A MICRO-ANALYTIC INVESTIGATION OF CLAIMS OF INSUFFICIENT KNOWLEDGE IN EAL CLASSROOMS

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Abstract

This PhD thesis primarily investigates the interactional unfolding and management of students' claims and teachers' interpretations of insufficient knowledge in two 'English as an Additional Language' classrooms from a multi-modal, conversation analytic perspective. The analyses draw on a close, micro-analytic account of turn-taking practices, repair, and preference organisation as well as various multi-semiotic resources the participants enact during talk-in-interaction including gaze, gestures, body movements, and orientations to classroom artefacts. In this respect, this is the first study to investigate claims of insufficient knowledge (e.g. *I don't knows*) from a multimodal perspective. Furthermore, although the phenomenon has been investigated from a CA perspective in casual talk and institutional interactions (e.g. Beach and Metzger 1997), this is the first study thus far to thoroughly examine students' claims and teachers' interpretations of insufficient knowledge in educational contexts, and in particular in instructed language learning environments, where English is taught as an additional language.

The research draws upon transcriptions of 16 (classroom) hours of video recordings, which were collected over a six-week period in 2010 in a public school in a multilingual setting; Luxembourg. The findings show that establishing recipiency (Mortensen 2009) through mutual gaze and turn allocation practices have interactional and pedagogical consequences that may lead to claims of insufficient knowledge. The findings also illustrate various multi-modal resources the students use (e.g. gaze movements, facial gestures, and headshake) to initiate embodied claims of no knowledge and that are a focus of orientation for the teacher to interpret insufficient knowledge by initiating 'epistemic status checks'. Finally, it is suggested that certain interactional resources (e.g. embodied vocabulary explanations, Designedly Incomplete Utterances) deployed by the teacher after a student's claim of insufficient knowledge may lead to student engagement, which is a desirable pedagogical goal. The findings of this thesis have implications for the analysis of insufficient knowledge, teaching, and language teacher education. It also has direct implications for L2 Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh 2006) and the effect of teachers' language use on student participation.

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Hacettepe University, Newcastle University, and Sunderland University; I learned many things from them, and I know that I will keep learning from them till the end. I feel as if there are many more people whose names should be here; if you are reading this, and cannot see your name, be sure it is just my bad memory. The reason your name is not here is because I need to print this and submit the final draft in a few minutes.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to establish the objectives of the thesis by firstly outlining the scope and purpose of the research. This will be followed by a review of the research context, including a justification of the use of the selection of the term 'English as an Additional Language' rather than as a second or foreign language. In 1.3, the methodology to be used will be briefly introduced with reference to the research questions. In 1.4, an outline of the thesis will be presented.

1.1 Purpose and Scope of the Study

Throughout the long history of language teaching, a wide array of approaches and methodologies has been employed in order to understand teaching and learning processes in instructed learning contexts (i.e. classrooms). There is no doubt that English has been the most researched language both as a second language where it is spoken as 'the' official or one of the official languages (ESL), and as a foreign language where the official language(s) of the countries is another language (EFL). The political reasons behind this vast interest in English is well beyond the scope of this thesis, but it can be suggested that the popularity of English language can be related to socio-political and socio-economic developments, scientific/technological developments, the media, education, and the communicative needs emerging from international mobility (Büyükkantarcıoğlu 2004). No matter what the underlying reason is, the global interest in teaching, learning, and researching English has been mutually influenced by scientific trends of a given era in linguistics, sociology, psychology, and education; which has been conducive to the development of Applied/Educational Linguistics as an interdisciplinary field of inquiry. This multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary nature of the subject matter led the way to the emergence of a variety of methodologies (e.g. Audiolingual Method) and approaches (e.g. Communicative Approach) that shaped not only the teaching and learning practices, but also influenced official language teaching policies, materials development, and language proficiency assessment globally.

Recently, although communicative approaches have been influential for determining the goals of language teaching and learning, the mainstream Second/Foreign Language

Acquisition/Learning (henceforth SLA) research, influenced by cognitive and psycholinguistic paradigms, paid little or no attention to the actual communicative processes and naturally occurring talk-in-interaction between participants (i.e. teachers and students) 'using' a second language. This position in SLA research, according to Firth and Wagner (1997), is mechanistic and individualistic, and it "fails to account in a satisfactory way for interactional and socio-linguistic dimensions of language" (p.285). The new reconceptualisation of second language research, first instigated by Firth and Wagner (1997), has led the way to the emergence of a new field, Conversation Analysis (henceforth CA)-for-SLA (Markee and Kasper 2004). CA-for-SLA aims at researching second language learning and teaching practices by using the methods of CA developed by Harvey Sacks and Emanuel A. Schegloff in the early 1960s. CA is a well-established discipline, which aims to "describe, analyse, and understand talk as a basic and constitutive feature of human social life" (Sidnell 2010, p.1).

As an empirical field of study, CA-for-SLA tries to understand and bring evidence for 'learning' by focusing on naturally occurring interactions in contexts where an L2 is used for pedagogical and communicative purposes. By focusing on micro-details of video or audio recorded interaction, it aims at documenting micro-moments of learning and understanding by drawing upon participants' own understanding of the ongoing interaction (emic perspective) revealed through a fine-detailed analysis of vocal (words and grammar, suprasegmentals, pace of talk, etc.) and non-vocal (silence, body language, embodiment of surrounding artefacts, etc.) resources within the sequential development of talk. It should be noted that not all studies that employ CA in language classroom interaction claim to bring evidence for learning; the main drive is to understand and describe 'what actually happens' in classroom talk-in-interaction. Nevertheless, bringing evidence for micro-moments of 'claims', and more importantly, 'demonstrations' of understanding has received most of the attention; and these have been used to bring evidence for 'learning' in a CA-for-SLA paradigm.

Although claims and demonstrations of understanding, or "the guided construction of knowledge" (Mercer 1995), have been subject to analysis in teacher-student interactions from a CA perspective, no study thus far has focused on 'claims of insufficient knowledge' (henceforth CIK) in language classrooms or in any instructed learning contexts. There is a growing body of research on CIK (e.g. I don't knows), which have been carried out in different institutional settings including courtroom cross-

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examinations (Metzger and Beach 1996; Beach and Metzger 1997), child counselling (Hutchby 2002), and social investigation meetings (González-Martínez 2008). Furthermore, the phenomenon has been explored by employing different methodologies like Conversation Analysis (e.g. Pomerantz 1984b; Beach and Metzger 1997), Corpus Linguistics (Baumgarten and House 2010; Grant 2010), Discursive Psychology (O'Byrne et al. 2008), and a combination of CA and quantitative sociolinguistics (Pichler 2007). However, to my knowledge, there is no study that systematically incorporated visual sources and multimodality to the analysis of interactants' claims of insufficient knowledge.

The significance and originality of this PhD thesis is, then, built on two methodological and contextual gaps in the literature of research on classroom discourse and talk-in-interaction; first of all, CIK have not been thoroughly addressed in language learning/teaching settings and classrooms in general. Secondly, as chapter two will show, no study thus far has explored CIK through a multimodal perspective that pays close attention to issues like gestures. Thus, it can be claimed that this is the first study in 'Applied Linguistics' and 'Classroom Discourse Research' that thoroughly investigates the co-construction and management of 'insufficient knowledge'. Furthermore, this is the first study on the aforementioned phenomenon within the fields of social interaction and CA that rely on nonverbal and multimodal resources in addition to verbal features of talk.

Keeping this research gap in mind, the aim of this thesis is to investigate the interactional unfolding and management of students' claims and teachers' interpretations of insufficient knowledge in two 'English as an Additional Language' classrooms in Luxembourg from a multi-modal, conversation analytic perspective. The analyses draw on a close, micro-analytic account of turn-taking practices, repair, and preference organisation as well as various multi-semiotic resources that the participants enact during talk-in-interaction including gaze, body orientation, head and face gestures, and orientations to classroom artefacts. Although the primary aim is to depict the interactional unfolding of the phenomenon and to illustrate the most common sequential organisation from a purely 'descriptive' viewpoint, reference will be made to Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh 2006), henceforth CIC, and pedagogical concerns in general, since the findings showed that certain interactional and embodied resources that the teacher employs have the potential to create further participation of students

who initially claim insufficient knowledge. The discussion chapter will present an argument, which proposes that 'successfully managing claims of insufficient knowledge' can be one of the constructs of teachers' CIC. This construct, as will be showed in 4.3 and 5.5, includes using embodied vocabulary explanations, managing code-switching, and using Designedly Incomplete Utterances (Koshik 2002a).

1.2 Research Context

The data for this thesis, in the form of 16 classroom hours of video recordings collected with two digital cameras, comes from two English language classrooms in a public school in Luxembourg. The participants are a total of 32 students, 10th and 11th graders aged between 15 and 18, and a local teacher with three years teaching experience, an MA degree in TESOL from a UK university, and qualified teacher status officially recognised in Luxembourg. All participants are multilingual users of Luxembourgish, French, and German; although other languages are actively used on daily basis outside the classroom by a few students, who come from Portuguese, Croatian, and Italian immigrant backgrounds.

Luxembourg is a case of successful triglossia by legal protection and by education (Davis 1994). According to Gardner-Chloros (1997), in Europe only Belgium, Luxembourg and Switzerland have several official languages, but "their multilingualism, at least in the cases of Belgium and Switzerland, owes more to the competitive struggles of separate monolingual communities than to the harmonious plurilingualism of their populations" (p.192). This suggests that Luxembourg is a particular case compared to other European countries, since multilingualism is (relatively) successfully integrated into schooling and social life and does not necessarily depend on ethnic boundaries.

In a very recent study, Redinger (2010) reports that 35 to 40 per cent of school lessons are dedicated to language teaching at primary and secondary school level in Luxembourg. French and German are compulsory languages throughout schooling. English, as an additional language, is "introduced at secondary school level where students can also opt to study Latin, Italian, and Spanish" (ibid., p.40). It should be noted that the status of English, and its range of usage, is constantly changing in Luxembourg due to professional and educational mobility in Europe. This, in addition

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to many other factors that I will discuss in the following paragraph, has influenced the choice of the term 'English as an Additional Language' (henceforth EAL) as opposed to EFL or ESL.

The term EAL is, at least in the UK, traditionally used to refer to the English being learnt by pupils in primary and secondary schools who have "a first language other than English" (Leung 2010, p.182). The usage of the term, however, has recently gone beyond its original sense. In his groundbreaking work, one of the pioneers of CA-for-SLA, Hellermann (2008), used the term 'EAL' in his longitudinal investigation of learning practices of adult immigrant students in the USA. He mentioned that he used the term "deliberately" (p.3) to contrast his study with mainstream SLA research. In this thesis, another reason for using the term EAL, in addition to creating a contrast with mainstream SLA studies, is that in multilingual settings, one can never be sure whether a language being learnt is a second, third, or fourth language, especially in classroom settings which are multiparty by nature. Furthermore, the term 'foreign', as in EFL, signifies nativeness and non-nativeness by definition, and a category of 'native/foreigner', which are presumptions that a data driven ethnomethodological CA work would reject. This position is also justified by Brandt (2008), who argues that when "there appears to be no linguistic minority, it is surely not possible to argue that ownership of a language is bound to a category pair of native/foreigner" (p.223). Nevertheless, one may counter-argue this overall argument about the use of term EAL in this thesis claiming that the constructs 'second' and 'foreign' in ESL and EFL respectively are based upon the official status of languages. However, I would argue if it is the official status that dictates the terminologies to be used, then English is the official language of the European Union (European Commission 2005), and Luxembourg is one of the founders of the EU. Thus, a foreign language status would not be necessary.

1.3 Methodology and Research Questions

The methodology of this thesis draws upon Conversation Analysis (Sacks 1992), which is rooted in Ethnomethodology (Garfinkel 1964), "a research policy focusing on the study of common-sense reasoning and practical theorising in everyday activities" (ten Have 2007, p.6). CA aims to "describe, analyse, and understand talk as a basic and constitutive feature of human social life" (Sidnell 2010, p.1). Ten Have (2007)

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emphasises four major differences of CA in contrast to other approaches in the social and human sciences: Firstly, CA operates *closer to the phenomena* than most other approaches. This feature signifies the practice that CA works on recordings, which can repeatedly be listened to or watched, and detailed transcripts, rather than coded and counted representations (like Discourse Analysis or Corpus Linguistics). Accordingly, this thesis is based on a database of video-recordings and their detailed transcriptions that represent micro-details of interaction including linguistic, temporal, suprasegmental, and visual elements.

Secondly, CA favours *naturally occurring data* as opposed to experimental ones that are set up by researchers, thus which have the potential to be a result of subjective intentions and theoretical assumptions. In this thesis, no manipulation was offered or practiced in the teaching and learning events in the classrooms being recorded; the collection is based on natural, institutionally driven interactions. Thirdly, CA sees interaction as *organisational and procedural*. This implies that interaction does not consist of a series of individual acts, but is co-constructed as an emergent event. Therefore, in my analysis, I draw on how participants orient to each other's turns, and thus how actions are co-constructed. Lastly, CA should be seen as a study of *language-as-used*, focusing on oral language used in natural situations, rather than in terms of a linguistic system "strictly following normative rules of correct usage" (ten Have ibid., p.10).

The analyses in this PhD thesis employs methods of CA that uncover social actions through observing and describing turn-taking, repair, and preference organisation practices that will be introduced in chapter 3, and partly in chapter 2 with reference to literature on CA based research in classrooms. The analyses are also informed by a growing body of research that incorporates multimodality into the analysis of interactions in classrooms. Kupetz (2011) defines multimodality as "the coordinated deployment of nonverbal resources such as gesture, facial expression, gaze, body display, as well as verbal and para-verbal resources such as (morpho-) syntax, lexico-semantics, phonetics, and prosody" (p.122-123). It should be noted that multimodality in this thesis does not bring a separate theoretical stance, it is incorporated into the sequential, micro-analytic CA framework, and basic premises of CA like next-turn-proof-procedure are strictly at stake. Therefore, this micro-analytic CA approach to the data will be used to address the following research questions:

1) How are claims of insufficient knowledge sequentially and temporally co-constructed within activity sequences in EAL classrooms?

    a) What relevant next teacher actions are projected by them?

    b) In what ways are they embodied in social actions?

2) How does the teacher interpret 'insufficient knowledge' when there are no verbal claims from students?

    a) Which student nonverbal cues lead to a 'teacher interpretation' of insufficient knowledge?

    b) How does the teacher demonstrate orientation to and interpretation of insufficient knowledge?

3) What are the interactional resources the teacher employs in order to engage students in interaction after a 'claim of insufficient knowledge'?

The research questions were developed in light of the methodological and theoretical stance taken to the analysis of insufficient knowledge in teacher-student talk. Chapter 4, in which I will address each research question, is organised in a way that describes the interactional phenomena emerging from the fine-detailed, sequential analysis. The first research question signifies sequential and temporal employment of CIK, while in the second research question, the teachers' interpretation of insufficient knowledge based on nonverbal cues will be explored. As chapter 4 will show, inquiry into this question will hopefully contribute to CA terminology by describing 'epistemic status check' as an interactional resource used by the teacher in EAL classrooms. The third research question aims at finding the interactional resources the teacher employs, which lead to further participation of the students even after a claim of insufficient knowledge is at stake. In the discussion chapter, particularly in 5.5, implications of the findings obtained through an inquiry into this research question will be linked to CIC (Walsh 2006). Lastly, it should be noted that different parts of these research questions will be discussed in a variety of sections in chapter 5, which will be made clear in that chapter.

1.4 Thesis Outline

In this chapter, an overview and purpose of the thesis has been provided in addition to the significance of this research for the broader field of social interaction and in particular for research on EAL classrooms. The following chapter will present a review

of literature on the phenomena related to research on classroom discourse and issues related to learning, competence, and CIK. In 2.1, sequential organisation in classrooms will be explored by devoting separate subsections for turn taking and turn allocation in classrooms, triadic dialogue, questions, and silence. In the second part of the literature review, firstly, a review of research on claims and demonstrations of understanding and knowledge will be presented, which will be followed by an exploration of learning from a CA viewpoint and its links to CA-for-SLA and (classroom) interactional competence.

Chapter 3 will present the methodology of the thesis and will explain the research design in general. In this chapter, detailed information on participants, the research context, and data collection procedures will be given in addition to issues on ethics and access to the research context. This will be followed by introducing CA as an approach and methodology to investigate naturally occurring talk-in-interaction. In 3.5, issues related to transcriptions and building a collection will be discussed. Finally, chapter 3 will be closed by addressing how validity and reliability were satisfied. In chapter 4, the analysis of transcripts will be carried out by tackling each research question in a separate section. In 4.1, the most common (and frequent) examples of claims of insufficient knowledge found in the data will be covered in terms of how they are sequentially positioned by the students and how they are oriented to by the teacher. In 4.2, the teachers' interpretations of insufficient knowledge drawing on students' nonverbal cues will be described, and a new term, namely 'epistemic status checks', will be coined. In 4.3, deviant cases from the analyses carried out in 4.1 will be presented, which will focus on the teacher's interactional resources used to deal with CIK. This section has potential implications for CIC, as will be discussed in chapter 5. Chapter 5 will bring together findings that came out of the analyses carries out in chapter 4, and will outline the overall findings in different sections that will be presented with a variety of foci. These findings will be organised by addressing to sequential organisation and interactional management of CIK (5.1), the teacher's interpretation of insufficient knowledge and embodiment of CIK (5.2), establishing recipiency and its potential relation to (un)willingness to talk (5.3), silence and wait time (5.4), implications for teaching and CIC (5.5), and finally implications for language teacher education. The thesis will be completed with a conclusion chapter.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter will, firstly, review previous research on sequential organisation in classrooms, with an emphasis on turn allocation and turn taking procedures. Since Question-Answer-Comment (Q-A-C) sequences, teacher questions, and silence are conducive to shaping the mechanics of turn taking and turn allocation, they will be given separate sub-sections in 2.1. The second part of the chapter (2.2) will present research on displays and claims of understanding and knowledge, with their potential relation to learning in language classrooms, CA-for-SLA, and classroom interactional competence. Finally, a review of research on claims of insufficient knowledge will follow. This phenomenon has never been investigated thoroughly in language learning contexts, using a multi-modal, Conversation Analytic framework. It should be acknowledged that 'insufficient knowledge' and 'no knowledge' can be two different concepts, and it is problematic and very difficult to make a distinction between them using the methods of CA. I have no intention to draw a clear distinction, but their potentially different meanings should be further investigated in future research. In this thesis, the terms 'insufficient knowledge' and 'no knowledge' will be used interchangeably.

The motives for organising the review of the literature in this way, of course, are not groundless, and are mainly data-driven. My observations indicated that teachers' turn allocation practices, in relation to different phenomena including -but not limited to- selecting a willing speaker, have direct and indirect implications for students' claims of insufficient knowledge. Since these pre-allocation of turns and turn allocations are combinations of verbal and nonverbal conduct, I tried to cover teacher questions, Initiation-Response-Follow up/Feedback (IRF) sequences, and factors like gaze and body language where relevant. Secondly, although my intention is not to draw direct implications for language learning, claims of insufficient knowledge cannot be solely discussed without building an understanding of knowledge, learning, and competence in classrooms; thus I will review the literature on these issues in 2.2. To my knowledge, no study so far has taken claims and interpretations of insufficient knowledge in language learning environments as a point of departure to understand the kind of instructional and interactional actions I will focus on. Therefore, I hope that rather than specifically

looking at micro-moments of learning, as recent CA-for-SLA research paradigm does, empirically describing the phenomenon under discussion will also contribute to the growing body of literature in L2 classroom talk.

2.1 The Organisation of Turn Taking and Sequence in Classrooms

Research on instructed learning settings, and in particular on interactions in formal classrooms, has sought to describe and understand the ways the institutional business of teaching and learning is undertaken. Book length investigations into classroom discourse have been published by researchers, who adopted different methodological and theoretical stances. With claims on how research on interaction in these pedagogical contexts should be carried out, a wide range of disciplinary standpoints have been taken, including system-based approaches that use coding schemes (e.g. Flanders 1970; Bellack et al. 1966), discourse analytic approaches (e.g. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975), a Critical Classroom Discourse Analytic framework (e.g. Rymes 2009), and Conversation Analysis (e.g. Markee 2000; Seedhouse 2004). According to Edwards and Westgate (1987), interest in the use of language in classrooms "has grown with the recognition of its centrality in the processes of learning" (p.1). Analyses of classroom interaction offer insights into learning and teaching practices, taking into account 'how participants interact' becomes the vehicle for understanding the ways learning and teaching are done (Hall 2002; Lantolf and Thorne 2006).

Earlier work on classroom interaction focused mostly on whole-class interactions between the students and the teacher (Kumpulainen and Wray 2002), whereas, with the impact of task-based language teaching and learning, a growing body of research has recently documented peer interactions in language classrooms, mainly from a micro-analytic perspective (e.g. Hellermann 2007, 2008; Hellermann and Pekarek Doehler 2010; Pochon-Berger 2011). Although studies from a discourse analytic perspective (e.g. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) showed that classroom interaction can be to a great extent explained by a Initiation/Response/Feedback (IRF) structure, proponents of Conversation Analysis revealed that this three-part exchange is not sufficient to explicate the overall interactional organisation of classrooms. Research on IRF sequences will be reviewed in section 2.1.2 in relation to language teaching contexts. The adoption of Conversation Analysis as the methodological and theoretical point of departure will be explained in chapter 3, taking into account that even when applied to

the same discoursal data, as Seedhouse (2010) put, "different research methodologies can reach diametrically opposing conclusions" (p.1). In the following section, I will review research on turn taking and turn allocation in classrooms, since this phenomenon has direct and indirect pedagogical and interactional consequences within the sequential environment of the claims of insufficient knowledge and their co-management by the participants.

2.1.1 Turn taking and turn allocation in classroom interaction

Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson's early work (1974) documented the organisation of turn-taking in interaction, which specified two components that characterise it, namely; turn constructional unit (TCU) and the turn distributional component. Transition-relevance places (TRPs), which underlie these two components, occur after TCUs and they signal speaker change (Sacks, et al., ibid.). The systematic rules based on these constructs have been thoroughly investigated in natural conversation; yet, this is beyond the scope of this study. The first systematic, conversation analytic study on turn-taking mechanisms in formal classroom talk is McHoul's (1978) paper, which presents a comparison of classroom turn-taking and conversational (daily, mundane) turn taking. Using transcriptions of audio and video recordings from English and Australian high schools, he observed a set of rule-modifications in which the management of turns at talk for classrooms can be accounted for:

> (I) For any teacher's turn, at the initial transition-relevance place of an initial turn-constructional unit:
>> (A) If the teacher's turn-so-far is so constructed as to involve the use of a 'current speaker selects next' technique, then the right and obligation to speak is given to a single student; no others have such a right or obligation and transfer occurs at that transition-relevance place.
>> (B) If the teacher's turn-so-far is so constructed as not to involve the use of a 'current speaker selects next' technique, then current speaker (the teacher) must continue.
> (II) If I(A) is effected, for any student-so-selected's turn, at the initial transition-relevance place of an initial turn-constructional unit:
>> (A) If the student-so-selected's turn-so-far is so constructed as to involve the use of a 'current speaker selects next' technique, then the right and obligation to speak is given to the teacher; no others have such a right or obligation and transfer occurs at that transition-relevance place.
>> (B) If the student-so-selected's turn-so-far is so constructed as not to involve the use of a 'current speaker selects next' technique, then self-selection for next speaker may, but need not, be instituted with the teacher as first starter and transfer occurs at that transition-relevance place.
>> (C) If the student-so-selected's turn-so-far is so constructed as not to involve the use of a 'current speaker selects next' technique, then current speaker (the student), may, but need not, continue unless the teacher self-selects.
> (III) For any teacher's turn, if, at the initial transition-relevance place of an initial turn-

constructional unit either I(A) has not operated or 1(B) has operated and the teacher has continued, the rule-set I(A)-I(B) re-applies at the next transition-relevance place and recursively at each transition-relevance place until transfer to a student is effected.
(IV) For any student's turn, if, at the initial transition-relevance place of an initial turn-constructional unit neither II(A) nor II(B) has operated, and, following the provision of II(C), current speaker(the student) has continued, then the rule-set II(A)-II(C) re-applies at the next transition-relevance place and recursively at each transition-relevance place until transfer to the teacher is effected. (McHoul 1978, p.188)

He further stated that rules I-IV can be broken down into a summary rule: "only teachers can direct speakership in any creative way" (1978, p.88). Although McHoul's study enables us to understand basic systematics of turn-taking in classroom interaction, his research did not focus on language classrooms, and was mainly an investigation of more traditional, teacher-fronted classrooms. After the turn of the millennium, a couple of book-length manuscripts that focus on the interactional organisation of L2 classrooms from a CA perspective have been published (Markee 2000; Seedhouse 2004). In his ground-breaking publication on using CA as a "methodological resource for analysing and understanding second language acquisition behaviours" (2000, p.3), Markee proposed a modification to McHoul's aforementioned list:

> (I) For any teacher's turn, at the initial transition-relevance place of an initial turn-constructional unit:
>> A. If the teacher's turn so far is so constructed as to involve the use of a "current-speaker-selects-next" technique, then the right and obligation to speak is given to a single student or group of individual students (and, optionally, also to the teacher); transfer occurs at that transition-relevance-place. (2000, p.96)

His comprehensive investigation of language classrooms revealed that in traditional classrooms there are turns by learners in choral mode (also multiple response sequences; see Ko 2005 for a detailed analysis), substantial pre-allocation of turns, expectation from the students to produce elaborated, sentence-length turns, long turns by the teacher, predetermination of the content of the talk, and inflexible length of lessons as speech events (2000, p. 97-98). Taking the position that any sort of generalisation is not comprehensive enough to understand local management of interactions in classrooms, Seedhouse (2004) developed a variable perspective and showed that there are L2 classroom contexts "each with its own pedagogical focus and corresponding organisation of turn taking and sequence" (p.101). He proposed four classroom micro-contexts; namely, form-and-accuracy, meaning-and-fluency, task-oriented, and procedural. According to locally emerging and co-constructed pedagogical goals, there are different features of turn taking and sequential organisation.

In form-and-accuracy contexts, for instance, the pedagogical focus is to elicit accurate

linguistic forms from the learners, and with this tight focus, as Seedhouse (ibid., p.102) claims, it is "normally essential for the teacher to have tight control of the turn-taking system". In meaning-and-fluency contexts, where the focus is on communicating meaning rather than producing 'correct' utterances, on the other hand, there is a greater variety of sequence organisation with little or no interruption by the teacher. Turn taking practices in task-oriented contexts were also found to show certain tendencies. In task-oriented contexts, the focus is on accomplishing tasks, which may constrain the unfolding of the speech exchange system and turn taking. Seedhouse asserted three characteristics of this context, first being the reflexive relationship between the nature of the task and the turn taking system (2004, p.120), second the tendency to minimalization and indexicality (2004, p.125), and the third the tendency to generate many instances of confirmation checks, comprehension checks, self-repetitions, and clarification requests (p.127). Finally, turn-taking and sequential development in procedural contexts were proved to be showing distinctive features compared to other contexts and the most obvious one is that the information is delivered to students most of the time through a teacher monologue.

In teacher-fronted classroom discourse, turn allocations are integral parts of the overall turn-taking system, which is to a great extent a result of the "interactional asymmetries" (Drew and Heritage 1992) of institutional talk. Due to its relevance to the claims of insufficient knowledge and its central role in turn taking in general, then, the rest of the section will be devoted to turn allocation, pre-allocation of turns, and their embodiment in the unfolding interaction. I will be focusing also on multi-modal and semiotic aspects of turn allocation and pre-allocation of turns, and will refer to early works conducted in non-institutional settings (e.g. Goodwin 1980) and recently growing body of work within the context of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and additional language classrooms (e.g. Mortensen 2008, 2009; Mortensen and Hazel 2011; Kääntä 2010). The latter group of studies showed that turn allocation and sequential organisation in classroom talk-in-interaction are complex phenomena which require consideration and close examination of resources like gaze, body orientations, pointing, nods and cannot be simply limited to triadic dialogue and the assumed power of the teacher, as well as only verbally driven interpretations.

Although the importance of gaze in turn-beginnings has been studied in detail with an emphasis on the actions accomplished in L1 talk (e.g. Goodwin 1980), its relevance to

turn-taking practices in second language talk has only recently been investigated in detail (but see Carroll 2004). In teacher-fronted classroom interaction, although the role of gaze (and partly gestures) has been briefly referred to in relation to turn-allocation (e.g. Van Lier 1994; Hall 1998), more thorough, systematic investigations informed by a Conversation Analytic multimodal paradigm are very recent (e.g. Mortensen 2008; Käänta 2010). Mortensen (ibid.) investigated how gaze is systematically used to display willingness to be selected as a next speaker in Danish L2 classrooms. His findings showed that, among other interactional phenomena, by engaging in mutual gaze with the students, the teacher displays "an ongoing monitoring of the students' display of willingness to answer the first pair part as a relevant interactional job prior to the speaker selection" (2008, p.62). Drawing on his findings, it can be argued that the process of turn allocation and its co-accomplishment through gaze orientations have not only interactional, but also pedagogical consequences. This will further be discussed in the analysis of talk in EAL classrooms in Luxembourg, as selecting a (un)willing student may have implications for the co-construction and management of claims of insufficient knowledge.

In another study within the same L2 context in Denmark, Mortensen (2009) focused on how students claim incipient speakership and establish recipiency with a co-participant before a turn is properly initiated by using body movements and in-breaths as resources. He showed that although establishment of mutual gaze is an important component of displaying recipiency, gaze removal and divergent body orientations may be performed due to the existence of different classroom artefacts (also see Goodwin and Goodwin 1986 and Carroll 2004 for gaze removals in solitary word searches). Furthermore, fine-detailed, micro-interactional research on even a tightly controlled organisation like Round Robins (Mortensen and Hazel 2011) in L2 classrooms showed that participants' mutual orientations to ongoing activities can be collaboratively achieved. Mortensen and Hazel (ibid.) reported on the interactional organisation of this phenomenon by focusing "on the talk, the embodied conduct, the seating arrangement, and those artefacts and graphic structures, which are utilised in the initiating of this particular social practice" (2011, p.68).

Gathering her data from CLIL classrooms in Finland, Käänta (2010) examined teacher turn-allocation and repair practices in classroom interaction from a multi-semiotic perspective. By coining the term *embodied allocation*, "which manifests the primacy of

embodied resources in the accomplishment of social actions" (p.256), she described these embodied actions in association with the teacher turn-allocations centred on the use of head nods, gaze, and pointing gestures. One of the very important findings reported by Käänta is that "the shape of the teacher turn-allocations in the IRF sequence varies according to the sequential location in which they are delivered" (2010, p. 266).

Head movements, gaze, and other gestures have also been subject to analysis although they were not the main focus of research. Behliah (2009), for instance, specifically focused on ESL tutoring opening and closing sequences on turn-by-turn basis and investigated how speech, gaze and body orientation are coordinated during tutorials. He argued that interactional asymmetry in turn taking practices found in earlier research on teacher-fronted classrooms is not always the case, and his data brought counter-evidence for such assumptions. Seo and Koshik (2010) investigated repair sequences in ESL conversational tutoring and examined different gestures employed by both tutors and tutees, which are understood by the recipients to involve problems in understanding the prior talk. Two types of gestures they found were a sharp head turn with continued eyegaze and the other "is a head poke forward, accompanied with a movement of the upper body forward toward the recipient" (p.2219). Another study that investigated L2 talk focused on 'turn completions' by using gestures and embodied displays (Mori and Hayashi 2006), and the functions of gestures in goal-oriented activities (Taleghani-Nikazm 2008). The analysis I carried out showed that headshakes can be an integral part of the interactional environment of CIK, and these gestures as well as others, can have an impact on turn structures, therefore on turn taking practices and turn allocation in classroom talk.

The findings from the studies mentioned in this section will be further referred to in the discussion chapter where relevant, yet the details cannot be presented here due to reasons of space. The following section will present a review of IRF sequences in classroom talk, considering that they are a "prototypical locus of talk displaying participants' orientation to a distinctively institutional variety of talk, in which members construct their differential status on a moment by moment basis" (Markee, 2000, p.70).

2.1.2 Triadic dialogue in classroom talk

Originally referred to as Initiation-Response-Follow-up (IRF) by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), teacher initiated three-part sequences were found to be common sequential structures in teacher fronted classroom talk. This three-part exchange system is also known as Question-Answer-Comment (McHoul 1978), Initiation-Response-Evaluation (Mehan 1979a), and triadic dialogue or recitation script (Lemke 1985). Tsui (1989) claimed that a three-part exchange is more adequate as a basic unit of conversational organisation, although, the third turn is considered as a sequence closing third (Schegloff 2007) by many scholars (e.g. Jacknick 2011). IRF sequences have been a central interest in understanding a wide range of phenomena in classrooms on different subjects including physics and history classes (Poole 1990; Hellermann 2003), tutorials in medical schools (Zemel and Koschmann 2011), elementary level science classes (Candela 1999), English classes (Skidmore and Murakami 2010), and ESL classes (Waring 2009; Vaish 2008). Although it was clearly showed by Seedhouse (2004) that (language) classroom talk-in-interaction cannot simply be described by IRF sequences, still, a great deal of interaction in teacher-fronted talk tends to have a traditional structure: the teacher initiates a turn, the student responds, and the teacher follows up in the third turn in some way. Both limitations, and opportunities for learning within this triadic dialogue have been well documented by researchers; therefore, in the following paragraphs I will briefly introduce research that focused on IRF sequences.

Although not cited by many researchers, one of the first scholars (but see Wells 1993) who re-investigated Sinclair and Coulthard's ideas was Greyling (1995). Using a Discourse Analysis methodology, he showed that teacher-directed accuracy work yielded IRF patterns governed by local allocational projection mechanisms for turn-taking, unlike "the fluency-based work that was characterised by global-allocational preselection mechanisms" (p.2). Following Ethnomethodology and Conversation Analysis, based on 46 hours of ESL classroom instructions, Lee (2007) demonstrated how the third turn in the IRF sequence carries out the contingent task of responding to and acting on the prior turns while moving interaction forward. In content classrooms, Hellermann's (2005) findings showed systematic uses of pitch level and contour in triadic dialogue, and provided evidence for a unique action projection of the third part in the three-part sequence (also see Skidmore and Murakami 2010 and Hellermann, 2003 for prosody in IRF).

Zemel and Koschmann (2011) showed how reinitiation of IRF sequences and a tutor's organisation of his ongoing engagement with students encourage a "convergence between the doers of an action and its recipients" (Schegloff, 1992). Recent studies have shown ways modification or moving out of IRF can create new participation frameworks and may lead to opportunities for learning. Waring (2009), for instance, revealed how learners move out of IRF patterns and establish student-initiated participation structures that create speaking opportunities for fellow participants. Waring (2008) also showed that although explicit positive feedback in the third turn of a IRF sequence may be sequentially and affectively preferred, pedagogically it may hinder learning opportunities. In another important study, Jacknick (2011) illustrated that in ESL classrooms when the traditional IRF sequence is inverted in the way that the students initiate the first turn (also see Rampton 2006) in the form of a post-expansion (Schegloff 2007), student agency is demonstrated in the "upending of the traditional asymmetry in classroom talk, revealing students' ability to control sequences of talk in the classroom" (Jacknick, 2011, p.49). This shift in power has also been described by Candela (1999) at elementary level science classrooms.

Although IRF exchange has been criticised by some researchers who believe that it constrains opportunities for student participation and engagement (e.g. Wood 1992; Nystrand 1997), there is still a growing body of research systematically looking at this phenomenon. I believe that as long as teacher-fronted instruction -and relatively crowded classrooms- exist, we will inevitably have some form of this triadic exchange in language classrooms now and then, due to and mutually bound to pedagogical goals. Therefore, one should have a better understanding of what actually happens interactionally in this sequentially asymmetric context by paying particular attention to the micro-moments of talk and embodiment. A new generation of researchers (e.g. Kääntä), by a close examination of embodied, multisemiotic actions from a CA perspective, are reexamining IRF exchanges, simply because this is what emerged from the data. Kääntä (2010) claimed that her findings "illuminate the dynamic nature of classroom interaction by bringing into light how teachers and students continuously orient to the use of the IRF sequence as an instructional tool and its structural properties in classroom interaction" (p.262). In relation to turn allocation that was mentioned in the previous section, she further reports:

"the shape of the teacher turn-allocations in the IRE sequence varies according to the sequential location in which they are delivered. That is, teachers design their turn-allocations to reflect the ongoing interaction in terms of what kinds of uses of different resources the different constructions afford or constrain. When the insertion sequence 'student bidding–teacher turn-allocation' is enacted as a separate activity sequence, the turn-allocations are constructed through the use of address terms and gaze, through invitations and commands to respond, through head nods and gaze, through pointing gestures and gaze, or through a combination of these. In contrast, when the turn-allocations are issued as turns-of-action simultaneously with the teacher initiations or evaluations, they are performed entirely through embodied means" (2010, p.266).

What is relevant here for the present study is that teachers' allocation of turns have both sequential and pedagogical consequences for the emergence of claims of insufficient knowledge, and I will show in the analysis section that re-distribution of speakership may be an immediate resource (although not always) for the teacher when such interactional tensions arise. In order to understand how the participants manage states of no knowledge, we need to examine in detail the practices of turn allocation and the establishment of recipiency so as to make sense of the emerging and constantly negotiated participation frameworks. These turn allocations and the subsequent claims of insufficient knowledge may project further actions performed by the teacher in the following turns, which may be in the form of follow up questions or other resources to elicit talk and engage students into the ongoing activity. These resources may have interactional consequences and pedagogical outcomes. Therefore, in the following section, I will review the body of research on teacher questions in classroom talk-in-interaction.

