



# Some Interactional Practices Teachers Use to Pursue a Response from Students in EFL Classrooms

AMAR CHEIKHNA

---

(Degree)

博士 (学術)

(Date of Degree)

2021-03-25

(Date of Publication)

2022-03-01

(Resource Type)

doctoral thesis

(Report Number)

甲第7967号

(URL)

<https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.14094/D1007967>

※ 当コンテンツは神戸大学の学術成果です。無断複製・不正使用等を禁じます。著作権法で認められている範囲内で、適切にご利用ください。



博士論文

Some Interactional Practices Teachers Use to Pursue a Response  
from Students in EFL Classrooms

(EFL 教室における学習者からの反応を求めるために教師が用いている相互作用  
の諸実践について)

令和 3 年 1 月

神戸大学大学院国際文化研究科

氏名 : Amar Cheikhna

## 博士論文

# Some Interactional Practices Teachers Use to Pursue a Response from Students in EFL Classrooms

所属専攻 コース：グローバル文化専攻 外国語教育コンテンツ論コース

氏名：Amar Cheikhna

指導教員氏名：Timothy Greer

2021年01月

### Abstract

In Japan, the English language is gaining considerable renewed attention due to globalization and the need for English as an efficient tool of communication with the world. The Japanese government has outlined a variety of new policies for English education from elementary school to higher education institutions in order to develop the English language proficiency of Japanese students. To comply with these policies and to compete with international universities, Japanese universities have paid special attention to their English curricula, by applying different methods and hiring more English teachers and professors from Japan as well as from other countries to help them achieve their teaching goals. This dissertation focuses on some of the interactional practices that are used in language classrooms mainly in Japanese universities to help accomplish these goals.

Classroom interaction has been the focus of many second language studies which investigated how teachers allocate turns (Kääntä, 2012; Lauzon & Berger,

2015; McHoul, 1978), pursue responses (Kasper & Kim 2007; Svennevig, 2012) and use embodied actions (Aus der Wieschen & Eskildsen, 2019; Mortensen, 2016).

These studies have shown how teachers use verbal practices to pursue students' responses and how they select next speakers who show their availability to be selected.

This dissertation investigates how teachers in EFL classrooms use both embodied and verbal practices to pursue students' responses and how they select speakers who do not show availability to be selected. It also shows how the students can negotiate turn allocation. The study examines interactional practices in language classrooms in Japanese universities, with a particular focus on how language teachers prompt, encourage and facilitate students' participation in classrooms. Using Conversation Analysis (CA) methods (Sacks, 1995), the dissertation deals with teacher-student interaction through audio-and video-recordings of naturally occurring classroom interactions from language classrooms. The data were collected over one semester and the participants are four American teachers and their first-year students. Another collection of data was obtained from an American university and used on occasions to support some of the findings of the main EFL data. The use of CA enables the study to adopt an emic (or participant-centered) perspective on the data (Seedhouse, 2004).

The study describes in micro-detail how EFL teachers pursue responses from students when they are missing, delayed, or treated as inapposite. The dissertation focuses on spoken as well as embodied practices that are occasioned in language classrooms. The study also examines how teachers select next speaker and how that affects students' participation. The dissertation constitutes an addition to the field of EFL education by providing an emic description of classroom interaction and how

teachers can facilitate students' participation. The findings from a naturally occurring data such as that in this dissertation provides in depth understanding of what is actually happening in classrooms and can help teachers and researchers to acquire a new perspective about EFL classrooms in Japanese universities.

## 博士論文

EFL 教室における学習者からの反応を求めるために教師が用いている相互作用の  
諸実践について

所属専攻 コース：グローバル文化専攻 外国語教育コンテンツ論コース

氏名：Amar Cheikhna

指導教員氏名：Timothy Greer

2021 年 01 月

### 要旨

昨今、日本における英語教育はグローバル化の潮流の中で新たな関心を集め、世界とのより効率的なコミュニケーションツールとしての英語能力が求められるようになった。それに伴って、日本における全体的な英語能力の底上げのために政府は初等教育から高等教育までの一貫英語教育における様々な政策を打ち出しはじめた。それらの政策完遂と国際的競争力維持のため、日本の大学はカリキュラムを見直し、様々な教授法を取り入れ、国内外から多くの英語教師を雇用するという方法を採用した。本稿では、日本の大学の EFL クラスにおける新カリキュラムに沿った学習目標完遂のために行われている相互行為を取り上げ分析する。

教室内での相互行為を対象とした研究は、第二言語習得の分野では数多く行われており多様な分析結果が提示されている。教師による発話ターンの割り当て (Kääntä, 2012; Lauzon & Berger, 2015; McHoul, 1978) や、返答の引き出し (Kasper & Kim 2007; Svennevig, 2012)、発話時の身体動作の使用 (Aus der Wieschen & Eskildsen, 2019; Mortensen, 2016) などである。これらの研究は、教師が学生に対して返答を引き出すために行う発話方略と、また、指名受け入れ可能な学生を教師がどのように見極め指名しているかを明らかにした。

本稿では、教室における英語学習時に教師が物理的行為と音声発話を駆使していかんにかに学生の返答（発話）を完遂させているか、また指名を受け入れる

状態にない学生を指名しているかという 2 点に焦点を当てて分析する。また、学生がどのように発話ターンの割り当てを構成しているかについても明らかにする。本研究では、日本の大学での英語指導において教師が学生の教室活動への参加をどのように促し教室運営を行っているかを相互行為実践の点から調査する。本稿では、会話分析の手法(Sacks, 1995)を用い、日本の大学の英語クラスで行われる教師と学生による自然発話の相互行為を動画収録したデータを用いて分析する。データ収集は 1 セメスターを通して行い、被験者は 4 人のアメリカ人英語教師とそのクラス履修者である初年度学生である。本研究データで観察される特徴を明示化する過程において補助的にアメリカの大学のデータも用いる。会話分析の方法論は、相互行為研究においてイーミック（参加者側）の観点からの分析を可能にしている(Seedhouse, 2004)。

本研究では、学生の返答において沈黙や遅延、誤りなどが見受けられた場合に教師がいかにしてそれらの返答を完遂させているかを詳細に記述し、またそれら相互行為を分析する中で発話のみではなく身体行動などの物理的行為も研究対象として扱う。さらに、教師による次の発話者の指名が学生の授業参加にいかに関与を与えているかの要因も考察する。本稿では、イーミックな視点から教室内で起こる相互行為を詳細に記述し、さらに教師がどのように学生の授業活動参加を構築しているかを考察する。教室内で起こる自然発話の分析結果は、教師や研究者に大学の語学教育における新たな視点を与えると同時に、実際の教育現場でどのような相互行為が行われているかを明らかにすることが可能である。

## Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I want to thank my mentor and supervisor Dr. Tim Greer for his guidance and support throughout the long process of writing my dissertation. This work would not have been possible without his continuous support. From the bottom of my heart, thank you Tim for introducing me to CA, guiding me through the process of conducting proper research, and for welcoming me to your lab. Thank you for countless things that you have done for me over the past 4 years.

I would like to extend my gratitude to Dr Sachiko Yasuda and Dr Kazuhito Yamato for their comments on earlier versions of the dissertation. I would like also to thank my friend and colleague Zack Nanbu for his feedback and support during this time. I wish to express my gratitude to all CAN-Kansai and CAN-Kanto members for their feedback at data sessions. I thank Eric Hauser, Yosuke Ogawa, Toshiaki Furukawa, Rue Burch, Yusuke Arano, and Daisuke Kimura. I want also to extend my gratitude to faculty members at the Graduate school of Intercultural studies at Kobe University for their feedback at Shudan Shido sessions.

Special thanks to Professor Watanabe Masahito for his help in obtaining the data and for all the teachers and students who volunteered to be part of my study. I also thank Dr Joan Kelly Hall for granting me access to the Corpus of English for Academic and Professional Purposes (CEAPP) data from Pennsylvania State University.

I wish to express my gratitude to the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) for their generous scholarship that allowed me to conduct my research in perfect environment.



Finally, I thank my family and friends for their support, especially my parents, my aunt Tarba, my brother Ahmedouna and my wife Aicha for their support throughout this journey and for being my source of motivation.

## Table of contents

<b>Abstract</b> .....	<b>II</b>
<b>Acknowledgements</b> .....	<b>VII</b>
<b>Table of contents</b> .....	<b>IX</b>
<b>Chapter 1</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>Introduction</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>1.1 Background to the study</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>1.2 Aim and Scope of the study</b> .....	<b>5</b>
<b>1.3 Outline of the study</b> .....	<b>6</b>
<b>1.4 Significance and expectations of the study</b> .....	<b>7</b>
<b>Chapter 2</b> .....	<b>9</b>
<b>Methodology and Data</b> .....	<b>9</b>
<b>2.1 Methods of Analysis</b> .....	<b>9</b>
<b>2.1.1 Conversation Analysis (CA)</b> .....	<b>9</b>
<b>2.2 Data</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<b>Chapter 3</b> .....	<b>19</b>
<b>Literature review</b> .....	<b>19</b>
<b>3.1 Introduction</b> .....	<b>19</b>
<b>3.2 Conversation Analysis studies on language learning</b> .....	<b>19</b>
3.2.1 Teacher-student interaction.....	19
3.2.2 Pursuing a response.....	22
3.2.3 Classroom management and expectation .....	25
<b>Chapter 4</b> .....	<b>28</b>

<b>Turn Allocation Practices for Summoning a Speaker and Pursuing a</b>	
<b>Response in English Classroom Interaction.....</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>4.1 Introduction .....</b>	<b>28</b>
4.1.1 Turn allocation and Summoning .....	29
4.1.2 Turn allocation and summons in the classroom .....	30
<b>4.2 Analysis.....</b>	<b>31</b>
4.2.1 Summoning one student by first name from a carded list.....	32
4.2.2 Summoning one student by full name from a carded list.....	43
4.2.3 Selecting a known student by name.....	59
4.2.4 Selecting small group of students .....	65
4.2.5 Whole class selection.....	75
<b>4.3 Discussion and conclusion .....</b>	<b>81</b>
<b>Chapter 5 .....</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>Ear Cupping in EFL Classroom Interaction:.....</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>An Embodied Means of Pursuing a Student Response .....</b>	<b>86</b>
<b>5.1 Introduction .....</b>	<b>86</b>
5.1.1 Background.....	90
<b>5.2 Analysis.....</b>	<b>92</b>
5.2.1 Ear cupping as other-initiation of repair.....	92
5.2.2 Ear cupping as mobilizing response device .....	99
<b>5.3 Discussion and Conclusion.....</b>	<b>120</b>
<b>Chapter 6 .....</b>	<b>123</b>
<b>Absurd Candidate Formulation (ACF) as a Practice for Pursuing Students’</b>	
<b>Responses in EFL Classrooms.....</b>	<b>123</b>
<b>6.1 Introduction .....</b>	<b>123</b>

6.1.1 Pursuing response in classroom institutional interaction.....	126
6.1.2 Extreme Case Formulation (ECF) and Absurd Candidate Formulation (ACF) .....	127
6.1.3 Occasioned Semantics (OS) and Scaling .....	127
<b>6.2 Methods.....</b>	<b>128</b>
<b>6.3 Analysis .....</b>	<b>129</b>
6.3.1 ACFs as a scaling practice to pursue response.....	129
6.3.2 ACF to pursue progressivity .....	146
<b>6.4 Discussion and conclusion .....</b>	<b>165</b>
<b>7. Conclusion .....</b>	<b>168</b>
7.1 Introduction .....	168
7.2 Summary of findings .....	168
7.3 Implications for CA .....	173
7.4 Implications for practical classroom practices .....	174
7.5 Originality .....	176
7.6 Limitation and Directions for future research .....	177
7.7 Conclusion.....	177
References.....	179
<b>Appendices.....</b>	<b>196</b>

# **Chapter 1**

## **Introduction**

### **1.1 Background to the study**

In the 21st Century, speaking English has become a virtual necessity due to the interconnected nature of the globalized society in which we live. Every year millions of adult learners commence the journey of studying English as a Foreign Language (EFL). EFL is the teaching of English in countries that were not colonized by England or culturally influenced by it (Nault, 2006). Most countries in the EFL circle work to develop English language within their education systems, and Japan has shown great potential in recent years to improve its English curriculum, especially in higher education institutions. For example, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has been actively encouraging universities in Japan to become more English-friendly in order to better accommodate greater numbers of international students and to improve Japanese students' English proficiency. Due to these increasingly competitive demands, many English educators strive to provide more productive experiences for learners. Teachers have applied various approaches and strategies in order to achieve the ideal learning experience and researchers have been actively exploring methods for improving students' English abilities (Talandis & Stout, 2015).

The vast majority of research in the field of EFL in the Japanese context agrees that silence is a noticeable if not dominant phenomenon in EFL classrooms and researchers have addressed this issue from various perspectives. They have analyzed the silence using both quantitative (King, 2013b) and qualitative methods (Harumi, 2011). The findings show that majority of class time is occupied with teachers' talk

rather than contributions from the students. The findings demonstrate that silence in Japanese EFL classrooms is due to several factors, among them both psychological and socio-cultural considerations. As Harumi points out in her study, there are different types of silence and teachers and students can interpret those types differently. Some researchers attempted to understand the silence in EFL classrooms from the students' perspectives. For example, Japanese students can be viewed as using silence as a face-saving strategy (Nakane, 2006). The participants in Nakane's study attribute their silence to explanations such as fear of speaking in front of the whole class and lack of preparation. Some students also report that they communicate better when they are speaking with their peers in small groups (Humphries et al., 2015). It is important to note that being silent is not always a negative phenomenon and that teachers should value wait time to provide students with sufficient time to prepare, as long as the learners are showing non-verbal signs of engagement (Kim et al., 2016). However, as King (2013b) notes, there is a need for more research to investigate such silence at the micro level to provide evidence of how participants deal with silence. The previous research helps in understanding some of the issues related to silence in the Japanese EFL context. However, most of those studies attempted to analyze classroom silence using etic methods, such as interviews, observations, and questionnaires. This dissertation aims to address this gap in the literature by providing participant-centered evidence based on naturally occurring data such as that used in Conversation Analysis (CA). This dissertation will analyze the participants' reactions to one type of silence, which is the silence that comes after teachers' First-Pair-Parts (FPP) initiations –usually in the forms of questions– that makes a response from the students relevant. The study uses CA methods to emically analyze how teachers deal with not receiving a timely response. The focus is on the

interactional practices that teachers use in order to elicit responses from students and how students react to those practices. I am not claiming or even attempting to answer all questions related to the silence in EFL classrooms in Japan. Instead, I aim to narrow the focus and investigate how the participants themselves locally treat delayed responses.

Teacher-student interaction is an essential part of language learning. For that reason, teachers invest heavily in arriving at the proper techniques to establish successful communication with their students. These teaching practices have attracted the attention of researchers to investigate how teaching and learning occur in real time and how it constitutes a joint achievement between teachers and learners (Seedhouse, 2004).

Classroom interaction has been the focus of a great deal of CA/SLA research investigating how teachers select students in classrooms (Kääntä, 2012; Lauzon & Berger, 2015; Mchoul, 1978) and how they pursue responses (Margutti, 2006; Svennevig, 2012). To add to this line of research, there is a need for studies that show how teachers use various speaker selection practices, such as selecting a group of students, and how the students negotiate speaker selection among themselves. In addition, the existing research does not adequately address how teachers use embodied practices or humor to pursue responses. The lack of research in these areas indicates a need for studies to fill this gap by providing evidence based on actual data showing how teachers select students and how they pursue responses.

The study uses CA methods because they suit the purpose of investigating the micro details of interaction in a way that other research methods do not offer. As a field that deals with interaction, CA has much to offer in exploring teacher-student talk in classrooms and thus understanding how teaching and learning occur in real

time. By focusing on micro details, CA researchers are able to demonstrate how teachers and students engage in learning activities from an emic perspective. CA affords an authentic method of investigating L2 learning as a social practice by focusing on orientations that participants display toward each other (Kasper, 2006). It thus offers insights into how L2 classroom interaction is organized and the relationship between pedagogy and interaction (Seedhouse, 2004; Young & Miller, 2004) by dealing with L2 learning as a social practice (Brouwer & Wagner, 2004). In addition to its focus on verbal elements of the interaction, CA also pays significant attention to the embodied side of talk (Goodwin, 2004). By analyzing embodied actions, researchers can account for teaching and learning practices that may otherwise remain unnoticed. The study employs CA methods to analyze classroom interaction through video-recorded talk. It deals with observable features of talk in detail and avoids cognitive analysis and assumptions. The recordings mainly originate from the EFL context in higher education in Japan. Most of the data are taken from English classrooms in first-year Japanese university lessons over the course of one semester. The first language of the students is Japanese, and all the teachers are English native speakers from the United States. The study therefore is one that focuses on institutional talk as it occurs inside classrooms between teachers and students. The aim is to reveal how teachers discursively display their teaching methods, classroom management and expectations, and how learners react to this through their interactional practices. Although, there are also a few cases where some parts of data from a university in the US are used in this dissertation to support the findings, the study is not intended to be a comparative one in any sense.



## **1.2 Aim and Scope of the study**

Understanding how teachers and students interact in the classroom is the first step to understanding how teaching and learning occur. In recent years some SLA research has shifted from cognitive and psychological approaches to looking at learning as a social practice that can be understood within its social context (Pekarek Doehler, 2010). Teaching and learning practices are based in and formed through interaction (Seedhouse, 2004). The aim of this study is to document some of the interactional practices that are used to accomplish language teaching and learning within L2 classrooms at the university level, particularly as they relate to the pursuit of response. The researcher will analyze the interactional practices and emically account for them in their sequential context to show how teachers adapt their interaction to respond to emergent communicative needs (Pekarek Doehler, 2010). In line with the CA approach, the study will ground its findings primarily on observable features of talk, including both spoken and embodied interaction. The analysis will be based on transcripts of video recordings from actual English classrooms using a naturally occurring dataset, one of the defining features of conversation analysis. The study will investigate how participants react and deal with the silence that follows teachers' questions when the students' responses are delayed. The study therefore aims to show how teachers select next speakers in their classrooms and how they pursue delayed responses. By doing this, this dissertation adds to a growing number of CA studies in SLA contexts.

The CA approach generally avoids a priori assumptions about the data, and therefore eschews the formulation of research questions before examining the talk. However, after extensive observation of the video recordings, the following research focuses were formulated.

1. How do teachers nominate students to answer a question and how does this influence the student's response?
2. What embodied practices do teachers use to pursue a missing or delayed response?
3. How do teachers use humor to pursue a missing or delayed response?

### **1.3 Outline of the study**

The study is divided into seven chapters. This chapter has presented an overview and background of the study, and also provided the objectives and significance behind the research. The study is set to examine the observable interactional practices used in EFL classrooms. The second chapter will provide a description of methods used for this study and the data collection procedures. Chapter 3 will present related literature review on CA-SLA, and classroom interaction.

Chapter 4 presents an analysis of how teachers in classrooms allocate turns and select next speaker to answer their questions. This chapter examines in detail the practices of summoning and selecting students and how that affects students' responses. Chapter 5 presents an analysis of nonverbal practices, which are used by teachers to pursue students' missing responses. It focuses on an Ear-Cupping (EC) gesture and how teachers use it to pursue a delayed response from students. It shows how teachers deploy this gesture in conjunction with talk and sometimes alone and how students orient to it in the ongoing interaction. Chapter 6 provides an analysis of verbal practices that teachers use in order to pursue responses from students when those responses are otherwise missing or delayed. The focus is on interactional practices that provide plausible candidate responses within a list that includes an absurd candidate response. The chapter investigates how teachers use Absurd Candidate Formulations (ACFs) in order to guide students to choose the correct

answer. In addition to CA methods, Chapter 6 employs Occasioned Semantics (OS) to investigate how the teachers use scaling practices in their talk in order to pursue missing responses.

Finally, Chapter 7 draws the thesis to a conclusion, summarizing the key findings of the study, the implications, the limitations, and suggesting avenues for future research.

#### **1.4 Significance and expectations of the study**

This study provides insight into how teachers engage their students in classroom interaction by explicating some of the interactional practices used by language teachers in second language classrooms at university level. The dissertation adds to the field of CA by providing an in-depth understanding of teacher-student interaction in language classrooms, particularly with regard to the question of how teachers select next speakers and pursue students' responses when they are delayed or missing. The fine-grained detail of its analysis will contribute to our understanding of teaching and learning practices in L2 classrooms.

In addition to verbal elements of talk, the study also takes embodied features of the interaction into account in a multimodal analysis. It will show how teaching and learning are co-constructed by teachers and students through their interactional practices. Analyzing embodied actions will enable the study to shed light on how the participants employ non-verbal elements of talk to achieve their teaching and learning goals. This will also contribute to previous research on embodied action, especially in language classrooms, by showing how teachers use embodied resources to select students and to pursue responses and how students react to those resources. It will also analyze how students use gestures to negotiate speaker selection.

The dissertation has both theoretical and practical implications. Firstly, it adds to CA research by analyzing teacher-student talk to demonstrate how speaker selection in language classrooms is co-constructed by the teachers and the students and not just by teachers. It will also explicate how the teachers deal with delayed responses. Secondly, the list of interactional practices used by teachers to select speakers and pursue students' responses should be informative and useful to other teachers facing similar situations of missing or delayed responses after their questions.

## **Chapter 2**

### **Methodology and Data**

#### **2.1 Methods of Analysis**

As mentioned in Chapter 1, this dissertation is based on the approach known as Conversation Analysis (CA). This chapter will first provide an overview of CA methods and their applications to the field of language learning, including the analytical strengths of CA for making sense of classroom interaction. The next section will present the data and participants of the study in order to outline the procedures used to collect the data, the context in which the interaction takes place, and who the participants are.

##### **2.1.1 Conversation Analysis (CA)**

CA is a set of inductive micro-analytic methods for studying human social interaction. Harvey Sacks and his colleagues first developed and used CA within the field of sociology in the 1960s (Sacks, 1995). In one of the seminal studies within the field, Sacks et al. (1974) introduce the fundamentals of human conversation using CA methods. Their innovative findings on interaction include the way participants construct and allocate turns at talk. One of the basic tenets of CA is that its findings should be centered on naturally occurring interaction. Typical CA data thus come from natural (unscripted, unrehearsed) situations such as everyday conversations. CA employs detailed transcription “as tool for noticing and describing the moment by moment unfolding of talk” (Gardner, 2008, P. 229). Conversation analysts look at interaction between participants as the primordial site of sociality (Schegloff, 2006). CA research aims to describe how participants achieve the organization of social

actions (Kasper & Wagner, 2014), and endeavor to interpret the data from the participants' perspective instead of depending on field notes or interview scripts, which do not necessarily reflect people's actual behavior. According to Wong and Waring (2010), the analytical procedures of CA have five distinguishing features:

1. Unmotivated looking
2. Repeated listening and viewing
3. Answering "why that now"?
4. Case-by-case analysis
5. Deviant case analysis

CA views conversation as a vehicle of action. The focus is not on what is said but what type of action is done through talk (requesting, offering, inviting, and so on). The analysis focuses on how these actions are done and what their consequences are (Schegloff, 1995). To conduct a CA investigation, researchers pay close attention to specific features of the talk. One of the essential aspects of CA is turn-taking, which deals with who speaks next and includes rules such as; one party speaks at a time and that turns are made up of at least one or more Turn Constructional Units (TCUs) (Sacks et al., 1974). These rules are not limited to English language only. They are universal rules that can be applied to other languages (Stivers et al., 2009). Sequence organization is another essential part of CA and researchers use it to focus on how conversation is organized temporally in relation to what has just happened or what is projectably relevant. Schegloff (2007) argues that one primary sequential format in conversation involves adjacency pairs, which consist of two "pair parts", where the First Pair Part (FPP) is followed by a Second Pair Part (SPP) in the next turn.

Producing a FPP makes a SPP sequentially relevant and if it is missing or delayed, its absence will be noticed. Repair is also considered essential to CA methods and it occurs when the interlocutors fail to achieve intersubjectivity. Repair practices are those that deal with troubles in speaking, hearing, or understanding in conversation (Sacks et al., 1974). In such cases the interlocutors can use a range of practices to repair the trouble source. Another aspect of CA is preference structure, which refers to the next actions such as accepting the invitations or offers. Preferred actions are normally produced without any delay, unlike dispreferred actions that are delayed normally (Schegloff, 2007).

### 2.1.2 CA in language learning contexts

In recent years CA has attracted a considerable amount of attention within second language learning research. One of its analytic strengths is that it looks at language in its social context rather than relying on cognitive or cultural explanations. Speaking the target language is one of the most important elements of language learning and it is important to pay attention to learners' production of target language (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). Firth and Wagner (1998) argue that traditional SLA research has neglected the social aspects of language and over-focuses instead on cognition within and by the individual. CA does not aim to uncover what is in the mind of learners; instead it limits itself to publicly observable phenomena in order to shed light on the significance of social interaction as part of language learning. CA can offer insights into how L2 classroom interaction is organized and the relationship between pedagogy and interaction (Seedhouse, 2004). Young and Miller (2004) likewise argue that language learning is rooted in the learner's participation in social practice. CA methods therefore focus on the development of interactional skills and practices of language as a social process (Brouwer & Wagner, 2004; Kasper & Wagner, 2014).

CA has much to offer the field of language learning, as its methods can be helpful in designing lessons based on authentic spoken language instead of the inauthentic talk that is typical of most language textbooks. In addition, CA also can contribute to teacher training programs by providing examples of actual teaching in classrooms. This can show novice teachers how to improve their methods and how to avoid common mistakes. Language teachers often neglect to include turn-taking and non-verbal aspects of talk in the curriculum. By using CA methods, teachers can make students aware of some of the essential aspect of interaction. Knowing about the outcomes of CA research can allow students to notice, learn, and verbalize issues to do with interactional practices like turn-taking, recipient design, and adjacency pairs.

### 2.1.3 Analytical strength of CA

The use of CA methods means that researchers adopt an emic perspective on the data, which enables them to observe and describe what participants are orienting to and how they make sense of their co-participants (Mori, 2007). The use of naturally occurring data increases the trustworthiness of the findings and allows educators to apply them to real situations such as language classrooms. This makes the findings of CA based on stronger evidence than the sort of researcher assumptions and interpretations that are commonly found in other forms of qualitative research. The recorded data also provide the advantage of being able to carefully observe the data to whatever extent the researchers need. According to Wong and Waring (2010), "Accurate understandings of how conversation works take hours of investigations into minute details of recorded interactions, a hallmark of conversation analysis (CA)" (p. 2). The CA methods focus on what language learners are capable of doing, instead of concentrating on their mistakes alone.



CA methods also give researchers the opportunity to observe and analyze the non-verbal elements of talk, such as gaze and gestures. Embodied action is an essential part of conversation and should be analyzed as such (Goodwin, 2004). CA also depends on building collections of cases, which form an empirical foundation for analysis. By collecting cases, researchers can provide tangible evidence for certain phenomena that occur in the data.

## **2.2 Data**

### 2.2.1 Participants and data collection site

The data to be analyzed in the current study were mainly collected from four EFL classrooms in a national university in Japan. The focal participants are four American teachers and their Japanese students, with each class consisting of 25 students. The classes are first-year English (EFL) speaking and presentation skills classes. All students were freshmen and had just started their university study at the time of the initial recordings. In Japan, students typically study the English language for six years during junior high school and high school, so these freshman college students had at least that much classroom experience with the language. All four groups were placed on the same level of English proficiency based on a placement test they took before joining the class and could be considered at approximately A2 on the CEFR scale with regard to spoken interaction. The classes are semester-based courses and the students and the teacher meet once a week.

