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### Turn - taking Analysis in the Speaking II Classes at the English Department, IKIP Padang



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## Abstract

This study focuses on the analysis of turn-taking practice in class and group conversations in the Speaking II course in the English Department of IKIP Padang. It was carried out in response to students' problems participating in English conversation and identifies both teacher and student involvement on the basis of the number and types of turns taken and the ways the teachers facilitate student participation. This study considers some ideas for improving speaking programs and related teaching methodology.

The subjects are one native speaking (NS) and one nonnative speaking (NNS) teacher and their 24 students in the English speaking classes. The data consists of transcripts of audio-video recordings, supplemented by observational notes, of class and group conversations. The transcripts were coded on the basis of a category system modified from Allwright (1988) and Van Lier (1988). The data was analysed using both quantitative and qualitative methods.

The results reveal that turn-taking practised in both classes shows some regularities of the types of turns frequently taken by the participants. The tempo of the exchanges was seemingly slow except when the topic being discussed

attracted the students' interest. Individual student participation was significantly higher in the group conversations and in the NS teacher's class conversation.

The NNS teacher allocated more of the class time for class and group conversations and also took more of the active turns. The NS teacher spent less of the time allocated for such activities and took less of the total active turns.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The focus of the study is turn-taking practice in the Speaking II classes at the English Department of the Institute of Teachers Training and Education (IKIP) Padang . This study was undertaken in response to the observed difficulty of students participating in English conversation and it is intended to contribute towards improvement of the existing speaking program.

#### A. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This part contains needs and problems in classroom language teaching, particularly English as foreign language (hereafter EFL), students' goals and the description and the implementation of the Speaking II program in the English Department, IKIP Padang.

##### 1. EFL Language Teaching: Needs and Problems

It has been widely accepted that the primary concern of classroom language teaching is to create a natural learning atmosphere in the classroom through communicative tasks in which students can obtain maximum practice in the target language. However, it seems clear that the classroom has not yet succeeded in providing students with the opportunities and skills they need to communicate.

One of the most serious problems in learning English as a foreign language is the fact that students have great difficulty in participating in an English conversation despite their linguistic knowledge. Although active participation of all students has been greatly promoted many of them are not able to initiate a turn and rather wait until they are addressed. As Dornyei and Thurrel (1999) state, even the best language learners often complain that they can not cope with communication difficulties when engaging in real life communication particularly with native speakers of the language.

The issue above is not surprising and many language researchers, such as Long and Sato (1983), Allwright and Bailey (1988), Van Lier (1988), Pattison (1989) and Nunan (1991), have focused their studies on this matter. According to them, students in fact have very little opportunity and have difficulty in using the target language. This situation is basically due to the failure to apply communicative principles to actual teaching practice (Gremmo and Carlton, 1985), particularly in nonnative teachers' classrooms in which their first language is usually used to overcome communicative difficulties. It is also true that teachers tend to control the class and consequently they tend to minimize students' contributions in conversation. Hence, this does not challenge their students to communicate in English and to participate actively.

Research shows that teacher domination in the classroom covers more than sixty percent of the total interaction, not only in terms of the talking time but also the

types of acts s/he performs. As Gremmo, Holec and Riley (1985) show in the results of their experiment in immigrant classrooms, and as is supported by Gaies (1985), the ratio of classroom talk between a teacher and students is 2:1 in which the teacher performs seven different acts (framing, performing, modelling, nominating, evaluating, correcting and informing), whilst, students do only two types of acts (practising and informing). This disproportionate amount of talking by the teacher results in students' limited opportunity to practice the target language in natural conversation.

In particular, this phenomenon is frequently found in the speaking class where the whole lesson is designed to develop students' conversational skills. Students' lack of opportunity to use the target language may result in their lack of ability to get involved in conversation and this may lead to their inability to express themselves orally in the target language.

Despite other factors, such as a lack of confidence and motivation, the lack of practice to take turns may be a major cause of the above problem. By looking at this problem it can be seen that turn-taking as a skill and as the most obvious pattern of participation (Edmonson, 1981; Yngve, in McLaughlin, 1988; and Markova, 1990) is important to consider in teaching.

