a TRP (Jefferson, 1978; Sacks, 1974; Schegloff, 1982). There are two basic ways that the system of adjacency pairs is adjusted in sequences where an extended version of talk occurs: (a) adjacency pairs are merely related to turns that initiate and complete actions, whereas extended tellings are more concerned with the narration of certain events and thus report a speaker's stance concerning an incident; and (b) recipients recurrently produce acknowledgement tokens to the telling action the teller carries out. They might also produce uptake tokens during the telling sequences to demonstrate their alignment and affiliation. Thus, in turn-by-turn adjacency pairs, each action receives an uptake after it is accomplished, but in extended telling sequences, affiliating responses and acknowledgement tokens are occasionally produced to demonstrate their listenership even during the course of the telling. Talk in interaction progresses with the participants' understanding of their interlocutors' utterances and production of responding actions. However, when there is a disturbance of the progressivity due to various interactional contingencies, repair occurs in the interaction to solve the problem in the interaction.

3.1.2.4. Repair in Conversation

When any obstruction occurs in the interactional environment because of problems in speaking, hearing, or understanding, the participants in the interaction deploy various techniques to deal with the problems. In conversation analytic studies, the term "repair" refers to the way the participants solve numerous problems occurred in the course of interaction. Conversation among various participants is always subject to difficulty and those difficulties

need to be resolved. Repair deals with such problems and brings the conversation back to its normal procedure. From a layperson's perspective, repair could be understood as correction of errors or misunderstandings. However, the conversation analytic perspective describes repair as a major resource in conversation that the participants use in the process of achieving shared understanding (Schegloff, 1992). In other words, repair helps the participants to solve any communicative problems in a trouble-free manner. Basically, repair handles a great variety of communicative complications, such as problems in word selection, pronunciation, hearing, and understanding, to name but a few. In other words, in a general sense, repair addresses aspects of conversation that challenges mutual understanding.

When participants in interaction encounter problems of speaking, hearing, or understanding, they repair a problematic utterance through the repair process, beginning from the pinpointing of the problem, repair initiation, to the solution of the problem, repair outcome (Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977). Overwhelmingly, the repair process includes three basic elements: (a) a repairable, (b) a repair initiation, and (c) a repair proper or repair outcome (pp. 363-364). Schegloff (2000) describes repair initiation as a "possible disjunction with the immediately preceding talk" and repair outcome as a "solution or abandonment of the problem" (p. 207), which may result in a successful or a failing repair practice. A repairable is also known as a trouble source in conversation, which can be caused by a failure in producing, hearing, or understanding certain segments of the preceding talk. As noted above, though a non-CA perspective on repair may include all types of correction in the organization of repair, Schegloff et al. (1977) outline repair with clearly defined parameters and confine "correction" to mere replacement of errors and associate "repair" with all types of infelicities of interaction, including error correction and other troubles in talk. Thus, instances where there is no apparent problem are repaired and conversely instances with apparent problems do not necessarily receive repair. In other words, repair occurs if utterances are

problematic from the participant's perspective but not from the researcher's. Because of this feature of the repair mechanism, Schegloff et al. (1977) suggest the possibility of any utterance being considered in the class "repairable" (p. 363). The following example further clarifies how utterances that seem unproblematic can trigger repair initiation.

(2) May and Jo (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 171)

```
01    May:            [she's gone to::.ho:h. wait and till
02            I show you on the map where she's going.=
03    Jo:     =right
```

In the example above, there is no apparent problem with the utterance per se. However, May needs time to produce the continuing part of the ongoing utterance. In line 1, the stretched sound pattern of "to::" and the audible in-breath, ".ho:h.", demonstrate that the participant is continuing in their turn and withholding or looking for a relevant word to continue. However, having abandoned to produce a word, May deploys an alternative method and then continues the utterance. This example demonstrates the participants' way of delaying the next item due while retaining rights to the current turn. Even though there may be no apparent problem for the recipient, the speaker initiates repair with sound stretches and in-breaths to repair the problem of the producing a relevant next item.

At times in which the interactants face hindrances and intersubjectivity is lost, they may initiate repair to regain some basic intersubjectivity. Any repair initiation aims at successful achievement of the repair work very quickly (Schegloff, 1979), however, all initiations do not necessarily lead to a successful repair proper. Participants may sometimes fail to carry out repair in some cases. Consider the following example from Schegloff et al. (1977).

(3) [BS: 2: 1: 6] (Schegloff et al., 1977, p. 364)

01 C: C'n you tell me- (1.0) D'you have any records
02 of whether you- whether you- who you sent-
03 Oh(hh) shit
04 G: What'd you say?
05 C: I'm having the worst trouble talking.

The above extract represents the participant's failure in producing the repair proper even after multiple initiations. Here, C makes multiple attempts of repair initiation with cut-offs at "me-", "you-", "you-", and "sent-" but still fails to produce the searched-for item. Rather, he displays failure with production of "Oh(hh) shit", which suggests he is abandoning the attempted self-repair. His lack of success in completing the initiated repair is further demonstrated by his production of an account with "I'm having the worst trouble talking."

Both the current speaker and the next speaker can initiate repair on a problematic aspect of talk. Similarly, any participant may equally partake in completing a repair sequence by producing a repair proper item. In this light, repair is classified according to who performs the initiation and who completes it. Thus, repair can be initiated and accomplished by self, that is, the speaker of the trouble source turn; or other, that is, the next speaker to the trouble source turn, the recipient. Schegloff et al. (1977) classified repair into four types based on their initiation and outcome. They are: (a) self-initiated self-repair, (b) self-initiated other-repair, (c) other-initiated self-repair, and (d) other-initiated other-repair.

In self-initiated self-repair, for instance, a speaker faces difficulty with an utterance and initiates and completes repair on their own. However, self-initiated other-repair differs from self-initiated self-repair because an ongoing speaker experiences difficulty with a turn and a recipient initiates repair to remedy the problem. This is called other-repair because it is the next speaker, the recipient of the trouble source problem, performs the repair proper by

providing an alternative to solve the problem. Similarly, in other-initiated self-repair, the recipient experiences a problem in interpreting ongoing talk, initiates repair, and waits for the repair completion to be performed by the speaker of the trouble source turn. Then the speaker of the trouble source acknowledges the difficulty and repairs their utterance. Finally, in other-initiated other-repair, it is the recipient of the trouble source utterance that initiates the repair and takes a relevant action to achieve an outcome.

3.2. Conversation Analysis and Questioning Practices

The notion of "question" has always been a focal aspect in research in mundane as well as in institutional interaction. Conventionally, in the field of linguistics and for laypersons, the typical communicative function of question is mostly associated with the interrogative grammatical forms. However, there are numerous other forms that do not represent the interrogative syntactic form, but function as a question. Moreover, not all interrogative forms perform the communicative function of questioning. This section focuses on the various forms questions take and summarizes the questioning pattern and features in mundane and institutional interaction.

In general, question, or more precisely request for information, is first-pair part of an adjacency pair that initiates a sequence and creates a slot for their recipient to produce a second-pair part answer. In answering, a recipient of a question usually provides a relevant response to the question. In situations where the answer is not immediately forthcoming, participants demonstrate that unavailability through some accounts for not being able to produce the second-pair part answer. In mundane interaction, generally a questioner requests some information with a question and the recipient provides a response. And in the third turn, the questioner often receipts the response as new information and demonstrates the change in their state of knowledge with some "change-of-state-tokens", such as "oh" (Heritage, 1984; see also, Schegloff, 2007 for his analyses of expansion sequences). For example, in the

following interactional environment, N asks a question about whether the referred person in the talk has his own apartment or not and H provides a response by saying "yea:h". This response changes the state of knowledge N has and she demonstrates the change with "Oh:" in the third position.

```
(4) (Heritage, 1984, p. 310)
01  N: =.hh Dz he 'av'iz own apa:rt[mint?]
02  H:                              [.hhh] Yea:h,=
03  N: =Oh:,
```

A layperson's meta-knowledge perspective towards questioning is likely to be limited to particular syntactic interrogative forms. However, as documented by various studies on questioning, forms other than interrogative structures do occur and carry out the communicative function of questioning. On the contrary, mere interrogative forms do not always perform the questioning function. For example, "How could you say that?" as a response to an utterance in interaction is produced in interrogative form but is deployed for as a complaint to the speaker but not as a question. Thus, the question "What is a question?" is a question that does not have an adequate and exact answer. According to Tsui (1992), the term "question" is used in the linguistics literature and understood in the short term, but how questions are defined varies in a huge way. This also suggests that questions are not necessarily limited to interrogative questioning forms. In other words, as Bolinger (1957, p. 4) explains, any utterance "that craves a verbal or other semiotic response" is a question that is interpreted by the hearer and responded to with answers. What Bolinger (1957) argues is that linguistic and syntactic forms are neither necessary nor sufficient to design an utterance as a question. It is left for the recipient to analyze the utterance with the common knowledge they have and to decide whether to treat the previous utterance as a question or not.

The analysis of interrogative and non-interrogative forms in questioning is further

explored by Weber (1993). In an investigative study of utterances performing the communicative function of questioning, Weber (1993) came out with only 59 percent of all questions incorporating interrogative forms and the remaining 41 percent of communicative questions with non-interrogatives forms, consisting of even declaratives. Thus, in line with Bolinger (1957), Weber argues that there is not "a single factor, in itself, which determines question function; rather the interpretation of question function is sensitive to the interaction of morphological and syntactic forms, intonation, sequential position and information accessibility" (p. 212).

As cited above, Bolinger (1957) states that questions create a slot for the recipient to provide a response. However, depending on the social and sequential situations, questions may have miscellaneous interactional outcomes. For example, based on the questioner, the content, the social and sequential position, and the design of the question, the question might compel the recipient to produce an appropriate response in an appropriate manner. Once a question is posed, it imbalances the participants' right to equally participate in the interaction. The questioner holds the power position as the question acts to pressure the recipient to answer. According to Sacks (1992), the questioner has the right to participate more in the conversation because "as long as one is in the position of doing the questions, then in part they have control of the conversation" (p. 49). Thus, questions are understood as powerful tools that control the interaction. Questions control the interaction by pressuring the recipients to respond, by presuming supposition, by selecting the content of question, by agenda setting, by creating an environment to prefer specific answers, etcetera.

The organization of questioning has a very significant import in social life. Thus, it is of great consequence to study what makes any utterance a question. There are various factors contributing to make an utterance a question. For example, Stivers, Enfield, and Levinson (2010) report that in various languages, grammatical aspects, prosody, and epistemic

asymmetry help recipients to determine an utterance to be a question. For instance, many languages in the world have special grammatical formats for distinguishing a yes-no question from general assertions. Along with grammatical marking, yes-no questions follow specific word order and the same question can be asked in different ways. For example, "*Are you working?*" could be asked in a negative interrogative format (*Aren't you working?*) or with a question tag (*You are working, aren't you?*). The affirmative interrogative "*Are you working?*" demonstrates that the questioner has no knowledge of whether the recipient is working. However, when the question is asked in negative interrogative format, the questioner presupposes that the recipient is working. The presupposition further becomes stronger when the question is asked with a question tag. In asking the question with a tag, the speaker's presupposition becomes too strong that the question is simply asked to pursue confirming response. In spite of these varieties in interrogatives, an utterance with interrogative grammatical marking does not always perform the function of questioning, and non-interrogative utterances sometimes perform the communicative function of questioning.

Apart from the yes-no questions discussed above, *wh*-questions also represent grammatical functions of questioning. Conventionally, all *wh*-questions are supposed to incorporate some interrogative words, such as what, when, where, and so forth. Dryer (2013) reports that all languages in the world have these interrogative structures, thus wh-questions will appear in some form in every language. However, in spite of its universal recognition, *wh*-questions do not always perform the communicative function of questioning. For example, an interrogative beginning with "*how could you.....?*" is not necessarily a question, rather it might function as a complaint on the previous action, as noted above.

Furthermore, basically in yes-no questions, interrogative prosody helps in determining any utterance as a question. Rising intonation is the most common feature interactants deploy in asking yes-no questions (Dryer, 2013). In spite of this, various studies on interrogative

prosody marking report that rising intonation is sometimes misleading for recipients in determining questions. Yes-no questions do not always follow the rising intonation pattern, and rising intonation does not necessarily perform the function of questioning (Selting, 1992; Stivers, 2010; Weber, 1993). Stivers (2010) found that only 82 percent of the questions in her data set were produced with rising intonation and the remaining 18 percent were not produced with rising intonation. Thus, in determining any utterance as a question, neither grammar nor prosody is sufficient in mundane talk.

Relating questioning practices to participant knowledge, Labov and Fanshel (1977) describe participant knowledge in terms of A-events and B-events where A-events represent the knowledge a speaker holds, and B-events represent the information that falls in recipient's domain of knowledge. In their terms, when a speaker produces an utterance about a B-event, the knowledge is limited to the recipient and thus the speaker utterance is interpreted as a question that pursues a specific response. Once an utterance is produced by a speaker, the recipient (a) provides an answer utterance, (b) confirms the speaker's production of knowledge, or (c) disconfirms and supplies new information. For example, in the following news interview session from Heritage and Roth (1995), the interviewee treats the interviewer's declarative statement as a question and provides a confirming answer. The interviewee understands the statement as a question because he is the only one who holds the information. In other words, the interviewer's statement attempts to seek confirmation or disconfirmation regarding the incident that falls in the domain of the interviewee's knowledge.

(5) Heritage & Roth (1995, p. 11)

```
01   IR:    So in a very brief word David Owen you in no way regret
02          what you did er despite what has (happened) in Brighton
03          this week in the Labour Party.
04   IE:    n- In no way do I regret it.
```

Aligning with Labov and Fanshel (1977), Pomerantz (1980) categorizes participant's knowledge into two groups and classifies them into type 1 knowable or type 2 knowable. In her explanation, type 1 knowable is the first-hand information to which the speaker has the rights to know and type 2 knowable is the information that falls in the domain of the recipient. Pomerantz suggests that questioning practices are related to the pursuit of knowledge from the other participant. Thus, when a speaker mentions a type 2 knowable in their turn, the recipient is obliged to provide the information sought because they have rights and obligations to know.

Since question practice includes one speaker asking a question and the recipient providing a response, the conversational situation becomes asymmetrical. Heritage (1984) relates this asymmetrical structure of questioning practices to participants' epistemic stances. In questioning, as suggested by Heritage, a questioner, "in addition to proposing that an answer should be provided 'next' by a selected next speaker, also proposes through the production of a question to be 'uninformed' about the substance of the question" (p. 250). For Heritage, posing a question demonstrates the asymmetrical level of a participant's knowledge. In recent work, Heritage (2008b, 2010; 2013a) summarizes the asymmetrical interaction in an "epistemic gradient". The gradient is basically related to three types of questions: content question, interrogative question, and tag question; and the gradient becomes steep or flat according the question type. For example, the following three questions suggest to similar intention of pursuing/confirming the recipient's name but they differ in terms of the epistemic stance they convey.

1. When do you want to have a meeting?
2. Do you want to have a meeting tonight?
3. You want to have a meeting tonight, don't you?

The three questions can be explained in terms of the knowledge about the information they

convey. Each of the above three questions suggest that the information lies in the recipient's domain of knowledge. Although the recipient has the primary right to the information being sought for, the speaker presupposes the answer would occur in asking for the same information with various questioning techniques. In the first question the speaker displays their total ignorance about when the recipient would like to hold a meeting through a content question. The ignorance demonstrated through a content question is changed into a presupposition when the question is designed with a yes/no question. As yes/no interrogatives prefer an affirmative response (Bolinger, 1978; Heritage & Raymond, 2012; Pomerantz, 1984), the speaker presupposition of the next meeting is observable. Furthermore, when the questioning form changes to a declarative, following a tag question like the third question above, the speaker is more into confirming the information instead of looking for the core information per se. These varieties in pursuing responses with differently formatted questions convey the epistemic stance of the participants. In moving to a declarative with a tag question from a content question, the questioner displays their variety of an "unknowing" stance (K-) to a "knowing" stance (K+). The epistemic gradients (Heritage, 2010) shown in figure below provides a graphic description of the relationship between questioning practices and the epistemic stance they convey.

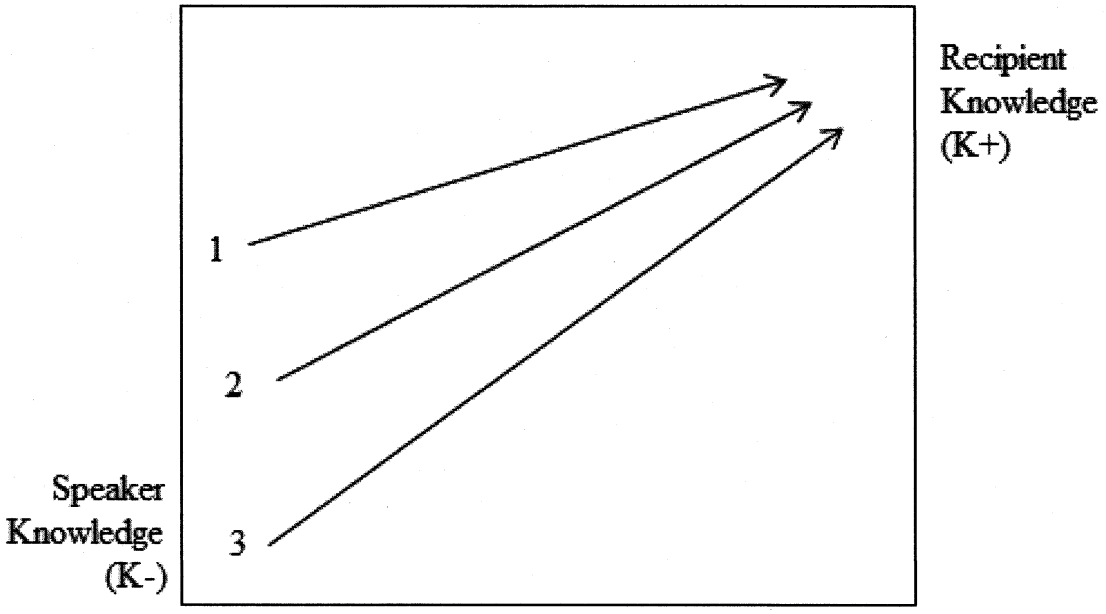

Figure 1.

Epistemic gradient (Heritage, 2010) representing different types of questions

As portrayed in the figure above, content questions portray the speaker as a less knowledgeable participant; the level of knowledge increases when it moves to interrogative questions and further deepens with declarative questions with a tag. Additionally, content questions, compared to the other two types, force the recipients to produce an answer since the questioner does not have any knowledge regarding the sought for information. Content questions are likely to elicit considerably longer responses while interrogatives and declaratives will elicit mere "yes/no" or confirmation/disconfirmation.

In an earlier study, Heritage (1984) demonstrated how questions are related to the transformation of information from one participant to the other. His discussion of the "oh" in the third turn demonstrates how a questioner receives information produced in the second turn. As demonstrated by the third turn in the following example, the participants treat the information as new information through the production of "oh".

(6) (Heritage, 1984, p. 310)

```
01    Nan:    .hhh Dz he 'av 'iz own apa:rt[mint?]
02    Hyl:                                [.hhhh] Yea:h,=
03    Nan:    =Oh:,
```

Here, acknowledgement of the answer with 'oh' demonstrates that the questioner has successfully pursued a response that is informative, and validates that the question of the first turn was a genuine question that is in search of some information. With the production of 'oh' the questioner demonstrates that the information has been transformed.

In addition to asking questions, questioners limit the choices of the answerers by designing their questions in specific ways. The design of a question restricts the answers by controlling the topic, hypothesizing the answer, preferring one type of answer over another, and many more. For instance, according to Bolinger (1978), a polar question sets up a hypothesis and requests confirmation or disconfirmation from recipients. In other words, a questioner assumes that the recipient knows the answer and if the recipient does not know, they might respond with an account for not knowing the answer. Furthermore, Lyons (1977) explains that the initiation of question looks for something as response. He calls the response a "variable" and on pursuing the response, the questioner invites the recipient to provide a specific "value" for the "variable". Thus, from a general perspective, questioning practices are first and foremost concerned with eliciting information. Then again, by setting up certain constraints on the recipient's answers, questioning is not merely a game of transformation of information but rather a tool to control the interaction.

One of the most common features questions have is that they assume specific answers from their recipients. On asking questions, the questioner always expects the recipient to answer in their expected manner. In conversation analytic studies of questioning, the expectation questioner holds are broadly discussed as a presupposition (Clayman, 1993a; 1993b; Heritage, 2003; Levinson; 1983). For clarification, on asking the content question

"What's the difference between your Marxism and Mister McGarhey's communism", the questioner presupposes that the recipient is a Marxist (Heritage, 2003, p. 73). Similarly, polar questions and alternative answer questions also demonstrate that questioners presuppose answers. In the yes/no question "Are you interested in painting?" the speaker presupposes that the recipient is likely to be interested in painting; and in the alternative answer question "Are you leaving the town this week, or next week?" the recipient's moving out of town at some time in the near future is presupposed. In this way, apart from requesting information from the knowing participant, the design of questioning suggests that the questioner imposes their assumptions that might be reflected during answering. Hayano (2013) reports that recipients potentially have two choices in providing answers: (a) agreeing with the questioner by providing a relevant confirming answer; or (b) disagreeing with the questioner by rejecting the presupposed idea. Furthermore, like the change in epistemic stance according to the design of questions, the degree of presupposition also varies with the variation in the designing of questions (Clayman & Heritage, 2002). The epistemic stance of questioners is relatively superficial in content questions and thus there is less imposition of presupposition. However, when it moves to yes/no questions, the epistemic status takes on a deeper level of significance and so does the significance of the presupposition. In the case of tag questions and alternative answer questions, questioners are highly confident about the information and pose the questions simply to pursue a confirmation from the recipient. Thus, at this stage, the level of presupposition becomes intense.

In addition to the presupposition a questioner imposes during issuing questions in interactional environments; they also prefer certain answers over others. Various studies (Pomerantz, 1984; Sacks, 1987; Schegloff, 2007) discuss the organization of preference in mundane conversation and reports that basically a sequence initiating action can face two types of responding actions. Once a first pair part is initiated, it has binary possibilities.

Pomerantz (1984) reports that with an assessment, the participants can agree or disagree. In other words, the recipients may align or non-align with the assessment proposed by the previous speaker. In the case of non-alignment, the participants formulate their utterances in such a way that they suggest the non-alignment in the initiation of the turn by producing some sort of hitching markers such as "uh", "well", or by delaying the response with minimal amount of silences. The speakers, by agreeing or disagreeing with the content of the question, design their responses with certain qualifications which shows whether the response is aligning or non-aligning. Explicitly, the aligning responses are produced smoothly but the non-aligning responses are produced with some sort of delays or mitigations, and sometimes an account for the delay. Hayano (2013) discusses and summarizes the organization of preference in questioning practices as: (a) preference for answers over non-answer responses, (b) preference for affiliation over disaffiliation, (c) preference for type-confirming answers over non-type-confirming answers, and (d) preference for selected speakers to answer over non-selected speakers. To further explain the preference structure, the preference of answering response suggests that the participants do some interactional work to provide answers even if the answer is not easily accessible. For example, in the following instance from Stivers and Robinson (2006), B performs some interactional business not to provide a non-answering response.

(7) [Stivers and Robinson (2006, p. 374)

01 A: How is Aunt Kallie.
02 B: Well, I (suspect) she's better.
03 A: Oh that's good.
04 B: Las' time we talked tuh Mother she was uh better,
05 Uh Allen, (she wants to know about),
06 (2.0) ((talking to someone off the phone))
07 B: No, Allen doesn't know anything new (out there) either.

In this way, B excludes non-answering response and provides answer as of her knowledge in the form of her guess. Furthermore, she attempts to elicit an answer from a party that is not directly participating in the interaction.

Once a question is posed, an answer, according to the rule of sequence organization, follows the utterance in most cases. In other words, initiation of a first pair part question makes the second pair part answer conditionally relevant (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). And if the recipient does not provide a second pair part answer, participants orient to the official absence (Schegloff, 1968) of the answer and recipients usually provide a reason for not answering. However, the absence of an answer is minimal in interactional situations because answer responses are preferred. Explaining the preference for answer responses, Stivers and Robinson (2006) highlight the systematic features that support the preference of answer responses. The features include: (a) answer responses are more common; (b) non-answer responses are delayed, hesitated, or include accounts; (c) absence of answer suggests non-alignment; and (d) instead of non-answer responses, participants bring out different interactional accomplishments to provide aligning responses. In other words, answer responses are responses that provide the sought for information, or the responses that demonstrate the participants' interactional work on providing the responses and managing to produce some sort of responses instead of mere "I don't know," which is considered to be a non-answer response (Beach & Metzger, 1997; Sert & Walsh, 2012). Specially, answering responses includes the answer to the question, or their willingness to answer but non-answering responses demonstrate mere ignorance.

In addition to aligning responses with answers, questions also look for positive responses. In the case of yes/no alternatives, an answer with an affirmative is preferred. That is to say, the questioners design their questions in such a way that they presuppose and prefer an affirmative response from the recipients. Furthermore, the participants' answers are

commonly aligning to the structural design of the questions. Particularly, the answers conform to the type of the questions (Raymond, 2003). When it comes to content questions, the answers provide some information the content word in the question seeks. Similarly, with polar questions including yes or no alternatives, the recipients produce one of the alternatives and hold the preference of type-conforming responses. Since a polar question needs the recipients to produce "*yes*" or "*no*" response to demonstrate whether they affirm or disaffirm, the answerers align with the agenda set by the question by providing the answer. However, when they choose to reject the agenda set by the polar question, the participants could produce answers that are different from "*yes*" or "*no*" in form, non-confirming the type of question. But rejecting the presupposition set by the question needs more interactional work. As an answer that does not confirm to the type of question requires the participants to accomplish more interactional work, the designing of the question shapes the way of the production of answers that align with the type of the questions.

Who answers the question in interactional situations is also partially selected by the design of the question. Once a question is posed to a specific recipient, it becomes the recipient's duty to provide an answer. Even in multi-party interaction, the other participants hold their talk and provide the selected recipient extra opportunity to provide the response (Bolden, 2011). Stivers and Robison (2006) report three signals that non-selected participants use to show their orientation to the preference for the selected speaker to respond. First, the selected speaker usually begins to respond as soon as they are able to take a turn, generally at a transition relevance place. Second, even if the non-selected recipients know the answer to the question asked, they do not choose to provide a response. And finally, in situations where the selected recipient is unable to provide the response and the non-selected recipients do so, they keep their turn minimal and let the selected recipient repair their utterance or provide an account for not knowing the response.

3.3. Conversation Analysis and Classroom Interaction

In the following section, I review relevant studies based on conversation analysis with a detailed focus on institutional interaction, particularly studies related to classroom interaction. The first half of this section briefly covers some aspects of institutional interaction and its features in light of ordinary talk and the second half highlights and summarizes the application of conversation analytic methods in the study of classroom interaction.

3.3.1. General Overview of Institutional Interaction

As reviewed in the basic CA section, participants in interaction regularly orient to the default mechanisms of talk-in-interaction. Despite the context, the default features of interaction, such as turn-taking (Sacks et al. 1974), recipient design (Sacks et al. 1974), sequence organization (Schegloff, 2007), and repair (Schegloff et al. 1977) are observable in a wide range of institutional interaction. Therefore, all of the features above are relevant in institutional interaction as the participants themselves demonstrate their orientation to such features. Thus, though institutional interaction may have distinct social objectives and specific institutional goals, it does not deviate from the most basic mechanisms of talk and the whole interaction is understood in reference to the basic aspects. As Zimmerman and Boden (1991) explain, "the role talk plays in accomplishing the structural or institutional features of activities and settings cannot be properly understood without reference to more basic mechanisms of mundane conversation" (p. 4). Consequently, institutional interaction can be understood as a microcosm of mundane interaction. Based on the characteristics found in mundane interaction, conversation analytic studies of institutional interaction revealed some unique features that the participants orient to and that are relevant to specific institutional settings. A number of studies (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Heritage, 2004; Heritage

& Clayman, 2010) have noted the unique features of institutional interaction and determined that institutional interaction may at times, on a moment-by-moment basis, be distinct in terms of turn-taking, sequencing, structural organization, turn design, lexical choices and knowledge distribution among other interactional resources yet to be discovered. Another aspect of institutional interaction is that the interactants are oriented towards accomplishment of certain institutional goals, and the participants explicitly pursue those institutional goals in and through their participation in the interaction. Thus, institutional interaction is constrained in terms of organization of specific social and interactional conducts because institutional interaction includes inferential frameworks and procedures that are particularly relevant to the institutional contexts in which the participants interact (Drew & Heritage, 1992).

Initial studies in conversation analysis used data from institutional settings, such as courtroom interaction (Atkinson & Drew, 1979), calls to a suicide prevention center (Sacks, 1992), group therapy sessions (Sacks, 1979), or calls to a police station (Schegloff, 1968), police-suspect interaction (Stokoe & Edwards, 2008), the chief concern in analyzing such data was to observe the orderliness of talk, the findings from which later became the benchmark for CA research. Despite the institutional settings, the researchers were at that time, the early stages of CA research, examining the basic interactional resources oriented to by the participants themselves. Then, from the 1990s, the institutional characteristics of institutional talk have received great attention from many researchers (Button, 1993; Clayman & Heritage, 2002; Drew & Heritage, 1992; Heritage & Maynard, 2006, among many others).