### 2.2.2 Data collection

Data collection started in April 2017 –the beginning of the semester- and was completed in August -the end of the semester- of the same year. I used two video cameras to record the data. One camera was placed on a tripod and I held the other camera so that I could move around the classroom to capture particular instances of

interaction as needed. Each class was held for duration of 90 minutes and I started the recording a couple of minutes before the actual start of lessons and finished it shortly after the class ended. All the participants, including teachers and students, signed a consent form before the beginning of recording (see Appendix 2). The table below contains details of data collection dates, the time of each lesson, and the number of recordings.

Table 2.1

*Summary of the data*

Classroom	Data collection date	Length	Lesson
A	2017/05/09	1:31:22	1
	2017/05/16	1:30:07	2
	2017/06/27	1:27:37	3
	2017/07/11	1:26:03	4
B	2017/06/06	1:29:31	1
	2017/07/23	1:28:13	2
C	2017/04/26	1:30:02	1
	2017/05/23	1:28:47	2
D	2017/04/27	1:23:32	1
	2017/05/26	1:30:11	2
	2017/06/08	1:29/12	3
Total		16:21:85	11

Number of Lessons and their durations

Screenshots of the four classrooms where the data were collected are provided in Figures 2.1 to 2.4. As can be seen from these images, the classrooms were generally teacher-centered, with the desks arranged in rows facing the front. Some teachers attempted to deal with this situation by having the students stand (Figure 2.1) or by moving closer to the students (Figure 2.2), while others allowed the students to sit toward the back of the room and maintained some physical distance between themselves and the students throughout the class (Figures 2.3 and 2.4). This no doubt had some effect on the way the interaction in each classroom played out.

Figure 2.1

*A screenshot of classroom A*



The teacher and the students are standing in the classroom while the teacher is talking to the students.

Figure 2.2

*A screenshot of classroom B*



The teacher is standing in the middle of class talking to some students

Figure 2.3  
*A screenshot of classroom C*



The teacher is sitting on the front table and all students are in their seats

Figure 2. 4.  
*A screenshot of classroom D*



The teacher is standing between the front row tables while all students are sitting in the back.

The second part of the data was obtained from a Corpus of English for Academic and Professional Purposes (CEAPP). It includes video recordings of English as Second Language (ESL) classrooms at Pennsylvania State University in the US. Excerpts from this data were added to the main data in some parts of the analysis, mainly in Chapter 4 on turn allocation practices. In this data the classes are

from an intensive English program for high-level beginners. There are around 15 students, in these classrooms, from different backgrounds and an American teacher. Figure 2.5 is representative of the participant constellations commonly found in the classrooms in the CEAPP dataset.

Figure 2.5

*A screenshot of classroom E*



The students are seated in pairs and threes at four rows of desks.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Literature review**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter will present a detailed overview of previous research relevant to the dissertation. It will include an overview of some CA-SLA studies related to topics such as teacher-student talk, selecting next speakers in classroom, pursuing response, and using gestures. The aim of the chapter is to provide an overview of how other researchers investigate language-learning practices using CA methods and to highlight how the current study will contribute and add to the previous research.

#### **3.2 Conversation Analysis studies on language learning**

In this section, I will present a review of studies that use CA methodology to investigate language-learning practices. The section will start with teacher-student interaction; the structure and forms of talk occasioned in classrooms. The next part will cover studies on how teachers pursue a response from learners when it is delayed or missed. Finally, I will review a number of studies related to classroom management and expectations.

##### **3.2.1 Teacher-student interaction**

Classroom talk has attracted the attention of many researchers and those who use CA seek to observe it through the micro-details of the interaction (Pekarek Doehler, 2013). In CA, classroom talk is considered as institutional talk, as opposed to mundane or ordinary talk (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Sacks et al., 1974). In classroom talk often the teachers have the right to assign turns and topics to students and to evaluate students' participation in the conversation (Markee & Kasper, 2004). The

majority of previous CA work on classroom interaction has been related to the organization of action sequences and the organization of turn taking. One of the basic sequential structures of classroom talk is known as the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequence (McHoul, 1985; Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). First the teacher initiates a sequence with a question, often to check students' understanding and establish a classroom expectation (Filipi, 2018). The second part is the students' response and finally the teacher closes the sequence by providing some form of feedback or assessment on the student's response. By applying IRF, teachers can address a variety of pedagogical purposes, such as inviting learners to elaborate, self-assess, and check on the students' answers Waring (2009). Sacks et al. (1974) describe a systematic way for turn taking in mundane conversation. They noted that only one participant speaks at a time and when overlaps occur they are usually short. In this paper SSJ describe three ways that interlocutors use to select next speaker; (a) current speaker selects next speaker and they are obliged to take the turn, (b) if the current speaker does not select next speaker then another participant can self-select, and (c) when none of the previous scenarios happen, current speaker can continue speaking. The second scenario is usually what happens in an IRF sequence where the teacher asks a question and opens the floor for students to self-select or bid for turns to answer the question. The turn taking system in classroom interaction is often pre-allocated and the teacher manages the conversations and students usually do not speak until the teacher selects them (McHoul, 1985). On occasions teachers treat students as one party. Lerner (2002) uses the class to refer to multiple students speaking at once. He considers the classroom to consist of two parties: the teacher and the students. Similar findings show that many students speak together only if they can roughly say the same thing (Van Lier, 1988). This is different from what Sacks et al. (1974)



explained about how one person generally speaks at a time, which might be true in ordinary conversation but is not always so in institutional conversations such as classrooms. Usually, students' participation is restricted to the second turn of the IRF sequence as a response to the teacher's initiation (Kapellidi, 2013). In choral responses students coordinate the tempo and loudness of their talk. The responses are produced at the same moment and in the same way (Lerner, 1993). The choral responses can occur when teachers' questions are designed to have only one or a few acceptable answers (Ikeda & Ko, 2011). The teachers also sometimes pass on turns after students' contributions to allow other students to respond to their classmates. This help shifts the participation framework from a teacher-centered to student-centered classroom (Willemsen et al., 2020).

There are some disadvantages to treating all students as one. For example, if a teacher treats all students as one party there is no way for him or her to know if one student is attending to the public accounting of the answers and whether there is an actual student understanding (Jacknick & Creider, 2018). Some studies demonstrated that students' responses to teacher-fronted questions are often used as a stand-in for engaged participation, and that other teacher actions may have more pedagogical value. For instance, if the goals include public airing of correct answers, student language use, and understanding, small group or pair work might provide a more interactive learning environment (Creider, 2016). As can be noticed from these studies, the classroom talk is more than just a dialogue between two parties. For that reason, Schwab (2011) introduces the term "multilogue" as a more accurate descriptor of whole-class interaction than dialogue. Schwab argues that in these settings, all members of the class potentially have access to contributions and could contribute themselves. The classroom talk is more complicated than dyadic interaction; it

involves multiparty interaction and should be analyzed as such. A closer look at what is happening in classroom shows students correct each other (Åhlund & Aronsson, 2015) and answer on each other's behalf (see Chapter 4 on turn allocation).

In addition to the use of verbal element of talk in the classroom, teachers routinely and concurrently employ gestures to communicate with their students to achieve an array of purposes. For example, gestures can be used to explain vocabulary (Tai & Khabbazzbashi, 2019), initiate repair (Mortensen, 2016), manage students' participation (Hall et al., 2019), and to achieve intersubjectivity (Aus der Wieschen & Eskildsen, 2019). The current study will add to this line of research by showing how teachers use specific gestures to pursue missing or delayed responses.

### 3.2.2 Pursuing a response

Previous research on mundane conversation has shown that after a question is posed a response becomes sequentially relevant and depending on the type of question a certain type of pragmatic action is relevant within that response; for example, a greeting makes relevant a greeting, an invitation makes relevant an acceptance or a refusal, and an offer makes relevant an acceptance or a rejection (Heritage, 1984; Pomerantz, 1984b; Schegloff, 2007). Depending on the type of the question, a matching or a fitting response becomes relevant, or what Raymond (2003) calls "type-conforming responses". For instance, a choral question makes a yes or no response relevant, and alternative choice questions prompt the recipient to choose one of the alternatives. On occasions, recipients provide "non-conforming responses" as a way of treating the question as problematic (Raymond, 2003). In cases where the recipient does not provide a response, the absence of that response is accountable and based on the type of problem that led to the missing response, there is matching solution (Pomerantz, 1984b). For example, if the recipient does not answer because of an

understanding issue, the speaker might replace or repeat parts of his or her question. In addition, a recipient might delay the response if they disagree with the argument. In this case the speaker may modify his or her statement. Building on these findings, Stivers and Rossano (2010) demonstrated that when a response is relevantly missing, delayed, or inadequate, speakers may use a range of practices for mobilizing a response. Initiators can use four features that are regularly responded to and used to mobilize a response to increase the pressure on recipients to provide an answer. These four features are: interrogative lexico-morpho-syntax, interrogative prosody, recipient-tilted epistemic asymmetry, and recipient-directed speaker gaze. Speakers can also use increments, which are turn-constructural resources that can be used as completion of Turn Constructural Units (TCU) (Schegloff, 2000), as a pursuit of response tool (Bolden et al., 2012). Studies have shown that adults are not the only ones who use interactional practices to pursue responses, children as young as two years old also employ a variety of verbal and embodied actions to pursue a relevant response when it is missing or delayed (Keel, 2015).

As in mundane talk, in classroom talk teachers also orient to the delay after their questions by using a variety of interactional practices to pursue a response from students when no immediate response is forthcoming. Numerous studies have looked at classroom interaction to understand how teachers elicit responses from students. These practices include; reformulating questions to make them clear and understandable, switching to the learners' L1 after they use other pursuing response practices without getting any response from students, and producing yes-no as candidate answers (Margutti, 2006; Okada, 2010; Svennevig, 2012). Teachers generally avoid explicit rejection of students' incorrect answers and explicitly praise them when they provide the correct answer (Hosoda & Aline, 2010), and sometimes

they assist students in arriving at the appropriate response (Van Compernelle, 2011). Teachers also use non-verbal elements of talk such as gestures to prompt students to provide a hearable response: as Mortensen (2016) shows, teachers use the cupping of a hand behind their ear to accomplish other-initiation of repair. Teachers use this gesture when there is a hearing problem, which encourages students to repeat their response in a more appropriate way. Teachers also use pedagogical artifacts such as digital slides to mobilize and elicit students' responses (Chazal, 2020). On occasions, teachers pursue a response if they treat students' response as an inadequate (Bolden et al., 2012). In mathematical classrooms, Nathan and Kim (2009) found the teachers use scaffolding techniques to elicit responses from the students and help them advance from basic level to higher level of mathematical thinking and speaking. In language classroom interaction the target language is the medium of interaction as well as the goal of learning. Therefore, teachers might ask questions with very obvious answers to enable students to participate in talk in the target language (Seedhouse, 2004). In mundane conversation, a gap after a FPP does not usually exceed one second, or otherwise it is treated as problematic (Jefferson, 1989). However, in a classroom context it can reach more than five seconds and in Japanese EFL classes it can be even longer (Nakane, 2007). The wait time in classrooms can have a positive effect on students, such as increasing the length of their response, and allowing those who do not participate regularly to do so more actively (Hosoda, 2014; Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010). The length of a response is a feature of advanced speakers; they often expand their response beyond what was projected by the form of the question. On the other hand, less proficient speakers usually provide short responses (Lee et al., 2011).

Teachers modify their language to be on the same level as their students, which can also facilitate responses from the students. They produce a designedly incomplete utterance (DIU) (Koshik, 2002b) to pursue students' responses by giving the first part of answers and leaving one or a few words for students to complete the turn-in-progress, making it easier for them to reply. Teachers often use DIUs when their original questions fail to get a response from students. Similar to these findings, Lerner (1995) shows how teachers produce incomplete turn-constructive units that can invite responses from students and on occasions design their turns to elicit choral responses. Sometimes teachers treat students' silence after their questions as evidence of not understanding the question in English or not remembering English words or grammar to use for responding. Therefore, teachers assist students linguistically by repeating, reformulating, or translating their questions (Hosoda, 2014). However, in her study Hosoda suggests that before teachers rush to pursue a response, they should employ a longer wait time to determine what the trouble source is, because it is not always a language difficulty. Even though there are numerous studies on how teachers pursue students' responses in classroom, there is still a lack of research on how teachers use gestures and humor to elicit students' responses. This dissertation will fill this gap by analyzing how teachers use such interactional practices to pursue a missing or delayed response from students.

### 3.2.3 Classroom management and expectation

In classrooms, teachers are faced with how to deliver their learning content and achieve their pedagogical goals. They usually come up with plans; however, these plans do not always work as smoothly as they are expected to do. In these cases, teachers use a range of practices on the fly to demonstrate their classroom expectations. One of these practices is asking students questions to establish

understanding, including epistemic checks, such as do-you-understand and yes-no questions (Waring, 2012). Teachers also use epistemic checks as a tool to manage interaction and can use questions to create a communicative classroom (Koshik, 2010) On occasions, teachers use yes-no questions to indicate what is problematic about a student's participation and to point out possible solutions (Koshik, 2002a). In some language classrooms two teachers cooperate and if done properly, this can enhance students' comprehension and maintain the flow of the lesson (Aline & Hosoda, 2006; Ishino, 2018).

Many EFL teachers aim for an English-only environment in EFL classrooms (Malabarba, 2019). In EFL classrooms, the use of English is the norm and any use of the learners' L1 can be considered as inappropriate and a violation of the one language policy (Nikula, 2005). However, in some cases students resist the teacher's one language policy and use their L1 in classrooms (Wei & Wu, 2009; see Chapter 4 on turn allocation). On occasions, teachers may allow language alternation in the classroom in order to resolve problems and difficulties in conversation and to manage the classroom (Huq, 2018).

The prior research has enhanced our understanding of classroom interaction. It showed how the teachers nominate speakers in the classrooms using both talk and gestures (Kääntä, 2012; Mortensen, 2008). It also demonstrated how the teachers use various interactional practices to pursue students' delayed responses (Margutti, 2006; Okada & Greer, 2013; Svennevig, 2012). However, there are still areas where further research is required. For example, there is a need to show how teachers and students jointly achieve speaker selection and how students negotiate who will speak next in the classroom. In addition, there is also a need for research to shed light on how teachers employ embodied resources and humor to pursue missing and delayed

responses from students. This dissertation will add to the field of CA by filling the gap in these areas to demonstrate how speaker nomination occurs in language classrooms and how teachers deal with the silence that sometimes follows their questions.

In the next section, the analysis chapters will be presented starting with Chapter 4 on how teachers summon and select a next speaker in language classrooms. Following that, Chapters 5 and 6 will analyze elements of the interaction that went on in some EFL classrooms with a particular focus on the way the teachers pursue a response from the students when it is missing or treated as an inapposite.

## Chapter 4

### **Turn Allocation Practices for Summoning a Speaker and Pursuing a Response in English Classroom Interaction**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

One of the challenges that language teachers face is how to engage students in classroom activities. Teachers use many interactional practices in order to talk and take part in pedagogical activities. Fundamental to these practices is the question of how to find a next speaker or speakers in the ongoing interaction and how to pursue a response when it is missing or delayed. This chapter analyses how teachers in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in Japanese universities and English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms in the United States summon and select next speaker(s). The chapter also investigates how teachers use various interactional practices to pursue students' responses when they allocate turns to students without getting any response. This chapter contributes to previous work on turn allocation and pursuing of response in the language classroom by looking into how teachers deploy interactional practices to select next speaker and how that leads to more active classroom participation. It also analyses how teachers and students negotiate turn allocation. The chapter provides a vital basis for understanding issues of pursuing and mobilizing a response and is fundamental to the remaining chapters because, in order to analyze response pursuits in the classroom one needs to also analyze where the sequence originates. The teachers need to identify a next speaker to answer their questions and the process of finding a next speaker is the focus of this chapter in order to understand how this is done and how it affects the delivery of the students' response.



#### 4.1.1 Turn allocation and Summoning

In their classic study, Sacks et al. (1974) introduce what they term a turn-taking machinery in order to show how current speaker selects next speaker or next speaker self-selects, and they claim that turn-taking usually happens at a transition relevance place. Due to the limits of technology available to them at the time, what is missing in this study is an analysis of the embodied practices used by interlocutors to augment or accomplish the selection of next speaker or to self-select, as SSJ were only able to analyze the speech elements, such as sentences, clauses, and phrases. In order to select next speaker, interlocutors use various interactional practices including recipient names, interrogative syntax (Lerner, 2003), pointing, nodding, and gazing (Lerner, 2003; Rossano, 2013). For example, when a speaker gazes at one particular participant during multi-party interaction the gaze can serve as a tool to select an individual next speaker.

A summons is an interactional pre-sequence that serves to ready the recipient for further talk. In his seminal study Schegloff (1968) analyses how people use summons sequences in telephone conversation, where the English summons takes the form of *hello*. According to this study when the summoned answers the summoner, he or she is obliged to talk again and the summoned is obliged to listen. When the summons is not answered the summoner can repeat it up to five times according to Schegloff's study. In face-to-face mundane interaction, a summons can be accomplished with phrases like "hey", "pardon me", or even upwardly intoned hesitation markers ("um?") and regularly also incorporates the recipient's name or some alternative address term, such as *sir* or *ma'am*.

#### 4.1.2 Turn allocation and summons in the classroom

The organization of turn-taking in the classroom has been the focus of classroom-based CA research that shows how turn-taking is jointly negotiated by the teacher and student (Hauser, 2009; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Mortensen, 2008). McHoul (1978) identifies a set of rules that apply to the institutional setting of the classroom. For example, teachers can either specifically select a next speaker or they can open the floor and wait for one of the students to self-select. Teachers use a variety of practices to select next speaker in the classroom; naming one student, inviting bidders, or inviting students to produce choral responses. For the majority of the time classroom interaction follows these descriptions; however, on occasions, the structure of turn-taking in the classroom differs from mundane talk (Ingram & Elliott, 2014). Plenary classroom talk is considered as two-party interaction with the teacher as one party and students as the other party (Lerner, 2002). The success of the teachers' turn allocation depends on the way they deliver it, as well as its timing. If the teacher uses embodied practices for turn allocation, participants need to be co-present and be able to see each other to accomplish the turn allocation (Kääntä, 2012; Mortensen, 2008). Students often also need to make their reciprocity available in order to be nominated by the teacher. They can bid for the next turn by raising their hands and gazing toward the teacher (Mortensen, 2008). In order for the teacher to engage in talk with students they need to establish joint agreement on the participation. Teachers usually select those students who are gazing toward them and are thus displaying their availability or willingness to be selected (Lauzon & Berger, 2015). If there is no indication of any available next speaker, teachers may select students with particularly noticeable behavior, such as those disturbing others, and this can be taken as a form of disciplinary action. By selecting students with noticeable behavior, the teacher aims to

better engage them in the activity (Lauzon & Berger, 2015). If there is no visual contact between the participants a summons is required (Gardner, 2015).

If need be, students can also obtain the teacher's attention through a variety of summoning practices, including calling them by address terms (such as Miss), their name, multiple repetitions of summonses, moving closer to the teacher, and touching the teacher (Gardner, 2015). In this study Gardner shows how children summon teachers, suggesting that summonses sometimes fail when the teacher is busy with other students at the same time. Young students also use more than just summons turn to get the teacher's attention: they can also use gestures and artifacts (Cekaite, 2008).

In this chapter I examine turn allocation and summonses from a different angle. The focus will be on how teachers allocate turns or use summonses to select next speakers who have not bid for turns or shown their availability. Previous research has shown how teachers select next speaker after students bid for turns (Kääntä, 2012), gazed toward the teacher, or produced noticeable behavior (Lauzan & Berger, 2015), or how students use summonses to get the teacher's attention (Gardner, 2015). The current study instead looks at situations in which the teacher calls on students who have not indicated any particular readiness or willingness to respond to the question.

## **4.2 Analysis**

This chapter will therefore present an analysis of how teachers select students in some language classrooms. Based on the data set I have collected, I identified three main interactional practices with sub-practices in each one of them. The first practice is summoning one student by name from a carded list. This can be by (a) first name or (b) full name. The teacher summons one student by reading his or her name from a list and after the summons is established, they move to ask a question. The second

practice is the selection of a small group of three to four students. The teachers do not select a specific student but leave it to the students to decide who will answer on behalf of the group. The last practice is selecting the whole class by opening the floor after a question. The analysis will be presented in this order. Each of these practices is related to how teachers allocate turns in classroom. The first practice particularly involves summonses that teachers use to establish students' availability in order to ask them questions, and also to determine the student's location for themselves in cases where the teacher does not know the name of each class member. The remainder of the practices are related to selecting next speaker to answer a question that has already been asked. In these practices there is no need for summoning because the teacher either knows the names of the students or they are visually available to her/him. All of these practices share the fundamental starting point that teachers are selecting students who have not shown their willingness to be selected, such as by raising a hand.

In some of the excerpts the teachers needed to pursue the response after they have established the next speaker and asked a question. I will analyze the latter part of these excerpts as well.

#### 4.2.1 Summoning one student by first name from a carded list

The following is a general schematic outline of the sequential structure of this speaker selection practice:

T1: Summons: Teacher calls student name (FPP)

T2: Student provides response –spoken and/or embodied– (SPP)

In the following excerpts, the teacher uses a summons to select one student by reading her/his name from a carded list, which contains the names of all students in the class. The summoning is not in any order, so students do not know when their turn will come. Once the teacher has established the summoning, she/he asks the question.

The analysis in this section will focus on the summoning sequence part and if there is pursuit of response after the teacher's question, I will revisit the excerpt and analyze that part later as well.

The excerpts are from an activity that takes place at the end of the class to check students' comprehension of the material that has been taught in this class.

*Excerpt 4.1. Repeating the summons by calling the name again*

01 TOM        okay |so naneka,  
t-gz                |looks at the name cards

02                |(0.9)+|(0.4)  
n-px    |moves to the right and looks at T  
t-bh                |moves on name cards

03 TOM                naneka. |if |if I am not a good  
n-rh                        |raise



t-gz                                |gaze up

04                presenter what am i.

The teacher initiates the sequence in line 1 by closing down the prior activity with (*okay*) (Beach, 1995) and transitioning to the new activity with (*so*) as he looks down at the name cards. He then calls on Naneka by name, nominating her as the next speaker. This is followed by 1.3 sec of silence during which the summoned student moves a little to the right to face the teacher (since she is sitting behind another student) and she then looks at the teacher. In line 3, the teacher repeats her name as he does not see her reaction to his selection, and he asks a question immediately. The student treats this as reselecting and displays her availability by raising her right hand. However, when the teacher continues with the question, she retracts the gesture quickly. The teacher gazes up briefly while he is asking the question.

In this case the teacher uses the first name as a summons to one particular student. The student reacts to this summoning by moving to face the teacher and by looking at him to display her availability. However, because the teacher is looking down at the name cards, he is not able to see this and as a result the summoning fails (Kääntä, 2012; Mortensen, 2008). This appears to be the reason the teacher repeats the summoning (Gardner, 2015; Schegloff, 1968) by calling the student's name again. At this time the student raises her hand (Mortensen, 2008) as she realized the gaze is not enough to grab the teacher's attention.

*Excerpt 4.2. Repeating the first name after the summoning fails*

```
01 TOM      |okay (0.2) |so: Notori,  
  
t-gz      |looks down at name cards -----> line 4  
  
t-gz      |shuffles the name cards
```

02            | (0.6)  
  
t-px       | steps up toward Ss  
  
n-gz       | looks down  
  
03 TOM      how do you say it  
  
  
  
04 S?       | ° (               ) °  
  
n-gz       | looks at T and turns to another S  
  
  
  
05 TOM      | ↑uh |notori  
  
t-rh       | ear cupping  
  
  
  
06 NOT      hai |yes  
  
  
             | raises RH

The teacher initiates the sequence by closing down the previous talk with *okay* and starting the new turn by *so* and then summoning one student reading his name from a card (line 1). The summoned student looks down at his notebook after his name is called, which might serve as avoiding or resisting the selection (Weiss, 2018). The teacher keeps looking down at the name cards. After a short gap, the teacher asks a question (*how do you say it*) and the selected student turns to another student in line 4. The teacher produces other-initiation of repair (*uh*) (Svennevig, 2008) and uses EC as non-verbal other-initiation of repair as well (see Chapter 5 on Ear-cupping in EFL classrooms). This might be directed to the inaudible talk from one of the students. He

then repeats the summons again by calling the student's name for the second time and produces EC gesture in line 5. After this, Notori displays his availability by saying *hai* in Japanese, repairing it immediately with *yes*, and raising his hand in line 6.

The teacher summons one student by name and asks a question before the student shows his willingness to respond. When the student does not provide a response and avoids the selection by gazing down, the teacher repeats the summons by calling his name for the second time (Schegloff, 1968). The repetition of the name prompts the student to provide a spoken response to the selection.

*Excerpt 4.3. Withdrawing gaze after being summoned and providing verbal response*

01 TOM |all right |(wait) yusuke

t-bh |shuffles NC

t-gz |looks up to Ss

y-gz |looks at tom

02 Ss haha

03 |(0.2)

y-gz |looks down at his notebook





04 YUS        yeah

In Excerpt 4.3, the teacher starts with the word *all right* as a shift from the previous student and then calls one student's name, nominating him for the next turn in line 1. He reads the student's name from one of the name cards he has in his hands. The nominated student was looking at the teacher before he calls his name. When the teacher calls the student's name, he looks down at his notebook briefly (line 03) and then displays his availability by saying *yes* in line 4. The teacher summons the student by one name and then the student withdraws gaze from the teacher and looks at his notebook when his name was called. He then replies with a verbal response, which indicates that his gaze withdrawing is not avoiding the selection but might in fact be preparing for the upcoming question.

*Excerpt 4.4.* Repeating the summons by asking for the summoned student's location.

01 TOM        okay |good jun,

t-bh            |shuffles the cards

02            |(1.1)

j-gz        |looks at T

t-gz        |looks across the class----->

03 TOM        where are you.

04 JUN | here  
  
j-rh | moves his rh from under the table  
and puts it on the table  
  
t-gz | looks at jun

In Excerpt 4.4, the teacher starts with *okay* as a third pair part indication of turn completion and adds *good* as an assessment to the previous turn and as transition marker (Wong & Waring, 2008). The teacher then summons one student by name in line 1. The student looks at the teacher but the teacher does not establish mutual gaze with him because he is casting his eye across the class. In line 3, the teacher repeats his summons by asking Jun where he is. In line 4, Jun provides a verbal response which enables the teacher to find him and maintain gaze with him.

The analysis of this excerpt shows that the teacher starts by summoning one student who replies with an embodied response, gazing at the teacher to display his availability. However, the first attempt to summon fails because the participants do not see each other (cf. Mortensen, 2008) due to the large numbers of students in the class. That is why in line 3 the teacher repeats the summons by asking about the location of the student, pursuing a more visible response than gaze. The student replies to this with a verbal response (line 4), guiding the teacher to his location.

In the following section I will analyze the second part of Excerpt 4.4 after the selection was completed.

*Excerpt 4.5 Pursuing response after accomplishing the summons.*

05 TOM | what is the presenter's responsibility  
  
j-gz | looks at the teacher

06 | (4.3)

j-gz |looks down at his notebook

07 JUN °informative and creative°

08 | (0.9)

j-gz |looks down

t-gz |looks at Jun

09 JUN the ↑presenter informative and creative

10 TOM did I say creative I don't think

11 I said creative

In Excerpt 4.5, after the teacher established the summons in the last excerpt (Excerpt 4.4), he starts with a question in line 5. The question is followed by a long silence in line 6 during which the selected student keeps looking at his notebook and the teacher is looking at him. In line 7 Jun provides a response in a low voice and when the teacher does not react Jun repeats it in a louder volume. The teacher questions the last part of Jun's response to show his disagreement with it and therefore mitigates the correction (lines 10 and 11).

