

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

The term pragmatics was generated from the philosophical writings. In the past, pragmatics was studied as a branch of semiotics. The area of pragmatics today is much more specific. Now, it is treated as a separate discipline that helps us to understand linguistic communication.

Pragmatics has grown so much that it is very difficult to define it in a single paragraph. Pragmatics is the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker and interpreted by a listener. So, it is concerned with the analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the words or phrases might mean by themselves.

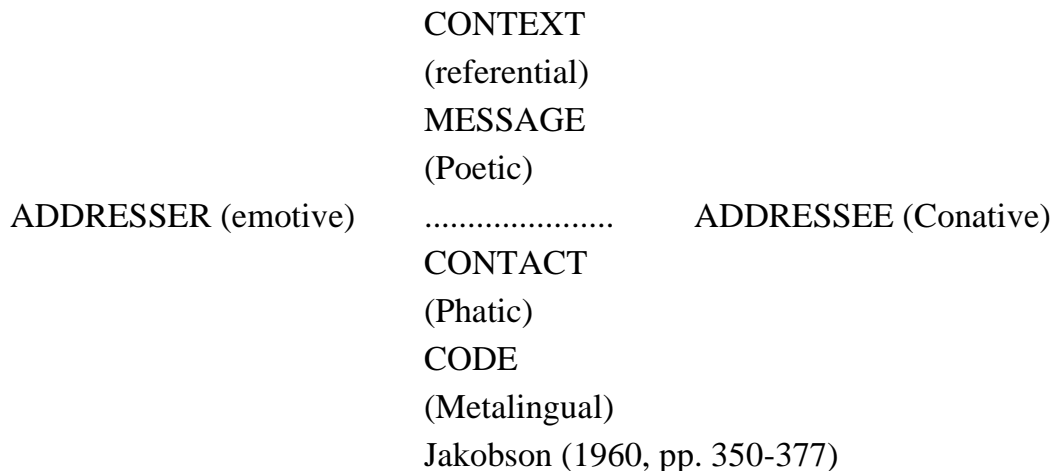
Pragmatics studies the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context and how the context influences what is said. It studies how speakers organize what they want to say in accordance with who they are talking to, where, when and under what circumstances. So, pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning. It also studies how listeners can interpret the speaker's intended meaning. This type of study explores the invisible meaning of the utterance. That is, it is the study of how much gets communicated than said.

This perspective then raises the question of what determines the choice between the said and unsaid. The basic answer is tied to the notion of distance. The speakers determine how much need to be said on the assumption of how close or distant the listener is. Thus, pragmatics is the study of the expression of relative distance.

Interest in pragmatics among linguists has grown recently. But the interest in it is ever growing so rapidly. Levinson (1994) points out two reasons for this growing interest in pragmatics: historical and general.

The historical reason for growing interest in pragmatics is a reaction or antidote to Chomsky's treatment of language as an abstract device, or mental ability, dissociable from the uses, users and function of language. Chomsky brought a revolution in the field of syntax with his transformational theory but did not think study of meaning (use of language) to be worthy of contemplation. Generative semantics realized and showed the importance of language use in understanding language in general and communication in particular. Once the landscape was set by the linguists, pragmatics soon took on a life of its own.

Besides historical reason for growing interest in pragmatics there were some general motivations for the development of pragmatics. Since pragmatics studies language use, it is possible that it can offer functional explanation to linguistic facts. Linguists have tried to classify language functions from different angles. Jakobson (1960) has classified them on the basis of the communication components, which are six in number: referential function focuses on the content, emotive function focuses on the speaker's psychological state, conative function focuses on speaker's wishes that the addressee would perform some act, metalinguistic function focuses on the code being used, the phatic function focuses on the channel and the poetic function focuses on the way in which the message is encoded. The following diagram shows how they are related to the components of communication.



In the diagram above the words in capital letters represent the communication components and the words in small letter represent the functions related to these components.

This classification might not be very useful for pragmaticians. However, it reveals the fact that a piece of communication without these components is not possible. And we should take account of these components if we want to have effective communication.

1.1.1 Language and Communication

Language is the system of human communication which consists of structured arrangement of sounds for their written representation into larger units e.g. morphemes, words, phrases, sentences, utterances etc (Richards et al., 1999, p. 196). Crystal (2003, p. 255) writes "language at its most specific level refers to the concrete act of speaking writing or singing in a given situation - the notion of a parole or performance ... a particular variety or level of speaking /writing may, also be referred to as language". Likewise, Hornby (2003, p. 721) defines it as "the system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular country".

Language is a set of structurally related element for encoding and decoding of the message. It is also a voluntary vocal system of human communication. It is the most widely used means of communication which is common to all and only human beings. It is the unique gift that helps to share ideas, feelings, thoughts, desires, emotions, experience among human beings. Every human being possesses at least one language in order to make a purposeful communication with other people. So it is an inseparable part of human communication.

1.1.2 Communication

Communication is a process of transmitting and interchanging ideas, thoughts, information etc. from one person to another or from one place to another place. In other words, by communication, we mean the exchange of ideas, information, etc. between two or more persons in a community. In course of communication, a speaker or sender or addressor transmits the message to a person who receives it. Communication has two medium or systems: verbal or oral and non-verbal or written. Oral communication system includes personal talking, telephone, dialogue, radio, etc. and written system includes newspapers, magazines, posters, books, telegrams, letters, etc.