Because any pedagogic decision must be made with the reference to students' needs, there is a basic need to develop effective partnerships between teachers

and students in the learning process (Nunan, 1988). As the students must be aware of their learning responsibility, i.e. to use the skills they learn, the teachers are responsible for facilitating learning opportunities that the students need to develop their speaking skills. Hence, the teachers are not always in the position of speakers, but are also in the position of good listeners who are able to encourage their students to become involved in real conversations either with them or with other students. As the students are highly exposed to such a communicative environment they are able to develop their linguistic skills as well as their conversational skills through practice. Hence, the more students initiate meaningful turns, the more likely it is that they will develop their conversational skills.

## **2. Language Goals in the English Department, IKIP Padang**

As English is an international language and the first foreign language used in Indonesia, the students' goal in studying English, in general, is to be able to communicate effectively in order to develop a future career. The English Department, in particular, aims to produce English teachers for high schools, as well as to fulfill staff requirement in other professions (IKIP Padang, 1992). Students are expected by virtue of their chosen profession to be effective users of English. Not only do they need the capability to teach linguistic rules but also to be able to use this target language for the demands of communicative teaching. Thus their levels of proficiency in speaking should be relatively high.

### **3. The Speaking II Program: Objectives and Implementation**

Speaking II is a three credit compulsory subject, running four hours a week for 16 weeks in the second semester of the year, from January to June. Unlike other similar institutions which run four prerequisite speaking courses, this department only offers two similar courses, that is, Speaking I and Speaking II. The aim of the courses is to develop students' speaking skills, including the ability to express their own meaning and to understand oral language both inside and outside the classroom (IKIP Padang, 1992). Considering its status as the last stage of the prerequisite speaking program, Speaking II should focus on developing students' communicative strategies as well as functional use of English by encouraging students' participation through various communicative activities.

Speaking II was run in 3 parallel classes in which each class consisted of 24 students and was taught by two teachers in different two-hour sessions during the week. The students were aged between 18 and 25 and were in the main students who graduated from general high schools.

The students' speaking skills were limited in meeting the minimum requirements of communication. They could only operate the formal rules within short utterances expressing simple needs, and were strongly influenced by their first language. Although they were capable of participating in short casual conversations, very few were able to initiate and maintain an exchange.

Despite the lack of practice available outside the classroom, there was limited exposure to real communication practice provided in the classroom. Speaking activities did not seem to incorporate communicative aspects of language teaching regardless of the promotion of various activities under the labels of conversation, role play, discussion, debate, drama and speech. Besides this, as seen in the basic course outline (see appendix), there was little variety in materials used, they were rather outdated and some were irrelevant and impractical for the students' communicative needs. Referring to Crawford's (1990) priority in managing classroom activities, that is, to use authentic and adapted materials, valid topics and realistic tasks, very few teachers followed this priority and encouraged their students to participate during the discourse. Hence, students lacked a defined strategy in using oral language although they had sufficient linguistic knowledge to do so.

## **B. RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study was carried out in an attempt to seek answers to major and minor questions. Since the target group was taught by both native (hereafter NS) and nonnative (hereafter NNS) speakers of English the minor questions deal with these teachers' classes.

### **1. Major Question:**

What is the quantity and types of turn-taking practised in the NNS/NNS and NS/NNS classrooms and how effective are they in developing students' speaking skills?

## **2. Minor Questions:**

**2.1** How much turn taking occurs between the participants during interactions in NNS/NNS classroom?

**2.2.** How much turn-taking occurs between the participants during interactions in NS/NNS classroom?

**2.3.** What are the types of turn-taking that occur between the participants during interactions in NNS/NNS classroom?

**2.4.** What are the types of turn-taking that occur between the participants during interactions in NS/NNS classroom?

**2.5.** How does the NNS teacher facilitate the students to take turns during interactions?

**2.6.** How does the NS teacher facilitate the students to take turns during interactions?

## **C. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of this study is to carry out an in-depth investigation and analysis of what exactly happens in the speaking class, particularly in terms of the teacher-students' involvement in turn-taking practice and in considering different ways of facilitating student participation.

