HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Department Of Foreign Language Education

English Language Teaching Program

A CONVERSATION ANALYTIC STUDY ON RESPONSE PURSUIT PRACTICES IN SYNCHRONOUS ONLINE EFL CLASSROOM INTERACTION

Şükran Buse TATAR

Master's Thesis

Ankara, (2023)

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EŞZAMANLI ÇEVRİMİÇİ İNGİLİZCE SINIF-İÇİ ETKİLEŞİMİNDE YANIT TAKİBİ ÜZERİNE KONUŞMA ÇÖZÜMLEMESI ÇALIŞMASI

Şükran Buse TATAR

Master's Thesis

Ankara, (2023)

Acceptance and Approval

To the Graduate School of Educational Sciences,

This thesis / dissertation, prepared by **ŞÜKRAN BUSE TATAR** and entitled "A Conversation Analytic Study On Response Pursuit Practices In Synchronous Online Efl Classroom Interaction" has been approved as a thesis for the Degree of **Master** in the **Program of English Language Education** in the **Department of Foreign Language Education** by the members of the Examining Committee.

Chair	Prof. Dr. Belgin Elmas
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This is to certify that this thesis has been approved by the aforementioned examining committee members on 14/06/2023 in accordance with the relevant articles of the Rules and Regulations of Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences, and was accepted as a **Master's Thesis** in the **Program of of English Language Education** by the Board of Directors of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences from 14/06/2023.

Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı MİRİCİ

Director of Graduate School of Educational Sciences

Abstract

There are certain aspects that shape the interaction in language classrooms, including the setting of the lesson. Consequently, interactions in synchronous online language lessons differ from those in classes held in face-to-face settings. Since it is established in previous research that interaction is a vital part of language classrooms, the need to investigate interactions that occur in online language classes becomes evident. However, studies that examine interactions in the context of online language teaching have yet to be explored. This thesis sought to uncover the response pursuit practices, used by language teachers in the synchronous online learning environment. Approximately 49 hours of recordings from English lessons that are conducted in the online setting in a middle school were gathered. Conversation analytic method is adopted in the study to inspect the interactional practices through a microanalytic lens. Data revealed that the majority of the time, students in the online teaching environment were in the habit of not responding to the teacher's questions. As a result, the teacher is required to use response pursuit practices. The findings demonstrate that the most regularly employed response pursuit techniques were use of L1, extending the wait time, scaffolding, repeating the student's name and repeating the question analyzed with reference to different question types addressed to the whole class or to the next student nominated by the teacher. The results highlight the necessity for preservice teachers to receive training on how to plan and carry out online lessons in which students can actively participate.

Keywords: language learning, interaction, synchronous online language teaching, conversation analysis, face-to-face language teaching, response pursuit

Öz

Ders ortamı da dahil olmak üzere, dil sınıflarındaki etkileşimi şekillendiren bazı yönler vardır. Buna bağlı olarak, eşzamanlı çevrimiçi dil derslerindeki etkileşimler, yüz yüze ortamlarda gerçekleştirilen derslerdekilerden farklıdır. Önceki araştırmalarda etkileşimin dil sınıflarının önemli bir parçası olduğu tespit edildiğinden, çevrimiçi dil sınıflarında meydana gelen etkileşimlerin araştırılması ihtiyacı ortaya çıkmaktadır. Ancak, etkileşimleri çevrimiçi dil öğretimi bağlamında inceleyen çalışmalar henüz yeterli değildir. Bu yüksek lisans tezi eşzamanlı çevrimiçi öğrenme ortamında dil öğretmenleri tarafından kullanılan yanıt takibi uygulamalarını ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bir ortaokulda çevrimiçi ortamda yürütülen İngilizce derslerinden yaklaşık 49 saatlik kayıt toplanmıştır. Çalışmada, etkileşimsel uygulamaları mikro analitik bir mercekle incelemek için Konuşma Çözümlemesi yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Veriler, çevrimiçi öğretim ortamındaki öğrencilerin çoğu zaman öğretmenin sorularına yanıt vermeme alışkanlığı içinde olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Sonuç olarak, öğretmenin yanıt takibi uygulamalarını kullanması gerekmektedir. Bulgular, en sık kullanılan yanıt takip tekniklerinin öğrencilerin anadilinin kullanımı, bekleme süresini uzatma, öğrencinin adını tekrarlama ve tüm sınıfa ya da öğretmen tarafından belirlenen bir sonraki öğrenciye yöneltilen farklı soru türlerine göre analiz edilen soruyu tekrarlama olduğunu göstermektedir. Sonuçlar, öğretmen adaylarının öğrencilerin aktif olarak katılabileceği çevrimiçi dersleri nasıl planlayacakları ve yürütecekleri konusunda eğitim almalarının gerekliliğini vurgulamaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: dil öğrenimi, etkileşim, eşzamanlı çevrimiçi dil öğretimi, konuşma çözümlemesi, yüz yüze dil öğretimi, yanıt takibi

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I dedicate this thesis to my grandmothers Nesrin Temiz and Şükran Tatar. Wherever they are right now, I know they are watching out for me.

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Symbols and Abbreviations

CA: Conversation Analysis

CA-SLA: Conversation Analysis for Second Language Acquisition

CIC: Classroom Interactional Competence

CMC: Computer Mediated Communication

DIU: Designedly Incomplete Utterance

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

FPP: First pair part

IRF: Initiation-Response-Feedback

L2: Second/Foreign Language

SCMC: Synchronous Computer Mediated Communication

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SPP: Second pair part

Chapter 1

Introduction

Even though online education has been around for a long time now, online teaching and learning has gained widespread attention, particularly after the Covid-19 pandemic. The educational landscape has witnessed a shift from the traditional face-to-face teaching to the teaching and learning online with the suspension of face-to-face classes. Consequently, foreign language education has started to take place online and the interaction among learners and teachers have been shaped by the unique features of online teaching setting. Considering the crucial part interaction has on language learning, the need to research the ways that online teaching setting have affected the interaction in language classrooms is unavoidable. This thesis aims to uncover the interactional practices employed by the language learners and teachers in general and, the response pursuit practices in particular.

In this chapter, problem of the study will be stated, and aim and significance of the study will be explained then the research questions will be given. Later, limitations of the study will be reported, and important concepts will be explained.

Statement of the Problem

The acquisition of one's first language (L1) is accomplished through interaction. Commenting on language use, Clark (1996) points out: "It is a form of joint action; therefore, it embodies both individual and social processes." Accordingly, second/foreign language learning, too, develops through a social process. As it is widely researched and accepted, foreign/second language is learned and acquired in and through interaction and interaction has proven to be a vital part of any foreign and second language classroom. (Keck *et al.,* 2006; Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006). Therefore, it is crucial for language learners to be able to interact with the teacher or with their peers in the target language during the lessons. For the sake of ensuring a lesson in which as many students as possible participates, teachers must carefully handle the turn allocation practices. McHoul's comparative study (1978) demonstrated that turn allocation and turn taking practices

employed in mundane talk differs from the turn allocation and turn taking practices employed in classroom settings. Further, Markee's studies on language classrooms (2000, cited in Sert, 2015), show that There are choral turns as well as significant pre-allocation of turns in a traditional language classroom. Mehan (1979) demonstrated that teachers can assign students their turns in a variety of methods, including individually nominating them, inviting students to bid, or asking them to provide a choral response. A number of studies have also identified that teachers make use of embodied resources to allocate the turn, such as gaze, nods, or pointing (Lerner, 2003; Mortensen, 2008; Kääntä, 2010). Teachers must be competent to allocate the turns in order to create learning opportunities to students equally.

In his critique of proficiency movement, Kramsch (1986) introduces the term "Interactional Competence" which she defines as; "using a range of interactional practices and being able to use them appropriately. Walsh (2011) broadens the concept of interactional competence by applying it to the language classrooms and presents the term "Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC)." CIC is defined as the ability to use interaction as tool for learning (Walsh, 2011). CIC is an important concept that has been studied by classroom interaction researchers for decades (Walsh, 2011; Sert, 2017; Can-Daşkın; 2015; Girgin & Brandt, 2020; Moorhouse & Li & Walsh, 2021). CIC places interaction at the core of teaching and learning since the core activity in the L2 classroom is learning a language, and this is accomplished through interaction. The characteristics of classroom interactional competence is listed by Walsh:

> A teacher who demonstrates CIC uses language that is both convergent to the pedagogic goal of the moment and that is appropriate to the learners. Moreover, it facilitates interactional space which learners need to participate in the discourse, to contribute to class conversations and to receive feedback on their contributions. Teachers who demonstrate CIC are also able to shape learner contributions by scaffolding, paraphrasing, reiterating. Finally, CIC makes use of effective eliciting strategies. (Walsh, 2011, p. 131).

This master thesis focuses on the last feature of classroom interactional competence mentioned by Walsh, which is the teachers' ability to ask questions and to adjust and clarify the questions for learners.

Thus far, previous studies on classroom interaction have discovered a common practice unique to classroom discourse named as Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequence by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975). Teacher initiates the sequence by directing a question, student provides a response, and teacher gives feedback to student's response. Others have referred to the practice as Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) sequence (McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979), or triadic dialogue (Lemke, 1990). Existing literature shows that nearly 70% of classroom interaction comprises of IRF sequence (Cazden, 2001; Wells & Arauz, 2006). The monolithic, predictable nature of this triadic dialogue have been criticized by some researchers, suggesting that it acts as a constraint to classroom interaction and that it leaves little room for learning opportunities (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1990; van Lier, 2000; Kasper, 2001). Others have reported that the triadic dialogue is not as rigid and demonstrated that there is room for contingency within the IRF sequence. (Garton, 2012; Li, 2013; Waring, 2008; 2009). During the IRF sequence, there are times when students fail to provide the answer immediately after teacher initiates the sequence by directing a question. When students fail to provide the answer, there are certain practices which have been uncovered in earlier research employed by teachers in order to elicit a response and maintain the progressivity of the implementation of the course. For instance, teachers may scaffold learners by rephrasing the question, by producing designedly incomplete utterances (DIU) (Koshik, 2002), or with the use of embodiment. Increasing the wait time for a student to answer (Walsh & Li, 2013), and language alternation e.g. asking the same question in the native language of the student (Kasper, 2004; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005), downgraded response pursuits (Duran & Jacknick, 2020), modelling a response (Duran & Jacknick, 2020), understanding checks (Pomerantz, 1984) are common practices teachers employ as response pursuit practices (Pomerantz, 1984; Schegloff, 2007). When the teacher's questions are left unanswered, it results in missing learning opportunities and the interruption of the interactional and pedagogical progressivity.

Therefore, being able to make use of effective eliciting strategies (Walsh, 2011) is an important skill for a language teacher to have and signifies his level of classroom interactional competence.

Seedhouse (2004) puts forward the idea that in all L2 classrooms, regardless of the setting, there is one core goal; the teacher will teach the L2 to learners. Further, his claim that there are shared practices in language classrooms, as mentioned above, has been established in research. However, the fact that interactional practices in online language settings may show differences has relatively received scant attention so far.

Previous studies in the field of classroom interaction in language teaching have mainly been concerned with interactional practices employed inside the physical classroom setting. Therefore, what is known about classroom interaction is largely based on the traditional, face-to-face teaching settings. Interactional practices employed by the teachers and the learners in synchronous online language teaching setting took little attention until recently, and the number of studies carried out by applying Conversation Analysis (CA) that examines the interaction in synchronous online language classroom setting are scarce. Limited number of research that has dealt with online classroom interaction has been mostly restricted to higher education settings. This indicates a need to examine the classroom interactional practices employed in classrooms with younger learners in online setting. Even though the core goal remains the same, the shape of the communication and the interactional practices may show differences due to unique features of online environment. Teachers and students may be required to use unique interactional techniques in the online environment that they have never had to use in face-to-face interactions (Cheung, 2021). Features such as muting the participants, removing participants, screen sharing, using the chat box are features teachers can make use of during synchronous online teaching and exclusive to the online setting. Technological problems such as disconnections or voice delays have negative effect on the way the instruction is carried out, causing the interaction to be disrupted. Additionally, embodied resources that are frequently employed in traditional, face-to-face lessons, such as gaze, pointing and body orientation cannot be used in online teaching settings. The use of text

chat may replace some of the features that body language carries out in face-to-face settings (Hampel & Stickler, 2012). In a study investigating the use of videoconferencing for language learning, Coverdale-Jones (2000) reported that the turn-taking practices in online learning settings needed to be more deliberate than face-to-face settings. Cheung (2021) found that secondary school students in Hong Kong showed very little engagement in synchronous online lessons, and there was nearly no evidence of student-initiated interaction, as most of the students preferred to turn off their cameras and microphones and disengage themselves from the lesson. In Junn's study (2021), carried out in university context, however, the findings were more positive, reporting that students were able to demonstrate communicative competence in online learning setting.

A recent study by Park & Park (2022), reported that IRF sequences dominated the online classroom, constituting 90% of the occurred exchanges, which is higher than the number of IRF sequences in face-to-face lessons. Further, in a single-case analysis Badem-Korkmaz & Balaman (2022), investigated the response pursuit practices of a preparatory school teacher employed during synchronous online lessons, and demonstrated that the teacher employed a number of screen-based, multimodal response pursuit practices in addition to the verbal ones, such as gazing at the speaker list, using the shared document in hinting and as an epistemic resource, and highlighting aloud.

In view of all that has been mentioned so far, one may suppose that the features which are unique to online teaching setting have an impact on how the lessons are implemented and the way that the interaction is carried out. Therefore, interactional practices employed in online teaching settings differ from the ones employed in face-to-face teaching settings. Teachers and students might utilize additional resources, or they may lack some of the resources they would usually make use of in the classroom.

This thesis set out to investigate the response pursuit practices employed by the teacher in synchronous online teaching setting, with middle school students in Turkey.

Aim and Significance of the Study

The primary aim of this thesis is to shed light on the interactional resources, particularly response-pursuit practices employed by L2 teachers and learners in synchronous online language teaching setting by adopting a Conversation Analytic perspective. The study examines the response-pursuit practices of the teacher in two different situations; when the teacher nominates the next speaker, and when she does not select a speaker, addresses to the whole class, and expects students to volunteer a response. In the latter situation, the teacher commonly directs two question types; known information questions e.g., questions the answer of which is within the epistemic domain of the teacher (Mehan, 1979). The purpose of known-answer questions is to check whether the learners know the answer and can provide a response. The second type is procedural questions directed to students in order to ensure the progressivity of the lesson (Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

This study is significant in that the findings should make an important contribution to the several research areas in the field of foreign language teaching. First of all, the study contributes to the research on synchronous online language teaching and learning, which is a recently growing field. As mentioned above, face-to-face interactions are different from computer mediated interactions since there are features unique to online setting which inevitably alter the way interaction is conducted between participants. During synchronous online teaching, both students and teachers make use of some facilities which they are not able to use in face-to-face teaching setting, such as turning of their cameras, muting themselves and others, and sharing their screen with the other participants. As the study has taken on a Conversation Analytic approach, the lessons have been recorded as they naturally occur, neither the learners nor the teachers have acted upon a script, therefore, the impact that the unique features of the online setting have on the interaction can be observed. Further, the study investigates the micro details of naturally occurring talks in the lessons. By examining the interactional resources and practices in detail and making use of the findings of the existing

research, the study reveals the distinctness of response-pursuit practices employed by teachers in synchronous online language teaching settings.

Secondly, this study is significant in that it contributes to the existing research on response-pursuit practices employed in foreign language classes. Question-answer sequences constitute a big part of the interaction in language classes. Teachers frequently direct questions to learners to evaluate their knowledge on the topic at hand, or to make sure that the lesson will progress smoothly. When a teacher asks a question, students are expected to answer without delay (Hosoda & Aline, 2015). When there is a delay between the teacher question and student response, the interactional progressivity of the lesson is disrupted. Depending on the response provided by the learner, the teacher gives feedback or assesses the answer given. If the student fails to provide a response, it results in missing learning opportunities. For the aforementioned reasons, pursuing response and being able to elicit a response play a critical role in language classrooms and thus, is an important component of CIC (Walsh, 2011).

When directing a question, the teacher may select a student to provide an answer and pursues a response from the selected student, or s/he poses the question to the whole class, does not select a specific student, and waits for a student to bid for the turn. The importance of this study is that it analyzes the response-pursuit practices employed in both of these situations and unveils the differences between the two. In the first part of the analysis, mainly known-information questions are analyzed, there is only one extract where the teacher uses an open-ended question. Further, while analyzing the latter part, two different question types are analyzed; known-answer questions and procedural questions, and the analysis of the two are given under two different headings.

Thirdly, this study is significant because it takes place in a lower secondary education context. Namely, the students are middle school students whose ages differ between 10 and 13. This research provides the first extensive and detailed examination of response-pursuit practices employed in synchronous online language teaching in lower secondary education context. As the age and the proficiency level of the learners change, the way interaction is

shaped changes, thus, altering the interactional practices employed by the teacher. It is important that teachers are aware of the fact that teaching a language to young learners require specific skills. Since the previous studies on synchronous online language teaching that relies upon Conversation Analysis were carried out in higher education settings, this thesis study presents itself as a valuable source to the field of language teaching to middle school students.

Thus far, a number of studies have indicated that the need for teachers to develop online skills is undeniable. Since it is a different teaching setting with unique properties, teaching in the online environment requires specific skills to be developed on teachers' end. In other words, teachers must acquire new digital competencies in order to accomplish successful implementation of synchronous online teaching (Starkey, 2020). Teachers must minimize the effect of technological difficulties (Rehn *et al.,* 2018), use the webcam as a teaching tool, manage the classroom by activating and muting the audio of students and by using the chat box, and establish rapport through distance (Peachey, 2017). In a comprehensive study, Hampel and Stickler (2005) identified seven key skills language teachers must have to be able to have successful synchronous online teaching and present them in a pyramid (see figure 1). On the third level of the pyramid, "facilitating communicative competence" is given, suggesting that language teachers are not only responsible for handling technological problems during synchronous online teaching, instead they must establish an environment which is rich in terms of communicative practices to enhance learners' communicative competence.

In a recent article, Moorhouse *et al.,* (2021) carried out a study to identify the skills language teachers ought to have to use interaction in order to mediate and assist learning during synchronous online teaching by using a mixed-method online survey. Findings of the study indicate that teachers must possess "online teacher interactional competencies."

Moorhouse *et al.,* (2021) expand the literature on classroom interactional competence by putting forward the term e-CIC: classroom interactional competence in online context.

Finally, in light of all that has been mentioned, it can be said that this study is significant because it offers a fresh perspective on Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh, 2011)

and e-CIC (Moorhouse *et al.,* 2021) by exploring the eliciting strategies employed in the synchronous online teaching context.

