Investigation of Turn-taking Strategies:

The Case of Master Students of English Language at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia,Jijel

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Declaration

We hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation is entirely the result of our investigation, and that due reference or acknowledgement is made, whenever necessary, to the work of other researchers.

Date: ……………….

Signed: ………………

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Acknowledgements

Dedication

We dedicate this work

To our families

Our friends

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Abstract

The study aims at casting light on one of the main problems that English language university students face up when conversing. It attempts thus to explore the master English language students competence in managing turn taking strategies. To achieve this aim we audio recorded five conversations which occurred naturally and spontaneously among a sample of students who were randomly selected. These conversations were using a conversation analysis approach, and were transcribed in order to display how students participate in talk and to retrieve the data about the usage of turn taking strategies and their signals in real life interaction. The results obtained indicate that the students of Master have high competence when managing the talk in English language. Furthermore, the data suggest that there are some problems that appear in forms of overlaps, silences, and the high number of pauses, it shows also that not all of the students were capable of overcoming those problems. On the other hands, the students who were able to handle the problems succeeded in keeping their turns and jumping into conversations at the right time.

List of Abbreviations

CA: Conversation Analysis

DA: Discourse Analysis

EPP: First Pair Part

SPP: Second Pair Part

TCU: Turn-Constructional Unit

TRP: Transition Relevance Place

List of Tables

Table of Contents

General Introduction

<u>**Chapter One:**</u> **Conversation Analysis**

ix

General Introduction

1. Introduction

Taking turns in conversation is usually as effortless as breathing. However, few people have given any conscious consideration to just discover exactly how we manage our turn taking in talk – in- interaction.

Turn- taking practices organize the allocation of opportunities to participate in conversation and the turn taking for conversation, is key to understanding human conduct, because most actions carried out through talking are human conduct , because most actions are shaped by the organization of that talk into speaking turns: it shapes how speakers compose their contribution, it shapes where they position those contribution in the ongoing interaction, and it shapes when they get to participate.

Master English students at university are often expected to take turns. They might have to take turns with their classmates, or teachers wait for their turn to talk, or wait to get a teacher attention. Taking turns can be very challenging, but it is an important social skill for students to learn. Like any other skill, turn taking can be taught. Some students are able to understand, learn and use this skill without too much assistance, for other students taking turns can be extremely difficult. Waiting for a turn to talk even if the wait is just a few minutes might be more than some students can handle.

2. Background of The Study

Taboada (2004), presented an analysis of turn-taking strategies in two different sets of task oriented conversation which are spontaneous and non spontaneous. These conversations have been examined in terms of three characteristics turn yielding, turn holding and turn taking. He found that there are significant differences between the two in terms of turn yielding, and turn holding, and

when we control the turn-taking through mechanical means, the typical features of turn- taking decrease in frequency.

kato (2000), in her dissertation, looked at the tone choice of speakers in turn-taking. The analysis is mainly concerned with the relation between the first tone choice of the next speaker's or the listener's utterance, and the last tone choice of the speaker's statement from utterance in turn-taking, with respect to the meaning of the tone choice through comparison between the turn-end, and the turn- beginning tones. it is believed that attention should be paid not to the tone appearance but to the listener's attention, and interpretation of the speaker's tone and the listener's the next speaker's message reflected in his/ her tone choice for a response.

Sert & Seedhouse (2011), in their paper, argued that conversation analysis has been employed in many different ways in applied linguistics, to develop areas such as teacher training, testing, and materials design. it has helped to develop our understanding of how contruct such as learning and competence are realized in interaction. Perhaps its main contributions have been to provide us with a realistic idea of what actually happens in language learning talk and to enable a process account of language learning through interaction.

Dong (2007), in his paper tried to give an account of how turn-taking is realized in conversational interactions, the discussion was made about:

   1- General discussions about interactions,

   2-Turn-taking cues,

   3-Varieties of gesticulation and body movements in turn taking ,

   4-Differences in turn taking,

He concluded that an interaction analytic turn-taking system has to take into account more than talk, it encompasses the whole range of behaviours through which people can take a turn that is

participated in an interactional exchange system. Not only turns at talk must be considered but also turn with bodies and turns with artifacts.

In our study, we try to make a small contribution towards conversation analysis and discourse analysis approaches, particularly on turn taking strategies. The main focus is on its construction, organization and the signals used by the master English language students of Jijel University.

3. Research Problem

English language students at University could actually apply to a very large number of quite different social encounters. For example, a teacher talking to student in a classroom , students talking to classmates… etc. they could have a very difficult time taking turns.

In our study, we want to identify what goes on in conversations, especially with regard to turn-taking strategies. To tackle the matter, the following question is worth- asking:

What are the turn-taking strategies used by Master English language students at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel?

4. Aim of The Study

This research aims at:

-   Unveiling and exploring the turn-taking strategies used by the English language students.

This research makes a case for exploring the norms of conversational turn-taking in English language. It debunks some common misperception about the way turn- taking works in conversation and provides a brief overview of a more accurate description of conversational turn- taking, as revealed by studies of conversational analysis (CA).

5. Methodology of Research

The nature of the subject to be treated dictates the choice of the research method, i.e. the topic, the aim of the research, the sample under investigation. And the collected data, impose the use of specific method.

In this research we conduct a field study about Jijel English language university students of Jijel. The students are selected randomly. They are aged between 18 to 28 years old. In order to achieve the aim of our research, we audio record five (05) sections collected from naturally occurring conversations among the students, and try to transcribt them with the letters of alphabet, to retrieve the essential data that allow us to find out the turn- taking strategies used by the students, and the significant features that characterize their talk.

6. Organization of The Study

This study consists of three chapters. In chapter one, we review the main different approaches to study the spoken language which are conversation analysis and discourse analysis.

Chapter two is mainly devoted to study turn-taking from conversation analysis point of view. It will be also directed to the turn-taking system, signals, and the main strategies used by the speakers.

Chapter three presents the methodology of this investigation concerning the previous chapters, along with the results obtained from the analysis and the transcription of different recordings.

Chapter one:
Conversation Analysis

Chapter One: Conversation Analysis

Introduction

A human being cannot exist alone, one of the most important characteristics of a human is being social, and talk is the only portal a person can pass through to achieve social interaction. We use talk to argue, to complain, to criticize, to plead, to commemorate, to try to get support, to justify, to entertain and so on. Clearly, if we didn't talk we would not have the lives we do.

Even-though, talk has such an important role in our lives, everyday nature of talk was unfairly neglected as a subject of study in linguistics, since its primary focus was only language, its components and roots. But thanks to Chomsky and his revolutionary works, the subject of linguistics was extended to study language in conversation, and since the 1960's increasing importance has been given to the analysis of conversation as a field of study.

In the first part of this chapter we shed the light on conversation as general aspect, and then investigate the conversation analysis concept, and finally the different approaches to CA, including of course their definitions, historical backgrounds, strengths and weaknesses of each one separately.

1. Definition of Conversation

Conversation is one of the most prevalent uses of human language. All human beings engage in conversational interaction and human society depends on conversation in order to function.

According to Oxford Dictionary, "conversation is an informal talk involving small group of people or only two" (Horny, 2010, p.332). Conversation is also defined as:

> *The impromptu, spontaneous, everyday exchange of talk between two or more*
>
> *people. Conversation may be taken to be that familiar predominant 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 (Levinson,1983, p. 284)*

In other words, conversation is the way in which people socialize and develop and sustain their relationships with each other. When people converse they engage in a form of linguistic communication, but there is much more going on in conversation than just the use of a linguistic code. Much that is important in conversation is carried out by things other than language, including eye gaze and body posture, silences and real- world context in which the talk is produced. (Liddicoat, 2007, p.01)

Conversation has received great deal of attention from writers over a very long period of time; however, much of what has been written about conversation is perspective in nature and deals with the idea of what makes a good conversationalist. Such approaches to conversation take the form of a set of prescriptive rules which describe what a conversation should be. They present sets of social rules which indicate which topics are appropriate or how language is to be used for maximum effect. These principles of what constitutes good or appropriate conversation vary from culture to culture and change over time. Such approaches to conversation show little about conversation as a normal everyday human activity, but frame conversation as an elite activity governed by the conventions of "polite society". However, conversation is not solely an elite activity, but rather an everyday one, and it is important to understand how it is that people engage in this everyday activity as a structured social event.(Liddicoat, 2007, p.01)

2. Different Approaches to Conversation Analysis

There are two different approaches to conversation analysis: conversation analysis approach, discourse analysis approach, interaction analysis and ethnography of communication. However, In this chapter we focus on conversation analysis approach, and discourse analysis approach.

2.1. Conversation Analysis Approach

2.1.1. Definition of Conversation Analysis

Conversation analysis is an approach to the study of social interaction that focuses on practices of speaking that recur across a range of contexts and settings. The early studies in this tradition were based on the analysis of English conversation. More recently, however, conversation analysts have begun to study talk in a broader range of communities around the world. (Sidnell,2009)

Conversation analysis is analytical methodology that attempts to describe the actions of participants in terms of the relevancies demonstrated by participants through their interaction (Pomerant & Fehr,1991, p.64). Actions are analyzed as situated within a stream of ongoing action and as sequentially organized. Furthermore, conversation analysts presume that actors design their action to fit the particular circumstances in which they are accomplished and which thereby reproduce, extend and help constitute these actions. (Zemel, Xhafa & Cakir, n.d,03)

Conversation analysis is a method for investigating the structure and process of social interaction between humans. It focuses primarily on talk, but integrates also the nonverbal aspects of interaction in its research design. As their data, CA studies use video or audio recordings made from naturally occurring interaction. As their results CA studies yield descriptions of recurrent structures and practices of social interaction. CA studies can focus either on ordinary conversations taking place between acquaintances or family members, or on institutional encounters where the participants accomplish their institutional tasks through their interaction. CA elucidates basic aspects of human sociality that reside in talk, and it examines the ways in which specific social institutions are invoked in, and operate through talk.(Peräkylä, n.d., p. 01).

Conversation analysis studies the organization and orderliness of social interaction. In order to do this, it begins with an assumption that the conduct, including talk, of everyday life is produced as sensible and meaningful. The central goal of conversation analytic research is the description and explication of the competences that ordinary speakers use and rely on in participating in intelligible socially organized interaction. At its most basic, this objective is one of describing the procedures by which conversationalists produce their own behaviour and understand that of others .(Liddicoat, 2007, p. 06)

Conversation analysis studies the order, organization, orderliness of social action, particularly those social actions that are located in everyday interaction, in discursive practices, in the sayings, telling, doings of members of society. Its basic assumptions are:

1. Order is a produced orderliness. That is, order does not occur of its one accord no does it pre-exist the interaction, but is rather the result of the coordinated practices of the participants who achieve orderliness and then interact.

2. Order is produced by the parties in situations; that is, it is situated and occasioned.

3. The parties orient to that order themselves; that is, this order is not an analyst's conception, not the result of the use of some preformed or preformulated theoretical conceptions concerning what action should, must, ought to be, or based on generalizing or summarizing statements about what action generally, frequently, often is.

4. Order is repeatable and recurrent.

5. The discovery, description, and analysis of that produced orderliness is the task of the analyst.

6. Issues of how frequently, how widely, or how often particular phenomena occur are to be set aside in the interest of discovering, describing, and analyzing the structures, the machinery, the organized practices, the formal procedures, the ways in which order is produced.

7. Structures of social action, once so discerned, can be described and analyzed in formal, that is, structural, organizational, logical, a topically content less, consistent, and abstract, terms. (Psathas, 1995, p. 02)

2.1.2. Conversation Analysis Historical Background

2.1.2.1. Sucks' Preliminary Work

The style of work which has come to be known as conversation analysis is associated with the pioneering research of Harvey Sacks .Sacks had been examining a corpus of recorded telephone calls to the Los Angeles Suicide Prevention Center. One of the tasks of the Center's staff was to try to obtain the caller's name; and on many occasions, if they gave their name, they found that the callers would then identify themselves in reply. In many cases, however, the Center's staff had difficulty getting callers to state who they were: either callers would not say their name after the Center's staff had introduced themselves; or later, when explicitly asked for their name, they would refuse to disclose it. For the Center, then, the problem was getting callers to reveal their names. (Wooffit, 2005, P.05).

The first lecture in Sacks' collected lectures is titled "Rules of Conversational Sequence". He begins with three examples of telephone openings to the suicide-prevention line:

Example(1):
 A: Hello
 B: Hello

Example(2):
 A: This is M r. Smith may I help you
 B: Yes, this is Mr. Brown

Example(3):
 A: T his is Mr. Smith may I help you
 B: I can't hear you
 A: This is Mr. Smith.

B: Smith

Sacks notes that a fundamental problem the call-takers faced had to do with getting callers to give their name. He reports that one of his earliest findings, on reviewing the tapes, was that if the staff member opened with "T his is Mr. Smith may I help you" any answer other than "Yes, this is Mr. Brown" meant that the staff member would have serious trouble getting the caller to give his or her name. This led to an important discovery. It is obvious that the first and second turn in each of the first two exchanges constitutes some kind of unit (an adjacency pair). But beyond this Sacks noticed that there was a "fit" between the two parts, so that if the first person says "hello" then so does the second, if the first person says "this is Mr. Smith " then the second tends to say "this is Mr. Brown", etc. (Sidnell, 2010, P.11).

This is important enough but it also leads to another, equally significant, observation. Namely, if there is a tendency to fit the form of their turn to the form of the initiating action in any of these greeting ("hello") or introduction ("This is Mr. Smith") pairs, then there exists a way of getting someone's name without asking for it. Rather than saying "what is your name?" one can say "This is Mr. Smith ", and this will establish the relevance of the other giving his or her name. So Sacks was making an observation about the multiple ways of doing an action.(Sidnell, 2010, P.12).

That, Sacks goes on to note, is important also for the following reason. If the staff member asks "Would you give me your name?" the caller can reply "Why?" or "What for?" That is, the caller can ask the staff member to provide a reason for asking for the name. In CA more generally, we tend to talk about "accounts" rather than "reasons", and in this first lecture Sacks notes "what one does with 'Why?' is to propose about some action that it is an 'accountable action'. That is to say, 'Why?' is a way of asking for an account." Sacks goes on to suggest that accounts "control activities" .What he means by that, I think, is that a person can be asked why they are doing an

action and if they can't come up with a reason they may have to abandon it. The important point here is that "This is Mr. Smith, may I help you?" may be a way of getting the other person to provide her name, but it is not an accountable action in that respect; one cannot say in response "Why do you want my name?" because the name was never asked for. What about the third example? Sacks would later describe turns like "I can't hear you" as initiating repair, but in this early lecture he notes only that turns such as "your name is what?" and questioned repeats like "My helplessness?" are "occasionally usable. He explains: "That is to say, there doesn't have to be a particular sort of thing preceding it; it can come at any place in a conversation." (Sidnell, 2010, P.12).

Moreover, with "I can't hear you", Sacks notes, the caller essentially skips a turn and, thus, the position in which giving the name is relevant never occurs. Of course, it is not as if this is a device for avoiding giving one's name: on the contrary, the primary use of repair is fixing problems of speaking, hearing and understanding. The point is that it can be used that way in part because there are very few', if any, restrictions on where it can go in a sequence (Sidnell, 2010, P.12).

Sacks observes that there are norms concerning where in conversation certain kinds of activities should happen; and in conversation between strangers names tend to be exchanged in initial turns. Developing this, Sacks argues that the caller is using the utterance 'I can't hear you' to fill the slot in the conversation where it would be expected that he returns his name. However, he has not had to refuse to give his name: instead he has used that slot to initiate what is called a repair sequence, which is a short series of turns in which some 'trouble' (in this case, 'not hearing') is resolved. By doing 'not hearing', the caller has been able to move the conversation on from that point at which he might be expected to give his name. In this case, then, the caller's

expression of an apparent hearing difficulty is a method by which he could accomplish the activity of 'not giving a name' without explicitly refusing to do so.(Wooffit, 2005, P.06).

But Sacks was not the only one who was interested in the actions performed by language. At the University of Oxford, the British philosopher J.L. Austin was developing his Theory of Speech Acts at roughly the same time (although there is no indication that either was aware of the other's work). Austin focused on instances of specific types of sentences. He began by distinguishing between two types of utterances: constative utterances, which report some aspect of the world; and performative utterances, which perform a specific action. An example of a performative is 'I suggest you open the window', where saying these words is to perform the action of suggesting. Other examples are promises, warnings, declarations, and so on. He termed such utterances, speech acts. However, Austin made the distinction between performative and constative sentences only to allow him to show that it was untenable, which in turn allowed him to make the more substantial claim that there was a performative element to all spoken sentences. He then set about trying to describe the preconditions which would be required for a sentence to be said to have legitimately performed a certain kind of action. Initially, it might seem that Austin and Sacks were developing much the same kinds of analytic concerns. However, there are significant differences.

Scholars who built on Austin's Speech Act Theory tended to base their analysis on artificially constructed examples of sentences, whereas Sacks insisted on working on utterances (which may depart radically from properly formed grammatical sentences) taken from recordings of real-life interaction. But what was really distinctive about Sacks' work was that he was able to show the critical relationship between the kind of activity an utterance might be performing and its positioning in the flow of interaction. So, for example, Sacks' analysis of 'I can't hear you' was informed by an analysis of the normative expectation that, in conversations between strangers,

especially in service encounters between representatives of a business or an agency and members of the public, names tend to be exchanged at the start. In that instance, 'I can't hear you' performed the activity of 'not giving a name' partly by virtue of its placement in a slot where reciprocal name exchange would be expected. (Wooffit, 2005, P.10).