## **D. KEY CONSTRUCTS**

### **1. Turn-taking**

The term of **turn-taking** used in this study is adapted from Edmondson (1981), Sacks, et al (in Coulthard, 1985), Bygate (1987), Yngve (in

Mclaughlin, 1988), Allwright (1988), Van Lier (1988), Markova (1990) and Nunan (1992). A turn refers to the combination of the role of a speaker and what s/he says and what s/he does at a particular point of time in a conversation. From the view point of the speaker's role, **turn-taking** is a part of one's communicative competence to manage a conversation as social routines and as the roles of participants (speaker and listener) change with little overlapping speech and few silences. Of the actions taken in interaction, **turn-taking** is the most salient characteristic of one's participation because it determines the changing roles of participants as one utterance follows another. Hence, **turn-taking** represents self-regulated initiatives of the teacher and students in their conversational interaction.

As far as the analysis is concerned, according to Markova (1990), **turn-taking** is a unit of discourse analysis which plays an essential role in structuring people's interaction in term of control and mechanism of conversation. However, referring to Nunan's (1992) distinction between discourse, interaction and conversation analyses, **turn-taking** in this study is a part of conversation analysis since the focus is on the social routines, rather than on linguistic matters, and the data was collected from naturalistic language samples.

## **2.Practice**

According to Ellis (1992), **practice** is the stage of activating the new knowledge of language to be used in real-life communication. He distinguishes



two types of practice: controlled and free practice. Controlled practice refers to mechanical and accurate production of a specific linguistic feature, whereas free practice deals with simulated communicative opportunities to use the language forms which have been mechanically practised.

### **3. Participation**

Allwright (1988) defines participation as a teacher's and students' observable participation or engagement to follow and contribute in turn taking during an interaction which is governed by certain rules and which potentially determines the success of a conversation. This includes non-verbal behaviors which are observable and have an effect on verbal behaviors. In this study the term participation is used interchangeably with involvement and initiation since they have the same meaning in this context.

### **4. Conversational Skills**

Conversational skills deal with the ability to communicate effectively by using verbal and nonverbal actions, i.e. the ability to initiate turns by speaking and reacting spontaneously and to maintain conversations by listening to the interlocutor and by negotiating meanings during an interaction in a social setting (Van Lier, 1988; Dornyei and Thurrel, 1992).

### **5. Classroom Conversational Activities**

In the study, this term is used to indicate oral communication tasks in a classroom designed to develop students' conversational skills. Since the

conversation itself is a highly organized activity (Dornyei and Thurrel, 1992) the tasks are mainly prepared by the teacher and involve teacher-student and student-student interactions.

#### **E. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The significance of the study lies in the fact that it describes turn-taking practice in the speaking classroom and reveals the degree of students' involvement in communication activities as well as the role of teachers in providing their students with the opportunity to practice English as the target language. The study explores the possibility of contributing some recommendations to improve the implementation of the existing Speaking program, particularly in the English Department of IKIP Padang Indonesia. A modified category system was employed for this study so that the model can also be used for relevant research in other teacher training institutions by both researchers and teachers.

#### **F. LIMITATION AND DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

This study focusses on the description and interpretation of turn-taking practice in the Speaking II subject. Regarding the complexity of turn-taking analysis this study was necessarily limited to only the investigation of turn-taking as 'social routines' (Nunan, 1992) in relation to the teacher and students initiatives during the interaction. Hence, there is no attempt to discuss turn-taking from the view point of discourse analysis.

The scope of the study is also confined to turn taking practice in class and group conversational activities, not other speaking activities (such as role-play, debate, simulation and games) that may need further consideration and investigation. Pair conversational activity was also excluded due to the recording difficulty of collecting such data in an actual classroom.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

This chapter presents a theoretical background from which this study was carried out and a theoretical framework from which data analysis and interpretation was designed.

