

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

INTERRUPTION AND OVERLAP: AN ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM DISCOURSE



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INTERRUPTION AND OVERLAP: AN ANALYSIS OF CLASSROOM
DISCOURSE

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DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, **ISAAC OWUSU NYARKO** do hereby 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

I 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 LOMOTEY**

SIGNATURE:.....

DATE:.....

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Oforiwaa and Nkunim, my children and to my wife, Leticia Essilfie for the joy they have brought into my life. Dr. Fofu Lomotey, I owe you everything. May God grant you more years to see the success of your handy work.



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ABSTRACT

This study sought to analyse all instances of simultaneous talk in classroom discourse. The study specifically ascertained the kind of interruptions and overlaps that occurred in the classroom discourse, determined the functions of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse and examined the effects of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse. The researcher adopted the qualitative research approach and case study design. The target population of this study constituted Junior High School (JHS) pupils from Bediako Memorial Institute, Gateway School Complex and Jonasu Academy in Kasoa, a town in the Central Region of Ghana. The researcher utilised recorded classroom lessons to form the basis for the qualitative analysis. The result showed that interruptions such as silent interruptions, butting-in interruption, simple interruption as kinds of interruptions while choral overlap, transitional overlap, conditional access to the turn as the kinds of overlap that occurred in the classroom. The study revealed that topic repair, topic shift, means of showing power, means of showing interest topics under discussion are the major functions of interruptions and overlap in the classroom discourse. The study again revealed that interruptions and overlaps functioned as a signal of solidarity, unity and cohesion in the classroom discourse. On effect, understanding of subject matter and consistency and coherence are the result of interruptions and overlap in the classroom discourse. Based on these, it is argued that interruptions and overlaps in classroom discourse are key elements that foster understanding between teachers and students in the classroom.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Levinson (1983) describes a conversation as that familiar prominent kind of talk in which two or more participants freely alternate in speaking which generally occurs outside specific institutional settings like religious services, law courts, classrooms and the like. This explanation reveals certain fundamental issues in a conversation. One of such fundamental issues is that conversation can be used to define formality and informality between and among people. In every conversation, there are inherent markers that show these relationships. These markers sometimes create an inherent challenge in investigating any elements of interpersonal communication: turns, pauses, overlapping, signaling, back cues, face, politeness, footing, hedging, and interruption. This challenge lies in the fact that conversation, as compared to written discourse, is “often even less planned and orderly” (Cook, 1989, p. 34).

Levinson suggests that conversation typically occurs outside institutional settings. This is possible because conversation can take place in any setting except when that setting is formally structured to exclude such. For example, when a priest decides to involve his congregation in his sermon, the sermon becomes conversation-like and as a result ceases to be formal. Here, the members of the congregation are free to talk in turns with the priest. In the same way, a president may decide to engage his/her citizens in an informal conversation in an attempt to come down to the people and to understand their plight better. Likewise, a teacher may adopt an informal or experiential way of teaching

where he may involve the pupils as much as possible. However, analysts believe that this unplanned disorder is only on the surface (Cook, 1989). Littlejohn (1996, p. 6) writes in this respect that “even when they appear sloppy on the surface, there is an underlying organization to all coherent talk, and the participants themselves create it as they go along”. In normal day-to-day conversations, there seems to be an unwritten rule that one person is to talk at a time and that other participants should wait until the speaker has finished his/her turn (Sacks, 2004). The underlining fact of this rule is obvious: to avoid simultaneous talk, that is, to prevent two or more interlocutors from talking at the same time, which might create a conventional chaos. Waiting to take the turn or to avoid interruptions or overlaps appears to be therefore very important in conversations.

The act of taking turns (turn-taking) operates in accordance with a local management system that is conventionally known by members of a social group. In this way, Mey (2001) compares turn-taking to traffic rules. Mey (2001, p. 138) indicates that the main purpose of conversational structure is to keep the flow of conversation going and to avoid conversational “accidents” and traffic jams”. He adds that there is an accepted fact that without any kind of traffic rules, accidents and traffic jams will occur and road users will find it difficult making good use of our roads. That is why in conversation, the local management is essential, as this convention helps to get a turn, keep it, or give it away. Just as road users need the „traffic light/signal“ to move easily, the local management system is needed most especially where there is a possible change in who has the turn. This point is called a transition relevance place (TRP). As Flowerdew (2013) indicates, a TRP is a point in a conversation in which a change of speakership is possible. The local conventions help to change turns smoothly and take

turns at an appropriate transition relevance places. According to the Communication Accommodation Theory, (Giles & Smith, 1979), the strategies of synchronization and accommodation consist of a broad range of linguistic and non-linguistic signals that allow the parties to adapt to each other's communicational acts and pace in a converging and diverging way, ensuring that communicational exchanges are harmonic.

However, in an attempt to take turns, some speakers compete or *fight* to keep the floor and prevent others from getting it. If parties do not share the transitional relevance place or point, turn-taking would not be harmonious and the parties will find themselves talking at the same time (simultaneously). That is, the listener or hearer may interrupt the current speaker and overlapping talk will occur. Bazzanella (1994) cited in Maroni, Gnisci & Pontecorvo (2008, p. 61) identifies three structural variables that should be considered in order to examine interruptions. They are simultaneous discourse overlapping, first speaker's turn completion, and the turn obtainment by the person who interrupts the conversation. Other aspects that should be taken into consideration in order to categorize „non-soft“ transitions are the purpose that interruptions serve and the reason for which they occur, as well as the type of the linguistic act and the content of the very interruption, interpersonal relationships that are created and altered in the course of interaction, and the social and psychological position of superiority of the interlocutors (Maroni, et al 2008).

On the effect of interruptions, Zimmerman and West (1983) argue that interruptions have the potential to disrupt turns at talk, disorganize the ongoing construction of conversational topics, and violate the current speaker's right to be engaged in speaking. Orletti (2000) indicates that some turn-taking facet gains special

importance within the school characterized by asymmetrical or irregular interactive roles and the distinctive sequence teacher's initiation, student's response, and teacher's feedback (IRF). Classroom interaction is an interaction where "the participants do not accomplish the equality of communicative right but differentiate for unequal access to the power of managing interaction" (Orletti, 2000, p. 12). The classroom ideally shows asymmetrical interaction where the teacher not only assigns or distributes speaking turns but also commands thematic organization in contrast to the way equal conversation is led (Sacks, 2004; Gumperz, 2012).

The special sequence in the three phases of class interaction, according to Sinclair & Coulthard (1975), allows to identify the different or specific roles teachers and students play in the conversation. In most cases, the teacher starts with a question that can be directed to a particular student or any student who wants to respond. A student responds and the teacher takes turn again, assessing the student's response and or allocating the next turn (Fasulo & Pontecorvo, 1999). This consistent sequence in all classroom interactions (Sacks, 2004) is not always followed. There are possible occurrences of overlaps and interruptions in classroom discourse. It is important therefore to pay attention to these interruptions and overlaps that may occur in the classroom. It is against this background that this study seeks to analyse the kinds of interruptions and overlaps that occur in classroom interaction to ascertain their functions and effects.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Communication is very crucial to our existence: human beings use it to solve a need. Hence, interlocutors should be able to use the correct sounds and speech intelligibly

in order to facilitate the understanding of the message and to give back the appropriate response for purposes of effective communication (achievement of desired goals). In discourse, interlocutors are also expected to organize themselves effectively in terms of taking their turns in the conversation. Naturally, interlocutors are expected to wait for their turns before taking the floor. This turn-taking normally happens at a TRP and failure to wait for one's turn leads to the interruption of the discourse which may be a barrier to effective communication. A review of literature shows, however, that there has been a general agreement among Pragmaticians and sociolinguists, including Sacks (1974), Zimmerman & West (1983) and Ford & Thompson (1996), that the normal flow of discourse between and among persons has not been followed. There are cases of interruptions and overlaps in our interactions today.

Clearly, our TV and radio discourses are characterized by series of interruptions that affect effective communication. Sadly, this trend of communication is gradually creeping into the classroom where effective communication is crucial. In most classrooms of private schools in Ghana today, communication is plagued with series of interruptions from both teachers and students. This is because there is less control of teachers and more autonomy of students. As a result of this, students are mostly able to enter the floor with or without any permission from the teacher even though it is the teacher who usually controls turn allocation and this results in interruption and overlap (Ford & Thompson, 1996). Majority of our teachers who are expected to regulate discourse in the classroom are unable to do so in spite of the effect this tendency may cause to their teaching and learning processes (Maroni et al, 2008). In fact, this situation affects both the teacher and the student. Most teachers think that interruption and overlap

are disruptive to the teaching and learning. On the part of the teacher, he will be stressed in the delivery of his lesson. Again, the teacher may lose focus and might repeat himself, and the lesson will also be prolonged. On the part of students, they may lose focus on the lesson, especially, when such interruptions have little or nothing to do with the lesson being taught. That is, such interruptions may divert students' attention from the topic of discussion. The effect is that both the teacher and the students will miss some relevant aspects of the lesson. When this happens, then effective communication has not been achieved.

The effects of interruptions are generally described as negative as users perceive an interrupted conversation as being more difficult to complete than an uninterrupted task (Bailey, Konstan, & Carlis, 2000). Also, an interruption is also thought to take longer to process and return to task when it is unrelated to the task at hand (Cutrell, Czerwinski, & Horvitz, 2001). In addition, memory load seems to make it difficult for a conversation to be resumed when interruptions occur. It also becomes difficult to remember what idea was being processed before the interruption. In spite of these effects of interruptions, previous works on conversation analysis have tended to focus on the analysis of conversational strategies and style and pragmatic force modifiers in classroom interruptions (Maroni, Gnisci & Pontecorv, 2008). Other studies have also limited themselves to conversational differences between and among people (Snech, 1987) while others have mainly focused on conversation structure and interactional shift (Kärkkäinen, 1991; Nikula, 1995, 1996; Zimmerman & Candace, 1975). Others have looked at code switching (Yevudey, 2013), rhythm and prominence (Osei-Bonsu, 2016), and discourse markers (Apraku, 2017). None of these studies was situated in the classroom to

investigate classroom discourse vis-a-vis interruptions and overlaps. Very few studies examine classroom discourse including that of Maroni, Gnisci & Pontecorv (2008). But this study does not focus on interruptions and overlaps. Its emphasis is on rhythm and the management of classroom. There is therefore the need of a study that will fill this lacuna by committing itself to the study of interruptions and overlaps in classroom discourse. This study aims to fill this gap.

The researcher, thus, based on the stated effects of interruptions and overlaps as indicated by (Bailey, Konstan, & Carlis, 2000), and knowing that classroom discourse must be regulated in a manner that is effective, intends to critically analyse interruptions and overlaps in the classroom using conversation analytical ideas of Sacks and Jefferson. This is in combination with the qualitative research approach and case study design (with specific reference to Bediako Memorial Institute, Jonasu Academy and Gateway School Complex in Kasoa) to find out the kinds of interruptions and overlaps that emerge in classroom discourse, the functions of these interruptions and overlaps, and to determine the effects of these interruptions and overlaps in classroom work (lesson). In doing so, better understanding of the role of interruptions and overlaps in classroom discourse will emerge. Again, by using qualitative approach, the researcher is sure of presenting a detailed description of the classroom situation. Sacks (2004), believes that anyone seeking to analyse any form of conversation, the best approach and design are qualitative and case study respectively.

1.3 Research Objectives

This research seeks to analyse all instances of simultaneous talk in the classroom to:

- I. examine the kinds of interruptions and overlaps that occur in the classroom;
- II. determine the functions of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom;
- III. investigate the effects of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom.

1.4 Research Questions

This research is intended to answer the following questions:

1. What kinds of interruptions and overlaps occur in lesson delivery in the schools?
2. What are the functions of interruptions and overlaps in lesson delivery in the schools?
3. What are the effects of interruptions and overlaps in lesson delivery in the schools?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The importance that education offers to the general public has created special attention to the education sector. The society seeks nothing but quality education, which involves the total being of the individual. It is therefore relevant that the quality of interaction or conversation in the classroom, which is the root of this quality, be examined. By investigating classroom discourse, this study contributes some new knowledge to existing research on conversation analysis in the classroom. It also serves as a basis for further research, not only in the area of classroom discourse but also any

field where communication is very crucial. Additionally, this study is important to communicators or conversationalists, as it educates them on conversational strategies. Finally, the study benefits the teacher, students and the general public in diverse ways. The teacher will benefit from the knowledge of how classroom discussion should be regulated to facilitate teaching and learning since he is the facilitator of the discussion. This way, the teacher is aided to choose appropriate strategies to manage classroom interactions effectively. The study helps students to be aware of how they should behave in classroom interactions in relation to turn-taking and holding the floor.

1.6 Organisation of Chapters

The rest of the thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 offers a review of related literature. It is dedicated to exploring the approach as well as other empirical studies relevant to the study. The conceptual review is done to offer a framework that guides the analysis. The chapter also discusses some key concepts that are related to the study. Unlike the approach, the literature review of empirical studies analyses previous works and attempts to show how related or different the studies are to the current study. The methodology this study adopts is discussed in Chapter 3. Here, the research design used, how data were gathered, means of sampling and procedures involved in analysis are discussed. Chapter 4 is dedicated to the discussion of results. The discussion is carried out in relation to the research questions formulated in Chapter 1. The final chapter, Chapter 5, provides a conclusion for the entire study. It first summarizes the findings of the study and then highlights conclusions drawn based on the findings. The Chapter also makes recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, an introduction to the research work was set out. This chapter reviews literature to give an authoritative backing to the research work. The chapter is divided into four main parts. The first part focuses on Conversation Analysis (CA) as an approach to the analysis of discourse, and Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson (1974) views on CA are discussed. Criticisms of CA, its application in teaching and learning, and its relation with language learning are also discussed in this chapter. Conversation Analysis has also been compared to other theories in Discourse Analysis. The second part presents a discussion of turn-taking, which according to Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson (1974), is the central focus of CA. The third part discusses the strategies employed in turn-taking. Based on the transition relevance place (TRP), two main strategies have been established: interruption and overlap. Roger and Smith (1988) classify interruption into successful and unsuccessful whereas Ferguson (1977) identifies supportive and cooperative as the main classifications of interruption while French and Local (1983) further categorize them into competitive and non-competitive. Schegloff (1987) provides a clear distinction between interruption and overlap. The role of interruption and overlap in classroom turn-taking is also established. The final part of this chapter has reviewed previous research work on interruption and overlap. These include Kärkkäinen (1991),

Nikula (1995, 1996), Sneh (1987), Zimmerman and Candace (1975) and Moroni, Gnisci & Pontecorvo (2008).

2.1 Theoretical Framework: Conversation Analysis Approach

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, Harvey Sacks, and his close associates, Emmanuel Schegloff and Gail 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 parse as its primary object of study. Rather, Conversation Analysis 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.

Conversation Analysis is an approach to the study of social interaction embracing 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.

2.1.1 Criticism of Conversation Analysis

This section of the review concentrates on a criticism of the concept of conversation analysis (henceforth CA). Conversation analysis has suffered many criticisms, ranging from its theoretical concepts to methodological issues. One of the criticisms leveled against CA is the difficulty of doing conversation analysis. According to Wilkinson & Kitzinger (2008), one of the challenges to CA is the difficulty of doing it. Wilkinson and Kitzinger (2008) describe this challenge as follows:

CA work is extremely demanding of the researcher. It is very time-consuming and labour intensive – from initial transcription (which is a pre-requisite for analysis), through the various phases of analysis itself. It is also extremely complicated, and requires extensive training in concepts and techniques before it can be used effectively. (p. 69)

The position of Wilkinson & Kitzinger (2008) is a clear indication that works that are situated in conversation analysis are difficult to do. In this study, the researcher also encountered a similar challenge. For example, the transcription of the data was a daunting task and at the same time, time-consuming. Conversation analysis needs a lot of attention

and this is likely to cause delays in such studies. The researcher had to undergo training on how to do the transcriptions and this needed a lot of time. In terms of the analysis, analysing large data is a complex activity. From a theoretical perspective, CA has been critiqued on a number of counts. First, it has been criticized for its lack of systematicity (Seedhouse, 2004). There is no finite set of adjacency pairs and there is no set of criteria for recognising them.

In addition, CA is not a quantitative approach (for the most part). There is no way of comparing the relative frequencies of the various units of analysis (Watzlawick, Beaven & Jackson, 1967). Furthermore, CA has been criticised for its failure to take account of context or the psychological motivation of the participants in turn-taking, as is the case in alternative theories, such as Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) or ethnography (Watzlawick et al, 1967). Based on these criticisms, there have been various calls to combine CA with other social research methodologies, such as CDA or ethnography (for example, Sidnell & Tanya, 2012).

Notwithstanding these critiques, CA offers a theory and methodology which allow us to understand clearly how talk is used in interaction in both everyday and institutional practices (Flowerdew, 2013). It offers a clear and replicable methodology and a body of research findings against which ongoing studies can be bench-marked. Specifically regarding foreign and second language learning contexts, contrastive work offers the possibility of highlighting differences in how talk is organised across cultures, with its potential for feeding into syllabus and materials design (Flowerdew, 2013). More broadly, CA offers a powerful model of talk which can serve as a target for learning and for understanding and intervening in classroom interaction (Flowerdew, 2013).

2.1.2 Conversation Analysis in Teaching and Learning

Research has shown that conversation analysis provides an avenue for teaching and learning, especially second language learners' classroom situations. Flowerdew (2013) is of the view that an appreciation of the principles and practices of CA can develop awareness on the part of teachers of the nature of talk, which is the target of the teaching of speaking and listening skills in both first and second language contexts. More than this, though, in its focus on what Heritage and Atkinson, 1984 (cited in Kasper, 2006, p. 86) refer to as "the competences that ordinary speakers use and rely on in participating in intelligible, socially organized interaction", CA provides a goal for teaching and learning. This kind of competence has been referred to as „interactional competence“. They maintain that familiarity with the typical wordings of certain types of turn, to take another example, can similarly assist in the development of interactional competence. As Wong & Waring (2010, p. 125) put it, "little words and phrases such as „actually“, „anyway“, or „by the way“ carry nuanced interactional meanings". Flowerdew (2013) has indicated that the understanding of the importance of recipient design and the importance of continuers in story-telling is another salient example of how the findings of CA can benefit learners. Wong & Waring (2010) add that awareness of the conventions of topic shift and of repair is similarly invaluable in developing oral proficiency. This shows that CA is important in language acquisition and learning.