Communication is defined by different linguists differently. Gamble and Gamble (1989) define it as "the process of sharing meaning, our link to the rest of humanity". The above definition of communication reveals that communication is a process of sharing ideas, feelings, messages and make the link between people in the community.

Similarly, Richards et al. (1985, p. 109) defined communication as

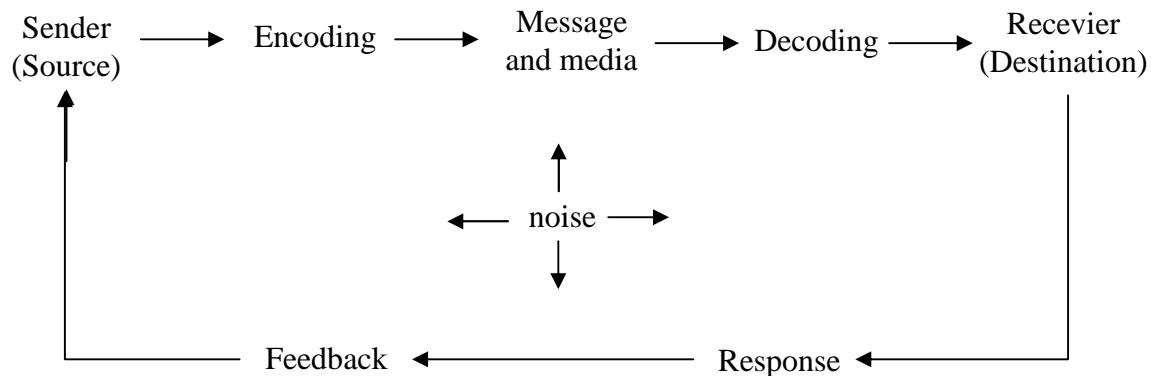
... the exchange of ideas, information, etc. between two or more persons. In an act of communication, there is usually at least one speaker or sender, a message which is transmitted, and a person or persons for whom this message is intended (the receiver). The study of communication is central to sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and information theory.

Thus, communication is the art of sending information, ideas and attitudes from one person to another. In other words, we can say that communication is the

means of transmitting ideas, feelings, emotions and messages or information from the sender to the receiver.

1.1.3 Communication Process or System

Any communication process includes the four main aspects viz. communicator, message, channel and audience. Nine key elements, should be considered to operate the communication process in a systematic way (Gamble and Gamble, 1989). Communication process can not be efficient and effective if any one element is not considered. A model or pattern of communication process is as follows:



(Shannon's (1948) a model of the communication process)

Elements of communication process are as follows:

- i. Sender : Transmits the message to the receiver.
- ii. Encoding : The process of turning a message into a set of symbols, as part of the act of communication.
- iii. Message: Information the sender wishes his audience to receive.
- iv. Communication channels or Media : Medium through which the communicator transmits his message to his audience.
- v. Decoding : The process of trying to understand, interpret or describe the meaning of a word, phrase or sentence.

- vi. Receiver/Audience: Consumer of the message sent by the communication.
- vii. Response : The behaviour which is produced as a reaction to receive message by the receiver.
- viii. Feedback: Any information which provides a report on the result of behaviour.
- ix. Noise: Any disturbance or defect which interferes with transmission of the message from one person to another.

1.1.4 Communicative Competence

Hymes (1972), the American sociologist, coined the term "communicative competence". It is that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts. Hymes was convinced that Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence was too limited which did not account sufficiently, for the social and functional rules of language. Hyme's theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. In Hyme's view, a person acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use.

Bachman's (1990, p.84), model of communicative competence deals with 'communicative language ability'. According to him, communicative competence involves psychological processing while producing communicative units. He calls it 'language competence' which includes organizational and pragmatic competence where organizational competence includes grammatical and textual competence and pragmatic competence includes illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence.

Communicative competence is related to one's performance in the communication. Performance in language means the engagement of an individual, "whether habitually or occasionally" in a particular kind behavior. According to Hudson (1980), communicative competence is "knowledge needed by a speaker or hearer,

but is much more broadly based than the 'linguistic competence' of Chomskyan linguistics" (p. 219).

Thus, there are a number of definitions regarding communicative competence. Besides, a number of ways of classifications have been presented by several scholars.

Communicative competence is the knowledge that enables a person to communicate functionally and interactively. The term "communicative competence" is sometimes used to describe the ability that when-somebody learns language, s/he learns how to use it in order to do certain things that people do with the language.

According to Saville-Troike (1996, p.363)

Communicative competence extends to both knowledge and expectation of who may or may not speak in certain setting, when to speak and when to remain silent, whom one may speak to, how one may talk to persons of different statuses and rules, what non-verbal behaviours are appropriate in various contexts, what the routines for turn taking are in conversation, how to ask for and give information, how to request, how to offer or decline assistance or co-operation, how to give commands, how to enforce discipline and the like in short everything the use of languages and other communicative dimensions in particular social setting (as cited in Karki, 2006, p.3).

1.1.5 Ethnography of Speaking

Speech is used in different ways among different groups of people. Each group has its own norms of linguistic behavior. For example, particular group may not encourage talking for the sake of talking. And members of such a group may appear to be quite taciturn to outsiders who talk, or they feel overwhelmed by demands made on them. If they are encouraged to the extent that it may even appear to be quite disorderly to an observer who has internalized a different set of 'rules'.

Hymes (1974) has proposed an ethnographic framework, which takes into account the various factors involved in 'SPEAKING'. They are as follows:

1.1.5.1 Setting and Scene (S)

Setting refers to the time and place, i.e. the concrete physical circumstances in which speech takes place (Wardhugh, 2008, p. 247). Scene, on the other hand, refers to the abstract psychological setting, or cultural definition of the occasion.