2.1.3 Teacher questions in classroom talk

Question-answer adjacency pairs form a great deal of teacher-fronted classroom talk, and they form the basis of IRE sequences. In classroom interaction, questions play a central role as they have the potential to pursue the pedagogical goals of the teachers within different micro-contexts. A question is normally designed to elicit an adjacent answer, most usually in the next turn, and in an immediate manner in talk-in-interaction (Gardner 2004). According to Musumeci (1996), however, their function may also be to encourage involvement rather than to elicit new information (cited in Walsh 2006). In institutional discourse, questions should be analysed with reference to the institutional goals. This has been well-documented in relation to different institutional contexts, including oral proficiency interviews (Kasper and Ross 2007), police-suspect interrogations (Stokoe and Edwards 2010), counselling (Sarangi 2010), and journalism

(Clayman 2010). In classroom discourse research, distinctions were made between different types of questions including exam questions vs. real questions (Searle 1969), known information questions vs. information seeking questions (Mehan 1979b), and display questions vs. referential questions (Long and Sato 1983). Although I will use Mehan's terminology in this study, in line with most of the CA research done on this phenomenon (but see Lee 2006), I will first review studies on display and referential questions by mostly referring to the original terms used. According to Brock:

> Display questions ask the respondent to provide, or to display knowledge of, information already known by the questioner, while referential questions request information not known by the questioner. (1986, p.48)

Display questions are commonly used by the teachers especially in form-and-accuracy contexts, for example when they want the students to produce correct language forms; and unlike in natural conversation, they are most of the time followed by evaluations (e.g. very good) as one would find in a typical IRF pattern. Referential questions, on the other hand, would be more typical to contexts where students are expected to respond to questions to which the teacher might not know the answer, for instance in meaning focused micro-contexts. Comparing native speakers to language teachers, Long and Sato (1983) found that ESL teachers asked significantly more display questions than referential questions, and claimed that they are less effective compared to the referential questions in terms of the opportunities they generate for students to use English. In an experimental study, by training one group of teachers for incorporating referential questions into teaching, Brock (1986) found that the teachers in the treatment group asked more referential questions and the resulting responses from the students were found to be syntactically more complex.

Inquiry into the effectiveness and frequency of different question types are still under investigation using this paradigm, yet not always with similar results (e.g. Davis 2007). Although Ozcan's (2010) study in a Turkish university setting revealed that EFL students in lower level reading classes participate more when asked a referential question, Shomoossi's (2004) study in the Iranian EFL context (reading classes) showed that not all referential questions lead to enhanced interaction. Opposite findings were reported from ESL classes in Nigeria, where referential questions created less classroom interaction compared to display questions (Davis 2007). Lee (2006) criticised the methodological tools used by previous researchers (also see Markee 1995 for critiques)

who used categories that "do not account for the processes through which display questions are made intelligible by those who use them in actual classroom interaction and what they accomplish in doing so" (p.694), and favoured a conversation analytic approach. His close, sequential analysis of display questions shows that it is in the production of interactional exchanges that these questions are made intelligible; "topics are introduced, meanings are clarified, answers are tried, and resources are produced" (p.708).

Using Conversation Analysis enables us to understand how interactants make sense of the questions asked, and how this is achieved on sequential basis by at the same time constantly orienting to institutional goals. Koshik (2002a, 2002b, 2003, 2005, 2010) is one of the most influential scholars who studied questions in educational contexts from a CA perspective. Adopting Mehan's dichotomy (known information and information seeking questions), she investigated the actions accomplished by different questions during L2 writing conferences. She identified four different types of known answer questions, namely Designedly Incomplete Utterances (DIUs), Reversed Polarity questions, Alternative questions, and questions that animate the voice of an abstract audience. DIUs are "designed as incomplete utterances: either grammatically incomplete sentences, phrases, or individual words to be continued, but not necessarily completed, by the student" (Koshik, 2002a, p.288). It was found that they can target trouble sources through changing the pace at the end of the utterance, continuing intonation, or stretching the final syllable; and can be used to elicit self-correction. In a very recent study, Margutti (2010) showed that what he calls *main-clause* DIUs, in relation to teachers' pedagogical goals, are used to cast students as learners, by treating their verbal behaviour bringing strong evidence for learning in prior talk.

In my analysis, I will show a couple of cases where DIUs may occur following students' claims of insufficient knowledge and are found to be useful resources used by the teacher that facilitate student participation by eliciting correct responses to questions; and thereby helping the teacher pursue his pedagogical goals. Other types of known answer questions examined by Koshik are yes/no questions that convey reversed polarity (2002b), wh-questions used as challenges (2003, also see Raymond 2003) and alternative questions used in repair (2005). One important feature of alternative questions is that they can use adjacent positioning to target an error, and their grammatical form "also allows for teachers to add the second alternative as a

grammatical increment after student silence, turning that silence into pause" (Koshik 2010, p.182). Since silence occurs quite frequently within the interactional environment of CIK, the following section will be devoted to silence and wait time in classroom discourse.

2.1.4 Silence, wait time, and non-verbal phenomena in classroom interaction

Research on silence in everyday interaction (e.g. Pomerantz 1984a) showed some ways it is employed by interactants; for instance, how it signals that a next action is dispreferred (Schegloff 2007). In this section, however, I will mainly focus on findings from previous research on classroom interaction due to reasons of space. As will be clear in the analysis chapter, silence occurs in the sequential environment of claims of insufficient knowledge and, as the review of literature shows, has been found to be an integral part of IRF sequences especially before the third turn. For example, McHoul's (1990) research is one of the first studies to evidentially show that teacher silence after a student response is an interactional device that indicates dispreference. This has also been found to be the case by many other researchers including Macbeth (2000, 2004) and Lee (2008). These findings, which clearly show that silence before a teacher repair in the third turn signals a dispreferred response, then show that students may orient to this pause as a problem in their answers and use it as an interactional resource. In the following paragraphs, I will review some of the studies that focused on student and teacher silence in classroom interaction. Here, we also need to distinguish between a gap and silence. As will be discussed in chapter 5, Schegloff (2007) refers to overlong silences as inter-turn gaps, which break the contiguity of interaction. Silence, however, may be intra-turn, and does not necessarily break the contiguity of interaction; thus is not necessarily a gap. Yet, a few scholars referred to pauses as gaps, however in this thesis pauses will not be used in this sense and will be used interchangeably with silences.

Nakamura (2004), using a Conversation Analytic methodology, investigated EFL teacher-student dialogues and argued that there are uses of silence that could inform teachers on what to do next after a lack of response from a student. He claimed that teachers who face students' silence could enhance "their ability to help students move forward through the silence by giving appropriate support such as rephrasing questions and requests" (p.79). He further argued that student silence does not necessarily mean

that a student does not 'know', but could possibly be that the student is weighing the consequences of the potential answer to be given, or, on the part of the teacher, it may be getting prepared to rephrase a question. The point is that it should be seen two-dimensionally, rather than seeing it as student silence or teacher silence. This is why I did not take long silences in themselves as displays of insufficient knowledge in my analysis, since the argument in this thesis is that claims of insufficient knowledge, or the teacher's interpretation of insufficient knowledge, will only be subject to analysis when they are made relevant and are oriented to by the teacher and the students 'explicitly' as such.

In a very recent study, Maroni (2011) investigated the role of pauses in interactions taking place in 12 Italian primary school classrooms using CA transcriptions from a total of 15 hours of recordings. She described a specific type of pause, wait-time, and showed that wait time "fosters the pupils' involvement and the quality of their answers, particularly if it is accompanied by interventions by teachers, encouraging the pupils' collaborative participation" (p.2081). Parallel to Nakamura's (ibid.) suggestions, she claimed that a mismatch may occur between the interpretations of the teacher and students during a pause, and in some cases, "it can be solved by the teacher no longer attempting to involve the students" (p.2090). The analysis chapter in this thesis will show that there are many cases where the teacher allocates the turn to other students after claims of insufficient knowledge combined with pauses. Therefore, similar to what Maroni proposed, the teacher does not attempt to involve the student currently being addressed. Yet, it is clear that this is highly related to the existence of an explicit claim of insufficient knowledge, although this is not always the case, as will be shown in the fourth section of the discussion chapter.

Although it will not be investigated in this thesis, there is also a growing body of research on silence in student-student interaction. Combining Conversation Analysis with a personal narrative inquiry, Amundrud (2011) explored the ways students create and manage the silence of a peer in an English for Academic Purposes course during a discussion test. His CA findings showed that interactional support and turn allocations in discussion test groups are major factors in student silences (p.334). Since student-student interactions are not subject to analysis for the purposes of this thesis, I will finish this section by reviewing findings from Kääntä's (2010) research, who also considered multi-modal resources in her analysis of silence. Kääntä found that silence

alone does not manifest the dispreferrence in the third turn (see the beginning of the section), but may be interpreted in relation to the teacher's body posture and her orientation to the response. "Teachers' silence, in such cases, form repair initiators which are 'silent' and 'visual', and can lead to student-repairs either by the producer of the trouble turn or by peers" (p. 230). This issue will be illustrated in the analysis chapter, and will be further discussed in chapter 5.

Research on classroom discourse has also been influenced by disciplines like kinesics and paralinguistics. Although there is a vast literature of non-verbal features of talk in everyday interaction (e.g. Morris 1994; Kendon 1990, 2000; Goodwin 2000), their impact on language development has only recently been acknowledged. In her experimental study, Tellier (2010) looked at the effect of gestures on second language memorisation by young children. She compared two groups of EFL learners and found that gestures and their reproduction significantly influence the memorisation of L2 lexical items. Since this thesis does not adopt an experimental framework, I will refer to some studies that used a more decriptive approach to the study of non-verbal phenomena in L2 talk. Hye Cho and Larke (2010) investigated ESL classrooms in the United States and showed that certain head movements can be used as repair strategies by learners in classrooms. In a very recent study, Kupetz (2011) explored multimodal resources used by the students in CLIL interaction using the methods of CA and interactional linguistics. She illustrated different resources like hand movements, gaze, and body orientations employed by the students while 'doing explanations', and discussed their relation to pedagogical activities. Since I have already focused on gaze, inbreaths, and pointing in relation to turn taking in classrooms in 2.1.1, with reference to Mortensen (2008) and Kääntä (2010), I will continue with the second section of this chapter: understanding, learning, and claiming insufficient knowledge.

2.2 Understanding, Learning, and Claims of Insufficient Knowledge

Although this thesis investigates insufficient knowledge, one should have an understanding of what knowledge and understanding is within classroom interaction and beyond before going through claims of insufficient knowledge. Therefore, this section will first present a review of research on understanding and knowledge in different contexts. Following this, I will focus on the concept of Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh 2006) and introduce the growing body of research on CA-for-SLA

and development of interactional competence of students. Lastly, studies on claiming insufficient knowledge will be reviewed.

2.2.1 Demonstrating and claiming understanding and knowledge

Classrooms are institutional settings where learning and teaching practices are manifested through interactions between students and teachers. These are contexts in which learning is co-constructed and where, in Mercer's (1995) words, 'the guided construction of knowledge' occurs. It is not easy to come up with a comprehensive definition of knowledge, and it would be beyond the scope of this thesis to conceptualise knowledge and present a thorough analysis of it, as micro-analysis of interactions would deal with issues like understanding rather than knowledge. Bernstein (1999) proposed different forms of knowledge by distinguishing between vertical discourse and horizontal discourse. His conceptualisation of horizontal discourses as opposed to vertical discourses is highly relevant for a CA viewpoint of understanding and knowledge:

> "in the case of horizontal discourse, its 'knowledges', competences and literacies are segmental. They are contextually specific and 'context dependent', embedded in ongoing practices, … and directed towards specific, immediate goals, highly relevant to the acquirer in the context of his/her life" (p.161).

By stressing the context specific and context dependant 'knowledge' in horizontal discourse, one may infer that knowledge is constructed in a context-sensitive way, and as he mentions, embedded in ongoing practices. This is highly relevant to the sequential co-construction of talk, and therefore understanding, in interaction as will be clarified in the methodology chapter while reviewing the constructs of Conversation Analysis. His emphasis on 'embeddedness in ongoing practices' can also be related to the idea of co-construction of knowledge, understanding and therefore 'learning-in-action' (Firth and Wagner 2007) and beyond that, as will be clarified in the following section, 'competence-in-action' (Pekarek Doehler 2006). Furthermore, his emphasis on the goal orientedness of knowledge in horizontal discourse is also related to the idea that institutional interaction, and in particular L2 classroom interaction, is goal oriented and there is a mutual relationship between pedagogy and interaction (Seedhouse 2004). Therefore, in line with the theoretical and methodological underpinnings of this thesis, the issue of understanding and its analysis in micro-moments of talk will be reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Before reviewing the recent studies on understanding and knowledge, I want to distinguish what is meant by understanding, knowing, and learning in this thesis. In CA, understanding is a technical term (Lynch 2011), and is entwined in turn-taking practices: taking a turn in an on-going conversation "is itself an analytic task and achievement of understanding" (Macbeth 2011, p. 440). Accordingly, learning is not seen as a cognitive, individual phenomenon, but can be defined as a change in a socially-displayed cognitive state achieved on turn-by-turn basis (Seedhouse and Walsh 2010), and can be seen as a sociocognitive process embedded in the context of locally accomplished social practices and their sequential deployment (Pekarek Doehler 2010). In this thesis, I cannot and have no intention to bring evidence for knowledge as a by-product of interaction. Nevertheless, 'lack of' knowledge (insufficient/no knowledge) will be the centre of analysis since it is co-constructed by the participants in talk and is explicitly claimed and demonstrated through various means, therefore can be subject to empirical investigation. It can, according to the findings of this thesis, be defined as participants' observable and explicit displays of and orientations to an epistemic state of insufficient knowledge and is enacted following a first pair part of an adjacency pair.

Understanding as a concept has recently been investigated in the literature of Conversation Analytic work in different contexts including classrooms (Koole 2010; Macbeth 2011), salesman-customer interactions (Mondada 2011), apprenticeship contexts (Hindmarsh et al. 2011), and tutorials (Koschmann et al. 2000). Sacks (1992) made a clear distinction between claiming and demonstrating understanding. I will exemplify each phenomenon using the extract below:

1	A:	where are you staying
2	B:	Pacific Palisades
3a	A:	oh at the west side of town
	vs	
3b	A:	oh Pacific Palisades	(Sacks 1992, p.141, in Mondada 2011)

According to Sacks (ibid.), in 3a, A demonstrates understanding while in 3b, A just claims it. The underlying reason for such an analysis is that in 3a, A re-describes the place and in a way displays his recognition, while in 3b he just repeats it. Sacks, therefore, answers the question of 'how understanding is shown', "by pointing to the

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fact that participants make available different forms of understanding by performing some kind of operation on the previous turn" (Mondada 2011, p.543). Another distinction was made between displays of knowing and displays of understanding, which are referred to as different displays of epistemic access (Koole 2010). In his study, based on an analysis of classroom encounters in which teachers explain mathematics problems to individual students, Koole claimed that displays of knowing and displays of understanding are different interactional objects that come in different sequential positions. He further argued that "some sequences have a preference for a claim of epistemic access, while others have a preference for a demonstration" (p.183). He maintained that "displays of understanding occur in sequential positions where a claim is the preferred response, while displays of knowing occur in environments where a demonstration of knowing is preferred" (p.184). Claims of understanding have also been investigated in interactions between native clerks and non-native clients (Svennevig 2004). Svennevig looked at other-repetitions, which are used to display receipt of information. He suggested that a repeat with falling intonation constitutes a display of hearing, whereas a repeat followed by a final response particle like 'yes' is a claim of understanding.

'Knowledge display' is another term that has been used in several studies (e.g. Kidwell 1997; Koschmann et al. 2000). Koschmann et al. (2000) investigated the ways students and a tutor display understandings in problem-based tutorials and defined a Knowledge Display Segment to be "a topic-delimited segment of discourse in which participants raise a topic for discussion and one or more members elect to display their understanding of that topic" (p.56). In another study, Kidwell (1997) used the term in a focused analysis of demonstrating recipiency in order to address how participants use knowledge displays as a resource for the unaddressed participant. By considering recipiency proactivity, she examined the ways gaze direction towards the teller and displays of knowledge of particular story components form claims on a teller's attention.

The issue of gaze, in addition to other means of embodiment, has also been subject to analysis in more recent studies on understanding (e.g. Mondada 2011; Hindmarsh et al. 2011). Mondada (2011) focused on the interplay of sequential and embodied features in the production and monitoring of understanding. She saw understanding as:

"a collective achievement, publicly displayed and interactively oriented to within the production and the monitoring of action. Its accountability is built through a plurality of displays, claiming and demonstrating understanding thanks to the mobilization of linguistic and embodied resources at specific sequential positions" (p.550).

Hindmarsh et al. (2011), taking Harvey Sacks's distinction of 'claiming' and 'exhibiting' understanding, explored discussions between student dentists and their supervisors. They focused on the interactional resources that the supervisors draw upon to assess understanding and showed that these resources, apart from the content of talk, are also related to "the timing of the production of the talk and the bodily conduct that accompanies it" (p.489).

Conversation Analysis has a local-interactional view of understanding (Macbeth 2004). A growing body of research on learning in institutional settings, and specifically in second language acquisition contexts, is using demonstrations and claims of understanding to evidentially show micro-moments of learning in teacher-student and student-student interaction. Researchers within the field of CA-for-SLA are trying to "identify what for the participants counts as claimed vs. demonstrated understanding, as sufficient or insufficient proof of understanding (Hindmarsh et al., 2011). The following section, therefore, will review recent work within this domain, and build links to the concept of interactional competence and, from teachers' perspective, Classroom Interactional Competence.

2.2.2 Learning, CA-for-SLA, and (Classroom) Interactional Competence

Learning has recently been an issue for researchers who adopted Conversation Analysis. A review of literature shows that the issue of learning in interaction is increasingly being investigated in a wide array of contexts and interactions including physiotherapist-patient talk (Martin 2009), online voice-based chatrooms (Jenks 2010), sales personnel-client interaction in telephone calls (Firth 2009), airline cockpit interactions (Melander and Sahlström 2009), pharmacy patient consultations (Nguyen 2011b), and gaming activities (Piirainen-Marsh and Tainio 2009; Piirainen-Marsh 2011). What constitutes learning, however, may show variation according to the different practices that are under investigation. Jenks (2010), for instance, focused on the ways an interactant 'learns' "how to change his existing knowledge of an interactional practice to accommodate his fellow interactants" (p.153). On the other

hand, Firth (2009) investigated different kinds of local learning within the micro-moments of interaction:

> "the interactants are compelled to assess, in situ, the language competence of their co-participants, and implicitly calibrate their own linguistic and interactional behaviour accordingly. Such calibrations, I argue, entail learning"(p.127).

The positions taken to 'conceptualise' learning in the studies cited so far take a different approach to learning than researchers who see learning as an individual, mental process; namely mainstream SLA researchers within the field of Applied Linguistics. According to Seedhouse (2011), "the development of an applied dimension in CA and its fundamental concern with language as a form of social action suggest a natural link with applied linguistics" (p.346). Therefore, more and more applied linguists, especially ones interested in language teaching and learning practices, have started to employ methods of CA. This 'social turn' (Block 2003), first challenged by Firth and Wagner (1997), questioned the way mainstream SLA researchers approached learning and called for: (1) sensitivity to contextual and interactional aspects of language use, (2) a broadening of the SLA database and more importantly, (3) an adoption of a more emic and participant-relevant perspective towards SLA research (Firth and Wagner 1997). Following this approach to learning and analysis of second language interactions, the field of CA-for-SLA (Markee and Kasper 2004), reconceptualisation of learning as learning-in-action (Firth and Wagner, 2007), and competence-in-action (Pekarek Doehler, 2006) have emerged.

Mori and Markee (2009) distinguished between CA-informed and CA-inspired approaches to SLA. According to them, CA-inspired approaches to SLA 'tend to favour a relatively purist or CA-native approach to the analysis of learning talk (p.2)'. On the contrary, CA-informed approaches to SLA combine it with exogenous theories (e.g. Hellermann (2009a) and Firth (2009) use the notion of communities of practice; see Hauser 2011 for a critique of bringing exogenous theories). Jenks (2010) brought in further distinctions within the field of CA-for-SLA. He firstly made a distinction between a strong view and a weak view of CA-for-SLA; the former abandoning the cognitive tradition of SLA research (e.g. Mondada and Pekarek Doehler 2004) and the latter favouring discussion between CA and cognitive traditions. Jenks' further distinctions include data-driven vs. theory-driven/informed CA-for-SLA studies and pure vs. linguistic CA (p. 148-51). What counts as learning in CA-for-SLA, however,

has been debated and is still an ongoing project. According to Pekarek Doehler and Pochon-Berger (2011), CA-for-SLA views L2 learning:

> "as anchored in language use, that is, as embedded in the moment-to-moment unfolding of talk-in-interaction. Such an understanding critically challenges what can be taken evidence for learning: documenting language learning, in this view, involves analysing how speakers use language within social practices to accomplish (joint) actions" (p.206).

This idea of learning as embedded in the moment-to-moment unfolding of talk, and its being entwined in language use radically challenges the product-orientedness of cognitive SLA studies. One of the ways CA researchers used to argue about learning is to focus on repair sequences. For Kasper and Wagner (2011):

> "Revealing understanding includes showing problematic understanding. Speakers can choose to address problems in speaking, hearing, or understanding through repair, an interactional apparatus for handling such problems and restoring intersubjectivity" (p.121).

Showing micro-moments of 'understanding', as they are co-constructed in talk-in-interaction in language learning settings (see the previous section for the concepts of demonstrating and claiming understanding), is one of the ways researchers used to bring evidence for learning. Repair sequences, as they restore intersubjectivity and therefore may lead to understanding, therefore, have been of interest to many researchers (e.g. Kasper 2006; Hellermann 2009b; Hellermann 2011). Yet, bringing evidence for moments-of-understanding does not necessarily lead to learning, if we want to see learning as development. This idea led to the emergence of longitudinal studies that tried to document L2 learning. According to Sahlström (2011, p.45) "learning is inherently longitudinal; that it involves changes in the practices of individuals occurring over time". In this respect, Hellermann (2008), for instance, longitudinally looked at learners' opening dyadic task interactions, story tellings in dyadic task interactions, and disengagements from dyadic task interactions over a long period of time in EAL classrooms and brought evidence to development of language use practices. Markee (2008), on the other hand, developed a methodology to track L2 development longitudinally. He proposed Learning Behavior Tracking (LBT), which involves using two methodological techniques; Learner Object Tracking (LOT) and Learning Process Tracking (LPT). The first one is a technique that attempts to document when a language learning event occurs during a particular time period; and the second one uses the techniques of CA to evaluate how participants engage in a language learning behaviour. He claimed that his approach has the advantage of being methodologically true to CA,

while also addressing SLA's traditionally cognitive understandings of mind. According to Pekarek Doehler (2010):

> "learning a language involves a continuous process of adaptation of patterns of language-use-for-action in response to locally emergent communicative needs, and the routinisation of these patterns through repeated participation in social activities…and the resulting competencies are adaptive, flexible and sensitive to the contingencies of use" (p.107).

Thus, this adaptation to communicative needs and routinely using the language in activities lead to competencies, and in particular, Interactional Competence of learners. Young (2008) defined interactional competence as a "relationship between the participants' employment of linguistic and interactional resources and the contexts in which they are employed" (p.101). Markee (2008) proposed three components of interactional competence:

1) language as a formal system (includes pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar),

2) semiotic systems, including turn-taking, repair, sequence organization,

3) gaze and paralinguistic features.

L2 Interactional competence has recently been investigated in L2 classroom contexts (Cekaite 2007; Pekarek Doehler and Pochon-Berger 2011), in language proficiency interviews (Van Compernolle 2011; Lee at al. 2011), and in study abroad contexts (Ishida 2011). The development of interactional practices has been tracked by focusing on engagements in story tellings (Ishida 2011a), expanded responses (Lee et al. 2011), and other-initiated repair (Hellermann 2011). A central finding is that participation is key to the process of learning in interaction. However, there are challenges for longitudinal accounts of language learning, and therefore for investigating L2 Interactional Competence. According to Pekarek Doehler and Wagner (2010, cited in Hall and Pekarek Doehler 2011), these challenges include:

a) the problems for analysing products of learning being analysed through an emic perspective,

b) finding the relevant units of analysis (e.g. actions, linguistic items) that allow documenting change across time and that warrant comparability at two different moments,

c) the difficulty to differentiate what is due to development over time and what is due to a change in local context.

As Kasper and Wagner (2011, p.117) argue, "language acquisition can be understood as learning to participate in mundane as well as institutional everyday social environments". Therefore, participation has been a centre of analysis in language teaching/learning contexts (Appel 2010; Leung 2010; Schwab 2011; Nguyen 2011a). Schwab focused on participation frameworks in whole-class interaction in English language classrooms in Germany. He argued that classroom interaction should be seen as "a mode of speech exchange system that bears the opportunity for multi-party discourse, especially if students can fill other slots than those given to them by the teacher, especially in IRF exchanges"(p.15). Schwab's work is groundbreaking in that it redefines participation frameworks in teacher-led classroom interactions with his idea of multilogue as opposed to a dialogue:

> "A multilogue shall be defined as a certain form of institutional multi-party activity where participants' verbal and nonverbal contributions have reference to more than one addressee. It is determined by the following characteristics: a certain participation structure that is teacher-fronted and involves more than two people; teacher or student initiated; not limited to a certain phase or point of time during the lesson; public and apparent to all learners ('on stage') and therefore fragile, vulnerable and potentially face-threatening; addresses more than one person – directly or indirectly; and takes place in an institutional setting" (2011, p. 7-8).

According to this definition and characteristics of a multilogue, classroom interactions bear certain features that can be distinguished from other forms of face-to-face interactions. The idea that a certain participation structure is public and apparent to all learners ('on stage') is highly relevant to the uncovering of sequential organisation and management of claims of insufficient knowledge (CIK), and plays a significant role in the turn allocation practices after a student claims no knowledge, which will further be discussed in 5.1. Since the focus of this thesis is classroom interaction, students' participation in interaction and the ways teachers facilitate this becomes the main concern. Although I am not specifically looking at learning, learners' engagement is by definition a desired outcome, especially considering the focus of the thesis (students' claims of insufficient knowledge). The ways teachers engage students through their language use in L2 classrooms have been studied while defining L2 Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh 2006).

Interactional competence is not a construct that is only valid for students in L2 classrooms. Teachers, as the leading actors in especially traditional classrooms where teacher-fronted interaction constitutes most of the classroom talk, are important agents

to facilitate learning opportunities through their talk, which may directly influence students' interactional competence. Walsh (2006, 2011) developed the idea of Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC), which encompasses the features of classroom interaction that make the teaching/learning process more or less effective. These features are (a) maximizing interactional space; (b) shaping learner contributions (seeking clarification, scaffolding, modelling, or repairing learner input); (c) effective use of eliciting; (d) instructional idiolect (i.e. a teacher's speech habits); and (e) interactional awareness. Walsh identified four classroom micro contexts, referred to as modes:

Managerial mode refers to the way teachers organize the class and move between activities (McCarten, 2007). In managerial mode, the pedagogical goals are to transmit information, to organize the physical learning environment, to refer learners to materials, to introduce or conclude an activity, and to change from one mode of learning to another. In relation to this mode, the identified interactional features are: (1) a single, extended teacher turn, which uses explanations and/or instructions; (2) the use of transitional markers; (3) the use of confirmation checks; and (4) an absence of learner contributions. As for the *classroom context mode*, the pedagogical goals are to enable learners to express themselves clearly, to establish a context, and to promote oral fluency. The interactional features of this mode are extended learner turns, short teacher turns, minimal repair, content feedback, referential questions, scaffolding, and clarification requests. In *skills and systems mode*, on the other hand, different interactional features are identified; as extended teacher turns, direct repair, display questions, and form-focused feedback. It is obvious that there is a different pedagogical focus in this mode, which is to enable learners to produce correct forms, to allow the learners to manipulate the target language, to provide corrective feedback, and to display correct answers. Lastly, in *materials mode*, the pedagogical goals are to provide language practice around a piece of material, to elicit responses in relation to the material, to check and display answers, to clarify when necessary, and to evaluate contributions. The interactional features are extensive use of display questions, form-focused feedback, corrective repair, and the use of scaffolding (Walsh 2006).

Although CIC has been investigated in L2 classrooms in monolingual contexts, the phenomenon has not been examined in multilingual settings, where code-switching is potentially a feature of talk-in-interaction. In monolingual and bilingual settings,

however, code-switching has been thoroughly investigated by paying particular attention to its functions (e.g. Raschka et al. 2009). One of the most influential papers on classroom code-switching from a CA perspective is Ustunel and Seedhouse's (2005) study, which focuses on "the sequential implicativeness of language choice in relation to the evolving pedagogical focus" (p.307). They presented the organisation of code-switching as teacher-initiated, teacher-induced, and learner-initiated, and demonstrated that through their language choices, learners may display their alignment or misalignment with the teacher's pedagogical focus. The functions of language alternation they found are dealing with procedural trouble or classroom discipline, expressing social identity, giving an L1 equivalent, translating into the L1, dealing with a lack of response in the L2, providing a prompt for L2 use, eliciting an L1 translation, giving feedback, checking comprehension in the L2, providing meta language information, and giving encouragement to participate.

Nevile and Wagner (2011) investigated the use of multiple languages in core activities for teaching, learning, and assessment using a conversation analytic methodology. They argued that in institutional settings, participants' language choices can be contingent upon institutional goals and constraints. This can be linked back to the findings of Ustunel and Seedhouse (2005) in that there is a reflexive relationship between language choice and pedagogy. In chapter 4, I will show a few examples in which code-switching occurs within the interactional environment of claims of insufficient knowledge. The analysis will illustrate that utterances in different languages can be both teacher-initiated and student-initiated; however, they are not always tolerated by the teacher as he in some examples orients to a monolingual mode (Slotte-Lüttge 2007). The argument will be that the emerging pedagogical goals at micro-moments in talk determines how the teacher manages language alternation, and successful management of code-switching within the sequential environment of claims of insufficient knowledge is a skill, which will be linked to Classroom Interactional Competence.

Although the primary aim of this thesis is not to bring evidence for teachers' CIC, the third section of the analysis chapter will exemplify some sequences of talk between the teacher and students in which a student claims insufficient knowledge and the teacher, by using certain interactional resources, engages the student that may lead to displays or claims of understanding. In the discussion chapter, then, I will try to build links to Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC) drawing on such cases. According to

Seedhouse and Walsh (2010), CIC is important in that it may help interactants to create, maintain and sustain 'space for learning'. Space for learning refers to "the extent to which teachers and learners provide interactional space which is appropriate for the pedagogical goal of the moment" (p.140). In the following section, having reviewed understanding as a phenomenon and its macro connections to language learning environments, I will review previous research on 'claiming insufficient knowledge'.

2.2.3 Claiming insufficient knowledge

Participants in talk-in-interaction may sometimes claim insufficient knowledge as a second-pair part of an adjacency pair, or may produce an utterance like 'I don't know' in first or second position. While the former may yield a potential problem for the continuity of talk, the latter, although it, in form, signals a lack of knowledge, may just be a hedge (Weatherall in press) or may just function as an avoidance of commitment (Tsui 1991) in addition to many other functions. In either case, according to Beach and Metzger (1997), "whether a recipient producing 'I don't know' actually knows or not is a matter to be interactionally worked out" (p.568). There is a growing body of research on claims of insufficient knowledge (e.g. I don't knows), which have been carried out in different institutional settings including courtroom cross-examinations (Metzger and Beach 1996; Beach and Metzger 1997), child counselling (Hutchby 2002), and social investigation meetings (González-Martínez 2008). Furthermore, the phenomenon has been explored by employing different methodologies like Conversation Analysis (e.g. Pomerantz 1984b; Beach and Metzger 1997), Corpus Linguistics (Baumgarten and House 2010; Grant 2010), Discursive Psychology (O'Byrne et al. 2008), and a combination of CA and quantitative sociolinguistics (Pichler 2007). A review of research shows that the phenomenon has not been investigated using a multimodal methodology so far. In addition to this, to my knowledge, no studies have focused on claims of insufficient knowledge in classrooms or in any educational contexts.

Before going any further, I would like to clarify the terminology here. The papers mentioned so far, and the ones that will be cited, unless otherwise stated, do not reflect research on only 'I don't knows' (IDKs), simply because it is just one of the ways to claim insufficient knowledge. IDKs, and similar type of responses like 'no idea', have been considered within broader categories like non-answer responses (Stivers and Robinson 2006; Stivers and Enfield 2010; Stivers 2010). From a formal viewpoint, they

have also been included into a subcategory named 'no access responses' (Raymond 2003), which is in a broader category labelled 'non-PIC full clause', a response that "resists the format of a wh- question" (Fox and Thompson 2010, p.149). Furthermore, they have also been considered as one of the most frequent epistemic stance markers (Kärkkäinen 2003). Additionally, the only scholar within second language classroom research that labels this phenomenon in one instance is Markee (2004), and he refers to a student's use of 'no idea' as a "no knowledge claim" (p.585), although this is not the focus of his analysis in the paper. Claims of insufficient knowledge and no knowledge will be interchangeably used in this thesis to refer to non-answer responses provided as second pair parts to a teacher question/request. They will be classified in terms of actions they perform, which is claiming insufficient/lack of knowledge, and therefore will be in various verbal and visual, therefore multimodal forms as opposed to the studies reviewed in this chapter.

Tsui (1991) examined pragmatic functions of 'I don't know' in conversational data between native speakers of English and showed that a claim of insufficient knowledge in the form of 'I don't know' does not only occur in reply to information questions and may function as a preface to a disagreement, an avoidance of an explicit disagreement, a minimization of impolite beliefs, a marker of uncertainty, an avoidance of commitment and an avoidance of making an assessment. She maintains that the motivation for its production is "to minimise the face-threatening effect" (1991, p. 612). Kärkkäinen (2003), however, criticises Tsui's analysis for its "preoccupation with the notion of face at the expense of discussing textual functions" (cited in Heike 2007, p.175). According to Tsui:

> "It can be a strong disagreement if it is given immediately and is the major or sole component of the entire turn. Or it can also be a weak disagreement if it is pushed into the turn and prefaced by token agreements, hesitations, conversational particles, and the like" (p.615-16).

The assertion that an utterance like 'I don't know' can be linked to preference organisation was also mentioned by Sacks (1987) and Pomerantz (1984b). For Sacks (ibid.), 'I don't know', "as the beginning of an answer turn, characteristically precede something less than an agreement." (p.59). Additionally, as Pomerantz (1984a) discussed, a claim of insufficient knowledge may serve as a warrant for speakers' not giving assessments, since "assessments are properly based on the speakers' knowledge of what they assess. One of the ways of warranting a declination, then, is to deny the proper basis, that is, sufficient knowledge, for its production" (p.59).

In their pioneering study on claiming insufficient knowledge, Beach and Metzger (1997) showed that claims of insufficient knowledge may accomplish a variety of subtle actions:

> a) marking uncertainty and concerns about next-positioned opinions, assessments or troubles,
> b) constructing neutral positions, designed to mitigate agreement and disagreement, by disattending and seeking closure on other initiated topics,
> c) postponing or withholding acceptance of others' invited and requested actions (p.562).

Their study is based on courtroom cross-examinations, and as they claimed, claims of insufficient knowledge in ordinary, daily talk have "considerably more diverse functions and characteristics than institutional involvements" (p.581). However, the sequential positioning of IDKs, is not always a second pair-part to an adjacency pair. In sequentially a more similar examination (similar to the findings in this thesis), Hutchby (2002), using CA, explored how counsellors seek to elicit talk from children and focused on a child's IDKs in child counselling contexts. His analysis focused both "on the child's resistance strategies and on the counsellor's techniques for attempting to combat resistance and work towards a therapeutically relevant outcome" (p.147). He showed how 'I don't know' is used by the child repeatedly as a resistance strategy, and as a manifestation of his competence in managing avoidance of the counsellor's agenda. This research is relevant to the thesis in that the teacher's pedagogical agenda is also challenged by the students through claims of insufficient knowledge, although the teacher's strategies to overcome this may not be the same as a counsellor's due to the difference between the institutional goals of interaction.

In a very recent study, Weatherall (in press) looked at first positioned and syntactically complete IDKs that were pre-positioned or preliminary to a next thing within a turn in New Zealand, British, and American English Corpora of naturally occuring talk using CA. She showed that 'I don't know' can be used to disclaim knowledge in first assessments, to indicate upcoming exaggeration or non-literalness and as an alert to uncertainty. She further claimed that IDKs are preliminary TCUs where possible speaker change is effectively forestalled. In addition to this CA study, there are also studies that used a corpus linguistic approach for investigating the utterance 'I don't know'. Baumgarten and House (2010), for instance, compared the use of 'I think' and 'I don't know' in English as a lingua franca and in native English discourse. They found that 'I don't know' shows complementary distributions and only partially overlapping

functional profiles in English L1 and the ELF data. In a cross-linguistic study, Grant (2010) looked at the uses of 'I don't know' and 'I dunno' by British and New Zealand speakers. She found that the British speakers use the phrase "with different frequency and for different reasons than New Zealand speakers and both phrases are used most often as a hedge or marker of uncertainty" (p.2282).

Corpus linguistic studies have the risk of focusing only on lexical items, and therefore missing 'actions', which is a concern of my thesis. Besides, focusing on only 'I don't know', even in CA studies like Hutchby's and Weatherall's is problematic, as they miss other forms of claims of insufficient knowledge and do not consider the visual sources which can accompany verbal claims of insufficient knowledge or even may stand alone as claims of insufficient knowledge. In this thesis, I will fill the gap in the literature by addressing all these issues in classroom talk-in-interaction.

As was mentioned at the beginning of this section, IDKs have also been considered within the category of non-answer responses (Stivers and Robinson 2006; Stivers and Enfield 2010; Stivers 2010). The analysis of non-answer responses are highly relevant to the issue of conditional relevance and progressivity in talk. According to Stivers and Robinson (2006, p.369):

> "there are two primary ways in which the requirement of conditional relevance can be satisfied. First, a recipient can provide an answer. Second, as Heritage 1984 discusses, a recipient can provide a non-answer response which addresses the relevance of an answer, typically by providing an account for not answering".

The second point, however, is most of the time not the case in the analysis of my data. There are only few instances where students provide accounts for not answering. Therefore, CIK are mostly initiated as free-standing and a complete TCUs. Nevertheless, the principle of conditional relevance is satisfied in these cases, since a non-answer response can further the progress of an activity by teachers orientation to and treatment of such utterances through certain interactional resources. Yet, "although a non-answer response is normatively a viable action in response to a question, it is a dispreferred alternative" (p.371). They further indicate that the "interactants rank the preference for an answer higher than the preference for the selected next speaker to respond" (p.380). This finding is in line with the analysis of insufficient knowledge in this thesis, since the teacher prefers progressivity of talk by allocating the turn to another student or by some other means, which will be shown in the analysis chapter.