#### **A. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

This section includes classroom-based studies, concepts of participation in classroom conversations, and turn-taking practice and its investigation.

##### **1. Classroom-based Studies**

The language classroom provides a wide range of phenomena that are worth investigating in an effort to provide successful language learning. The classroom is not only important for studying 'what is said' but is also a source of information on 'what is done' by a teacher and students (Van Lier, 1988). Although studies in second and foreign language acquisition have not yet succeeded in explaining how classroom interaction influences the language development, by analyzing what actually happens in the classroom a researcher can consider in what ways different types of classroom interaction involving the teacher and students contribute to students' language learning (Ellis, 1985). Hence, s/he may offer valuable solutions to students' difficulties in acquiring the language.

In an attempt to conduct a classroom study, observation and lesson recording provide an effective way to capture a real picture of the classroom. Although all instances of learning may not be observable, all observable behaviours manifested by the teacher and students in classroom activities can be analyzed (Van Lier, 1988) through a well-planned observation and recording system without disturbing the nature of the interaction. Nevertheless, in 50 classroom-oriented studies documented by Nunan (1992) only 15 actually took place in genuine classrooms, that is, in classrooms particularly designed for the teaching and learning process rather than for research purposes. This survey finding encourages more investigations in actual classroom where the learning process takes place, as strongly urged by Van Lier (1988); Allwright (1988) and Nunan (1992).

In analyzing features of classroom interaction most of the classroom-based studies use a quantitative approach. Allwright and Bailey (1991) report a number of correlational studies, such as Seliger (1983), Day (1984) and Slimani (1987) on students' involvement and learning achievement, Sato (1983) on interaction patterns and cultural traits, and Moss and Cornelli (1983) on interaction patterns and learners' knowledge. Ellis (1992) also discusses some studies with a similar approach, such as Naiman (1975), Ellis (1984) and Ely (1986) which particularly correlate language practice and students' proficiency. However, as these studies show conflicting results (in the continuum of significant and insignificant correlation), the use of quantitative techniques for the analysis needs reconsidering.

In order to study an interaction as a whole activity, a qualitative method which is supported by a quantitative method is better employed. This combination is important since the former 'provides the context of meanings' of the latter's findings (Alderson in Hartanto, 1993).

## **2. Participation in Classroom Conversations**

With regards to the variety of classroom interaction, conversation is among the most important types of interaction to investigate. As the most natural form of language exposure (Ellis, 1985) it provides various phenomena of language use in the classroom. Since all participants contribute to its outcome (Edmondson, 1981), it becomes a crucial point to study the degree of participants' involvement in their efforts to succeed in conversation as well as for the students to improve their speaking skills and for the teachers to improve their teaching.

The importance of participation in classroom conversation to the development of language learning is widely accepted both by teachers and language researchers, although some (like Ellis, 1992) criticize it as only beneficial for students with a high proficiency level. In talking about first language acquisition, Hatch (1978: 104) argues: 'One learns to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally, out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed'. Gaies (1985: 14) also supports this notion: 'the more verbally active learners are the more proficient they will become in understanding and producing speech'. Hence, participation at any level of students' proficiency is beneficial for their language development, particularly in developing speaking skills.

Considering the fact that the success of language learning is determined by collaboration of a teacher and students (Nunan, 1992), the study on class participation should include the two interacting parties, rather than being a study only of the students themselves. By observing and analyzing both the teacher's and students' behaviours in every structure of participation the researcher will gain a clear description of classroom participation.

According to Phillip (1972 in Van Lier, 1988) class participation is categorized in four basic structures: teacher with the whole class, teacher with a group of students, teacher with an individual student, and a student with other student(s) as a group. The interaction between the teacher and students as a whole class provides a wide opportunity to compete and initiate a turn resulting in chorus and individual responses. The teacher's interaction with a group of students, while the rest of the class do other tasks, gives more opportunity for the students to participate individually. Likewise, the interaction among the students enables the students to draw on their linguistic knowledge maximally to perform in conversation if they are provided with guidance. The teacher's interaction with an individual student provides the student with remedial help and encouragement to participate.