Thornbury (2005) indicates that insights from CA can help textbook writers in designing more authentic learning materials. Earlier, Wong (2002) has indicated that too often, textbook dialogues fail to represent what talk is actually like (Wong, 2002, 2007). Wong (2007) further maintains that this is a problem from the very beginning of learning,

where, for example, there is a lot of emphasis on opening a conversation. Conversation analysis has placed a lot of emphasis on examining this crucial stage of spoken interaction. Unfortunately, the findings are too rarely applied by materials designers (Wong, 2007). Wong (2007) is of the view that language teaching materials frequently feature dialogues presented on audio or video together with a transcription. He adds that issues relating to authenticity of dialogues are complex and have been hotly debated. However, in many countries around the world, materials writers continue (for a variety of reasons) to invent dialogues. Wong (2007) indicates that CA is well-positioned to portray the similarities and differences between invented dialogue and naturally-occurring or „authentic“ interaction, both in terms of ordinary conversation and institutional interaction. Wong (2002) provides a very clear example of an application of CA to an area of applied linguistics. She identifies four sequence types which typically occur in American English telephone conversations, namely summons–answer, identification–recognition, greeting and *how are you*, examining the presentation of thirty inauthentic phone conversations in ESL textbooks, Wong (2002, p. 37) finds that the sequences are „absent, incomplete or problematic“. She concludes by saying that CA research findings, such as these sequence types, can be fed into future language teaching materials design.

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 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.

In a similar vein, Seedhouse (2004) presents a model for applying CA findings to the classroom in Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) contexts. The model consists of two stages. In the first stage, a CA description is created of the target interaction. This then forms the basis for the second stage, which applies the description to develop pedagogical methods and materials. Following Gomez & Mauri (2000) and Seedhouse (2004) call for analysis on the part of learners of CA transcripts, arguing that this can have positive effects on students' perception of appropriate and bring them closer to native speaker targets. At the same time, they critique Erickson (1996) for not providing a detailed enough transcript in their article, arguing that the omission of pause length marks, for example, makes the transcript resemble a Pinter play rather than a genuine conversation. For Seedhouse (2004), a detailed transcript is essential if interactional competence is to be the goal and not just pragmatic competence. Seedhouse (2004) argues that for LSP, interactional competence will be specific to each institutional domain, although they add that the same principles can be applied to general purposes language teaching. In LSP, the approach can be to compare transcripts from general and

institutional contexts. Seedhouse (2004) gives the example of Wong (2007), who showed the importance of focusing on particular practices that have been identified by CA as significant in the target domain, in Wong's case the problematic feature of „moving out of closings“, where signaling procedures are essential for successful conversational closure.

Seedhouse (2004) also has specific recommendations for classroom activities with transcripts. Following Burns, Joyce, & Gollin, (1997), they recommend listening and transcription completion exercises for identifying particularly significant interactional features. In addition, transcripts can be the focus of classroom discussion, which might include comparison of successful and less successful interactional features of conversations. Furthermore, Seedhouse (2004) suggests comparing authentic transcriptions with published learning materials and highlighting the reality observable in the authentic data vis-à-vis the inadequacies of the published materials. Another recommended classroom activity is the comparison of L1 and L2 transcripts (Burns et al., 1997). Conversation Analysis clearly has a lot to offer language pedagogy, both in terms of providing goals for learning and in terms of specific classroom practices.

2.1.3 Conversation Analysis and Language learning

A number of studies have examined issues related to language classroom interaction from a CA perspective, revealing subtle interactional practices which transform our perceptions of L2 learners and teachers. Olsher (2004) demonstrates how L2 learners in small group project work may complete sequential actions through gesture or embodied displays. McCarthy (2002) also reveals how teachers use the pedagogical

practice of designedly incomplete utterances in order to initiate self-correction by learners. McCarthy (2002) is of the view that CA can offer an opportunity for learners to self-correct themselves in classroom situations, especially in an L2 situation. This shows the relevance of CA in language learning. Seedhouse (2004) applies CA methodology to an extensive and varied database of language lessons from around the world and attempts to answer the question „How is L2 classroom interaction organised?“ The main argument is that there is a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction in the L2 classroom, and that this relationship is the foundation of its context-free architecture. This relationship means that, as the pedagogical focus varies, so the organisation of the interaction varies. However, this also means that the L2 classroom has its own interactional organisation which transforms intended pedagogy into actual pedagogy. This obviously shows that CA has implications on teaching and learning.

To demonstrate this relationship between CA and learning and teaching, Seedhouse (2004) sketches the basic speech exchange system of four different L2 classroom contexts and portrays the reflexive relationship between the pedagogical focus of the interaction and the organisation of turn-taking and sequence. The study demonstrates clearly that as the pedagogical focus varies, so the organisation of turn and sequence varies. He then describes how repair is organised within different L2 classroom contexts, specifying this in terms of (a) typical participants in the repair, (b) typical repair trajectories, (c) typical types of repair, and (d) typical focus of repair. He shows clearly through his study that there is a reflexive relationship between the pedagogical focus and the organisation of repair; as the pedagogical focus varies, so does the organisation of repair. There is then an illustration of how the interactional organisation can transform

the pedagogical focus by examining a case of preference organisation in relation to repair in form and accuracy contexts.

Seedhouse (2004) has, for example, stressed the dynamic nature of context by exemplifying how the institution of the L2 classroom is talked in and out of being by participants and how teachers create L2 classroom contexts and shift from one context to another. That is for example, as Flowerdew (2013) indicates, a lot of techniques ranging from dialogues, think aloud, story-telling, role play etc. can be used to develop and enhance the teaching in second language classroom situations. Seedhouse (2004) portrays the L2 classroom as a complex, fluid, dynamic and variable interactional environment and provides a concrete example of how CA methodology can be applied to an issue of interest to language teachers and applied linguists. Seedhouse (2004) indicates strongly that in order to understand the relationship between interaction and the process of language learning, it is vital to understand how the interaction is organised. Summarily, it makes a lot of sense to indicate that CA clearly has a lot to offer language pedagogy, both in terms of providing goals for learning and in terms of specific classroom practices.

2.1.4 Conversational Analysis Compared to other Theories

Conversation analysis can be compared with other theoretical frameworks. First, in contrast to the research inspired by Noam Chomsky, which is based on a distinction between competence and performance and dismisses the particulars of actual speech as a degraded form of idealized competence, conversation analysis studies naturally occurring talk and shows that spoken interaction is systematically orderly in all its facets (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984). In contrast to the theory developed by John Gumperz which

emphasises the need not to examine recording alone, conversational analysis maintains that it is possible to analyse talk-in-interaction by examining its recordings alone (audio for telephone, video for face to face or co-present interaction). In effect, conversation analysis researchers do not believe that the researcher needs to consult with the talk participants or members of their speech community in order to interpret the contents of the recording.

Conversation Analysis is distinct from discourse analysis in focus and method: its focus is squarely on processes involved in social interaction and does not include written texts or larger socio-cultural phenomena. Its method, following Garfinkel & Goffman's initiatives, is aimed at determining the methods and resources that interactional participants use and rely on to produce interactional contributions and make sense of the contributions of others. Thus, conversation analysis is neither designed for, nor aimed at, examining the production of interaction from a perspective that is external to the participants' own reasoning and understanding about their circumstances and communication. Rather, the aim is to model the resources and methods by which these understandings are produced. Again, Conversation Analysis differs from Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) in terms of focus. Critical Discourse Analysis has the prime focus of criticising social dimensions of unequal power relations in text and talk. However, Conversation Analysis is committed to processes involved in social interaction. It is important to indicate that both CA and CDA are approaches to discourse analysis. Conversation Analysis can be used as an associated method in CDA to investigate issues of ideological representations in naturally occurring interactions. Speeches can be

recorded and transcribed using CA tools and CDA analysis can be done to analyze issues in CDA.

Conversation analysis can also be compared with speech act theory. In terms of their nature and functions to discourse, Conversation analysis and speech act theory share some similarities. That is, they both view language as „social interaction“ and have the same assumptions about cooperative principles (Grice’s Maxims) and politeness principles. 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.

Again, CA and speech act theory differ in terms of their origin. Conversation analysis originated from humanistic perspective, whereas speech act theory began from philosophy (Flowerdew, 2013). While the role of the speaker’s intention and the

association across utterances are seriously taken into account by speech act theorists, CA does not put much emphasis on the speaker's intention and on the relationship across the utterances as speech act theory. Instead, it focuses on explanation for human behaviour—the social and cultural meanings that speaker and hearer exchange in the process of interaction. And if it puts such emphasis, implications about speaker's intention, linguistic meaning or relationship across utterances must be demonstrated in actual circumstances. Conversation analysis can also be compared with corpus methods in the area of methods of collecting data. They both record data for analysis, however, CA relies heavily on primary data while corpus linguistics can combine both primary and secondary data. This shows that CA is an important approach/theory and method for analysis of text in the field of Discourse Analysis.

2.2 Turn-taking System

The central focus of CA as Sacks et al (1974) propose is turn-taking. In the sections that follow, turn-taking and its strategies are discussed. Turn-taking is one of the basic facts of conversation. In any conversation, speakers and listeners change their roles in order 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 vary in the way they manage their conversation. In ordinary conversation, it is very rare 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). 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). These are as follows:

- a. When the current – speaker selects the next speaker, the next speaker has the right and, at the same time, is obliged to take next turn.
- b. If the current speaker does not select the next speaker, any one of the participants has the right to become the next speaker. This could be regarded as self-selection; and
- c. If neither the current speaker selects the next speaker, nor any of the participants become the next speaker, the current speaker may resume his/her turn.
- d. Back-channel utterances signal the listener’s continued attention, agreement and various emotional reactions to show that she or he is on (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).

2.2.1 Signals in Turn-taking

In the turn-taking system suggested by Sacks (2004), the transfer of a floor occurs at a transition-relevance place (TRP) for any turn. A transition relevance place is regarded as the possible structural completion spot of a one-word lexical phrase, clause, or full sentence (Flowerdew, 2013). However, Sacks (2004) observes that TRP is not

always relevant as a turn-taking place (cf. Hayashi, 1996). In natural conversation, interactants often ignore the rule of the turn construction unit. Hayashi (1996) suggests that the mental strategy that participants adopt when they negotiate and exchange a turn should be investigated in another discussion, a set of six specific and discrete cues are suggested as turn-eliciting signals (Duncan 1972); intonation, drawl, body motion, sociocentric sequences (such as *but uh*, or *something, you know*) pitch or loudness accompanied with sociocentric sequences, and syntax. Other turn-eliciting cues include adjacency pairs (Schegloff & Sacks, 1975) in which the first part uttered by a speaker demands the second part to be uttered by the next speaker so that they form a pair, a silent pause after a grammatically complete utterance which signals completion of a turn (Sidnell & Tanya, 2012), and a question which is generally followed by some kind of response (Orestrom, 1983; Sidnell, 2010). Eye contact also signals turn-taking, especially in British culture; the speaker looks back to the listener in his/her eye at the end of the turn (Cook, 1989).

The specific mechanism for speaker alternation is furnished by an ordered set of rules which are applied recursively to generate the distribution of turns and turn sizes for any actual conversation. In order to simplify this presentation, the operation of the set-rule is figured as a flow diagram of the sequence of decisions involved. The rule set is represented by a vertical array of decision points, with the highest priority decision at the top. For a given transition place within a turn, the highest priority decision is whether or not the current speaker has selected the next speaker. In this sense, the current speaker selects the next speaker by such techniques as addressing him/her by name (or title) or by directing a question to him/her, or both, where the term of address or question is

constructed as part of the unit type of the terminal boundary which marks the next transition place. If the next speaker has been selected by the current speaker at this point, the rule set recycles to the beginning:

- (i) in preparation for the occurrence of the next transition place, the speaker just selected has the exclusive right (and obligation) to speak next.

In the event that the next speaker has not been selected by the current speaker, the next decision point (ii) presents the option to potential speakers other than the current speaker to self-select. (self-selection is an option available to each potential next speaker; thus although more than one speaker could start to speak, the right to the turn belongs to the first starter). The rule-set recycles to (i) if self-selection occurs or if it does not, the third decision point (iii) is reached. In the absence of self-selection by other parties, the current speaker may (but is not obligated to) continue speaking. The exercise of this option recycles the rule set to (i), the process repeats itself until speaker change occurs. If the current speaker does not speak, the rule-set recycles to (ii), the first decision point (current speaker sets next speaker) being obviously inapplicable. This model of turn-taking proposed by Sacks et al (1974) accounts for a number of regularly occurring features of observed conversations, including the alternation of speakers in a variable order with brief (if any) gaps, interruptions or overlaps between turns, as well as variable length of turns. That is, the model provides for the systematic initiation, continuation and alternation of turns in everyday conversation.

Sacks et al (1974) characterize their model as a *locally managed* system. By this, they mean that over a series of turns, the rule-set operates to effect transitions between successive pairs of adjacent turns, one turn at a time, the focus of the system being the

next and the next transition. Turn size is also locally managed since the concatenation of unit-types to construct longer turns is also provided for by the system's organization. Moreover, the system is said to be „party administered“; that is, turn order and turn size are under the control of parties to the conversation who exercise the options provided. The system is also characterized as „interactionally managed“, turn order, and turn size being determined by „conversationally managed“; turn order and turn size being determined by conversationalists, each of whom exercises options which are contingent upon, and undertaken with the awareness of the options available to the other. The point of immediate concern here is that the turn-taking system described by Sacks et al (1974) can be viewed as a representation of speakers' methods for achieving a preferred organization of their conversational interaction. Violations of this intended order can and do occur, of course, and should be observable as such by virtue of the rules for turn-taking. As Sacks (2004) indicates, in any conversation that involves more than two or more participants, turn-taking is always „problematic“.

Sacks (2004) suggests that this model approaches the status of a context-free mechanism which is, moreover, finely context-sensitive in its application. Here, “context-free” means analytically independent of a wide range of features exhibited by actual conversations, for example, topics, settings, number of parties, and social identities. The independence establishes the basis for the context-sensitivity of the system, since, by virtue of its indifference to the particulars of any given conversation, it can accommodate the changing circumstances of talk posed by variation in topic, setting, number of parties, and identity of participants. The model generates an infinite set of possible turn-taking sequences varying in terms of turn order, turn size and number of speakers, by recourse

to a limited set of organizational principles usable on any occasion of conversation. In the next sections, details of the turn-taking strategies such as interruption and overlap are discussed.

2.3 Turn-taking Strategies: Interruption

Although the concept of interruption has drawn much attention from researchers, there is still little consensus about its definition. West and Zimmerman (1975, 1977, 1983) characterize interruption as a form of simultaneous speech, which is defined as a violation of a speaker's turn at talk and as a device of exercising power and control in conversation. More technically, it is an incursion initiated by more than two syllables away from the initial or terminal boundary of a unit type (Schegloff, 2007; Sidnell & Tanya, 2012). From the perspective of the interrupter, Schegloff (2007) indicates that interruption occurs when a second speaker begins speaking at what could not be a TRP, and when speaker „A“ cuts off more than one word of speaker B's unit type. From the perspective of the interruptee, Beattie (1981) states that interruption occurs when a speaker loses the floor before he has intended to relinquish it, leaving his current utterance incomplete. Similarly, James and Clarke (1993) note that interruption happens when one person initiates talk while another person is already talking. An idealized scheme for interruption is provided in Figure 1.



Figure 1. An idealized scheme for interruption

According to this model, in Figure 1, speaker A is producing an utterance (Time 1) when speaker B interrupts speaker A at Time 2. Speaker A subsequently relinquishes the floor to speaker B (Time 3), who completes the turn alone (Time 4)

2.3.1 Classification of Interruption

Based on the occurrence of speaker-switch, simultaneous speech, and the completion of first speaker utterance, Ferguson (1977) devises a categorization scheme for interruptions, as shown in Figure 2.



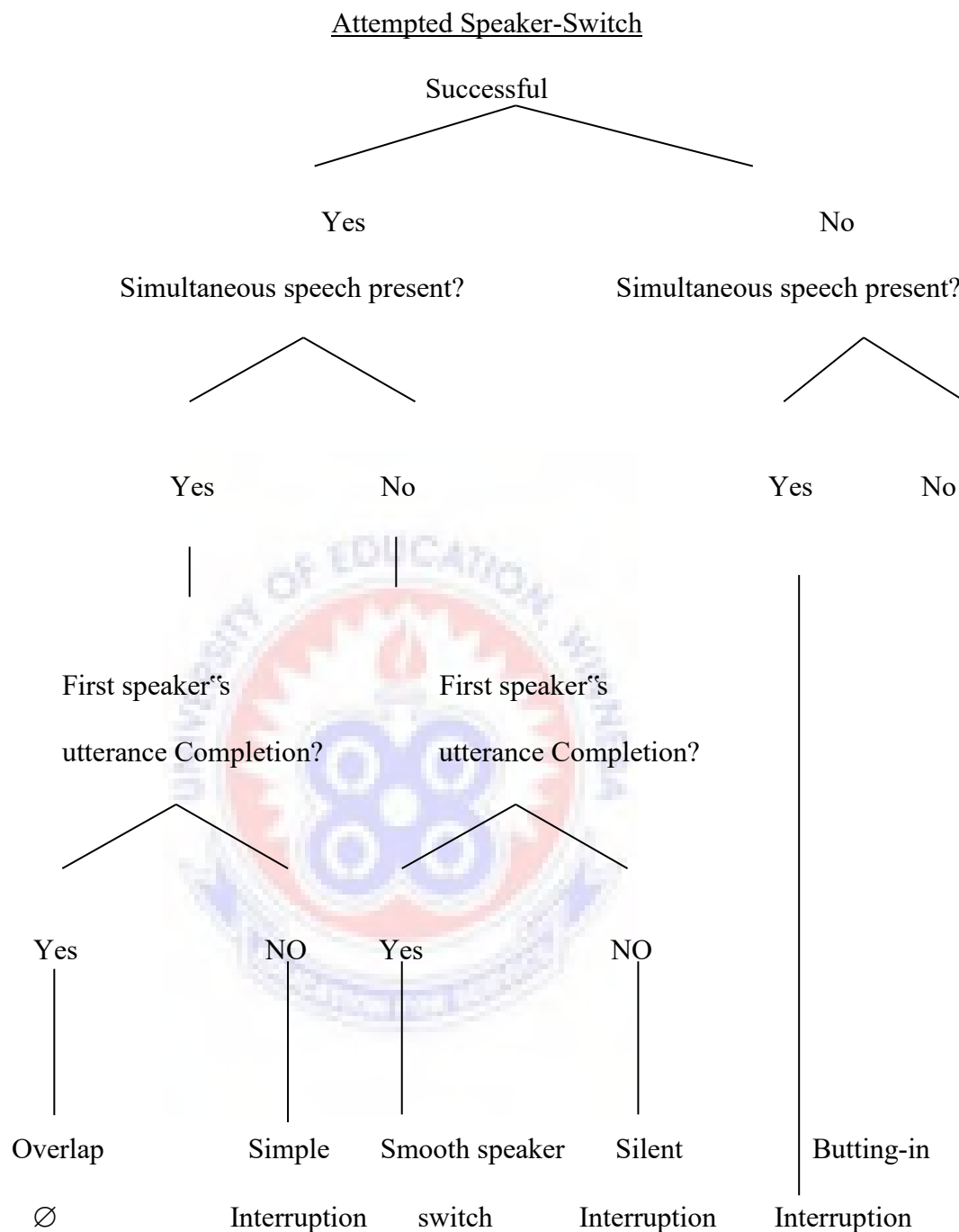


Figure 2. Ferguson's (1977) categorization scheme for interruption

According to Ferguson's, a smooth speaker-switch occurs when the first speaker completes his or her turn and there is no simultaneous speech. In a simple interruption,

simultaneous speech occurs and the utterance of the first speaker is incomplete. An overlap is simultaneous speech in which the utterance of the first is finished instead of being disrupted by that of the second speaker. In a butting-in interruption, an unsuccessful attempted interruption, the interrupter stops before gaining of the floor. An interruption without overlapping is a silent interruption. So it is almost the same as a simple interruption except for the occurrence of simultaneous talk.