Sacks argued that intuition does not equip the researcher to anticipate the range of sequential contexts in which utterances might be produced. It was necessary, then, to study only naturally occurring data; and to examine the activities people perform with their utterances in the real-life situations. Audio-recording technology made collection of naturally occurring interaction relatively simple. Everyday speech, though, does not resemble fictional depictions of talk. It is not grammatically neat and tidy, but appears on the surface to be disorganised and messy. However, it was felt that it would be premature to decide prior to analysis which contributions were significant and which could be excluded from analysis. All aspects of interaction – even those that seem on first inspection to be routine, 'accidental', or ungrammatical had to be considered. (Wooffit, 2005, P.11).

This methodological principle transpired to be profoundly important: subsequent studies discovered that even the most minor or apparently irrelevant speech events may be interactionally significant, and exhibit a previously unimagined orderliness. However, it placed a burden on the transcription of data as it entailed not only transcribing the spoken words, but also those disfluencies and non-lexical contributions which might normally be filtered out in some form of 'tidying up' process. This does mean that CA transcriptions may seem daunting to the untrained eye, but they are extraordinarily valuable resources in the analysis of audio data because they capture details which might be interactionally significant, but which would be omitted from more traditional transcriptions which merely focus on the spoken word. (Wooffit,2005,P.11).

2.1.2.2. Goffman's Contributions to Conversation Analysis

It is true that CA emerged in the 1960s through the collaboration of Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson. Although CA can be seen as a fresh start within the social and human sciences, it drew inspiratio²n from two important sociologists, Erving Goffman and Harold Garfinkel. Goffman's highly original and innovative move was to direct sociological attention to "situations" - the ordinary and extraordinary ways in which people interact with one another in the course of everyday life. Through a series of analyses Goffman attempted to show that these situations, and especially what he would describe as focused encounters, could be studied as in some ways orderly systems of self-sustaining activity. Goffman insisted that the organization of human interaction, what he would come to call the "interaction order", constituted its own social institution. (Sidnell, 2010, p.06)

Moreover, according to Goffman, face-to-face, co-present interaction is the basis for all other social institutions that sociologists and others study. Hospitals, asylums, courts of law, households and so on can be seen as environments for various forms of social interaction. What is particularly remarkable about Goffman is that at the time he was writing virtually no one in sociology or anthropology paid any attention to social interaction. A few psychologists, particularly those associated with Roger G. Barker, whom, by the way, Sacks had read, had begun to treat the "stream o f behavior" as a topic of analysis. (Sidnell, 2010, p.06)

A number of linguists had also advocated a study of language as it was actually spoken. And there were murmurs within Anthropology too from people such as G. regory Bateson, who was interested in gesture and the body as well as the differences and similarities between animal and human communication. But many of these approaches were reductive in the sense that the authors were concerned to show how talk - or speech, or behavior - was organized by reference to something else, such as individual psychology. Others were concerned with talk only in so far as it

was relevant to some larger theory. In contrast, in his most lucid moments, Goffman was very clear on the point that interaction had properties specific to it and had to be studied on its own terms. He noted, in "The Neglected Situation" and elsewhere, that this work had hardly begun. In one of his earliest published papers, Goffman (1957) described the various ways in which participants in interaction can become alienated from it. (Sidnell, 2010, p.07)

To summarize, Goffman thought of face-to-face interaction as simultaneously its own institution and the foundation of everything else in society. This "interaction order", as he called it, is itself a moral ordering: a complex web of standards, expectations, rules and proscriptions to which people orient in their attempts to show difference, adopt a demeanor appropriate to a given situation, avoid embarrassing themselves and others and so on. According to Goffman, face-to-face interaction is an incredibly delicate thing. To maintain the fiction of ease (and to fend off the looming potential for interactional "uneasiness") each participant must dutifully do her part by attending to the right things at the right moments and conveying just the right degree of involvement. In his studies, Goffman attempted to describe different aspects of this balancing act by which we engage in a "reciprocally sustained communion of involvement". In a more or less independent but parallel movement, in the late 1950s and early 1960s Harold Garfinkel was developing a critique of mainstream sociological thinking that was to develop into ethnomethodology . (Sidnell, 2010, P.07).

Conversation analysis (CA) is the dominant contemporary method for the analysis of social interaction. Originating at the University of California during the 1960s, the field has a broad interdisciplinary reach, and is used to study interaction in many languages on an effectively worldwide basis.(e-Source, n.d., p.02)

The term 'conversation analysis' reflects the origins of the field in studies of everyday casual conversation, but CA is also used to study many more specialized forms of communication

including interaction in educational, legal, political, mass media, and medical settings. CA was started by Harvey Sacks and his co-workers – most importantly Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson – at the University of California in the 1960s. The initial formation of Sacks's ideas is documented in his lectures from 1964 to 1972. CA was developed in an intellectual environment shaped by Goffman's work on the moral underpinnings of social interaction and Garfinkel's ethnomethodology focusing on the interpretive procedures underlying social action. Sacks started to study the real-time sequential ordering of actions: the rules, patterns, and structures in the relations between actions. Thereby, he made a radical shift in the perspective of social scientific inquiry into social interaction: instead of treating social interaction as a screen upon which other processes (moral, inferential, or others) were projected, Sacks started to study the very structures of the interaction itself CA begins from the notion that conversational interaction involves 'doing things with words,' and that, for example, describing, questioning, agreeing, offering and so on are all examples of social actions that we use words to perform. It developed from social science perspectives that recognized the fundamental nature of human action and interaction in the formation and management of personal identity, social relationships, and human institutions. These perspectives stress four main features of actions that pose immensely challenging issues for the systematic analysis of social life. CA was developed specifically to deal with these four issues: (e-Source, n.d., p.02)

1. Human actions are meaningful and involve meaning-making.

2. Actions are meaningful and make meaning through a combination of their content and context.

3. To be socially meaningful, the meaning of actions must be shared (or intersubjective).

This sharing may not be perfect, but it is normally good enough for the participants to keep going.

17

4. Meanings are unique and singular. Actions function in particular ways to create meanings that are also particular.

2.1.3. Criticisms of Conversation Analysis

While conversation analysis has very many strengths, it has also attracted criticisms. Baxter (2002) while describing conversation analysis as an invaluable tool for the analysis of spoken discourse, also describes it as somewhat "monolithic" .Hammersley (2003) argues that conversation analysis's view of itself as self-sufficient research tool is problematic; that is, the view that it does not need data other than the conversation to explain and justify its claims. In Hammersley's view the rejection in conversation analysis of what people say about the world they live in and their conversational interactions as sources of insight into the data is a major weakness. He suggests that when we analyze data from a conversation analysis perspective, we are working as "spectators" not "participants" in the interaction. It is, thus, not really possible for us to know how the participants view the conversation unless we ask them. It is also not, in reality, possible for an analyst to start on the analysis of their text completely unmotivated; that is, just looking at the text to see "what's there" without any preconceived notions of what this might be.(As cited in Paltridge, 2008, P.121)

Wooffitt (2005) in his book Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis Outlines further criticisms of conversation analysis. The first of these is conversation analysis's lack of attention to issues of power, inequality and social disadvantage. The second is the lack of attention in conversation analysis studies to wider historical, cultural and political issues. Wetherell (1998) argues that conversation analysis would benefit from considering post –struturalist views on discourse such as agency and the subject positions speakers take up in the discourse, rather than just looking at the text itself. That is, the analysis would be enhanced by considering the positions speakers take and social and cultural values that underlie how they perform in the discourse. Post-

structuralist discourse analysis , equally Wooffitt adds , would be improved by greater attention to the details of conversational interaction that is typical of work in the area of conversation analysis. .(As cited in Paltridge, 2008, P.122)

Feminist researchers such as Kitzinger (2000), however, argue that conversation analysis is not incompatible with work that examines issues of power and wider social and political implications of discourse. She argues that if researchers want to understand what people are saying to each other, and how they come to say i, and what it means to them they have to attend to the data at the same level of detail and attention that the speakers do in their talk. (Paltridge, 2008, P.122-123)

To summarize, we can list the strengths and weaknesses of CA summarized by Marion (2002):

➢ Strenghts of Conversation Analysis

•Scientific rigour. Standard transcription systems allow for comparability and replicability between researchers.

•Transcripts become a public record. The transcripts are available for other researchers to study. Conversation analysts often share data and collaborate in developing an understanding of interactional phenomena.

•Recordings can be replayed. Recordings can be studied many times over.

•Transcripts can be reanalyzed. Transcripts can be reanalysed in different ways. The researcher is not limited by the original transcription.

•Different sequences can be selected .A different researcher can choose different sequences of utterances to the first researcher.

➢ Disadvantages of Conversation Analysis

•Time-consuming.Transcription of data is time-consuming and it is therefore difficult to analyse a large body of data.

•Analysing visual data is difficult. It can be difficult for a researcher using visual data to see everything, given the limitations of technology. Visual transcription systems are still being developed.

•Transcription is a subjective process. Transcription needs to be seen as a 'kind of mediation between the raw data, the recordings, and the to-be-constructed images'.

Conversation analysis, then, provides a way of carrying out fine grained analyses of spoken discourse which can help not just describe the social world , but understand how, through the use of language, it is constructed. There are differing views, however, as to whether looking at the data alone is sufficient to explain what is going on in conversational interactions. Many conversational analysts would argue that it is. Others, however suggest combining conversation analysis with more ethnographic descriptions in a kind of multi-method/ multi-level analysis which combines the strengths of the insights that can be provided by conversation analysis with data that can be gathered using procedures such as interviews, questionnaires and participants observations. Cicourel (1992) supports this view, arguing that what is most important is for researchers to justify explicitly what has been included and what has been excluded in analysis and how this relates to their particular theoretical and analytical goals. (As cited in Paltridge, 2008, P.125).

2.2. Discourse Analysis Approach

The term 'discourse' has become common currency in a variety of disciplines: critical theory, sociology, linguistics, philosophy, social psychology and many other fields, so much so that it is frequently left undefined, as if its usage was simply common knowledge. It is used widely in analysing literary and non-literary texts and it is often employed to signal a certain theoretical sophistication in ways which are vague and sometimes obscure. It has perhaps the widest range of

possible significations of any term in literary and cultural theory and yet it is often the term within theoretical texts which is least defined.(Mills, 2004, p.01)

This sense in the general usage of discourse as having to do with conversation and 'holding forth' on a subject, or giving a speech, has been partly due to the etymology of the word. However, it has also been due to the fact that this is the core meaning of the term "discours" in French, and since the 1960s has been a word associated with French philosophical thought, even though the terms "discours" and discourse do not correspond to one another exactly. Thus, a French/English dictionary gives us: discours: a) speech;" tous ces beaux discours": "all this fine talk" (pejorative); "suis moi sans faire de discours": "follow me and no arguing!" "perdre son temps en discours":" to waste one's time talking"; b) discours direct/indirect: direct/indirect speech (linguistics); c) discours: (philosophical treatise); discourir: faire un discours: to discourse; to hold forth upon; to chat (pejorative).(Collins Robert Concise French Dictionary, 1990).

During the 1960's the general meaning of the term, its philosophical meaning and a new set of more theoretical meanings began to diverge slightly, but these more general meanings have always been kept in play, inflecting the theoretical meanings in particular ways. (Mills, 2004, P.2)

2.2.1. Definition of Discourse Analysis

According to Yule, discourse analysis is an extremely wide range of activities , from the narrowly focused investigation of how words such as "oh" or "well" are used in casual talk , to the study of dominant ideology in a culture are represented , for example, in its educational or political practices. When it is restricted to linguistic issues; discourse analysis focuses on the record (spoken or written) of the process by which language is used in some context to express intention (P. 83-84)

Another definition is that Discourse analysis focuses on the structure of naturally occurring spoken language, as found in such 'discourses' as conversations, interviews, commentaries and

speeches. Text analysis focuses on the structure of written language, as found in such 'texts' as essays, notices, road signs and chapters. But this distinction is not clear-cut, and there have been many other uses of these labels. In particular, 'discourse' and 'text' can be used in a much broader sense to include *all* language units with a definable communicative function, whether spoken or written. Some scholars talk about 'spoken or written discourse', others about 'spoken or written text'.(Crystal, 1987, p.116)

Discourse analysis can be sometimes defined as: the analysis of language 'beyond the sentence'. This contrasts with types of analysis more typical of modern linguistics, which are chiefly concerned with the study of grammar: the study of smaller bits of language, such as sounds (phonetics and phonology), parts of words (morphology), meaning (semantics), and the order of words in sentences (syntax). Discourse analysts study larger chunks of language as they flow together.

Some discourse analysts consider the larger discourse context in order to understand how it affects the meaning of the sentence. For example, Charles Fillmore points out that two sentences taken together as a single discourse can have meanings different from each one taken separately. To illustrate, he asks you to imagine two independent signs at a swimming pool: "Please use the toilet, not the pool," says one. The other announces, "Pool for members only." If you regard each sign independently, they seem quite reasonable. But taking them together as a single discourse makes you go back and revise your interpretation of the first sentence after you have read the second.

Paltridge (2008) stated:

Discourse analysis focuses on Knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase and sentence that is needed for successful communication. It looks at patterns of language across texts and considers the relationship between language and the social and cultural contexts in which it is used. Discourse analysis also considers the ways that the use of language presents different views of the world and different understandings. It examines how the use of language is influenced by relationship between participants as well as the effects the use of language has upon social identities and relations. It also considers how views of the world and identities, are constructed through the use of discourse. Discourse analysis examines both spoken and written texts.(P.2)

2.2.2. Discourse Analysis Historical Background

Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of relationship between language and context in which it is used. It grew out of work in different disciplines in the 1960s and early 1970s, including linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthology and sociology. Discourse analysts study language in use: written texts of all kinds, and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalized forms of talk. (McCarthy, 2000, P.05)

At a time when linguistics was largely concerned with the analysis of single sentences, Zelling Harris published a paper with the title "Discourse analysis". Harris was interested in the distribution of linguistic elements in extended texts, and the links between the text and its social situation, though his paper is a far cry from the discourse analysis we use to nowadays. Also important in the early years was the emergence of semiotics and the French structuralist approach to the study of narrative. In the 1960s, Dell Hymes provided a sociological perspective with the study of speech in its social settings. The linguistics philosophers such as Austin(1962), Searle(1969) and Grice(1975) were also influential in the study of language as social action,

reflected in speech-act theory and formulation of conversational maxims, alongside the emergence of pragmatics, which is the study of meaning in context. (McCarthy, 2000, P.05-06)

British discourse analysis was greatly influenced by M.A.K.Halliday's functional approach to language, which in turn has connexions with the Prague School of linguists. Halliday's framework emphasizes the social functions of language and the thematic and infomational structure of speech and writing. Also important in Britain were Sinclair and Coulthard(1975) at the University of Birmingham, who developed a model for description of teacher-pupil talk, based on a hierarchy of discourse units. Other similar work has dealt with doctor-patient interaction, service encounters, interviews, debates and business negotiations,as well as monologues. Novel work in the British tradition has also been done on intonation in discourse. The British work has principally followed structural linguistic criteria, on the basis of the isolation of units, and sets of rules defining well-formed sequences of discourse. (McCarthy, 2000, P.06)

American discourse analysis has been dominated by work within the ethno methodological tradition, which emphasises the research method of close observation of groups of people communicating in natural settings. It examines types of speech event such as storytelling, greeting rituals and verbal duels in different cultural and social settings. What is often called conversation analysis within the American tradition can also be included under the general heading of discourse analysis. In conversational analysis, the emphasis is not upon building structural models but on the close observation of the behavior of participant in talk and on patterns which recur over a wide range of natural data. The work of Goffman, and Sucks Schegloff and Jefferson is important in the study of conversational norms, turn-taking, and other aspects of spoken interaction. Alongside the conversation analysts, working within the sociolinguistic tradition, Labov's investigations of oral storytelling have also contributed to a long history of interest in narrative discourse. The American work has produced a large number of the descriptions of discourse types, as well as insights into

the social constraints of politeness and face-preserving phenomena in talk, overlapping with British work in Pragmatics.(McCarthy, 2000, P.06)

Also relevant to the development of discourse analysis as a whole is the work of text grammarians, working mostly with written language. text grammanians see text as a language elements, strung together in relationships with one another that can be defined. Linguists such as Van Dijik (1972), De Beaugrande (1980), Halliday and Hasan (1976) have made a significant impact in this area. The Prague School of linguists, with their interest in the structuring of information in discourse, has also been influential. Its most important contribution has been to show the links between grammar and discourse.(McCarthy, 2000, P.06)

Discourse analysis has grown into a wide-ranging and heterogeneous discipline which finds its unity in the description of language above the sentence and an interest in the context and cultural influences which affect language in use. It is also now, increasingly, forming a backdrop to research in Applied Linguistics, and second language learning and teaching in particular.(McCarthy, 2000, P. 07)

2.2.3. Discourse Analysis Strengths and Weaknesses

DA has been criticized for culminating in a nihilistic relativism. This is, if no reading or interpretation is said to be right or valid the identification of discourse in texts and language is no more than a mere academic exercise. Or if all 'readings' and interpretations are equally valid discourse analysts cannot claim that people are 'really' being oppressed. So, to this extent, on what grounds can discourse analysts promote their own versions of 'truth' regarding psychological phenomena such as CD? Who is to say that their version is any superior to that held by positivist psychologists? Nonetheless, Harper (2004) argued that one can still identify discourses that are 'better' than others despite the fact that none of them can be said to be more 'real' than the other. It

is also interesting to notice that, sometimes DA erroneously assumes that the world can be changed simply by writing it differently. (As cited in Tannen, 2008)

