

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

AN ANALYSIS OF INTERACTION IN THE ENGLISH CLASSROOM

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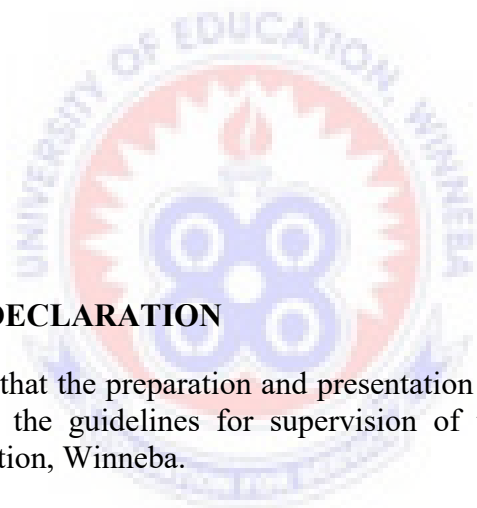
DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, **Joyce Arwuah**, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole for another degree elsewhere.

Signature :

Date :



SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

We, hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: DR. CHARLOTTE FOFO LOMOTÉY

Signature :

Date :

DEDICATION

I wholeheartedly, dedicate this thesis to my Supervisor, Dr. Fofu Lomotey, my adorable princesses: Gertrude Owusua Nyinaku, Possible Edwoba Nyinaku and Sabbatina Selinam Agbi, as well as my entire family. May God bless you all.



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I have been privileged to meet knowledgeable personalities in this course of study. However, I say, I am indebted to them.

It is a pleasure for me to have this opportunity to register my gratitude to the Almighty God for His strength and direction during the difficult time of writing this thesis.

Writing thesis can only be done under certain conditions and in certain frames of mind and that was achieved under the confinement of my supervisor.

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ABSTRACT

This study is to find out the strategies that teachers in Jomoro Municipality adopt for effective interaction in the language class discussion and to establish the functions that these strategies perform in ensuring smooth interaction in the language classroom. Interaction is needed in the classroom activity. It helps the teaching and learning process run smoothly and it can increase learners' communication competence. The aim of this study is to give the teacher some suggestions to achieve a smooth classroom interaction in the teaching and learning process. It offers some strategies to improve the interaction in the classroom. Several previous studies about classroom interaction have shown different outcomes. Several studies show that classroom interaction is important in the teaching and learning processes. Some studies show that the students' interactions happen in the classroom. By using classroom interaction, the students are more active in the learning process. The result of the study concludes that classroom interaction has important role in the teaching and learning processes. This research took place at fifteen selected schools including New Kabenlasuazo M/A Junior High School, Ahobre M/A Junior High School, Takinta M/A Junior High School, Half-Assini Catholic Junior High School and Nawule Catholic Junior High School due to the fact that these schools also fall within this category of classification and also to look for appropriate strategies of interaction during English classroom discussion. This work is divided into five chapters. Chapter one comprises of the introduction of the study, the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, its significance or research objectives, research questions, research instruments used and its limitations as well as definition of terms, concepts and clarifications. Chapter two deals with the literature review. This is the aspect that concerns about the reading consultation of other people's books, that is, what other people have said about the topic in question; thus their views, opinions as well as their findings as fundamental for the study. The chapter three also talks about the specific procedures adopted in the collection of data. This research adopts qualitative approach and the research design is a Case study of selected schools at the Jomoro Municipality. It also deals with target population, sampling and sampling size, methods of selection and the instruments used as Observation, Audio-recorded lessons. The results of the data collection, analysis and the interpretation of the results are found in chapter four. This is where the interaction strategies that teachers in Jomoro Municipality adopt for effective interaction in the language class discussion are identified and established as well as the functions that these strategies perform in ensuring smooth interaction in the language classroom in attempt to respond to the research questions. Finally, a summary of the findings, a conclusion of the recommendation and suggestion for further research have been given in chapter five. There is also a bibliography at the end of the whole thesis.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

The thesis is aimed at examining the strategies that teachers in Jomoro Municipality adopt for effective interaction in the ESL classroom as well to identify the functions that these strategies perform in ensuring smooth interaction in the classroom.

Gone are the days when the teacher was considered the ‘Almighty’ in the classroom whose job was to fill students’ heads with knowledge. Learners are not recipients to be filled, but humans with their own personal needs who want to initiate their own learning and develop their skills in a threat-free environment.

This manifestation in the classroom has called for classroom interaction. Classroom interaction has become paramount importance in the teaching and learning process. Although, communicating with others can be challenging with hearing loss, but there are a few steps to make the repairs to avert communication breakdown. In order to achieve an effective conversation or interaction, interlocutors have to employ the principle of turn in communication to prevent overlapping and have both linguistic and utterance meanings. In other words, it is relevant to realize speaker’s meaning, that is, “what is said “as well as listener’s meaning’, that is, “what is being communicated”. Therefore, in the language classroom, interaction in class discussion is really necessary in achieving its intended meaning in communication, as to what is said, how it was said, when it was said and to whom it was said, to have the meaning potential of utterance per the existing language and culture.

This Chapter comprises of the introduction of the study, the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the relevance and

significance of the proposed study, the research objectives, research questions, and its limitations as well as definition of terms, concepts, clarifications and summary.

1.1 Background to the Study

One cannot talk of classroom interaction without considering some factors such as Classroom climate. Thus, the pattern of interactions between teachers and students. The verbal exchanges that take place in the classroom, the pattern of asking questions and responding to them as well as the reactions that accompany the response as feedback, (Allwright & Bailey, 1991).

Most important factors in a classroom situation are the interactions and exchanges initiated by teachers and students (Chaudron, 1988); Interaction plays very important role in teaching and learning process. The means for teachers to install knowledge in students through turn-by-turn conducts, (Macbeth, 2000). This insight led to the analysis of classroom interaction in Jomoro District.

Conversation ideally involves adjacency pairs where there is first pair party (FPP) and a second pair party (SPP). But in classroom discussion, it is practically the whole class or groups and not just two interlocutors. Even though, teachers may be aware of turn-taking, yet, why usually noisy and lack of class control during class discussions?

Conversation is sequentially organized. Turns are connected with one another in systematically organized patterns or sequences. No haphazardness in conversation sequence organization.

This, therefore, has ignited this study so as to have answers to the research questions stated which are; to find out the strategies that teachers in Jomoro Municipality adopt for effective interaction in the language class discussion and to

what functions do these strategies perform in ensuring smooth interaction in the language classroom.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

A statement of the problem firstly, is on the way in which the teachers; organizers and guides facilitate interactions in the language classroom (Pianta & Hamre, 2009). They adjust their speech to reflect feedback from learners and bring focus on structure (Richards & Renandya, 2001; Soter et al, 2008).

ESL/EFL teachers have challenges maximizing interaction in their classrooms leading to lack of opportunities for learners thereby leading to student's inability to communicate effectively in English (Duy, 2014; Tuyen, 2013). Meanwhile through effective interaction, negotiation of meaning and feedbacks are achieved by means of exchanges that go on in the process of teaching and learning interaction (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Mackey, 2007).

Negotiation of meaning is a process that speakers go through to reach clear understanding of each other. This is mostly realized through asking for clarification, rephrasing as well as confirming what one thinks of what has been put across.

There have been studies on IRF sequences (Gyima-Aboagye, 2019), and another work also on Interruption and overlaps (Owusu Nyarko, 2020) in Ghana. Little or no information regarding the full range of activities within turn-at-talk in schools in the Jomoro Municipality thereby the need for this study.

For example, why organization of turn-at-talk in class discussion is really necessary in achieving its intended purpose in communication to have the meaning potential of utterance per the existing language and culture in order to avoid the negative impacts of noise, overlapping and misinterpretation of the topic of discussion. This study attempts to gather information from participants on how the

aforementioned problem influences classroom discussions and the strategies a teacher can adopt in that situation to help overcome the mentioned challenge.

Interaction plays an important role in imparting knowledge due to the fact that it paves way for participants to share their thoughts, views, ideas and feelings through exchanges. Interaction exchanges are not always well-defined units, therefore, the initiator and facilitator needs to organized and modify exchanges in other to come to a comprehension.

Again, interactions may not have a clear-cut openings or closings. Sometimes too, interactions will have a well-defined opening but may have ill-formed endings as Labov and Fanshel(1977) suggest that “endings are more complex acts than beginning”.

Maybe teachers also fail to close one end of their utterances before opening next during the class discussion. All these shall be either ascertained or nullified at the end of this study. Questions designed are always given very careful attention in terms of phrasing and ordering within modules: initial and final questions from each module are designed to facilitate topic shifts to other modules in the system.

1.3 Research Questions

This section presents the main questions of the research. The questions will attempt to address these;

1. What strategies do teachers in Jomoro Municipality adopt for effective interaction in the language class discussion?
2. What functions do these strategies perform in ensuring smooth interaction in the language classroom?

1.4 Research Objectives

Nothing happens without a reason, so is this study. This research has the aim of achieving these specific objective stated below;

1. to examine the strategies that teachers in Jomoro Municipality adopt for effective interaction in the ESL classroom,
2. to identify the functions that these strategies perform in ensuring smooth interaction in the classroom.

1.5 Scope / Nature Of Study

This research was conducted at fifteen selected schools including Ahobre M/A Junior High School, Takinta M/A Junior High School, Half-Assini Catholic Junior High School, Nawule Catholic Junior High School and New Kabenlasuazo Junior High School which are all located at the Jomoro Municipality in the Western Region.

1.6 Rationale, Relevance and Significance of the Study

The relevance and significance of the proposed study is that, it is expected that the findings from this study will expose the pragmatic competence of interaction in the language classroom. It will, as well, highlight the strategies that teachers in Jomoro Municipality adopt for effective interaction in the language class discussion and to establish the functions that the strategies perform in ensuring smooth interaction in the language classroom. This, will surely help promote the good use of language as a tool for communication to provide a coherent, orderly and meaningful series of interrelated communicative actions.

To add to this, is to learn to avert the inappropriate use of words in context which can distort the meaning of the message that the teacher intends to send to

students. Teachers are to devise means of motivating students to enhance their participation in the language class discussion.

This will help them to carry out and coordinate an interaction activity and by so doing, teachers will recognize the positive impact of interaction in classroom discussion.

1.8 Summary

In this study, I will explore the strategies that teachers in Jomoro Municipality adopt for effective interaction in the ESL classroom and as well examine the functions that these strategies perform in ensuring smooth interaction in the classroom.

This investigation shall be extended to find out why classroom discussions usually become noisy even when student are to interact in turns, how can a teacher recognize the positive impact of turn organization in the L2 classroom discussion and the strategies that a teacher can adopt to have an effective organization of turn-at-talk in discussions in the classroom. These strategies shall be examined to determine how effective they are according to the understanding of questions and feedback.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

Many scholars and philosophers have worked immensely on classroom interactions due to the complexity of the relationship among structure, the importance and the pragmatic realization of utterances that do occur during interaction. This area has received more attention because of the high social involvement of interlocutors. As much as numerous works are done on classroom interaction, the concentration has been generally on types and its relevance. Specifically, much is not done on the analysis of interaction strategies adopted by language teachers. It is therefore necessary and relevant that a discussion of analysis on interaction strategies that teachers employ in the language classroom. This chapter reviews the literature on related works by other philosophers.

2.1 Classroom interaction

The term *interaction* is a mutual or reciprocal action. In English language teaching, interaction is used to indicate the language (or action) used to maintain conversation and to teach participants involved in teaching and learning in the classroom. According to Brown (2001), interaction is at the heart of communicative competence. It means that when students interact with each other, they receive input and produce output through language which they acquire as communicative competence. It refers to the fact that interaction between the teacher and students in the classroom becomes central in teaching and learning process. It can be caused by the exchange of thoughts, feelings or ideas as a result of input and output of language through interaction. Interaction between teacher and students leads to classroom interaction. According to Hall (2011, p. 11), classroom interaction is “a term that is

used to analyze what goes on among people in the classroom when language is involved".Dagarin (2004) also observes that classroom interaction can be defined as a two-way process between participants in the learning process;the teacher influences the learners and vice versa.Classroom interaction can be seen from different perspectives according to the approach adopted in teaching. These perspectives are discussed as follows:

2.1.1 Behaviorism

From a behaviorist perspective, classroom interaction is reduced to modeling, repetition, and drills. The most salient feature of classroom interaction in a behavioural model is the use of techniques that bring students' behavior under stimulus control. This model focuses mainly on the transmission of the right behavior to students by means of stimulus, response and reinforcement. For instance, human beings have different responses to stimuli in order to adapt to the changes in the environment. The changes that occur in the classroom environment determine the reaction of the students towards that. This reaction to the occurrence of the environment by the students means that the students have responded to stimuli. In the classroom, teachers take student through activities such as modeling, repetition, and drills for students' perfection. As the students are able to reproduce what they weretaken through, the teacher to is able to achieve his or her objectives since the students have responded to the stimuli.

2.1.2 Cognitivism

The cognitive model of classroom interaction is based on the learner processing what is happening in the classroom to make sense of the world. Here, the learner is actively involved in the learning by means of two processes; assimilation and accommodation. These are complementary processes through which awareness of

the outside world is internalized by learners. The input that the learners receive is processed and adapted to their prior knowledge. Learners are actively engaged in the learning by questioning and making sense of the world. The students are invited to make hypotheses, ask questions, and experiment. The aim is to auto-regulate their learning and find a state of equilibrium between the prior knowledge and the new one. With this, the interaction ensues freely between the teacher, the students, and the language taught.

For instance, in the classroom, teachers most of the time revise and review students' relevant previous knowledge (RPK) before the new topic for discussion is introduced or tackled in order to link the RPK to the current topic in question. Beginning from known to the unknown in the teaching and learning process is done in order to find a state of equilibrium between the prior knowledge and the new one. Through classroom interaction, teacher's impact knowledge to students and the knowledge is processed and stored for future reference. Information processing starts with input from the sensory organs which transform physical stimuli such as sound of wave into electrochemical signals. The sensory information is repeatedly transformed by the algorithms of the brain in both bottom-up and top-down processing and this is what actually happens in the teaching and learning that occurs in the classroom. The information received from the learning environment is analyzed, simplified, compared and used to address its surroundings. This theory has connectivity with the information processing theory which is the approach to the study of cognitive development. The theory is based on the idea that humans process the information they receive rather than just responding to stimuli.

2.1.3 Social constructivism

Interaction is at the heart of the social constructivist theory of learning. The assumption here is that learners make sense of the world not only by means of internal processes (what happens in the mind), but also through the social dimension of learning. This theory contends that human development is **socially** situated and knowledge is constructed through **interaction** with others (Rhalmi, 2016). Social interaction is a fundamental feature of social life as it concerns itself with the way in which people act with other people and react to how other people are acting. Social interaction is an exchange between two or more individuals and is a building block for every society, notwithstanding the school in which the students find themselves. Social interactions are considered a dynamic sequence of social actions between individuals or groups who modify their actions and reasons due to actions by their interlocutors.

By interacting with one another, students design rules and systems within which they seek to live. Also, students are oriented on the actions and practices towards each other. One can understand his or her environment and social life by analyzing how and why students interact due to the fact that they have social influence on individual behaviour. As socialization results from our social interactions, students learn society roles and their importance as a component of social structure. According to Berger & Luckmann (1963), individuals who interact help construct the reality of the situation in which they interact. Students usually come into a situation where they share understanding of what is about to happen as the interaction proceeds. By that, students continue to define the situation to construct its reality. Those who enjoy a lifestyle in which they often interact with others benefit substantially. With this, they can potentially reduce learning risks.

2.2 Classroom learning as interactional activity

Some studies have focused on the activity of learning in-between student interactions, but most studies are concerned with the practice of teaching as an interactional activity involving both teacher and student, focusing on the ways in which teachers elicit responses from their students, the ensuing responses from the students, and the subsequent teacher responses to the students. The most straightforward way in which teachers impart knowledge in the classroom is by telling their students what is at stake. This classroom learning as an interactional activity may be done in front of the whole class. Classroom learning is seen as an interactional activity due to the fact that it encompasses the coordination of the activities of both the teacher and the students in the classroom. Speaking is considered as an important skill in our life. It has an important role to communicate with other people in daily life as stated by Thornburry (2005, p.1) that “speaking is a part of daily life that we take it for granted”. To make students accustomed to communicating in the target language, scholars think that teachers can create interaction with students in classroom by using the target language for the whole interaction. Interaction is an activity that is usually conducted in the classroom and it has an important role to build communication between the teacher and students as stated by Walsh (2011, p. 23) that “communication is a central to all classroom activity”.