Another classification of interruptions is proposed by Roger and Smith (1988). They categorize interruptions and unsuccessful ones under the category of simultaneous speech. A schematic representation of Roger and Smith (1988) is shown in Figure 3.

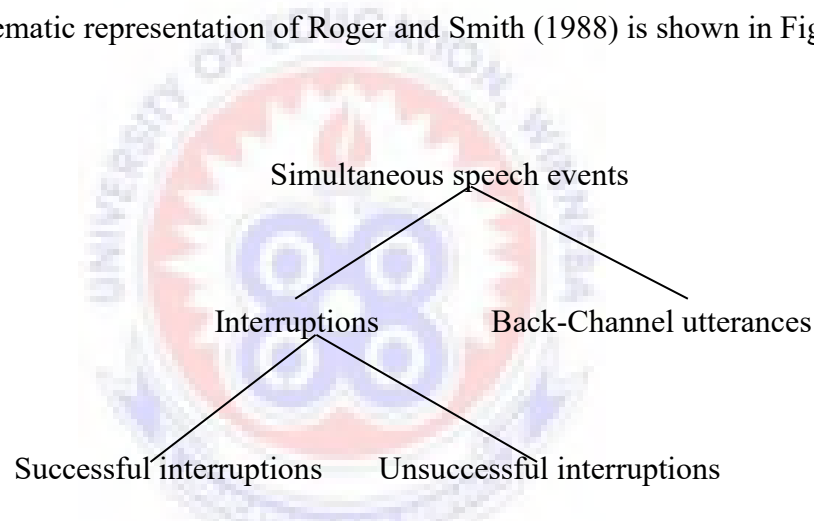


Figure 3. Roger and Smith's classification of interruption

Roger and Smith (1988) argue that successful interruptions comprise those events in which the first speaker is prevented from completing an utterance by the second speaker's taking the floor; and in unsuccessful interruptions, the second speaker attempts but fails to take the floor. In comparison with Ferguson's (1977) classification, successful and unsuccessful interruptions will respectively be simple and butting-in interruptions. However, Roger and Smith's assumption of interruptions as a sub-class of simultaneous

speech overlooks the possibility of silent interruptions. Be that as it may, the two classifications are considered in this study because they are all classified as simultaneous talk.

2.3.2 The Nature and Function of Interruption

The basic function of interruption is to prevent the first speaker from being able to finish what he or she wants to say, and to allow the second speaker to take over the floor (James and Clarke 1993). Therefore, the person who interrupts gains some control over the conversation by getting a chance to speak when it is not his or her turn (Schegloff, 2007). More negatively, Zimmerman and West (1983) describe interruptions as having the potential to disrupt turns at talk, disorganize the ongoing construction of conversational topics and violate the current speaker's right to be engaged in speaking. As a result, interruption has long been regarded negative and associated with dominance and power. Sacks (2004) observes that an interruption is taken as a sign of conversation dominance, often interpreted as violating normal conversational rules as being negative, undesirable, disaffiliative behavior, and constituting an attempt to exercise power and to dominate and to control the conversation through control of the floor and the topic of conversation (Stolt, 2008). That is, an interruption is considered hostile, rude and disrespectful acts, with the interrupter an aggressor and the interruptee an innocent victim (Sidnell & Tanya, 2012).

In contrast to Sidnell & Tanya, (2012) view, James and Clarke (1993) point out that a significant percentage of interruptions in interaction may not be disruptive or dominance-related. Ferguson (1977) also finds no significant relationship between overall

measurement of interruption and dominance. Interruption on the other hand, can be a supportive and cooperative speech act. With interruptions, speakers can work out a topic or a story together and produce a shared meaning. In other words, an interruption may function to signal and promote solidarity between speakers (James & Clarke, 1993). It is a way to indicate that one is interested in, enthusiastic about, and highly involved in the conversation by providing feedback, information, or elaboration on the current speaker's topic (Flowerdew, 2013). In support of this, Sacks (2004) finds that comments and questions are often uttered with another speaker's talk, yet they are signs of active listening rather than attempts to grab the floor.

Glenn (2003) also reports that a rate of interruption is a sign of social comfort in conversations among pre-adolescents. Moreover, interruption can function constructively in rescuing and promoting group discussion (Gumperz, 2012). And in many cases, it serves as a healthy, functional and confirming communicative role (Kennedy and Camden, 1983). In addition to being disruptive as a means of exercising dominance and collaborative as a way of showing participation, interruptions can sometimes be neutral, not being particularly associated with rapport nor constituting variations of the speaker rights of others (James & Clarke, 1993). For example, one might interrupt because of a problem with the communicative process. That is, one's failure in understanding what the speaker is saying may bring about interruption. Under such circumstances one may legitimately break in to ask for clarification. Similarly, in certain types of situations that require immediate speech such as "fire" or "don't touch" "it's hot!", and here, the interruptions are appropriate. In other situations such as when A is explaining situations to B and in the middle of the explanation, B gets A's point, it is appropriate for B to

interrupt A. To conclude, interruptions under different circumstances can perform various functions and are within the continuum of rapport and power (dominance) or being neutral.

2.4 Turn-taking Strategies: Overlap

One of the scholars who actually define overlap is Sacks. Sacks (2004, p. 40) divides instances of simultaneous talks into two categories; overlaps and interruptions. According to him, an overlap occurs when an incoming speaker starts talking at the possible completion point of the current turn while trying to avoid a gab or silence between the two turns. (Schegloff, 2000) has outlined a way to define overlap. According to him, overlap and simultaneous talk are equivalent terms that refer to talk by more than one speaker at a time.

2.4.1 Overlap as a Feature of Turn-taking

The main account offered in turn-taking in talk-in-interactions is a term used in conversation analysis to refer to everyday human interaction (Flowerdew, 2013; Hutchby & Wooffitt 1996). Sacks et al (1974) in their influential article, *A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation*, outline a model that describes how speakers manage turn-taking in talk-in-interaction. With the help of examples from authentic conversation, they show that turn-taking in everyday interaction is rule-governed and that people display a very strong orientation to follow these rules. They observe that one speaker speaks or talks at a time. In other words, speakers turn to avoid

talking simultaneously with their interlocutors. Sacks et al (1974) also provide a list of other apparent facts concerning turn-taking, some of which are:

1. Speaker change occurs.
2. Instances of overlap are common but brief.
3. Transitions from one turn to a next with no pause and overlap are common and together with transitions with a slight pause or overlap, they constitute the majority of transitions.
4. Turn order or size is not fixed.
5. What speakers say cannot be specified in advance.

Concerning overlaps, points 2 and 3 indicate that overlapping speech is common and that it comes into being at places where speaker change occurs, that is, where a speaker wants to take the floor. They call the point at which speaker changes can occur a *transition relevance place* or TRP. As indicated by Flowerdew (2013), a transition relevance place is a possible completion point of the ongoing turn-constructive unit (TCU). Turn-constructive units are units with which a speaker may construct a turn. In English language, these unit types include sentential, clausal, phrasal, and lexical constructions. What happens in talk-in-interaction is that participants of a conversation are able to project when a TCU is about to end and consequently, when a transition relevance place, where speaker transition is possible, comes into being (Sacks et al, 1974).

Sacks et al's (1974) model seems to rely on the assumption that people are able to project the possible completion point of a turn with the help of syntactic information. Ford and Thompson (1996) have indicated however that not only syntactic but also, intonational and pragmatic cues help interlocutors to project when a turn is to end.

Consequently, Ford & Thompson (1996) introduce the term complex transition relevance place (CTRP) as an upgrade version of Sacks et al's (1974) transition relevance place. Although Ford and Thompson do not provide a clear definition for CTRPs, these appear to be located at places where a syntactic, pragmatic and an intonational completion are reached at the same time. To this end, Ford & Thompson (1996) suggest that most speaker transitions occur at CTRPs and that syntactic completion alone which Sacks et al (1974) obviously considered the main indicators of possible speaker transition are actually the least reliable indicators of turn completion. Other scholars have also discussed non-syntactic factors that seem to indicate a possible turn completion. For instance, Local & Walker (2004) suggest that clusters of phonetic parameters such as pitch, loudness, tempo, and some articulatory characteristics mark points where a turn may be completed and that these parameters may also be used to pre-empt possible syntactic-pragmatic TRPs.

Furthermore, it has been found out that gestures are involved in the management of turn-taking. Goodwin and Goodwin (1986), for example, point out that non-vocal behaviour, such as gazing towards an interlocutor, can give detailed information about the organization of the current activity. Schegloff (2007) has also paid attention to the relationship between gestures and turn-taking with a special focus on hand gestures. He states that hand gestures can be used, for example, when a current non-speaker wants to indicate that he or she is willing to take the next turn. According to him, they may also be utilized when a speaker who has been interrupted wants to show that he or she has not yet finished the turn and intends to continue after the interruption. This is achieved by holding the hand gesture that was in progress when the interruption started. As the

previous examples indicate, gestures can be used among other things, to project change of speakership.

To sum up, conversational participants are able to project with the help of syntactic, prosodic, pragmatic, and gestural information when the current speaker is to finish his or her turn. This information provides them with the possibility to start their own turn at or near the projected completion point of the ongoing turn. If the current speaker does not however stop talking at the projected completion point, an overlap may occur. This suggests that an overlap, as it is normally related to the local management of turn-taking, is a natural and even inevitable part of human conversations. As the previous paragraphs have shown, an overlap should be seen as a phenomenon that is closely connected to the dynamics of turn-taking. In the present work, an overlap is seen as one of the features of simultaneous talk. Here, it is considered to be of two kinds; either competitive or non-competitive, with respect to turn-taking (Schegloff, 2000). The distinction is necessary because I want to analyze all cases of simultaneous talk as the effect of these two main types of overlap will be clearly shown.

2.4.2 Different Types of Overlapping Talk

The division of overlap into competitive and non-competitive instances was first proposed by French and Local (1983). It was described later by Schegloff (2000) in connection with his overlap *resolution device*. When describing the relationship between overlap and turn-taking and what kind of overlapping speech needed to be resolved, Schegloff (2000, pp. 4-6) divides instances of overlapping talk into “those that were problematic or competitive with respect to turn-taking and to those that were

unproblematic or non-competitive with respect to turn taking”. According to him, problematic or competitive instances of overlap challenge the turn of the current speaker and have to be resolved in some way.

French and Local (1983) however, characterize competitive overlap, which they actually call *turn-competitive incomers*, in a more thorough way. According to them, neither the positioning of the incomer’s speech at a non-completion point in the on-going turn nor its lexical content in relation to the content of speech in progress (agreement and disagreement) makes this incoming speech competitive or non-competitive. Rather, what makes an incoming speech hearable as competitive is in their view, a combination of two prosodic features: high pitch and increased loudness. French and Local (1983) point out that when an incomer’s speech is marked by these two features, the turn-occupant makes prosodic changes to his or her speech too; for instance, increases loudness and decreases pace (French & Local, 1983). This practically means that by looking at not only the prosodic features of the incomer’s speech but also those of the current turn-occupants in overlap talk, it can be seen whether the incomer’s speech is competitive or not.

As for the second type of overlap; non-competitive overlap, Schegloff (2000) simply states that it refers to episodes of overlapping talk in which the speaker does not in his view contest for turn space. In other words, the incoming speaker shows no willingness to take the floor from the current speaker or to compete for it. Using French and Local’s (1983) criteria for distinguishing turn competitive incomings from those that are not, the absence of the prosodic combination of high pitch and increased loudness seems to be a central characteristic of non-competitive overlaps. French and Local (1983) add that if this combination is not present in the incoming speech, the current speaker

does not modify his or her speech either, but carries on speaking the way as he or she was speaking before the overlap onset.

2.4.3. Types of Non-competitive Overlap

In Schegloff's (2000) view, there are four types of overlapping talk that are non-competitive with respect to turn-taking. The first of the four types is what he calls "terminal overlaps". According to Schegloff (2000) terminal overlaps come into being in situations where the incoming speaker predicts that the current speaker is to finish his or her turn soon and start talking simultaneously with him or her. In his view, this kind of overlap self-liquidates, almost immediately as the primary speaker finishes the on-going turn. He suggests that since terminal overlaps are very short, they do not have to be managed in anyway and are therefore non-competitive. The second type of non-competitive overlap that Schegloff (2000) introduces is "continuers". He considers for instance, interpolations such as, *uh, huh and mm, hm* and context-fixed assessment terms, such as *oh, wow, or great* to be part of this category. According to him, a recipient of another's talk can, by using continuers, indicate that he or she understands that the current speaker holds the floor and has not completed his or her turn yet. This kind of overlapping talk can be considered sometimes as competitive.

Schegloff's (2000) third type of non-competitive overlap consists actually of various kinds of overlap that fall under the heading *conditional access to the turn*. These are cases in which the current speaker gives his/her completed turn to another so that the new speaker could further the initial speaker's undertaking. Familiar cases of this kind of overlap are one, word searches (Godwin & Godwin, 1986), in which a recipient may be

invited to help the current speaker to find a word that he or she cannot retrieve, and two, collaborative utterance constructions (Lerner, 2004), where the speaker initiates an utterance and provides it for a recipient for completion. According to Schegloff (2000) in both cases, the current speaker and the recipient end up talking simultaneously but the overlap is not treated as problematic or competitive. This is obviously due to the fact that they both are aware of the conditional nature of the recipient's entry to the turn space; after the recipient has, for instance, provided a completion to the current speaker's turn, he or she is expected to withdraw.

The last type of non-competitive overlapping talk introduced by Schegloff (2000) is referred to as "choral" "choral" in character. He specified that instances of this kind of overlapping talk and activity are treated by interactional participants to be done at the same time not serially one after the other. He stresses that laughter is an example of a kind of activity, such as collective greetings, leave-takings and congratulations in response to announcements of personal good news. Schegloff (2000) adds that when producing "choral" or "choral" utterances, the overlapping participants appear to be properly simultaneous occupants of the floor and competition for turn space does therefore arise. Schegloff (2000) is quick to add that the division between competitive and non-competitive overlapping speech is not a clear cut. A proper analysis always requires a close examination of the specific interactional context in which the phenomenon being examined occurs and of the reactions of the interlocutors, for instance through prosody and gestures. Let us consider some observations by Jefferson (1983) concerning different types of overlap.

To begin with, whereas French & Local (1983) and Schegloff (2000) approach overlap from the view point of turn-competitiveness, Jefferson (1983) focuses on overlap onset, that is, on looking at where and under which conditions instances of overlapping speech come into being. She identifies three major overlap onset types; transitional onset, recognitional onset and progressional onset on the basis of which many instances of overlap can be categorized. According to Jefferson (1983), transitional overlap is a by-product of two activities where a next speaker starts talking at a possible completion of the ongoing turn while the current speaker decides to continue his or her turn. Transitional overlap occurs therefore, in Jefferson's (1983) view, at a possible transition place of the ongoing turn by which she refers to the surroundings of a possible completion point as such. What this means in practice is that transitional overlap may come into being when the incoming speaker starts talking at or near a predicted transition relevant place and when the current speaker decides to continue beyond it. As to the competitiveness and non-competitiveness nature of this kind of overlap, most cases of transitional overlap seem to be non-competitive with respect to turn-taking.

Recognitional overlap refers to instances of overlapping talk in which the next speaker recognizes how the current speaker is to finish his or her turn, starts talking before the current speaker has had a chance to finish his or her undertaking. In other words, the next speaker may respond to the current speaker's turn before it has reached a transition relevant place. The next speaker may, for instance, recognize a word or phrase that will finish the turn of the current speaker, such as; *ha*, for *happy new year*, and respond to the turn accordingly before the ongoing turn has reached a possible TRP (Jefferson 1983). Jefferson suggests in addition that, recognitional overlaps tend to have a

turn-incursive or interruptive character. At this point, it is worth noting that what Schegloff (2000) calls terminal overlaps is very similar to Jefferson's (1983) transitional and recognitional overlaps. All these types of overlaps have something in common. It can be seen that in all the types of overlaps mentioned above, the incoming speaker starts talking simultaneously with the current speaker because he or she is able to predict how the current speaker possibly finishes his or her turn.

Jefferson's final overlap onset type, progressional overlap, occurs when there is some disfluency such as "silence fillers" for example, *uh or* stuttering in the ongoing turn. When the next speaker realizes that there is a problem in the progressions of the ongoing utterance, he or she may start in order to move the conversation forward. In other words, the next speaker may consider disfluency in the ongoing turn as a sign that speaker transition may or can or should take place. Consequently, overlap may come into being when the prior speaker completes his or her utterance despite the preceding disfluency. Jefferson (1983) observes that progressional overlaps can occur practically anywhere within the utterance and that they can be very different in character. For these reasons, it is difficult to make any generalizations concerning the competitiveness or the non-competitiveness of progressional overlaps. In analyzing overlaps, the current study considers all the classifications discussed above (e.g. French & Local, 1983; Jefferson, 1983; Schegloff, 2000).

2.4.4 Utterance Types that may occur in Overlap

The types of overlap in this section have not been treated traditionally as distinct categories of overlap (Goodwin, 1986 cited in Stolt, 2008) but rather, as utterance types

that may occur in overlap. The types concerned here are mostly short listener responses such as *mm hm, uh, huh, oh, yeah and okay*, which in earlier studies have been called for example *back-channels, minimal responses, hearer signals or response tokens* (Gardner, 2001). Previous researches have indicated that in the service of interactional needs, the turn-taking rules may be used in alternative ways with utterances of this kind (Ford & Thompson, 1996, pp. 159-164). The purpose here is to introduce those listener types that previous researchers have indicated to occur most commonly in overlaps: acknowledgement tokens, continuers, news markers, change of activity tokens, assessments, and laughter.