Such assumptions often lead DA to deny the existence of a world independent from language. In this way, discourse analysts tend to reduce diagnostic labels such as 'Conduct Disorder' to a linguistic construction and therefore denying its real symptoms. Hence, this extreme relativist position makes it difficult to sustain the project of DA. This leads us to a problem which discourse analysts have termed the 'So what?' factor. This refers to the difficulty in applying DA for practical purposes such as social policy. Nonetheless, there is a way in which DA's problem of relativism can be solved. For instance, Parker (1999), a distinguished scholar in this field, argued that although symptoms are real, the problem arises when diagnostic labels, whilst possessing an epistemological status, acquire an ontological status (becomes linked to biological phenomena) and justifies oppressive and unjust status-quo. In this respect, we must conclude that one of DA's strengths as a social constructionism methodology is its awareness of the socio-political and moral implications of psychological research. . (As cited in Tannen, 2008)

Nevertheless, DA has been criticised for the 'difficulty of 'getting to grips' with it due to the lack of prescription regarding how it should be done'. However, one must notice that if DA is presented as another research 'tool' 'it has the potential to be used as a value-free technology'. Consequently, DA would risk becoming one of a number of 'scientific' research 'tools' and, therefore, loosing its critical and political position. To prevent this from happening, discourse analysts are encouraged to look critically at their work and make transparent its underpinning assumptions. Therefore, one of the advantages of this methodology is its awareness of role played by researchers and social context in the outcome of any study. However, applying DA towards social change can sometimes become problematic since that discourse analysts may incur in some form of manipulation. For instance, using one's position as an expert or policy maker in shaping

people's experience through discourse can become particularly problematic, as this can be seen as another form of oppression. Nevertheless, Rose (1989) argued that the aforementioned problem can be solved if DA becomes a tool to be used collectively rather than a tool for social and political manipulation. . (Tannen, 2008)

Another common charge made against discourse analysts is their strategic and political choice about which texts to analyse. In this way, they often held a priori assumptions that foster particular interpretations of a given text .In this way, one may criticise discourse analysts for obscuring alternative interpretations and thus contributing towards creating another ideology. Therefore, presenting only one of a number of interpretations is particularly problematic, given that DA challenges dominant ideologies. . (Tannen, 2008)

Despite such criticisms, DA provides rigorous and systematic means of addressing social problems and formulating solutions for political change. Additionally, it places emphasis in the equal status between researchers and respondents. In contrast, positivist psychologists retain a relatively powerful position since that 'the researcher's version of events has greater warrant and is given more voice than that of the subject whose experience is interpreted and given (sometimes quite different) meanings by the researcher' .In this way, DA emphasizes the importance of giving voice to respondents and bridging the gap between researcher and those being studied. In this way the research process becomes a dialogue rather than the social scientist simply imposing an authoritative voice upon the object in question. . (Tannen, 2008)

However, this view is not shared by Sherrard (1991) who asserted that discourse analysts sometimes fail to adequately address their role in the research process when taking part in the interaction with interviewers. She insisted that 'discourse analysts typically fail to examine explicitly their role in the production of the discourse they are analysing'. It is also interesting to notice that Abrams and Hogg (1990) criticised DA regarding its political intentions. They argued

that there is an implicit assumption that discourse analysts are the most qualified researchers to identify disempowered social groups. In this respect, it becomes difficult to justify discourse analysts privilege over positivist psychologists in terms of their underpinning methodological assumptions. In this way discourse analysts, just like mainstream psychologists, risk presenting their accounts as 'truth'. In this way, some argue that reflexivity may falsely 'democratize' the relationship between researchers and participants, since that discourse analysts 'readings' are the ones who tend to carry weight . Another common charge made against DA is the way in which the 'the identification of discourses has a tendency to become little more than the labelling of everyday common-sense categories'. Thus, from this vantage point it seems that discourse analysts tend to reproduce the same categories that they are trying to challenge in the process of identification of discourses. Moreover, we could also criticise DA on the grounds of overfocusing on texts and disregarding other forms of discourse that are manifested in ways other than words. This is, DA does not provide guidance on how to study 'private manifestations of discourse such as thought and self-awareness'. In this way, discourse analysts tend to privilege the role of language and texts as opposed mental states or subjectivity (as if these did not exist. However, despite some reservations DA is widely regarded as a tool for challenging the moral and socio-political implications of positivist psychology's research, theory and practice. (As cited in Tannen, 2008)

Conclusion

CA is a new branch of human sciences. It is a sociological enterprise, not a linguistic one, because it is the study of social interactions, that takes place between acquaintances, or family members, or institutional encounters. The focus is on talk and non-verbal aspects of interaction. Thus, it is concerned with the organization of social actions and not language structures. These social actions should be meaningful and make-meaning through the combination of their context and content. CA also use video or audio recording made naturally occurring interaction. On the

other hand, discourse analysis is a way of analyzing connected speech and writing focuses on knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase and sentence that is needed for successful communication, taking into consideration the relationship between language, social and cultural contexts in which it is used. Since there are two different approaches to study the spoken language, we are going in our dissertation to investigate turn taking strategies from the conversation analysis view other than discourse analysis.

Chapter Two:
Turn-Taking Strategies

Chapter Two: Turn-Taking Strategies

Introduction

The exchange of talk among participants exhibits a distinguish feature of conversation which is the taking of turns, there orderliness and organizational distribution. That feature of conversation is preserved across variation in the number of parties, the length, the relative amount size of the turns et cetera. The feature's preservation must take work, the taking of turns must be organizationally achieved. Here, on the basis of audio recordings collected from naturally occurring conversations, we attempt to characterize, in its simplest systematic form, the organization of the taking of turns at talking in conversation.

Turn-taking is usually considered to follow a simple set of rules, took place through perhaps a more complicated system of signals. The most significant aspect of the turn-taking process is that, in most cases, it is carried on in a very smooth fashion. Speakers signal to each other that they wish to either yield or take the turn through syntactic, pragmatic, and prosodic means.

In this chapter, we will present the nature of turn-taking, its organization, the signals that are used by the speakers to exchange the talk. Finally, we will try to explore the main turn-taking strategies and their characteristics.

1. Definition of Turn-Taking

According to Edelsky (1981), turn definitions can be grouped in two main camps: mechanical and interactional .The first group treats turns as units of talk in interaction, without taking into account social context. In this group are studies by Jaffe and Feldstein (1970) and Duncan and Fiske (1985), because for them the turn merely consists of talk with an end boundary. Turns are attributed to a single speaker and are defined in terms of the behaviour of other parties in the conversation (a turn ends when somebody else claims the floor). Goffman (1981) says that a turn

is the opportunity to hold the floor, not necessarily what is said while holding it. (As cited in Taboada, 2004, p.04)

On the other hand, interactional definitions are concerned with what happens during the interaction, and take into consideration the intention of the turn taker. Edelsky (1981) points out that speakers are more concerned with completing topics than structural units. Therefore, she defines turn as instances of on-record speaking, with the intention of conveying a message. She also differentiates *turn* and *floor*, since it is often difficult to determine who has the floor, such as situations where a turn is constructed collaboratively by more than one speaker. The floor is the activity taking place or the topic being discussed, often done in collaboration (Edelsky,1981, p.383). Hayashi (1991) expands on this definition of floor, describing it as a means of orientation to the communication at the higher level of conversation structure. Selting (1998) carries out an extensive review of the meaning behind the concept of turn-constructional unit (TCU) as a unit of talk. TCUs were proposed by Sacks et al. (1974) as the basic units of conversation. Each TCU ends in a transition relevance place, that is, the place where the turn may shift to another speaker. Selting characterizes the notion of TCU as holistic and in need of interpretation. Study of TCUs is relevant here, because one TCU may constitute a complete turn. TCUs may be as short as a word or as long as a sentence. Selting discusses the criteria to divide a turn into units, and concludes that it requires examination of both syntactic and prosodic components.(As cited in Selting, 1998).

As we will see in the next part, units in conversation are defined by their boundaries: a unit is talk produced up until an end-point, the point where another interlocutor can take the floor. Ford and Thompson defined units as those characterized by ending in a complex transition relevance place. They added "complex" to Sacks et al.'s (1974) transition relevance places, because turn units were found to be identifiable through the complex interaction of syntactic, prosodic and pragmatic signals. One interesting aspect of their study is that they used backchannels and laughter by the

interlocutor as a signal of a possible completion point of the current speaker's turn. Backchannels by the interlocutor are produced at a point where the current speaker could finish their talk, i.e., a (complex) transition relevance place. That is certainly the case: backchannels are produced at a point where an interlocutor could take the turn, but with the backchannel the interlocutor signals that they do not want to do it, in addition to signaling their understanding of or agreement with what is being said. Ford & Thompson. (1996) also present an extensive discussion on the definition of a unit in talk, concluding that TCUs are emergent, rather than pre-defined, and that syntax, prosody and gesture all contribute to defining the basic unit of talk. (Ford et al, 1996, p.427-454).

According to what is said before, a turn can be defined as continuous talk by one speaker, uninterrupted by the other speaker. There may be talk by the other speaker, but that is often in the form of backchannel signals, which do not constitute instances of turn change.(Taboada,2004, p.5).

In any situation where control is not fixed in advance, anyone can attempt to get control. This is called turn taking. Because it is a form of social action, turn-taking operate in accordance with a local management system that is conventionally known by members of a social group. The local management system is essentially a set of conventions for getting turns, keeping them, or giving them away . This system is needed most at those point where there is a possible change in who has the turn. Any possible change of turn point is called a transition relevance place, or TRP. Within any social group, there will be features of talk (or absence of talk) typically associated with TRP. (Yule, 1996, p. 72)

2. Turn-Taking Organization

2.1. Adjacency Pair

Pairs of utterances in talk are often mutually dependent; a most obvious example is that a question predicts an answer, and that an answer presupposes a question. It is possible to state the

requirements, in a normal conversational sequence, for many types of utterances, in terms of what is expected as a response and what certain responses presuppose. Some examples might be: (McCarthy, 1991, P.119)

Table 01:Examples of Adjacency Pairs

Utterance function	Expected response
greeting	greeting
congratulation	thanks
apology	acceptance
inform	acknowledge
leave-taking	leave-taking

Pairs of utterances such as greeting-greeting and apology-acceptance are called adjacency pairs . The mutual dependence of such utterances is underlined by the fact that we can only be absolutely sure of the function of the initiating utterance (the first pair-part as it is usually called) when it is contextualised with the response it gets (the second pair-part), and vice versa (thus 'hello' in English could be a greeting, a request to a telephone caller to identify themselves, or an expression of surprise: 'Hello! What's this here?').In the following example the imperative first pair-part can be classified functionally as an informing move, in light of the acknowledging second pair-part it receives: .(McCarthy, 1991, P.120)

Example: (On a train)

Ticket collector: (inspecting passenger's ticket) Change at Peterborough.

Passenger: Thank you.

Adjacency pairs are of different types. Some ritualised first pair-parts may have an identical second pair-part (hello - hello, happy New Year – happy New Year), while others expect a different

second pair-part (congratulations- thanks). Equally, a second pair-part such as thanks will presuppose quite a wide range of first pair-parts (offers, apologies, informing moves, congratulations, commiserations, etc.). Other first pair-parts have various possibilities and generate further expectations too; take, for example, invitation: (McCarthy, 1991, P.120)

A: Would you like to come over for a drink tomorrow?

B: Yes, that would be nice. (accept)

Yes, if it could be after six. (accept with condition)

No.   (reject)

We probably react against the bald No answer; politeness codes demand a more elaborate structure for the response: .(McCarthy, 1991, P. 121)

Example:

B: Thanks very much, but I'm afraid I'm booked up tomorrow night, what about. . . (etc.)

We can segment the polite refusal of the invitation into appreciation ('thanks very much'), softener (I'm afraid'), reason ('I'm booked up') and face-saver ('what about . . . '). This pattern 'would typically be found between adult friends, colleagues, etc. in informal but polite situations. More intimate situations may well omit the 'softener'. Each of these elements will have several possible realizations , and these can be practiced in language learning in a systematic way.The principle of adjacency pairs and how they are realized in natural speech point to the importance of creating minimal contexts in the teaching of common communicative functions and the limited value of teaching single utterances. We have seen once again that the structure and elaboration of the adjacency pair is determined by role and setting, and that the functions of its component utterances depend on the co-presence of both parts.(McCarthy, 1991, P.121-122)
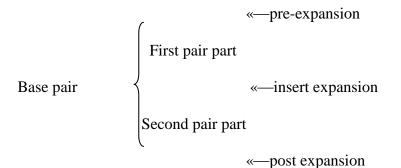
2.2. Sequences

Adjacency pairs, provide the basis for sequence organization in conversation. The minimal sequence is composed of an First Pair Part (FPP) and an Second Pair Part (SPP). However, sequences can be expanded beyond this basic two turn structure and sequences can potentially become quite lengthy and involve a large number of turns. Regardless of how long a sequence may become, it remains based on an FPP and an SPP and the talk in a sequence is relevant to the performance of this base adjacency pair. Adjacency pairs can, therefore, be considered to be the basic building blocks from which sequences in conversation are built up.(Liddicoat, 2007, P.123).

sequences are constructed of two turns at talk: an FPP and an SPP. While the adjacency pair structure is the basis of sequences of talk, it is possible for these sequences to be expanded in various places in their production. Sequence expansion allows talk which is made up of more than a single adjacency pair to be constructed and understood as performing the same basic action and the various additional elements are seen as doing interactional work related to the basic action under way. Sequence expansion is constructed in relation to a base sequence of an FPP and an SPP in which the core action under way is achieved. Expansions may occur prior to the articulation of the base FPP (pre-expansiori), between the base FPP and the base SPP (insert expansion) and following the base SPP (post-expansion). Most examples of expansion are also sequences in their own right made up of FPPs and SPPs, and so may also be called pre-sequences, insert sequences and post-sequences in order to focus more on the ways in which the expansions are constructed. (Liddicoat, 2007, P.125).

2.2.1. Pre-expansion

pre-expansions involve an expansion of a sequence before the occurrence of a base first pair part. Pre-expansions are, in a basic sense, preparatory to some other, projected work to be done in

the sequence and implemented by the first pair part of the base adjacency pair (the action of the first pair part). Some pre-expansions are "type-specific" in that they project a specific base first pair part; for example, they are pre-invitations ("hey, are you busy tonight?"), pre-announcements ("Guess what happened to me?"), or pre-requests ("You wouldn't happen to be going my way would you?". Such type-specific pre-expansions typically check on a condition for the successful accomplishment of the base first pair part. .(Sidnell, 2010, P.95).

```
                                            «—pre-expansion
                        ⌈
                        │ First pair part
                        │
        Base pair      ⟨                   «—insert expansion
                        │
                        │ Second pair part
                        ⌊
                                            «—post expansion
```

2.2.2. Insert expansion

In the discussion of adjacency pairs, it was claimed that some types of talk can occur between an FPP and an SPP and these types of talk are quite limited. These types of talk are cases of insert expansion: expansion which occurs within the adjacency pair itself and separates the FPP from the SPP. The talk which occurs between an FPP and an SPP, however, does not cancel the relevance of the yet to be produced SPP. Insert expansions interrupt the activity under way, but are still relevant to that action . Insert expansion allows a possibility for a second speaker, the speaker who must produce the SPP, to do interactional work relevant to the projected SPP. (Liddicoat, 2007, P.143).

As with pre-expansion, insert expansion is realized through a sequence of its own, which we can call an insert sequence. Typically, insert expansion is launched by an FPP produced by the second speaker which requires an SPP for completion. Once the sequence is completed, the base SPP once again becomes relevant as the next action . This allows the insert expansion to delay a base SPP until some preliminary work can be done and completes this work. The type of work being

done by the insert is determined by the sequential relationship of the insert itself as insert expansions can relate to either the FPP which has launched the adjacency pair in which they are inserted or they may be addressed to the SPP which needs to be produced because of that FPP. These are called post-first insert expansions and pre-second insert expansions respectively.(Liddicoat, 2007, P.143).

2.2.3. Post Expansion

Sequences are also potentially expandable after the completion of the base SPP. Once an SPP has been completed, the sequence is potentially complete: the action launched by the FPP has run its course and a new action could appropriately be begun. However, it is also possible for talk to occur after the SPP which is recognizably associated with the preceding sequence. That is, it is possible for sequences to be expanded after their SPP. This phenomenon is known as post expansion.(Liddicoat, 2007, P.151).

2.3. Repair

Repair refers to the processes available to speakers through which they can deal with the problems which arise in talk. Repair is relevant to all levels of talk from the turn-taking system to sequence organization and preference. All levels of conversation are potentially subject to difficulties and conversation as a self-regulating system needs to have available practices for dealing with these. Repair is itself a mechanism of conversation: a set of practices designed for dealing with the sorts of difficulties which emerge in talk. Like other aspects of the conversational system, the practices of repair are independent of the nature of the thing which needs to be repaired.(Liddicoat, 2007, P.171).

"Repair", then, refers to an organized set of practices through which participants in conversation are able to address and potentially resolve such problems of speaking, hearing or understanding. Episodes of repair are composed of parts. A repair initiation marks a "possible

38

disjunction with the immediately preceding talk", while a repair outcome results in either a "solution or abandonment of the problem". That problem, the particular segment of talk to which the repair is addressed, is called the trouble source or sometimes the repairable. The trouble source must be distinguished from the source or basis of trouble, which can be anything from ambient noise or failing hearing to an esoteric word choice.(Sidnell, 2010, P.110).