2.2.1 The role of teachers in classroom interaction

Analyses of classroom interaction as a way of reflecting on the role of within society at large are offered in critical research (e.g. Ehlich&Rehbein, 1986) and in micro-ethnographic research, concerned with language, cultural, ethnic, or gender diversity in the classroom (e.g. Cazden, John & Hymes, 1972). The question of turn organization in classrooms was framed in some of the earlier investigations in terms

of the differences between classroom interaction and everyday conversation. Conversation analysts had proposed a turn organization for everyday talk that consisted of one set of rules for when we consider a turn to be completed and a second set of rules for who is allowed to speak next when it is complete. It is this latter set of rules that has attracted the attention of classroom interaction researchers. The above mentioned responsibility rests on the shoulders of the teacher as part of their roles in classroom interaction.

Without this organization, the teacher might be forced to cue from the students, thereby reducing the bidding opportunity to an undesirable chance. As a result of this management, cues are not a necessity for classroom discourse to occur effectively. The appropriateness of using conversational language creates an atmosphere that is conducive to learning and promotes students' involvement. In checking for confirmation, a teacher who seeks clarification and checks for confirmation has an opportunity to maximize learning potential since she or he does not always accept the first contribution that students offer. In extended wait-time, the teacher gives chance for students to manage their turn-taking without any intervention. By allowing students to manage their turn-taking, it will increase students' responses since it will lead to complex answers and students' involvement.

2.2.2 The role of learners in classroom interaction

In conversation, the roles of speakers and listeners change as to where to begin or even end their speech (Coulthard, 1985; Glenn, 2003). The turn-taking mechanism may actually vary between cultures and languages (Cook, 1989) because different groups show a discrepancy in the way they manage their conversation. To achieve better results in conducting classroom interaction in the ESL class, the students should be more actively involved in it. They should create their own opportunities and find

strategies for getting practice in using and practicing the language, so they can participate and contribute during classroom lesson. In addition, they should increase their motivation in studying English through learning and practicing the language.

2.2.3 Features of classroom interaction

The features of classroom interaction are basically of two ends where there is the trend of process and the other trend of product. The process is where the speaker gives out or produces utterances and the product is where the listener reacts by giving out responses that are geared towards what was communicated. Interaction at the basic organizational mechanisms does not only govern classroom interaction, but interaction processes at large. These are the mechanisms by which participants; teachers and students, organize their activities such as teaching, asking, explaining, or assessing. A fundamental prerequisite or even a defining characteristic of any form of social interaction is that those participating in it talk in turns to be able to listen and respond to each other. Interaction between teacher and students, students and students, and students and teacher are needed in classroom activities since it is a communicative approach. It helps to maintain communication in the classroom. It facilitates the teaching and learning process to run smoothly. When the teacher and students and students and students' interactions happen, the instruction reaches the target set. It allows the gap between teacher and students in the classroom to disappear so that the teaching and learning process is balanced between the teacher and the students. Not only does the teacher become active in communication, but the students also participate in the teaching and learning process.

By talking of classroom interactions, one can think of the following possible patterns:

- i. Teacher-students (teacher initiates interaction with the students)

- ii. Students-teacher (students initiate interaction with their teacher)
- iii. Students-students(students initiate interaction with their fellow students)

Teaching is an interactive act whereas interaction is the communication among teacher and students which runs continuously as responsive acts. Tickoo (2009) notes that in classroom interaction and classroom activities, a productive class hour can be described as the teacher interacts with the whole class. Thus, the teacher interacts with a group, a pair or an individual pupil. Pupils as well interact with each other: in groups, in pairs, as individuals, or as a class. Pupils work with materials or aids and attempt the task once again individually, in groups and so on.

2.2.4 Effectiveness of classroom interaction

The effectiveness of classroom interaction lies in the facilitators' and learners' responsibilities during the interaction processes. This really depends on its relevance in the classroom. The relevance of classroom interaction relies on the fact that classroom interaction is used to ask and answer questions during the teaching and learning process. It is used to make decisions about the learning process and also enables participants to participate in discussions. Classroom interaction is used to initiate conversations and enables learners to contribute more to the learning process. The attention of the teacher to the learners can activate teacher-learner interaction. The effective interaction which happens in the classroom can increase students' language performance. Not only do students get the impact of the importance of good interaction, the teacher can also improve their teaching and learning process in the classroom.

2.2.5 Summary

Classroom interaction cannot be achieved by merely following an unperceived or pre-established script which would only contribute to perpetuating inauthentic interactive processes that commonly occur in ESL classroom environments. Instead, teachers must understand the ways in which they can foster and encourage more spontaneous interaction in the classroom, nurturing a more varied set of interaction patterns, and allowing more extraordinary events to happen in class. Teachers need to ask themselves how interaction should happen in ESL classroom if students are to acquire the language, knowledge, interaction and communication skills that they will utilize in the future for multiple social uses and not only for a type of transactional interaction in the ESL classroom. With this in mind, L2 teaching and learning is understood and performed as simply a matter of mastering the L2 linguistics in the classroom setting without much reference to nor harnessing real-life contexts and the nuanced grammar and interaction that it can create.

2.3 Conceptual framework - Conversation Analysis

The conceptual framework adopted for the present study is Conversation analysis (or CA). Conversation analysis is a popular approach to the study of discourse. It is a way of thinking about and analyzing the pragmatics of ordinary conversation, focusing on the interactive practical constructions of everyday interchanges. It is an inductive, micro-analytic and predominantly qualitative method for studying human social interactions. This aspect of the framework is relevant to this study as it encompasses classroom interaction. Schiffrin (1989) defines conversation analysis as a subfield of discourse analysis that considers spoken dialogue. That is, what the structure of the conversation might be, how meaning and actions are negotiated in conversations, the role of context, and social interaction in

understanding conversation. Conversation analysis is adopted for the study due to the fact that it focuses on the acquisition of language and communicative competence. It as well concerns itself with investigation into and analysis of natural conversation so as to reveal what the linguistic features of conversation are and how conversation is used in ordinary life.

The tenets of CA as a framework being used in this study has adequately identified these facts; thus, the techniques that the speaker employs in deciding when to speak during conversation, such as rules of turn-taking, the ways in which the utterances of more than one speaker are related, for instance, conversational maxims, adjacency pair, inserted sequence, and the different functions that conversation is used for, for example, establishing the roles. Principally, when the interactions involve participants of different institutional roles, the issue of conversational differences takes center stage. But if the participants are in the same institutional role, it is otherwise. The perspective of interaction strategies in connection with CA is that, it focuses on the competencies which persons use and rely on to co-construct orderly and mutually understandable courses of action with the application of starters and clues. Starters are statements, questions or commands intended to direct students' attention to a particular area. According to Lee (1987), speakers have varieties of implicit and explicit goals when they engage in conversations; conversation analysis is capable of reflecting them. Communicating politeness are the principles and strategies that initiators can adopt in classroom discussions to prevent overlapping and communication breakdowns.

The analysis reveals that a teacher must adopt certain strategies to ensure an orderly organization of interaction in the classroom discussion in other to avoid overlapping, communication breakdown and hearing loss. Again, this study has the

tendency to outdoor when deemed appropriate for teachers, to initiate an opening and closing in classroom discussion and when students are to undergo turn organization in order to have a conducive exchange atmosphere. Drew & Heritage (1992) argue on how speakers use and modify conversational resources to get things done in organizational settings which frequently involve problematic exchanges. Local (1986) also stipulates that conversation participants appear to exploit variable spoken language elements at all linguistic levels in order to signal contextual presuppositions, and also to utilize resources at the non-verbal level. Sometimes, they are used primarily to contextualize the imminent completion of a turn at a talk or topic shift, but at other times, they have the capacity to signal the social identities and attitudes of participants.

Both the participants and the analysts have access to the same resources. In other words, the analysts gain access to the participants' display of understanding to each other by reference to the interactional organizations, just like the participants display their understanding and become conversant with each other's utterances also by reference to such organizations. This brings us to one of the most important principles of CA. That is, developing the perspective of "interaction strategies" of Seedhouse (2005). Wong & Waring (2010) also highlight the relevance of CA findings in three areas of instructional practices: repair, task design, and management of participation. For repair, they show how CA descriptions provide for a wider range of alternatives for dealing with problematic learner contributions. For task design, they demonstrate how analysis has shown that the most authentic tasks in the language classroom often turn out to be the off-task talk. This is because when off-tasks are used, learners can be engaged in solving real-life problems. Wong and Waring (2010) argue, therefore, for the relevance and usefulness of off-task activity. For the

management of participation, they argue that teachers need to consider how their actions affect learner participation. For turn design, for example, teachers can encourage participation by, for instance, leaving their turns incomplete or leaving the F(feedback/follow-up) slot empty in the turn sequence for the students to provide. In this way, teachers can assess students' understanding of the lesson being taught.

Social interaction is the locus of language use: what we know and understand about interaction accounts for our ability to use language. Likewise, speech act theory places emphasis on the linguistic actions that we perform towards another person (Flowerdew, 2013). The linguistic function of language is to transfer the effect of what the speaker says onto the hearer through interactive activity which involves our sociocultural knowledge in interaction process, and this activity has a 'shuttling' effect in which this person's intention has an effect on the other person while a predicted response from the second person will occur towards the first one, and this happens in conversation analysis. Different origins make CA and speech act theory differ in their assumptions about linguistic and interactive meanings, and about the degree of language role in communicative purposes. For this domain, CA strongly goes for communicative meaning. Put another way, in CA, interactive meaning is more important than linguistic or grammatical discussion. In sharp contrast, speech act theory signifies linguistic analysis of text/utterance as the sole function in producing and interpreting utterances.

As Sert (2015) points out, in analysing social interaction, one requires that only participants' orientations to each other's utterances should be used to make claims on social phenomena, rather than their given identities, the researcher's assumptions, or a priori etic (i.e. exogenous, external) theories. Overall, CA offers a *fittinglens* through which a detailed scrutiny of actual conduct can be achieved

(Waring, 2011). After the social turn in language acquisition, CA has had an important place in SLA literature in the late 1990s and hence, has come to be known as CA-SLA (Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Markee & Kasper, 2004) which objectives are to show how learning is constructed by the use of interactional resources and to explicate the progress of their learning and their socially distributed cognition or intersubjectivity (Seedhouse, 2005). The CA perspective builds on the view of foreign/second language (L2) learning as a resource for interaction and cognition as socially distributed and situated. As a framework, it consists of interactional strategies employed during the discussion processes which include turn taking, topic management, opening and closing of conversation.

2.3.1 Major areas of conversation analysis

Conversation analysis is an approach to the study of social interaction embraces both verbal and non-verbal conduct in situations of everyday life. As its name implies, conversation analysis began with a focus on casual conversation, but its methods were subsequently adopted to embrace more task and institution-centered interactions, such as those occurring in doctor's offices, courts, law enforcement, helplines, the mass media, and educational settings (Flowerdew, 2013). As a consequence, the term conversation analysis has become a distinctive and successful approach to the analysis of social interactions. In other words, conversation analysis aims at analyzing the organization of human interactions as it believes that language features centrally in the way humans interact. Therefore, conversation analysis can be thought of as the study of talk-in-interaction and other forms of human conduct in interactions.

Inspired by Harold Garfinkel's ethnomethodology and Erving Goffman's conception of the interaction order, conversation analysis was developed in the late

1960's and early 1970's principally by the sociologist Sacks and his close associates, Schegloff and Jefferson. Today, conversation analysis is an established method used in sociology, anthropology, linguistics, speech-communication and psychology. It is particularly influential in interactional sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, and discursive psychology. Conversation analysis is not a subfield of linguistics and does not take language parts as its primary object of study. Rather, it commits itself to the organization of human social interaction. However, because language features centrally in the way humans interact, conversation analysis typically (though not necessarily) involves the analysis of talk. For all practical purposes, conversation analysis can be thought of as the study of talk, for example, gaze, gesture, body orientations and their combinations. To put it straight, conversation analysis considers both verbal and non-verbal activities in talk-in-interaction of everyday life.

The researcher at the intersection of CA and SLA tries to bring evidence for learners' understanding with reference to such interactional organisation. This way, it aims to reveal the common interactional practices through which these understandings are co-constructed and thus, to demonstrate the "micro-moments of language learning" (Sert, 2015, p.33). Therefore, L2 learning is "a sociocognitive process that is embedded in the context of locally accomplished social practices" and involves not only the internalisation of linguistic knowledge but also "the continuous adaptation of linguistic and other semiotic resources in response to locally emergent communicative needs" (Doehler, 2010, p.106). Conversation analysis-SLA does not deny that learning takes place in the mind of individuals and that it is biologically determined but it argues that learning cannot be independent of social interactional dimensions and is co-constructed and emergent in the micro-details of social interaction (Doehler, 2010). This research methodology studies how participants use unnoticeable

normative principles to accomplish their social actions and make others understand them (Firth, 1996; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Garfinkel, 1967, Rampton, 1997). It, then, studies the underlying machinery that enables interactants to achieve organisation and order for social action in interaction (Seedhouse, 2004, 2005). Thus, being a systematic procedure for studying social interaction (rather than language per se), as Samra-Fredericks(1998) states, CA examines how grounding social facts is carried out.

In order to give an overall view of CA, its principles are summarised in the following points:

- There is order at all points in interaction even if it is nonverbal (Seedhouse, 2004). This order is repeatable and recurrent (Samra-Fredericks, 1998).
- Actions in CA are context-shaped and context-renewing as the participants orient to their context and invoke their institutional activities and identities (Edwards & Potter, 2001).
- Detailed analysis in CA, as Markee (2000) notes, deals with naturally occurring data from an emic perspective (more information on the emic perspective is given below)
- The analysis is bottom-up and data driven as it considers background and contextual details (Seedhouse, 2004) and displays how conversational mechanisms create the local achievement and reproduction of institutional and organisational patterns in society (Zimmerman and Boden 1991).

2.3.1.1 Turn-taking strategies

Wilson, Wiemann& Zimmerman (1984) posit that turn-taking is an intrinsic feature of conversation and also a basic form of organization in a conversation and a

fundamental organization of social interaction. Speakers take turns in many different ways which involve self-selection, alternation with another speaker, backchanneling, and taking another turn if there is a pause or an interruption in the conversation. Turn-taking has acts which include cues, bids and nominations. The function of bidding is to allow a student to contribute either by raising a hand or shouting out the answer. This bidding is usually controlled carefully by using short time limit, so the teacher could nominate other students also attempting to make a bid. With the above, teacher uses statement, question and command as starters without specifically drawing students' attention by using direct statements such as 'let's start or we are starting' to direct students' attention, although the students understand that they are to start. A clue is an act used by the teacher to provide additional information.

Also, the acts involved are momentous in terms of turn-taking. This is because these turn-taking acts allow each speaker a fair chance to bid for the elicitation given by the teacher. This planning allows a specific maximum of times speakers are to bid per round. Without this organization, the teacher might be forced to cue from the students, thereby reducing the bidding opportunity to an undesirable chance. As a result of this management, cues are not a necessity for this classroom discourse to occur effectively. The dominance of the teacher helps him/her in taking the initiative, move, and those that reveal the changing roles in power relations between the teacher and his students. In conversation, the roles of speakers and listeners change as to where to begin or even end their speech (Coulthard, 1985; Glenn, 2003). The turn-taking mechanism may actually vary between cultures and languages (Cook, 1989) because different groups show a discrepancy in the way they manage their conversation. In regular conversation, it is very exceptional to see any allocation of turns in advance. The interactants naturally take turns. However, some account can be

offered regarding what actually occurs there (Sidnell, 2010; Wardhaugh, 1998). Thus, there is a set of rules that govern the turn-taking system, which is independent of various social contexts (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974; Schegloff, 2007). The turn-taking mechanisms realized include the use of adjacency pair (Sacks, 1967), overlapping utterance (Langford, 1994), backchannels through the use of questioning (Schegloff, 2007) and the deployment of IRF (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1978).

2.3.1.1.1 Adjacency pairs

In most situations; formal or informal, when speakers talk naturally their conversation is goal-oriented, and face to face dialogue. They use words, prosody, body language, mutual gestures, gaze, facial expressions, and spatial attention via head and eye movements to take their turns and wait for the turns. However, some participants do not pay attention to how the conversation works and how the conversation is organized; they will rather talk out of turn. If participants fail to take the turn properly, it will interrupt the speaker who is on the floor and also make the conversation haphazard. Indeed, interaction basically involves two interlocutors where we have an adjacency pair. Adjacency pairs are basic features of conversation analysis that are very important for conversation openings and closings, as they are used in both of them. They can be characterised as paired utterances that are divided into a first pair part and a second pair part. The speaker who produces the first pair part selects the type of the second pair part. With this, interlocutors sometimes have to undergo an intensive negotiation of meaning per the context of utterance.