A number of factors influences one's participation and success in conversation. According to Van Lier (1988) and Allwright and Bailey (1991), they are turn distribution (who gets to speak), topic (subject matter to talk about), task (effort to use an opportunity to speak), tone (atmosphere of speaking) and language used

(including dialect and codes). In an EFL classroom, for example, these factors deal with a participant's ability to use English, to speak and to listen at the right time and on the topic during an interaction.

In meeting the five conditions above, a participant generally operates three units of discourse, i.e., turn, interactional move and interactional act (Edmonson, 1981). A turn is 'the most salient unit', dealing with a speaker's role, topic and action during an interaction, whereas, an interactional move, 'the smallest significant unit', is a means of moving a conversation between one turn and the next turn. Interactional act, 'the smallest identifiable unit', functions to keep a flow of conversation, using backchannels or signals, particularly when the participant is taking the part of a listener.

### **3. Turn-taking as Manifestation of One's Participation**

With regard to the factors and units of conversation above it is apparent that students' skills in turn-taking is of great importance in their successful participation in a conversation. Turn-taking is the most obvious feature of one's participation (Yngve in McLaughlin, 1988) since it covers major elements of participation. Bygate (1987) and Van Lier (1988) describe turn-taking as a complex skill, covering the ability to: 1) monitor the ongoing turn by listening to the current speaker, 2) determine the likely next speaker(s), 3) recognize the right moment to take a turn, 4) actively plan what to say when a turn is taken, 5)



use 'culturally appropriate ways' to compete and/or to signal to speak, 6) interpret intentions through action, 7) know how to let other speaker(s) take a turn and 8) use a turn appropriately.

Considering its importance and complexity in conversational activities, turn-taking strategies need to be taught, providing students with the skills they need to manage a conversation. For this purpose, a teacher should create a natural speaking environment to allow the students to experience using language rules and functions. A teacher can make use of various conversational activities to maximize the students' participation and hence to develop their speaking skills. Students can learn by experience when and what it is appropriate to speak, whom it is permissible to speak to, how and when to change the topic and how to invite other people to speak (Van Lier, 1988).

As turn-taking skills do not come automatically (Dornyei and Thurrel, 1992), students need ample opportunity to practice and to receive sufficient feedback from their teacher. Referring to Ellis' (1992) division of language practice, through sufficient practice exposures the students may gradually move from controlled-practice, focusing on drills and accurate use of language forms, to free-practice in which the students are able to use the forms they have mechanically practiced in relevant conversational situations. At the time of the exposures they develop their ability in turn-taking as they need to be aware of the rules of a conversation to succeed in communication.

In order to prepare effective conversation activities in a target language, Ellis' (1984 and 1988) environmental conditions necessary for success in a second language classroom are very important to consider. In the first stage, the activities must provide a significant amount of speech absorbed and turns made by the students. They should also reflect the needs of the students to communicate in the target language in and outside the classroom. Besides, they must offer the students ample opportunity to initiate and use a range of language functions that are meaningful for them and to express their ideas on the basis of their knowledge, regardless of the 'communicative intent'. The topic and interactive context of each activity should be relevant to the students' current needs to participate. Finally, the activities must employ a rich input in which both the teacher and students give sufficient feedback on their performances during the interaction to improve the students' communicative skills and for the teacher to improve his/her teaching.