It should be noted that in this thesis, claiming insufficient knowledge as an 'action' has been taken as the central point of analysis. Therefore, although the literature on CIK takes utterances like IDK and shows that it may mark uncertainty at first or second position (Beach and Metzger 1997) or a pre-positioned hedge and a forward looking stance marker (Weatherall in press), I found in my analysis that the action of claiming insufficient knowledge in instructed learning environments occur as a second pair-part to a question and follow a teacher initiation. Yet, there are still many commonalities of my findings and the research cited so far, which will be discussed in chapter 5.

2.3 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have reviewed previous studies, which are relevant to this thesis in some way. The first section presented an overall understanding of the organisation of turn taking and sequence in classroom contexts, and addressed various dimensions and practices including turn-taking and turn-allocation, triadic dialogue, questions, and silence. In the second section, I reviewed research on understanding, learning from a CA perspective (with a focus on language learning), and claiming insufficient knowledge. The analysis chapter requires an understanding of the phenomena discussed in this chapter in addition to the forthcoming chapter, which introduces the methodology that is used in this thesis.

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.0 Introduction

In this chapter, a number of issues with regards to the tools used for collecting data, the methods used and the means of analysis will be explained. In 3.1, I will highlight the aims of the study and reintroduce the research questions with an emphasis on the significance and originality of this thesis. 3.2 will include detailed information on the research context, participants and data collection procedures. This will be followed by a section on the ways access was gained to the research context and issues on ethics. In 3.4, Conversation Analysis as an approach and methodology to investigate naturally occurring talk in instructed learning environments will be explored. In 3.5, background for the analysis carried out will be put forward, and the ways the collection is built and how features of talk-and-other-conduct are represented through transcripts will be clarified. The chapter will be concluded by addressing validity and reliability issues.

3.1 Purpose of the Study and the Research Questions

As was mentioned in the introduction chapter, the main aim of this thesis is to investigate 'claims of insufficient knowledge' and a teacher's interpretation of students' insufficient knowledge in two EAL classrooms in Luxembourg through a sequential, multimodal analysis. The significance and originality of this study is built on two methodological and contextual gaps in the literature of research on classroom discourse and talk-in-interaction; first of all, the phenomena being researched have not been addressed in language learning/teaching settings and classrooms in general. Secondly, as chapter two shows, no study thus far has explored claims of insufficient knowledge through a multimodal perspective that includes issues like gestures in their analysis. Thus, it can be claimed that this is the first study in Applied Linguistics and Classroom Discourse Research that thoroughly investigates the co-construction and management of 'insufficient knowledge'. Furthermore, this is the first study of the aforementioned phenomenon within the fields of social interaction and Conversation Analysis (henceforth CA) that rely on nonverbal and multimodal resources in addition to verbal features of talk. The following research questions have been posed in order to reveal the joint construction of 'insufficient knowledge' in the collected data:

1) How are claims of insufficient knowledge sequentially and temporally co-constructed within activity sequences in EAL classrooms?

 a) What relevant next teacher actions are projected by them?

 b) In what ways are they embodied in social actions?

2) How does the teacher interpret 'insufficient knowledge' when there are no verbal claims from students?

 a) Which student nonverbal cues lead to a 'teacher interpretation' of insufficient knowledge?

 b) How does the teacher demonstrate orientation to and interpretation of insufficient knowledge?

3) What are the interactional resources the teacher employs in order to engage students in interaction after a 'claim of insufficient knowledge'?

The first research question, which will be addressed in 4.1, will describe the sequential unfolding of claims of insufficient knowledge in various activities in two language classrooms, not only by describing the verbal constructions of turns and participants' orientations to them, but also by paying attention to nonverbal phenomena that may have an impact on claiming insufficient knowledge. The second research question will aim at revealing the nonverbal cues the teacher is orienting to while making 'insufficient knowledge' relevant for talk. As the analysis in 4.2 will clarify, one can only argue for a teacher's orientation and interpretation of insufficient knowledge when he makes it relevant for the learners (and for the analyst) by initiating an 'epistemic status check'. Lastly, the third research question aims at understanding various interactional resources a teacher employs in order to pursue his pedagogical agenda, thus creating opportunities for student participation even after a claim of insufficient knowledge. The details for addressing each research question will be made clear in the following chapter. The following section will give comprehensive information on the participants, the research setting and context, and the data collection procedures.

3.2 Participants, Research Context, and Data Collection Procedures

As was mentioned earlier, the data for this research comes from two 'English as an Additional Language' classrooms in a public school (Lycée Josy Barthel) in Luxembourg. The data collection was carried out between the beginning of June 2010 and the end of July 2010, during which I was in Luxembourg as a visiting researcher. A

colleague from University of Luxembourg was available to help for carrying out the recordings during the data collection process. The data collected will form part of a bigger database named Inter-E Corpus (International English Corpus), therefore, permissions were granted also with the help of the University of Luxembourg. 'English as an Additional Language' is integrated into the curriculum of these two classes, one of which is a10[th] grade and the other an 11th grade classroom. The students in both classrooms have the same proficiency level in English (Intermediate), working with the same course book (New Headway Intermediate) in addition to various materials the teacher brings to the classrooms. The 10th grade has three classroom hours (45 minutes each) of English as an additional language, whereas the 11th grade has two hours of instruction each week. The former has 19 students, while the latter has 13 students seated in a U-shaped arrangement. There is a balance in both classrooms in terms of gender, so there is no male or female dominance. The age of the students range from 15 to 18. All the students, having grown up in Luxembourg, speak three languages other than English. The languages spoken outside the classroom are Luxembourgish, German, and French in addition to English due to the multicultural nature of Luxembourg. It should be noted that there are also three students (in the 11th grade) from immigrant backgrounds (Portuguese and Italian), therefore these students are competent users of more than four languages.

There is one teacher for both classrooms, who was also born and raised in Luxembourg. He is also multilingual, sharing four languages (including English) with the students. The teacher has a master's degree in TESOL from a UK university and has gone through pre-service teacher education in Luxembourg. He has more than three years of teaching experience at this level. During the data collection process, the teacher was teaching 20 hours a week, 5 of which were included in the data of this thesis. One may argue that drawing generalisations on a particular discourse phenomenon relying on only one practitioner can be problematic in classroom research. However, one of the leading studies on classroom interaction, Mehan (1979a), draws on one teacher and nine lessons, so participation of one teacher can be claimed to be appropriate and valid.

In addition to this, having only one teacher is not considered as a validity problem due to the nature of the conversation analytic approach. CA enables researchers to draw detailed and focused conclusions on a given interaction, and the number of participants is not a concern since the main aim is to describe the actions achieved by any limited

number of participants in a multi-party talk. Secondly, I have no intention to carry out a comparative analysis in terms of the skills of teachers in relation to the phenomena I am investigating. The particular aim is to describe the interactional unfolding of claims of insufficient knowledge in the given context, no matter how many teachers and students are subject to examination. Furthermore, a review of literature shows that CA is used in studies where the focus is on one teacher or on one student (e.g. Hellermann 2009b). Such studies proved to be efficient ways into investigating social actions throughout the history of conversation analytic research.

The materials used in both researched classrooms represented a wide range of pedagogical foci, the materials used included short stories and literature books as well as various texts and exercises from the students' course book, and from supplementary materials brought to the classrooms by the teacher. Some of the materials have been used in both classrooms, including texts on railway stations and social conscience in the book, and a short story titled *My Son the Fanatic*. This is why grammar and vocabulary focus converged in both classrooms, and this also shows the assumed equal proficiency levels of the students in these two different classrooms. Since teaching English may be affected by the policies of the country the research is carried out, some basic information should be given about the language policies in Luxembourg.

According to Redinger (2010), the official recognition of Luxembourgish, French, and German "is accompanied by the presence of various immigrant languages as well as an increasing use of English as a language of communication" (p. 33). Redinger (ibid.) further states that languages play an important role in Luxembourg's education system both in the form of media of instruction and taught school subjects. His research shows that 35 to 40 per cent of school lessons are dedicated to language teaching at primary and secondary school level. French and German are compulsory languages throughout schooling. English, as an additional language, is "introduced at secondary school level where students can also opt to study Latin, Italian, and Spanish" (2010, p.40). Luxembourg is a case of successful triglossia by legal protection and by education (Davis 1994). According to Gardner-Chloros (1997), in Europe only Belgium, Luxembourg, and Switzerland have several official languages, but "their multilingualism, at least in the cases of Belgium and Switzerland, owes more to the competitive struggles of separate monolingual communities than to the harmonious plurilingualism of their populations" (p. 192). This suggests that Luxembourg is a

particular case compared to other European countries, since multilingualism is well integrated into schooling and social life and does not necessarily depend on ethnic boundaries.

The data for this research were collected over eight weeks, including the classroom observation process, in Mamer, Luxembourg. Before the recordings were done, the lessons were observed. The video recordings consist of 16 classroom hours (45 minutes each) over a six weeks period. 11 hours of this collection come from the 10th grade, whereas 5 hours come from the 11th grade. This can be considered more than adequate for a CA based classroom research drawing on Seedhouse's (2004) claim that a total of between five and ten lessons has generally been considered a reasonable database to be able to generalise and draw conclusions. As the lead researcher, I was available during each class as a non-participant observer. Two digital video cameras were set at the beginning of each session, one focused on the teacher and one focused on the students to capture all details of nonverbal behaviours of the participants. In addition to this, five voice recorders were located in different parts of the classroom to capture the talk going on in different parts of the class and to ensure the voice quality. Heath (2004) claims that video-based research within CA has been significantly influential in the field, since "nonverbal behaviour is no longer treated as a distinct channel of communication, in isolation from talk and other aspects of human interaction" (p.278). Moreover, according to Heath et al. (2010):

> "In many cases a single video camera will suffice. Indeed, multiple cameras tend to complicate data collection and analysis. However, there are settings and activities that demand the use of more than one camera, especially where a single view severely constrains or even undermines the ability to analyse the activity of interest ... In certain circumstances, it may be necessary to simultaneously record the activities of participants in different physical locations"(p.53).

Following this quotation, it can be claimed that the use of multiple cameras were necessary with regard to the research questions of this thesis, since the use of multimodal resources is an integral part of the analyses. Video-recordings, however, require the researchers to pay attention to certain sensitivities in relation to ethics in research. Therefore, the following section will be devoted to how access was gained to the research context and how issues about the research ethics were handled.

3.3 Gaining Access to the Research Context and Ethics

According to McKay (2006), if you anticipate a research project will involve learners and teachers in a particular school, "you should make initial contact with key administrators as soon as possible in order to get permission to work there" (p.27). In order to gain access to the classrooms in Lycée Josy Barthel, with an initiative of the DICA (Research on Development Interaction Cognition and Activity) lab in University of Luxembourg, a colleague and I contacted the school administration personally. After getting permission for recording the classrooms, the teacher was informed and he became a volunteer for this research. Informed consent is very important for ethical approval bodies, and it is normally obtained, as Heath et al. (2010) put it, "by providing participants with an information sheet about the research and then, they are asked to sign a form confirming their permission and participation" (p.17). The teacher and the students, therefore, have been given sufficient information about the research project in general and have been given a document to sign (see appendix B (10th grade) and appendix C (11th grade) for a sample of consent documents from each class). One should, of course, consider the rights of the participants in the interaction. These rights, according to ten Have (2007, p.79), concern three basic rights to refuse:

1. to be recorded or to give access to the situation for recording purposes;
2. to grant permission to use the recording for research purposes;
3. public display or publication of the recordings in one form or another. (p.79)

The participants in this research accepted all these conditions and signed the documents. All interactants, including the teacher, were informed on the researchers' aim and academic interests in relation to this data collection, the data collection procedure and its duration, confidentiality of the data, and their right to withdraw whenever they want. Another issue in relation to research ethics is the age of the participants. According to McKay (2006, p.25), "when participants in a study are minors, informed consent forms should be obtained from parents or guardians". Therefore, apart from a few students, who were already 18 years old, the parents signed the documents. A further issue to consider is the participant comprehension in informed consent. The researcher, as Mackey and Gass (2005) suggest, "is responsible for ensuring participant comprehension" (p.31). To overcome this issue, the documents were originally prepared in French language so that the parents and students could easily understand the content in one of their first languages.

The last issue to consider is the anonymity of the participants. The students and the teacher were informed that their names would be anonymous in any publications including this thesis. Throughout the extracts in the analysis chapter, the teacher is referred to as 'Tea'. The extracts in the analysis chapter include only some of the students, and their names have been changed and abbreviated as follows:

* 10th grade: Emily (Eml), Flynn (Fln), Eve (Eve), Lara (Lar), Luca (Luc), Noah (Noa), Tom (Tom), Sam (Sam), Tim (Tim), Joo (Joo), Lena (Len), Luca (Lu2)

* 11th grade: Marie (Mar), Ben (Ben), Yann (Yan), Luca (Lu3), Jan (Jan), Emily (Em2)

It should be mentioned that the students who share the same name were given abbreviations with numbers (e.g. Em2), and the abbreviations consist of only three characters for consistency in the transcripts. Details on the transcription will be given in 3.5. The following section will present the background of and detailed information on CA as a method and approach in the thesis. The section will also justify why CA has been adopted as the main methodological tool.

3.4 Conversation Analysis

CA "has evolved from ethnomethodology, a sociological approach that challenged sociology's standard epistemology" (Kasper and Wagner 2011, p.117). Started by sociologists Harvey Sacks and Emanuel A. Schegloff in early 1960s as a "naturalistic observational discipline that could deal with the details of social action rigorously, empirically, and formally" (Schegloff and Sacks 1973, p.289), CA aims to "describe, analyse, and understand talk as a basic and constitutive feature of human social life" (Sidnell 2010, p.1). As an approach to the study of talk-in-interaction, CA grew out of ethnomethodology as developed by Garfinkel (1964; 1967), which studies "the common sense resources, practices and procedures through which members of a society produce and recognise mutually intelligible objects, events and courses of action" (Liddicoat 2007, p.2). During the early days of CA, scholars aimed at describing the organization of ordinary conversations like talk between friends. CA further developed to investigate institutional talk including classroom discourse (e.g. McHoul 1978). The basic principles of CA, according to Seedhouse (2005, p.166-67), are as follows:

1) There is order at all points in interaction: Talk in interaction is systematically organised, deeply ordered and methodic.
2) Contributions to interaction are context-shaped and context-renewing: Contributions to interaction cannot be adequately understood except by reference to the sequential environment in which they occur and in which the participants design them to occur. They also form part of the sequential environment in which a next contribution will occur.
3) No order of detail can be dismissed a priori as disorderly, accidental, or irrelevant (Heritage 1984, p.241): CA has a detailed transcription system, and a highly empirical orientation.
4) Analysis is bottom-up and data driven: The data should not be approached with any prior theoretical assumptions, regarding, for example, power, gender, or race; unless there is evidence in the details of the interaction that the interactants themselves are orienting to it.

Before going through further details about the methodology, I will address some of the issues above in relation to my research. The first item suggests that there is an inherent system in interaction; it is ordered and methodic. This opposes the Chomskyan understanding of naturally occurring talk, which claims that it is arbitrary and disordered, therefore cannot be subject to linguistic analysis. I chose to adopt a CA perspective in my thesis rather than working on invented sentences to understand the phenomenon of claiming insufficient knowledge in naturally occurring classroom talk. The second item refers to the idea that speaker turns in classroom interaction are context shaped and context renewing. Students and the teacher make sense of each other's turns and their next contribution is designed on their understanding of each other's contributions. While analysing my data, I closely looked at the sequential unfolding of talk in order to understand the phenomenon being investigated, and evidence to claims are only brought when participants orient to each others' turns at talk. This next-turn-proof procedure is a basic premise of my analysis, and this participant driven analysis contributed to my understanding of claims of insufficient knowledge. Thirdly, CA transcription system used in this thesis is designed to capture all details of talk and visual phenomenon, although a perfect match between the recordings and the transcripts cannot be possible. The obsession with details including suprasegmentals, temporality, and visual aspects became a robust way of understanding the data. Lastly, the analysis was data-driven, and no prior theories or assumptions affected my interpretations. No assumptions have been made in relation to identities or competencies unless the participants themselves made them relevant in talk.

The nature of turn-taking in talk-in-interaction is at the heart of CA (Hutchby and Wooffitt 2008). Adjacency pairs, repair, and preference are other basic notions in

relation to interactional organisation. Turn taking practices, in relation to classroom talk, have been reviewed in the previous chapter. The basic unit of analysis in CA is a Turn Constructional Unit (TCU), which can form the turns at talk. Yet, "a single turn-at-talk can be built out of several TCUs" (Sidnell 2010, p. 41). These TCUs, which are points of possible completion, create Transition Relevance Places (TRPs), so that another speaker can take the floor. This basic turn-taking mechanism forms an adjacency pair (e.g. question-answer, invitation-declination). There are certain rules on how turns are distributed (see Sacks et al. 1974, p.704), and therefore how actions are accomplished. A formulation of an adjacency pair, as formulated by Schegloff and Sacks (1973, p.295) is as follows:

> "given the recognisable production of a first pair part, on its first possible completion its speaker should stop and a next speaker should start and produce a second pair part from the pair type the first is recognisably a member of."

Adjacency pairs, of course, can be expanded, or other pairs can be inserted between a first pair part and a second pair part of an adjacency pair. Space precludes a full account of adjacency pairs, insertion, and expansion sequences, but see Schegloff (2007) for a full account of the phenomena. The issue of preference is closely related to the term adjacency pair, since "certain first pair parts make alternative actions relevant in second position" (Hutchby and Wooffitt 2008, p.46). Thus, offers can be accepted (preferred action), and requests can be declined (dispreferred action).

Another term that is key to CA is repair. Repair can be defined as "the treatment of trouble occurring in interactive language use" (Seedhouse 2004, p.34). Seedhouse further suggests that repair is a vital mechanism for the maintenance of reciprocity of perspectives and intersubjectivity, which is "the constant production, recognition and display of mutual 'understandings' between speakers during conversation" (Gardner and Forrester 2010, p. IX). Anything can be repairable in talk. It can be initiated due to a hearing problem, a request for clarification, or any problem that influences the continuity of talk. It is, therefore, a key method for participants in talk-in-interaction to pursue mutual understanding and is in close relation to progressivity in talk. There are four types of repair with respect to who initiates and who repairs: self-initiated self repair, self-initiated other repair, other-initiated self repair, and other-initiated other repair. There can be slight differences in the employment of repair in different contexts,

especially in the contexts where there is an asymmetry between the level of knowledge of the participants (i.e. classrooms).

In my analysis, I closely investigated turn-taking, repair, and preference organisation on sequential basis so as to fulfil the requirements of a CA approach to the construction and management of insufficient knowledge. This was a key process for understanding of the phenomenon in relation to rules and regulations of classroom discourse. The analysis was also informed by previous research on L2 classroom talk (Markee 2000; Seedhouse 2004). Seedhouse showed that there are four micro-contexts (see chapter 2) each of which bear different features in relation to turn taking, repair and preference organisation in L2 classroom talk. This issue of micro-contexts will be addressed in the analysis. Another point in relation to context, being a language classroom, is how claims of insufficient knowledge are enacted and managed by the participants, as different from the findings of previous research in different institutional settings. This will be addressed in the discussion chapter.

Space precludes a full account of CA in this chapter. In the following paragraphs, I will try to justify why I adopted this methodology rather than other methodologies used in classroom discourse research (e.g. Discourse Analysis, Corpus Linguistics). Since CA is obsessed with details in talk, I was able to see how pauses, stretching of sounds, pace of talk, intonation etc. could influence the co-construction of insufficient knowledge. Besides, the close analysis of visual aspects of talk like gaze directions, head movements, and face gestures enabled me to further understand the micro-details of the phenomenon being investigated. If I had used a Discourse Analytic methodology, I would have to code turns that stand for certain functions. This proves to be problematic in my research, since multiple actions can be performed within a turn-in-talk, as will be showed in the analysis chapter.

Secondly, a corpus linguistic analysis (with/out insights from qualitative discourse analysis) would only let me focus on lexical items, since it is almost impossible to code nonverbal phenomena using corpus linguistic software. Besides, for example, not all 'I don't knows' are claims of insufficient knowledge (see the review of literature). So frequency analysis would negatively affect the validity and reliability of the thesis. In addition to these, I did not use interviews, stimulated recalls, or focus groups to bring further evidence to my analysis. This is because the approach I take, through

understanding and bringing evidence on sequential basis to how participants make sense of each other's turn at talk, is effective to understand how insufficient knowledge is co-constructed and managed. This is hidden in CA's emic approach to analysis, and is closely related to basing one's arguments on participants' own understandings of each others' talk.

There are, of course, certain limitations of the CA methodology that may impinge on the findings of the study. One important problem is that although CA relies on both transcripts and recordings, "it is often the transcripts that are used for presentation and publication" (Jenks 2006, p.80). It is, however, a paradoxical issue that the transcriber determines what to transcribe, and this cannot always reflect all the details of a particular context. Another limitation is what Labov (1972) calls the observer's paradox: the observation of a given event may be influenced by the fact that there is an ongoing observation. This indicates that participants may change their natural behaviours, as they are aware of the fact that they are being observed. However, the only thing a CA researcher can do is to make sure s/he is not intrusive, since recordings are the only ways to capture naturally occurring talk.

3.5 Transcription, Building a Collection, and Data Analysis

In CA, naturally occurring talk should be first recorded, and then transcribed; and transcriptions allow the analyst to see the complex nature of talk captured in an easily usable, static format (Liddicoat 2007). According to Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008), the transcription of data is a procedure at the core of the analysis in two important respects:

> "First, transcription is a necessary initial step in enabling the analysis of recorded interaction in the way that CA requires. Secondly, the practice of transcription and production of transcript represent a distinctive stage in the process of data analysis itself" (p.69).

Thus, transcription becomes the orthographic representation of the data, the recordings, which then becomes the basis of the analysis. As it is often stressed, "transcripts are not the data of CA, but rather a convenient way to capture and present the phenomena of interest in written form" (ten Have 2007, p.95). One can claim that any transcription performed by different researchers can potentially be influenced by researchers' own theoretical stance or approach to the core data. According to Lapadat and Lindsay (1999), the choices that researchers make about transcription "enact the theories they

hold and constrain the interpretations they can draw from their data" (p.64). In order to overcome potential reliability problems, standard transcription systems have been developed by CA researchers. For the analytic purposes of this thesis, I adopted a commonly known and widely used transcription system adapted from Gail Jefferson (see Hutchby and Wooffitt 2008).

The transcription system used for the purposes of this study (appendix A) has been developed to represent various features of talk in written form including temporal aspects like pauses and overlaps, prosodic aspects like pitch, stress, prolongation, pace of talk, and many other features like cut offs. The basic procedure for CA transcription is to first transcribe the vocal features of talk, and then add the visual information on a separate line (ten Have 2007). Visual aspects of transcripts have been well documented in many studies so far (e.g. Goodwin 1981, 1984; Heath 1984). For the purposes of my research, I used a + sign to mark the onset of nonverbal behaviour, which proved to be a convenient way of marking visual behaviour. The reason for simplifying the complex way of transcription found in previous studies was that I used detailed screenshots and integrated them into the extracts to enhance clarity for readers. **#** sign was also used for the screenshots to show the readers the exact location of the images in the transcripts. Another challenging issue for the readers in my extracts is the representation of multilingual talk that exists in some of the given examples. I highlighted English translations in *italics* and placed them after the nonverbal representations in each turn.

For archiving and representational purposes, each extract in the thesis has a code for identification (e.g. Extract 6: Chocolate, 18_15_06_10_1_25-38). In extract 6, for instance, 18 stands for the number of extract in the whole collection, so that I can easily find it in the database of Transana software (Woods and Fassnacht 2010). 15 stands for the day, while 06 stands for the month (June). 10 represents the 10th grade, and 1 represents the first class of the day the data was collected. Lastly, 25 stands for the exact minute and 38 for the exact second. Annotation of data is an important step while building a database and of course while building a collection of a phenomenon being investigated.

For Sidnell (2010), once an interesting phenomenon has been located, one can start gathering instances of it into a collection. According to him, the reason for making collections rather than basing the analysis on the first or the most interesting case is that

"different cases reveal different aspects or features of a phenomenon" (2010, p.31). Before going into details of how the collection was built and how the analysis was carried out in this thesis, I want to summarise the basic steps I went through from the very beginning, which also reflects the way a CA research project is started and carried out:

1) Watching the whole data set numerous times,

2) Starting the initial, less detailed transcriptions with an unmotivated look and taking notes of initial observations,

3) Locating an action sequence after initially deciding on the phenomenon to be investigated,

4) Examining the action sequences in terms of turn taking, repair, and preference organisation,

5) Detailed transcriptions (including visual, nonverbal phenomena) of most interesting cases,

6) Building a collection and carrying out detailed analyses.

After digitalising the collected data and naming all the files, I uploaded the videos to Transana Software (2.42b, Mac version) and synchronised the teacher and learner cameras. Transana offers facilities to include basic Jeffersonian symbols, to add time codes to link the audiovisual files and the transcript and is very helpful for databasing and organising (ten Have 2007). After going through a period of unmotivated observations and simplified transcriptions, I identified the phenomenon to be investigated for my thesis, 'claiming insufficient knowledge'. First, I went through detailed transcriptions of the most representative cases, identifying the action sequences. Following this, going through the whole 16 hours of recordings numerous times, I started building a collection for both verbal and embodied claims of insufficient knowledge. This process was followed by building the sub-collection, the teacher's interpretation of insufficient knowledge. All verbal and nonverbal features of the interactions were carefully analysed in detail, and the screenshots were integrated into the extracts. A total of 52 extracts, 18 of which have been included in the analysis chapter have been collected.

As was mentioned in the previous section, 'idealisation' of transcriptions is a major problem in CA since transcriptions cannot be a perfect reflection of the actual

recordings, but publications draw on these transcriptions. Although the CA transcription system used in this thesis covers all micro-details of talk and represents many interactional features, both through orthographic symbols and pictures, it is difficult to avoid the effect of the transcriber. This problem is accompanied by the representation of multilingual talk in transcriptions, as there is an issue of translation, which may not always be accurate. In this research, for instance, although I lived in Luxembourg for almost a year, and have knowledge in German, my lack of linguistic skills in Luxembourgish and French can be problematic. The translations, therefore, were made by native speaker colleagues of mine working with me on the data, which can be a potential limitation of the study.

3.6 Validity

As Kirk and Miller (1986) and Silverman (2001) state, "the issues of reliability and validity are important, because in them the objectivity and credibility of (social scientific) research is at stake" (cited in Peräkylä 2004, p.283). CA's use of a very restricted database is often seen as a severe limitation of the validity of its findings (ten Have 2007). However, from a CA viewpoint, for ten Have (ibid.), it is rather a strong point for analytic results, if they are built up solely from recorded data. The issue of validity is directly related to the emic perspective a CA analysis is built upon. CA researchers, as Seedhouse (2004) puts forward, "cannot make any claims beyond what is demonstrated by the interactional detail without destroying the emic perspective and hence the whole validity of the enterprise" (p.314). Therefore, one can argue that bringing evidence to claims made through a detailed sequential analysis is 'valid'. This is interwoven with the next-turn-proof procedure in that "any utterance that is produced in talk-in-interaction will be locally interpreted by the participants of that interaction" (Peräkylä 2004, p.291).

In this thesis, the internal validity is present in that claims of insufficient knowledge and the teacher's interpretation of insufficient knowledge is evidenced through participants' own understanding and their orientations to each other's turns, from a strictly emic perspective. Another type of validity that has to be mentioned is 'external validity' (Bryman 2001), which is concerned with generalisability. Generalisability here refers to the idea of extending the findings beyond the specific classrooms investigated in this research. The growing body of Conversation Analytic research has shown that findings

on various interactional phenomena both in mundane talk and in institutional talk bear commonalities in many respects. One example can be the basic systematics of turn-taking in classroom talk (e.g. Seedhouse 2004; Markee 2000). In my research, I illustrated that turn allocation and turn taking practices, for instance, follow the same teacher-directedness as have been found in previous research. However, I cannot claim that the phenomenon being investigated (co-construction and management of insufficient knowledge) will show the same features in different classrooms, since this is the first systematic research on this phenomenon. Nevertheless, drawing on the findings, the phenomenon is enacted in similar ways in two classrooms, which is an important step for its generalisability to further contexts in the future.

3.7 Reliability

Reliability is defined by Kirk and Miller (1986) as the degree "to which the findings are independent of accidental circumstances of the research" (cited in Peräkylä 2004, p.285). Key aspects of reliability are selection of recordings, technical quality, and the adequacy of transcripts (Peräkylä ibid.). The first two aspects are extremely important for the later stages of research, since they not only have impact on the third aspect, but also have potential to positively or negatively influence the outcomes of the project in general. Selection of recordings, especially in classroom-based research, is crucial for the whole project and is directly linked to the research questions. Nevertheless, the issue of relying solely on the initial research questions is not a big issue for CA research, since CA is extremely data-driven and the observations will be made regardless of the previous intentions of the researcher. Nevertheless, when it comes to classroom research, content of the lessons should be known so as to have background information on the type of instruction in the classroom. In my research, I did not have a previous motivation to investigate a particular language skill (speaking, reading, etc.), therefore the teacher taught whatever there was in his syllabus. In addition to this, reliability of the research was also satisfied by collecting 16 hours of recordings in over two months (see the discussion on the adequacy of recordings in section 3.2).

The second aspect, technical quality, is very crucial for the transcription process. There are different dimensions of technical quality including the positioning of the camera and its movement as well as the quality of the video and sound. Before starting filming, it is critical to become familiar with the setting (Heath et al. 2010). I located a fixed camera

with a tripod to view the students in the most suitable corner of the classroom, and one fixed at the teacher, with a tripod, which I could control from where I was sitting at the back of the class. Therefore, I could capture most of the events going on in the class and meanwhile was not disturbing the class by any means. The quality of the recordings were ensured by using high quality Sony HD cameras and external microphones as well as locating five voice recorders to different parts of the classroom. Lastly, adequacy of transcripts has been satisfied in a number of ways. First of all, a standard transcription system has been used, on which I was trained in a module during my first year as a PhD student. Secondly, transcriptions have been subject to observations of many researchers in 5 different data sessions in 2010 and 2011 in MARG (Micro Analysis Research Group) data sessions at Newcastle University.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter presented the methodological background of the thesis and introduced detailed information about the data collection tools and procedures as well as various issues including ethics, validity, and reliability. Drawing on the research questions and the theoretical stance of the researcher, it can be stated that a multimodal, Conversation Analytic methodology is the most suitable one for the purposes of this thesis. Many issues discussed in this chapter with respect to transcriptions and data analysis procedures will be justified in the following chapter while presenting detailed analyses of the examples of the phenomenon being investigated. 18 extracts from a collection of 52 extracts will be analysed in the analysis chapter, each of which will reflect the methodological and theoretical stance taken by the researcher.

Chapter 4. Data Analysis

4.0 Introduction

This chapter will present research findings which address the research questions in relation to the sequential unfolding of claims of insufficient knowledge (CIK). Using a detailed microanalysis that draws on the theoretical underpinnings and principles of Conversation Analysis (CA), CIK are first described and then considered in terms of how they are interpreted and managed by a teacher in two EAL classrooms in Luxembourg. The chapter is organised in three sections each of which aims to address the research questions given in the previous chapter. In the first section, I will describe the selected extracts of classroom activities, which comprise the majority of the examples in the database. The analysis of these extracts will uncover: (1) the basis on which a student claims no knowledge (i.e. not engaging in mutual gaze with the teacher before or during the allocation of turns), (2) the ways in which claims of insufficient knowledge are delivered (e.g. how they are embodied, silences etc.), and (3) the most common next-actions they project for the teacher (e.g. allocating the turn to another student). Here, the analysis will reveal how the teacher makes 'no knowledge' (the term 'no knowledge' will be used interchangeably with 'insufficient knowledge') relevant in the interaction following a nonverbal cue (including silence, gaze, and body orientations, etc.). Section 4.3 will exemplify how the teacher employs a variety of resources subsequent to a claim of insufficient knowledge, so as to enhance further participation from the students.

The data have been presented according to the Jeffersonian transcription system (see appendix A). The system has been adapted according to the needs of the analysis. For example, + sign has been used in order to mark the onset of a visual/nonverbal behaviour (e.g. averting gaze). In addition to this, screenshots have been integrated into the extracts where relevant. These visual representations, hopefully, will make the data more accessible for the readers. Since not all visual aspects have been represented with screenshots, # sign has been used where relevant to show the location of the screenshot at the exact moment in talk.

4.1 The Sequential Unfolding of Claims of Insufficient Knowledge: Recipiency, Teacher Follow-up, and Embodiment

This section will cover the most common (and frequent) examples of claims of insufficient knowledge found in the data in terms of how they are sequentially positioned by the students and how they are oriented to by the teacher. The analysis of the following seven extracts will illustrate a variety of phenomena to describe the sequential unfolding of CIK. It will be shown that in the classrooms, a verbal CIK is always initiated as a second pair part of a question-answer adjacency pair, in the form of a non-answer response. A non-answer response (e.g. I don't know) is a type of response that fails "to collaborate with promoting the progress of the activity through the sequence" (Stivers and Robinson 2006, p.373). These non-answer responses under investigation in this section project two kinds of teacher response in the follow-up turn, as will be examined in detail. They may either be oriented to in a way that makes students' no knowledge accountable (e.g. 'you don't know?'), or alter speakership by the teacher allocating the turn to another student, or by self-selection or nomination for turn by another learner. It will be argued that a student's claim of insufficient knowledge is dispreferred, following that there is a "preference for answers over non-answer responses as a category of a response" (Stivers and Robinson 2006, p. 367).

As was discussed in chapter 2, engaging in mutual gaze to establish recipiency and display willingness to talk are resources that are employed in second language classrooms (Mortensen 2008). Therefore, this section will also present how failing to establish mutual gaze with the students, and some other gaze orientations (i.e. averting gaze) can be consequential in talk and may lead to claims of insufficient knowledge. The relevance of nonverbal behaviour for the analysis in this section will be further demonstrated by illustrating the ways a verbal CIK is accompanied by different facial and gestural expressions. Each extract will be analysed in its own right by paying detailed attention to how the pedagogical activity unfolds. After the analysis of all extracts, overall findings will be summarised. Reference will be made to pedagogical foci and classroom micro-contexts at the end of each section.

Extract 1 given below is a typical example of the interactional management of CIK in classrooms: the teacher asks a question to a student before establishing mutual gaze, the student claims insufficient knowledge in the second pair-part, and the teacher allocates the

turn to a willing speaker in the follow up turn. This exchange structure is typical of most of the examples in the data. In this particular episode, the students are reading and discussing a short story (titled *My Son the Fanatic* by Hanif Kureishi) led by the teacher's questions.

Extract 1: Ali's behavior, 44_08_06_11_38-33.

```
1      Tea: do ↑you think that ali's behavior is acceptable or
2           appropri↓ate (.) do you think it is okay for him to
3           speak like that to:: (0.7)to a woman like Bettina.
                         +gazes at Mar
4           (0.6) ((Mar keeps looking at the text))
5      Tea: Marie what do you think?
6           +points at Mar
```
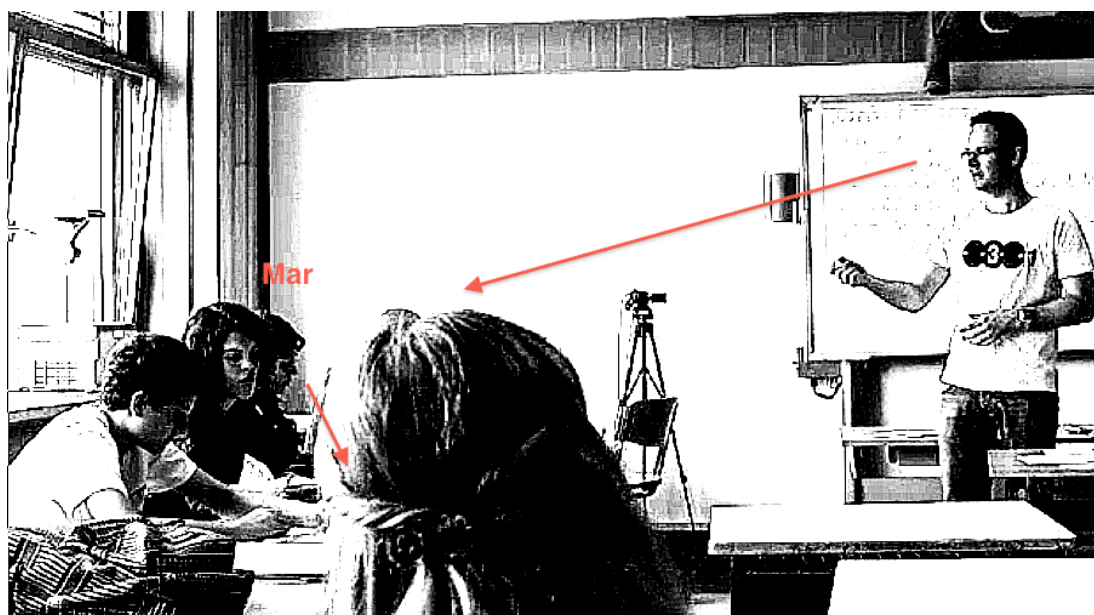

Figure 1

```
7           (1.1)
8  →   Mar: °i don't know it°.
9           (3.3)((Ben moves to an upright position
                  and looks at Tea))
```

Figure 2   Figure 3

```
10    Tea:  ((establishes mutual gaze with Ben))
11          (0.9)
12    Tea:  ben.
13    Ben:  yes: and ↑no.
```

From lines 1 to 3, Tea asks a couple of questions about the main character Ali and his attitude to his father's friend Bettina. The teacher's body is oriented to Mar and he gazes at her while Mar is looking at the text and is not gazing at the teacher. In line 3, the teacher tries to obtain Mar's gaze by stretching a sound ('to::), a long pause and a restart (Goodwin 1980). However, he fails to establish mutual gaze with the student, and Mar keeps her gaze directed to the text in front of her (see figure 1).