To date, an extensive amount of research analyzing institutional interaction has been conducted by applying the conversation analytic framework. The studies of institutional interaction include a wide range of settings, such as courtroom interaction (Atkinson & Drew, 1979), news interviews (Greatbatch, 1988; Heritage & Greatbatch, 1991), doctor-patient

interaction and medical communication (Heath, 1986; Maynard, 1991), classroom talk (McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979a), and others. The following section provides a general overview of classroom interaction research and highlights its representative features as a type of institutional talk. The other varieties of institutional talk are of less concern here since this study focuses on analyzing data from classroom interactions, although those other varieties may be mentioned where relevant.

3.3.2. Classroom Interaction

This section discusses different aspects of language classroom interaction as representative of different varieties of institutional interaction. The main concern here is to demonstrate the extent to which CA is uniquely and effectively applied in the study of classroom interaction. In addition to discussing the application of CA in classroom research, this section focuses in demonstrating the interactional architecture of language classrooms, such as the turn-taking system and sequence organization.

Although the conversation analytic methodology was developed in the 1960s and 1970s, and some researchers examined classroom interaction from an ethnomethodological perspective (Cicourel, 1974; MacBeth, 1990; McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979a), it was only in the late 1990s that researchers directed their attention to the study of L2 use in interaction adopting this methodology. There are ample studies demonstrating the effectiveness of applying conversation analysis in the study of L2 use in interaction (Aline & Hosoda, 2009; Baker, 1992; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Hall, 2007; Hosoda & Aline, 2010a; 2010b; 2010c; Koshik, 2002; Markee, 2000; Markee & Kasper, 2004; McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979a; 1979b; Wong & Olsher, 2000, among others). Initially, Firth and Wagner (1997) argue for second language acquisition (SLA) studies to pay attention to the contextual and interactional aspects of language use from participants' perspectives. Through the understanding of the

participants' perspective as they interpret each other's production, Firth and Wagner believed that the research in SLA would be advanced in both theoretical and methodological aspects so that the process of second language acquisition could further be explicated.

However, the idea Firth and Wagner (1997) proposed in applying CA in the study of SLA received three major objections from other researchers in the field in terms of its applicability. According to Markee (2000) those three major objections are: (a) SLA studies and CA studies are incompatible because CA is oriented to behavior whereas SLA is a cognitive study (Gass, 1998; Kasper, 1997; Long, 1997), (b) CA is designed to study the use of language rather than its acquisition (Gass, 1998; Kasper, 1997; Long, 1997), and (c) a turn in conversation, as CA researchers' focus, is not suitable to analyze the process of SLA (Crookes, 1990).

Markee (2000) disagrees with the objections and argues for CA in SLA. Regarding the first objection that CA deals with interaction but not cognition, Markee, in line with Schegloff (1991a), asserts that "cognition is not solely an individual but also a socially distributed phenomenon that is observable in members' conversational behaviors" (p. 31). Similar to the foundational nature of CA, that talk is fundamentally collaborative in nature (Sacks et al. 1974), Markee suggests that researchers observe the conversational resources that language learners rely on in attempting to learn a new language since they consists of "collaboratively achieved micro-moments of cognition" (p. 33). To some extent, this perception is recognizable in other SLA studies (Ohta, 2000; Swain, 2000) because of its overlapping feature with Vygotsky's (1978) concept that social interaction is a fundamental aspect in the development of cognition. Thus, since CA exploits the methodology of observing, recording, and analyzing talk-in-interaction on a moment-by-moment basis, the CA perspective is essential for use as a major methodological resource in the field of SLA research.

In relation to the second claim, that CA is designed to study language use and SLA is for the study of acquisition, Markee (2000) argues that researchers in CA should "investigate the structure of conversational practices, such as sequencing, turn-taking, and repair" through which they can come to understand socially distributed cognition. In consequence, Markee believes that SLA can benefit research significantly by incorporating CA methodology to analyze the "sequential and other resources that speakers use to modify each other's talk and thereby comprehend and learn new language" (p. 32).

Markee (2000) also criticizes the third objection that a turn is not a suitable unit of analysis. As Schegloff et al. (1974) and many other CA researchers have demonstrated, an utterance is empirically sustainable. In CA studies, the participants regularly monitor and analyze their co-participants' utterances to produce a new relevant utterance. In other words, the turns in conversation are empirical to the extent that their relevancy is grounded in the participants' own practices (Schegloff, 1972, 1987, 1991b, 1992). Thus, because the turns can be empirically located in the participations conversational practices, an utterance can surely be a suitable unit as a target of analysis.

After the 1990s, many researchers began to analyze interaction in classrooms from a conversation analytic perspective (e.g., He, 2004; Hellermann, 2007; Hosoda & Aline, 2010a: 2010b; Mori, 2003; Olsher, 2004; Wong & Waring, 2010; Waring, 2009, and many others). Through its micro-analytic perspective on the sequential organization of talk, CA investigates real-time utterance production during interaction. In line with Firth and Wagner (1997), Gardner and Wagner (2004) explore the importance of the application of conversation analytic methodology in the studies of second language acquisition. According to Gardner & Wagner (2004), there are two central issues of the conversation analytic approach that are relevant to the study of second language acquisition. The two approaches include: (a) the use

of naturally-occurring data instead of data collected in experimental settings, and (b) the observation of learners' interactional competence instead of their efficiency/deficiency in terms of the use of the target language (pp. 2-3).

Traditionally, SLA studies tend to focus on learner language performance rather than on "interactional practices" (Firth & Wagner, 1997). But Gardner and Wagner (2004) argue that language learners' performance is not essential in achieving the goal of interaction because the incompetency language learners have does not necessarily cause problems in executing everyday activities, such as communication, through language. Thus, Gardner and Wagner suggest that studies of second language conversation should examine how learners accomplish their everyday interactional activities rather than their linguistic competency or incompetency.

In contrast to the Chomskian perspective that language production is based on learners' competence (Chomsky, 1965), CA studies interpret talk as a byproduct of participants' collaboration in talk-in-interaction. In CA, it is understood that sentence construction is contingent upon the participants' involvement and their use of interactional resources (Heritage & Atkinson, 1984). In other words, a sentence is not produced from a speaker's linguistic knowledge, rather, it is collaboratively produced by the participants on a moment-by-moment basis in the interaction (Goodwin, 1979). Thus, in analyzing interaction in language classrooms, CA analysts pay greater attention to how language learners participate in the interaction and construct various relevant actions but not so much to grammatical or linguistic competence. CA researchers in classroom interaction observe the natural occurrence of the organization of talk, which provides them with grounds for understanding the participants' perspective in analyzing the talk.

3.3.3. Turn-Taking in Classroom Interaction

This section synopsis the aspects of turn-taking employed in classroom interaction. As classroom interaction is a type of institutional interaction, the turn-taking practices basically

observed in mundane interaction take a different and more restricted form. Because of the institutional nature of classroom interaction, the turn allocation and speaker management found there takes a relatively distinct form from that found in mundane conversation. Sacks et al. (1974) unveiled the systematic organization of turn-taking in ordinary conversation and the system provided a basis for other scholars to analyze the turn-taking machinery in institutional settings, such as courtrooms (Drew, 1992), news interviews (Greatbatch, 1988), and classrooms (McHoul, 1978). The following section refers back to the systematic mechanism of turn-taking in ordinary conversation and discusses how the turn-taking system is organized in classroom interaction.

Analyzing ordinary talk, Sacks et al. (1974) demonstrate the system of turn-taking and outline a set of practices in turn allocation. The organization of turn-taking that Sacks et al. summarized include a number of interactional features, such as one party taking a turn at a time, no gaps and no overlaps in speaker transition, varying turn order, varying turn size, no predefined length of conversation, no predefined content of talk, flexibility in turn distribution, varying length of turn constructional units, and others. According to the practices Sacks et al. outline, there is no restriction upon the participants to take and leave the turns. In taking part in ordinary conversation, the participants regularly monitor the ongoing interaction for possible transition relevance places and take opportunities to take the next turn, which Sacks et al. (1974) describe as an "intrinsic motivation for listening" (p. 43). In addition, analyzing naturally occurring data, Sacks et al. demonstrate a set of rules that manages speaker transition at a transition relevant place. According to the rules, if the current speaker selects a participant to speak next, no one other than the selected participant has the normative right to take the next turn. If the current speaker does not nominate any participants, then the participants are free to self-select as next speaker, where the right to next turn belongs to the participant who speaks first. If neither of the above two phenomenon

occur, then the current speaker has the right to, but is not obliged to, continue, and the practices recursively occur at each next transition relevance place. In describing how current speakers select next, Lerner (2003) describes two forms of addressing: explicit, and tacit. Explicit addressing refers to the gaze directed at another participant while mentioning their names or other address terms. On the other hand, in selecting next speaker with tacit addressing, the current speaker is likely to demonstrate selection by incorporating specific phenomenon in the content of their talk or by designing their utterances based on specific circumstances.

In classroom interaction, however, the turn-taking system does not necessarily go directly along with the practices observed in ordinary conversation (McHoul, 1978; van Lier, 1984; 1988) but is influenced by the participants' construction of the institutional setting. McHoul (1978) outlined an adaptation of the practices discussed by Sacks et al. and highlighted the different practices teachers and students deploy. In contrast to the principle of equal rights of the participants to take a turn in ordinary conversation as discussed by Sacks et al., McHoul outlined some sort of modification of those practices in classroom interaction where the teacher has power and control over the interactional rights. According to the turn-taking system McHoul explicated for classroom interaction, if the teacher uses the "current speaker selects next" technique and nominate a next speaker, the right and obligation to take a next turn is limited to the selected student, so other students should not take a turn. However, if the teacher does not use the "current speaker selects next" technique to nominate next speaker, students are not normatively permitted to self-select and the teacher continues with a next turn. In classroom interaction, the opportunity to self-select as next speaker without sanctions is limited to the teachers. In addition, when a student is a current speaker and they select a next speaker, the teacher is normatively obliged to speak as the next speaker. On the other hand, if the student who is the current speaker does not select a next speaker, the

teacher may self-select or the student (current speaker), may, but is not compelled to, continue until the teachers' self-selection emerges.

The practices McHoul (1978) discussed are dominantly observable in traditional teacher-fronted classrooms but may not be observable in other types of L2 classes (Markee & Kasper, 2004). CA studies analyzing classroom interaction have specifically examined the turn-taking system in language-learning contexts (Hellermann, 2005; Markee, 2000; Seedhouse, 2004). In considering L2 classroom interaction, Markee (2000) describes some modifications to the practices outlined by Sacks et al. (1974). According to this view, in contrast to ordinary conversation, talk in classroom interaction is likely to include: (a) a considerable amount of pre-allocation of turns to teachers and students, (b) choral participation instead of one party at a time, (c) multi-unit turns produced by teachers, (d) the expectation that students elaborate turns in full sentences, (e) fixed interactional time because of the length of lessons, and (f) the explicit statement of content based on curriculum or lesson plans (pp. 97-98). These modified practices also embody different forms depending on the classroom context. For example, Lerner (2003) discusses the choral production of turns by multiple students.

The turn-taking machinery also differs according to the pedagogical activities the participants engage in. For instance, Seedhouse (2004) outlines the organization of turn-taking in different pedagogical contexts: (a) form-and-accuracy context, and (b) meaning-and-fluency context. He discusses the changes in turn-taking in relation to the shifts in pedagogical objectives and claims that turn-taking in the classroom is organized on a local and moment-by-moment basis. Similarly, Erickson (2004) mentions that teachers in teacher-fronted classrooms mostly have "control over topic, turn exchange, and the allocation of attention among the participants" (p. 181). In other words, unlike mundane interaction where turn-taking timing, turn order, and length are not predetermined (Sacks et al., 1974),

the interactional rights of the participants are limited in institutional settings, such as the classroom. Predominantly, in teacher-fronted classrooms, it is the teacher who has the interactional rights to ask questions, decide topics, and allocate turns. In contrast, students are not expected to allocate turns, select or change topics, or take free turns.

3.3.4. Sequence Organization in Classroom Interaction

One of the most extensively researched aspects of talk-in-interaction is the construction of communication through building sequences of actions. As noted earlier, a sequence in conversation is comprised of a sequence initiating action and a sequence closing action. From a CA perspective, the set of actions is organized in terms of the "adjacency pair" (Schegloff, 1972, 1979; Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). Adjacency pair sequences commonly include a set of turns that are (a) physically adjacent to each other, (b) produced by two different speakers, (c) constructed and organized in terms of a sequence initiating action or first pair part, and a sequence closing action, second pair part, and (d) constructed in such a way that the production of the first pair part makes the production of the second pair part conditionally relevant. In other words, the production of a type of first pair part requires a response with a second pair part that goes along with the type of the first pair part: that is to say, it is type conforming.

The structure of sequencing observed in mundane conversation does not necessarily match the organization of sequences in institutional talk, such as classroom interaction. Drew and Heritage (1992) discuss the unique features of institutional interaction as they explain that they are "comprised of a set of institutional practices different both from other institutional forms and from the baseline of mundane conversational interaction itself" (p. 26). As indicative of educational interaction, the unique features dominantly observable in teacher-fronted classroom interaction are: (a) language is both the vehicle and object of

instruction (Long, 1983, p. 9), (b) there is a reflexive relationship between the pedagogical goals and interaction, and the interactional pattern changes along with the changes in pedagogical focus, and (c) student utterances are always subject to evaluation by teachers. One of the basic elements in classroom interaction is concerned with the activities teachers and students participate in. Every turn that teachers and students take is executed in order to accomplish some classroom activity that will ultimately help in completing the publicly projected pedagogical goals. The turns the teachers and students take are built together to perform some activity through the use of sequences. In spite of the remarkably diverse and fluid nature of interaction, classroom interaction incorporates some features that apply to almost all language classrooms.

The sequential structure of classroom interaction is directly related to the pedagogical focus. For example, Seedhouse (2004) discusses some of the universal features of sequences in classroom interaction. The features include: (a) a pedagogical focus is introduced by the teacher, (b) at least two persons speak in the target language orienting to the pedagogical focus, and (c) participants regularly demonstrate their analysis of the pedagogical focus and produce their turns on a moment-by-moment basis. In contrast to ordinary conversation in which all of the participants have equal power and rights to contribute turns, interaction in teacher-fronted traditional classrooms include dominant cases of teacher-initiated questions, student-responses, and third-turn evaluation by teachers. This type of sequence structure is discussed by various researchers under the terms Initiation-Response-Feedback (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975); Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) (Mehan, 1979a), and Question-Answer-Comment (McHoul, 1978), respectively. The occurrence of IRE sequences, where the initiation move is mostly accomplished by teachers with display questions or known-answer questions (Mehan, 1979b), is one unique feature of classroom interaction. Question-answer sequences in ordinary conversation are related to transmission of knowledge

and because of this they come to completion with a "sequence closing third" action (Schegloff, 2007), such as the change of state token "oh" (Heritage, 1984). However, in classroom interaction, sequence closing response tokens, such as "oh," do not occur (Heritage & Clayman, 2010) because occurrence of such tokens would treat the response as new information, whereas questions teachers deploy in classroom interaction are commonly used to check student knowledge but less to elicit new information. Teacher questions, which are primarily understood as display questions or a known-answer questions (Lerner, 1995; Heritage, 2005; Hosoda, 2014; Mehan, 1979b; Schegloff, 2007), are predominantly used to check student understanding. As a result, in analyzing IRE sequences, the interactional work teachers perform to assess the adequacy of student responses has been the central focal aspect of much research (e.g., Cazden, 1988; Hosoda, 2014; Hosoda & Aline, 2013; MacBeth, 2003; McHoul, 1978; Mehan 1979a; Waring, 2008). This is due in part to the fact that, in classroom interaction, the third-turn action retroactively constructs the prior exchange in a different way than that of ordinary conversation.

The interactional architecture of classroom interaction becomes explicitly visible in the occurrence of IRE sequences. As one focal phenomenon of this dissertation is observing the initiation and evaluation performed by teachers in the first turn and the third turn, I have discussed IRE sequences in a separate section, Three-Turn Sequences in Classroom Interaction, below. The following section presents an overview of the various aspects of IRE sequences, with special attention paid to the first-turn teacher-initiation and the third-turn evaluation.

3.3.5. Three-Turn Sequences in Classroom Interaction

One of the dominant features of classroom interaction is the involvement of teachers asking questions, students providing responses, and the teacher providing feedback in the third turn. This three-turn structure was documented from a discourse analytic perspective as

soliciting, responding, and reacting moves (Bellack, Hyman, Smith, & Kliebard, 1966). The same participation structure of language-learning classrooms has later been described as Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) (Mehan, 1979a), Question-Answer-Comment (QAC) (McHoul, 1978), and "triadic dialogue" (Lemke, 1990) and is "the most commonly occurring discourse structure to be found in classrooms all over the world" (Walsh, 2011, p. 23). After the initial studies revealed the occurrence of these three-part sequences in classroom interaction, several studies have since then focused on how student participation is constrained by teachers' initiation in classrooms (Allwright, 1984; Greenleaf & Freedman, 1993; Johnson, 1995; Walsh, 2006). Despite the use of various terms among research paradigms in discussing these three-turn sequences, throughout this thesis, the term IRE is used to discuss the three-turn sequence when analyzing these sequences in classroom interaction because the term Mehan (1979a) suggested is more explicitly related to conversation analytic methodologies, which is the analytic perspective adopted in this study.

According to Mehan (1979a), the interactional pattern in classrooms is massively organized in terms of a three-part sequence structure co-built between a teacher and a student. Mehan calls this sequence Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE). The organization of actions in an IRE sequence comprises: (a) a teacher-initiated first turn (I), (b) a student response (R), and (c) an assessment or evaluation by the teacher in the third turn position (E). Mehan (1979a) explains that the three-part IRE sequence comprises two coupled adjacency pairs. The first adjacency pair is constructed with the initiation-response sequence, and when the initiation-response pair is completed, this becomes the first-pair part for the second-pair part evaluation. The following figure, from Mehan (1979a, p. 54), visibly clarifies the relationship between the two coupled adjacency pairs, where the evaluation turn or the commenting turn becomes the second pair part of the initiation-response pair.

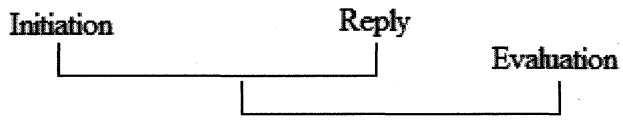

Figure 2.

The structure of IRE sequences (Mehan, 1979a, p. 54)

Further clarifying the relationship between initiations and responses in classroom interaction, Mehan notes that some "particular kinds of replies follow particular kinds of initiation acts with great regularity" (p. 50). More specifically, particular initiation acts call for particular response acts because they co-occur in the sequences. According to Mehan the symmetrical structure of co-occurrence of initiation-response pairs in instructional sequences are: (a) choice elicitation – choice response, (b) product elicitation – product response, (c) process elicitation – process response, (d) metaprocess elicitation – metaprocess response, (e) informative – acknowledgement, and (f) directive – reaction (pp. 51-52). Initiation of one of the sequences makes the other pair conditionally relevant. And thus, if a relevant response occurs in the second turn, the interaction results in an IRE sequence when an evaluation in the third turn is deployed. However, if the response that is called for by the initiation does not occur in the second turn, the teacher may deploy other strategies, and the IRE sequence develops into an extended form until the sought for and relevant response occurs.

3.4. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I summarized studies relevant to this research. The first section introduced conversation analysis and the fundamental aspects researchers pay attention to in conducting research based on conversation analysis. First, this chapter described four universal features observed in conversation analysis research: (a) turn-taking system, (b)

recipient design, (c) sequence organization, and (d) repair. Second, this chapter brought to the fore the practices of questioning and examined how questions are understood in the field of conversation analysis. In doing so, this chapter reported that questions are not analyzed solely in their grammatical form but are understood in light of the actions the turns accomplish in the sequences in which they occur. Third, in this chapter, with an extensive focus on classroom talk, I discussed some previous studies that analyzed institutional interaction. The section focused on the system of turn-taking and sequence organization in classroom settings. In addition, the final section of this chapter reported on the characteristic three-turn sequences, IRE sequences, which dominantly occur in pedagogical settings.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the data, participants, methods of data analysis, and ethical issues considered during the present study. In the following seven different sections, this chapter discusses the data, a description of the participants, a brief review of the steps taken in analyzing the data qualitatively, ethical issues considered in the process of this research, reliability, validity, and generalizability of this study. The chapter concludes with a brief chapter summary.

4.1. Data

The data for this study come from video recordings of naturally occurring English language classrooms in Japan and Nepal. The video from Japan includes about ten hours of recordings of interactions in junior and senior high school English language classrooms and the data from Nepal consists of approximately twelve hours of interaction in English language classrooms from grades eight to twelve, where grade eight is equivalent to the second grade of junior high school in Japan and grade twelve is equivalent to the third grade of senior high school in Japan. The data from the Japanese classes come from lessons that were recorded by the teachers themselves. The purpose for this recording was to present the video at language teacher workshops and other areas. In the workshops, the teachers who present the video observe and discuss the lessons with other teachers and teacher training professionals for the purpose of pedagogical improvement. These video recordings were available to teacher training professionals in a university in Japan from whom I received the videos of recorded lessons. As the teacher training professionals use the recorded lessons in teacher training programs, the lessons are considered to be typical lessons demonstrating a model on what a class should be. Now, considering the data from the Nepalese classes, the

lessons were recorded by this researcher from classrooms in which the teachers were willing to allow the researcher access. In both of the contexts, the Japanese and the Nepalese, most of the recording was conducted with a camera and a microphone that were focused on the teacher. However, some of the lessons recorded in Japan were well-equipped with multiple cameras and microphones that were focused on the teachers and also on the students. The teachers in the Japanese classrooms were Japanese nationals trained in English teaching and the teachers in the Nepalese classes were Nepalese nationals and some of them were trained teachers possessing a teaching license. The others had finished university courses but did not hold a teaching license. In both Japanese and Nepalese classrooms, the teachers were oriented to the use of the "English-Medium" way of instruction. That is to say, for the most part they spoke in the target language.

4.2. Participants

The participants involved in this study are the teachers and the students of the classes recorded. From the total number of twenty-four classrooms recorded, the number of participants include: twenty-five language teachers, including one native English speaker as an Assistant Language Teacher (ALT), and about six hundred and fifty-five students. In the data from both Japan and Nepal, the age group of the students ranges roughly from about thirteen years old to eighteen years old, and the number of students in one class ranges from ten to forty, depending on the physical size of the school building and the classrooms. In the teachers' part, their age and experience varies in significant respect because the data includes lessons conducted by newly recruited teachers as well as those who are highly experienced in the field. A summary of the data and participants is presented in the following table.

Table 2

A Summarized Overview of the Data and Participants.

Source Country	Grade/Level	Average Age	Number of Classes Recorded	Recorded Time (approx.)	Number of Participants (approx.)
Nepal	Grade 8	14	2	90 min	50
Nepal	Grade 9	15	3	135 min	100
Nepal	Grade 10	16	5	225 min	130
Nepal	Grade 11	17	2	100 min	40
Nepal	Grade 12	18	2	100 min	50
Japan	Junior High 2	14	2	100 min	50
Japan	Junior High 3	15	1	50 min	30
Japan	Senior High 1	16	2	100 min	55
Japan	Senior High 2	17	2	100 min	50
Japan	Senior High 3	18	3	150 min	100

4.3. Methods

The above data is analyzed using the conversation analytic methodology. Conversation analytic studies place the foremost focus on using audio or video recordings of naturally occurring and non-experimental interaction. The collected data was constantly observed and carefully transcribed using the commonly used transcription conventions (see Appendix A) developed by Gail Jefferson (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984). After a careful observation of the video, certain phenomena were observed and analyzed using a CA methodology. Considering the rejection of the application of the observer's psychological and mental aspects in analyzing data, this study makes use of the emic perspective. To be precise, it applies the participants' perspective in relation to their actions (Goodwin, 1984; Heritage, 2008a; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Pike, 1954). Conversation analytic studies, with the emic perspective in data

analysis, approach the data from the participants' perspectives to interpret the instances in interaction. In other words, CA methodology interprets the interaction from the perspective of the participants with detailed focus on what the participants demonstrably orient to. It avoids the concept of a priori theorization in the observation and formulates an un-motivated investigation with the selected data excerpt and lets the data lead the observer to any interpretation (Sacks, 1984). To preserve the reliability and validity of the interpretation, the readers are bestowed with the data source in the form of an expanded transcription of the audio or video recordings. This study is no exception to the line of conversation analytic research of using participants' perspective in analyzing the data.

In conversation analytic studies, there is no predefined research design where the researcher aims to answer certain research questions they have posed. However, CA research has methodology which includes (a) getting or making recordings of natural interaction, (b) transcribing the recordings, (c) analyzing the selected part, and (d) reporting the research (ten Have, 1999). Remaining within the CA structure, this study also makes an attempt to address these processes as discussed by ten Have (1999). The prevailing assumption during data collection is that the presence of the researcher in the site of data collection makes the interaction less natural and more like an experimental situation. However, a systematic data collection is difficult without the observer observing or recording the natural interaction. Labov (1972) describes this as an "observer's paradox" and says "the aim of linguistic research in the community must be to find out how people talk when they are not being systematically observed; yet we can only obtain these data by systematic observation" (p. 209). To avoid this from happening, the researcher tried to be as unobtrusive as possible during the data collection which is described in detail below in the ethics section.

In terms of the specific procedure of analyzing the data, the first step this researcher took was transcribing some portions of the collected data and observed a number of

phenomenon that were possibly relevant to the research process. In selecting some portion and transcribing, the researcher paid special attention to the sequential context of the utterances and the orientation of the participants. The second step in the procedure was re-transcribing the phenomenon of interest by adding detailed descriptions of verbal and nonverbal behaviors according to their relevancy in the data. The detailed descriptions include the action the utterances accomplish, their sequential position, their design, their relation to the subsequent talk, and some nonverbal behaviors such as, gesture and gage. After that, a collection of similar instances was made from the whole data and transcribed in detail. The collection was refined through repeated observations by the researcher as well as in a number of data sessions. Finally, the phenomenon were analyzed and described in detail applying the ideas developed through the detailed observations.

4.4. Ethical Considerations

No matter what the nature of the research is, the participants' rights to privacy and protection of their personal information must always be considered to be the highest priority. With the publication and presentation of research that makes use of audio and video recordings as its primary data, such as the current study, the privacy of the participants is of even more significance. Therefore, it is imperative that the researcher assure the participants about the security of the records of their information. The December 1992 issue of the American Psychologist (Vol. 47, pp. 1597-1611) established ethical standards for the reporting and publishing of participants' information for all varieties of research. For similar reasons of protection of the participants' information, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) (2002) compulsorily requires researchers to obtain written consent from all participants to their research. It must be ensured that all participants willfully provide their consent without being or feeling coerced or pressured in

any way by the researcher or the research environment. The following paragraph begins with an explanation of the ethical principles that guide this study and is followed by an outline of how those principles were applied in the accomplishment of this research project.

Every researcher must be responsible for the confidential rights of their participants. Researchers should try to minimize intrusion on the participants' privacy. During data collection, it is crucial that only information that is relevant and essential for the research project itself be collected. In other words, researchers should not make any further contact with the participants who are to any extent related to the data. Similarly, researchers should undertake full responsibility for the collected data in transfer, storage, and eventual disposal. It is essential for any researcher or research team to know and to follow the ethical standards set by their professional organizations and institutions, and to observe the laws concerning the protection of personal information. During the data observation and analysis stage, researchers might need to consult with colleagues concerning analysis of their data. In doing so, the researchers should not share any confidential information of the participants since it might lead to the identification of certain participants by other observers. Thus, in producing and sharing the information in the form of a database, the data become available to other persons whose access is known to the participants. In such cases, the researcher needs to make use of certain techniques or coding systems so that personal identifying information is not included in the data bank. In other words, consultation with colleagues should be limited to the extent of data analysis but not to the identification of participants.

Signed informed consent forms are an essential part of any ethically based research project in which human participants partake. Researchers should obtain a signed informed-consent form from the participants where the language of the informed consent form should be readily understandable to the participants. Prospective participants must be given the absolute right to participate or not participate in the research. Furthermore, it is

mandatory to disclose the participants that their participation/non-participation would not affect their evaluation. That is to say, the participants should be freely allowed to participate, not participate, or withdraw from the research at any time, and that their choice should have no deleterious effects. All participants should be provided accurate information about the research proposals and the research should strictly follow the proposal approved by the research participants. In protecting the privacy of the participants, the researchers should pay full attention to maintaining the environmental validity of the site.

During the process of this research too, the ethical standards discussed above were carefully followed. All the participants were informed about the research project and were assured of their privacy. They were informed of the objective of the research and the application of the data. They were also informed that the video would be viewed by only professionals, such as university professors, researchers, and scholars. All teachers and students participating in the recorded classrooms were aware of the purpose for which the researcher was video-recording the interaction. The teachers were informed that the purpose of the research was not to judge their teaching abilities, and the students were assured that their language production would not be judged and that their grades for the course would not be affected by the data collection or analysis. To maintain the environmental validity of the classroom context, the data collection was conducted by recording only what was already scheduled so that it did not have a negative impact on the natural environment of interaction and the regular class time. The natural order of interaction and time was protected by the data collectors' setting up of the cameras before the beginning of the lessons.