3. Turn-Taking Signals

The study of conversational organization has always assumed that there are ways in which speakers communicate the desire to yield, take, or maintain the floor. Sacks et al. (1974) assumed that such signals exist, although they did not discuss any particular signal. Later research has concentrated on a number of different signals: discourse markers, pauses and silence, pitch, and intonation. Of importance are also the syntactic and semantic characteristics of the turn so far, i.e., whether the message can be constructed as a complete one from a syntactic or semantic point of view. (Taboada, 2004, p.06)

Sacks et al. (1974) consider that syntactic information is important. A complete turn-constructional unit is one that can be interpreted as a syntactic unit, whether a sentence, clause, phrase or word. Each one of those units has a component of projectability: the interlocutor knows that the unit is possibly complete from a syntactic point of view.

Content and genre play a role in projectability of a completed unit. Selting points out that the pre-sequences that introduce narratives are licenses to talk for a relatively long period of time. Similarly, when telling jokes, the speaker may preface the contribution in a way that makes his or her interlocutor(s) suppress the desire to take the floor (Have you heard the one about…? (Selting,1998).

Intonation is fundamental in the interpretation of talk. Chafe's intonation units are defined as basic segments of talk interrupted by the human need to breathe. Intonation units are characterized

by changes in pitch (fundamental frequency), duration, intensity, and alternation of talk and silence (pauses). A number of studies examine the pitch characteristics that signal the end of a turn (Chafe, 1994, p.122) .

Silence and hesitation markers (unfilled and filled pauses) are also signals for interlocutors. Beattie (1977) found that people were interrupted more often during a silence (unfilled pause), and that filled pauses tended to follow unfilled pauses. In other words, when a speaker does not produce any talk (unfilled pause), but still wants to hold the floor, a filled pause is produced, to signal the desire to continue talking. Drawl and perceived duration may also play a role in distinguishing turn-medial from turn-final utterances (p.283-284)

Ford and Thompson found that pauses helped identify completed intonation units, the minimal noticeable pause being 0.3 seconds long. However, pauses are not always indicators of an intention to yield the floor (Ford and Thompson, 1996, p.184). Local and Kelly proposed that pauses are of two different types: one that signals the intention to keep the floor (a 'holding' silence), and another that indicates that the interlocutor may claim it (a 'trail-off silence'). They particularly examined pauses preceded by a filled pause (uh, um, so). Local and Kelly distinguished the two types of silences phonetically: in holding silences there is a glottal closure after the filled pause, maintained through silence, and released at the beginning of the following word by the same speaker. Trail-off silences have an out-breathing at the end of the filled pause, which also has a more centralized vowel. (Taboada, 2004, p.8)

Gaze and gesture are also an important signal in the management of turns. It is clear that gaze can be a turn-allocating mechanism, and that it is an integral part of face-to-face conversation. Kendon (2002) has shown that gesture fulfills a variety of purposes, among them those typically performed by discourse markers. Speaker and listener movement serve as signals for turn-taking: termination of a hand or arm gesture signals the desire to yield the turn, and continued gesticulation

by the speaker acts as a signal to suppress turn-taking by the hearer, similar to the effect of a filled pause. (p.147).

A combination of features, rather than one individual item, is probably the best indicator of turn boundaries. These features could be gaze, gesture, filled pauses, and the structure of adjacency pairs. Ford and Thompson (1996) studied the interplay of syntactically complete units, intonation and pragmatic closure, and found that, given a syntactically complete unit, it is the combination of intonation (marked fall or marked high rise in pitch at the end of the intonation unit) and pragmatic completion (the unit is interpretable as a complete conversational action) that most often signals a possible turn shift, the complex transition relevance place. Wennerstrom and Siegel (2003) also see turn-taking as a complex process, possible through the interaction of both phonological and syntactic cues. In their study, they examined the interaction of intonation, pauses, and complete syntactic units, concluding that it is a complex interaction of the three that indicates that a speaker's turn has ended, and the floor is open. In some cases, intonation overrides syntax, and it can signal turn continuation despite a syntactic boundary. The intonation pattern with the highest likelihood of indicating a turn shift was the high rise, although low rise was also found to indicate turn shift. The most interesting aspect is that not all the high rise utterances were questions from a syntactic point of view. They found that, when longer pauses were produced (0.5 seconds), the current speaker resumed talk (Wennerstrom & Siegel, 2003, p.77). This could be because the opportunity for the other speaker to take the floor, at 0.3 seconds had been missed, and the current speaker decided to continue talking.

Discourse markers are a varied group of conjunctions, interjections, filled pauses, adverbs and adverbial phrases, such as okay, yeah, right, uh-huh, and, so, I mean. The trouble with discourse markers is that they do not fit one of the three basic types of signals: syntactic, semantic or intonational. They are certainly not prosodic in nature (although they may have their own prosodic

characteristics), but it is difficult to say whether they contribute syntactic or semantic information to determine whether the turn is ending, and whether the interlocutor desires to take the turn. (Wennerstrom & Siegel, 2003, p.107)

Discourse markers are generally assumed to signal relations among propositions or among sentences; they serve to link global and local discourse structure, or to indicate a return to a previous topic after a digression; they indicate a dispreferred second part in an adjacency pair; they can serve as acknowledgment tokens or backchannel signals; help listeners integrate information in spontaneous talk; or monitor the interlocutor's comprehension of the speaker's meaning. Bangerter Herbert, Katz, (2004) examine what they call project markers (uh-huh, yeah, right, okay) as signals of transitions between different parts of a telephone conversation. In their analysis, those words have a function at the global level of organization of the conversation (and the task), rather than at the local level of turn-taking.(Bangerter et al, 2004, p.17)

Sacks et al discuss turns that begin with an appositional beginning, such as well, but, and, so. The appositional beginnings give the speaker some time to think about uttering a complete sentence, and, if there is overlap, make it possible for the interlocutor to capture the full utterance from its "real" beginning (i.e., uttering one of these means: "I'm about to start talking, listen up"). If the previous speaker is not yet listening and missed one of these appositional beginnings, they did not miss any important content. They call them turn-entry devices, or "pre-starts". They propose that these devices be understood as "devices with important turn-organizational uses". These turn-initial (or TCU-initial) signals are also called filled pauses.(Taboada, 2004, p.11)

A few individual discourse markers have been studied as to their role in turn-taking: the role of turn-initial "well", and, "so", and "but", showing differences in the content of the turn they start (cooperative, continuative, contrastive). Condon (2001) has extensively studied the discourse functions of "ok", among which is the marking of boundaries in decision-making processes (i.e., if

not directly a turn-taking device, "ok" helps mark that one portion of the discourse is over, and thus the floor may be open). She also discusses other studies of ok that have pointed out its role as closure in phone conversations; as a marker of a topic transition; or as a marker that the conversation is proceeding as expected, as opposed to well, which may signal a dispreferred second part in an adjacency pair.(p. 491)

Furthermore, the function of certain discourse markers in turn-taking:"oh" can elicit a clarification question (thus allocating the turn back to the previous speaker); now and then can be used to keep the floor; I mean is sometimes a device for starting a turn.

The marker so is also thought to be involved in turn-taking, since it serves as a marker of a summary (upshot) of what has previously happened, and can therefore signal the last unit in a turn. Raymond (2004) points out that so can initiate a unit that is meant to be the upshot, or it can be the upshot itself (without a full unit following so). (p. 185)

Ferrara (1997) examines various uses of "anyway". Among them is the expression by the speaker that he or she wants to regain the floor, after an interruption (although mainly it serves to manage digressions by the speaker). (p. 343)

In summary, the most extensively studied signals for turn taking are intonation, silence, filled pauses and discourse markers.

4. Turn-Taking System

The system of turn-taking that is applied to conversational interaction seemed to be independent of the content or topics talked about, the size of turns, the length of the conversation, and even the number of parties in the conversation. The talk studied could be continuous or discontinuous; that is, the speakers could lapse into silences and resume speaking again, or could be in continuous talk, as in a telephone conversation Sacks et al. (1974) proposed that the turn-taking

system for conversation could be described in terms of two components and a set of rules. .(Psathas, 1995, p. 35).

4.1. Turn-Constructional Component

The type of unit that a speaker may produce could vary, for example, a sentence, a clause, a phrase, or any audible sound. Once under way, the unit projected a completion point, that is, a point at which that type of unit would be completed. In beginning any unit, the producer was entitled to the amount of time it would take to complete that unit, as having a turn for that unit. When completed, a turn-transition relevance place would be reached, at which point a change of speakers would be possible. Indeed, it was at such points that change of speakers was found to occur. (Psathas, 1995, p. 37).

4.2. Turn Allocation Component

A number of turn-allocation techniques were available to speakers: those that were provided by current speakers selecting the next speaker, and those in which self-selection would be used to begin the next turn. The system of turn-taking seemed to be organized by a few basic rules. (Psathas, 1995, p. 37).

1- a. If the turn-so-far was constructed in such a way that the current speaker selected the next speaker, then the person selected had the right to begin to speak in next turn.

b. If the turn-so-far was constructed in a way that did not involve "current speaker selects next," then self-selection may be initiated with whoever started first gaining the right to a turn.

c. If the turn-so-far was constructed in such a way that the current speaker did not select the next, then the current speaker might continue to speak unless someone else self-selected.

2. The system was recursive in that if, at the point when the initial turn unit reached its initial transition relevance place and neither of the rules above (Ia or I b) operated, and if, according to rule

44

(lc) the current speaker had continued, then the rules a-c would reapply at the next transition relevance place. This would proceed recursively until a transfer of speakers had occurred.

These rules were ordered such that techniques of turn allocation were themselves ordered; that is, same speaker selects next has priority over next speaker's self-selection. Furthermore, the "first starter has rights," provided for in rule 1 b, orders the possibilities to favour the first speaker over any others and reduces the possibility of many parties self-selecting, which would produce multiple, simultaneous speakers. Because it is possible for a current speaker to select a next at any time during their speaking, even at the very end of an utterance when they may name a next speaker, the system minimizes the possibility that speakers will self-select until the first relevant transition place is reached. If current speaker continues to speak, thus recycling the rules, self selection would occur only at the next transition relevance place. .(Psathas, 1995, p. 38).

The system thereby minimizes overlap and locates gap (no one's speaking) and overlap possibilities at turn transition-relevance places, rather than just anywhere in the talk. As a system of rules, the turn-taking systematic were able to account for all of the collected instances of speaker change that Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson had amassed over the years. Speaker change occurred at transition-relevance places, the techniques of "current speaker selects next" and self-selection were found to operate at those places, and gap and overlap were minimal. As a system it was shown to be one that is self-organizing, that is, ongoingly done by the parties as they interact; locally produced, in situ, in and of the occasions in which they interact. It is recursive in that it is recycled, orderly, and consistent with all the known instances of turn-taking. The system can be considered an "ordered optionality system" (Coulter, 1983) because it is not specified what any party must do, but rather what options may be selected. Conversational interaction may lapse or end. Speakers need not continue to speak. There are no external constraints that operate to produce the systematics. (Psathas, 1995, p. 38).

This analysis of turn-taking in conversation opened up possibilities for the study of varieties of turn-taking systems (i.e., different speech exchange systems) that can be examined, as well as providing a basis for understanding the methodical procedures for accomplishing turn transitions in everyday interaction. We will proceed with one other example of the discovery of structure in interaction, to indicate the diversity of the earliest studies and the contributions of researchers to the field.(Psathas, 1995, p. 38).

5. The Types of Turn-Taking Strategies

Since strategies for turn-taking are different , linguists have divided these strategies in three types, basically the three types of actions that can happen in any conversation. A speaker may yield the turn; or hold the turn; and an interlocutor may take the turn. (Taboada, 2004, p. 17).

5.1. Turn Yielding Strategy

Turn yielding is the most interesting aspect of the three, Turn yielding is achieved in a variety of ways: pauses, address terms, questions, and tag questions. Pauses are frequently used as the most obvious signal that the current speaker desires to yield the turn. In (1), speaker John proposes a meeting, which projects a second part (an acceptance or a rejection), but makes the desire to yield the turn clearer with a pause. (Taboada, 2004, p.17).

Example 01:

John : 'Listen. I want I want uh(0.8) to have a meeting with you.'

(0.55)

Peter : 'Yes. Of course. When ?'

Pauses are also present. In Example (2), speaker (A) yields the turn (in the second turn in the example), a short pause precedes the turn. It is, of course, difficult to decide whether the pause is

part of the usual turn-taking mechanism, or whether the speaker is simply taking a few seconds to yield the turn. (Taboada, 2004, p.17).

Example 02:

A: 'Mm Monday, the truth is that I only have one hour in the morning. But Tuesday in the afternoon, how's that?'

B: 'I have almost all afternoon free after about twelve thirty.'(1.56)

A: (1.13) 'Perfect.'

Pauses were only transcribed if they were at least 0.2 seconds long. Ford and Thompson (1996) report that a length of at least 0.3 seconds is relevant in turn-taking. (p.177)

Pauses in the next example happen most often turn-medially, when speakers provide a chance for their interlocutor to take the floor, which is not taken up. A pause is like a runner dropping the baton. "If the runners drop the baton while it is being passed to the next runner, that next runner should retrieve it. If the drop occurs away from such a transition place, the current runner must retrieve it." Such a situation is presented in (3). Speaker (A) replies to a suggestion of the 22nd with a 'yes' (after a pause), and a repetition of the date. The speaker (B) then produces a pause, presumably to yield the floor. But the interlocutor does not take up that opportunity, and (B) repeats the date, making it more explicit that (B) is free on that day. In the next turn, we understand why speaker (A) did not take the turn at that pause: he wanted more specific information about when on that day (B) is available. (Taboada, 2004, p.18).

Example 03:

A: '…What do you think about the 22nd?'

B: (0.65) 'Yes. The 22nd. (0.88) The 22nd is good. I am free.'

A: 'All day?'

Address terms are used in very few cases. The speakers may, or may not, have known each other, but in all cases were introduced to each other, and thus know each other's names. In the following example, the speaker uses a combination of a direct question and her interlocutor's name to yield the turn. Address terms are not necessary, since there is only one interlocutor, and that could explain their scarcity. (Taboada, 2004, p.20).

Example 04:

A : '… So mm what do you think if we arrange to meet then at 1 p.m. to have lunch, uh I don't know, wherever you want, and then we have the whole afternoon free to finish the project. What do you think, Miriam?'

Direct questions are closely related to address terms. Given that the conversations always involve two people, a direct question is addressed to the only other interlocutor. Thus, even if a question contains no address term, the address term is implied. Example (5) shows a direct address, with the syntactic structure of a question. In fact, speaker (A) realizes early on that this is a question, and does not allow speaker (B) to finish his utterance, but overlaps as soon as the date (Friday the 23rd) has been mentioned. Example (6) shows an instance of the same phenomenon, with a question (which is actually not answered in the following turn). (Taboada, 2004, p.20)

Example 05:

A: 'Uh, (0.5) what about Friday (0.33) <the> (0.54) the 23rd [of July.]'

B: '[Friday the 23rd,] would be perfect.'

Example 06:

A: '… On the 31st, (0.95)I have a class from two to four. Let's see how's that with you?'

B: 'Okay. You could have told me before. No?...'

Items projecting a second part in an adjacency pair are not always questions. Sometimes they are suggestions that project an acceptance or a rejection. In (7), the first speaker makes a suggestion

to meet at the same place in future occasions. Syntactically, the utterance is a statement, but it finishes with rising intonation. The other speaker realizes the need for an answer, and produces one promptly, although he hesitates after the initial 'yes', which leads to an instance of overlap. (Taboada, 2004, p.22).

Example 07:

A: 'Okay. Perfect. Perf very good. And <we could always> uh the next meetings we could always meet at the same place?'

B: 'Yes. Yes. Of exactly.

A: 'Uh okay.'

Questions may also take the form of tag questions, where confirmation, rather than information, is requested. Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson(1974) characterize tag questions as exit devices for a turn, or post-completers. They indicate that the turn is complete, and the interlocutor may take the turn. In Example (8), speaker (A) asks for confirmation of the date proposed with a no?, (Taboada, 2004, p.22).

Example 08:

A: 'Okay. Uh look, let's let's try to meet here. How about the 9th?'

B: 'The 9th of February?'

A: 'Yes. That is two days from today, right?'

B: 'Uh-huh. …'

In general, first parts in adjacency pairs seem to be the most common turn-yielding device. As mentioned above, they can be questions or statements asking about or suggesting a meeting time, with a preferred second part being the acceptance of that date, and a rejection as a dispreferred second part. Other pairs include greeting-greeting, goodbye-goodbye, confirmation-confirmation. (Taboada, 2004, p.23).

Naturally, turns do not consist only of one part in an adjacency pair. Most often a second part starts the turn and a first part finishes it. That is, the sequence is: Speaker A's proposal − Speaker B's rejection + Speaker B's new proposal. In (09) we can see a longer example of this succession of adjacency pairs. Speaker (A) produces a first part, a suggestion of a time to meet. Speaker (B) produces a dispreferred second part, rejecting that date (and giving a reason). He then continues his turn with another first part, a new proposal to meet the following week. (A) does not directly give a second part to the new proposal, but indirectly rejects it by insisting on meeting on the current week (a new first part). (A) yields the turn, and (B) answers the question with a negative, but does not propose a new date, since he already had suggested moving the date. In fact, turns 3 and 4 are a side sequence, and speaker B's proposal to meet the following week receives a second pair in turn 5. It appears that speakers were keeping track of the side sequence, since it is only turns 3 and 4 that contain a single part of the pair. (Taboada, 2004, p.24).