1.1.5.2 Participants (P)

It includes the various combinations of speaker or listener, addressor, addressee or sender-receiver. The participants generally fill certain socially specified roles. A conversation involves a speaker and hearer whose roles change; a 'dressing down' involves a speaker and hearer with no role change, a political speech involves a speaker and receiver. Hymes (1974, p. 366) emphasizes on the characteristics of those present and their relationship in terms of sex, age, social status, role and role relationship (e.g. mother-daughter, teacher-pupil).

1.1.5.3 Ends (E)

Ends refer to the goal or purpose and outcome of the communication. Some goals have conventional outcomes and some have not. Individual goals in a piece of conversation are very important because it happens in the real life.

1.1.5.4 Act sequence (A)

It refers to the actual form and content of what is said; the precise words used, how they are used, and the relationship of what is said to the actual topic at hand (Wardhaugh 2008, p. 248). This is one aspect of speaking in which linguists have long shown an interest, particularly those who study discourse and conversations.

1.1.5.5 Key (K)

According to Wardhaugh (2008), it refers to the tone, manner or spirit in which a particular message is conveyed. The type of such tone might be serious, light hearted, precise, pedantic, mocking, sarcastic, pompous, and so on.

1.1.5.6 Instrumentalities (I)

It refers to the choice of channel e.g. oral, written, or telegraphic, and to the actual forms of speech employed, such as the language, dialect, code, or register that is chosen, for example, legal language, formal, written, or else. The way one chooses the channel of communication is dependent upon the context and the interlocutors.

1.1.5.7 Norms of Interaction and Interpretation (N)

It refers to the specific behaviours and properties that attach to speaking and also to how these may be viewed by someone who does not share them, e.g. loudness, silence, gaze return, and so on. For example, there are certain norms of interaction with regards to church services and conversing with strangers.

1.1.5.8 Genre (G)

This, the final term, refers to the clearly demarcated types of utterances, such thing as poems, proverbs, riddles, sermons, prayers, lectures and editorials. These are all marked in specific ways in contrast to casual speech.

The components of Hymes are the basic characteristics of ethnography of speaking. One when involved in communication is adopting these features. The English language while, used to communicate, like other language, also bears these features.

1.1.6 Conversation Analysis

Conversation is simply a talk which needs at least a speaker and a hearer, where the speaker speaks and the hearer responds accordingly and vice-versa. To be a good and fruitful conversation, there should be equal participation of the speaker and respondents regularly which takes place turn by turn.

According to Yule, 'Conversation is like a dance with the conversational patterns co-ordinating their movements smoothly ' (2000, p.7)

In this regard, Paul (1999)

Conversational analysis is the study of talk in interaction. It generally attempts to describe the orderliness, structure and sequential patterns of interaction, whether this is institution or casual conversation. It is a disciplined way of studying the local organization of interaction episodes; its unique methodological practice has enabled its parishioners to produce a mass of insights into the detailed procedural fountains of everyday life.

Thus, conversational analysis is the study of talk in interaction. It tries to describe structure and patterns of interaction.

Speech can be both planned and unplanned. We can see a lot of speech has certain amount of planning in it. It may not be all thought out and carefully planned, but parts of it may be pre-planned to a greater or lesser extent. For example, welcoming speech of a visiting head of state.

Unplanned speech is the talk which is not thought out prior to its expression. Unplanned speech has certain characteristics: repetition, simple action sentences, speaker and listener combining to construct propositions, stringing of clauses together with 'and' or 'but' or the juxtapositioning of clauses with no overt links at all, deletion of subjects and referents and use of deictics e.g. words such as this, 'that', 'here', and 'these'.

Conversation analysis consists of various components (Levinson, 1994, p. 107-83), which are opening, turn taking, adjacency pairs, timing, move, topic and closing. If we observe a piece of conversation we will surely come across these components.

1.1.6.1 Opening

Opening is the beginning of the conversation. It generally involves an exchange of greeting. Schegloff (1968) studied the opening of telephone conversations. A telephone conversation may involve an exchange of 'hello': a meeting between strangers might require an exchange of 'How do you do' followed by some kind of self-identification; a meeting between intimate acquaintances who spend much time together may have its own special ritualistic beginning. The opening of the conversation is highly influenced by cultural setting: how to answer a telephone varies from group to group: greeting exchanges involving the use of names or address terms vary enormously. Who speaks first, what a suitable reply is, and

even what variety of language employed may also be tightly constrained by circumstances. In Japan, it is the caller who speaks first on the telephone, and in doing so, identifies himself or herself. In Netherlands and Sweden (Lindstrom, 1994) people usually answer the telephone by identifying themselves. In France, a telephone call is an intrusion, so the caller feels some obligation to verify the number, identify himself and be excused for intruding (Godard, 1977).

1.1.6.2 Adjacency Pair

Adjacency pair is another important component of conversation. It is a set of two adjacently positioned utterances uttered by different speakers, which are closely related to each other in a specific way. The examples could be: greeting leads to a return of greeting; a summon leads to a response; a question leads to an answer; a request or offer leads to an acceptance or refusal; a complaint leads to an apology or some kind of rejection; a compliment leads to acceptance or rejection; a farewell leads to a farewell and so on. This basic pairing relationship provides the possibilities of both continuity and exchange because it enables both the parties to say something. It also allows for options in the second member of each pair and for a kind of chaining effect. A question can lead to an answer, which may lead to a comment, which can lead to an acknowledgement, and so on. Similarly, the ring of a telephone (summons) can lead to a response (hello) with the rising intonation of a question which thus requires an answer, and so on.