After a detailed explanation of the data use and a guarantee of the participants' privacy by the researcher, the participants voluntarily provided their agreement to participate with signed consent forms. To make the written consent form easily understandable to the participants, a translated version of the consent form was provided. Along with the English

version of the consent forms, in the Nepalese classes a Nepalese version of the consent form was provided and in the Japanese classes a Japanese version of the consent form was provided. A sample of each version of the written consent form is presented in Appendix B, C, and C.

4.5. Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which the results of a study are consistent over different observations. In both quantitative and qualitative studies, the key concept of reliability is consistency. In quantitative studies, Bryman (2001) argues that the quality of research is based on the extent to which the findings of a research project are repeatable and replicable. Kirk and Miller (1986) suggest that reliability in quantitative studies relies on three basic concepts: (a) the degree to which a measurement, given repeatedly, remains the same, (b) the stability of a measurement over time, and (c) the similarity of measurements within a given time period (pp. 41-42). Whereas, in qualitative studies, Stiles (1993) describes one fundamental aspect of reliability is its trustworthiness (p. 624). By trustworthiness, Stiles refers to grounding the interpretations with relevant examples from the data set under consideration to support the results. Thus, the underlying concept of reliability is consistency. Reliability of a study can be observed through two basic ways: internal reliability and external reliability. Internal reliability is associated with the consistent nature of the collection of data, analysis, and interpretation. The central issue that internal reliability addresses is the possibility of achievement of the same conclusion upon analyzing the exact same data set by another researcher. In quantitative research this is often achieved through an inter-rater reliability co-efficient. External reliability is concerned with the extent to which other researchers can replicate the study in question on a different data set and achieve comparable results.

CA employs the participants' emic perspective (Pike, 1954) in understanding naturally occurring interaction. Therefore, the procedures and practices applied in this field are rather different from the practices observed in other studies in the social sciences (Perakyla, 1997). The methodological issues in conversation analytic studies are understood from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives. Conversation analytic research is qualitative because it performs detailed analysis of single case phenomenon. Previously, some CA researchers have discussed the methodological issues to create a mutual relationship between other branches of social sciences and conversation analysis and to facilitate the non-CA readers understand the methodological aspects.

In relation to internal reliability in CA studies, researchers pay great attention in discussing the data collection procedure, the transcribing process, and the appropriateness of the selected phenomenon from the transcripts. Such transparency in data collection procedure and the transcripts helps the readers to judge the researchers' interpretation of their analysis. In addition to this, in the process of building up the analyses of data, it is a common tradition for CA practitioners to present the data in a number of data sessions where other practitioners confirm or revise the transcript as well as the analysis. Similarly, external reliability in CA studies is established with the availability of the transcripts analyzed by the researchers. In contrast to many other research methodologies, CA studies present their primary data in their publications, which can be publicly scrutinized to check the reliability of the conclusions. This provides other researchers with a basis for judging the consistency of the data analysis.

In keeping with the CA practices, the transcripts analyzed in this study display instances with similar features from a large data set. In the process of writing my analysis, I repeatedly presented the data in various data sessions and discussed among CA experts. The consistency of the interpretations is achieved by incorporating the ideas from qualified practitioners and revising my analysis accordingly. Besides the discussion and analysis, it is

possible for other researchers to reanalyze the data because of the availability of the transcripts of the excerpts used in this study.

4.6. Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which a measurement precisely represents the concept it attempts to measure. In other words, it signifies the way of assessing the ability of research tools used to measure the phenomenon under scrutiny (Punch, 1998). It also refers to the extent to which the results of a study are precisely interpreted. Bryman (2001, p. 30) classifies validity into four different categories: (a) internal validity, (b) external validity, (c) ecological validity, and (d) construct validity. The following paragraph outlines the first two types, internal validity and external validity, which are relevant to conversation analytic studies. Then, I conclude with a short note on the ecological validity of this study. However, construct validity is not considered here as CA examines the data directly rather than constructing measures of abstract concepts.

Internal validity refers to the soundness of the research, integrity of analysis, and the credibility of outcomes. Expanding quantitative research terminologies to qualitative studies, Le Compte and Goetz (1982) discuss the way in which internal validity is concerned with "the extent to which scientific observations and measurements are authentic representations of some reality" (p. 32). In CA studies, internal validity is ensured through the emic perspective (Pike, 1954) in the data analysis. Through the emic perspective, analysts develop an understanding of the interaction through the participants' perspective as demonstrated by their responses to previous actions and avoid any subjective interpretations. The participants' action is interpreted in reference to the interactional organization, which is fully described in Sacks et al. (1974), where the researchers relate the interpretation to an understanding made by the participants through a process termed the "next-turn proof procedure" (p. 729).

Analysts in CA studies do not make any further claims beyond the interactional details demonstrated by the participants. Thus, through the emic perspective of analysis, CA practitioners ensure that the observations they make are actual, authentic representations of reality. Ten Have (1999) explains some aspects that are necessary to maintain validity in CA studies. They are: (a) focusing on the minute interactional detail, (b) avoiding exogenous theories to explain the interaction, and (c) refusing the external context in interpreting the interaction. Similarly, Hosoda (2002) discusses some features of CA studies that ensure validity. First, researchers in CA studies conduct unmotivated observation of the data prior to their decision on what to analyze. Thus, instead of a prior decision on what to analyze, the focus of analysis arises from repeated observation of the data. Second, during the process of analysis, the researchers repeatedly listen to and watch the audio and video of the selected phenomenon under consideration, which helps to obtain more valid and precise findings. Third, it is a common practice for CA researchers to analyze all interactions as based on the participants' perspective. In other words, the reports of CA studies are based on the participants' understanding of their co-participants' talk and actions but not the analysts' interpretations. Furthermore, CA studies place major importance on using data from natural settings to guarantee the credibility and ecological validity (discussed below) of the research findings. Finally, deviant case analysis, which refers to analyzing the instances that are distinct from the common collection, is an important process that the majority of CA studies incorporate. Examining uncommon instances also helps to establish the validity of the studies. Paying attention to the deviant cases facilitates the researchers in forming a more general understanding that embodies both the regular cases and the irregular cases, thus, an alternative approach in understanding (Schegloff, 1968). In other words, observing cases that deviate from regular practices demonstrates a different aspect of reality and at the same time a deeper level of understanding.

External validity refers to the extent to which the findings of a study can be generalized to a distinct population outside of the study's specific context. Qualitative studies are generally criticized for their weakness in external validity because of their context-specific nature. However, Perakyla (1997) argues in favor of the generalizability of CA studies and points out that generalizability "is closely dependent on the type of conversation analytic research" (p. 214). That is to say, by performing a case-by-case analysis of single case instances, the objective of CA studies is to develop an understanding of all relevant phenomena in general. Furthermore, as outlined by Sacks et al. (1974), the interest of CA researchers lies "in finding mechanisms which operate on a 'case-by-case' (or environment-by-environment) basis, yielding as a by-product some observable orderliness for aggregates" (p. 362). Specifically, CA studies focus on uncovering the orderliness of specific phenomenon that may be deployed by interactants in other contexts.

Ecological validity is related to the applicability of the findings to everyday life. CA studies, along with this study, are considered to be strong in terms of ecological validity because CA practitioners record data in its everyday natural environment. During the collection of data, the ecology of the site is maintained since the classes were recorded as they occurred without manipulation of any variables or preparation of special materials or teaching methods outside of what would ordinarily be found in the classroom.

4.7. Generalizability

Generalizability refers to a process of establishing inferences in research through their applicability to a larger population. Generalizability in qualitative research is understood as transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In other words, generalizability signifies the connection between one study and its larger context. Adopting qualitative methods of analysis, CA studies do not attempt to establish generalizability in terms of the frequency of

analyzed instances, but adopt a deep description of the focal phenomenon. As Sacks et al. (1974) suggested, researchers in CA studies look for natural instances, which represent the whole. In addition, CA studies insist on using data from audio or video recordings of naturally occurring non-experimental environments. Thus, the data from a naturally occurring environment "exposes the observer to a wide range of interactional materials and circumstances and also provides some guarantee that analytic conclusions will not arise as artifacts of intuitive idiosyncracy, selective attention or recollection or experimental design" (Heritage & Atkinson, 1984, p. 4). Furthermore, CA studies do not establish generalizability on the basis of statistics randomly drawing on participants from larger populations to act as a sample population, but work to provide a descriptive account of the interactional procedures. Discussing generalizability in CA studies, ten Have (1999) notes that:

1) The ultimate 'results' of CA are a set of formulated 'rules' or 'principles,' which participants are demonstrably oriented to in the natural interactions.
2) The way to arrive at such results is to analyze singular instances, formulate rules, and 'test' these with comparable other instances (pp. 135-136).

To summarize, one of the core objectives of CA study is to uncover the structure of orderliness underlying social interaction. Regarding the study reported here, the extracts represent a number of instances so that other analysts can see that the phenomenon is comparable with other instances as comparability is the key concept to generalizability in CA. Furthermore, I will refer to previous research in classroom interaction to provide a generalized perspective of the data under consideration. In line with CA studies, this study also aims to generalize the findings in terms of its relation with previous studies, and with the presentation of my analysis on the data from naturally occurring instances.

CHAPTER V

EXTENDED-TELLING SEQUENCES

5.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on the extended telling sequences observed in the Japanese and Nepalese English as a foreign language classroom observed for this study. The opening section reviews some traditional features of teacher talk and then outlines the features of teacher talk observed in the current data set. The analysis stresses, in discussing one of the common features of teacher talk, extended tellings. Within the extended telling sequences, examples from two different phenomena are presented. The two phenomena explicated through the observation and analysis of the data include: (a) extended-telling sequences as a normal practice of teacher talk, and (b) extended-telling sequences in the form of storytellings. With the examples, the analysis will highlight the association of extended tellings to a specific pedagogical focus, and consequently, to publicly demonstrated student understanding.

The following section of this chapter includes three sub-sections. The first section presents a brief overview of teacher talk. It explicates some of the features of teacher talk and that talk's relationship with the observed classroom organization. The second section presents examples of extended telling sequences as one method of teacher talk observed in the data under analysis. Finally, the third section presents one example of an extended telling in the form of a storytelling and looks at what work it accomplishes in the classroom interaction.

5.2. Overview of Teacher Talk

This section primarily provides a brief overview of teacher talk reported in the more general classroom interaction research outside of the purview of conversation analysis.

Scholarly analysis of teacher talk, for example Krashen and Terrell (1983) reported that teacher talk could be considered as caretaker speech or foreigner talk in the language classrooms. They further explain that teacher talk includes distinct characteristics, such as: (a) an orientation towards communicating with the learners, (b) modification in the language with abundant cases of repetitions and slower rate speech, and (c) minimized complexity to address learners' proficiency level. Similarly, Long (1980, 1983) found that classroom interaction includes instances of comprehension and confirmation checks from the teachers and clarification requests from the students. In addition to these studies, Wesche and Ready (1985) conducted a descriptive study of classroom interaction and highlighted various aspects of teacher talk. The features of teacher talk they describe include: (a) speech rate, (b) duration and frequency of pauses, (c) number of tensed verbs, (d) occurrences of imperatives and repetition, and (e) the amount of nonverbal information. In other words, teacher talk has been observed to be slower in rate with frequent and longer pauses and the use of more tensed verbs as opposed to auxiliary and infinitive verbs. Furthermore, teachers tend to use imperatives in providing model utterances to students and to provide directives along with gestures in managing the overall interaction.

In line with Wesche and Ready (1985), Chaudron (1988) reviewed a large number of descriptive studies analyzing teacher talk and highlighted some of its more common features. The features Chaudron (1988) proposed as commonly occurring in classroom talk include the following aspects: (a) slower speech, (b) frequent and longer pauses, (c) exaggerated and simplified pronunciation, (d) use of basic vocabulary, (e) slower degree of subordination, (f) use of more declaratives than questions, and (g) frequent self-repeats (p. 85). These proposed features distinguish teacher language from the common perspective of communicative aspects of language use in daily talk because language teachers deploy in the classroom is

more oriented to a specific and clearly identifiable pedagogical goal and manifests a pedagogical focus on a topic of immediate education relevance.

More recently, however, conversation analytic studies and those from adjacent fields with similar but slightly different research interests also target various aspects of teacher talk in second language classrooms (e.g. Brown, 2007; Carroll, 2005; Erickson, 1996; Ewert, 2009; Gardner, 2013; Markee, 2002; Walsh, 2002) but extended their interest to the interaction achieved among a teacher and their students. While many of the earlier descriptive studies focused on teacher talk per se, conversation analytic studies took a broader view by including the overall positions and processes found in classroom interaction, comprising the teacher talk, student talk, and turn-taking organization, which resulted in a more coherent understanding of the pragmatic features of teachers' language delivery, such as evaluating student utterances and providing relevant feedback, among others. Because of the distinct features related to the "distribution of knowledge, access to conversational resources, and to participation in the interaction" (Drew & Heritage, 1992, p. 49), classroom interaction is understood as a form of institutional talk where the teacher holds maximum control over the interaction. Since institutional features work to construct the actual institutions through the interaction, the turn-taking organization, the organization of sequences, and other basic aspects of interaction sometimes manifest a significantly different systemic organization in classroom interaction. As one of these varying features, this following section discusses the structural organization of sequences in classroom interaction.

5.3. Extended-Telling Sequences in Classroom Interaction

A well-researched aspect of the traditional teacher-fronted classroom is the three-part sequence of adjacency pairs and their expansions. In classrooms, the basic adjacency pair is expanded in the sense that teachers perform some further interactional work at the third turn.

For example, classroom interaction includes a teacher-initiated question in the first-pair part position, a student produced answer in the second-pair part position, and a teacher-produced follow-up move or evaluation in the third turn. This three-turn sequence has been variously termed as Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) (Mehan, 1979a), or Question-Answer-Comment (QAC) (McHoul, 1978), depending on the research paradigm under which it was studied. Recent conversation analytic studies of classroom interaction have also focused on analyzing these three-turn sequences and the complex forms they embody in varying classroom settings (e.g., Hellermann, 2003; Ko, 2005, 2014; Lee, 2007; Lerner, 1995; MacBeth, 2011; Mondada & Pekarek Doehler, 2004; among others). Though the pedagogical focus becomes visible through and around the three-turn sequence, teachers accomplish detailed interactional work to make the three-turn sequence relevant in the ongoing interactional context. However, previous research has emphasized less the importance of teacher-talk in the form of extended telling sequences. The following section focuses on such extended teacher-talk and its association with pedagogical objectives. In order to provide background for student comprehension, teachers sometimes deploy their talk in such a way as to fill in background knowledge to the teaching materials through various techniques, such as extended explanations and storytellings. When teachers initiate extended talk, the organization of the turns resembles the turn-taking system of storytelling as it is deployed in mundane interaction. Though the turn-taking system in storytelling and the turn-taking system in classroom interaction are for the most part similar, they at times vary in their interactional implications. In the following section of this chapter, I discuss two manifestations of multi-unit turns in the classroom, extended teacher talk and storytelling, and analyze how teachers utilize them as a means of employing language for fostering student understanding.

In various studies on narratives, it is basically assumed that the teller has certain actions to accomplish through the implementation of story structure. For example, Sacks (1978) explains that a joke-telling in a story structure is designed to implement specific social functions, such as confirming memberships, establishing hierarchies, and displaying understanding of social values rather than simply entertaining. Thus, stories are not designed just to entertain recipients, but are designed to accomplish certain objectives in the course of the talk (Schegloff, 1997). In institutional settings, the objective of the implementation is more apparent. Practices of storytelling in institutional contexts contribute to the construction of the setting as a relevant aspect of that particular institution. With data from two different cultural settings, this chapter looks at the deployment of extended tellings and its relevancy in one institutional setting, the classroom.

This section presents two forms of extended-telling sequences in classroom interaction. The first focuses on the teachers' use of an actual story from their experiences of daily life and the second type focuses on the teachers' use of teaching materials/resources as an exemplary story.

5.4. Extended-Telling Sequences as a form of Teacher Talk

In the examples presented below, the teachers use the form of extended talk as a strategy for describing the teaching materials being used at that point in the lesson and employ the extended telling to form a connection with the pedagogical focus. The following extract presents an instance of classroom interaction from a Nepalese English language classroom in which the teacher is providing a grammar lesson on the use of definite and indefinite articles. He verbally explains the usage of articles: definite for specific reference and indefinite for general reference. After his explanation, the teacher displays a picture of a boy and a girl on a piece of paper underneath which a dialogue that includes some model

sentences showing the use of definite and indefinite articles is written. He then pastes it on the blackboard. Following this, the teacher begins explaining what is in the picture, and uses this explanation to then explicate the grammar rule concerning the correct use of definite and indefinite articles. The following dialogue was written underneath picture:

Girl: Did you have anything for lunch?

Boy: Yes. I had an apple and a banana. The apple was good but I did not like the banana much.

```
Extract 1: [Article: Nepal]
01  T:    a:nd (.) now there are two (.) person yeah?
02        now: she is a girl.
03  Ss:   ye(h)s=
04  T:    = and
05  S1:   he [is a boy
06  T:       [he is a (.) boy.
07        now, they are talking about-
08        so, the girl asked did you have anything for lunch?
09        (.)
10        and, what does the boy reply?
11  Ss:   °yea[s. I had an apple °
12  T:        [yeas. I had an apple and a banana. and then
13        the apple was good. but I did not like?
14  Ss:   ba[nana much
15  T:     [banana.
16        (0.6)
17  T:    now[:
18  S2:      [I did not like the banana much sir.
19  T:    I did not like [the banana much.
20  S2:                  [°°(    ) correct sir.°°
21  T:    so:, now look at here. you know
22        I did not like the banana much.
23        now look at here
24  S2:   I had but not I have that now
25  T:    so, (.) now I will write here also.
((8 lines omitted during which the teacher writes the model sentences on the
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board while reading them.))

34 T: so: he said that I had an apple and a banana.
((underlines "an apple" and "a banana" in the model sentences on the blackboard))

35 now this is which meaning.

36 S3: general

37 Ss: general

38 T: general meaning or particular meaning.

39 Ss: general ((almost in unison))

40 T: general meaning. right.

41 yeah. a:nd I did not like the banana

42 but the apple was good.
((underlines "the banana" and "the apple" in the model sentences on the blackboard))

43 "the" (.) yeah "the". here "a" and "an"
((circles all the articles in the model sentences on the blackboard))

Before the interaction in this extract begins, the teacher orally introduces the topic of this lesson: the use of definite and indefinite articles. After introducing the topic, the teacher shows the students a picture on a piece of paper underneath which some model sentences with the use of definite and indefinite articles are written. In the beginning, he explains the visible physical aspects of the picture by describing the number of persons and their gender in the picture (lines 1-6). During these turns, the students collaborate to construct the turns. The teacher then initiates an explanation of the dialogic action occurring in the picture, in line 07, with third-person reference "they" when he says, "they are talking about-". However, he halts the third-person description, as the cut-off in line 07 signifies. After the cut-off, the teacher restarts with direct reference to the dialogue by describing what the girl said through reported speech. His direct reference begins when he says, "so, the girl asked" and his reading of the model sentence, "did you have anything for lunch" in line 08. In lines 08 to 19, the teacher displays the example sentence an extended-telling story structure. This description of the picture in an extended-telling story provides students with an opportunity to connect what is

being described with the model sentences in the picture rather than simply to listening to an oral description. Furthermore, when the teacher directly quotes what the girl and the boy in the picture say in lines 8, 12, and 13, the students have direct access to the model sentences in a visible as well as hearable manner, thus making the description explicit.

Once the description of the picture in the extended talk is completed with the teachers summarizing of what has been discussed with "so: he said that I had an apple and a banana." in line 34, the teacher starts relating his extended-description of the picture and the model sentences to the goal of his lesson. He does so by underlining the focal teaching points in the sentences he has copied from the picture on the board. He first underlines the definite articles "a banana" and "an apple" in line 34, and elicits student responses on the type of meaning they signify, i.e., general or specific. After the students collectively respond with "general" meaning, the teacher accepts by repetition and provides an explicit evaluation, "general meaning. right." in line 40. Then, in continuation of his action, the teacher underlines "the apple" and "the banana" in line 42 to demonstrate the other types of meaning of the grammatical element articles. Thus, with the act of demonstrating the example with the help of picture rather than simply describing it in his extended talk, the teacher makes an attempt to deepen student understanding as the description and the availability of the picture on the board help learners comprehend the description with relating it with the picture.

5.5. Extended-Telling Sequences in the form of Storytelling

One important point that became apparent through the analysis was how teachers orient to the need to provide background information to support student understanding through the initiation of storytelling structures in the course of their teaching. In teaching, when a teacher provides background information related to teaching goals, they sometimes employ a storytelling structure in an extended telling and this serves to outline their pedagogical goals.

In doing this, they produce the description in such a way that the teaching objectives become more comprehensible to their audience. The means by which this is achieved is made manifest in the details of the interaction. The conversation analytic term "extended-telling sequence" used in this section refers to any extended piece of narrative consisting of multi-unit turns that are taken by one speaker. Because of the manner of turn allocation and rights to participation in classroom, teachers occasionally take multi-unit extended turns that are built with a narrative structure. Thus, the term "story" in this paper does not refer to all kinds of narratives but to the specific narratives that teachers deploy from external sources and are then related to the pedagogical foci of the classroom. Alternatively stated, "story" in this paper represents the teachers' narrative that is provoked from the endeavors from the teachers' daily experiences, or teachers' narrative descriptions of the teaching materials as well as the instructions from the textbook. Thus, it includes a real story in the form of past tense as well as narratives with present tense structure.

This section presents examples where the teacher uses a personal story related to their everyday life experiences. The following extract comes from a Nepalese English language classroom where the teacher is teaching English by using a famous poem "*Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening*" by the American poet Robert Frost. The following interaction comes after the teacher finishes writing the title of the poem on the blackboard, which follows a greeting sequence. After writing the title, he moves on to explicate the meaning of the poem and introduces a story within a description.

```
Extract 2: [Poem: Nepal]
01  T:    before I begi:n (.) teaching this poem.
02        let me give you an example.
03        (0.4)
04        in fact what this poem is about (.) I'll tell you of course
05        before that、 (0.4) .hh ah:: let me tell you、
06        <today (.) like ah::- (.) I was about to come to school.
```

07 and it started raining, (0.6) alright?
08 even:: (0.6) when just a- as it started raining, and ah:
09 (.hhh) even some >sort of< cricket (0.8) was going on.=
10 = I mean to say people, like on television,
11 cricket match was going on. (.) India Pakistan.
12 (0.8)
13 are you getting my example?
14 SS: yes sir.=
15 T: I was not that very interested to come.
16 I was much more interested to watch the program
17 that (.) cricket competition (0.4) than
((7 lines omitted, during which the teacher describes his feelings, the cricket match on TV, and the weather.))
25 at first do your duty, it is an entertainment,
26 don't listen to it. go and teach.
27 and therefore I came.
28 look at my example. in my example,
29 (1.0)
30 I:: (.) did not stay at home,
31 I did not watch the cricket chat- t- cricket program.
32 simply because, (.) in front of me what was there.
33 there was my duty and there was my responsibility
34 (.hh) did you see this? on the one hand side
35 there was temptation.
36 watch cricket tv, watch cricket movi- ch- channel
37 watch this program. it is raining.
38 don't go. stay at home.
39 temptation was there. temptation remember?
40 a kind of greed. I was feeling greedy.
41 to stay at home. but again my heart said
42 my heart appealed, my heart urged
43 come on. let's not waste the time falling in such temptations.
44 because, first and foremost. fix your eyes at what-
45 SS: responsibility.
46 T: fix your eyes at your responsibility.
47 fix your eyes at your duty.
((20 lines omitted, during which the teacher informs the students that their final exam is coming soon and that they should be focused on studying as it is

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their duty.))
68 T:    okay. the:n (0.6) what I had discussed?
69       I had discussed about the,
70 S1:   theme
71 T:    theme of this very poem
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The above extract from classroom interaction presents one example of storytelling in classroom interaction. Before the interaction shown here begins, the teacher greets the students and writes the topic of the poem on the blackboard. As soon as the teacher finishes introducing the topic, he shifts to explain the meaning of the poem as a part of his teaching objective. However, he postpones explaining the meaning of the poem and provides some background to initiate a story and starts with "before I begi:n (.) teaching this poem let me give you an example." in lines 01 and 02. The teacher mentions that he is going to provide an example before teaching what the poem is about. At the point at which he says "let me give you an example.", he informs his pupils about why he is not at this moment teaching what the poem is about, and demonstrates his intentional delay in teaching the meaning of the poem by saying "in fact what this poem is about (.) I'll tell you of course" in line 04. By announcing his suspension of the explication of the meaning of the poem and by beginning with a pre-telling (Sacks, 1978; Terasaki, 1976), "let me give you an example.", he maintains the legitimacy of the story in this particular interactional position as he is making clear to the class that they need to hear this extended telling as related to the upcoming explication of the poem. However, unlike in mundane interaction, the teacher does not wait for a go-ahead response from the students. This suggests that teachers in classroom settings are able to exercise their interactional right to take multi-unit turns to accomplish certain pedagogical goals. His actual telling of the story begins from line 06 where he describes to the students his own story of how he was not interested in coming in to teach that day but wanted to watch

television instead. The teacher's telling comes to closure at line 27, where he demonstrates his transformation in terms of location (from home to school) and in terms of his psychological status (not willing to go to work to be at work) by saying "and therefore I came." In this way, he completes his story within the frame of line 06 and 27. With the explicit description of his own story comparable to the theme of the poem, the teacher designs his talk in a way in which the students can comprehend comparing the two stories, his story of wanting to watch the cricket game and the narrative in the poem. He explicitly treats his description as an example deployed in the interaction to overtly relate the phenomenon with the pedagogical focus through utterances such as "look at my example." in line 28, and "did you see this?" in line 34. Rather than describing the actual occurrences from the poem, he initiates a telling of his own story by calling student attention to it with "look at my example", and explains the situation he was in. He compares two varying options from his story (watching television and going to teach) as enjoying by himself, or fulfilling his social duties and responsibilities. Thus, through the inclusion of enjoyment and responsibility in his own story, he designs his story parallel to the story in the poem in which the poet describes his dilemma of whether to enjoy the beauty of nature, or proceed with his duties and responsibilities. Parallel to the poet in the poem, the teacher, through the deployment of his personal story, explains the theme of the poem "at first do your duty," in line 25, while informing the students of the need to be focused on social duties and responsibilities. The teacher further visualizes the events he described by animating his own heart as one of the characters in the story he reported. In lines 42 and 43, he quotes his own heart encouraging him to go for the responsibilities by saying, "my heart appealed, my heart urged." With this story structure, the teacher provides vivid description of the events he is describing to the students so that they can have comparably of the events described in the story, and by which the students could possibly grasp the meaning of the poem through the teacher's narrative in an easier way.

Similar to the two themes in the poem, enjoying natural beauty and fulfilling responsibilities, the teacher uses alternatives in his example too, enjoying the TV or teaching. After the overall explanation of the example and its connection to the theme of the poem, he delivers a known-answer question (Heritage, 2005; Hosoda, 2014; Lerner, 1995; Mehan, 1979b; Schegloff, 2007) "what I had discussed" (line 68) probably to check student comprehension of the extended-telling. However, as an answer does not occur in a timely manner, he deploys a designedly incomplete utterance (Koshik, 2002) in line 69 to elicit an answer by beginning the structure of a proper answer but leaving the target response term open before completion. Then, S1 provides the remaining item "theme" (line 70), which the teacher accepts by repetition and adds to it in line 71, making it a longer and fuller response. He successfully connects the theme of the poem through the description of his own story by mentioning that he had discussed the theme of the poem in this lesson. His checking of student comprehension at the end retrospectively signifies that the application of the story-telling structure is his attempt to assist student understanding of the poem, which is the publicly manifested teaching goal of this particular lesson.

5.6. Chapter Summary

This chapter highlighted one of the features of teacher talk as it appeared in English as a foreign language classroom interaction: extended-telling sequences. With a brief overview of the features of traditional teacher-fronted classrooms, the analysis predominantly brought to the fore two varieties of extended tellings: (a) extended telling as a normal teacher-talk phenomenon, and (b) extended-telling sequences in the form of personal stories. Though the data observed came from two cultural contexts, Japanese EFL context and Nepalese EFL context, the analysis revealed that teachers in the Nepalese EFL context tended to occasionally deploy extended tellings. Whereas, in the data set analyzed for this study there were no extended tellings found in the Japanese EFL context.

CHAPTER VI

QUESTION DESIGN

6.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I focus on analyzing the teachers' turn initiations that performed the action of questioning. Rather than determining the utterances as questions in terms of the linguistic/syntactic structure they take, the utterances are interpreted as questions in the light of the actions they accomplish in the sequences. The analysis follows basically focuses questions from two broad perspectives as they emerged from the data during explication through repeated observation and various data sessions. The two practices of questions that will be discussed below are: (a) questions in relation to sequential positions and actions, and (b) questions in terms of participants' possible knowledge. In what follows, I present examples of the two practices of questioning from both Japanese and Nepalese educational settings and analyze them in detail.

6.2. Analysis of Questions in Classrooms

6.2.1. Overview

As discussed in the literature review section of this dissertation, even though questions are well delineated in the linguistics literature, there are vast differences in how questions are specifically defined. Interrogatives are commonly classified as questions, but all interrogatives do not perform the function of questioning. Conversely, other syntactic forms in language also perform the function of questioning, as statements may also be deployed for a question. Instead of the prevalent linguistic approach to questions, CA studies define questions in terms of the actions an utterance perform on a sequential basis. Keeping to the CA tradition of analysis, this dissertation does not attempt to answer the question of what a

question is, but approaches questions as they have been analyzed, discussed, and understood in the CA literature: as actions.

It is visible through the analysis of empirical data that no single linguistic form can determine whether an utterance performs the action of questioning. Rather, questions are understood from their sequential position and their functional characteristics. In keeping with the approach taken by Freed and Ehrlich (2010, p. 6), this dissertation analyzes questions from their sequential context and the functions they accomplish in that interactional context. In other words, any utterance that (a) solicits (and/or is treated by a recipient as soliciting) information, confirmation, or action; and (b) is delivered in such a way as to create a slot for the recipient to produce a responsive turn, is understood as performing a questioning function. Moreover, teacher utterances are analyzed as questions only when students orient to an utterance as a question by actually demonstrating in and through the interaction as such. In other words, the action an utterance performs in conversation analytic studies is retrospectively based on the responses recipients provide. In line with these practices, the utterances in this study are considered to be questions based on the responses students provide because this demonstrates the recipients of the turns as a question. While the grammatical form and intonation of a turn may serve in marking an utterance as intended to perform the function of an interrogative, it is not always the case that it is taken that way by the recipient.

The section which follows presents some representative examples of questions in classroom interaction data under analysis in this dissertation. As discussed earlier, questions are understood in terms of their occurrence in a sequential context and the actions they perform. From a careful observation of the data, two practices emerged as representative of teacher questioning: (a) questions in relation to sequential position and actions, and (b) questions in terms of participants' possible knowledge. The first practice found in teacher

questioning, questions in relation to sequential positions and actions, were found to fall into subsections based on the actions teachers deployed. They are: (a) initiation of a sequence with a written question from the teaching materials, (b) initiation of a sequence with an online question, not from class materials, (c) initiation of a new sequence based on a previously asked question, and (d) pursuit of a response by a modified form of a question previously asked. Furthermore, the subsections in the second category, where knowledge-based questions occur, include known-answer questions, questions to which the questioner have prior information of the answer, and unknown-answer questions, questions to which the questioner possess no prior information. In the following section I discuss the questioning practices outlined above with examples provided from the data.

6.2.2. Questions in Relation to Sequential Positions and Actions

One noticeable aspect from among the extracts analyzed is the way teachers ask questions to elicit responses from students. As a normal practice in the classroom, teachers deploy questions to initiate sequences and to pursue responses. This feature becomes apparent in their occurrence in the sequential context and the orientation participants demonstrate to this aspect. In this section, questions in relation to sequential position and actions they perform are discussed, with representative examples from the classroom interaction data explicated. In the following section, the discussion focuses on analyzing questions in association with their occurrence in their related interactional context and the actions they perform.

6.2.2.1. Initiation of a Sequence with Written Questions from Teaching Materials

The following is one representative example where the teacher employs a question as it is written in the teaching materials, in this case a task worksheet. In this example, from a

high-school English language classroom in Japan, the teacher reads out a question from the worksheet that the students are currently working on and then begins to elicit responses from them concerning the worksheet questions. Before the talk shown in this extract began, the teacher assigned the students a reading task, for completion of which the students are required to answer the worksheet questions based on their reading of the assigned passage. The written question in the worksheet reads, "Is diversity important within the given species?" The target lines in the transcripts in this chapter and the next chapter, Chapters 6 and 7, are formatted with bold font face.

Extract 1: [Diversity1: Japan]

01	T:	okay. so let's check together
02		so question number one.
03	**T:**	**is <u>diversity</u> within the given species important.**
04		any ideas?
05		(3.5)
06	T:	come on
07		(3.0)
08	**T:**	**yes, no. and why?**
09		(1.0)
10	T:	any:: volunteers please
11		(2.0)
12		(this one)
13	T:	you wrote a lot of sentences.
14		okay. miss Sano please

The extract begins with the teacher announcing the upcoming activity: checking answers to the questions from the reading activity. He refers to the question number in line 02, and then reads the question, "is <u>diversity</u> within the given species important." thus signifying the question to be answered in this sequence, in the subsequent turn. In other words, he initiates an answer-checking activity with a question that the students are already familiar with as they

have it in written form. Since the students know the questions and have prepared the answers on their worksheets, by asking the question now, the teacher seems to want to make a public demonstration of the students' individual understanding and to share it with the whole class. After reading the question out loud, he invites student response with "any ideas?" in line 04, and then waits for a volunteer to answer. However, the students are not forthcoming with any response and a considerable silence ensues (3.5 seconds) in the next turn. The teacher addresses what he seems to construe as a missing response with a directive "come on" intoned with a touch of exasperation. As an immediate response is expected from the participants in a classroom setting, the teacher's utterance in line 06 is hearable as a complaint directed to all the students for not providing a quick response. Considering that they have already written the answer to the question on their worksheets, they should be able to reply promptly. What the question initially does here is only to request that the students read the written answers from the worksheets so that the answer is shared publicly. However, the absence of a response continues as another silence of 3 seconds occurs after the teacher's complaint.

Despite the fact that the students have a written answer, they do not provide an answer without delay when the teacher asks for one. The teacher treats the lack of response as a "sanctionable" matter (Heritage, 1998), and so, at the end of a 3-second silence, he adds the last part of the instruction from the worksheet onto the still-in-play question to indicate how the students are supposed to publicly answer. The addition of "yes, no. and why?" in line 08 suggests that the students need to reply to the polar options and to give a reason for their choice when publicly providing an answer. In addition to serving to clarify how the students should respond, the pursuit of answer by "yes, no. and why?" provides time for the students to process the content of the question before actually producing a response.

Similar to the example presented in Extract 1, the following extract also demonstrates how a teacher utilizes a written question from a textbook to initiate an activity. This classroom talk comes from a 9th grade Nepalese English as a foreign language classroom. During the talk shown in Extract 2, the teacher asks the students to look at a facsimile of a newspaper page printed in the textbook and to answer questions from that book that require them to scan the newspaper facsimile for pertinent information. This activity in the textbook includes a number of questions related to the newspaper. The question of concern from the textbook reads, "Where is this newspaper published?"