Example 09:

A_01: 'Okay, Monday would be good for me, around lunchtime between 11:30, or so, until 1:30 we could.'

B_02: 'No. Monday is not good for me. I have a lunch between 12 and 2. What do you think if we <do it> leave it until next Monday.'

A_03: 'Don't you have any time between Tuesday and Friday this week?.'

B_04: 'No. I don't. Uh <I have> I'm going away for three days and Friday I have a class and two meetings.'

A_05: 'Okay, on Monday, in the morning would be very good for me, but in the afternoon I have a meeting between 2 and 4.' (Taboada, 2004, p. 17-24).

5.2. Turn Holding Strategy

In conversation in general, and in task-oriented conversation in particular, speakers may pass the turn to an interlocutor when that interlocutor is not yet ready to take it, speaker may utter a first part in an adjacency pair, through a question, a command, or a mention of time availability. Then it is clear that the interlocutor has to answer or otherwise respond to the offer.. In some conversations, the passing of the turn is very clear, but sometimes the other speaker may wish to accept that passing of the turn, but may not be ready to provide a full answer yet. Then he or she holds the floor through a number of devices: silent pauses, filled pauses, and discourse markers. (Taboada, 2004, p.25).

Silent pauses, that is, periods of time when nobody talks, are the least effective method of holding the floor. A pause may indicate a number of things, among them that the communication has broken down and needs to be repaired. When the turn is passed by a speaker, and the interlocutor produces a pause, the speaker that passed the turn may feel that something went wrong, and reclaim the turn, maybe providing clarification. Or he or she may not say anything, waiting for the interlocutor to speak. (Taboada, 2004, p.26).

Example 10:

A: (0.96) 'Okay. Let's see.(0.46) How about the 24th?(0.92) I can any time, except for from 1, to 4.'(0.67)

B: (1.42) 'On the 24th I could, but I have a meeting, from 10 until 12. Could you from 10 to 12?'(1.12)

Pauses at the beginning of the turn are in example 11. The speaker (B) pauses at the beginning of his turn (turn number 04), presumably because he is checking his schedule for the day proposed.

Example 11:

A_01: (0.65) 'Yes. The 22nd. (0.88) The 22nd is good. I'm free.'

B_02: 'All day?'

A_03: 'All day.'

B_04: (0.54) 'Oh, me too. That's great.'

A filled pause indicates more clearly that the interlocutor, to whom the floor has just been passed, wishes to talk, but is not quite ready to do so. Filled pauses take a number of forms: eh, ah, mm, uh. They rarely appear alone, rather being accompanied by a pause, a discourse marker, or both. Example (12) shows a filled pause on its own, eh, not only at the beginning of his turn, but also throughout the turn. (Taboada, 2004, p.27).

Example 11:

A_05: 'Uh I'll come by your office uh at two p.m., <b> because I have to uh come back <h> home after the class that I have <in> in the morning, …'

Discourse markers are the most frequent turn-holding device. It includes the following: ('let's see'), ('listen'), ('look'), ('ok'), ('let me see'), ('well/then'), ('uh oh').. The distinction between a discourse marker and a filled pause is not always clear.

Byron and Heeman (1998) suggest that discourse markers are more prevalent in task-oriented spoken dialogue: in the TRAINS corpus of task-oriented dialogues that they analyzed, 44.1% of the turns were introduced with a discourse marker (that figure excludes acknowledgements and filled pauses). They found a number of functions were realized by discourse markers, among them acknowledgements, repairs, and signals about the type of conversational move about to be produced. For example, utterances that summarize previous contributions start with so, and utterances that express dissent (a dispreferred second pair) start with well. They also found that (preferred) second parts of adjacency pairs did not usually start with a discourse marker. They conclude that discourse markers are used most frequently when there are no strong expectations about the utterance that the speaker is about to make (Byron & Heeman,1998).

Discourse markers are used, sometimes in combination with filled pauses, when the speaker him or herself is not sure about what move they need to make next: they need to consider whether they will accept or reject a proposal; or whether they can make a new proposal for a meeting date. An example is presented in (13), where the speaker uses a discourse marker, 'the truth', plus a filled pause (eh) to reject the date just proposed by the other speaker. (Taboada, 2004, p.28).

Example13:

A_01: '… I'm a bit busy this week because I'm going away. But what do you think about next week uh, the 13th? Tuesday the 13th, in the morning.'

B_02: 'The truth the truth, uh the 13th is not the best day to meet for me.'

In other cases, the discourse marker introduces a request for a clarification, in itself also a dispreferred second part, as in Example (14), where both oh and 'let's see' give the speaker some time to think about the next move: (B) is not ready to say "yes" to going to a movie until he knows what day is proposed, and as a consequence he requests further information. (Taboada, 2004, p.28).

Example14:

A_01: 'I'm talking to you to tell you about a meeting. If you want to go with me to the movies.'

B_02: 'Oh, let's see. What day?'

The discourse marker 'well' deserves special attention. "Well" is used in isolation, or together with another marker, with a filled pause, or with a pause. It is used to signal a dispreferred second part in an adjacency pair. Example (15) illustrates such use of 'well': speaker (B) issues an implicit blanket rejection of all the dates previously proposed by speaker (A), and suggests to look at a different week. The rejection is implicit in the well, and the new proposal seems to be foreshadowed by ('look') (Taboada, 2004, p.29).

Example15:

A_01 : 'Um <the> the idea is that, as I said, Monday, in the morning, Tuesday uh um <of> in the afternoon, Wednesday anytime, and Thursday in the morning.'

B_02 : 'Well. Look. I think we are going to have to revise for next week because from what we've talked about, our schedules are completely in conflict….'

Example (16) is another instance of 'well' as a turn-holder. Speaker (A) has rejected a number of proposals, including the most recent (Friday), and passes the turn. Speaker (B) does not seem ready to put forth a new proposal, and hesitates with a number of filled pauses, including no, something that sounds close to the French oh là là, and then a 'well', followed by another filled pause (ah), and two new markers combined (well look), until she finally finds his next available slot (the Wednesday after).

Example16:

A_01: '… No man. It's looking impossible. On Friday I won't be able to. I only have from 4 to 5. That's not enough time.'

B_02: 'No <n> ah la la well. Ah, well look. I won't have (anything) until the Wednesday after…'

The marker 'well' has a few other uses not directly related to turn-taking. It can indicate the acceptance of a proposal, and therefore the closing of the conversation, as shown in (17).

Example17:

A_01 : 'Mm, on Monday the fact is that I only have one hour in the morning. But Tuesday in the afternoon, how's that?'

B_02 : 'Well, I have almost all afternoon free, from about 12:30 on.'(1.56)

A_03 : (1.13) 'Perfect. Why don't we meet <at one> uh from one to three. How's that?' (1.7)

A_04 : (0.92) 'It'll be very good at that time, then I'll see you there.'

B_05 : 'Okay. That's good. I'll see you on Tuesday at one. See you later.'

Repetitions also serve as turn-holders. In (18), speaker (A) repeats, in the last turn of the example, the date just proposed (the 17th), with rising intonation. This could be both a request for a confirmation and a turn holder. The request for confirmation hypothesis is supported by the fact that there is a pause after 17 th?, but the turn holder hypothesis is possible, since (A) continues to talk without having received confirmation. he may just have said something to hold the turn, and to indicate that he is considering that date. (Taboada, 2004, p.31).

Example18 :

A_01: 'And let's see what other day I can.'

B_02 : (0.64) 'Can you on the 17th?'

A_03: 'The 17th? (1.59) I can't on the 17th. (1.8) <Wh> What do you think of the 22nd?'

Pauses, filled pauses, and discourse markers are also used in combination. In Example (19), speaker (A) starts with a marker (let's see), and then continues with a filled pause and an address term, before pointing out a problem with the time just proposed by his interlocutor.

Example19 :

A_01: 'Let's see, uh Octavio. I think that the two hours have to be contiguous. It's going to be a pretty long meeting, it has to be two hours and the two hours contiguous…'. (Taboada, p. 25-31)

One conclusion of these examples is that those features are necessary when managing spontaneous conversation, but they drop in frequency once the pressure of holding the turn disappears.

5.3. Turn Taking Strategy

In conversations, a speaker can take the turn only if the interlocutor yields it. Once the turn has been passed, we are in a turn-holding situation. We can observe actual instances of turn taking, that is, a speaker taking the floor from the current speaker. In Sacks et al.'s (1974) terms, the speaker is self-selecting at the transition-relevance place. Overlapping is the most obvious instance of self-

selection by an interlocutor, since it indicates that the current speaker is not ready to yield the turn. In most cases, the simultaneous talk is clearly not an instance of trying to take the floor, but merely a backchannel, as in (20), where speaker (B) produces a backchannel that signals understanding that Monday is not good (ah), but then lets speaker (A) finish his turn before he asks the following question ('and when are you back'). (As cited in Taboada, 2004, p.32).

Example 20:

A_01: 'Eh Monday I'm away. [Monday,] <me> very busy for me.'

B_02: '[ah] and when are you back?'

In other cases, it is more plausible to think that the interlocutor was trying to take the floor, sometimes to preclude discussion of a date, or to make the interlocutor stop when a date has been proposed, so that the self-selecting speaker gets the chance to consult his or her calendar. In (21), speaker (A) suggests Friday, and ends his question with rising intonation. At that point, speaker (B) repeats 'Friday', also with rising intonation, ready to take the floor and check his schedule. But speaker (A) has not finished his turn, and repeats the Friday proposal, specifying that he is free then. The overlapping talk happens at the point where (A) repeats Friday, because (B) was prompt to take the floor at that point. In fact, (B) could naturally have expected his interlocutor's turn to end at the point where (A) produced a question. According to Schegloff (1988), "if a turn has several components (that is, turn-constructional units) in it, one of which is a question, the question is almost always the last of them, for on its completion, the question will ordinarily have made it someone else's turn to talk.". (Taboada, 2004, p.33).

Example21:

A_01: 'Okay. What do you think uh <ma> on Friday? [Friday] I'm free.'

B_02: '[Friday?] Friday. Oh jeez. Let me see. Um, I have a meeting. With this David, uh I don't remember his last name. <f> from ten to twelve.' (Taboada, p. 32-34).

Conclusion

The study of speech produced in ordinary human interactions is an important research in understanding communications in society. Conversation Analysis is the study of recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction, but what is the aim of studying these interactions? Principally, it is to discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of action are generated. In general, the conversations make turn-taking necessary at certain times, because they involve proposals that an interlocutor is, implicitly or not, invited to answer. The presence of a first part in an adjacency pair makes the second part relevant. This form of tacit address in certain action sequences which can play an important part in the selection of a next speaker even when they are not accompanied by an explicit form of addressing. Similarly, in the conversations studied, questions and proposals always invite an answer or a confirmation. This can be done through direct address, but is often achieved implicitly.

Chapter Three:
Research Methods
and Data Analysis

Chapter Three: Research Methods and Data Analysis

Introduction

This study is designed to investigate the turn-taking strategies. Conversation analysis is the selected approach to investigate the use of turn taking strategies in master English language learners, an audio recording method has been applied. The turn taking strategies have been exhibited in five conversations, randomly selected and naturally occurred, recorded with the master students at the University of Jijel, from which the data of this study was collected. This chapter discusses the methodology used to carry out this research and the data analysis and discussion.

1. Research Methodology

1.1 Research Design

The design of our study used both quantitative and qualitative research methods. We used quantitative method to determine the observed patterns, that is, displaying the data that are derived from the transcription of the conversations in form of tables which makes the data clear to understand and easy to obtain the findings. On the other hand, the qualitative research method tends to explore the turn-taking strategies that are demonstrated through the transcriptions which are the main source of the qualitative data.

1.2. Procedures

1.2.1. Obtaining Audio Recordings

There are two aspects of obtaining tape-recordings of conversations for analysis that we must consider :

- The ethics of research: there are particular ethical issues which arise with the use of tape-recording, particularly when studying naturalistic conversation. These can be summarized as :

a) Asking permission to record participants talking together: Before we obtained the recordings, we asked the students for permission. Some of them agreed with pleasure to participate, others disagreed due to personal reasons .

b) Procedures for safeguarding confidentiality: we refer to the names of participants as A and B in each conversation .

- **- Recording conditions**: We did not use any audio tape recorder because we do not have one. The only tools we are familiar with is our cell-phones so, we used the application "Dictaphone" to record four conversations. The fifth one was recorded using the same application on the Laptop.

1.2.2. Transcription Process

The transcription of conversation analysis aims to do two things: represent in text the actual sounds students make in the position they make them, and do so in a way which makes the resultant transcript as accessible to people as possible. At the same time we need to remember that the process of representing actual talk in textual form (as a transcription) is not somehow 'neutral' and simply a case of translating what is seen and heard into what can be read**.** As Heath & Luff (1993) put it:

> *The process of transcription is an important analytical tool, providing the researcher with an understanding of, and insights into, the participant's conduct. It provides the researcher with a way of noticing, even discovering, particular events and helps focus analytic attention of their socio-interactional organisation (p. 309).*

- The first step in our transcription process was to obtain the audio recorded conversations,

- The second step was to play back small actions of conversations extract repeatedly and gradually writing out the words and sounds of the conversations according to the transcription conventions outlined in the following table.

Table (02): Jefferson Transcription Conventions

Transcription Element	Meaning
↘	falling arrow indicates a falling intonation
↗	raising arrow indicates a raising intonation
↗↘	raising falling arrow indicates a raising falling intonation
↘↗	falling raising indicates a falling raising intonation
:::	colon indicates a sound elongation, more colons indicate longer elongation
–	hyphen at the end and beginning of turns indicates latched turns with no gap or overlap; within turns indicates truncated word
xx	underlining indicates greater than normal stress
⌈	left bracket indicates beginning of overlap
(.)	period within parentheses indicates a micropause; pauses greater than 0.1 seconds, measured to nearest tenth second
(xx)	'x' inside parenthesis indicates incomprehensible speech
<xxx>	words inside less-than and more-than signs indicate mispronounced lexis that produce other-initiated repair
〔 〕	bracket indicate continued, same-speaker speech between turns where overlap occurs

°word°	Shown when a passage of talk is noticeably quieter than the surrounding talk

We try our best to listen to the segment enough then repeat the listening again, and again, and again to be as certain as we can be that our transcription represents what we hear until the representation of the sounds is good as possible as which allows the process of analysis to begin without unmotivated attention as Harry Sacks recommended that " recording should be listened to closely with "unmotivated attention". All the things that have been found out about everyday conversation (e.g., it's highly structured turn-taking pattern) have emerged from an 'unmotivated' examination of naturally occurring talk, from, 'an examination not prompted by pre-specified goals […] but by 'noticings' of initially unremarkable features of talk or other conduct' (Schegloff, 1996, p. 172) i.e without motivation or pre- ideas about what people think or what they will find or how they expect people to behave .

- The third step was retrieving the data served to answer our research question such as the number of pauses, overlaps…etc
- The fourth step was the discussion and the findings of our analysis.

Moving from the practice of transcription to the process of analysis and interpretation, probably the most important point to grasp is that the process is not discontinuous. Transcription, analysis and interpretation are interdependent - the minute you start transcribing, analysis and interpretation begin simultaneously. Having said that, procedurally it can help to organize the research process into stages such as :

*obtain your recordings.

*do the transcription.

*identify conversation structures and/or an evidence relevant to the research question.

*write up an interpretation based on a the evidence we have collected.

1.2.3. Analysis Procedure

The research was done by the following order:

a) A transcription has been made for the five audio recorded conversations; each conversation has five minutes length.

b) A table was produced to examine the presence of pauses in conversations.

c) A table was produced to study overlaps, silences which are used by the participants and their relationship with the chosen turn- taking strategies.

d) A table was produced to discuss the numbers of filled pauses and discourse markers in each conversation.

e) The intonation transcription was arranged into a table, from the next speaker's point of view. The speaker's utterance in a turn was specified to which the next speaker is responding. This table shows the relation between turns: how Turn (1) is related to Turn (2), Turn (2) to Turn (3), etc.

f) A table was produced to analyze the adjacency pairs and its relationship with turn-taking strategies used by the students.

1.3. Population

The population of our research is English language second year master students; option Language Sciences at the University of Jijel. We choose second year of master English students because they are able to engage in-talk-interaction in English language (as a second language) i.e. they manage to recognize and produce all that is required for the acts of conversations because they have the grammatical and vocabulary tools, they grasped during their three years university course. The sample will consist of ten students, who were all between 23 and 28 years old, from whom we

recorded five conversations which are broken down in two female-female, two male-male and one male-female dialogues. This choice was made to make a balance between two genders, but not to study the influence of gender on turn-taking strategies. So, the real aim here is to investigate the competence of the master students to use turn- taking strategies (using second language i.e. English language).We take into consideration that those students are randomly selected and those conversations are naturally occurring.

2. Data analysis

2.1. Pauses

Table (02): Pauses at the beginning, middle, and the end of turns

Pauses	Con 01	Con 02	Con 03	Con 04	Con 05
At the beginning of turns	02	06	07	03	01
Mid-pauses	22	32	26	22	19
At the end of turns	02	01	09	01	03
Total	26	39	42	26	23
Total number of turns	100	90	92	88	100

Table 02 summarizes the presence of pauses in the five conversations, we can see that a large number of pauses happened in the middle of turns, in comparison with pauses at the end and beginning of turns.

Such mid-turn pauses may be due to variety of personal factors such as: loss of words, as in conversation three:

Example 01:

B_56: Yes data collection, from the pre-test, post-test and quest uh, teacher's

questionnaire, (0.2) and sampling the ::: uh ::: sample of the teachers and uh students, description of the test.