The study recognizes the interactional practices employed in online language classroom as an issue to be discovered and aims to uncover the response-pursuit practices by investigating the interactions taking place online in detail. This study should, therefore, be of value to researchers studying language classroom discourse, and synchronous online teaching, and to practitioners who are teaching a language in an online classroom setting.

Problem and Research Questions

The fact that interaction is a key component in second/foreign language education is undeniable and well established in literature. Regardless of the teaching setting, language teachers must set a communicative classroom environment that allows students to practice the target language, participate, and interact with their peers and with the teacher. In order to accomplish that, language teachers must have classroom interactional competence (Walsh, 2011). Moreover, to be able to get students to participate in lesson, teachers must be aware of and make use of eliciting strategies.

During synchronous online teaching, students mostly prefer disengaging themselves from the lesson by turning off their cameras and microphones. Therefore, learner engagement in online teaching setting appears to be lower compared to the face-to-face teaching. For these reasons, it is necessary to investigate the interactional practices employed by second/foreign language teachers during synchronous online language teaching.

This study aims to address the following research questions:

1. What are the response-pursuit practices employed by foreign language teachers during synchronous online language teaching at lower secondary level?
    1.1. What are the response pursuit practices teachers employ when they nominate the next speaker?
    1.2. What are response pursuit practices teachers employ when they do not nominate the next speaker?

Assumptions:

The current study makes the following assumptions:

1. The core assumption made in this thesis is that language classrooms are dynamic and each classroom setting has unique features that plays a role in interactional patterns. In this study, it is assumed that synchronous online language teaching setting has distinct properties such as transactional distance (Moore & Kearsley, 1996) and technological assets or problems. As a consequence of these distinct properties the implementation of lessons are different from the ones in face-to-face language teaching setting. The interactional patterns between the learners, and between the teacher and learners vary depending on different factors. For this reason, the setting of the lesson is considered a variable in the study that can result in employment of different interactional patterns. It is assumed that interactional practices employed by learners and teachers will differ depending on the setting.
2. A further assumption made by the study is also related to the dynamicity and uniqueness of language classrooms. It is assumed that the age and the proficiency level of the learners are variables that have an influence on the way the lessons are implemented and the interactions are shaped. Since language teachers implement distinctive strategies and employ interactional practices appropriate and peculiar to the age and proficiency levels of the learners, the interactional patterns and resources teachers make use of identified in young learner classrooms and adult learner classrooms will be discrete.
3. This study acknowledges interaction as a key component in language classrooms. In order to uncover the interactional practices, specifically response-pursuit practices employed in synchronous online teaching, the study adopts a Conversation Analytic approach. Conversation analysis is a method that systematically analyzes talk-in-interaction (Drew & Heritage, 1997). The study assumes that the approach used to answer the research questions of the study align with each other.

4. Data for this study comes from the recordings of synchronous online language lessons. Lessons were recorded as they naturally occur. Lessons and activities were not prepared in order to fit to requirements of the study. They were implemented in a natural order. Even though the participants were aware that the lessons were being recorded, neither the teacher nor the learners that took part in the study acted according to a script, they acted naturally and according to the teaching setting in which they are having the lesson, resulting in an authentic data set. Therefore, it is assumed that the findings of the study are reliable and correspond to the demands of the approach relied upon for this study, which is Conversation Analysis.

Limitations:

One of the possible limitations of the proposed study is related to the generalizability of the findings. Even though the recordings were gathered from 5 separate classes with students whose proficiency levels and ages, though slightly, differ from each other, the data for this study comes from one school only, which is a private school in Ankara, Turkey. Findings may show differences in other settings, such as public schools or in schools that are in rural parts of Turkey. Moreover, the teacher whose lessons were recorded and analyzed had only 5 years of teaching experience and had no prior synchronous online teaching experience. With a teacher who is more experienced in teaching, or who had experienced teaching in the online setting before the data was collected, findings can present differences. Therefore, the data collected for the study may not be enough to generalize the findings of the study.

The lessons were recorded using the Zoom's, the video-conferencing platform chosen by the school to have the online lessons, recording facility. No additional screen-recording application were utilized. For this reason, the only time the teacher's screen can be seen are the times when teacher chooses to share her screen with the participants, thereof; what we can observe and analyze related to teacher's screen movements is limited to what the teacher shares with the learners.

Further limitation of the study is related to the approach relied upon to analyze the data. Conversation Analytic research adopts an emic (insider) perspective, that is; merely the things that are available in the data can be discovered, it is not possible to speculate on why the teacher does what she does if it does not present itself in the data.

Definitions:

Conversation Analysis: “Naturalistic observational discipline that could deal with the details of social action rigorously, empirically, and formally” (Schegloff and Sacks, 1973: 289).

Interactional Competence: “Using a range of interactional practices and being able to use them appropriately” (Kramsch, 1986, p: 370).

Classroom Interactional Competence: “Ability to use interaction as a tool for learning” (Walsh 2011, p: 158).

Classroom Discourse: “All of those forms of talk that one may find within a classroom or other educational setting” (Jocuns, 2012, p.1).

Response-Pursuit: Employing a number of interactional practices to elicit a response from students.

Synchronous Online Teaching: Teachers and students experience a real-time interaction requiring the simultaneous presence of participants (Gregory & Salmon, 2013).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter of the thesis will provide an overview of the previous research on the related topics and demonstrate where the current study situates itself among the literature that have been established priorly.

Since the 1960s, classroom interaction research—which has roots in the 1930s—has grown significantly. In the early stages of classroom interaction research, seven guiding concepts that were applied which have been outlined by Rex *et.al.,* (2006): 1) process-product; 2) cognitive; 3) socio-cognitive, situated cognition and activity theory; 4) ethnographic; 5) sociolinguistic and discourse analysis; 6) critical; 7) teacher research. Every viewpoint offers the chance to see and comprehend a certain aspect of classroom life (Skukauskaite *et. al.,* 2015). Currently, a variety of approaches are frequently employed to gain insight into classroom interaction. Three primary methodologies have been laid out by Walsh (2011) regarding classroom interaction research: Interaction Analysis, Discourse Analysis and Conversation Analysis. Considering that this thesis employs a conversation analytical approach, the classroom interactional research presented in this chapter will be based on studies that employ conversation analysis as a research methodology, with the objective of offering a theoretical foundation for the present study.

Conversation Analysis for Second Language Acquisition

Conversation Analysis (CA), evolved from ethnomethodology, has been started as “a rigorous, empirical, and formal naturalistic observational discipline that might address the specifics of social action” (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973: p.289.). Although CA was not developed to study language learning or teaching, many studies that adopted CA inquiry have demonstrated that it proves beneficial for understanding the interactional strategies employed

by language learners and teachers as well as the intricate details of L2 interactional practices and learning activities (Pekarek Doehler, 2010). Firth and Wagner (1997) were one of the first to argue the idea that “methodologies and theories within SLA reflect an imbalance between cognitive and metalinguistic orientations” and claimed that a re-conceptualization of SLA was necessary. From their groundbreaking article, we understand that methodologies commonly applied in SLA, were not sufficient to explain SLA and that a new approach was needed which examines SLA by looking at the micro-details and one which adopts an emic perspective. Waring (2009) defines CA-for-SLA as “utilizing the powerful tools of conversation analysis to address the issues of second language acquisition.” Similarly, Kasper and Wagner (2011) put forward that “to study SLA from a CA perspective means to make the L2 character of the data available in the transcript.” As Sert (2015) argues in his book, “to understand the social, pedagogical and institutional processes in language classroom, in relation to learning and teaching, what is happening interactionally in these contexts must be captured.” Learning is viewed as occurring from participation in interaction in a conversation analytical approach to language learning in classroom settings (Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010).

Researchers studying interaction in the language classrooms provided evidence that interactional practices employed in the language classrooms have certain properties which are common to all language classrooms, regardless of the setting. To exemplify, the core institutional goal in all language classrooms is the same, that is the teacher will teach the L2 to learners. In his book, Seedhouse (2004), presents evidence to show that interactions in language classrooms have distinct features in numerous ways and are contingent on the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction. He described the interactional organization of L2 classroom interaction and came up with four classroom contexts each of which have a different pedagogical goal: form-and-accuracy context, meaning-and-fluency context, task-oriented context, and procedural context. Each of these contexts have distinct pedagogical goals and the interactions in the classroom are shaped by these contexts. In form-accuracy context, the focus is on presenting the rules and structure of the language, with no emphasis on meaning. Form-and-accuracy contexts are largely dominated by teacher talk and

little student participation is observed. Contrary to form-and-accuracy, meaning-and-fluency context emphasizes meaning negotiation, aims to increase language use, and student participation is encouraged. As can be inferred from the name, task-oriented context focuses on accomplishing the task. Lastly, in the procedural context the main is giving instructions prior to an activity. Therefore, extended teacher turns dominate the interaction.

Classroom-based research have also shown that teacher led classrooms are generally dominated by Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) sequences (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Teacher initiates the interaction by directing a question, the student(s) provide the second pair part (SPP) by giving a response. Later, IRF was reworked by Lemke (1990) as Triadic Dialogue.

Additionally, careful analysis of classroom interactions revealed that turn-taking practices in classrooms have peculiar features which are different from everyday conversations and that they are relatively constrained (McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979; van Lier, 1988). McHoul's study (1978) is one of the preliminary works that investigates turn taking practices in the classroom. He explains the rules for managing turn-taking in the classroom as follows: when the teacher's turn comes to a completion the teacher may select the next speaker, or he can continue; when a student's turn has come to a completion the teacher may continue or the teacher may select the next speaker, or the student may continue his turn. According to McHoul, any other turn taking practices that are employed at a transition relevance place, such as multiple students to self-selecting as next speaker (Ingram & Elliott, 2014) is considered violation of these rules.

Markee's study of language classes revealed that in traditional settings, students take turns in a choral manner, turns are heavily pre-allocated, teachers take lengthy turns, and the talk's topic is decided in advance (Markee, 2000). According to Mehan (1979), teachers might assign students their turn in one of three ways: by individually nominating them, by openly allowing students to bid, or by asking them to provide choral responses Garton (2012) examined the turn-taking practices in a teacher-fronted language classroom, and described

the functions learners might use to take the initiative in such classrooms. Similarly, in his research that he conducted on turn-taking in a language classroom, Waring (2013) showed that there are different practices a language teacher might implement to manage the turn-taking practices and participation of learners. Moreover, Liebscher and O'Cain (2003) investigated how teachers and learners in a German as a foreign language class used repair and reported that repair in this institutional setting differed from repair in everyday conversation and repair was used differently by the students and the teacher.

Earlier studies on language learning have perceived language learning as an individualistic and mechanical process and the main focus of language learning was on the individual mind. However, with a shift in perception on language learning, today, a number of researchers take on the idea that language learning is a social process, and classroom interaction has gained importance. In line with this change, Walsh (2011) extends the term "Interactional Competence" which was first offered by Hymes (1972) and coined the term Classroom Interactional Competence (CIC). Classroom interactional competence is explained as "teachers' and learners' ability to use interaction as a tool for mediating and assisting learning" (Walsh 2011, p: 158). According to the definition, interaction is viewed as being at the core of language teaching. Walsh (2011) claims that learning and learning possibilities will be directly enhanced by teachers and students who improve their CIC. Based on the studies on language classroom interaction, Sert (2015) provides a list of specific practices that language instructors with increased CIC employ: shaping learner contributions; effective use of eliciting strategies; using goal-oriented language; management of claims of insufficient knowledge; increased awareness of unwillingness to participate; effective use of gestures; successful management of code-switching.

To date, very few studies have been carried out on the context of classroom interaction in Turkish setting employing a Conversation Analytic perspective. In an investigation on the ways the teacher shapes learner contributions in an intermediate-level English class at a pre-sessional English language course in a Turkish university, Can-Daşkın (2015) have found that shaping a learner contribution takes place in post expansion sequences, and that The

instructor increases the number of learning opportunities by “extending, repeating, clarifying, summarizing, paraphrasing, translating, and modeling the contribution”. In addition, the teacher employs clarification and confirmation checks, asks elaboration questions, and shapes the contributions on the board. Another conversation analytic classroom interaction study in Turkish context carried out by Can-Daşkın and Hatipoğlu (2019). Analyzing the video recordings an EFL class in a preparatory school at a state university, they have revealed that the teacher commonly uses *reference to a past learning event* to look for evidence of students' knowledge and/or comprehension that is presumed to have been obtained as a result of a learning event. Additionally, Badem-Korkmaz and Balaman (2020) conducted a study in an intermediate level EFL classroom in a higher education setting in Turkey and discovered that teachers anticipate students to produce explicit claims of understanding or non-understanding of the instruction after a prolonged instruction-giving turn, perform the instructed activity by physically orienting to it, and respond to the teacher with the preferred response. The teacher interprets the lack of any of these behaviors as a possible difficulty in comprehending the instructions. Thus, the teacher must constantly monitor students’ orientations to the instructions. Girgin and Brandt (2020), investigated the uses of ‘Mm hm’ by an EFL teacher as a third-turn feedback practice at a state university in Turkey. They have shown that use of “mm hm” by the teacher serves multiple purposes. When used during a student turn, it suggests that the teacher understands the student’s intention to continue, however, when used with a falling-rising intonation when a student’s turn has come to conclusion, it suggests that the teacher expects more talk from the student. Overall, the study has revealed that the use of “mm hm” can be used to increase participation and offer more learning opportunities to learners.

However, studies carried out in Turkish setting remain narrow in focus dealing only with language lessons delivered university context. The current study fills this gap in literature by investigating English language classes in a K12 setting.

In summary, all the studies reviewed here provides evidence that the use of CA to study language classroom interaction contributes to language teachers' development by demonstrating how they can increase their CIC.

Pursuing Response

In a conversation where there are two or more participants, participants are responsible for ensuring the progressivity of the conversation and displaying mutual understanding. When a speaker performs an action that solicits a response, others must display recognition of the action by responding accordingly. As stated by Schegloff and Sacks (1973), a response is conditionally relevant after a question. That is, following the production of the first pair part (FPP), the second pair part (SPP) must be provided. Interactional breakdown happens when the next speaker fails to produce the SPP. The first speaker treats this failure as problematic and resorts to different interactional practices in order to obtain a response from the other party and maintain the progressivity of interaction. These practices differ depending on the nature of the interaction and/or reasons that result in the lack of success of the speaker in providing the SPP.

After receiving a question, recipients may provide an answer, or they can provide a non-answer response, which typically gives an account for not being able to provide an answer (Heritage, 1984, Stivers & Robinson, 2006). However, non-answer responses are dispreferred alternatives.

According to Pomerantz (1988), speakers practice clarifying their utterance when they treat recipients' failure in providing a coherent response as a result of misunderstanding. Clarifying might be manifested by replacing the prior utterance that is seen as problematic. One way of accomplishing this is repairing the indexical reference produced in the first-pair part (Bolden, Mandelbaum & Wilkinson, 2021). If the receiver does not provide a response immediately after the FPP, the speaker treats this as an implication of an understanding

problem of the indexical on the receiver's part, thus, produces a new turn by replacing the indexical with a full-form referent.

Another practice employed by speakers is checking out the facts. When the speaker realizes that the knowledge shared by the speaker is unknown to the recipient, and fails to receive an answer, the speaker checks the facts by laying out the description of the event and allowing the recipient to display knowledge or unawareness of the facts. Finally, another technique used by the speakers is changing their position towards the assertion they have just made. The speakers resort to this technique if they think something they uttered was wrong.

In situations where the speakers find the provided answer inadequate, they may pursue a more elaborate response (Bolden, Mandelbaum & Wilkinson, 2012). One way of establishing this is by overtly stating to the receiver that the provided answer was not adequate. However, the speaker might seek additional responses by including "increment elicitors" (Lerner, 2003) such as; "at," "too," "as," "with" etc. (Lerner, 2003; Bolden, Mandelbaum & Wilkinson, 2012).

As suggested by Stivers and Rossano (2010), speakers utilize a number of resources at the same time in order to "mobilize response" (Stivers & Rossano, 2010) from the recipients. These resources are mentioned as; producing a social action, delivering a sequential position in the produced social action, and utilizing turn-design features. Interrogative morphosyntax, interrogative prosody, recipient epistemic expertise on the issue in relation to the speaker, and speaker gaze towards the receiver are turn design elements that aid in mobilizing response.

An interrogative morpheme is the most commonly used feature that makes a response from the recipient conditionally relevant (Schegloff, 1968; Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). Interrogative prosody (rising intonation at the end of the sentence) indicates that a response is expected from the recipient. Gazing at the recipient before problematizing the missing response verbally, has proven to be a practice speakers make use of when pursuing a response. Designing a turn that is in the epistemic authority of both the speaker and the recipient routinely results in the recipient providing an answer (Labov & Fanshel, 1977).

However, the argument put forward by Stivers and Rossano (2010) that when the utterance is in the epistemic domain of the recipient, the speaker treats the recipient as accountable for responding has been criticized by Schegloff (2010), claiming that such statement cannot be made relevant unless evidence to support it is provided.

Much like in mundane conversation, in classroom interaction when a teacher asks a question, students are expected to answer without delay and the teacher and other students in the class orient to the student's delayed or absent response when he doesn't give one immediately away (Hosoda & Aline, 2015). Missed learning opportunities and disruptions to the lesson's interactional and pedagogical progressivity occur in the classroom when students do not respond to questions from the teacher or when teacher prompts are left unanswered. Unanswered questions generally lead to response pursuits. Similar to the other interactional practices such as turn taking and repair, response pursuit practices employed in classrooms present differences from the ones used in mundane conversations.

Literature on language classroom interaction have revealed that language teachers may pursue responses several ways. One of the most commonly used technique to pursue a response is extending the wait time. The silent pause between the teacher question and student response is referred to as wait time (Rowe, 1969). In mundane conversation, wait time is not generally used by the participants. Instead, when there is a silence, speakers usually try to fill in the silence. In a study that investigate science classes, Rowe (1972), has revealed that on average, teachers gave students just one second to begin responding to a question. Teachers typically either repeated the questions or called on other students to respond if students did not start a response within one second. Conversely, when second language classrooms were examined, Shrum (1984) discovered that the mean wait time was 1.91 seconds, almost twice as long as the 1.00 second mean wait time documented by Rowe. However, studies suggest that extending wait time up to 3 to 5 seconds for students to reply have positive effects on response elicitation (Stahl, 1994). Hosoda (2014) investigated English Activities classes in primary schools in Japan. The study has demonstrated that teacher orient

to students' lack of response causing from several reasons; (a) failing to understand the teacher's questions in English, (b) failing to recall the vocabulary words in English that must be used in answers, or (c) failing to recall the grammatical structures that must be used in answers. Nevertheless, while dealing with the delay or absence of response, teachers did not always focus on the students lack of proficiency in the target language. The study exemplified two different scenarios in which teachers attributed their own problematic methods of producing questions for the lack of a response: (a) when the teacher assumed their production of a referent in the question was not sufficiently clear; and (b) when the teacher assumed their shift in topics was too abrupt. As a result, the study has demonstrated that the issue that delays a response could not be a language issue. Therefore, when a student answer is lacking, teachers must provide more wait time before rushing to pursue a response in order to think about the actual problem and determine the most effective pedagogical course of action.