```
Extract 2: [Newspaper Location: Nepal]
01          looking at the front page (1.2) yes (0.8) we come to know tha:t
02          the name of the newspaper is,
03    Ss:   °the [rising°
04    T:          [the rising
05    Ss:    Nepal.=
06    T:     =Nepal.
07          (.)
08          and uh where is it published?
09          where do we publish this =the rising Nepal.
10    Ss:   (   )
11    T:    where?
12          (1.0)
13          it is published in,
14    Ss:   Kathman[du
15    T:            [Kathmandu yes.
16          it is published in
17    Ss:   (Kath[mandu)
18    T:          [Kathmandu.
```

The question sequence in the above extract occurs after the participants briefly observe the given facsimile page of a newspaper. As the example unfolds, the teacher initiates a

question-answer sequence with "where is it published?" in line 08 replacing the phrase "this newspaper" from the written question by a preposition "it" referring to the newspaper. As soon as the teacher completes reading the question, he moves on to revise it into "where do we publish this" and also provides the name of the newspaper, "=the rising Nepal." latched to the previous utterance. In other words, on his second production of the question, the teacher explicitly uses the name of the newspaper, saying "where do we publish this =the rising Nepal." in line 09. Subsequently, some of the students seem to be responding but it is not quite audible on the recording. It is not clear whether the teacher has heard what the students said at this turn. But it can be asserted that he treats the response as being insufficient, as demonstrated by his further step of eliciting a response by repeating the location elicitor "where" with rising intonation. In pursuing the response, the teacher performs two actions simultaneously: (a) with the application of a *wh*-word, he initiates an open-class repair that targets the problem of understanding what the students said in line 10, and (b) he focuses on the *wh*-word "where", thus making it apparent to the students that the question is looking for an answer in the form of a word that represents a location. Due to a seeming lack of student response in line 12, the teacher makes a further attempt at eliciting a response. After a silence of 1 second, he starts producing the answer turn "it is published in," with a semi-falling intonation and stops before it is complete. Upon stopping just before the target information, which is a place name, the teacher designs his turn as an incomplete utterance, thus leaving the empty slot open for the students to complete (Koshik, 2002). At this point, after the teacher modifies his original content question into a designedly incomplete utterance, the students provide a response, "Kathmandu", in line 14, which the teacher immediately acknowledges through repetition and evaluates with a token of acceptance, "yes." Once the question-answer pattern is completed, both of the parties, the teacher and the students, repeat

and redo the previous sequence that was accomplished in lines 13 to 15 and thus register the completion of their activity before moving on to a next activity.

The turns outlined above provide another example of teacher initiation of a sequence that is based on a written question from the teaching materials. Similar to the phenomenon presented in Extract 1, Extract 2 also presents the feature that the sequence initiated with a written question requires further moves and more interactional work on the teacher's side in order to elicit student responses. In addition, in this spate of talk also the teacher appears to focus on pursuing a missing response through varying strategies of question design. In spite of the changes in building the question, he regularly demonstrates that the attempts of eliciting answers are based on the initial question he asked from the textbook. In the beginning, he initiates repair (Drew, 1997; Schegloff et al., 1977) with "where", apparently so that the he can draw the students' attention to the focal aspect of the question in that they are supposed to provide a place name for it to be an appropriate answer. Later, as the response continues to be absent, he takes a next move in asking the question and deploys a designedly incomplete utterance (Koshik, 2002), and thus creates a slot within which the students can complete his utterance. In other words, all of the modifications made to each questions in the talk in Extract 2 also appear to make the initial questions more explicit when pursuing a student response.

The examples presented so far showcased the teachers' additional interactional work in eliciting answers when they initiate sequences based on a written question from the teaching materials, while additional interactional work is at times deemed to be necessary in order to elicit student responses in a timely manner. As observed in the last extract, teachers do not always read out the exact written form of the question but add some information or modify some of the elements in the question, such as the replacement of "this newspaper" with a

preposition "it" in line 08 in the previous extract. The next extract also showcases similar features to those observed in the previous extract. In this extract, as the response occurs in a timely manner, the teacher does not perform extra interactional work, but closes the sequence by accepting the answer and making it publicly available to the whole class.

The next extract under consideration comes from a Japanese English as a foreign language classroom. In this lesson, the teacher is checking the students' understanding of the reading activity they had just completed. The teacher goes over the topic and reminds the students that the story is about an exhibition; and the question the students are required to answer is about the number of pictures in the exhibition. The question as found on the worksheet is, "How many photographs does it have?" The teacher's eye gaze towards the worksheet and the tone of production of the utterance suggests the teacher is reading the question out loud.

Extract 3: [How Many Pictures: Japan]

01		okay. first I (will) ask you questions.
02		↑this is the story about exhibition.
03		**how many (0.2) photographs (0.2) how many pictures (.) does it have.**
04		(4.0)
05		anyone.
06	S1:	°three hundred pictures°
07	T:	yes. thank you. three hundred pictures. three hundred photographs
08		<we have three hundred photographs in this (lesson).
09		okay. (I'll ask you again)

This spate of talk begins with the teacher's brief description of his plan for this lesson as he explains that he is going to ask questions concerning the story about an exhibition that the students have just read "this is the story about exhibition." As the interaction in the above extract unfolds, the teacher recaps the information about the reading and initiates a

question-answer sequence with "how many (0.2) photographs (0.2) how many pictures (.) does it have." Although "photographs" is replaced with the superordinate "pictures", this inquiry, " how many (0.2) photographs (0.2) how many pictures (.) does it have." reflects the question "How many pictures does it have?" from the worksheet. By reading the question provided, the teacher makes it publicly available. One outcome of this is that any student from the class may volunteer to provide an answer. It is important to note in this extract that while reading the written question, his utterance displays some typical features of teacher questions. The features include (a) stress in the production of "many", (b) lexical items related in superordinate and subordinate position ("photographs" and "pictures") that seem to make it simpler for the students to understand in that it moves from infrequent to more frequently words, and (c) pauses. These features play fundamentally important roles in making the question clear in the sense that the focus on "how many" clarifies the question in that the students need to provide a value in their answer that complies with "many" in the question. Furthermore, use of varying vocabulary within a semantic category, and the application of multiple pauses, serves to simplify the question, possibly making it easier for the students to comprehend, and may be also to respond to.

After the production of the question, with a different level of lexical items, the teacher says "anyone" in line 04, calling on any student to voluntarily and publicly provide an answer. S1 responds to this by producing "°three hundred pictures°" in line 06 in a quiet voice but loud enough for the teacher to interpret the appropriateness of the student response, and the teacher does so in the subsequent turn. As the student provides the answer that complies with the "how many" of the question, the teacher shows appreciation for the answer from the student, acknowledges the student's answer, upgrades it, and then produces it in a full-length sentence "yes. thank you. three hundred pictures. three hundred photographs" in line 07. Moreover, the explanation formatted in a full sentence, "<we have three hundred photographs

in this (lesson).", in the next line, makes it publicly available for the whole class. The following figure graphically illustrates the lexical order of the interaction observed in Extract 3. This shows the teacher's reformulation of the lexical item by replacing "photographs" with a higher frequency lexical item, "pictures." Then, upon receiving an answer from a student in which the student uses a simpler lexical item, the teacher goes back to replace "pictures" with "photographs", and thus links it back to the original question.

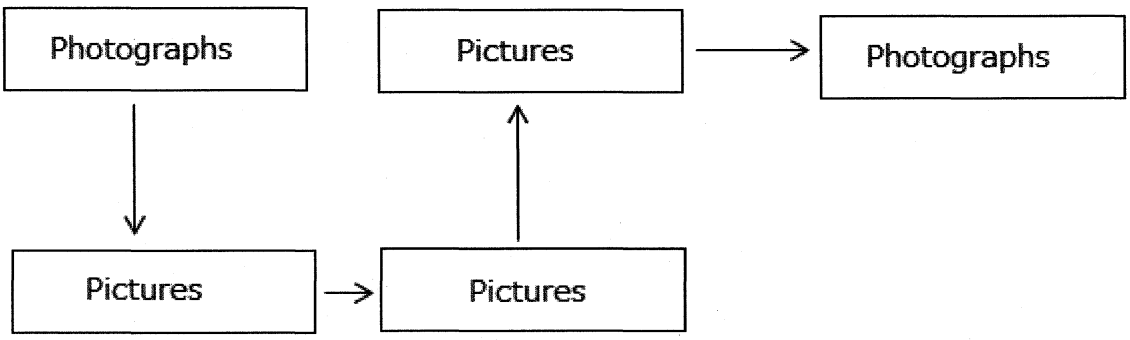

Figure 3

Lexical Order Found in Extract 3

Similar to the interaction observed in Extract 2, this extract further exhibits how teachers make use of a written question in initiating sequences that include student responses. In producing the written questions publicly, the teachers here tend to focus on the delivery, such as stress, vocabulary, and pauses. Utterances that utilize these features aid in simplifying or at least making the question more salient. Thus it can be argued that the teacher is attempting to make the question more easily comprehensible for the students. However, the extra interactional work taken after production of a question is undertaken only when response does not occur in a timely manner: timely it seems for the teacher.

In addition to the extracts discussed above, the subsequent extract (which occurs later in the same lesson from which Extract 3 was taken) further illustrates the interactional work

teachers do to initiate sequences and pursue responses through deployment of questions from classroom teaching materials. The classroom management the teacher is doing in the following extract is checking the students' understanding of the reading task they have recently completed. The sequence-initiating question "what do those pictures show," is written on the worksheet; the teacher reads the question publicly during the course of the talk he produces.

```
Extract 4: [What Do They Show: Japan]
06  T:    yes. thank you. three hundred pictures. three hundred photographs
07        <we have three hundred photographs in this (lesson).
08        okay. I'll ask you again.
09        what do those pictures show.
10        (5.4)
11        what do they show.
12        (0.4) ((S2 self-selects by raising her hand))
13        °°(okay)°°
14  S2:   °(something of the) history of the past century.°
15  T:    yes. something of (.) the history.
16        of the past century.
```

The extract above begins after the teacher closes the question-answer checking sequence shown in Extract 3. Subsequent to completing an understanding check concerning a previous question, he mentions that he is going to elicit ask another question. It is clear from the pattern of questions prior to this example that he is doing so to check the students' understanding and to make the answer publicly available. As he publicly manifests his plan (line 08), he produces a written question from the textbook verbally so that it is hearable to the entire class and then waits for a student response to occur. However, none of the students volunteer for an answer during the 5.4 seconds of silence in line 10. Subsequently, the teacher asks almost the same question again in line 11 but this time replaces "those pictures" with a preposition "they" displaying his public interpretation that the students know what he is

refereeing to but taking time to have some students self-select to volunteer for an answer as evinced by his gazing towards to the students. While the teacher is waiting for a student to volunteer, S2 self-selects to answer and the teacher allocates a turn to that student by saying "°°(okay)°°" in a very quiet voice. After receiving permission from the teacher to respond, S2, in line 14, provides a candidate answer to the question the teacher asked in line 09 with "°(some of the) history of the past century.°" Once S2 proffers the answer, the teacher accepts it with an affirmative response token "yes." and repeats it so that it is publically available to the whole class. In his repetition, the teacher characterizes his utterance with specific features, such as increased volume, and raised eye gaze so that his utterance is displayed as addressing all the students in the class.

This extract resembles Extract 2, above, in terms of its characteristic features. Similar to Extract 3, in the beginning, the teacher reads the written question to introduce an item from the textbook, and waits for a response. As a student response does not occur in a timely manner, as evidenced by the lengthy pause, he restates the question but changes the parts of speech of some of the lexical items in that question. In other words, the teacher performs extra interactional work to elicit student responses when there is an absence of timely and requisite participation.

Teaching materials play a vital role in the accomplishment of teaching activities in classroom contexts. The extracts and participants' orientations found within how teachers make use of the information found in teaching materials utilized in educational activities to initiate classroom actions. Particularly, the main aspect emerging from the interaction presented in the extracts above provides evidences of a practice that the teachers initiate question sequences based on instructional materials. Apparently, as they are from the classroom materials, the questions are already known to the students, but by reading the questions, first, the teachers make the questions publically available to the whole class, and

then, the delivery of production such as, the stresses, the pauses, and other typical features deepens the comprehensibility of the questions. However, the questions teachers ask do not always come directly from the assigned textbooks or worksheets. Teachers equally marshal online questions asked in relation to the local context of a particular interaction and based on the sequential environment in which they occur. The following section showcases some examples of this type and discusses them in their sequential relevancy and the actions they accomplish in the educational context.

6.2.2.2. Initiation of a Sequence with an On-line Question

The previous section focused on how teachers draw on a written question to initiate a sequence in the course of instruction. However, not all of the question initiations by teachers were based on sources available in the teaching materials. A great deal of sequence initiation in classroom interaction is based on the teachers' moment-by-moment tactical decisions. This section focuses on analyzing the online questions that teachers deploy in pursuing responses and confirming student understanding.

The extract below comes from a Nepalese EFL classroom where the teacher is teaching the grammar point of using appropriate verb forms for specific subjects. Ergo, the focal aspect of the grammar lesson is "subject-verb agreement." In other words, the teacher's focus as found in the interaction is to provide sufficient instruction to the students on how to use singular and plural verbs so that they match to the singularity or plurality of their subjects.

```
Extract 5: [Kaushal Concord: Nepal]
01   T:    an::d wait please. (0.6) before concord,
02         what you have to know is.
03         do you know meaning of SSPP.
04   S1:   SS[PP
05   S3:     [°yes° sir.=
06   T:    =SS[PP,
```

07 S1: [singular subject singular verb plural subject plural verb.
08 Ss: [singular subject singular verb plural subject plural verb.
09 T: plural subject plural verb

As the sequences of talk in this extract unfolds, the teacher starts with a specific grammatical term "concord". But it appears to us as analyst, from the part of his talk where he says "before concord, what you have to know is." that he has something more to do before he starts teaching about concord. Thus, in line 01, he stops the continuation verbally with a seemingly self-directed directive "wait please." which is hearable as spoken more to himself. He then explains the grammatical aspect the class is expected to know before he moves on with his teaching. In other words, he diverts the course of the interaction before he proceeds with the planned target of this lesson. The question "do you know meaning of SSPP." in line 03 provides direct evidence that the teacher is trying to confirm the key term "SSPP", as his further action evinces that this term will be the focal aspect of this spate of talk. Once he asks the question, S1 acknowledges it by repeating the initialism "SSPP" (line 04), and S3 responds with an affirmative response marked with a term of respect "°yes° sir." in line 05. While S1 simply acknowledges the question, S3 does provide an answer, but the teacher treats this response as being somehow insufficient. S3's response "°yes° sir." is aligning with the action initiated by the polar question "do you know meaning of SSPP." as polar questions make either a yes-answer or a no-answer conditionally relevant (Raymond, 2003). However, despite the form the question takes, the teacher is not only looking for a preferred yes-answer, but as the subsequent talk by the teacher indicates, he also expects an elaborated response from the students on what "S-S-P-P" means. The teacher's repetition of "SSPP," with continuing intonation as signified by the semi-falling intonation contour marked by a comma in line 06, suggests that he is looking for something more from the students. The continuing intonation and the repetition of the last and the target part of his question shows in its clear design that the teacher is still in search of a response that will explain what the initialism

means. At this time, S1, along with some other students, interpret the teacher utterance as a request for explication of the initialism and produce the full form of "SSPP" as "singular subject singular verb plural subject plural verb." in lines 07 and 08. Once the students produce the full form answer for the teacher's question, the teacher accepts and acknowledges the response by partially repeating the students' response. The teacher closes the sequence by repeating "plural subject plural verb" so that it is apparent to the students that their answer is accepted and positively evaluated (Bolden, 2009; Schegloff, 2000; Stivers, 2005).

The instance in Extract 5 above demonstrated an example where a teacher question is related to the action it performed in the sequential context. In this instance, the teacher asks a question based on contingencies in the course of conducting classroom activities. The teacher initiates one classroom activity but suddenly experiences a necessity of confirming some other information and then initiates a question-answer sequence with a question that would check the information he seems to want to confirm. After the initiation of the question-answer sequence, the interaction centers on eliciting and evaluating student responses for the question asked.

In addition to the example presented in the previous extract, the following instance further showcases the phenomenon in which the teacher deploys a question on a moment-by-moment basis. The instance presented here comes from a Nepalese EFL classroom context and occurs late in the class session, after the interaction presented in the previous extract. After discussing the grammar point "subject-verb agreement", the teacher continues with discussion of specific details on how to make a plural subject as a general grammatical rule. In the transcript below, the individual capital letters within single quotes are transcript conventions that indicate that the letters are being spoken individually to indicate spelling.

Extract 6: [Kaushal Plural: Nepal]

01 T: to make a subject plural, you have to do what.
02 (0.4)
03 how to make plural to the subject?
04 (1.0)
05 S7: 'S' or 'E-S'.=
06 S1: =( )
07 T: huh?
08 S7: 'S' or ['E-S'.
09 S1: [by adding 'E-S' or 'S' we-=
10 T: =yeah. we can makes- yeah we can make 'S' plus- 'S' means subject.
11 S1: subject plus:,
12 T: plus 'S' or [(.) 'E-S'
13 S1: ['E-S'
14 T: it turns out to be,
15 Ss: plural. ((almost in unison))
16 T: plural.

The phenomenon in above extract expands the feature where the teacher produces a question in the course of their production to elicit student understanding. Based on the pedagogical objective that focuses on the discussion of a grammar point about singularity and plurality of subjects and verbs in a sentence, the teacher now moves to check whether the students know the rule to change singular subjects to their plural form. As the interaction unfolds, the teacher submits a question to the class as a whole "to make a subject plural, you have to do what." and waits for student responses. The teacher designs his question in line 01 in a form that is syntactically non-canonical because he places the *wh*-words "you have to do what." at the turn-terminal position (Hellermann, 2005). This design resembles a regular practice that teachers deploy in turn design of classroom talk that teachers will sometimes add increments to prior elicitations, ask a question by positioning a *wh*-words at the turn-terminal. In spite of representing the typical strategy of classroom talk, this utterance appears to have a void grammatical structure because the formal register would be "what do you have to do." In this

sort of delivery, the usual social practice also becomes visible in this utterance because teachers in Nepalese EFL classrooms regularly use this structure in quoting, receiving the effect of the first-language, that is, Nepalese.

It is a general practice in conversation that upon initiation of a sequence, an appropriate response from the recipients becomes necessary and the recipients are obliged to do so in the second turn (Schegloff, 2007). However, in the data excerpt presented above, an answer does not occur as a response to the question the teacher posited in line 01 as the interaction results in a 0.4 second silence following the question. The teacher re-initiates the question-answer sequence with a different question design after the silence. The fact that he redesigns the question shows that he is treating the non-occurrence of response as a problem of understanding rather than hearing the question. In re-initiating the question-answer sequence, he makes some changes in the question design. First, he changes the syntactic form by bringing the *wh*-word into the term-initial position "how to make plural to the subject?" in line 03. Second, he modifies the "what" question to a "how" form. With the modification of a "what" question to a "how" format, he is possibly clarifying the action of his turn that requests an answer in specific linguistic form that describes the grammatical rule of transforming nouns/subjects into their plural forms. In spite of the changes in the repeated attempts of the teacher in pursuing a response, no response occurs in a timely manner and the interaction results in a 1.0 second silence in line 04. While the teacher is waiting for a student to volunteer, S7 speaks up to take a turn and says, "'S' or 'E-S'." Immediately after S7, S1 also produces a turn at talk but that turn is not clear on the tape. In other words, some students do take a turn to volunteer and provide responses after the silence of 1.0 second. In spite of the responses, the teacher does not treat the response as a sufficient response, as the open-class repair-initiator "huh?" (Drew, 1997) in line 07 suggests. Orienting to the open-class repair initiation, S7, in line 08, repeats the response he produced in line 05. In doing this, he treats

the teacher's utterance "huh?" as a repair initiation displaying a problem of hearing and thus repeats his previously produced utterance. Similarly, S1, whose turn was not hearable in line 06, also produces an utterance in line 09 and is hearable this time. S1's response "by adding 'E-S' or 'S' we-=" in line 09 resembles an elaborated form of what S7 produced in lines 05 and 08, though with the order reversed. As soon as S1 provides an answer, the teacher receipts the response with "yeah" in line 10 and then paraphrases the response and shares it with all of the students. Once he picks up a possible answer from one particular student, the teacher makes this answer publicly available and seeks the understanding of the whole class on it. In this extract, the teacher accepts the answer, paraphrases it to fit in the context, and seeks all of the students understanding through a designedly incomplete utterance (Koshik, 2002) "it turns out to be," in line 14. The students collectively complete the teacher's utterance by adding "plural" in the next line, and the teacher receipts student completion by repeating it and closes the sequence.

In accordance with the previous example, where the teacher initiated a sequence with a question asked to pursue responses based on online contingencies, Extract 6 above also demonstrates how the teacher deployed questions to check student understanding on the activity they were carrying out. In other words, teachers initiated question-answer sequences so that they could confirm the students' present status of knowledge in order to further develop the direction of the lesson. For example in Extract 6, the teacher checked the students' knowledge on the grammatical rule of changing subjects from singular to plural before he actually assigned them to carry out the planned class activities. Thus, he initiated the talk with a question related to the grammatical rule in focus, elicited responses from the students, evaluated them, and shared the answers with the whole class before the sequence was closed.

Adding on to the features observed in the previous extract, the features where the teachers use non-canonical syntactic forms also occurs in the following extracts. In the following two extracts, the teacher designs his turn by positioning the *wh*-word at the turn-terminal position. These examples exhibit a teacher describing the theme of a poem to the students, which is included in the course book. On continuing his description, the teacher produces some non-canonical syntactic forms with *wh*-words at the turn-final position and the students treat the utterance as a question, and thus provide a response. For instance, in Extract 7, the teacher is in a process of describing a theme of a poem from the textbook through an extended-telling sequence. Here, he designs his assertion in a way where the target lexical item is replaced by a *wh*-word "what?"

Extract 7: [Responsibility: Nepal]

01	T:	=my heart appealed, my heart urged.
02		come on. let's not waste the time falling in such temptations.
03		**because, first and foremost. fix your eyes at what¿**
04	Ss:	responsibility.
05	T:	fix your eyes at your responsibility.

In this extract, despite the fact that the teacher is not in the course of checking understanding or eliciting textbook activity based responses from the students but is prefacing an activity with a storytelling, he deploys a question as a common interactional resource teachers typically utilize during lessons. In opposition to the questions related to something in the reading or questions related to grammatical forms, the question in this extract works as a device to confirm students' understanding during a short lecture. Thus, the question is delivered not to beckon responses based on a reading passage but to make sure that the students follow the moral lesson described during the instruction, or at least to confirm their attentiveness. Though the question is not totally focused on checking student understanding

or eliciting specific responses, the teacher uses this design to invite student participation in his extended talk by marshaling a format that invites student response. In his teaching, he asks the question "fix your eyes at what¿" in line 03 by positioning the *wh*-word "what" at the end of his TCU. Also, by positioning the *wh*-word at the end, he designs his utterance in such a way that he places the questioning *wh*-word at the end of the utterance where students, in responding, can provide a value for the *wh*-word as an answer without having to produce a full-length answer. in the empty slot. In other words, his design of the question underscores the required form of the sought for response and as a consequent provides a hint for the student to supply a response. In the next turn, the students produce a lexical item "responsibility." as a type-conforming response (Raymond, 2003) to the *wh*-question, and the teacher recycles the previous verb phrase frame, "fix your eyes at", from his prior utterance, this time including the response students provided in order to demonstrate his reception of the of their contribution. In receipting the student response, he deploys the next turn in the same pattern as the format produced in line 03, but this time replaces the question term "what" with the student's proffer of "responsibility." In this way, he makes it apparent to the students that their response is appropriate and acknowledged.

In contrast to the elicitation sequences with content focused questions, the questions focusing on classroom progressivity and management are different in terms of pursuing responses. In Extract 7, the students promptly provided a response to the teacher's elicitation; the teacher then moved forward by receipting the choral response provided. However, in the following extract, which occurs later in the same class as observed in Extract 7, the teacher does not treat the missing response as problematic beyond provision of some extra wait time in line 04, but continues his extended-telling after waiting almost half a second for the students to respond.

Extract 8: [Target: Nepal]