2.4.4.1 Acknowledgement-Tokens

Acknowledgement tokens, together with continuers, news markers and change-of-activity tokens, form the class “response tokens” (Gardner, 2001, p. 3). According to Gardner (2001), response tokens are a class of conversational objects that indicate that a piece of talk has been registered by the recipient of that talk. To be more specific, they indicate that what another speaker has just said has been heard, acknowledged, possibly understood or agreed with or treated as new information. In talk-in interaction, response tokens most often occur during extended or multi-unit turns by another speaker, for example during story telling or during classroom interaction. Acknowledgement tokens are brief listener responses that claim agreement or understanding of the preceding turn (Gardner, 2001). The most typical acknowledgement tokens discussed in previous research are, *yeah (yes), mm and hm* (Jefferson, 1984) which are characterized by a falling intonation contour (Gardner, 2001).

2.4.4.2 Continuers

These are short listener responses most typically *mm*, *mm*, and *uh*, *huh*, which occur as only utterances in a turn and which do not have an apparent semantic meaning (Gardner, 2001). It is worth understood here in a slightly different way from that of Schegloff (2000) whose continuers were discussed above. To Schegloff, continuers seem to be an umbrella, containing several types of listener responses. Here, I narrow the meaning to refer to one specific type of listener responses to the definition of Gardner (2001). Sometimes drawing a clear line between acknowledgement tokens and continuers is not easy. The main difference between acknowledgement tokens and continuers is that whereas acknowledgement tokens indicate that the prior turn has been adequately received, continuers simply hand the floor back to the prior speaker (Gardner, 2001). If *yeah*, *mm*, *mm* and *hm* have for instance a falling intonation contour, they are most evidently used as acknowledgement tokens; if *yeah*, *mm* and *mm*, and *hm* in turn, carry a rising intonation, they may be treated as continuers by interlocutors (Gardner, 2001). Since continuers do not have a clear semantic content, they do not comment on the specifics of what has been said in the ongoing turn. They deal, however, with the sequential organization of talk-in-interaction and treat units of talk as being part of larger series of units (Goodwin, 1986). The main purpose of continuers seems to be to indicate that the recipient understands that the current speaker is performing an extended turn which is not yet complete and that the current speaker should continue his or her extended turn.

2.4.4.3 News Markers

As the name of this response token suggests, news markers are produced to indicate that what has been received is somehow news worthy to the recipient. In other words, the turn to which the recipient is responding has provided new information to him or her (Gardner, 2001). According to Gardner (2001), words such as *oh!*, *right*, and *really* and minimal questions such as *did they?* are at the core of this category. The response token *oh* is according to Heritage (1984), a particle which is used to propose that its producer has undergone some sort of change in his or her local current state of knowledge, information, orientation or awareness. When a recipient produces *oh!* he or she confirms in Heritage's (1984:304) view, that even though he or she was earlier uninformed on the matter at hand, she is presently informed.

2.4.4.4 Change-of-Activity Tokens

The purpose of this response token type, change-of-activity token, is to indicate a transition to a new activity or topic within the conversation. Most typical examples of change-of-activity tokens are *okay* and *alright* which do not have an apparent semantic meaning. Normally, change-of-activity tokens are produced with a level or falling intonation contour, which is a characteristic shared by acknowledgement tokens and newsmakers as well (Gardner, 2001). The change-of-activity token *okay* is most often used by recipients to prefigure or negotiate changes in what is being talked about or done in the conversation. In other words, when a recipient produces *okay*, he/she may be implying that the participants should move on to something new in the conversation. This

may be, for example, a new conversational topic, a new question in the interview agenda or even *good-byes* which would bring the conversation to an end.

2.4.4.5 Assessments

The term assessment can be used to refer to many kinds of events on analytically separate levels of talk-in-interaction. It can be used to describe specific structural units in the stream of speech, such as the adjective *beautiful*, or particular kind of speech acts whose purpose is to do evaluative work (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1987). In this study, the term “assessment” is utilized to refer to relatively brief listener responses for instance, *oh wow*, *great*, *how interesting*, and *that’s awful* which may come into being in the midst of another speaker’s turn (Goodwin, 1986). When assessment occurs in an overlap, it normally comes into being in the middle of extended turns and comes to completion before a new turn-constructive unit has been initiated. Conversationalists show an active orientation towards this placement of assessments since current speakers may even delay their entry into a next turn constructive unit when they realize that the assessment of the recipient is still in progress (Goodwin, 1986). It should be noted, however, that the decision of whether an overlapping assessment is competitive or not should be made on case-by-case by looking at the context where it occurs and by taking into account gestures of both the current and the incoming speaker as well as the prosodic features of their talk.

2.4.4.6 Laughter

Previous research has indicated not only predominantly lexical listener responses, for instance, acknowledge tokens or assessments, but also some other vocal utterances-laughter in particular, may come into being in overlap (Jefferson, 1979). Previous research has revealed however, that laughter is a complex phenomenon that does not always result from something being funny or amusing. It has been discovered that laughter services the needs of interactional situations and can be used to convey, among other things, intimacy, affiliation, delicateness or difficulty of the topic being discussed, mockery and contempt. in addition to humour (Jefferson, 1984, 1985; Glen, 2003).

Jefferson (1985) states that laughter can be started, sustained and terminated consciously and can be used, consequently as an interactional resource. Laughter can be divided into two main types: invented and volunteered laughter. Invented laughter occurs when one speaker invites another speaker to laugh by laughing him or herself and the recipient, thereupon, accepts the invitation by starting to laugh (Jefferson, 1978). This may lead to a situation where the initial speaker and the recipient(s) end up laughing at the same time. It is also called shared or choral laughter. The second type of laughter is volunteered laughter. This occurs without an invitation from the prior speaker. In other words, laughter is produced on a voluntary basis by the recipient (Jefferson, 1979). As to the specific location of laughter in talk-in-interaction, it has been suggested that laughter may occur roughly in three kinds of positions: at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of one's turn (Haakana, 1999). Ford & Thompson (1996) argue that laughter produced even by several speakers at the same time is not necessarily problematic to the participants of that situation since laughter is primarily co-operative. To put it differently,

by laughing in overlap with somebody else's turn, people seem to consider themselves not as turn-holders but as recipients and competition for turn-space does not occur. In this respect, laughter acts as a response token.

2.5 Interruption versus Overlap

In terms of transitional relevance place, Schegloff (2007) makes a distinction between interruption and overlap. In his definition of overlap, Schegloff indicates that it is a talk by more than one speaker at a time. He maintains that an overlap occurs when a second speaker speaks while a first speaker is already speaking and that the second speaker has projected his talk to begin at a possible completion point of the prior speaker's talk. If that is apparently the case, if, for example, his start is in the environment of what could have been a completion point of the prior speaker's turn, then we speak of it as an overlap. If it is projected to begin in the middle of a point that is no way near a possible completion point for the turn, then we speak of it as an interruption. From the definition, an overlap is likely to be an unintentional error; a misjudgment of the speaker's completion point turn. In this respect, the term overlap is neutral and is used to indicate simultaneous talk without any negative connotation. Interruption on the contrary, is regarded as an intentional action and has negative connotation, implying breaking of turn-taking rules and violation of another speaker's right to the floor. To Ford and Thompson (1996), overlap is a transitional error of miscalculation while interruption is a deviation from the turn-taking rules.

2.6 Turn-taking in the Classroom: The Role of Interruption and Overlap

Interruption is often seen as a negative gesture for someone to take the floor. However, in this study, it has been proven that interruptions can be used as a way to encourage and support other speakers (in this case, students) in lesson completion. This study deviates from earlier views that interruption is primarily used for negative purposes in classroom discourse (e.g. Xu, 2009; Zimmerman & West, 1975). This study rather agrees with Karpowitz and Mendelbeg (2014) on the grounds that interruption is a way of supporting the current speaker without depreciating that speaker's efficaciousness. In the study, supportive/cooperative interruptions are dominantly used. The use of these types aided the students to easily explain their points and ideas, even in a complicated topic. In the study, it is realised that the use of the supportive interruption is not just limited to one-word responses but included whole sentences that support and enhance what both the teacher and the students say about topics under discussion. This shows that interruption can be used to enhance teaching and learning.

Turning now to overlap, cooperative and intrusive are the main benefits. The study establishes that from the students' point of view, most of them overlap because they want to ascertain what the teacher has explained. This role of overlap was effective as it enhanced students' understanding of the topic under discussion (refer to Extracts 34 and 35). Here, one very significant role of overlap is seen in the way the teacher responds to the students who overlap. Thus, it can be said that teachers actually respond to students who often overlap during classroom interaction, provided that the overlap is still in accordance with the purpose of learning and does not interfere with class conditions. When these are done, students get more understanding than when they earlier overlapped.

In summary, both interruption and overlap perform two vital roles – cooperative and intrusive role. As a cooperative mechanism, interruption and overlap are used to assist both teachers and the students in understanding the subject matter and also to show agreement with others about the topic under discussion. As an intrusive mechanism, both interruption and overlap help to clarify issues for a better understanding of the topics being taught.

2.7 Previous Research on Simultaneous Talk: Interruption and Overlap

Zimmerman & Candace (1975) analysed two-party interactions in coffee shops, drug stores, and other public places in a university community. A tape recorder was carried out by both authors and what they could hear by virtue of their routine and unquestionable access to public places was deemed eligible for taping. The researchers considered same-sex conversation: male-male, female-female and cross-sex conversation: male-female, for comparative purposes. The participants were white and middle class persons varying from close friends and nurse-patient, intimacy and first time acquaintanceship. The researchers compared the two categories (male and female) to find out which of the two sex group makes the highest interruption (violation of turn rules) and overlap (transition error) in a two-party conversation. The work of Zimmerman & Candace (1975) is similar to the current one in terms of the method as it analysed instances of simultaneous talk (overlap and interruption). However, while Zimmerman & Candace (1975) recorded their data in some public places, the current one is in the classroom. Again, while Zimmerman & Candace (1975) used audio recordings, the current work makes use of video recordings in addition to the audio.

Again, in another study, Sneh (1987) evaluated conversational structure in a “dyadic” telephone conversation between Finns and Americans. He was concerned about the chorographical differences between these two culturally groups. He organized twenty telephone conversations in a studio between four Finns and four Americans and these conversations were audio recorded. The researcher analysed the data using Computer-based Automatic Timing System (ACTS) within the following parameters: vocalization, pause, turn, switching pause and simultaneous speech (Lerner, 2004). The study revealed that simultaneous talk was rare in telephone conversation. The study also shows that the number of overlaps produced was different between the two groups. He stated clearly that intercultural conversations involved a lot of interruptive overlap. The researcher stressed that the instances of simultaneous talk were both interruptive and non-interruptive. The study is similar to the current one as it studies interruption.

In a related study which have examined intercultural conversations, Kärkkäinen (1991) analysed the conversational skills of advanced Finnish learners of English and native speakers of English from Great Britain, the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. The researcher considered their level of social competence, which means their ability to make use of some conversational strategies as well as politeness strategies. The researcher gave them a topic to discuss and the conversations were recorded for comparison. Kärkkäinen (1991) observed that the Finns did not do enough supportive work and their involvement was low. Although the researcher did not pay much attention to any form of simultaneous talk, the study provided information on turn-taking in conversation. The study revealed that instead of the Finnish taking turn, they made use of

gambits (well, I was thinking) and back-channels (yeah, mm) as a feedback to their fellow native speakers.

In another influential study, Nikula (1995, 1996) studied face-to-face conversation between Finnish and native speakers of English. She was interested in how these Finnish learners have mastered some pragmatic force modifiers, and utterances such as (I suppose, sort of, and you know) in multi-party conversation with native speakers of English. Their conversations were audio-recorded just like in Karkkainen's (1991) project. The study revealed that when speaking English, the Native English speakers make use of pragmatic modifiers less than the Finns. But the case is opposite when speaking in their native language.

Maroni, Gnisci & Pontecorv (2008) examined the rhythm and the management of classroom in public or state primary schools in Italy. Maroni et al (2008) selected 12 classes (four 2nd grades, four 3rd grades, and four 4th grades) pupils. Each of these classes was videotaped three times within two weeks. This research work aimed to present the progress of class interaction through descriptive analysis, pointing out the change of student's interaction participation from 2nd to 4th grade of the primary school, and to identify the differences between the turn-taking strategies used by teachers and students. They observed that the typical sequences in the management of the classroom interaction among all the twelve teachers were Initiation-Response-Follow up (IRF), proposed by (Coulthard & Sinclair, 1975). In their observation, the teacher controls the class conversation. The teacher asks a question (Initiation), assesses the child's reply (Response), then repeats some words of this response (Follow-up). Maroni et al (2008)

had three participants in the class: teacher, single student and the whole class when they answer in choral modalities (Maroni et al, 2008).

Maroni et al (2008) concluded that students take more turn in Italy classrooms and that students' involvement or participation in class discussion varies relatively from the lower class to the upper class. They made an emphatic statement that students get themselves involved more in class discussion when they grow. The current research would want to find out the truth or otherwise of this statement as the researcher moves a step further from the primary school to the JHS to analyse all the instances of simultaneous talk, emphasizing on interruptions and overlaps in Ghana precisely, Bediako Memorial Institute, Gateway School Complex, and Jonasu Academy.

The present study is similar to Maroni et al (2008) in method and setting. However, the present study takes a look at the Ghanaian classroom setting at the JHS level. The participants in Maroni et al (2008) are students who use the language as L1 but the participants of the current study use English as L2. Maroni et al (2008) gave more attention to interruption but did not examine overlap. The current study explores all instances of simultaneous talk which includes interruptions and overlaps. However, the existing research indicates that turn-taking in the classroom has some peculiar manifestations insofar as the setting is structured and the discussions themselves seem somewhat competitive and confrontational. Therefore, what may count as unacceptable in an ordinary everyday conversation may not count as such in the classroom discussion. Students sometimes try to exert some control and power. The teacher ideally occupies a more powerful position but tries to negotiate this power to ensure total participation of students and subsequently, this leads to the full understanding of the lesson.

2.8 Conclusion

What emerged from the discussions in this chapter is that conversation analysis and the turn-taking approach provide an interpretive framework for analyzing talk-in-interaction in general. To summarize, the studies discussed in this chapter have focused on comparing the social competence of native speakers as against second language speakers. However, studies using separate sets of native and non-native data do not provide the best possible point of comparison to the present study. This is because previous research has indicated that in intercultural conversations, mutual adaptation to the interlocutor's communicative behaviour takes place (Snech, 1987). Again, most of the studies had relied on audio recordings only, with the exception of Maroni et al (2008) who went a step further to add video recordings when looking into face-to-face conversations (classroom) and that explains that non-verbal behavior is crucial in interpreting the interlocutors' linguistic output.

The use of video recordings instead of mere audio recordings provides the researcher with more information on the research. In this study, the advantages provided by video recordings are used. The studies that have been reviewed also show that interruptions and overlaps have serious implications on conversation. In spite of these effects of interruptions, previous works on conversation analysis have tended to be an analysis of conversational strategies, style and pragmatic force modifiers in classroom interruptions (Maroni, Gnisci & Pontecorv, 2008).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The previous chapter has reviewed literature related to the use of interruptions and overlaps. The chapter clearly opened space within which the current study seeks to fill. This chapter seeks to describe how data were gathered. The first part of this section discusses the research approach adopted for the study, here, qualitative research approach has been discussed. Case study research design has also been discussed. Case study design has been chosen as its advantages to the current study cannot be over ruled. The next part discusses population and sampling, research instrument, data collection procedure and analysis. Here, it has been revealed that three Junior High Schools in the Awutu Senya East Municipal, Kasoa have been used. Video recorder was the instrument used to collect data, this helped to gather both verbal and non-verbal reaction of the students. It has also been revealed that the video camera did not influence the lesson and the students negatively. In all three lessons were videotaped, each from the three schools. The videos were edited and transcribed according to Gail Jefferson's model of transcription focusing on interruptions and overlaps. The analysis was done based on the research questions posed: kinds of interruptions and overlaps, functions and effects of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse.

3.1 Research Approach

The researcher adopted the qualitative research approach. Generally, qualitative research is the search for qualities or the characteristics of experience and how these qualities are translated through a chosen representation form and conceptual outlook. Six features of qualitative study (Eisner, 1991 as cited in Stokrocki, 1997) explains why the researcher adopted this research approach, and they are that it (qualitative research) is field-focused, constructed so that the researcher is an instrument, interpretive in nature, expressive in language, highly detailed and persuasive. Again, qualitative research approach was used because it is a systematic process of describing, analyzing and interpreting insights discovered in everyday life (Stokrocki, 1997).

Qualitative study begins with empirical observation of a phenomenon and its characteristics rather than strict numerical comparison and classification. I therefore started my study by looking at how classroom learning is conducted. I realised that classroom discourse are characterized by instances of overlaps and interruptions. The truth is that qualitative research considers holistic and vivid description of whatever is observed, rather than numerical comparison as quantitative research may employ. This form of research, according to Creswell (2013), generates theory and extends our particular understandings, rather than generalizing about them. Creswell (2013) further refers to qualitative research as naturalistic inquiry, which is a careful study of human activity in its natural and complex state. It is this same thinking that informs Yin (2011: 6) that „qualitative research represents an attractive and fruitful way of doing research“. The researcher uses qualitative research approach because for Yin (2011: 8), „... events and ideas emerging from qualitative research can represent the meanings given to real-

life events by the people who live them, not the values, preconceptions, or meanings held by researchers". The researcher agrees with Yin (2011) in this regard since the current study does not seek to impose ideas on the meaning of the text materials (videos) that have been analysed but offer an objective analysis of the video using appropriate theoretical ideas that guide the analysis of overlaps and interruptions.

This analytic procedure was thus informed by the fact that the study deals with video recordings that are analysed to find out the kinds of simultaneous talks in them. The qualitative method of analysis is therefore the most suitable for such a study because for Creswell (2013: 232), „the idea behind qualitative research “is to „purposefully select“ participants or sites (or document or visual material) that will best help the researcher understand the problem and the research problem”. In a similar vein, Patton (2002) also noted that since qualitative research engages in a deeper analysis of text materials, it is a prerequisite that the researcher delves deeply during the analysis stage of the data. Patton (2002: 514), stressed that since the product of exploration and discovering in qualitative research do not come easy, one must have multiple and diverse ways of thinking about a problem, engaging in what he calls “mental excursions” using multiple stimuli, “side-tracking” or “zigzagging,” altering patterns of thinking, drawing linkages between the “seemingly unconnected,” and “playing at it,” with the goal of “opening the world to us in some way”. This kind of analytical approach thus allows for a deeper analysis of the data which helps in the conversation analysis approach in this study. Conversation analysis is an approach to the study of social interaction embracing both verbal and non-verbal conduct, in situations of everyday life which the current study is analogous. It is therefore important to use an analytical approach that will help best to analyse the data.