A_57: It means how uh did we uh ::

Or hesitation like in conversation five,

Example 02:

B_48: Yea:::h, take take take (0.2) taking into consideration that real fees.

A_49: That's an, absolutely.

Also it may happen due to search for a proper word, or absence of script, as in piece of conversation three,

Example 03:

B_60: Yes the steps of the (0.2) ⌈test

A_61:   the test⌊includes four main parts, How many parts do we have so far?

Here in this example, the pause produces by the current turn holder **B** encourages the other participant **A** to overlap the speaker's pause and take the turn.

 Pauses at the beginning of turns may indicate that the next speaker is not quite ready to take the floor, as in conversation two.

Example 04:

A_21: Something that you are very good in.

B_22: (0.2) Actually it is my field uh repairing devices.

Here speaker **B** took some time to answer speaker's question that is why the pause appeared.

On the other hand end pauses appeared when the speaker yield the turn, after the completion of his turn, as a signal for the next speaker to take the turn, as in the following example from conversation three.

Example 05:

B_72: We have to consult the supervisor, consult the supervisor, and ask him for guidance.(0.2)

A_73: Yes, we will talk to him later

    However end pauses are not always a turn yielding cue. Sometimes the speaker did not finish his turn because of the loss of word, temporary distraction; here he might take few seconds to think about a completion of the turn, as in example (06) from conversation five.

Example 06:

A_65: Uh also concerning its teachers, they are very helpful, uh for the record, there is a teacher,

    I think her his name (0,2)

B_66: Ahuh.

A_67: David Bernard, he is very helpful, we met him in Algiers in a workshop.

2.2. Overlaps and Silences

Table (03): Overlaps and silences

	Con 01	Con 02	Con 03	Con04	Con 05
Overlaps	15	20	13	14	24
Silences	-	02	04	-	-
Total of turns	100	90	92	88	100

    Table 03 presents the number of overlaps and silences in each conversation, we can see that, overlap appeared in all conversations, on the contrary we found silences only in conversations one, four, and five, which lead us to say that; even thought silence is a characteristic of natural accruing conversations, sometimes talk can be exchanged without the presence of silences.

    We know that overlap occurred when speakers try to speak at the same time, as in the following examples from conversations three and one.

Example 07:

A_29: The use of the use of video stories as strategy in tea⌐ching English idioms ⌐

B_30:   Ching English idioms │ and

      then the result and then the analysis.

Example 08:

A_67: Yeah, ⌐they did not

B_68:   └I was told they had been out.

      In this example (8) the two speakers compete for the floor, the second speaker takes the

floor, before the first speaker completes his turn i.e. he did not yield it and he could not hold it too.

The overlap in these instances was a partial overlap which began during the interlocutor's turn but

extended further after its end. In example (07) the partial overlap occurred when the two speakers

uttered the same speech.

      In example (09) from conversation one, the overlap takes place completely within the

interlocutor's turn. This overlap is called full overlap when the interlocutor still held the floor and

shared it with the listener.

Example 09:

A_69: Yeah, they have been knocked out from⌐ the champions league.

B_70:   └that's right

      Generally, overlap occurs when the next speaker did not respect the notion of the relevance

place that is he did not wait for the speaker to give him the floor, or when the speaker B seizes the

chance to take the turn from speaker A when he pauses. As in the following example from

conversation number one.

Example 10:

A_37: No, originates from Turkey, but he had got a German nationality, he plays for German (2)

B_38: ⌈yeah
      ⌊All right, makes sense, fair enough.

If overlap is a competition over the floor, Silence is a period of time when nobody talks. A speaker produces silences risks of losing his turn, as in the following example from conversation three

Example 11:

A_67: In questionnaire each question should be analyzed.

B_68: (0.4)

A_69: So what do we have to do now? (0.2) tell me

This example shows speaker **A** yields the turn to speaker B who did not say anything so he produces a silence that allows speaker A to reclaim the floor again.

Example 12:

A_19: As a hobby, as uh I don't know.

B_20: (0.5)

A_21: Something that you are very good in.

In this example the turn is passed from speaker A to speaker B. Speaker B failed in taking the turn asking for more clarification from speaker A by producing a silence, so when speaker A he feels that something was wrong reclaimed the turn and gave more explanation.

So whenever the participants found a silence they took the chance to use a taking-turn strategy and stole the floor from the speaker.

2.4. Discourse Markers and Filled pauses

Table (04): Discourse Markers and Filled Pauses

	Con 01	Con 02	Con 03	Con 04	Con 05
Discourse Markers	78	30	23	59	55
Filled Pauses	24	31	40	23	25
Total	102	61	63	78	80
Total number of Turns	100	90	92	88	100

Table (04) represents the number of filled pauses and discourse markers that occured in each conversation. The high number of discourse and filled pauses shows that the participants depend on the two when they managed their conversations. We can see also that the total number of discourse markers (245) is higher than the total number of filled pauses (143). We can say also that nearly in each turn, there is a discourse marker or a filled pause.

Participants used discourse markers and filled pauses in different situations:

- First they use them as a hold- turn mechanism:

Filled pauses rarely appear alone, we can find them at the beginning, middle, or at the end of any turn in spontaneous conversation as in the following example from conversation one, two, and three.

Example 13:

B_04: I'm doing well hey did you see yesterday's match

A_05: **Um** please don't remind me of it.

Example 14:

A_31: By, for example by arranging some meetings, or by **uh uh** using, how do you usually keep in touch with them?

B_32: By phone.

Example 15:

A_57: It means how uh did we **uh ::** -

B_58:   - We conduct.

The following examples shows how the participants use discourse markers to hold the floor.

Example 16:

A_69: Yeah, he's very helpful, he's helping me so much, and I'm uh so honored to have

such -

B_70:   - **So::** I can tell he's gonna be your supervisor

Example 17:

A_31: Well, I'm just saying Arsenal is my favorite football club.

B_32: Hey **::: o:::k** when you were talk about Arsenal you made me remembering a mov uh, **I**

mean you know a guy, what's his name again? **ok :::** Özil

A combination of the two can also be used, and sometimes this combination may be accompanied with a pause.

Example 18:

B_54: Ok I didn't notice I just opened the page I clicked on like this is it

A_55: **Yeah um (0.3)** he's he is a good player, and he has <hed> he has had sorry ups and

downs during the season.

- Second: they use them as a turn- take mechanism:

The following examples explain how the participants use discourse markers and filled pauses to take the floor

Example 19:

B_46: It's the thing that makes you (0.2) ⌈ looking forward.

A_47:   Ok ⌊ but, where did you go

70

In this example speaker B produces a pause, here speaker A seized this opportunity to take the floor using a discourse marker.

Example 20:

A_63: Ok.

B_64: Wakatta .

A_65: Ahuh.

B_66: Yeah arigato means thank you.

In this example speaker A use the filled pause "ahuh" to take the turn and then give it back once again to speaker B.

2.5. Intonation

Table (05): Intonation

	Con 01	Con 02	Con 03	Con 04	Con 05
Fall	68	54	64	59	61
Fall-rise	02	04	05	01	09
Rise-fall	18	03	12	08	10
Rise	43	54	37	35	67
Total	131	115	118	102	149

Table (05) shows the distribution of different types of intonation, within the five conversations, from the first glance at the table we can say that falling and rising intonation are more noticeable than the other two (fall-rise, rise-fall intonations).

- Rising intonation and turn strategy:

Most of rising intonations occurred when the participants asked questions either WH questions, yes-no questions, or tag questions, the speaker in this case tended to yield the turn to the next speaker.

Example 19:

A_35: Internet ↗ what kind of chat rooms does you like to use

B_36: (0.1) uh mainly facebook.

When overlap occurs i.e. the participant wanted to take the floor, he always used utterances with rising intonation as in the following example.

Example 20:

A_17: ↘Yeah, ⌈ ok…

B_18:   ⌊ ↗Ok, how can, ok, um : : I think my ok Manchester United my favorite team, so

how can I do not know the ga , I mean the player , um, that's something.

In some conversations, we found that when a participant took their turn, they used rising intonation with statement expressing surprise or confirmation, as displays in the examples bellow (the examples were taken from conversations one and five).

Example 22:

A_51: ↘No thirteen.

B_52: ↗Really

Speaker B took the information (the number 13 million) with surprise, this surprise was expressed with rising intonation. In example 23 the rising intonation was used when speaker B expressed his confirmation.

Example 23:

A_93: ↗ Take it

B_94: ↗ Yeah seize it

A_95: ↗ Take it

B_96: ↗ Yeah

- <u>Falling intonation and turn strategy:</u>

Most of the statements that elicit turn taking strategy are uttered with falling intonation, as in example 21.

Example 24:

A_61: ↗ Which country do you like to visit?

B_62: ↘ United States.

Sometimes when participants wanted to yield the turn they use a falling intonation

Example 25:

A_53: ↘ I think, I will go to Northampton University.

B_54: ↘ O::k:::

In this example speaker A performed a complete turn and gave the floor to speaker B using a falling intonation, speaker A then accepted the turn, the turn-take of speaker A was also marked with a falling intonation.

Most likely, when the exchange of talk went smoothly, participants chose a take-turn or a yield- turn strategy with a falling intonation (the opposite case which is overlap that expresses interruption was explained when we talked about rising intonation), like in the example bellow.

Example 26:

B_66: ↘ Yeah arigato means thank you.

A_67: ↘ Ok:: (laugh).

B_68: ↘ And full stop.

A_69: ↘ O::k:(laugh) that's too much

- <u>Falling-rising, Rising-falling Intonation and turn strategy:</u>

A rising tone is frequently chosen by the next speaker to display his/her dominance in turn taking (when overlap occurs), but in some conversations we found an interruption from the next speaker trying to take the turn using a falling rising intonation and then rose his intonation in order to hold the floor.

Example 27:

A_29: ↘ The use of the use of video stories as strategy in tea⌈ching English idioms⌉

B_30:   ↘↗⌊Ching English idioms⌋ and then

the result and then the analysis.

In this example speaker **B** interrupted speaker **A** following his falling intonation, and when speaker **A** completed his turn speaker **B** rose his intonation to hold the floor.

Speaker **A** in example (28) used a falling-rising intonation to hold the floor after producing a pause in order to keep speaker **B** away from taking the floor, in his second unit of turn speaker **A** also used a falling-rising intonation; the rising intonation was very distinguished when he repeated his word as an attempt to keep his turn when speaker B interrupted him to take the turn with rising intonation.

Example 28:

A_49: ↘That's an absolutely absolutely ↘↗so the best thing I'd I:: thought about it so much days and nights of course (0,2) I thought that to live far away from London is (0,2) a bite cheap::er you can uh;↘↗ I mean you can afford things, you can afford to have a good life,

 concerning the ⌈↗the the life

B_50:   ⌊ Ok, (0,2) wh what about the

Example (29) from conversation one, shows a taking of turn with rising-falling intonation, because the participant wanted to express a surprise or a confirmation, the falling tone at the end of the word was used as a cue to yield the floor.

Examples 29:

A_49:↘ He scores about thirteen million

B_50:↗↘Yeah, around thi thi thirty mi, thirty or thirteen.

A_51:↘ No, thirteen.

B_52:↗ Really

A_53:↗↘Yeah, not thirty

2.5. Adjacency Pairs

Table (06) : Adjacency Pairs

	Con 01	Con 02	Con 03	Con 04	Con 05
Questions	08	27	10	08	16
Other First Parts	46	22	40	52	38
Total	54	49	50	60	54

Naturally, turns do not exist alone, they are always followed by a second part, that is what we call an adjacency pair, it has most often the following sequence -as we see in chapter two-, speakers A's proposal- speaker B's rejection+ speaker B's new proposal, that means the first part starts the turn and the second part finishes it.

When the participant wanted to yield the turn, he used adjacency pair mechanism to give the other participant the opportunity to take the turn, that is a yielding- taking sequence appears.

Questions are the most common tool. Like for example in conversation four, when participant B wanted to change the topic by using a direct question in order to yield the turn to the next speaker.

Example 30:

B_84: Ok, (0.3) wanna speak about something else.

A_85: I don't know, (0.2) yea:::h I noticed that you guys make a lot of noise you know when it came to your classes.

Other situations include asking for information, as the example from conversation one, where a WH question is used.

Example 31:

B_08: Ok, How was the score?

A_09: Three, one to Manchester United, um, a new player in his first appearance scored two goals, very offensive player.

Questions, may also take the form of tag questions, when the participant sought a confirmation rather than information, like this example from conversation four.

Example 32:

A_49: Yeah, Actually Russian is an easy language.

B_50: Isn't it?

A_51: It is it doesn't have a lot of grammatical rules that's why it's easy.

Here in this example speaker B asked for a confirmation about Russian being an easy language, performing a complete turn by using a tag question and so yielding the turn to the other speaker. The same goes for the following example from conversation one:

Example 33:

B_58: But I think he is much better than being in Real Madrid isn't he

A_59: Well That's not an easy question.

Other parts of adjacency pairs include statements, like greeting-greeting, goodbye- goodbye, confirmation- confirmation ...etc. The examples bellow explain the yielding, taking strategies performed by the participants through the adjacency pair mechanism.

Example 34: shows greeting

A_01: Good afternoon

B_02: Good afternoon

Example 35: shows goodbye

A_99: Have a nice day

B_100: Same to you

Example 36: shows confirmation

A_23: Yeah I have always had this problem of waking up in the morning early.

B_24: Yeah

A_25: Hmh

B_26: I always find you know um uh in holidays, I cannot you know wake up early.

3. Discussion

We have presented an analysis of turn- taking strategies that are used by the students in natural conversations. We try to transcribe these conversations and then examined them in terms of three characteristics: turn yielding, turn holding, and turn taking.

When the speaker wanted to use yield-turn strategy, he produced a pause or silence at the end of his turn, sending a message to the next speaker that his turn was finished and offered him the opportunity to engage in talk. The speaker turn usually came with falling intonations as another marker confirming the yielding turn strategy. Using questions by a speaker is also a signal to yield the turn, when this speaker sought information or conformations from the next speaker.

Taking-turn strategy are used by the speakers through the application of some mechanisms such as overlap, when the speaker did not respect the conventions of the exchange of talk, and took the turn while the interlocutor were still talking. This overlap usually accompanied with rising intonation. Repetitive words combined with high intonation are also a means of taking the turn. However, in smooth talk a speaker tended to take his turn with falling intonation.

To hold the turn, the speaker used generally the discourse markers and filled pauses to filled the gaps that might occur in his speech to protect his turn from being taken or stolen by the next speaker. Both of speakers used nearly a discourse marker or a filled pause in each turn. Discourse markers like well, ok, right, yeah, I mean, were more frequently used by the speaker than filled pauses (uh, ah, um, uhuh) in holding the turn and managing the interaction. Repetitions also served as a turn holders, the speaker repetition of the first turn could be a request for a confirmation or turn holder, it could be at the beginning, middle, or at the end of the turn.

Some participants were able to predict when transition relevance places are coming up, and exercised such places when they were speaking. Consider what a participant did when he/she asks the other participant a question. Towards the end of the question, the intonation of the voice will change (even before s/he actually get to the end) making it clear that as the current speaker s/he is going to hand over the floor to the next speaker. And as a listener s/he knows precisely when to come into conversations and self-select him- self as next speaker (e.g if somebody else has not handed the floor over to him).

At the end, we can say that each strategy of the three (yielding, taking, holding) is distinguished by some markers; taking turn is generally known by using overlaps and rising intonation. Holding turn is characterized by the use of filled pauses, discourse markers and repetitions, however yielding turn known by pauses and silences questions and falling intonations.

Conclusion

This chapter was designed to answer the research problem which is" what are the turn taking strategies used by the English master students of university of Jijel?". To identify the strategies, we conduct the study based on multiple signals or cues that the participants used during their conversations. We find that all the master students use the three strategies, taking, holding and yielding. The participants used different signals to inform each other indirectly about the strategy they chose. We noticed that some student misunderstood signals and that the strategy chosen especially turn -yielding and turn-holding leads to problems in communicating with each other as a result there were silences and a large number of pauses and overlaps.

General Conclusion

Turn taking is one of the basic mechanisms in conversation and the nature of turn- taking is to promote and maintain talk. The research in turn taking signals is useful in itself, we want to understand how conversational participants signal to each other that they desire to yield, hold or take the turn.

This work looked at turn-taking strategies from conversation analysis point of view. It was an attempt to find how university students manage the talk and what are the turn-taking strategies used by them to interact and to overcome communication problems faced up during real conversations such as lack of words, search for proper words, absence of scripts, competition over the floor, distraction involvements, and silences.

From what is shown in this study, taking turns is an important social skill for all students to learn, as it allows them to communicate with each other. With a little bit of practice and plenty of the teacher support, students could learn to master this social skill.

Teachers can teach students to take turns using simple activities as a response to the needs of the University students enrolled in an oral course. These activities are designed to introduce students to the ideas of conversational turn-taking, to sensitize them to the need for on-time speaker transitions, and to practise aspects of the turn-taking system. These activities are jumping into a conversation, speaking in circles, fighting for a turn, and monitoring the turn.

The role of these activities is to teach and practise the norms of conversational turn-taking, which lie at the heart of conversational interaction. In particular, these activities focus heavily on encouraging self-selection, because next speaker self-selection, which is so common in conversation, is suppressed within the turn- taking system typical of traditional or teacher dominant classroom interaction, this will enable the students to avoid interaction problems when they participate in real conversations.