```
01  T:    our life. (.) it is full of obligation.
02        but in our life, a:s the poet says in this very poem.
03        we must be focused on our where my dear.
04        (0.4)
05        on our ta:rget.
06        (1.0)
07        on our du::ty.
```

In line with Extract 7, this extract also presents a teacher asking a question while talking through an extended-telling sequence (line 03). During the description of the theme of a poem from the textbook, the teacher explains that life is "full of obligation." in line 01, explicating the content of the poem. Similar to the previous extract, he opens with an assertive "we must be focused on" and places a *wh*-word "where" at the end of the sentence designing the question in non-canonical form, and then addresses the class with a term of endearment, "my dear." As his turn-final intonation contour suggests, his turn is ending at this point and he waits for a possible response to occur. However, none of the students ventures a turn and the answer slot results in a 0.4 second silence. After the silence, the teacher provides a response "on our ta:rget. (1.0) on our du:ty." in line 05 to the question "we must be focused on our where my dear." that he asked in line 03. He thereupon presses on with his extended talk.

The pair of the extracts examined here, Extract 7 and Extract 8, suggest that the teacher questions, in addition to eliciting answering responses, equally stand for classroom management aspects such as, checking student understanding, and inviting student participation in extended talk sequences. In both of the extracts, the teacher asks a non-canonically formatted question (Hellermann, 2005) to invite student participation. Apart from this similarity between Extract 7 and Extract 8, there is a significant difference to what the teacher is doing in this particular classroom interaction. In Extract 7, the students

provided a response and the teacher accepted the response by repetition and uses it in his further talk. Conversely, in Extract 8, the teacher expected some response to occur after his question, but continued his turn to provide the response himself without making further attempts to elicit. This demonstrates that the teacher does not always pursue a response directly from the students but may provide answers to his own questions in order to maintain the progressivity.

In addition to the interaction presented above, in Extract 9 we have further evidence to support the claim where the teachers ask online questions to create a foundation for what their further teaching will be. This interaction comes from a Nepalese English language classroom where the activity for this particular class is to form grammatically correct sentences from given jumbled words. The teacher also focuses students' attention to some specific verbs such as, "hoped," "wanted," and "decided" that they would be using in forming the sentences for the upcoming task. In the beginning of this example, the teacher explains the task of forming sentences from jumbled words and writes the specific verbs to use in making sentences on the blackboard, admonishing the students that they have to use infinitive forms of verbs, those with "to" preceding them.

Extract 9: [Infinitive: Nepal]

01		**let's sa:y, what kind of sentences can be formed**
02		with the jumbled words given here in this exercise.
03		(2.6)
04		one thing you need to remember, (.) some: (0.6) verbs.
05		hoped, (1.0) wanted, (1.0) decided. ((writing simultaneously on the board))
06		(2.0)
07		after these (.) verbs we use(.) to: (0.6) to (.)and infinitive
08		to plus infinitive.
09		**what do you mean by infinitive.**
10		(1.0)
11	S1:	to plus verb.

12 (0.6)
13 T: yes. what do you mean by infinitive?
14 which form of verb is [known as infinitive.
15 S2: [verb one.
16 T: <which form of verb?
17 S2: verb one.=
18 T: = verb one. very good.
19 do you understand?
20 Ss: yes sir.
21 T: okay. so,

In the above extract, despite the fact that the activity is to form grammatical sentences, the teacher, in the beginning, chooses to check student understanding about the grammatical rules. He frames a significant point by saying, "one thing you need to remember, (.) some: (0.6) verbs." in line 04 and writes the specific verbs on the board, along with their verbal production. Once he finishes producing the verbs, "hoped, (1.0) wanted, (1.0) decided." in line 05, the teacher suggests that after the verbs he mentioned, the grammatical rule is to use "to" plus the infinitive form of the verb. At this point, the teacher attempts to check whether the students know what the infinitive form of the verb is with a question, "what do you mean by infinitive.", addressed to the whole class. He uses this question as an exit device from this multi-unit turn, in which he was explaining the activity and the grammatical rule to be explained. The question serves to change the direction of the interaction from teacher-centered talk to teacher-student interaction, with a question addressed to the students instead of an explanation of grammar points.

Following a silence of one second after the teacher's question in line 09, S1 volunteers to provide a response and says, "to plus verb." as a candidate answer. Even though S1 provides a response, an uptake from the teacher does not occur, and the interaction results in 0.6 second silence; in the subsequent talk, the teacher repeats the question. This repetition of the question and silence suggest that there is a problem with S1's response that was provided

in line 11. However, the teacher does not explicitly reveal the problematic aspect but reformulates the question, "what do you mean by infinitive?" that was asked in line 13, into, "which form of verb is known as infinitive.", in line 14. His repetition and reformulation of the question is possibly mandated by the teacher noticing that a problem occurring in of S1's response may have roots in his own question. Furthermore, the teacher's reformulation of the question, "what do you mean by infinitive?", into, "which form of verb is known as infinitive.", makes the question more specific as the projected answer is a grammatical form of a verb. As the teacher produces, "which form of verb is", in line 14 at the height of maximal grammatical control (Schegloff, 1996), S2 demonstrates his knowledge on what the question pursues by providing a response, "verb one.", in line 15. Though S2 provides a response that was projected by the teacher's initial phrase, it occurs in overlap with the teacher's question. Orienting to this overlap (Jefferson, 1984; Schegloff, 2000), the teacher repeats the focal aspect of his question, "which form of verb?", again in line 16 so as to have the projected response produced in the clear. After the question, once S2 provides the response, "verb one.", in line 17, the teacher immediately acknowledges it through deployment of a latching repetition, "=verb one.", and appreciation, "very good." As S2 and the teacher collaboratively make the response available for the whole class through this sequence, the teacher checks understanding with a question, "do you understand?", directed towards the whole class, as his shifting eye gaze from S2 to the whole class suggests. He then closes the sequence after eliciting a "yes sir." response from the students.

In addition to the phenomenon discussed in the previous extracts, this extract further demonstrates how teachers deploy questions to pursue student understanding. Similar to the phenomenon observed earlier, this example also showcases a teacher marshaling understanding check questions as they are required in the course of teaching.

Adding to the evidence of teachers asking questions based on sequential contingencies, the following example further demonstrates a teacher asking an online question that is made relevant within the ongoing practice. The following example, a partial reproduction of Extract 4 and its continuation, comes from a Japanese EFL classroom where the teacher is checking student understanding on a particular reading text previously assigned as an in-class task. Prior to the talk presented in this interaction, the teacher elicits student responses from a question that is written in the teaching materials. However, in this extract, the question takes a form of a follow-up question grounded on the answer the student provided in line 04 for a previous question that was seeking information on what the pictures in a specific page of the textbook they use show.

Extract 10: [Which Century: Japan]

01	T:	what do they show.
02		(0.4)
03		°°(okay)°°
04	S2:	°(something of the) history of the past century.°
05	T:	yes. something of (.) the history.
06		of the past century.
07		**what is the past (.) history.**
08		(0.6)
09		>is it< (.) twenty:, twenty one, twenty two wha- what century.
10	S3:	twentieth.
11	T:	yes. twentieth century right twentieth century.
12		so it shows (.) the history (.) of the past century. good.

The spate of talk in this extract presents a teacher asking a question to address a necessity that arose during the course of instruction. This interaction continues after the teacher elicits a response to a question asked to check understanding of a reading assignment from the teaching materials. In answering the previously asked question, S2 produces, "°(something of the) history of the past century.°", in line 04. Then, in lines 05 and 06, the teacher evaluates

the response with a positive acknowledgement token "yes.", and he then repeats the response "something of (.) the history. of the past century." Because of the quite voice used in S2's production of the answer, the teacher's repetition helps in sharing the answer with the whole class. Furthermore, with the stressed "history" in line 05, and focusing on the word "history" from the response, the teacher checks the students' understanding about which century the reference to "history" represents. To perform this action, he uses a question format, "what is the past (.) history.", in line 07. Subsequently, after a brief silence of 0.6 seconds, the teacher modifies the question into a different form. In his modification, initially the teacher starts with a display question beginning with ">is it<", offers some alternatives, "twenty:, twenty one, twenty two", and then shifts at the end to a referential question, "wha- what century." It is important to note that the teacher treats his initial question, "what is the past (.) history", as insufficient, possibly signaled as insufficient with the 0.6 second silence, by retrospectively modifying the question. The offers in the question in line 09 suggest that the initial question was projecting a specific "century" but not "history." Once the question is rephrased, S3, in line 10, voluntarily provides a response, "twentieth.", which is one of the alternatives the teacher had provided. After the response, the teacher treats it as appropriate with: (a) the acceptance token, "yes."; (b) repetition of the student response, "twentieth century"; (c) deployment of an evaluative term, "right"; (d) incorporation of the response in a full-length sentence, "it shows (.) the history (.) of the past century."; and (e) an explicit positive feedback token, "good". Thus, by framing his utterance between "yes", and "good", the teacher explicitly demonstrates to the class that the response is acknowledged and accepted, and he then closes the sequence.

In line with the other examples discussed in this section, this example further exhibits how a teacher makes use of the interactional context to elicit student understanding. Also, the

interaction presented in Extract 10 resembles the regular pattern in this section where the teacher is (a) engaged in the regular business of teaching, (b) experienced some online necessity that needed to be solved before continuation, and (c) initiated a question to deal with the interactional contingency. Consequently, the teacher returns to the regular business of teaching after the question-answer sequence comes to closure after an appropriate response and the teacher's evaluation.

The examples presented above exhibited a pattern of teacher moves from the business of teaching to understanding checks and back to the regular teaching after evaluating student understanding through an inserted question. This is not always the case, however. In the next instance to be considered, the teacher deploys the same pattern but does not deploy any sort of evaluation to the student responses provided to the question asked online. He poses a question, elicits a student response, and continues with the action in progress without showing any acknowledgement of the student responses.

Extract 11 below comes from a tenth-grade Nepalese EFL classroom where the lesson focuses on scanning a sample front page of a newspaper for the specific information which it contains. The sample page is included in the textbook and the teacher is discussing the different news topics introduced on the front page. The students are directed to scan the front page and find the page numbers relating to specific news articles for the headlines presented in the front page.

Extract 11: [Dhuswa Sayami: Nepal]

```
01   T:    a:nd .hh (0.2) >in the< left hand corner, (0.4) you can see,
02         some of the news. (2.4) and:: here is (.) the: (0.6) headline.
03         Iran vow:s to continue, (0.6) democratic reforms. (.hh)
04         noted writer (.) Dhushwan Swayami- <have you heard this name,
05         Dhushwan Swayami?
```

06 Ss: °°no.°°
07 T: n(h)o:,
08 S1: no (sir).=
09 T: =Dhushwan Swayami passed away.
10 and there is weather report.
11 an:d there is (.) the exchange rate of Nepal Rastra,
12 Ss: °bank°.
13 T: bank. this much you can see (.) inside the: paper.

In eliciting student understanding of the format of a typical front page of a newspaper, the teacher first discusses the information available on that page prior to opening the scanning activity. The above extract begins with the teacher's notification of the news headlines presented in the left hand corner of the sample page. He continues by reading the headlines, as seen in line 01 to line 04. However, as soon as he starts reading the second headline, "noted writer (.) Dhushwan Sayami-", he cuts off his projected utterance and deploys a question to check student knowledge on this topic. Though the teacher is engaged in the regular business of teaching through the multi-unit turns focused on notification of the elements on the sample page of newspaper, his sudden shift with a latching utterance, "< have you heard this name, Dhushwan Sayami?", in lines 04 and 05 indicates that he is leaving aside the main focus of his instruction and initiating an insertion sequence. Furthermore, as the teacher reads "Dhushwan Sayami", he takes this as an opportunity to check students' familiarity with this name and asks a question that checks whether the students' knowledge is on par with the information. After the referential question, "<have you heard this name, Dhuswan Sayami?", the students produce a negative response, "°°no.°°, in line 06, in a quiet manner but hearable to the teacher, as his uptake exhibits. In his uptake of the response, the teacher repeats the negative response, "n(h)o:," in line 08 with a non-terminal intonation contour in combination with slight laughter. S1 takes this as a request for confirmation and repeats the response, "no (sir).=", in line 09. Generally, when the students display lack of

knowledge, the teacher, being more knowledgeable in a classroom situation (Heritage, 2012), provides the information questions seek to the students. However, after the students demonstrate lack of knowledge in this interaction, the teacher exits the question-answer sequence without any kind of acknowledgement or evaluation and returns to with the activity that was in progress prior to the question initiation. In other words, he continues the activity of calling attention to the information on the sample page of newspaper by connecting back to the place in the discourse where he had initiated the question-answer sequence. In other words, the teacher initiates a question-answer sequence upon the online necessity of checking students' knowledge about "Dhuswan Swayami", but no further clarification in the inserted question-answer sequence suggests that this topic does not become the focus of the lesson. Furthermore, his production of "n(h)o;," with laughter, also provides evidence that the teacher is not treating the question-answer sequence as the main content of the lesson.

Extracts 5 through 11, discussed above, provide some evidence as to how teachers deploy questions to handle the online contingencies appearing in their teaching. In the representative examples, an apparent pattern evolved during the analysis of the data. The pattern represents some specific activities where the teachers: (a) begin their main activity, (b) experience an element to confirm with the students' knowledge before proceeding the activity, (c) initiate a question-answer sequence and confirm it with the students, and (d) return to the main activity and continue their teaching. In other words, the teachers elicit responses based on online contingencies faced during the interaction, in the absence of which, continuing the interaction might have proven to be problematic.

One of the main areas of focus in this study concerns the strategies teachers apply in pursuing responses from students. Basically, they ask various types of questions and elicit responses. As discussed in the initial section of this chapter, questions are understood not in the core grammatical aspect, but based on their sequential position and the action they

perform. Thus, some utterances that do not resemble questions in their apparent form equally accomplish questioning action. In the following section, I provide some examples where the teacher utterances do not appear to be a question on its own, but accomplish the action of question. They are understood as question as they pursue responses and also the recipients, students in this case, treat the utterances as question and provide responses.

6.2.2.3. Initiation of a New Sequence Based on a Previously Asked Question

This section centers on analyzing some of the instances from the data set in which the teachers pursue a response through deployment of an utterance that is based on a question they previously asked in the interaction. In this section, the phrase "initiation of a new sequence" refers to a context in classroom talk in which a teacher terminates a question-answer sequence by providing evaluative feedback to a student response. However, they then initiates another question-answer sequence to a different student without repeating the initial question but with the assumption that the same basic question they asked to the previous student is still on the table. Even if the teacher does not say the whole question again, it is understood that the question is still in play and the teacher's turn is taken to be a question as manifested by the responses the students provide. The students treat such utterances as questions by providing an answer/response in the second turn, and also the teachers retrospectively treat the initial utterance as a question by providing in the third turn, an evaluation to the student responses.

The following spate of talk is extracted from a Japanese high-school English classroom. The participants are reviewing their comprehension of a reading task assignment. The reading task contains a passage that compares two planets: Earth and Mars. Prior to the section of transcript presented below, the teacher asked an open question, "do we have any problems on

earth?", based on the reading task. The main focus of the question seems to be to elicit information from the reading passage about problems people on Earth are facing.

```
Extract 12: [Problems: Japan]
01          (.hh) oka:y. now. do we have any problems? (.) <on earth>.
02          (1.0)
03          anyone.
04          (0.6)
((18 lines omitted)
23   T:     oh: I see. yeah, that's right.
24          so:, lots of people (.) okay (.) di:e (.) of hunger,
25          while lots of people (.) throw away food. °okay°.
26          maybe we: shouldn't (0.6) waste food.
27   T:     maybe one more. (.) anyone.
28          (0.4)
29          okay.
30   S2:    global warming.
31   T:     global warming. good.
```

The teacher displays an orientation to the elicitation of responses to the question she asked at the beginning of the activity presented in the above extract. In the first part, the teacher closes the previous IRE sequence initiated by the question in line 01 by providing an evaluation in line 23 and paraphrasing in lines 24-26 the answer the student provided. After bringing the first question-answer sequence to a close, the teacher initiates a new sequence with an orientation to the question asked to initiate the previous sequence. In initiating a new question-answer sequence based on the previous question, the teacher produces, "maybe one more, (.) anyone.", in line 27 but without having to actually repeat the initial question. This utterance suggests that the teacher is starting a new question-answer sequence but is still in the main activity of pursuing answers to the question asked at the beginning of this extract to check student comprehension of the reading task. Furthermore, linking back to the previous

sequence, this utterance calls student attention to the possibility that there is perhaps another element remaining to be revealed from the reading.

After the initiation in line 27, the teacher waits for 0.4 seconds. During the silence, some students raise their hands and demonstrate their availability to answer. Then, the teacher selects S2 by looking at and pointing towards him, actions which serve to nominate him as next speaker (Sacks et al., 1974; Schegloff, 1984). When S2 provides the answer, "global warming.", in line 30, the teacher treats the answer as an appropriate response through a repetition, "global warming.", and an evaluation, "good", signifying the response is approved. In this example, the teacher initiates a new sequence by using a non-interrogative utterance, "maybe one more, (.) anyone.", and the students interpret this utterance as a question by relating it to the originally asked question in the previous sequence. It is important to note here that the utterance, "maybe one more, (.) anyone.", might sound misplaced if asked in mundane conversation. However, in the interactional context presented above, it successfully links back to the previous question and initiates a new sequence in the continuation of the activity the participants are engaged in but without the necessity of actually repeating that question. That is to say, the teacher uses the technique of pursuing a response with a non-interrogative utterance of initiation that links back to a previously asked question. Also, the students' responses show that they are treating this utterance as an appropriately placed utterance that serves to accomplish the function of questioning.

In addition to the spate of talk presented above, the following extract further illustrates this particular phenomenon. In the following extract, the teacher uses an utterance that might sound inappropriate in ordinary interaction between equals, to initiate a new sequence and pursue responses from the students. This extract is also from a Japanese high-school English lesson. The participants are working on a comprehension-check exercise from a textbook

reading passage just assigned. The passage discusses the importance of different plant species and how to conserve their varieties. The question the teacher asks is centered on eliciting information on the benefits of plants to humans. Though the following extract presents an expanse of talk, the analytical interest here is on line 05, where the teacher produces, "what else.", to elicit further responses after accepting one student's response.

Extract 13: [Foods: Japan]

```
01  T:    what are (.) the benefits of plants.
02        (1.0)
03        they provide,
04  Ss:   foods.
05  T:    foods. what else?
06  Ss:   fuel.
07  T:    fuel.
08  Ss:   building materials.
09  T:    building materials and great many,
10  Ss:   medicin[es.
11  T:            [medicines. do you know the percentage of
12        the medicines which come from plants.
13  Ss:   twenty fi[ve percent
14  T:              [twenty five percent. good job.
```

This example attests to how classroom teachers, in order to elicit responses from students, choose to use specific utterances that are typical of this context of asking known-answer questions in which they do not need to repeat the initial question when more information is sought to fully answer the question. In the extract above, the teacher asks a *wh*-question, "what are (.) the benefits of plants.", that is based on the reading passage in order to check the students' comprehension of the content of the reading. As a common practice in any interactional context, initiation of a sequence with a question makes the occurrence of an answer relevant (Sacks et al., 1974). However, in the above spate of talk, an answer does not

occur in a timely manner, resulting in a silence of 1.0 second in line 02. The teacher reacts to this silence as a problem in initiating the answer turn by constructing his next turn as a designedly incomplete utterance (Koshik, 2002). He produces the first part of a possible answer turn, "they provide," with a non-terminal intonation contour and leaves the utterance incomplete for the students to realize. The sequence once comes to closure when the students provide a choral response, "foods", in line 04, and the teacher receipts the response with a repetition. But, after accepting the response from the students, the teacher orients back to the previous question through production of a phrase, "what else?" that solicits further information with rising intonation in line 05. It is important to note here that in the interactional context of the classroom where known-answer questions are asked, this utterance successfully initiates a question-answer sequence as the main action of the question, "what else?", links back to the previous question. In other words, the teacher successfully fits the utterance, "what else?", to the interactional context and at the same time links it back to the original question while also initiating a next sequence. Because of the interactional context, the answers students provide in the beginning are not sufficient as the participants are in a language-learning environment. In this environment, the teacher's questions are not only related to eliciting one answer, but also to pursuing a fuller response that demonstrates student understanding of the subject under consideration. Furthermore, this utterance equally orients back to the fact that the initial question is looking for multiple responses as the question "what are (.) the benefits of plants." is formulated in the plural with "benefits." That is to say, within the main activity in this interaction, the teacher receipts and accepts a part of the answer provided, and attempts to elicit more answer responses through deployment of the utterance "what else?" as a resource for referring back to a previous question without the need to repeat the actual question. The teacher keeps the question relevant throughout the activity to initiate new IRE sequences for a number of reasons, such as: (a) to maintain progressivity

of the lesson, (b) to show that the fuller answers are required in this particular context (i.e., educational context), and (c) to pursue fuller answers without deploying any demotivating negative comments.

In accordance with the interactions presented above, the next extract provides a supporting instance of the way teachers use specific utterances to begin a new sequence with an another participant based on a question asked earlier in the interaction. The spate of talk that follows comes from a Japanese high-school English lesson where the teacher focuses on eliciting student responses to questions that check student understanding of a reading passage they had just completed. The teacher guides the students to the activity and the pages they are focusing on, and asks a question based on the reading. After completion of the first IRF sequence, the teacher reinitiates the IRF sequence with another student but with a mere utterance that selects next speaker rather than a repetition of the initial question. In other words, the initiation links back to the previous sequence to connect it with the question previously asked. The analysis that comes after the extract below further explains the feature this extract embodies.

Extract 14: [Earth and Mars: Japan]

```
01   T:    .hh so: : ah: please look at pa:ge two,
02         okay: (.) and let's compare Mars with Earth.
03         (0.8)
04         so look at the key factors you chose.
05         'kay page two.
06         (1.0)
07         what factors are similar to factors on Earth.
08         (0.8)
09         anyone.
10         (2.0) ((S1 raises her hand during the silences))
11         okay Yumi-san.
((6 lines omitted))
20   T:    okay. (0.6) anything else.
```

```
21          (1.4)
22          (   ) ((S2 raises his hand during the silences))
23   S2:    there are high mountains.=
24   T:     =yeah. that's right.
25          a:nd ..
```

In the above extract, at first, the teacher guides the students towards the activity they are going to focus on with an explicit reference to page numbers in line 01, "please look at pa:ge two," and ensuingly spotlights the cognitive enterprise ahead with, "let's compare Mars with Earth." in line 02. She then suggests that the students examine the main facts about Earth and Mars that they have collected from the reading. After the prolegomena, the teacher issues a question, "what factors are similar to factors on Earth.", in line 07 and waits for a response to occur. However, in spite of the production of a question as a first-pair part, a second-pair part answer does not occur in a timely manner, resulting in 0.8 seconds of silence during which she looks around the class for a prospective student. It is at this point that the teacher produces "anyone." so as to suggest that the students can volunteer to answer. She thereupon waits for a student to offer a response. During the silence of 2.0 seconds in line 10, one student, Yumi, raises her hand and demonstrates her availability to speak. In the following part of the interaction S1 (Yumi) provides a response and the teacher accepts it with "okay" in line 20. This completes the first IRE sequence.

The focal aspect of analysis in this extract occurs after closure of the first IRE sequence. Bringing the first IRE sequence to a close, the teacher launches another IRE sequence by selecting a different student to elicit an answer from for the same question that was asked previously. However, in reinitiating the sequence, the teacher simply produces "anything else" at line 20 and waits for some student to volunteer a response. While the teacher is seeking probable next speakers by moving her eye-gaze around the room, S1 raises his hand and demonstrates his readiness in providing a response and subsequently produces, "there are high mountains", in line 23. As soon as the student completes this turn, the teacher treats this

response as the one she was looking for by immediately accepting it with a latching utterance, "yeah.", and also providing a positive evaluation, "that's right". With acceptance of the response and deployment of a positive evaluation, the teacher closes the sequence and moves to another activity in the lesson. In this way, the spate of talk in the above extract demonstrates the technique by which the teacher initiates a sequence with a new student by linking her initiation back to the previous sequence with a different student. In this example, the teacher's utterance, "anything else", would be inappropriate and insufficient in initiating a sequence if produced as an independent utterance without having any sequential co-occurrence in this particular context.

This contingent nature of question-answer sequences renews the teacher and student interpretation of task and opens a new prospect of actions. Extract 15 below takes this idea further and supports with examples including the feature where teachers initiate new sequences without having to repeat the question initially asked. In this extract, the teacher is eliciting responses from the students on some of the benefits of plant species as discussed in a reading passage in the textbook. The talk below begins with the teacher's introductory remarks before he moves to ask the last question from the reading task which was assigned to check student comprehension of the reading passage.

Extract 15: [Seed Banks: Japan]

01	T:	and last one. I just (.) want to share your ideas
02		because there are so many purposes in seed banks.
03		so any ideas. what didju say. (1.0) what's the purpose.
04		(3.0)
05	S1:	to keep diversity
06	**T:**	**to keep diversity. good. diversity, what else.**
07		(3.0)
08		**any ideas.**
09	S2:	to restore the environment.
10	T:	pardon me.