There is actually some controversy over whether there is such a basic two part exchange. Another view holds that a basic 'exchange' has three parts: 'initiation', 'response' and 'feedback'. In this view unless some form of feedback occurs the total exchange is incomplete (Stubbs, 1983). Tsui (1989) also argues for such a three part exchange in which a following move of some kind closes out the sequence: 'a potentially three part exchange, which may contain nonverbal

component parts, is more adequate than an adjacency pair as a basic unit of conversational organization' (p. 561).

1.1.6.3 Turns and Turn Taking

In a conversation, there are two or more participants conversing to each other. Therefore, conversation is a co-operative activity. There must be some principles which govern who speak, i.e., principles of turn taking. Turn taking refers to the turn of the participants to speak in a conversation. Turn taking in conversation is much more complex than it might appear because we engage in it so easily and skillfully. Utterances usually do not overlap other utterances, and the gap between utterances are sometimes measurable in micro-second and on average are only a few tenth of a second. Turn taking also applies in a variety of circumstances: between as few as two participants and upward of a score; on the telephone as well as in face to face interaction; and regardless of the length of particular utterances or how many people want to take a turn. It is just like some systems of 'traffic rules' which we are aware of since we manage the taking of turns so well. It is very rare indeed to see turn taking spelled out in advance, e.g., in ceremonials or formal debates in which turns are pre-allocated. Ordinary conversation employs no such pre-allocation. The participants just 'naturally' take turns.

There are also certain linguistic and other signals that go with turn taking. Speakers may signal when they are about to give up a turn in any one of several ways, or by some combination (Duncan, 1972, 1974). The final syllable or final stressed syllable of an utterance may be prolonged. The pitch level of voice may signal closure. For example, by dropping in level on the final syllable. There are some words or expressions that indicate a turning point in a piece of conversation, such as 'you know' or 'something'. Similarly the body itself such as relaxing of postures, a gesture with hand or directing one's gaze at the listener signal completion and allow to take turn. They signal what has been called a 'transition

relevant place'. We must be alert to such places if we want to take a turn. Of course, such places also offer the speaker the opportunity to select the next speakers. When several listeners are present, a speaker may attempt to address the cues to a specific listener so as to select that listener as next speaker. Speaking is not always a matter of self-selection, sometimes a specific person is clearly being called upon to speak, even on the most informal of occasions. Sometimes, when there is no such selection, there is often an embarrassing pause and since conversationalists (certainly English conversationalists) abhor silence, someone will usually try to take up the turn as soon as possible.

1.1.6.4 Topic

Once a conversation has been initiated and the opening forms have been exchanged, it will be necessary to establish a topic or topics on which to talk. One party may have something he or she wishes to convey to, or discuss with the other. In one sense, the topic is obviously the thing that is talked about, but each of the talkers may have quite different views from the others concerning exactly what was talked about. Moreover, since parts of some conversations and sometimes the whole of the others may be mainly phatic in intent, what exactly was talked about may be less important than the fact that talk itself occurred. It is also often possible to give a better account of what topics were discussed after a conversation than during it because topics work themselves out in the process of talking. It is very rare indeed, usually only on very special and, therefore, highly marked occasions, that speakers and listeners work systematically through a topic. What they are much more likely to do is talk topically, and in doing so exhibit a considerable degree of tolerance for unclarity, ambiguity, inexplicitness, and even incoherence in the expectation that all, or at least those parts that are necessary for proper understanding, will eventually be revealed. Since topics in conversation are usually not well-defined, they may be fairly easily changed. One topic exhausts itself so a new one is introduced.

1.1.6.5 Pre-closing

All topics have been exhausted and noting more remains to be said, but it is not quite the time to exchange farewells. It is into such places that you fit pre-closing signals which serve to negotiate the actual closing. Such signals can involve an expression like 'well, I think that's all' or a brief, deliberate summary of some earliest agreement, or a personal exchange like 'give my regards to your wife', or they may take the form of gesture or a physical movement such as rising from a chair or adjusting your posture in some way. Such signals indicate that the conversation is being closed with final closure waiting only for a ritual exchange.

1.1.6.6 Closing

Actual closing may involve several steps: The closing down of a topic, e.g. 'so that's agreed', or 'one o'clock, then' repeated by the other party or acknowledged in some form. Then interlocutors possibly use some kind of pre-closing exchange, e.g. 'okay-okay'. Then they possibly use further acknowledgment of the nature of the exchange, e.g. 'good to see you', 'Thanks again' or 'see you soon', and finally an exchange of farewells, e.g. 'bye-bye'. The following is an example of such closing:

- A: So, that's agreed?
B: Yes, agreed.
A: Good, I knew you would.
B: Yes, no problem really.
A: Thanks for the help.
B: Don't mention it
A: Okay, I'll be back soon.
B: Okay, then, bye. Take care.
A: Bye.

(Source: Wardhaugh, 1998, p. 304).

1.1.6.7 Pause, Overlaps and Backchannels

Any conversation consists of two or more participants in which only one participant speaks one at a time. Smooth transitions from one speaker to the next is very important in the conversation. It is felt to be awkward, if there is transition with a long silence between turns or with substantial overlap (i.e., both speakers trying to speak at the same time). When two are having conversation and discover that there is not flow or smooth transition from one speaker to the next, then it is being more communicated than said. There is a sense of distance, an absence of familiarity or ease, as in the interaction shown in the example [1] between a student and his friend's father during their first meeting:

[1] Mr. Strait: What's your major Dave?