Sacks & Schegloff (1974) allocated much of their effort to the analysis of turn-taking in conversation. The ways in which conversation participants design and modify their utterances are naturally occurring statements made by themselves and how they make sense from individual statements and contributions. This tacit,

organized procedure is critical for our understanding of how social relationships are developed and high level-social orders achieved. According to Duncan (1972), participants attempt to get the turn by self-selection at a transition relevance place by using methods that are usually successful in face-to-face conversation, such intake of breath, leaning forward and starting to speak. He suggested several cues that the speaker employs to indicate the end of a turn or invite the hearer to take a turn. These cues include a falling pitch at the end of a sentence, the drawl of a syllable at the end of a sentence, the termination of a gesture, specific phrases at the end of syntactic unit, and changes in gaze direction.

Sacks discovered that talk-in-interaction was ordered, methodical, and systematically organised, rather than chaotic and disorderly (Firth, 1996; Ten Have, 1999; Seedhouse, 2004). Working with these principles, researchers have identified four different types of interactional organisation: adjacency pairs, preference organisation, turn-taking, and repair. Each is briefly defined below with illustrations from L2 classroom interaction. Adjacency pairs: sequences of related utterances by two different speakers, such as a question and its answer. Goodwin (1981) elaborated on the role of gaze in turn-taking by considering the gaze of the hearer, and the coordination of the gaze of conversational participants. He claimed that the speaker's look away at the beginning of turns occurs to avoid overloading information in the planning of an utterance. The absence of turn taking organization would subvert the possibility of stable trajectories of action and responsive action through which goal-oriented projects can be launched and pursued through talk in interaction, whether to success or failure (Schegloff, 1988).

2.3.1.1.2 Overlapping utterances

Overlap is simultaneous talk by two or more conversation participants, irrespective of their status in participants' mind. Overlapping utterances are utterances by different speakers which indicate a point at which two overlapping utterances begin and end. Analysts consider an overlap to result from factors such as the desire to start a turn before another so as not to miss the opportunity. Further illustrations of overlapping utterances are shown at chapter four where the discussion of results from the data collection is displayed. During conversations, interlocutors rapidly switch between speaker and listener roles as they take turns at talk. These roles can be effectively achieved when interlocutors are able to prepare their response in advance and articulate these responses at the appropriate moment. These mechanisms may overlap as they involve the processes of comprehending the speaker's incoming turn and predicting its end. These are evidence to what occurred in the language class per the data collected. Furthermore, Stivers et al (2009) found average inter-turn interval between 0 and 200ms in a comparison of 10 different languages with overlaps occurring only about 5% of the time (Levinson, 2016).

2.3.1.1.3 Backchannelling

Backchannel utterances hint the listener's continual attention, conformity and various emotional reactions to show that she or he is still on the floor (Orestrom, 1983, p. 29). Orestrom (1983) however claims that there is a limitation in the system in that all speaking turns are given the same status. He suggests that more attention should be paid to make the speaking turns compatible with the rules. In his view, a speaking turn and a back-channel utterance should be kept apart. That is, a back-channel utterance should not be treated as a turn, based on the notion that a speaking turn conveys message and explains the topic. On the other hand, a back-channel has a

relatively low level in content but has a relatively high level for a smooth communication (Gardner, 2001).

2.3.1.1.4IRF

There cannot be classroom interaction without the involvement of the teacher and the students. As classroom interaction concerns itself a certain pattern known as IRF pattern.

Initiation-response-feedback is an approach to exchange of information in the classroom. This pattern is directed on what the teacher wants the learner to say during discussions. This approach provides a useful framework for developing meaning during communication in a controlled form and creates room for authentic input in the dialogue. (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1978). This pattern stands for initiation-response-feedback, is a pattern of discussion between the teacher and learners. The teacher initiates, the learner responds, the teacher gives feedback (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). The definition of three patterns can be traced through the following explanation. First is initiation (I), the movement in which teacher initiates an interaction, as stated by Dayag et al (2008, p.5) initiation is the teacher ask a question or action to initiate students to do interaction in classroom. It is the effort of the teacher in pushing the students to avail themselves throughout the communication processes. According to Harmer (2009, p. 111), it is the stage “when the teacher has to do something is to get the students involved, engaged and ready.” It is also believed that the important way to create the interactive language classroom is because it provides the stimuli for the student to interact continually.

Second is the response move (R), this is what is actually performed by the students following the initiation which produced by the teacher. Dayan et al (2008, p.5) state that response is represent the teacher initiate in response of initiation move

by participants act. It means that the students do interact to respond to the teacher stimuli. The last is feedback/follow up (F), the last exchange of a turn which aims to give feedback to students' response. According to Dayan et al (2008, p.5) that feedback completes the cycle as it provides closure to the initiation and response. This means that students get enthused immediately the correction or evaluation for their response is created.

Some studies related to IRF and classroom interaction have been investigated and several studies revealed that IRF can build active interaction between teacher and students in classroom interaction. It is prudent to acknowledge Havranek's (2002, p. 256) warning that "establishing that a correction succeeded would require long-term observation of the learner's production of the corrected structure while at the same time making sure that there is no further input of the same structure, ruling out any other source of learning". In other words, while using uptake is useful in analyzing one's own feedback strategies at a particular place and time, observation over a longer period would be more relevant. Since there are many instances in which the feedback is inexplicit, unrelated to the ambiguity the student may be experiencing and therefore ineffective (Cohen, 2011; Hong, 2009; Pinkevience, 2011). Generally, these studies show that the IRF pattern is the most sequence which occurred in classroom interaction. In addition to the IRF pattern, there are other moves and acts of the discourse model to be examined. In the English lesson, the teacher utilizes many other acts highlighted by Sinclair and Coulthard.

In their model, a sample of how closely non-linguistic organization, discourse, and grammar interact with one another, can be seen better here in turn taking during English class discussion. The three-move structure was initially proposed for (IRF) exchanges inside a classroom environment. The main reason this structuring was

developed was firstly, answers directed at the teacher are quite difficult for others to hear, so the repetition may be the first chance to hear what is being said by fellow classmates. Secondly, and even more importantly, a distinguishing feature of classroom discourse is the majority of the questions asked by the teacher are questions to which the answer is already known. The primary objective of this is to discover if the students know the answers as well.

2.3.1.2 Topic organisation

Topic organisation is aimed at managing topics in interactions. Topic management strategies set out in the language classroom were the way through which facilitators initiate topics of discussion (Layoff, 1985), how topics are shifted, when topics are to be changed and how topics are expanded or extended during interactions (Sacks, 1971). All these strategies are factors that are said to impact on teacher effectiveness. Teachers play a key role in terms of topic management in the classroom. Marazanon (2003) cites a survey by Wright and Sanders conducted in 1997, where it demonstrated that improving teachers' effectiveness results in better achievement for students, thereby making the individual teacher to produce powerful gains in student learning.

Brown & Yule (1983) argue that topic shift is the change of topic in a conversation. In any conversation, it is impossible for the participants to talk about one topic only from the beginning to the end. There will be shift or a change of topic from one to another which may be similar or different. Topic shift in a conversation often happens when speaker transitions break down after a silence. Sometimes, they shift back to the previous one, thus refocusing something in the topic but would rather relate it to another topic which can be subtopics or new topics. Sometimes, the other participants do not realize it and as a result they do not produce coherent utterances.

The participants may think that others still talk about the first topic while actually the topic has already shifted to another one which is different from the first one. Therefore, it is relevant for the participant to notice that shift of the topic in the conversation to keep the conversation flowing smoothly.

Wardhaugh (1971) also argues that a conversation usually covers a number of topics and involves shifts from one topic to another. McCarthy (1991) points out that topic shifting is very relevant due to the fact that it paves way for the participants to keep the conversation going in order to avert silence and communication breakdown. In addition, Stenstrom (1994) identifies five kinds of topic shift which are differentiated in terms of their relation with the previous topic. These are topic drifts, topic digresses, and topic resumes, and also states that most topic shifts are introduced by pauses.

2.3.2 Applying CA to language learning and teaching

From a CA-SLA perspective, language learning is defined as “a change in a socially displayed cognitive state” (Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010, p.127). It is embedded, situated and co-constructed in the turn-by-turn unfolding of social interaction. At least, part of it is embodied in interaction suggesting that part of this learning as a social process is analysable and observable through such elements as repair, hesitation, repetition, turn-taking, and sequential organization as well as non-verbal behaviour (e.g. gaze, gesture, body orientation and the manipulation of objects) (Doehler, 2010; Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010). Moreover, the CA approach shows how the pedagogical focus of the lesson affects the organisation of interaction even if natural conversation is to be replicated as part of a lesson (Seedhouse 2004). Furthermore, the CA perspective to L2 classroom interaction gives consideration to how pedagogy is translated into interaction and argues that the interaction

organisation transforms the intended pedagogy into actual pedagogy (Seedhouse 2004, pp. 93-94).

2.3.3 Summary

Based on sociology and ethnomethodology and having roots in second language acquisition, CA can be considered a powerful methodology for analysing talk and social interaction. It began with Harvey Sacks's first *Lectures on Conversation* in 1964, and has developed over the years, displaying many findings on the nature and social organisation of talk-in-interaction. The present study takes CA as its methodological framework. Conversational analysis is a way of analyzing social interaction. The usefulness of CA as an analytical tool, especially in applied linguistics, has been discussed by many scholars (e.g. Kasper, 2009; Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Long, 2007). The underlying perspective is that social contexts are not static but are constantly being formed by the participants through their use of language and the ways in which turn-taking, openings and closings, and sequencing of acts are locally managed (Boyle, 2000).

In this respect, CA considers contexts as being mutually constructed between the participants. As with other CA studies, spoken data were first collected through audio and video recordings and then all lessons were transcribed in detail. Conversation analysis involves an investigation of the ways in which members organise their talk and analyse each other's conversations in the construction and negotiation of social practices. The empirical output of CA studies has been immense, with areas pertaining to the sequential organisation of talk and topic management. Conversation analysis was developed by Harvey Sacks in the late 1960's as a means of examining the methods through which people organised their conversations.

2.4 Related studies

Scholars like Schegloff (2007), Scarino and Liddicoat (2009), and Pianta and Hamre (2009) offer basic insight into classroom interactions and turn-at-talk, as well as their relevance. According to Pianta & Hamre (2009), the way in which teachers, organizers, and guides facilitate interactions in the language classroom need to be modified. This is because the facilitators only adjust their speech to reflect feedback from learners and bring focus on structure (Richards & Renandya, 2001; Soter et al, 2008). Duy (2014) and Tuyen (2013) argue that ESL/EFL teachers have challenges maximizing interaction in their classrooms, leading to lack of opportunities for learners and leading to students' inability to communicate effectively in English. Meanwhile, through effective interaction, negotiation of meaning, and feedback, exchanges are achieved (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Mackey, 2007).

In the opinion of Sacks et al (1974), all social interactions are orderly and that should be of paramount in terms of teaching and learning processes. Therefore, this principle must be applied in the classroom to ensure smooth interaction during lessons (Atkinson & Drew, 1979; De Stefani & Gazin, 2014; Seedhouse 2004). Ingram & Elliott (2014) posit that there are norms that frame aspects of classroom interaction that help to identify teacher practices for managing competing voices (Waring, 2013). Through turn-taking, participants by means of classroom norms, get some classroom activities done through variety of actions led by the initiator (Koole, 2015). The empirical finding shows that language learning in conversation analytic studies of classroom interaction (e.g. Hellermann, 2008; Markee, 2008; Sert, 2017) as well as studies that describe pedagogical activities with a focus on interaction practices of teachers and students (e.g. Sert & Walsh, 2013; Waring, 2009).

In order to improve the quality of the IRF cycle and to promote language learning, another concept needs to be considered - Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD), one of the crucial sites in which 'social forms of mediation develop' (Lantolf, 2000, p. 16). In contrast with the zone of actual development, the zone of proximal development describes a 'growth' area where a person's knowledge and skills cannot be acquired by him/her alone, but only with the support of other people or mediating tools (Lantolf, 2000). Classroom interactions within the IRF cycle in particular present common examples of how learning can be mediated in learners' ZPD to extend learners' knowledge and skills.

In language classrooms, as Walsh (2006) claims, teachers "play a much more central role than that advocated under both Communicative Language Teaching and Task-based Language Learning" (p. 3). The centrality of teacher-talk in facilitating or hindering student participation, and thus engagement, has been found to be key for creating opportunities for language learning (Walsh, 2002). Researchers have focused on different aspects of teacher, classroom interaction, and language learning opportunities. Waring (2008), for instance, shows that although explicit positive feedback in response to a student answer may be sequentially and effectively preferred, pedagogically, it may hinder learning opportunities. In a more recent study, Fagan (2014) illustrates that "ESL teachers' positive feedback turns may maintain interaction flow and ensure 'information clarity with all learners in the class in relation to the goals of the immediate talk'" (p. 45).

In another important study, Jacknick (2011) illustrates instances of student agency when learners, rather than teachers, initiate turns in language classrooms, "revealing students' ability to control sequences of talk in the classroom" (Jacknick, 2011, p. 49). Managing learner initiatives successfully (Waring, 2011) has been found

to be an important teacher skill in language classrooms, and the ways teachers manage interaction in such sequences, as it has been reported, may be *advancing learning* (Waring et al., 2016). One of the most influential researchers that adopt a conversation analytic methodology to investigate L2 classroom interaction is Seedhouse (2004), who provides a detailed description of the interaction dynamics of L2 classrooms. Taking the position that any sort of generalisation is not comprehensive enough to understand local management of interactions in classrooms,

Seedhouse (2004) has developed a variable perspective and showed that there are L2 classroom contexts, “each with its own pedagogical focus and corresponding organisation of turn taking and sequence” (p. 101). He proposes four L2 classroom contexts; namely, form-and-accuracy, meaning-and-fluency, task-oriented, and procedural. His work has contributed to our understanding of the dynamic nature of interactions in classrooms, and has brought evidence regarding the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction. The structure of classroom interaction and its organization in English language education have majorly been studied by following the principles of Conversation analysis (Chappell, 2014; Gardner, 2014; Johnson, 2009; Kurhila, 2006; Rymes, 2009; Seedhouse, 2004; Sidnell & Stivers, 2014; Walsh, 2011). The variable approach taken by Seedhouse (2019) to the analysis of L2 classroom interaction has had growing impact on future work in this field.

Taking a variable approach to the analysis of classroom interaction, Walsh (2006, 2011) has developed the notion of classroom interaction competence, defined as the ability “to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning” (Walsh, 2011, p. 158).

In an attempt to theorize pedagogical interaction using conversation analysis, Waring (2016) argues that there are three main principles that revolve around what

teachers do in classrooms. These three principles are competence, complexity, and contingency. The principle of competence includes teachers' sensitivity to competency of students in interaction, while complexity is about the ways teachers manage to accomplish multiple actions by producing a single turn. The principle of contingency, on the other hand, is concerned with the idea that teaching requires responsive occurrence to the moment.

This principle goes in line with the findings of aforementioned studies (Seedhouse, 2004; Sert, 2015; Walsh, 2011) in that the responsive behaviours of teachers should converge with the pedagogical goals of the moment, closely tied to the skills teachers show at interactive decision-making (Walsh, 2011). Heritage (2012) argues that during interactions, both parties have equal access to the knowledge from the beginning of the sequence. Informal conversation appears to have been halted in order to focus on dealing with the turn-taking sequence. However, as sometimes a behaviour that appears to expose the linguistic difficulties of an interlocutor can in fact be motivated by a conversation partner's wish to promote interactions where the participants appear to be competent. In Aaltonen and Laakso's (2010) data, competence was construed by the conversation partners with completing self-repair, as it appears to be construed as participating in talk on a set topic.