*Excerpt 4.6. Repeating the summons using full name*

```
01 TOM      |okay a::: |yuta
           t-gz  |looks down at the name cards
           y-gz                |looking at his notebook ----> ln 03
02          (1.9)

03 TOM      |yuta |takeda
           t-gz  |looks up and shifts gaze across the class
           y-gz                |looks up toward the teacher

04 YUT          |yes
           t-gz  |looks at Yut
```

In this case, the teacher starts with *okay*, thereby transitioning to a new student. He looks down at the name cards and produces a stretched hesitation marker (*a:::*) while he is checking the list. He then produces a summons by calling the name of one student. The student does not display his availability in the next turn. In line 3, the teacher repeats the summons using the student's full name while he shifts his gaze across the class searching for the student. The student looks up at the teacher while he calls his name and then replies with a verbal response (*yes*) that displays his availability for further questioning. The summons thus constitutes a pre-sequence (Schegloff, 2007).

The teacher uses one name to select the student; however, in this case the student does not react to this selection. This might be because there are more than one Yuta in the class or at least the student is orienting to it that way. It might also be that

the summoned student is resisting being selected by the teacher. When the teacher uses the full name the student then provides a response. This might indicate that speaker selection in this context is less problematic when students are nominated by their full name rather than their first name alone.

Next, I will analyze the second part of Excerpt 4.6, in which the teacher asks a question and pursues a response for it. The excerpt will start from where the first half ends (line 05).

*Excerpt 4.7. Speaking slowly and reformulating questions to pursue missing response*

05 TOM |is is no music no life an eh ai es (HIS)

t-gz |looks down at the name card

06 | (7.6)

t-gz |looks at yut

07 TOM is no music no life> is ↑that an eh ai es,

08 (1.2)

09 YUT ha- yes

10 TOM |yes okay and |why?

|nods |head tilt

11 what's what's one of the reasons,

12 | (4.8)  
t-gz | keeps looking at yuta

13 YUT it's memorable

14 TOM it's memorable and it repeats

Excerpt 4.7 starts with the teacher asking a polar question in line 5 after the summons was completed with the student demonstrating his availability in the previous excerpt. The question is followed by long gap during which the teacher's gaze remains directed at Yuta. In this case, Yuta's embodied actions are not available in the data due to his position behind some other students. After the gap of silence, the teacher repeats his question, this time speaking very slowly and emphasizing the main part of the question in line 7. Yuta provides a response after another 1.2-sec gap. In line 10 the teacher initiates a post-expansive account sequence (*why*) and immediately expands the question (Gardner, 2004) in line 11 to *what's one of the reasons* and thus seemingly treats *why* as ambiguous for this recipient. This is also followed by a 4.8-sec gap and the teacher keeps looking at Yuta while he waits for the response. In line 13, Yuta replies and the teacher closes the sequence by accepting Yuta's answer through repetition (Greer et al., 2009) and expanding it with further detail.

Although the teacher successfully accomplishes the summons and initiates a question after that, the student does not reply immediately. This leads the teacher to use a variety of practices such as reformulating the question and maintaining gaze at the selected student to mobilize the missing response (Stivers & Rossano, 2010). The student's delayed response after his first name is called might be because he is avoiding the selection. This suggests that selecting a student from the list can lead to a

delay in providing the response because the selected student may not be ready to answer the question.

#### 4.2.2 Summoning one student by full name from a carded list

In the following sub-section, teachers use full names nominating next speakers instead of just first name. This happens after the use of first name has caused some delays in speaker-selection a few times in the previous excerpts.

##### *Excerpt 4.8. Immediate Full name selection*

```
01 TOM      |okay a:: (.) Fuji |Kubo,  
            |shuffles NC          |gazes toward fum  
            f-gz      |looks at T  
  
02 FUJI     |yes  
            |moves his head up
```

In line 1, the teacher produces a summons to one student by using his full name and gazing toward him. The student replies with *yes* in line 2 while he is looking at the teacher. The teacher uses two names for selecting next speaker. This might be because he faces difficulties getting a response in the previous cases when he uses one name to select a student. Even though the student is sitting close to the teacher and he maintains gaze with him when he calls his name, the student provides a verbal response as well. This might also be because other students provided verbal responses before him, which sets the expectation for displaying availability in this classroom. The summons was successful and quick, which might be due to the proximity (Gardner, 2015) or because of the use of full name.

The following excerpt will show what happens after the selection is completed. The second part starts from where the first part ends (line 3).

*Excerpt 4.9. Teasing the student for delaying a response*

03 (0.5)

04 TOM ah::: (.) |what's- (0.8) > wh- what what  
f-gz |looks up to T

05 should i- what do i< have to know about jokes

06 | (0.9)  
f-gz |looks down and points at his notebook

07 TOM is a |joke, an eich ai es? ((HIS))  
f-gz |raises his head and looks to T

08 | (1.1)  
f-gz |moves his finger on his NB and tilts  
his head

09 FUJI yes



10 TOM          ↓yes okay so, tell me something about joke

11              | (2.8)

          f-gz        |looks down and raises his NB

12 FUJI         °eh° (1.0) |e:h

          f-gs/gz                                    |looks down at book and

  scratches his forehead

13              | (4.7)

          f-gs/gz    |scratches his head and keeps looking down

14 TOM         I'm not saying tell me a joke,

15              you (don't) have to tell me a joke (.)

16 TOM         I'm saying te(h)- [heh heh

17 Ss    [heh heh heh hah

18 TOM         I'm saying tell me about a joke,

19 what did I say [about jokes.

20 FUJI [↑ah ah mm °nnto°  
f-gz |points at his NB and nods

21 |(0.8)  
f-gz |looks down

22 FUJI |that's for native speakers,  
f-gz |looks up and looks at T

23 |(0.7)  
f-gz |looks down

24 TOM |yeah  
f-gz |looks at T

25 (0.8)

26 TOM ↓a:nd why?

27 | (1.8)  
 f-gs/gz |tilts his head and gazes to NB

28 FUJI °nnto° |it is too difficult to:: (0.4)tell  
 f-rh |moves his hand

29 non-(0.2) to use joke for non-native speakers=  
 30 TOM =yeah I mean th-there's different places  
 31 where it might become confu:sing the  
 32 audience might not understand.

The teacher initiates a display question in lines 4 and 5 (in the form of a WH question) that seeks to ascertain whether the student has understood information discussed earlier during the class. This is followed by a short gap in line 6. The student keeps looking down at his notebook and moving his hand on it. When there is no response, the teacher reformulates his question from a WH to a polar question in line 7 (Koshik, 2002a; Okada & Greer, 2013; Svennevig, 2012). After this reformulation, the student looks up to the teacher and looks back at his notebook showing he is thinking of an answer. After a short gap the student provides a *yes* response in line 9. The teacher accepts the response in line 10 and then goes back to the original question and rephrases it to asking for a telling (*tell me something about joke*). This ambiguous request is followed by a few turns in which the student shows

difficulty in answering the question. He scratches his forehead a few times, produces a verbal indication of difficulty (*eh*) and looks down for a long time (lines 11-13). The teacher teases the student by referring to how long it is taking him to answer the question and ironically treats him as if he is thinking of telling a joke instead of just answering the question. The teacher laughs and some of the students laugh after him (lines 14-17), since laughter invites laughter (Jefferson, 1979). The teacher reformulates the question yet again by explaining that the answer is something he already talked about *what did I say about jokes* in line 19. After this reformulation, the student produces a change-of-state token (*ah ah*) marking his understanding of the question in line 20 and provides a response in line 22. The teacher accepts this response (line 24) and then initiates a post-expansive account sequence (*why*) in line 26. After this question, the student looks down and tilts his head showing difficulty in answering this question. After a 1.8-sec gap, the student provides a response (lines 28-29) and the teacher accepts it and elaborates on it in the remainder of the talk.

The analysis shows that the teacher starts with summoning one student by calling his full name from a list (Excerpt 4.8). When the student shows his availability, the teacher starts by asking his question (Excerpt 4.9). However, the response is delayed and the teacher uses a variety of interactional practices to pursue the missing response. He reformulates his question (Svennevig, 2012), teases the student and explains the question. After long process of pursuing the response, the selected student provides the response. This indicates that selecting one student and asking a question might take a long time because the student might not be familiar with the question or does not know how to formulate the response. In this case the rest of the students were excluded from this interaction, which took long time, and this may affect the learning process by slowing it down.

In the next case the teacher takes a new card and produces a summons, calling the student's full name without looking up (line 01). The selected student replies with *yes* and looks up at the teacher in line 2.

*Excerpt 4.10.* Full name summons

01 TOM |okay fu:ji hamada

t-bh |shuffles the NC and looks down at them

02 FUJI |yes

f-gz |raises his head and looks up to T

In Excerpt 4.10, the teacher uses the full name in his summons. The summoned student immediately provides a verbal and embodied response to the summons. This suggests that using full names makes the next speaker selection quicker and smoother compared to using just one name because in most of the cases where the teacher uses first name only, the speaker nomination was delayed.

In the following excerpts, the teacher likewise produces summonses to students by calling their names from the list to ask them about their homework.

*Excerpt 4.11.* Projecting a preferred response to the summonses

01 AMY nomita: |yomamoto are you |here

a-rh |raise

02 NOM | yes

n-rh | raise

03 AMY thank you

The teacher starts by reading the student's name from the name cards she has in her hand and then asking a direct question (*are you here*) in line 1. The teacher raises her hand while asking the question, implying that the student should also raise his hand to show his availability. The student replies to this summons with *yes* and then raises his hand as a response to the teacher's raising hand gesture. The teacher thanks him for displaying his availability and moves on to asking him a question in subsequent talk (not shown).

The teacher uses various practices for summoning the student. First, she uses the student's full name and then she asked a question about if he is in the class and finally she raises her hand providing a candidate response guiding the students to use as response to her summonses. These lead the student to reply quickly with both verbal response and embodied ones as well. As this is the first time in this class the students have been selected by name, the teacher raises her hand to set the rules and expectations for classroom participation and how students should reply to the selection.

*Excerpt 4.12. Embodied response to the summons*

01 AMY |a:: sensu|ke ka|mi  
a-bh |switches the name cards  
s-px |moves a little and looks at amy  
s-rh |starts raising  
02 |(0.2)  
s-rh |completes raising  
a-gz |looks at sen  
03 AMY |thank you  
a-gz |looks down at name card

The teacher starts with a vowel-stretched hesitation marker (*a::*) while switching the cards to select a new student. She calls the student's full name in line 1 to summon him. The summoned student looks at the teacher as she starts calling his first name and then raises his hand when she calls his last name. The teacher looks up after she has completed reading the student's name and maintains gaze with the selected student as he raises his hand. She then thanks him for displaying his availability and moves on to ask a question. The student reacts to the summons by moving and raising his hand (Mortensen, 2009). He keeps raising his hand until the teacher is able to see him. He raises his hand while the teacher calls his last name as he become sure he is the summoned student. He keeps raising his hand, waiting for the teacher to finish reading his name from the card. When the teacher raises her head she establishes

mutual gaze with the student and thanks him to acknowledge his response to the selection and thereby close the sequence.

*Excerpt 4.13.* Non-verbal response to the summons.

01 AMY |alright cool  
a-gs |looks down at name cards  
02 (0.8)  
03 AMY |(\$tototo:\$) <mitsufu|ko hama|da>  
a-bh |switches the NC  
m-gz |looks at T  
m-gs |raises rh  
04 AMY |thank you  
a-gs |looks at Mit

In this case, the teacher marked the transition of the speakers by saying the word *alright* and then providing an assessment (*cool*). The teacher produces some non-meaningful words (*tototo*) while she is checking the cards, which might work as a technique to display a search in progress, and then she calls the name very slowly nominating one student. The nominated student looks at the teacher while she calls his first name and then raises his hand when she calls his last name. After he raises his hand the teacher looks at him and closes the sequence by saying *thank you*. She then moves on to ask him a question in the subsequent talk (not shown).



The teacher uses the full name again to summon the next student, but this time she does not accompany it with any other practice. The summoned student raises his hand as a response to the selection showing his availability. The student raises his hand following the first student who set the rules after the teacher guides him to do so. This shows that students can use earlier iterations of an equivalent sequence as a model to follow.

A similar sequence can be seen in Excerpt 4.14.

*Excerpt 4.14.* Asking a question without establishing the availability of the student

01 AMY |\$tototo:\$ (.) |ichi|ro mak|ino

a-gz |looking at NC

a-rh |write on the name card

i-gz |looks at T

i-rh |raises

02 |ted talk?

a-gz |looks at ICH

03 ICH yes

04 AMY |thank you

i-rh |,,,,,

In this case the teacher again starts with non-meaningful sounds (*tototo*) transitioning from one student to another and she then produces a summons by reading the student's full name from the name card in line 1. The student looks at the teacher when she starts reading his first name and he raises his hand while she is reading his last name. The teacher continues with the question and then looks at Ichiro in line 2. Ichiro provides a verbal response (line 3) and the teacher closes with *thank you* in line 4. In all of the previous cases the teacher waits to confirm the students' availability before she asks the question. In this case, she asks the question after calling the student's name immediately without looking up. She also delivers the question in just a minimal form, which suggests she is likewise orienting to this as an iteration within a series of similar sequences, by truncating or abbreviating her turn since the students will normatively be able to understand it in relation to what has come before.

*Excerpt 4.15.* Repairing the spoken response from Japanese to English

01 AMY      alright daisuke watanabe

02           | (0.5)

    a-rh      |writes on name card

03 DAI      |hai yes

    a-gz      |looks at dai

04 AMY      ha:i

In this case the teacher starts with *alright* transitioning to select a new student and she calls the student's full name in line 1 in order to summon him. This is followed by a

short gap during which the teacher writes on the name cards. The student provides a verbal response (*hai*) in Japanese and repairs it with *yes*, displaying his availability. The teacher looks and maintains gaze with the summoned student and repeats *hai* that the student uses before and then she moves on to asking the question (not shown).

The teacher selects one student by calling his full name again. Then she writes on the name cards without looking up. The student provides a verbal response because the teacher is looking down and will not be able to see non-verbal responses and therefore establishes the selection. This indicates that students adjust their responses to teacher's selection based on what the teacher is doing and if she is looking at them or not (Mortensen, 2009).

In Excerpt 4.16, I consider a case in which the practice of relying on name cards comes undone when the teacher is unable to read the card.

*Excerpt 4.16. Managing a summons problem with student name*

01 AMY |alright kanji kanji kanji

a-bh |switches the NC

a-gz |looks down

02 |three kanji

a-gz |looks up to right to some students

03 |(0.2)

a-gz |looks back at the NC

04 AMY anybody got |three kanji  
a-rh |raises three fingers----->ln 06

05 |(0.6)  
a-gz |~~~~ across the class

06 Amy anybody three kanji? |↑serious|sly  
j-gs |raises and waives RH  
a-gz |looks at Jun

07 |that's ↑you  
a-lh |points at jun

08 |(0.5)+|(0.8)  
a-lh |points at jun  
j-rh |waves  
a-gz |looks back at NC

09 AMY |air little |()?  
a-gz |looks at the name cards  
a-gz |looks at jun

10 |(0.3)

a-gz |keeps looking at jun  
 11 JUN |hai hai hai  
 j-rh |waves  
  
 12 AMY |↑la la la you need to come up here and change  
 a-fc |moving her tongue out  
  
 13 your kanji into real letters.  
  
 14 JUN sorry.  
  
 15 (0.4)  
  
 16 AMY |come |come  
 a-rh |beckons  
 j-px |walks to amy

In Excerpt 4.16, the teacher starts by saying *alright*, marking the move to a new student. She then says *kanji kanji kanji* contextually referring to how one student has written his name. In line 2, she reformulates her summons turn to *three kanji* and shifts her gaze across the class looking for the student. In line 4, she rephrases her summons again by asking the question *anybody got three kanji* and raising three

fingers. She follows this with the word *seriously* showing her surprise for the student's action, i.e., using kanji instead of English to write his name. Immediately after the question, one of the students raises his hand and waves it to grab the teacher's attention (Cekaite, 2008). In line 7, the teacher initiates a verbal confirmation (*that's you*) raising her intonation and pointing at the student. This is followed by a short gap of silence in which the teacher keeps pointing at the student. The student raises his hand and waves, confirming the teacher's confirmation check. In line 9, the teacher says *air little* and another unclear word. These words seem to be a direct translation of parts of the student's name in English. The teacher raises her voice again to confirm this with the student. This is followed by the student repeating *hai* (*yes*) three times (Stivers, 2004), to confirm in line 11. The teacher mocks his use of Japanese by imitating what he says in an unclear voice then she asks him to come and change his name to English letters (lines 12,13). The student apologizes in line 14 and walks to the teacher after that.

This case shows how the teacher deals with a problem in reading a student's name and how that affects the summons by delaying it. The teacher uses a suite of practices to overcome this difficulty. She describes the name as *three kanji* and asks the class if any of them has such a name. She pursues a response by reformulating her question a few times until she gets one of the students to raise his hand identifying himself. The teacher treats the use of non-English letters as problematic by adding an increment (*seriously*) to show her surprise and also by asking the student to change his name immediately. This establishes a normative expectation in the classroom that students should not use Japanese characters when they write their names on the class list.

#### 4.2.3 Selecting a known student by name

In the following cases the teacher first asks a question then selects one of the students by name to answer. The teacher knows the students' names and they are visually available to her and the class sizes are smaller compared to the previous cases.

The following is a general schematic outline of the sequential structure of this speaker selection practice

T1: Teacher asks the question and calls student name (FPP)

T2: Student provides response (SPP)

In the first excerpt the teacher shows a picture on the screen and asks students to describe it with an adjective.

#### *Excerpt 4.17. Palm-selection*

01 LIZ i like my books|::: |[alhanouf

l-gz |looks at alh

l-rh |palm selects alh

02 S [( )

03 |(0.9)

l-gz |looks at the screen

04 ALH |e::: |they interesting

l-gz |looks at the screen

|looks back at alh

05 LIZ |they are |interesting

|nods |looks back at the screen

The teacher initiates the sequence by providing an assessment (*I like my books*) stretching the (s::) while looking for a student to select (line 1). One of the students starts talking in line 2; however, this overlaps with the teacher calling on another student by gazing at her and palm selecting her. This is followed by a short gap in which the teacher looks back at the screen that contains the picture that the student has to describe with an adjective, which may constitute an embodied display of focus for the students, enabling them to better comprehend the nature of her question (Chazal, 2020). The student starts her turn with a hesitation marker (e:::) and then provides the response in line 4. In line 5, the teacher enacts receipt by repeating the response (Greer et al., 2009) and embedding a correction of the student's grammatical error within that receipt (Brouwer et al., 2004; Jefferson, 1987).

The analysis shows that this case is different from the previous ones because the teacher does not read the student name from a list or name card. Instead she uses the first name of a student that she clearly already knows and who is visually available to her. The teacher asks the question before selecting the student and then selects the student. This suggests the teacher knows which students are present and therefore does not need to check their availability. The class size also matters, as all of the students in the class are visible to the teacher. This enables the teacher to use



gestures to select the next speaker. The resource of using gesture was not available to the teachers in previous cases because for one they do not know if the students are present or not and also they do not know where they are sitting. Such practical considerations therefore play a role in restricting the way a given action can play out on a moment-by-moment basis.

In the following two excerpts the teacher is conducting a sequentially structured dialogue drill that is outlined on the screen. She says the name of one of the students and then selects another student to say his nationality.

*Excerpt 4.18.* Gaze as a practice for selecting next speaker and pursuing response

01 LIZ      |fari|s |sau|d

l-gz      |looks at far

l-gz            |looks at sau

l-gs            |points at sau

s-gz            |looks at liz

02            |(0.2)

l-rh      |points at far----> ln 06

03 LIZ      this is |faris

s-gz            |turns his head and looks toward faris

04            | (0.2)  
  
          l-gz    | looks at the screen  
  
05 SAU        | he is- he is from kuwait | he is kuwaiti  
  
          s-gz    | looks at the screen  
  
          l-gs                                | nods  
  
06 LIZ        | nice.  
  
              | , , , , hand-point

The teacher initiates the sequence by saying the name of the student then she nominates another student by name to say his nationality in line 1. She looks and points at the student while she calls his name. The student turns to the teacher and the teacher then points at Faris, whom the question is about. In line 3, the teacher says *this is faris* showing him to Saud, the selected student. Saud turns toward Faris and then the teacher looks at the screen, which contains some similar examples. At this moment Saud looks at the screen and delivers his second pair part in line 5. The teacher nods and provides a positive assessment to close the sequence.

The teacher calls the name of a student and gazes toward him to indicate that he is the subject of the question. She then shifts her gaze quickly to another student (Saud) and name-selects him to answer the question about the nationality of the first student. She also points at him to multimodally reinforce the selection. The selected student maintains gaze with the teacher but he does not reply to the question. The teacher treats this as a potential understanding problem (Hosoda, 2014) and

reformulates her question by pointing at Faris, the subject of the question and by saying his name again. The selected student does not provide a response, and instead looks at Faris and then the teacher guides him with her gaze to the board to check similar examples. This leads the student to look at the screen and then provide a response. Via her gaze the teacher accomplishes a range of interactional practices; including directing the student to the question, selecting the next speaker, and guiding him to answer the question. When the selected student does not reply to the question the teacher further pursues the response. She reformulates the question and uses her gaze to guide him to the sample answer on the board. Such interaction constitutes a sequentially scaffolded suite of multimodal interactional practices that enables student to reply.

*Excerpt 4.19. Pointing to select next speaker*

```
01 LIZ      |ali::: (.) |over here

           |l-gz   |~~~ to Ss

           |l-rh           |points at ras

02 RAS      |this is ali, he is from uae

           |r-gz   |looks at the screen

           |l-gz   |looks at the screen
```

03 | (1.3)

l-hd | nods

l-gz | keeps looking at ras

04 LIZ what is his national|lity

r-gz |looks at the board

05 RAS |emirati

r-gz |looks back at liz

06 LIZ |he is emirati

l-hd | nods

Here again the teacher starts by saying the name of a student and then selecting another student to say his nationality. She selects the student by pointing at him and referring to his location in line 1 (*over here*). The selected student looks at the screen and then provides a response. The teacher reformulates her initiation to clarify that she is asking about his nationality not just the country (line 4). The student provides the correct response after the teacher's question. The teacher closes by repeating the answer and repairing it to show that she is looking for full sentences as answers.

In this case, the teacher first asks a question about Ali's nationality and selects the next speaker by pointing at him. This time she also uses her gaze to guide him to check the screen. The selected student replies very quickly to the question.

However, his answer was wrong and the teacher pursues a correct answer by reformulating the question and by maintaining gaze with the selected student until he provides the correct response.

#### 4.2.4 Selecting small group of students

On occasions, however, teachers also select group of three or four students to answer a question that they have already asked, as shown in the following cases. The teachers do not select any particular student, but instead let them manage who will answer on behalf of the group. This section will document such instances, where a general group selection gives rise to an intermediary speaker selection phase among those within the group. For the brief period in which this negotiation takes place, the participation framework is altered and the teacher becomes a peripheral participant (Goffman, 1981). The progressivity of the talk is momentarily delayed, but once the matter is settled the teacher again becomes a ratified participant. Much of this reworking of the participant constellation is accomplished via multimodal interactional practices, including fine-grained adjustments in gaze and proximal orientations.

The following is a general schematic outline of the sequential structure of this speaker selection practice.

T1: Teacher selects one group via gaze, gesture and talk

T2: An insertion sequence in which the students negotiate who will take the turn

T3: Selected student provides verbal response to teacher

Prior to the following excerpts (Excerpts 4.20 and 4.21), the teacher has asked his students to calculate how much money they would spend on a trip to Tokyo Disneyland. They are expected to use USD. He selects groups of four students to answer the question without specifically naming one individual student, which puts the responsibility on the students to negotiate who will speak on their behalf.

Figure 4.1

*Group 1*



Small group of students negotiate speaker selection

*Excerpt 4.20* Students' gaze negotiate the selection of next speaker

01 TOM | °okay° .

| looks at Kou's group

j-gz | ~~~ at T

02 (0.3)

03 TOM | so | how about this | ↑gro|up.

t-rh | raises his hand

t-rh | palm selects Kou's group-->ln 04



k-gz |raises his eyebrows to T  
a-gz |looks up at T  
e-gz |looks down at  
notebook

04 |what's |your number?

k-gz |looks to Jun (and Aya?)

j-gz |looks at Kou

a-gz |looks at Kou



t-rh , , , , raising hand

05 |(0.3)

06 ? |((whispers)) °°(two thou-)°°

k-gz |looks down at notebook -->

07 KOU |two thousand (0.6) five- hundred

a-fc |smiles

a-gz |looks at Kou then T

a-px |leans in

08 KOU |twenty dallars.  
e-gz |looks up to T

09 TOM <|two thousand five hundred [twenty dollars.]>  
t-gz |~~~~Ss  
k-gz |~~~~looks up to TOM

10 AYA? ° ° [mm ° °

11 TOM |okay, |next group?  
k-gz |looks back to Aya  
k-px |torques back  
t-rh |raises rh  
|points to Dai's group

In this case the teacher starts by selecting one group of four students. He looks at the students, points at them with his right hand, holding it (Chazal, 2015) while he verbally selects them (lines 1 to 3). Three members of the group look at the teacher, but another one looks down at her notebook, suggesting she might be either avoiding the teacher's gaze or looking for the answer. In line 4, the teacher asks a question about the students' number referring to the amount of money and retracts the raised hand gesture as he completes the summoning action (Chazal, 2015), apparently because the students have begun to orient to the selection by moving closer to each other and started the negotiation of who will speak on their behalf. Kou, who is the closest to the teacher, looks back at his group members. Both Jun and Aya look at Kou, which could be a technique for appointing him as the speaker. Once Kou has established gaze with both of them he then looks back at his notebook and after a



short gap (0.3 sec) he starts his response (lines 7-8). At this point Aya smiles and fixes her gaze toward Kou before she looks up at the teacher. The fourth member of the group, Eri, who was looking down all this time, looks up at the teacher during the final part of Kou's response. In the remainder of the talk the teacher repeats the answer looking at the rest of the students in the class sharing the answer with them and including them in the activity. He then moves on to select another group (lines 9 to 11).

The analysis of this excerpt shows that since the teacher selects a group of four students without nominating any specific one of them, the four students must manage the turn allocation and they do this primarily through gaze. When one student looks at the rest of the students they treat it as an initiation of turn-taking and two of them look at him at the same time, which serves to select him. The fourth student's avoidance of the teacher's gaze and that of her group members suggests that she is displaying her unavailability (or unwillingness) to participate. She simply raises her head and looks up only after another student has begun to provide a response. Students can therefore use gaze to manage turn taking and to show availability and unavailability as well (see Weiss, 2018).

In Excerpt 4.21 the teacher moves to the next group who are sitting right behind the first group and continues with the second round of the activity selecting them to answer the same question.