After a 0.6 second silence, he selects Mar as the next speaker with 'individual nomination' (Mehan 1979a) by saying her name and by also pointing at her (line 5). According to Kääntä (2010), gaze together with pointing indicates to the learner that she is the next speaker while "the student's name in the allocation performs this function for the rest of the class" (p. 168). Yet, Mar is still looking at the text on her desk. Following a 1.1 second silence, Mar initiates a claim of insufficient knowledge (°i don't know it°.) with a quiet voice in line 8, her gaze still fixed on the material, but not on the teacher. Mar's claim of no knowledge makes it relevant not only to the teacher, but also to the other students that a speaker change may follow in the next turn. Although the other students keep avoiding mutual gaze with the teacher, during a long wait time after Mar's turn (3.3 sec.), Ben makes himself available to be selected as the next speaker by moving his body to an upright position and looking at the teacher (figure 2 and figure 3). Then, the teacher nominates Ben as the next speaker in line 12. Therefore, it can be claimed that Ben is displaying his willingness to talk, since he makes himself visibly available as a respondent to Tea's question, engages in mutual gaze, establishes recipiency with the teacher, and initiates the second part of the adjacency pair with no

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hesitations. Drawing on this short extract, some initial observations can be made with regards to the interactional management of claims of no knowledge.

First of all, failing to establish mutual gaze before/while initiating a first-pair part (i.e. a teacher question), as many extracts in this chapter will show, may lead to a claim of no knowledge and this may have relevance to 'willingness to talk'. However, it should also be mentioned that Mar is orienting to the text and there is an embodiment and orientation to a classroom artefact, which has an impact on gaze orientations of the student. Secondly, there are long silences before and after the claim of insufficient knowledge in this extract. One reason for this may be that the teacher asks a question that addresses a student's stance (`Marie what do you think?`), which may project a slightly longer time to get a response. The teacher waits for a long time before he allocates the turn to another student, with no repair initiation. Nonetheless, it should be noted that this is a pedagogically driven choice for the teacher since in form and accuracy contexts (Seedhouse 2004) where there is also a focus on material, there may be less pauses and little teacher wait time. However, during the activity in this extract, the focus is on meaning, so more wait time after teacher questions may be conducive for student participation (see Seedhouse and Walsh 2010 for a discussion on increased wait time and interactional space). It should be noted that in this chapter, the meaning of wait time and silence mostly overlaps; however, wait time especially refers to situations where a teacher initiates a turn but there is no immediate second pair part to his first pair part. Nevertheless, both terms can be used interchangeably. Lastly, a claim of no knowledge typically projects an allocation of the turn to another student (but see section 4.3), preferably to one who makes herself nonverbally or verbally available as a next speaker.

Claims of insufficient knowledge may result in different teacher actions in the follow up turns depending on the classroom artefacts involved (e.g. a book) and the pedagogical goal(s) of the teacher. The following extract is another typical example for the management of claims of insufficient knowledge in language classrooms. Extract 2 is taken from a material oriented classroom task in which the students are required to match the meanings of vocabulary items in two different lists (see appendix D). This supplementary material was prepared by the teacher to practice vocabulary, based on a text in New Headway Intermediate (Soars and Soars 2009, p.74). Before the beginning of the activity, the students have been given about 10 minutes to match the items by

themselves. The structure of the activity, in terms of turn taking and distribution, is in the form of round robins (Mortensen and Hazel 2011), which is a traditional and "rigid form of classroom organisation that reduces students' contributions to responses to the teacher's elicitations" (p. 55).

Extract 2: Stunned, 25_18_06_10_2_35-34.

```
1     Tea: let's conti↑nue:.
                     +raises his head, looks at Luc
2          (0.9)
3     Tea: Luca a.
4          (0.4)
5     Lu2: to be s↑tunned,((reads from the book))
           +Tea looks at the book
6  →  Lu2: i don't know.=
7     Tea: =>you don't know?<
            +raises his head
         #4               #5
```


Figure 4   Figure 5

```
8     Tea: does anybody kno:w that one?
                     +looks to his left
9     Tea: Lena?
           +looks at Len
10         (0.3)
11    Len: to be very shocked or surprised.=
```

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```
12   Tea: =good (.) yes:.
          +vertical    +looks at his book
           head nod
13        (1.6)
14   Tea: to be ↑rea↓lly surprised.
15        (1.3)
16   Tea: ↑EIGHt::h.
              +raises his head, looks at Tim
17        (1.1)
18   Tea: Tim?
            +looks back at his book
19        (2.4)
20 → Tim: £i don't knowhhh£=
21   Tea: =you don't know?
          +raises his head, looks to his left
22   Tea: who can help us?
          +Joo and Jes hold their fingers up
23   Tea: Joo (.) good.
24        (0.4)
25   Joo: er: to be: re↑lie::ved.
          +reads from the book
     Tea:                        +looks back at his book
26        (0.4)
27   Joo: to be happy that something (unpleased) has not
28        happened or has ended.
29        (0.8)
30   Tea: yes: (.) unp↑leasant.
                      +looks at Joo
31        (0.9)
32   Tea: unpleasant (.) goo:d.
```

In line 1, the teacher projects a continuation of the activity ('conti↑nue:') with a
rising intonation and stretching of the final sound, as he raises his head from the

material, looks at Lu2, and nominates him as the next speaker with the next-turn-selected-speaker's name in turn-construction unit (TCU)-initial position (line 3). It should also be mentioned that no student bids for a turn at this moment. By not establishing mutual gaze with Tea, and following a 0.4 second silence, Lu2 starts reading the first item from the text (line 5). Note that the teacher also orients his gaze to the book as the student starts reading. In line 6, the student claims no knowledge (`i don't know`). His claim of insufficient knowledge is immediately followed by a '`>you don't know?<`' in line 7. Although this, at first, looks like a request for confirmation, it accomplishes a variety of actions.

First of all, it repeats a portion of student's claim of no knowledge, but the 'you' makes clear who is to own the lack of knowledge; secondly, the teacher's response establishes the relevance for moving on to another student. This is an action that is done not only for this one student, but for other students, who learn from the teacher's response that a claim of insufficient knowledge is dispreferred, will not be rewarded, and is a basis for establishing rules and expectations for classroom behaviour(s) (Beach 2011, personal communication).

Following this, in line 8, the teacher asks the whole class if anybody knows the answer, with an emphasis on the word 'know'. He nominates Len as the next speaker, and in line 11, Len provides the correct answer (`to be very shocked or surprised.`). Once the correct answer is given, in line 12, the teacher gives an immediate, explicit positive evaluation with an emphasis on the word 'good' and a vertical head nod. This exchange between Len and the teacher is a typical initiation-response- evaluation sequence, where the student's name forms the initiation of the three-part exchange.

In line 16, the teacher marks a transition to the next item in the exercise by giving the number of the item (`↑EIGHt::h.`), which is pre-positioned to make a transition to the next item in the exercise and to select a student to answer. As in the previous CIK, no one bids for a turn and then the teacher selects Tim as the next speaker using his name in line 18, and turns his gaze to his book. After 2.4 seconds of silence, this time without reading the first item to be matched, Tim claims no knowledge (`£i don't knowhhh£`) combined with a smiley voice and out-breath at the TCU-final position. Similar to the previous CIK above, this is produced in a latched fashion followed by a

'you don't know?' during which the teacher again raises his head and gazes at the student. In line 22, he immediately seeks for a potential next speaker who can give the answer (`who can help us?`). On the onset position of this request for a willing speaker, both Joo and Jes bid for the turn by holding up their fingers (line 22). In line 23, Tea selects Joo as the next speaker. What is interesting in this turn is that the teacher's go-ahead response by uttering the student's name is followed by a positive evaluation (`good`). This positive assessment after a student bids for turn (even before answering the question) marks 'self-selection by nominating oneself for the next turn' as a preferred action. From lines 25 to 28 Joo reads the correct answer from the book. After a 0.8 sec silence, the teacher first acknowledges the correct answer (`yes:`), but then offers an alternative pronunciation with a rising intonation, stress and directing his gaze to the student, which is an embedded repair. Note that Len's correct response was immediately followed by a positive evaluation in line 12, with no silence or correction.

The action(s) accomplished by the teacher through an immediate 'you don't know?' occurs 15 times in the collection within 52 extracts of no knowledge claims. However, there are very few instances where 'you don't know?' triggers a direct response from the student through a confirmation of the insufficient knowledge with a negative response marker like 'no' (see the following extract). Extract 3 below is taken from the 11[th] grade classroom. In this sequence, which took place four days before extract 1, the teacher, in his instructions, labels the exchanges as 'brain storming' and writes the words that he elicits from the students on the board. The topic is on the multicultural nature of London and how religious differences may lead to potential problems among the members of the society. This topic emerged from a text (see appendix E) on Asian immigration in the UK, and was selected by the teacher from a teaching materials source (RAAbits Englisch 1994).

Extract 3: Mix of religions, 36_04_06_11_09-57.

```
1     Tea: now can you think of any potential p↑rob↓lems,
                              #6 +points at the
                                 board
```
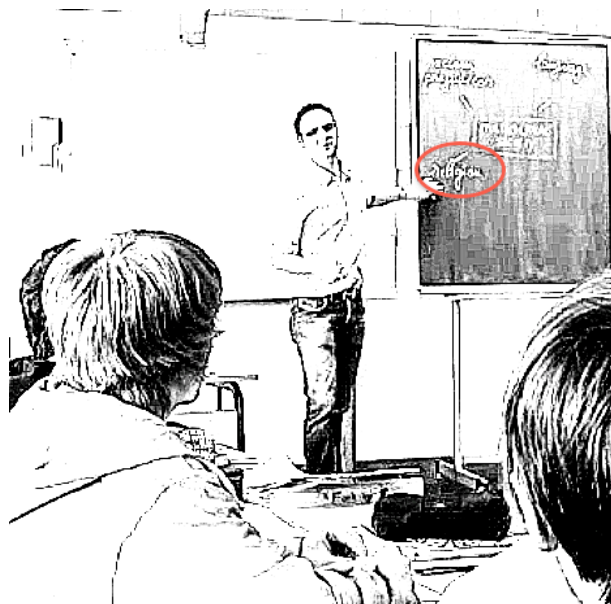
Figure 6

```
2          these (.)various religions can bring about.
3          Yann what do you think?
           +gazes and      +walks to the other side of
           points          the class
           at Yan
4          (0.5)
5  →  Yan: i don't ↑know.
6     Tea:            +looks back at Yan
7          (0.4)
8     Tea: you don't ↑know.=
9  →  Yan: =↑no.
10         (0.5)
11    Ben: ((holds up his finger))
12         (0.7)
13    Tea: ((looks at Ben and points at him))
14    Tea: what do you think b[e n?]
15    Ben:                    [war ]like in ireland.
```

In lines 1 and 2, the teacher asks about the kind of potential problems that various religions can bring about with an information seeking question (Mehan 1979b). Meanwhile, all students are looking at the board since the teacher has written the word 'religion' on the board and points at the word while his gaze is fixed to the class (figure 6). In line 3, Tea selects Yan as the speaker by using an address term (pointing at him at the same time) in turn initial position and then specifically directing the question to him. At TCU final position, as Tea keeps walking to the other side of the classroom, his body and gaze are not oriented to Yan anymore. After a 0.6 sec silence, Yan claims no knowledge (line 5) with a rising intonation on the onset of the final word 'know' in TCU final position, and this obtains the teacher's gaze. Following a 0.4 sec silence, the teacher responds with a 'you don't know' again in line 8. Like the previous example, it repeats a portion of student's claim of no knowledge, but this time does not immediately establish the relevance for moving on to another student in the subsequent turn. It is followed by a confirmation of insufficient knowledge (↑no.) by the student, and therefore, it may be claimed that Yan has oriented to the teacher's response as a request for confirmation. In terms of sequence structure, this exchange can be seen as a non-minimal post expansion. According to Schegloff (2007), in non-minimal post expansions, the turn following the second pair part (remember that a CIK, as a 'non-answer response', is technically a second pair part to a first pair part of a question answer adjacency pair) is "itself a first pair part, and thereby projects at least one further turn -its responsive second pair part- and thereby its non-minimality" (p.149). 0.5 seconds after this turn, Ben bids for a turn although the teacher holds his gaze to Yan for a further 0.7 sec and then performs an embodied allocation (Käänta 2010) by turning his gaze to him and pointing, which is followed by a question directed to Ben in line 14. In line 15, having previously established recipiency with the teacher in an overlapped fashion, Ben initiates the second pair part of the question-answer adjacency pair.

Another observation with regards to this extract is that this is a meaning and fluency context (Seedhouse 2004) in which the students are simply requested to give their opinions in relation to a phenomenon. In most of the examples taken from the corpus, there is more teacher wait time after and before claims of no knowledge in meaning and fluency contexts. Although it was previously claimed that no mutual gaze is established with a student who claims no knowledge (prior to the allocation of turn), due to the previous teacher action (writing the word on the board and pointing at it), the teacher obtains the student's gaze. However, one can claim that the reason students look in the

direction of the teacher is because a classroom artefact (i.e the blackboard) is being used as a resource to get student attention. One can also claim that the different intonation pattern in line 8, compared to all other examples of 'you don't know?', may be the reason why 'you don't know' is followed by a confirmation of no knowledge (no), although more evidence is needed for such an interpretation.

It is obvious that teachers use students' gaze as a resource in classroom interaction when they are looking for a willing speaker to engage in interaction. Extract 4 below illustrates the dynamic nature of establishing mutual gaze and withdrawal of gaze while a sequence that includes a claim of insufficient knowledge unfolds. In this example, the teacher tells the students that they will listen to a song called 'The Pretender' by Jackson Browne (see appendix F for the lyrics of the song) and according to the teacher's instructions, they will discuss the emotions carried through the lyrics during the post-listening phase. Before they listen to the song, the teacher starts a pre-activity sequence to contextualise the activity, and starts asking students some questions. The pedagogical agenda of the task seems to be a meaning focused one, where students express their ideas related to the teacher's questions rather than focusing on forms.
Extract 4: Everybody else, 7_08_06_10_1_15:05.

```
1      Tea: Sam do you want to be like everybody
2         #7 +points at Sam
```
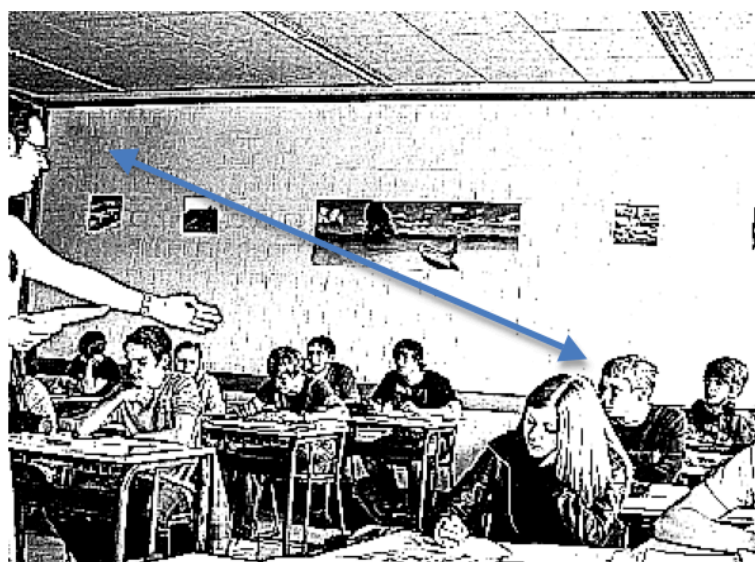

Figure 7

```
3      Tea: else (.)°in the future°.
4           +Sam withdraws gaze
            #8    #9
```

Figure 8   Figure 9

```
5     Sam: °no:°.

6     Tea: that's your d↓ream (.) isn't it?

7     Sam:              +gazes        +withdraws
                         at Tea          gaze

8     Tea: can you tell me why not?

9     Sam: +gazes          +withdraws
             at Tea            gaze

10        (0.6)

11    Sam: °yeah°.

12        (6.6)

13    Tea: #10 ((Tea starts inclining his head))
```
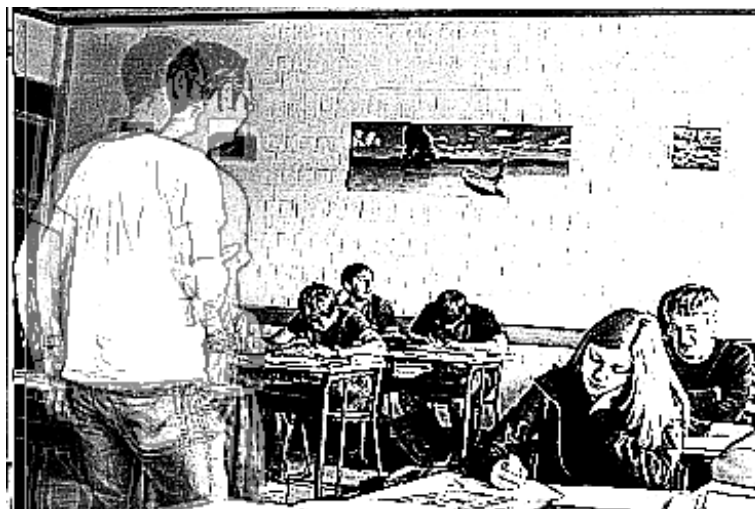

Figure 10
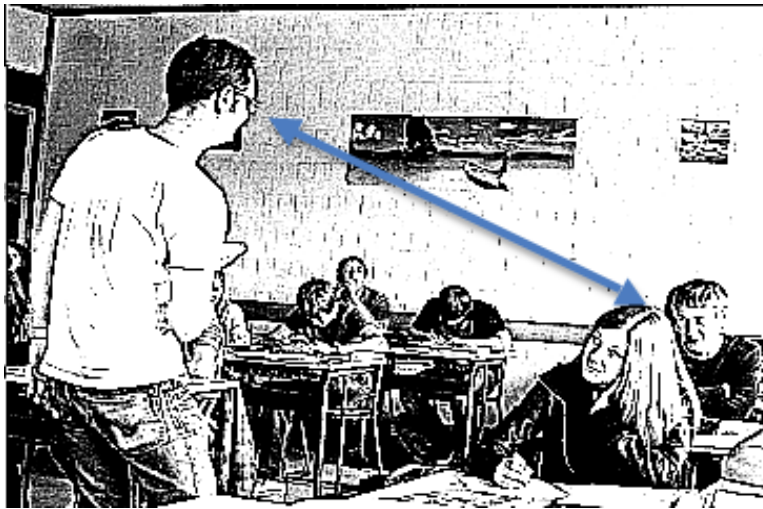
Figure 11

```
14          (0.4)

15    Sam: #11((mutual gaze wit Tea for 0.7 sec))

16    Sam: ((withdraws gaze and smiles))

17          (3.4)

18    Tea: you just don't want to be like everybody else.

19    Sam: ((laughs))

20    Tea: you want to be: DIFferent from everybody else?

21    Tea:                   +points at Sam

22    Sam                   +gazes at Tea

23    Sam: °yes°.

24    Tea: yes?

25    Sam: yes.

26    Tea: why?

27    Sam:    +averts gaze

28          (3.6)

29 → Sam: °i don't know°.

30    Tea: you don't know? ((starts walking away))

31          (1.9)

32    Tea: Luc you want to be: different from everybody
           else?
```

Before line 1, the teacher looks around the classroom to select a student, but most of the
students are avoiding mutual gaze. At this very moment, Sam looks at the teacher for
less than half of a second and the teacher immediately allocates the turn to him at the

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beginning of line 1 with an address term and pointing (figure 7). The teacher asks Sam if he wants to be like everybody else in the future. Before he completes his turn in line 3, Sam withdraws his gaze (figure 8 and figure 9) from the teacher, which may have led to the micro pause in teacher's turn in addition to the decreased volume.

In line 5, Sam initiates the second pair part of the question-answer adjacency pair with a negative marker delivered quietly, and the teacher follows up first with a tag question (`that's your d↓ream (.) isn't it?`) - during which Sam withdraws gaze- and then, in line 8, with another question (`can you tell me why not?`) which has been elaborated due to the student's previous response (`°no:°`). After a 0.6 second silence, still not looking at the teacher, Sam initiates a compliance token (`°yeah°`) with a quiet voice. This is followed by a very long 6.6 seconds of silence. During this time, the teacher's gaze is fixed on the student, while the student is not looking at the teacher, with his head oriented to another direction. After this very long silence, in order to obtain gaze, the teacher starts changing his body posture and leans towards the direction of the student by also inclining his head, which proves to be an effective resource in order to establish a state of mutual gaze (figure 10 and 11). However, after a 0.7 second of a state of mutual gaze, Sam averts his gaze again and smiles, which is followed by another long pause in line 17. In line 18, the teacher reformulates his question and triggers laughter from the student. In line 20, he reformulates his question again, but this time puts emphasis on a certain word combined with a word-initial loud voice and pointing. He then obtains Sam's gaze with this embodied elicitation technique and receives a positive response delivered with a decreased volume from Sam in line 23. This is followed by a request for clarification and a confirmation.

In line 26, Tea asks an open-ended information-seeking question (`why?`), and Sam again averts his gaze and looks somewhere else in turn final position. After another very long silence, he claims insufficient knowledge (`°i don't know°`), which is followed by the classic teacher follow up turn (`you don't know?`). In line 32, the teacher allocates the turn to another student. One can argue that the question asked by the teacher is not a question that requires a grasp of academic knowledge, but a personal question. Secondly, the student may be lacking a relevant response at this very moment. However, we have enough evidence to claim that the student is not willing to engage in a conversation, which is observable with his disengagements throughout the extract, not only in terms of constant withdrawal of mutual gaze and averting gaze, but also with the

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long pauses and quiet talk. There is also a long pause before the claim of insufficient knowledge, which is typical for meaning and fluency contexts.

The extract given below is significant for our general argument in many ways. Firstly, it illustrates how CIK can be enacted through the accompaniment of gestures such as a headshake. Two kinds of embodied claims of insufficient knowledge will be illustrated below: one accompanied by a verbal claim and another one, which is just a headshake with no verbal utterances (i.e. I don't know). Furthermore, the analysis will also explicate the interactional consequences of selecting a physically unavailable student and the effects of peer-laughter in relation to face issues. Extract 5 (10th grade) starts after the class focuses on a text about railway stations, accompanied by pictures.

Extract 5: Red brick, 26_25_06_10_1_28-24.

```
1     Tea: what about the:: small picture::,
          +looks at the book
2          at the ↑top <on page eighty th↑ree:>.
3     Tom: #12 ((Tom drops his pen, leans down to take it))
```
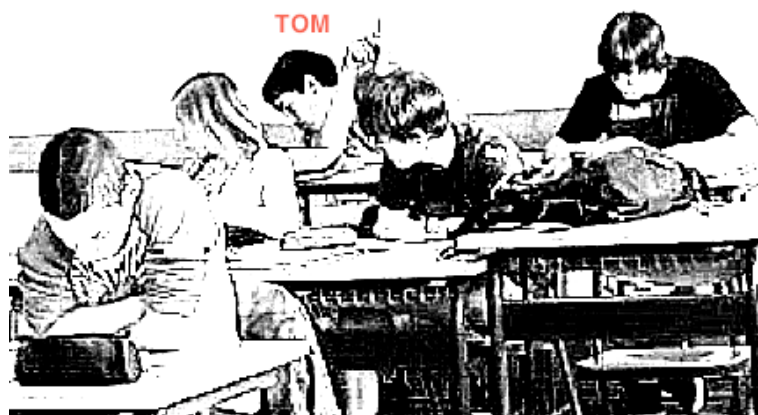

Figure 12

```
4     Tea: who can make a guess, Tom?
          + Tea looks at Tom
5          (0.6)
6     Tom: ((changes his posture to an upright position and
             looks at his book))
7          (2.4)
8     Tom: ehm: it's a very big (.) er: ↑ho↓tel: (.) and,
9          (1.8)
```

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```
10   Tom: very c- colourful:.
11   Tea: +tea starts walking towards Tom
12        (1.9)
13   Tea: well it's a ↑REd brick.
14   Ss:  ((all students laugh for 5.6 sec))
15   Tea: very english in a £sense£.
16        ↑but ehm:.
17        (1.2)
18        >when do you think it was built<?
19   Tea: ((getting closer to Tom))
20        (5.4)
21   Tom: may be (the eighties).
                    +gazes at tea
     Tea:              +looks at the book
22        (1.1)
23   Tea: in nineteen e↑ightees.
            +looks back at Tom
     Tom:              +looks back at the book
24   Len: ((laughs loudly))
     Tom:      +hits the desk with his hand
25   S?:  ((incomprehensible talk))
26   Tea: is that what you said (  )?
27 → Tom: i don't ↑know.
            +looks at the teacher and shakes his head
```

#13   #14

Figure 13   Figure 14

```
28        (0.3)
29   Tea: you don't know?
     Tom:            +averts his gaze
```

```
30   Tea: at all?
31 → Tom: +shakes his head
32   Tea: ((starts walking towards Len))
33   Tea: what do other people think, Lena you tell me.
```

At the beginning of the extract, the teacher is directing the students to a picture by also looking at and pointing at his own book. Just after the teacher completed his question, Tom, sitting at the back row, drops his pen and leans down to take it (figure 12). No student bids for turn at this particular moment. In line 4, before Tom takes his position back in his seat, the teacher nominates him as the next speaker (`who can make a guess Tom?`). It has to be noted that the teacher gazes at Tom at the onset of the TCU and uses the address term at TCU final position; this is when Tom repositions his body and looks at the text, since the teacher directs the students to a particular page in line 2. It is clear that the recipiency has not been established through mutual gaze by the participants, and the turn has been allocated to a student who was not physically oriented/available when the question was asked, which has interactional consequences.

Following a 2.4 second pause, Tom initiates the second part of the adjacency pair from line 8 to 10. He starts his sentence with a hesitation marker (`ehm:`), then pauses in the middle of line 8, which is followed by another hesitation marker (`er:`) and is followed by 'and,' that projects continuity both in meaning and the way its intonation is delivered. After a very long pause he completes his turn in line 10 which includes a cut off (`c-colourful:`). It should also be mentioned that Tea tries to position himself closer to Tom by walking towards him after his long pauses, cut off and hesitation markers. Following a 1.9 sec silence after Tom's turn, the teacher produces a response which is hedged with a discourse marker in turn-initial position, and therefore signals dispreference in line 13 (`well it's a ↑REd brick.`). Although there is no explicit negative assessment, the teacher uses a hedge marker (well), puts emphasis on 'red' by producing it louder and with a rising intonation. More strikingly, the teacher's response results in laughter among other students. After this laughter which lasts 5.6 seconds, the teacher initiates another turn (`very english in a £sense£.`) in line 16 with a smiley voice at TCU final position and asks a follow up question in line 18 (`>when do you think it was built<?`) with an increased pace.

After another very long 5.4 second silence in line 20, Tom gives a candidate response in the subsequent turn starting his utterance with an uncertainty marker (`may be`) and gazes at the teacher while the teacher orients his gaze towards the book. After looking at his book for 1.1 seconds, the teacher initiates a request for clarification by directing his gaze back to Tom, which triggers Len's laughter in line 24. While Len and other students are laughing, Tom hits the desk with his hand. In line 26, Tea upgrades his request for clarification that is immediately followed by a claim of no knowledge in line 27. This claim of insufficient knowledge is produced differently compared to the examples given so far. It is embodied by a headshake simultaneously with the verbal utterance. In addition to this, in turn final position, Tom raises his head and looks at the teacher (figures 13 and 14) and produces the word 'know' with a rising intonation, which may be interpreted as a request for confirmation. In line 29, the teacher further requests confirmation on the student's state of no knowledge (`you don't know?`), this time with an extreme case formulation (`at all?`). Tom averts his gaze at the end of line 29, and in line 31, shakes his head without saying anything, and the teacher allocates the turn to another student following this.

There are a few important observations that can be made about this extract. First of all, claims of no knowledge can be embodied with a headshake either together with a verbal utterance (line 27) or only through visible head gestures (line 31). Secondly, selecting a student who is not bodily oriented to the ongoing activity, and not establishing mutual gaze may lead to claims of no knowledge. Lastly, laughter from other students may signal face issues, which can lead to unwillingness to participate and to claims of no knowledge. I have previously suggested that it is not common to see students responding to a teacher response to a no knowledge claim, which is followed by a claim of insufficient knowledge (but see extract 3). However, in this example, the headshake after 'you don't know' constructs a whole turn, which is embodied in nonverbal means. It can be argued that this extract illustrates a strong form of 'claiming insufficient knowledge', achieved both verbally and nonverbally using various semiotic resources. One may suggest that the face issues in relation to the laughter may have played a significant role in the way these claims are enacted.

Extract 6 illustrates how CIK can be embodied through facial gestures (i.e. raising eyebrows) as well as headshakes. In this particular class (10th grade), the students were assigned small projects in which they were individually requested to create an

advertisement for any product they choose. Before the start of extract 6, a student introduced his advert (reading from his notebook) on a hypothetical chocolate brand. The ads were asked to be convincing, so that the teacher creates opportunities for students to discuss in what ways a particular ad is convincing for the buyers. There is no particular focus on linguistic forms, at least in this part of the sequence.

Extract 6: Chocolate, 18_15_06_10_1_25-38.

```
1     Tea: what about er:: any other strategies he u↓ses.
2          he also tries to convince (.) other buyers i
3          think.
4     Tea: (1.3) ((looks around the class))
```


Figure 15   Figure 16   Figure 17

```
5     Tea: °no?°
6     Tea: he speaks about (.) er::::: endor- endorphins
7          and er::: (.) >all  kind of< hor↑mones that are
8          being pro↑du:ced and have effect on your brain
9          and concentra↓tion (.)so: (.) who does he try to
10         convince and  what is the method here?
      Tea:                              +gazes at Tom
      Tom:              #18 +covers his face with his hand
```

Figure 18

```
11       (0.5)

12   Tea: Tom.
         +Tea points at Tom
     Tom:   +Tom gazes at the teacher

13       (1.2)

14 → Tom: ((shakes his head))

15   Tea: if you tell somebody- (.)if you ↑eat th-

16       chocolate bar >it does not only< taste nice but

17       it has a (.) particular effect on your b↑lood

18       pressure or: .hh the way you can concentra:te

19       has actually .hhh er:: an effect on your well

20       be↑ing.

21       (1.1)

22   Tea: what is the ↑me↓ssage in a way.

23       (2.2)

24 → Tom: ((withdraws mutual gaze and raises his eyebrows))

25 → Tom: don't know.=
         +shakes his head

26   Tea: =Tim what do you think.
         +pointing at Tim

27       (1.6)

28   Tim: chocolate is g(h)ood.((students laugh))

29       (0.9)
```

```
30   Tea: yeah (.) okay (.) the basic message is:,
31        chocolate is good for ↑you.
```

In line 1, the teacher asks the students about the strategies a student has used to promote his product, and in line 2 and 3, takes a personal epistemic stance (`he also tries to convince (.) other buyers i think.`) His question and epistemic stance is followed by a 1.3 second silence during which he looks around at the class (figures 15, 16, and 17). Since no students bid for turn, in line 5, the teacher interprets this as a lack of contribution (see 4.2 for further details), which leads to further explanations by him. Following a series of explanations about the project of the student, in lines 9 and 10, he asks two specific questions (`who does he try to convince and  what is the method here?`) and directs his gaze at Tom at TCU final position. Yet, Tom covers his face with his gaze fixed on another direction (figure 18). Since he cannot obtain the student's gaze, following a 0.5 second silence, he uses an address term and points at the student. After 1.2 second of silence, Tom shakes his head, which signals that he is not sure or which signals an unwillingness to participate.

Having received no verbal response from the student, he makes further explanations to elicit a response from the same student with an extended turn. This is again followed by a 1.1 second silence. In line 22, the teacher rephrases the question and asks for the message given in the advert. Following a very long silence, the student first withdraws gaze, lifts his eyebrows and claims insufficient knowledge while shaking his head. Following this embodied CIK, the teacher immediately allocates the turn to the student sitting next to Tom, whose gaze is already fixed at the teacher. After a 1.6 second silence, in line 28, Tim responds to the teacher's question, which is followed by laughter by other students. An interesting observation that can be made here is that after the first head shake in line 14, the teacher interprets this display of no knowledge as a lack of content information and makes further explanations. The embodied claim of insufficient knowledge (which is also preceded by a very long silence) however projected an immediate turn allocation to another student. It can be suggested that although there are not many examples of an explicit claim of no knowledge embodied with lifting eyebrows and a headshake, this type can be regarded as one of the strongest forms of claims of no knowledge achieved through verbal and nonverbal means.

Another nonverbal signal that the students may use to embody claims of insufficient knowledge is pouting lips. Extract 7 below comes from the 11th grade classroom. The students have read a text on railway stations in the classroom and are discussing the various features of railway stations in general (Note that this topic was also covered in the 10th grade class in extract 5). Before the start of this extract, Ben and the teacher have engaged in an interaction about railway stations in Belgium and how stations look. The teacher gave many examples on expensive items in a particular station. The participants in this extract, Ben and Luc are sitting next to each other in a U-shaped seating arrangement. Luc's gaze is also fixed towards the teacher due to their close proximity, as the interaction with Ben unfolds.

Extract 7: Congo, 51_25_06_11_17-27.

```
1    Tea: why do you think (.) people did ↑that.
2         for inst- especially in belgium.
3         towards the end of the nineteenth century.
4    Tea: ↑yes.
5         +points at Ben
6    Ben: they wanted to imp↑ress.
7         (0.7)
8    Tea: yes they wanted to imp↑ress and what did they want
9         to show to other people (.) what do you think.
10        (0.9)
11   Ben: their reichtum.
                richness
12        (0.8)
13   Tea: t↑heir.
14   Ben: REICHtum=
               richness
15   Tea: =richness (.)[↑yeah ok]ay.
16   Ben:              [richness]
17   Tea: or their pros- their prosperity as a country yes.
18   Tea: and (.) WHere did this prosperity partly come from
19        >in countries like ↑Belgi↓um<.
20        if you think about history.
21        (0.5)
```

```
22   Tea: Luca any ideas?
            +pointing at Lu3 with an open palm
23        (1.4)
24   Tea: >countries like belgium< where did they
25        (bring these)very important goo:ds.
26   Ben:                      +Ben holds up his finger
27        (1.6)
28 → Lu3: ((pouting his lips))
```


Figure 19   Figure 20   Figure 21

```
29        (1.1)
30 → Lu3: °i don't know°.=
31   Tea: =for example ivory (   ) in brussels and antwerp
32        (0.5)
33   Tea: now where did that come from.
34        (2.7)
35   Lu3: ((gazes at Ben))
36 → Tea: no idea?
37   Tea: Ben?=
38   Ben: =africa.
39   Tea: ↑yes.
```

Between lines 1 and 3, the teacher asks the whole class a question about why, during the 19th century, people spent too much money on the architectural features of railway stations in Belgium. In line 4, the teacher nominates Ben as the next speaker by pointing at him and saying 'yes'. Unfortunately, at this point in the video clip, whether Ben requested the turn or not cannot be seen. Ben's response given in line 6 is accepted by the teacher with an acknowledgement token and repetition of the student's utterance in line 7. In lines 8 and 9 the teacher asks a follow-up question (`what did they want to show to other people`) and further asks Ben what he thinks. Following a 0.9 sec silence, Ben replies with a code-mixed utterance, starting with the English pronoun 'their' and ending with a German word (tr: richness). In line 10, the teacher repeats the English part of Ben's utterance, which may be initiated as a designedly incomplete utterance (Koshik 2002). However, Ben takes this repair initiation as a hearing problem, and repeats the German word, this time louder than the previous time. In line 15, Tea gives the exact English word, which is followed by a repetition by Ben with an overlap at TCU final position; and the embedded correction sequence is closed.

After an upgrade of the word 'richness' to 'prosperity' in line 17, the teacher asks another question in relation to the source of this prosperity to the whole class. Since no students bid for a turn, he nominates Lu3 as the next speaker with an open palm in line 22. After a 1.4 sec pause, the teacher upgrades his question and towards the end of his question, Ben holds up his finger, which is not oriented to by the teacher although Ben and Lu3 are sitting together. After the teacher's question, following a 1.6 sec silence, Lu3 pouts his lips (figure 19, 20, and 21), which is followed by another long silence in line 29, and a CIK in line 30. In the subsequent turn, the teacher immediately gives an example, and in line 33, repeats his previous question. It should be remembered that this is the only example in this section in which teacher turn allocation is delayed to the following turn after an explanation. After a 2.7 second silence, Lu3 withdraws his gaze from the teacher and looks at Ben by turning his head towards him. Following this action, of course in addition to previous long silences and an embodied claim of insufficient knowledge, the teacher initiates a typical utterance that indicates his interpretation of the student's insufficient knowledge in line 36 (`no idea?`). I will discuss the teacher's interpretation of no knowledge in detail in the following section. In line 37, the teacher immediately nominates a willing speaker (Ben has been holding up his arm). Ben gives the correct answer and his response receives a positive evaluation from the teacher in line 39.

It has been illustrated that claims of insufficient knowledge can be employed in various ways. The analysis of this extract showed that facial expressions like pouting lips can be placed before a verbal claim of insufficient knowledge. When they are enacted in this way, there is no long silence from the teacher after the verbal claim, since the student's lack of knowledge has been made visually available to the teacher. Instead, the teacher, in the follow up turn, gave an example. Although pouting lips is not a very common non-verbal behaviour in my data, one should also consider that this is a standard way of saying 'no' in some parts of Europe. Therefore, there may be cultural differences for using these non-verbal signs, but these cultural differences are beyond the scope of this thesis. It should also be mentioned here that this was also the case for the previous extract, where the student embodied his stance by raising his eyebrows. Furthermore, another prominent finding is that the student who claims insufficient knowledge may also change the speakership by turning his gaze to another student, and therefore prepares the ground for the teacher to not only further interpret the current speaker's insufficient knowledge, but also allocate the turn to the second student. It should, however, be mentioned that Ben made himself available as the next speaker by bidding for turn.