```
11   S2:    to restore [the environment.
12   T:                [oh. to restore the environment.
13          good.
```

This segment begins with the teacher's explicit movement to checking student's answers for the last question with the production of, "and last one.", in line 01. As he continues, he makes it clear that there are multiple purposes of having seed banks, as discussed in the passage, and he wants to share among the students what they have understood. After clarifying his motif of asking the question at this point, he leaves the interactional floor to the students with an utterance to elicit responses, "any ideas.", a reminder of what the students reviewed in the reading task, "what didju say.", and again the main question, "what's the purpose." in line 03. In the subsequent line, no students take a turn in a timely manner and there arises a silence of 3 seconds. After the silence, one of the students, S1, provides a response with one of the purposes of seed banks. As soon as S1 produces, "to keep diversity" in line 05, the teacher accepts the response by repeating S1's utterance, providing a positive evaluation "good.", and separating the target word in the answer "diversity," in isolation. Thus, with the acceptance of the answer provided, the sequence seems to have come to closure at this point. However, right after the acceptance, the teacher begins to pursue other responses for the same question. In other words, he initiates a new sequence with, "what else.", to elicit further responses for the same question. On doing this, the teacher simultaneously performs two things: (a) keeps the question asked in the previous sequence on play, and (b) guides the students to the fact the initial question is looking for multiple responses that would explain the purposes of the seed banks.

It is at this point that the teacher calls back the initial question to pursue further responses with another student. In line with the preceding examples, the teacher initiates a new sequence while still remaining in the previous activity. After the positive evaluation and

repetition of the student response, he utters "what else." and looks for other responses to occur. During the silence of 3 seconds, the teacher gives a slight look towards the classroom as if he is looking for a next speaker among the students to take a turn. However, as he finds no possible next speaker, he again produces "any ideas." in line 07. Then, in the subsequent turn, another student, S2, takes a turn and provides the other possible purpose of seed banks, "to restore the environment." Though the student utterance in line 09 is produced in clear, the teacher experiences some sort of problems in hearing the utterance and requests for a repeat with a repair initiator "pardon me." Addressing the teacher's repair initiation, the student produces his utterance in the similar manner as he has produced in the previous turn. In other words, the student does not treat his utterance as problematic in its production, but it suggests that the teacher has problem of hearing the response. Once the student starts producing the response for the second time in line 11, the teacher recognizes it and repeats the response, "to restore the environment" after a change of state token "oh." in line 12. In addition, this utterance follows a token of positive evaluation, "good." in line 13 as a way of accepting and evaluating the student response, thus demonstrating it to the student that the response is appropriate.

In keeping with the features discussed in previous examples, this example also demonstrated how the teachers manipulate classroom interaction to initiate a new sequence by keeping the initial question on play. Utterances such as, "what else." or "any ideas." would sound incomprehensible in their isolated production. However, in the example discussed above, it perfectly constructs a meaningful interaction and performs the action of questioning in the similar manner the original question does.

A similar type of phenomena could be observed in the following example, too. In this extract, the participants are engaged in a discussion of the issue of charity service after

reading a passage on Japan helping Indian people during a natural disaster. The teacher asks an open question "What do you think?" in the beginning and starts eliciting student responses. Prior the spate of talk presented below, one student points out the fact that the money Japan provided to help the disaster is less than one Yen in average compared to the population of Japan.

Extract 16: [Charity: Japan]

01	T:	uh::. yes. less than one yen. more than, less than.
02		**anyone else,**
03		(0.6)
04		**yes Yuri?**
05	S2:	I was surprised to hear the fact because
06		Japan is much richer than India.
07		so I think we should make contributions more
08	T:	uhm: right. yeah.

In line 01, the teacher provides an evaluation on the comparative form student uses in their utterance. After the evaluation, he utters "anyone else," in line 02 signaling that he is looking for more responses to the same question he asked in the prior sequence. By the mere utterance "anyone else," he keeps the previous question on hold and looks for other students to provide their responses. On the side of the students, they also interpret "anyone else," as doing a questioning function based on original question asked in the previous sequence and they demonstrate their availability to provide a response. Particularly, in this extract, during the 0.6 second silence in line 03, one student raises her hand and demonstrates here readiness to respond. As mentioned above, the teacher's question is an open question that looks for students' opinion on the specific topic. Thus, as S2 responds with her opinion on the topic through lines 05 to 07, the teacher receipts the response with "uhm:", and provides a positive evaluation "right." and then closes the sequence.

This feature observed in the extract above also represents the similar phenomenon as appeared in other examples discussed earlier in this section. The specific strategies teachers use to keep the question on hold and initiate a new sequence of eliciting student responses without having to repeat the whole question is repeatedly observed in Extract 16, too. After providing an evaluation to a previous student's response to close the sequence, the teacher uttered only "anyone else," and nominates one student "yes Yuri?" after the student demonstrates her availability to respond. As the student produces a responding utterance to the initial question asked in the prior sequence, she treats the teacher utterances "anyone else," and "yes Yuri?" as not only speaker selection or nomination but as an utterance that is embodying the function of questioning. Once the student response is complete, the teacher provides an evaluation to the response which also suggests that the teacher utterances "anyone else," and "yes Yuri?" is produced with the embodied function of question.

As the examples demonstrate, the teachers successfully initiated new sequences based on the questions previously asked without having to repeat the initial question proper. With repeated occurrence in the data, this feature represents the typical feature observed in this interactional context of teacher-student interaction.

6.2.2.4. Pursuit of a Response by a Modified form of a Question Previously Asked

When student responses do not occur in a timely manner, teachers in classroom tend to make adjustments to the interactional pattern so that the missing responses would occur. Some conversation analytic studies reported teachers' interpretation of the missing responses and their on-line decisions in dealing with the problems (Hosoda, 2014, Lee, 2007, Zemel & Koschmann, 2010). For example, Hosoda (2014) demonstrated through conversation analytic approach that the teachers attribute the missing response to (a) the students' insufficient linguistic knowledge, and (b) to the problem in the production of the question. Similarly, Lee

(2007) discusses the contingent nature of classroom interaction and highlights a range of actions teachers tend to accomplish in the turn subsequent to the student responses. Standing on the findings of previous research, this section takes this idea further to observe what interactional decisions teachers make on-line to modify their questions in order to pursue the missing responses in the cases where the responses are totally missing, or produced insufficiently or inappropriately. The main area of target in this section is to focus on the interactional practices the teachers carry out as attempts to pursue the missing responses. Focusing on the types of questions and their modifications, this section aims to bring out the ordering of the questions, if there is any.

The teacher questioning practices in this section is basically analyzed with its relation to the surrounding interaction. The analysis mainly focuses on the way the teachers modify their questions to pursue the missing responses. The following extract comes from a grammar lesson from a Nepalese tenth grade English language classroom. In the ongoing interaction, the teacher is teaching the way of changing active voice sentences into passive voice sentences. Prior to the interaction presented below, the teacher has explained the rules of transformation from active to passive voices. In this particular example, the teacher selects one student and asks her to change "people are destroying the jungle" into passive.

Extract 17: [Voice: Nepal]

01	T:	yes. (5.0) Sushmita,
02		**will you change this sentence into passive voice.**
03		people are destroying the jungle.
04		(1.6)
05		<people are> destroying the (.) jungle.
06		(0.8)
07	**T:**	**so =>first of all< tell me, it is assertive sentence,**
08		ah: this is interrogative sentence, this is imperative
09		sentence, optative sentence (.)or: exclamatory sentence.
10		(1.0)
11		**what kind of sentence is this.**

12 (0.6)

13 >(is this)< assertive sentence?

14 S: °assertive sentence°.

15 T: yes if there is assertive sentence then?

16 what is the structure now?

After selecting one particular student in line 01, the teacher assigns the task by formulating his assignment in a form of request "will you change this sentence into passive voice" in line 02 and provides the sentence he assigns the student to change. As the student does not provide the response in timely manner, the teacher produces the assigned sentence again in a different tempo this time by slowing down on "<people are>" and adding a micropause before "jungle". However, the talk again experiences a silence of 0.8 second in line 06. Now, the teacher makes a further to attempt to elicit the type of the sentence from the student. As he has previously taught the different rules of changing different types of sentences into passive, he might have attempted to draw the student attention to the type of sentences by asking "tell me" the type of sentences. Here, his question begins with simple declarative sentences "it is assertive sentence," with inclusion of all types of sentences they have learned. But the absence of response continues even after this in line 10. This time, the teacher does another attempt to pursue the response but by changing his question structure into a *wh*-question "what kind of sentence is this". As the response continues to be absent (line 12), the teacher now modifies his question into a polar question ">(is this)< assertive sentence" in line 13. Finally the student provides a response to this question by repeating part of the teacher utterance "assertive sentence" which is also an answer to the type of the sentence. After eliciting the response on the type of the sentence assigned, the teacher then moves to get the student perform the task assigned.

In the above extract, the teacher first assigns a task to the student but the student does not display her competence in performing the task. Then, the teacher starts asking questions so as to make the student recognize the methods to perform the task. On asking questions

about the type of sentence, the teacher moves his questions basically through three phases: (a) asking with declarative sentences, (b) changing into a *wh*-question, and (c) modifying it into a polar question. Furthermore, by designing his final question, the polar question, in a way that prefers the "yes" response, the teacher might have tried to guide the student to produce a sought for response. Additionally, with the movement from questions in declarative format to yes-preferring polar question, the teacher might have undertaken the job of making the question possibly easier to the students.

In the classroom interaction, another feature dominantly observed is the teacher producing designedly incomplete utterances (DIU) (Koshik, 2002) and creating a slot for the students to produce an appropriate response. The following extract, from a Japanese English-language lesson, demonstrates the teacher modifying the original question into a DIU in the process of pursuing the response. The following interaction comes from a reading/content class where the students are supposed to read the text and answer the questions from the worksheet. In the introductory section of this particular class, the teacher has introduced "backup" as a new word of this class and explained the meaning. This extract begins where the teacher tries to reconnect the ongoing teaching elements to the word he has introduced in the beginning of the class.

Extract 18: [Backup: Japan]

64	T:	uh. um. that's right.
65		uh:: that's what I told in my introduction. right.
66		uh:: as a (0.5) insurance service, in other words,
67		**what did I say in my introduction**
68		(2.0)
69		seed banks can be a insurance service.
70		**that means a kind of,**
71	S4:	backup.
72	T:	backup.
73		right. backup. that's right.
74		okay. so. uh:: let's go to the other side of worksheet

After evaluating the student response on previous utterance (not shown in the transcript), the teacher reformulates the student utterance by connecting it with what he has taught. He says "that's what I told in my introduction" and seeks the students' agreement with "right". Then he moves to elicit the other word for "insurance service" and asks the question "what did I say in my introduction". With this content question, he provides a hint to the students that the other word comes from the introduction. However, the interaction falls into a silence of 2.0 seconds as nobody produces a response. The teacher then produces the summarizing sentence "seed banks can be a insurance service" and continues to say "that means a kind of," and stops there. On stopping exactly before the target word, the teacher designs his utterance incomplete and creates a slot for the student to produce a proper response. One of the students produces the target word the teacher has aimed for "backup" and the teacher provides a positive assessment.

In this interaction, the teacher initially designs his question as a content question "what did I say in my introduction" and modifies the original question to address the absence of response. The teacher's attempt of pursuing response is visible with his modification of the designing of the question. He changes his content question to a designedly incomplete utterance by stopping before the target. In line with Ford (2010) the DIU, in the above mentioned extract creates a slot for the student to produce an answer, and thus is interpreted as an example of teacher designed questions.

To elicit answers to the questions posed, as observed in the data, the teachers modify the questions and change them from one type (e.g., polar) to the other type (e.g., alternative question). Basically, they begin the questioning with *wh*-questions, and move to other types. The following example adds in the analysis with another representation of the teacher question practices. In the following extract, from Nepalese English-language classroom talk,

the teacher is eliciting responses to the questions in the text book. The instruction in the text book says "read the front page of the newspaper quickly and answer these questions". The students have a picture of the front page of a newspaper and they are supposed to answer the questions according to the text.

Extract 19: [Newspaper Place: Nepal]

01 and uh where is it published?
02 where do we publish this =the rising Nepal.
03 Ss: ( )
04 T: where?
05 (1.0)
06 it is published in,
07 Ss: kathman[du
08 T: [kathmandu yes.
09 it is published in
10 Ss: (Kath[mandu)
11 T: [Kathmandu.

In the above extract, the teacher asks a question "where is it published" in line 01 and immediately modifies the question possibly making it more explicit. On his second delivery of the question, he uses the name of the newspaper and says "where do we publish this =the rising Nepal." in line 02. In line 03, some of the students seem to be responding but it is not quite audible to the analyst. The teacher might have heard what the students say in line 03, but treats the response as an insufficient response and poses the same question again. As a repair initiator on the part of the question, he focuses on "where" so that making it apparent that the question is looking for an answer word that represents place. Since the students do not produce any responses in line 05, the teacher makes another attempt in eliciting the response. After the silence of 1 second, he begins his utterance as a response turn with "it is published in," and stops there. On stopping exactly before the target answer-word, the teacher

designs his utterance as an incomplete utterance and lefts the incomplete slot for the students to complete. Finally, after the teacher modifies his original content question into a designedly incomplete utterance, the students provide the response in line 07. Then the teacher repeats the student utterance as an acceptance of the answer.

The interaction above demonstrates another example where the teacher moves from a content question to a designedly incomplete utterance. As in other examples, in this interaction also the teacher appears to focus on pursuing missing response with various question designing. In the beginning he initiates other repair with "where" so that the he can draw the students' attention to the focal aspect of the question that the students are supposed to provide an answer word with a place name. Later, as the response continues to be absent, he changes his question into a designedly incomplete utterance and let the student complete his utterance. In other words, all the modifications of the questions in this utterance also appear to make the questions more explicit in pursuing the student response.

6.2.3. Questions in Terms of the Participants' Possible Knowledge

Because of the nature of interaction as normatively constructed in teacher-fronted classrooms, it is the teacher who holds the rights to turn allocation (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Markee, 2000; McHoul, 1978; Mortensen, 2008; 2009; Sacks et al, 1974; Seedhouse, 2004). This is to say, in classroom interaction, a teacher nominates a student as the next speaker and, because of their interactional rights, that student is permitted to take a turn until the teacher nominates another student because of their interactional rights. This feature is typical of the interaction in classrooms and distinct from mundane conversation in which the rights to take turns are evenly distributed among the participants (Gardner, 2013; Hosoda & Aline, 2013; MacBeth, 2000; McHoul, 1978; Sacks et al., 1974; Seedhouse, 2011; Walsh, 2011; 2013;

Wong & Waring, 2010). Furthermore, compared to non-institutional conversation, classroom interaction is also characterized by a significantly distinct nature in terms of the epistemic status among the participants (Heritage, 1984; 2008b; 2010; 2012; 2013b; Heritage & Raymond, 2005; 2012; Labov & Fanshel, 1977; Raymond & Heritage, 2006; Pomerantz, 1980). Because of the nature of the distribution of rights to knowledge in which teacher has control over participation, classroom interaction is also considered to be a type of asymmetrical interaction. While production of a question in ordinary conversation presupposes receipt of a response, generally informative, from a recipient, teachers in classrooms normatively ask questions in order to check or evaluate student learning. In other words, questioners in mundane conversation do not possess some piece information and therefore ask for it of a recipient. Then, when the recipient of the question provides an answer, the questioner receipts the response as being informative, and may demonstrate their change of state from receipt of the new information with "oh" (Heritage, 1984). However, in classroom interaction, as stated above, as teachers questions are for the most part known-answer questions (Heritage, 2005; Lerner, 1995; Mehan, 1979b; Schegloff, 2007), to which teachers already know the answers, teachers can then evaluate student responses in the third-turn position. In sum, as the responses to the questions in mundane conversation change the state of knowledge of the questioners, in contrast the responses in classrooms do not change the state of knowledge of the questioner. As a result, in classroom interactional contexts where knowledge usually and normatively transfers from the teachers to the students through pedagogical practices, the production of "oh" is absent (Heritage, 2005; 2012). Nonetheless, Hosoda (2016) identified three interactional contexts where teachers produced "oh" in receipting student responses to their known-answer questions: (a) when they reinforced positive assessments, (b) when they acted out dialogues with students, and (c)

when they responded to students' unexpected answers to their questions (p. 64). With the production of "oh" in receipting responses to known-answer questions, Hosoda revealed the teachers' orientation to the interactional contexts and pedagogical objectives of the lesson. Concerning (a) and (b) above, Hosoda argued that teachers' receipt of responses with "oh" enhances learning as the teachers provide a model for the students on the use of "oh" in ordinary conversational contexts.

In addition to asking known-answer questions, teachers may occasionally deliver unknown-answer questions, questions to which the questioner does not possess prior information, aimed at receipting unknown information from students. In such cases, teachers display their lower epistemic status by demonstrating their change of state of knowledge in the third-turn position. For example, B. Bhatta (2014) found the participants' orientation to their state of knowledge in a language learning context of a university language lounge. In the language lounge interaction, a teacher periodically positioned himself as being a less knowledgeable participant by asking unknown-answer questions (i.e., questions that seek information unknown to the questioner), to the learners. His asking of unknown-answer questions was manifested through his production of change of state tokens to publically demonstrate his transformation from being a not-knowing participant to a knowing participant.

This section builds on findings from the studies reviewed above. In this section, I present representative examples of questions in terms of the participants' possible state of knowledge. The following part of this research exhibits, with examples as they appear in the data set under scrutiny, two varieties of question teachers deploy. The two types of questions in terms of the participants' possible knowledge to discuss below are: (a) known-answer questions, and (b) unknown-answer questions (as opposed to known-answer questions).

6.2.3.1. Known-Answer Questions

Known-answer questions are the predominantly asked question type in traditional teacher-fronted classrooms because of the orientation to normative turn-taking organization. Because of the maximum degree of control over the turn-taking system, teachers hold all the authority to initiate and close sequences (Gardner, 2013; Hall & Walsh, 2002). In other words, teachers may initiate a sequence with a question directed to one particular student to which the student is entitled to respond, while if a student attempts to do this, it is often sanctioned by the teacher, and sometimes by other students (Hosoda & Aline, 2013). Then, upon receiving a response, the teachers provide evaluative feedback to the responding student in particular, and this is also directed to the whole class so as to publically demonstrate the pedagogical activities. To initiate these sequences, teachers overtly ask known-answer questions; that is to say, questions for which a likely answer is projected. The teachers' initiation of sequences with known-answer questions is made apparent in the third-turn position where they evaluate the appropriateness or adequacy of the responses students provide.

The following example, Extract 20, is one example of this type of question. Here, the teacher asks a known-answer question to check a student's understanding of a reading task they have previously completed. The reading passage introduces the topic of a zoo and relates what visitors can see and do there. In the spate of talk presented below, the teacher opens the sequence with reference to the second question from the textbook.

Extract 20: [Penguins: Japan]

01	T:	>how about< second question.
02		(3.0)
03	**T:**	**what can the visitors see in the tunnel.**
04	S1	( )
05	**T:**	**what can (.) they see in the tunnel.**
06		Shun chan please (0.6)

```
07              .hhh Shuncha- (.) Shun please.
08              (0.6)
09   S2:        we can s- we can see: (.) the penguins moving around
10              in all directions.
11   T:         Shun chan↑ penguins.
12   S2:        penguins.
13   T:         pen(.)guins.
14   S2:        pen(.)guins.
15   T:         okay↓ so we can see the penguins (.) goo::d.
```

Referring to the question from the textbook that she is going to ask, ">how about< second question.", the teacher presents the question "what can the visitors see in the tunnel." in line 03. Despite the fact that S1 produces an utterance in line 04, it is not hearable on the tape. However, the teacher seems to interpret this as a request for repetition or a problem in comprehending the question as shown by the fact that redoes the question in line 05, replacing "the visitors" with a pronoun "they". Subsequently, she nominates one student, "Shun chan", as the next speaker. In nominating the next speaker, she deploys "Shun chan", in which she uses "chan", a Japanese familiar honorific, and then self-repairs this to "Shun please." in line 07. In the following lines, S2 responds with "we can s- we can see: (.) the penguins moving around in all directions." in a hesitating manner, as manifested by the cut-off, recycled start, extended syllable, and micropause. At this point, the teacher seems to experience a problem with S1's production of "penguins" and corrects the pronunciation with an insertion sequence in lines 11 to 14. After closing the correction sequence, she partially repeats the response the student provided, "okay↓ so we can see the penguins" and subsequently provides an explicit positive evaluation "goo::d." The provision of evaluation in the third-turn position, in this extract, along with the quick response, the repetition, and the framing of the repetition with a receipt token, "okay↓", and a positive evaluation, "good.", suggests that the teacher's question was a known-answer question which was eliciting response in order to assess student comprehension of the task assigned.

Similarly, the following spate of talk exhibits another question-answer sequence in which a teacher deploys a known-answer question to check student understanding within the pedagogical activity framework. As it transpires, the pedagogical focus of this lesson is to form sentences using relative clauses to describe people or places as based on the teacher's initiation. In this part of the lesson, the teacher posts some photos of famous novelists on the blackboard and instructs the students to identify the novelists using relative clauses.

```
Extract 21: [Novelists: Japan]
01   T:     now look at the:se me:n.
02          this i:s Kawabata Yasunari (.) and this is Oe Kenjaburo.
03          ↑who are they. Osaki san.
04   S1:    °°°those are the novelists°°° that are given the (.)°°Nobel prize.°°
05   T:     yes, Nobel prize. (.) good.
06          so, these are the novelists (0.4) that were given the Nobel prize.
07          <okay.(.)  >everyone<.
```

After posting photos of two novelists on the blackboard, the teacher in this sequence of talk announces the names of the novelists by saying, "this i:s Kawabata Yasunari (.) and this is Oe Kenjaburo." in line 02. Subsequently, in line 03, she asks a question, "↑who are they.", and selects one student as the next speaker. Demonstrating an understanding of the pedagogical focus, S1 responds in line 04 with, °°°those are the novelists°°° that are given the (.)°°Nobel prize.°°, in a quiet manner. In the following turn, the teacher receipts the response with an acknowledgement token, "yes," and with a partial repetition, "Nobel prize." After receipting the response with repetition, she produces an explicit positive evaluation token, "good.", suggesting that the student's response is appropriate and accepted. Then, after evaluating the response, she produces it in a full-length sentence with embedded corrections (Jefferson, 1987) so that it is publically available to the whole class. Thus, her evaluation of the response with an explicit positive assessment term and her repetition of the response retrospectively

indicate that the question she asked was a known-answer question, the asking of which shows that the teacher is eliciting student understanding of the pedagogical focus.

6.2.3.2. Unknown-Answer Questions (as Opposed to Known-Answer Questions)

In addition to the questions that teachers ask in the classroom for which they already know the answers, they occasionally tend to ask questions for which the answers may be unknown to them. When they occur, the unknown-answer questions (a normal question for laypersons) commonly seek comments from the students about their feelings, or elicit information on student opinions about specific subject matter.

In the following extract, from a Japanese high school, the participants are talking about donating to a charity. The students read a newspaper article reporting on a natural disaster in India and the amount of money Japan donated to aid the disaster victims. The reading passage states that the amount of money Japan donated to help the victims was 0.87 yen per citizen. The teacher queries his pupils on what they think of this proportion.

```
Extract 22: [Under One Yen: Japan]
01  T:      <an:d anyone else. what did you feel. how d- ah::
02          (0.6)
03          what do you think?
04          how did you feel. your comment please.
05          anyone is okay. yeah.
06          yes. Shiori.
07  S1:     I was shocked because (0.8) zero point eighty seven yen
08          don't full one yen.
09  T:      umm: oka:y↑ yeah. its less than under (.) o- one yen
10          (1.0)
11          yes Minori.
```

In this extract, after receiving a response from a previous student, the teacher looks for more students to report their feelings. In line 01, he begins with "<an:d anyone else. what did you

feel. how d- ah::", and after a silence of 0.6 seconds, he continues to look for an answer with "what do you think?" He further explicates the question in line 04 and produces "how did you feel. your comment please." Then, with "anyone is okay. yeah" he implies that the question is addressed to the whole class and that any person from among the students present is free to take turn. As S1 raises her hand and demonstrates her readiness to speak, he allocates her the turn by summoning her by name. Consequently, S1, in lines 07 and 08, provides a report of her feeling by saying, "I was shocked because (0.8) zero point eighty seven yen don't full one yen." After S1 completes her turn, the teacher receipts it in the next turn with "umm: oka:y↑ yeah." and provides a corrective feedback by offering a revised version, "its less than under (.) o- one yen", of what the student has said. He then continues the lesson by selecting another student after a silence of 1 second.

It is important to note here that the teacher orients to the fact that his question is a question that is asked to elicit information unknown to him by avoiding evaluation of the response. However, the extract above demonstrated that teacher undertake the opportunity to correct the way of production of the response even in the contexts of asking unknown-answer questions. In other words, although the answer to the question asked not known to the teacher, it embodies features of partially known-answer question because the teacher's agenda is clear throughout the interaction. He is trying to induce their opinion in a positive way as he later signifies the need to donate more money to help the victims of natural disasters.

The following stretch of talk also demonstrates how a teacher receipts a response to an unknown-answer question. Extract 23 comes from an English lesson in Japan in which the students are working in pairs to decide what they will do during their upcoming vacation. After they discuss their plans with their partner, they are asked to report what their partner's plan is. As the interaction unfolds, the teacher selects one student to report her partner's plan.

Extract 23: [London: Japan]

01 T: okay, let me ask you some.
02 Mei, who i:- <who was your partner.
03 (.)
04 S1: my partner is (.) Yuna.
05 T: okay. where you <wher:e did she want to go.
06 S1: she want to go (.) London.
07 T: to London. okay, did she say why.
08 S1: becau:se she: likes (0.8) Kazuya Kamenashi.
09 T: (1.0) ((T shows surprise with her mouth open and a hand gesture))
10 Ss: hhh.[hhhh
11 T: [uh hh hh. ukh hh hh. okay, I don't know (.) about that.
12 could you explain more.
13 S1: Kazuya ( ) Kazuya Kamenashi (.) want to go (.) London.
14 T: ok(h)[ay.
15 S1: [so, so, Yuna [(0.4) wants to] go London.
16 T: [wants to go]

In line 01, the teacher publically demonstrates her plan of asking questions. At first, she asks S1 who her partner was. Upon receiving an answer from S1 that Yuna was her partner, the teacher asks a question about her partner's vacation plans, "where you <whe:re did she want to go." In the following turn, S1 relates Yuna's plan with "she want to go (.) London." The teacher receipts this response with a repetition of the target location, "to London.", and deploys a follow-up question on why she wants to go there, "okay, did she say why." Although S1 supplies a prompt response, saying, "becau:se she: likes (0.8) Kazuya Kamenashi." the teacher does not receipt the response in a timely manner but waits for 1.0 second while holding a gesture that signifies surprise with her mouth open and hands out to her sides. As the students see the teacher's look of surprise, seemingly signifying her ignorance of Kazuya Kamenashi, a famous singer and actor in Japan, the students respond with laughter. Subsequently, the teacher also laughs in the beginning, but later she demonstrates her lack of knowledge about the topic and requests an explanation, saying, "I

don't know (.) about that. could you explain more." This instance shows that when the teacher's question is a question seeking information unknown to them (what I am calling here, for the sake of convenience, an unknown-answer question), they demonstrate their lack of knowledge regarding the topic in the response when the response becomes new information to them and they request for further explication of answers.

The next sequence to be discussed here is a continuation of the talk presented above in Extract 23. In the continuation, S1 responds to the teacher's request to explain more of her response about why her partner wants to go to London. Then, the teacher directs her question to Yuna, S2, and requests information about Kazuya Kamenashi, of whom she has no prior knowledge as her claim of insufficient knowledge (Sert & Walsh, 2012; Beach & Metzger, 1997), "I don't know (.) about that.", makes clear.

Extract 24 [Kazuya: Japan]

01	**T:**	**Yuna, who is Kameya, Kamenashi?**
02	Ss:	(°Kamenashi Kazuya°)
03	T:	ka- ka- Kamenashi Tatsuya?
04	Ss:	(hhhhhhhhhhhhhh)
05	**T:**	**Kazuya. who is he.**
06	S2:	he is member of KAT-TUN.
07	T:	okay, I know KAT-TUN.
08	S2:	o::h.=
09	T:	=o:h [hhhh
10	Ss:	[hhhh
11	T:	oh:, a:nd, he's going to London,
12	S2:	a:h no. he (.) wants to visit London.
13	T:	ah↑ that's why you want(s) to visit too.
14	S2:	yes.
15	T:	thank you. good, good. excellent.

As the teacher initiates the above sequence, she tries to use a piece of information, a name that one student offered in the previous sequence (not shown in this extract), but uses it

incorrectly when she asks S2, "who is Kameya, Kamenashi?" As the rising intonation at the turn-final position in line 01 suggests, the teacher is not confident in using the name and produces her utterance with rising question intonation. Responding to the teacher's hesitant action, some students attempt to clarify the name by producing it for the teacher, though in a quite manner. Then, the teacher makes another attempt to produce the name, "ka- ka- Kamenashi Tatsuya?" Since the teacher again produces an incorrect name in her second utterance, the students laugh at the enduring error. Although, after the laughter, she correctly produces the name "Kazuya." and asks S2 to explain "who is he." Following the question, S2 responds with "he is a member of KAT-TUN." to which the teacher displays her acquaintance in line 07 by saying "okay, I know KAT-TUN." The students take the teacher's knowledge about the cartoon as a surprise as "o::h.=" in line 8 suggests. The teacher takes the students' surprise as a laughable action, which the students also orient to through production of laughter. Subsequently, the teacher, in line 11, demonstrates her candidate understanding of why the student wants to go to London by saying, " oh:, a:nd, he's going to London,", but S2 negates this fact in the next turn with, " a:h no. he (.) wants to visit London." At this moment, the teacher demonstrates a change in her state of knowledge with "ah↑" and produces an interpretation of why the student wants to go to London. Finally, she shows her appreciation of the student's answer and provides an explicit positive evaluation to close the sequence.

This extract also exemplifies the means by which teachers display their lack of knowledge when their questions are meant to elicit information that is unknown to them. However, the teacher's provision of feedback at the end indicates that even if the questions are unknown-answer questions, the teachers may evaluate students not for the content of the answers, but for the process they go through of initiation, response, and evaluation. In this way, this feature of classroom talk is repeatedly made visible by the participants in the deployment of their utterances.

6.3. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I have presented some of the practices teachers deploy in pursuing responses from students in English as a second language classes in both Japan and Nepal. In this chapter, I discussed questions from two broad perspectives. First, I explicated questions in relation to sequential positions and actions. Then, I outlined questions in terms of participants' possible knowledge. In the first section, I discussed questions in their relationship to the sequence in which they occur and the actions that they perform. The section on questions, in relation to sequential positions and actions, outlined some of the practices teachers deploy in pursuing responses for the questions available in the teaching materials as well as the questions they deploy in the course of teaching. The section also outlined the practice where teachers did not have to deliver the question proper in seeking an answer from a second student for the initial question that was still in play. Specifically, when the teachers were checking student understanding, they directed the same question to multiple students, but in doing so, they did not have to repeat the question. Both the teacher and the students oriented to the question sustaining utterances, such as "anyone else," or "what else," as initial question continuers because the teachers treated their own utterances as complete TCUs and waited for answers. By the same token, the students treated the utterances as questions by providing a response.

In the second part, I presented some instances where the teachers ask knowledge-based questions. Under this questioning practice, known-answer questions and unknown-answer questions were discussed with examples observed in the data set. Known-answer questions exemplified one common feature of classroom interaction as constructed through IRE sequences in which the pedagogical goals become visible through question-answer sequences where teachers ask questions to check student understanding of materials covered in the class. On the other hand, some instances appeared in the data in which the teachers asked

unknown-answer questions, that is to say, questions to which the teachers did not have prior access to the information required. The types of questions that are asked to elicit unknown information are frequently related to the students' personal opinions or experiences. Interestingly, analysis revealed that the teachers provided some sort of feedback for the student responses even when the questions were of an unknown-answer question type. This further demonstrates the nature of classroom talk as massively constructed through IRE sequences in which student responses are subject to evaluation by teachers regardless of the type of questions asked.

As for the similarities and differences in questioning practices of teachers in Japanese and Nepalese educational contexts, the data evinced that teachers in both contexts deployed all the varieties of questioning techniques discussed above. With that said, there were some differences between the two contexts that emerged in analysis of this data set for example, teachers in the Nepalese educational context were found to frequently deploy designedly incomplete utterances (Koshik, 2002), but in the Japanese educational context, designedly incomplete utterances were found to arise only intermittently. Teachers, through designedly incomplete utterances, allow students to co-complete turns and invite students to participate in the construction of proper syntactically structured utterances. In addition, the opportunities provided to the students to interact and to co-construct properly structured complete sentences with the teacher may serve to provide the students with a feeling of achievement and this success can positively motivate their second language learning (Dornyei, 1998). In terms of student participation in the classroom, the students in Nepalese classrooms tended to demonstrate their actively participate in expeditious manner, as indicated by the multiple occurrences of overlapping and latching utterances. Whereas, in the Japanese classrooms, analysis of the demonstrated that there were abundant instances of lengthy pauses and significant gaps following teacher initiations. This revealed that the students in the Nepalese

classrooms participated more quickly than the students in the Japanese classrooms, but the question remains as to why this way is so: is it due to cultural differences in learning styles or the interactional contingencies. However, with an extensive data set, this phenomenon of student participation should be examined in future research.

CHAPTER VII

FEEDBACK

In this chapter I discuss the structures of teacher evaluation sequences in classroom interaction. In the beginning, it opens with a brief overview of the third turn in Initiation-Response-Evaluation (Mehan, 1979a) sequences. Then, in the remaining part I highlight some of the empirical practices of evaluative moves as observed in the data under scrutiny here. Specifically, the analysis focuses on the forms of teacher evaluation of student responses, such as (a) explicit positive evaluations, (b) acknowledgement of a response with appreciation and repetition, (c) acceptance of a response with repetition, (d) acceptance of the previous action by the initiation of a new action, and in some cases, (e) negative evaluations.

7.1. General Overview

The three-turn sequence commonly seen in the interaction between a teacher and a student in the classroom is basically understood as the most common organizational structure of educational talk (Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Drew & Heritage, 1992; Galton, Simon, & Croll, 1980; Hauser, 2005; Hosoda & Aline, 2010c, 2013; MacBeth, 2004; McHoul, 1990; Mehan, 1979a; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Seedhouse, 2005; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Waring, 2008; 2009). There are various blanket terms applied to define this three-turn structure. Among many, one of the basic understandings of the three turns is defined as the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequence (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Though it was first proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard, other researchers analyzing education contexts used different terms to characterize the same three-turn sequence. For instance, Mehan (1979a) called this Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE), and McHoul (1978) termed it Question-Answer-Comment (QAC). From the various umbrella terms, I use the term IRE to

express the specific three-turn sequence (as opposed to the more general term feedback, which can relate to any teacher response to student productions) as the teacher is not always providing feedback in the classroom but is much more focused on evaluating the responses students provide in the previous turn. Whatever the terminology signifies, in classroom interaction, the basic pattern underwriting the three-turn sequence is that: (a) teachers produce sequence-initiating actions (e.g., questions, directives) in the first turn that are aimed at checking student understanding, (b) students provide their responses in the second turn, and (c) teachers evaluate the student responses in the third turn. The questions teachers ask in the first turn are basically considered to be known-answer questions[2] (Lerner, 1995; Heritage, 2005) in the sense that they are generally asked in order to check student knowledge but not necessarily to elicit information that would be new to the teachers.

There has been a significant amount of research focusing on the overall structure of these instructional three-turn sequences. However, only a few researchers (Fagan, 2012; Hellermann, 2003; Hosoda, 2016; Lee, 2007) have focused on how and in what manner the third turn occurs. Hellermann (2003) closely examined the third turn and noted that repetition in the third turn, when it is a repeat of the second turn, is understood as a positive assessment or a negative assessment depending on the prosody under which it is produced. Additionally, Lee (2007) studied the contingent nature of the third turn and outlined a large variety of actions teacher's utterances accomplish in the third turn except providing evaluation. Similarly, Fagan (2012) also noted that students routinely observe the prosodic cues in the teachers' production of *'okay'* for positive or negative evaluation (see also Hosoda & Aline, 2010b; 2010c). Among the varying actions that teacher third turns take, this chapter looks at the types of evaluative moves the third turns perform and discusses their forms. On a different note, the blanket term "feedback" is used to display the teachers' understanding of student responses and the deployment of evaluation. The third turn is given more importance

considering that the pedagogical focus of any lesson is visible in the third turn when a teacher evaluates a student's response. In most cases, teachers in classrooms evaluate student responses in the third turn by providing feedback in the form of evaluation on the correctness, incorrectness, or appropriateness of student responses. Furthermore, in the case of insufficient responses, teachers perform other interactional work to further elicit more equivalent and sufficient responses to their first turn. Thus, feedback plays an important role as a potential catalyst in the process of learning (Gardner, 2013; Hosoda, 2016; MacBeth, 2000).

Feedback takes various forms and can be deployed in explicit or implicit ways. For example, "*good job*," "*excellent*," "*great*," among others serve to evaluate the student responses explicitly and to close the sequence. As Wong and Waring (2009) argue, explicit positive feedback closes a sequence since it displays to the student that their response was acceptable. In other cases, teachers tend to provide implicit feedback by simply accepting the student response and continuing with the ongoing task of teaching. But, implicit feedback is considered to be confusing to the students since they may not understand the closing of the sequence (Wong & Waring, 2009).

Some common feedback techniques observed during the analysis of this data set include a range of varying strategies, such as: (a) explicit positive assessments, (b) acknowledgement of a response with appreciation and repetition, (c) acceptance of a response with repetition, (d) acceptance of the previous action by initiation of a new action, and (e) negative evaluation in some cases. The following table demonstrates the representative examples of third-turn feedback as they appeared in the data under consideration here.

Table 3

Common Feedback Types as Observed in This Data Set

Feedback Type	Examples From the Data
Explicit positive assessment	"good job.", "good", "yes. very good"
Acknowledgement of a response with appreciation and repetition	"yes. thank you. three hundred pictures."
Acceptance of a response with repetition	"Kathmandu."
Acceptance of the previous action by initiation of a new action	S2: computer are manmade electronic device that manipulate (.) or process various related data and (process them) and give (.) accurate result. ((T nods slightly)) T: yo:u, ((points to another student))
Negative evaluation	"no, you should say ….."

The table above provides a list of types with examples of the feedback varieties in the classroom interaction observed in this study. The table presents feedback turns ranging from explicit positive assessment terms, "*good,*" to the absence of feedback, or even negative evaluation. However, the question about the actions they implement in relation to the sequential positions in which they occur is in need of further exploration. In the following section, this paper seeks to analyze the implications of the sequential environment in which the third-turn feedback occurs.

7.2. Explicit Positive Assessment

The third-turn position is of considerable importance in classroom interaction because the teachers' pedagogical objective may at times be observed in the production of this turn.

For example, teachers tend to evaluate, provide feedback, or comment on student utterances that are produced in the second turn after the teacher's initiation. In evaluating student utterances, teachers deploy various methods to demonstrate whether the response is relevant, adequate, or sufficient, and to what degree. From among many, one of the techniques teachers use, as noted above, is the application of positive feedback terms, such as "*good*," "*great*," and so on. The extracts below instantiate the positive feedback teachers provide that exemplify the terms aforementioned.

This example comes from interaction in a Japanese English-language classroom, where a teacher is checking student understanding of a reading passage provided. Here, the students have read a passage describing some beneficial aspects of plants, and the teacher is checking the students' comprehension of the information provided in the passage.