Another commonly used response pursuit practice in language classrooms that has been established in research is teachers switching to L1. It is revealed by Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) that following a pause of more than one second, the teacher code-switches to L1 if there is no response to the teacher's question posed in the target language. In a study conducted in a foreign language class in Turkey, Üstünel (2016) has shown that teachers used code-switching to deal with procedural issues, clarify meaning by supplying the Turkish counterpart, stimulate and elicit learner engagement, and check learner comprehension. Likewise, it is revealed that when students do not provide a response to their questions, teachers code-switched to Turkish (Üstünel, 2016). In a similar manner, investigating a language lesson in Vietnam, Hoang and Filipi (2016) discovered that the teacher's use of code-switching to students' native language upon not receiving a response resulted in students ultimately providing a response, which serves as proof that the teacher was correct in believing that there was a comprehension issue on the students' part.

Various additional approaches for pursuing response have been established in previous research on language classrooms. Investigating the role of pedagogical artifacts such

as chalkboards and PowerPoint technology in the French foreign language classroom, Chazal (2015) have shown that teachers make use of these artifacts to pursue response. Teachers in the study have used the chalkboard to “construct an incomplete display of a student response.” Teachers create a display on the board when students respond inadvertently or insufficiently to a question, but they stop this process and don't finish the form they've already started. This withholding presents a negative evaluation to the student’s response and adds to the tools at a teacher's disposal for pursuing an adequate or more pedagogically suitable response. With this study, Chazal has revealed that pedagogical artifacts assist the teacher's actions during the triadic dialogue, notably response pursuits, and they also have an impact on how turns are allocated to students as the sequence unfolds. Analyzing post-task reflection talks and a teacher's reaction strategy when she encounters a lack of answer to her initial inquiry in front of the entire class. Duran and Jacknick (2020) have found that the teacher pursues responses by reformulating the earlier version of her question with a shift from specificity to generality and vice versa; providing additional information in the form of increments; asking follow-up questions with a close multimodal focus on the minimal but fitted student contributions; personalizing the task for herself and modeling a response; using incomplete utterances; and eliciting engagement with the task. Additional resources teachers use to pursue response are making modifications of the previous questions (Okada, 2013), giving clues for the appropriate answers (Okada, 2013), and using understanding checks (Pomerantz, 1984).

Studies that investigate the response pursuit practices used by teachers in synchronous online language teaching setting are relatively scarce. Park and Park (2022) have analyzed online L2 English classroom lessons delivered via Zoom. The study has shown that teachers’ use of designedly incomplete utterances (DIU) (Koshik, 2002) in meaning and fluency contexts has yielded positive results in eliciting a response from the students. Moreover, the study has revealed that in addition to using DIUs, in order to pursue response in the online setting, teachers compensate for the lack of certain embodied resources in the online environment, such as using gaze, by nominating students by name and using the shared

screen to address students. Finally, of direct relevance to the current study, Badem-Korkmaz and Balaman (2022), investigated the response pursuit practices employed by the teacher in online EFL classroom in university preparatory language school context in Turkey. Their single case analysis has demonstrated that in addition using response pursuit practices that are available in the face-to-face teaching setting such as hinting, using designedly incomplete utterances, providing linguistic explanation, request for action, reformulation/third position repair, filling silence, explicitly marking lack of participation, addressing the whole class, the teacher made use of the features of the videoconferencing tool to pursue response. The features that the teacher have used are gazing at the speaker list in order to monitor the students' displays of engagement, using screen sharing for writing aloud, and marking the key points on the shared document by scrolling up and down and highlighting specific sections.

These studies collectively demonstrate that teachers engage in a variety of methods to elicit responses from their students. However, the literature lacks a study that investigates the response pursuit practices that are employed in synchronous online language setting in K-12 context.

Synchronous Online Teaching

Technology influences how individuals go about their everyday lives and shapes the means that they carry out their routine activities, including delivering and receiving education. As the field of technology developed and their affordances flourished, technology-based tools entered the classrooms and educators began to employ them. Educators integrated technology into education first by making use of technological devices. The emergence of technology in the language classes started with the use of tapes and tape recorders. Utilizing tapes and recording devices in language classrooms has made it possible for foreign/second language teachers to provide students with authentic listening materials. Thus, teaching pronunciation and listening skills has benefited from the use of tapes and recording devices. Later, computers began to be used in educational facilities. Eventually, these alterations and

advancements in technology and language teaching gave rise to what is now known as computer-assisted language learning (CALL). Levy (1997), defines CALL as “the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning.” Lee (2000) identifies the following advantages of CALL by merging the studies on the use of network-based technologies in language instruction:

> “it offers opportunities for experiential learning; enhances student achievement; provides access to authentic materials; increases interaction through the use of e-mails or by joining newsgroups; offers individualization to shy students; it is independent from a single source of information; aids students to practice communication in a global level” (Lee, 2000).

In conclusion, it is suggested that incorporating what technology offers into language classrooms offers a number of benefits to both teachers and students.

With the invention of the World Wide Web in 1992, learning through online settings has been made accessible. Hockly and Clandfield (2010) define online learning as “learning that takes place using a computer connected to the internet as a tool for communication and learning.” Harasim (2000) lists three different modes of delivering online education; a) adjunct mode, which is using the internet to complement and embroider traditional face-to-face education, b) mixed mode; utilizing the internet for the big part of the face-to-face education, c) totally online mode; depending solely on the internet for the entire course or program. Others have distinguished between blended teaching, using online tools and resources as part of the traditional face-to-face education (Pape, 2010), and fully online teaching, conducting the entire course through the internet. Additionally, there are two primary modes for distance education over the Internet: synchronous and asynchronous (Clark, 2020). Since the focus of this thesis is to examine the synchronous lessons that take place solely in the online teaching setting, I will dwell on the studies conducted in totally online mode, or fully online teaching that take place synchronously.

While some studies suggest that synchronous online teaching has produced creative and successful methods of teacher-student and student-student interactions, and provided flexibility, convenience, and more chances to establish online learning communities of practice (Garrison, Anderson & Archer, 2000; Herrington *et.al.,* 2005), there are many studies that reveal the challenges and limitations of the online teaching setting. In a study that investigates learners' boredom levels during online teaching, Pawlak *et. al.,* (2022) found that students lost interest in the online course when they were unable to participate actively since they were not physically present in the classroom. The disembodied aspect of online classrooms, which carried with it a number of challenges including not being able to openly express opinions owing to lack of physical attendance, audio-related issues, and others, contributed to this feeling of disengagement. Similar to this, Siguencia *et al.* (2021) claimed in a survey study that teachers reported that students' cameras were frequently turned off, they were reluctant to participate in discussions, and that anonymity and one-sided broadcasting of messages impair the standard of higher education. Additionally, Harsch *et al.,* (2021) reported that online interaction proved to be a significant challenge for both teachers and students in a survey in which 35 teachers and 898 students took part. In addition to technological difficulties, several teachers and students noted that many students refused to turn on their cameras, which hindered interaction. Further, students noted that interaction online occurs more slowly and with less spontaneity. Chen (2022) looked into the characteristics of digital affordances and teacher agency in L2 remote teaching during COVID-19 and found that despite increased technology use, there was a clear decline in interactions between students or between students and the teacher due to the absence of in-person contact in virtual classrooms. Regarding classroom management, it was problematic for teachers to observe a class through a video camera and provide immediate feedback on the participation of students. Furthermore, when discussing the difficulties that online teaching presents for teachers, Peachey (2017) points out that many of the gestures and paralinguistic features (proximity, facial expression, and tone of voice) that teachers use to build rapport with their students can be much harder to communicate when using a webcam and headset. When the findings of these research are

taken together it can be concluded that teaching in the online environment fails to establish an environment in which students can actively participate and stay engaged, and online teaching seems to present many obstacles to both teachers and students. In order to overcome these challenges and have successful lessons in the online teaching setting, teachers must be aware of the fact that teaching online is different from face-to-face instruction.

Numerous scholars emphasize the fact that teaching in traditional face-to-face settings differs from teaching online, and teachers need additional abilities to teach effectively in the online teaching setting (Hampel & Stickler, 2005; Compton, 2009; Sun, 2011; Codreanu & Celik, 2013; Moorhouse *et. al.,* 2021; Harsch *et. al.,* 2021). There are a number of studies that concentrate on the skills teachers need to possess in order to deliver effective online classes, and on the methods that teachers might employ to work around the constraints of the online environment, because the demands on teachers who are delivering online lessons are high (Stanley, 2017). According to Payne (2020), when switching to totally online instruction, teachers must rethink how to support students in achieving the learning objectives they have set for them under a new set of possibilities and limitations. Additionally, Hockly and Clandfield (2010), suggest teachers to "be prepared to offer learners general technical help at times."

Synchronous Online English Language Teaching

Teaching a language has unique characteristics that set it apart from teaching other disciplines. For instance, unlike other disciplines, interaction and student engagement are essential components of language acquisition. For this reason, teaching a language online can be more demanding for teachers. The obstacles of online language instruction have been highlighted in several studies, as well as the competencies that language teachers need to possess in order to deliver effective online language education.

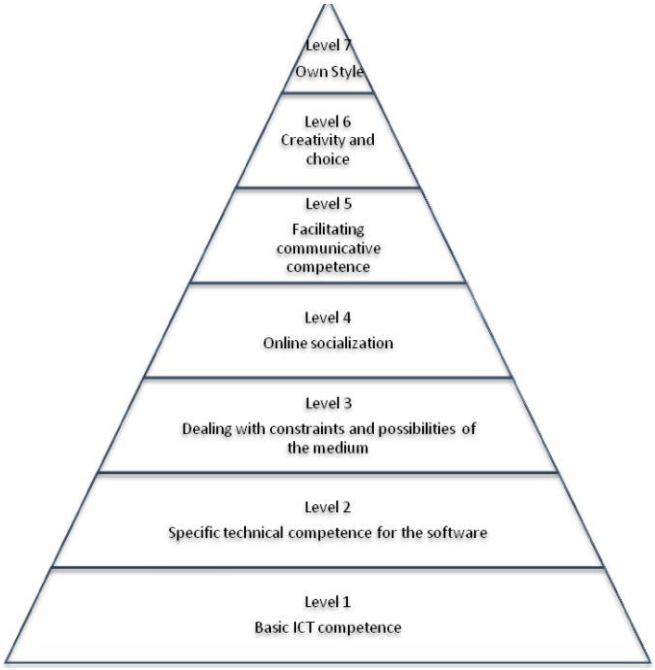
Several studies have suggested that during synchronous online teaching, students can benefit from increased motivation, linguistic output, participation, and interaction (Helm, 2015). However, dissimilar to this, through the analysis of recordings of online lessons conducted

using Zoom as the software, Cheung (2021) discovered that teacher-student interaction was severely staged in the "Zoom context" because teachers were only allowed to check for understanding by asking questions in a secondary school in Hong Kong. Additionally, there was no evidence of any student-initiated interaction as well as inadequate overall student engagement given that many of them chose to disengage by switching off their cameras and microphones.

Hampel and Stickler (2005) identify seven core skills required for successful online language teaching in their in-depth study on the pedagogical aspects of online language teaching (see figure 1):

Figure 1

Skills required for online language teaching



As can be inferred from the pyramid, amongst the skills required from the teachers in order to carry out lessons in the online setting successfully, they must first have a basic technological competence, secondly, they must know how to operate the software that they are using to conduct their lessons. For example, synchronous video conferencing software, Zoom, offers features such as muting the participants or sending a request to unmute their

microphones, a chat box that students and teachers can send written messages to the everyone participating in the lesson, or send messages individually, sharing screen and many others. A teacher must be aware of these features that the software offers and make use of them. To specify, during lengthy sessions, teachers might experience difficulty in keeping students interested. To solve this, Zoom gives teachers the ability to incorporate polls and surveys that may be used to engage students and collect information, opinions, and suggestions from the class (Kohnke & Moorhouse, 2022). Additionally, teachers may need to manage turn taking by using features such as the “hands up” button, and they can use the text feature to get all the students to respond at the same time (Peachey, 2017). On the third level of the pyramid, it is given that teachers must also have a competence in coping with the limitations and possibilities offered by the online environment. For instance, in a face-to-face classroom setting, by simply moving their position, teachers may control a class of students and signal a change in the lesson's focus (Peachey, 2017). However, since they do not have such an affordance in the online setting, teachers must find alternative ways to manage the lesson. Moreover, teachers have a significant barrier when attempting to recreate a typical or traditional classroom since remote teaching makes it difficult to set up the seating or readily gather students for pair or group projects (Haneda & Alexander, 2015), therefore, teachers must use the opportunities provided by the online environment to deal with this issue. On the next level of the pyramid, the need for teachers to foster a sense of community is emphasized. The next level is related to teachers’ ability to facilitate activities that require students to communicate in the online environment. On the sixth level of the pyramid, it is stated that from the variety of activities available on the Internet, teachers must be able to select the ones which can boost learner creativity. Finally, on the highest level of the pyramid it is suggested teachers must create their own teaching styles “utilizing the media and resources to their fullest potential, building relationships with the students, and employing the tools in innovative ways to encourage active and communicative language acquisition” (Hampel & Stickler, 2007, p.319).

Moorhouse *et al.,* (2021) conducted a mixed-methods online survey to English language teachers who have delivered synchronous online lessons. According to the findings, instructors need three essential competences to use interaction successfully in an online learning environment: “technological competencies; online environment management competencies; and online teacher interactional competencies.” They created the term e-CIC by further extending the term Classroom Interactional Competence (Walsh, 2013) to refer to the competences required in an online language teaching context.

In addition to teachers, Lee (2007) emphasizes that students also need to be taught how to effectively make use of synchronous online learning, in particular, how to project their voices, as well as how to convey their opinions through body language and facial expressions.

Chapter 3

Methodology

In terms of the environment, participants, data collecting, and data analysis, this chapter of the thesis attempts to describe the research methods used for this study. First, the research context of the study will be presented in detail along with the participants e.g., the students who take part in the study and the teacher whose lessons were examined. Steps in the data collection will be introduced with reference to how the data is treated using Conversation Analysis as research methodology.

Setting and Participants

Data for this study comes from a private school in Ankara, Turkey. In the school where the data was collected, the lessons were normally conducted face-to-face. However, as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic, during the time the data was collected, all the lessons were taking place online. For the online lessons, video-conferencing software Zoom was being used for all the lessons. Further, instant messaging application WhatsApp was being used to have contact with the students and parents and to send homework and assignments.

The students were middle school students whose ages are 10 to 13, and in grades 5, 6, and 7. They were taking compulsory English lessons as part of the school's curriculum. The school adapts the primary aim of teaching English as explained by the Turkish Ministry of Education, which is; "to ensure that students learn at least one foreign language well enough to be able to communicate through oral and written forms." The data was collected in 5 different classrooms. All the students and the teachers shared the same native language and culture, which is Turkish in our context.

The proficiency levels of the students were not certain. However, since most of the students had different backgrounds, the students were separated into two different sections in the language lessons after taking an English exam, at the beginning of the semester in order to have a general idea about the proficiency levels of the students, and to be able to have the

students whose proficiency levels were similar in the same classroom. The exam that they took contained 50 multiple choice test items, assessing students' knowledge of English language grammar and vocabulary. The students who got higher results in the exam were placed in section A, whereas the students who got lower results were placed in section B. For this study, English lessons taking place in both sections A and B were examined. English lessons were divided as "main course" and "skills lessons." Main course lessons and skills lessons were given to the same classes by two different teachers. The course books used in these two lessons were different, hence the topics being taught were different from each other. In main course lessons, the focus was on the teaching of grammar rules and improving students' vocabulary knowledge for the most part. The course book that was used in the main course lessons included parts that aim to teach communication, reading, and listening skills. Nonetheless, they did not cover as much space as grammar topics and exercises, hence, the time that was allocated to teach those skills were very little in the main course. As for the skills lessons, the focus was varied with little attention given to the teaching of grammar, teaching of reading and speaking skills was the main aim. The students were taking English lessons 6 hours a week, 4 hours allotted to main course lessons and 2 hours to the skills lessons. For the study, both main course lessons and skills lessons were examined.

Data collected for the study initially consisted of three different teachers. However, it was decided that only one of the teachers be examined in order to provide consistency of the results. The reason for selecting the teacher whose lessons were observed in the study is because of the number of the courses she was teaching, hence the hours of recordings collected from her lessons were more than the other two teachers. The teacher who participated in the study was an English teacher with five years of experience of teaching English. She had been working in the same middle school for three years. She was the main course teacher of 5th grades B section, 6th grades A section, and 7th grades B section, and she was given the English Skills course to 6th grades B section and 7th grades A section. All her

main course and skills lessons were examined in this study which is five different classes in total.

Data Collection

For this study, approximately 49 hours of synchronous online English lessons taking place in the Zoom meeting application were examined. Lessons were recorded by the teacher of the lesson, using the recording facility offered by Zoom. After recording the lessons, the teacher shared the recordings with the researcher.

As shown in Table 1, the data used in the study comes from five different classrooms. There are 26 lesson recording videos coming from 5th grades section B, with a total of 816 minutes, 12 videos from 6th grades section A, with a total of 460 minutes, 13 videos from 6th grades section B, with a total of 513 minutes, 18 videos from 7th grades section A, with a total of 602 minutes, finally, 16 videos from 7th grades section B, with a total of 509 minutes (see Table 1 below). The reason behind the inconsistency between the numbers of lesson recordings in each classroom is because as stated by the teacher, she forgot to record some of the lessons.

Table 1

Total of recordings

Classes	Number of Recordings	Duration
5th Grades Section B	26	816 minutes
6th Grades Section A	12	460 minutes
6th Grades Section B	13	513 minutes
7th Grades Section A	18	602 minutes
7th Grades Section B	16	509 minutes

Zoom-meeting application:

Zoom application was used in this study since during the outbreak of Covid-19, Zoom was the most preferred meeting tool in education, and it had been used widely. It offers many

benefits to both learners and teachers. Therefore, the choice of the school that the study was carried out in was to use the Zoom-meeting application to implement the online lessons as an alternative to face-to-face lessons.