Summary of the section

The analyses of the selected extracts in this section explicated sequential and temporal placement of claims of insufficient knowledge in teacher fronted language classroom interaction. As mentioned in the beginning of the section, these claims act as non-answer responses and as second pair parts to a teacher initiation (e.g. a question) and are delivered after a significantly long pause, as can be observed in extracts 1, 2 (the second CIK), 4, 6 and 7. Although utterances like 'I don't know', according to Beach and Metzger (1997), "are rarely freestanding" (p. 579), the analysis of the teacher-fronted classroom interaction data revealed that they are almost always employed as freestanding turn construction units that signal transition and a relevant next action from another speaker. The fact that there are no long silences before no knowledge claims in extracts 2 (the first CIK in line 6) and 5 can be explained as follows.

In extract 2, there is an orientation to the task at hand, which is giving the correct answer by matching the vocabulary items in the book. The teacher's turn allocation in

line 3, then, projects two possible next actions: the first is to read the item to be matched, and the second is to give the correct response without reading the one to be matched since it is already available for other students in their book. Therefore, the student buys some time by reading the question, which leads to the initiation of no knowledge with no or little verbal pause. In extract 5, as was briefly discussed in the analysis, there are face issues reasoning from laughter which was made relevant by the student by hitting his hand on the desk. Although he was engaged in the interaction before this action, his immediate delivery of the claim of insufficient knowledge increases the possibility of having lost face.

The sequential analysis of the interactional unfolding of CIK showed that it projects two possible next actions for the teacher: first, as can be seen in extracts 1 and 6, the teacher allocates the turn to either a student bidding for turn (extract 1) or a student who is looking at the teacher and sits close to the previous speaker (extract 6). Second, after the claim of insufficient knowledge, the teacher may initially respond with a 'you don't know?'. As we mentioned in the analysis of extract 2, this teacher turn accomplishes some actions that are relevant to the continuity of talk and preference: it repeats a portion of student's CIK, and 'you' makes clear who is to own the lack of knowledge; secondly, the teacher's response establishes the relevance for moving on to another student. This is an action that is done not only for this one student, but for other students, who learn from this claim of insufficient knowledge that it is dispreferred. 'You don't know' is the most frequent teacher follow up after a claim of no knowledge in the data, and is inserted subsequently in around one third of the instances in the collection. Although most of the times it projects an immediate turn allocation, in extract 3 it is followed by a confirmation of insufficient knowledge by Yan in line 9 with a negative response (↑no.), which technically aligns with the teacher's request for confirmation, but is still a dispreferred response.

As was discussed in the review of literature, engaging in mutual gaze at turn beginnings or pre-beginnings is a crucial element of establishing recipiency in classrooms (Kääntä 2010; Mortensen 2008; Sahlström 1999). The findings showed that in most of the cases recipiency is not established before a turn is first allocated to a student in the data, which means there is no explicit signal of willingness to talk through engaging in mutual gaze with the teacher. For instance, in extract 1, Mar keeps her gaze fixed on her material throughout the extract and she does not engage in mutual gaze when the turn is

allocated to her. Furthermore, as was exemplified in extracts 5 and 6, the student to whom the turn is allocated is physically unavailable with his body orientation (extract 5, image 12) or hand gestures (extract 6, image 18). It is interesting to see that these two extracts are the ones in which the same student initiates embodied claims of insufficient knowledge, which can be regarded as the strongest form of claiming insufficient knowledge, and I will discuss this in the following paragraph.

Extracts 5, 6, and 7 are instances of embodied claims of insufficient knowledge where the students, apart from verbally claiming no knowledge, use gestures like headshakes, raising eyebrows, and pouting lips. It has been found that headshakes are the most common nonverbal indicators of CIK, which are generally used in combination with a verbal CIK or alone. In extract 5, for instance, 'I don't know' is simultaneously produced with a headshake in line 27 and then, in line 31, headshake is initiated as a freestanding TCU after the teacher's 'you don't know'; whereas in extract 6, the simultaneous combination of a verbal claim and a headshake is preceded by raising eyebrows and withdrawal of mutual gaze. In extract 7, however, the verbal claim and nonverbal displays do not overlap: the teacher's question is followed by a silence, then pouting lips, then another noticeably long silence, and lastly a verbal claim of no knowledge. It should also be mentioned that in extract 7, the effect of the claim of no knowledge is comparatively weak since the teacher allocates the turn to Ben only after Lu3 gazes at Ben and signals change of speakership. The following section will present how nonverbal cues are oriented to by the teacher to interpret insufficient knowledge, and therefore will expand this section by showing the ways the teacher perceives certain student behaviours as being related to insufficient knowledge.

Before we move on to the next section, pedagogical micro-contexts of the extracts should also be touched upon. The examples that have been analysed so far, except extract 2, do not include questions that require a focus on form (e.g. a focus on grammar). These can be tracked by the questions the teacher asks and the nature of the task or the activity at hand. One can understand that the focus is mostly on meaning, mainly framed by information-seeking questions rather than known-information questions (Mehan 1979b). This may be one of the explanations for the fact that there are long pauses and long teacher wait times in the extracts. The questions asked to the students are mostly ones that ask for the students' ideas, opinions and feelings, and are framed in a way that any contribution would be accepted, but may be subject to further

elaboration. Answering these kinds of questions requires students' willingness to talk rather than their need to possess knowledge with regards to certain linguistic forms. This explains why failing to select students with whom recipiency has not been established properly has interactional and pedagogical consequences like claims of insufficient knowledge.

4.2 The Teacher's Interpretation of Insufficient Knowledge through Nonverbal Means

This section brings together different instances of classroom talk-in-interaction, in which the teacher orients to a particular nonverbal behaviour- together with silence- and makes his interpretation of insufficient knowledge accessible for analysis through some 'epistemic status checks' (e.g. 'no idea?'). An epistemic status check is a speaker's interpretation of another interactant's state of knowledge (e.g. 'you don't know?', 'no idea?'), which is initiated when a second-pair part is delayed. Therefore, analytically speaking, a long silence alone is not adequate to bring evidence for displays of no knowledge; one can only argue for a teacher's orientation and interpretation of insufficient knowledge when he makes it relevant for the learners (and for the analyst) by initiating an 'epistemic status check'; thus interpreting insufficient knowledge. It should also be mentioned that verbal claims of no knowledge from the students are not the focus of this section. Thus, I will illustrate different nonverbal practices of the students that trigger a teacher's interpretation of no knowledge. These nonverbal resources include a combination of silences and headshakes, smiles, and withdrawals of mutual gaze. Similar to the analysis I carried out in the previous section, reference will be made to the pedagogical practices in relation to teaching/learning activities and emergence of classroom micro-contexts.

The following extract is a typical example of the primary resources of the teacher to interpret insufficient knowledge: student silence and avoidance to establish mutual gaze. Before starting the analysis, it should be remembered that the analysis does not and cannot draw only upon these nonverbal features. As mentioned earlier, evidence becomes available for the phenomenon under investigation only when the teacher initiates an epistemic status check and therefore makes this interpretation of insufficient knowledge an accountable and observable behaviour both for the students and the

researcher. In extract 8 below, the class is discussing the lyrics of a song (The Pretender by Jackson Browne).

Extract 8: Ads, 15_08_06_10_2_15-57.

```
1     Tea: he says where the ↑ADS take aim and lay their
2          claim to the heart and the soul of the
3          s↑pen↓der(.) what are ads? for ad↑vertisements:.
4          (1.3)
5     Tea: do you know what he's speaking about?
```

<div align="right">#22</div>
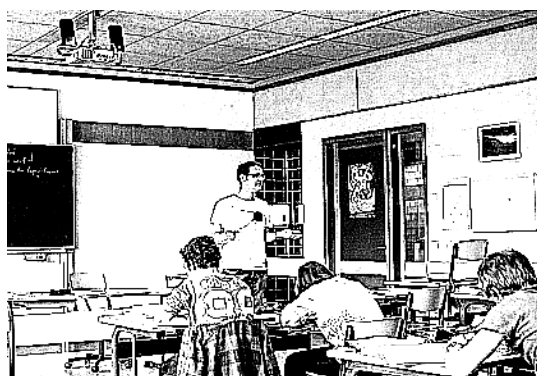
Figure 22
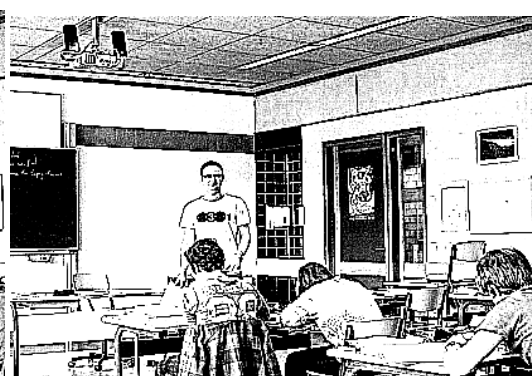
Figure 23

```
6          (3.2) 23#
7  →  Tea: you don't know what an ↑ad is.
8          oh: come on.
                    +Noa holds up his finger
9     Tea: yes (noah).
10    Noa: ↑wer↓bung.
           publicity
11    Tea: werbung, yes (.) publicity.
           publicity
```

In lines 1 and 2, the teacher reads two lines from the lyrics, with an emphasis on a particular word with rising intonation and loud voice (↑ADS). Having previously established this shift to a focus on vocabulary, in line 3, the teacher asks the meaning of this word (what are ads?), and waits 1.3 second before he asks a more general question in relation to the same concept (do you know what he's speaking about?). However, no student is bidding for turn and they all avoid mutual gaze with

the teacher. For 3.2 seconds, the teacher looks around the classroom for a willing speaker (figure 22 and 23).

After this very long pause, having failed to establish mutual gaze with the students and find a willing speaker, in line 7, the teacher makes the students' lack of knowledge about the meaning of the word 'ad' relevant (`you don't know what an ↑ad is.`). It should be noted that unlike most of the previous examples where 'you don't know' is a freestanding TCU followed by a claim of no knowledge, this one specifies the source of no knowledge that the teacher interprets by using a wh- complement clause. I have previously (in section 4.1) described the actions performed by 'you do not know': it repeats a portion of the student's claim of no knowledge, but the 'you' makes clear who is to own the lack of knowledge; secondly, the teacher's response establishes the relevance for moving on to another student. In this extract, however, 'you don't know X' should be analysed differently due to its sequential positioning and action format. First of all, as was the case in section one, it does not follow a student's claim of no knowledge, and therefore is first positioned rather than second positioned. Secondly, at least in this extract, it reflects the basis of the teacher's interpretation of no knowledge, and is designed to initiate a change of speakership. Thirdly, in terms of its temporal placement, it is preceded by a long silence and bodily movements of the teacher (to find a willing speaker).

This interpretation of insufficient knowledge and its specification is followed by an encouragement token (`oh come on.`) in line 8, which invites the students to participate. Before Tea completes his turn, Noa bids for turn in line 8, and the teacher allocates the turn to him (line 9). In line 10, Noa gives the German equivalent of the word, which is immediately accepted by the teacher in line 11 by first repeating the student's contribution, then inserting a confirmation token, and finally by giving the English equivalent of the word in turn final position (`publicity`). It is interesting to see that Noa's code switch is not challenged, but is immediately confirmed by the teacher by his repeating of the German word, and his acceptance token, although he also gives an English equivalent in TCU-final position. In the data, there are many examples where the teacher tolerates language alternation within the sequential environment of no knowledge.

This example is interesting for our analysis in many ways. Firstly, a long silence during which all the students avoid mutual gaze with the teacher becomes a resource for the teacher to interpret insufficient knowledge. Secondly, the teacher's response following this performs different actions compared to second-positioned 'you don't knows', as discussed previously, in terms of temporal and sequential positioning as well as its position within the turn which specifies the content of the 'insufficient' knowledge. Although it does not receive a confirmation of their insufficient knowledge from the students, it functions as a 'checking for (non) understanding' that re-establishes the norms and expectations in terms of turn distribution and triggers a bid-for-turn to change the speakers. From a pedagogical viewpoint, the example showed that it is not always unproblematic to shift from meaning and fluency contexts to form and accuracy contexts (i.e. focus on vocabulary). Although the teacher marked the new word at suprasegmental level in line 1, the questions he asked in lines 3 and 5 require students to focus on two different things: in line 3, it is the vocabulary that is at stake, while in line 5, the focus is on meaning and on general interpretation of the lyrics that the students had been doing just before starting this extract. The teacher, however, successfully overcomes this pedagogical mismatch by his interpretation of no knowledge and by specifying the required information, which immediately led to further student participation with no wait time in the following turn.

The analysis of extract 9 below shows that 'you don't know?' is not the only immediate response when silence becomes a resource for the teacher that signals insufficient knowledge. In addition to that, it also illustrates that a student's smile after a long and silent mutual gaze may play a role for the insertion of an 'epistemic status check' in the subsequent turn. In this extract, the students in the 10th grade class are working on a text that they have read in their course book. The teacher is asking questions about the main character in the text, who is a policeman. Before the beginning of the extract, one of the students reads a paragraph from the text and the teacher stops the student where relevant.

Extract 9: Fight for justice, 19_15_06_10_1_51-26.

```
1     Tea: Oh↑kay, now WHat (.) does this pas↓sage (.)
2          sho::w us about drummel, (0.6) and about, (1.2)
3          again his:, (.) his ↑job, as a cop.
4          (1.3)
```

```
5       as a °police man°. Luca?
   Luc: +Luc holds up his finger
   Tea:     +looks and points at Luc
6  Luc: he wants to fight for justice.
7       (0.6)
8  Tea: he wants to fight for jus↑tice. .Hh but also the
9       language that is being used, (.) his instinct was
10      to mo::ve into the direction of any disturbance
11      of the pea::ce.
12      (0.5)
13 Tea: his instinct was to interce:de(0.5)So::,(0.6)
14      what do we learn about him (.) how does he
15      actually wo::rk. (.) what is the wa::y, .hhh in
16      in what way does he wo:rk?
17      (4.5)((Luc keeps his gaze fixed on the teacher))
18 → Luc: #24((smiles)) #25
```

Figure 24   Figure 25

```
19 → Tea: £no£?

20 → Luc: £no:£.

        +Tea looks at other students
21 Tea: is th↑is::, (0,7) is this a very pre:: meditated
22      act, is ↑this something he was thinking about for
23      a long time and planning things.okay, this is the
24      moment to: act. Lara?
25      (1.2)
26 Lar: er::, (0.4) ↑No::.
```

From lines 1 to 3 Tea asks a general question to the whole class about the job of the main character as a cop. This is followed by a 1.3 second of silence in line 4. In line 5, he gives the synonym of the word cop (`°as a police man°`), which shows that he interprets the long silence as a vocabulary problem. However, Luc holds up his finger at the beginning of line 5, Tea gazes at Luc and points at him to allocate the turn while he utters the word 'policeman' in a soft voice. Having been selected as the next speaker to give a second pair part to the teacher's question, Luc gives a candidate answer (`he wants to fight for justice`) in line 6. Although the teacher does not reject Luc's contribution, there are reasons to believe that he does not accept this answer as a completely correct one. Firstly, there is a 0.6 second of silence right after Luc's answer. In line 8, he first repeats the student's candidate response and then elaborates on it with a 'but also' construction which projects further contribution. Between lines 13 and 15, he asks three questions in a row, and finally asks his last question (`in what way does he wo:rk?`).

Like the previous example in this section, there is a very long silence (4.5 seconds), but this time the gaze of the student is fixed on the teacher. After this long silence, Luc smiles (figure 24 and 25), which projects a teacher interpretation with a smiley voice (`£no£?`). This shows that the teacher interprets the long silence and the smile as an indicator of insufficient knowledge. Tea's 'epistemic status check' (`£no£?`) is immediately followed by Luc with a confirmation of the teacher's interpretation, again with a smiley voice in line 20 (`£no:£.`). At this moment, Tea starts looking for a willing speaker and allocates the turn to Lar in line 24. It should be noted that Lar does not explicitly bid for a turn. What is significant in this extract is that asking many questions in an extended turn may lead to long silences and lack of relevant answers, since the pedagogical goal is not clear to the students.

The analysis of extract 10 given below evidentially shows that long silences in addition to engagement with classroom artefacts (i.e. a students notebook) may be resources for the teacher to interpret insufficient knowledge. In this extract, the class is focusing on a text on railway stations. A student selected by the teacher reads a paragraph from the text, and the teacher stops the reader when a teaching opportunity emerges.

Extract 10: Thriving (part 1), 27_25_06_10_2_02-19.

```
1     Tea: they also say that there is a <th↑ri↓ving inner
2          city dist↓rict> (.) what does (.) thriving mean.
3                   +starts walking to the other side
4          (0.9)
5          if an area is th↑riving.
6          (2.1)
7     Tea: what is it like then?
8          +gazes at Col
9          (1.0)
10    Tea: coleen.what do you think?
11         (4.5)
```

In line 2, the teacher asks the whole class the meaning of a vocabulary item that they come across with in the text (`what does (.) thriving mean.`). He walks to the other side of the classroom to find a willing student to respond to his question. After a 0.9 second silence, he rephrases his question (`if an area is th↑riving.`), which is followed by a long 2.1 seconds of silence. Since none of the students bid for a turn, he gazes at Col, who has not established recipiency with the teacher, and after waiting for another second, directs his question to her in line 10 (`coleen.what do you think?`). However, although he looks at Col for a further 4.5 seconds, she does not provide a response and keeps looking at the text.

Extract 10: (part 2)

```
12    Tea: ↑We: saw the word thrift once this year when we
13         were spea↓king a↑bout er:: ehm (.)the family that
14         made this experiment they lived (.)the way people
15         live in the sixties and they said that one of the
16         important values for the (degeneration)or the
17         sixties or seventies was, thrift.
                 #26    #27
                   +Eve gazes at Tea
```

Figure 26   Figure 27

```
18    Tea: O↑kay ↑so: (.) not spending too much mo↓ney,

19    Tea: and::,

20        #28 +Tea gazes at Eve, Eve looks at the book and
              starts turning the pages
```


Figure 28

```
21        (8.0)

22    Eve: ((looks at the teacher and looks back to the
              material within less than one second))

23 → Tea: no idea? no?

24            +withdraws his gaze from Eve and looks at
              other students

25    Tea: thriving simply means, ehm prosperous. Okay?

26        doing well.
```

The teacher then makes reference to a text that has been read in the class weeks ago and tries to make use of student's previous knowledge by giving an example from line 12 to line 17, and refers to a morphological derivation of the word thriving. Before he completes his turn, Eve gazes at the teacher (figure 26 and 27) and looks back at her book. This makes her available as an interactant and the teacher, in the rest of the sequence, orients his body towards her and directs his gaze to this student, although Eve avoids mutual gaze with him. In lines 18 and 19, Tea initiates a Designedly Incomplete Utterance (Koshik 2002), which projects continuation in turn final position with a stretched sound, and he directs his gaze to Eve. Meanwhile, Eve starts turning the pages of her notebook (figure 28). The reason Eve orients to her notebook may be the teacher's referral to a previously learned item. Therefore, the notebook becomes a resource for the student to find the answer to the teacher's question. It can be claimed that this is an example for a non-verbal initiation and a non-verbal response.

In line 21, the silence is the longest one (8.0 seconds) in the data after a teacher question. It may be argued that the teacher's wait time is increased due to inclusion of a resource (student's notebook) to access the required information. After this long verbal silence, Eve gazes at the teacher and looks back at her notebook in less than 1 second. In line 23, the teacher initiates an 'epistemic status check' (`no idea? no?`) which checks for the student's state of knowledge and therefore forms an example of interpretation of insufficient knowledge. Before he completes his turn, he looks around the classroom but cannot obtain the students' gaze or get a verbal response. As different from many of the examples I have in the analysis section, instead of allocating the turn to another student, he gives the correct answer himself in lines 25 and 26. It can be argued here that the source of information he directed the students towards was not accessible at the moment to the students, and therefore he gave the answer to the question himself rather than trying to elicit further. In relation to this, the very long silences may also have played a role in his decision to give the meaning of the word to the students.

Extract 11 below shows how averting gaze after a long silence when a non-bidding student is selected may make the teacher's 'interpretation of insufficient knowledge' with 'no idea?' relevant. It further leads into a sequential structure like the one presented in extract 9, where the student confirms the teacher's interpretation of no knowledge. However, this time the confirmation is deployed only through a headshake

rather than a verbal utterance. The sequence starts with a question on the paintings accompanied by a text in students' course book. The focus is on meaning and the teacher wants to elicit responses from students about what these paintings tell about the text they are focusing on. It must be noted that although the main focus of this extract starts in line 34, we need to grasp the sequential unfolding of teacher's interpretation of insufficient knowledge from the beginning of the sequence, since the student contributions shape the pedagogical agenda of this exchange.

Extract 11 (part 1): Chaos, 23_18_06_10_1_12-28.

```
1     Tea: now what do you make of the:: (.) the graphic
2          layout of this s↑tory. (0.3) how would you
3          describe er: th- the paintings you can see.
4          (1.2)
5     Fln: °chaos°.
6          (1.4)
7     Tea: Flynn?
8     Fln: Chaos.
9          (0.9)
10    Tea: sorry?
          +moves his hand to his ear
          #29
```
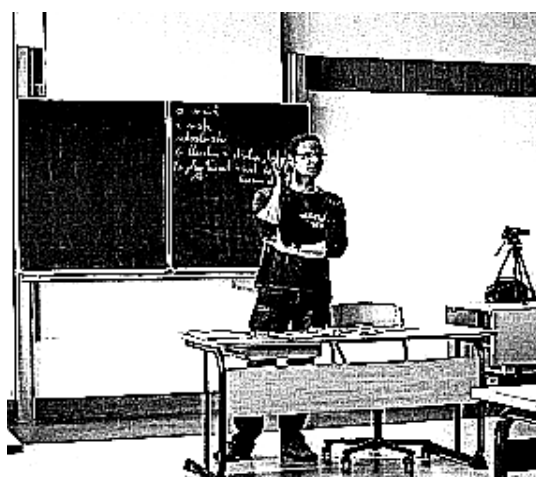

Figure 29

```
11         (0.5)
12    Tea: cows?
13    Sam: cha[os
14    Fln:    [chaos.
```

```
15   Tea: o↑kay. chaos. they, (0.2) look cha↑o↓tic.
16        in what way can you explain?
17   Fln: there are many: different pictures,
18   Tea: ↑yes.
19   Fln: which describes life of billy.
20   Tea: which describes his life.
21   Fln: yeah=
22   Tea: =yes: okay.
```

After the teacher asks a question (`how would you describe er: th- the paintings you can see.`) to the whole class in line 3, following a 1.2 second pause, Fln initiates a response with a soft voice in line 5 (`°chaos°.`). Since the student is sitting at the back of the classroom, after a 1.4 second pause, the teacher allocates the turn explicitly to the student, and Fln repeats his candidate response in line 8. After a 0.9 second pause, the teacher initiates an open class repair (`sorry?`) which is embodied by moving his right hand to his ear (figure 29), therefore is demonstrably treated as a hearing problem. Yet, there is evidence that this can be a pedagogical strategy since from lines 12 to 14 there is an embedded repair, and the trouble source is resolved in line 15 with the teacher's acceptance of the candidate pronunciation. This then leads to a follow up question in line 16, which is responded to by Fln in two turns, and is accepted by the teacher in line 22.

Extract 11 (part 2)
```
23   Tea: ↑so:: what might that tell us about billy if the
24        paintings look chaotic to ↑you:.
25        (1.5)
26   Tea: what is the effect they want to achieve may be or
27        what do::, (0.5) what does (  ) want to tell us
28        through the paintings may be.
29   Fln: <he has: not> ehm: (0.9) (   ) lebensziel.
                                          aim in life
30        (1.6)
31   Tea: yeah how ca- how can we say that?
32        lebensziel in English::?
        +start walking towards Lara
```

```
33        (1.4)
34   Tea: Lara?
     #30  +points at Lar
              +mutual gaze between Tea and Lar
```
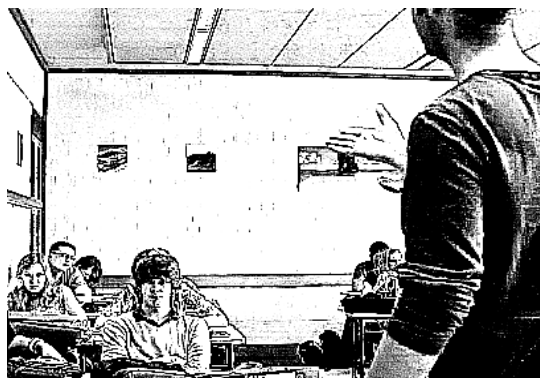

Figure 30

```
35        (2.1)
36 → Lar: #31((averts her gaze from the teacher)) #32
```


Figure 31   Figure 32

```
37 → Tea: no idea?
38   Lar:       +gazes back at the teacher
39        (0.8)
40 →      +Lar smiles and shakes her head
41   Tea: who can help me?
42        (2.5) ((Sam bids for turn))
43   Tea: yeah?
44   Sam: ((incomprehensible talk))
45   Ss:  ((laughter))
46   Tea: £that's£ (.) that's not quite what he's looking
47        for i think (.) you would say no ↑goal: in life
```

```
48          (0.6) ((starts writing on the board)) a goal
49          which means the same as an ↑aim.
50          (3.5)
51          or you could say er:: an ambition (0.8)which you
52          know from French /ambition/.
```

From line 23 and to line 28, based on the student-initiated concept of 'chaos', Tea asks multiple questions in relation to the intended meaning of the painter. In line 29, Fln, with a decreased pace, hesitation markers, and a pause, introduces a word in German as a response to the teacher's question (tr: aim in life). The teacher, after a 1.6 second pause, asks the meaning of this vocabulary item in English. This question signals a transition to a focus on vocabulary. However, he directs his question to the whole class rather than continuing the interaction with Fln, and starts walking to the other side of the classroom. After a 1.4 second silence, he selects Lar as the next speaker by pointing at her (line 34) although Lar has not so far directed her gaze to the teacher. After he points to Lar, she engages into mutual gaze with Tea (figure 30). It should be noted here that there was no indication -either verbally or nonverbally- from Lar to take the floor. After a long silence, Lar averts her gaze from the teacher (figure 31 and 32), which is immediately followed-up by the teacher in line 37 (`no idea?`), and meanwhile Lar again gazes at the teacher at the end of her turn. After gazing at the teacher for 0.8 second, Lar first smiles and then shakes her head that confirms teacher's interpretation of insufficient knowledge. Tea waits for 2.5 seconds and then allocates the turn to a willing speaker.

This extract brings further insights into understanding the teacher's interpretation of no knowledge. Firstly, a long silence after a teacher question followed by withdrawal of gaze may lead to an interpretation of insufficient knowledge, which results in a different kind of teacher response (`no idea?`). Secondly, nonverbal means like a smile followed by a headshake can function as a second-pair part to an epistemic status check and may confirm the teacher's interpretation of insufficient knowledge. Another interesting observation regarding this extract (also the reason why the analysis has started from the earlier exchange of Tea and Fln) is that the students' contribution shapes the topic development (the concept of chaos and how it leads to another target vocabulary item). Although Lar may have contributed to the general discussion on the paintings, the pedagogical shift to the translation of a particular vocabulary item

(`lebensziel`) has led to a nonverbal display of insufficient knowledge by Lar. Therefore, one can claim that the pedagogical shifts from one micro-context to another, and in this case from focus on meaning to focus on vocabulary, may potentially lead to displays of no knowledge, especially if recipiency is not properly established with the student to whom the teacher allocates the turn. A final observation is that the participants may use multilingual repertoires within the sequential environment of the phenomena under investigation, as one can see in some of the extracts in this chapter.

Extract 12 below is an example in which multi-semiotic resources enacted by a student become available for the teacher in order to interpret insufficient knowledge. Moreover, different resources that the teacher uses to establish recipiency and re-establish the participation framework (i.e. change of posture) are illustrated so as to understand the interactional unfolding of the efforts for eliciting responses from a student, who is not bodily available at pre-beginning position. In this sequence, the class has been working on the lyrics of a song, and before the extract below starts, they have been given around 10 minutes to discuss the second part of the lyrics in pairs. The teacher tries to start a discussion to engage students and also cover some of the vocabulary items, which he writes on the board after eliciting them from the students.

Extract 12: Happy couple, 13_08_06_10_2_03-27.

```
1     Tea: how do you feel when you see a very happy couple,
2                              #33 +points      #34 +mutual
                                  at Eml            gaze
```


Figure 33   Figure 34

```
3          (2.0)
4     Tea: Emily no idea?
           +((starts leaning towards the student))
            #35        #36
```

Figure 35   Figure 36

```
5         (0.8)
6     Eml: ((shaking head while averting gaze and rolling
                        #37                #38   #39
       eyes for 0.9 seconds and looks back at Tea))
                                            #40
```


Figure 37   Figure 38

Figure 39   Figure 40

```
7         (0.5)
8     Tea: it's normal for you.
9         (0.9)
```

```
10    Eml: °yeah°.
11         (0.4)
12    Tea: ↑yeah (.) okay you're not imp↑ressed.
                      +starts walking to the other side
13         (0.9)
14    Tea: any other reactions may be?
```

In line 1, in relation to the lyrics of the song, the teacher asks the whole class how they feel when they see a very happy couple. Although he starts his question by looking at the left side of the classroom, he turns his body to where Eml sits and points at her before the end of his turn. However, Eml is not orienting her body or her gaze while the teacher is asking the question, since she is tying her hair (figure 33). At the end of this turn, Eml and Tea engage in mutual gaze (figure 34).

Although the teacher obtains the student's gaze, there is a long pause in line 3. Therefore, the teacher, despite having established recipiency through gaze in lines 1 and 3, addresses Eml with her name again in turn initial position after the long silence, and requests for confirmation (`Emily no idea?`). It should be noted that his interpretation of no knowledge is also embodied by a change of posture (figure 35 and 36). This change of posture (leaning towards the student) aims to renew the participation framework and elicit a response from the student. More interestingly, after a 0.8 second of pause, this embodied action is followed by some nonverbal responses from the student, which themselves result in a turn being constructed. First, she averts her gaze from the teacher, rolls her eyes and looks back at the teacher (figures 37 to 40). Following a short pause, the teacher then speaks on behalf of Eml in line 8 by changing his posture to its previous position (`it's normal for you.`). This utterance shows the teacher's interpretation of Eml's lack of willingness to participate and makes it available for the other students as a signal for speaker change. The evidence for this claim comes from Eml's confirmation of Tea's utterance, and the teacher's walking away from her while giving an account to the lack of response (`okay you're not imp↑ressed.`). After a 0.9 second pause, the teacher starts looking for willing students who will answer the question (`any other reactions may be?`).

The analysis of this extract has brought further evidence to the claim that it is not only a long silence, which leads to a teacher's interpretation of insufficient knowledge using

'you don't know?' (see extract 13) or 'no idea?'. It has been sequentially shown that averting gaze or rolling eyes occur and can become resources for the teacher to interpret insufficient knowledge and thus renew the participation framework and move to another student in the class. Nevertheless, one should pay attention to the sequential positioning of these face gestures, which can be exemplified by comparing the last two extracts. In extract 11, Lar's gaze movement was pre-positioned before the teacher's interpretation in line 37. Yet, in this extract, Eml's averting gaze, rolling eyes and shaking head is post-positioned following the teacher's interpretation, and is therefore confirming teacher's interpretation.

A further point to mention with regard to this extract is the pedagogical micro-context and the issue of willingness to talk in relation to establishing recipiency and the content of 'no knowledge'. It has previously been shown that there are long verbal pauses (silences) in meaning and fluency contexts, which can be referred to as teacher wait-time. In this example, there is no focus on form, but the teacher is just trying to elicit some responses on the students' feelings (see line 1). Therefore, in such contexts, it would be pedagogically more sound and engaging to select a student with whom recipiency is established in pre-beginning position. So the student's lack of contribution is not a result of no knowledge, but may be more related to (not) being ready to express ideas/feelings and (un) willingness to talk. No mutual gaze at pre-beginning position, however, is not only observable in meaning and fluency contexts, but also in form and accuracy contexts, which require understanding and expression of grammatical knowledge in a given material-based task. For comparative purposes, it will be interesting to look at the following extract that includes talk with the same student (Eml) three weeks after the previous talk. The following extract will also illustrate a different facial gesture, raising eyebrows preceded by headshake, as a sequentially pre-positioned resource for the teacher to interpret insufficient knowledge.

Extract 13 below, from the 10th grade classroom, is a grammar activity based on the exercises in the students' book. The learners are supposed to decide whether the apostrophe in the words given will be before or after 's'.

Extract 13: Apostrophe, 31_29_06_10_1_28-30.

```
1     Tea: Emily? ((no mutual gaze))
2              +Eml and tea look at the book
```

```
3         (3.0)
4    Tea: seven?=
5    Eml: =ehm: i'm going to the doc- (.)↑docto:rs,
6         and ↑then: (.) the: tch:: ((reads from the book))
7    Tea: chem- [chemists]
8             +tea gazes at Eml
9    Eml:      [chemists] ((reads from the book))
10   Tea:                  +gazes back at his book
11        (0.6)
12   Eml: ehm::: (.)<°the apostrophe° after the es>
13   Tea:                      +looks at   +looks
                                Eml         at the
                                            book
14        (1.5)
15   Eml: #41((raises her eyebrows)) #42
```


Figure 41   Figure 42

```
16        (1.0)
          ((looks at the teacher and averts gaze immediately))
17   Tea: after the ↑es::.
18        +gazes at Eml
19        (2.2)
20   Tea: why?
21        (3.1)
22→  Eml: + starts shaking her head
```

Figure 43   Figure 44   Figure 45

```
23→  Tea:      >you don't know<.
24   Tea: what did other people write.
          +looks at the other side of the classroom
25   Tea:  sam?
```

In line 1, the teacher selects Eml for answering the next question by saying her name aloud. Eml, like other students, is looking at her book and she does not (verbally or nonverbally) display that she wants to be the next speaker. After 3.0 seconds of silence, the teacher reminds Eml the sentence they are working on (`seven?`). In lines 5 and 6, Eml starts reading the sentence from the book, and encounters a pronunciation problem, which is followed by a repair from the teacher in line 7. After dealing with the trouble, Tea again starts looking at his book. In line 12, Eml gives a candidate response with a hesitation marker at the beginning, and slow and silent talk (`<°the apostrophe° after the es >`).

During Eml's candidate response, the teacher looks at Eml and then looks back at his book. There is a very long verbal silence accompanied by nonverbal actions from Eml: after a 1.5 second silence in line 14, Eml raises her eyebrows (figure 41 and 42), and then keeps looking at her book for a further 1.0 second. She then looks at the teacher for confirmation or any kind of response, and averts her gaze immediately. Tea gazes at Eml after this while he asks for confirmation in line 17. This is followed by a long 2.2 seconds silence in line 19, a request for explanation in line 20 (`why?`), and another very

long pause in line 21. In line 22, Eml starts shaking her head, (figures 43, 44, and 45) which signals insufficient knowledge to the teacher. In the subsequent turn, the teacher initiates his classic move (`>you don't know<.`) and displays his interpretation of the student's insufficient knowledge while Eml continues shaking her head. In line 24, he looks for other students to allocate the turn to and to get a correct answer to the question.

This extract showed that the teacher not only makes use of silence, but also other nonverbal means like a headshake as a resource to interpret students' insufficient knowledge. Another interesting finding is that raised eyebrows may be an early signal for a student's insufficient knowledge. In addition to this, in the first part of the data analysis chapter, it was argued that when there is a focus on exercises in the book, students' claims of no knowledge are followed by immediate follow-ups like 'you don't know' with little or no pause. In this example, there are long silences and accompanying nonverbal indicators from the student before the teacher allocates the turn to another student. This may be a result of the lack of an explicit, verbal claim of insufficient knowledge from the student. A problem in this extract is that we cannot be sure of the source of the insufficient knowledge: in line 20, the teacher questions the candidate response of the student, and Eml's display of insufficient knowledge seems to be sequentially relevant to this wh- question, rather than to the initial question in the book.

Summary of the section

The extracts analysed in this section brought evidence to the claim that teachers rely on visible practices of students to interpret insufficient knowledge and initiate certain types of requests for confirmation, which I am referring to as 'epistemic status checks' that make insufficient knowledge relevant for the talk. The resources that the teachers orient to while interpreting no knowledge are sequentially placed between a teacher question and the verbal turn of interpretation (e.g. no idea? or you don't know?), and occur either during or after a long silence. Extract 8 is a simple and typical example of how these interpretations of no knowledge are enacted: a teacher question followed by a very long silence during which the teacher scans the class only to find that all of the students avoid mutual gaze, therefore are not willing to give a second pair part and participate. However, as discussed earlier, one cannot simply take a long silence and students' avoidance of mutual gaze to describe a teacher's interpretation of no knowledge. In

extract 8, for instance, the teacher verbally makes insufficient knowledge of students observable in line 7 (`you don't know what an ↑ad is`) by also specifying the source of trouble, which is followed by a student-bidding-for-turn subsequently, and a following turn allocation. In the extracts analysed in this section, the teacher used 'you don't know' (twice); and 'no idea?', 'name + no idea?', 'no idea, no?', and 'no?' . The collection of these instances shows that 'no idea?' is the most frequent one among these 'epistemic status checks'.

The student moves that trigger the teacher's interpretation of no knowledge are found to be: (1) a long silence followed by a student smile (extract 9), (2) a very long silence during which a student fails to find information in material that was made relevant as a source of information by the teacher, and displays this failure through gaze (extract 10), (3) a silence followed by withdrawal/averting of gaze (extract 11), and a long silence followed by a headshake (extract 13). Extract 12 qualifies as a different kind of resource, which includes the teacher's embodied interpretation of no knowledge (see the analysis) by changing posture (by leaning towards the student) to elicit a response and interpret insufficient knowledge consequentially. The teacher's 'epistemic status checks', which also function as devices to interpret no knowledge, most of the time project a turn allocation in our collection (but see extract 10). In three of the extracts I analysed in this section, however, they trigger a response from the students that functions as a confirmation of student's own insufficient knowledge. In extract 9, for instance, the teacher's interpretation of no knowledge (£no?£) is followed by a verbal confirmation of not knowing by the student in the subsequent turn. Likewise, both in extracts 11 and 12, the student gives a second pair part to teacher's request for confirmation, but this time nonverbally. In extract 11, the confirmation of no knowledge is a headshake with smile, whereas in extract 12, it is a combination of averting gaze, rolling eyes and shaking head (figures 37 to 40). Therefore, they display the students' state of no knowledge through nonverbal means, and are followed by turn allocation, as is the case for our typical examples.