3.2 Research Design

The research design adopted is case study. Case study research refers to an in-depth, detailed study of an individual or a small group of individuals. Such studies are typically qualitative in nature, resulting in a narrative description of behavior or experience. The advantage of the case study research design is that the researcher can focus on specific and interesting cases like the case of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom. This may be an attempt to test a theory with a typical case or it can be a specific topic that is of interest. Research should be thorough and note taking should be meticulous and systematic. The research design for this study therefore offers a textual analysis approach for the analysis of the data. I adopted case study design because conversation analysis is a text oriented study (Flowerdew, 2013). According to Creswell (2013: 5), „textual analysis can often give excellent insights about what is „in“ a text“. He indicates that textual analysis can give insight into what is in (implicit) and outside (explicit) of the text. He stresses the need for the implicit analysis of the text for it reveals hidden information which could not have been noticed if the text is to be analysed explicitly. As my work is intended to study critically the videos I recorded in order to bring out the overlaps and interruptions there are, the best analytical procedure was the textual analytical one. Earlier studies have shown that textual analysis offers a considerable insight into the analysis of videos (as text) (Maroni et al 2008, Stolt 2008 and Sacks 2004).

3.3 Population and Sampling

The target population of this study constituted private Junior High School (JHS) pupils from Bediako Memorial Institute, Gateway School Complex and Jonasu Academy all in Kasoa in the Awutu Senya East Municipal. In Ghana, the private schools in the cities ensure that they provide a conducive learning environment for their customers. As a result of this, parents pay huge sums of Ghana cedi as school fees. Because parents (customers) pay more school fees, teachers have less control and more autonomy is given to the students. The attitude of students in private school classroom is different from their counterparts in the state or government schools. Students in the private schools try to exercise their autonomy even in the classroom hence the need to select the private school for this study. The town, Kasoa has the highest number of private schools in Ghana, and the fastest growing town in Ghana (Ghana Education Service statistics 2014 and the Statistical Service of Ghana survey, 2010). Bediako Memorial Institute is a private and a mixed school established in 2002 by Mr. Kwadwo Asare Bediako in memory of his late father, Mr. Bediako. It is a day and boarding school with a total population of one thousand three hundred and thirty (1330) pupils. It runs Kindergarten (KG), Primary and Junior High School (JHS) and each class has three streams. Bediako Memorial Institute is the highest populated private school in the Awutu-Senya West Municipal, Kasoa. Gateway School Complex is also a private school. The school was established in the year 2006. It comprises day and boarding, ranging from Pre-school, Primary and Junior High School. Gateway School Complex has a population of nine hundred and sixty (960) students. Academically, the school is one of the best in the Municipality. Jonasu Academy is the third school considered to be part of the population of this research. The

school was established in the year 2005 by Jonasu group of companies. The school has the mission to develop its pupils to behave in themselves by nurturing and developing, incorporating and applying their talent, gifts, abilities and character. Pupils' population as of the time of the research stood at seven hundred and eighty-four (784). All these schools aim to inculcate in their pupils quality basic education at the highest level that will build in the pupils holistically: the ability to solve problems independently. The schools were conveniently selected. First, I selected these three schools because they were the most convenient ones for me. As a teacher at Bediako Memorial Institute, it was simply easy for me to gather data from the school and that explains why I purposefully chose Bediako Memorial Institute as part of the selected schools. Secondly, academically, these schools are the leading schools in the Municipality. The two other schools agreed to be studied as one particular school refused not to be part of the study on the grounds that they can't allow video camera in the classroom.

3.4 Research Instrument

Data collection is a fundamental process in research. Interpretation of results from a research work is often based on the amount of data collected. In order to enable one to collect data, one needs various types of instrument specifically designed for various purposes. I used recorded classroom lessons. This produced some files that captured the verbal and non-verbal behaviours of the participants for better analysis of the data. According to Stolt (2008, p. 143), "when looking into face-to-face conversations in particular, non-verbal behaviour is crucial in interpreting the interlocutors linguistic

output””. The use of video recordings instead of only audio recordings therefore gave me more information to answer the research questions raised.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

A letter of introduction from the department of English, University of Education, Winneba was first sent to the three schools for permission after formal discussion with my supervisor. The permission was then granted and I was allowed to use the classes for the study. I made it clear to the authorities of the schools that the video was for academic purposes only and would be treated with strict confidentiality. After the authorities of the three schools have verified my reasons, I was allowed to proceed. The steps proposed by Richards (2013) were followed. First, explanations were roughly made regarding the rationale to record the lessons without being too specific about the focus of the study. Second, they were asked whether they would like to be informed about the findings of the study or not.

In order to get a real classroom atmosphere, and for full participation of the pupils, I allowed social studies teachers to teach. The teachers were allowed to choose their own topics, method and style of delivery. This was to ensure that the topic will not be above the level of the pupils and that the teachers will feel at ease in their delivery. This is because the difficulty of the topic might affect the language use of the participants and possibly prevents them from talking in the most natural way. Again, I allowed the teachers to choose their own topic which they feel would spark of the interest of the students. This is because Stolt (2008) is of the view that interlocutors participate fully when they are interested in the topic for discussion.

Three lessons were videotaped in all, which involved one from each school. The class size was also considered for the collection of the data. Thus, none of the class size in the three schools exceeded thirty-five (35). This was done to ensure that the classroom discourse reflect the recommended class size by the Ghana Education Service. In view of this, 32 pupils, 34 and 15 pupils constituted the class sizes of Bediako Memorial Institute, Gateway School Complex and Jonasu Academy respectively. The longest lesson took place in 43 minutes, followed by 38 and 24. Giving me a total of hundred and five minutes (105). Before each lesson took place, I took about three to five minutes to talk to the pupils not to be conscious of the intrusiveness of the camera and perform naturally as they do in their normal classes. I once again assured them that the video is for academic purposes and that their language competence was not of any concern to me. This was done to erase the fear of the presence of a camera as Hutchby (1996) suggests could have been the case.

3.6 Data Analysis

Once the recordings were done, I gave it to a professional video editor to edit. The editing was to ensure that noise and some parts of the video which were not relevant to the study were taken out. Dispositions of benches or desks in the classrooms, noise outside the classroom and poor audio quality were all taken out of the video recording. As I finished with the editing of the video, I started watching the video to get more information from data. As I watched the video, I realised that the presence of the camera changed the behavior of some pupils and teachers in some way as some pupils and

teachers were careful not to make mistakes or commit any grammatical blunder. However, this did not affect the outcome of the data collected.

To be able to analyse the recordings, there was the need to convert the video into written texts. The recordings were therefore transcribed using the conversation analysis norms proposed by Jefferson (2004). I adopted this method of coded transcription because it is the most current and comfortable (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2003). After the transcription, I categorized the text into predetermined categories for the purpose of analysis. These categories include overlap and interruption (both verbal and non-verbal). The glosses used in the transcription are those developed by Gail Jefferson for the analysis of conversational turns in English conversation (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1978).

The transcriptions were then systematically analysed and coded according to the two systems of categories used in conversation analysis: one for a speaker and another for the turn transition (Jefferson, 1985). The system of categories for a speaker refers to participant in classroom interactions that can take place between teachers and a student or between students. Again, any child can take a turn when a teacher addresses the whole class. In light of this, the participants in classroom interaction are: teacher, single student and the whole class (when they answer in chorus). I therefore had to label the participants of the interaction in a way that allows for easy readability of my transcriptions. In all, the participants were three – the teacher, single student and whole class. I decided to use a “single pupil” to refer to any student regardless of gender and without identifying every single child’s name. The participants were categorised as: Teacher (T) Single Pupil (SP) Whole Class (WC). The transcribed data was then analysed lesson by lesson for all the

three classes. I then categorized the findings into themes, and identified all instances of simultaneous talk; verbal and non-verbal actions with special emphasis on interruption and overlap.

3.7 Conclusion

On whole, this chapter has described the methodology underpinning this study. It has indicated how the entire research was conducted, the specific methods used and the overall analysis of the data. The next chapter presents an analysis of the data.



CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings that emerged from the analysis of data. It covers analysis and interpretation of data gathered from the classroom conversations. The presentation has been done mainly using a descriptive approach. Samples of the conversation have been incorporated into the presentation to support and give the discussion a better understanding. This study sought to analyse all instances of simultaneous talk in classroom discourse. The study specifically ascertained the kinds of interruptions and overlaps that occurred in the classroom discourse, determined the functions of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse and examined the effects of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse. The study revealed that interruptions and overlaps occur in classroom discourse. The study showed that interruptions such as silent interruptions, butting-in interruption, simple interruption as kinds of interruption that occurred in the classroom discourse. Again, the study revealed that overlaps also occurred in the classroom discourse. The study specifically revealed choral overlap, transitional overlap, conditional access to the turn as the kinds of overlap that occurred in the classroom discourse.

The study further discovered that interruptions and overlaps functioned as a means to show interest in topics under discussion and also to serve as a means of showing power. The study again revealed that interruption and overlap functioned as a signal of

solidarity, unity and cohesion in the classroom. The study showed that interruptions and overlaps have some effects on classroom discourse. The study revealed that topic repair, topic shift, understanding of subject matter, and consistency and coherence are the major effects of interruptions and overlap in the classroom. The analysis has essentially shown that interruptions and overlaps in classroom discourse are key discourse elements that foster understanding between and among participants (teacher and students) in the classroom. The findings are presented under sub-headings, in ways that answer the questions of the research in the sections that follow.

4.1 Kinds of Interruptions and Overlaps

This section answers the first research question „What kinds of interruptions and overlaps occur in lesson delivery in the three schools?“. This section of the analysis looks at the kinds of interruptions and overlaps that occurred in the classroom discourse. The first part of the section looks at Ferguson's (1977) categorization scheme for interruptions that occurred in the classroom discourse. This includes silent interruption, butting-in interruption and simple interruption. The final part of the section looks at the kinds of overlaps that occurred in the classroom discourse. The following kinds according to Ferguson (1977) and Schegloff (2000) have been identified in the discourse, choral, transitional and conditional access to turn.

4.1.1 Kinds of Interruptions in the Classroom Discourse

This section looks specifically at the kinds of interruptions that occur in the classroom. The discussion has revealed that silent, butting-in and simple interruptions are the kinds of interruptions that occurred in the classroom discourse.

4.1.1.1 Silent Interruption

One kind of interruption that manifests significantly in the data is what Fergusson (1977) describes as silent interruption. According to him, this kind of interruption occurs when, for example, speaker A experiences a difficulty or pauses and then speaker B takes the turn. Extract 1 is an illustration from the data:

Extract 1

Extract 1 is a classroom interaction between a teacher and his students. The topic of discussion is money. The interaction seeks to define what money is.

1 T: Money is a banknote or a coin with its value printed on it, let me hear you

2 WC: (chorus) Money is anything[0.5]

3 T: [I didn't say anything. I said money is a bank note or coin with its value printed on it given in exchange for goods, services and debt. Let me hear you]

4 WC: Money is a bank note or a coin with its value_

5 T: [with its value, printed on it, given]_

6 WC : with its value printed on it given [in exchange for goods services and debt]. (CON3)

In Extract 1, the teacher asks the class to define money after listening to him, he interrupts the students on the grounds that the latter had some difficulty defining „money“. As we can see, the teacher cuts in abruptly when the students say „money is anything...“ in (line 2). This interruption is therefore purposed to put the students on track to better define what money is. As clearly demonstrated in Extract 1, the teacher continuously interrupts the students until they are able to define what money is without any difficulty. Extract 2 is another example of silent interruption identified in the data.

Extract 2

Extract 2 is a classroom discussion between a teacher and his students on the characteristics of an adolescent. The teacher has asked his students to mention some characteristics of an adolescent.

1. SP : Bed wet is when a boy is asleep and his sperm (.)
2. T: [come out]
3. SP: =of the boy"s penis
- 4 T: When the boy is asleep and_
- 5 SP: [his sperms come out]
6. T. Ok. Anybody with a different opinion? Or SP did not say it well, you have a better one↑ (calls a pupil) YE::S

As we can see from Extract 2, silent interruptions occur between the teacher and his student. This kind of interruption occurs in line 2 when the student experiences a difficulty or pauses and then the teacher takes the turn. As evident in line 2, the teacher

completes the turn of the student when he paused. This break is likely to be as a result of shyness on the part of the student. The teacher therefore comes in to clear the way for the student to have the needed courage to complete the sentence. Naturally, topics about the sexual organs of males and females are shy to be talked about and that may explain why the student paused.

In Extract 2, the teacher comes in because of production problem. He wants the class to hear the students better, just as the teacher interrupts to save the discussion in extract 2. He concludes the student's turn for him. In the same vein, the student also completes the turn of the teacher for him. This turn completion by the student shows that he has understood what the teacher is saying. This shows that the teacher's interruption has functioned to deepen the student's understanding of „bedwetting“. Thus, as Maroni, Gnisci & Pontecorvo (2008) indicate, interruptions are mostly positive in classroom discourse, the same holds in this study as we can see from extracts 1, and 2. Extract 3 further reinforces this idea about interruption as a discourse strategy to ensure effective communication, especially, in the classroom.

Extract 3

Extract 3 is a classroom discussion between the teacher and the students on the subject of characteristics of an adolescent. The teacher has asked his students to mention some characteristics of adolescent.

1. SP: <When a boy is asleep>.....
2. T: [am interested in what you saying (.) louder (.) the boy is asleep and _]
- 3.SP =a boy is asleep and dreams of sex things and his sperms come out
- 4 T: Good, I like that one. He is perfecting what you said. Clap for him

In Extract 3, the teacher interrupts the students to make the latter have confidence in what he is saying. Interruptions are seen as the index of power and interpersonal control (Schegloff, 2007) and it is also evident that a teacher, being the one who regulates class activities and turn taking dynamics, has power over students. This explains why a greater presence of teacher's simple, silent and supportive interruptions are found in this study as compared to that of the pupils. It is clear in Extract 2 that there are asymmetrical power relations between the teacher and the students. It takes the most powerful, the teacher, to boost the morale of the less powerful, the student, to have confidence in what he is saying. This kind of interruption is therefore smooth.

4.1.1.2 Butting-in Interruptions

This kind of interruption is regarded as an unsuccessful interruption. According to Fergusson (1977), this interruption happens when an interrupter stops before gaining the floor. That is, for example if Speaker A starts talking and Speaker B comes in, Speaker B loses the floor to Speaker A to stop his turn before Speaker B takes over. In this study, it is realised that there were many instances of butting-in interruptions. These interruptions

happen in many cases where the students try to interrupt their teacher either through raising their hands, laughing, asking questions or giving chorus interjection response.

Extract 4

Extract 4 is a discussion on the changes that adolescents go through. The teacher has asked his students to talk about some physical changes the adolescent goes through.

- | | |
|--------|---|
| 1. T: | I know you are beyond thatthe physical changes at least can and every one of you will give more physical change so we start from _ |
| 2. WC: | [[((Raise their hands and shouting)) SIR SIR] |
| 3. T: | This side. Yes you |
| 4. SP: | Sir, the growth of <u>pubic hairs</u> in the arm::pit and arou::nd private parts |

As Extract 4 shows, as the teacher starts talking, the students try to take the floor from their teacher by raising their hands and shouting to call the teacher at line 2. This attempt to take the floor by the students is unsuccessful as the teacher continues until he ends his talk. First, this attempted interruption shows that the students have understood their teacher and thus they want to contribute to the subject. But as a way to show control over the students, the teacher does not allow for him to be interrupted. He ends his turn in line 3 before he calls one of the students to take the floor. Obviously, this kind of interruption is not out of place since the students will want to, at a point in time, show their readiness to also take the floor and they could do that by using hand gestures in many cases. This

justifies the position that gestures are involved in the management of turn-taking (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1986). Extract 5 is another example of butting-in interruption

Extract 5

Extract 5 is a discussion on the stages of life. The teacher has asked his students to mention the stages of life.

1 T :	And then an old person...
2 WC:	[((raise their hands and calling)) Sir, Sir Funerals, owuo].
3 T:	will= go through what final stage
4 T:	>One at a time Let me know the person's hand< (Calls out a pupil) ↓Ye::::ss_ (CON 1)

As it can be observed from Extract 5, there is another kind of a failed interruption on the part of the students. In Extract 5, the teacher is interrupted by the student in line 2. The student interrupts the teacher to supply the answer to the teacher's question in line 2. This shows that the student knows the answer to the questions and does not want to hesitate on the answer. But clearly, the student failed in his interaction since the teacher takes over the turn in lines 3 and 4 and selects another speaker to take the turn in line 4. Extract 6 is also another example of butting-in interruption found in the data.

Extract 6

Extract 6 is a discussion between the teacher and the students on irresponsible adolescent behaviour. Students are taught some of these irresponsible behaviours among adolescents. In Extract 6, we see another butting-in interruption. This kind of interruption

is profuse in the study because it exemplifies the normal routine student-teacher relationship in the classroom.

1 T: Armed robbery, so some of those who are led astray pick up guns, machetes, knives and then they go to rob people. That is armed robbery and I [unclear] most of the armed robbery are teenagers. They are in their teens 16, 15, 17, but they are high time armed robbers. When they go and break their homes or highly places and you will see the kind of guns that they bring but you look at (unclear) so you this small boy, yes, so it's true.

2 T: Armed robbery is one of the=

3. SP: ((raising the hand)) =irresponsible adolescent behaviour]

4 T: Ye:::s_ irresponsible adolescent behaviour

5. SP: [Watching Pornographic movies]

4.1.1.3 Simple Interruption

The study also showed that classroom interruptions make use of simple interruptions. In this kind of interruption, simultaneous speech occurs and the utterance of the first speaker is incomplete. An example can be seen in Extract 7:

Extract 7

Extract 7 is a discussion between the teacher and the students on the changes that adolescents go through. Students are to discuss some physical changes and natural changes adolescents undergo.

1 T: Let me clarify that. For the changes adolescent goes through physically
[and
2 WC: [Yes sir eeii _ ((raising of hands))
T: There are certain genes or there are certain organisms in the body that
trigger that off. For females =[
WC: [YES SIR, YES SI:::R
T: it is what we call emerging estrogen. ESTROGEN is the main gene
(demonstrates the spelling of gene on the board) that word in the adolescent
body when they reach..... Stage (.) so for females, New York estrogens what
about the males? The gene in the males that trigger those changes= (CON1)

As Extract 7 shows, the teacher and the students talk at the same time in lines 1 and 2. These turns are supposed to be that of the teacher but the students join him. However, the teacher is able to take the floor from the students making their talk incomplete in lines 3 and 4. This shows that the teacher has dominance over the class. In Extract 8, another kind of simple interruption occurs.