```
Extract 1: [JPGuChoP2: Japan]
01   T:    what are (.) the benefits of plants.
02         they provide,
03   Ss:   foods.
04   T:    foods. what else.
05   Ss:   fuel.
06   T:    fuel.
07   Ss:   building materials.
08   T:    building materials and great many,
09   Ss:   medicin[es.
10   T:             [medicines. do you know the percentage of
11         the medicines which come from plants.
12   Ss:   twenty fi[ve percent
13   T:             [twenty five percent. good job.
```

This instance showcases a sequential environment in which a teacher deploys an assessment term (line 13) to evaluate student utterances in an explicit way. Here, he uses a positive assessment term rather than receipting through repetition. In this extract, the teacher probes

two questions to the students. The questions the teacher asked were "what are (.) the benefits of plants." (line 01), and "do you know the percentage of the medicines which come from plants." (lines 10 and 11). Examination of the extract between these two questions demonstrates that the second question in lines 10 and 11 is built upon the student response in line 09. Thus, the sequence begins with the question in line 01 and ends at line 13, when the teacher provides feedback with "good job.", in which he explicitly assesses the student responses. It is important to note here that the teacher receipts all of the student responses in the previous turns. For example, in lines 04, 06, 08, and 10, he produces comparable repeats of the student utterances that occurred in the previous turn to show that the responses are acceptable. Repetition and pursuit of further elements serve to build up to the complete response at the end and help to move the interaction forward. In addition to repeating the student proffered utterances, the teacher accomplishes some more interactional tasks to elicit further responses from the students. In spite of providing feedback for each student response, he pursues further responses with an explicit pursuing token "what else." in line 04, and with a designedly incomplete utterance (Koshik, 2002) in line 08. By withholding explicit feedback on the one-word answers produced by the students, and by pursuing further responses, the teacher retrospectively orients to what the initial question "What are the benefits of plants?" suggests. The initial question is designed to pursue an answer about the multiple "benefits" of plants from the reading text. In other words, the teacher's pursuing of further responses is contiguous upon the initial question and at the same time upon the student responses. Furthermore, the second question "do you know the percentage of the medicines which come from plants." is understandable as a question arising from one of the "benefits" the students provided, namely "medicines". This also demonstrates the teacher's online decision of initiating a further question that is contingent upon the previous turn.

While the teacher is pursuing further responses, he acknowledges the students' utterances by repeating the responses they have produced so far but withholds provision of feedback through explicit positive terms. This indicates that the teacher has a plan for the long run and that once he is done with what he appears to have planned, he overtly provides feedback with "good job." in line 13. This suggests that explicit positive feedback is likely to occur at the completion of the task within a larger sequence but not at the successful production of each single response in a focused series of responses. As exemplified in the above extract, the teacher demonstrates his prompt acknowledgement of the student responses but withholds explicit evaluation of the student turns until the larger sequence approaches closure. This further demonstrates that the teacher is equally oriented towards progressivity and to the achievement of the pedagogical goal through the completion of the sequence.

The following example also serves to explicate a similar phenomenon where the teacher deploys the explicit positive feedback technique to evaluate student responses, and by evaluating explicitly, he closes the ongoing IRE sequences. Extract 2 below is taken from an English lesson in a Japanese high school classroom where the talk shows the teacher-student interaction after their completion of a reading passage. The reading passage presents various charity activities that volunteers can do to help victims in the wake of an earthquake. After checking the students' comprehension of the reading, the teacher asks what the students themselves would do to help earthquake victims.

```
Extract 2: [Charity: Japan]
01  T:    what kind of charity projects or volunteer work would you do.
02  S2:   I- I'd like to:: (3.0) (do) fund raising campaign [and
03  T:                                                     [um:::
04        what kind of campaign will you do?
05  S2:   °°akaihanebokin°°
06  T:    pardon
```

07 S2: °*akaihanebokin*°
08 T: *akaihanebokin* fund raising.
09 good. very good. thank you.
10 a:nd, (0.6) how about you,(.) what wou:ld you do,

In this part of the talk, the teacher commences with an opinion-seeking question, "what kind of charity projects or volunteer work would you do.", in line 01. In the subsequent turn, S2 starts providing a response and says, "I- I'd like to:: (3.0) (do) fund raising campaign [and", but the teacher takes a turn before S2 has finished his response. The teacher's "um::" overlaps with S2's continuation. As the teacher starts to speak, S2 abandons his continuation. Subsequently, the teacher uses a part of S2's response "fund raising campaign" and pursues a further response on what type of fund raising campaign the student would do. Following the teacher's pursuit of response on the type of campaign, S2 replies in line 05 with "°°akaihanebokin°°", a famous charity activity in Japan, in a quiet voice. In the next turn, the teacher initiates repair with "pardon", signaling that the student utterance is problematic, which is taken by S2 as a problem in hearing, as indicated by his louder repeat in the next turn. Responding to the teacher's "pardon", S2 repeats what he said before but in a less quiet voice, which the teacher treats as hearable this time in that he receipts the response by repeating and expanding it to "akaihanebokin fund raising." In reproducing the student utterance, the teacher performs two actions. First, he receipts the student utterance through repetition and makes it publicly available to the whole class. Second, the teacher produces the utterance in a louder voice because the student's initial production was in a quiet voice that might not have been hearable for the other students. After accepting the response, the teacher provides an explicit positive evaluation by saying, "good. very good.", and delivers an appreciation token, "thank you.", to the student for providing the answer. With the explicit positive assessment, he closes the sequence and moves on to initiate a new sequence by asking another student for their opinion.

The example in Extract 2 further demonstrated the deployment of explicit positive assessment terms to evaluate student utterances. Similar to the previous example, Extract 10, in this extract too, the teacher's utterance evaluates the student's turn to demonstrate its accuracy, and also serves to close the sequence. In addition to this, looking at its structure and the context of the talk in Extract 2, the question "what kind of charity projects or volunteer work would you do." apparently seeks the student's opinion. In other words, the question pursues information that would be new to the teacher. However, it is important to note in this particular interaction that the teacher provides an explicit positive assessment term to the student utterance. This suggests that despite the nature of the question, the teacher possesses certain interactional rights in the classroom that normatively allow them to evaluate student utterances.

7.3. Acknowledgement of a Response with Appreciation and Repetition

The responses students produce do not always receive a positive evaluation. However, teachers may accept the answer and demonstrate that the student response is sufficient. In such cases, teachers tend to accept the answer through repetition and demonstrate their appreciation of the student's response with the application of some sort of acknowledgement tokens, or by demonstrating their appraisal of the students for providing the response. This section presents some representative examples embodying this feature in the teacher utterances that occur in the third turn.

The next extract to be discussed showcases one of the representative phenomena where the teacher acknowledges and repeats a student response to publicly display to the students that the second turn response has been acceptably produced. This extract comes from a Japanese English-language course where the teacher is checking student comprehension of a reading task assigned earlier. After the students finish reading the passage, the teacher asks

some questions related to the content of the target reading text. The extract below shows the first question the teacher asked, "how many photographs does it (the exhibition) have".

Extract 3: [TakatsuP1: Japan]

01	T:	okay. first I (will) ask you questions.
02		this is the story about exhibition.
03		how many (.) photographs (0.2) how many pictures does it have.
04		(0.4)
05		anyone.
06	S1:	°three hundred pictures°
07	**T:**	**yes. thank you. three hundred pictures. three hundred photographs**
08		<we have three hundred photographs in this (lesson).

When the interaction in this extract begins, the teacher initiation of the turn outlines what the teacher has planned to do next. In line 01, the teacher reveals the plan, "first I (will) ask you questions.", and the source of the questions, "this is the story about exhibition." In this way, he designs the background for the questions and the actual question comes after this preparation. First, the teacher's question in line 03, "how many (.) photographs (0.2) how many pictures does it have.", is designed to pursue student understanding of the number of pictures in the exhibition as described in the reading task. In addition, given that the production of a first-pair-part question is produced, a relevant second-pair-part answer becomes conditionally relevant as according to the norms of sequence organization (Schegloff, 1968; Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). Despite the relevancy of a response, there is a considerable length of silence, 0.4 seconds, in line 04. The silence occurs because the current speaker has come to a possible completion of a turn but the other speakers have not self-selected to talk. Sequentially, the silence appears relevant in this position as the other speakers are not obliged to take a turn at this point due to the fact that the current speaker has not selected a next speaker, possibly relying on the requirement for student participation to lead to self-selection. Orienting to the absence of talk, the teacher attempts to pursue a

response in line 05 with a common address term, "anyone", directed to the class. In other words, he manifests his interpretation of the absence as the result of the students not taking a turn, and he makes it explicit that "anyone" among the students should be available and willing to take a turn.

S1, in line 06, eventually produces a possible response as pursued by the teacher's question "how many photographs", hesitatingly though. Once the student produces this answer, the teacher treats it as a sufficient and appropriate response by accepting it with "yes" in line 07. The acceptance of the response "three hundred pictures" suggests that the teacher's concern here was in eliciting responses based on content rather than on language form. Particularly, the teacher treats the value that fits in the "how many" slot of the question as a sufficient response. After accepting the student's response with "yes", the teacher appreciates the student for answering the question with "thank you." and repeats the answer in the same form in which the student had produced it. Later, in line 08, he reproduces the phrase within a full-sentence response, which serves to function as a model answer to the initial question. In addition to this, it is important to note here that the teacher does a replacement repair with "three hundred photographs" after repeating "three hundred pictures.", simply replacing "pictures" with "photographs." This suggests that the teacher is oriented to the lexical term used in the original question because he simplified the lexical term "photographs" into "pictures" while pursuing a response and the student also uses the simplified term in his answer. Thus, by doing a replacement repair on the lexical term used, the teacher connects the final response to the initial question.

In line with the example just discussed, the following extract, Extract 4, further evinces the phenomenon under examination in this section in that the teacher accepts the student responses by deploying acknowledgements and appreciation tokens in the third turn. The following extract occurs later in the same lesson as presented in the just prior extract. The

spate of talk presented below follows a question-answer sequence in which the teacher deploys a question that focuses on two major developments of the twentieth century. The talk below begins with the teacher's acceptance of an answer that provided information on the first major development.

```
Extract 4: [TakatsuP2: Japan]
01   T:     uhm, okay. right. so the first thing is,
02          the great progress (.) in science and communication.
03          right. and >what's the second one<.
04          what's the second one ((points to S1))
05   S1:    °me°=
06   T:     =yes. (.) it also (.) the age of,
07   S1:    wars (   ).
08   T:     yes. wars. it was also the age of terrible wars.
09          right. thank you very much.
```

In the first line, the teacher produces an evaluation that completes the previous sequence, which was constructed on the first part of the question he asked. His evaluation here takes the form of an acceptance, "okay.", a token of evaluation, "right.", application of the response in a fuller sentence, "so the first thing is, the great progress (.) in science and communication.", and another token of evaluation, "right." After the evaluation that focuses on the answer to the first part of his question, he seeks a response to the second element in the question with ">what's the second one<." in line 03. This initial production might have been delivered in a pace that was too fast for the students to comprehend because he delivers the question again in a more normal speed, "what's the second one". He does this while selecting S1 as the next speaker by pointing his finger at the student. When S1 requests confirmation concerning selection with "°me°=" in line 05, the teacher confirms it with a rushed "=yes." and also provides a hint for the answer in the form of a designedly incomplete utterance, "it also (.) the age of," and lets the student complete it. Following it, S1 supplies a response "wars ( ).",

which the teacher receipts with an acknowledgement token, repetition, and by using it in a longer sentence, "thank you. wars. it was also the age of terrible wars." Then, in the subsequent turn, in line 09, he provides an assessment, "right.", and closes the sequence with an appreciation for the answer, "thank you very much." As can be seen here, this extract also exhibits the similar resources previously deployed by the teacher for evaluating student response. Through the production of acknowledgement tokens and appreciation after the responses, the teacher evaluates the appropriateness of the answers provided. In addition to the acknowledgement and appreciation, the teacher shows the relevancy of the student response by repeating and using it in a sentence. Furthermore, the assessment is also visible in the teacher's action of closing the ongoing sequence.

As shown in the extracts presented above, it is not uncommon for teachers in classrooms to simply accept student responses so as to signify that the responses are relevantly and appropriately produced rather than explicitly providing feedback. Even though the teacher's turn in line 08 does not include explicit positive assessment terms, such as "great", "good job", and others; the teachers acknowledgement and the repetition of the response is sufficient to demonstrate to the students that the responses they produce are accurate and are acceptable, as can be seen in the students' not attempting another turn. Moreover, in both of the extracts, Extract 3 and Extract 4, discussed above, the teacher reformulates the student answer into a full sentence. By adding to the answers and reformulating, the teacher seemingly presents a model to the student, and to the whole class, to indicate the form their responses could have taken.

7.4. Acceptance of a Response with Repetition

Teacher interpretation of student responses in the third turn of IRE sequences embodies various forms. Since the third turn can serve to evaluate the appropriateness of student utterances, teachers tend to design their turns in such a way that the utterance is clear enough

in interpreting the sufficiency or insufficiency of the student response as a relevant second-pair part to the first-turn action produced by the teacher. As discussed in previous sections, teachers produce explicit positive assessments, such as "great" and "good job", or they may demonstrate to the students that their utterances are relevant by accepting responses with "yes" and receipting the students' responses with tokens of appreciation, such as and "thank you." Apart from this, the data observed and analyzed in this study also include some instances in which the teacher accepts a student response through repetition. Such repetition in the third turn is understood as another form of feedback in the sense that a teacher's repetition of the same or similar phrasing as the student response suggests to the student that their response was relevant and appropriately produced. Repetition of the previous utterance, is used to initiate repair in many cases. In such cases, they embody rising turn-final intonation and other features. Repetition in the classroom can be interpreted as acceptance of a prior turn in the sense that the repetition with falling turn-final intonation closes the sequence.

In this section, the analysis is focused on presenting some representative examples where the teachers repeat student second turn utterances. At times, the repetition occurs completely in the form the students produced. As in other cases, as can be seen in Extract 5, the teacher tends to add some elements to the student responses to construct a full grammatical sentence that serves to stand as a modal sentence. However, in content-based sequential contexts,[3] where the pedagogical goal of the lesson is to comprehend the content of the lessons, what the students produce as a response is more important than the form in which it is produced (Seedhouse, 2004).

The following extract from Nepalese English-language classroom interaction exemplifies the feature discussed above. In the interaction presented, the teacher is checking student interpretation of a task from the textbook they are using. The task is to observe the

front page of an English-language newspaper as reproduced in the textbook and to identify the parts related to where specific information can be found.

```
Extract 5: [NVESS News2: Nepal]
01   T:    the name of the newspaper is,
02   Ss:   °the [rising°
03   T:         [the rising
04   Ss:   Nepal.=
05   T:    =Nepal.
06         (.)
07         and uh where is it published?
```

Considering that the teacher and the students are looking at the assigned pages from the textbook in which the newspaper is shown, the question asked by him in line 01 in the form of a designedly incomplete utterance is a known-answer question. In his question, the teacher designs his turn as a designedly incomplete utterance (Koshik, 2002) by leaving out the target item to have the students complete the sentence. The students interpret the teacher utterance as a question (or at least as a verbal fill-in-the-blank activity), as shown by their response in line 02 with the beginning of the name of the newspaper. Once the students initiate provision of the name of the newspaper, the teacher also chimes in to produce the name in the same form by repeating the student response in slightly delayed overlap. As the teacher has initiated his turn, the students orient to the resolution of overlap by dropping out (Schegloff, 2000; Jefferson, 2004) and also display their orientation to the "one-at-a-time" notion of turn-taking system (Sacks et al., 1974). Furthermore, by dropping out from the overlap, the students also display an orientation to the fact that the teacher is a more knowledgeable participant in classroom interaction and is an expert in this context (Hosoda & Aline, 2010a). At this point, as the teacher notices the students' dropping out their turn, he withholds his turn in line 03 thus to provide the students an opportunity to continue with their turn to complete it. When the students produce the final part of the utterance "Nepal" and complete the response

in line 04, the teacher also repeats the same utterance in line 05, latching to the students turn, thus, accepting the student responses through repetition. The repetition can be understood as acceptance by observing the subsequent turns because the teacher moves the interaction forward in the subsequent turns. After a transitional micropause in line 06, the teacher moves to elicit further information related to the newspaper.

Looking at the practice in the interaction above, the teachers' mere repetition of the students' turn in the same manner as its production, and without any acknowledgement tokens or positive assessment terms, is also sufficient for the students to recognize the interactional adequacy of their responses. Additionally, it is further observable that the teacher repeated only the words that the students produced and avoided producing the full title until the students had completed it. However, his repetition of the partial response the students produced displayed that the beginning of the student response was appropriate and was acceptable up to that point. This is manifested in and through the interaction by the students' behavior of not taking a turn at the end of the repetition by the teacher, and also by the teacher moving on to a next action after the micropause.

In addition to repetition of student responses as a form of feedback indicating immediate acceptance of the responses, another variation on teacher acceptance includes the teacher's addition of information to the students' original responses and repetition of them. In doing so, the teachers accept the response as sufficient but use the initial responses as a basis upon which to reformulate full-length sentences that provide model structures for the students. The following example, from the same interaction as discussed above, in Extract 6, is a representative instance of this type in which the teacher accepts the students' response, but adds to it to make a full-length sentence

Extract 6: [NVESS News 3: Nepal]

01 T: how many page:s a:re there in this (.) newspaper.

02 Ss: eight.

03 T: there are eight pages.
04 =and what is the price of this newspaper.

In the spate of talk presented here, the teacher asks a question in line 01, "how many page:s a:re there in this (.) newspaper." Following the question, the students provide their responses in chorus with the value "eight", which was sought by the "how many" part of the question. The teacher treats this reply as appropriate in line 03 where he repeats and uses the student response in the interactional context to produce a full-length sentence, and then immediately moves on to elicit further information in a new sequence that begins with a question related to a different part of the newspaper. By incorporating the response into a full-length sentence, the teacher makes it clear to the students that their utterance was sufficient in this context of the question seeking a content answer. However, the teacher also takes this opportunity to provide a language model for the students by producing a full-sentence response utilizing the short response the students provided.

In addition to the spate of talk presented above, the following instance, Extract 7, also exhibits the way teachers demonstrate their evaluation of student responses through repetition. Extracted from a Japanese high-school English lesson, the teacher and the students in this part of the lesson are talking about various kinds of charity services they could do. The context leading to this interaction is a reading passage about a natural disaster in India. After reading the passage, the teacher asks the class for their opinions on what they could do to help the victims of the disaster. The spate of talk in this extract begins after the students discuss in groups what kind of activities they personally might think of doing.

Extract 7: [Charity Money: Japan]
01 T: what did you think. what did you think.
02 S1: I want to give Indian people more (.) more.
03 T: um. more what? more::,
04 S1: money.
05 T: money. (.) and how much have you donated.

In this extract, the teacher initiates a new sequence with a question "what did you think." in line 01 to query what the students have been discussing for their hypothetical charity work. S1, in the subsequent turn, produces "I want to give Indian people more (.) more." as an answer. Looking at the final intonation used for this utterance, the student apparently treats his response as a complete action. However, the teacher signifies with his utterance in line 03 "um. more what? more::," that the student response is insufficient for his pedagogical purposes. In other words, the teacher asks another question to seek a fuller response with first a question format "more what?", and again with a designedly incomplete utterance (Koshik, 2002), as the prolonged talk and the continuing intonation of "more::," exhibits. At this point, the student apparently orients to the teacher's question and the DIU in line 03 because he provides what seems to be an increment to his answer in line 04 and is apparently an answer to the teacher's query in line 03 in that he says "money." As a result, S1 provides the seemingly sought after response of "money." in line 04 and completes the teacher's designedly incomplete utterance as well as adding to his own response. In the next turn, the teacher receipts the response by repeating "money" and then shifts to a subsequent question.

Aligning with the phenomenon under discussion so far, Extract 17 also provided an evidence to the argument that the teacher evaluates student utterances through repetition. Furthermore, the example exhibited that the teacher made the adequacy of the student response apparent to the whole class and then moved the interaction forward with the initiation of a next sequence after accepting the response with repetition.

In Extracts 5 through 7, the teacher's repetition of the student response indicated to the students that their responses were appropriate and sufficient. These examples exhibited that it is not compulsory for teachers to deploy explicit positive feedback to signify a positive evaluation of student utterances. In other words, the feedback that is provided to the students so as to indicate to them the appropriateness of their utterances can take implicit forms, such

as repetition. Once the teacher demonstrates their acceptance of a student utterance through repetition, it signals to the students that their utterance was appropriately produced. Then, the teacher's movement on to a further action also demonstrates to the students that the repetition by the teacher of their utterance is relevant, and thus their answer was accepted.

7.5. Acceptance of the Previous Action by the Initiation of a New Action

In a general sense, when students produce responding actions to teacher initiation of questions in the classroom, the interactional environment calls for teachers to evaluate the student responses overtly. However, the observation of data in this research exhibited that non-occurrence of overt verbatim evaluation is equally noticeable in the interactional environment of the classroom. When the teachers choose to suppress verbal feedback as performed through evaluative terms or explicit positive assessment, they make it visible to their recipients by utilizing a range of interactional devices. Such interactional practices teachers deploy are represented by their action in their subsequent turns at talk. The following extracts exhibit the teacher's interactional achievement through embodied action.

The interaction in Extract 18 comes from an English as a foreign language classroom in Nepal in which the focus is at this time on writing practices. Prior to the interaction presented below, the teacher assigned the students the task of writing an essay on the topic of "Computers." After the allocated time for essay writing passes, the teacher shifts to checking the students' topic sentences by asking individual students to read the beginning of their essays.