The pedagogical micro-contexts that have been illustrated, this time, are mostly form-focused (three vocabulary, one grammar) as opposed to two examples (extracts 9 and 12) in which the focus is on meaning and this reflects the overall average of our whole collection. In extract 11, there is a shift from focus on meaning to focus on form by student-initiated vocabulary items and code-switching, which may create a mismatch

between pedagogy and interaction (Seedhouse 2008) and therefore lead to displays of no knowledge by Lar and its confirmation after the teacher's follow up turn. In extract 9, there is also a significant problem, which may have led to confusion of the student who is already engaged in interaction with the teacher. Between lines 13 and 16, the teacher asks four questions in a row in an extended turn, which results in a very long pause and smile from the student. What is more, after teacher's interpretation of no knowledge, the learner confirms his state of insufficient knowledge.

Having completed the analyses of the first two sections, the findings so far indicate that there is not much further engagement from the students after claims of insufficient knowledge and the teacher's interpretation of them, and they almost always result in allocation of turns to other students. In line with our third research question, the following section will reveal the teacher's interactional resources that have the potential to create student engagement in follow up turns after CIK.

4.3 Teacher's Interactional Resources Used to Deal with CIK

The analysis thus far has descriptively revealed the interactional environment and employment of students' claims and teacher's interpretations of insufficient knowledge. The examples given represent the majority of the practices in terms of how teachers manage a student's claim of insufficient knowledge, and what kind of relevant next actions these claims and interpretations project. Our findings have clearly shown that a claim of insufficient knowledge is a dispreferred action, and is either responded to through making 'lack of knowledge' audible to others, or followed by a turn allocation and thus a renegotiation of participant roles by teacher's turn allocation. Yet, there are instances in the data where the teacher deploys certain resources that lead to further student participation, which is a desired educational outcome. Therefore, this section will exemplify teacher's interactional and pedagogical resources preceded by a claim of insufficient knowledge so as to argue that there are 'effective' follow-ups to CIK that have the potential to take a student from a state of 'not knowing' to 'knowing/displaying understanding'. It should be noted that I am not trying to suggest certain strategies that are conducive to language learning or that are more fruitful in terms of the way claims of insufficient knowledge are managed. What I am trying to do is to show that allocating the turn to another student is not the only option in all contexts. Teachers can also use resources like deictic gestures, embodied vocabulary

explanations, code-switching or designedly incomplete utterances; and these will be exemplified in this section.

The following example illustrates a particular kind of resource that the teacher uses after a student claims insufficient knowledge: a deictic gesture, which he enacts to display the source of information by pointing at a particular word in a text and making it visible for the student who claims no knowledge as well as for the other students. In extract 14, the class is working on a book entitled 'Rape: a love story' by Joyce Carol Oates. In this specific episode, the teacher is asking a question on the potential consequences of a refusal to speak to the judge or to go to the trial. It should be mentioned here that the answer to this question is hidden in the paragraph that one of the students have read aloud a couple of minutes before the teacher asks this question.

Extract 14: Subpoena, 4_04_06_10_19-40.

```
1     Tea: what will probably happen if she refuses to speak
2          to the judge or to ↑go (0.9) to:: the trial,
3          what would happen ↓then (.) most probably.
4          (3.6)
5     Tea: Yes: (.) what do you think?=
6          #46 +points at Lu2
```
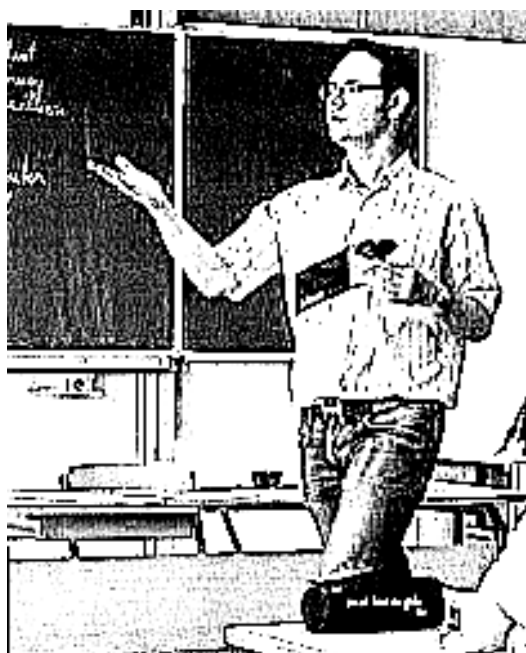

Figure 46

```
7  →  Lu2: =°i don't know°.
```

```
8           (0.7)
9    Tea:   >you don't know?<
10          (0.8)
11   Tea:   well (.) you only get a ↑let↓ter (0.3) f↑ro:m
12          (0.7) er: (.) from the courthouse (0.1) and that
13          is what's called a subpoena.
14                          #47 +points at his book
```


Figure 47

```
15          the difficult word we saw in line ↑five.
16   Lu2:   °subpoena°.
17   Tea:   O↑kay (.) and subPOENA is the let↓ter that (0.8)
18          actually summons you to the courtroom.
```

The teacher, from line 1 to line 3, faces all the students and directs his question to all of them. After waiting for 3.6 seconds, Tea allocates the turn to Lu2 by pointing at him. At this point, there is no verbal or nonverbal signal from Lu2 as a willing-next speaker. The teacher points at him with an open palm (figure 46), to make his turn allocation more noticeable, since Lu2 is not looking at Tea.

In line 7, Lu2 initiates a claim of insufficient knowledge with no pause and with a decreased volume. The teacher waits 0.7 second before he orients to the student's claim of no knowledge (>you don't know?<) in line 9. So far, analysis of the extract bears resemblances to the analyses carried out in the first section in terms of how the teacher responds to a student's claim of no knowledge. However, after a 0.8 second

silence, instead of allocating the turn to another speaker or asking for contributions from other learners, he continues to explain what would happen if someone refuses to go to the trial, which shifts the pedagogical focus to the teaching of a vocabulary item. In lines 11 and 12, he explains what would happen (you get a letter from the courthouse) and introduces the target vocabulary item (`subpoena`) with an emphasis on the word in line 13. Meanwhile, he holds the book and shows to Lu2 and the whole class the specific line where they can see the word by pointing at it (figure 47). In line 16, Lu2 silently repeats the word and therefore displays his orientation to the item being taught. In lines 17 and 18, Tea further explains the word for the whole class.

Although this extract does not necessarily elicit further responses from the student(s) after a display of no knowledge, it is significant for our analysis in many ways. One important thing is that the teacher does not simply allocate the turn to another student, but shifts the pedagogical focus to a vocabulary-oriented one and explains and exemplifies it by using his book and a deictic pointing gesture to display students the learning goal. There is, however, no evidence for learning and no further resources (i.e. follow up questions) to engage students, but at least Lu2 displays his orientation to the learning goal by repeating the word, and therefore stays tuned to the ongoing interaction even after his claim of no knowledge, which differs from the examples in section 1. To sum up, this extract illustrates how the teacher uses materials and pointing in a sequentially relevant position to manage CIK and to make a transition in his pedagogical agenda. There are also instances in our data, like the extract below, when a student who claims insufficient knowledge explicitly demonstrates understanding after a teacher follow up turn, which includes an embodied vocabulary explanation.

Extract 15 comes from the 11th grade classroom, and in this particular episode, the students are working on the book 'My Son the Fanatic'. Before the extract starts, Ben has been reading a paragraph from the book, and his pronunciation of a word, then, emerges as a vocabulary-learning goal for the students. Again, there is a shift from discussion on the events in the book, which is a focus-on-meaning, to a vocabulary item, which may be considered as a focus on form.

Extract 15: Mutter, 42_04_06_11_41-06.

```
1      Tea: do you know what mutter ↑means.

2  →   Mar: °no:°.

3           +shakes her head
       Tea:      +turns his body towards Mar

4      Tea: °you don't° ↑know.

5      Tea: it means almost to whisper to:: speak er: qui-

6           very quietly, and when you just hea::r,
```
                                          #48#49#50

Figure 48   Figure 49   Figure 50

```
7      Tea: er:::, a (word here and there),

8      Mar: +((imitates muttering sound))

9      Tea: ex↑actly (.) then you are muttering.
```

In line 1, the teacher asks the whole class whether they know what mutter means. Immediately after he asks this question, Mar, in a quiet way, claims no knowledge (°no:°.) and shakes her head at the same time. Before Mar completes her second pair part, the teacher orients his body towards Mar and gazes at her. In line 4, with a 'you don't know' preface, the teacher starts to explain the meaning of the word rather than trying to find another student to answer this known-information question. In line 6, while he is emphasising the word 'hear', he moves his left hand to his ear and tries to display the action with a 'fade-away' movement, and thus embodies his vocabulary explanation (figures 48, 49 and 50). In line 8, before the teacher completes his turn, Mar produces a whispering sound, which demonstrates her understanding of the word

'mutter'. Her contribution is followed by an assessment by the teacher in line 9 with a strong positive evaluation marker (ex↑actly), also produced with emphasis on the initial sound and rising intonation.

This extract shows that following a claim of no knowledge on a vocabulary item, the teacher can make use of hand gestures to explain the items to be learned while giving a verbal explanation. This embodied resource proves to be an efficient one, since Mar takes up and demonstrates her understanding by producing a whispering sound, which is positively evaluated by the teacher on the third turn with an explicit positive evaluation, and is also marked suprasegmentally. One can here argue that the student moves from a state of no knowledge, as she displays in line 2, to a state of understanding (line 8). This micro moment of understanding is co-constructed with the teacher in situ, by making use of verbal and nonverbal resources. It is not only the teacher's verbal and embodied resources that are used during explaining this vocabulary item, but also the student's claim of no knowledge which triggers an explanation and leads to a micro moment of understanding.

As the data comes from multilingual classrooms in which the teacher and the students share (at least) three more languages other than English, use of multilingual repertoires is a common strategy for participants. In extract 16, the 11th grade classroom is working on an exercise from their book, which requires them to produce sentences by using conditionals (appendix G). The activity is contextualised by giving different situations that are about social conscience, so that the students can produce utterances by using the grammatical structures being focused in learner-generated sentences triggered by the given situations.

Extract 16: Social conscience, 48_18_06_11_30-57.

```
1    Tea: now let us have a look at (.) some ex↑amples,
2         that ask you to think about your own social
3         conscience (.) so what do you think (.)our social
4         conscience is (.) does anybody have an idea?
5         (1.3)
6    Tea: Jan?
7         +points at Jan
```

```
8    Tea: what is .hh what is social conscience?
                              #51   #52    #53
     Jan:                         +starts changing
                              Posture
```



```
Figure 51           Figure 52           Figure 53
9        (3.1)((looks at his book))
10   Tea: well what is your conscience first of all?
11   Jan:                    + looks at Tea
12   Tea: if i say i: think you have a bad conscience
13        because today you be↑have .hh like a model
14        student, what does that mean?
15        (2.0)
16 →Jan: £i don't know£ [what ] (that) is.

17   Tea:                [a bad]
18   Tea: you don't kno-  you don't have a conscience.
19        (1.1)
20        you don't know what it is.
21   Jan: £↑no:£.
          + headshake
22   Tea: £Okay£ does anybody know what your conscience is.
23           +looks at all students
24        (2.1)
25   Tea: in german gewis↓sen
                    conscience
26        (1.0)
27        >ein gutes gewissen ein schlechtes gewissen<
           a  good conscience  a    bad      conscience
```

```
28        (1.0)
29   Tea: °(okay)°if you have a ↑bad conscience
30        how do you feel?
31                      +gazes at Ben
32        (0.8)
33   Tea:  Ben.
34        #54 +points at Ben
```


Figure 54

```
35   Ben: ↑bad.
36   Ss:  ((laughter))
37   Tea: please try to make a ↑whole sentence.
38   Ben: ehm (0.4)<if i have bad> .hh conscience i feel
39        unlucky i feel ↑bad i feel un:: (well).
40   Tea: yes: (.) guilty may be.
```

In lines 1 and 2, Tea sets the pedagogical agenda of the activity on the course book. However, before starting this activity, he first asks the whole class in lines 3 and 4 whether they know the meaning of social conscience. The teacher waits 1.3 seconds after his question but there is no willing student, since none of the students look at the teacher or bid for turn. In line 6, the teacher allocates the turn to Jan by pointing at him and saying his name, while Jan has not oriented his body or gaze to the teacher. In line 8, the teacher repeats his question to him (what is .hh what is social conscience?). This is followed by a long 3.1 seconds silence during which Jan changes his posture to an upright position and looks at his book to find a clue (figures

111

51, 52, and 53). In line 10, the teacher splits the phrase social conscience and asks whether he knows the word conscience, and Jan gazes at Tea while he is uttering the word conscience with an emphasis. Between lines 12 and 14, the teacher expands his question by giving an example.

Following 2.0 seconds of pause, Jan claims insufficient knowledge with a smiley voice in line 16. In line 18, the teacher repeats the student's no knowledge claim with a cut off and restart (`you don't kno-  you don't have a conscience.`), waits for a further 1.1 second and then reformulates his interpretation in line 20 (`you don't know what it is.`). Jan, in the subsequent turn, confirms this with a smiley voice and rising intonation (`£↑no:£.`) combined with headshake. In line 22, looking at other students, he asks the meaning of the word again but there is no uptake from other students. Reasoning from the lack of contributions from the students, the teacher in line 25 first gives the German equivalent of the word (`in german gewis↓sen`), waits for a second, and then gives an example in German by using opposite categories (good and bad) to clarify the meaning of the word conscience. However, there is no uptake from the learners for a further 1.0 second, thus he reformulates his question in lines 28 and 29 (`if you have a ↑bad conscience how do you feel?`) and allocates the turn to Ben by pointing at him in line 34 (figure 54). Unfortunately, we cannot see the student's face in the camera; however, judging from his immediate response with no hesitation or pause, it can be claimed that the teacher has already pre-established recipiency with him through gaze or other means. Ben's response triggers laughter from other students, which may have resulted from its sarcastic delivery. Following this laughter, Tea initiates a repair and asks for a full sentence although Ben's answer in line 35 was sequentially and grammatically acceptable. Between lines 38 and 39, Ben elaborates on his answer and this is followed by an agreement token and a further candidate response from the teacher.

In terms of the interactional management of CIK, this extract informs us in many ways. Firstly, Jan was not physically or interactionally available and he displayed this in many ways; recipiency was not pre-established with the student. Then, this leads to long pauses, as was the case for many examples shown in the first section of the analysis chapter. What is more striking with this extract is that the teacher consults his multilingual repertoires (translation and code-switching for exemplification purposes) in order to make meaning clear, which seemed to work since further participation was

triggered with one of the students, who answered the teacher's question with an immediate delivery. Yet, the analysis does not bring evidence for a demonstration of understanding or learning from this example. Nevertheless, the important thing for the analysis is that the teacher may consult multilingual resources after claims of no knowledge, which becomes a pedagogical resource to overcome troubles in understanding.

In the extract above, I illustrated how multilingualism is used as a resource after a student's claim of no knowledge. Yet, it is not always the teacher who initiates a turn in a language other than the language being taught. The extract below exemplifies a case of student-initiated code-switching (Ustunel and Seedhouse 2005) within the sequential environment of claims of insufficient knowledge. In this sequence, based on a text and pictures in students' book, the learners and the teacher are trying to figure out the meaning that the author is trying to convey through the use of different colours and images.

Extract 17: Question mark, 24_18_06_10_1_14-40.

```
1     Tea: okay ↑so: (.) er:: these paintings are ↑NOT
2          (.)very colourful, the painter doesn't use vivid
3          colours, now (.) why do you think he uses gra:y,
4          (1.0)
5          ((tea looks at his book))
6          brown and: (0.4) white and black.
7          (1.8)
8     Tea: what i[s the effect?]
9     Len:        [because the::] colou::r,
10    Tea:                              +gazes at Len
11         (3.3)
12    Len: °er:° (0.7) they make not happ(h)y£.
13         (2.2)
14    Tea: yes [okay these colours-
15    Len:     [(      )colourful
16    Tea: they look ↑sad.
17         (2.0)
```

```
18        ((tea walks to the other side of the class))
19   Tea: can you try to explain a bit more, Emily?
20   Eml: +Eml holds up her finger
                                   +Tea gazes at Eml
21 →Eml: ech wollt eppes anescht soen =

          i  wanted to say something else
22   Tea: =okay tell me.
23   Eml: er: there are many little signs to show what,
24        (0.3) he thinks about.
     Tea:          +tea looks at the book
25        (1.2)
26   Tea: YES:: (.) okay there are (.) er:: (.)sort of
27        graffiti:, er: graffiti captions or slo↓gans
28        that tell us (.) what billy is actually thinking.
29   Tea  can you give us an ex↑ample.
30        (1.2)
31 →Eml: °déi fragezeichen do°.

          those question marks
32        (1.3)
33   Tea: in English?=
34 →Eml: =i don't £know£.
35   Tea: a question mark, yes: (.) for example there is a
36        big question ↑mark.
37   Eml: (              )
38   Tea: yes:: (.) so >can you try to explain<
39        why do you think they use question mark?
40        can you explain why, (0.3) the painter uses a
41        question mark next to: (a photo of him)?
42   Eml: beca- because he doesn't know wha- who to talk
43        ↓to: a[nd=
44   Tea:       [yes
45   Eml: =he doesn't know what he has done false and he
46        doesn't know what to £do£.
47   Tea: yes exactly.
```

From line 1 to line 6, Tea asks Len a question regarding the authors' use of specific colours and he asks the effect of this selection in line 8. Len, in line 9, self-selects herself as the next speaker with an overlap to Tea's utterance and gives a candidate response between lines 9 and 12. The teacher closes the exchange in line 16, and he moves on to choose another speaker who will elaborate on the topic. In line 20, Eml bids for turn and nominates herself as the next speaker. In the following turn, Eml switches to Luxembourgish (tr: I wanted to say something else), which is a significant action to be discussed in many ways.

In line 21, Eml initiates a new interactional episode in Luxembourgish and at the same time checks the teacher's position (Wei, 2002). Eml's initiation is immediately followed by a go-ahead response (Schegloff, 2007) by Tea in line 22. One thing that Eml's contribution in Luxembourgish does here is that the learner, if not challenged, shifted the teacher's intended agenda by offering a candidate understanding, which may have relevance to learner agency (Jacknick, 2011). In line 23, Eml shifts the topic to certain pictures in the text in English. In line 26, with a strongly marked agreement token, Tea accepts Eml's contribution and asks a follow-up question requesting an example from her (line 29).

After a 1.2 sec silence, Eml again switches to Luxembourgish in line 31 (tr: 'those question marks') with a noticeably quiet voice. The teacher waits 1.3 seconds, his gaze still fixed at the book, before he orients to a monolingual (English only) mode (Slotte-Lüttge 2007) and requests Eml to speak in English. In the following turn, Eml switches to English but only for claiming insufficient knowledge (`i don't £know£.`) for the English equivalent of her previous utterance with a smiley voice. In line 35, by first providing the meaning in English (`a question mark`) and then with an acknowledgement token (`yes:`), the teacher performs two actions; first, he repairs the trouble caused by the lack of knowledge of the English equivalent of Eml's contribution, and second, he acknowledges her candidate response in Luxembourgish as a sufficient one. After resolving the trouble by giving the English equivalent 'question marks', the teacher asks elaboration questions (lines 38 to 41) that require further explanations from the student which are successfully responded to by Eml and are confirmed by the teacher in line 47 with an agreement token and a positive assessment. So the teacher not only deals with a vocabulary or conceptual retrieval problem that

becomes relevant with code-switching and a claim of no knowledge, but also leads the student to sufficient answers using information seeking questions that elaborate her answer.

This extract is interesting for the analysis of claims of no knowledge in many ways. First of all, Eml's claim of no knowledge does not refer to a lack of knowledge at content level, as she successfully provides a correct answer by resorting to her multilingual resources. Yet, the unique nature of language classrooms and the teacher's pedagogical agenda may lead to a claim of no knowledge at linguistic level (not being able to retrieve a word in the target language). This may, as this example shows, project a teacher-initiated repair (`in English?`) and an orientation to a monolingual mode. Secondly, the following teacher turn after the claim of insufficient knowledge is different from the previous examples given so far in that the teacher does not allocate the turn to another student or does not initiate a typical 'you don't know?' response; but first deals with the vocabulary retrieval problem and then accepts the student's contribution. Furthermore, using sequentially relevant information-seeking/elaboration questions, the teacher elicits responses from the student that help to manage this meaning and fluency context quite successfully.

There are certain resources that help to recall information when a teacher wants to elicit responses from students. A review of literature shows that teachers use what Koshik (2002) calls Designedly Incomplete Utterances (DIUs) as a pedagogical resource. In extract 18 below, there is a particular example of a student's claim of insufficient knowledge followed by a DIU, and this resource proves to be successful. The micro-context in which this interaction unfolds is a typical form and accuracy context (Seedhouse 2004), where the pedagogical focus is on giving accurate answers to form focused, material driven, questions (in this case accuracy refers to "grammatical correctness"). In this specific activity, the students are supposed to combine clauses in their textbook (see appendix H) and form meaningful sentences using conditional structures. After getting an answer from a student, the teacher writes the sentence on the board and underlines where necessary. Before line 1, the teacher has already written the sentence on the board, and is now trying to emphasise the grammatical structures.

Extract 18: Grammatically speaking (part 1) , 45_18_06_11_20-24.

```
1    Tea: so what do we ↑nee:d to: (.) make a sentence in the
2         third conditional. >we have our if clause,<
                                    #55 +underlines
```
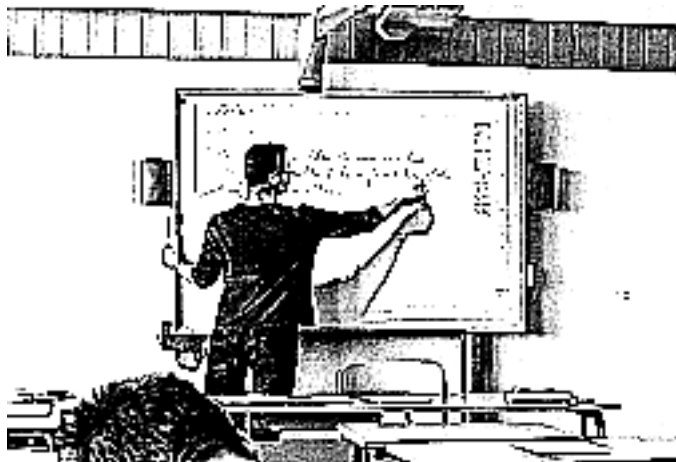

Figure 55

```
3    Tea: which we normally use to start the ↑sentence.
4         so here we have, <hadn't left>.
5                        +underlines
6    Tea: what tense is that?
7    Em2:            #56 +holds up her finger
8         (0.8)((looks back to students))
9    Tea: #57((establishes mutual gaze with Em2))
```


Figure 56   Figure 57

```
10   Tea: yes?
11   Em2: past perfect.
12   Tea: very goo:d. okay the past perfect.
13   Tea:                +writes on the board for 6.1 sec
```

In line 1 the teacher starts reviewing the rule on using conditionals, facing at the whiteboard, and underlines the 'if clause' in line 2. Note that the focus on grammar is emphasised in many ways. In line 4, while he is underlining the related grammatical use (`<hadn't left>`), he changes the pace of his talk and stresses the third form of the verb 'leave'. In line 6, he asks the type of the tense, therefore also emphasising grammatical metalanguage. Before Tea completes his turn (still writing on the board), Em2 holds up her finger (figure 56) and after 0.8, the teacher establishes mutual gaze with Em2 (figure 57) and allocates the turn to her in line 10 (`yes?`). She gives a candidate answer in line 11, which receives explicit positive feedback (`very good`) (Wong 2009) followed by a repetition of her response. Upon receiving a correct answer from the student, the teacher writes 'past perfect' under the relevant phrase on the white board.

Extract 18: Grammatically speaking (part 2).

```
14    Tea: ↑a::nd(th).
15         (1.0)
16    Tea: here we ↑have:,
17              +starts underlying a clause
18         (3.2)
19         ((looks at Eml, Eml is writing in her notebook))
20    Tea: Emily?
21    Em2:      +Em2 looks at the board
22         (1.3)
23    Tea: [would:]
24    Em2: [er::: ]
25         (0.8)
26    Em2: would a::nd,
27         (3.0)
28    Tea: [.h]
29         +orients his body towards the board
30    Em2: [i ]nfinitive.
31         (0.6)
32    Tea: well we normally say would have .
                             +starts writing
```

```
33         (0.9)
34    Tea: plus:: (.) what is this?
                        +pointing at past participle form
35         (1.5)
36    Tea: ((establishes mutual gaze with Em2))
37         grammatically speaking? found (.)I have found.
38         (0.8)
39  → Em2: °i don't know°.

          #58+looks at Ben for 2.2 sec
```


Figure 58   Figure 59

```
40    Em2:#59 i (£f(h)orgot the name right now£).
41    Em2:    +establishes mutual gaze with Tea
42  → Tea: the ↑pa:st.=
43    Em2: =participle.
44    Tea: participle good.
45    Tea: #60((writes on the board for 8 sec))
```
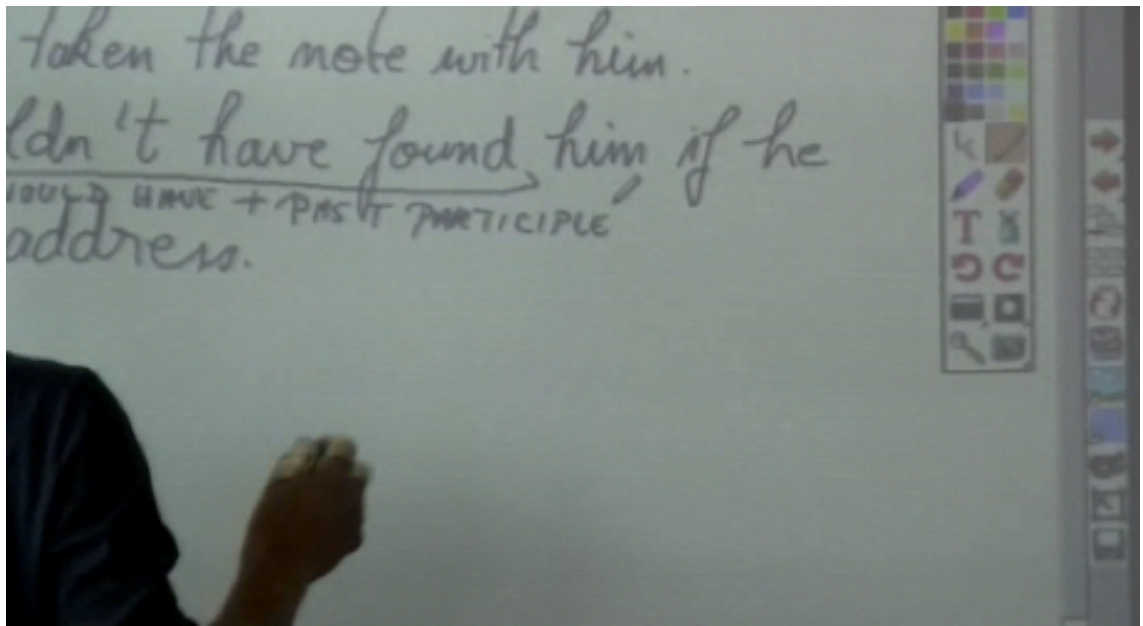
Figure 60

```
46    Tea: past participle.
47         (1.0)
48    Tea: o↑kay. (3.0) let's go for sentence ↑four (.)
```

From lines 14 to 16, facing towards the whiteboard, Tea produces an incomplete utterance while explicating the pedagogical goal by underlining the grammatical structures: ↑a::nd(th) (1.0) here we have:, (3.2). The stretching in the words, the noticeably very long silences and the intonation contour that registers continuation may be accepted as an initiation, which requires a student to give a response. However, remember that although Tea directly looks at Em2 in line 19 after he finished writing and positioned himself as the listener facing the classroom (his gaze fixed at Em2), Em2 disengages from the ongoing interaction by writing in her notebook and shifting her gaze away from the teacher. One can see here that recipiency should and will be renegotiated since Em2 has not made herself available as a willing next speaker. In line 20, by addressing to the student with her name, a new participation framework is achieved and Em2 looks at the blackboard (line 21). After a 1.3 second silence, Em2 fails to provide an answer and Tea, in line 23, partly answers his own question (would), which overlaps with Em2's hesitation marker. In line 26, Eml repeats the word made available by Tea and projects a continuation with a turn final a::nd,, which is stretched and produced with a type of intonation that indicates potential continuation. Preceded by a 3.0 sec pause, Em2 completes her turn (line 30).

Immediately after Em2's candidate answer, Tea positions himself away from Em2, and starts writing the correct answer on the board. In line 32, he produces a dispreferred response, mitigated by a discourse marker (`well`) and orients back to his pedagogical agenda. He then initiates another question (`what is this?`) by pointing at the past participle form written on the whiteboard with his right hand, and establishes mutual gaze with Em2. Following a 1.0 silence, he reformulates his question by explicitly indicating the type of response required (`grammatically speaking?`) and giving an example in the same turn. Another relatively long silence is followed by a CIK in line 39. This claims an epistemic state of not knowing the answer, which may also be an indication of the fact that preceding reformulations and exemplifications made by the teacher were not sufficient to create mutual understanding.

When Em2 begins producing this turn, she shifts her gaze from the board and the teacher (figure 58) to a peer (Ben) and holds it for 2.2 seconds. This may indicate that she, at that moment in interaction, lacks the resources to provide an answer to Tea's question; and therefore may be seeking help from one of her peers (in this case, the closest student to her in terms of physical proximity). Since Ben fails to provide a response, Em2 shifts her gaze back to the teacher (figure 59), who has kept on holding his gaze towards Em2 during the renewed participation framework. Immediately after she positions herself back to the teacher, Em2, in line 40, provides an account (`i £f(h)orgot the name £`), combined with a smiley voice, of her failure to respond the question by simply saying that she forgot the name of the particular (most probably) grammatical category. By claiming that she forgot the name of the grammatical category, she may be trying to display the teacher that at a certain time in past she was is a state of knowing the answer to this question; but at this moment in interaction, she is in the state of 'not-knowing', or 'not-remembering', which eventually led her to claim insufficient knowledge. So it can be suggested that this is a vocabulary retrieval problem.

What is significant here for an analyst is, then, the kind of relevant next action(s) her turn projects, which can only be explained by focusing on the following turns using a next-turn-proof procedure. In line 42 (`the ↑pa:st.=`), the teacher produces what Koshik (2002, 2010) calls a Designedly Incomplete Utterance (DIU), which is immediately completed by Eml in a latched format (`=participle.`). Her display of understanding by completing the teacher's DIU is followed by explicit positive feedback (`participle good.`) in line 44. Tea, afterwards, writes Em2's contribution on the whiteboard (figure 60), hence making

the student's correct contribution visibly available to other students. One can argue that the interactional resource that the teacher employed (a DIU) is both a sequentially relevant and a pedagogically effective one. Considering that the student gave an account for her insufficient knowledge by framing it as a matter of 'forgetting', she somehow prompted the teacher's follow up turn: Tea designed his elicitation resource in a way that requires completion and gives a hint to the student to remember the grammatical metalanguage. Furthermore, his design of the turn with a rising intonation and stretching of sounds made the requirement for the completion accessible for Em2.

Summary of the section

The extracts analysed in this section show significant differences from the ones that were examined in section 1, although the delivery of 'claims of insufficient knowledge' demonstrate common features in their sequential positioning. Although these are rare examples from my collection of CIK, it was demonstrated that allocating the turn to another student is not the only instructional option for teachers to manage insufficient knowledge. The resources the teacher used to further engage students even after they claim insufficient knowledge are using deictic gestures, embodied vocabulary explanations, translation and code-switching, and DIUs. It should be kept in mind that one cannot claim that these resources employed by the teacher lead to learning; however, they prove to be fruitful interactional resources deployed after CIK in that they contribute to the progressivity of talk, enhance further student participation and in some cases even lead to claims/demonstrations of understanding.

One example for this is the embodied vocabulary explanation by the teacher, subsequently positioned after a claim of insufficient knowledge by Mar in extract 15. Even though she claimed insufficient knowledge, the teacher's embodied multimodal vocabulary explanation set the grounds for her to demonstrate understanding. One can claim here that within micro-moments of interaction, she moved from a state of not knowing (and explicitly claiming it verbally and nonverbally) to a state of 'understanding' and demonstrating it. Another example is extract 18, where the teacher's interactional resource, using a DIU, helps the learner to remember the answer to the question. Yet, it should also be considered that there are other factors that have an impact on the sequential unfolding of this DIU and the student's completion of it. Em2, in line 40, gives an account for her state of no knowledge, and displays her problem as one of 'not remembering'. A DIU then, gives a hint to the

student to recall previously learned information, and resolves the problem of not remembering. The other examples in this section are not necessarily ones that lead to demonstrations of understanding, but are different from the ones in section one, where a student's claim of no knowledge led to change of speakership. However, in this section, CIK is followed by other teacher actions that help the progressivity of the talk, and lead to further engagement of the students.

The enactment of multilingual repertoires, in the form of code-switching or translation, can be found in sequences where there are claims of no knowledge from the students. In extract 16, translation and code-switching seem to be further resources employed by the teacher after unsuccessful attempts to engage students. In extract 16, the teacher consults his multilingual resources, although it is not the same student who engages in talk in the following turns. Nevertheless, one should remember that this is a multi-party talk, and teacher elicitations are initiated for all the participants in the classroom; the aim is to make the meaning of the vocabulary item 'heard' to all students, even if the student who claimed no knowledge did not engage further. Unlike this example, in extract 17, it is the student who initiates code-switches; first to negotiate the topic, and then to give the meaning of the word in one of her first languages (Luxembourgish). Her code-switching is challenged by the teacher with a repair that leads to a claim of no knowledge. As this is a meaning and fluency context, the teacher accepts the student contribution later, but still gives the meaning of the word in English, and this leads to further engagement by Eml.

In extract 14, again instead of moving on to another student directly, the teacher uses deictic gestures to explain the meaning of a word, since he interprets the source of no knowledge as a lack of knowledge of a vocabulary item. One interesting finding is that in almost all of the examples in the collection for section three, the focus is on form, and especially vocabulary (in extract 18, it is grammar). According to this finding, then, it is evident from the data that when there are verbal claims of insufficient knowledge on language forms, the teacher may use different resources to help the students participate. Finally, it should be kept in mind that the intention here is not to claim one interactional resource the teacher uses to be superior to another one. However, one should remember that student engagement is key to successful learning and teaching experiences in language classrooms. As Walsh (2002) suggests, "where language use and pedagogic purpose coincide, learning opportunities are facilitated" (p. 5). The way teachers manage claims of insufficient knowledge, then, depending on whether they lead to further participation or not, can be a sign of L2

Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh 2006), and this will be discussed where relevant in the following chapter.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter illustrated different ways 'insufficient/no knowledge' is made relevant and interactionally managed by participants in two EAL classrooms in Luxembourg. Since the overall findings will be discussed in chapter 5 with their implications for research and practice, and as the analysis of each section has been briefly summarised at the end of 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3; this section will be concluded by reviewing the intended aims and mentioning some of the findings of each section in relation to the research questions.

Section 4.1 addressed the first research question:

1) How are claims of insufficient knowledge sequentially and temporally co-constructed within activity sequences in EAL classrooms?
a) What relevant next teacher actions are projected by them?
b) In what ways are they embodied in social actions?

The analysis in 4.1 aimed at revealing the sequential development of claims of insufficient knowledge within different classroom exchanges in teacher-fronted activities. The multimodal analysis showed that failing to establish recipiency through gaze and other nonverbal means, or the students' avoidance of engaging in talk before or during teacher initiations may lead to CIK. It was also discussed that the ways claims of insufficient knowledge are handled by the teacher show regularities across the data, although deviant cases exist (see section 4.3). These actions included allocating the turn to another student and making insufficient knowledge visibly and audibly relevant for the students. The actions that a response like 'you don't know?' have also been described. The section also included a detailed account of how explicit, verbal claims of no knowledge are produced together with a variety of gestures, which is an innovative approach to the analysis of this particular phenomenon. Although it does not directly analyse 'claims' as they are explicitly made by the teacher, the second section focused on their interpretations by the teacher:

2) How does the teacher interpret 'insufficient knowledge' when there are no verbal claims from students?
a) Which student nonverbal cues lead to a 'teacher interpretation' of insufficient knowledge?
b) How does the teacher demonstrate orientation to and interpretation of insufficient knowledge?

The analysis carried out in this section showed it is not necessarily explicit, verbalised structures like 'I don't knows', which make insufficient knowledge relevant for the teacher during talk. In this line of thinking, in 4.2, various nonverbal cues that the students employ were investigated in reference to the teacher's demonstrable orientation to 'insufficient knowledge' through use of structures like 'you don't know' and 'no idea?'. The findings showed that these 'epistemic status checks' were employed by the teacher due to certain nonverbal practices of the students, including a variety of gestures combined with noticeably very long silences. Teacher's embodied elicitations (change of posture by leaning towards the student) were also found to be resources for orienting to insufficient knowledge, and how the teacher interprets them.

In section 3, an investigation drawing on the third research question was carried out: What are the interactional resources the teacher employs in order to engage students in interaction after a 'claim of insufficient knowledge'? Having exemplified the most frequent teacher-next-actions after a claim or interpretation of no knowledge in the first two sections, this section demonstrated some of the examples in which the teacher employed a variety of interactional resources including DIUs and language alternation subsequent to a claim of no knowledge, so as to enhance further participation from the students. The following chapter will discuss all of the findings in relation to the review of literature and the analysis chapter. Implications will be given for researching claims of insufficient knowledge, language teaching, and language teacher education.