"Zoom" is a video-conferencing platform which allows a number of people to communicate online, synchronously, with or without their cameras and microphones on. Zoom provides multiple modes of interaction such as oral communication, writing through chat, annotating, and drawing (Kohnke and Moorhouse, 2022), and opportunities for smaller group activities and tasks with break-out rooms (González-Lloret, 2020). Additionally, teachers have the option to mute the students and turn their cameras off themselves, which are useful properties in terms of classroom management.

However, the free version of the Zoom application, which was used by the school, does not allow meetings to last more than 40 minutes. This limitation results in a handicap for the progress of the lessons, as it was observed that the teachers had to rush towards the end of lessons because of time limitations, further, it was seen that in some instances the meetings ended before the teachers could finish the activity in progress.

Data Analysis

The thesis study aims to uncover the interactional practices employed in synchronous online English language classes. For this purpose, Conversation Analysis (CA) methodology has been adopted. This section presents a comprehensive description of Conversation Analysis.

Conversation Analysis

Conversation Analysis (CA) is a research methodology that has evolved from ethnomethodology, which is the analysis of the methods, or procedures people use to conduct the different affairs in their everyday lives (Coulon, 1995). Developed by Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson in the 1960s, CA is an interdisciplinary methodology that is grounded in the intersection of sociology and other major disciplines such as linguistics

and psychology. CA is used to describe the organizational structure of social interaction by analyzing mundane conversation (Psathas, 1995). Talk-in-interaction (Schegloff, 1987) is the substance of CA studies. In most basic terms, CA investigates how people actually talk. Accordingly, CA-based studies make use of recordings of naturally occurring talk, rather than talks that are experimental or manipulated in order to fit the purpose of the study.

Conversation analytic studies adapt an emic perspective, which means studying behavior as from inside the system (Pike, 1967), rather than etic perspective which is researcher-centric. Seedhouse explains CA's orientation to emic perspective as; "studying the participants' perspective within the interactional environment in which the talk occurs" (2005: 166).

There are certain principles CA studies have developed. These are explained by Seedhouse (2005) as follows:

1. *There is order at all points in interaction*. Formerly, there was a notion accepted by researchers that mundane talk is too disorderly and chaotic to be studied. This claim has been nullified by CA researchers, by demonstrating that talk in interaction is in fact systematically organized, deeply ordered and methodic.
2. *Contributions to interaction are context-shaped and context-renewing.* Contributions cannot be made sense of without the sequential environment they are involved in, therefore, they are context-shaped. Moreover, they form part of the sequential environment in which a next contribution will occur. Participants produce contributions based on the prior utterances of other parties. For this reason, each contribution to interaction has a function of renewing the context.
3. *No order of detail can be dismissed, a priori, as disorderly, accidental or irrelevant.* Conversation analytic studies are micro-analytic in nature, and they utilize a highly comprehensive transcription convention in order to capture and analyze all the details happening in interaction.

4. *Analysis is bottom-up and data driven.* The data should not be approached with any assumptions, such as identities of the participants, unless there is evidence in the transcriptions that participants orient to.

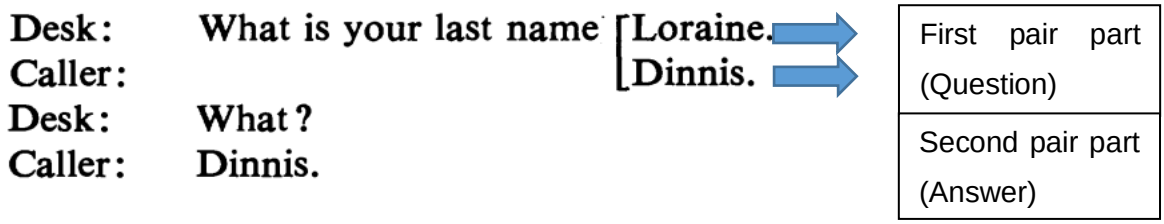
This thesis study, adopting a conversation analytic approach, applies the aforementioned principles in the course of analyzing the data. Firstly, the transcriptions demonstrate the systematic organization of the turn-allocation and response pursuit practices in naturally-occurring classroom talks. Secondly, the data illustrates how the teacher and students make sense of each other's utterances, and design their next contributions based on each other's contributions. Thirdly, the transcriptions presented in the study are highly detailed, prepared to show all the details happening throughout the interaction. Lastly, there is no assumptions in the analysis section related to the identities, backgrounds, proficiency levels of the teacher or the learners, unless one of these properties present itself in the data and is oriented to by the teacher or the students.

Organizations of adjacency pairs, turn-taking, preference and repair are basic interactional notions that are in the domain of Conversation Analysis.

Adjacency pairs are paired utterances where the second part of the pair becomes conditionally relevant upon production of the first portion of the pair. For instance, upon production of a question, an answer from the other parties involved in the interaction is relevant. An example of an adjacency pair is given below:

Figure 2

Example adjacency pairs (Sacks & Schegloff & Jefferson, 1978; p.702)



Turn-taking is a crucial feature in all types of interaction. Turn-taking system must be managed successfully by participants in order to minimize the occurrences of the overlaps and gaps. The bases of the turn-taking system are turn constructional units (TCUs). A TCU can be

composed of a single word, clause, or sentences. The transition relevance place is where a speaker change could take place (TRP) (Seedhouse, 2004). There are certain norms that can be applied by speakers at the first TRP; The present speaker may choose the subsequent speaker, the subsequent speaker may choose themselves, or the current speaker may continue.

Within adjacency pairs, there are several possible second pair parts. Amongst these possibilities of second pair parts, some are preferred responses, and some are dispreferred. To exemplify, acceptance to an offer is preferred, while rejection is dispreferred; granting a request is the preferred action, while refusing is dispreferred.

Repair is another key term to CA. According to Seedhouse (2004: 34), repair can be defined as “the treatment of trouble occurring in interactive language use.” Repairs can be initiated “due to a hearing problem, a request for clarification, or any problem that influences the continuity of talk” (Sert, 2015: 19). Repair is an important practice participants make use of in order to establish mutual understanding.

Conversation Analysis was first used to analyze suicide calls and group therapy sessions. Ulteriorly, studies on ordinary talk have led to the realization that talks that occur in order to achieve an institutional goal possesses distinct properties. For instance, a talk that occurs between a doctor and a patient generally aims to diagnose the patient, therefore, the interaction has a specific structure which is different from the ordinary talk.

The talk that is used to construct institutional context, is referred to as “institutional talk.” According to Drew and Heritage (1992: 26), “each institutional form of interaction has its own unique fingerprint.” The domains of CA now include both ordinary conversation and institutional talk (Markee, 2000). Language classrooms are institutional settings which have specific interactional features that distinguish itself from ordinary talk. The core institutional goal in language classrooms is stable regardless of the classroom setting, which is; the teacher will teach the learners the L2. Previous conversation analytic studies on language classroom interaction have identified certain properties which derives from this goal. These properties are summarized by Markee (2015: 377, 378):

1. Language is both the vehicle and object of instruction (Long 1983, p.9)
2. There is a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction. Therefore, as the pedagogical focus varies, so the organization of the interaction varies.
3. The linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce in the L2 are potentially subject to evaluation by the teacher.

To conclude, this study relies upon Conversation Analysis in order to investigate the micro-features of language classroom in the online setting, adopting the principles developed by CA.

Analyzing and Transcribing the Data

Researchers that conduct conversation analytic studies gather recordings of naturally occurring talk. However, these recordings are not used on their own. In order to capture the micro-details of interaction, recordings are transcribed using a highly detailed notation system. These transcriptions, then, "become the orthographic representation of data" (Sert, 2015: 25).

In the study, upon collecting the video recordings of the online lessons, recordings were repeatedly viewed in order to identify the phenomenon to be studied, and recurring patterns were noted. From this process of unmotivated looking, it was noticed that students frequently leave teacher's questions unanswered, and that the teacher resorts to certain practices in order to pursue a response. After the focus of the study is determined, recordings were viewed again to build a collection of the phenomenon. For the collection, clips in which the selected phenomenon occurs were cropped from the original recordings of the lessons. These clips were, then, transcribed using the transcription system developed by Gail Jefferson (2004) using software. Jeffersonian transcription system depicts the various features of interaction, including the micro-details, such as pace of talk, elongated speech, stress, pauses, silences, and overlaps. In some instances, a need to represent screen-based actions of the teacher have arisen. Consequently, in addition to Jeffersonian notations, conventions developed by Lorenza Mondada (2001) for transcribing multimodality have been used.

Initial analysis of the transcriptions has shown that response-pursuit practices the teacher employs may vary depending on the addressee of the question (i.e., entire class as the

addressee or addressing a particular student), and the question design (known-information questions and procedural questions). With this in mind, the findings were divided into two parts with regards to the addressee of the question; teacher selects the next speaker, and the teacher does select the next speaker. Further, the latter was separated into two sections concerning the question types: known-information questions (Mehan, 1979) and procedural questions.

In selecting the extracts to be included in the findings section of the thesis, it was ensured that all the recurring response pursuit practices employed by the teacher are represented. Apart from that, the extracts provided were selected from different classes, with students from different grades and with different proficiency levels in order to provide evidence that the practices are not unique to a specific class or students. Finally, screenshots taken from the recordings during the portion of the lesson that was being transcribed were inserted at the start of the transcripts.

Validity of the Study

Validity in qualitative research refers to the researcher's ability to observe the phenomenon being studied objectively and in its natural state (Kirk & Miller, 1986). There are several types of validity established in research. In this section, internal validity, external validity, and ecological validity of the study will be discussed.

Internal validity refers to how effectively the methods used to arrive at the research findings expose the reality under investigation (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982). To quote from Seedhouse (2005, p.255) internal validity is related with the question of; “Do the data prove what the researcher says they prove or are there alternative explanations?” Current study makes use of detailed transcriptions of naturally occurring classroom talk, and as stated earlier, it adopts an emic perspective to analyze the transcriptions. No assertions are made during the data analysis process beyond what is amply supported by the transcriptions. This approach is crucial for assuring the study's internal validity.

The transferability of results to comparable groups or contexts is referred to as external validity (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982). In other words, external validity is related to the generalizability of the findings.

Ecological validity is concerned with whether the findings of a study can be generalized to real-life settings (Lewkowicz, 2001). Quantitative studies generally manipulate variables. In terms of ecological validity, conversation analytic studies are rather strong compared to other research methodologies (Seedhouse, 2005, p.257). By using recordings of naturally occurring talk in a real classroom context, the current study provides ecological validity.

Reliability of the Study

Reliability, which refers to consistency in qualitative research, is of high importance. As stated by Cohen et.al. (2017); “Reliability in qualitative research can be thought of as the consistency between what researchers capture as data and what actually occurs in the natural environment being examined.” The findings section of the current study includes a transcript of the data, together with a display of the analysis, allowing readers to independently assess the data and validate the analytical techniques used in the analysis process. Furthermore, some extracts were presented at the data sessions run by Micro-Analysis Network, whose participants are renowned CA researchers, in order to strengthen the reliability. Significant analytical remarks and recommendations were offered by the researchers. The data was also reviewed and discussed in meetings with the supervisor, which improved the validity and reliability of the study.

Conclusion

The methodological concerns of the current study have been discussed in this section of the thesis. The study makes use of the data collected from the naturally occurring talks in English lessons taking place in an online setting. By adopting a Conversation Analytic perspective, the recorded lessons were transcribed in a detailed manner, utilizing specific notation systems, making sure that micro-details are captured, and the data were analyzed

carefully with an emic perspective. The thorough transcriptions, which are included in the findings, and the emic perspective adopted in the analysis process were crucial in boosting the study's validity and reliability.

Chapter 4

Findings

In the data that have been used in this study, it is observed that the teacher applies two practices frequently after directing a question. Firstly, she selects the student herself and the selected student is expected to give the answer, or to provide a response. This practice is named as “individual nomination” by Mehan (1979), whereas Kääntä (2010) refers to this practice as “using an address term.” The second practice that the teacher resorts to is that the teacher directs the question to the whole class, does not select a next speaker and waits for a student to bid for the turn, volunteer a response, or show willingness to take the turn. Namely, the teacher explicitly invites students to bid, or invites them to produce choral responses (Mehan 1979). The practices that the teacher applies to pursue a response in these two occurrences show differences from each other as well as similarities. Therefore, this section will be discussed in two different parts.

Teacher Selects The Next Speaker

The excerpts that are analyzed in this section are taken from form-accuracy (Seedhouse, 2004) focused lessons. Form-accuracy context has the most rigid organization in that the teacher is in strict control of the turn taking process (Seedhouse, 2004). In the data, mainly, the teacher is either checking the grammar or vocabulary exercises in the homework or the ones in the course book. Therefore, the question design that is examined in this section is mainly known-answer questions (Mehan, 1979) i.e., the questions that the teacher already is in the possession of the answer that is required from the students, with one exception, which is extract 4. In extract 4, the teacher asks an open-ended question which requires students to provide short response.

In the first extract, taken from the B section of 6th grade students, teacher is checking the homework that was given to the students before the lesson. Therefore, it is assumed that before the lesson, students have already completed the exercise that they are working on in

the extract. The exercise that the teacher asks to students is a multiple-choice item requiring students to fill in the blank by choosing the correct option. The topic is adverbs of frequency. The focus of the lesson is on form and accuracy (Seedhouse, 2004).

Extract 1. Açelya

Length: 0:00:28.6

01	**TEA:**	**two::**
02		**(0.6)**
03		**açel:ya:?**
04		**(2.6)**
05		**two.**
06		**(5.2)**
07		**açelya (.) elif**
08		**(8.6)**
09		**>okay< esma**
10		**(2.1)**
11		**IT bla bla sno:ws↑**
12	**ESM:**	**err:: (0.4) never**
13	**TEA:**	**ye:s**

The first question given in the worksheet is answered by another student before the extract starts. TEA starts the sequence in line 01, by marking that they will now answer the second question. Following 0.6 seconds of silence, TEA nominates a student to answer the second question by calling out the student's name with an interrogative prosody at the end of the utterance. By using a verbal address term, she constructs the base First-Pair Part (FPP) of an adjacency pair. After waiting for 2.6 seconds (line 04), TEA repeats the number of the question, turning the lapse into an intra-turn pause, and waits for another 5.2 seconds (line 06). In line 07, TEA tells the student's name, this time, she uses her second name too, then she waits for another 8.6 seconds (line 08). However, the student fails to give a response and does not provide a Second-Pair Part (SPP). Therefore, in line 09 TEA accepts student's failure to provide a response (**>okay<**). This leads to another turn-allocation sequence by the teacher, and she allocates the turn to another student by individual nomination (Mehan 1979). In line 10 TEA waits for 2.1 seconds for the latterly nominated student to respond. Then she

produces a Designedly Incomplete Utterance (Koshik 2002) in line 11 by reading the question (**IT bla bla sno:ws↑)** to prompt an answer. In line 12 ESM provides a response, which receives a confirmation token from the TEA in line 13, and the sequence is closed.

In classroom interaction, typically Initiation-Response-Evaluation sequences dominate the lessons. However, student responses may not come immediately after teacher's initiation or as shown in the data, students may not provide a response at all. These incidents usually take place when the teacher selects a non-bidding student. Teacher nominates a non-bidding student in order to provide learning opportunities to as many students as possible (Kääntä, 2010). Nonetheless, selecting a non-bidding student bears certain consequences. For example, when the teacher nominates a non-bidding student, there is a noticeable silence between the teacher initiation and student response (Kääntä, 2010) which interrupts with the flow of the lesson and causes a time to be wasted. In order to compensate for the consequences resulted from selecting a non-bidding student, teachers need to employ response-pursuit practices. In Extract 1, teacher nominates a non-bidding student, Açelya, to give an answer. However, designated student does not provide a response. Upon being unable to obtain a response from the first student, the teacher then nominates another non-bidding student. It is clear from the latterly nominated student's turn (line 12) that she was not prepared to provide an answer in that the turn starts with a hesitation marker (**err::)** which is followed by a 0.4 seconds of silence.

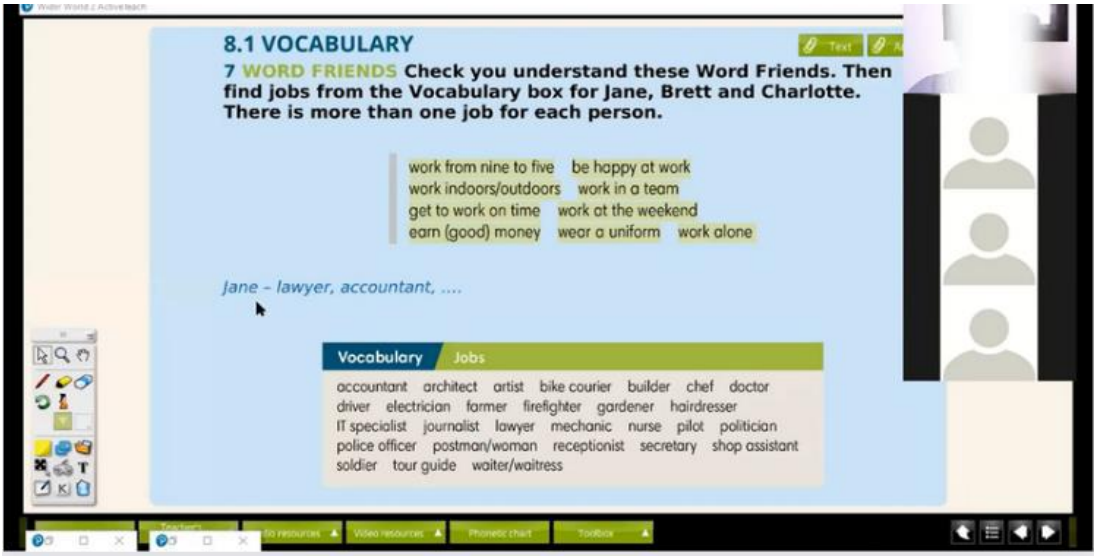
The above extract shows few examples the teacher uses to elicit a response from the students. First of all, the wait time that we notice in the extract is longer than the average waiting time in traditional face-to-face classroom settings (Rowe, 1969; 1972; 1974; Shrum, 1984) (lines 04, 06, 08, 10). Further, it is noticed that the teacher repeats the addressed student's name, and she refers to the question that the nominated student is supposed to answer one more time. This extract shows that the prolonged wait times provided for the nominated student to answer is not successful in eliciting an answer to the question, or a response that accounts for why the answer is not provided. The firstly nominated student acts as if she is not present in the lesson, which students can only accomplish in online classroom

setting. Moreover, since the student's camera is not turned on, she cannot provide an embodied response, which leaves the teacher no choice than allocating the turn to another student.