Figure 4.2

*Group 2*



Students negotiate speaker selection

*Excerpt 4.21.* Talk and nods to negotiate the selection of next speaker

```
01 TOM      |okay, |next group?  
            t-rh      |raises rh  
                        |points to Dai's group  
  
02          |(0.1)| (0.7)  
            a-hd      |nods to Kou  
            d-gz       |looks down  
            y-gz       |looks at Dai  
  
03 DAI      |(°          °)/(3.2)  
            d-gz      |looks at Yuu and looks down
```

04 | (2.1)  
gp-px | move closer to each other  
gp-gz | look at Dai's notebook



05 Ss | (° °)/(6.9)  
d-hd | nods,  
d-px | moves back a little  
d-gz | looks at his notebook  
y | nods back to Dai, moves back to his seat,  
looks at T

06 YUU | fifty thou[sand do]llar.  
| looks at T

07 DAI | [eh? ]

08 DAI | eh?

09 TOM | sh' [heh h' h' ha hah]  
t-gz | down/left  
t-px | turns away/left

t-fc |smiles

t-sh |shoulder hunch



10 Ss | [heha[hah hah hah]

y-hd |shakes head and smiles

11 AYA [ $\uparrow$ (r(h)ea[l(l(h)y )]) ?

12 YUU? |[eh ch]iga(h)u.

**different**

y-hd |~~~down, ear to DAI?

13 TOM h(h)n

14 Ss |(° °)/(5.9)

t-gz |looks at the selected group

d-gz |looks back at the other group members

s-gz |look at Dai

15 DAI |one point five |thousand.

|looks at T

|looks down to his notebook

16 TOM |we don't say (it) tha-  
t-hd |shakes

17 we don't say one point five thou-

18 we don't say it's |point with thousands.=  
d-hd |nods

19 =so one thou:sand [fi:ve °hundred.°]

21 DAI [one thousand ] five hund[red]

22 TOM [one]

23 thous- >okay so we've already got a< thou::sand

24 dollar difference that's not very good.

The teacher moves to a new group and selects them by pointing with his finger and referring to both their temporal sequentiality and their physical location as they are seated behind the group who has just finished answering (*next group*) in line 1. Yuu looks at Ken, who then looks back at him after that the four group members get closer to each other and start talking in Japanese very quietly (line 5). During this time the teacher and the rest of students keep looking at the selected group. In line 5, it seems that they come to an agreement when Ken nods and Yuu nods back to him, and this completes the brief insertion sequence (Schegloff, 2007). Immediately after this, Yuu looks up at the teacher and starts his response in line 6. Dai shows his disagreement

and surprise with the response in line 7 by producing *eh*. The teacher and students also treat the response as wrong by laughing at its absurdity in lines 9 to 11 because fifty thousand dollars is far from the expected amount a student would spend at Disneyland in one day (see Chapter 6 on Absurd Case Formulation). The teacher's laughter is used to point out that Yuu's response is not correct and thus inviting him to repair it but at the same time treating the mistake as a momentary lapse and not related to Yuu's incompetence (Jakonen & Evnitskaya, 2020). After this Yuu, who provides the answer, shakes his head and says *chigau* (wrong) in Japanese, displaying his noticing of his mistake (Kääntä, 2014) and therefore initiates repair (line 12). The teacher's gaze remains directed at the selected group showing them he is still waiting for a response and he is not accepting this inapposite one: by doing this he is pursuing an apposite response (see Okada & Greer, 2013). At this moment the group members renegotiate the speaker selection for the second time through gaze. This time a new speaker is selected when Dai looks back at his group members and they maintain gaze with him, he treats this as a selection and provides the response on their behalf (lines 14-15). The teacher treats this response as incorrect and explicitly corrects Dai in lines 16 to 19 emphasizing that *we* do not use point with thousands. By saying *we* the teacher might be referring to native speakers of English or competent L2 speakers of English. The interesting thing is that the student's turn is not wrong. Dai repairs his turn in line 21 by repeating teacher's correction of his previous answer. The teacher closes by pointing out the thousand-dollar difference between this group and the previous one and mentioning that this is a sign that some of their calculations are not accurate because he mentioned prior to this activity that if the difference is more than a thousand dollars that means something is wrong.

The analysis in this section has shown some ways students use their native language to manage turn-taking in EFL classrooms. It also shows how embodied practices such as nodding to each other enables a group of possible next speakers to agree on who will take the next turn (Mortensen, 2009). When the students' response was treated as inaccurate they were able to renegotiate the turn allocation and through gaze they selected a different speaker to repair the trouble source. The analysis also showed how the teacher is deselected from the conversation as the group members start talking amongst themselves in Japanese (Greer, 2013) to negotiate the speaker selection. However, at the same time, the teacher is still very much a part of the conversation, although he cannot be expected to continue until the question of reciprocity has been solved by the students. In that sense, their audibly adjusted and code-switched turn shows their orientation to this too, and it is an embedded sequence, since the second pair part is still hearably due to the teacher. Once the respondent has been selected, the other group members are "off the hook" and this similarly involves a readjustment of the participant framework so that they then become ratified overhearers rather than selected next speakers.

#### 4.2.5 Whole class selection

Finally, in this section I consider cases in which the teachers ask questions without specifically selecting a particular next speaker or speakers, and thus open the floor for any student to reply or orient toward the preference for choral response.

The following is a general schematic outline of the sequential structure opening floor practice.

Turn 1: Teacher asks a question (FPP)

Turn 2: One or a few students provide response (SPP)

In Excerpt 4.22, the teacher has written four numbers on the blackboard as candidate answers to a multiple-choice question about population of India, Japan and Tokyo.

*Excerpt 4.22. Failure to get bidders after opening the floor*

01 TOM | which is the population of india  
t-gz | ~~~ across Ss---->ln 6

02 | (2.7)  
Ss | smile and look at the board

03 Ss (speak Japanese quietly)

04 TOM what's the population of india

05 Ss | (0.6)  
Ss-gz | keeps looking at the board -----> ln 11

06 Ss (speak Japanese quietly)

07 S? (di)

08 | (2.9)  
t-gz | turns and looks at the board and then  
looks back to the Ss

09 TOM ↑ india



10 (1.1)

11 TOM indo indo

india india

12 (1.2)

13 Ss (talk in Japanese and laugh)

14 TOM |\$no\$

t-gz |~~~~ to Ss

15 (1.9)

16 S? (honto)

really

17 TOM it's |easy,

|Ss stop talking and look at the board

18 (2.7)

19 TOM |no?

t-hd |head tilt

20 (2.4)

21 TOM      what's the population of japan?

22            | (0.9)

          Ss-gz |look at tom and the board

23 Ss        |(speak in Japanese)

          Ss-px |turn to each other

24            |(2.4)

          t-gz |turns and looks at the board then turns  
              back to Ss

25 TOM      no::: |you gu- you guys (are-)

                          |shakes his head -----> ln 20

26            |no no (mo) benkyo benkyo

**study    study**

              |nods

27 Ss        hahaha

28 TOM      |alright

          t-gz |turn to the board

The teacher initiates the sequence by asking a question about which one of the three choices is the population of India without nominating a particular individual or

sub-group to respond (line 1). This opens the floor with the expectation that the students will either (a) indicate a willingness to respond (such as by raising their hands) and wait for the teacher to call on them, or (b) self-select to answer the question (i.e., “call out”). After this the teacher keeps looking around the class while the students are looking at the blackboard and talking to each other in Japanese inaudibly. In line 4, the teacher reformulates his question from *which* to *what*, although this fails to prompt any response from the students. One of the students says *di*, which might represent an initial response to the question. However, the teacher does not react to this, and neither do the rest of the students. The teacher looks at the board and then back at the students and produces a reminder of the question (*india*) in line 9 that serves to reinitiate it and therefore pursue it. When no one answers, the teacher switches to Japanese saying *indo indo*, which means India in Japanese. After this, the students start laughing and talking in Japanese louder, which could be due to the teacher’s use of Japanese. In line 14, the teacher says *no* and gazes across the class and then assesses the question as *easy* in line 17 to emphasize that it should not take so long. Again he says *no* and tilts his head to one side showing he is surprised by their failure to answer this “*easy*” question. The teacher abandons the sequence when no one answers the question and instead moves to another question about the population of Japan (line 21). Again this does not elicit any public response and the students keep speaking Japanese and looking at the blackboard. In the rest of the talk (lines 25 to 28) the teacher repeats *no* multiple times (Hellermann, 2009; Stivers, 2004) and the word *benkyo* (study). By doing this he treats not answering such questions as unacceptable and that he finds their failure to answer as problematic and makes public his expectation that students should be able to answer such “*easy*” questions. The repetitions of these words (*no*, *benkyo*) are addressing the missing

response in all of the interaction not only the prior turn and treating it as problematic. According to Stivers (2004) multiple sayings can address the prior talk and aims to halt it; however, in this data they are addressing the absence of talk and aims to get recipients to provide response. When all of these practices fail to elicit a response from students, the teacher then moves on and provides the responses himself.

By providing an initiating action, the teacher invites the students to bid for the turn, and some form of speaker nomination becomes relevant in the next turn. When it is found missing the teacher reacts by pursuing it, employing a range of verbal and embodied practices in order to attract bidders. He reformulates and rephrases his question many times (Kasper & Ross, 2007), shakes his head, shifts his gaze around the class, and switches to the students' native language (Okada, 2010). None of these actions work in getting the students to provide a response in the next turn. This shows that if students do not bid and produce the next turn the teacher cannot proceed with the activity.

In the next excerpt, which is from the small-size ESL classrooms, the teacher writes a word on the board and asks students about its meaning.

*Excerpt 4.23. Question to the whole class*

01 LIS |what does singular mean?

|writes on the board

02 (0.4)

03 RED |just one  
|raises one finger  
04 Ss just one

The teacher starts by asking a WH-question about the meaning of *singular* (line 1) and opens the floor for students to self-select. After a very short gap one of the students self-selects and provides a response in line 3. The rest of the students follow and repeat the response. This shows that whole class selection can work smoothly in some cases. Once one student provides the response others can follow and provide a choral response (Lerner, 2002).

This analysis has shown that opening the floor in this case was different from that in the previous case. Even though the aim of this study is not to compare the two sets of the data, it is worth mentioning that these differences might be a result of various factors. Among them is the fact that the data from ESL classrooms are from small-size and intensive classes. On the other hand, the EFL data is from large-size classes and the teachers and students only meet once a week. All these factors play a role in determining how speaker selection is accomplished in the classroom. These two excerpts are representatives of larger collections of cases with similar findings.

### **4.3 Discussion and conclusion**

This chapter has covered several practices that teachers use as summonses and turn allocating practices to identify and select a next speaker. It also linked these practices to teachers' pursuit of student responses. The first section showed how teachers use students' first names and full names from a carded list as a mean of accomplishing summons in a large group where the students' names may not be immediately available to the teacher via memory alone. The teachers needed to summon the

students in order to check their availability and maintain gaze with them to establish visibility, which is a pre-condition of social interaction (Mondada, 2009). The analysis shows the summoned students align to the summons with both verbal and embodied responses (Mortensen, 2009) to display their availability. It has also examined how summoning the students by full name is more successful than summoning them by given name alone. Some of the students do not respond to first name summoning and the teachers need to repeat the summonses (Gardner, 2015; Schegloff, 1968) and reformulate them. The students may be resisting the selection or they might be not sure if they are the ones who have been summoned because there might be others with the same first name. In some of the excerpts (4.4, 4.6, and 4.8) after the teacher completes the summons and asks a question, the students' responses were delayed. This might be because the summoned students were not ready to answer because they do not know the answer or do not understand the question as the teacher selects them before he asks the question. In these cases the teachers use a range of interactional practices to pursue the missing response. They reformulate their question, rephrase them (Kasper & Ross, 2007; Svennevig, 2012), and tease the students until they get the response.

The second practice is related to when one teacher asks a question and then allocates the turn to one of the students to answer. In these cases the teacher knows the students' names and she selects them by first name and sometimes also uses gestures pointing, and gazing, (Kääntä, 2012) along with the name to select the next speaker. When the students' responses are delayed in a few cases the teacher uses gestures, gaze, digital slides, and reformulates the question to pursue the delayed response.

The third practice is selecting a group of three or four students to answer a question. The teacher starts by asking students to join groups and asks them a question. He then selects a group by talk and gesture usually points or nods (Kääntä, 2012) without specifying any particular student as next speaker. The students negotiate the turn allocation organization (Markee & Kasper, 2004) through gaze, nods, and sometimes talk. The teacher waits for them and gives them enough time to decide the next speaker without interfering with their decision. Some students withdraw gaze and look down to avoid being selected by the teacher or by their group members (Weiss, 2018). The data demonstrated that these students were left alone and are not included in the turn allocation selection process in their group. The selected student provided an answer on behalf of his group members, but when he or she provided a wrong answer, as happened in one of the cases (Excerpt 4.21), other group members can take over and answer. This showed that the turn allocation can be (re)negotiated by the students (Mortensen, 2008) and that they orient to themselves as one party (Lerner, 2002) as they repair each other's turns. It also demonstrated the shifting of participation as the teacher was de-selected from the group when they started negotiating in Japanese (Greer, 2013) in order to find a student who will speak on their behalf. The teacher became an active member of the conversation again when one of the students started to deliver the response. Arranging students in small groups provides more opportunities to include them actively in classroom interaction. However, it might also provide a window to those who do not want to participate to avoid being engaged in the interaction.

The final practice is when the teachers ask questions and then open the floor for students to self-select or provide a choral response. In this section, two excerpts were chosen as representative larger collection. The first excerpt of this practice

(Excerpt 4.22) was from EFL classroom in Japanese university. The analysis demonstrated that opening the floor in this classroom leads to a very long pursuit of response and delay both the interactional progress and the flow of the lesson. In such cases teachers use many practices to pursue the missing response, including reformulating the question (Svennevig, 2012) and switching to the students' native language (Filipi, 2018; Okada, 2010). In most of the cases in this data (18 cases) the students' response is delayed for a significant length of time after teachers open the floor. The teacher can avoid this by having students respond in small groups and then ask them the question as shown in section 4.2.4. The second excerpt of this section (Excerpt 4.23) is from a smaller ESL classroom. The teacher starts by asking a question to open the floor. This was followed by a quick response from one student and then a choral response from other students in the class.

In this chapter the teachers repeat the summonses up to two times when their first summons fails to get response. This is different from mundane talk where interlocutors repeat summonses up to five times in telephone conversation (Schegloff, 1968). It is also different from classroom talk when the young students are summoning the teacher because they repeat the summonses more than ten times (Gardner, 2015).

The findings showed that selecting next speaker in language classrooms happens in various ways, and this can affect students' responses. In this data, when the teacher selects one student by name without the student showing his availability first this can lead to long delays. This might be because the selected student is not ready and does not know the answer. This leads to long delays, wastes many learning opportunities for the students, and also delays the progress of learning. However, when the teacher asks the question and asks a small group of students to answer it this



usually gets a quicker response and gives the students opportunity to discuss it with each other, which creates more active learning opportunities.

Language teachers have to pay attention to the way they ask questions and the way they select the next speaker because this can affect the process of learning. The current analysis has shown that the type of questions and also the turn allocation practices can affect the classroom interaction. If teachers do not accomplish speaker selection appropriately, this might lead to long delays in the learning activities and thus limit the students learning progress.

## Chapter 5

### Ear Cupping in EFL Classroom Interaction:

#### An Embodied Means of Pursuing a Student Response

##### 5.1 Introduction

During whole-class discussion teachers regularly face the challenge of how to get students to respond to their questions. This chapter explores some of the interactional practices and communicative strategies that teachers use to pursue a response from students, focusing particularly on multimodal and embodied practices. It examines interactional practices in EFL classrooms in Japanese universities, with a particular focus on how EFL teachers prompt, encourage, and facilitate students' participation in classrooms. In face-to-face interaction, the body can serve as a resource for maintaining intersubjectivity and therefore enabling a conversation to continue (Mondada, 2011). Interactants use a range of embodied movements and resources, including gaze, gesture, and nods, in tandem with other interactional practices. Cupping the ear is one such gesture, although it can serve a variety of interactional purposes. As this chapter will show it can (a) other-initiate repair to demonstrate that a spate of talk has not been heard (Mortensen, 2016), and (b) it is also used to pursue a response from students, particularly in a sequential context when a response has not been forthcoming, which is the main focus of this chapter.

One common understanding of the Ear Cupping (EC) gesture is that it serves as an indication of a hearing problem with the recipient deploying the gesture to ask an interlocutor to repeat a prior turn in a hearable way. Mortensen (2016) calls this a *cupping hand gesture* and notes that it is usually produced without co-occurring

speech and that participants treat the gesture as a first-pair-part (FPP) repair initiation, which makes a repair relevant in the second turn. The interactants thus treat the gesture as an indication of a hearing problem, demonstrating that they view the gesture as a specific social action. However, Mortensen also discusses instances where the hand-cupping gesture co-occurs with speech. In such cases the verbal component helps specify the trouble source located in the previous talk. In addition, the EC gesture has a physiological purpose, with Stephens and Goodwin (1984) noting that it constitutes a non-electric aid to hearing. Its emblematic nature as a repair initiator of audible trouble no doubt stems from this. By extension, Mortensen notes this gesture can be used to initiate a louder subsequent version of an earlier turn-at-talk, such as when a football player cups one hand behind his ear as a celebration after scoring goals or when a pop star uses it during a live performance to animate the audience.

The current chapter will focus on teachers' use of this gesture in language learning contexts. One interactional locus for its deployment comes after the teacher asks a question to which the students fail to provide a timely answer. In such cases, the teacher employs the EC in order to get a response, treating the students' silence as problematic and using the EC in conjunction with other interactional practices to elicit a response. The analysis provides a collection of cases to emically account for the teachers' use of EC in these sequential contexts, and the aim is to demonstrate how the gesture is used in a systematic, orderly way to pursue a missing or delayed response in the post-first position.

The following is an initial example of the EC gesture and how the teacher uses it to pursue a response. As part of this teacher's teaching style, students spend a lot of time standing up and moving around in the classroom. This picture captures the

moment in the activity where all the students and the teacher are standing up near the whiteboard and discussing topics related to Ted talks.

Figure 5.1

*Classroom arrangement*



The students and the teacher are standing

*Excerpt 5.1* EC after an inapposite response

01 T do you enjoy ted talks?

02 | (0.3)

|opens her palms

Ss |nod

03 | (1.1)+| (1.5)

t-gz |~~~to Ss

t-bh |EC ---->line 06



04 T |yes, no.  
|~~ to Ss

05 Ss |yes  
|nod

06 T |tha:nk you. Cool,  
|nods and retracts the EC

The teacher opens the sequence by initiating an assessment (asking the students if they enjoy TED talks) and after a short gap some of the students reply with an embodied response (a nod). However, the teacher treats this response as insufficient and attempts to pursue a verbalized version of this nod by deploying the EC in line 3. She therefore uses the EC to treat students' embodied response as problematic and thus pursue a more appropriate response to her question: the gesture's emblematic orientation to an audibility issue can reasonably be understood to indicate that a choral verbal response is being made relevant. However, in this instance the students do not immediately demonstrate their understanding of what the gesture is doing, leading the teacher to hold the gesture as she shifts her gaze across the students, thus allocating the turn to the whole class and indicating that she is looking for a choral response. In line 4 the teacher provides two candidate responses (Margutti, 2006; Pomerantz, 1988) formulated as a choice ("yes or no"), which narrows the range of expected responses for the students (Koshik, 2005). This is immediately followed by a response from multiple students which leads the teacher to close the sequence by retracting the EC gesture and thanking the students.

## 5.1.1 Background

### *5.1.1.1 Embodied interaction in Conversation Analysis*

In addition to its traditional focus on spoken interaction, Conversation Analysis (CA) research is also increasingly concerned with co-occurring embodied practices, such as gaze, gesture, and nods. Lindström and Mondada (2009) note the nature of face-to-face human interaction involves a combination of talk, gaze, and facial displays. In most cases, spoken and embodied elements of talk are produced in conjunction with each other (Stivers & Sidnell, 2005). CA researchers must therefore pay due attention to those elements of interaction as well as the talk (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). Mehus (2011), for example, analyzes how caregivers use multimodal resources to guide and manage children's talk, and Mortensen (2009) shows how pointing and nodding are used to accomplish turn-allocation in foreign language classrooms. Eskildsen and Wagner (2013, 2015) document how vocabulary can be learned together with recurring gestures and that co-participants can reuse gesture-talk combinations on later occasions for sense making and remembering. They also demonstrate how so-called return gestures are used to solve trouble in interaction. Hauser (2014) shows similar findings where co-participants use stroke gestures in a word-search sequence to address the trouble source. Gestures can be an embodied form of input to second language learners and therefore should be considered as an essential part of second language research. L2 teachers in classrooms use gestures frequently, which makes input more comprehensible to learners, creates teachable moments, and solve problems in understanding (Lazaraton, 2004; Majlesi, 2015; Mortensen, 2016; Seo & Koshik, 2010; Taleghani-Nikazm, 2008).

### *5.1.1.2 Pursuing a response*

The basic conversational sequence is an adjacency pair that consists of two units (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). In general initiating a FPP question makes a SPP response conditionally relevant (Schegloff, 2007). The norm, however, is that when the response is missing or delayed speakers, in both mundane and institutional interaction, engage in interactional practices to pursue a response (Gardner, 2004; Pomerantz, 1984b; Romaniuk, 2013; Schegloff, 2000). The speaker who initiated the action can use certain features (morphosyntax, prosody, gaze, epistemics) to mobilize the response and thereby put more pressure on recipients to provide an answer (Stivers & Rossano, 2010). It is not only questions that require a response: actions like greetings and compliments also make a response conditionally relevant and where that response is missing it must be accounted for (Wiseman & Juza, 2013).

In classroom situations teachers use various practices to pursue delayed students' responses. For example, they can reformulate or rephrase their question, (Svennevig, 2012), or switch to the learners' L1 (Filipi, 2018; Okada, 2010). In order for a teacher to pursue the missing response they have to locate the problem that led to it. In addition to hearing problems, language teachers often treat students' failure to answer as an issue of insufficient linguistic knowledge, and sometimes also orient to their own failure to produce an appropriately formulated question. Depending on the type of trouble source, teachers produce a matching solution (Hosoda, 2014). On other occasions, the selected student might respond in a way that the teacher treats as inapposite, and in such cases teachers can pursue an alternative response (Kasper & Ross 2013) or use a range of similar post-expansive re-initiations to deal with an inapposite response (Amar et al., in press; Kasper & Kim 2007; Okada 2010; Okada & Greer, 2013).

## 5.2 Analysis

### 5.2.1 Ear cupping as other-initiation of repair

In the study mentioned earlier by Mortensen (2016) the teacher's EC gesture occurs after the students have produced a response. This form of the gesture functions to indicate a hearing problem and thereby serves to initiate a repair. The current dataset includes examples of similar actions, such as the following two cases in which teachers cup their ears to initiate repair. Excerpts 5.2 and 5.3 are not related to the main argument of the study, but instead build on Mortensen's study, which uses the same gesture, but from a different angle. The rationale for including these cases here is that in his study Mortensen argues that the use of EC as initiation of repair might be an idiosyncratic behavior of the teacher in his study. These cases therefore bolster Mortensen's work by showing that other teachers use the gesture in similar ways.

In Excerpt 5.2 the teacher produces the EC gesture midway through one student's response. The gesture serves as other-initiation of repair, indicating a hearing problem with students' answers. The issue here is not the absence of a response but the way the response is produced, which is in a low volume.

#### *Excerpt 5.2. Other initiation of repair*

01 T |next group in the back,

|looks to Yu

02 S ( )

03 | (1.2)



t-hd |points with his head to Yu

04 YU °two thousand |fi-°

t-gs |ear cupping -->ln 06



05 YU e: ↑two thousand, five hundred dollars

06 T |>two thousand, fi-< almost, exactly =

|,,,,ear cupping

07 |= same as him okay good

|points to another S

In this excerpt, the class has been discussing in groups of three how much they would spend on a trip to Tokyo Disneyland. The teacher selects Yu's group in line 1 by shifting his gaze towards them and formulating a position-based referent for the group. After a 1.2 sec pause in line 3, the teacher moves his head toward Yu making it clearer that he is selecting him for the next question. Immediately after the teacher points with his head to Yu, he produces a response in line 4. While Yu is talking in

line 4, the teacher raises his left hand and puts it behind his left ear producing EC as other-initiation of repair indicating a hearing problem with Yu's turn. The teacher therefore treats the low volume response from Yu as problematic. Immediately after the EC, Yu repairs his response in a louder voice in line 5, which indicates that he views the teacher's gesture as initiating repair. The teacher maintains the EC until Yu completes his response, then he retracts it in line 6 and repeats what Yu says. By maintaining the EC gesture throughout Yu's repair, the teacher can be seen as instructing Yu to keep talking in a loud voice. In addition, the teacher holds the EC to serve as a continuer for Yu to keep talking until he finishes his response by retracting the EC in line 6, at which point the teacher treats Yu's second version of the response as no longer problematic, making public his understanding of the repair sequence as complete. In line 7, the teacher goes on to close the sequence with an assessment and transition the talk by visibly selecting another student.

This excerpt shows that the teacher uses the EC after the student's response, which he treats as problematic. It also shows that the student orients to the gesture as an indication of a hearing problem located in his prior turn and moves to repair it immediately. As Mortensen (2016) has shown, this display of non-hearing is undoubtedly the canonical purpose of the EC.

In the following excerpt, the teacher produces a similar EC, this time in the middle of the student's SPP. She repeats the first part of his response and produces the gesture as an indication of a hearing problem located earlier in the student's talk. Her second use of EC in this excerpt works as a continuer to indicate to the student that she is waiting for the rest of his response.

*Excerpt 5.3. Hearing problem and talk continuer*

01 T >|alright who is next,=  
t-rh |scratches her nose

02 =|who |else is-<=  
t-lh |raises  
d-rh |raises

03 T =oh |>yes please and thank you?<  
t-rh |points to Dai

04 |(0.6)  
d-gz |looks at his notebook

05 DAI |there the- |ah there a:re two °w-° (.)  
d-gz |looks to T

06 two ways when you receive (.) gifts.

07 T †there're |[two ways you can=  
T-lh |raises two fingers

08 =[receive gif|ts],  
T-rh |ear cupping --->ln 19



09 DAI? [( )]

10 DAI |one (uh) us(ed) giff.

d-rh |raises index finger

t-px |leans toward Dai



11 T u:sing, (.) |what

t-px |steps toward Dai

12 (0.2)

13 DAI |using using the gift

d-rh |moves

14 T using the |gift.

|looks and points to other Ss

15 (0.1)

16 T |and the second  
|looks back to Dai and raises two fingers

17 (0.2)

18 DAI |second putting it in the closet  
d-rh |taps on his notebook

19 T |putting it in the |clo- ↑you |can use it or  
|looks to other Ss |raises finger  
|,,,,ear cupping, looks to Ss

20 |you can put it in the ↑closet  
t-rh |raises two fingers

21 (0.2)

22 T |very nicely done excellent good  
|T and Ss clap

23 job thank you very much you guys go

24 |ahead and sit down thank you  
t-rh |points to the tables

In this excerpt, the class is doing a transitional activity that the teacher calls the “sit down game”. Prior to the activity, the class has been doing a discussion task while standing in small groups of three. At the start of this new activity, the teacher prompts them to tell her one thing they have learned from the textbook. It transpires that the one rule of the “game” is that whichever group provides an answer can sit down.