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Appendix 01: Conversation one

A_01: ↗ Hello,

B_02: ↗ Hi how are you doing?

A_03: ↘ I'm doing fine thanks and you?

B_04: ↘ I'm doing well, ↗ hey: did you see yesterday's match?

A_05: ↘ (.) **Um** please don't remind me of it, we were forgotten the game

B_06: ↘**Uh** o::k actually I didn't watch it, ↘ I just heard the noise of a lot of people watching some football match, so -

A_07:   - ↘ Yeah, pretty much too long to watch, ↗ it was great, (.) great game not that great but an interesting game.

B_08: ↗ Ok How was the score?

A_09: ↘ Three one to Manchester United, ↘ (1) um (.) a new player in his first appearance scored two goals, ↘very offensive player.

B_10: ↗↘ Really ⌈okay.

A_11:   ⌊ ↘ Yeah

B_12: ↗ What's his name?

A_13: ↘ I cannot remember I think Olsen or something like that.

B_14: ↗ Ok and he plays for?

A_15: ↘ Manchester United.

B_16: ↘ Really.

A_17: ↘ Yeah ⌈ ok

B_18:   ⌊↗ Ok how can (2) ok, um : :,↘I think my ok Manchester United my favorite team so how can I do not know:(.) the ga I mean the player, um(.)   That's↘ something.

A_19: ↘ Yeah well my favorite team speaking of yours is (1) Arsenal

B_20: ↗ Really.

A_21: ↘ Yeah.

B_22: ↘ Well stand up and walk away from me ten meters (laugh)

A_23: (laugh)↗↘ they are great rivals aren't they?

B_24: ↗ Sure (laugh)

A_25: ↘But our greatest (.) rival is Tottenham,↘ because as you: know most clubs come from London.

B_26: ↗↘ Actually I have no clue because I stopped watching eh English you know preliminary league uh long ago.

A_27: ⌐ ↗ Ok well

B_28: ⌐ ↗↘ You know because I studying so I do not have time so

A_29: ↘ It is not very easy to keep up the ball, ⌐↘ not because watching those games

B_30:   ↗↘ Sure sure it is Yeah.

A_31: ↗ Well, I'm just saying Arsenal is my favorite football club.

B_32: ↗ Hey **::: o:::k,** ↗↘ when you were talking about Arsenal you made me remembering a mov uh I mean, you know a guy,↘ what's his name again? ↗ ok **:::** Özil.

A_33: ↘ This is Özil German   international.

B_34:   ⌐ ↗ Yeah,

A_35: ⌐ ↗ international

B_36: ⌐ ↗ German! you mean Turkish.

A_37: ↘No originates from Turkey but he had got a German nationality,↘ and he plays for German (2) ⌐ yeah

B_38:   ⌐ ↗ All ri::ght(.) makes sense fair enough.

A_39: ↘ A very talented play maker, ↘ he used to play for Real Madrid you know

B_40: ↗ That's right yeah I like the guy.

A_41: ↗ He makes the move to the En⌐ gland

B_42:   ↗↘ He is a wonderful football player

A_43: ↗↘ Yeah, Muslim as well

B_44: ↗ Sure

A_45: ↘ Has a lot of (1) funs in all over the globe.

B_46: ↘ That's right (.)I gave him uh a like on facebook.

A_47: (1)↘ Same for me

B_48: ⌐ ↗ Ah! Really

A_49: ⌐ ↘ He scores about thirteen million

B_50: ↗↘ Yeah around thi thi thirty mi, thirty or thirteen.

A_51: ↘ No thirteen.

B_52: ↗ Really

A_53: ↗↘ Yeah ⌈not °thirty°

B_54: ⌊↘Ok I didn't notice, ↗ I just opened the page, ↗↘ I clicked on like this is it.

A_55: ↘Yeah, um, (3) ↗ he's he is a good player,↘ and he has <hed> he has had sorry ups and downs during the season

B_56: ↘ That's right.

A_57: ↘ It's only to think to adopt primarily league.

B_58: ↗↘ But I think he is much better than being in Real Madrid, isn't he

A_59: ↗↘Well That's not an easy question ah, ↘ it's depends um, if Arsenal (2) finished the season Arsenal finished the season, not (xx).

B_60: ↘ Ok

A_61:↗↘ Without winning any title it would be very disappointed for him; ↘ because he came to win the title.

B_62: ↘ I think Manchester United gonna do it this year.

A_63: ↘ who?

B_64: ↘ Manchester United. because he came to win the title

A_65: ↘ No they had a terrible season.

B_66: ↗ Really

A_67: ↗ Yeah ⌈they did not

B_68: ⌊↗ I was told they had been out.

A_69:↘ Yeah they have been knocked out from ⌈the champions league.

B_70: ⌊↗ that's right

A_71: ↘ In German, and (0.3) they will make it to the champions league and then to blow Manchester United because they has been there for long time (1) in different season

⌈↗ They want
B_72:⌊↗↘ I think I think, Real Madrid gonna do it this year,↘ I mean for the: uh for the champions league I think they gonna take it

A_73: ↗ Yeah they are a very good squad uh -

B_74: -↗It's 100% finished ok that's amazing!(2)↗↘ Last year last year it it was um 100% Germany um ok (xx) ok Bayern München.

A_75: (xx)

B_76: ↘ Ok I told you I do not understand German (laugh)
↗↘

86

A_77:   (xx) which means version (laugh)

B_78: ↘ Ok

A_79: ↘ Ok.

B-80: ↘ Heh makes sense.

A_81: ↘ The different is that this time those clubs come from the same city, from Madrid

B_82:   Sure ok

A_83: ↘ It's very interes⌈ting.

B_84:   ⌊↗ Please do not remind me, I was very upset you know from you know because Barcelona lost against (1) Athletico Madrid,↘ they was the score was horrible terrible sorry and (1)

A_85: ↗ Well it could've been worse that's one thing for sure,↗ yeah.

B_86: ↗ Oh my god,↘↗ uh guys please uh I wanna go away from this man, please, take him away from me

A_87: (laugh)↘ Athletico Madrid beat you a pay back,↘ it's could've been five goals in thirty min⌈utes °time°

B_88:   ⌊↗Hey:: at least be a little bit humble

A_89: ↘ No, this is,↗↘ I'm not being humble I'm being honest(2)

B_90: ↘ O: k:

A_91: ↗ Yeah and uh (0.2) let's speak a bit about Arsenal

B_92: ↘ Uhuh go ahead the floor is yours

A_93: ↘ Yeah, well (0.2) they had a (0.2) a very inconsistence season,↗ because they had (1) a great part in this season, winning a lot of matches on the road, six

        matches,⌈we have

B_94:   ⌊↘Ok they all happened

A_95: ↘ We have a lot of players Per Mertesacker Rosicky Aaron Ramsey Theo Walcott Lukas Podolski Cazorla(1)⌈↗ it is not easy you know.

B_96:   ⌊↘I do not know the players

A_97: ↘ A lot of them (1) came: from (.) a variety of countries.

B_98: ↗ uhuh, I can tell.

A_99: ↗Yeah

B_100: ↗ From the name

Appendix02: Conversation two

A_01: ⬈Good afternoon.

B_02: ⬊Good afternoon.

A_03: ⬈How are you? ⬈How do you feel?

B_04 : ⬊Fine °fine°

A _05: ⬊How do you feel?

B_06: ⬊(.)°Not not quite good°, ⬈not my best.

A_07: ⬈Not not, your best ⬈do you have cold feet

B_08: ⬊(1) Not (1) not really

A_09: ⬈Ok good for for how long have you been studying English?

B_10: ⬊Um uhh -

A_11:   - ⬈I mean when did did you start studying English?

B_12:   ⬈At fourth grade in elementary school.

A_13: ⬈Fourth grade! Wow that's amazing; ⬊you're among the lucky ones that started studying English from the fourth grade

B_14: ⬊Yeah, uh u::::h, (2) I became interested in English since (1) the fourth grade.

A_15: ⬈W What's the reason that makes you interested in English so (2) you choose it as a field of study?

B_16: ⬊⬈I: think, I can say, I fall in love with English, for for (.) the first time.

A_17: ⬈Since the first time!

B_18:   ⬊Since I heard it the first time.

A_19: ⬈Ok, do you have something you can do well other than eloquent language?

B_20: ⬊Something**::: -**

A_21:   - ⬈As a hobby as uh I don't know.

B_22: (0.5)

A_23: ⬊Something that you are very good in.

B_24: ⬊(0.2) Actually, it is my field uh repairing uh devices.

A_23: ⬊Repairing devices

B_25: ⬊Doing u:::h technical staff.

A_26: ⬈technical staff, so you're working and studying at the same time.

B_27: ↗ Yes, yeah, I'm working with computers.

A_28: ↗ Ok. That's something, ↗↘ so you have so many friends both at work and at university.

B_29: ↘ Yeah lucky me.

A_30: ↗↘ Ok good how do you usually meet your friends? (1) ↗ I mean do do do you keep in touch with them.

B_31: ↗ Yes ⌈ sure.

A_32: ⌊ ↘ By, for example by arranging some meetings, or by uh uh using, how do you usually keep in touch with them

B_33: ↘ By phone.

A_34: ↘ By ⌈ phone

B_35: ⌊ ↘ By u::h Internet.

A_36: ↘ Internet, ↗ what kind of chat rooms do you like to use?

B_37: ↘ (0.1) uh mainly facebook.

A_38: ↘ Mainly face ⌈ book.

B_39: ⌊ ↘ I used to use called uh skyp.

A_40: ↘ Ok ok ↗ When was the last time you talk with them?

B_41: ↘ Last time uh uh (0.4), ↘ let me remember yeah, ↘ one of my best friend had that idea of picnicking uh ↗ so we share this idea with uh uh other friends some of them agreed, and uh uh, it was a great picnic.

A_42: ↗ Oh, that's great, ↗ what kind of picnic?

B_43: ↘ Barbecue.

A_44: ↗ Oh barbecue oh god That's awesome, (.) ↘ yes how was it like? (1) ↗ Can you tell me about ? ⌈

B_45: ⌊ ↗ Of course it is(2) uh, we spent (1) uh, ↘ I think it's uh the:: the best time that we had in uh (1) in this year

A_46: ↘ In this year, ↗ that's good. ↘↗ At at least you can uh imagine it or sometimes when you feel ⌈ bored

B_47: ⌊ ↗ It's uh the thing that makes you (0.2) ⌈ looking forward.

A_48: ↗ Ok ⌊ but where did you go?

B_49: ↘ Uh to a place called les Grottes Merveilleuse

A_50: ↗ Amazing!(2) ⌈ It's a magical place
⌊ ↗

B_51:   Of course, it's a wonderful place   Yeah

A_52:   ↗ Yeah

B_53:↘ It's a uh a combination bet⌈ween the sea and the mountain

A_54:   ↘ Between the blue and green it's beautiful scenery.

B_55:↘↗ And you uh (1) have you been in a picnic or in a trip before?

A_56:↗ Yes of course,↘ Jijel has a lot of sightseeing places such as :uh les Grottes Merveilleuse as you mentioned before uh le Grand Phare, El Djazira, (2) le Cornish Jijelien and the Zoo u::h etc.

B_57: ↘Yeah (.) you're right,↗ and uh how about uh about foreign countries have you been uh, in a (2) foreign country before?

A_58:↘ No

B_59:↘ Do you wish to: to visit (1) yo⌈ur favorite country?

A_60:   ↗ Yes of course yes.

B_61:↘ U:::h(3)

A_62:↗Which which country do you like to visit?

B_63:↘ United States.

A_64:↗United States!

B_65:↘ What do you like in there exactly?

A_66: ↗(.) Freedom.

B_67: ↗Freedom, wow!(.)↘ Freedom.

A_68: (laugh)↗ yeah,

B_69: ↘As the state of freedom liberty.

A_70:↘ They like call it (.) the American dream

B_71: ↘The American dream, ↗ok, great,↘ so:: if an English person (.) wanted to learn your language, (0.2) how, how should they do this? (.) Do you think that ok,

   for example -

A_72:   ⌈-↗It's

B_73:   ⌊- ↗An American speaker, or British speaker (.) wants to learn Arabic for example, ↘ do you think it's hard for him or easy?

A_74:↘↗ I think if he works hard I think he will succeed, ⌈eventually

B_75:   ↗ He will su⌈cceed

90

A_76: ↗ Yes

B_77: ↗And do you think that even if he is fifty years old.

A_78: ↗ Oh because I saw examples, people, uh Americans can speak Arabic fluently.

B_79:↘Ok, but did they start learning Arabic at an early age or at an (1) old age?↗ Do you think that-

A_80: ↗ I think, I think

B-81: -↗Ok do you think Ok, do you think that age (.) makes (.) a difference (1) for example

A_82: ↘ Yes especially language I think age makes a difference

B_83:↘ In terms of pronunciation for example

A_84:↘Not pronunciation but uh learning, u:::h, (1)↘ get rich vocabulary, and (0.2) by time he will correct mistakes.

B_85:↘ Ok, if I ask you where do you see yourself in the coming five years? (0.2) ↘ Where or how do you see yourself

A_86:↗ (0.2) I:: like to see myself (1) a better person.

B_87:↘ A better person

A_88: ↘ Learning from my mistakes

B_89: ↗↘I wish you the best it was a pleasure to meet you.

A_90:↗Thank you so much.

B_91:↗ Thank you.

Appendix 03: Conversation Three

A_01: ↘↗ Well:: (1), we will

B_02:   ↗ Let 's set an example.

A_03: ↘ (.) Uh uhh

B_04: ↘ We will better start with uh -

A_05:   - ↘ The table of content.

B_06: ↗ Yes.

A_07: ↗↘ (.) Ok, and here we find -

B_08:   - ↗ An abstract (1)

A_09: ↗ Not, not an abstract, ↗↘ the abstract is the uh sum up for the ::: -

B_10:   -↗The whole research.

(0.6)

A_11: ↘ So (.), we have (0.2) the chapter two, the test.

B_12: ↘ The test, yes.

A_13: ↗ Introduction.

B_14: ↗ Yes.

A_15: ↗↘ Chapter two uh (0.2), chapter two introduce uh the research method and data collection,

B_16:   ⌈ sampling
        ↗Sampling ⌉

A_17: ↘ Descri⌈ption of the test, data analysis.

B_18:   ⌊ ↘ ption of the test, data analysis ⌋

A_19: ↘ And then uh.

B_20: ↘ Uh :::

A_21: ↗↘ About those I don't know (1) uh.

B_22: ↗ Uh, concerning, uh his research.

A_23: ↘ Translation.

B_24: ↘ Translation.

A_25: ↘ The fact that idioms translate into Arabic with the context of: use.

B_26: ↘ Uh ::, we uh concerning uh: (0.2) for our research, we use (.) context.

A_27: ↘ (1) Translation of idioms.

B_28: ↘ Of idioms of –

A_29:   - ↘ The use uh uh of the use of video stories as strategy in

tea ching English idioms

B_30: ↘↗ Ching English idioms⌋ (2) and then the result and then the analysis.

A_31: ↘ Result and analysis, ↗ (.) a big work is waiting for us.

B_32: ↗ Yea::: h ::

A_33: ↘ (1) Translation from Arabic into English, anyway, let's move to the next.

B_34: U:: h uh.

(0.3)

 A_35: ↘ And here in ⌈chapter two, test

B_36:   ↘ chapter two, test⌋

A_37: ↗ Introduction.

B_38: (0.1)↘ Short introduction.

A_39: ↗ An introduction, ↗ a long one the whole -

B_40:   - ↗ The whole of the (.) of the ⌈whole -

 A_41:   ↗ Chapter.

B_42: ↘ The whole chapter.

A_43: ↘ As in uh theoretical chapter, ↗↘ we wrote an introduction to the chapter that it

consisted of two sections and etc etc   (.)↘ ⌈Did you understand what I mean?

B_44:   ↗↘ U::: h⌋ ok ok.

A_45: ↘ Look at the introduction in order to know what we will do next.

B_46: ↘ Yes.

A_47: ↘ We have the aim of ⌈this chapter is to (xx)

B_48:   ↘ This chapter is to (xx)⌋   yes.

A_49: ↘ And then research methodology,↘ description of methodology, ↗↘ the objective of the

study is to test how first year master student translate idioms from English into Arabic and

   vice⌈ versa.

B_50:   ↗ versa ⌋

A_51: ↘ (2) Well.

B_52: ↘ Ok :::

A_53: ↘ Data collection and sampling (0.2), so in this part we will use a uh questionnaire

B_54: Uh :::, ↘ yes.

A_55: ↘ Data collection data collection (.)

93

B_56: ↗ Yes data collection, ↗ from the pre-test, post-test and quest uh teacher's
Questionnaire (0.2) and sampling, the ::: uh :::↘ sample of the teachers and uh students, (2)
description of the test.

A_57: ↘ It means how uh did we uh :: -

B_58:   - ↗ We conduct.

(0.3)

A_59: ↘↗ How did we (.) do the steps of our -

B_60:   - ↘ Yes the steps of the (0.2) [test

A_61:   ↘ the test includes four main

parts, ↗How many parts do we have so far?

B_62: ↗ Uh:: three Uh:: three parts.

A_63: ↘The first part is a test of uh knowledge (.) made up of :: twelve :: parts of idioms, based on
uh ::::::, ↗ we still have a lot of work to do.

B_64: ↗↘ A ::: h yes (2)

A_65: [↗ Data analysis]

B_66: [↗ Data analysis]

A_67: ↘In questionnaire each question should be analyzed.