According to Heritage (2012), taking an unknowing stance, such as asking a question, invites an interlocutor to elaborate on a topic and thus has the potential to lead to expansion of an interaction sequence. In the context of potential difficulties in communicating, knowledge to which both parties have equal access appears to offer safe ground from which to launch such an invitation to talk. The way in which discussion questions are designed to project a single known answer reveals the

questioner's unknowingness to be genuine. Scarino & Liddicoat (2009) stipulate that classroom interaction is a social process of meaning-making and interpreting and this fosters the advancement of learners' listening and speaking abilities. By classroom interaction, there is the avenue to ask and answer questions, to take decisions about the learning process, to participate in discussions (Sommat, 2007), to initiate conversations, and for participants to contribute more to the learning process (Seedhouse, 2011). Since that time, the field has developed very substantially. Many hundreds of research papers and monographs in conversation analysis have now been published. Conversation analysis focuses on the acquisition of language and communicative competence to those which focus on interaction and pragmatic aspects of their loss. It is as well, used to mean the investigation and analysis of natural conversation so as to reveal what the linguistic features of conversation are and how conversation is used in ordinary life.

That is, conversational analysis studies three things as its tenets. These are one, the techniques that the speaker employs in deciding when to speak during a conversation, such as rules of turn-taking. Two, the ways in which the utterances of more than one speaker are related, for instance, conversational maxims, adjacency pair, inserted sequence, and three, and the different functions that conversation is used for, for example, establishing roles and communicating politeness. These studies have shown the truly remarkable degree to which the social organization syntax of action inhabits the practices and behaviors that make up human social interaction. In developing conversation analysis, Schegloff has established a major sociological input into a domain such as linguistic behavior as situated social action and interaction. The development of CA has involved a major re-conceptualization of extant perspectives on the nature of language and social interaction. As a sociological approach to the

study of language and social interaction, CA embodies a synthesis of the perspectives of two highly original social scientists. This approach provided the basis for the notion, that actions are resources through which the parties to an interaction can see, and see in common, where they are in a given interaction, and how each is positioned relative to the other. Building from these perspectives, CA focuses on the competencies which persons use and rely on to co-construct orderly and mutually understandable courses of action.

Conversation analysis has developed as a programme of research by mapping the resources with which members of the social world produce, recognize, understand, and manipulate spoken interactions. Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), identify major structural axes of interaction: turn taking, sequence organization, repair, overall structural organization of conversation, word selection, and turn organization. Each one of these papers establishes a domain of study by identifying absolutely fundamental choices that participants in conversation must make, and isolating elements of the functional architecture through which these choices are made. Therefore, conversation analysis can be thought of as the study of talk-in-interaction and other forms of human conduct in interactions.

The basic frameworks that were developed in the initial work on turn-taking which specified that a participant was initially entitled to a single turn constructional unit, and that speaker transition can be achieved without significant gap or overlap, has come to accommodate collaborative utterances (Lerner, 1991, 1996), and overlap management. It has also easily accommodated a range of findings about the role of gaze, gesture, and body deployment in the management of turn-entry and turn exit. It helped to motivate work aimed at understanding how turn-taking is initiated, terminated, and suspended. It has also served as a powerful resource when examined

comparatively with other non-conversational turn-taking systems, such as those which are characteristic of courtroom questioning or interviews.

Similarly, the initial specification of sequential organization in terms of the notion of conditional relevance and the adjacency pair concept (Schegloff, 1968, 1972; Schegloff & Sacks, 1973) has been expanded to include pre-sequences that occur prior to the base pair and which may be directed either at the upcoming first pair part or directed at the second pair part. Schegloff (1968) argues that in social interaction, it is order rather than chaos as the norm; thus, precise, specific order that the participants use and rely on to achieve their interaction objectives. The aforementioned evidences in relation have bearing with my study on how to examine interaction strategies that teachers in Jomoro Municipality adopt for effective ESL classroom interaction and to identify the functions that these strategies perform in ensuring smooth interaction in the classroom. Also, it helps in understanding how teachers can organize turns during English lessons.

When it comes to organization of turn of interaction in the language classroom, Blum-Kulka (1989) identifies direct, conventionally indirect, non-conventionally indirect realization strategies to be used by the teacher. However, she also notes that particular strategies are tied more closely to culture-specific pragmatic linguistic conventions. Among the complimenting strategies cutting across specific speech acts, two types of pragmatic strategies are universally available, thus; conveying pragmatic intent indirectly, and making use of routine formulae. There is also reason to suspect that instruction may be necessary for learners who are not instructed at all to have difficulty in acquiring appropriate language use patterns, especially in foreign language or classroom settings where opportunities where the full range of human interactions are limited. Porter, a strong advocate of small group

and pair work within a communicative approach, investigated whether learners could learn various features of pragmatic competence from each other. Analyzing expressions of opinion, agreement, and disagreement produced by learners in small group interaction, she concluded that this was not the case, whether instructions make difference in the classroom discussion as a strategy to avert noise and communication breakdown. Communicative activities in the classroom provide valuable production practice for learners, but they will not generate the type of sociolinguistic input that learners need such as to initiate turns in language classrooms. Revealing students' ability to control sequences of talk in the classroom and managing learner initiatives successfully have been found to be an important teacher skill in language classrooms, in addition to the ways teachers manage interaction in such sequences.

It is not difficult to make claims for the academic success of critical discourse analysis (CDA). Much of the success of CDA can be traced to the pioneering works of analysts such as Fairclough, van Dijk and Wodak. Van Dijk (1993) writes that the targets of CDA are power elites that sustain social inequality and injustice. These principles are applicable when dealing with classroom discourse which involves the teacher and students. Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) method of discourse analysis (DA) has been described as "a litmus test for whether or not a lesson is communicative" (Raine, 2010, p. 19). The Sinclair and Coulthard's model is not designed to handle pupil/pupil interaction in project work (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) and lessons which neatly fit into the model tend to be overtly teacher-based as of a student-teacher classroom discussion research and set out to investigate the organization of linguistic units above the rank of clause, and explore the intermediary levels of language between context and phonetic substance.

However, Raine (2010, p. 19) warns of the danger of allowing the strong reputation and tradition of usage of the Sinclair and Coulthard model to sway the opinions of individual researchers such as this author on whether it is “useful for understanding classroom communication in our own contexts”. As a result of these narrow beginnings, many modifications of the original model have been proposed (de Boer, 2007; Francis & Hunston, 1992). Willis (1992), and Brazil (1975, 1978) cite further how there have been several criticisms of language classrooms whose discourse fits too neatly into the Sinclair and Coulthard’s three-stage model. Such discourse is heavy on teacher display questions, where the teacher knows the answer, but merely wants to know whether the student can correctly answer. This is counterproductive as their overuse deprives students of the opportunity for meaningful communication (Thornbury, 2000, cited in de Boer, 2009).

According to Sinclair and Coulthard, exchanges are made up of moves, which are, in turn, made up of acts. The model identifies two types of exchange in classroom discourse; boundary exchanges and teaching exchanges. Boundary exchanges signal the transition from one section of the lesson to the next and are initiated by the teacher, whereas teaching exchanges are where questions are asked and answered, and feedback given on answers. The IRF exchange is situated within the Sinclair and Coulthard model and this is adopted in this study based on its presence in the data. In addition to issue raised, there should be rules put in place in terms of eliciting exchanges and these rules must be distinguishable and comprehensible and also should strictly be followed to achieve positive results during discussions in an English class. Breaking of these rules can be tantamount to discussion failure. This behaviour is desirable in the classroom, as students maximize their learning opportunities by utilizing all participants as resources from which to access the topic in deliberation.

This is because a system of analysis either requires or rules out certain behaviours which must be followed. Participants always have the free will to behave in any way they choose. If the rules are broken, it simply means that behaviour has deviated from the standard or from the accepted pattern.

Sinclair and Coulthard suggest that it would be ‘cheeky’ for a student to provide the teacher with feedback in a ‘pupil elicit’. These categories will be useful to my study and therefore shall be adopted in the process of this study as it involves questioning and answering in classroom discussion among students and their teacher. This study is about the use of language as a medium for teaching and learning, with special relevance to the use of English in the classroom discussion. Wong and Waring (2010) also highlight the relevance of CA findings in three areas of instructional practices: repair, task design, and management of participation. For repair, they show how CA descriptions provide for a wider range of alternatives for dealing with problematic learner contributions. For task design, they display how analysis has shown that the most dependable tasks in the language classroom often turn out to be the off-task talk. This is because when off tasks are used, learners can be engaged in solving real-life problems. Wong and Waring (2010) also argue that for the relevance and usefulness of off-task activity. For the management of participation, they observe that teachers need to consider how their actions affect learner participation. For turn design, for example, teachers can encourage participation by, for example, leaving their turns incomplete or leaving the F(feedback/follow-up) slot empty in the turn sequence for the students to provide. In this way, teachers can assess students’ understanding of the lesson being taught.

Varonis and Gass (1985) formulated a model which reveals the role of negotiation of meaning in unfolding discourse structure. In their model, when a

breakdown in comprehension arises, speakers are possibly engaged in a set of exchanges aiming to resolve non-understanding within dialogue. This model to negotiation practices shows that linguistic resources are employed by students to acknowledge misunderstanding and resolve breakdowns in communications. This model helps finding regularity of negotiation of meaning practices which occur in conversations. Role play, class participation, group and pair work, and teacher and student talks are among the tasks and activities which excite classroom interaction for negotiating meaning.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature regarding the management of talk in the ESL classroom. It focuses on what happens when more than one person talks at a classroom discussion, how the simultaneous talk are organized, how utterances are carried out, how turn-taking and topic management are done in terms of topic shifts and also relating topics to each other, and why they shift topics to another one in conversations. It also discussed the analysis of natural conversation so as to reveal the linguistic features of conversation and how conversation analysis is used in analysing the use of English language in the classroom. It also discussed the Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) model, especially with regards to the analysis of the IRF exchange structure in the classroom.

Due to the fact that teachers differ in their style and approach, and their classes are made up of individuals of various personal characteristics and cultural backgrounds, who differ in the ways they respond to teachers and particular styles of teaching. Observational research suggests that some ways that language is used in interactions between teachers and students are common features of classroom life throughout the world. Wherever they are and whatever they are teaching, teachers in

schools and other educational institutions are likely to face some similar practical tasks. They have to organize activities to occupy classes of unequal individuals, learners who may vary considerably in their aims, abilities and motivations. They have to control unruly behaviour as they are expected to teach a specific curriculum, a body of knowledge and skills which their students would not normally encounter in their out-of-school lives. And they have to monitor and assess the educational progress the students. All these aspects of teachers' responsibilities are reflected in their use of language as the principal tool of their responsibilities.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The chapter presents the methodology that the researcher used in the study. Under this, the researcher discusses the research design used, the population, sample and sampling, and the various instruments used in data collection. These include observation and lesson video recording. This section includes the researcher's philosophy of the study and how best to gather the data for the study and what is needed to accomplish.

3.1 Research approach

This research adopted a qualitative approach. Qualitative research is a scientific method of observation on gathering non-numerical data while focusing on meaning (Maxwell, J. 2004). Qualitative method is where the researcher first collects data and then attempts to derive explanations from those data. A research is qualitative if it describes events and persons specifically without making use of numerical data (Best & Kahn, 2006). I adopted qualitative approach since the study focuses on an aspect of classroom discourse. This approach also enables the researcher to gather the data by observing and recording the activities of the participants as they go about their normal classroom interactions. In effect, this approach gives the researcher the opportunity to analyze the issues from non-numerical point of view.

3.2 Research design

This research is case study. A case study is used to analyze in order to illustrate the situation. It is said to be a case study since it a report or a descriptive

information on the data collected for the research in order to experiment theories. Specifically, this study employs CA approach to qualitative study since the research focuses on an aspect of interaction. Again, the use of case study paves way for obtaining information on expressions deployed by participants to seek clarification on some of the forms of interactional strategies encountered in the classroom setting. This is because a case study is a design of inquiry found in many fields, especially evaluation, in which the researcher develops an in-depth analysis of a case. Also, case study allows the researcher to analyze facts without resorting to only narrow angle of perspective but rather on a broader knowledge and experiences, (Silverman,1993).Stake (1995) and Yin (2009, 2012) suggest processes involved in case study research. In their illustrations they identify strategies that help in recognizing that approaches such as participatory action research (Kemmis& McTaggart, 2000), and discourse analysis (Cheek, 2004).

3.3 Population and sampling

This research was conducted in the 15 Junior High schools which include Newkabenlasuazo, Takinta, Half Assini Roman catholic, Half-Assini Anglican, Half-Assini Methodist, Ahobre, Beyin, Ekpu, Adu, Tikobo No. 1, Bonyere Methodist, Bonyere Roman catholic, Ezinlibo, Edobo, and Nawule Junior High schools which are all located at the Jomoro Municipality in the Western Region. This research utilized the services of 15 teachers. Lessons taught by a teacher from each school and precisely, the teachers who handle the English language in the various schools, was recorded. According to the various teachers who assisted in the data collection, each class was made up of approximately forty-five (45) students. With this, a population of 45 students in a class by the fifteen schools amounted to 675 students.

3.4 Sampling technique

The sampling technique adopted for the study was purposive. Purposive sampling is a form of non-probability sampling in which researchers rely on their own judgment when choosing members of the population to participate in the study. I decided to use purposive sampling technique so as to make me focus on the particular characteristics of the population that are of interest, which best enabled me to answer my research questions. Thus, purposive sampling method proved to be effective when only limited numbers of people can serve as primary data sources due to the nature of research, aims and objectives (Creswell, 2012).

3.5 Research instruments

The research instruments required for the data collection were audio recordings of English classroom lessons as well as observation. This is due to the fact that the researcher wanted to ascertain the validity and authenticity of the data collected.

3.6 Data collection procedure

This section offers a step-by- step approach to data collection. Observation and audio recordings were made during the English classes in the selected schools.

3.6.1 Lesson recording

This study solely used classroom lesson recordings and observation as the instruments. There were different recordings of classroom English lessons recorded at the fifteen junior high schools already mentioned above. These recordings covered the participants present during the language class discussions. The time ranges for the various discussions lesson recordings were between twenty and twenty-five minutes. Some of these lesson recordings are displayed in Appendix A. For ethical reasons, the

participating schools whose participants were recorded were given informed consent about the study and they freely gave their consent for the recording.

3.6.2 Observation

This is the instrument that employs vision as the main means of data collection with the researcher's active involvement. The researcher's pre-occupation was to watch, listen and record what she observes rather than asking questions about them. Observation has been seen as one of the best tools used for data collection in the study of this nature. That is why this study employed observation as one of the instruments for the research. The observation concentrated on the interest of the researcher and that enabled her to record with pen and jotter, some of the conversations and responses produced by participants. She also electronically recorded the voices of the participants so as to help identify the styles as well as the strategies employed in their speeches.

3.7 Data analysis

McMillan and Schumacher (1997) was used in the analysis where categories and patterns emerge from the data collected rather than being imposed on data prior to data collection. This is because the researcher is of the view that modifying a theory to support the data collected is more justifiable than distorting the data collected to support a theory. The researcher differs in view expressed by Schafer (1967) as cited in Capo (1991) that theory is not controlled by the data but data are manufactured by the theory. As already mentioned earlier, the choice of this approach of data analysis was informed by the fact that it allows the researcher to derive meaning by interpretation of what is said by the participants. The process of analysis and interpretation demand disciplined examination, creative insight and careful attention to the purpose of the research. The researcher's role in the analysis covers collecting,

assembling and translating of raw data on one hand and the interpretative comments on the other. According to Krueger (1994), the researcher's role in data analysis is the act of bringing order to the data, organizing what is there into patterns, categories and basic descriptive units.

In present study, the data analysis involved transcription of the data gathered, coding and organizing into thematic categories or under sub-headings, describing and interpreting it. The researcher did the analysis according to the suggestions made by Bogdan and Biklen (1992, 2011). Transcribing is one way of analyzing data through observation. According to Creswell (2008, p. 239) transcribing is the process of convert audiotape recordings into the data. Coding is also the process of segmenting and labeling text to form descriptions and broad themes in the data. With this, the researcher had to play video recording several times and also read through the transcripts as well, jotted the needed and reliable information which could help in answering the research questions. Coding categories were developed, taking into consideration the purpose of the study. The researcher went through the coding and the categorization again ensuring that the various data collected were put under the right themes.

3.8 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter presented the methodology employed by the researcher. The research approach being qualitative, research design used was case study with the population of 15 schools. The sampling technique was purposive and the sample was 15 teachers and 675 students. The instruments used by the researcher were observation and audio-recorded lessons. The analysis was done by transcription of the data collected as well as coding and thematic identification.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of analysis of the interactional strategies adopted by teachers of ESL in the Jomoro Municipality. This chapter is divided into two main sections: the first section presents results of the analysis of interactional strategies that are adopted by the teachers during English language lessons. The analysis revealed that the teachers adopt turn taking, topic management, and openings and closings as interactional strategies during lesson delivery. With the turn taking strategies, there were sub-strategies such as the use of adjacency pair, IRF technique, and overlaps. Others were back channeling and the use of discourse markers in the interaction. In terms of topics management in the ESL classroom, the participants adopted topic initiation, topic expansion, topic shift, and topic change when the need arose. The second section discusses the various functions that the strategies were used to perform for effective and smooth interaction in language learning. These functions were form-focused correction, effective class control, clarification, for repair and for alerting participants in order to sustain their attention.