Excerpt 5.3 is taken from the middle of the activity, after a few groups have provided their answers and the students understand the consequences of the game and start to reply promptly. The teacher begins the sequence in line 1 by asking them who wants to speak next (and therefore implicitly reinitiating her initial question). She does not select any student and thus let students self-select. Even before she finishes her turn several of the students raise their hands to indicate their willingness to speak. In line 3, the teacher selects Dai as next speaker by pointing at him, and she proceeds this with a reaction token (Wilkinson & Kitzinger, 2006) “oh” which might indicate her surprise at students’ bidding for the turn, which she encourages by thanking him for his desirable behavior (Hosoda, 2016). Dai produces a response (lines 5, 6) and the teacher receipts Dai’s response through repetition. She then uses the EC as a continuer at the end of her turn to encourage him to say more and to indicate that she is ready for him to keep talking. Indeed, after the teacher performs the EC, Dai continues with his talk in line 10, demonstrating that he views the gesture as a prompt to continue. The teacher displays a hearing problem within Dai’s previous turn; she repeats the first word he said to frame the repair initiation, locating the trouble source in the other word. She enacts the EC simultaneously with her question at this point. The teacher maintains this EC gesture while leaning toward Dai and asking him a question to indicate the trouble source as within Dai’s prior turn. By leaning toward Dai the teacher shows that the distance between her and Dai might be the reason for

her not hearing all of his talk. She also enacts EC and produces other initiation repair simultaneously. By doing so she urges Dai to repair his turn in an audible way. This time Dai properly treats the gesture as an indication of a hearing problem and repeats his previous turn (line 13). In line 14, the teacher repeats what Dai said as an acknowledgment token and for the rest of class to hear it, and in line 16 she asks him to continue telling the second part of his answer by producing a designedly incomplete utterance to pursue the response (Koshik, 2002b). Dai concludes with a telling of the final part of his response (line 18). In line 19, the teacher repeats Dai's response as she retracts the EC gesture. As she does so she turns to the rest of the class indicating the end of Dai's participation in the activity. In the rest of the talk, the teacher undertakes her own version of what Dai has said, thanks him, and praises him for providing a response. Some of the students might not be able to hear Dai's response, so by repeating Dai's turns, the teacher includes the rest of class in the activity.

The EC gesture as shown in Excerpts 5.2 and 5.3 represents its primary use, as other-initiation of repair on a non-heard trouble source (Mortensen, 2016). The teacher uses the gesture to indicate a hearing problem and the students treat it as such by repairing their turns immediately after the teacher produces the gesture. In these excerpts, the teacher also uses EC gesture to serve as a continuer.

### 5.2.2 Ear cupping as mobilizing response device

When teachers ask questions, a response from their students becomes sequentially due. However, in fact it can be very common in Japanese EFL classrooms for the students' response to be delayed or even non-forthcoming as long silences often follow the teacher's questions (King, 2013a). Although the EC gesture is canonically

a means of showing some aspect of prior talk was not properly heard, that is not the main focus of the current analysis. As noted above, I will instead explore how the teachers use the EC gesture to pursue a response from students when it is missing, delayed or treated as inapposite. In the following excerpts, the teachers ask a question and allocate the turn to the whole class instead of selecting a particular student.

In Excerpt 5.4 the teacher asks a question about some drawings on the board and opens the floor for students to provide a choral response or bid for the turn. However, when the response is delayed he uses the EC gesture to pursue the missing response.

*Excerpt 5.4. EC after a WH question*

01 T |what is this  
t-px |facing students  
t-bh |point back at the board

02 | (1.2)  
t-bh |point back at the board

03 T anybody

04 | (1.6) | (3.4)  
t-rh |points back at the board  
t-bh |EC----->ln 7



05 T |anybody  
t-px |leans toward Ss



06 | (1.2) | (1.6) | (0.3)

t-rh | raises



t-lh | puts it back behind his ear

g-rh | raises

07 T | yeah (go on)

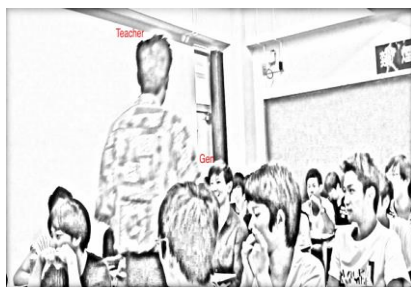
t-lh | , , , , EC

t-rh | points at Gen

08 GEN | (° °)

09 T | what is it

t-px | walks fast toward Gen



10 GEN | video camera

In line 1 the teacher initiates the sequence by asking a WH question directed to the whole class. He points back at the whiteboard to guide the students to the answer but keeps looking at the students to hold them more accountable for responding (Stivers & Rossano, 2010). In line 3, the teacher adds an increment to his prior turn segment to pursue the answer (Schegloff, 2000). However, this does not prompt any response from the students and the teacher again points back at the whiteboard, this time using the EC gesture to elicit the students' answer or to encourage them to bid for the turn. The teacher repeats the increment again in line 5 (*anybody*) while using a range of embodied actions (raising his hand, leaning toward the students), and he does all this while his left hand is behind his ear (lines 5 and 6). By doing this, the teacher is using the EC as the main practice for pursuing response and the other practices are assisting devices to upgrade the EC and help the students understand that the teacher is still waiting for their response. The evidence for this is that the teacher keeps enacting EC all the way until he gets one of the students to answer, while he uses other gestures briefly and simultaneously in combination with EC. All of these practices prompt one of the students to raise his hand to bid for the turn. The teacher selects Gen verbally and points to him (see Kääntä, 2012 on turn allocation) while he retracts the EC (line 7). In line 8, Gen produces a response in a very soft voice, leading the teacher to initiate repair in line 9 (Interestingly, he does so without cupping his ear, despite the apparent issue of audibility to account for the trouble source). Finally, Gen provides a response that is hearable in line 10.

In Excerpt 5.4 the teacher therefore uses the EC gesture to pursue a missing response after he opens the floor and the students provide neither a timely answer nor a bid for turn. The teacher maintains the EC until one of the students bids for the turn, suggesting that both he and they see it as not an orientation to hearing difficulty, but

as an attempt to deal with the sequential and temporal delay to the progressivity of the talk.

On occasion, an EC can also be deployed during post-first silence without any spoken prompt. In Excerpt 5.5, for example, the teacher produces the gesture to pursue a missing response after an incremental tag-question fails to get a response from the students. The gesture is produced initially without co-occurring speech and the teacher maintains it throughout the remainder of the interaction until she receives an answer from her students.

*Excerpt 5.5. EC without co-occurring talk*

01 T |before golden week we talked about how long  
t-rh |points behind herself

02 (.) |have you been studying english  
t-gz |~~~~to Ss

03 (0.3)

04 T right?

05 (0.4)

06 T >↑how long have you been studying again<?

07 (0.8) | (1.0)

t-bh

|EC --->ln 13



08 T            how many years

09            |(1.2) |(1.3) |(4.5)

t-gz            |~~~to Ss

t-rh            |beckons to Ss, lh remains behind ear



t-rh            |puts finger under ear



t-gz            |~~~ to Ss

10 T            |how many years have you been studying english?

t-rh |beckons to Ss, lh remains behind ear

11 | (0.3)

t-gz |looking to her left

12 MAI |twelve

t-gs |,,,,,,ear-cupping

13 (0.3)

14 T about |twelve years?

t-gs |points at Mai

15 |right:?

t-hd |tilt

16 (0.4)

17 T >that's a long time< twelve years

In this case, the teacher opens the sequence by confirming and (re)topicalizing a matter the class talked about in a previous lesson (lines 1-2). In line 4, she adds the incremental tag-question *right* with rising intonation to elicit a confirmation from the students. When the students do not confirm this, she rephrases her turn, formulating it more directly as a question in line 6 and using the word *again* to indicate that they have previously discussed this topic and therefore making it clear that she is inviting

them to recall it. She therefore seems to be opening the floor for a choral response, instead of selecting one specific student or waiting for someone to self-select.

However, when no one answers, the teacher uses the EC to pursue a response from the students after 1-sec of silence. She holds the gesture while waiting for a response and then reformulates her question (Svennevig, 2012) and uses her right hand to beckon to the students, urging them to reply while she holds the EC with her left hand in line 10 as an upgraded version of the EC gesture. After another brief gap, one student self-selects and replies in line 12. It is at this point that the teacher finally retracts the EC, suggesting that she sees the conditions for its deployment as ended, and this also therefore serves as emic evidence to suggest she is using it to pursue response. She then closes the sequence by repeating the student's contribution and providing an assessment.

The teacher clearly uses the EC as a response-pursuing practice when a relevant response from the students is missing or delayed. By launching the EC, she treats the students' silence as problematic. The gesture generally appears in a separate turn without co-occurring speech, although in some cases the teacher also employs the gesture while she is talking. The teacher maintains the EC gesture while asking questions to the students, holding it at its apex until she gets a response from them. During the time she sustains the gesture, the teacher co-enlists a variety of practices to help elicit a response from students; she reformulates her question, initiates partial self-repeats, and uses other gestures simultaneously with the EC gesture, in a similar manner to what we saw in Excerpts 5.1 and 5.4. She uses the gesture with other strategies such as repeating the question and providing candidate answers to facilitate a response from students. One could argue that if the teacher had selected one student to answer she might have avoided the long silences and received a quicker

response. However, training students to self-select and answer questions has its own pedagogical benefits, and it seems like that forms part of this teacher's classroom management practices.

In Excerpt 5.6, the teacher uses the EC after she has repeated her question a few times without any response from the students. This time the gesture is produced with co-occurring speech in the form of a candidate response.

*Excerpt 5.6. EC with candidate answers*

01 T |is thinking action?

|moves her head toward Ss

t-gz |~~~~ to Ss

02 | (1.3)

t-gz |~~ left to other Ss

03 T is thinking |action yes or no

t-rh |index to temple --> line 07



04 (1.7)

05 T |is thinking action,

t-gz |~~ away

06 |(2.3)

t-gz |~~~to Ss

07 T |is thinking action, |yes or no.

t-rh |,,,,,index to temple and enacts EC ---> ln 10

|EC -----> ln 10



08 |(2.0)

t-gz |looks to her left

09 MAI ↓yes

10 T no||: heheho that's (what) a lot of people

t-gs |,,,,,, EC and holds one finger

t-gz |~~~ to her right

11 |think=thinking is action.



In line 1, the teacher opens the sequence with a somewhat ambiguous, or at least tricky, question (*Is thinking action?*). As she initiates this sequence, she moves her head toward the students and shifts her gaze across the class. By looking at the students the teacher is allocating the turn to them and searching for a volunteer to self-select or bid for the next turn and provide a response. After a 1.3-sec gap of silence she reinitiates her question and enacts a "thinking" gesture by pointing her right index finger to her temple (line 3). As she does this, the teacher provides two candidate alternatives ("yes" or "no") formulated as a choice to limit the students' response to one of the two options and thus makes it easier for them to select the answer. However, again this does not prompt a response from the students and the teacher reinitiates her question in line 5 and then shifts her gaze across the students, waiting for 2.3-sec in line 6 without any response from the students. In line 7, again she orients to the absence of a response by repeating her question, producing two candidate responses as a choice in conjunction with the EC gesture as she retracts the thinking gesture. The teacher therefore enacts the EC only after she has tried repeating and reformulating her question, providing a candidate response, and using other gestures without getting any response from the students. She maintains the EC gesture during 2.0-sec of silence until one of the students replies with *yes* in line 9. In lines 10 and 11, the teacher implicitly acknowledges the student's response, although she goes on to explain that it is not correct.

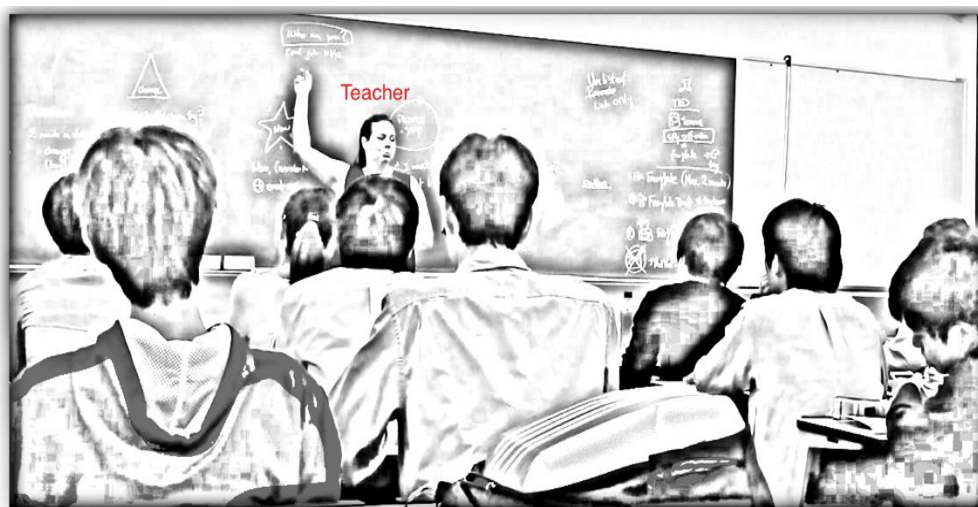
This analysis of Excerpt 5.6 provides evidence to suggest the teacher times the EC to co-occur with her speech. According to Mortensen's study (2016) the hand-cupping gesture (as he terms it) frequently occurs in the absence of talk without any verbal indication of how it relates to the prior action or how it should be understood.

On the other hand, in most of the cases in this study teachers maintain the gesture throughout their talk as a reminder to students that they are waiting for their missing response. Producing the gesture along with the question helps students understand that the EC gesture is a response-pursuing practice and thus prompts them to provide a response.

In the next excerpt the teacher uses EC to pursue an agreement to her assessment of a “job title”. Unlike most of the cases in this teacher’s class, this time the students are sitting down and the teacher is standing in the front of the classroom as can be seen from the figure below.

Figure 5.2

*Classroom arrangement*



The Teacher is standing and talking and the students are sitting down

Excerpt 5.7. *Rule breaker*

01 T |rule breaker  
t-rh |points finger to the board--->line 15  
02 | (0.4)

t-gz |looks at Ss

03 T |cool job title,  
t-hd |nods and smiles  
t-gz |~~~ to Ss

04 |(0.7)  
t-hd |nods

05 T |is that cool?  
t-gz |~~~~ left to right  
t-hd |nods

06 |(0.5)  
t-gz |~~~~

07 T the rule breaker

08 (.)

09 T is that cool,

10 |(0.6)  
t-gz |~~~~

11 T >|yes or no<

|EC



12 | (1.2)

t-gz | looks at the center of class

13 Ss | yes

| nod

14 T | that's very cool. right,

| , , , , EC and raising hand

In this excerpt, the teacher is talking about job titles that students can give to themselves in the classroom and in line 1 she provides *rule breaker* as an example. In line 3, she formulates an assessment (Pomerantz, 1984a), describing it as a *cool job title* and nods and shifts her gaze across the students, seemingly pursuing their agreement. When there is no response from the students, the teacher reformulates her statement to a direct question in line 5 *is that cool* and gazes toward the students to include more mobilizing response features and to increase the pressure on students to provide a response. Again, she does not select any particular student, but instead opens the floor and waits for a choral yes or no response from students. In line 7 she adds an increment to address the absence of the response (Schegloff, 2000). After a



06 (0.2)+|(0.4)

t-gs |ear cupping



07 SS |move your body

t-gs |,,,,ear cupping

08 T move your |mind

t-bh |both indexes on temples



09 Ss move your mind

10 T >that's right,<

Here the teacher and the students have just finished doing a number of physical exercises. In line 1, teacher produces a TCU making a statement *move your body move your mind* and after a short gap she asked the students to repeat what she just said in the previous turn (line 3). When nobody does so, she repeats the first part of the sentence using a designedly incomplete utterance (Koshik, 2002b) to prompt the students to repeat after her (line 5). After 0.2-sec gap and when no one repeats after her, the teacher produces the ear-cupping gesture (line 6), which is followed by the students' SPP immediately repeating after the teacher in line 7. After the students' repetition, the teacher retracts the EC gesture and produces the last part of her sentence in line 8 for the students to repeat. This leads the students to repeat it without any delay in line 9 and then the teacher closes with a positive assessment in line 10.

In this excerpt, the teacher deploys the EC gesture after she uses a designedly incomplete utterance and after she has asked students to repeat her turn. When neither approach manages to get students to talk, her use of the EC gesture seems to facilitate talk from the students. In this case, the teacher is pursuing repetition; the students simply have to repeat what the teacher just said. However, it was not as smooth as expected and the use of EC helps to make the students understand what the teacher wants them to do.

In the next excerpt the teacher asks students if they are ready and when she does not get a response she produces candidate responses and then EC to pursue the missing response.

*Excerpt 5.9. Running a marathon*

01 T                   we're gonna run |twenty kilometers.  
    |spreading her palms

02 | (0.4)  
t-gz |~~~ across Ss

03 T are you ready?

04 | (1.8)  
t-gz |~~~~to Ss

05 T yes or no

06 | (1.3)  
t-gs |ear cupping



07 Ss |no=  
t-gs |,,,,retracts ear cupping

08 T =>NO |me neither<  
|points her finger to her chest

09 (.)



10 T           hh. if I run twenty kilometers |today i will

t-gs

|open her

palms

11           die hehe

Prior to this excerpt, the class has been talking about how to prepare for upcoming presentations and exams. The teacher is reminding them to start preparing gradually. To give an analogy of how to prepare for things step by step, in line 1 she tells the students that they will run 20 kilometers today. After a short gap in line 3, she asks them if they are ready. She shifts her gaze across the students during the 1.8 sec gap. When there is no response from the students, she provides candidate responses as yes/no options to make it easier for them to reply by limiting their response to these two options. However, the students do not provide any response, so the teacher deploys the EC gesture to pursue the missing response. She keeps the gesture in place until the students provide a choral response saying *no* in line 7. From lines 8 to 11, Amy closes the sequence by agreeing with the students and laughing to highlight the absurdity of her question (see Chapter 6 on Absurd Case Formulation) and moves on to explain the rest of the lesson.

In this case, the teacher uses EC when she asked a direct question and provided candidate responses without getting any reply from the students. She uses the gesture as the last practice and when she does so the students reply very quickly. This might indicate that students have become familiar with her use of this gesture and now understand they have to provide a verbal response to it.

In the following case, the teacher uses EC after she produces a word that she treats as potentially unfamiliar to the students. After she produces the word, she asks the students whether or not they understand it and uses EC to urge them to provide a response. The teacher produces the EC during the silence after her question. She maintains the gesture until the students provide the relevant response in the next turn. The students and the teacher are standing and talking about the groups they are going to make for their final assignments.

*Excerpt 5.10* EC as an epistemic status check

01 T |this time your group of three (0.7)

t-rh |raises three fingers

02 |are people that you like

t-gz |~~to the right

03 |(1.0)

t-bh |puts her RH on her lh

04 T |a::nd (0.6) |you trust.

t-gz |looks up

t-gz |looks to Ss

05 (1.1)

06 T >|people that you |like and |trust<

t-gz |~~~ to Ss

t-rh |taps lh

t-rh |taps lh

07 | (0.7)

t-gz |~~~ to Ss

08 T beca::use this will be your (0.6)

09 .tch your mastermind team.

10 (0.5)

11 T |do you understand the word mastermind,

t-gz |~~~ to Ss

12 |(1.1) |(0.4)

t-gz |~~~ to Ss

t-lh |EC--->ln 13



13 Ss |no

|shake heads

t-lh |,,,,, EC

From lines 1 to 9, the teacher talks to the students about a small group they have to form for an upcoming assignment. She uses the word *mastermind* to describe the group (line 9). After a short gap of silence in line 10, she initiates a question in line 11 in order to clarify whether the students understand the word. The teacher shifts her gaze across the students allocating the turn to the whole class to mobilize a choral response. When there is no response from the students, the teacher uses the EC to pursue a response to her question. This time the teacher uses the gesture without any co-occurring speech. In line 13 the students reply after the use of the gesture with both spoken and embodied response, saying *no* and shaking their heads at the same time claiming that they do not understand. The teacher responded to this claim by explaining the meaning of the word in the ongoing talk, which is not shown, (Koole & Elbers, 2014).

As this excerpt suggests, the EC can be deployed as a first option to pursue response. Unlike in the previous excerpts when the teacher reformulates, rephrases, and provides a candidate response before she uses the gesture, in this excerpt the gesture is used as part of explaining an activity. However, it is similar to the other cases in that it is enacted when the teacher's question fails to get a response from the students.

### **5.3 Discussion and Conclusion**

This chapter has shown how EFL teachers employ a particular EC gesture and how their students orient to it. Building on Mortensen's work, the chapter has analyzed how EFL teachers employ EC as other-initiation of repair of an inaudible trouble source, with students orienting to it as such by repairing their response in a louder

voice. The EC also is used in these excerpts as a continuer to indicate to students that their turn is still going. The chapter has also analyzed an additional interactional practice involving the EC that has yet to be described in the CA literature: the gesture is used to pursue students' response and it can be produced both with and without co-occurring spoken interaction. In this way the chapter adds to our knowledge how teachers use embodied practices to pursue students' responses. Most of the previous studies in CA have shown how teachers use spoken interactional practices to pursue students' responses (Filipi, 2018; Okada, 2010; Pomerantz, 1984b; Svennevig, 2012). My analysis has suggested that when the teacher treats the students' silence and embodied responses as inapposite and problematic, EC can be used to pursue a more adequate response, and invariably that means a spoken one. Adopting an emic perspective, the analysis has also demonstrated how students orient to this gesture. When the teacher performed the EC without co-occurring speech the students demonstrably treated the gesture as a FPP (Seo & Koshik, 2010) by providing a subsequent SPP. The study has revealed that teachers use various interactional practices to deal with the silence that on some occasions follows their questions. They reformulate questions (Svennevig, 2012), add an increment (Schegloff, 2000), and use a wide range of embodied practices such as EC. The EC gesture is used extensively by these teachers to pursue a response (the complete collection involves more than 60 instances of the teachers using the EC to pursue a response). In many cases they use it with other practices to upgrade prior attempts to prompt an answer and make its function clearer to the students. Throughout the data, the teachers used EC after they reformulated questions and produced other practices; however, in Excerpt 5.10, the teacher used EC as her first choice to pursue the response. One can argue that the teacher might have come to a conclusion that EC is an efficient practice in eliciting

students' response and thus starts with it. As shown in previous research, the use of gestures in language classrooms can enhance L2 learning and can be used as communicative strategy (Lazaraton, 2004; Olsher, 2008). My study adds to this by showing some of the multimodal practices that teachers use in order to pursue a missing response from students after a silence or inapposite response to their questions. In doing so, embodied practices such as EC enable EFL students to better participate in classroom interaction. The results also displayed that wait time after a teacher's question constitutes a means of informing learners of the teacher's pursuit of an adequate response.

Finally, in terms of pedagogical implications, the study has provided insights into how to integrate the CA approach into English language teacher education by showing educators how to properly use gestures in classrooms and how to manage classroom's conversation properly. The findings from naturally occurring data such as that in this chapter provide in-depth understanding of what is actually happening in classrooms and thus help teachers and researchers to acquire a new perspective about EFL classrooms in Japanese universities. EFL teachers in Japan who are routinely faced with long silences after their questions might find such embodied interactional practices useful in getting their students to engage in classroom activities.

## Chapter 6

### **Absurd Candidate Formulation (ACF) as a Practice for Pursuing Students' Responses in EFL Classrooms**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

Teachers' interactional practices in EFL classrooms shape the way students engage and participate in classroom activities as we have seen in the previous chapters. When teachers ask a question, they expect to get a response from students; however, in many cases that response can be delayed, leading them to deploy a variety of interactional resources to pursue the missing or delayed response. This chapter uses Conversation Analysis (CA) methods to analyze Absurd Candidate Formulations (ACFs) in EFL classrooms. It also draws on Occasioned Semantics (OS) to show how teachers use scaling practices to upgrade and downgrade (regrade) ACFs and other elements of their talk. Teacher-student interaction has been a central interest within Conversation Analysis for Second Language Acquisition (CA-SLA) since its inception (Markee & Kasper, 2004). One of the most common interactional features of language classrooms is that teachers usually ask questions and students provide responses. However, in many cases students' responses are delayed, causing teachers to use various interactional resources to mobilize and pursue the students' sequentially due responses (Antaki, 2002; Bolden et al., 2012; Stivers & Rossano, 2010). In this chapter I will analyze how teachers use ACFs as candidate answers to pursue student responses. ACFs are expressions used in a particular context that are designed to be hearably non-correct through the implausible nature of their formulation. ACFs are usually produced in conjunction with laughter that can highlight the non-serious or hyperbole nature of the expression within that sequential

context. The ACFs are therefore only absurd within their contexts and if produced in a different sequence they may not in fact possess a sense of absurdity; they are therefore distinctive from Extreme Case Formulations (ECF) (Pomerantz, 1986) in that ECFs have semantic extremity and innately extreme terms such as *all*, *none*, and *absolutely*. ACFs, on the other hand, are only absurd in a certain context and specific situation. The ACFs in my data are deployed in the interactional business of pursuing a missing response and pursuing progressivity of talk in EFL classroom.

This chapter will therefore analyze in micro-detail the use of ACFs in EFL classrooms in order to demonstrate how teachers use them to pursue a response from students. In addition to a CA approach, the study will also draw on Occasioned Semantics (OS) (Bilmes, 2010) to show how teachers use ACFs as part of scale to point out the absurdity (and therefore non-relevance) of one or more sequentially arranged candidate responses, leading students to arrive at the appropriate answer. The following is an example of an ACF. Even though the response is not missing in this case, it can be argued that the teacher pre-emptively used the ACF to avoid any projectable delay.

Excerpt 6.1 starts with the teacher asking students to talk in small groups about an upcoming project, and she uses an ACF to remind them to use English.

*Excerpt 6.1 Languages*

```
01 T      |which language? |are we doing this in  
      a-gs  |---spreading her palms----> to line 2
```





t-gz |to the left

t-gz |to the right

02 english, or japanese, or |french,

t-gs |clenched fists



03 |(0.6)

t-gz |to the right

04 Ss e(h)nglish [heheh

05 T [|hehe ye(h)s

t-hd |moves to the left

The teacher starts with the WH-question “which language?” (line 1) and without any pause she follows it with a three-part list of candidate answers in line 2, (English, or Japanese, or French). She does this while shifting her gaze across the class calling on all students as potential next speaker and thus opening the floor for a choral response. The teacher begins the list with the most plausible and preferred candidate response “English” then follows this with the second candidate (Japanese), which is plausible

in that all the students are Japanese L1 speakers, even though its use in an EFL classroom is institutionally dispreferred. The final candidate is French, which is both implausible and absurd because this is not a French class and the students do not speak French. The use of this absurd candidate is therefore designed to guide the students to choose the right answer (English) by highlighting the wrong answers, and indeed in the next turn (line 4) the students do provide the preferred response by choosing (English) without delay and with laughter, which indicates their understanding of the absurdity of (French) as a candidate response. In line 5, the teacher produces reciprocating laughter and verbal confirmation of the answer.

However, this case does not completely follow the generic sequential pattern in that the student response is not initially delayed before the teacher reformulates the question using the ACF (lines 1 and 2). Even so, it does show how the teacher seems to be pre-emptively dealing with a possible delay by deploying the ACF at this point and thus enables the group to deliver their response in a choral manner, an activity that requires careful attention to timing.

#### 6.1.1 Pursuing response in classroom institutional interaction

When a speaker initiates an action sequence by producing a FPP question, the production of a SPP response by an addressed recipient is made relevant (Schegloff, 2007), but when that response is missing, the speaker may deploy various practices to pursue the missing response (Pomerantz, 1984b; Schegloff, 2007). Institutional talk is no different than mundane talk in this regard. When teachers ask questions, a response from students becomes conditionally relevant and when such students' responses are missing or delayed both teachers and students orient to the delay. CA research has analyzed questioning in classrooms and the various practices teachers deploy in order to pursue a student response when it is missing, delayed or treated as inapposite. In

foreign language classrooms, the language is both the goal and the medium of interaction, so it is common for teachers to ask known-answer questions in order for students to practice certain expressions (Seedhouse, 2004). Among the practices that teachers produce to pursue students' responses are; modify their language to match students' level, produce polar yes-no questions with candidate response (Margutti, 2006), produce designedly incomplete utterances (DIU) (Koshik, 2002b), and recalibrate the specificity of the question (Duran & Jacknick, 2020).