Extract 8

Extract 8 is a discussion between the teacher and the students on the changes that adolescents go through. Students are to mention some physical changes adolescents boys undergo.

1 T: We can't hear you [
2 SP: [Enlargement of penis and breast.]
3 T: so be loud
4 WC: ((laughing)) (.)
5 T: this is part of the physical changes (hhh.) YE::s you ((pointing
at a student to answer)) (CON1)

In Extract 8, it can be observed that the student interrupts the teacher in line 2. As the teacher informs the student to be loud, the student talks simultaneously with the teacher. This kind of interruption is similar to what happens in Extract 9. In Extract 9, the teacher simultaneously talks with the student, and the student's turn is incomplete. The teacher's interrupted „we can't hear you“ is loud that it makes the overlapping talk very competitive and disruptive. This explains the dominance of the teacher over the students.

Extract 9

Extract 9 is a discussion between the teacher and the students on the changes that adolescents go through. Students are to mention some physical changes adolescents girls go experience.

1. SP: <Broaden of hips and narrowing of waist>
2. T: [WE CAN'T HEAR YOU]
3 SP: line.
4 SP: BROADEN OF HIPS AND NARROWING OF WAIST LINE
5 T: So broaden of hips and narrowing of waist_
6 WC: [line]
7 T: broaden of wha::::t?
8 WC: [Hips and narrow::::wing of waist line]

In Extract **10**, it is the student who tries to take the turn from the teacher but it is almost unsuccessful. The teacher takes over the turn again from the student in line 3 making the student unable to control his turn in line 2. This shows that in some cases, if teachers have not finished their turn, they resist any attempt by students to take over the turn. In Extract **10**, it is clear that the student's turn is incomplete in line 2.

Extract 10

Extract **10** is a discussion between the teacher and the students on who an adolescent is. Students are to explain who an adolescent is.

1 T: Yes, so we're going to do a recap, short one, when we say ADOLESCENT who are we referring to? Ye:::s
2 SP: [((raises the hand)) SIR WE ARE]
3 T: [yes_]

In Extract **11**, the teacher prevents the student from completing his turn. This shows how powerful the teacher is. This is evident in Extract 11

Extract 11

1 SP: Drug use and abuse (repeats) those are addictive drugs, marijuana_
2 WC: [Eeeii]
3 T: Indian hemp
4 WC: <i>((raising the hand))</i> SIR SIR]=cocaine_

As we can see from Extracts **10** and **11**, all three: the student, the whole class and the teacher compete for turns. At the end of the day, none could complete their turn. But it is

obvious that the teacher controls the floor. This shows how powerful the teacher is when it comes to classroom interactions. But as Erickson (1996) indicates if turns are not taken with the help of these „attacks“, they can become „rescuers-conversational dolphins“ and change the synchronization and conversational pace. Extract **12** clarifies this idea.

Extract 12

Extract **12** is a discussion between the teacher and the students on the bad ways of handling money properly.

1.	SP	:	We should not BUR:::::Y money in the sand
2	T	:	>Pardon<
3	SP	:	We should not burry money_
4	T	:	[we should not burry money]
5	SP:		[in the sand].
6	T:		Do you sometimes burry money=
7	WC	:	=[Sir yes]
8	T:		[in the sand?]
9	T	:	For what reasons (calls out SP)
10	SP:		Saving: People say they are saving_
11	T:		[you want to save money in the earth]
12	T:		You dig a hole and put the money and cover it in sand, is it a good practice?]

Extracts **12** and **13** show that in classroom discourse, students sometimes try to exert some control and power. The teacher ideally occupies a more powerful position but he tries to negotiate this power to ensure total participation of students and subsequently

leads to the full understanding of the lesson. The study justifies the idea that in most didactic sequence, the teacher starts with a question, that can be addressed to a particular child or to anyone who is willing to respond; a student responds and the teacher takes turn again, making an evaluation of the student's participation and/or allocating the next turn (Fasulo & Pontecorvo, 1999). This relatively regular sequence in all classroom interactions (Wells, 1993) affects the turn-taking strategies, pause and silence values and conversational pace of this particular context (Sacks, 2004).

Extract 13

Teacher clarifies the need to handle money properly in this extract.

1. T: The LIFE SPAN of the money is reduced. Meaning, when let's assume that the money was to last for 5-10 years, if we don't handle the money properly, it will last for about 2 to 3 years and that money will be out of the system.
2. T: Is that clear=
3. WC: [Yes Sir]
4. T: =everybody?
5. T: and so we should learn to handle money properly_
6. SP: [=when money is not handled properly, the central bank will be compelled to redraw the faded money thereby reducing the amount of money in circulation_
7. T: Because
8. T: alright, clap for her

4.1.2 Kinds of Overlaps in the Classroom Discourse

This section of the analysis looks at the kinds of overlaps that occurred in the classroom discourse. Here, I have considered what Ferguson (1977) and Schegloff (2000) have put forth as the types of overlaps. These include: choral overlap, transitional overlap and conditional access to turn

4.1.2.1 Choral Overlap

One type of overlapping talk that can be found in the study is what Schegloff (2000) calls „choral“. He notes that instances of this kind of overlapping talk and activity are treated by interactional participants to be done at the same time not serially one after the other. He stresses that laughter is an example of a kind of activity, such as collective greetings, leave-takings and congratulations in response to announcements of personal good news. Schegloff (2000) adds that when producing “choral” utterances, the overlapping participants appear to be properly simultaneous occupants of the floor and competition for turn space does therefore arise. Schegloff (2000: 6) is quick to add that the division between competitive and non-competitive overlapping speech is not a clear cut. A proper analysis always requires a close examination of the specific interactional context in which the phenomenon being examined occurs and of the reactions of the interlocutors, for instances through prosody and gestures. An example can be found in Extract 14.

Extract 14

Extract 14 is a discussion with the teacher and the students on a new topic he has introduced. The specific topic is „rites of passage“.

1. T: Wow! Micro-organism that is true. In fact, the reason why I ask of living things is that they all have one thing that is common in all the examples they gave.

2 T: But the topic we want to treat is= [RITES OF PASSAGE]

3 WC: [RITES OF PASSAGE] =

4 T: We will solicit the link between this topic and living things. But from the topic, there are two important words 1. RITES and am more particular about this word because sometimes if you don't understand this word very well you will write ((writes on the board)) rights. I see it mostly in my examination papers. ((Does illustration on the board to show pupils that he is referring to RITES not RIGHTS)) am not referring to this (rights), am referring to this (rites) of and the second important word is PASSAGE, so who can attempt the meaning of either rites or passage? Rites means what? (CON1)

This is an example of what Ferguson (1977) refers to as choral overlap. As we can clearly see, the teacher and the students mention the topic „Rites of Passage“ at the same time. The students are able to predict the possible relevant point of the teacher's talk and mention the topic with the teacher at the same time. This shows that both the teacher and the students share a common knowledge with regard to the subject matter under discussion. This overlapping talk shows the kind of mutual knowledge that the students share with their teachers. Again, this overlapping talk shows the application of the relevant previous knowledge that both the students and the teacher share together. This shows that the lesson will be well understood by the students.

4.1.2.2 Transitional Overlap

According to Jefferson (1983:2), transitional overlap is a by-product of two activities; a next speaker starts talking at a possible completion of the ongoing turn while the current speaker decides to continue his or her turn. Transitional overlap occurs therefore, in Jefferson's (1983: 2-3) view, at a possible transition place of the ongoing turn by which she refers to the surroundings of a possible completion point as such. What this means in practice is that transitional overlap may come into being when the incoming speaker starts talking at or near a predicted transition relevant place and when the current speaker decides to continue beyond it. As to the competitiveness and non-competitiveness of this kind of overlap, most cases of transitional overlap seem to be non-competitive with respect to turn-taking. According to Flowerdew (2013), this kind of overlapping talk is a way of showing interest in the topic under discussion and it shows that the listener is following the speaker. An example can be found below in Extract 15.

Extract 15

Extract 15 is a discussion between the teacher and the student on who an adolescent is.

1. T: [We have said that an adolescent refers to a person who falls between the ages of_]
- 2 WC: [10 and 19 years old].
- 3 T: From this side, I clearly see that all of us in this class are adolescent. Who is under ten (10) here?

Extract 15 is an example of what Ferguson (1977) describes as transitional overlap. The students predict the relevant transition point and started talking with the teacher. This shows that the students follow what the teacher is saying. It is clear from Extract 15 that

the students know who an adolescent is and that is why they complete the definition for the teacher. This implies that overlapping talk in classroom discourse can be used to assess students understanding and participation in a lesson.

4.1.2.3 Conditional Access to the Turn

Another kind of overlap that can be found in the study is what Schegloff 2000, calls conditional access to the turn. Schegloff 2000, indicates that this type of overlap is non-competitive in nature because the participant shares mutual understanding in terms of the turn taking. He indicates that there are cases in which the current speaker gives his/her completed turn to another so that the new speaker could further the initial speaker's undertaking. Familiar cases of this kind of overlap are one word searches (Godwin & Godwin 1986), in which a recipient may be invited to help the current speaker to find a word that he or she cannot retrieve, and two, collaborative utterance constructions (Lerner 2004), where the speaker initiates an utterance and provides it for a recipient for completion. (Schegloff, 2000). According to Schegloff, in both cases, the current and the recipient end up talking simultaneously but the overlap is not treated by them as problematic or competitive. This is obviously due to the fact that they both are aware of the conditional nature of the recipient's entry to the turn space; after the recipient has, for instance, provided a completion to the current speaker's turn, he or she is expected to withdraw. In this study, teachers normally give their turn to the students to complete. The reason is to find out whether the students are following what they are saying or understand what he (the teacher) has said. An example can be found in Extract 16.

Extract 16

Extract **16** is a discussion between the teacher and the student on „physical and emotional changes among adolescent“.

1. T : PHYSICAL AND EMOTIONAL
- 2 WC: [changes]=physical and emotional changes.
- 3 T: We also call the emotional changes as what?

In Extract **16**, the teacher self-selects the students to continue his turn. This turn completion is to enable the students participate in the subject. As we can clearly see from Extract **16**, the students have successfully completed the turn of the teacher by providing the word „changes“ to the teacher“s „physical and emotional“. It is obvious that this response shows that the students understand what the teacher is teaching them. Clearly, this kind of overlap is used as an evaluative mechanism to test students“ understanding and cooperation in the subject under discussion. In Extract **17**, the students further provided another answer for the teacher to show their involvement in the discussion.

Extract 17

Extract **17** is a discussion between the teacher and the students on the changes that adolescent girls go through.

1 T : No menstruation, menstruation is the monthly flow of blood from a woman's or girl vagina] (.) Now it is so good monthly flow of blood, how does it occur, why is it occurring↑ let somebody explain to us what ovulation is↓ Now in the monthly cycle of a young adult that is a girl in adolescent or a grown up one (0.5) provided the person is not more than 50 years because after 50 most woman stop menstruating, is that clear? so when the female adolescent is, when you are in you adolescent age and you are female, there comes to a time that you start what is called your menses, menstruation, and as you said, is the monthly flow of blood.

2 T: Now, in your body of the woman produces what we call eggs, it this eggs that when she meets, have sex with the opposite sex, that is the male, there the sperm of the male can fertilize the egg produced by the girl and there will be what we call (.) there will be what we call_

3 WC: [PREGNANCY] (CON3)

In Extract 17, the students provided an answer to what the teacher explains as pregnancy. They have provided the answer to show that they understand what the teacher is saying. As Lerner (2004) indicates, this kind of overlap is collaborative in nature, and a means of evaluating participation in interactions.

4.1.3 Summary

In this part of the research analysis, I have tried to answer the first research question: what kinds of interruptions and overlaps occurred in the lesson delivery in the

three schools? I have discussed that silent, butting-in and simple interruptions prevalent in the classroom discourse in the schools. On the part of overlaps, choral, transitional and conditional access to turn are the kinds that occurred in the classroom discourse in the three schools.

4.2 Functions of Interruptions and Overlaps in Classroom Discourse

This section presents the social implications of the interruptions and overlaps that occur in the classroom discourse. This analysis has been done to demonstrate that text and talk have pragmatic significance. The study shows that interruptions and overlaps function in the following ways: to repair topic, to shift topic, as a means to show Interest in the topic, as a means to show power and a signal of solidarity

4.2.1 Topic Repair

According to Flowerdew (2013, p. 131) topic repair refers to the suspension of ongoing talk, in order to deal with some sort of *trouble*, where trouble refers to hearing, production or understanding. Repair is not a negative phenomenon, indicative of some deficiency, but a natural self-regulating device which is prevalent in all talk. Indeed, repair plays an important role in maintaining the overall coherence of talk and making total breakdown the very rare occurrence that it is. Let's take a look at Extract 18.

Extract 18

Extract 18 is a classroom discussion between the teacher and his students on the changes that take place among adolescents.

1.T: Growth in height and weight. Last time you remember I told you that I saw SP's picture and he Was a Baby_

2 SP: [was too small] ((all the students laugh))

3 T: the same applies to all of you, some people per their nature; they could be tall... or short.

4 T: Is that clear..

5 SP: [why that, Sir..?]

6 T: to you all? There are people who will not necessarily be growing in height or weight, but what you need to know is that the change occurs still in them_

7 WC: [yes...like SP

8 T: so the changes are not only outward as you think, they can be internal as well.

Extract 19

Extract 19 is a discussion between the teacher and the students on the changes that adolescent boys go through.

1	T:	((teacher writes on the board)) these two things that SP has mentioned what are they”?
2	SP:	((raises the hand)).
3	T:	You want to tell us about=
4	SP:	[Sir...h ejacula..tion]
5	T:	the two or?
6	T:	What is ejacula..tion ..?... ((a pupil raises the hand))
7	SP:	[bedwetting],
8	T:	[but you have not answered the question What is ejaculation? You said it (pointing to a pupil). ((Pupil laughs)) what is it?
9	SP:	[Sir.. eja..cula..tion is when the penis_]
10	WC:	((laughing)) erect to a ... (CON2)

From Extracts **18** and **19**, it is seen that the teacher is interrupted by the question of the student to deal with other things which have bearing on the topic under discussion. Again, the teacher sometimes leaves the topic and attends to clarify issues. This implies that topics are repaired to ensure that all the participants in the interaction process are satisfied with all that is in the interaction. The study justifies the idea that topic repair describes the suspension of ongoing interaction; in order to deal with some sort of trouble encountered in the previous topic (Flowerdew, 2013). Trouble in conversation analysis includes hearing, production and understanding (Flowerdew, 2013) and this has been carefully utilised in the study. For example, in Extract 18, the teacher is interrupted by the

student in line 6. As we can see, this interruption is meant to help clarify for a better understanding of what the teacher means when he says that one of the changes that occur in the adolescent is growth in height and weight and further indicates that one can still be tall or short but still experience growth. This explanation of the teacher appears quite confusing to the student so he immediately interrupts the teacher with a question which leads the teacher to give a better explanation. As evident in lines 8 and 9 of Extract 18, a clearer explanation has been given and the student has come out of the initial confusion. Similarly, in Extract 19, the teacher interrupts the student to give a better explanation to „ejaculation“. This shows that the initial answer of the student in line 7 does not fully answer the question. The teacher’s interruption then leads to a satisfactory explanation by the student in lines 9 and 10. Interruption therefore helps to clarify issues, at least, in classroom discourse.

As evident in Extracts **18** and **19**, it is important to indicate that topic repair has been used in the conversation to prevent communication freeze in places where troubles occurred in the classroom conversation. Extracts 18 and 19 for example, show that topic repair helps to avoid a situation where conversation ends in uncertainty of meaning. Secondly, topic repair helped to clarify ideas which suffered troubles in the topic treated by the teacher. One key thing for effective conversation is satisfaction which participants enjoy when ideas are coherently articulated. In a situation where a topic being discussed is not fully discussed before it is terminated, one party will obviously become dissatisfied which is a potential for conversation breakdown. Also, topic repair has been used to resolve misunderstanding, hearing difficulty, digressions which sometimes make

conversation boring. In Extract 20, the topic is made clearer for comprehension as a result of the interruptions and overlap.

Extract 20

Extract 20 is a discussion on the effects of mishandling money. Students are asked to mention some specific effects of not handling money properly.

1 T: Some are saying YES others are saying NO. Those who are saying YES, tell us why you are saying YES. Money becomes dirty, you are saying the money loses its value why? And if you're saying NO why?

2 SP: ((raises the hand))

3 T: Yes ((calls out a pupil))

4 SP: Yes, because the money is dirty_ the thing is YES be::cau:::se_

5 T: [yes we say when money becomes dirty the money loses its value (h.) Why are you saying yes?]

6 SP: Sir because the money is dirty, and am given it to this person (.) the person to take, <the person will not take it because>_...

7 T: [sorry I can't hear you]

8 SP: = the money is dirty so even if the person takes it, the person will not use it=

9 T: [=The person will not use the money↑]

10	SP	: Sir YES becau::::se if you send it no:::body will take it
11	T	: [The person will not use the money↑]
12	SP	: [Sir YES]
13	T	: [Anyone will reject the money_]
14	SP	: [Yes=]
15	T	: =for the fact that the money has become dirty, if I give you Ghana note and you tell me the money is dirty (SP: >sir yes<, the person will take and go and change it (h.) so you will not use the money_[
16	T	: Sorry
17	SP	: Sir, the person will take it and go and change the money
18	T	: The person will go and change the money↑
19	SP	: Yes Sir
20	T	: eerrh↑=

As we can see from the conversation in Extract **20**, the teacher (T) interrupts the student (SP) on two grounds. First, the teacher cuts in the speech of the student because he was missing the understanding, so the teacher repeats the question once more so that the student can make a better meaning. The second interruption occurs because the teacher did not hear the student well so he comes in to tell the student that he (the teacher) does not hear what he (the student) is saying. All these are done to ensure that the topic is well understood. This kind of interruption is therefore a smooth one. It does not rise to show a negative attempt on the part of the teacher to bully the student. Furthermore, the teacher is also interrupted by the student. The interruptions show that the students have well

understood the topic and so they complete the turn of the teacher for him. Lastly, topics were also repaired to reinforce some issues in the previous topic which suffered some form of troubles. Sometimes, the teacher visited a previous topic to deal with certain issues he felt were not well addressed.

4.2.2 Topic Shift

This is a situation where the focus of the subject is shifted by the interruption. This feature of conversation thrives in this study. In many of the cases, the teacher is made to shift from the on-going topic to engage other issues before coming back to the main subject matter. Topic shift occurs in interaction when a participant suggests a move or switch to a new topic which is entirely different from the one being discussed (Flowerdew, 2013). Topic shift occurs in one of these two ways: stepwise topic shift and disjunctive topic shift. Disjunctive topic shift is carried out by a participant through disjunctive topic shift markers. Wong (2002) posits that disjunctive topic shift markers are used in interaction when a participant wants to switch to a new topic abruptly or a new topic which is not highly relevant to the ongoing conversation. An example can be seen in Extract **21**.