Dave: English - Well I haven't really decided yet.

(3 seconds)

Mr. Strait: So - You want to be a teacher ?

Dave: No- not really - well not if I can help it.

(2.5 Seconds)

Mr. Strait: Wha- //where do you- go ahead.

Dave: I mean it's a - oh sorry // I em -

(Source: Yule, 1996)

In the above example, very short pauses are simply hesitations, which are marked by a dash but longer pauses become silences. The silences in [1] are not attributable to either speaker because each has completed a turn. If one speaker actually gives the floor to another and the other does not speak, then the silence is attributed to the second speaker and becomes significant. It is an attributable silence. As shown in example [2], the non-response of Dave is treated, by his girlfriend, as possibly communicating something.

[2] Jan: Dave I'm going to the store.

(2 seconds)

Jan: Dave?

(2 seconds)

Jan: Dave- is something wrong?

Dave: What? What's wrong?

Jan: Never mind.

(Source: Yule, 1996)

Overlap is more problematic for the local management system than silence at transition relevance place (TRP). As shown in the example [1], the final two lines illustrate overlaps which are marked by a double slash (/). The first overlap occurs because both speakers try to initiate talk together. In accordance with the local management system, one speaker will stop to allow the other to have the floor. However, for two speakers who are having difficulty getting into a shared conversational rhythm, the stop-start-overlap-stop pattern may be repeated (Yule, 1996).

The type of overlap shown in [1] is simply part of a difficult first conversation with an unfamiliar person. There are other kinds of overlap and they are interpreted differently. For many (often younger) speakers, overlapped talk appears to function like an expression of solidarity or closeness in expressing similar opinions or values. As shown in the example [3], the effect of the overlapping talk creates a feeling of two voices collaborating as one, in harmony.

[3] Min : Did you see him in the video ?

Wendy: Yeah – the part on the beach

Min: Oh my god// He was so sexy.

Wendy: He was just being so cool.

Min: And all the waves // crashing around him!

Wendy: Yeah, that was really wild!

In example [3], overlap communicates closeness. In the example [4], overlap communicates competition.

[4] Joe: When they were in
//power las - wait CAN I FINISH?
Jerry: That's my point I said -

In example [4], the speakers are competing for the floor. Here the overlap is treated as an interruption and the first speaker actually has to make a comment about procedure (with a louder voice, shown by the capital letters in CAN I FINISH ?) rather than about the topic of conversation.

Each speaker is expected to wait until the current speaker reaches at TRP. The most obvious markers of TRP are the end of structural unit (a phrase or clause) and a pause. Notice that, in [4], the first speaker has uttered 'when they were in' at the point where the second speaker begins to talk. There is no pause and it is not the end of a phrase or clause. This is a clear interruption and breaks the 'rules'.

Normally, those who wish to get the floor will wait for a possible TRP before jumping in. And, those holding the floor in a competitive environment will avoid providing TRPs. To do so, they must avoid an open pause at the end of a syntactic unit. As illustrated in the example [5], the speaker fills each of his pauses ('um' or 'uh'), which are placed inside, not at the end of, syntactic units. (Just prior to this turn, another speaker had attempted to take the floor, so the speaker in [5] seems concerned to protect his turn.)

[5] I wasn't talking about-um his first book that was - uh really just like a start and so-uh isn't - doesn't count really.

Another type of floor-holding device is to indicate that there is a larger structure to your turn by beginning with expressions of the following type shown in [6].

- [6] a - There are three points I'd like to make - first ...
b - there's more than one way to do this - one example would be ...
c - Didn't you know about Melvin? - Oh it was last October.
d - Did you hear about Cindy's new car? - She got it in ...

The expressions in [6a] and [6b] indicate that the speaker is expressing his own opinions whereas those in [6c] and [6d] indicate that the speaker is telling story. In all cases, they are used to get the regular exchange of turn process suspended and allow one speaker to have an extended turn. Within extended turn, however, speakers still expect their conversational partners to indicate that they are listening. There are many different ways of doing this, including head nods, smiles, and other facial expressions and gestures, but the most common vocal indications are called backchannel signals, or simply backchannels. Some of these are present in Mary's contributions as below:

- [7] Caller: if you use your long distance service a lot then you'll
Mary: uh-uh
Caller: be interested in the discount I'm talking about because
Mary: Yeah
Caller: it can only save you money to switch to a cheaper service
Mary: mmm
(Source: Yule, 1996)

These types of signals ('uh - uh' 'yeah', mmm') provide feedback to the current speaker that the message is being received. They normally indicate that the listener is following, and not objecting to, what the speaker is saying. During telephone conversation, the absence of backchannels may prompt the speaker to ask if the listener is still there. During face to face interaction, the absence of backchannels may be interpreted as a way of withholding agreement, leading to an inference of disagreement. In conversation, silence is significant and will be interpreted as meaningful.

1.1.7 Back-channeling

The term 'backchannel' was first used by Victor Yngve in 1970. In a conversation, the person who has the turn and his partner are simultaneously engaged in both speaking and listening. This is because of the existence of what he calls the *back-channel*, over which the person, who has the turn receives short messages such as 'yes' and 'uh-huh' without allowing the turn.