To provide such ideal opportunities for the students to actively participate there is a need to anticipate problems that may occur during turn-taking by looking at its typical practice in an EFL classroom. According to Loscher (in Ellis, 1990) and McCarthy (1991), unlike general conversations turn-taking practice in this classroom discourse is very orderly and strictly regulated by a teacher. Van Lier (1988) and McCarthy describe it as a teacher predominant pattern of interaction since the teacher defines the roles of interacting parties. An obvious characteristic of the teacher talk is that the teacher addresses the students with questions (Ellis, 1990) and the students respond. McCarthy furthermore points out that the

patterns of initiation, response and feedback tend to be regular routines. That is, the teacher initiates a turn, the students respond and only the teacher gives feedback. Only one speaker speaks at a time except when a number say the same thing. The tempo of interaction is slow and the patterns of language used are rather simple and therefore there appears to be a lack of meaning negotiation. The students lack initiative due to limited opportunities to take roles as speakers and hence, do not develop the ability and confidence to take a turn even if they want and need to participate in the conversation.

Another problem that emerges in an EFL classroom discourse is a teacher's heavy correction of the students' oral performance. It is a fact that even in a speaking class the teacher tends to correct the students' accuracy rather than focus on their fluency. As Batram and Walton (1991) state, the students consequently lack confidence and worry about making mistakes.

In an attempt to overcome the problems above students' participation should be maximized although not necessarily by minimizing that of the teacher. Bygate (1987) suggests that both the teacher and students share equal opportunity, 'qualitatively and quantitatively', to initiate turns through cooperative tasks. On the one hand, these interacting parties should consider their roles and the right time to be a speaker and to be a listener. As the students struggle to use the language the teacher also helps them develop negotiation skills (Shaw and Bailey, 1990) to overcome communication breakdowns.

#### **4. Investigating Turn-taking Practice in a Speaking Class**

From recognition of the importance of turn-taking in developing students' speaking skills it follows that there is a significant need to investigate its practice in classroom conversational activities. Although studies in this particular area are still considered to be in a 'state of their infancy' (Allwright, 1988), due to the lack of attention received from both researchers and teachers, an investigation of turn-taking could contribute to the understanding of language teaching and learning. Unlike in general interactions, turn-taking in a language classroom can be clearly defined and analyzed when a fixed category system is used since it 'has a greater potential to identify every behavioral event that occurs' (Chaudron, 1988). Nunan (1989) points to the dangers inherent in investigating high inference behaviours and fuzzy concepts. However, this is not a problem, in the research reported here, because turn-taking is a 'low inference' behaviour. The analysis in this study is important in identifying the students' participation in a target language conversation in particular and in speaking activities in general, and in recognizing the teacher's efforts in helping the students develop their speaking skills.

As far as the studies on turn-taking are concerned, there are only two which extensively analyze turn-taking practice in actual target language classrooms, that is, Allwright (in Allwright, 1988 and Allwright and Bailey, 1991) and Van Lier (1988). They are, however, only pilot studies. It is only Van Lier who observes the whole class participation, whereas Allwright focuses on a single student. Both Allwright and Van Lier propose their own category system to identify

observable behaviours during a classroom interaction, as illustrated in the following citations.

#### 4.1. Allwright's Category System

##### 4.1.1. Turn getting

1. **Accept**     Respond to a personal solicit
2. **Steal**     Respond to a personal solicit made to another
3. **Take**     Respond to a general solicit (e.g. a question addressed to the whole class)
4. **Take**     Take an unsolicited turn, when a turn is available - 'discourse maintenance'
5. **Make**     Make an unsolicited turn, during the current speaker's turn, without intent to gain the floor (e.g. comments that indicate one is paying attention)
6. **Make**     Start a turn, during that of the current speaker, with intent to gain the flow (i.e. interrupt, make a takeover bid)
7. **Make**     Take a wholly private turn, at any point in the discourse (e.g. a private rehearsal, for pronunciation practice, of a word spoken by the teacher)
0. **Miss**     Fail to respond to a personal solicit, within whatever time is allowed by the interlocutor(s)