Chapter 5. Discussion

5.0 Introduction

This chapter will summarise the data discussed in the previous chapter in relation to the review of literature and research questions, and will argue for methodological and pedagogical implications. In 5.1, the general findings on sequential organisation and interactional management of Claims of Insufficient Knowledge (CIK) will be presented and the findings will be compared to the findings in previous studies on CIK and 'I don't knows'. In 5.2, In line with the second research question and the analysis in 4.2, sequential unfolding of the teacher's interpretation of insufficient knowledge and 'epistemic status checks' will be examined, and these will also be linked to embodiment of CIK as a part of the first research question. In 5.3, enactment of CIK in relation to establishing recipiency and (un)willingness to talk in classroom interactions will be explored. Following this, in 5.4, silence in the interactional environment of CIK and its relation to wait-time and space for learning will be presented. Following this transition to pedagogical aspects of CIK, in 5.5, implications will be given to teaching and L2 Classroom Interactional Competence by also referring to classroom micro contexts, managing pedagogical shifts, and language alternation. This section will also address to the third research question in that it will present constructive ways teachers can manage CIK, and promote student participation. In 5.6, I will argue for potential implications of the findings of this study for L2 language teacher education.

Sections 5.1, 5.2, and 5.5 require particular emphasis in that these sections will highlight the significance of this PhD project and discuss the findings in relation to sequential and embodied employment of CIK and potential contributions for teaching and Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC). In 5.1, three sequential formats that were found to be the most frequently occurring practices will be introduced. 5.2 is important in that it emphasises embodied nature of CIK and argues for a new terminological and interactional contribution; namely 'epistemic status checks' which are employed upon the teacher's interpretation of insufficient knowledge based on a variety of visual cues. Lastly, in 5.5, CIC (Walsh 2006) is revisited and a new construct to L2 Classroom Interactional Competence is proposed: Successfully Managing CIK. This skill, as it will be shown, includes teachers' deployment of a variety of resources

including embodied explanations, Designedly Incomplete Utterances (Koshik 2002), and strategic employment and handling of code-switching and translation.

5.1 Sequential Organisation and Interactional Management of CIK

As was discussed in the review of literature, 'I don't knows' (IDKs), and in general claims of insufficient knowledge (CIK), were found to be used as a response to a prior turn initiating an action (Weatherall in press); thus as a second-pair part of an adjacency pair (but see Weatherall (in press) for an analysis of pre-positioned IDKs that function as a pre-positioned hedge). Studies that investigated the phenomenon showed that they are in second position in everyday conversations and in many other contexts (Tsui 1991; Beach and Metzger 1997). They were also examined in a variety of institutional settings including child counselling (e.g. Hutchby 2002) and rape trials (e.g. Drew 1992) in order to show their strategic deployment. Although Beach and Metzger (1997) claimed that IDKs "are rarely freestanding" (p. 579), the analysis of the teacher fronted classroom interaction in this thesis revealed that they are almost always employed as freestanding turn constructional units. In addition to this, Atkinson and Heritage (1984) reported that non-answer responses, which include CIK, are frequently (i) delayed both within and between turns, (ii) prefaced by vocal markers (e.g., *Uh* or *Well*), and (iii) expanded with accounts (Heritage 1984, Pomerantz 1984a, Sacks 1987a) (cited in Stivers and Robinson 2006). Stivers and Robinson (ibid.) further claim that "the non-answer response does not further the activity even though it completes the sequence" (p.372).

In this section, I will illustrate the most frequent sequence organisation formats for interactional management of CIK, which will answer the first research question. The data analysis showed that the occurrences of CIK in classroom settings present differences in comparison to the previous findings of the studies cited in the review of literature, which were carried out in different contexts and institutional settings both in terms of turn shape and in terms of sequence organisation. One significant finding is that they are not prefaced by students (at least vocally) in classroom interaction, and there are only three instances in the whole data where speakers gave accounts for insufficient knowledge (e.g. extract 18), which clearly contradicts the studies cited above. There are three types of sequence organisation for CIK in the data, each of which will be explored in the following paragraphs.

The first type of sequential format is as follows: the teacher initiates a sequence, for example asks a question, which is subsequently followed by a CIK, and then the teacher allocates the turn to another student. This sequence can be exemplified using a simplified version of extract 1 analysed in the previous chapter (visual cues have been excluded):

```
1 →  Tea: marie what do you think?
          (1.1)
2 →  Mar: °i don't know it°.
          (4.2)

3 →  Tea: ben.
```

This can be generalised as follows:

Type 1

1	T:	Teacher Initiation
2	S:	CIK
3	T:	Turn Allocation

As can be seen in extracts 1 and 6 (chapter 4), the teacher allocates the turn to either a student bidding for turn or a student who is looking at the teacher and sits close to the previous speaker. So it is obvious that establishing recipiency through mutual gaze in pre-beginning position determines who will take the floor after a student's claim of no knowledge. Mortensen (2008, p.62) puts forward that "the teacher displays an ongoing monitoring of the students' display of willingness to answer the first pair-part as a relevant interactional job prior to the speaker selection". This issue, and interactional and pedagogical consequences, if it is not performed, will be investigated in 5.3. Another emerging issue is silence within the interactional environment of CIK. This will also be explored in 5.4 in relation to teacher wait-time, space for learning, and orientation to classroom artefacts. For the purposes of this section, I will just focus on the TCUs, how they are sequentionally organised and how different formats emerge from the data.

As the structure in type 1 shows, and types 2 and 3 will also show, the overwhelming majority of CIK is followed by the teacher's turn allocation to other students. This is in many ways related to the idea of 'multilogue' (Schwab 2011) in classrooms introduced in 2.2.2. The idea that a certain participation structure is public and apparent to all learners ('on stage') is highly relevant to the uncovering of sequential organisation and management

of claims of insufficient knowledge (CIK), and plays a significant role in the turn allocation practices after a student claims no knowledge. The participation structure, in Schwab's terms, is "fragile" (2011, p.8); and accordingly, the involvement of other students (actively or passively) influences the subsequent turns after CIK, and therefore establishes a different sequence organisation compared to the findings of research on CIK carried out in other institutional settings or in mundane talk. It is, first of all, different in that the teacher does not repair a student's CIK, but simply offers the conversational floor to another recipient. Thus, progressivity of the activity is pursued, and intersubjectivity is co-constructed with the involvement of other learners rather than the producer of CIK.

The analysis in 4.2 showed that allocating the turn to another student is not always the immediate action subsequent to a student's CIK. A short and simplified version of extract 4 below illustrates how participants enact the second type of sequence structure:

```
1 →  Tea:  why?
           (3.6)
2 →  Sam:  °i don't know°.
3 →  Tea:  you don't know?
           (1.9)
4 →  Tea:  Luc you want to be: different from everybody
           else?
```

After the claim of insufficient knowledge, the teacher may initially respond with a 'you don't know?' (YDK). It was shown, for example in the analysis of extracts 2 and 4 in 4.1, that this accomplishes a variety of actions. First of all, it repeats a portion of student's claim of no knowledge, but the 'you' makes clear who is to own the lack of knowledge; secondly, the teacher's response establishes the relevance for moving on to another student. This is an action that is done not only for this one student, but also for other students, who learn from this claim of insufficient knowledge that it is dispreferred, will not be rewarded, and is a basis for establishing rules and expectations for classroom behaviour(s) (Beach 2011 personal communication). So, as Stivers and Robinson (2006) suggest, although a non-answer response (e.g. I don't know) is a "normatively viable action in response to a question, it is a dispreferred alternative" (p. 371). Therefore, technically speaking, both for types 1 and 2, the adjacency pair is somehow complete although the second pair part is a non-answer response like a CIK; yet, IDK is a dispreferred response and prepares the ground for moving on to a next student until the teacher's question is answered. This is also in line with Schegloff's

(2007) claim that sequences are the vehicle for "getting some activity accomplished, and that response to the first pair part, which favours the accomplishment of the activity, is the preferred-second pair part" (p.59). A turn allocation to another student, whether used in combination with a YDK or not, then signals the dispreferred nature of CIK.

Type 2

1	T:	Teacher Initiation
2	S:	CIK
3	T:	YDN
4	T:	Turn Allocation

In terms of its syntactic design and question format, 'you don't know?' would be regarded as, for instance, a request for confirmation in other contexts. However, it seldom gets a confirmation from students as the data shows. There are only four examples in the data in which a student responds to this utterance, which functions as a confirmation of one's insufficient knowledge. Although this occurs very rarely, another sequence format will be introduced in order to come up with a more valid generalisation. This is illustrated below in a simplified and shortened version of extract 3:

```
1 →   Tea   Yann what do you think?
            (0.5)
2 →   Yan:  i don't ↑know.
            (0.4)
3a→   Tea:  you don't ↑know.=
3b→   Yan:  =↑no.
            (0.5)
      Ben:  ((holds up his finger))
            (0.7)
4 →   Tea:  what do you think b[e n?]
      Ben:                     [war ]like in ireland.
```

One can infer from the example that the teacher's YDK, although very rarely, can be oriented to by the students, which is an action that confirms one's insufficient knowledge (ConIK). It can be argued, then, that the student understands 3a in its literal sense and in a way reasserts, if not upgrades, his claim of insufficient knowledge. In terms of sequence structure, 3a and 3b together can be seen as a non-minimal post expansion. According to Schegloff (2007), in non-minimal post expansions, the turn following the second pair part (remember that a CIK, as a 'non-answer response', is technically a second pair part to a first

pair part of a question answer adjacency pair) is "itself a first pair part, and thereby projects at least one further turn -its responsive second pair part- and thereby its non-minimality" (p.149). Therefore, as different from type 3, the YDK in type 2 is a minimal post expansion, since it does not receive a second pair part, thus, does not form an adjacency pair.

The evidence for the claim that CIK is dispreferred can also be brought from Schegloff's (ibid.) ideas. He claimed that preferred second pair parts are sequence-closure relevant, "while dispreferred second pair parts are sequence expansion relevant" (p.152). YDKs, then, both when they are initiated as a minimal post expansion and as a first pair part of a non-minimal post-expansion, emphasize the dispreferred nature of CIK. To sum up, sequential organization of type 3 is as follows:

Type 3

1	T:	Teacher Initiation
2	S:	CIK
3a	T:	YDN
3b	S:	ConIK
4	T:	Turn Allocation

It should be noted that 'type 1', together with types 2 and 3, constitute around 70% of CIK sequences in the database, which end up with the teacher allocating the turn to another student. To be more precise, overt claims of no knowledge (analysed in 4.1 and 4.3) consist of 35 extracts, while the teacher's interpretation of no knowledge with 'epistemic status checks' (analysed in 4.2, and will be discussed in 5.2) consists of 17 extracts (a total of 52). Among these, there are eleven examples for type 1, nine for type 2 and four for type 3. Another finding is that 'you don't know', as a response to a claim of insufficient knowledge, is initiated by the teacher subsequent to a CIK in almost one third of the extracts (it is also used as an epistemic status check twice, which will be discussed in the following section). There are important implications of these findings in terms of both sequential organisation and functions of CIK in general, and turn taking mechanism and sequence organisation in classroom interaction, especially within QAC/IRF sequences.

Earlier studies on CIK were mostly based on interactions between two speakers, and the focus of analyses have been their strategic deployment and different actions they enact like avoiding an assessment, as well as how they are managed by the co-participants to

pursue intersubjectivity. Only a few studies actually considered them with their literal meaning, and Pichler (2007) showed that only one fifth of the unbound tokens of IDKs "convey the expression's referential meaning of not knowing" (p.181). Yet, the institutional goal orientation in classroom interaction, which is teaching the L2, may be the reason why in my database CIK is employed in its literal sense. In fact, there are only three extracts where IDKs are used for marking uncertainty and function as sequence closers. So in my data, CIK projects a turn allocation to another student, and is bound to the rigid, teacher controlled turn taking system highlighted by McHoul (1978), as I introduced and discussed in 2.1.1. In other contexts, according to the works cited, they are somehow oriented to as troubles, and are, for instance, repaired. However, in relation to the fragile nature of participation structure in classrooms due to the existence of multilogue (Schwab 2011), an alternative that my data analysis showed is allocating the turn to another speaker. This finding is also significant for research on IRF sequences in classrooms, since a non-answer response (e.g. CIK) delays the 'preferred' second pair part (student answer) through multiple turn allocations and changes the participation structure and speakership. The third turn (feedback/comment/evaluation), in most of the cases, is deferred, given to another learner, or in some cases withheld by the teacher by answering the question himself. Therefore, the sequences analysed in this thesis show some variation from typical IRF sequences in that the first turn is constantly reinitiated (Zemel and Koschmann 2011) until an appropriate second pair part is given by any student, or even withheld by the teacher as he may supply the answer of the question due to lack of successful contributions from the students.

Nevertheless, there are instances in the data where the teacher enacts different actions rather than allocating the turn to another student, which may prove to be fruitful in terms of student participation/engagement, although this occurred only in a total of eight extracts in the database, five of which have been illustrated in 4.3 while addressing the third research question of this thesis. Yet, before moving on to this and building links to L2 Classroom Interactional Competence, I will first discuss how IDKs are embodied with visual sources (as a part of the first research question) and the ways the teacher interpret insufficient knowledge (second research question). The issue of silence, as a part of the first research question, will be discussed in 5.4.

5.2 Embodiment of CIK and the Teacher's Interpretation of Insufficient Knowledge

In this section, addressing to the first and second research questions, I will firstly discuss how claims of no knowledge are embodied in talk, and then, by referring to section 4.2 in the analysis, I will summarise the findings on how visual cues initiated by the students project 'epistemic status checks' by the teacher. Extracts 5, 6, and 7 in 4.1 are examples of embodied CIK where students, in addition to verbally claiming no knowledge, use headshakes and facial expressions like raising eyebrows, and pouting lips. These findings are very significant for the analysis of CIK, since no study thus far has investigated the phenomenon in classrooms by closely examining the ways claims of insufficient knowledge are embodied.

The analysis of the data in 4.1 showed that headshakes are the most common nonverbal indicators of CIK (in this database), which are generally used in combination with a verbal CIK or alone. Headshakes have been attributed similar functions in different contexts. By focusing on participants' assessments of stories and topics in daily Finnish conversations, Ruusuvuori And Peräkylä (2009) showed that a negative stance can be reciprocated with a headshake. Furthermore, Stivers and Rossano (2010) found that a participant may "decline the offer with a small headshake and a simultaneous *Mm mm*"(p.5). Another finding, from casual Japanese conversations, is that a participant may show his struggle in comprehending an explanation by producing a series of lateral headshakes (Mori and Hayashi 2006). In extract 5, for instance, 'I don't know' is simultaneously produced with a headshake in line 27 and then, in line 31, headshake is initiated as a freestanding TCU after the teacher's 'you don't know'; whereas in extract 6, the simultaneous combination of a verbal claim and a headshake is preceded by raising eyebrows and withdrawal of mutual gaze. Researchers (e.g., Chovil, 1991/1992; Ekman, 1979; Wiener et al., 1972) also have shown that facial displays like "a quizzical look, *a raised eyebrow* (my emphasis) and a frown without accompanying speech are often used and understood to signal recipients' emotional reactions to or problems with the prior talk" (cited in Seo and Koshik 2010, p.2220).

In extract 7, however, the verbal claim and nonverbal displays do not overlap: the teacher's question is followed by a silence, then pouting lips followed by another noticeably long silence, and lastly a verbal claim of no knowledge. One potential

problem in terms of sequence organisation and multimodality, then, is to decide whether we should consider nonverbal displays of no knowledge as separate TCUs, or prefaces to a verbal TCU. This issue should be given attention with reference to the extracts given in 4.1. Let us consider extract 6 (simplified), for instance, which fits in type 1 given in the previous section:

```
1     Tea: what is the ↑me↓ssage in a way.  [TEACHER INITIATION]
           (2.2)
  →   Tom: ((withdraws mutual gaze and raises his eyebrows))
2 →   Tom: don't know.=                       [(EMBODIED)CIK]
           +shakes his head
3     Tea: =Tim what do you think.            [TURN ALLOCATION]
```

It can be argued that although multimodal resources are used to claim no knowledge, the action still consists of a single turn, but with multiple units. One may claim that the withdrawal of mutual gaze and raising eyebrows is a visual preface to the CIK, which is embodied with a simultaneous lateral headshake; thus forming a multi-unit turn. Schegloff (2007, p.72) puts forward that a lateral headshake preceding a speaker's turn may signal a disagreement, therefore is a pre-disagreement. However, a lateral headshake can also stand alone as a TCU and initiate a student's confirmation of no knowledge, which fits in sequence type 3, as can be observed in extract 5 (simplified) below:

```
1     Tea: is that what you said (  )?        [TEACHER INITIATION]
2 →   Tom: i don't ↑know.                     [(EMBODIED)CIK]
               +looks at the teacher and shakes his head
           (0.3)
3a→   Tea: you don't know at all?             [YDK]
3b→   Tom: +shakes his head                   [ConIK]

4 →   Tea: what do other people think,        [TURN ALLOCATION]
           Lena you tell me.
```

It can be observed in this extract that, according to type 3 sequence format, the teacher's request for confirmation of insufficient knowledge (3a) is followed by the student's confirmation of his insufficient knowledge (3b) only with headshake without a verbal response. Thus, 3b is a freestanding nonverbal TCU, and makes a turn allocation relevant in the subsequent turn. As it was argued in the previous section, this forms a non-minimal post expansion, and the second pair part of this post expansion is a non-

vocal TCU, and somehow contributes to the ongoing activity in the broader IRF sequence by constructing the basis for moving on to another student.

The extracts analysed in 4.2 brought evidence to the claim that teachers rely on visible practices of students to 'interpret insufficient knowledge' and initiate certain types of requests for confirmation, which I am referring to as '*epistemic status check*' that makes insufficient knowledge relevant for the ongoing talk. An epistemic status check is a speaker's interpretation of another interactant's state of knowledge (e.g. 'you don't know?', 'no idea?'), which is initiated when a second-pair part is delayed, based on some nonverbal cues of the first speaker(s). The resources that the teachers orient to while interpreting no knowledge are sequentially placed between a teacher question and the verbal turn of interpretation (e.g. 'no idea?', 'no?', a combination of both, or 'you don't know?'), and occur either during or after a long silence. Extract 8, is a simple and typical example of how these interpretations of no knowledge are enacted: a teacher question followed by a very long silence during which the teacher scans the class only to find that all of the students avoid mutual gaze. However, as discussed earlier, one cannot simply take a long silence and students' avoidance of mutual gaze to describe a teacher's interpretation of no knowledge. In extract 8, for instance, the teacher verbally makes insufficient knowledge of students relevant in line 7 (`you don't know what an ↑ad is`) by also specifying the source of trouble, which is followed by a student-bidding-for-turn subsequently, and a following turn allocation. It was found that 'no?' and 'no idea?', together with a combination of both, are the most frequent epistemic status checks in the database, whereas 'you don't know?' is used only twice.

The student moves that project teacher's understanding of no knowledge are found to be; (1) a long silence followed by a student smile (extract 9), (2) a very long silence during which a student fails to find information in material that was made relevant as a source of information by the teacher, and she displays this failure through her gaze orientations (extract 10), (3) a silence followed by withdrawal/averting of gaze (extract 11), and (4) a long silence followed by a headshake (extract 13). Extract 12 qualifies as a different kind of resource, which includes the teacher's embodied interpretation of no knowledge (see the analysis) by changing posture (by leaning towards the student) to elicit a response and interpret insufficient knowledge consequentially. According to Kääntä (2010):

"Silence alone does not manifest the dispreferred nature of the evaluation, but it is interpreted vis-à-vis the teacher's body posture and his or her orientation towards the response: what the teacher does or does not do" (p.230).

So the change of posture, leaning towards the student, is not only an epistemic status check, but also is a resource used with other verbal resources to elicit a response from the students. The teacher's 'epistemic status checks', which also function as devices to interpret no knowledge, most of the times project a turn allocation in our collection (but see extract 10 in which the teacher explains the meaning of a word in the subsequent turn). In three of the extracts I analysed in 4.2, however, they trigger a response from the students that functions as a self-confirmation of student's insufficient knowledge. In extract 9, for instance, the teacher's interpretation of no knowledge (£no?£) is followed by a verbal confirmation of not knowing by the student in the subsequent turn. Likewise, both in extracts 11 and 12, the students give a second pair part to teacher's request for confirmation, but this time nonverbally. In extract 11, the confirmation of no knowledge is a headshake with smile, whereas in extract 12, it is a combination of averting gaze, rolling eyes, and shaking head (figures 37 to 40). Therefore, they display the students' state of no knowledge through nonverbal means, and are followed by a turn allocation, as is the case for our typical examples. Sequentially speaking, then, an epistemic status check followed by a confirmation of no knowledge forms an adjacency pair.

Although issues related to silence, gaps, and wait time will be discussed in 5.4, I will briefly discuss them in relation to the teacher's interpretation of no knowledge here. In almost all of the examples, epistemic status checks are initiated after very long silences. Schegloff (2007) refers to these overlong silences as inter-turn gaps, which according to him, "breaks the contiguity of first and second pair part" (p.67). Therefore, an epistemic status check is actually used as a resource to repair this break of contiguity. The reason for extremely long silences being tolerated by the teacher may be twofold; first, the teacher is giving enough interactional space to students to come up with an appropriate answer. Second, there is no explicit claim of no knowledge, but mostly visual and nonverbal cues from students; so the teacher waits till he is sure of the potential lack of further contributions from the students. Moments of silences, or overlong silences like inter-turn gaps as Schegloff (ibid.) defines, are also temporal resources for the teacher to establish mutual gaze with the students, the lack of which may result in a CIK as is the case for most of the examples in the database. The following section will focus on this issue.

5.3 Establishing Recipiency, Willingness to Talk and CIK

As discussed in the review of literature, gaze is "one means available to recipients for displaying to a speaker whether or not they are acting as hearers to the speaker's utterance" (Goodwin 1980, p.277), and the gaze of the recipient is an important way of displaying recipiency (Mortensen 2009) and for engagement frameworks (Goodwin 1981). Mortensen (2008) showed how gaze is systematically used to display willingness to be selected as a next speaker in L2 classrooms. The analysis in the previous chapter showed that in most of the cases recipiency is not established before a turn is first allocated to a student in the data, which means there is no explicit signal of willingness to talk through engaging in mutual gaze with the teacher. For instance, in extract 1, Mar keeps her gaze fixed at her material throughout the extract and she does not engage in mutual gaze when the turn is allocated to her. After her claim of insufficient knowledge, the teacher allocated the turn to another student who physically made himself available as a next speaker (figures 2 and 3), both through his gaze orientation and his posture. Mortensen (2008) observed that students withdraw gaze as the teacher scans the classroom for a willing speaker, and by doing this, they avoid entering mutual gaze with the teacher. Entering mutual gaze, although not always explicitly, signals willingness to participate to the teacher. On the other hand, by not entering an engagement framework they display that they are not willing to be selected to answer the teacher's question (Mortensen 2008).

As mentioned in the beginning of the section, gaze is only one means to establish recipiency. Extracts 5 and 6 illustrated that if the student to whom the turn is allocated is physically unavailable with his body orientation (extract 5, image 12) or hand gestures (extract 6, image 18), this may potentially lead to a claim of insufficient knowledge, since the student is not fully oriented to the ongoing activity. This was also the case, for instance, in extract 12 (figure 33), in which the teacher had to initiate an embodied 'epistemic status check' after an inter-turn gap. So in order to establish recipiency and engage in mutual gaze, the students have to change their body orientation and establish the participation framework which will cost time, and may even be face threatening.

It is, however, not an easy task to bring evidence for willingness or unwillingness to talk and participate, as it is more or less a psychological construct. Yet, in extract 4, for instance, the student constantly withdraws mutual gaze with the teacher and averts gaze

as the talk unfolds. Besides, his talk is quiet compared to the surrounding talk. The inter-turn gaps are especially significant before and after the claim of insufficient knowledge. What is more, there is more than 6 seconds of silence, followed by the teacher's change of body posture (inclining his head and leaning towards the student) to obtain student's gaze, which only results in minimal responses. Mortensen (2008) observed that:

> "the teacher may run the risk of selecting a student who does not display willingness to be selected as next speaker, and who may not be in an (immediate) position to answer the teacher's question. The lack of an immediate response from the student may in this situation be understood as a (cognitive) problem of not knowing the answer rather than as a socio-interactive aspect of the ongoing participation framework" (p.74).

Therefore, he claims that these visual disengagements may be due to a cognitive problem like not knowing the answer, rather than a socio-interactive one. Although this can be verified by the claim of insufficient knowledge in the following turns in extract 4, I believe, there may also be other reasons like not willing to talk, or issues of face since the questions in the extract are not seeking content information, grammatical or material based, but simply personal questions.

As mentioned earlier, a multilogue (i.e. classroom interaction between a teacher and multiple students) may be potentially face threatening (Schwab 2011). Overt (or other forms of) negative assessments may also be considered by the students as face threatening, and according to Weatherall (in press), claiming insufficient knowledge can be a practice for avoiding assessment. Thus, it can be claimed that the concept (un)willingness to talk can be observed on sequential bases by drawing upon vocal and visual features of talk as it unfolds.

```
18     Tea: >when do you think it was built<?
19          ((getting closer to Tom))
20          (5.4)
21     Tom: may be (the eighties).
                      +gazes at tea
       Tea:               +looks at the book
22          (1.1)
23     Tea: in nineteen e↑ightees.
             +looks back at Tom
24  →  Len: ((laughs loudly))
    →  Tom:       +hits on the desk with his hand
25     S?:  ((incomprehensible talk))
26     Tea: is that what you said (  )?
27  →  Tom: i don't ↑know.
                  +looks at the teacher and shakes his head
28          (0.3)
```

```
29    Tea: you don't know?
      Tom:             +averts his gaze
30    Tea: at all?
31  → Tom: +shakes his head
32    Tea: ((starts walking towards Len))
33    Tea: what do other people think, Lena you tell me.
```

In the simplified and shortened version of extract 6 above, Tom's answer in line 21 was first responded to with a confirmation request by the teacher, and then was laughed at by Len. After these two responses, he hit the desk with his hand, and this was followed by another request for confirmation, which was downgraded by the teacher as a hearing problem to probably save the student's face. However, maybe for avoiding further assessments, and also by thinking that he does not have enough knowledge on the subject at that time, Tom claimed insufficient knowledge. Considering that Tom was answering the questions previously in the extract (see the analysis in 4.1), a fine detailed sequential analysis showed that face issues, and unwillingness to talk can be tracked as the interaction unfolds, and a claim of insufficient knowledge may be a result of such constructs. In the following section, I will briefly discuss the significance of silence (as a part of the first research question) and build links to the importance of teacher wait time, and to a pedagogical concern, namely space for learning.

5.4 Silence, Wait Time, and Space for Learning

In 2.1.4, various interactional functions of silence have been introduced, including signalling dispreference in everyday conversations (Schegloff 2007) and in classrooms (e.g. McHoul 1990; Macbeth 2000). In the analysis of data, it was illustrated that claims of insufficient knowledge are delivered after a significantly long pause, as can be observed in extracts 1, 2 (the second CIK), 4, 6, and 7 (but see the discussion on why there are no long silences before CIK in extracts 2 (first CIK) and extract 5 in 4.1). Silence was shown to play an even more significant role before 'epistemic status checks', as the analysis in 4.2 illustrated. The silences in these extracts are overlong, and together with other nonverbal actions, they project an interpretation of insufficient knowledge by the teacher. Schegloff (2007) discusses these overlong silences by labelling them as inter-turn gaps:

> "The transition space between the first pair part turn and a dispreferred second pair part turn is commonly overlong, i.e., a gap. That is to say, the recipient of the first pair part does not start a responsive turn "on time", and the silence breaks the contiguity of first and second pair part" (p.67).

Since an overlong silence breaks the contiguity of first and second pair parts of an adjacency pair, it creates a gap in the interaction, which has to be dealt with by the participant in order to progress the activity. The teacher, in the extracts in 4.2, breaks these gaps with epistemic status checks in order to pursue his pedagogical agenda, which is in most of the cases to elicit talk from the students. One advantage of the visual, multimodal analysis I carried out is that these silences are accompanied by other visual behaviours from the students as the analysis showed. If only audio data were available, we would not be in a position to build links to interpretations of no knowledge.

Nakamura (2004) argued that teachers could enhance their ability "to help students move forward through the silence by giving appropriate support such as rephrasing questions and requests" (p.79). Yet, a close look at the extracts in 4.2 shows that the teacher rephrased his question only in extract 9, after an epistemic status check preceded by a 4.5 second pause, and then another student answered the question. In extract 8, for instance, he specified the source of no knowledge as a vocabulary problem, and one of the students contributed in German, which was accepted by the teacher. In extract 10, after eight seconds of pause, he answered the question himself. In extracts 11 and 13, the long silences were accompanied or followed by non verbal displays of no knowledge, and the teacher preferred to allocate the turn to other students before using other strategies like rephrasing a question. Therefore, when there are visual and verbal displays of no knowledge, the teacher tends to 'skip' to another student, which is a reasonable action in such a multiparty interactional setting.

Maroni (2011) described a specific type of pause, 'wait-time', and showed that wait time "fosters the pupils' involvement and the quality of their answers, particularly if it is accompanied by interventions by teachers, encouraging the pupils' collaborative participation" (p.2081). However, the analyses in 4.1 and 4.2 show that the teacher not employing such interventions may be due to claims of insufficient knowledge by the students (4.1), or his interpretations of insufficient knowledge based on students' visual displays. It is not, however, a valid argument to criticise the practices of this teacher, since when no knowledge is made relevant in interaction, insisting on other elicitation techniques like rephrasing questions may not necessarily contribute to learning or participating. They may, in fact, be face threatening and may also result in losing time and not being able to complete the lesson with the aimed teaching goals.

The value of 'wait time' has also been discussed by Seedhouse and Walsh (2010). According to them:

> "Interactional space is maximised through increased wait-time, by resisting the temptation to 'fill silence' (by reducing teacher echo), by promoting extended learner turns, and by allowing planning time" (p.141).

With a fine-detailed analysis of L2 classroom talk between a teacher and students, Seedhouse and Walsh (ibid.) showed that following a student contribution, a question asked by the teacher to involve other students (e.g. anybody else?) followed by a long pause helps to "elicit additional contributions, … ensuring that learning opportunities are maximised" (p.144). However, the examples given in their study include successful student contributions followed by interactional space, whereas, in my database, the focus is on claims of insufficient knowledge; and therefore on gaps in interaction and breaks in contiguity. Therefore, the teacher's allocating the turn to other students as a most frequently employed practice in my data is not necessarily a failure, but a strategy to keep the multilogue going. Nevertheless, there are certain resources employed by the teacher, which leads to further participation from the students as the analysis in 4.3 showed. This will be discussed in the following section.

5.5 Teaching, L2 Classroom Interactional Competence, and CIK

In the first two sections, I have discussed the findings on how claims of insufficient knowledge are co-constructed and managed by participants in two EAL classrooms. I focused on the most frequent sequential formats, which make up the common practice for the teacher's handling and students' employment of the phenomena by also referring to the embodied resources (5.2), establishing recipiency (5.3) and silence (5.4). This section will draw upon the analysis in 4.3, which showed that allocating a turn to another student after CIK is not the only interactional practice that the teacher deploys. I will argue that there are certain resources that the teacher used in order to deal with insufficient knowledge, which may (or may not) lead to further participation and engagement from the students. These findings will be discussed in relation to Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh 2006), and to classroom micro-contexts (Seedhouse 2004). Links will also be built to the ways students demonstrate or claim understanding after the teachers' employment of certain resources.

As the analysis in 4.3 showed, the resources used by the teacher to further engage students even after they claim no knowledge were found to be deictic gestures, embodied vocabulary explanations, translation and code-switching, and Designedly Incomplete Utterances (DIUs). It should be kept in mind that one cannot claim that these resources employed by the teacher lead to learning, or language acquisition; however, they prove to be fruitful interactional resources deployed after CIK in that they contribute to the progress of talk, enhance further student participation and in some cases even lead to claims/demonstrations of understanding. One significant finding is that in most of the extracts that were subject to analysis in 4.3, the pedagogical focus was on form, especially vocabulary (but see extract 18 for grammar and grammatical metalanguage). Therefore, one may argue that claims of insufficient knowledge are followed by immediate turn allocation to other students especially in meaning-focused contexts, which was found to be the case for the extracts in 4.1. In the following paragraphs, I will discuss the resources used by the teacher found in 4.3 with reference to each extract, which will in a way address the third research question.

In extract 14, instead of moving on to another student directly after CIK, the teacher explains the meaning of the vocabulary item, accompanied by deictic gestures (see Goodwin (2003) for problems of terminology with the distinction between iconic and deictic gestures), since he interprets the source of no knowledge as a lack of knowledge of a vocabulary item. According to McNeil (1992), deictic gestures are "pointing gestures which indicate either concrete entities in the physical environment, or abstract loci in space" (cited in Taleghani-Nikazm 2008, p.230). The teacher, in this extract, points at a specific word in the text and shows it to both the student who claimed no knowledge and the whole class, while he is uttering the word with an emphasis. Mendoza (2004) found that deictic gestures are commonly used especially to point at words in the texts that the learners do not know. When the teacher finishes his vocabulary explanation, the student repeats the word 'subpoena' which was highlighted suprasegmentally and with deictic gestures (pointing to the text) by the teacher. Drawing on the distinction between demonstrating and claiming understanding (Sacks 1992) I introduced in the review of literature, a repeat does not demonstrate understanding, but the learner may be claiming it. In relation to vocabulary explanations by teachers and students' orientations to these, Mortensen (2011) observed that:

> "the repeat seems to be an acknowledgement of the teacher's prior turn and the
> highlighted words. By repeating the target word, the students play the ball back to the

teacher. At this point, they display a mutual understanding of the target word as being central to the ongoing interaction" (p.150).

Therefore, although strong evidence for learning or understanding cannot be brought for this extract, we can make some observations in relation to Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh 2006) and management of pedagogical shifts (Seedhouse 2008). Firstly, in this form and accuracy context, the teacher first sets the pedagogical goal in relation to the text with his information seeking question that may lead to various candidate responses by the students. However, after Lu2's CIK, the teacher shifts the pedagogical focus to a vocabulary oriented one. He links the material with the new focus on vocabulary by highlighting the word and deictic gestures, which leads to the students' involvement, although it is just by repeating the word. According to Seedhouse (2008), creating and shifting a focus is a teacher skill, and without careful management, the students can easily get confused. This skill displayed by the teacher is relevant to the teacher's Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC): although the teacher could not elicit a response and the selected student claimed insufficient knowledge, further engaging a student in talk after a CIK with vocabulary explanations is a skill, since allocating the turn to another student is normally the common practice at least in this database of classroom interactions.

In extract 15, there is strong evidence for a student's demonstrating of understanding and its relation to the teacher's CIC. In this example, the teacher manages to take the student from a state of not knowing made explicit by a CIK, to a state of understanding. The teacher uses iconic gestures in his vocabulary explanation, this time by not giving the meaning of the word himself like the previous example, but successfully eliciting it from the student, which is also clear with his third turn as he evaluates the learner contribution positively. Successful elicitation is an integral part of CIC, and an embodied vocabulary explanation seems to be a fruitful resource for students in order to understand a problematic vocabulary item. This example is also representative of successfully establishing a pedagogical focus in form and accuracy contexts. The word emerges from the text one of the students is reading aloud, and the teacher creates the pedagogical focus upon hearing this word in the text, and engages the students for this vocabulary explanation.

Drawing on these two examples, it has been understood that simply allocating the turn to another student is not always the option after a student claims no knowledge. The

extracts showed that the teacher may focus on the source of no knowledge and try to manage CIK by embodied, multimodal vocabulary explanations, which lead to student repeats or demonstrating understanding, which is a desirable outcome after vocabulary explanations. These examples of claims of insufficient knowledge can inform us on the constructs of CIC, and may lead to finding out different interactional skills of teachers. I propose that successfully managing claims of insufficient knowledge is a teacher skill, and is a part of what Walsh (2006) called Classroom Interactional Competence. One way to successfully manage CIK has been exemplified so far: namely, embodied vocabulary explanations. The analysis of extract 18 in 4.3 showed that the teacher employed another resource for managing CIK, a Designedly Incomplete Utterance (DIU).

In teacher-fronted classroom interactions, as discussed in the review of literature, questions play a primary role to elicit answers and displays of knowledge from students. One type of elicitation technique as an efficient teacher initiation in L2 classrooms was found to be DIUs by Koshik (2002). Margutti (2010) puts forward that one of the basic functions of DIUs is to solicit displays of knowledge from students in the shape of utterance completion, and they are recurrent features of teacher-student interaction. In extract 18, I illustrated an example for how a teacher elicits a correct response from a student by using a DIU after a student claimed insufficient knowledge. The focus in this extract was on grammar; thus a form and accuracy context (Seedhouse 2004). Yet, it should also be considered that there are other factors that have an impact on the sequential unfolding of this DIU and the student's completion of it. Em2, in line 40, gives an account for her state of no knowledge, and displays her problem as one of 'not remembering'. A DIU then, gives a hint to the student to recall previously learned information, and resolves the problem of not remembering. Nevertheless, the important thing here is that the student who claimed insufficient knowledge keeps participating after the teacher's initiation of a DIU, and is engaged in ongoing interaction. The correct answer is successfully elicited from the student (see the analysis of extract 18 in 4.3 for further details). Student engagement is key to successful learning and teaching experiences in language classrooms. As Walsh (2002) suggests, "where language use and pedagogic purpose coincide, learning opportunities are facilitated" (p. 5). Therefore, using DIU for managing insufficient knowledge is found to be a sign of L2 Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh 2006).

In the review of literature, it was shown that both teachers and students may initiate code-switching for a variety of purposes in L2 classrooms (Ustunel and Seedhouse 2005). According to Nevile and Wagner (2011), in multilingual interactions, participants' language choices "are informed by their second language (L2) competence and the L2 competencies of their co-participants. In institutional settings, such choices can be contingent also upon institutional goals and constraints" (p. 211). It is not always very easy to argue that learners' switching to another language is a result of deficiency in target language competence, and teachers of multilingual classrooms are not always consistent in their treatment of a code-switch by a student. Slotte-Lüttge (2007) argued that teachers may sometimes orient to a monolingual mode (i.e. English only), whereas they may also tolerate students' code-switching and do not repair and stop the progress of talk. The analysis showed that the enactment of multilingual repertoires, in the form of code-switching or translation, can be found in sequences where there are claims of no knowledge from the students.