4.1 Interactional strategies

The identified interactional strategies mentioned earlier are discussed under specific themes with data illustrations in the sections that follow.

4.1.1 Turn taking

For authentic conversations, turn taking is a basic component. It refers to the phenomenon of changing the roles of the speaker and the listener when they are engaged in conversations. Turn is the successive course, opportunity enjoyed by alternation with another or with others in due order or appropriate time. This happens

with remarkably little overlapping speech and remarkably few silences. Turn taking is type of organization in conversation and discourse where participants speak one at a time in an alternation. In many contexts, conversation turns are valuable means to participate in social life and have been subject to competition. Levinson (2015), in conversation analysis, argues that turn taking is a term for a manner in which speeches are ordered. Turn taking occurs in a conversation when one person listens while the other person speaks. Turn taking is an important skill for speakers to develop, in order to effectively participate in social communications. If a speaker is not able to speak in turns during interactions, they may interrupt the other person who is speaking or may not actively listen.

However, turns to speak typically occur successively without overlaps or gaps between the speakers. But there are obviously instances of short pauses and short overlaps. Overlapping is dealt with by one speaker ending his or her quickly. Gaps between turns by another speaker beginning his/her turn simply indicating that his/her turn has elapsed and thereby incorporating the silence into it. Within a conversation, the current speaker can exercise three degrees of control over the next turn. Firstly, s/he can select which participant will speak next, either by naming her/him or by alluding to him/her with a descriptive phrase. Secondly, s/he can constrain the next utterance, but not select the next speaks. Thirdly, s/he can select neither and leave it to other participants to continue the conversation by selecting herself/himself. Extract 1 illustrates how turn taking occurred in the classroom:

Extract 1

Teacher: let's look at those examples in an illustration.

Teacher: yes (pointing at a student).

Student: I was sick during the celebration.

Teacher: I was sick during the celebration, clap for her.

Teacher: yes!!!!

Student: I have been in Ghana since eight years.

Teacher: let's look at preposition of results.

Student: you couldn't come as a result of the accident.

Teacher: in fact you have done well.

Students: yes sir!

Speaker change usually takes place at the end of utterances or sentences. If the next speaker or next action has been selected, the next speaker will take over at the end of the current turn during which the selecting was done. If the current speaker has not selected a next speaker in a conversation involving more than two speakers, a self-selecting speaker beginning at a possible completion may as well overlap with the current speaker who has decided to continue, or with a second self-selecting speaker. The problem is usually remedied quickly by one of the speakers on the floor. That is, a speaker is vulnerable at every utterance or sentence completion whether he/she selects the next speaker or action or not.

In the heart of communication lies the interaction between two or more people and that is achieved mostly through everyday conversation. Conversation represents the primary context for language use, and is the vehicle through which we make and maintain relationships and influence the environment. Language impairments such as aphasia strike at the heart of human identity, leading to social isolation, depression and reduced quality of life (Hilari & Byng, 2009). Communicating with others can be challenging with hearing loss, but there are a few steps to make the repairs to avert communication breakdown and noise. In order to achieve an effective conversation or interaction, interlocutors have to employ the principle of turn in communication to

prevent overlapping and have both linguistic and utterance meanings. In other words, it is relevant to realize speaker's meaning, that is, what is said as well as listener's meaning, that is, what is being communicated as mentioned earlier. Therefore, the organization of turn in class discussion is really necessary in achieving its intended concept in communication to have the meaning potential of utterance per the existing language and culture. As already indicated, the different sub-strategies that were produced within the turn taking strategies were adjacency pair, overlapping utterances, backchannels, and IRF sequences.

4.1.1.1 Adjacency pair

In pragmatics, a branch of linguistics, an adjacency pair is an example of conversational turn-taking. An adjacency pair is composed of two utterances by two speakers, one after the other. The speaking of the first utterance (the first-pair part, or the first turn) provokes a responding utterance (the second-pair part, or the second turn). Together, the two turns constitute an adjacency pair. For example, a question such as *what's your name?* requires the addressee to provide an answer in the following turn, thus completing the adjacency pair. A satisfactory second pair part could be *I am Joyce Cook* (1989, p. 156) notes that there are “two types of conversation which typically occur together to form an adjacency pair”. Sacks (1967) also observe that a conversation is a string of two turns. Some turns are more closely related than others and isolates a class of sequences of turns called adjacency pair.

The feature of adjacency does not always have to be fulfilled. The first and the second pair part can be many utterances apart. They rather are conditional relevant; this is that the utterance of a first pair part makes a second pair part necessary and waited for (Levinson 1983). Extract 2 represents an example of an adjacency pair produced in the data:

Extract 2

- Teacher: Let's take the last one. Clement!
- Clement: To make ends meet.
- Teacher: To make ends meet, to what?
- Clement: To get enough for just one's need.
- Teacher: Clap for yourselves (students clapped).
- Teacher: Okay, that's good.

The extract depicts turn taking within the classroom during discussion. It shows clearly the adjacency pair where we have the first pair part being 'the teacher' and the second pair part being 'Clement'. Adjacent produced by different speakers is ordered as a first pair part (FPP) and a second pair part (SPP). A FPP requires a SPP in such that Pair type relate that particular pair with in sequence organization. Adjacency pairs are the fundamental units to conversational organization.

4.1.1.2 Backchannels

Backchanneling, according to Richards and Schmidt (2002), is feedback given while someone is speaking "and includes comments such as uh, yeah, really...and grunts that indicate success or failure in communication" (p. 199). Backchannels are therefore supportive noises such as hmm, yes, right, that are used by listeners to encourage the speaker to hold the floor. Backchannels could also entail questioning which leads to previously mentioned topic and this is what is seen in Extract 3 as follows:

Extract 3

- Student C: what do you think of the just ended storm?
- Student D: it's really frightening.
- Student C: frightening you say?

Student D: yes!

Student C: I think it's rather normal.

Student D: no! This is not normal at all.

Student C: sure?

In the extract, the backchannel is found where after the teacher was done with the lesson went back to solicit their students impressions about the topic. By so doing, the teacher had to pair the participants during the discussion so that the first pair part (student C) initiated the interaction by asking the question 'what do you think of the just ended storm'? This question was used by the initiator to refer back to the earlier discussion about the topic, and this is an example of back channeling (Schegloff, 2007).

Utterances here are normally related back to the previous utterance. Here, participants compete by skip-connecting, relating back to the last-but-one utterance, their own. Each time one of them gets a turn he declines to talk about the previous speaker's topic and reasserts his own. Skip-connecting is not an uncommon phenomenon, but apparently speakers only skip-connect over one utterance. When this competition has been resolved, the conversation moves forward again (Sacks, 1967). However, turn construction may prove to be problematic, and this can occur when the talk of a speaker is constrained by the sequential context of a conversation partner's prior turn.

4.1.1.3 Initiation response-feedback (IRF)

Initiation Response-Feedback (IRF) model: that is where there is an initiation by the teacher, response by student, and feedback by teacher. Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) model of classroom discourse integrates discourse elements involving hierarchical layers, with each layer consisting of units from preceding layer. The main

discourse element is lesson, whereas act is the least element. Discourse functions of acts include evaluation, cue and elicitation. Within the exchange layer, Sinclair and Coulthard notice the following interaction features: the sequence of question and answer, responding to tutor instructions by students' and listening to tutor's instruction. The IRF model is believed to be dominant in classroom discourse (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). This is because teachers have the big portion of classroom interaction talk. Extract 4 is an example of IRF implementation during the language classroom discussion.

Extract 4

Teacher:	yes!!, the next one	I
Student:	preposition of result	R
Teacher:	the last o----ne----	I
Student:	preposition of time	R
Teacher:	preposition of time, clap for yourselves	F
Students:	(clapped)	

Per the extract, the teacher initiated the interaction by saying 'Yes!!', the next one. The student who was called to respond gave an answer of "preposition of time" where the teacher again gave feedback by allowing the students to clap for themselves.

According to the analysis of the IRF sequence of classroom talk, some researchers see that teacher dominance is the main feature of classroom talk in comparison with ordinary everyday conversation. Cazden (2001) observes that initiation is nearly always performed by the teacher and the students are supposed to provide the response to the teacher's elicitation. She notes that the last part of the IRF pattern comes from the teacher who provides Feedback (or Follow-up or Evaluation)

to the student's Response. Van Lier (1996, p. 149) intimates further that the form of interaction in the classroom is a teacher-led IRF pattern where the student's Response is seen to lead to teacher's dominance in the interaction. In the traditional sense, he argues that the teacher is regarded as the 'primary knower', which fact allows him to evaluate or to give a feedback on the student's response and to make the student aware as to whether or not the response was the correct one.

Nassaji and Wells (2000) also point out that the display questions a teacher uses in the classroom are often to elicit information which the 'primary knower' already knows (display questions). Although, interaction in the classroom is seen as an open-ended speech exchange system, also comments that teachers maintain control over the moment-by-moment content and direction of the turn-taking in classroom. He/she does this by reserving the right to ask question. Students, on the other hand, are obligated to respond with answers. Similarly, Mercer (1998) states that the common IRF patterns in a classroom allow a situation where the teacher is responsible for handing out most of the speaking turns during the lesson. Van Lier (1996, p.151) agrees for he believes that the IRF pattern is usually seen as enabling the teacher to lead the lesson to the planned direction and to control classroom interaction.

Also, Brazil (1995) believes that the IRF structure is characteristic of teacher-led discourse, in which the teacher asks a question or provides information, the student responds or reacts, and the teacher provides some degree of comment or evaluation. The teacher knows what he or she wants to tell the class but chooses to do it by setting up situations in which they are brainstormed to pour out vital responses independently. Asking questions and giving feedback are activities which are central to the role of teaching. There is abundance of research grouping questions into distinct

categories as well as analyzing feedback in order to ascertain both its purpose and its effectiveness (Ellis, et al., 2001). It is commonly accepted that teachers should become aware of the types of questions and feedback they use if they are to excel as teachers. According to Van Lier, depending which questions are asked, the initiation stage may require students merely to recite previously learned items” (2001, p. 94). On the other hand, he goes on to say: “at the most demanding end of IRF, students must be articulate and precise; they are pushed by successive probing questions, to clarify, substantiate, or illustrate a point that they made previously” (Van Lier, 2001, p. 94).

While the IRF format may not be inherently ineffective, it could be considered restrictive, in that students are not able to initiate themselves (Van Lier, 2001, p. 95). It might be possible to conclude, however, that this form of interaction could be viewed as more pedagogically sound if the teacher were to ask more referential questions or display questions, which would give IRF the purpose of scaffolding, as Van Lier (2001) suggests:

The initiation-response-feedback exchange, at least when it moves beyond mere recitation and display, can be regarded as a way of scaffolding instruction, a way of developing cognitive structures or a way of assisting learners to express themselves with maximum clarity. (p. 96)

With this interaction pattern, questions, broadly speaking, can be classified into two categories: display (or closed) questions, in which the teacher already knows the answer, and referential (or open) questions, or those to which the teacher does not know the answer (Ho, 2005). It is generally recognized that teachers ask predominantly display questions in the classroom (Nunan, 1987).

Nunan (1987) argues that referential questions should be used more often than display questions if we are to have more genuine communication in the language classroom. His stance is not in line with the traditional IRF sequence in genuine communication, where decisions about who says what and to whom and when are up for grabs. This would imply that display questions are not compatible with the aim of communicative competence. Regardless of the generality about IRF model, several disagreements have been established. For example, Walsh (2006) claims that in student-based classroom “there is more equality and partnership” and also “more formal, ritualized interactions between teachers and students are not as prevalent” (p.47). According to Lee (2007), the third component of IRF model is not feedback all the time; it is rather conditional to act and therefore “a situated accomplishment” which reflects preceding act (p.202). In this regard, Nassaji and Wells (2000) identify six undertakings of the third component of IRF model: “metatalk, comment, justification, action, evaluation, and clarification” (p.7) in addition to subdivisions associated with them.

Ho (2005) seems to be suggesting that effective questions are those which accomplish what the teacher hopes to achieve in the first place, regardless of any taxonomy a particular observer has assigned them. Feedback is the final phase of the IRF interaction. Richards and Schmidt (2002) define feedback in the context of language teaching as “comments or other information that learners receive concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from the teacher or other persons” (p. 199). Feedback has further been subdivided into several feedback types such as those listed by Panova and Lyster (2002), including backchanneling, repetition, and recasts.

One essential way to create language learning opportunities is by participation in classroom interaction. As Walsh (2011) advocates, “it is through language in

interaction that we access new knowledge, acquire and develop new skills, identify problems of understanding, deal with breakdowns in the communication, establish and maintain relationships and so on” (p. 2). Van Lier et al (1991) argue that students’ participation in classroom interaction, negotiation of meaning, and co-construction of their contributions, can help increase learning opportunities, and thus, have the potential to improve the quality of classroom interaction and discourse. In such situations, classroom interaction provides social contexts for teachers and students to mediate learning and maximize learning opportunities. Because the research context of this study is EFL/ESL classrooms, learning opportunities in this study refers to language learning opportunities in particular.

In order to investigate learning opportunities through classroom interaction, it is necessary to understand different types of classroom interaction through which learning can be mediated. Classroom interactions can be categorized in general as teacher-fronted or student-centred in light of the central role that participants play (Garrett & Shortall, 2002). Teacher-fronted classroom interaction then refers to the IRF-based interactions in which the teacher has a high control over the interaction process (Garton, 2012). In this study investigating the IRF cycle, it is the main type of classroom interaction studied. Student-centred interaction is often conducted in students’ group work or pair work settings where students are the agents of the interaction (Garrett & Shortall, 2002).

4.1.1.4 Overlaps

Langford (1994) argues that an overlap occurs when the overlapper can predict what is going to be said next or when she or he believes that the other speaker

has reached a turn transition point. These utterances occur simultaneously and this is seen in the Extract 5 as follows:

Extract 5

Teacher: last one

Students: sir, sir, sir... (students murmuring, giving chorus answers and overlapping)

Student A: as part of

B: has part of

C: in spite of

D: despite of

Teacher: in spite of, good, clap for yourselves

With Extract 5, the overlap occurred when the teacher wanted the last response to the topic in question. We notice that almost all the students wanted to respond due to the fact that it was the last response to the topic. This resulted in students murmuring and giving chorus answers, thereby producing overlapping utterances. As the teacher said “the last one”, the students (A, B, C, D) simultaneously gave the various responses ‘as part of, has part of, in spite of, despite of’. Atkinson & Heritage (1986) argue that there is situation where one speaker immediately follows the current speaker without any pause between them. Again, this notion is also used within a single turn, if that turn is interrupted by another speaker but the first speaker continues their flow of speech. In addition, a speaker may be holding the floor if that speaker does not want to give up their turn. This can be done by adding conjunctions such as ‘and’ and ‘but’, and by avoiding eye-contact. Increased volume can also be used to hold the floor when someone else interrupts. Speakers with a higher status usually hold the floor, while others listen. Apart from that, they are more likely to interrupt.

4.1.2 Insertion sequences

An insertion sequence is a sequence of turns that intervenes between the first and second parts of an adjacency pair. The person towards whom the first part of an adjacency pair has been directed may want to undertake some preliminary action before responding. For example, a request for clarification by the recipient will take place after the first pair part but before the second pair part, and this is an insertion sequence. Moreover, it can be defined as the phenomenon of embedding one pair occurring inside another noticeable conversation. Schegloff (1972) terms this type of embedded pair an inserted sequence. Cook (1989) holds the view that an insertion sequence as one set of related conversational turns occurring within.

Furthermore, during the inserted sequence, the original question retains its transition relevance, and if the second speaker does not then produce an answer that is noticeably absent in exactly the same way as it would be if there were no intervening sequence. The questioner can complain about the lack of answer in exactly the same way. It is important to note that an inserted sequence can itself contain inserted sequences. Jefferson (1972) observes that the general drift of conversation is sometimes halted at an unpredictable point. An example is a request for clarification within an interaction and then the conversation picks again where it left off (Schegloff, 1972). This is what is seen in the Extract 6 as follows:

Extract 6

T: Yes, your turn, boys!!!

B: Doctors make sure that the environment is clean.