From Extract **21**, we see clearly how the focus of the subject is shifted by the interruption of the student. As the teacher clearly introduces the class with a recap of who an adolescent is, the student goes ahead to talk about characteristics of adolescent. Even though, it is not a total deviation from the topic, yet is a leading comment which pushes the teacher from definitions to characteristics of adolescent. This is thus an example of the stepwise topic shift, a situation where a participant smoothly moves from the current

topic to a new one. The stepwise topic shift is therefore smooth since there is no explicit gap between the shifts from one topic to another. It is smoother because a transition, rather than a break, is observed between the two topics. In Extract 21, the SP raising of hands and interrupted comment both (at the same time) refer to the topic in progress, in signaling agreement, and clears the way for new topic to be discussed. Furthermore, in Extract 21, there is a semantic link between the two topics, as represented by SP, who is a participant in both of them.

Extract 21

In Extract 21, the teacher wants his students to explain who an adolescent is. The teacher is interrupted by a chorus answer from one of the students.

- 1 T: Yes, so we going to do a recap, short one, when we say adolescent who are we referring to? Yes... yes...
- 2 SP: [(SP interrupts by raising the hand as T talks) physical and emotional changes]
- 3 T: who can tell me?
- 4 T: Physical and emotional
- 5 WC: [changes]
- 6 T: physical and emotional [changes]. We also call the emotional changes as what? I know you are beyond thatthe physical changes at least can and every one of you will give more physical change so we start from this side_
- 7 WC: [SIR,SIR,] (students raise their hands)
- 8 T: of the class

4.2.3 As a Means to Show Interest in the Topic

The data that have been gathered prove that the interruptions and overlap that occur in the classroom discourse carry some functional implications, especially, between the teacher and the students. One of these was a means to show interest in the subject matter. In Extract 22, the student and the teacher negotiate meaning. The student's show of interest is signaled by his response „ok“ and the raising of his hands. This shows that he is interested in what the teacher is saying and thus wants to add to the teacher's comment.

Extract 22

Teacher explains the meaning „passage“ as part of the topic *rites of passage*.

- | |
|--|
| <p>1 T: Cultural practices. I will further explain what he said. What about PASSAGE, I don't mean your comprehension PASSAGE. In fact, PASSAGE comes from the word to pass_</p> <p>2 SP: [OK (raises the hand while the teacher is talking)]</p> <p>3 T: =So what I really want us to study today is that there are very important situations or periods in every human being and that is why I asked of examples living things passes through. Who knows the first stage everybody will pass through.....</p> |
|--|

As clearly demonstrated in Extract 22, interruptions and overlaps have purely social functions and these are relevant to the management of classroom discourse. This concurs with the opinion of Maroni et al (2008) that turn-taking is an important constituent of a

teaching-learning process. This type of overlap is called non-competitive or cooperative overlap and it functions as showing agreement or support to what the earlier speaker said.

Extract 23

In this Extract 23, the teacher responds to questions from the class. These include nocturnal emissions and menopause.

1 T: Nocturnal emissions are wet brains, please when a man and a woman involve themselves in a sexual activity, before pregnancy will come, there will be sperms going out from the male genitals into the female that is when the act is happening. For a young person of your age who is not married obviously you will not get another person to do that with, so in your sleep, nocturnal means (in the night) when you are there sleeping alone your imaginations can go into thinking that you want to do it and because there is no other human being (the emission). The release of the sperms will be in your mind, that is, all about nocturnal emission.

2 T: The last one, yes_

3 SP: [Sir Do men also get menopause?]

As we can see from Extract 23, the choral overlapping in lines 6 and 7 show the kind of mutual interest that exists between both the teacher and the students. In 23, the students employ two strategies to show their interest. The first is questioning in line 3. According to Lerner(2004) comments and questions are often uttered with another speaker's talk, yet they are signs of active listening rather than attempts to grab the floor to disrupt the

other. As we can clearly see from the conversation, the student interrupts the teacher by asking a question. This question serves as a means of showing their interest in the topic under discussion.

Extract 23 (Continued)

In this extract, the teacher responds to questions from the class. These include nocturnal emissions and menopause.

4 T: _menopause means that the monthly passage of blood stopping, men do not because in the first place men do not menstruate. Menopause simply means (cessation) or stopping of the monthly flow of blood but for me the idea of menopause is more or less the characteristics of complaint and plenty talking. Men also when they are old talk a lot.

5 T: We thank you for a wonderful class we are praying that you will not only pass the exams when these questions are asked but you also use the lessons to guide yourselves in this life from now till Jesus comes A_::::

6 WC :[A::ME:::N (h.) ((clapping))]

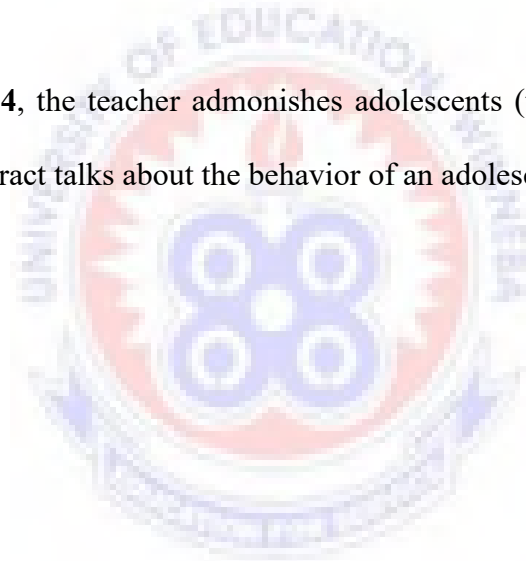
7 T: [Men]

As they enjoy the subject of menopause among women, the students have become so much interested in the topic that they have to ask questions to spark off more points for discussion. So another student asks whether men also experience menopause. It has given the teacher an opportunity to explain the term menopause clearly to the class. The second strategy is audience response. The students' choral response, „AMEN“ at the end of the teacher's explanation shows how participatory they are. They show their full

interest in the topic and even take it from a physical experience to a more spiritual one. To the students, the relationship they share with their teacher and is like that of the pastor and his congregants. And this may explain why they choose to respond „AMEN“. This way, interruptions and overlaps points to the relationship that exists between the teacher and the students – it is a friendly one. This debunks Sacks (2004) idea that an interruption is considered hostile, rude and disrespectful, with the interrupter an aggressor and the interruptee an innocent victim. The two parties have expressed much interest in the subject that they end up talking simultaneously.

Extract 24

In Extract 24, the teacher admonishes adolescents (the class) to be careful. The final part of this extract talks about the behavior of an adolescent.



1 T: So please as young girls growing up let us be mindful of the way we react to rules or guides authorities give us.

2 I want everybody's attention to be here,

3 T: Now the sixth one, ((pointing to a student))

4 T: Clave for independence, you want to do your own thing, so mummy (unclear)...

5 WC: [ooh, aah]

6 T: most of you think that grandma talks too much and

7 WC: [aah!!]

8 T: you wish at least at this stage, mummy and daddy will trust you on certain things, they should not be controlling you as they are currently doing but please, they are to guide you (refers to a pupil what is she is writing so busily?).

9 T: They are to guide you at the correct time, you will be independent but now please let us learn from the guides and the control of our parents, is very very important

10 T: now the final one, sensitivity to the environment, shyness is also a sign of our time so adolescents are extremely shy,

11 T: I may ask a question, he/she might know the answer but will never raise the hand_

In Extract 24, the students rely on what Gardner (2001) calls „response tokens“ to show their participation in the lesson taught. In lines 5, 7, 12 and 15, the students“ use of

response tokens show that they have understood the topic and that they are interested in it.

- 12 WC: [hummmm].
- 13 T: And in fact, the reason why most pupils will not answer questions in class is that they feel when they don't say it well a friend will laugh at them.
- 14 T: So am sure most people when you visit the lavatory, the urinal or the WC and you are coming you make sure that at least you have (...) (h.) and then everything is well before
- 15 WC: [Hhhhh YES SIR]
- 16 T: You come because you don't want for example how will you feel if suddenly everybody realizes that oh!.....
- 17 SP: [you have messed up yourself]
- 18 WC: [((hhhhhhh:::hh))]
- 19 T: [((hhhhhhh:::hhhh) and ...your panty colour yellow and (h.) white]

This confirms Gardner's (2001) idea that response tokens indicate that what another speaker has just said has been heard, acknowledged, possibly understood or agreed. This further shows that interruptions and overlaps function as a conversation strategy to show agreement or understanding of the preceding turn. The continuers and acknowledgement-tokens serve as a means of cooperation and involvement in the conversation.

4.2.4 As a Means of Showing Power

The study proves significantly that interruptions and overlaps signal who is powerful and who is less powerful. In other words, interruptions and overlaps clearly indicate who is in-charge of the management of the class. In the study, it is evident that the type of interruptions that is done by the teachers shows their power over their students. Most occasions, this function occurs when the interrupter disagrees with the interruptee. Let's consider Extracts 25, 26 and 27.

Extract 25

Teacher explains one way of mishandling money. He informs the class not to do that.

1 SP: [we should not perforate or...
2 T: [We should not perforate, the word is PERFORATE, ehe make your point again]
3 SP: →We should [not PERFORATE]
4 T: we should [NOT PERFORATE the COIN]
5 SP: [create or make any hole in the coin with any sharp pointed object].
6 T: Is that clear every:::::BODY here↑

In Extract 25, the teacher shows his superiority by interrupting the student to make him pronounce the word „perforate“ well. As the leader of the class, he must ensure that the subject is taught well. Here, the teacher shows his power over the students in terms of the subject matter, even pronunciation. This automatically puts the teacher ahead of the students. As clearly demonstrated in Extract 25, the teacher has shown his power by

demonstrating that he is more knowledgeable than the students. This explains why he interrupts the students. As such, interruptions and overlaps serve as a teaching strategy.

Extract 26

In this extract, the teacher helps the class by clarifying the definition of money. In Extract 26, there is unequal power demonstration. The teacher's response „I didn't say anything“ is quite authoritative as the video recording show. The teacher exercises this power to help shape the understanding of the students. It also informs the students to always pay attention when the teacher is talking or explaining something.

1 T: Alright, you've done well but let me help you. Money is a paper note or coin with its value printed on it given in exchange for goods, services and debt. Let me hear the whole class.

2 WC: (chorus) Money is anything_

3 T: [I didn't say anything. I said money is a bank note or coin with its value printed on it given in exchange for goods, services and debt. Let me hear you]

4 WC: →Money is a bank note or a coin with its value_

5 T: [with its value, printed on it, given]

6 WC : [with its value printed on it given in exchange for goods services and debt]

7 T : Again

8 WC : Money is a bank note or coin with its value printed on it given in exchange for goods, services and debt.

9 T : Do you understand the definition↑

Extract 27

This extract talks about the changes of an adolescent.

1. SP: <Broaden of hips and narrowing of waist>
2. T: [WE CAN'T HEAR YOU]
- 3 SP: line.
- 4 SP: BROADEN OF HIPS AND NARROWING OF WAIST LINE
- 5 T: So broaden of hips and narrowing of waist _
- 6 WC: [line]
- 7 T: broaden of wha::::t?
- 8 WC: [Hips and narrow::::wing of waist line]

This is also, an example to justify that interruptions are not always negative. It is clear from Extract 27 that interruptions have been used to repair the topic under discussion. The student creates a topic problem and the teacher resolves that through the interruption. It is obvious that classroom interaction is an interaction where “the participants do not accomplish the equality of communicative rights and obligations, but differentiate for unequal access to the power of managing the interaction” (Orletti, 2000, p. 12). The classroom therefore represents an asymmetrical interaction where the teacher not only attributes speaking turns but also controls thematic organization, opposite to the way equal conversation is led (Candela, 1999; Gomez & Mauri, 2000). It is this that explains why the teacher, in many cases, interrupts to put the lesson in order.

4.2.5 As a Signal of Solidarity

The study also shows that both the teacher and the students share some form of commonality, unity and cohesion. This sense of cohesion is established in the kind of common knowledge and understanding they share together. This kind of shared knowledge is what results in some form of overlap and interruption in the study. In Extract 28, the teacher and the students laugh together since they share a common knowledge about the topic. The overlap also communicates the atmosphere in the classroom. As a teacher, he knows when to laugh and when not to. All these turn taking strategies are aimed at ensuring a smooth communication.

Extract 28 clearly justifies that in many cases both the teacher and the students share a common knowledge with regard to the topic under discussion. Their cohesion is expressed in terms of laughter in Extract 28. As they engage in this simultaneous gesture, they establish that common grounds to complete each other's turn. The truth remains that as Erickson (1996) indicates parties' temporal localization of various actions, though not always foreseeable and calculable, is an important element of a conversation as a collective, mutual and complementary activity. Extract 28 shows that laughter is a complex phenomenon that does not always result from something being funny or amusing; rather, laughter services the needs of interactional situations and can be used to convey, among other things, intimacy, affiliation, delicateness or difficulty of the topic being discussed, mockery and contempt in addition to humour (Glenn, 2003; Jefferson, 2004). In the case of Extract 28, laughter has been used as a marker of intimacy. This use of laughter clarifies Jefferson's (1985) idea that laughter can be started, sustained and terminated consciously and can be used, consequently as an interactional resource.

Extract 28

In this extract, crucial changes of the adolescents are clarified by both the teacher and the students.

1 T: But what you are saying is true,

2 T: the young boy at an adolescent, because of the (testestro) genes also has to get an enlarge space to keep the sperms...

3 WC: [eeiii]

4 T: and that is why the genitals, the penis gets, what are some of the (demonstrates) (hhhhh)

5 WC: [(h) eermm]

6 T: now let me hear the final one, the final one is this ((claps the hand to stop them from talking)),

7 T: Young girls, once you see that you are menstruating and the hips are enlarged

8 SP: [wow]

9 T: [((hhhhh.)) curve, putting up a beautiful shape]

10 WC: ((hhhhh))

11 T: You will look very, very attractive but before you are carried away by your attractiveness, next time grandma comes to the house, look at grandma very well_

12 WC: [eeiiii ((hhhhh))_]_

13 T: that is how or that was how mummy will look like and you with curved body and Coca-Cola shape, you will one day look like your grandmother

14 WC: [eeiiii ((laughing))],

15 T: [so don't take undue ...]

4.2.6 Summary

This section of the analysis has answered the research question two: what are the functions of interruptions and overlaps in the lesson delivery in the three schools? The discussion has demonstrated that topic repair, topic shift, means to show interest, means to show power and a signal of solidarity are the functions of interruptions and overlaps in the lesson delivery of the three schools. It has been concluded that interruptions and overlaps present a strong social implication in the classroom.

4.3 Effects of Interruption and Overlap

This study examined interruptions and overlaps in discourse in a bid to ascertain the kind of simultaneous speech that go on in our classrooms. The objective of conversation analysis is to describe social interaction with respect to the actions that these social exchanges are used to perform based on the perspectives of the interlocutors (Flowerdew, 2013). This means that conversation analysis views conversation as containing speech actions which come together to ensure cohesion and coherence in social interactions. Turn-taking in conversation analysis is regarded as one important feature that regulates the process of interaction among participants. However, Flowerdew (2013) has asserted that even advanced learners of a second or foreign language most at times encounter challenges in sustaining the floor of conversation particularly in multiparty talk. This challenge is attributed to the fact that interlocutors always fall short in the turn-taking process. It is this weakness in turn-taking system that this part of my analysis focuses. Effect is the result from any activities or an outcome from an activity

which has been done. The effect of interruption and overlap is discussed under this theme of analysis.

4.3.1 Understanding of Subject Matter

One of the effects of interruptions and overlaps that occurred in the analysis is the understanding of subject matter. It has been seen that some of the interruptions bring about better understanding of the subject matter of the discussion. It also shows the students have knowledge of the subject matter. Let's see the Extract 29.

Extract 29

In Extract 29, the teacher wants the class to give him another name for birth rites.

1 T: Birth rite is called::::	
2 SP:	[NAMING CEREMONY]
3 T:	[what?]
4 SP:	[Naming or outdooring]
5 T: Let's clap for him.	

As we can see from Extract 29, the students interrupt the teacher by completing what he wants to say. This kind of interruption reveals that the students understand and shares the same idea as the teacher. This makes enough reason to say that in classroom discourse, interruption suggests an understanding of the subject being treated. In the example, the interruption of the student shows that he knows and understands what the teacher is talking about. Hence, he cannot wait but to conclude the sentence for the teacher. As clearly evident in Extract 29, the student interrupts the teacher by providing the

alternative term for the topic of the day, birth rite, in this case „Naming Ceremony“. This shows that the student has understood the lesson and therefore can supply any information to explain the topic. This shows that interruptions are possible in situations where lessons are understood. In Extract **29**, the student provides the answer even before the teacher finishes asking the question. Such feedbacks are though disruptive, yet in classroom discourse they appear to function as a means of evaluating the students understanding of the subject matter. The student’s usage of interruption as evident in **29** does not accord with Zimmerman and West (1983) idea that interruptions have the potential to disrupt turns at talk, disorganize the ongoing construction of conversational topics and violate the current speaker’s right to be engaged in speaking. The kind of interruption in Extract 29 justifies James and Clarke (1993) position that with interruptions, speakers can work out a topic or story together and produce a shared meaning. Lerner (2004) finds that comments and questions are often uttered with another speaker’s talk, yet they are signs of active listening rather than attempts to grab the floor and Extracts **28** and **29** justify this idea.

Extract 30

In this extract, the teacher wants to know from the students the various rites performed on individuals at each stage of their lives.

1 T: They all value things, periods, that we go through. So, there are RITES, there are rites, there are special ceremonies we organize for pupils at these various junctions of their lives. So, for example, a child, what is the ceremony we organise for?

2 T: And then an old person...

3 WC: [Sir, Sir Funerals, owuo].

4 T: well=>One at a time Let me know the person's hand< ((Calls out a pupils))

↓Ye::::ss_

5 SP: Death Rite

6 T: [Death=]

7 SP [rite or a Funeral]=

8 T: Let's clap for her°

As can further be seen in Extract 30, the student interrupts and overlaps the teacher to provide the answer the teacher is asking. This shows that the student really understands what the teacher is teaching. This further shows that the subject matter of the lesson has been understood by the students. It must be noted that students sometimes overlap or interrupt to ascertain what has been explained. It makes sense to say that in cases that students have understood lessons in class they show their understanding of the subject matter by providing feedbacks that are likely to even interrupt the lessons. This kind of interruption in many cases, serves as a healthy, functional and confirming communicative role (Lerner, 2004). The truth is that the role of the teacher is to introduce the lesson and teach the students, while the students give feedback to show that the lesson is understood

or not. Interruptions, therefore, function to show how interlocutors in classroom discourse take turns to communicate their roles.