Prior to the following extract, taken from the A section of 6th grade students, students have learned some phrases related to business life which can be seen in the screenshot provided below. In the extract, students are completing a vocabulary activity from their course book. In the activity, three different people and their characteristics are given, and students need to find an appropriate job from the list provided in the course book according to the characteristics given. For the first question, two examples are already provided in the course book and the nominated student is required to say a job other than the examples given in the book. (Screenshot of the activity is given below.)

Figure 3

Extract 1 Screenshot of the vocabulary activity



Extract 2. Atakan

Length: 0:00:33.5

01 TEA: °and° (.) i will choose from: (0.6) others::
02 atakan↑
03 (3.1)
04 can you give me possible ans- answer for jane↑
05 (1.8)

06 for example u:hm (.) jane (.) for jane: (0.5) it said lawyer
07 accountant↑
08 (0.9)
09 and you can say two more
10 (3.7)
11 ataKAN↑
12 (6.4)
13 .hh °okay° CEYlan↑

In the second extract, TEA starts the sequence with a technique called tacit addressing (Lerner, 2003) by marking that she will allocate the turn to a student who has not answered a question yet. Therefore, she limits the response-eligible recipients (Lerner, 2003). In the following line, TEA allocates the turn to a student by individual nomination (Mehan, 1979). After a 3.1 silence, TEA tries to pursue a response by telling what is expected from the nominated student to do in a request format, with an interrogative prosody at the end of the turn. After waiting for 1.8 seconds, TEA offers a prompt by reading the example given in the course book. TEA waits for 0.9 seconds (line 08). In line 09, TEA repeats the request, then waits for another 3.7 seconds. TEA repeats the nominated student's name (line 11) with a rising intonation at the end. Finally, after a very long silence (6.4 seconds) nominating another student to answer becomes relevant. In line 13, TEA selects Ceylan.

In the extract examined above, same as in Extract 1, the teacher selects a non-bidding student. This time, she announces that she will select a student who is not bidding for the turn, and who has not assigned a turn before. After nominating Atakan, who is a non-bidding student, the teacher employs a number of interactional devices to elicit a response from him, two of which can also be seen in Extract 1. To start with, she provides Atakan with extended wait times throughout the extract (lines 03, 05, 08, 10). Further, she repeats the nominated student's name in order to invite him to provide a response (line 11), same as she does in Extract 1. What is different from extract 1 is that, here, the teacher offers a prompt to the student by reading the example answers given in the course book. Also, even though the question is present in the course book and is shared from teacher's screen with the whole class, therefore is in the domain of the nominated student, the teacher shares with the student

what is required of him (line 04). However, all these attempts are seen to be futile as the nominated student does not provide a response in any kind, resulting in the teacher allocating the turn another student.

In the following extract, taken from the B of section of 7th grade students, similar to the Extract 1, the teacher has been checking the answers of the worksheet given to students as a homework. In this activity, there is a poem given and the students are required to answer the comprehension questions related to the poem. Before the extract below starts, the first two questions have been answered by different students. For the third question, teacher nominates Berilsu to answer.

Extract 3. Berilsu do you hear me
Length: 0:00:53.4

01	TEA:	**the next question:**
02		**(.) berilsu↓ (.) berilsu**
03		**is jack's aunt a doctor↑**
04		**(2.5)**
05		**is jack's aunt: a doctor↑**
06		**(0.4)**
07		**berilsu↑**
08		**(3.0)**
09		**berilsu:: do you hear me::↑**
10		**(4.5)**
11	EMI:	**teacher me↑**
12	TEA:	**berilsu**
13	EMI:	**okay**
14		**(4.7)**
15	TEA:	**oka:y: (.) he- she doesn't hear us**
16		**okay i'm checking the list**
17		**(0.8)**
18		**u::hh:: MUrat can you answer it please↑**
19		**(3.5)**
20		**yes murat**
21	MUR:	**teacher is jack's aunt a doctor (.)**
22		**no she isn't**
23	TEA:	**no:: she isn't**
24		**>okay good jo:b<**

The extract begins with TEA marking that they are now moving on to the next question in line 01. Immediately after, she selects a non-bidding student, Berilsu, to answer the question by individual nomination. After reading the question with a rising intonation at the end, TEA waits for 2.5 seconds for Berilsu to provide an answer. Berilsu's failure in providing an answer result in TEA's repeating the question in line 04. In line 06, TEA calls for the nominated student's name with an interrogative prosody, which suggests that a response is still expected. After waiting for 3.0 seconds, TEA asks the nominated student if she can hear the teacher, suggesting that TEA interprets student's failure to respond as a technical problem. Another student in the classroom orients to the 4.5 seconds of silence in line 09 as conditionally relevant to self-select to volunteer a response. EMI constructs the FPP of an adjacency pair by bidding for the turn in line 10. However, TEA does not allocate the turn to the volunteer student, instead she pursues a response from previously nominated student by repeating her name in the second-pair part. In line 13, the lexical TCU (**okay)** in EMI's turn acts as a sequence closing third. After 4.7 seconds of silence, even though there is no indication of it, TEA concludes that Berilsu is having a hearing problem related to technical issues and signals for a speaker change in line 15 (**okay i'm checking the list)** and initiates another IRE sequence by selecting Murat from the list, who is not bidding for the turn. After waiting for 3.5 seconds, TEA provides an utterance (**yes murat)** that indicates a response is expected from him. In line 20, MUR reads the question first and provides an answer, which is immediately accepted by the teacher with a confirmatory repeat (Park, 2014) and a positive assessment marker (**good jo:b)** in the turn closing. TEA initiates the sequence in line 18, however, the response from MUR comes in line 22. The silence seen in line 19 suggest that the student has been chosen without previous notice, and in order for them to reply, they need time to get used to the response action (Kääntä 2010).

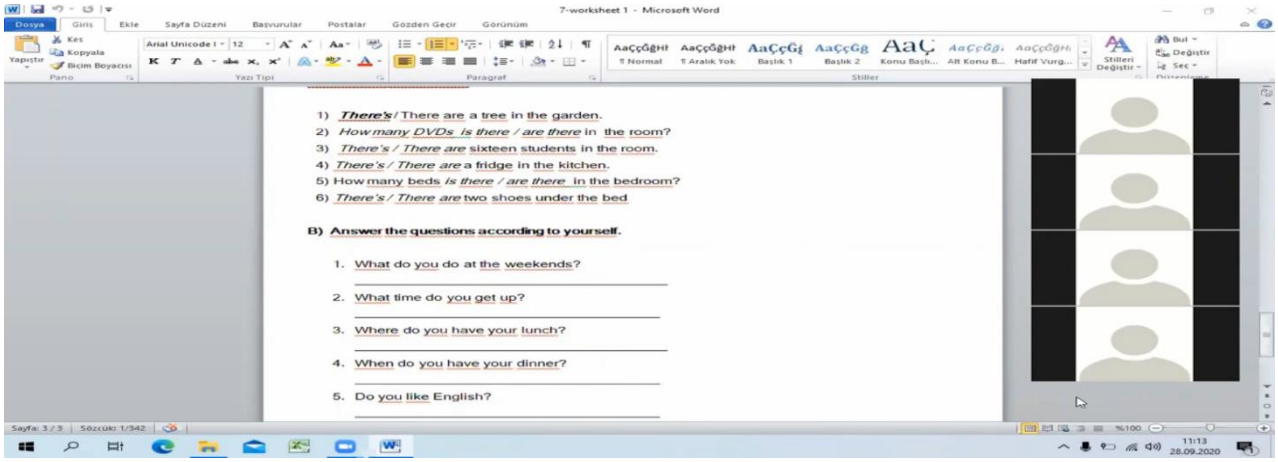
The third extract is similar to the first two extracts given in this section. Again, nominating a non-bidding student to answer the question results in a failure to obtain a reply. Teacher resorts to several response-pursuit practices, such as increasing the wait time,

repeating the question, and calling out the nominated student's name several times. Nonetheless, all of these response-pursuit practices remain unsuccessful in eliciting a response from the nominated student. What is different here from the first two extracts is that the absence of the SPP becomes noticeable for the other students in the lesson, and this absence makes moving on to another student conditionally relevant for them. Therefore, after waiting for a long time, students may bid for a turn.

In the following extract, taken from B section of 5th grade students, the teacher is trying to check the worksheet. In the part that the extract is taken, they are at the second part of the worksheet. Students are required to answer the open-ended questions according to their daily routines. The questions are simple ones that require very little cognitive effort from the students in that some of them can be answered with a single word. The first question given in this part is "What do you do at the weekends?" This question has already been answered by another student prior to the extract. In the extract, teacher asks the students the second question which is "What time do you get up?" Teacher is sharing the worksheet from her screen with the students. Therefore, all the students present in the lesson have access to the worksheet, and to the questions that they are expected to answer. Moreover, since the worksheet were given to the students before the lesson as a homework, it is assumed that they have already answered the questions.

Figure 4

Extract 4 screenshot of the worksheet



Extract 4. ***fırat çağrı barış anıl no res***
Length: 0:01:37.4

01	**TEA:**	**what time do you get up↑**
02		**at the week°end°**
03		**(1.5)**
04		**or (.) usually**
05		**(1.6)**
06		**fırat↑**
07		**(5.2)**
08		**fıRAT**
09		**(3.8)**
10		**okay ÇAĞRI**
11		**what time do you get up.**
12		**(5.8)**
13		**çağrı::**
14		**(1.9)**
15		**çağrı:: do you hear me:↑**
16		**(4.7)**
17		**okay barış.**
18		**(2.4)**
19		**good boy (.) barış**
20		**(1.7)**
21		**>çocuklar< mikrofonlarınızı açar mısınız↑**
		kids can you turn on your microphones
22		**(5.8)**
23		**barış**
24		**(5.9)**
25		**.hhh**
26		**anıl turgut**
27		**can you please tell me what time do you get up.**
28		**(3.5)**
29		**anıl↑**
30		**(3.4)**
31		**anıl mikrofonun açık ama ben seni duymuyorum**
		anıl your microphone is turned on but i don't hear you
32		**(4.6)**
33		**tamam kapat anıl mikrofonunu**
		okay anıl turn off your microphone
34		**can kara↑**
35		**(1.2)**

36 CAN: yes teacher↑
37 TEA: what time do you get up.
38 (2.0)
39 CAN: i get up (0.5) ehm
40 (0.9)
41 in
42 (1.1)
43 seki- e::hm↓
eig-
44 TEA: eight
45 CAN: eight o'clock
46 TEA: at [eight o'clock]
47 CAN: [eight o'clock]
48 TEA: okay (.) thank you very much

TEA starts the sequence by reading the question out loud. After no one bids for the turn for 1.5 seconds, TEA extends the question in line 04. Following 1.6 seconds of silence, TEA nominates Fırat to answer the question. TEA waits for 5.2 seconds for Fırat to provide a response, which is a very long waiting time in the traditional classroom context. In line 08, TEA repeats the nominated student's name and waits for another 3.8 seconds. Finally, upon not being able to obtain a response, in line 10 TEA nominates another student to answer the same question by calling out the student's name. In line 11, TEA reads out the question again and waits for 5.8 seconds. In line 13, TEA calls out the student's name again. After waiting for 1.9 seconds, TEA checks if the nominated student hears her or not, indicating that she sees this problem resulting from a technical problem. After 4.7 seconds of silence, TEA decides to nominate another student to answer the question. After nominating the student, TEA waits for 2.4 seconds, then she tries to elicit a response by saying **good boy (.) barış** in line 19. This attempt is, however, is left unanswered by the student following 1.7 seconds of silence. In being confronted by students' continued silence after a several failed attempts to elicit a response from different students, TEA switches to L1 to request students to turn on their microphones and provide a response in line 21. In this turn, TEA does not only refer to the nominated student, instead she refers to all the students in classroom. In line 22, there is 5.8 seconds of silence. Even though this is a proper time for a student to volunteer a response, no

one shows willingness to take the turn. Both the use of L1 and the prolonged wait time fail to elicit a response from the class. In line 23, TEA insists on receiving a response from the nominated student (barış) and calls for his name again. After 5.9 seconds of silence seen in line 24 and the slightly audible in breath in line 25, in line 26, TEA nominates another student, and calls for the newly nominated student's name. This time, instead of reading out the question, TEA performs a request in her turn by using the word please. She waits for 3.5 seconds and calls out his name again with a rising intonation at the end of the turn. This sequence differs from the other two nominated students' sequences in that the nominated student displays willingness to answer the question by turning on his microphone. TEA realizes that he turned on his microphone, however the student fails to provide a response due to a technical problem. TEA orients to this problem by speaking in L1 (**anıl mikrofonun açık ama ben seni duymuyorum)**. Anıl fails to provide a response after 4.6 seconds of silence. TEA orders the student to turn off his microphone since he does not manage to give a response. TEA nominates another student to respond and waits for 1.2 seconds. This time, the nominated student provides a response by saying **yes teacher↑** in line 36. The rising intonation at the end of his turn and not providing an answer to the question directly indicates that he expects the teacher to repeat the question he is supposed to answer. TEA shows alignment with his expectation by repeating the question in line 37. After 2.0 seconds of silence, CAN provides a second pair part (SPP). He starts the turn, however, fails to provide a complete answer, instead he uses a hesitation marker (**ehm)**. TEA waits for 0.9 seconds in line 40 and another 1.1 seconds in line 42 for CAN to provide a response and finish his turn. In line 44, TEA prompts the student by providing the target language equivalent of the word. After receiving the prompt, CAN manages to complete his turn. Before accepting his answer, TEA shapes the student's answer (Walsh 2006) by correcting. She changes the "in" provided by the student in line 41 with "at" which is the grammatically correct answer expected from the student. Even though the student does not utter the paraphrased response in the following lines, his answer is accepted by the teacher in line 48 with a confirmation token which marks the end of the sequence.

There is a recurring occurrence seen in Extract 4. Teacher is unable to receive a reply in any form from three students consecutively. All of these non-responsive students are non-bidding students who are nominated by individual nomination. Only in the sequence where the teacher nominated Anıl Turgut, the student orients to teacher's request to provide a response by turning on his microphone, the others show no orientation in any kind, and act as if they are not present in the lesson.

Extract 4 is similar to the other extracts given in this section. Extended wait times seen in the first three extracts are also noticed in this extract, and the repetition of the question seen in extract 3 is noticed in this extract too. It should also be noted that teacher upgrades her response-pursuit endeavors after nominating a new student. The only two response-pursuit practices employed by the teacher when she first nominated Fırat are extended wait times and repeating the nominated student's name once. When she attempts to allocate the turn to Çağrı as the next student, besides extended wait times and repetition of the student's name, repeating the question and checking whether the student can hear the teacher or not as response-pursuit practices are seen. Lastly, when the teacher nominates Barış, using L1 to address the whole class, and trying to cheer the student to encourage him to participate are additional resources that the teacher uses to pursue a response. Moreover, the wait times teacher provides for each student increases as the teacher nominates a new student. Although the extract is similar to first three extract given in this section in terms of teacher's response pursuit practices, this extract presents a difference from the other three extracts in that the teacher demonstrates the use of L1 as a response pursuit practice. The teacher uses the students' native language as a pedagogical resource. In line 21, teacher resorts to language switching after not receiving any response from three students successively. She orients to the issue of not receiving a response and performs a request in their L1. Upon nominating several students to answer the question and not receiving a response from any of the nominated students, teacher uses code-switching for classroom management (Üstünel, 2016). It can be inferred from this practice of code-switching that the teacher does not treat the lack of response as a trouble of understanding or a trouble of lack of knowledge, in that she does not code-

switch to provide scaffolding for learners. Instead, she treats the recurring lack of response as a problem of classroom management or classroom discipline, and she addresses this problem by requesting students to turn on their microphones in L1. The reason for treating the lack of response as a classroom discipline can be interpreted as resulting from the repeated and successive failed attempts of eliciting a response. Nevertheless, this request made in the students' native language does not succeed in eliciting a response. Unfortunately, the actual reason for students' not providing a response cannot be addressed because their cameras are turned off, therefore it is not possible to see the facial expressions or bodily movements of the students and make inferences based on their embodied actions. In lines 31 and 33, the teacher switches back to L1 in order to address the technical problem Anıl supposedly has and to close the sequence to ensure the progressivity of the lesson. Resorting to language alternation as a pedagogical resource can be observed in the remaining of the data frequently.

Another interesting occurrence seen in this extract is that the teacher's use of explicit positive assessment (Waring, 2008) in line 19. After nominating him, the teacher addresses to Barış by calling him "good boy." The interesting part in this instance is that, in contrast to what is frequently observed in classroom research, the explicit positive assessment is not used to address an elicited response from the student, instead, it is used to elicit a response by promoting student participation. However, the use of explicit positive assessment in order to pursue response is peculiar to this extract.

In the following extract, taken from B section of 6th grade students, the topic of the lesson is "Places in school." The teacher is sharing the course book from her screen with the students. On the page that the teacher is sharing with the students, the names of the places in school are given. The teacher is explaining the words to the students. Before telling the meanings of the words, the teacher selects a student from the participants list randomly and asks the student to give the L1 equivalent of the word. Prior to the extract, DEN has provided the meaning of the word that precedes the word "playground."

Extract 5. Anıl Turgut

Length: 0:00:27.0

01 TEA: okay uh:m >thank you↑ deniz<
02 DEN: [hocam]
[teacher]
03 TEA: [anıl] turgu:t↑
04 DEN: er-
05 (2.4)
06 TEA: yes deniz↑
07 (0.4)
08 TEA: you [want to °say something°]
08 DEN: [bana söz hakkı vercek]tiniz demiştim- sanmıştım hocam o
09 yüzden
i told- thought you were going to allocate the turn to me teacher that's why
10 TEA: okay thank you i will talk with anıl turgut
11 anıl turgut can you tell me what is cla- playground↑
12 (5.8)
13 aNIL↑
14 (2.4)
15 okay p- (.) playGROUND: (.) oyun alanı (.) oyun sahası↓
playground play field

Prior to the extract, DEN has provided the meaning of the word that precedes the word "playground." In line 01, TEA accepts DEN's answer that he 4had provided prior to the extract and closes the sequence. In line 02, DEN calls out for the teacher in L1, at the same time the teacher attempts to start a new sequence by nominating another student by calling him out his name. After 2.4 seconds of silence seen in line 05, TEA provides the second pair part of DEN's turn in line 02. DEN, using L1, explains the reason why he addressed to the teacher and says that he assumed the teacher would allocate the turn to him again. TEA refutes this claim in lines 10 and 11 and announces that she has allocated the turn to a new student. In the same lines, she addresses the nominated student by his name again, and directs the question to him. The teacher poses a question that induce the student to code-switch (Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005), the selected student must provide the L1 equivalent of the word playground. After directing the question, TEA waits for 5.8 seconds. When the selected

students fail to provide a second pair part to the teacher's turn, TEA calls out his name again, with a rising intonation at the last syllable of the selected student's name. After waiting for another 2.4 seconds, TEA provides the answer herself, and gives the L1 equivalent of the word playground.