T: Is it doctors who do that? Is it doctors who do that? (Repetition)

G: No oooo!!

T: But whose job?

B: Yes it is the doctors who teach the farmers how to clean the environment.

T: No, is the work of those we call, town counselors.

In this extract, there is a debate between boys and girls. The groups are represented by capital **B** and **G** for Boys and Girls respectively. The initiator or the teacher is also represented by **T**. Here, the teacher began by introducing the focus for the day 'a doctor and a farmer who is more important'? The teacher then asked the boys to argue with the girls in the class. The students were aware of turn-taking as usual as it was being anticipated; there was some interruption, an overlapping and excessive laughter which resulted in uncontrollable noise during the class discussion.

From the analysis, it was realized that the teacher dominated the discussion instead of the students and that made the general discussion unreal. Again, there were internal discussions within the general discussion which made the background to become very noisy to the extent that the responses given by students were difficult to be heard. Also, the participants preferred giving explanations instead of direct responses and that gave an opportunity for the extension of the discussion. Thus, there were possibilities: (commonly) expected and unexpected answers which can be either marked or unmarked. Commonly expected answers tend to be strongly unmarked. It is important to appreciate that *dispreferredness* is not a psychological evaluation of the response. It is purely a frequency judgment.

It was obvious that as participant **A** was explicitly recognizing that the other speaker has not done the proper thing (replied quickly but **A** does not simply pass over it), s/he assumes that **B** has some reason not to respond quickly, that not-responding-quickly means something. Moreover, adjacency pairs are the basic structural units of conversation. They are employed for closing and opening conversations, and are very important in conversations, both for operating and turn-

taking system by enabling a speaker to select the next action, and next speaker, and for enabling the next speaker to avoid both gaps and overlaps. In Extract 6, the insertion sequence occurred at where the Boys gave this response *Doctors make sure that the environment is clean* and the teacher used questioning and repetition for clarification as to whether it is the doctor's job of ensuring environmental cleanliness. Questions such as *Is it doctors who do that, But whose job* asked by the teacher were not really part of the initial responses needed but rather insertions that were done for clarification (e.g. Schegloff, 1972).

4.1.3 Repetition

Shaping learner contributions can also extend learner turns in the discussion process. Examples of repetition in learner input can be used. In repetition sequences, both embedded corrections in meaning, fluency contexts, and direct repairs in form-and-accuracy contexts can be illustrated (Sert, 2015). Again, how teachers' actions turn into opportunities for learning as illustrated in Sert (2017) can provide good examples to teachers both for maximising interaction space and shaping learner contributions. Teacher initiations that facilitate extended learner turns in both form-focused and meaning-based activities can be exemplified. According to Mackey (2006, p. 405), recasts are one type of helpful interaction (process) which can supply corrective feedback letting learners know their utterances were problematic: "corrective feedback is most likely to be successful if the learner is able to provide the correct form when he is alerted to the error". In order to measure the effectiveness of feedback, researchers generally use the learner's response to the feedback (uptake) as a gauge (Lyster, 1998).

Mackey and Gass (2005) have devised a framework for determining both frequency and type of feedback uptake. Their categories indicate how soon a

correction was incorporated into the learner's next utterance, as well as whether or not an opportunity was given for uptake or if the learner completely ignored the instructor's feedback. While Mackey and Gass gained insight by examining the student's uptake and are more explicit in what makes feedback effective or ineffective, Zamel (1981) puts the focus on the teacher. Furthermore, teachers should choose interesting topics for talks and discussion as they serve as initiation for elicitation (Khadidja, 2010). Acknowledging this, the role of the teacher in classroom interaction is directly connected to students' output development. Similar to the teacher-student interactions, student-student interactions plays a significant role in the development of classroom interactions as well as language development. Extract 7 illustrates repetition in the classroom:

Extract 7

Teacher: Idiom, what is an idiom?, What is an idiom? (Repetition)

Mohammed: Idiom is an a *phlase* or a sentence which meaning is different from individual words (.....) pause and laughter)

Teacher: Mohammed!!

Mohammed: Idiom is a phrase or a sentence which meaning is different from individual words.

Teacher: Clap for him.

Mohammed: an idiom is---- a phrase or a sentence whose meaning is different from its individual words.

Before Mohammed could end the response, he had to pause for a while before continuing and this is represented by (.....) at where it occurred. This pause led to

laughter and thereby creating noise at the background. Another example of repetition is shown in Extract 8 as follows:

Extract 8

Teacher: Yes!!

(Teacher pointing at student):

Student: To eat one's word.

Teacher: What's the meaning?

Student: To "apologies".

Teacher: Yes!, to apologize.

Teacher: Again!!!

(Students): To apologize (chorus response after the teacher's correction).

Looking at Extracts 7 and 8, there were repetitions made by the teacher when the participants mentioned some words wrongly. In an attempt to correct the students on the pronunciation of *phlase* to *phrase*, and *apologies* to *apologize* were done for better understanding. This repetition was done in order to avoid communication breakdown. These examples appear to be primarily oriented around topic and topic expansion, and are only triggered by the need for repair where topic talk appears to be in trouble.

4.1.4 Openings and closings

The openings and closings of a conversation are really necessary. They always alert interlocutors involved in the conversation. There is always an opening and a closing to every conversation. An opening is the act of beginning, commencing, or making first appearance in a speech while a closing is the final or ending. Notwithstanding, there are certain items in conversations that are very alike or completely alike, and which seem to be built on certain schemes. Places in

conversations where these schemes occur are openings and closings. Coulthard (1985, p. 89) states conversations are normally opened by greetings. Exclusions from these are conversations among strangers or telephone conversations. Nevertheless, the first utterance in a telephone conversation often is a “hello”. According to Schegloff (1968), this *hello* is an answer to a summons and not a greeting. Exchanging opening examples include *hi, how are you, how it going, and how have you been doing*. Exchanges are not always well-defined units. Again, interactions may not have clear-cut openings or closings. Sometimes too, interactions will have well-defined openings but may have ill-formed endings as Labov & Fanshel (1977) suggest that endings are more complex acts than beginnings. Extract 9 is an example of how the teacher brought the class discussion to a closing by requesting for the last response from the students.

Extract 9

Teacher: yes, the next one

Student: preposition of result

Teacher: the last o---ne----

Student: preposition of time

In this extract, the teacher brought the first part on the meaning of a type of preposition to a close and then called for another example, which was given by a student. Okay, we will continue with this topic tomorrow. Another example is found in Extract 10 as follows:

Extract 10

Teacher: another example.

Louis: to eat ones word.

Teacher: this means?

Louis: to apologize.

Teacher: yes!!!,Nao!!!!

Nao: to let the cat out of the bag.

Teacher: to let the cat out of the bag means?

Nao: to 'revial' the secret instead of to 'reveal' a secret.

Teacher: what again?, let's take the last one.

Clement: to make ends meet.

Teacher: to get enough for just one need.

Teacher: clap for him!!!!

From this extract, it can be observed that the initiator used phrases such as 'yes!!!', 'what again', and 'another example' to manage turn-taking during the discussion. These phrases used by the initiator presuppose closings on the response given and therefore other openings are due and as such, speaker transition is relevant.

4.1.5 Topic management

Topic management refers to the related topic discussed by speakers during the turn taking. It is an interaction strategy used in the language classroom. Topic management involves topic initiation (Lakoff, 1985), topic shift, topic expansion (Sacks, 1971) as well as topic change (Lakoff, 1985). Utterances used in managing topics are usually relevant to the current topic or will attempt to initiate new topics. In formal situations, there may be a predetermined topic or set of topics that is discussed in a systematic way. In informal interactions, conversations will drift from topic to topic. The main topic, thus, the reason for the exchange, may not come first. As Sacks (1968) stresses, talking topically and talking about some topic chosen by another speaker is not the same thing at all. One can perfectly have a well sequence in which successive speakers talk in a topically coherent way with the last utterance, but in

which each speaker talks on a different topic. Speakers are aware of this as a problem and have ways of formulating a topic to make it more likely that other speakers will talk on it. Extract 11 shows how the teacher managed topics during the class discussions:

Extract 11

Teacher: Let's look at some examples of prepositions.

Teacher: Anna!

Teacher: Let's try and give examples and their meaning.

Teacher: Ruth!

Teacher: Let's take the last one. Clement!

Teacher: What do you mean by preposition before we move on to complex preposition?

Different types of topic management found in the data are discussed in the following sections:

4.1.5.1 Topic initiation

Extracts 12 depicts how the teacher initiated the topic for the discussion. From the analysis, the teacher initiated the interaction by asking the participants question and as well, giving them guidelines to the debate.

Extract 12

Teacher: doctors and farmers, who are more important?

Teacher: boys are for doctors while girls are for farmers.

Teacher: Yes! Guys, let's go on!

Extract 13 also depicts an instance of topic initiation by a teacher by asking the students some questions:

Extract 13

Teacher: when we say a preposition, what do we mean?

Christy: response; a preposition is a word that shows the relationship between noun and another noun.

Feedback: clap for her.

Teacher: Let look at some examples of preposition?

Teacher: give one example of preposition, Hannah

Student 1: on

Teacher: Diana

Student 2: behind

Teacher: Augustina

Student 3: unto

All: clap

Teacher: Let us put some of the preposition in an illustration form (into a sentence)

Student 4: The book was on the table.

Students: (clap)

4.1.5.2 Topic expansion

In classroom interaction, the teacher can introduce some important schemes to cause expansion or the lengthening of an utterance. These schemes are called insert expansion and this can be pre-expansion or post-expansion. Sacks (1971) observes that in a conversation which is progressing well, talk grits from one topic to another. This expansion occurs at post-first and pre-second position. The most common form of post first insert expansion consists of a next turn repair initiator (NTRI). A pre-

second insert expansion is oriented in order not to collide with a first pair part but with an expected second pair part. Sequences can be much more complex than only adjacency pairs. Expansions occur in three possible places. Before FPP(pre-expansion), between FPP and SPP (insert expansion) and then after SPP (post expansion). Post expansion, as the word post implies, comes later in the sequence to expand it to some length. They can be of minimal types such as *ok* and *oh*. Oh is used for receipt while *ok* is more concerned with registering and acknowledging. Non-minimal types come in a variety of forms. Here, sequences are expanded beyond adjacency pairs. The possibility of one sequence occurring before, within, and after another, results in a variety of actual sequences. Extract 14 is an example of topic expansion:

Extract 14

Teacher initiates the discussion through questioning and answering.

Teacher: what do you mean by preposition before we move on to complex preposition.

Teacher: what do we mean??.,when we say a preposition.

Teacher: yes, Stephen.

Stephen: a preposition is

Teacher: open your mouth.

Stephen: a preposition is a word that shows.....

Teacher: Come again!

Stephen: a preposition is a word that shows the relationship of a noun and another noun.

Teacher: Clap for him.

Students: (clap).

Per the interaction in Extract 12, the teacher and the students specifically wanted to deal with *complex prepositions* and not *the meaning of preposition*. However, the teacher made the statement *what do you mean by preposition before we move on to complex preposition*, and the use of *come again*. This implies that the first part of the statement was just an insertion which was for an extension or expansion of that sequence.

4.1.5.3 Topic shift

Topic Shifts are changes of topics. The speaker in charge of introducing new topics is in charge of turn-taking. The end of a topic may be indicated by ‘by the way’, ‘good’, ‘that’s alright’, and new topics with expressions such as ‘that reminds me’. The speaker who introduces new topics may have a higher status or be the dominant speaker. If a speaker is unsuccessful in introducing a new topic, it shows that such a person normally is of a lower status. Extract 15 is an illustration of topic shift.

Extract 15

Teacher: Nao!

Nao: To let the cat out of the bag.

Teacher: To let the cat out of the bag means?

Nao: To “rival” the secret.

Teacher: To “review” the secret (wrong pronunciation of the word “reveal” by both student and teacher).

Teacher: Clap for her.

From the extract, the teacher did the initiation by saying *let’s try to give some examples of idioms*. Well, the trend of examples of idioms should have continued

since that was the topic in question but this topic drifted from *examples of idioms* to *the meaning of idioms* after Ruth had given the example.

4.1.5.4 Topic change

Topic change is a technical way to avoid the topic which no one longer wants to talk about. It is a natural phenomenon occurring in conversation. Sacks(1971) observes that in a conversation which is progressing well, talk drifts from one topic to another, and suggests that the relative frequency of marked topic introduction is some measure of the quality of a conversation. Since people do not talk on the same topic for long, topic change takes place. An example is shown in Extract 16 as follows:

Extract 16

- Teacher: good
- Teacher: let's try to give examples under each of the types of preposition you
Have made mentioned
- Teacher: who can give me example of preposition of time? ,yes !!!
- Student: after
- Teacher: after, clap for her.

Considering the Extract 16, the topic change occurred at where the teacher wanted the participants to try and give examples under each of the types of preposition they mentioned. However, the teacher restricted them to only examples of preposition of time instead of the numerous types already mentioned.

4.1.6 Discourse markers

Discourse markers observed within the interactions that occurred in the classrooms were pauses. Pauses are timed and can either be within an utterance or at

the beginning of utterances and thus lead to a gap utterance (Fairclough, 1985). Features of speech performance used by speakers to indicate phrase boundaries and diacritics are used to show them, according to Atkinson and Heritage's description. These markers are used to process incoming information to show whether a speaker has finished their turn or not, and to elicit listener feedback and so on. And in conjunction with other prosodic features such as shifts in pitch, they are used for rhetorical effect to persuade. When the grammatical construction is complete, the speaker makes a concluding statement such as "that was that". A falling intonation, or a lengthened syllable and some non-verbal cues such as leaning back or forward or eye-contact are also techniques that are employed for speaker transition. The interlocutors used pauses to indicate a situation where they were lacking words and were yet to think of what to say next. I have indicated the various pauses with [...] at wherever each of the pauses occurred. These are seen in Extracts 17, 18, 19, and 20 respectively:

Extract 17

Teacher: Idiom, what is an idiom? What is an idiom? (Repetition)

Mohammed: Idiom is an a phrase or a sentence with a difference in meaning from individual words ([.....] pause and laughter)

Extract 18

Teacher initiates the discussion through questioning and answering.

Teacher: what do you mean by preposition before we move on to complex preposition.

Teacher: what do we mean?!,,when we say a preposition.

Teacher: yes, Stephen.

Stephen: a preposition is

Teacher: open your mouth.

Stephen: a preposition is a word that shows.....

Extract 19

Teacher: then let's talk about(endless statement)

Teacher: what is a complex preposition, what is a complex preposition?

Student: they are the words that made up two or more..... (pause)

students laughed excessively thereby creating noise in the class

Extract 20

Teacher: sssssssssssss..... / s /, a technique for class control to make students keep quiet and pay attention)

Teacher: let's look at exampleserhtypes of complex Prepositions

Teacher: we said we have as many as three main types no, four main types of complex prepositions, we said we have

4.1.7 Summary

From the analysis, the teachers employed turn taking as one of the instructional strategies through which the participants made use of adjacency pair which involves the first pair part and second pair part interaction. Also, questions were directed to perform the role of back channeling in the learning process. The participants utilized IRF model where there was teacher initiated, students responded and then, feedback given by the teachers in the classroom. Again, there were instances where utterances overlapped. Also, where there were communication breakdown, repetition was adopted. Openings and closings of conversation were also identified to be used by the teachers. Lastly, there was topic management where teachers

introduced topics for the discussions. Again, teachers being the initiators set the ball rolling by engaging in topic initiation, topic expansion, topic shift, and topic change.

It was observed that the application of turn-taking and the trend of feedback techniques were really monotonous. The teachers used only few expressions such as “clap for him or her, good, you have done well” as feedback and motivational techniques throughout the course of their discussions. Through the focus on interaction strategies employed by language teachers, an analysis has been done applying CA observations made by linguists, about turn-taking in natural speech and discussing the differences. The illustration of the turn construction per the methods deployed by the teacher as they take extended turns at talk that pass off in an English classroom discussion. For most speakers, turns are multi-modal in the most inclusive sense; every resource from lexis to prosody, to facial expression and body posture is harnessed in order to construct a turn at talk.

And in these examples, a lack of grammatical resources does not appear to hinder turn construction (Beeke et al, 2003). With such turn construction devices at their disposal, these speakers are able to recount past events, to initiate discussion about current issues, and to have disagreements. In these extracts, each speaker was able to go about their everyday interaction in the classroom without any linguistic non-competence. In the analysis, it was noticed that two speakers involved in sequences had their conversation partners initiate talk on a new topic and invited the participation of the participants in that talk by using general questions and turns designed and left incomplete.