Back-channel refers to feedback or response from the listeners in a conversation. In English, typical expressions used in backchannel feedback include *yeah, uh-huh, right* and *okay*. Backchannel feedback is pervasive in conversations in English. During the face to face interactions, listeners use backchannel feedback such as head-nods as a signal to speaker that the communication is working and that they should continue speaking. Backchannel plays an important role in communicating listener's intentions while the other person has the turn or other is talking. The communicative intentions behind backchannel not only transmit message like 'I am listening' and 'I am with you' but also transmit listener's affective state like excited, bored, confused, surprised and so on.

Many researchers have considered *back-channel* feedback along with other turn taking phenomena. Researchers have special interest in it as being the phenomenon of social interaction in general. In particular, there is the mastery of how 'coordination' is achieved - when two people are talking together, their utterances seldom interfere with each other, despite the lack of any fixed system for who may speak when.

Ward and Tsukahara (2000) have provided the following working definition of backchannel feedback:

Definition 1: It responds directly to the content of an utterance of the other,

Definition 2: It is optional, and

Definition 3: It does not require acknowledgement by the other.

The three clauses of the definition serve to distinguish *back-channel* feedback from some closely related phenomena: D1 rules out 'post-completion', vocalization, produced by the speaker who has just produced an utterance, for example, 'uu'. D1 also rules out feedback which occurs several seconds after the speaker's utterance, seemingly reflecting the result of some cogitation. D2 rules out responses to questions. D3 rules out most questions, including request for clarification, such as huh? D3 also rules out feedback sounds which segue without pause into full-fledged utterances.

1.1.8 Properties of Back-channel Feedback

Back-channel feedback indicates that listener is paying attention, understanding or showing agreement to the speaker. It can also indicate the words expressing degree of agreement, words of judgment and words of sympathy and approval. It is generally agreed that such expressions are sometimes called assessments' and 'continuers'. On the other hand, there are cases of *back-channel* feedback that do less. Not all signal attention, some signal boredom, not all signal agreement, some signal skepticism, not all signal understanding, often because there is nothing to understand, as in cases of disfluences. Indeed, they seem to relate mostly to upcoming transmission of information, rather than to a previous transmission; serving to indicate that the "channel is open" or as an invitation to "please continue".

Back-channel feedback often consists of characteristics of lexical items, such as *uh-huh* in English. However, there is great variation in the words and phrases used in it, and infinitely many possible non-lexical vocalizations. There are even cases of laughter, cough, and sniffs which seem to function in the same way as other cases of it. Thus, it does not seem wise to define it as a set of lexical items.

Most *back-channel* feedback is short, but extreme shortness is not always required. It may also be long, which often results in overlapping talk and often

express enthusiasm. It is sometimes defined as those utterances which "do not take the floor" and/or "are not full turns". The intuition behind these phrasing is captured in clause D3, in so far as "requiring acknowledgment by the other" is characteristics of full turns. Conversely, if the speaker carries on talking then he is generally treating the listener's response as a *back-channel*. This is not necessary condition, of course; the speaker is free do what he wants. There are thus cases where listener produces something probably intended as a *back-channel*, but the speaker then falls silent, or even responds explicitly to it.

Most *back-channel* feedback seems to appear while the other "has the floor" or during the other's "turn" or "speakership" . However, these notions are too problematic to use in definitions. In particular, often these terms could not be applied in cases when both participants were talking simultaneously, and in cases where the speaker seems to have stopped and be waiting for the other to take a turn, but the respondent produced a 'perverse passive' *back-channel* as a modest way to refusing to take turn (Jefferson, 1984). Incidentally, those working with the notion of floor often consider requests for clarification and answers to questions to be *back-channel* feedback (Duncan and Fiske, 1985, Hayashi, 1996).

It is often characterized as serving to make the conversation go smoothly but this is not useful as a criterion for deciding whether a specific utterance is *back-channel* feedback or not. On the respondent's side, it is generally impossible to tell what any given instance of *back-channel* feedback is intended to mean or do, let alone relate that to something as nebulous as smooth conversation. And on the speaker's side, it is not generally possible to tell what, if any, effect any single contribution has. That is, it usually seems to have no immediate dialogue effect and even longer-term effects, such as encouraging the speaker to keep talking, are highly variable (Siegman, 1976). Also, it is occasionally the case that *back-channels* are produced which are almost certainly too quiet to be audible to the speaker.

Incidentally, we use the term '*back-channel* feedback because it is neutral with respect to discourse function. The terms "assessment", "acknowledgment", and "reactive token" highlight the relation of these items to the previous utterance, whereas terms like "continuer" highlight the relation of these items to upcoming utterances. But most instances seem to bear both functions: a backward- looking function and a forward -looking function. To avoid focusing on either function, we use the neutral term, *back-channel* feedback.

1.1.9 Back-channel Communication

In a conversation, participants use the items of talk such as 'yes', 'uh', 'huh', 'yeah', 'I see', 'good', 'oh', etc. Schegloff (1982, p. 77) used the term for such items is *back-channel* communication. Duncan and Fisk (1977, pp. 201-202) adopted the term backchannel communications for utterances such as 'uh', 'huh', 'yeah' etc but they included completions by a recipient of sentences begun by another, requests for clarification, brief restatement of something just said by another and head nods and shakes. These bits of talk are evidence of attention, interest and understanding on the listener's part and they also keep conversations going smoothly.