#### 6.1.2 Extreme Case Formulation (ECF) and Absurd Candidate Formulation (ACF)

Extreme case formulations were originally identified by Pomerantz (1986) as expressions using terms that are semantically extreme, such as all, most, none, every, and absolutely. ECFs can be used to defend or justify one's argument in case of challenge. They are also used to propose that some behavior is not wrong or right by showing the frequency of how it is done (Pomerantz, 1986). ECFs can work as devices for doing being "non-literal" in a way that they are not accountably accurate descriptions, and they can display speaker investment, for example certainty, caring, and critical or positive attitude (Edwards, 2000). On the other hand, as mentioned earlier, ACFs are terms that are only absurd in a certain context and designed for their absurdity to be noticed. When ACFs are taken out of their context there is nothing that can distinguish them and they do not have anything in common. The ACFs in this study are used by the teachers to pursue students' responses when they are missing or delayed.

#### 6.1.3 Occasioned Semantics (OS) and Scaling

The first part of the current chapter draws on Bilmes' Occasioned Semantics (OS) and the systematic use of scaling in interaction. OS is a systematic approach to the on-the-

spot creations of signifying formulations (Bilmes, 1993, 2010, 2011). “Occasioned semantics is the study of the semantics of language-in-use. More particularly, it deals with the development of structures of meaning in actual occasions of talk” (Bilmes, 2019, p. 10). Scaling is the arrangement of a set of items from less to more, or more to less. A scale is the ordering of two or more elements with one higher or lower than the other (Horn, 1972). Bilmes (2019) introduces the term “regrading” to refer to upgrading and downgrading in interaction. It involves the positioning and repositioning of elements on a scale. There are numerous scale types and thus numerous types of regrading. For example, generality and specificity, quantity (more fewer/less). Some scales consist of lexical items such as sets of adjective terms for example, beautiful, pretty (Bilmes, 2019). Izumi (2019) shows how doctors in a Japanese hospital use different scales to achieve understanding of how far patients have progressed with regard to their independent mobility. Scales can also be used for entertainment and to justify or defend arguments (Lee, 2019). Prior (2019) notes that when scales are made relevant, speakers may layer them to strengthen one another. Bilmes (2019) identifies two scales in his study, calling one a primary scale and the other a secondary scale. The primary scale is the scale of the degree of violence yell↔punch↔cut↔kill. The secondary scale is threaten/do, which is a talk/action pair. The secondary scale modifies and applies to the primary scale. The use of scales and regrading in interaction serves many purposes: it helps achieve and maintain inter-subjectivity, support arguments, and mobilize response. In this chapter, the teachers use scaling in order to guide students to arrive at appropriate response by regrading their talk to highlight the absurdity of certain candidate answers.

## **6.2 Methods**

The chapter employs the CA approach that was developed by Sacks and his

colleagues in the 1960s. As in the majority of this dissertation, my analysis follows the CA methods (see Sacks, 1995) of focusing on the social and sequential details of multimodal elements of the participants' interaction. In addition to CA, the study also makes use of Occasioned Semantics (OS), an inclusive methodology that draws on CA, Sacksian analysis of categories, and linguistics semantics (Bilmes, 2015), and in particular I will apply the notion of scaling practices in conversation (Bilmes, 2010) to the current data set.

### **6.3 Analysis**

The data suggest that teachers use ACFs as an interactional practice to pursue students' responses on occasions when the responses are missing, delayed, or treated as inapposite. The study is divided into two parts; the first part shows how the teacher uses ACFs as a scaling practice to pursue the students' response. The second part analyses how the teacher employs ACFs to pursue progressivity of classroom interaction. The analysis will start with the first part where the teacher uses ACFs as a scaling practice to facilitate students' response by providing them with some absurd candidates to guide them to an appropriate response.

#### **6.3.1 ACFs as a scaling practice to pursue response**

The following three excerpts are from an ad hoc pedagogical activity that the teacher introduced in his class when he realized that his Japanese students were having difficulty dealing with English numbers. The aim of this activity is to make them familiar with the value of US dollars, as well as practicing using large numbers in English. The transcription is divided into three excerpts, each containing the teacher talking to one student and ending when he moves to a new student. The first excerpt starts with the teacher asking one student about what she can buy with \$85.

*Excerpt 6.2. Buy a house*

01 T |let's say I give |you: |(2.1)  
t-px |>>walks toward Eri  
t-bh |>>come together, cupped, outstretched  
t-rh |raised to eri



02 |uh: (.)↑eighty five dollars.  
t-bh |outstretch to Eri  
e-gz |to T

03 |(1.6)  
t-bh |counting money gesture

04 T |°okay°  
e-hd |nods

05 |(0.6)  
e-gz |down to notebook (NB)--> to line 8

06 T so |what >are you going to buy<  
t-gs |points to Eri  
t-px |moves back and sits on desk

07 (3.5)

08 ERI |°eighty five°=  
e-px |leans toward T  
e-gz |to T

09 T |=↑ei:ghty five dollars,  
t-gz |~~~to the back of the class  
e-gz |to NB

10 (.)

11 T |I gave her ei:ghty five dollars,  
t-gz |students behind Eri (left)  
t-lh |points to Eri

12 (0.6)

13 T |now she has to go buy something,  
t-gz |~~~across the classroom

14 |(6.4) |(0.6) |(0.5)  
e-gz |-->NB |to T |to NB--> to line 18  
t-gz |~~to Eri--> to line 17

15 T            what can you bu:y for eighty five dollars.

16            |(18.3) |(0.2)

e-rh        |writes in NB

t-gz        |eri        |~~a student behind eri

17 T            |[oka:y, t-]=|huh? g'head?

t-lh        |points to a student behind Eri

t-gz                            |to Eri

t-px                            |leans toward Eri--> line 19

18 ERI?        [(°° I °°)]

19            (0.6)

20 ERI        I buy

21            |(2.8) |(0.3) (2.4) |(0.3) |(2.0)

e-gz        |to NB--> line 25

e-hd                            |head tilt |head tilt

e-fc                            |smiles

22 T            can you buy a house,

23            (0.6)



24 T >>h'h'h'hnhn[hn]<< ((unvoiced nasal laugh))

25 ERI |°[e(h)]hh° .hh hah  
e-hd |tilt left

26 T no:?

27 ERI |°n(h)o°  
e-hd |shakes

28 T no house [°no°]

29 ERI [( )](0.3)( )|(0.8) ( )  
e-gz |to NB

30 |(0.2)|( )  
e-gz |~~~to student on her left  
e-fc |smiles

31 T can you buy shoe:s?

32 (0.2)

33 ERI |yeah=[ y e s ]  
e-hd |nods

34 T >[you c'n] buy< |shoes, |okay good;  
e-hd |nods

t-rh	palm raise
t-hd	nods
t-gz	~~DAI--->>

The excerpt starts with the teacher offering Eri eighty-five dollars in a hearably hypothetical manner (lines 1-3). He does this by saying he gives her the money, walking toward her and clarifying his talk by performing a gesture of counting money during the silence in line 3. The teacher then produces an epistemic status check (Sert, 2013) “okay” in line 4 to verify Eri’s understanding. She indicates a claim of comprehension with an embodied nodding response and then she looks down at her notebook which might be an indication of her “doing thinking” of the value of the money. Next, the teacher issues a WH-question (line 6) asking what she is going to buy with \$85 while pointing with his finger to Eri to reinforce the selection. He then moves back and sits on a table close to Eri, which suggests that the teacher is expecting the long gap that follows his question and thus treating the question as the type that requires a long time to get a response because the students need to convert the USD to Japanese yen and then think of what they can buy with this money. Indeed this is followed by a 3.5 sec gap after which Eri leans toward the teacher and repeats *eighty five dollars* in a low voice, initiating a repair that implies her non-hearing or non-comprehension of the question (line 8). The teacher repeats the key term (eighty five dollars) with rising intonation and shifts his gaze across the remainder of students, redirecting his talk to them in lines 11-13 and addressing Eri in the third person: This ostensibly reworks the participant constellation to explain the question and continue to include them in the activity, but as a ratified overhearer it also affords Eri another opportunity to hear and understand the task. This is followed by a long gap (7.5-sec) in line 14. During this silence Eri shifts her gaze back and forth between

the teacher and her notebook, displaying that she is working on formulating a response to the question (Reinelt, 1987).

Having still not received a response, the teacher pursues the delayed response by reformulating his question (Svennevig, 2012) from *what are you going to buy* (line 6) to *what can you buy* (line 15). In addition to syntactically simplifying it, this also clarifies that the question is not literally about what Eri intends to buy, but what can be bought with \$85. A very long gap of 18 sec (see Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010; Walsh, 2011) ensues after this reformulation as Eri writes in her notebook again, showing (or conceivably pretending) she is preparing a response to the question (line 16) (Reinelt, 1987). The teacher appears to be about to give up on Eri and move to a new student (line 17). However, just as he does, Eri apparently produces some form of uptake (unhearable on the recording, but seemingly in overlap with his turn in line 17) and the teacher turns to her and utters *huh go ahead* (line 17) as a continuer to what he assumes she has said. He combines this with embodied actions, looking and leaning toward Eri to urge her to provide the response. In lines 18 and 20, Eri starts her second pair part response by saying *I and I buy*; however, she pauses at a point when the utterance is grammatically incomplete. She tilts her head and smiles while the teacher is looking at her and waiting for her to go on (line 21). Even though Eri has delayed the completion of her turn-at-talk, the teacher produces a candidate response *can you buy a house* (line 22), emphasizing the “s” in house and delivering it with rising intonation. In this turn, the teacher has moved from a WH-question to a polar question (Koshik, 2002a), to facilitate the student’ response by limiting it to either yes or no. This candidate is an ACF in this sequential context because a house is far beyond the limit of \$85 (the average value of a house is approximately \$600,000 in the Tokyo area). This is followed by a short gap and laughter from the teacher

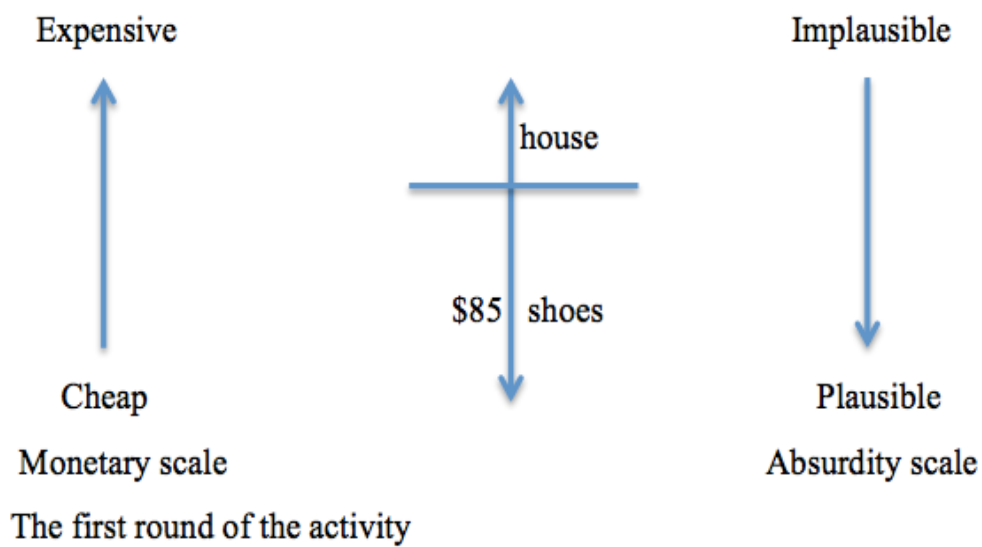
(lines 23 to 24) to indicate the non-seriousness nature of this ACF. Eri produces a reciprocating laugh claiming her acknowledgment of the absurdity of the candidate response; however, she still does not provide a response. The teacher then produces *no* as a candidate response showing that *no* is the preferable response to this ACF (line 26). Eri repeats *no* and shakes her head (line 27), aligning with the teacher's response. In line 28, the teacher repeats and confirms that a house is beyond the limit of the amount Eri has (hypothetically) been given. After more than 1-sec of silence in which Eri looks at her notebook and at the student sitting next to her talking with her quietly (lines 29-30), the teacher produces another candidate response, formulated within the initiating action (FPP), *can you buy shoes* (line 31). Here the candidate is downgraded on the absurdity scale from *house*, which is both absurd and impossible, to *shoes*, which are plausible and conceivably under the limit of \$85. Eri then provides a quick affirmative response *yeah yes* (line 33) and the teacher confirms this and closes the sequence with the positive assessment (okay good) (line 34).

In Excerpt 6.2, the teacher uses a scalar formulation to pursue a response from the students. We saw how the teacher regraded his talk to help the student understand the question and to guide her to provide a response. When the student did not provide a response the teacher produces the ACF (*house*), which is far beyond the limit of the amount she was (hypothetically) given; however, this unrealistic example provides her with assistance, in that it is a tangible noun that is purchasable and this can assist her in understanding the question. The aim is to guide the student to think of something less expensive that still adheres to those grammatical and categorical attributes. By producing an ACF the teacher also breaks the long silence and receives affiliative laughter from the students. Downgrading the absurdity scale from an implausible candidate to the relatively plausible candidate *shoes* allows the student to

provide a quicker response, which also indicates her understanding of the value of the money.

Figure 6.1

*Monetary and Absurdity scales*



In the next excerpt, the teacher moves to another student and continues with a second iteration of the same activity.

*Excerpt 6.3. Buying a car*

```
01 T          |okay, ↑so I'll give |you:
t-gz          |>> at DAI--> to line 5
t-lh          |raises LH
d-gz          |>>down at table
```

02           |seven hundred |dollars.  
t-lh         |pushes toward DAI  
d-gz         |~~to T-----|~~down--> to line 4

03           (.)

04 T         |↓now |>what are you gonna buy.<  
d-fc         |smiles  
d-rh         |to chin--> to line 8  
d-gz         -----|~~mid-front-----

05           (2.5)

06 DAI       |eh:: (    )  
d-gz         |~~down----  
t-gz         |~~back center of room

07           |(1.7) |   (2.5)    |(8.0)  
t-gz         -----|~~DAI--> to line 11  
d-gz         |~~left|~~down--> to line 7  
d-hd                 |tilt left |rocking slightly  
d-rh                 |rubs chin with thumb--> line 10

08 DAI       (m::)

09 T         ↑can you buy |a car?  
d-gz         -----|~~T

10 DAI           hehe |\$°no°\$  
           d-rh       -----|waves in front of face  
           d-fc           |wide smile

11 T            |↑no.  
           t-hd       |long nod

12            (.)

13 T            |okay,  
           t-gz       |~~to right

14            (0.2)

15 T            |what can you buy.  
           t-gz       |~~DAI--> to line 9

16            (1.6)

17 DAI           I buy a (.) °etto° puh- |↑personal computer.  
           d-gz       -----|~~T

18            |(0.5)  
           d-gz       |~~left front

19 T            a- a- |a c- computer?

t-hd |dips toward DAI

20 DAI |yes.

d-gz |~~to T

d-hd |nods

21 T |°a computer.° |okay good

t-hd |nods

t-gz -----|~~back center--->>

In this case, the teacher moves to a new student and continues with the activity. He upgrades the monetary scale that he began in Excerpt 6.2 from \$85 to \$700 (lines 1-2). This provides evidence that the teacher is building on the previous case as he starts with *so* a discourse marker that ties it to the previous talk as an indication of continuity. By doing so, the teacher is implicitly comparing the amount of the money in this case to that of the last case, (the price of shoes). As he asks the question, the teacher turns to Dai and palm-selects him as the next speaker. The teacher initiates the telling sequence by asking a WH-question, *what are you gonna buy* (line 4). This is similar to his first question in Excerpt 6.2 when he asked Eri *what are you going to buy* and Dai likewise fails to provide a timely response as evidenced by the very long gap (more than 15 sec) that follows the question. During this gap Dai produces many embodied actions and some verbal indication of trouble: He puts his hand on his chin showing he is thinking, and shakes his hand apparently displaying the difficulty he is facing in providing a response (lines 5 to 7). In line 8, he produces an elongated (m:); however this is interrupted by the teacher who issues an interrogatively formulated candidate response *can you buy a car* (line 9). When we compare this item *car* to the



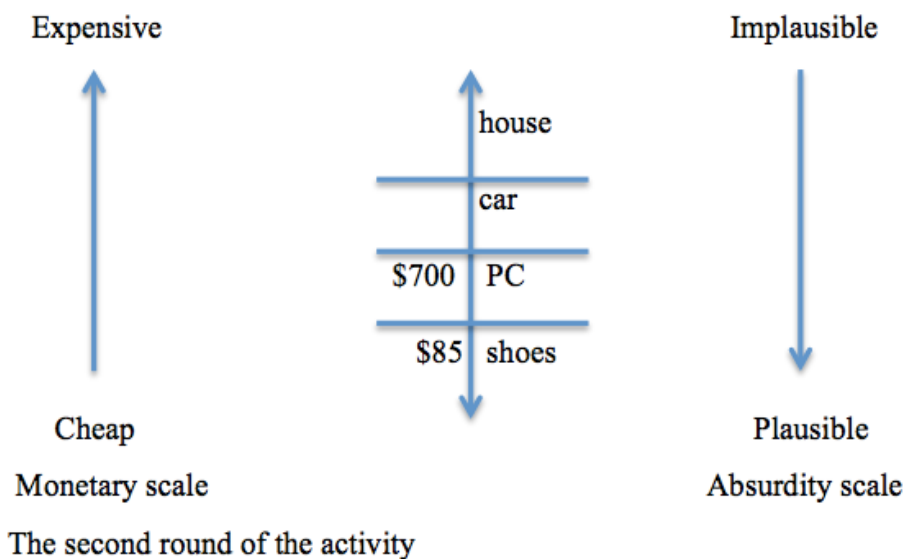
amount of money (\$700) we can see that this is an ACF case because *car* is more expensive than \$700. Dai orients to this as absurd by laughing and producing *no* (line 10) as a response, which is the preferred response after ACFs. The teacher confirms Dai's response by repeating it and nodding (line 11) and produces a sequence-closing third "okay" in line 13.

After the teacher establishes that \$700 cannot buy a car, he then pursues the missing response for his original question by reformulating it to *what can you buy* (line 15). After 1.6 sec of silence (line 16) Dai provides a second pair part response stating that he can buy a personal computer (line 17). Dai therefore successfully provides a response that is conceivably under the limit of \$700 and is able to place his response under the teacher's ACF candidate *car* on the situationally accomplished absurdity scale. In other words, Dai downgrades the scale from *car*, which is an implausible response in this case, to *personal computer*, which is a more plausible response.

In Excerpt 6.3 therefore, we have seen that both the teacher and the student interactively co-constructed a scale of absurdity and by doing so they accomplished the interactional task at hand. The teacher provides an amount of money that is larger than the one he uses in the first round of the activity and asks the student what he can buy with it. When his question does not get a response he then provides an absurd candidate (*car*) to help pursue the missing response. The student displays his understanding of the ACF by laughing and providing *no* as a response. By producing the ACF the teacher also helps the student think of something less expensive than the absurd element he provides. This is what the student does when he replies with the element *personal computer*, that is cheaper than *car* and under the limit of the monetary scale \$700.

Figure 6.2

*Monetary and Absurdity scales*



The following excerpt is the final segment of this activity. It commences when the teacher moves to a third student to continue with the activity.

*Excerpt 6.4. Used car*

```
01 T      okay. so I give |you three thousand
      t-gz  >> back center ---> to line 11
      t-lh                |raise toward back of class
02        five ↑hundred |dollars.
      t-bh                |rests on lap
03        |(1.6)
      f-gz  |~~selected student
```

f-fc |smiling widely

04 T can you buy a car.

05 |(7.5)

t-gz |~~~to Yuu

06 YUU yes.=

07 T =yes, you can buy a |u::sed car.

t-px |leans forward

08 (0.1)

09 T |not a new car

t-hd |shakes left

10 (0.8)

11 T |with three thousand |five hundred dollars

t-gz |~~around class

t-bh |waves palms out-----|rests on lap

12 |no new car

t-rh |waves

13 |(0.2)

t-rh |slaps right leg then rests rh on leg

14 T           you can buy a |u:sed car.  
t-rh           -----|points toward selected student

15               ↑right? okay? |okay,  
t-px                               |stands and turns

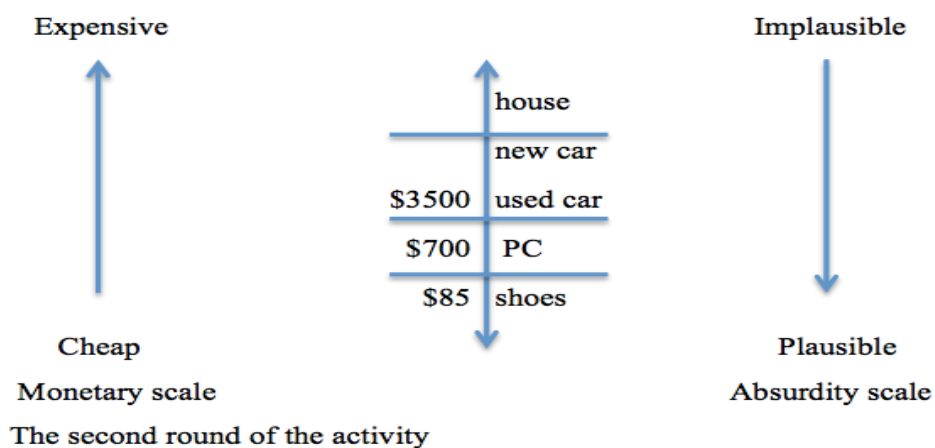
As in the previous excerpts, the teacher moves to another student and in lines 1 and 2 he selects Yuu as the next speaker and increases the money from \$700 in Excerpt 6.3 to \$3500 in this excerpt (lines 1-2). After 1.6 sec of silence, the teacher provides a candidate response, *can you buy a car* (line 4). This time the teacher's first option is formulated as a polar question rather than a WH-question as in the other cases. The teacher also uses the same candidate he used in Excerpt 6.3 (*car*). An important difference here, however, is that he increases the amount of money, which moves *car* from being an absurd and implausible response in Excerpt 6.3 to being plausible in this case because the absurdity of the car is only within a specific context. This provides further evidence that the teacher is implicitly comparing the items and amounts of money he provided in previous cases to the one he uses in this case. This polar question is followed by a long gap of silence (7.5 sec) in line 5 during which the teacher keeps looking at Yuu to mobilize a response from him. Yuu eventually produces an affirmative response to the question in line 6, and in line 7 the teacher confirms this by agreeing with him even though he specifies and qualifies the response, stating that only a used car can be bought with \$3500. In the rest of the talk he expands on this point by explaining that a new car is beyond the limit of \$3500 but a used car is under the limit. In this case the teacher does not use an ACF but by using

an item from the previous round of the activity, he was able to make the selected student understand that when the amount of money increases, the item moves from being an absurd candidate to a plausible one and indeed the student provides affirmative response which indicates his understanding of this.

These three excerpts therefore contain two different but inter-related scales. The first is the monetary scale, which has numerical evidence of its scalability. In this scale the teacher starts from the smallest number and upgrades it to the biggest. The second scale is an absurdity scale, which is used as a secondary scale to help students come up with (or choose) an appropriate response. The absurdity scale is different from the monetary one because it is a locally constructed and contextually determined scale (Bilmes, 2010). In other words, the scalar relations in ACFs are created on the spot and within a given interactional context. When we take *house* and *car* out of the context that the teacher links them to (\$85 and \$700), there is nothing particularly absurd about them and they do not belong to any obvious scale out of this context. In terms of action, the teacher enlists the items and “talks them into being” as ACFs within the interactional practice of pursuing a response from the students. By

Figure 6.3

*Monetary and Absurdity scales*



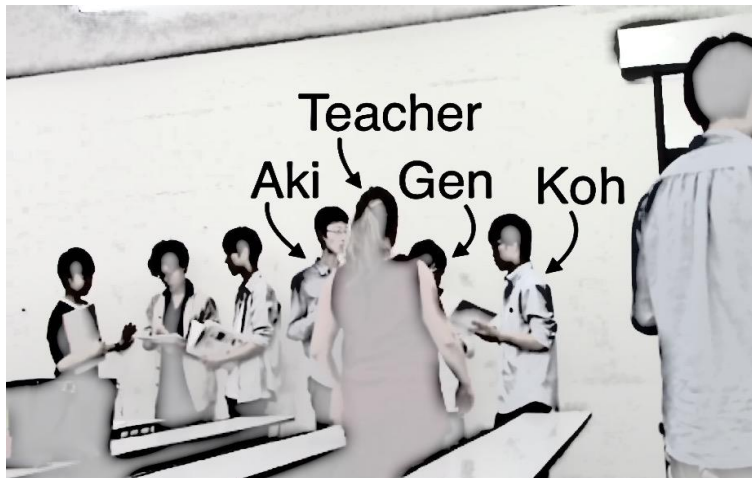
suggesting something beyond the limit he has set, the teacher guides the students to think of an alternative under the limit of the amount of money they have. In addition, using ACFs helps break the long silences because they are usually followed by laughter and they narrow students' possible answers down to "no" as a preferred response. A clear example of this is in Excerpt 6.3 when the teacher asked the student if he can buy a car with \$700 and the student replied quickly with laughter and *no*. When the teacher asked a follow-up question the student was able to provide an appropriate response in a way that he was not able to do before the teacher provided an ACF as a candidate response. The following figure shows the scales used by the teacher in this activity.

### 6.3.2 ACF to pursue progressivity

While Excerpts 6.2, 6.3, and 6.4 dealt with how the teacher uses ACFs as a scaling practice to pursue a missing response, the following cases in this section show how another teacher uses ACFs to pursue progressivity of the talk that has been delayed. The students have been standing around the classrooms in groups of three, discussing a homework assignment in which they have to report back to their classmates about a TED talk they have watched. Just prior to the extract, the teacher approached a group of three male students and has been listening to their conversation without actively participating.