B_68: (0.4)

A_69: ↘ So what do we have to do now? (0.2) tell me.

B_70: ↘ So now we -

A_71:   - ↘ You know I have [to

B_72:   ↗We have to consult the supervisor, consult the
supervisor and ask him for guidance (0.2).

A_73: ↘Yes we will talk to him later, (0.2)↗ for now uh (0.3) what do I have to do? Uh

(2) I still have this part about uh, strategies to wor[k on

B_74:   [↗Did you do::: -

A_75:   - ↗ The use of tutorial videos,
uh,↘ introduction then (0.2) the benefit of tutorial videos,↘↗such as authenticity (xx) and
comprehensible input that means the video ↘↗uh: (0.2) learner will be better understand idioms
from uh, (1)will receive comprehensible input (.) better from videos, right?   (0.1) Uh,
comprehensible input, (.) here I failed to:: -

B_76:   ↘ collect information.

A_77:↘ Uh-uh, to to express the relationship between comprehensible input and videos (.)

↘ Have you understood?↘ Through giving examples, or something (.)

B_78:↘ u::::h and you didn't find anything.

A_79:↗↘ Non I didn't find any information about this comprehensible input,↘ in any reference

that talk about idioms.

(0.3)

B-80: ↗ So, where did you find it?

A_81:↘ Huh.

B_82: ↗↘ (1) Where did you find this comprehensible input?

A_83:↘ Where did you find it?

B_84: ↗ Yeah.

A_85:↘ All uh the books that talk about the effect of videos in, teaching uh::, EFL learners uh,

English language,↘ they talked about effect uh filter, uhhh, no (2)

B_86:↘ Comprehensible input.

A_87:↗ Comprehensible input yes,↗↘ but when they talked about idioms they don't mention it.

(0.4) ↘ I mean the effect of tutorial videos in teaching idioms.

(0.7)

A_89: ↗ Let's stop here, ↘ (2) what we will do at home?

B_90: ↘ I will try to complete the remaining strategies for tomorrow

A_91:↘ And concerning me,↘ I will try to uh finish the work about the questionnaires.

B_92: ↘ So, we will see each other tomorrow.

Appendix 04: Conversation Four

A_01:↘ Ok I have I have al always had this question I wanted to ask you about, (.)

↗ see your name is Abdelhak, why do people call you kikou, ok that's um (0.2)

weird.

B_02: ↘ They shorten it.

A_03: ↗ (.)Yeah.

B_04: ↘ They like to shorten it I don't know.

A_05: ↗ Do you like to shorten it or people like to shorten it.

B_06:↘ Yeah I don't know, (.) ↗ No I don't like but they like.

A_07:↘ Really

B_08:↘ Yeah because it's too long, ↘ it's a problem sure.

A_09: ↘ No, it's not (.) too long.

B_10:↘ It's take too long for someone to call my name,↘ they may have fall asleep.

A_11:   Really::

B_10:↘↗ Before continuing my name.

A_11:↘ O::k (laugh) alright, (.) ↗ so how are you doing today?

B_12:↘ °I'm fine°.

A_13:↗ (.) Uh seems that you didn't have your Italian class, huh?

B_14:↘ °Yeah°.

A_15: ↗Ok, do you like Italian?

B_16:   ↗ yeah.

A_17:↗ Um uh exactly when do you have an

B_18:   ↗ I didn't attend the: (.) the Italian class from uh the

holidays.

A_19:↗ Uhuh! (.) Why is that?

B_20:   ↗ from the holidays.

A_21: ↗ Do you hate the module?

B_22:   ↗ I did't wake up in the morning, you know especially

uh on holidays.

A_23: ↘Yeah I have always had this problem of waking up in the morning early.

B_24:↘ Yeah

A_25:↘ Hmh(.)

B_26: ↘ I always find (2) you know um uh in holidays, ↘ I cannot you know wake up uh early.

A_27:↘ I have this problem too,↗ yeah (.) ok have you got a facebook account?

A_29: ↘ °Of course°.

B_30: ↘ Tha::t make a lot of sense (laugh).

A_31:↗ Yeah:: (laugh).

 B_32:↘ Ok::

A_33: ↗ So uh you didn't tell me do you like Italian?

B_34: ↗ Like Italian?

 A_35:↗ Umhuh .

B_36: ↘ I don't like Italian not at all.

A_37:↗ Oh really,↘ alright yeah same here but I only kwon a few words in it.

B_38:↘ Yeah.

A_39:↗ Umhuh,(.) I'd like to learn it someday.

B_40:   ↘ Me too I know few words.

A_41:↗ Really.

B_42:↘ Not too much yes.

A_43:↗ Ok, (.) what about the other languages Ok?↗ for example Spanish Portuguese

B_44:↘ A few words from both languages,↗↘ Well if we follow the rule that says if you know
some words in a language so you speak that language I'll find myself speaking more than five langu
ages.

A_45:   ↘ Ok Well↗↘ same here for example I uh I know some words in uh Russian,↘ ok
Skalyaya means stairs (.) Skalyaya (.) stairs (.) yeah, ↗ for example

        I just I think
B_46: ↗↘ For people who speak Italian they find English is very difficult to learn.

A_47:↘ Really.

B_48:↘ Yeah and um (0.2) Russian will be easy for them.

A_49:↗↘Yeah Russian actually is an easy language.

B_50:↗ Isn't it?

A_51:↘ It is it doesn't have a lot of grammatical rules (.) that's why it's easy.

B_52: ↘ Alright it's like uh a diversion of so͏unds

A_53: ↗ But the problem the problem is uh,↘ ok the problem in Russian for me is with the alphabet.

B_54: ↗ Yeah͏ yeah.

A_55: ↗↘ it's just it's pretty much like kabylien! You know yeah (laugh).

B_56: (laugh),↗ yeah do you like Kabylian language?

A_57: ↘ Yeah.

B_58: ↘ Yeah.

(0.3)

A_59: ↗ Besides͏ of this.

B_60: ↗ How about Japanese Japanese.

A_61: ↘ I only know few words also (0.2) uhuh,↗ like for example uh (0.2) -

B_62: - ↗ I know some too.

A_63: ↘ Ok.

B_64: ↗ Wakata .

A_65: ↘ Uhuh.

B_66: ↘ Yeah arigato means thank you.

A_67: ↘ Ok:: (laugh).

B_68: ↘ And full stop.

A_69: ↘ O::k::, (laugh). that's too much.

B_70: ↘ Yeah (laugh).

A_71: ↘ Right (0.2) ok (0.2) so.

B_72: ↘ I don't know.

A_73: ↘ Uhuh.

B_74: ↗ Getting weird.

A_75: ↘ No.

B_76: ↗ Odd.

A_77: ↘ It doesn't it always it has always been this way when we start a conversation.

B_78: ↘ Yeah.

A_79: ↘ Umhuh.

B-80: ↘ So we shou we should speak about the weather or uh, or something?

A_81: (laugh).

 B_82: (laugh).

A_83:↗↘You know Kikou friends do not talk about weather!

B_84:↘ Ok, (0.3) wanna speak about something else.

A_85:↘ I don't know, (0.2)↗↘ yea:::h I noticed that you guys make a lot of noise you know when it came to your classes.

B_86: (0.2)↘ Not me.

A_87: (laugh).↘ I'm not accusing you.

B_88:↘ Yeah (laugh).

Appendix 05: Conversation Five

A_01:⤴Hi how are you?

B_02:⤵ I'm fine how are you doing this day?

A_03: ⤴ It's been a long day,⤵how how was your day?

B_04:⤵Yea::h (.) it was good as usual.

A_05: ⤴really

B_06:⤴Yeah same all of days.

A_07: ⤵⤴ You didn't hear something interesting something good(.)

B_08:⤴ Yeah concerning the vivas, (.) nothing rather this.

A_09:⤴ Your friends viva,⤴ w which was viva wi with whom?⤴ Whom whose viva it was?

B_10:⤵ Huh Bouzenoune's viva.

A_11: ⤵Bouzenoune's -

B_12: - ⤵ Yeah

A_13: -⤴ Oh, ha ha how was it like?

B_14:⤴Ok actually his presentation was awesome

A_15:⤵Rea:: lly

B_16:⤴ Yeah. (laugh)

A_17:⤴Wow! (laugh)

B_18:⤵⤴Uh and n I'm just saying unfortunately Monia didn't have a lot uh lot of time to:: uh to show to show off, ⤴yeah to show off her muscles.

A_19:⤴Yeah

B_20:⤵But regardless of this it's was so cool,⤵I Ididn't like some of the:::(.),⤴⤵ ok, let's let's just not talk about the negative things

A_21:⤵O::k ok

B_22: ⤴Ok it was good,⤴I'm happy for you that you just glad with it,⤴so (.)what are your plans for the future?

A_23:⤵Well for my future ok;⤵I have a lot of plans to do, but actually I need to:: uh pass my PHD, ⤴I have a lot of things to do concerning my PHD in UK:::

B_24:⤵ Ok:::

A_25:⤵⤴This is uh starting from tomorrow,⤵I think I will switch of to uh I mean, ⤵ because I was busy kind of busy with my master dissertation.

100

B_26:↘ I understand sure.

A_27:↗ As, since I've started,↘ I finished things with my master,↘ I think to mo tomorrow morning starting from tomorrow Inchallah,↘ I will move on (.) I will switch directly to my PHD.

B_28:↘ Of course yes,↗ I'd like to

A_29: ↗↘ I have a lot of work waiting for me, trust me it's not that

easy

B_30: ↘ Ok I know the um,

↗ok first let's me congrats congratulations for having the chance.

A_31:↗ Thank you thank you.

B_32: ↗↘ Yeah you deserve so.

A_33:↘ Thank you.

B_34:↘ Thank you so much

 A_35: ↘ you're welcome.

B_36: ↗↘ And um:: let's me say I wish you the best of luck in London

A_37:↘ Thank you so much thank you so much.

B_38:↗ Yea:::h um (.) speaking about London(.)

A_39:↘ Yeah.

B_40:↗↘ (.)I have always taught that this is so not the right place for you.

A_41:↗ Oh yeah.

B_42: ↘You know why?

A_43:↗ A actually I want it really har(.),↗↘you have no idea how much I want to visit London, ↗↘ but isn't the same for me to go and live there, ↗may be may be

B_44: ↗ Yeah,↘ I know because because you're you're too much American not not English,(.) see.

A_45: ↗Ok that's that's one point,↘ a second point is also that living in London is too much expensive.

B_46:↘ I know.

A_47:↗ For someone having a scholarship,↘I mean (.) concerning the rent,↘ concerning the cloths ea::ting uh,↘concerning many things I need, uh living in London need to be a billionaire instead of

having a scholarship, ⬈a monthly scholarship

B_48:   ⬈   Yea:::h,⬈⬊take take tak (0.2) taking into consideration the real fee::s.

A_49:⬊That's an absolutely absolutely,⬊⬈so the best thing I'd, I:: thought about it so much days
and nights of course, (0,2) I thought that to live far away from London is (0,2) a bite cheap::er, you
can uh,⬊⬈I mean you can afford things (.) you can afford to have a good life,
concerning the the the life

B_50:   ⬈Ok, (0,2)⬈ wh what about the -

A_51:   -⬈ It's only three hours far away from London,
so it's not that -

B_52:   - ⬈what's you talking about is it Manchester or Liverpool.

A_53:⬊ I think I will go to Northampton University.

B_54:⬊O::k:::

A_55:⬈It's uh::: three hours far away from London, north.

B_56:⬊ Very nice.

A_57:⬊ It's really a cold place as I have dig deeper about it in Google.

B_58:⬊ Ok.

A_59:⬊ I think it's a good place to live in, a safe one a cheap life there.

B_60:⬊ Alright.

A_61:⬈Uh concerning the Northampton University,⬊ it's an international University,
 ⬈ it has may be: uh a million of students each year and the masters

B_62:   ⬈ Alright-

A_63:   -⬈<gradulat> graduated from there with a
good mark.

B_64:   ⬈ Wow! That's something.

A_65:⬈⬊Uh also concerning its teachers they are very helpful, ⬈uh for the record there is a
teacher I think her his name (0,2)

B_66:⬊ Ahuh.

A_67:⬊ David Bernard⬊ he is very helpful,⬈ we met him in Algiers in a workshop.

B_68:   ⬈you're lucky man.

A_69:⬈ Yeah he's very helpful ⬈ he's helping me so much,⬈and I'm uh so honored to have
     such -

B_70:   -⬈ So:: I can tell he's gonna be your supervisor.

102

A_71: ↘ I think, he he (.) already (1) think of me,↘ I think he uh a supervisory team he and two other teacher, ↗ they are going to work together.

B_72: ↘ Ok.

A_73: ↘ Priority is to have master of the Department of Arts and the other teachers is uh someone who is specialist in American culture.

B_74: ↗ Oh my God ⌈that's amazing!

A_75: ⌊↘ that's something very cool

B_76: ↗ And I think this is where you're gonna work on in your ⌈PHD.

A_77: ⌊↗ Of course of course this is -

B_78: -↗ That's promising.

A_79: ↗ Of course ⌈it's really cool.

B-80: ⌊↗ Yeah, sure.

A_81: ↘ It's really cool

B_82: ↗ Yeah you know DJ (.)you deserve it(.), uh uh and ⌈↘ same for the other friends.

A_83: ⌊↘ I wish the same for you.

B_84: ↘ Thank you.

A_85: ↘↗ When it come to you and you got a chance like that (.) let me tell you take it.

B_86: ↘ Inchallah.

A_87: ↗ Ok the chance comes once ⌈a time ok

B_88: ⌊↗ I know ⌈I know.

A_89: ⌊↗ Ok trust me its only comes -

B_90: -↗↘ It's like, it's just like Eminem you know that only one shot.

A_91: ↗ Yeah

B_92: ↘ See.

A_93: ↗ Take it.

B_94: ↗ Yeah cease it.

A_95: ↗ Take it

B_96: ↗ Yeah;

A_97: ↗ Ok good luck to you⌈↗ thank you so much.⌉

B_98: ⌊↗ Thank you so much.⌋

103

A_99: ✈ Have a nice day

B_100: ✈ Same to you.

Appendix 06: *Jefferson Transcription Conventions*

Transcription Element	Meaning
↘	falling arrow indicates a falling intonation
↗	raising arrow indicates a raising intonation
↗↘	raising falling arrow indicates a raising falling intonation
↘↗	falling raising indicates a falling raising intonation
:::	colon indicates a sound elongation, more colons indicate longer elongation
–	hyphen at the end and beginning of turns indicates latched turns with no gap or overlap; within turns indicates truncated word
<u>xx</u>	underlining indicates greater than normal stress
[	left bracket indicates beginning of overlap
(.)	period within parentheses indicates a micropause; pauses greater than 0.1 seconds, measured to nearest tenth second
(xx)	'x' inside parenthesis indicates incomprehensible speech
<xxx>	words inside less-than and more-than signs indicate mispronounced lexis that produce other-initiated repair
( )	bracket indicate continued, same-speaker speech between turns where overlap occurs
°word°	Shown when a passage of talk is noticeably quieter than the surrounding talk

Résumé

La présente étude a pour objet d'examiner l'un des principaux problèmes rencontrés par les étudiants universitaires d'anglais quant à la conversation. Il s'agit de tenter d'explorer la compétence des étudiants de master d'anglais à gérer les stratégies de prise de parole. Pour ce faire, nous avons procédé à un enregistrement audio de cinq conversations qui ont eu lieu naturellement et spontanément parmi un échantillon d'étudiants choisi arbitrairement. Ces conversations ont été analysées suivant une approche d'analyse de conversation, et ont été transcrites de façon à montrer comment les étudiants participent à la parole et à pouvoir retrouver les donnée à propos de l'utilisation des stratégies de prise de parole et leurs signes dans les interactions réelles de la vie. Les résultats obtenus montrent que les étudiants de Master sont d'une haute compétence à gérer la parole en anglais. En sus, les données suggèrent qu'il y a certains problèmes qui apparaissent sous forme de chevauchements, de silences, et un grand nombre de pauses. Les données collectées nous ont également permis de conclure que certains étudiants étaient incapables de surmonter ces difficultés. D'autre part, les étudiants qui se sont montés capables de surmonter les difficultés ont réussi à maintenir leur tour de prise de parole et à prendre la parole à temps.

ملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى إلقاء الضوء على مشكلة من المشكلات الرئيسية التي يلاقيها طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية بالجامعة خلال المحادثة. و لبلوغ ذلك أجرينا تسجيلا سمعيا لخمس محادثات دارت بصفة طبيعية و عفوية بين عينة من الطلبة تم اختيارهم عشوائيا. تم تحليل هذه المحادثات باستعمال طريقة تحليل المحادثات، ثم نسخت لأجل التمكن من عرض طريقة مشاركة الطلبة في الكلام، و من استرجاع المعطيات المتعلقة باستراتيجيات أخذ الكلمة، و مؤشرات ذلك في تفاعلات الحياة اليومية. تشير النتائج المتحصل عليها إلى أن طلبة الماستر ذو كفاءة عالية في تسيير الحديث باللغة الإنجليزية. و فضلا عن ذلك، تشير المعطيات إلى وجود بعض المشكلات التي تتجلى في شكل تداخلات وحالات الصمت، و عدد كبير من الانقطاعات. كما تبين المعطيات أن ليس كل الطلبة كانوا قادرين على تخطي تلك المشكلات و من ناحية أخرى نجح الطلبة الذين استطاعوا التعامل مع تلك المشكلات في الحفاظ على أدوارهم في الكلام و نجحوا في التدخل في المحادثة في الوقت المناسب.