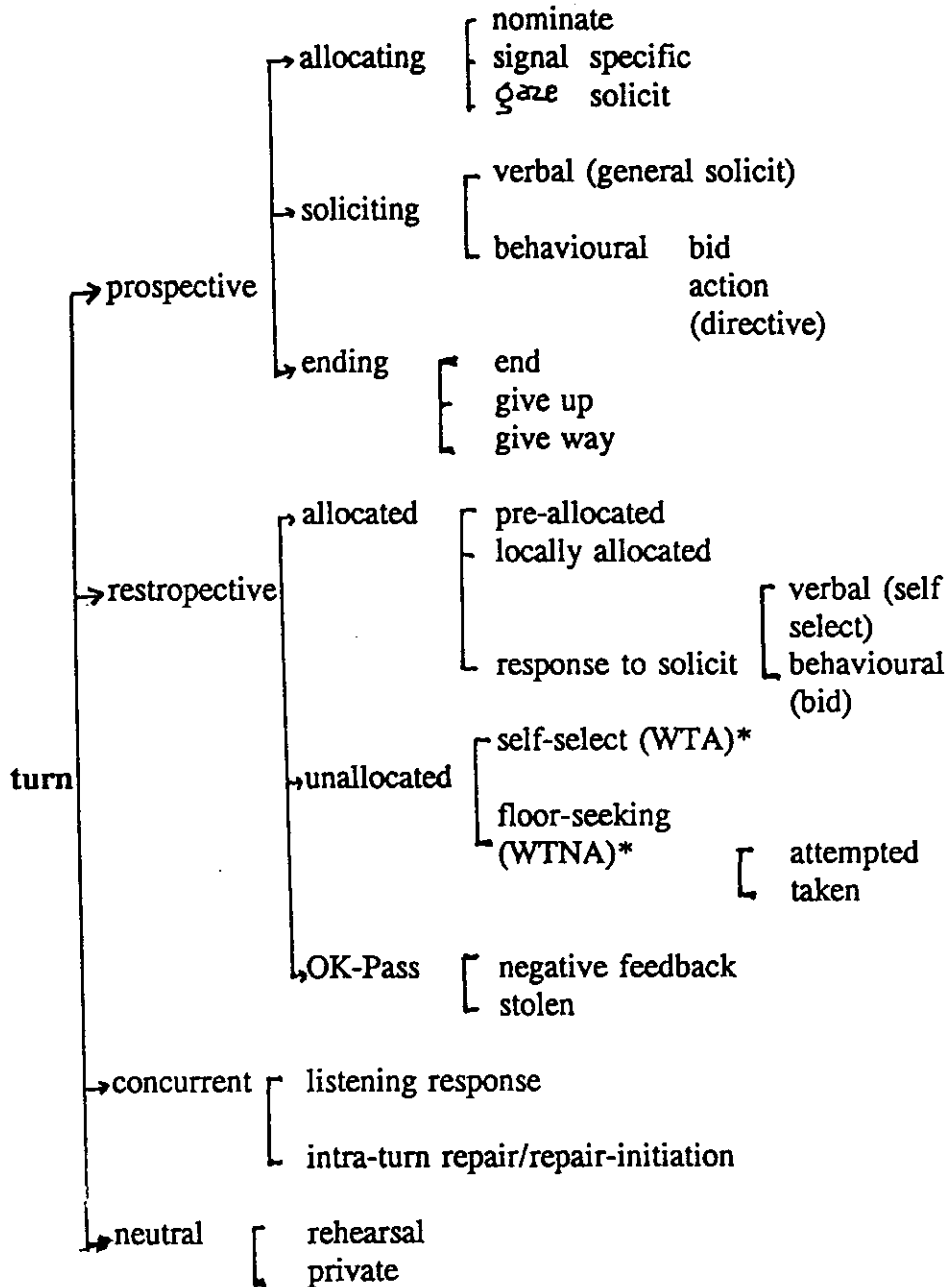
##### 4.1.2. Turn giving

- Fade out and/or give way to an interruption.
- 0     Make a turn available without making either a personal or a general solicit (e.g. by simply concluding one's utterance with the appropriate terminal intonation markers).

- P Make a personal solicit (i.e. nominate the next speaker).
- G Make a general solicit.