4.3.2 Staying on Course

The analysis showed that interruption was used to show coherence in dealing with the lessons that were taught. The teacher ensures that there is unity and uniformity of ideas. He normally cuts in when the students are not coherent with their submissions. Let us consider Extract **31** for example.

In Extract 31, interruption has been used to ensure that students do not digress. In line 7 of Extract 31, the student's mention of „bedwetting“ could have shifted the focus of the lesson so the teacher interrupts by telling the student that he has not answered the question on „ejaculation“. It is this interruption that makes the student stay on track in order to keep the lesson going.

Extract 31

In this extract, the teacher seeks the meaning of ejaculation from a student

- 1 T: ((teacher writes on the board)) these two things that SP has mentioned what are they”?
- 2 SP: ((raises the hand)).
- 3 T: You want to tell us about=
- 4 SP: [Sir...h ejacula..tion]
- 5 T: the two or?
- 6 T: What is ejacula..tion ..?... ((a student raises the hand))
- 7 SP: [bedwetting],
- 8 T: [but you have not answered the question What is ejaculation? You said it (pointing to a pupil). ((Students laugh)) what is it?
- 9 SP: [Sir.. eja..cula..tion is when the penis_]
- 10 WC: ((laughing)) erect to a ... (CON2)

4.3.3 Summary

The last research question has been answered in this section of the analysis: what are the effects of interruptions and overlaps in the lesson delivery of the three schools?. The discussion has shown that students and teachers interrupt or overlap because they seek to understand what is being discussed. Again, interruptions and overlaps help interlocutors to stay on course leading to coherence in the delivery of the lesson. All in all, interruptions help the teacher to ensure consensus and consistency of ideas.

4.5 Conclusion

Thus far, chapter 4 has offered an in-depth analysis and discussion of the classroom interactions from a CA perspective. It has discussed the findings that emerged from the study. As I have indicated in the discussion above, classroom discourse is characterized with interruptions and overlaps. The analysis has demonstrated that silent, butting-in and simple interruptions had been prevalent in the classroom discourse. Again, the discussion has shown choral overlap, transitional overlap and conditional access to turn as the kinds of overlaps that emerged in the analysis. On the issue of function, I have discussed repair topic, shift topic, a means to show Interest in the topic, a means to show power and a signal of solidarity as the functions of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse.

For effects of interruptions and overlaps, I have argued that interruptions and overlaps help students to better understand the topics been discussed in the classroom. On the part of the teacher, the teacher feels satisfied that the class has understood his lesson. Finally, interruptions and overlaps help teachers and students to stay on course why teaching and learning. This is because teachers interrupt to ensure that students don't go overboard on the lesson been taught. Likewise, students also interrupt themselves to ensure that they are on truck. All in all, this chapter has demonstrated that interruptions and overlaps play a major role in classroom discourse and detailed knowledge of them by both teachers and students will go a long way to enhance teaching and learning the classroom. The next chapter concentrates on the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Overview

This chapter of the thesis presents the summary of the findings, the conclusions of the study, the role of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse, pedagogical implications of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse and further makes recommendations for future researchers. This research seeks to analyse all instances of simultaneous talk in classroom discourse. The study specifically seeks to ascertain the kind of interruptions and overlaps that occur in the classroom discourse, determine the functions of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse and examine the effects of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse. The researcher adopted the qualitative research approach and case study as the design. The target population of this study constituted Junior High School (JHS) pupils from Bediako Memorial Institute, Gateway School Complex and Jonasu Academy all in Kasoa, a town in the central region of Ghana. The researcher used video camera and audio recorder as instruments for the data collection. This was to help the researcher record and capture the verbal and non-verbal behaviours of the participants for better analysis of the data. Three lessons were videotaped in all, which involved one from each school. The class size was also considered for the collection of the data. Thus, none of the class size in the three schools exceeded thirty-five (35). This was done to ensure that the classroom discourse reflect the recommended class size by the Ghana Education Service. In view of this, thirty-two

pupils, thirty-four and fifteen pupils constituted the class sizes of Bediako Memorial Institute, Gateway School Complex and Jonasu Academy respectively.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The first research question looks at the kinds of interruptions and overlaps that occurred in the classroom discourse. Based on the occurrence of speaker-switch, simultaneous speech, and the completion of first speaker utterance, Ferguson (1977) devises a categorization scheme for interruptions and the first research question was analysed on the basis of this categorization scheme. The study revealed that interruptions and overlaps occur in classroom discourse. The study discovered that interruptions such as silent interruptions, butting-in interruption, simple interruption as kinds of interruptions that occurred in the classroom discourse. Again, the study revealed that overlaps also occurred in the classroom discourse. The study specifically revealed choral overlap, transitional overlap, conditional access to the turn as the kinds of overlaps that occurred in the classroom discourse.

The second research question also aimed at investigating the functions of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse. The study revealed that topic repair, topic shift as one of the functions of interruptions and overlaps. The study also discovered that interruptions and overlap function as a means to show interest in topics under discussion. The study further showed that interruption and overlap serve as a means of showing power. The study again revealed that interruption and overlap functioned as a signal of solidarity, unity and cohesion in the classroom discourse. The last research question looked at the effects of interruption and overlap in the classroom

discourse. First, the study showed that interruptions and overlaps have some effects on classroom discourse. The study showed that understanding of subject matter and consistency and coherence are the major effects of interruptions and overlaps in the classroom discourse.

5.2 The Role of Interruptions and Overlaps in Classroom Discourse

Interruption is often seen as a negative gesture for someone to take the floor. However, in this study, it has been proven that interruptions can be used as a way to encourage and support other speakers (in this case, students) in lesson completion. This study deviates from earlier views that interruption is primarily used for negative purposes in classroom discourse (Xu, 2009; Zimmerman & West, 1975). This study rather agrees with Karpowitz and Mendelbeg (2014) on the grounds that interruption is a way of supporting the current speaker without depreciating that speaker's efficaciousness. In the study, supportive/cooperative interruptions are dominantly used. The use of these types aided the students to easily explain their points and ideas, even in a complicated topic. In the study, it is realised that the use of the supportive interruption is not just limited to one-word responses but include whole sentences that support and enhance what both the teacher and the students say about topics under discussion. This shows that interruption has been used to enhance teaching and learning.

On overlap, cooperative and intrusive are the main types. The study establishes that from the student's point of view, most of the students overlap because they want to ascertain what the teacher has explained. This role of overlap is effective as it enhances students' understanding of the topic under discussion. One very significant role of

overlap is seen in the way the teacher responds to the students who overlap. Thus, it can be said that teachers actually respond to students who often overlap in the classroom interaction, provided that the overlap is still in accordance with the purpose of learning and does not interfere with class conditions. When these are done, students get more understanding than they earlier overlapped. Summarily, both interruption and overlap perform two vital roles - cooperative and intrusive role. As a cooperative mechanism, interruption and overlap are used to assist both teachers and the students in understanding the subject matter and also to show agreement with others about the topic under discussion. As an intrusive mechanism, both interruption and overlap help to clarify issues for a better understanding of the topics being taught.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

This study has pedagogical implications. Based on the findings of the study, it is found out that most of the interruption and overlap are from the teacher to the students. There is little student initiative and little student-student interruption and overlap. Influenced by the traditional learning style and habits, the students appear passive in their initiation of interruption and overlap in the interaction. This accounted for the many failed interruptions on the part of the students. If students are not involved in the turn taking systems, then the implications are that they are passive in the learning activity. The study has enough evidence to say that the students who interrupt and overlap are, to a greater extent, very active in the teaching and learning process. In view of the rare student initiation of discussion and quite poor student participation, teachers need to create the needed classroom interactional environment which can facilitate students'

active involvement in classroom interactions. Teachers should employ teaching methods like debates, presentations, questioning and answering, discussions etc. in order to involve students actively in their teaching and learning process. These methods of teaching will automatically spark off the students to interrupt and overlap in order to achieve the importance of interruption and overlap as discussed in **5.2**. Interruptions and overlaps are an important aspect of conversation techniques that enable one to start a conversation and remain involved in that conversation.

On the basis of the findings, teachers should note that students who interrupt and overlap more are not always challenging them or are being too knowing. Hence, teachers should not disregard their interruptions. Teachers should know that such students' contributions to the class are as significant in comparison with other students who have fewer interruptions to none interruptions. In this study, for example, the teacher interrupts a lot in the classroom, yet it does not seem that he wants to just exercise power over the students neither is the teacher's interruption offensive to the students, rather the students were more encouraged to take part in the discussion. Teachers of the Ghana Education Service, as well as all teachers in the other tertiary institutions, should employ interruption and overlap as a mechanism to support teaching and learning. Since the new curriculum advocates student-centered activity, teachers should adopt interruption and overlap to involve the students in the teaching process. The researcher agrees with McCarthy (2002) on the stance that learning how to manage turn-taking is the very basis for learning how to communicate effectively in the classroom.

5.4 Conclusion

The study has shown that language plays a crucial role in human existence as a means of socialisation. The study has shown that in CA, conversation is conceived as speech actions which build together to create coherent social interactions. This study has shown that conversation analysis does not involve itself with the use of any speech acts. Rather, true to their ethnomethodological approach, conversation analysts use, as far as possible, categories employed by the participants involved in interaction themselves. Actions that they are interested in include asking, answering, disagreeing, offering, contesting, requesting, teasing, finessing, complying, performing, noticing, promising, and so forth (Schegloff, 2007, p. 7). Working inductively from the bottom up with interruption and overlap, CA has been able to reveal a rich body of facts about conversation and demonstrate that it follows an elaborate, but systematic, set of rules, or architecture. The analysis of the interruptions and overlaps in this study has shown that CA is the best methodology for the analysis of spoken text in order to find out conversational rules in talks.

Interruption and overlap are key in terms of the analysis of turn construction units in CA. This justifies Flowerdew's (2013) idea that CA offers a theory and methodology which allow us to understand how talk is used in interaction in both everyday and institutional practices. It offers a clear and replicable methodology and a body of research findings against which ongoing studies (in CA) can be bench-marked. The analysis has essentially shown that interruptions and overlaps in classroom discourse are key discourse elements that foster understanding between and among participants (teacher and students) in the classroom. This revelation gives credence to, and concludes with

Flowerdew's (2013) on the position that regarding foreign- and second-language learning contexts, contrastive work offers the possibility of highlighting differences in how talk is organised across cultures, with its potential for feeding into syllabus and materials design. More broadly, the study concludes that CA offers a powerful model of talk which can serve as a target for learning and for understanding and intervening in classroom interaction.

5.5 Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the findings, the following recommendations are made:

1. Future researchers should focus on interruption as a means of power in classroom discourse.
2. The study could not account for non-verbal cues in detail as interruptions. Future research could look at how non-verbal cues function as interruptions in talks.
3. Future research can also focus on analysing classroom discourse using different analytical tools like corpora or critical discourse analysis.
4. In the present study, there were instances of code-switching in the interactions between the teacher and the students. Future research can look at the function of code-switching in the classroom.
5. This study took a more functional perspective into interruptions and overlaps. Other studies could look at the structural implications of interruptions and overlap.

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APPENDIX A

Below is a Jeffersonian transcribed classroom conversation between a teacher and his students on the topic ‘Managing of Finances’

Interlocutors: Teacher (T), Single Pupil (SP), Whole Class (WC)

1. SP : We should not BUR:.....Y money in the sand
2. T : >Pardon<
3. SP : We should not burry money_
4. T : [we should not burry money]
5. SP: [in the sand].
6. T: Do you sometimes burry money=
7. WC : =[Sir yes]
8. T: [in the sand?]
9. T : For what reasons (calls out SP)
10. SP: Saving: People say they are saving_
11. T: [you want to save money in the earth]
12. T: You dig a hole and put the money and cover it in sand, is it a good practice?]
13. WC : <No> (CON 2)

1. T: The LIFE SPAN of the money is reduced. Meaning, when let's assume that the money was to last for 5-10 years, if we don't handle the money properly, it will last for about 2 to 3 years and that money will be out of the system.
- 2 T: Is that clear=
- 3 WC: [Yes Sir]
- 4 T: =everybody?
- 5 T: and so we should learn to handle money properly_
- 6 SP: [when money is not handled properly, the central bank will be compelled to redraw the faded money thereby reducing the amount of money in circulation_
- 7 T: Because
- 8 T: alright, clap for her

Extract 20 is a discussion on the effects of mishandling money. Students are asked to mention some specific effects of not handling money properly.

- 1 T: Some are saying YES others are saying NO. Those who are saying YES, tell us why you are saying YES. Money becomes dirty, you are saying the money loses its value why? And if you're saying NO why?
- 2 SP : ((raises the hand))
- 3 T : Yes ((calls out a pupil))

- 4 SP : Yes, because the money is dirty_ the thing is YES
be::cau:::se_
- 5 T: [yes we say when money becomes dirty the money loses its value
(h.) Why are you saying yes?]
- 6 SP: Sir because the money is dirty, and am given it to this person (.) the
person to take, <the person will not take it because>_...
- 7 T: [sorry I can't hear you]
- 8 SP: = the money is dirty so even if the person takes it, the person will
not use it=
- 9 T : [=The person will not use the money↑]
10. SP : Sir YES becau:::se if you send it no:::body will take it
- 11 T : [The person will not use the
money↑]
12. SP : [Sir YES]
13. T : [Anyone will reject the money_]
14. SP : [_Yes=]
- 15 T: =for the fact that the money has become dirty, if I give you Ghana
note and you tell me the money is dirty (SP: >sir yes<, the person will take and go and
change it (h.) so you will not use the money_ [

16 T : Sorry

17 SP : Sir, the person will take it and go and change the money

18. T : The person will go and change the money↑

19. SP : Yes Sir

20 T : eerrh↑=



APPENDIX B

Below is a Jeffersonian transcribed classroom conversation between a teacher and his students on the topic 'Rites of Passage'

Interlocutors: Teacher (T), Single Pupil (SP), Whole Class (WC)

1. T: Wow! Micro organism that is true. In fact, the reason why I ask of living things is that they all have one thing that is common in all the examples they gave.

2 T: But the topic we want to treat is= [RITES OF PASSAGE]

3 WC: [RITES OF PASSAGE] =

4 T: We will solicit the link between this topic and living things. But from the topic, there are two important words 1. RITES and am more particular about this word because sometimes if you don't understand this word very well you will write ((writes on the board)) rights. I see it mostly in my examination papers. ((Does illustration on the board to show pupils that he is referring to RITES not RIGHTS)) am not referring to this (rights), am referring to this (rites) of and the second important word is PASSAGE, so who can attempt the meaning of either rites or passage? Rites means what?

1. T: [We have said that an adolescent refers to a person who falls between the ages of _]

2 WC: [10 and 19 years old].

3 T: From this side, I clearly see that all of us in this class are adolescent. Who is under ten (10) here?

1. T :PHYSICAL AND EMOTIONAL

2 WC: [changes]=physical and emotional changes.

3 T: We also call the emotional changes as what?

1. T: Growth in height and weight. Last time you remember I told you that I saw SP's picture and he Was a Baby_

2 SP: [was too small] ((all the students laugh))

3 T: the same applies to all of you, some people per their nature; they could be tall... or short.

4 T: Is that clear..

5 SP: [why that, Sir..?]

6 T: to you all? There are people who will not necessarily be growing in height or weight, but what you need to know is that the change occurs still in them_

7 WC: [yes...like SP

8 T: so the changes are not only outward as you think, they can be internal as well.

APPENDIX C

Below is a Jeffersonian transcribed classroom conversation between a teacher and his students on the topic ‘Adolescent Reproductive Health’

Interlocutors: Teacher (T), Single Pupil (SP), Whole Class (WC)

Extract 19 is a discussion between the teacher and the students on the changes that adolescent boys go through.

- 1 T: ((teacher writes on the board)) these two things that SP has mentioned what are they”?
- 2 SP: ((raises the hand)).
- 3 T: You want to tell us about=
- 4 SP: [Sir...h ejacula..tion]
- 5 T: the two or?
- 6 T: What is ejacula..tion ..?... ((a pupil raises the hand))
- 7 SP: [bedwetting],
- 8 T: [but you have not answered the question What is ejaculation? You said it (pointing to a pupil). ((Pupil laughs)) what is it?
- 9 SP: [Sir.. eja..cula..tion is when the penis_]
- 10 WC: ((laughing)) erect to a ...

In this extract, the teacher wants his students to explain who an adolescent is. The teacher is interrupted by a chorus answer from one of the students.

1 T: Yes, so we going to do a recap, short one, when we say adolescent who are we referring to? Yes... yes...

2 SP: [(SP interrupts by raising the hand as T talks) physical and emotional changes]

3 T: who can tell me?

4 T: Physical and emotional

5 WC: [changes]

6 T: physical and emotional [changes]. We also call the emotional changes as what? I know you are beyond thatthe physical changes at least can and every one of you will give more physical change so we start from this side_

7 WC: [SIR,SIR,] (students raise their hands)

8 T: of the class

APPENDIX D

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TRANSCRIPTION

Jeffersonian Transcription Notation includes the following symbols:

Symbol	Name	Use
[text]	Brackets	Indicates the start and end points of overlapping speech.
=	Equal Sign	Indicates the break and subsequent continuation of a single interrupted utterance.
(# of seconds)	Timed Pause	A number in parentheses indicates the time, in seconds, of a pause in speech.
(.)	Micropause	A brief pause, usually less than 0.2 seconds.
. or ↓	Period or Down Arrow	Indicates falling pitch.
? or ↑	Question Mark or Up Arrow	Indicates rising pitch.
,	Comma	Indicates a temporary rise or fall in intonation.
-	Hyphen	Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance.
>text<	Greater than / Less than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more rapidly than usual for the speaker.
<text>	Less than / Greater than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more slowly than usual for the speaker.
°	Degree symbol	Indicates whisper or reduced volume speech.
ALL CAPS	Capitalized text	Indicates shouted or increased volume speech.
underline	Underlined text	Indicates the speaker is emphasizing or stressing the speech.
:::	Colon(s)	Indicates prolongation of an utterance.
(hhh)		Audible exhalation
? or (.hhh)	High Dot	Audible inhalation
(text)	Parentheses	Speech which is unclear or in doubt in the transcript.
((italic text))	Double Parentheses	Annotation of non-verbal activity.

Jeffersonian Transcription Notation is described in G. Jefferson, "Transcription Notation," in J. Atkinson and J. Heritage (eds), *Structures of Social Interaction*, New York: Cambridge University Press, 1984.