This extract commences with an interactional trouble between the teacher and DEN. Assuming the turn is his, DEN attempts to start a sequence. However, his attempt is prevented by the teacher who intends to allocate the turn to a different student. What is interesting here is that although DEN speaks in Turkish, the teacher does not address this L1 use, and produces the next turn in English. Moreover, in this extract, contrary to the extracts that have been observed in this section, it is noticed that after not receiving an answer from the nominated student, TEA provides the answer herself. In the previous extracts, however, when the nominated students fail to provide a second pair part to the teacher's turn, and not give an answer, the teacher selects another student to give the answer. Though not as very common in the data as selecting another student, the teacher providing the answer herself after not getting an answer is a practice the teacher resorts to in the data. When compared to other extracts, teacher providing the answer herself instead of selecting another student is more time saving.

This extract is different from others that have been presented this section so far, in that in the other extracts, we see that the exercises that are being worked on are designed for students to practice what they have learned (practicing sequences). In this extract, however, the teacher is teaching the words given in the course book for the first time. In other words, this is a teaching sequence rather than practicing. It can be for this reason that the teacher does not insist on eliciting a response as she does during practicing sequences as seen in previous extracts and provides the answer herself.

This section presents an overview of the response-pursuit practices the teacher employs upon selecting a student by individual nomination (Mehan 1979) in synchronous online teaching environment. The practices that stand out in the transcripts are prolonging the wait time, repeating the nominated students' name, using L1, and allocating the turn to new

student as a last resort, when all her attempts of pursuing response fail. Moreover, though they are not noticed as commonly as the mentioned practices, providing prompts, and repeating the question are amongst the practices that the teacher employs in order to pursue response.

What is common in all the extracts is that students frequently do not provide a response in any kind even though they are individually nominated despite all the efforts made by the teacher. Besides not answering the question, the students do not provide an account as to the reason why they cannot give an answer. According to Kurzon (1995), by participating verbally, the speaker declares presence, however, remaining silent indicates the addressee's non-presence. Therefore, their non-responsive behavior may suggest that the nominated students are not present in the lesson veritably. However, since it is against the nature of Conversation Analysis, as there is no evidence in the transcripts that can prove it, the suggestion can go no further than a claim, and cannot be alleged as a fact.

It can be further argued that students' non-responsive behavior is unique to online classroom setting. In a face-to-face classroom setting, when they do not provide a verbal response, students compensate for the failure to provide an answer by displaying their unwillingness to participate, or by claiming insufficient knowledge (Sert, 2013) through embodied resources. In an online classroom setting, however, students do not make up for the lack of response in any way.

Teacher Does Not Select A Next Speaker

In the previous section where the response pursuit practices employed by the teacher when she individually nominates students are examined, in four of the extracts out of five, question design that is analyzed is "known-information questions." Only in one of the extracts the teacher uses an open-ended question. In these two question designs, response-pursuit practices show no significant differences. Therefore, it is not deemed necessary to analyze the question designs in different parts.

In this section, however, two different question designs will be analyzed. The first type of question is "procedural questions" (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Procedural questions are

the ones that are directed to students in order to ensure the progressivity of the lesson. Comprehension checks, confirmation checks, and clarification requests are among procedural questions. The second type of question that will be discussed in this section is “known information questions” (Mehan, 1979) or “display questions” (Long & Sato, 1983). Known information questions are the questions that the answer of it is within the epistemic domain of the person who asks the question, in our context, the teacher. The teacher frequently directs known information questions to test the knowledge of the students.

The teacher’s response pursuit practices differ from each other after asking procedural questions and known information questions. Therefore, these two will be analyzed under two different headings.

Known Information Questions

In this part, similar to the section examined above, teacher’s response-pursuit practices when she directed a known-information question are analyzed. What differentiates this part from the section above is that, in these occurrences, the teacher does not nominate a specific student to provide an answer, instead she directs the question to the entire class and invites student to bid or produce a choral response (Mehan, 1979). The teacher regards all the students as addressed recipients (Goffman, 1981).

Prior to the extract below, taken from B section of 6th graders, the students have learned the meanings of different places that can be found in a school. As commonly observed in the data, the teacher is sharing the related page of the course book from her screen with the students.

Extract 6. does your school have all of these places
Length: 0:00:26.2

01 TEA: DOES (0.2) e::hm your school have all of this places↑
02 (1.1)
03 does kerim oytun college have all of this places guys↑
04 what do you think.
05 (0.6)

06 **>okulunuzda bunların hepsi< var mı↑**
does your school have all of these
07 **(2.8)**
08 **baki↑ (.) what do you think.**
09 **(2.6)**
10 BAK: **yes teacher↑**
11 TEA: **yes**
12 **DOES our school have all of these places↑**
13 **(1.5)**
14 BAK: **e::hm yes teacher↓**

TEA starts her turn by directing the question in the course book to the whole class. After waiting for 1.1 seconds, TEA repeats the question by changing “your school” that she produced in her first turn with “kerim oytun college” which is the name of the school that the students are enrolled in. When no one bids for the turn after 0.6 seconds of silence, TEA directs the same question that she produced in line 01 in Turkish. When asking the question in Turkish, the teacher uses interrogative prosody in the end, as she does when asking the question in English. However, the pace of the utterance is faster in Turkish. After switching to L1, TEA waits for another 2.8 seconds. However, none of the students volunteer to provide a response. Finally, TEA nominates a student herself, Baki, who is a non-bidding student. 2.6 seconds of silence seen in line 09, the fact the student does not provide a response immediately after the teacher’s question, and the hesitation marker at the beginning of Baki’s turn in 14 are proof that Baki is not a bidding student and that he does not display recipiency toward the question. Following 2.6 seconds of silence, BAK provides a response, but does not give an answer immediately. Instead, he addresses the teacher with an interrogative intonation at the end of his turn. In response to BAK’s turn, TEA starts her turn with **yes** and repeats the question to BAK. After 1.5 seconds of silence, in line 14, BAK begins his turn with a hesitation marker **(e::hm)** but he manages to provide the second pair part of the TEA’s turn and gives an answer.

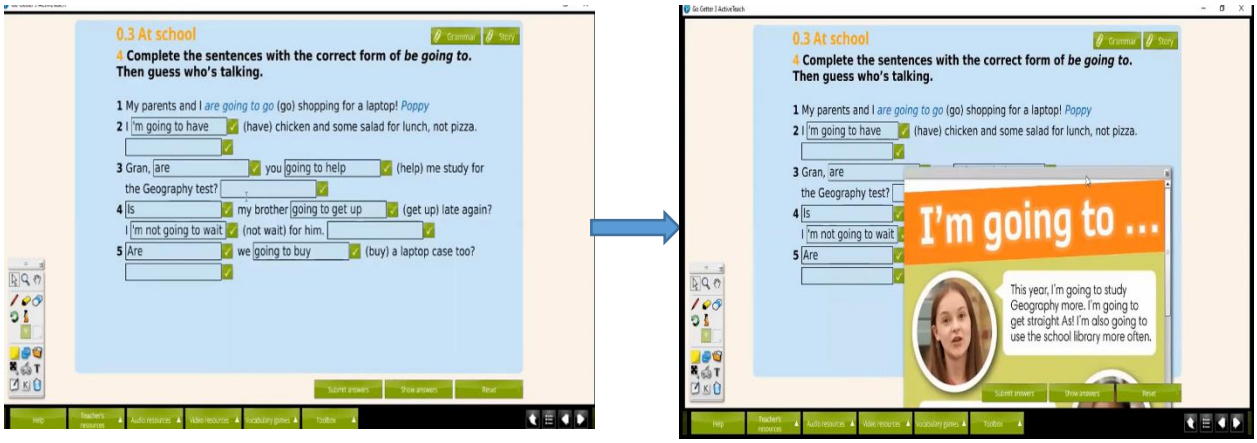
Replacing of the “your school” with “kerim oytun college” noticed in line 03, can be deemed as repairing the indexical reference (Bolden, Mandelbaum & Wilkinson, 2021) to

scaffold the students by referring to what is known to them. In line 06, teacher's use of L1 suggests that the teacher interprets student's not volunteering to provide a response as resulting from a problem of comprehension. This code-switching seen in this extract is different from the one seen in Extract 4. In Extract 4, the switch to L1 indicates that the teacher treats the lack of response as a problem of classroom management. In this extract, however, the teacher assumes that students have difficulty in understanding the question being directed to them, therefore she directs the question in L1. Nonetheless, even after directing the question completely in L1, and waiting for 2.8 seconds, no one show willingness to answer. This shows us that the problem is not related to comprehension as interpreted by the teacher. As a solution to not receiving a response from any of the students and as a response pursuit practice, teacher resorts to nominating a student. The teacher has directed the question in her previous turns both in the target language and in L1, albeit the nominated student does not give an answer to the question directly after taking the turn, the interrogative prosody at the end of his turn shows that he requests the teacher to repeat the question. This request is not perceived as problematic from the teacher, as she repeats the question in line 12. Even though the selected student does not volunteer to respond when the question is directed to the whole class, when he is selected by individual nomination, he is able to provide a correct response.

Prior to the extract given below, taken from A section of the 7th graders, the students have read a reading text from the course book. The activity that the students are completing during the extract is given as a comprehension activity of the text that they have read. The page that the activity is given on is being shared by the teacher with the students from her screen. The activity consists of two parts. For the first part of the activity, which has been completed by students and checked by the teacher prior to the extract, the students fill in the blanks with the correct form of the word given in brackets. For the second part of the activity, which is being done in the extract, the students are required to write the names of the people mentioned in the text next to the sentences. Since the comprehension activity and the text are not given in the same page, throughout the extract, the teacher shows the part of the story to the students several times.

Figure 5

Extract 7 screenshots of the activity



Extract 7. who said this sentence

Length: 0:00:42.0

01 TEA: SO who did this (.) sentence↑
02 >şimdi< bu cümleyi kim söyledi↑
now who said this sentence
-----1----
1: clicks on the story and shares the part of the text with the students
03 (1.8)
04 remember the story↑
05 i'm going to have chicken and some salad for lunch not pizza
06 ((reads from the coursebook))
07 who said this.
08 (1.7)
09 kim >söylemiş olabilir< bu cümleyi:↑
who might have said this sentence
10 (2.8)
11 yapabilen var mı.
is there anyone who could do
-closes the text-
12 (2.3)
13 şurdaki hani eh- hikaye var ya şu
there you know there is a story this
14 kitabımızdaki
in our book
--2--
2: clicks on the story and shares the part of the text with the students
15 buna göre yapıyoduk

we were doing according to this

16 **(1.4)**

17 **ama herkeste kitap olmadığı için sanırım hepiniz bakamadınız**

but since not everyone has a book i guess all of you couldn't look

18 **okay**

3

3: closes the text

19 **so-**

20 **(0.8)**

21 **i will show the answers to you:**

22 **(1.0)**

23 **this is harry**

24 **this (.) is emma:**

25 **this is George**

TEA starts the sequence by asking the question in the target language, and in line 02 she immediately directs the same question in L1. Following 1.8 seconds of silence, TEA asks the students if they remember the story. In lines 05 and 06 TEA reads aloud the sentence given in the course book and in line 07 she directs the question to the whole class. After asking the question, TEA waits for 1.7 seconds for a student to volunteer a response. Upon not receiving a response from any of the students, she switches to L1 and asks the same question. After 2.8 seconds of silence observed in line 10, TEA displays that she is expecting a student to answer the question in line 11. From line 13 to 15, TEA attempts to remind the students that the questions can be answered by looking at the reading text. While doing so, she uses L1 and shares the reading text from her screen simultaneously. The 1.4 seconds of silence indicates that TEA's attempt to pursue a response by reminding the students have not been successful. Therefore, TEA treats the absence of response as resulting from students' not having the course book. Finally, TEA ceases her attempts to pursue a response and announces that she will provide the answers herself.

In this extract, it is observed that the teacher employs several practices in order to pursue a response. For the most part, the teacher uses code-switching as a response pursuit practice. First of all, in line 02, it is seen that the teacher switches to L1 without allowing

students time to provide an answer. This practice contradicts with the common code-switching practices established in literature; “After a gap of more than one second, the instructor code-switches to L1 if there is no response to the teacher's inquiry in the L2. Before the CS, the teacher usually modifies or repeats the question at least once in the L2” (Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005). The teacher switches to L1 again in line 09 following 1.7 seconds of silence, repeating the question in L1. After 2.8 seconds of wait time, teacher alters the question, and asks students if there is anyone who could find an answer the question. Though the question is formulated as a Yes/No Interrogative, this question asked in L1 functions as an invitation to participate in the lesson. L1 uses seen in lines 13, 14, and 15 are employed in order to deal with procedural trouble related to the task. Finally, in 17, teacher uses L1 for the last time for this task, and provides sanctioning to the lack of response, treating it resulting from students’ not having a course book, and ends the response-pursuit. Another practice that the teacher is seen to employ as a response-pursuit practice in this extract is the use of remember recognition check to offer a hint and provide guidance to students to find the correct answer (You, 2015; Can Daşkın & Hatipoğlu, 2019). Teacher tries to elicit a response from the students by asking students whether they remember the story that they have read previously. Upon not receiving a response to her remember recognition check, teacher tries to remind the reading text both orally and by sharing the text from her screen several times. Moreover, teacher directs the same question by reformulating it (lines 01, 07). Lastly, teacher’s wait times in this extract is noticed to have been longer than the average wait times observed in a typical language classroom. Therefore, the increased wait time can be counted as another response pursuit practice employed by the teacher.

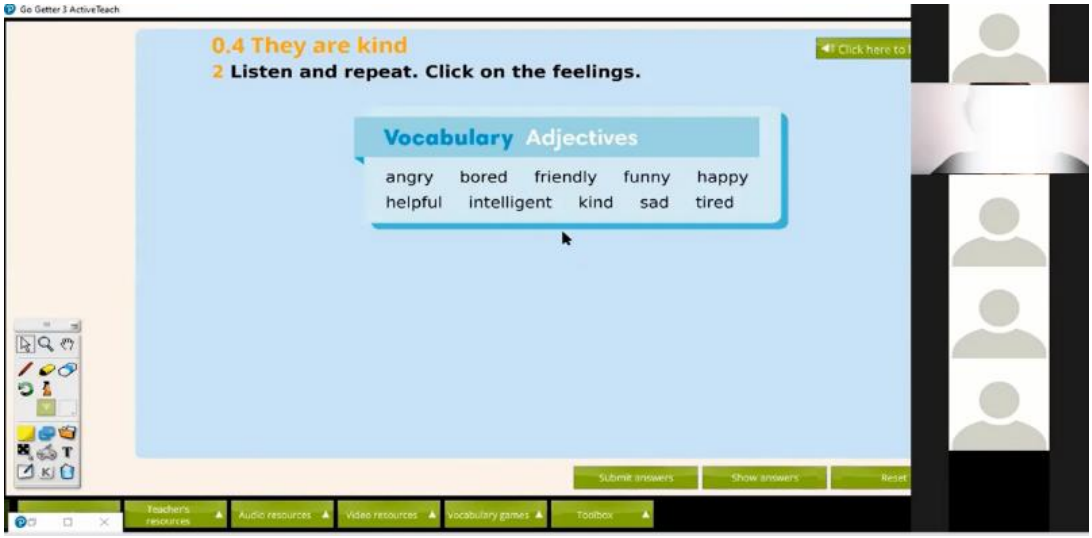
What is further revealed in Extract 7 is that the teacher may quit pursuing a response in the case of a possible procedural trouble. Even though the teacher is sharing the questions from the screen with the students, the activity that the students supposed to complete requires students to check the text provided in the course book at the same time in order to answer the questions. Upon making repeated attempts to elicit a response from the students, the teacher concludes that they were unable to complete the exercise because they did not have the

course book. She therefore deduces that the lack of response is caused by a procedural trouble and starts providing the answers herself.

In the following extract, taken from B section of 6th graders, students are learning personality adjectives. There are ten words given in the course book, and “kind” is the eighth word on the list. Prior to the extract, students have learned the meanings of different adjectives. Teacher is sharing the course book from her screen with the students. Therefore, it is assumed that all the students participating in the lesson have access to the word list.

Figure 6

Extract 8 screenshot of the vocabulary list



Extract 8. What is kind

Length: 0:00:28.8

01 TEA: KInd::
02 (0.9)
03 for example
04 (0.4)
05 uh- orkun is a very kind bo::y
06 (2.5)
07 ORK: teacher bana mı dediniz↑
teacher did you tell me
08 TEA: >no no<
09 it's just an example
10 <kind>
11 what is kind↑
12 (4.0)

13		**kibar**
		kind
14		**(0.5)**
15		**kibar**
		kind
16		**(0.3)**
17		**kind**
18		**(0.8)**
19		**e::hm write on your books**
20		**(0.4)**
21		**kibar (.) kind**
		kind
22		**(1.1)**
23		**i'm very <kind> (.) girl:**
24		**(0.8)**
25		**and (.) sad↑**

TEA starts the sequence by reading the target word out loud. In line 05, TEA gives an example with the target word in the sentence, and she uses the name of the one of the students participating the lesson in the example sentence. ORK's turn that includes a question in line 07 displays that the student whose name is used in the example assumes that the teacher is addressing him. TEA immediately resolves this problem in lines 08 and 09 in the target language. Even though ORK constructs his turn in L1, TEA responds to him in English, without addressing or problematizing student's use of L1. Noticing that ORK did not take the turn again suggests that the communication problem between TEA and ORK has been compensated. In line 10 TEA returns to the teaching of the target word. In line 11, TEA asks the meaning of or the L1 equivalent of the target word to the whole class and waits 4.0 seconds for a student to take the turn and provide an answer. When none of the students bid for the turn TEA provides the L1 equivalent of the word herself in line 13 and repeats it in line 15. In line 21 TEA utters the target word and repeats the L1 equivalent of the word after a micro pause. Following 1.1 seconds of silence, TEA uses the target word in a sentence again, and closes the sequence. In line 25 TEA starts a new sequence by uttering the next target word on the list.

In this extract, the teacher uses the target word in a sentence as a response pursuit practice. The practice of scaffolding the students by given the target word or phrase in a

sentence in order to elicit a response is frequently encountered with in the data. The use of increased wait time is similar to the above extracts. The use of L1 is also observed in this extract, however it is not applied to as a means of response pursuit in this example. Instead, the L1 use noticed in this extract, giving the Turkish equivalent of the target word, can be relevant to Cook's (1992) Multicompetence Theory, which suggests that the positive involvement of L1 can be useful in the L2 learning process. In the current extract, the teacher uses L1 in order to provide the answer herself.