Jefferson (1984, p. 199) says "the items such as 'yeah' or 'yes', 'uh', 'huh' are as acknowledgment tokens". He believes that when there is overlapping in talk or shift in topic, the overlapping talk is acknowledged. According to him, 'yeah' or 'yes' are massively associated with typical shift, 'yeah' can exhibit a preparedness to shift from resiliency to speakership while 'mm' and 'hm' exhibit what he calls passive reciprocity. Passive reciprocity means that its user is proposing that his co-participant is still in the midst of some course of talk and shall go on talking.

According to Schegloff (1982, p. 81), the items such as 'uh', 'huh' function as continuers. The use of 'uh' or 'huh' etc. indicates that the listener is understanding the talk and allowing the speaker to continue the turn. It could also be a demonstration of an action with an underlying motive. Daniels (1994, p. 23) also

refers to items of talk such as 'uh', 'uhhh', 'yeah' as grumbled fragments of a private code. To him, human beings constantly range between formal and informal styles of speech and this is common to speakers of all languages. According to Daniel (1994, p.23), 'uh' etc could signify momentary confusion or embarrassment while 'oooh', 'that reminds' or 'oooh' I meant to tell you ..' could signal a change of topic. Chaika (1994, p. 485) in his work on discourse routines notes that the 'oooh' uttered rapidly on a high pitch with a tense throat is a warning that there is an announcement about topic change.

Schiffrin (1999, p. 275) writes 'oh' as a discourse marker and claims that one should be able to find out the semantic meaning or grammatical status of any discourse marker and how the meaning influences the interpretation of the data. Backchannel items in discourse are very important. These items are only limited to conversation in a sense that they do not have meaning in conventional dictionary, but these *Back-channel* items give information about the attitude of listeners to what they hear.

Andersen and Fretheim (2000, p. 273) also see *back-channel* items as attitudinal markers in different languages. To them, interlocutors express different attitudes to interactive discourse and propositions. A speaker can express an attitude of desire, hope, believe, grief, doubt, fear, regret, pretence, satisfaction etc in any given proposition using attitudinal markers. So, these seemingly insignificant discourse items are very important in speech and they help in both semantics and linguistic interpretation of utterances.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

A number of research studies related to backchannel responses in conversation have been carried out and some of them are as follows:

In the study of discourse marker in classroom setting, Chaudron and Richards (1986) investigated the research on comprehension of University lectures by non-native speakers of English living and studying in the United States, that is, in English as a second language (EFL) contexts. Chaudron and Richards (1986) made use of four different versions of the same text with different categories of discourse markers (baseline, micro, macro, or micro-macro versions). Overall results showed that macro marker produced better text recall than micro markers.

Maynard (1990) examined the effects of Japanese versus American culture on the production of backchannel responses. For Maynard, "*back-channel* expressions examined are limited to uh-huh's and the like, brief comments, punctuated head movements and laughter". Maynard (1990) concluded, that "... in Japanese causal conversation, listener's response such as brief comments and head movements occur far more frequently than in comparable American situations. Relevant contexts for listener *back-channels* in each speech community are found to differ significantly".

Similarly, Uematsu (2000) conducted the study entitled 'The Use of *Back-channels* Between Native and Non-native Speakers in English and Japanese'. The findings of the study showed that English speakers use more backchannels and reactive expressions than Japanese speakers in English data.

Feke (2003) conducted the study on 'Effects of Native-language and Sex on *Back-channel* Behaviour'. The objective of the study was to find out significant differences in speech of females as opposed to that of males. The findings of the study showed that males and females perform both kinds of BC differently in single and mixed conversations. Males use many more overlap BC than do females in single sex conversations, while females use more overlap BC than do the males in mixed - sex conversations.

Li (2006) carried out a research entitled 'Backchannel Responses as Misleading Feed-back in Intercultural Discourse' in order to find out the relationship between frequency of backchannel responses and listener recall scores in inter- and intra-cultural conversations. The findings of the study showed that backchannel responses functioned differently in relation to content transmission in intra- and intercultural conversations. If intercultural interlocutors can be trained to pay attention to their backchannel responses, they may be less likely to miscommunicate.

Hellerman and Vergun (2007) investigated the frequency of use of some functions of three particular discourse markers, 'well', 'you know' and 'like' in classroom interaction and in-home interviews. The findings of the research suggest that the students who use more discourse markers are those who are more acculturated to US and use them outside their classroom.

Similarly Yoshida (2008) has made the study entitled 'An Analysis of Discourse in the EFL Classroom'. The objective of the study was to analyze spoken discourse between the teacher and the student in English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. The findings of the study showed that language used in the classroom contained various functions of interactional sequences and speech acts that are observed in authentic, natural communication, although it lacked the naturalness in terms of syntax, lexis and fluency because of the student's low proficiency of English. It was also found that the teacher used a variety of meanings of discourse marker 'ok'.

Some of the researches related to conversation analysis were carried out in the Department of English Education. Though they are not directly related to my topic, they are valuable for the researcher to carry out present research. So, the summary of these reviewed studies is present below:

Rawal (2009) conducted a study entitled 'Repair in Nepali and English Conversations'. The objective of the study was to find out repair in Nepali

conversation in terms of trouble source initiation, repair mechanism and repair organization. The findings of the study showed that repair organization in conversation of all languages is universal but repair techniques are language specific. He found that both Nepali and English conversations have four types of repair organization but their frequency of use is different. Rawal also found that repair techniques are similar in both languages.

Rai (2010) carried out a research entitled "An Analysis of Conversation in the Medical Context". The objective of the study was to make an analysis of the components of conversation. She found that medical conversation maximally opens with non-greeting or situational expression. Pause is very common in medical conversation. She also found that overlapping is a common feature of conversation and medical conversation generally ends with closing situational expressions like 'take medicine continue', 'it is normal', 'ok bye'.