(cited from Allwright, 1988: 175-176)

#### 4.2. Van Lier's Category System



\* WTA = When Turn Available  
 WTNA = When Turn Not Available

(cited from Van Lier, 1988: 110)

## Explanations

- a). **Prospective** refers to the way the turn is linked to subsequent turn(s) by constraining content, or by delimiting the next speakership.
1. **Allocating:** specifying the next turn or turns by verbally nominating the next speaker (by giving a name, description or pronoun), signalling (pointing with finger, chin, arm, postural orientation) and/or by using eye gaze
  2. **Soliciting** specifying the content or activity without specifying the next speaker through verbal and/or non verbal action
  3. **Ending** 'ending a turn without implications for content or speakership of subsequent turn(s)'.
  4. **Giving up, or trailing** failing to complete the turn which may lead to completion by another speaker, or remain unfinished.
  5. **Giving way** stopping short before the projected completion to give way to competition due to interruption or simultaneous starts.
- b). **Restropective** deals with the way the turn is linked to previous turn(s) being allocated or pre-selected.
6. **Allocated** responding to a personal solicit determined by the previous turn or pre-allocated sequence
  7. **Unallocated** responding to a general solicit in which content or activity have been specified by the previous turn
  8. **Self-select** taking an unsolicited turn when the turn is available
  9. **Floor-seeking (WTNA)** taking a turn during that of the current speaker self-selecting with intent to gain floor, excluding a slightly overlapped turn when the prior turn is about to finish.
  10. **Negative feedback** negative attempt to take over the floor (this has potential to cut the turn short but this does not necessarily happen).
  11. **Stolen** taking an allocated turn (made to another) in order to gain the floor, not to help or to complete the turn.
  12. **OK-pass** taking a 'freely made' (allocated or unallocated) turn upon the conclusion of a previous turn

c) **Concurrent** 'a turn that is taken during a current turn which is related to that turn in a servicing sense'

**13. Listening responses and intra-turn repair/repair initiation**

verbal and nonverbal responses that occur during a current turn in a 'subservient capacity' to show approval, attention, encouragement or understanding. These include guidance to formulate a turn. They are more culturally specific than other types of turns and greatly influence the success of a current turn.

d) **Neutral** indetermined turn which does not have relation to its surrounding turns.

**14. Private & Rehearsal** taking a turn as a comment on other turn(s) or for personal trial purposes.

As seen above, both types of turn-taking categories avoid the distinction between teacher's and students' behaviours to provide a clear description of class participation. They mainly cover the same areas regardless of the different terms they use. Some differences appear on the basis of thoroughness of explanation and the practicality of the categories for coding to obtain data quantification of turn-taking practice.

Allwright fails to make clear each category, including nonverbal behaviours, although he claims that his categories cover both types of observable behaviours. Allwright also does not include turn types such as 'help', indicating initiation to help, 'giving up', referring to a failure to complete a turn and 'short stop', regaining or checking listener's attention in a current turn. On the other hand, Van Lier's system provides a clear description of each category and covers



almost the whole pattern of verbal and nonverbal behaviours. However, he does not include two significant types of turns, that is, a category to indicate a speaker's inability to respond to a solicit and a category to show an unidentified turn when the turn is unrecognizable due to simultaneous starts. Van Lier's type of 'giving way' does not explain clearly whether or not the turn is completed after an interruption or simultaneous start (hence there is a need to regain participants' attention) and whether the interruption is made by more than one participant.

Regarding the coding practicality and terms used, Allwright's categories are seemingly simple and clear but rather vague with the use of similar words, such as 'make' and 'take' for different types of turns and therefore are not practical for coding. Likewise, some of Van Lier's terms are rather complicated and ambiguous, such as OK-Pass, intra-turn repair/repair initiation and his system also needs modifying for coding purposes.

## **B. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

This section presents a theoretical framework which was devised from the previous literature review to analyze and interpret data obtained in the study of turn-taking practice in the Speaking II classrooms.

### **1. Modifying Turn-taking Category Systems**

As mentioned previously, in order to analyze teacher and students' participation in a classroom discourse a fixed category model needs employing from which