This extract resembles extract 5 in that rather than practicing what have been learned previously, the teacher is presenting new words. Similar to the extract 5, the teacher does not insist on eliciting a response, rather she provides the answer herself. This instance supports the claim made earlier that not insisting on the response pursuit may be related to the teaching sequence.

It is frequently noticed in the data that students refrain from volunteering to response or show willingness to response when the teacher directs a question to the whole class, without nominating a student. This section displays the response-pursuit practices employed by the teacher when she directed a known-information question to the whole class. Practices she is seen to employ in this section show similarities with the practices that she applies when she nominates a student to provide a response. The commonly seen response-pursuit practices are extending the wait time, code-switching to L1, scaffolding learners, and repeating or rephrasing the question. The similarities seen between the first section and this section result from the question design used by the teacher being the same, which is the known-information question design. Finally, when the teacher's attempts to invite students to bid fail, the teacher either resorts to individually nominating a non-bidding student, or she provides the answer herself.

In a face-to-face classroom setting, students my indicate their availability as a possible speaker through resources that are not available in the online teaching setting, such as directing the gaze towards the teacher and establishing a mutual gaze between the teacher and the learner (Lerner, 2003; Kaanta, 2010). However, since their cameras are turned off,

students cannot display their willingness to participate through gaze. Therefore, the teacher must select a non-bidding student, or provide the answer herself, as seen in the extracts, in order to ensure the progressivity of the lesson.

Procedural Questions

In this part, the response pursuit practices that the teacher employs when she directs the students a procedural question. In a like manner with the section above, she does not nominate a student to answer the question, instead, she directs the question to the whole class and invites students to bid or to provide a choral response.

Procedural questions are different from other types of question designs commonly used in language classrooms such as known-information questions or information-seeking questions, in that, procedural questions are not related with the content of learning, they are related with the classroom procedures and routines, and classroom management (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). When directing a procedural question, teacher's aim is not assessing students' knowledge, or proficiency levels and providing feedback, or getting students to speak and practice the language, instead the aim is making sure that the task and the instructions are clear, students do not have any problem of understanding the instructions. By directing procedural questions to the students, teachers intend to ensure that the lesson flows smoothly, rather than assisting students to acquire knowledge in the content of the lesson.

In the following extract, taken from the A section of 6th grade students, the topic of the lesson is "buying a ticket." On the course book that the teacher is sharing with the students from her screen, there are sentences and phrases that can be used when buying a ticket in the target language. The teacher has not started to teach the sentences and phrases.

Extract 9. Any unknown words
Length: 0:00:15.4

01 TEA: is there any unknown words (0.2) here↑
02 (2.5)
03 >bilmediğimiz< bi kelime var mı:↑
is there a word we don't know

04 **önce onu sorıyı:m**
let me ask this first
05 **(6.2)**
06 **oka::y**

After sharing the sentence and phrase list with the students from her screen TEA starts the sequence by asking the whole class if they know all the words included in the sentence and phrase list. After not receiving a response following 2.5 seconds of silence, TEA repeats the question in L1. Considering that the 6.2 seconds of silence is a sufficient time for students to take the turn to respond to teacher's question, when none of the students respond to teacher's inquiry, the teacher interprets that there aren't any unknown words on the list. Therefore, it is deemed appropriate to start teaching the topic of the lesson. TEA ends the sequence with a lexical TCU seen in line 06.

This short extract displays two different response pursuit practices the teacher frequently employs throughout the data when she directs a procedural question to the class. First of all, after not receiving any response from the students the teacher resorts to asking the question in L1. Another practice observed in the extract is the teacher's use of increased wait time. The wait time seen in lines 02 and 06 offers a space for the students to look at the list and share the words that they don't know.

Prior to the extract given below, taken from B section of 5th graders, students have learned the names of the places that can be found in a school (see extract 6). Then, they have listened to an audio that includes people speaking about the different places in a school. Students were required to listen to the audio and find out which places the people in the audio talk about. While the students were listening to the text, teacher was sharing the list of the words that they have learned from her screen. After listening to the audio once, the teacher starts to elicit answers from the students.

Extract 10.could you find out the answers

Length: 0:00:25.1

01 **TEA:** **okay**
02 **could you find out the answers↑**
03 **(1.7)**

04 **bulduk mu cevapları↑**
did we find the answers
05 **(2.2)**
06 **YE:s↑ (.) or no**
07 **(1.8)**
08 **bulduk mu cevapları çocuklar**
did we find the answers kids
09 **>anlayabildik mi↑<**
could we understand
10 **yoksa tekrar dinlememiz gerekiyo mu↑**
or do we need to listen again
11 **(0.7)**
12 **do you need to listen again↑**
13 **(1.4)**
14 **NO (.) okay.**
15 **you say nothing ag- uh:: as usual**
16 **(0.9)**
17 **SO two uh:m**

The sequence opens with the teacher stopping the audio and marking the beginning of the activity with "okay." In line 02, TEA asks the students if they could find the answers. Similar to the pattern noticed in Extract 9, when the students do not provide a response after the waiting time provided by the teacher, TEA code-switches and repeats the question in L1. Following a 2.2 seconds of silence noticed in line 05, TEA's utterance in line 06 (**YE:s↑ (.) or no)** indicates that she simply expects a yes or no for her question, downgrading the response pursuit (Duran & Jacknick, 2020), and invites students to provide a response. TEA waits for another 1.8 seconds, then asks them if they were able to understand the sentences included in the audio that they have listened to or if they need to listen to the audio again by using L1. After asking the students if they need to listen again to answer the questions in L1 and waiting for 0.7 seconds, TEA directs the question again, this time in the target language. TEA interprets the absence of response from the students after 1.4 seconds of silence as positive suggesting no need for listening again. Thus, in line 14 TEA responds to her own question and accepting it, with a preceding micro pause. However, in line 15, TEA verbally problematizes the repeated absence of response marking that they usually do not respond to teacher's inquiries. Accepting that students did not have a problem understanding the audio

and completing the activity, TEA starts eliciting answers, starting from the second question, since the answer to the first question was already given in the course book as an example.

As the analysis of the previous and the current extracts shows, the teacher does not hesitate to use the L1 in order to get a response from the students regarding the comprehension and completion of the activity. In this extract, the teacher repeatedly resorts to the use of L1 directing comprehension question in different forms, indicating that the focus is not on the language, and that it is crucial to ascertain whether students were able to complete the activity or not in order to proceed with the lesson. In contrast to earlier sections, the teacher does not insist on pursuing a response and regards the lack of response to a procedural question as evidence of understanding.

It is also worth highlighting that when speaking in L1, the teacher uses first-person singular (we) when posing the question, instead of using second-person singular (you) like she does when asking the same question in the target language.

In addition, it is observed in the extract that the teacher benefits from the silences e.g., wait times as a tool to elicit a response from the students, providing sufficient time for students to bid for the turn and contribute their response.

Upon insisting on receiving a response from the students by directing questions both in the target language and in L1, and providing sufficient waiting time, finally, the teacher concludes that students did not have any problems with completing the activity and verbally provides a response herself in order to be able to carry out the lesson.

Before the start of the following extract, taken from A section of 7th graders, students have completed an online quiz that includes test items related to different grammar topics that the learners have studied earlier. After the teacher makes sure that all the students who took the quiz finished it, she attempts to check if students had problems with any items, or grammar topics.

Extract 11. is there any question
Length: 0:00:20.3

01 TEA: >okay<
02 SO eh::m (0.2)
03 is there any question (.) that you can't (0.5) do↑
04 (1.2)
05 i'm asking this (.) question for everyone
06 (2.3)
07 for example (0.2) e::hm
08 relative clause
09 o:r past tense↑
10 (3.4)
11 no:↑
12 (0.4)
13 oka:y:↓
14 (0.5)
15 SEL: no

TEA starts the sequence with a discourse marker “so” continuing with a hesitation marker and 0.2 seconds of silence. In the following line, TEA asks the students if there are any test items in the quiz that they couldn’t answer to. When the TEA’s question does not receive a response from any of the students after 1.2 seconds of silence, TEA states that she is asking that question to all the students in the lesson, marking that the turn is available to anyone who would like to take it and provide a response. TEA waits for 2.3 seconds for a student to volunteer a response. When none of the students take the turn, TEA continues her pursuit by giving examples of the answers that the students potentially give in response to the TEA’s question in lines 08 and 09. Following 3.4 seconds of wait time, which is a long and sufficient time for students to respond, TEA interprets that the students did not have any problems with any of the test items and tries to confirm this with a lexical turn constructional unit (TCU) ending with an interrogative prosody seen in line 11. What follows the 0.4 seconds of silence in line 12 is the acknowledgement token by the teacher (**oka:y:↓)**, accepting that none of the students had a problem with any of the test items included in the quiz. SEL’s late response seen in line 15 acts as a confirmation of the teacher’s assumption.

This extract is different from the previous two extracts that were analyzed in this section, in that contrary to the previous extracts, the teacher does not resort to turning to L1 when the students do not take the turn to provide a response. Instead, here, in order to pursue response, she attempts to scaffold the learners by reminding two of the topics covered in the quiz they took.

Similar to the prior extract, wait times the teacher provides to students are used as a tool to pursue a response. Finally, when the teacher fails to elicit a response from the learners, she treats this absence of response as a lack of problem with the test items on the students' part.

Response-pursuit practices that the teacher employs when she directs a procedural question to the whole class present similarities with the previously analyzed occurrences, which are teacher directing a known-information question and individually nominating a student, and teacher directing a known-information question to the whole class and waiting for students to bid for the turn or provide a choral response. Prolonged wait times, code-switches to L1, repeating or rephrasing the question are resources that the teacher make use of in order to pursue a response.

One issue that emerges from the data is that, when she directs a procedural question to the whole class, and her efforts of pursuing response fails, the teacher treats the silence as a positive response suggesting there is no trouble of understanding on the students' part. Comparing the extracts where the teacher directs a known-information question, and a procedural question, it is seen that, when students do no provide a response to a known-information question, the teacher usually selects another student, if she has failed to elicit a response from the nominated student, or nominates a student, if her attempts to invite the whole class to bid are left unanswered by the students. The reason for this difference is related to the functions of the question types. The main reason for asking a known-information question is improving learners' competence on the content of the lesson, an answer must be elicited so that the teacher can elicit evidence of student knowledge and understanding and provide feedback. However, since procedural questions do not have such purpose, eliciting a verbal response from the students is not as essential. All in all, teacher's peculiar treatment

of lack of student response when directing a procedural question, results from the pedagogical goal.

Turning now to the differences between face-to-face teaching setting and online teaching setting, it is seen that the lack of embodied practices in online classroom setting plays a role. While students are able to provide a response to a procedural question through embodied resources, such as indicating lack of response with a nod, or displaying confusion using facial expressions, it is not possible for the students to employ such resources in the online setting, unless they turn on their cameras. In our case, because all the students' cameras are turned off, the teacher is compelled to employ response pursuit practices and lastly, treat the lack of response as a positive response, for the sake of the progressivity of the lesson.

Overall, the findings indicate that, there are recurrently used response-pursuit practices that the teacher employs when students fail to provide a response to a question in the synchronous online teaching setting. It is seen that the teacher uses similar practices when she directs a known-information question to a nominated student, or to the whole class and expects students to bid for an answer, and when she directs a procedural question to the whole class. The commonly noticed response-pursuit practices are prolonging the wait time, repeating or rephrasing the question, and using L1. Moreover, it is seen that the absence of embodied resources, conduces to a difference between the response-pursuit practices employed in online teaching setting, and the ones used in face-to-face setting.

Table below shows the response-pursuit practices employed by the teacher that are identified in the data.

Table 2

Identified Instances

1. Teacher selects the next speaker	
1.1. Known-information questions	
a. Extending the wait time b. Repeating the nominated student's name c. Repeating the question d. Use of L1 e. Scaffolding f. Nominating another student	
2. Teacher does not select the next speaker	
2.1. Known-information questions	2.2 Procedural questions
a. Extending the wait time b. Repeating the question c. Use of L1 d. Scaffolding e. Nominating a student	a. Extending the wait time b. Repeating the question c. Use of L1

As can be inferred from the table above, there is not a difference between the response pursuit practices the teacher employs when she directs the question to a nominated student or when she does not select a student and expects students to bid for the turn, when known-information question design is used. The difference occurs when the teacher uses a procedural question design and directs the question to the entire class. In this instance, the teacher is noticed to have employed fewer practices to elicit a response.

Chapter 5

Conclusion, Discussion and Suggestions

The most common response pursuit strategies found in the data will be described in this section of the thesis by linking them to the body of existing literature. After that, utilizing earlier research on response pursuit practices in face-to-face teaching settings, the distinctions between the response pursuit techniques used in online teaching settings and face-to-face teaching settings will be discussed.

The following research questions are the focus of the current master's thesis;

1. What are the response-pursuit practices employed by foreign language teachers during synchronous online language teaching at lower secondary level?

    1.1. What are the response pursuit practices teachers employ when they nominate the next speaker?

    1.2. What are response pursuit practices teachers employ when they do not nominate the next speaker?

These questions have been addressed through the use of Conversation Analytic analysis of recordings of English classes given in an online educational environment. The data demonstrates that, in the context of online instruction, students typically have a propensity of not providing a response to their teacher’s questions. Only in the context of online instruction are students able to achieve this. In a face-to-face teaching setting, since students are physically present in the classroom, they are in sight of the teacher. For this reason, they must provide an account for the lack of response either orally or using embodied resources. In the online teaching setting, however, the teacher cannot see the pupils since their webcams are off, so she cannot tell if they are seated in front of their computers and paying attention to the lesson. Therefore, leaving the teacher’s questions unresponded can be said to be unique to the online setting. However, the students must provide a response in order to take advantage of the learning opportunity presented by the question. They have the opportunity to gain immediate feedback from the teacher by responding, which aids in their learning. When the

teacher's questions are left unanswered, learning opportunities are missed. The teacher must thus elicit a response from the students. In order to accomplish this, the teacher uses particular response-pursuit techniques.

Initial examination of the data has revealed that response pursuit techniques may vary depending on the question's addressee (selecting a student or addressing the entire classroom) as well as question type (procedural questions or known-information questions). In accordance with this, the findings were provided under multiple sections; teacher selects the next speaker and directs a known-information question; teacher directs a known-information question to the entire class and expects students to bid for the turn; teacher directs a procedural question to the entire class and expects students to bid for the turn.

As discussed in Chapters 3 and 4, the data reveals that when the teacher directs a known-information question and nominates a student to answer, she generally relies on the practices that follows in order to pursue a response; extending the wait time; repeating the nominated student’s name; repeating the question; use of L1; scaffolding; finally, when all or most of the practices mentioned are employed, she resorts to nominating another student to answer the question. Moreover, when the teacher directs a known-information question to the entire class and expects students to bid for the turn, the response pursue practices are as follows; extending the wait time; repeating the question; use of L1; scaffolding; lastly, when none of students bid for the turn, the teacher usually nominates a student. Additionally, when the teacher directs a procedural question to the entire class and expects a student to take the turn to answer she mostly utilizes the following practices; extending the wait time; repeating the question; use of L1 (See Table 2).

The distinction in response pursuit practices is evident when the question designs vary. When the teacher asks a student a known-information question or addresses the entire class, it is clear that she insists on seeking a response and uses additional response pursuit techniques than when she asks a procedural question. When asking a procedural question, the teacher also views the absence of an answer as a positive response, implying that the

students are not having any difficulties and that the lesson may proceed. A possible explanation for this might be related to the functions of the question designs. An answer is required for known-information questions since they are designed to help learners become more knowledgeable and proficient in the target language and to provide evidence of student knowledge and understanding. However, since procedural questions are designed to ensure the flow of the lesson, when learners do not state any problems in return to the question, it can be interpreted that there is no problem. In this regard, it isn't deemed essential to make any further attempts to attain a response.

On a similar note, the analysis further reveals that the teacher insists on pursuing a response in certain instances, whereas in some instances she may quit the response pursuit. For example, during teaching sequences, which means when the teacher is presenting a new word, the teacher usually stops pursuing response and provides the answer herself. During practicing sequences, however, eliciting a response appears to become important since the teacher insists on the response pursuit. This difference is clearly demonstrated in the below excerpts. In the first excerpt (taken from extract 5), the teacher is teaching new words to the students, while in the second excerpt (taken from extract 2), the students are required to complete the activity with the words that they have learned priorly, in other words, they are practicing the taught words.

10	TEA:	**okay thank you i will talk with anıl turgut anıl turgut can you**
11		**tell me what is cla- playground↑**
12		**(5.8)**
13		**aNIL↑**
14		**(2.4)**
15		**okay p- (.) playGROUND: (.) oyun alanı (.) oyun sahası↓**
		playground play field

Excerpt 1

```
02          atakan↑
03          (3.1)
04          can you give me possible ans- answer for jane↑
05          (1.8)
06          for example u:hm (.) jane (.) for jane: (0.5) it said lawyer
07          accountant↑
08          (0.9)
09          and you can say two more
10          (3.7)
11          ataKAN↑
12          (6.4)
13          .hh °okay°  CEYlan↑
```

Excerpt 2

Additionally, the data demonstrates that turn allocation practices, extended wait times, and the use of L1 are crucial elements in pursuing a response in the context of online instruction. Further, findings reveal that due to the absence of embodied resources in the online context, turn allocation and response pursuit techniques change between face-to-face and online classroom settings, which is indicative of interactional variations between the two.

Numerous research has been conducted to date to uncover the turn-taking and turn-allocation procedures used in the classroom context. The current study's findings reveal commonalities with earlier studies in terms of turn allocation procedures. For instance, Mehan (1979: 84-95) has shown that teachers allocate turns to students by individually nominating them, by explicitly inviting students to bid or by inviting them to produce choral responses. Despite the fact that the results from the current study do not support the last principle, the first two principles have been looked at and are divided into their own sections in the current thesis. Further, in his preliminary work on turn taking practices in classroom context, McHoul (1978) explains the rules for turn taking in classroom as follows (McHoul, 1978: 188):

(I) When the teacher’s turn has come to an end:

(A) The teacher may nominate a student as the next speaker. In this occurrence, no other student has the right to speak.

(B) The teacher may not nominate a student and continues himself.

(II) When the student's turn has come to an end:

A) If a student does not select the next speaker, the teacher continues.

B) If a student selects the next speaker, it should be the teacher.

C) Only if the teacher does not continue, can the student selected continue as the current speaker.