```
Extract 8: [TCAX Nods: Nepal]
01   T:    okay. Rupa, (.) what did you write.
02   S1:   computers a:re (.) simply defined as electronic device.
03   T:    thank you.(.) Ishwori,
04   S2:   computer are manmade electronic device
05         that manipulate (.) or process various related data
```

```
06          and (process them) and give (.) accurate result.
07          (.) ((T nods slightly))
08   T:     yo:u, ((points to another student, S3))
```

The focal aspect of the interaction above, line 07, demonstrates a teacher's silent move in initiating another action after one student response comes to conclusion in line 06. In the beginning, the teacher, in line 01, asks one student to read her topic sentence from the writing task she has completed. Then, in line 02, S1 responds to the teacher's request by reading the topic sentence from her essay. After S1 completes her reading turn, the teacher provides a token of appreciation to the student for providing the response, "thank you." After that, he initiates a new sequence by requesting S2 to read her topic sentence. In response, S2, in lines 04 to 06, reads out loud the sentence she has written. Observing the regular practices in other examples of classroom interaction, this is a juncture in which evaluation of a student response is likely to occur. However, in this interaction, there are neither verbal tokens deployed to evaluate student utterances nor any other actions providing explicit feedback. This sort of interactional trajectory, where no explicit positive evaluation of student response occurs, is a possible phenomenon that creates confusion among the students about the appropriateness of their responses. But, the teacher in line 07 successfully overcomes the possible confusion by a slight nod, and initiation of a new action of selecting another student in line 08. Specifically, the slight nod and the initiation of a new action indicate that the students' answers were appropriate and accepted.

Even though the phenomenon discussed in Extract 8 is not very common in the data discussed in this study, these examples revealed that nonverbal behaviors can also execute an evaluation turn. One way the students display recognition of the teacher action as acceptance of their answers is through the teacher's head nod (Heath, 1992; Stivers, 2008). In addition, the teacher moving out of a sequence and initiating a new sequence also helps the students comprehend the appropriateness of their response. Thus, from the perspective that they aid

students to notice the evaluation of their responses, embodied movement and other actions such as, acceptance of the response and initiation of a new sequence can be understood as a type of evaluation that teachers provide to student responses without having to produce verbal language.

7.6. Negative Evaluation

In evaluating student answers, as highlighted in the previous sections, classroom teachers deploy a variety of actions, such as provision of explicit positive assessments, appreciation of the answers, receipt by repetitions, and even a next move to initiate a new sequence with an implication that the response is accepted. However, the question remains as to how teachers deal with unacceptable responses. Various studies report that teachers tend to avoid deploying negative evaluation to student responses. For example, MacBeth (2000, 2011) provides data showing that positive evaluations are preferred in teacher-student talk because they are promptly provided, while negative evaluations or corrections are consistently delayed. Similarly, Hellermann (2003) and Fagan (2012) discuss the prosodic changes in the repetition of student utterances that mark whether the response is adequate or inadequate. In addition to this, Seedhouse (1997) reports that teachers leave off the production of "no" in classrooms even when they encounter what can be seen as unacceptable answers. Despite this argument, in observing the data under scrutiny in this study, some instances of negative evaluation appear to take place. This section presents some examples where the teachers provided negative evaluations to student responses.

The following extract represents an instance in which the teacher provides a negative evaluation to a student response. This extract comes from a lesson on English grammar in Nepal where the focal grammatical aspect of the lesson is the use of conditional sentences. After a brief explanation of the grammar points, the teacher offers a condition and asks one student what she would do in that condition.

Extract 9: [SHS One Million: Nepal]

01	T:	if you had one million rupees, (.) what would you do.
02		((selects S1 by pointing at her))
03		if you had one million rupees. (Tara.)
04		(2.0)
05	S1:	(.hh) uh: (.) I wi:ll (.) I will buy (uh)
06		many things that I need.
07	T:	I will buy?
08	Ss	((some other students say something here))
09	**T:**	**still you are wrong.**
10		I would (.) buy.
		((T's hand gesture signaling S1 to sit down))

Following a quick explanation of the grammar rules to form conditional sentences, the teacher offers a condition "if you had one million rupees," and asks the students to provide an answer based on the condition he offered. After selecting a student by pointing to her, the teacher, in line 03, repeats the condition, "if you had one million rupees." In the next turn, in lines 05 and 06, the student provides her response "(.hh) uh: (.) I wi:ll (.) I will buy (uh) many things that I need." in a hesitant manner as manifested by the inbreaths and micropauses. After S1 has provided her response, the teacher repeats the initial section of her reply "I will buy?" with rising intonation, suggesting that there is a possible problem with what the student said. In the subsequent turn after the teacher's signification of a probable problem, some other students say something but it is not hearable on the tape. However, it might have been hearable to the teacher as evidenced by his subsequent turn. In the subsequent turn in line 09, the teacher says, "still you are wrong." signifying that the student's response is still unacceptable, and thus, negatively evaluated. After the negative evaluation, he supplies the acceptable version of the response in the correct grammatical form "I would (.) buy." with marked stress on the word "would". Possibly, one outcome of this is that the students are presented with a model of the grammatical form they needed to provide because it highlights the contrast between what the student said and what the teacher said. After providing the

correct grammatical format for the opening of an answer to a question in the conditional form, the teacher requests the student to sit down through a hand gesture, which implies closure of the sequence.

There are some typical features of talk that can be observed in the example presented above. For example, the teacher performs some other interactional business before providing a negative evaluation. He does so, first, by signaling a potential problem in the response by repeating the problematic part "I will buy?" with rising intonation, and then, letting some other students provide responses before offering a negative evaluation. Furthermore, by providing the acceptable response immediately after the negative evaluation, he demonstrates that his orientation was directed towards making the answer publicly available so that they could proceed with the lesson.

In addition to the extract above, the following extract further evinces a teacher's deployment of negative evaluation to a student response. Extract 10 below represents an English lesson in Japan during which the pedagogical goal of the lesson is to learn relative pronouns. In the beginning, before the practice on relative pronoun starts, the teacher shows some photographs to the students and asks them in the form "Those are X", which they would later use to form longer sentences using relative pronouns. The spate of talk below begins when the teacher shows a picture and selects S1 as the next speaker to recognize the person in the picture and to form a model sentence.

Extract 10: [You Should Say: Japan]

01	T:	now look at (.) these people. who are these.
02		eh:: Kawaguchi-kun
03	S1:	these are teachers [(.) at-
04	**T:**	**[no, you should say those.**
05	S1:	those are teachers at (.) (in) our school.
06	T:	yes. at our schoo:l.

The teacher draws the students' attention to the picture in line 01 with "now look at (.) these people." and asks a question "who are these." Following the question, she selects S1 as a next speaker by using the student's name. S1, then, starts producing his response for the question. When S1 is producing a turn "these are teachers [(.) at-", the teacher overlaps to produce her turn and S1 cuts off in line 03. In her utterance in line 04, the teacher evaluates the part of the answer S1 has produced. In evaluating, she overtly uses "no, you should say those." signaling that S1's answer is problematic and unacceptable. Then in the subsequent turn, S1 performs a replacement of "these" with "those" and completes the response. Finally, in line 06, the teacher accepts it, with an embedded correction (Jefferson, 1987) of changing "in" to "at" though.

In line with the feature discussed in the previous example, Extract 19, the teacher in Extract 20 also provided a negative evaluation to the student by overtly using "no,". Though the teacher in Extract 19 indicated some problem with the student utterance by repeating the utterance with rising intonation, the negative evaluation in Extract 20 occurs promptly, even before the student has finished his utterance. However, instantaneously after the production of "no" the teacher corrects the students by saying, "you should say those.", with a distinct stress on "those". This indicates what the problematic part of the student's response is and offers an acceptable response the student can make use of in his next attempt.

7.7. Chapter Summary

In this section I reported on the different evaluative moves teachers take in the third turn of IRE sequences. In the first part, I provided an overview of IRE sequences. Then, the remaining part of this section outlined the empirical observation of the evaluative turns. The basic categories of the evaluation types examined in the data analyzed included: (a) explicit positive assessments, (b) acknowledgement of a response with appreciation and repetition, (c)

acceptance of a response with repetition, (d) acceptance of the previous action by initiation of a new action, and (e) negative evaluations. All of the types presented above demonstrate the teacher's understanding and interpretation of student responses as manifested by their action of closing the ongoing sequences. In this section, I also discussed the ways teachers delay explicit positive assessments when they were eliciting student responses for a larger project consisting of multiple IRE sequences with a similar pedagogical focus. In those cases, the teachers deployed explicit positive assessments at the end of the whole project. Also, in addition to the explicit positive assessment tokens, it was observed that the teachers evaluated student responses by repeating the responses students provided, acknowledging and appreciating the student responses, and by initiating new sequences to demonstrate to the students that their responses were acceptable. Furthermore, some instances in the data showed that the teachers also provide negative evaluations. However, in the cases of negative evaluations, the teachers tended to indicate the problematic aspects of the student responses with some interactional resources, such as repetition of the problematic part of the answers with rising intonation prior to explicit negative evaluations. In addition to this, the teachers oriented to the public availability of sought for answers in the classroom by providing answers immediately after production of a negative evaluation. By doing this, the teachers also demonstrated their orientation towards the progressivity of the lesson as they initiated new sequences after deploying model answers.

Considering that the data for this study come from two diverse educational contexts, Japanese and Nepalese, we would expect to find some differences in teaching styles. One difference found was in how teacher evaluations were brought off. While the teachers in the Japanese English-language classrooms were found to be deploying explicit positive evaluations at a higher rate, the teachers in the Nepalese English-language classrooms

deployed them at a lower rate and with less praise. Rather, as the data explicated, they tended to repeat the student answers to demonstrate acceptance. Also, the teachers in Nepalese classrooms frequently accepted the student answers through straightforward initiation of new sequences without explicit evaluation turns.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSION

The concluding chapter of this research is divided into four main sections. The first section summarizes the main findings of Chapters 5, 6, and 7. The second section discusses some possible implication of the findings of this study. In the third section, I discuss the limitations of the findings and the final section provides some direction for future research that emerges from the analysis carried out here.

8.1. Main Findings

Using Conversation Analysis (CA), this study has investigated three different aspects of talk in classroom interaction: (a) extended-telling sequences, (b) question design, and (c) feedback.

In Chapter 5, what came to the fore in data sessions while reviewing the video and transcripts was the use of extended-telling sequences in the Nepalese classes but the dearth of such sequences in the Japanese classes. So this brought up a possible difference in terms of participation in interaction in the Japanese and the Nepalese educational environment. As a result, I decided to explore this avenue. The analysis of the data showed that the teachers deploy extended tellings to achieve certain pedagogical goals. The goals the teachers oriented to through extended tellings, as the analysis explicated, are (a) developing student understanding by personalizing the content of the lesson, and (b) laying the pedagogical groundwork for the subsequent IRE sequences. In analyzing the extended-telling sequences, I focused on two aspects where the teachers delivered multi-unit turns. First, I discussed a teacher's use of extended tellings as a strategy for describing teaching materials that are being used in the lesson. By employing extended tellings in the description, the teacher established

a connection between the teaching materials and the pedagogical goal. Second, an instance of an extended-telling sequence in the form of storytelling was analyzed that highlighted the relationship of the storytelling with the objective of the lesson. The analysis demonstrated a teacher deploying a story related to his everyday life to explicate the meaning of a poem from the textbook. In the data set analyzed for this study, there were no extended tellings found in the context of the Japanese lessons, but numerous instances were observed in the Nepalese lessons. With that said, an extensive study employing a larger data set might be useful to further explore this phenomenon.

Chapter 6 addressed the issue of question design. In the first section, I analyzed instances where teachers deployed questions to pursue student understanding. In this chapter, I discussed questions from two broad perspectives. First, I outlined questions in relation to sequential positions and actions. Then I explicated questions in terms of participants' possible knowledge.

In the first part, questions as related to sequential positions and actions, it was evinced that when the teaching materials (textbook, handouts) include some questions, teachers make use of them to elicit answers from the students. Also, in some cases, despite the questions being available in the teaching materials, teachers tended to modify the structure and lexical items of the questions to simplify and make them comprehensible to the students. On the other hand, when there were no questions written in the teaching materials, the analysis revealed that teachers frequently made spur-of-the-moment decisions to check student comprehension of the content of the lesson, where necessary. In addition to eliciting student comprehension, the extemporaneous questions further provided evidence for the contingent nature of educational talk.

Another phenomenon found through the analysis was the teachers' way of keeping an initial question in play when the question was posed to seek multiple responses. In pursuing

additional responses for an initial question, the teachers did not have to repeat the question proper but simply produced utterances, such as "anyone else," or "what else", suggesting that the initial question was not completely answered yet, and the teacher was looking for further information. The analysis revealed that the students also oriented to those teacher turns as questions by providing an answer in the subsequent turns. Finally, I focused on analyzing teacher's modification of the questions to pursue missing responses from the students. It was found that, as an extra interactional resource in eliciting answers, the teachers modified their question formats. For example, *wh*-questions were predominantly modified into other forms, such as polar questions, alternative-answer questions, or into designedly incomplete utterances to which the students oriented as questions by producing their answers subsequent to them.

The second section of questions analyzed in Chapter 6 is concerned with questions based on participants' possible knowledge. Two practices are observed in this section: (a) known-answer questions, and (b) unknown-answer questions. Known-answer questions, to which the teachers possess prior knowledge of the information requested, were regularly deployed to examine student understanding of the content of the lesson. In such questions, the pedagogical goals became visible when teachers evaluated student answers. Contrastingly, in the data set analyzed, some instances were found in which teachers asked unknown-answer questions, questions to which the teachers were not in prior possession of the information requested, to the students. However, occurrences of unknown-answer questions were limited to seeking students' personal opinions or experiences and management of classroom activities. Despite the fact that the questions were pursuing answers unknown to the teachers, the teachers provided some sort of pedagogical feedback to the student answers. This testifies to the fact that in classroom interaction, student responses are often subject to evaluation by teachers even for the questions for which the teachers do not possess prior information

concerning possible answers. However, in such cases, the teachers, instead of evaluating the content of the responses, were more concerned with evaluating the steps that students undertook in producing their answers.

Considering the comparison of Japanese and Nepalese educational contexts, the data showed that teachers deployed all the types of questioning practices discussed in this study in both contexts. Still, teachers in the Nepalese educational context were found to deploy to a greater extent designedly incomplete utterances (Koshik, 2002). Through designedly incomplete utterances, the teachers in the lessons examined got the students to participate in the construction of turns that not only focused on the slot needed to be filled with information but also focused on the syntactic structure. This provision of opportunity to co-construct the proper syntactic utterances could positively motivate students in learning activities. Also, this type of exercise with a drill might help the students to learn grammar. However, this aspect needs to be examined further in future research highlighting student participation in language classrooms.

In Chapter 7, the provision of feedback in the third turn of IRE sequences was investigated. In analyzing instances in which teachers evaluated student responses, there were five different evaluative moves teachers undertook in the third turn: (a) explicit positive assessments, (b) acknowledgement of a response with appreciation and repetition, (c) acceptance of a response with repetition, (d) acceptance of the previous action by initiation of a new action, and (e) negative evaluations. Explicit positive assessment showed upgraded evaluation by the teachers which indicated that the student answers were acceptable. However, when the teachers were eliciting responses for a longer project with multiple IRE sequences, they delayed explicit positive assessments and deployed them at the completion of the larger project. In addition to evaluating student responses with explicit positive assessment terms, it was also found that the teachers manifested the appropriateness of

student answers by appreciating the students' replies and by repeating the answers. It is important to note that in repeating the answers, the teachers often used them in fuller sentences, modeling to the class a syntactic form in which the response could have been construct. Furthermore, the students were also found to be notified of the appropriateness of their response by the teacher's action of initiating new sequences.

The analysis also brought to the fore instances in which the teachers deployed negative evaluations to student responses. When a negative evaluation occurred, the teachers indicated the problem in the student responses with some other interactional resources, such as repetition of the problematic answer with rising intonation, to indicate that the answer needed to be revised.

As for the comparison of Japanese and Nepalese EFL contexts, I found some aspects in the data under this study that are seemingly different across the two educational systems. The data exposed frequently deployed explicit positive assessment terms in the Japanese classes, but teachers in the Nepalese classes rarely deployed explicit positive assessment terms to evaluate student answers. Instead of explicit positive assessment terms, the teachers in the Nepalese classrooms were found to repeat the student responses to demonstrate their evaluation. They also evaluated the appropriateness of the answers by commencing new sequences.

8.2. Implications

The findings of this study have a number of implications for research in applied linguistics, specifically for CA-informed studies of classroom interaction. Furthermore, the findings are significant for language pedagogy, specifically for shedding light on the explication of teacher talk.

Complying with the contemporary development of the conversation analytic approach to the study of language classrooms, one of the main focuses of this research has been on examining teacher's turns in language classrooms. Previous studies (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Drew & Sorjonen, 1997; Heritage, 1997) showed institutional talk as a subset of mundane interaction. This study builds in that area by highlighting the conversational features observed in ordinary conversation in classroom interaction. This study particularly highlighted the universality of actions teachers perform in language classrooms. Despite some variants specific to language and culture, teachers tend to deploy similar activities in the classroom. For example, in the data analyzed in this study, Nepalese teachers were found to deploy extended-telling sequences, use more frequent designedly incomplete utterances to initiate a sequence, and provide fewer explicit positive assessment terms in evaluating student responses as compared to Japanese teachers. However, the practices of manifesting their pedagogical goals, asking questions and evaluating student responses, remained pretty much the same.

This study also offers some important implications for language pedagogy. First, by providing an explicit description of language teachers' practices in describing their goals, asking questions, and providing feedback, it may contribute in raising teacher consciousness towards didactic processes. As some other comparative studies suggest (e.g., Golato, 2002) there has often been a noticeable inconsistency between what people assume they would do and what they actually do. Thus, observing the findings of this study can be an initial effort for teachers who are interested in understanding teaching processes. Second, this study pinpointed a number of interactional practices teachers performed in pursuing answers from students when responses were significantly delayed. Thus, the findings of this study suggest that language teachers should be aware of the potential consequences of their actions and be ready to make contingent decisions to further with their teaching. For this reason, the findings

of this study could be used in teacher training. Third, this research highlighted some interactional challenges teachers experienced in eliciting responses. For example, when the students had problems comprehending questions, their answers were significantly delayed. The findings of this research project how teachers in Japan and in Nepal modify their questions and how the modification affected in pursuing responses. Therefore the findings of this research could possibly be used in teacher training programs to assist the trainee teachers to become aware of how experienced teachers deploy various types of questions and how students respond to these questions. In this respect, researchers, teacher trainers, and language teachers can collaborate to discover which types of questions are most beneficial in developing student understanding and thus possible advancement in language learning.

8.3. Limitations

Despite the implications outlined in the previous section, this study exhibits some limitations in terms of: (a) the process of data collection, (b) the participants' performance, and (c) the analysis that need to be mentioned here. One limitation of this project is the data itself. In the data from the Japanese classes, the lessons were recorded for other teachers to observe and then consider their own teaching for the purpose of pedagogical improvement when the video was presented at language teacher workshops and other venues. On the other hand, the data from the Nepalese classes were taken from classrooms in which the teachers were willing to allow the researcher access. In this sense, none of the classes were randomly selected from a specific population, as would be done in quantitative theory-testing research project, but still exemplify English language education both in Japan and Nepal from a talk-in-interaction perspective. With that said, the lessons likely still reflect the basic interactional practices found in most second language classrooms in these two countries as the teachers are not using any special interactional resources that are affected by the data collection process.

Moreover, while most of the classroom materials, such as handouts and textbooks, that the participants used in the lessons recorded were collected by the researcher, it was not possible to collect all of them. Collection and consideration of the materials along with analysis of interaction could provide another option in understanding the participant's behaviors in the classroom.

As for the Nepalese data, the recordings were done in the schools in the urban areas of the capital city of Kathmandu. There is some possibility that urban students may have a higher level of proficiency in the target language through greater economic investment in education in urban areas. Thus, examining lessons from other parts of the nation would further deepen our understanding of the interactional resources the participants deploy in situations where the level of proficiency is not as high.

Furthermore, most of the recording was done with a single camera and microphone that were focused on the teacher. As a result, it was sometimes difficult to distinguish which student was responding to the teacher initiations. Also, with only one camera in the back of the room, it was difficult to examine eye-gaze and the facial expression of the responding student. Therefore, future research could consider using cameras that could record student activities. The placement and direction of the camera might have created the false impression that the teacher was the main focus of the research. In addition, the student utterances were not easily hearable in some parts because the microphone was attached to the teacher, which might have led to loss of the researcher's ability to hear and notice some of the fundamental interactional resources the students made use of.

Finally, the analysis revealed the occurrence of extended-telling sequences in the Nepalese data. But with more data, some instances of extended tellings in the Japanese classes may appear. Future research may bring other differences to the fore.

8.4. Directions for Future Studies

This study explored the extended-telling sequences, question design, and feedback teachers deploy in English-language classrooms in Japanese and Nepalese educational contexts. To expand this area of research, it may be efficacious for future studies to focus on some of the following aspects.

First, there is a lack of conversation analytic research on English-language classrooms in Nepal. Thus, further studies may explore how classroom talk is constructed in Nepalese classes, taking into consideration the many interactional resources used for communication that have been studied to date in other countries. Furthermore, this study focused on only three aspects of teacher talk, extended tellings, question design, and feedback, but there exist numerous other interactional practices, such as use of the native language, correction, and so forth, in classroom interaction. In this respect, future studies may address those issues.

Second, as discussed in the limitations, the interpretation of student participation was difficult because of the recording environment. Thus, future studies could focus on student responses, their facial expressions, and eye-gaze by utilizing multiple microphones and cameras in recording the lessons. In addition, subsequent research could focus on how the students respond to the feedback teachers provide and explore the different ways, if there are any, that students respond to positive and negative evaluations.

Third, in this research, I showed that teachers in both Japanese and Nepalese classrooms deployed designedly incomplete utterances. This could be an avenue to explore for future research concerning the timing of student responses, and the types of responses students offer. Also, the effect of designedly incomplete utterances in language acquisition could be another aspect to scrutinize in the future.

Finally, this study found some occurrences of negative evaluation teachers deployed in assessing student responses. As negative evaluations are reported to be rare and dispreferred

in classroom interaction in that teachers avoid producing "no" (Seedhouse, 1997), further studies may explicate teacher provision of feedback in order to better understand how and why a negative evaluation occurs. What is more, as Waring (2008) has shown that explicit positive assessments during one-to-one writing tutorials may tend to suppress opportunities for understanding problems and exploring alternative answers. Further exploration needs to be undertaken as to how explicit positive evaluation may lead to or lead away from learning in teacher-fronted classroom interaction.

ENDNOTES

1. The School Leaving Certificate, commonly comprehended through its acronym SLC, was the final examination of Nepalese secondary education system. Every student in the nation had to take this examination to graduate from the 10th grade in Nepal. Only with a successful result on the SLC, could students enter the intermediate education level (11th and 12th grades in Nepal). This examination system remained in practice in Nepal from 1934 to 2017. Recently however, after the launch of the new Education Act 2016 (Ministry of Education Nepal, 2016), the SLC examination has been replaced by another examination system known as the Secondary Education Examination (SEE).

2. The terms "display questions" or "exam questions" are usually used to refer to questions in educational research that indicate special question types teachers may ask in classrooms for the purpose of checking student understanding (Brock, 1986; Long & Sato, 1983; Searle, 1969). These questions, in a language learning context, are sometimes used to create a situation for language practice. However, in this study, I use the broader term "known-answer question" (Heritage, 2005; Hosoda, 2014; Lerner, 1995; Mehan, 1979b; Schegloff, 2007) because it covers a greater range of question types and the actions that they perform. In CA, more important than looking at the question types, researchers observe what actions the questions are doing through interactants' analysis as displayed in their answers.

3. Seedhouse (2004, p. 149) discussed this phenomenon as meaning and fluency contexts in language classrooms. In meaning and fluency contexts, the teacher focuses on the content of students' production instead of on the linguistic form of the answers because the basic

purposes of meaning and fluency contexts are: (a) providing opportunities for the learners to participate and to contribute meaningful turns, and (b) ignoring or paying limited attention to the linguistic or grammatical errors in learners' production.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Transcription Conventions

Convention	Meaning	Use
[text]	square brackets	start and end of overlap
=	equal sign	latched utterances
(0.5)	timed pause	indicates pause in tenths of a second
(.)	period in parenthesis	shows a micro pause (less than 1 second)
(hh)		audible laughter within a talk
hhh		audible exhalation
.hhh		audible inhalation
okay	underline	stress or emphasized talk
okay?	question mark	rising intonation, continuing intonation
okay,	comma	low-rising intonation
okay.	period	falling intonation
OKAY	capitalized text	increased loudness
°okay°	degree symbol	decreased volume
>okay<	greater than symbols	faster than the surrounding speech
<okay>	less than symbols	slower than the surrounding speech
oka::y	colon(s)	prolongation of sound or syllable (more colons indicate more prolongation)
oka-	hyphen	cut-off of the ongoing talk
((comment))	text in double parentheses	non-verbal behavior / transcriber's comment
( )	blank parentheses	inaudible talk

(text)	text in parentheses	uncertain transcription
[		indicates beginning of overlapping talk
]		indicates ending of overlapping talk
↑		talk higher in pitch
↓		talk lower in pitch
'W-O-R-D'		individual capital letters or those spaced with apostrophes indicate that letters are being verbalized and usually a word is being spelled out
bold	text in bold	indicates the target utterances in the transcript

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form (English)

The research for which the video and audio data are collected is to examine language use in interaction. There is no pre-established focus as the research topic arises from analysis of the data. The research is not to examine language errors, but to look at achievement of communication in social interaction.

Your name will remain anonymous as a pseudonym will be used in research reports. The video, audio, and pictures from the video will only be used for research purposes and only viewed by professional researchers. At all times in presentations at conferences or in publications in scholarly journals the video and pictures will be blurred so that you will not be identifiable (the picture below is given as an example).

Your privacy will absolutely be protected.

I _____ consent to the use of the video and audio data of myself for research purposes only as described and outlined above.

Date _____

Baikuntha Bhatta
Kanagawa University, Graduate School of Foreign Languages
Contact email: bhattabaikuntha@gmail.com

Appendix C: Informed Consent Form (Japanese)

研究承諾書

本調査は、映像及び音声資料を収集し、相互行為における言語使用を考察するためのものです。研究課題は資料分析から生ずるもので、あらかじめ設定されたものではありません。また本調査は言語の誤りを考察するものではなく、社会的相互行為の達成に注目するものです。

被験者の名前は、その論文及び報告書においては匿名が用いられます。映像、音声、及び映像から得られた写真は本研究の目的にのみ使用され、専門の研究者によってのみ利用されます。研究発表や学術論文の出版物においても映像や写真は不鮮明に処理され、被験者が明かされるようなことはありません（例として下の写真をご覧ください）。被験者のプラバシーは固く保護されます。

私、 _____ は、上記内容の調査目的における映像、及び音声資料の使用を:

☐ 承諾します。 ☐ 承諾しません。

日付 _____

バッタ・バイクンタ
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Appendix D: Informed Consent Form (Nepalese)

अनुसन्धान अनुमति पत्र

यस अनुसन्धान अन्तर्गत संकलन गरिएको श्रव्यब्य-दृश्य सामग्रीको प्रयोग अन्तरक्रियामा प्रयोग गरिएको भाषाको विश्लेषण गर्नु हो । अनुसन्धान पहिलेनै निर्णय गरिएको बिषयबस्तुमा केन्द्रित नभई, तथ्यहरूको अबलोकनमार्फत महत्वपुर्ण हुन आउने बिषयमा केन्द्रित रहनेछ । यो अनुसन्धानमा सहभागीको भाषा प्रयोग को सबल या निर्बल पक्ष भन्दा पनि, सहभागितामार्फत गरिएको सामाजिक अन्तरक्रियालाई अध्ययन गरिनेछ ।

यस अनुसन्धानको प्रशारित या प्रकाशित दस्ताबेजहरुमा छद्म नाम प्रयोग गरिने हुँदा यहाँहरुको बिवरण गोप्य राखिनेछ । श्रव्यब्य-दृश्य सामग्रीको प्रयोग, सोध, अनुसन्धान, या गोष्ठीहरुमा पेशेवर शोधकर्ताहरुको सम्मेलनमा मात्र प्रयोग गरिनेछ । तथापी, तस्विरहरुको प्रयोग यहाँहरुको पहिचान नखुल्ने गरि गरिनेछ (उदाहरणको लागि तलको तस्बिर हेर्नुहोस) ।

तपाईंको गोपनीयता पूर्णतया सुरक्षित हुनेछ ।

म _____ माथि ब्याख्या गरिएको अनुसन्धानमा आफ्नो भूमिका बुझेको जानकारी गराउंदै सहभागी हुन इच्छुक छु ।

बैकुण्ठ भट्ट

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