The interaction that went on during the English classrooms was obvious that there was pretense in attitude towards the discussion and that made the questioning and the answering environment look not normal and unnatural. But looking at the

conversations, it was found that a first pair part giving a 'question' is sometimes followed by something that is clearly not an 'answer' in the required sense - it might be a refusal to answer, a redirection to somebody else, a challenge to the questioner's right or competence to ask that question, and so on. In the analysis, discussion questions resulted in extended sequences and often incorporated correct production sequences (Lock et al., 2001), when a known answer was mispronounced due to limited opportunities for exchanges.

4.2 Functions of the strategies in ensuring smooth interaction in the ESL classroom

To answer Research Question 2, the functions the strategies were used for were identified and analysed. The following functions were identified: form-focused correction, effective class control, clarification, alerting participants, and repair. These functions have their establishments in meaning negotiation. During negotiation of meaning, a receiver demands a clarification or a confirmation of certain utterances, and the speaker replies to the request by simplifying, elaborating, or repeating the utterance. Negotiating of meaning usually involves certain discourse strategies such as clarifying a request, confirming understanding, repeating, recast, or restating (Pica, 1994; Pasfield & Neofitou, 2014). These functions are discussed as follows:

4.2.1 Form-focused correction

Form refers to the mechanics of the laying, either in terms of grammar or vocabulary. With regards to grammar, students must understand the sentence structure of a specific grammar rule. Focus on form consists of primary meaning-focused interaction in which there is brief and spontaneous attention to linguistic forms. Form-

focused instruction is defined by Ellis (2001, p. 2) as “any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form”. Extract 21 is an example of a situation where a teacher used repetition for form-focused correction.

Extract 21

Teacher: Idiom, what is an idiom? What is an idiom? (Repetition)

Mohammed: Idiom is an a phlase or a sentence which meaning is different

From individual words.(.....) pause and laughter)

Teacher: Mohammed!!

Mohammed: Idiom is a phrase or a sentence which meaning is different from individual words.

Teacher: Clap for him.

There was an instance where the teacher asked a question on what an idiom is but in the course of producing the response, the student fumbled. Thus; “Idiom is..... a phlase or a sentence which meaning is different from individual words”. The production of the word “phlase” instead of “phrase” made Mohammed to pause for a while and that situation brought laughter by his colleagues. In attempt to correct Mohammed, the teacher made him to reconstruct his response and this correction was done specifically on the form of the word.

4.2.2 Effective class control

Kasper (1982) argues that there are classroom specific discourse norms which are relevant to the teaching and learning process for effective class management. Classroom management is a process that allows teachers to control the learning and direction of their classroom management to keep students focused on learning while

preventing disruption from slowing the learning process. With this, the teacher deployed (/s/) as a technique for class control in order to make students keep quiet and pay attention when the teacher realized that the students' concentration was really low. An example is shown Extract 22:

Extract 22

Teacher: sssssssssssss..... / s /, a technique for class control to make students keep quiet and pay attention)

4.2.3 Clarification

Extract 23 shows how clarification was done during the interaction that involved the teacher and the class throughout classroom discussion. During this period, the teacher asked a question on what a complex preposition is and as a student who was called to respond to the question, gave a dispreferred response which led to a pause by the speaker. This environment created by the speaker made the students laugh excessively, creating noise in the class. Noise is loud, confused or senseless sound. In view of this, the teacher had to use expressions such as “yes, again”, “is it true?” to ascertain the response given by the speaker. For clarification, the teacher had to call on another speaker called “Ezam” to come again with the right response to the question.

Extract 23

- Teacher: what is a complex preposition, what is a complex preposition?
- Teacher: Yes!!
- Student: they are the words that made up two or more..... (pause)
students laughed excessively thereby creating noise in the class.
- Teacher: yes, again.
- Student: they are the words that made up two or more nouns.
- Teacher: is it true?
- Student: no sir.
- Teacher: yes, Ezam.
- Ezam: these are preposition made up of two or more prepositions with nouns.
- Teacher: these are preposition made up of two or more prepositions with nouns.
- Teacher: clap for the two of them.

4.2.4 Alerting participants

In order to alert the participants, the teacher used expressions such as “Yes! Guys, let’s go on”, “Yes, your turn, boys!!!” to draw the attention of participants as seen in Extract 24. Perhaps, the teacher realized that the students were not concentrating, so he had to draw their attention to the discussion process. Also, it could be that the students’ interest in the topic for discussion was low so he had to use those expressions to arouse and maintain their interest.

Extract 24

- Teacher: Yes! Guys let us go on.
- Teacher: They are the ones that produce foodstuff.
- Teacher: They are important that is why we have farmers’ day. That’s good.

Teacher: Yes, your turn, boys!!!

Boys: Doctors make sure that the environment is clean.

4.2.5 Repair

In human communication, there are numerous opportunities for communication problems to occur. Sometimes, we do not hear individual words correctly; at other times context are not clear or we do not understand the essential message. Therefore, there is the need to employ mechanisms to clarify confusion in conversation, thereby “repairing” communication. This makes interlocutors halt proceedings to ask for clarification about what was just said. Speakers resolve misunderstandings in communication using underlining basic patterns to avoid communication failure. A repair sequence is used to clarify troubles and equalize epistemic gaps in intersubjectivity. Repair in conversation can be defined as “efforts to deal with trouble sources or repairables marked off as distinct within the ongoing talk” (Schegloff, 2007, p. 101) and intersubjectivity means the mutual understanding between or among participants in interaction. In communication, when there is communication breakdown, there should be a mechanism for repair so as to avert issues in negotiating of meaning. Communication breakdown is the act of disrupting an established order so it fails to continue.

In order to have the potential meaning to what is communicated during interaction, the interlocutors have to be clear, precise, and concrete in their delivery for effective interaction. Extracts 25 and 26 show that the teacher used expressions such as “again” in terms of repetition for repair when the student gave this dispreferred response to “apologies” instead of “to apologize”:

Extract 25

Teacher: Yes! (Teacher pointing at student):

Student: To eat one's word.

Teacher: What's the meaning?

Student: To "apologies".

Teacher: Yes!, to apologize.

Teacher: Again!!!

(Students): To apologize (chorus response after the teacher's correction).

Extract 26

Teacher: Doctors and farmers, who are more important.

Teacher: Boys are for doctors while girls are for farmers.

Teacher: Yes! Guys, let's go on.

Girls: They are the ones that produce foodstuff.

Teacher: They are important that is why we have farmers' day. That's good.

Teacher: Yes, your turn, boys!!!

Boys: Doctors make sure that the environment is clean.

Teacher: Is it doctors who do that?, is it doctors who do that? Repetition.

Girls: No oooo!!

Teacher: But whose job?

Boys: Yes it is the doctors who teach the farmers how to clean the environment.

Teacher: No, is the work of those we call, town counselors.....

We see from the extract that the teacher repeated this question as whether it was doctors who ensure environmental cleanliness and this question led to laughter by the general class. This laughter was loud that the background became noisy. It has

been well established that repetition of responses as well as redirection of responses given and total deviation from the norm or rules governing the class discussion cause noise and communication breakdown if not repaired. From the analysis, it was obvious that delay in responses by the participant was also identified as one of the causes of noisy background and communicative breakdown as well.

4.3 Conclusion

According to Lynch (1996), groupwork is more likely to lead to negotiation of meaning than interaction with the teacher. Groupwork in this sense allows feedback to arise from students as they correct one another's feedback. Student interactions improve development of classroom inclusiveness, for example, enabling and nurturing quiet and or shy students to take more part in classroom interaction (Suhaili & Haywood, 2017). Interactions among students actively construct skills and knowledge (Scrivener, 2005). Social relationships among participants are also established in the course of interaction. Therefore, teachers should encourage active participation in classroom interaction practices. Student interaction is "a powerful way to reinforce what have been learned" (Naegle, 2002, p.128). Student-to-student interaction arises in peer interaction or group interaction in order to exercise language input and getting feedback when they correct one another or when they ask questions (Mackey, 2007). In interacting with fellows, such students usually experience little amount of pressure in participation and they are usually more contented "learners who will establish social relationship through this kind of interaction, where the sense of learning community is promoted and isolation is reduced in the classroom" (Khadidja, 2010, p.16).

Interaction in classroom brings in the concept of negotiation of meaning which entails positive learning resulted from interactions. Negotiation of meaning refers to

interaction practices which arise within two or more participants working with each other to establish a bidirectional comprehension of certain utterance. During negotiation of meaning, a receiver demands a clarification or a confirmation of certain utterance (Pasfield & Neofitou, 2014; Pica, 1994). Long (1996) also describes three conversational components of negotiation of meaning: “input modification” such as stressing certain word “semantically contingent responses” such as repeating certain word(s), and “conversational modification” such as clarifying or confirming (p.434). Studies on students’ interaction emphasize interactive discourse among participants where negotiation of meaning is considered vital. Students’ linguistic output should be made straightforward to class; therefore, other students can participate in interaction. In case comprehension is lost, several adjustment processes can be employed to straighten out interaction, such as simplification and accommodation.

In conclusion, there was management of authority by the teachers as they implemented the strategies in asking students questions, eliciting student answers and giving feedback, by which the teacher can maintain control over the topic and student contributions in the language class discussion. Therefore, it is established that teachers in the Jomoro Municipality adopt turn-taking, topic management, opening, closing, repetition, and insertion sequences as the interaction strategies during their discussion processes. In addition, these strategies were used for the functions of form-focused correction, effective class control, clarification, alerting students, and for repair.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENNDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

In everyday life, interactions that exist between humans are inevitable and cannot be overlooked. Teaching and learning can never be effective without interaction. Classroom interaction usually involves a lot of discourse. Classroom discourse describes what happens in the classroom. It is a form of discourse which falls within language classrooms, specifically, verbal routines in classroom (Behnam & Pouriran, 2009). Classroom discourse includes features such as modes of interactions, teacher talk, and unequal power relations. Classroom discourse, according to Clark and Clark (2008), is an intricate sociocultural process that involves techniques of meaning construction in the development of students' social identities. Teachers in classrooms have a dominant role as they control the learning objectives, styles and activities. This role of teachers affects short and/or long-term learning of students (Kurhila, 2004). Therefore, it is of major importance to consider the role and communication of teachers in the classroom. The main findings of this study are based on the research questions: (1) what strategies do teachers and students in Jomoro Municipality adopt for effective interaction in the ESL classroom?, and (2) what functions do these strategies perform in ensuring smooth interaction in the ESL classroom?

5.1 Summary of findings

In the first place, it was established that interaction strategies employed in the discussion processes played key role in the English language classroom. To answer the first research question, it was revealed that the major interaction strategies employed are turn taking, topic management, as well as opening and closing. The

analysis showed that the teachers and their students make use of turn taking as one of the vital strategic mechanism in the language classroom. Turn is the successive course, opportunity enjoyed by alternation with another or with others in due order or appropriate time. This finding suggests that the teachers and students interacted in turns during the discussion process where they followed the principle of adjacency pair. This is where we have the first pair part being “the teacher” and the second pair part being “Clement” found in the turn taking when they were having discussions on the topic “prepositions”. This is in affirmation of the existing literature on adjacency pairs in conversation.

Interaction basically involves two interlocutors where we have an adjacency pairs. Adjacency pairs are a basic feature of conversation analysis that is very important for conversation openings and closings, as they are used in both of them. They can be characterised as paired utterances that are divided into a first pair part and a second pair part. The speaker who produces the first pair part selects the type of the second pair part. Basic rules for the production of adjacency pairs by Schegloff and Sacks(1973), states the recognizable production of a first pair part, at its possible completion, where the speaker should stop for a next speaker to start, and should produce a second pair part of the same type and this was also obeyed during their interactions. Adjacency pairs are typed and a certain first pair part requires a certain second pair part and this finding illustrates what Schegloff (1973) and Levinson (1983) declared in their studies.

Another finding from the study was the use of initiation-response-feedback (IRF) as another turn taking strategy employed in the ESL classroom. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), the teacher initiates questions, followed by pupils’ response and then followed by teacher’s feedback during classroom. Again, there

were instances where participants overlapped in their production of utterances. The students were anxious to give response even where the teacher being the initiator has not called them and in the course of this, students produced chorus responses. Langford (1994;93) argues that, it is an overlap when the overlapper can predict what is going to be said next or when she or he believes that the other speaker has reached a turn transition point. Overlapping is having something in common with or coinciding with. Overlapping utterances are marked to show which part of the speaker's utterances occurs simultaneously. This was actually displayed during turn taking.

According to Atkinson & Heritage (1986), there is what we call *simultaneous utterances* and that is when two speakers start talking at the same time, where their utterances can be linked together. These findings were also established in this study. Also, there was an instance where participants interrupted their co-speakers in the course of providing their responses. Atkinson & Heritage (1986) again argue that interruption is a situation where one speaker immediately follows the speaker before without any pause between them. This affirms the finding mentioned above. Another finding is that the participants employed in an instructional strategy called topic management. This started with topic initiation and continued with topic shift as Sacks(1971) observed that in a conversation which is progressing well, talk drifts from one topic to another. In their course of interaction, there was also an insertion sequence for topic expansion and interaction extension before finally ending with topic change when they exhausted the facts.

An insertion sequence is a sequence of turns that intervenes between the first and second parts of an adjacency pair (Schegloff, 1972). As every conversation or interaction has an opening as well as closing, so did the students and their teachers. An opening is the act of beginning, commencing, or making first appearance in a

speech; a closing is the final or ending (Labov & Fanshel, 1977). The interlocutors used pauses to indicate a situation where they were lost for words and were yet to think of what to say next. The participants again used repetition as a repair mechanism (Heritage, 2012). In conclusion, the aforementioned strategies were utilized by teachers and their students in the Jomoro Municipality as interaction strategies in the ESL language classroom. In response to the Research Question 2, it was found that the teachers used the interaction strategies for form correction. Also, they were used for effective class control and for clarification during class discussion. Finally, these strategies were equally used to alert participants when the teachers noticed that there was excessive noise which emanated from chorus responses from the participants.

5.2 Importance of interaction in the ESL language classroom

Teacher- student interactions as well as student–student interactions are both vital in the ESL classroom. Students’ and teachers’ interactions are necessary for promoting eloquent interactions. Interaction in classroom is a practice which fosters the advancement of learners’ listening and speaking abilities. The interaction process encompasses two parties. So, it is not only a one-party practice, rather, two or more members sending and receiving utterances to establish a communication practice. Classroom interaction is a “social process of meaning-making and interpreting, and the educational value of interaction, grows out of developing and elaborating interaction as a social process” (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009, p. 39).

Classroom interaction is relevant since it is used to ask and answer questions, to take decisions about the learning process, to participate in discussions, to initiate conversations and for participants to contribute more to the learning process. It is proven in literature that classroom interaction is fluid and dynamic (Seedhouse,

2011). Classroom talk and interaction are “the collection and representation of socio-instructional practices that portray the emergence of teaching and learning of a new language through teachers’ and students’ co-construction of understanding and knowledge in and through the use of language-ininteraction” (Sert, 2015, p. 9).

Accordingly, facilitating interactions among participants represents effectiveness for promoting learner character in students, and promoting learning responsibilities through taking active part in learning processes. The process in which students interact and negotiate comprehension with one another is referred to as negotiation of meaning. Negotiation of meaning is vital to foreign and second language development as negotiation encourages understanding and positive interaction among students (Abbuhl, 2011; Blake, 2000). Classroom interaction promotes precision, accuracy, and inspires self-repair. Therefore, opportunities must be granted to students in the classroom for interacting, asking questions, asking for and giving feedback and speaking their mind. According to Oradee (2012), teachers should design interactive environments for learning where students have the chance to use language and interaction to negotiate meaning. Students must be made active partakers in the process of interaction within the classroom as it results in the development of language. Also, performance among language learners is not only directed to proficiency, but also to regularity of negotiation practices that the students involve in.

Classroom interaction advances students’ output to higher levels (Sommat, 2007). Within students’ interaction, retentiveness of adjustments shows that negotiation of meaning has occurred and this contributes to language learning. Such positive adjustment is an indicator that learning has taken place. Teaching is interactive act, whereas interaction is the communication among teacher and students which run

continuously as responsive acts. Tickoo (2009) notes that in classroom interaction and classroom activities, classroom interaction gives way for attending to learners' linguistic level, and implementing cooperative learning. This is because working cooperatively can help in the development of learners' social skills. Cooperative learning means that every member of the group is included and differences among group member are resolved by the group members. Building positive teacher-learner rapport and mutual respect between teacher and learners is an essential part of education. It also helps in reducing classroom anxiety. The teacher helps the learners to boost their self-esteem and self-confidence and create comfortable and non-threatening environment throughout the discussion processes when engaged in meaningful interaction.