Figure 6.4

*TED talks discussions*



*Excerpt 6.5. Trauma + Do I smell*

01 KOH |just give a, |(1.4) a:::::h

k-gz |>>to Gen=====|~~away left-->

k-rh |chop

02 KOH |(1.3) |s:o:::: |°etto°(.) .hhh

*HM*

k-gz |-----|~~down----->

k-rh |touches glasses

t-gz |~~away

03 |e:h |kyuu-ni shaberenakunatta zo=

*quickly speak-POT-become-PST-NEG IP*

All of a sudden I can no longer speak.

k-gz |down----->

k-rh |touches glasses

04 =|hih |heheh heh heh=

k-gz |down----->

k-rh |to mouth



05 T |wh(h)a(h)t? |(0.6)

k-gz |down-----|~~teacher

t-rh |touches Koh's left shoulder

|slides hand down Koh's arm



06 T y[ou were like-]

07 KOH [|kuru to- ]=

come COND

When you come-

k-gz |~~T----->



08 KOH =sha- |kuru to shaberen[ai ]  
*come COND speak-POT-NEG*

When you come over I can't speak.

t-rh |palm to chest x2



09 T | [WH]y: :! .=

t-px |leans on desk-->

10 KOH =|hih hih hih [ hih ]

k-gz |~~page



11 T [wh(h)a]t's wr(h)o(h)ng? why?

12 KOH |when- when |you |come,

k-gz |Gen----~~page----|~~T-->

k-rh |palm points to T

13 T \$why[:.]\$

14 KOH | [I,] |struggle?

k-gz |~~Gen-|~~T---->

k-rh |to chest

15 GEN? |° [un] °

*yeah*

g-gz |~~Koh



16 KOH [hih hih |heh]

k-bh |to face

17 T [w h y : . ]

18 KOH |I: ( ) |(0.6) ((sniff))

k-gz |away and down |~~page

k-rh |horizontal wave ((=neg))

|wipes nose

19 T |is it because- |do I |smell? (0.6)

t-rh |,,,raises arm--....

t-fc |to chest |sniffs armpit



20 T |I [don't |think I] [smeh- no,]=  
 t-gz |~~Koh

21 KOH [|n o:| : : : ]  
 k-gz |~~away, down  
 k-rh |horizontal wave ((=neg))  
 k-hd |shakes



22 SHO |[[h'h hahn]  
 s-gz |~~T----->

23 T =|\$I don't |smell ri:ght. |no.\$  
 t-gz |~~Sho-----~::~~|Koh-->  
 t-hd |shakes  
 k-gz |Gen-----|~~page-----  
 k-rh | horizontal wave



24 T |or maybe I was |\$jumpin:gǝ\$  
 t-gz |Koh-----  
 t-rh |waves in front of chest

25 T |(1.5)  
 t-gz |Koh---~Sho---~Koh  
 k-gz |T~~~down-----  
 s-gz |~~~down-----



26 KOH |ano::::h |(1.3)  
*HM*  
 k-gz |away, mid-----  
 k-rh |touches nose

This excerpt starts with Koh stating that he cannot find the right words and showing difficulty continuing his talk (lines 1-4). The teacher initiates a repair in line 5 which leads Koh's to provide a reason for his earlier statement. He explains that he cannot speak when the teacher comes (line 7-8). In line 9 the teacher asks *why* attempting to

figure out why Koh stops talking when she walks toward his group and why he says he cannot talk when she comes near. Koh laughs in line 10 and does not respond to the teacher's question, which leads her to expand her question in line 11 to pursue the missing response (Gardner, 2004). After this Koh provides a response in lines 12 and 14 stating that he struggles when the teacher comes. The teacher does not accept this response as it does not provide a reason for why Koh cannot speak near her. She keeps pursuing the response by repeating *why* in line 17. In the next turn Koh shows difficulty in providing a response by stretching his talk and looking down. The teacher then provides a candidate answer, which is absurd, asking if the reason is because she smells. This candidate is designed to be rejected because her turn is a self-deprecation with a preference for a disagreement (Pomerantz, 1984a). She also shows her intention for the response to be rejected by negating it in line 20 and that what Koh also does in line 21 with *no* and hand wave. By doing this, the teacher inserts a sequence where she provides a candidate that leads to restarting the talk and establishes that the reason is not because she smells.

This does not prompt Koh to provide an account for teacher's original question *why*, which led the teacher to further pursue an account from him in the next excerpt by providing another ACF.

#### Excerpt 6.6 Trauma

27 T           okay, |lemme just do a précis jus for a secont.

t-rh               |extends toward Koh's arm



28 | (0.7)

t-px |moves toward Koh



29 T ↑so (0.5) when, when you say #that;# (0.4)

30 when you say:, >when somebody< co:mes; (0.6)

31 #uh# especially me;

32 |↓that you |can't communicate (0.3)

k-gz |~~T-----

k-hd | nods

33 uh (0.6) |(i)y-you have to explore #why::#

k-gz |~~~~T-----

34 | (0.5)

k-gz |~~mid distance, away from T



35 KOH a-o:,,,:h (0.4) why?=  
|

36 T =#yea:h.#  
|

37 | (0.2)

k-gz |~~T-

38 KOH why- it is why?  
|

39 T yeah  
|

40 KOH what is the why. wa- |ah  
|

|touches glasses

41 | (0.7)

k-gz |away and down

k-hd |head tilt-->

42 KOH .shh hmmm.  
|

43 | (2.5)

k-rh | touches nose  
 44 KOH so:::: | eh (0.5)  
 k-hd | nod  
  
 45 T | ↑so | °ih-°>is it be|cause< you fee:l |a#h#  
 k-gz | down|~~~~~|T-----|~~left  
 k-hd | shake



46 |ne:rvous; or |emba:rassed; or ash|amed;  
 k-gz | left-----|up-----|~~~down  
 k-hd | slight tilt



47 |or have #i:::# |(0.5)  
 k-gz | down----->  
 t-bh | rolling wave-->

48 |y'know is it a |reaction [from (0.2)]  
 k-gz | down-----|~~~~T-----~~~up mid

49 KOH? [ °heh hah° ]



50 T some trauma?

51 | (0.5)

k-rh |adjusts glasses

52 KOH >iya<

*no*

53 T |like |did you have a-an english teacher

k-gz |away-|~~~~~T----->

k-rh |horizontal wave ((=neg))

54 |punch y(h)ou or so(h)me[th(h)i(h)ng]?

t-rh |light punch to Koh's shoulder



55 KOH |[n h n h n ]hnhnhn

k-rh |horizontal wave  
in front of face

k-px |leans back



56 T |n(h)o(h)o?  
t-hd |shakes  
k-px |stands up straight again



57 KOH |(anyone) .  
k-gz |T~~~~forward>>

58 T |okay.  
k-hd |tilts to side  
t-rh |touches Koh's right shoulder  
t-hd |turns right

The teacher starts by rephrasing Koh's talk (lines 27-32), and in line 33 she repeats and expands her original question *why* pursuing an account from him. From line 34 to 44 Koh shows difficulty in answering the question by delaying his response with producing an extended Japanese receipt token (o:::h), repeating *why* and asking about it. In this sequence the teacher confirms his question with *yeah* (lines 36 and 39), making his account sequentially due once again. He also co-produces a host of embodied practices that show his confusion (touches his nose, glasses, and moves his head).

When all these practices fail to get an account from Koh, the teacher produces a series of options constituting candidate responses that move from the plausible to the implausible and absurd (line 46-50). The candidates are presented as a three-part list which are plausible reasons for why students do not want to speak near teachers *nervous, embarrassed, and ashamed*. All of these three candidates are plausible; however, some of them are more plausible than others, because it is normatively more likely that a student is nervous in an EFL classroom than ashamed. The fourth option, *reaction from some trauma*, is implausible and absurd in this context. Koh negates this in line 52 with Japanese *iya* (no). After this, the teacher specifies her candidate in line 53 *like did you have an English teacher punch you or something*. The teacher also produces laughter along with this absurd candidate to help indicate it is designed to be heard as non-serious. This gets reciprocal laughter from Koh and an embodied response shaking his hand to reject the candidate answer (lines 55), denying he has had a traumatic experience with an English teacher. In line 56, the teacher confirms his embodied response saying *no* and laughing to confirm his response. Finally, she finishes with the sequence-closing third “okay” and moves on.

In this case the teacher tried to get a response from the student to why he says he cannot talk when he is close to her, and it could be that in this situation the delay is due to the delicate nature of the question: Answering it implies that he has indeed been trying to avoid her hearing his English. When her question fails to mobilize a response she produces a list of candidate responses as a three-part list and an ACF. By doing so the teacher did not get a response to her original question; however, she establishes that it is not something to do with her as an English teacher. Providing an ACF also helps resume the talk, which was stuck at a certain point where the student

was resisting to provide a response to teacher's question *why*. The use of ACFs helps with getting the student to negate it and thus engage in talk with the teacher.

In the next excerpt the teacher walks up to another group of three students talking about a TED Talk that one of them watched; Aki is reporting back to the other two students as part of an activity that the teacher has asked the whole class to do in their groups.

*Excerpt 6.7. Procrastination monkey*

01 T |procrastination |monkey?

t-gz |Aki-----~~~~~|Aki's NB

a-gz |T-----|~~~NB-->

t-px |moves toward students



02 (0.2)

03 AKI |a::hnɛ

a-rh |points to page, taps x2

04 T |is that right?

|point's to Aki's NB



05 AKI right.

06 T |it's such a good [one]

|taps on Aki's NB



07 AKI [ahah]a hahah

08 T didja like it?

09 |(0.5)

a-hd |nods-->

10 AKI |yes. |

a-gz |~~T-

a-hd |-----|

11 T whaja think.

12 (1.0)

13 AKI interesting and (0.7) eg:(h)h (1.5) I::

14 (1.0)

15 AKI °na-nante iu n darou°

*what say NOM COP*

**How should I put it?**

16 | (1.8) | (0.7) | (0.7)

a-gz |NB-----|~~~T->

t-gz |Aki---|~~Miu-|----->

m-gz |down-----|~~~T->

17 AKI? | ( )

a-gz |T----->

a-rh |rolling gesture

18 AKI ah muzuka [(h)shi(h)i heh heh hah]

*difficult*

**Oh, this is hard.**

19 REI? [↑↑|hih hih hih hih hih] .hah

r-rh |to mouth

20 AKI? |°↑nnn[n n g n ]°

a-rh |grooming hair

a-hd |tilt

21 T [it's interes]ting, you lau:ghed?

22 you cri:ed you:, (0.2)

23 |\$jumped out the wi(h)n|do(h)w?\$ =

m-gz |down-----|~~Aki-----

m-fc |smiles

24 T = h'h-hoh [hoh hoh ]

25 REI? [↑eh h'hi]h h' [hih]

26 T [wha]t happened.

27 (0.3)

28 AKI .hhh (0.5) intaresting.

29 T mh|mm (0.5)

a-hd |nods---

30 T ↑\$yea:h\$ it is really interesting.

31 that's very co[ol].

32 AKI | [un] [un]

33 MIU | [un]

a-hd |nodding

m-hd |nodding

34 T recommend it. it's a good one.

35 | (1.2)

t-px |walks to another group

As she enters the talk, the teacher says the title of the TED Talk, *procrastination monkey*, and raises her intonation to call for confirmation of the current topic (line 1). When Aki does not confirm it, the teacher re-issues the confirmation initiation asking if that is right (line 4), and then Aki confirms it in line 5. The teacher provides an assessment *it's such a good one* (line 6), making implicit her epistemic access (Koole, 2010) to the topic. Aki replies to the teacher's assessment with laughter in line 7 and the teacher initiates the polar question *did you like it* in line 8. This is followed by an immediate nod from Eri and then a verbal response *yes*. The teacher asks a follow-up question to elicit more information from the student asking her what she thinks (line 11). After 1-sec of silence Aki starts her second pair part response with interesting and she projects additional information by saying *and* (line 13). However, in the remainder of her turn she shows difficulty completing her talk, switching to Japanese to display she is out of words by saying *nante iu darou* (how should I put it) in line 15 and the negative assessment *muzukashi* (difficult) (line 18). This receives laughter



from Aki as well from the other two students, perhaps due to her switching to Japanese in front of the teacher, but also because it constitutes a failure to expand on the topic.

At this moment the teacher provides a list of three candidate answers with the ACF as the final item in a three-part list of candidate responses delivered at a point when the student is displaying difficulty completing her turn. The teacher starts with the plausible candidates *you laughed you cried* (line 21-22) and after a short pause she provides the idiomatic absurd candidate response *you jumped out the window* (lines 22 to 23). As in previous cases, the teacher produces the ACF with laughter as an indication of its absurdity and students produce reciprocating laughter displaying their understanding of the ACF. In this case, the teacher provides a list of three-candidate answers furnishing the student with the form and characteristics of a proper list item to be produced (Lerner, 1995). However, the student does not reply to the ACF and does not choose any of the candidates probably because it is not phrased as a question. This leads the teacher to reformulate her previous turn to a WH-question *what happened* (line 26). Aki repeats the same response she has already provided *interesting* without selecting any of the additional information that the teacher was pursuing. This time the teacher gives up and closes the talk with a positive assessment claiming her satisfaction with Aki's response even though it is not the one she was pursuing and walks away from the group (lines 30-35).

#### **6.4 Discussion and conclusion**

This chapter has investigated how teachers pursue missing responses in the EFL classroom. It has added to the CA literature in this area (Duran & Jacknick, 2020; Hosoda, 2014; Koshik, 2002b; Margutti, 2006) by analyzing a practice that has yet to be considered in other studies. The focus of the chapter is on how the teachers use

ACFs as candidate responses to facilitate students' responses. The chapter was divided into two parts; the first part showed the use of interactional scaling in EFL classrooms, particularly in relation to how teachers use different scales to pursue missing (and therefore sequentially due) responses from students. The two scales that were identified in this study were a monetary scale with its numeric scalable features and an absurdity scale, which constitutes a locally constructed scale (Bilmes, 2019). The findings showed how teachers accomplished their questioning practices by regrading their talk, upgrading and downgrading elements to place them on different positions on the scales. By doing so the teachers help students better understand the questions. The study showed how one teacher uses two scales in his talk (Excerpts 6.2, 6.3, and 6.4), one as a primary scale and the other as a secondary scale to help students understand the first scale and thus the questions.

The second practice is related to the use of ACFs to pursue progressivity in teacher-student talk that has been delayed. The findings revealed that teachers use ACFs when their questions fail to mobilize timely responses. Teacher's ACFs help students come up with or choose an appropriate response by highlighting the improbable candidate responses as non-appropriate. Formulating something absurd as a candidate response guides students to consider a plausible alternative within the same scale and thus provide apposite responses. The ACFs are usually followed by laughter either from the teacher to highlight their absurdity or by students to indicate their comprehension of the absurdity. ACFs also break the long silences that sometimes follow teachers' questions.

The use of ACFs in EFL classrooms can serve a number of purposes. They are used to bring a sense of humor and to help EFL teachers engage their students in interaction by breaking the long silences that sometimes follows their questions.

ACFs are also a way that teachers can deal with students' resistance in classrooms because the long silences might be a form of students resisting interacting with teachers. ACFs serve to "priming the pump" in that the teachers have produced a candidate answer even though it is absurd. Although that candidate should rightly be rejected, it allocates the turn to the students and prompts them to produce another more appropriate answer.

## **7. Conclusion**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This dissertation has investigated teachers' interactional practices in language classrooms, particularly pedagogically oriented questioning sequences. The main focus was on how EFL teachers pursue students' responses when they are missing, delayed or treated as inapposite. The use of CA methodology enabled the researcher to examine in micro-detail the multimodal practices that occur in the classrooms. The study has also examined summoning and turn allocation practices that are fundamental to how teachers establish selecting the next speaker to answer their questions. This chapter presents a summary of the findings and implications and draws the dissertation to its conclusion.

### **7.2 Summary of findings**

The aim of this study was to examine teachers and students' interactional practices through accounting for the natural occurring interaction that took place mainly at EFL classes in Japanese universities, as well as some parts from universities in the US. This section will present a summary of the findings for Chapters 4 to 6 starting with how teachers allocate turns to students (Chapter 4), and how they pursue missing responses (Chapters 5 and 6).

The analysis in Chapter 4 showed how teachers select students. It expanded upon other studies that showed how teachers select next speaker by calling their name (McHoul, 1978) and using embodied actions (Kääntä, 2012; Mortensen, 2008). The data for this chapter is taken from EFL classrooms in a Japanese university and ESL classrooms in an American university. The micro-analysis in this chapter showed that teachers employ three main practices to select next speaker; (a) they select students by

calling their first name or full name, (b) they select a small group of students, and (c) they open the floor by selecting the whole class.

The first practice showed how teachers use students' first names and full names as a means of accomplishing summons in a large group. The analysis demonstrated that the summoned students align to the summons with both verbal and embodied responses (Mortensen, 2009) to display their availability. It also showed how selecting the students using their full names is more successful than selecting them using their given names alone. When the teacher used given names, some of the students do not respond and the teachers needed to repeat the summonses (Gardner, 2015; Schegloff, 1968) and reformulate them. On the other hand, when teachers used a student's full name the student responded immediately.

The second practice is selecting a small group of students, usually three or four, to answer a question. In this case the teachers ask a question first then allocate turns to one group of students to provide an answer without specifically naming one student. The students thus co-negotiate the turn allocation organization (Markee & Kasper, 2004) through gaze, nods, and sometimes talk. In this study, the teachers wait for the students until they nominate next speaker without interfering with their decision. When one student is selected as a group representative they provide an answer on behalf of their group members; however, when the response is wrong other group members can take over and answer, which showed that students treat themselves as one party.

The analysis of Chapter 4 also showed the shifting of participation as the teacher is de-selected from the group when they start negotiating speaker selection (Greer, 2013). The teacher becomes an active member of the conversation again when one of the students starts to deliver the response. Arranging students in small groups

provides more opportunities to include them actively in classroom interaction.

However, it might also provide a window to those who do not want to participate to avoid being engaged in the interaction.

The final practice in Chapter 4 is when the teachers ask questions and then open the floor for students to self-select or provide a choral response. The analysis demonstrated that opening the floor in these EFL classrooms can lead to a very long pursuit of response and delay both the interactional progress and the flow of the lesson. In such cases teachers used many practices to pursue the missing response, including reformulating the question (Svennevig, 2012) and switching to the students' native language (Filipi, 2018; Okada, 2010). On the other hand, opening the floor in the ESL classrooms was very smooth and the teachers' questions were followed by quick choral responses from the students. It is worth mentioning that the ESL classes examined in this study are small compared to the EFL classes. Small classes allow the teacher to build rapport with students and allocate turns easily while big classes are difficult to manage and some students might feel intimidated to speak up in front of the whole class. The familiarity might also play a role in this because in EFL classrooms the teachers meet with the students only once a week and due to the large number of students, it is highly possible that the teachers do not know every individual student and this can complicate speaker nomination. On the other hand, the students from small size classes are taking part in an intensive course and meet several times in a week, which increases the familiarity between them and the teachers and therefore makes speaker selection and students' participation smoother in the classroom. By meeting with the students several times a week, the teachers can develop familiarity and build rapport (Greer, 2017) with their students. This allows

the teachers, on occasions, to nominate speakers using first names without the need to check name cards or student lists as what happens in large-size classrooms.

The analysis in Chapter 5 demonstrated how teachers use embodied actions to pursue students' missing responses. The focus of this chapter was on how teachers use what I call Ear Cupping (EC) gesture in order to (a) initiate repair and (b) pursue a missing response. Building on Mortensen's (2016) work, the study has analyzed how EFL teachers employ EC as other-initiation of repair of an inaudible trouble source, with students orienting to it as such by repairing their response in a louder voice. The chapter has also analyzed an additional interactional practice involving the EC that has yet to be described in the CA literature involving how the EC is used to pursue a student's response when it is missing, delayed, or treated as inapposite. In this way Chapter 5 added to our understanding of how teachers use embodied practices to pursue students' responses in educational context. The chapter is an addition to CA studies on pursuing response. The vast majority of such research has shown how teachers use spoken interactional practices to pursue students' responses (Filipi, 2018; Okada, 2010; Svennevig, 2012), but this study fills a perceived gap by investigating how teachers use embodied practices to pursue a response. The analysis in Chapter 5 has suggested that in cases where the teachers treat the students' silence and embodied responses as problematic, they employ EC to pursue a more adequate response, and invariably that means a spoken one. Adopting an emic perspective, the analysis has also shown that students treated the gesture as a FPP (Seo & Koshik, 2010) by providing a subsequent SPP and this is evidence that they understood the gesture as a response device pursuing.

As suggested in prior research, the use of gestures in language classrooms can enhance L2 learning and can be used as communicative strategy (Lazaraton, 2004;

Olsher, 2008). This chapter has added to this by showing how EFL teachers used some multimodal practices to pursue students' responses. In doing so, embodied practices such as EC enabled EFL students to better participate in classroom interaction.

The analysis in Chapter 6 has shown how teachers use spoken formulations to pursue responses and progressivity in classroom interaction. The analysis demonstrated how teachers use Absurd Case Formulations (ACFs) in order to guide students to arrive at an appropriate response. Adding to previous research (Duran & Jacknick, 2020; Koshik, 2002b; Margutti, 2006), this chapter has analyzed a new phenomenon. The analysis has shown how the teachers use ACFs as candidate answers with other plausible candidates to pursue students' responses. The chapter was divided into two parts; the first part has analyzed the use of interactional scaling in EFL classrooms, particularly in relation to how teachers use different scales to pursue sequentially due responses from students. In this chapter the teachers used two different scales in their talk to pursue students' responses. The two scales that were identified are a monetary scale with its numeric scalable features and an absurdity scale, which constitutes a locally constructed scale (Bilmes, 2019). The findings have demonstrated how teachers accomplished their questioning practices by regrading their talk, upgrading and downgrading elements to place them on different positions on the scales and thus help students to understand the question and come up with responses.

The analysis of Chapter 6 also showed the use of ACFs to pursue progressivity of teacher-student talk that has been delayed. The findings revealed that teachers use ACFs when their questions fail to mobilize timely responses. The ACFs are usually followed by laughter either from the teacher to highlight their absurdity or by the



students to indicate their comprehension of the absurdity. The use of ACFs helps students come up with or choose an appropriate response because it highlights the improbable candidate responses as non-appropriate. The absurdity of ACFs as a candidate response guides students to consider plausible alternatives and leads them to provide apposite responses. The use of ACFs in EFL classrooms served several purposes. They are used to pursue a missing response, pursue the progressivity, and guide students to arrive at an appropriate response. ACFs also break the long silences that sometimes follow teachers' questions, bring a sense of humor to classrooms, and help EFL teachers to engage their students in interaction.

To sum up, this dissertation has explored several issues related to teachers' interactional practices in L2 classrooms. The study analyzed the micro-practices that occur in the actual classrooms. It showed how teachers use both embodied and spoken practices to select speakers (Chapter 4) and to pursue responses (Chapter 4, 5 and 6). By analyzing the micro-detail of classroom interaction, the study showed how teachers dealt with not receiving timely responses for their questions by employing set of multimodal resources to mobilize and pursue a response from students.

### **7.3 Implications for CA**

This section will present some of the theoretical implications from this study. The findings of this study have built on and added to CA research on pursuing response and turn allocation. Many CA studies have focused on how teachers use verbal practices to pursue missing responses (Filipi, 2018; Okada, 2010; Svennevig, 2012); however, few have shown how the teachers can use particular gestures as a mean of informing students that the teachers are waiting for a response. This study contributed to this area by showing how teachers use the EC gesture on some occasions without

co-occurring speech to pursue a missing response. It also showed how the students orient to the gesture by providing the relevant response.

Prior research on turn allocation has shown how teachers select next speaker and how students bid for turns (Kääntä, 2012; Mortensen, 2008). This study has shown how the speaker selection is accomplished via multi-layered practices and how the students themselves negotiate speaker selection. The study showed that speaker selection in EFL classroom is complex issue and a deeper look into it revealed that the teachers are not the ones who have the final say on who will speak next when they select a small group of students because another phase of speaker selection can occur and in that case the teacher is left out of decision-making regarding turn allocation

#### **7.4 Implications for practical classroom practices**

In this study there are many practical implications that can help teachers deal with the challenges they face to improve their teaching styles. The findings showed how teachers should think carefully of the way they select speakers because it impacts how the rest of the interaction continues. In large size classrooms such as EFL classes in Japanese universities, speaker selection is complicated and teachers need to be aware of that fact. In the present study, when the teachers select one individual student or open the floor that usually lead to long delays and slows the progressivity of the learning tasks. However, when the teachers select a small group of students this generates more discussion among students and prompt them to provide quicker responses. This also helps shift the classroom from a teacher-centered classroom to a student-centered one because, for that moment at least, the students will be leading the discussion without the teacher interfering.

The study has contributed to CA research that deals with classroom-embodied actions (Kääntä, 2012; Mortensen, 2008). It is essential for teachers to understand

how to include embodied practices into their teaching and to treat the classroom interaction as composed of both verbal and embodied practices as it really is. The study showed how teachers use embodied practices to pursue a missing response. Such findings can be useful for EFL teachers in Japan -who are routinely faced with long silences after their questions- to get their students to engage in classroom activities.

Another implication of this study is the importance of wait time in EFL classrooms and how teachers should be aware of it. The students in EFL classrooms need enough time to understand the questions and formulate their responses and teachers should provide them with such time. The wait time has several positive effects on students, such as increasing the length of their response, and allowing those who do not participate regularly to participate (Hosoda, 2014; Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010). The importance and the use of wait time is not something that novice teachers are usually aware of and it should be included in teacher training programs.

To sum up, the study has provided insights into how to integrate the CA approach into English language teacher education by showing the teachers how to engage students in classroom interaction by using multimodal interaction. The findings from naturally occurring data, such as that in this dissertation, provide in-depth understanding of the classroom interaction, which can be used by teachers and researchers to have a better understanding of EFL classrooms in Japanese Universities. This dissertation revealed the importance of using interventionist Applied CA (Antaki, 2011) in designing teacher-training programs. The careful sequential analysis of naturally occurring data can be used to address the issue of silence that follows teachers' questions. The findings indicated that applied CA could offer solutions in dealing with such issues. For example, researchers and educators

can design training workshops based on real time data to enhance teachers' interactional practices and to equip them with resources to deal with various situations in EFL classrooms. Applying CA methods can enhance EFL teacher training programs in Japan by providing teachers and researchers with a better understanding of how they can engage their students actively in classroom activities. This will allow us to examine how teachers implement pedagogy in real situations and alert us to the kinds of problems they encounter, as well as suggest solutions for any emerging issues by showing how teachers deal with them and how students react to such actions. CA-based workshops can offer insights on how to initiate the activities, how to end them, and how to engage learners in those activities. It is therefore anticipated that using Applied CA will add to the field of teacher training research and enhance teacher-training programs in Japan.

## **7.5 Originality**

This dissertation has contributed to the field of CA research by expanding on studies in language classrooms contexts. Several original findings have emerged from the study: for example, the use of embodied actions to pursue response in EFL classrooms is a novel finding that can pave the way for other researchers to explore more on how teachers use embodied actions to pursue missing responses. The study showed how teachers used Ear-Cupping gesture to provide students with clues of their pursuit of a response.

Another finding that is unique in this study is how teachers use humor as a way of eliciting delayed responses from students. The teachers use absurd formulations to guide students to arrive at an appropriate response. The analysis showed that when teachers present an absurd candidate response, this guides the students to come up with an appropriate one. The study also contributed to our understanding of turn

allocation in classrooms. It showed how on occasions speaker selection in EFL classrooms is accomplished through several stages starting with the teacher selecting small groups of students and then the students negotiating who will speak on their behalf. These findings showed that speaker selection in EFL classrooms is not just a teacher-centered practice as it was assumed but the students have the final say on who will speak on their behalf in small group discussions.

### **7.6 Limitation and Directions for future research**

Even though the study has provided a detailed analysis that added to previous research on pursuing response and turn allocation, this study is not without limitations. One of the limitations of this study is that the EFL data collection took place at one university in Japan during one semester and all of the participant teachers are from the US. The aim of the study is not to generalize its findings or to conduct a longitudinal analysis, however, analyzing data from various settings over longer periods of time would make it possible for future studies to compare and contrast the findings.

### **7.7 Conclusion**

This study is an addition to a growing number of CA studies that deal with classroom interaction (e.g., Bolden et al., 2012; Hosoda, 2014; Margutti, 2006; Seedhouse, 2004; Svennevig, 2012). The current study contributes to this by documenting some interactional multimodal practices that have yet to be documented. The study aimed to fill the gap in the literature and it does so by showing how teachers use embodied actions in EFL classrooms to maintain intersubjectivity by eliciting responses from students. The study also contributed to CA research more generally by showing how teachers use absurd formulations to pursue progressivity in classroom talk.

The findings also suggested that the interaction that goes on these EFL classrooms at a Japanese university is somewhat distinct, especially the speaker nomination and the silences after teachers' questions, and that more research is needed in a large scale that includes more data from various universities across Japan to document how language learning occurs in these settings.