In extract 16, translation and code-switching seem to be further resources employed by the teacher after unsuccessful attempts to engage students. In extract 16, the teacher consults his multilingual resources, although it is not the same student who is engaged in talk in the following turns. Nevertheless, one should remember that this is a multi-party talk, and teacher elicitations are initiated for all the participants in the classroom; the aim is to make the meaning of the vocabulary item 'heard' to all students, even if the student who claimed no knowledge did not engage further. Unlike this example, in extract 17, it is the student who initiates code-switches, to negotiate the topic and to give the meaning of the word in one of her first languages (Luxembourgish). Her code-switching is challenged by the teacher with a repair that leads to a claim of no knowledge. As this is a meaning and fluency context, the teacher accepts the student contribution later, but still gives the meaning of the word in English, and this leads to further engagement by Eml.

Language alternation in section 4.2 also shows how code-switching is managed within the sequential environment of CIK. In extract 8, for instance, there is a very long silence with no contributions from students after a vocabulary related question. The teacher then makes no knowledge relevant by initiating an epistemic status check, and one of the students takes the floor by giving the German equivalent of the word. What is significant here is that the teacher acknowledges this contribution first, and then gives the meaning in English; so he does not explicitly orient to a monolingual mode or repair the student contribution. So if no

knowledge becomes clear for him, the teacher tolerates the use of multilingual resources and accepts a contribution in another language like in extract 8, or even initiates code switching and offers translation like in extract 16. However in extract 11 for instance, Fln's switch to German in line 29 is responded to by an orientation to a monolingual mode and the teacher shifts the focus from a meaning-focused one to a form-focused one (vocabulary). This pedagogical shift may have created a mismatch (Seedhouse 2008) and led to a display and nonverbal claim of no knowledge by Lar. What is more, after giving the meaning of the word in English himself, the teacher also uses the French translation before he completes his turn, therefore creating a further mismatch between his orientation to monolingual and multilingual modes. To sum up, teachers' orientation to code-switching is an important aspect of 'Successfully managing CIK', which is proposed in this thesis as a feature of L2 Classroom interactional Competence.

The analysis also showed that there are differences between the most frequent examples of CIK (4.1), the teacher's interpretation of no knowledge (4.2), and the ones that are followed by different interactional resources like DIU (4.3) in terms of pedagogical focus. The examples that have been analysed in 4.1, except extract 2, do not include questions that require a focus on form (e.g. a focus on vocabulary or grammar). These can be tracked by the questions the teacher asks and the nature of the task or the activity at hand. One can understand that the focus is mostly on meaning, mainly framed by information-seeking questions rather than known-information questions (Mehan 1979b). This may be one of the explanations for the fact that there are long pauses and long teacher wait times in the extracts. The questions asked to the students are mostly ones that ask for the students' ideas, opinions and feelings, and are framed in a way that any contribution would be accepted, but may be subject to further elaboration. The pedagogical micro-contexts that have been illustrated in 4.2 are mostly form-focused (three vocabulary, one grammar) as opposed to two examples (extracts 9 and 12) in which the focus is on meaning. In extract 9, for instance, there is also a significant problem, which may have led to confusion of the student who is already engaged in interaction with the teacher. Between lines 13 and 16, the teacher asks four questions in a row in an extended turn, which results in a very long pause and smile from the student. One can here argue that the teacher should constantly check for comprehension after each question he asks and should monitor the students' understanding, otherwise, a claim of insufficient knowledge cannot be avoided. The last point is that the texts, in addition to other classroom artefacts, can be seen as providing a source for the students, and visual engagement with them affects the ways mutual gaze is established (or

not) with the teacher.

To sum up, I argue that 'successful management of CIK' by the teachers can be proposed as a feature of L2 Classroom Interactional Competence. Based on the analysis in 4.3, I propose that embodied vocabulary explanations, managing code-switching according to the pedagogical goal, and use of DIUs are skills that contribute to the construct of 'successful management of CIK', therefore to L2 Classroom Interactional Competence. The analyses in 4.1 and 4.2 showed that if recipiency is not properly established in pre-beginning and beginning position, that is, before or while the first turn allocation, students may claim insufficient knowledge. Therefore, although it is not easy to discuss this with concrete references to CIC, managing turn distribution in language classrooms is also a skill which should be explored further on its own right. In the following section, I will try to give some implications of all these findings to language teacher education.

5.6 Implications for Language Teacher Education

A growing body of research has emphasised the value of reflective practice and microanalysis of teacher talk in language teacher education recently (e.g. Walsh 2006; Seedhouse 2008). Walsh (2006) developed the Self Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT) framework based on the idea that teachers, guided by researchers, can learn from their own classroom practice by repeatedly listening recordings of their own classroom interaction, and hence develop 'Teacher Language Awareness' (Andrews 2001, 2007; Walsh 2003) which may enhance the quality of teaching and therefore L2 Classroom Interactional Competence. Walsh's work is groundbreaking in that it combines critical reflective practice with a microanalysis of classroom interaction; the model developed described classroom micro-contexts (modes), which signify certain interactional features according to pedagogical goals of the teacher. According to him, "where language use and pedagogic purpose coincide, learning opportunities are facilitated" (Walsh 2002, p.5).

Likewise, Seedhouse (2008) proposed a model through which individual teachers (alone or with a peer) can work on video recordings of their own lessons by carrying out microanalysis of their own talk. Areas which might be focused in analysis are:

        * Sequences in which trouble of some kind occurs
        * Sequences which went particularly well and in which successful learning was thought
        to have taken place
        * Lesson transition sequences and how the learners oriented to these
        * Sequences in which the teacher produces instructions or explanations
        * In action research, the teacher might record a 'default' lesson, then introduce an
        innovation into the teaching context which is then recorded and the two lessons compared
        * What actually happens in pairwork and groupwork? (p.56).

Informed by the studies of these two scholars, teachers' management of CIK can be subject to teacher reflection and microanalysis in a variety of ways. Taking the position that claims of insufficient knowledge are 'troubles' in classroom interaction considering that the claims initiated by students as well as inter-turn pauses (Schegloff 2007) break the contiguity of talk, efficient ways to overcome these troubles have to be developed. One way to carry out such a task is recording own lessons and repeatedly watching videos to spot this phenomenon. This can also be carried out together with a peer or a mentor if the teacher is involved in a teacher-training program. Once the troubles are spotted, the teachers can transcribe the sequences in order to see what kind of teacher initiations lead to CIK, and how they are managed (or not) in micro moments of talk. The following steps can be a focus of analysis for the teacher in order to develop his/her awareness:

* Is the teacher establishing recipiency with students before allocating the turns? Here, engaging into mutual gaze (or its lack of) as well as body orientations can be focused to see if there are signs from the students to participate in talk or not.
* Managing silences within the interactional environment of CIK can also be subject to analysis. Is enough wait time given to students before a CIK, or is there adequate wait time before a teacher initiates an epistemic status check?
* The subsequent teacher turns can be focused after a student initiates a CIK. What is the common practice for handling CIK? For example, is the turn immediately allocated to another student, or is there a reasonable wait time? Are students' gaze orientations and embodiment of classroom artefacts being monitored?
* Is the teacher using other interactional resources like the ones found in this thesis, including embodied vocabulary explanations and Designedly Incomplete Utterances? What kind of elicitation techniques proves to be successful and lead to further student participation?

* What is the source of no knowledge (e.g. a vocabulary item)? Does the teacher highlight this source in the following turns so as to negotiate the pedagogical goal at that moment in talk?

The findings of this research has the potential to inform teachers and teacher trainers who are willing to incorporate reflective practice models into their curriculum of teaching. Once constructs like Teacher Language Awareness and Classroom Interactional Competence are appreciated by practitioners and decision makers, the findings of this micro-analytic research can be used as a starting point to investigate the phenomenon of CIK, and this will inevitably lead to finding other interactional resources to manage CIK in different contexts.

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the findings of the microanalysis carried out in chapter 4 in relation to the research questions and brought new insights into the analysis of CIK in general and their employment in language classrooms in particular from a sequential viewpoint. In the first two sections, typical sequential formats of CIK have been introduced also focusing on how they are embodied through visual sources, and how teachers interpret insufficient knowledge drawing on nonverbal cues; thus initiate epistemic status checks. These were followed by two sections that dealt with the findings on the failure of establishing recipiency, which has potential links to unwillingness to talk, and the findings on silence within the interactional environment of CIK. Finally, the last two sections discussed the relevance of the findings to teaching in classrooms, CIC and language teacher education. The most significant contribution in these sections is that I propose a new construct for describing Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh 2006); namely successful management of CIK. The findings showed that using embodied explanations, strategic employment and handling of code-switching and translation, and DIUs can be conducive to student participation after a CIK.

Chapter 6. Conclusion

In light of the research questions and by employing a micro-analytic, sequential investigation, this thesis has shed light upon the interactional unfolding and management of claims of insufficient knowledge in two EAL classrooms in Luxembourg. Throughout the analysis, the interactional environment of students' CIK and the teachers' orientations to and interpretations of insufficient knowledge have been explored from a purely descriptive perspective, and implications have been given both for the interactional organisation of the phenomenon in general and for classroom discourse, teaching, and CIC in particular. I will conclude this thesis by addressing the limitations of the study, pedagogical implications, future research directions, calling for further research on CIK and their co-construction in classrooms, and a personal evaluation.

6.1 Limitations of the Study

Although the quantity of video recordings in this research is adequate for the purposes of a CA study, a limitation can be that the findings that are presented come from only one institution, two classrooms, and one teacher. Another potential limitation can be the duration of data collection. One can claim that only a longitudinal (more than six months) study can uncover learning and the impact of instruction on learning practices. As a response to this potential limitation, it can be argued that the aim of this study is not to bring evidence to learning or development of competencies for teachers and students. Therefore, longitudinal data is not a prerequisite for the purposes of this thesis. However, if I had had more time to collect data, I would go beyond two months of data collection and start from the beginning of the semester in order to see if there are any changes over time about the teacher's management of insufficient knowledge.

There are also technical limitations that may potentially have an impact on the analysis of the data. Placement and the number of cameras are the most important ones. During the data collection, only two cameras were available for recording, so some important visual information that could potentially be significant for the analysis could have been missed. Yet, before each recording, I had to make a decision on locating the student camera to a certain place in the class, which can best capture all of the students. Another limitation was the lack of individual microphones so that side-talks of students could

also be captured. The last limitation in relation to data collection is that there were almost no learner-learner interactions in this teacher-fronted classroom. The phenomenon being investigated could be enacted in different ways if student-student interaction was recorded separately, so further research is required.

According to İçbay (2008), the forerunning limitation of a conversation analytic study is rooted in "the researcher's implicit obligation to turn his findings into the practical consequences that are supposed to be applicable to the community with which he has done his study" (p.75). It is conducive to both teacher training and to teaching and learning research in general if classroom-based research informs practitioners as well as institutions. A limitation of CA based research on language classrooms, then, is that it does not directly aim at changing practitioners' practices. This is also the case for this thesis. However, the teacher has been given all the recordings and was informed on the findings of the teacher. Therefore, although I did not contribute to the classroom practice, the research findings may potentially inform the teacher on future practices.

For Jenks (2006), "although CA relies on both transcripts and recordings, it is often the transcripts that are used for presentation and publication" (p.80). The transcripts cannot always reflect what is happening actually in the recordings, which may bring issues of validity to the surface. In my extracts, I tried to use screenshots as effectively as possible, where relevant. One should keep in mind that the data has to be represented in written form, combined with images. But it is impossible to capture in transcript everything that is happening at a certain time in interaction. One possible direction in the future could be integrating video files into pdf documents, which is already available if professional software is used (e.g. Adobe Professional). This can be costly though, and a server is required for online reading purposes.

6.2 Implications for Pedagogy

Although the primary focus of this thesis is to 'describe' the interactional unfolding of CIK with no pedagogical motivation or theory/practice driven assumptions in mind, the findings showed that different ways a teacher manages students' claims of no knowledge have interactional and pedagogical consequences that can inform instructional practices (i.e. language teaching). Given that students occasionally enact claims of insufficient knowledge in classroom talk-in-interaction, following the

findings, one can propose that certain interactional resources teachers employ to deal with insufficient knowledge are more conducive to student participation than others. The teachers cannot simply let a CIK pass, as this would not be parallel to the main institutional goal of L2 classrooms, which is to teach the language. In relation to this, the most frequently employed practice of a teacher has been found to be relying on the multiparty participatory structure of the classroom: allocating the turn to other students. However, if interactions in L2 classrooms are expected to be similar to real life situations, which is a goal of the constantly developing communicative approach, the teacher should utilise resources like embodied explanations and DIUs to pursue intersubjectivity and mutual understanding.

Nevertheless, one cannot claim that the practices of the teacher illustrated in 4.1 and 4.2 are necessarily 'wrong' instructional/interactional choices, since a particular student who claims no knowledge is no longer involved (at least verbally) in question-answer exchanges. The multi-party nature of classrooms like the ones examined in this research showed that the dynamic turn allocation practices after CIK are commonly used resources, also considering the institutional limitations like time constraints in classrooms and socio-psychological factors like face issues. Yet, if further participation from a particular student or other co-interactants is a desired goal, the interactional, and therefore instructional practices illustrated in 4.3 can be claimed to be fruitful ones as they have the potential to lead to displays of understandings and further engagements. I will not here repeat in detail the relevance of these findings to CIC as I discussed them by referring to certain extracts in the previous chapter. What should be kept in mind is that the teachers should make use of alternative resources like the ones I illustrated to further engage students when there is a claim of insufficient knowledge. Furthermore, as I discussed in the previous chapter, specifically in 5.6, the teachers should develop a language awareness to successfully manage CIK. Finally, in the light of the findings, I propose that embodied vocabulary explanations, managing code-switching according to the pedagogical goal, and use of DIUs are skills that contribute to the construct of 'successful management of CIK', therefore to L2 Classroom Interactional Competence. These findings have the potential to inform teachers on more fruitful practices that can enhance learning, and should be incorporated into language teacher education (see page 148 for a potential framework on how to integrate the findings into teacher education).

6.3 Directions for Future Research on CIK

As I discussed in chapter 2, research on CIK has been carried out in different institutional settings including courtroom cross-examinations (Metzger and Beach 1996; Beach and Metzger 1997), child counselling (Hutchby 2002), and social investigation meetings (González-Martínez 2008), as well as in mundane talk (e.g. Tsui 1991; Weatherall in press). Beach and Metzger (1997) claimed that CIK "in casual talk have considerably more diverse functions and characteristics than, for example, courtroom examination or other institutional involvements" (p.581). Therefore, in order to have a better understanding of how CIKs are initiated by interactants, the ways participants orient to it, and their strategic employment should be investigated in different settings and in larger databases. In addition to this, since most of the studies on CIK have been carried out with participants who share English as their first language, more research is needed with participants who use English as a lingua franca. Furthermore, in order to come up with universal rules on the co-construction and management of insufficient knowledge, researchers should investigate the phenomenon in interactions where other languages (e.g. Turkish) are used as the medium or media of communication. This would, eventually, allow for comparative studies in the future.

I mentioned earlier that this is the first comprehensive study that integrates multimodal, nonverbal resources to the analysis of CIK. Hence, thanks to the video recording technology, more researchers can implement a multimodal analysis on the phenomenon in a wide range of contexts. Informed by this thesis, I believe that there is a great deal of potential to reveal different embodied ways through which interactants can co-construct CIK. This line of research can even be extended beyond interactions where participants physically co-occur in a given context, and may include interactions carried out through other media (e.g. computer mediated interactions like Skype). Within the context of computer-mediated communication, analyses of synchronous and asynchronous interaction can also be focused. Another line of research on claims of insufficient knowledge is the integration of digital visual coding technology, where recently developing innovations like digital gaze and gesture tracking can be used to understand how interactants claim/display no knowledge. This kind of research can inform computer-human interactions and can be used to build intelligent machines that can anticipate someone's state of no knowledge or hesitations and can develop ways to manage this epistemic state so as to reach certain interactional/institutional goals. This

visual corpus, however, may necessitate going beyond CA and integrating coding structures and the use of recent corpus linguistic techniques.

6.4 Directions for Future Research on Classroom Discourse

This study has examined CIK in EAL classrooms in Luxembourg, which is a multilingual context. Future research in classrooms where other languages like German or Turkish are taught has the potential to bring further insights into the phenomenon. Different languages have certain linguistic and interactional features, which may come to surface through initiating CIK, and a close investigation of these features in instructed language learning contexts has the potential to bring forth a variety of ways CIK are employed or managed. Revealing the different ways they are managed by the teacher may have implications for L2 Classroom Interactional Competence, and these may extend the findings of this study. For instance, management of code-switching may show differences in (officially) monolingual countries. Furthermore, employing Designedly Incomplete Utterances may also show differences, since turn design for initiating a DIU may vary due to morpho-syntactic differences between languages.

The scope of studies on CIK in classroom discourse can be extended to classrooms where different subjects are taught like history or maths, both in students' L1 and L2. The reason for potential differences is that the kind of, therefore the co-construction of, knowledge as such is different in additional language classrooms due to the role of language. According to Willis (1992), language "serves both as the subject matter of the lesson, and as the medium of instruction" (p.192) in L2 classrooms. Then, the findings of this thesis illustrate an intertwined nature of 'insufficient knowledge' reflecting an ongoing, complex interaction between the source of 'no knowledge' as dependent on content, language, or even both. Thus, further research should also focus on classroom settings in which 'language' is not necessarily the subject; yet, interesting findings can also be obtained by investigating CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning).

It should be noted that although the investigation of the interactional management of CIK has the potential to inform researchers and practitioners on various issues like CIC, student engagement, and language teaching in classrooms, further research on these phenomena is required to explore how these lead to language learning in instructed learning contexts. Apart from CIK, other ways the students resist teacher agendas

should be explored in detail, including long silences and explicit student disengagements from interactions. Further research can explicate different ways teachers can facilitate talk and create more interactive classrooms. The findings that emerge from instances of successful handling of problematic situations (e.g CIK, long silences) have the potential to develop more engaging teachers, and more interactionally active students. These findings can also help develop engaging classroom activities, and even materials, which may help to minimise interactionally problematic situations, and can create better learning opportunities for students.

6.5 Personal Evaluation

This project has enabled me to have a better understanding of a common, but underresearched phenomenon in classroom talk-in-interaction; namely claims of insufficient knowledge. This issue has long been ignored by researchers who largely focused on interactionally rich instances of classroom talk to understand 'good' teaching and learning practices in L2 classrooms. By focusing on a relatively problematic phenomenon in classrooms, I believe that I developed an awareness of the ways the teacher manages CIK and potentially turns it into learning opportunities for students. The micro-analysis I carried out showed that in classroom contexts, CIK are not necessarily co-constructed in the same ways as it was shown in other contexts, as the review of literature showed. I further learned that the teacher could use these instances as teaching opportunities, and help students move to a state of understanding even immediately after an explicit claim of no knowledge by using certain resources. I propose that the micro-analytic and multimodal framework I used and developed to investigate this single phenomenon can be further extended to understand other features of CIC, and other events where understanding and knowledge are made relevant in classroom talk-in-interaction. As an early career researcher, the insights I developed from this research will help me explore many other interactional and pedagogical dynamics of learning and teaching in language classrooms, and will be the basis for my intended future aim as a researcher, which is to understand learning, development and interactional competence.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Transcription Conventions

Adapted from Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008)

(1.8)	Numbers enclosed in parentheses indicate a pause. The number represents the number of seconds of duration of the pause, to one decimal place. A pause of less than 0.2 seconds is marked by (.)
[ ]	Brackets around portions of utterances show that those portions overlap with a portion of another speaker's utterance.
=	An equal sign is used to show that there is no time lapse between the portions connected by the equal signs. This is used where a second speaker begins their utterance just at the moment when the first speaker finishes.
::	A colon after a vowel or a word is used to show that the sound is extended. The number of colons shows the length of the extension.
(hm, hh)	These are onomatopoetic representations of the audible exhalation of air)
.hh	This indicates an audible inhalation of air, for example, as a gasp. The more h's, the longer the in-breath.
?	A question mark indicates that there is slightly rising intonation.
.	A period indicates that there is slightly falling intonation.
,	A comma indicates a continuation of tone.
-	A dash indicates an abrupt cut off, where the speaker stopped speaking suddenly.
↑↓	Up or down arrows are used to indicate that there is sharply rising or falling intonation. The arrow is placed just before the syllable in which the change in intonation occurs.
<u>Under</u>	Underlines indicate speaker emphasis on the underlined portion of the word.
CAPS	Capital letters indicate that the speaker spoke the capitalized portion of the utterance at a higher volume than the speaker's normal volume.
°	This indicates an utterance that is much softer than the normal speech of the speaker. This symbol will appear at the beginning and at the end of the utterance in question.
> <, < >	'Greater than' and 'less than' signs indicate that the talk they surround was noticeably faster, or slower than the surrounding talk.

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(would)	When a word appears in parentheses, it indicates that the transcriber has guessed as to what was said, because it was indecipherable on the tape. If the transcriber was unable to guess what was said, nothing appears within the parentheses.
£C'mon£	Sterling signs are used to indicate a smiley or jokey voice.
+	marks the onset of a non-verbal action (e.g. shift of gaze, pointing)
italics	English translation

Appendix B

Sample consent form, 10th grade.

Université du Luxembourg
Faculté des Lettres, des Sciences Humaines, des Arts et des Sciences
de l'Education
DICA-lab

Projet de recherche : FUNDENG
(FUNDamental ENGlish – in plurilingual learning settings: inventory,
competence development, insights for designing learning (2009-2012))

Directeur du projet: Ass-Prof. Dr. Gudrun Ziegler
Collaborateurs scientifique: Olcay Sert, Natalia Durus, Rasmus Steinkrauss

Walferdange, 31 Mai 2010

ACCORD DE PARTICIPATION

A l'attention des parents d'élèves de la classe Xème du Lycée Technique Josy
Barthel, Mamer

Madame, Monsieur,

Permettez-nous de vous adresser cette fiche de renseignement dans le cadre de notre
travail de recherche. Dans le cadre de notre projet de recherche sur l'interaction parmi
les élèves dans une deuxième langue, nous documentons certaines activités
d'apprentissage en enregistrements vidéo et audio. Ces données sont destinées à
analyser les compétences interactionnelles d'élèves dans une deuxième langue (ici,
l'Anglais).

Les données sont traitées avec la plus grande confidentialité et seront sauvegardées
dans la banque des données de DICA-lab. L'accès à cette plate-forme est strictement
réservé aux chercheurs du projet de recherche FUNDENG.

A cet effet nous nous permettons de solliciter votre accord écrit quant à
l'enregistrement de séquences au sein de la classe d'Anglais de Monsieur Marc Gillet.
Nous envisageons de couvrir une période de maximum 4 semaines de cours
d'Anglais.

Soyez rassurés qu'en tant que participants, vous avez des droits bien définis :
-la participation de votre enfant est entièrement volontaire
-vous avez le droit de terminer votre participation à n'importe quel moment
-les enregistrements ne sont pas utilisés à des fins d'évaluation mais à des fins
d'analyse

Toutes les données seront tenues strictement confidentielles, le nom de votre fille/fils
ainsi que toute caractéristique pouvant l'identifier seront d'office anonymisés.

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Dans l'espoir de vous voir contribuer à la recherche sur le développement des compétences dans la langue Anglaise, nous vous remercions de votre collaboration. Nous sommes à votre entière disposition pour d'éventuelles questions ou tout renseignement supplémentaire. N'hésitez pas à nous contacter aux coordonnées suivantes :

Ass-Prof. Dr. Gudrun Ziegler: gudrun.ziegler@uni.lu
Olcay Sert: olcay.sert@uni.lu (Tel: 621531452)
Natalia Durus: natalia.durus@uni.lu (tel: 661616112)

Université du Luxembourg
Campus Walferdange
Bat. II B. 08
Route de Diekirch
L-7220 Walferdange

Merci d'avance de bien vouloir signer cette lettre pour indiquer votre accord/désaccord et de la remettre à Monsieur Marc Gillet .

Votre nom : ...Simon...Mireille

Nom de l'enfant : .Claude.......

☒ J'autorise les enregistrements vidéo et audio

❑ Je refuse toute forme d'enregistrements

Date : 08. 06. 10

Signature :

Pour plus d'information sur DICA-lab, allez à : http://dica-lab.org/

Appendix C

Sample consent form, 11th grade.

Université du Luxembourg
Faculté des Lettres, des Sciences Humaines, des Arts et des Sciences
de l'Education
DICA-lab

Projet de recherche : FUNDENG
(FUNDamental ENGlish – in plurilingual learning settings: inventory,
competence development, insights for designing learning (2009-2012))

Directeur du projet: Ass-Prof. Dr. Gudrun Ziegler
Collaborateurs scientifique: Olcay Sert, Natalia Durus, Rasmus Steinkrauss

Walferdange, 31 Mai 2010

ACCORD DE PARTICIPATION

A l'attention des parents d'élèves de la classe XIème du Lycée Technique Josy
Barthel, Mamer

Madame, Monsieur,

Permettez-nous de vous adresser cette fiche de renseignement dans le cadre de notre
travail de recherche. Dans le cadre de notre projet de recherche sur l'interaction parmi
les élèves dans une deuxième langue, nous documentons certaines activités
d'apprentissage en enregistrements vidéo et audio. Ces données sont destinées à
analyser les compétences interactionnelles d'élèves dans une deuxième langue (ici,
l'Anglais).

Les données sont traitées avec la plus grande confidentialité et seront sauvegardées
dans la banque des données de DICA-lab. L'accès à cette plate-forme est strictement
réservé aux chercheurs du projet de recherche FUNDENG.

A cet effet nous nous permettons de solliciter votre accord écrit quant à
l'enregistrement de séquences au sein de la classe d'Anglais de Monsieur Marc Gillet.
Nous envisageons de couvrir une période de maximum 4 semaines de cours
d'Anglais.

Soyez rassurés qu'en tant que participants, vous avez des droits bien définis :
-la participation de votre enfant est entièrement volontaire
-vous avez le droit de terminer votre participation à n'importe quel moment
-les enregistrements ne sont pas utilisés à des fins d'évaluation mais à des fins
d'analyse

Toutes les données seront tenues strictement confidentielles, le nom de votre fille/fils
ainsi que toute caractéristique pouvant l'identifier seront d'office anonymisés.

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Dans l'espoir de vous voir contribuer à la recherche sur le développement des compétences dans la langue Anglaise, nous vous remercions de votre collaboration. Nous sommes à votre entière disposition pour d'éventuelles questions ou tout renseignement supplémentaire. N'hésitez pas à nous contacter aux coordonnées suivantes :

Ass-Prof. Dr. Gudrun Ziegler: gudrun.ziegler@uni.lu
Olcay Sert: olcay.sert@uni.lu (Tel: 621531452)
Natalia Durus: natalia.durus@uni.lu (tel: 661616112)

Université du Luxembourg
Campus Walferdange
Bat. II B. 08
Route de Diekirch
L-7220 Walferdange

Merci d'avance de bien vouloir signer cette lettre pour indiquer votre accord/désaccord et de la remettre à Monsieur Marc Gillet .

Votre nom : PALMIROTTA-MINDIA. Maria

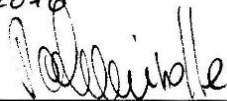Nom de l'enfant : PALMIROTTA. Guendalina

☒ J'autorise les enregistrements vidéo et audio

☐ Je refuse toute forme d'enregistrements

Date : 04.06.2010

Signature :

Pour plus d'information sur DICA-lab, allez à : http://dica-lab.org/

A supplementary vocabulary practice exercise prepared by the teacher based on a text (Soars and Soars 2009, p. 74) in the students' book.

18.06.2010
10ᵗʰ grade
(2.saat)

I'm Sorry - Unit 9

Match the following words from the text p.74 and their definitions.

1	scruffy (adj.)		a meeting, especially one that happens by chance
2	obvious (adj.)		to be very shocked or surprised
3	to arrest sb		clear easy to see, recognize or understand
4	a stitch		to be happy that something unpleasant has not happened or has ended
5	an encounter		the crime of getting money by deceiving people
6	an addict		to be very pleased
7	to be stunned		untidy and dirty
8	to feel relieved		a length of special thread used to join the edges of a deep cut in the flesh
9	to be delighted		to be extremely happy
10	to rehabilitate sb		If the police arrest someone, they take them away to ask them about a crime which they might have committed
11	to bump into sb		a person who cannot stop doing or using something, especially something harmful
12	theft (n.)		(the act of) dishonestly taking something which belongs to someone else and keeping it
13	fraud (n.)		to return someone or something to a good or healthy condition, state or way of living
14	to be over the moon		wanting to do something very much and not allowing anyone or any difficulties to stop you
15	determined (adj.)		to meet sb by coincidence; to happen to meet sb

off the mark.com   by Mark Parisi
                          offthemark.com

HEY, I DON'T MIND A CAT BURGLAR STEALING OUR STUFF, BUT THIS IS GOING TOO FAR...

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Appendix E

From: RAAbits Englisch: Impulse und Materialien für die creative
Unterrichtsgestaltung". Stuttgart: Raabe Verlag, 1994, p.62.

My Son the Fanatic (S II)

| Reihe 5 | Verlauf | Material S 5 | LEK | Kontext | Mediothek |

M 4 Information sheet: The background of Asian immigration to Britain

The History of immigration from India and Pakistan to Great Britain

Indians began arriving in the UK in large numbers shortly after their country gained independence in 1947. More than 60,000 arrived before 1955, many of whom drove buses, or worked in foundries or textile factories. Later arrivals opened corner shops or ran post offices.

Two Asian women wearing traditional Indian saris while shopping in Oxford Street, London, in the 1960s.

Until the Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1962,
5 all Commonwealth citizens could enter and stay in the United Kingdom without any restriction. The Commonwealth Immigration Act 1962 made citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies whose passports were not directly issued by
10 the United Kingdom Government subject to immigration control. The Commonwealth Immigration Act had a significant effect on the immigration pattern of Indians. While before the act mostly men had come to Great Britain to
15 look for a job without their families, after the Act the majority of immigrants were families who wanted to stay permanently. The flow of Indian immigrants peaked between 1965 and 1972.

The British Nationality Act 1981, which was enacted in 1983, distinguishes between British citizen
20 and British Overseas Territories citizen. The former hold nationality *by descent* and the latter hold nationality *other than by descent*. British passport holders from countries in the Commonwealth no longer had an automatic right to enter Britain. Only those born in Britain, or the children of British parents, or people who had lived in Britain for some time could obtain British citizenship.

Today about 65% of the Pakistani population of British nationality was born in Great Britain.
25 The majority of the first generation of the Pakistani families living in Great Britain work in the service-sector owning small business such as corner shops or small restaurants while a remarkable number of their children visit college or have other professional jobs with high qualification.

Only 9% of the British citizens of South Asian descent are unemployed. In 2006 more than 10,000 people of South-Asian descent was granted British citizenship. The majority of the
30 Pakistani population can be found in Greater London (19.10%), Yorkshire (19.58%), the North West (15.65%) and the West Midlands (20.68%). Most of the Indian population UK-wide can be found in Greater London (41.48%) and the West Midlands (16.96%).

Source: http://mighealth.net/uk/index.php/Opportunities_and_Explanations_for_Migratory_Patterns_in_the_United_Kingdom

1 **to gain:** to get, to achieve – 2 **foundry:** Gießerei – 9 **to issue:** to hand out, to distribute – 13 **pattern:** example, sample – 18 **to peak:** to hit the highest point – 19 **to enact:** to pass, to become law – 19 **to distinguish:** to make a difference – 20 **descent:** parentage, ancestry – 23 **to obtain:** to get

Tasks

1. Read the text about immigration from India and Pakistan to Great Britain.

2. Think of possible problems second generation immigrants in Great Britain have to deal with. Make a list.

62 RAAbits Englisch April 2010

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Lyrics of 'The Pretender', by Jackson Browne (1976).

The Pretender (by Kackson Browne)

I'm going to rent myself a house

In the shade of the freeway

I'm going to pack my lunch in the morning

And go to work each day

And when the evening rolls around

I'll go on home and lay my body down

And when the morning light comes streaming in

I'll get up and do it again

Amen

Say it again

Amen

I want to know what became of the changes

We waited for love to bring

Were they only the fitful dreams

Of some greater awakening

I've been aware of the time going by

They say in the end it's the wink of an eye

And when the morning light comes streaming in

You'll get up and do it again

Amen

Caught between the longing for love

And the struggle for the legal tender

Where the sirens sing and the church bells ring

And the junk man pounds his fender

Where the veterans dream of the fight

Fast asleep at the traffic light

And the children solemnly wait

For the ice cream vendor

Out into the cool of the evening

Strolls the Pretender

He knows that all his hopes and dreams

Begin and end there

Ah the laughter of the lovers

As they run through the night

Leaving nothing for the others

But to choose off and fight

And tear at the world with all their might

While the ships bearing their dreams

Sail out of sight

I'm going to find myself a girl

Who can show me what laughter means

And we'll fill in the missing colors

In each other's paint-by-number dreams

And then we'll put out dark glasses on

And we'll make love until our strength is gone

And when the morning light comes streaming in

We'll get up and do it again

Get it up again

I'm going to be a happy idiot

And struggle for the legal tender

Where the ads take aim and lay their claim

To the heart and the soul of the spender

And believe in whatever may lie

In those things that money can buy

Thought true love could have been a contender

Are you there?

Say a prayer for the Pretender

Who started out so young and strong

Only to surrender

A text (Soars and Soars 2009, p. 72) in New Headway Intermediate.

SPEAKING AND LISTENING
A social conscience

1 Work in small groups. Do you have a social conscience? Discuss the situations 1–5 and decide what you would do.

I'd ...   I wouldn't ...   I might ...

Tell the class.

2 **T 9.5** Listen to five people describing a situation they were in. Answer the questions.

1 Where was he/she?
2 Who were the other people involved?
3 What was the problem?
4 Did he/she do anything? Say anything?
5 What was the other person's reaction?
6 What was the result?

Talking about you

3 What would *you* have done in the same situations? Discuss in your groups, then tell the rest of the class.

I wouldn't have done what she did.
I'd have told him ...

SPOKEN ENGLISH *just*

1 Look at the use of *just* in these sentences.
   I'd *just* reached the front of the queue ...
   I *just* need to ask a quick question.
   ... I was *just* furious!

In which sentences does *just* mean ...?
   really   a short time before   only/simply

2 Find other examples of *just* in T9.5 on p128.

3 Write the word *just* where you think it goes best in these sentences.
   1 Alice isn't here. She's just gone.
   2 I'm sorry I'm in a bad mood. I'm tired, that's all.
   3 I love your new coat!
   4 I've finished the most wonderful book. You must read it!
   5 I don't want any wine. A glass of water, please.
   6 John's so generous. I think he's amazing!
   7 'Who's coming tonight?' 'Me.'
   8 Hold on a minute. I'm going to the loo.

   T 9.6 Listen, check, and repeat.

Do you have a social conscience? What would YOU do?

18.06.2010
11th grade

1 You are in the street. A man who says he's penniless and homeless is asking for money, so you give him some. As you're walking away, his phone starts ringing. He pulls out a really nice mobile phone and starts chatting to a friend.

2 You're in a shop. You see a woman shop-lifting some food. She's got three small children, who look hungry.

3 You're in a place where smoking is forbidden. Two men light a cigarette in front of you.

4 Your best friend is cheating on her boyfriend, Bill. She's been going out with him for ages, but she's also seeing a guy called Mark.

5 You see some kids in the street dropping litter. There is a litter bin five metres away.

Appendix H

A text (Soars and Soars 2009, p. 73) in New Headway Intermediate.

PRACTICE
It all went wrong

1 Work in pairs. Read about three robberies that went wrong. What were the robbers' mistakes?

Easy arrest

A bank robber in Marseille, France, held up a sign which said 'Give me all the money.' The cashier handed over the money, and the bank robber fled, leaving the note behind. Unfortunately, he had written the note on the back of an envelope. On the other side was his address. He was arrested later the same day.

Smile!

Car thief Lee Hoskins took pictures of himself stealing a Vauxhall Astra with a camera he found in the glove department. Lee and his girlfriend took turns posing before crashing the car and fleeing the scene, leaving the camera on the back seat of the car. 'It's amazing just how stupid some criminals can be,' said a spokesman for Somerset police.

Have a loan instead

A Finnish bank manager stopped a robbery by persuading the three criminals to take out a loan instead. The robbers burst into the bank near Helsinki, and demanded €50,000. The manager put the money on the table, but suggested that a loan would be more sensible. He offered them a €10 cash advance and told them to return in ten minutes to sign the loan papers. Police were waiting for them.

2 Rewrite the sentences about the robberies using the words in brackets.

1 It was a mistake to write his note on an envelope. *(shouldn't)*
   He shouldn't have written his note on an envelope.

2 It would have been better to take the note with him. *(should)*
   _____

3 He left his address. The police found him. *(if)*
   _____

4 It was stupid to take his photo. *(shouldn't)*
   _____

5 They crashed the car. They didn't escape. *(if, could)*
   _____

6 He left photos of himself. He could have got away with it. *(if, might)*
   _____

7 They were so stupid. They didn't escape with the money. *(if)*
   _____

8 They listened to the manager. They didn't steal the money. *(if, could)*
   _____

9 It was silly to go back to the bank. *(shouldn't)*
   _____

10 It would have been better to just run away. *(should)*
   _____

You're an idiot!

3 Your friend did some really stupid things.

> I drove home even though I was falling asleep at the wheel.

> You're an idiot! You might have had an accident! You could have killed someone!

How do you react when he tells you these things? Use *might have* or *could have*.

1 I went walking in the mountains for three days with no food or equipment.

2 I didn't feel like going to work, so I phoned in sick. I went shopping instead.

3 I had a temperature of 102, but I went out dancing all night.

4 I told Sally I couldn't see her, then went out to the pub with Danielle.

5 I used to be really good at tennis, I was an under-14 champion, but then I gave it all up.

T 9.4 Listen and compare.

Speaking

4 Think of a time in your life when things went wrong.

> I went to a party with my boyfriend.
> I kissed another boy.
> I had a row with my boyfriend.
> We broke up.

Make sentences like these.

> I shouldn't have kissed the other boy.

> If I hadn't kissed him, I wouldn't have had a row with my boyfriend.

> I should have just said sorry to my boyfriend. Then we wouldn't have broken up.

2 Unit 9 • It depends how you look at it

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