5.3 Pedagogical implications

A fundamental concept underlying language learning is interaction; the language teacher is only a part of the social group that provides the context for interaction. Within interaction, it is the social setting provided by learners', peers, mentors, friends, and teachers. This gives the learners the opportunity to be active participants in a holistic learning process. Language learning involves hypothesizing about a particular language rule, and in doing that, the learner falls back on all available resources, including the L1, the social milieu, general cognitive strategies, and classroom language exposure. In this situation, any opportunity to hypothesize is within the classroom, which falls short of providing learners with enough exposure to conversational English.

Interaction seems so desirable and sensible in theory but we all know that actually promoting and increasing it can be an uphill struggle. It is true that some learners are not enthusiastic about pair and group work, particularly in mono-lingual

classes in which it is a little unnatural to communicate to someone who speaks your language in a language you are both less proficient in. Another factor is large classes: theoretically, the more students in a class, the more possibilities for interaction there should be, this is not the case in practice. The more learners there are the more difficult developing interaction can be since there are more people to monitor. Lack of motivation can as well, demoralize learners if those learners have no need to interact or do not want to, they probably would not. Perhaps, the most common reason interactions in English breaking down, or indeed not start in the first place, is that insufficient language can hinder the students' language development if they do not have the language they need to interact and, therefore, complete the task successfully. The impact on teaching, in short, is manifested in two ways: the teaching materials and classroom routines, which are manifested in interaction between the teacher and the student.

5.4 Suggestions for future research

This research was conducted in Jomoro Municipality but it does not include all the schools in the Jomoro Municipality. This research was limited to only selected schools in the Municipality. Future research might examine all the schools in the Jomoro Municipality in order to arrive at an exhaustive conclusion. Another area where future research can also embark on is to extend the research to other districts of the Nzema State since Jomoro is only one of them. This will help in bringing out the similarities and differences in the instructional strategies that are employed in their teaching and learning processes. Another area of interest where future research can be conducted is a comparative study of socio-pragmatic analysis of interaction in the ESL classroom in the Jomoro Municipality.

5.5 Conclusion

Classroom interaction drives the teaching and learning process. It involves teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction. Group and pair activities are useful for the negotiation of meaning. Such activities give students active roles in classroom interactive discourse, for example, initiating, responding to, and ending dialogues. Interactions in the ESL classroom control opportunities of learning which students receive. Both students and teachers contribute to the management of classroom interaction as well as management of opportunities to learn. Classroom interaction has helped in finding effective ways of preparing L2 teachers, evaluating teaching, studying the relationship between teaching and learning, and promoting teachers' awareness of their teaching and consequently improving it.

Classroom interaction, according to Allwright and Bailey (1991), furnishes “input, practice opportunities, and receptivity” (p.25). Therefore, it is significant to teaching and learning. Teachers should be flexible and allow possibilities of student-to-student and student-to-teacher interactions. Also, teachers should not have a dominant role in class; they should actively engage students in classroom interaction (River, 1987). Classroom interactions offer students the chance to integrate target language structures into what they produce. Interactions awaken students’ instinct to respond to and participate in interactions whether or not proficiency is necessary for tasks or activities being negotiated. Therefore, the success of any event in the classroom is highly dependent on the construction of communication between and among teachers and students (Daniels, 2001).

Wellington and Osborn (2001) mark language in classroom as most important and having many roles such as aesthetic, mental, educational, and communicative. Language plays an important role in verbal class interactions as well as allowing

students to think, reason, and negotiate classroom content. Language boosts exchanges of talk and advances learners' competencies and performance. According to Walsh (2006), interactions are "context shaped and context renewing" (p.50). In other words, participants in interaction depend on context and remodeling of context for invoking their identities and actions. Also, context here is considered "a product and a project of participants' actions" (Heritage, 2004, p.224). It is therefore significant that teachers engage their students in classroom interaction.



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APPEDICES

CLASSROOM DISCUSSION INTERACTION

Extract 1.

Teacher: Idiom, what is an idiom?

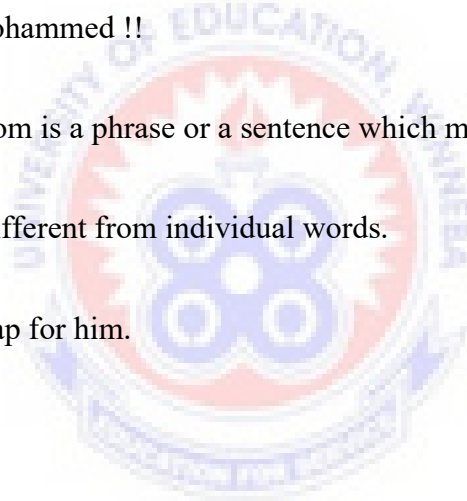
What is an idiom? (Repetition)

Mohammed: Idiom is an a phlase or a sentence with a meaning
difference from individual words.(.....) pause and laughter)

Teacher: Mohammed !!

Mohammed: Idiom is a phrase or a sentence which meaning is
different from individual words.

Teacher: Clap for him.



Extract 2.

Teacher: Let's try and give examples and their meaning.

Teacher: Ruth!

Ruth: To turn over a new leaf.

Teacher: Come again!

Ruth: To turn over a new leaf.

Teacher: To turn over a new leaf, what is the meaning?

Ruth: To change for the “butter”.

Teacher: To change for the “better” (Teacher did correction on the Pronunciation of the word “butter” produced by Ruth).

Teacher: Clap for her!! (clapping – feedback technique)

Extract 3.

Teacher: Yes!!

(Teacher pointing at student):

Student: To eat one’s word.

Teacher: What’s the meaning?

Student: To “apologies”.

Teacher: Yes! , to apologize.

Teacher: Again!!!

(Students): To apologize. (chorus answer after the teacher’s correction).

Extract 4.

Teacher: Nao!

Nao: To let the cat out of the bag.

Teacher: To let the cat out of the bag means?

Nao: To “rival” the secret.

Teacher: To “review” the secret. (Wrong pronunciation of the word “reveal” by both student and teacher).

Teacher: Clap for her.

Extract 5.

Teacher: Let’s take the last one. Clement!

Clement: To make ends meet.

Teacher: To make ends meet, to what?

Clement: To get enough for just one’s need.

Teacher: Clap for yourselves. (students clapped).

Teacher: Okay, that’s good.

Extract 6

Teacher initiates the discussion through questioning and answering.

Teacher: what do you mean by preposition before we move on to complex preposition.

Teacher: what do we mean??.,when we say a preposition.

Teacher: yes, Stephen.

Stephen: a preposition is

Teacher: open your mouth.

Stephen: a preposition is a word that shows.....

Teacher: Come again!

Stephen: a preposition is a word that shows the relationship of a noun and
another noun.

Teacher: Clap for him.

Students: (clapped).

Extract 7

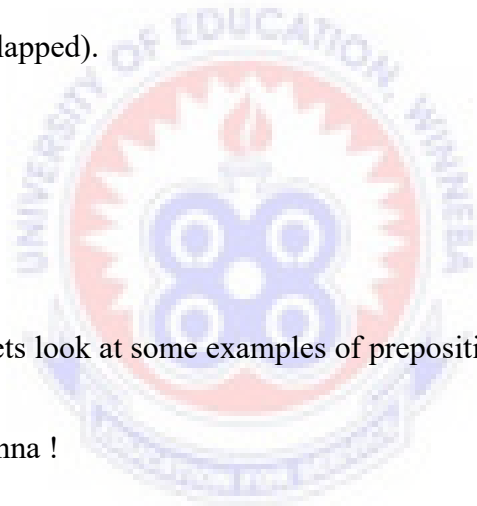
Teacher: Lets look at some examples of prepositions.

Teacher: Anna !

Anna: on!

Teacher: Clap for her.

Students: (clapped).



Extract 8

Teacher: what again?

Teacher: Yes!!

Student: behind

Teacher: behind, Clap for her.

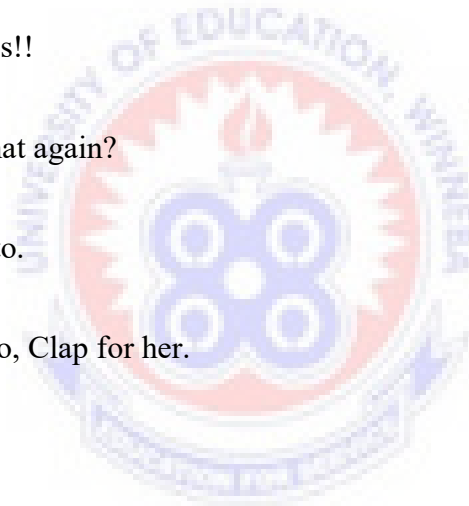
Extract 9

Teacher: Yes!!

Teacher: what again?

Augustina: unto.

Teacher: unto, Clap for her.



Extract 10

Teacher: now let put some of the examples of the preposition into an illustration.

Teacher: it means, to put it in a sentence. (clarification)

Teacher: Yes!!

Student: the book was on the table.

Teacher: the book was on the table, clap for her.

Students: (clapped).

Extract 11

Teacher: then lets talk about(endless statement)

Teacher: what is a complex preposition, what is a complex preposition?

Teacher: Yes!!

Student: they are the words that made up two or more..... (pause)

students laughed excessively thereby creating noise in the class.

Teacher: yes again?

Student: they are the words that made up two or more nouns.

Teacher: is it true?

. Student: no sir.

Teacher: yes, Ezam.

Ezam: these are preposition made up of two or more prepositions with nouns.

Teacher: these are preposition made up of two or more prepositions with
nouns.

Teacher: clap for the two of them.

Extract 12

Teacher: let's look at examples of complex preposition.

Students: sir , sir sir ,.....

Teacher: Belinda

Belinda: because of

Teacher: yes !!!!

Student: in front of

Teacher: clap for him

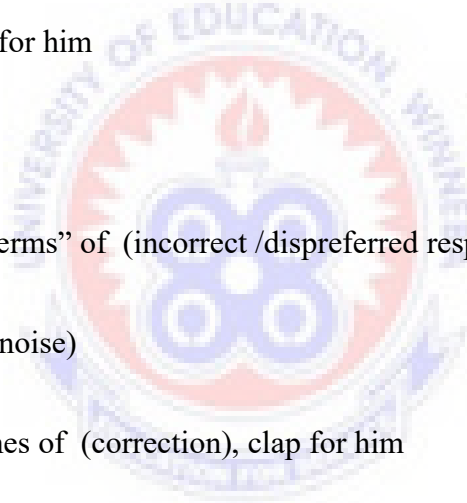
Teacher: Joe

Joe: in "terms" of (incorrect /dispreferred response leading to laughter
and noise)

Teacher: in times of (correction), clap for him

Student: on top of

Teacher: on top of , clap for him



Extract 13

Teacher: last one

Students: sir, sir ,sir,.....(students murmuring, giving chorus answers, there was overlapping, interruption and latching)

Student A: as part of

B: has part of

C: in spite of

D: despite of

Teacher: in spite of, good, clap for yourselves

Extract 14

Teacher: sssssssssssss..... (/ s /, a technique for class control to make students keep quiet and pay attention)

Teacher: let's look at exampleserhtypes of complex Prepositions

Teacher: we said we have as many as three main types no four main types of complex prepositions, we said we have

Students: sir ,sir ,sir ,sir call me (this sir ,sir,...created noise even when students hands were still up)

Extract 15

Teacher: yes !!!!!!!!!!!!!!!

Student: compound prepositions

Teacher: compound prepositions, clap for her

Students: (clapped)

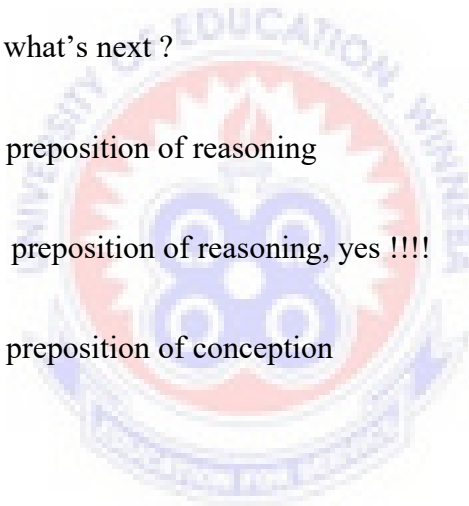
Extract 15

Teacher: what's next ?

Student: preposition of reasoning

Teacher: preposition of reasoning, yes !!!!

Student: preposition of conception



Extract 16

Teacher: yes , the next one

Student: preposition of result

Teacher: the last o---ne----

Student: preposition of time

Teacher: preposition of time ,clap for yourselves

Students: (clapped)

Extract 17.

Teacher: good

Teacher: lets try to give examples under each of the types of preposition you have made mentioned

Teacher: who can give me example of preposition of time? ,yes !!!

Student: after

Teacher: after , clap for her

Extract 18

Teacher: yes!!!!!!!!!!!!!!

Student: before

Teacher: before ,clap for her.

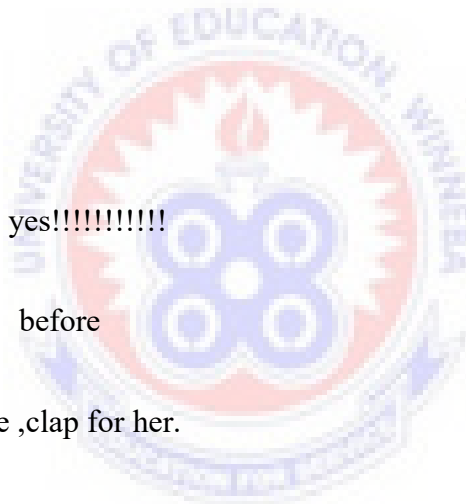
Teacher: yes !!!!!

Student: in times of

Teacher: in times of ,yes !!!, the last one?

Student: since

Teacher: since , clap for yourselves



Extract 19.

Teacher: let's look at example of preposition of conception, preposition of conception. Or you can put it in an illustration or you can put a sentence.

Extract 20

Teacher: yes!!!!

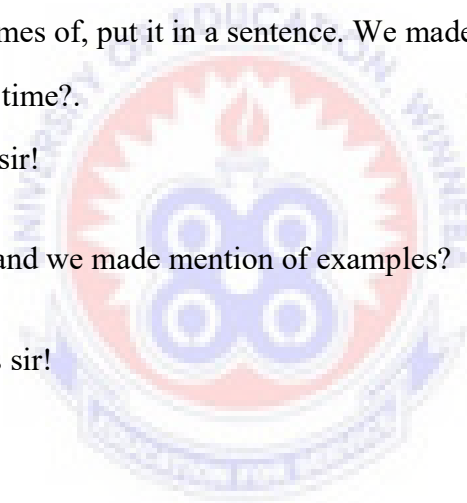
Student: in times of

Teacher: in times of, put it in a sentence. We made mention of preposition of time?.

Student: yes sir!

Teacher: ok, and we made mention of examples?

Students: yes sir!



Extract 21

Teacher: let's look at those examples in an illustration.

Teacher: yes,(pointing at a student).

Student: I was sick during the celebration.

Teacher: I was sick during the celebration, clap for her.

Teacher: yes!!!!

Student: I have been in Ghana since eight years.

Teacher: let's look at preposition of results.

Student: you couldn't come as a result of the accident.

Teacher: in fact you have done well.

Students: yes sir!

Teacher: I gave you an assignment?

Students: yes sir! (chorus)

Extract 22:

The debate was between boys and girls. The groups will be represented by capital B and G for Boys and Girls respectively. The initiator or the teacher will also be represented by T.

T. –doctors and farmers, who are more important.

T.-boys are for doctors while girls are for farmers.

T.- Yes! Guys, let go on.

G. –They are the ones that produce foodstuff.

T.- They are important that is why we have farmers day. That's good.

Extract 23

T.- Yes, your turn, boys !!!

B.- Doctors make sure that the environment is clean.

T.-Is it doctors who do that?, is it doctors who do that ? Repetition.

G- No oooo!!

T- But whose job?

B- yes it is the doctors who teach the farmers how to clean the environment.

T- no , is the work of those we call, town counselors.....

Extract 24

Student C : what do you think of the just ended storm?

Student D: its really frightening.

Student C: frightening you say?

Student D: yes !

Student C: I think its rather normal.

Student D: no !, this is not normal at all.

Student C: sure?