McHoul's principles, while designed for in-person classroom engagement, are consistent with the findings of the current study, which looked at online classroom interaction. Turn allocation procedures observed in the data after the teacher's turn has reached a conclusion are consistent with the principles McHoul outlines. However, McHoul's ideas imply that classroom interaction is solely managed by the teacher. Nevertheless, the study's findings support Kaanta's (2010) assertion that students may additionally have an impact on interaction. According to the data, students influence interactions by not providing any form of response. When such an instance arises, teachers are forced to pursue a response through the use of a variety of practices, invite additional bids, or select another student to provide a response. This poses a challenge to the teacher's authority on creating the turn-taking organization outlined by McHoul (1978), as it is evident that students can have a noticeable effect on the structure of classroom interaction (Sahlström 1999: 101).

The study's findings provide additional evidence in support of Kaanta's (2010) statements on the nomination of a non-bidding student to respond. Occasionally, teachers may nominate a student who is not bidding for the turn. Teachers intend to provide as many students as possible the opportunity to engage in interaction by doing so. In this fashion, teachers make use of their institutional authority to assign turns to any student in the class and

to demand a responsive action, such as the anticipated response or an explanation for why the expected response is not given. According to Kaanta (2010), there may be a pause between the teacher allocating a turn to a non-bidding student and the student's response. The lack of response suggests that the nominated student was chosen without prior notice and that he or she needs some time to become used to the response action before responding. According to the data of the current study, non-responding students are typically those who are not bidding. The teacher tries to get all the students to participate in the lesson and to create learning opportunities for everyone. It is evidenced in some of the extracts when the teacher starts the turn by stating that she will choose a non-bidding student or a student who has not priorly participated in the lesson. Unfortunately, most of the times when the teacher chooses to do so, the nominated student does not show recipiency and the learning opportunity is missed, regardless of how hard the teacher attempts to elicit a response using various techniques. Furthermore, Xie (2011) reveals individual nominations by the teacher put the students under a lot of pressure. The students did not want to experience the embarrassment of not being able to come up with the desired response. This may be a contributing factor in why the study's participant students did not provide a response when nominated by the teacher.

When it comes to the differences between turn allocation and turn taking practices in the online classroom setting and face-to-face classroom setting, lack of embodied resources in the online setting appears as a significant factor. Previous studies on turn taking and turn allocation practices in the classroom have established that the use of embodiment, especially the use of gaze, is frequently used (Lerner, 2003; Mortensen, 2008; Kaanta, 2010). Kaanta (2010) states that “The management of turn-taking requires the use of sight, as teachers cannot choose the next speaker if they do not fix their eyes on the class. If they couldn't determine where the students were looking (i.e., at books, the teacher, or other classmates), they also wouldn't be able to determine how engaged the students were in the activity.” In the online classroom setting, however, the teacher does not have an opportunity to gaze at the

classroom and determine the students' level of engagement. In fact, even the assumption that students are sitting in front of the computer and paying attention to the lesson is questionable because the students' cameras are off. Moreover, while gaze, use of address term, and head nods are explicit forms of address commonly used in face-to-face classroom settings to allocate turns, as shown in the data, in online teaching settings, it is only possible for teachers to use address terms.

A further finding of the current study is that teachers regularly utilize the technique of increasing the wait time between their questions and the students' answers in order to pursue responses in a virtual classroom environment. Rowe (1969) defines wait time as silent pauses between speakers. In a study conducted in science classes, Rowe (1972) found that teachers gave students an average of just one second to begin responding to a question, and if students didn't start responding in that time, teachers would often either repeat the question or invite other kids to participate. In a study conducted in language classrooms, Shrum (1984) found that mean post-solicitation wait-time was 1.91 seconds, which shows that wait time in language classes is nearly twice as long as the 1.00 second mean wait- time measured in the science classes. The data from the present study shows substantially lengthier wait times. The excerpts show that the teacher would occasionally wait up to 6 seconds for the students to respond. This is a significant increase over the wait times normally given to students in language courses, as demonstrated by Shrum (1984). This wait time is even longer than the time proposed by Stahl (1994), which states that; "at some occasions, the teacher should purposefully and regularly wait in quiet for three to five seconds or more." The considerable rise in wait times may be due to the online setting. This result reflects that of Moorhouse *et al.* (2021) who stated that in a survey, teachers reported needing to give more wait time to students to provide a response in online lessons. In the online teaching context, bearing in mind that the nominated student might have inappropriate equipment, suboptimal Internet connection, or audio problems, the teacher must provide longer wait times than he would in a face-to-face teaching setting. Although previous studies have proposed the benefits of longer

wait times between the teacher's inquiry and the student's response, such as giving students more time to reflect and plan their responses, which is likely to lead to fewer response failures (Ingram & Elliot, 2014), and resulting in a more thoughtfully articulate response (Wasik & Hindman, 2018), in this study, it is evident that extending the wait time is not successful in eliciting a response from the students. In fact, it might be argued that prolonged wait times caused the class time to be lost and wasted.

Additional notable finding of the study is that the teacher used students' native language when there is a noticeable absence of a reply between the teacher's question and student's expected response. This finding is in accordance with the previous studies that examined teacher code switching in language classrooms. For instance, Huerta-Macias and Quintero (1992) proposed that "code-switching in the classroom is a teaching strategy to enhance learners' participation when there are non-responsive faces." Moreover, Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) reported observing that "Teachers shifted between English and Turkish in order to deal with procedural issues, clarify meaning by supplying the Turkish counterpart, encourage and elicit learner engagement, elicit Turkish translation, and check learner comprehension." The data, however, reveals that using L1 as a technique to elicit a response from the learners ultimately failed. This outcome is contrary to that of Hoang and Filipi (2019) who found that students finally provided a response after the teacher switched to students' native language, and that the pursuit through the switch was indeed successful. It can be inferred from this finding of our study that the absence of response is not related to a problem of understanding, instead it can be linked to the online teaching setting. Students might exploit the fact that the teacher cannot see them, and they might not feel as compelled to respond as they would in a face-to-face classroom environment.

One unexpected result of the study is that the strategies employed by the teacher frequently to pursue responses in the context of online teaching are not that different from those used in the context of face-to-face instruction, as established by prior research. Scaffolding the student, repeating the question, extending the wait time, and switching to L1

are not unique to the online setting, and are usually employed in face-to-face teaching settings. Some features that are available to the teacher in the video conferencing software (i.e. Zoom), could have been utilized. For example, the teacher could have encouraged learners to use the chat box to write the response, considering they might be having problems with their microphones. In addition, using the “annotation” tool students could have written the answer on the screen shared by the teacher. The teacher might also ask the nominated student to turn on his or her microphone using the "ask to unmute" feature, which might put pressure on the student to respond. However, the assertion that these techniques would be successful in eliciting a response can go no further than a claim because we are unsure whether the nominated students are seated in front of their computers and paying attention to the lesson.

Pedagogical Implications

Based on the findings, some educational implications related to online teaching context can be made. To begin with, it can be argued that the fundamental distinction between an online learning environment and a face-to-face learning environment is the teacher's lack of physical proximity to the students and their inability to see the students. As suggested by Peachey (2017) “being able to see and be seen by the teacher reduces the students’ sense of isolation and can enable the teacher to develop rapport and establish friendly, relationships” and “being able to see the students also allows teachers to use a number of paralinguistic communication features.” The current study also demonstrates that by seeing the students, the teacher can judge whether or not they are paying attention to the class. Additionally, it is possible to speculate that the students might feel compelled to remain in front of their computers when their cameras are on. For these reasons, it is suggested the cameras of the teacher and the students must both be on during the online lesson.

It's also crucial to note that students may occasionally become disengaged during online lessons. Young learners especially may experience significant difficulties with sitting in front of their computers and listening to the teacher, since they have not yet developed self-discipline. More engaging activities that students may actively participate in and enjoy while doing so must be included by teachers if they are to maintain their students' attention. Teachers must utilize the many resources available on the Internet, and include varied activities, rather than merely using the course book and worksheets. Further, the materials that have been created for the face-to-face teaching setting, can be adapted to be used in the online teaching setting.

In addition, it is possible to draw conclusions about teacher education from the study. Preservice teachers must be educated on how to teach effectively in the online setting. Teaching in an online environment differs from teaching in a face-to-face setting, and a teacher who is skilled in teaching face-to-face may not be as successful when teaching in the online environment. Preservice teachers need to be aware of the fact that teaching in an online

environment demands additional abilities from the teachers. To start with, teachers must be competent in dealing with constraints and affordances of the online environment. In order to properly teach the subject while maintaining student engagement, they must be taught how to combine a variety of activities into their lesson plans. Preservice teachers must also be taught about classroom management considering it is yet another aspect of the online classroom that is remarkably dissimilar from the traditional face-to-face learning environment. Taking into consideration that learner participation and interaction are key components in language learning, preservice teachers must be taught how to establish an online classroom environment where each student actively participates in the lesson. In connection with this, they must also learn how to allocate turns to students and how to successfully pursue and elicit responses from them in an online teaching environment.

The findings of the study may help us to better understand the differences of language teaching between the conventional face-to-face teaching setting and online teaching context and design a curriculum for preservice language teachers that can meet the needs for online language teaching setting.

Suggestions for Further Research

Given the limitations of the current study, several recommendations for further research can be made. To start with, the current study takes place in one setting only, which is a private middle school in Turkey. Additionally, even though the study set out to look into three different teachers' lessons, it was ultimately decided to investigate just one of the teacher's classes. For these reasons, numerous investigations in various settings, such as state schools, language courses; students with different age groups; or studies that examine the language lessons given by multiple teachers, might be carried out in order to arrive at more generalizable findings.

The study compares the response pursuit strategies used in face-to-face teaching settings versus online teaching settings using recordings of exclusively online language

sessions and prior research on the subject. A similar study that examines both the recordings of the lessons conducted in both online and face-to-face settings with the same teacher and same students can be done in order to establish a solid comparison between the response pursuit practices teachers use in these two different settings.

For the reason that form and accuracy context (Seedhouse, 2004) that mainly focuses on grammar structures and “personal or real world meanings tend not to enter the picture” (Seedhouse, 2004), and procedural context (Seedhouse, 2004) dominate the lessons that were examined, the extracts provided in the study take place in form-accuracy and procedural contexts. Further studies that take place in other language classroom contexts suggested by Seedhouse (2004) such as meaning and fluency and task-oriented context may yield different results in response pursuit practices. Moreover, the study examines response pursuit practices the teacher employs after using two question designs; known-information questions and procedural questions. Response pursuit practices may show differences depending on the question design, therefore a study that investigates different question designs can be conducted.

Finally, because of the emic perspective that Conversation Analysis adopts, it is unattainable to determine the motivations behind the teacher's or the students' actions in the extracts, unless they present themselves in the extracts. Unfortunately, the majority of the time, their motivations are not presented in the extracts. As a result, a study that combines conversation analysis with qualitative research techniques, such as interviewing the teacher and the students, can be carried out in order to be able to state the motivations behind the teacher's and students' behaviors.

Conclusion

With the recent challenges that the world has experienced, there has been a shift from conventional face-to-face education settings to online teaching settings. Even if the change was only transitory, it was subsequently discovered that online education can be a viable choice when face-to-face instruction is not available. As a result, the necessity to undertake studies on online education has evolved in order to improve its quality. Research conducted on online education has revealed that it presents a number of challenges for both teachers and students. However, the number of studies dealing with online language teaching is still inadequate. Considering learner engagement to be a critical aspect in language learning, the present research attempted to provide insight on the response pursuit techniques employed by teachers in an online language teaching setting. In order to meet this purpose, recordings from multiple language classes were collected and thoroughly reviewed utilizing a Conversation Analytic perspective. After rigorous examination, the data revealed that students, whose cameras and microphones switched off, have a propensity of not responding to teacher's questions. As a consequence, it was discovered that the teacher needed to apply a variety of response pursuit techniques in order to elicit a response from the students. The findings suggest that the most regularly employed response pursuit techniques were use of L1, extending the wait time, scaffolding, repeating the student's name and repeating the question. The research has also shown that the teacher did not use any response pursuit practices that are unique to the online setting. The results of the study indicate that preservice teachers must be instructed on how to conduct successful language courses in an online context. More precisely, they must be taught how to manage behavior, how to employ a variety of activities to hold the interest of students, and how to establish a learning environment in which each student can participate equally. In closing, it is apparent that teaching a language in an online classroom environment is still a subject that needs to be researched and developed.

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APPENDIX-A: JEFFERSON (2004) TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTION

Symbol	Name	Use
[text]	Brackets	Indicates the start and end points of overlapping speech.
=	Equal Sign	Indicates the break and subsequent continuation of a single interrupted utterance.
(# of seconds)	Timed Pause	A number in parentheses indicates the time, in seconds, of a pause in speech.
(.)	Micropause	A brief pause, usually less than 0.2 seconds.
. or ↓	Period or Down Arrow	Indicates falling pitch.
? or ↑	Question Mark or Up Arrow	Indicates rising pitch.
,	Comma	Indicates a temporary rise or fall in intonation.
-	Hyphen	Indicates an abrupt halt or interruption in utterance.
>text<	Greater than / Less than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more rapidly than usual for the speaker.
<text>	Less than / Greater than symbols	Indicates that the enclosed speech was delivered more slowly than usual for the speaker.
°	Degree symbol	Indicates whisper or reduced volume speech.

ALL CAPS	Capitalized text	Indicates shouted or increased volume speech.
underline	Underlined text	Indicates the speaker is emphasizing or stressing the speech.
:::	Colon(s)	Indicates prolongation of an utterance.
(hhh)		Audible exhalation
? or (.hhh)	High Dot	Audible inhalation
(text)	Parentheses	Speech which is unclear or in doubt in the transcript.
((italic text))	Double Parentheses	Annotation of non-verbal activity.

APPENDIX-B: MONDADA (2018) TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTION

** Descriptions of embodied actions are delimited between

++ two identical symbols (one symbol per participant and per type of action)

ΔΔ that are synchronized with correspondent stretches of talk or time indications.

*---> The action described continues across subsequent lines

---->* until the same symbol is reached.

>> The action described begins before the excerpt's beginning.

--->> The action described continues after the excerpt's end.

..... Action's preparation.

---- Action's apex is reached and maintained.

,,,,, Action's retraction.

ric Participant doing the embodied action is identified in small caps in the margin. fig The exact moment at which a screen shot has been taken

is indicated with a sign (#) showing its position within the turn/a time measure.

APPENDIX-C: Ethics Committee Approval

T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Rektörlük

Sayı : E-35853172-399-00002162767 29.04.2022
Konu : Şükran Buse TATAR (Etik Komisyon İzni)

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi: 07.04.2022 tarihli ve E-51944218-399-00002125861 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi **Şükran Buse TATAR**'ın **Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Nilüfer CAN DAŞKIN** sorumluluğunda yürüttüğü **"Çevrimiçi Eğitim Ortamında Kullanılan Sosyal Etkileşimsel Uygulamaların Mikroanalatik İncelenmesi"** başlıklı tez çalışması Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun **26 Nisan 2022** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Vural GÖKMEN
Rektör Yardımcısı

Bu belge güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

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APPENDIX D: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that…

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

(07) /(07)/(2023)

(Signature)

Şükran Buse Tatar

APPENDIX-E: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report

07/07/2023

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Educational Sciences
To The Department of Foreign Languages Education

Thesis Title: A Conversation Analytic Study on Response Pursuit Practices in Synchronous Online EFL Classroom Interaction

The whole thesis that includes the *title page, introduction, main chapters, conclusions and bibliography section* is checked by using **Turnitin** plagiarism detection software take into the consideration requested filtering options. According to the originality report obtained data are as below.

Time Submitted	Page Count	Character Count	Date of Thesis Defense	Similarity Index	Submission ID
06/07/2023	121	175851	14/06/2023	%20	2127367785

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3. Match size up to 5 words excluded

I declare that I have carefully read Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences Guidelines for Obtaining and Using Thesis Originality Reports; that according to the maximum similarity index values specified in the Guidelines, my thesis does not include any form of plagiarism; that in any future detection of possible infringement of the regulations I accept all legal responsibility; and that all the information I have provided is correct to the best of my knowledge.

I respectfully submit this for approval.

Name Lastname: Şükran Buse Tatar

Student No.: N20139119 Signature

Department: Foreign Languages Education

Program: English Language Education

Status: ☒ Masters ☐ Ph.D. ☐ Integrated Ph.D.

ADVISOR APPROVAL

APPROVED
(Title, Name Lastname, Signature)
Asst. Prof. Nilüfer Can Daşkın

APPENDIX-F: Yayımlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversiteye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki tüm fikri mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının ya da bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım hakları bana ait olacaktır.

Tezin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinlerin yazılı izin alınarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversiteye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yayınlanan **"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına ilişkin Yönerge"** kapsamında tezim aşağıda belirtilen koşullar haricince YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi / H.Ü. Kütüphaneleri Açık Erişim Sisteminde erişime açılır.

- o Enstitü/ Fakülte yönetim kurulu kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren 2 yıl ertelenmiştir. (1)
- o Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihimden itibaren ... ay ertelenmiştir. (2)
- o Tezimle ilgili gizlilik kararı verilmiştir. (3)

07 /07 /2023
(imza)

Şükran Buse TATAR

"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge"

(1) Madde 6. 1. Lisansüstü tezle ilgili patent başvurusu yapılması veya patent alma *sürecinin devam etmesi durumunda, tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü Üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu iki yıl süreile tezin erişime açılmasının ertelenmesine karar verebilir.*

(2) Madde 6.2. Yeni teknik, materyal ve metotların kullanıldığı, henüz makaleye dönüşmemiş veya patent gibi yöntemlerle korunmamış ve internetten paylaşılması durumunda 3.şahıslara veya kurumlara haksız kazanç; imkânı oluşturabilecek bilgi ve bulguları içeren tezler hakkında tez danışmanın önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile altı ayı aşmamak üzere tezin erişime açılması engellenebilir.

(3) Madde 7. 1. Ulusal çıkarları veya güvenliği ilgilendiren, emniyet, istihbarat, savunma ve güvenlik, sağlık vb. konulara ilişkin lisansüstü tezlerle ilgili gizlilik kararı, tezin yapıldığı kurum tarafından verilir. Kurum ve kuruluşlarla yapılan işbirliği protokolü çerçevesinde hazırlanan lisansüstü tezlere ilişkin gizlilik kararı ise, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşun önerisi ile enstitü veya fakültenin uygun görüşü Üzerine üniversite yönetim kurulu tarafından verilir. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler Yükseköğretim Kuruluna bildirilir.*

Madde 7.2. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler gizlilik süresince enstitü veya fakülte tarafından gizlilik kuralları çerçevesinde muhafaza edilir, gizlilik kararının kaldırılması halinde Tez Otomasyon Sistemine yüklenir

**Tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu tarafından karar verilir.*