Finally, the use of multimodal CA methods proved to be an effective research tool in documenting classroom interaction. Using audio and video data allows researchers to account for micro details that occur in the classroom, as the current study did. By using multimodal data this study was able to provide evidence of how teachers and students use verbal and non-verbal interactional practices to interact with each other, and by showing this, the study documents how teaching and learning occur in real time.

## References

- Åhlund, A., & Aronsson, K. (2015). Corrections as multiparty accomplishment in L2 classroom conversations. *Linguistics and Education, 30*, 66-80.
- Aline, D., & Hosoda, Y. (2006). Team teaching participation patterns of homeroom teachers in English activities classes in Japanese public elementary schools. *JALT Journal, 28*(1), 5-21.
- Amar, C., Nanbu, Z., & Greer, T. (in press). Proffering obviously implausible candidates in the pursuit of progressivity. *Classroom Discourse*.
- Antaki, C. (2002). Personalised revision of 'failed' questions. *Discourse Studies, 4*(4), 411-428.
- Antaki, C. (Ed.). (2011). *Applied conversation analysis: Intervention and change in institutional talk*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Aus der Wieschen, M. V., & Eskildsen, S. W. (2019). Embodied and occasioned learnables and teachables in an early EFL classrooms. In T. Malabarba & H. T. Nguyen (Eds.), *Conversation analysis perspectives on English language learning, teaching, and testing in global contexts* (pp. 31-58). Multilingual Matters.
- Beach, W. A. (1995). Preserving and constraining options: "Okays" and "official" priorities in medical interviews. In G. H. Morris & R. J. Chenail (Eds.), *The talk of the clinic: Explorations in the analysis of the medical and therapeutic discourse* (pp. 259-289). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bilmes, J. (1993). Ethnomethodology, culture, and implicature: Toward an empirical pragmatics. *Pragmatics, 3*(4), 387-409.

- Bilmes, J. (2010). Scaling as an aspect of formulation in verbal interaction. In Y. Kite & K. Ikeda (Eds.), *Language learning and socialization through conversations* (pp. 3-9). Center for Human Activity Theory. Kansai University.
- Bilmes, J. (2011). Occasioned semantics: A systematic approach to meaning in talk. *Human Studies*, 34(2), 129-153.
- Bilmes, J. (2015). The structure of meaning in talk: Explorations in category analysis. *Volume I Co-categorization, contrast, and hierarchy*.  
<http://www2.hawaii.edu/~bilmes/>
- Bilmes, J. (2019). Regrading as a conversational practice. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 150, 80-91.
- Bolden, G. B., Mandelbaum, J., & Wilkinson, S. (2012). Pursuing a response by repairing an indexical reference. *Research on Language & Social Interaction*, 45(2), 137-155.
- Brouwer, C. E., Rasmussen, G., & Wagner, J. (2004). Embedded corrections in second language talk. In R. Gardner & J. Wagner (Eds.), *Second language conversations* (pp. 75-92). Continuum.
- Brouwer, C. E., & Wagner, J. (2004). Developmental issues in second language conversation. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 29-47.
- Cekaite, A. (2008). Soliciting teacher attention in an L2 classroom: Affect displays, classroom artefacts, and embodied action. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(1), 26-48.
- Chazal, K. (2015). *Pedagogical artifacts in teacher-initiated response pursuits: a conversation analytic study of interaction in the French foreign language classroom*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Illinois.



- Chazal, K. (2020). Multimodal mechanisms for mobilizing students to give pre-structured responses in French L2 classroom interaction. In C. Teleghani-Nikazm & E. Beltz (Eds.), *Mobilizing others: Grammar and lexis within larger activities* (pp. 176-202). John Benjamins.
- Creider, S. C. (2016). *Encouraging student participation in a French-immersion kindergarten class: A multimodal, conversation analytic study* (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation). Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Drew, P., & Heritage, J. (1992). *Talk at work: Interaction in institutional settings*. Cambridge University Press.
- Duran, D., & Jacknick, C. M. (2020). Teacher response pursuits in whole class post-task discussions. *Linguistics and Education, 56*, 1-15.
- Edwards, D. (2000). Extreme case formulations: Softeners, investment, and doing nonliteral. *Research on Language and Social Interaction, 33*(4), 347-373.
- Eskildsen, S. W., & Wagner, J. (2013). Recurring and shared gestures in the L2 classroom: Resources for teaching and learning. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics, 1*(1), 139-161.
- Eskildsen, S. W., & Wagner, J. (2015). Embodied L2 construction learning. *Language Learning, 65*, 268–297.
- Filipi, A. (2018). Teacher practices in establishing understanding in a foreign language classroom. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education, 33*, 36-53.
- Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1998). SLA property: No trespassing!. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(1), 91-94.
- Gardner, R. (2004) On delaying the answer: Question sequences extended after the question. In R. Gardner & J. Wagner (Eds.), *Second language conversations* (pp. 246-266). Continuum.

- Gardner, R. (2008) Conversation analysis and orientation to learning. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 5(3), 229-244.
- Gardner, R. (2015). Summons turns: The business of securing a turn in busy classrooms. In P. Seedhouse & C. Jenks (Eds.), *International perspectives on classroom interaction* (pp. 28-48). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Goffman, E. (1981). *Forms of talk*. University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Goodwin, C. (2004). A competent speaker who can't speak: The social life of aphasia. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology*, 14(2), 151-170.
- Greer, T. (2013). Word search sequences in bilingual interaction: Code switching and embodied orientation toward shifting participant constellations. *Journal of Pragmatics* 57, 100-117.
- Greer, T. (2017). L1 speaker turn design and emergent familiarity in second language Japanese interaction. In T. Greer, M. Ishida, & Y. Tateyama (Eds.), *Interactional competence in Japanese as an additional language* (pp. 369-407). University of Hawai'i, National Foreign Language Resource Center.
- Greer, T., Bussinguer, V., Butterfield, J., & Mischinger, A. (2009). Receipt through repetition. *JALT Journal*, 31(1), 5-3.
- Greer, T., Ishida, M., & Tateyama, Y. (Eds.). (2017). *Interactional competence in Japanese as an additional language. Pragmatics & interaction*. University of Hawai'i, National Foreign Language Resource Center.
- Harumi, S. (2011). Classroom silence: Voices from Japanese EFL learners. *ELT Journal*, 65(3), 260-269.

- Hall, J. K., Malabarba, T., & Kimura, D. (2019). What's symmetrical? A teacher's cooperative management of learner turns. In J. K. Hall & S. D. Looney (Eds.), *The embodied work of teaching* (pp. 37-56). Multilingual Matters.
- Hauser, E. (2009). Turn-taking and primary speakership during a student discussion. In H. Nguyen & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Talk-in-interaction: Multilingual perspectives* (pp. 215-244). University of Hawai'i, National Foreign Language Resource Centre.
- Hauser, E. (2014). Solution strokes: Gestural component of speaking trouble solution. *Gesture*, 14(3), 297-319.
- Hellermann, J. (2009). Practices for dispreferred responses using no by a learner of English. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 47(1), 95-126.
- Heritage, J. (1984). A change-of-state token and aspects of its sequential placement. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structure of social action: Studies in conversation analysis* (pp. 299-345). Cambridge University Press.
- Horn, L. (1972). *On the semantic properties of logical operators in English*. [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of California, Los Angeles.
- Hosoda, Y. (2014). Missing response after teacher question in primary school English as a foreign language classes. *Linguistics and Education*, 28, 1-16.
- Hosoda, Y. (2016). Teacher deployment of 'oh' in known-answer question sequences. *Classroom Discourse*, 7(1), 58-84.
- Hosoda, Y., & Aline, D. (2010). Learning to be a teacher: Development of EFL teacher trainee interactional practices. *JALT Journal*, 32(2), 119-147.

- Humphries, S. C., Burns, A., & Tanaka, T. (2015). “My head became blank and I couldn’t speak”: Classroom factors that influence English speaking. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(3), 164-175.
- Huq, R. U. (2018). Doing English-only instructions: A multimodal account of bilingual Bangladeshi classrooms. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 33, 278-297.
- Hutchby, I., & Wooffitt, R. (2008). *Conversation analysis*. Polity.
- Ikeda, K., & Ko, S. (2011). Choral practice patterns in the language classrooms. In G. Pallotti & J. Wagner (Eds.), *L2 learning as social practice: Conversation-analytic perspectives* (pp. 163–184). University of Hawai’i, National Foreign Language Resource Center.
- Ingram, J., & Elliott, V. (2014). Turn taking and ‘wait time’ in classroom interactions. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 62, 1-12.
- Ishino, M. (2018). Micro-longitudinal conversation analysis in examining co-teachers’ reflection-in-action. *System*, 78, 130-147.
- Izumi, H. (2019). Regrading and implicature: Sequential structures of mobility scales in Japanese rehabilitation team interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 150, 111-132.
- Jacknick, C., & Creider, S. C. (2018). A chorus line: Engaging (or not) with the open floor. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 33, 72-92.
- Jakonen, T., & Evnitskaya, N. (2020). Teacher smiles as an interactional and pedagogical resource in the classroom. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 163, 18-31.
- Jefferson, G. (1979). A technique for inviting laughter and its subsequent acceptance/declination. In G. Psathas (Ed.), *Everyday language studies in ethnomethodology* (pp. 79–96). Irvington.

- Jefferson, G. (1987). On exposed and embedded corrections. In G. Button & J. Lee (Eds.), *Talk and social organization* (pp. 86-100). Multilingual Matters.
- Jefferson, G. (1989). Preliminary notes on a possible metric which provides for a 'standard maximum' silence of approximately one second in conversation. In D. Roger & P. Bull (Eds.), *Conversation* (pp. 166-196). Multilingual Matters.
- Jefferson, G. (2004). Glossary of transcript symbols with an introduction. *Pragmatics and Beyond New Series*, 125, 13-34.
- Kääntä, L. (2012). Teachers' embodied allocations in instructional interaction. *Classroom Discourse*, 3(2), 166-186.
- Kääntä, L. (2014). From noticing to initiating correction: Students' epistemic displays in instructional interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 66, 86-105.
- Kapellidi, C. (2013). The organization of talk in school interaction. *Discourse Studies*, 15(2), 185-204.
- Kasper, G. (2006). Beyond repair: Conversation analysis as an approach to SLA. *AILA Review*, 19(1), 83-99.
- Kasper, G., & Kim, Y. (2007). Handling Sequentially Inapposite Responses. In Z. Hua, P. Seedhouse, L. Wei, & V. Cook (Eds.), *Language learning and teaching as social inter-action* (pp. 22-41). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kasper, G., & Ross, S. J. (2007). Multiple questions in oral proficiency interviews. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 39, 2045-2070.
- Kasper, G., & Ross, S. J. (2013). Assessing second language pragmatics: Theoretical perspectives. In S. Ross & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Assessing second language pragmatics* (pp. 1-40). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kasper, G., & Wagner, J. (2014). Conversation analysis in applied linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 34, 171-212.

- Keel, S. (2015). Young children's embodied pursuits of a response to their initial assessments. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 75, 1-24.
- Kim, S., Ates, B., Grigsby, Y., Kraker, S., & Micek, T. A. (2016). Ways to promote the classroom participation of international students by understanding the silence of Japanese university students. *Journal of International Students*, 6(2), 431-450.
- King, J. (2013a). *Silence in the second language classroom*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- King, J. (2013b). Silence in the second language classrooms in Japanese universities. *Applied Linguistics*, 34(3), 325-343.
- Koole, T. (2010). Displays of epistemic access: Student responses to teacher explanations. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 43(2), 183-209.
- Koole, T., & Elbers, E. (2014) Responsiveness in teacher explanations: A conversational analytical perspective on scaffolding. *Linguistics and Education*, 26, 57-69.
- Koshik, I. (2002a). A conversation analytic study of yes/no questions which convey reversed polarity assertions. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34, 1851-1877.
- Koshik, I. (2002b). Designedly incomplete utterances: A pedagogical practice for eliciting knowledge displays in error correction sequences. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 5, 277-309.
- Koshik, I. (2005). Alternative questions used in conversational repair. *Discourse Studies*, 7(2), 193-211.
- Koshik, I. (2010). Questions that convey information in teacher-student conferences. In A. Freed & S. Ehrlich (Eds.), *Why do you ask? The function of questions in institutional discourse* (pp. 159-86). Oxford University Press.

- Lauzon, V. F., & Berger, E. (2015). The multimodal organization of speaker selection in classroom interaction. *Linguistics and Education*, 31, 14-29.
- Lazaraton, A. (2004). Gesture and speech in the vocabulary explanations of one ESL teacher: A micro analytic inquiry. *Language Learning*, 54, 79-117.
- Lee, J. (2019). Scaling as an argumentative resource in television talk shows. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 150, 133-149.
- Lee, S. H., Park, J. E., & Sohn, S. O. (2011). Expanded responses of English-speaking Korean heritage speakers during oral interviews. In G. Pallotti & J. Wagner (Eds.), *L2 Learning as social practice: Conversation-analytic perspectives* (pp. 87-106). University of Hawai'i, National Foreign Language Resource Center.
- Lerner, G. (1993). Collectivities in action: Establishing the relevance of conjoined participation in conversation. *Journal for the Study of Discourse*, 13(2), 213-246.
- Lerner, G. (1995). Turn design and the organization of participation in instructional activities. *Discourse Processes*, 19, 111-131.
- Lerner, G. (2002) Turn-sharing: The choral co-production of talk-in-interaction. In C.E. Ford, B.A. Fox & S.A. Thomson (Eds.), *The language of turn and sequence* (pp. 225–256). Oxford University Press.
- Lerner, G. (2003). Selecting next speaker: The context-sensitive operation of a context-free organization. *Language in Society*, 32, 177-201.
- Lindström, A., & Mondada, L. (2009). Assessments in social interaction: Introduction to the special issue. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 42(4), 299-308.

- Majlesi, A. R. (2015). Matching gestures: Teachers' repetitions of students' gestures in second language learning classrooms. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 76, 30-45.
- Malabarba, T. (2019). "In English sorry": Participants' orientation to the English-only policy in beginning-level EFL classroom interaction. In T. Malabarba & H. T. Nguyen (Eds.), *Conversation analysis perspectives on English language learning, teaching, and testing in global contexts* (pp. 244-267). Multilingual Matters.
- Margutti, P. (2006). "Are you human beings?" Order and knowledge construction through questioning in primary classroom interaction. *Linguistics and Education*, 17(4) 313-346.
- Markee, N., & Kasper, G. (2004). Classroom talks: An introduction. *The Modern Language Journal*, 88(4), 491-500.
- McHoul, A. (1978). The organization of turns at formal talk in the classroom. *Language and Society*, 7(2), 183-213.
- McHoul, A. (1985). Two aspects of classroom interaction: Turn-taking and correction. *Australian Journal of Human Communication Disorders*, 13(1), 53-64.
- Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons*. Harvard University Press.
- Mehus, S. (2011). Creating contexts for actions: Multimodal practices for managing children's conduct in the childcare classroom. In J. Streeck, C. Goodwin, & C. LeBaron (Eds.), *Embodied interaction: Language and body in the material world* (pp. 123-136). Cambridge University Press.
- Mondada, L. (2009). Emergent focused interactions in public places: A systematic analysis of the multimodal achievement of a common interactional space. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 41(10), 1977-1997.



- Mondada, L. (2011). Understanding as an embodied, situated and sequential achievement in interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(2), 542-552.
- Mondada, L. (2018). Multiple temporalities of language and body in interaction: Challenges for transcribing multimodality. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 51(1), 85-106
- Mori, J. (2007). Border crossings? Exploring the intersection of second language acquisition, conversation analysis, and foreign language pedagogy. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(1), 849-862.
- Mortensen, K. (2008). Selecting next speaker in the second language classroom: How to find a willing next speaker in planned activities. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 5(1), 55-79.
- Mortensen, K. (2009) Establishing reciprocity in pre-beginning position in the second language classroom. *Discourse Processes*, 46(5), 491-515.
- Mortensen, K. (2016). The body as a resource for other-initiation of repair: Cupping the hand behind the ear. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 49(1), 34-57.
- Nakane, I. (2006). Silence and politeness in intercultural communication in university seminars. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 38, 1811-1835.
- Nakane, I. (2007). *Silence in intercultural communication*. John Benjamins.
- Nathan, M. J., & Kim, S. (2009). Regulation of teacher elicitation in the mathematics classroom. *Cognition and Instruction*, 27(2), 91-120.
- Nault, D. (2006). Going global: Rethinking culture teaching in ELT contexts. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 19(3), 314-328.
- Nikula, T. (2005). English as an object and tool of study in classrooms: Interactional effects and pragmatic implications. *Linguistics and Education*, 16(1), 27-58.

- Okada, Y. (2010). Repairing “failed” questions in foreign language classrooms. *JALT Journal*, 32(1), 55-74.
- Okada, Y., & Greer, T. (2013) Pursuing a relevant response in oral proficiency interview role plays. In S. J. Ross & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Assessing second language pragmatics* (pp. 288-310). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Olsher, D. 2008. Gesturally-enhanced repeats in the repair turn: Communication strategy or cognitive language-learning tool? In S. G. McCafferty & G. Stam (eds.), *Gesture: Second language acquisition and classroom research* (pp. 109-130). Routledge.
- Pekarek Doehler, S. (2010). Conceptual changes and methodological challenges: on language, learning and documenting learning in conversation analytic SLA research. In P. Seedhouse, S. Walsh, & C. Jenks (eds.), *Conceptualising learning in applied linguistics* (pp. 105-126) Palgrave Macmillan.
- Pekarek Doehler, S. (2013). Social-interactional approaches to SLA: A state of the art and some future perspectives. *Language, Interaction and Acquisition*, 4(2), 134-160.
- Pomerantz, A. (1984a). Agreeing and disagreeing with assessments: Some features of preferred/dispreferred turn shaped. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structure of social action: Studies in conversation analysis* (pp. 57–101). Cambridge University Press.
- Pomerantz, A. (1984b). Pursuing a response. In J. M. Atkinson & J. Heritage (Eds.), *Structure of social action: Studies in conversation analysis* (pp. 152–163). Cambridge University Press.
- Pomerantz, A. (1986). Extreme case formulations: A way of legitimizing claims. *Human Studies*, 9, 219-229.

- Pomerantz, A. (1988). Offering a candidate answer: An information seeking strategy. *Communication Monographs*, 55, 360-373.
- Prior, M. T. (2019). The interactional dynamics of scaling and contrast in accounts of interpersonal conflict. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 150, 92-110.
- Raymond, G. (2003). Grammar and social organization: Yes/No interrogatives and the structure of responding. *American Sociological Review*, 68(6), 939-967.
- Reinelt, R. (1987). The delayed answer: Response strategies of Japanese students in foreign language classes. *The Language Teacher*, 11(11), 4-9.
- Romaniuk, T. (2013). Pursuing answers to questions in broadcast journalism. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 46(2) 144-164.
- Rossano, F. (2013). Gaze in conversation. In J. Sidnell & T. Stivers (Eds.), *Handbook of conversation analysis* (pp. 308-329). Wiley-Blackwell.
- Sacks, H. (1995). *Lectures on Conversation: Volumes I and II*. Blackwell.
- Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1974). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language*, 50(4), 696-735.
- Schegloff, E. A. (1968). Sequencing in conversational openings. *American Anthropologist*, 70(6), 1075-1095.
- Schegloff, E. A. (1995). Discourse as an interactional achievement: The omnirelevance of action. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 28(3), 185-211.
- Schegloff, E. A. (2000). Overlapping talk and the organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language in Society*, 29(1), 1-63.
- Schegloff, E. A. (2006). Interaction: The infrastructure for social institutions, the natural ecological niche for language, and the arena in which culture is

- enacted. In N. J. Enfield & S. C. Levinson (Eds.), *Roots of human sociality: Culture, cognition and interaction* (pp. 70-96). Berg.
- Schegloff, E. A. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction*. Cambridge University Press.
- Schegloff, E. A., & Sacks, H. (1973). Opening up closings. *Semiotica*, 7, 289-327.
- Schwab, G. (2011). From dialogue to multilogue: A different view on participation in the English foreign-language classroom. *Classroom Discourse*, 2(1), 3-19.
- Seedhouse, P. (2004). *The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective*. Blackwell.
- Seedhouse, P., & Walsh, S. (2010). Learning a second language through classroom interaction. In P. Seedhouse, S. Walsh, & C. Jenks (Eds.), *Conceptualising learning in applied linguistics* (pp. 127–146). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Seo, M. S., & Koshik, I. (2010). A conversation analytic study of gestures that engender repair in ESL conversational tutoring. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 42, 2219–2239.
- Sert, O. (2013). Epistemic status check as an interactional phenomenon in instructed learning settings. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 45(1), 13-28.
- Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. Oxford University Press.
- Stephens, S. D. G., & Goodwin, J. C. (1984). Non-electric aids to hearing: A short history. *Audiology*, 23(2), 215-240.
- Stivers, T., (2004). “No no no” and other types of multiple sayings in social interaction. *Human Communication Research*, 30(2), 260-293.
- Stivers, T., & Sidnell, J. (2005). Introduction: Multimodal interaction. *Semiotica*, 156, 1-20.

- Stivers, T., Enfield, N. J., Brown, P., Englert, C., Hayashi, M., Heinemann, T., Heinemann, T., Hoymann, G., Rossano, F., Ruitter, J. P., Yoon, K.E., & Levinson, S. C. (2009). Universals and cultural variation in turn-taking in conversation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 6(26), 10587-10592.
- Stivers, T., & Rossano, F. (2010). Mobilizing response. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 43, 3-31.
- Svennevig, J. (2008). Trying the easiest solution first in other-initiation of repair. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 40(2), 333-348.
- Svennevig, J. (2012). Reformulation of questions with candidate answers. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 17(2) 189-204.
- Tai, K. W. H., & Khabbazbashi, N. (2019). Vocabulary explanations in beginning-level adult ESOL classroom interactions: A conversation analysis perspective. *Linguistics and Education*, 52, 61-77.
- Talandis Jr, G., & Stout, M. (2015). Getting EFL students to speak: An action research approach. *ELT Journal*, 69(1), 11-25.
- Taleghani-Nikazm, C. (2008). Gestures in foreign language classrooms: An empirical analysis of their organization and function. In M. Bowles, R. Foote, S. Perpiñán, & R. Bhatt (Eds.), *Selected proceedings of the 2007 second language research forum* (pp. 229-238). Cascadilla Proceedings Project.
- Van Compernelle, R.A. (2011). Responding to questions and L2 learner interactional competence during language proficiency interviews: A microanalytic study with pedagogical implications. In J. K. Hall, J. Hellermann, & S. Pekarek Doehler (Eds.), *L2 Interactional Competence and Development* (pp. 117-144). Multilingual Matters.

- Van Lier, L. (1988). *The classroom and the language learner: Ethnography and second-language classroom research*. Longman.
- Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse*. Routledge.
- Waring, H. Z. (2009). Moving out of IRF (Initiation-response-feedback): A single case analysis. *Language Learning*, 59(4), 796-824.
- Waring, H. Z. (2012). Any questions?: Investigating the nature of understanding checks in the language classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(4), 722-752.
- Wei, L., & Wu, C. J. (2009). Polite Chinese children revisited: Creativity and the use of code switching in the Chinese complementary school classroom. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(2), 193-211.
- Weiss, C. (2018). When gaze-selected next speakers do not take the turn. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 133, 28-44.
- Wilkinson, S., & Kitzinger, C. (2006). Surprise as an interactional achievement: Reaction tokens in conversation. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 69(2), 150-182.
- Willemsen, A., Gosen, M. N., Koole, T., & de Glopper, K. (2020). Teachers' pass-on practices in whole-class discussions: how teachers return the floor to their students. *Classroom Discourse*, 11(4), 297-315.
- Wiseman, C. S., & Juza, P. (2013). Compliment response behaviors of ESL and bilingual speakers in an urban college. *Linguistics Journal*, 7(1), 68-88.
- Wong, J., & Waring, H. Z. (2008). 'Very good' as a teacher response. *ELT Journal*, 63(3), 195-203.
- Wong, J., & Waring, H. Z. (2010). *Conversation analysis and second language pedagogy: A guide for ESL/EFL teachers*. Routledge.

Young, R. F., & Miller, E. R. (2004). Learning as changing participation: Discourse roles in ESL writing conferences. *The Modern Language Journal*, 88(4), 519-535.

## Appendices

### Appendix 1

#### Transcription Conventions

The transcripts follow standard Jeffersonian conventions (Jefferson, 2004) with embodied elements developed by Mondada (2018). The embodied elements are positioned in a series of tiers relative to the talk and rendered in gray.

	Descriptions of embodied actions are delimited between vertical lines
---->	the action described continues across subsequent lines
,,,,,	action's retraction
~~~~	the action moves or transforms in some way
AMY	the current speaker is identified with capital letters
?	rising intonation
.	falling intonation
,	slightly rising intonation
:	lengthened speech
=	latched speech
-	cut off word
(.)	a short pause
<u>Underline</u>	stressed syllable
CAPITALS	louder volume
[ ]	overlapping talk
<	fast talk
<>	slow talk
\$ \$	smiley voice
(word)	dubious hearings



Participants enacting an embodied action are identified relative to the talk by their initial in lower case in another tier along with one of the following codes for the action.

rh	right hand
lh	left hand
bh	both hands
gz	gaze
gs	gesture
px	proximity
hd	head
fc	face

Following Greer et al. (2017), Japanese talk has been translated via the following additions:

First tier: Original Japanese

Second tier: word-by-word gloss

Third tier: vernacular translation

## Appendix 2

### Consent Form

How can I use these recordings?

Thanks once again for offering to help out with my research.

As part of my project, I will be making audio and video recordings of your classroom in natural situations. I plan to transcribe the conversations and analyze the way you communicate with each other. I am interested in teacher-student interaction and how it can motivate students.

Please indicate below how you would like me to use these recordings. This is completely up to you. I will only use the video records in ways that you agree to.

Your name will not be identified.

*Please check as many boxes as you like.*

The videos can be studied by the researcher for use in the research project.

Anonymous transcripts of the recordings can be published in academic journals.

The videos can be shown to other researchers at academic conferences.

The videos can appear on secure professional websites, such as those of academic journals.

The transcripts and/or recordings can be used by other researchers.

The records can be shown in public presentations to non-specialist groups.

The records can be used on television or radio.

Signature..... Date.....

Thanks very much for your assistance.

## Appendix 3

### 言語情報利用に関する同意書

クラス担当の先生方，学生のみなさんへ

研究へのご協力，重ねて御礼申し上げます。

私は，現在，教師-学習者間の応答と応答がもたらす動機付けに研究上の関心を持っています。研究の基礎資料として，通常の状態でご担当の授業について，音声の録音とビデオ映像の撮影を行います。その後，授業内の会話について文字起こしを行い，先生ご自身と個々の学生間の言語上の対話を分析します。

録音された音声とビデオ映像（以後，*収録物*）につきまして，私に学術的な利用をお認めいただける項目についてチェックしてください。お認めいただける項目につきましては，先生方もしくは学生のみなさんのご自身の判断を尊重いたします。この使用において，お名前が明らかになることはありません。

*ご協力いただける項目についてチェック* をおねがいたします。

1. 研究者である私，アマル・チクナが*収録物*を，研究を目的として分析します。
2. 学術雑誌において，匿名で文字化された*言語情報*を公表します。
3. ビデオ映像を学術会議において，他の研究者に公開します。

上，ご同意いただける場合は，以下にご署名願います。

氏名 \_\_\_\_\_ 日付 \_\_\_\_\_

ご協力ありがとうございました。

その他，ご不明な点は以下のメールアドレスまでお問合せください。記録された会話中で保存を望まない部分がありましたら，ご連絡ください。