Devkota (2011) conducted the study entitled "Conversational Analysis of Tourists and Tourist Guides". He analysed the conversation between tourists and tourist guides in terms of their sex, age, qualification, and experience. The findings of the study showed that there are significant differences in the conversations of male and female guides. Females use more fillers and adjectives than males. He also found that adults and experienced guides make better use of language in comparison to the teenagers.

Although a number of attempts have been made to find out the use of backchannel in human interactions, none of the studies deals with use of *back-channel* behaviour in English conversation. Therefore, the researcher attempted to carry out the research on it.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study had the following objectives:

- i. to find out the different ways of backchannel used in English conversation.
- ii. to find out distribution and frequency of backchannel used in conversation.
- iii. to suggest some pedagogical implications based on the findings of the study.

1.4 Significance of the Study

To make interaction more effective and interesting backchannel signals play a very important role. During face to face interactions, listeners use backchannel feedback such as head nods, smile, typical expressions such as 'yeah', 'uh-huh', 'hm' 'right', 'okay', to the speaker that communicate they should continue speaking. It also encourages people to speak and indicates that listeners are paying attention to the speakers. Backchannel feedback shows that listeners are understanding the speakers. Therefore, backchannel feedback helps to make the interaction go smoothly. Backchannel feedback is just like the motivator to motivate people to speak. So, it is very significant to study the use of backchannel in English conversations. Thus, the findings of the study are expected to be helpful for English teachers, the students of pragmatics and socio-linguistics as well as Nepali speakers of English. It will be equally important for course designers, material producers (textbook writers) and all other professionals directly or indirectly involved in English language teaching.

1.5 Definitions of the Specific Terms

Language : Language is a system of human communication which consists of structured arrangements of sounds into larger units, language is the medium of communication.

Communication: Communication is the process of sharing ideas, experiences, feelings, mission and visions through the linguistic or non-linguistic way.

Communicative competence: It refers to that aspect of our competence which enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific context.

Conversational Analysis: It refers to an effort to examine the conversations from the different perspective and presenting the findings.

Back-channeling: It refers to feedback or response from the listeners in a conversation, such expressions as yeah, uh-huh, right, okay, etc.

Ethnography of speaking: Term introduced by D.H. Hymes in the early 1960s for the study of the uses and patterns of speaking in a society, as distinct from an account of the language system.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

To carryout any research the researcher needs to apply appropriate methodology, which helps him to achieve the objectives of the study. So, the researcher followed the following methodology to accomplish this study.

2.1 Sources of Data

Data plays a significant role in any research study. Data is the main key to gain the objectives of the study. The whole research depends upon the data. So, any research can not move ahead in the shortage of the data. To collect the required data the researcher consulted two types of sources: the primary sources and secondary sources.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The study was primarily based on the primary sources of data. The primary sources of data were the English speakers visiting Kathmandu valley.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

The researcher consulted different books, articles, journals related to the study to facilitate his research. Some of them were Richard (1983), Levinson (1994), Yule (1996), Wardhaugh (1998) and Crystal (2003).

2.2 Population of the Study

The population of the study was the English speakers visiting Kathmandu valley.

2.3 Sampling Procedure

The sample population of the study was twenty English conversations. The researcher recorded twenty English conversations. The selection was done through

purposive non-random sampling procedure in which the researcher simply reached the informants and established rapport with them, which helped him to meet his purpose.

2.4 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher used video-tape recorder as the basic tool for data collection.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

The researcher collected the data from primary sources through video tape recorder. For this purpose, he adopted the following steps:

- i. At first, the researcher went to the tourist places around Kathmandu valley such as Thamel, Hanumandhoka, Patan, etc. And the researcher talked to informants and explained them the purpose and process of research to get their permission to carry out the research.
- ii. After getting permission from the informants, the researcher went to the real spots with them.
- iii. Then, he collected the data through video recording.
- iv. Finally, the researcher thanked the informants for their kind co-operation.
- v. The process was repeated until the required number of video recordings were done to fulfill the purpose of the research.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

The study had the following limitations:

- i. The study was limited to the use of backchannel behaviour in English conversation.
- ii. The study was limited to tourist places in the valley.
- iii. The study was limited to the only 20 English conversations.
- iv. Video tape recording was the only tool for data collection.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This study focuses on the backchannel behaviour in English conversation. In any conversation, interlocutors take the conversation floor at some point during the course of conversation. As the topic of the study was related to backchannel behaviours, the researcher analysed the backchannel responses of the interlocutors who were clearly not holding the floor. The researcher analyzed twenty conversations. The researcher divided his study into two parts: the way of using backchannel in English conversation, and the distribution and frequency of backchannel responses in English conversation.

Maynard (1986, p. 169) defines backchannel as turn-internal backchannel strategies where "an interlocutor who assumes primarily a listener's role sends short messages during the other interlocutor's speaking turn". From the above definition, what can be inferred to is that a particular backchannel response has some sort of message or functions or particular roles. The researcher also focused on the functions of backchannel on the basis of Maynard's classification. Maynard (1986) classifies the functions of backchannel into five categories:

- i. Continuer
- ii. Display of understanding on content
- iii. Support and empathy toward the speaker
- iv. Agreement
- v. Strong emotional response

The researcher used qualitative and quantitative techniques to analyse and interpret the data. The conversations were transcribed by using conventional transcription developed by Jefferson, (1985, 2004).

3.1 Analysis of the Ways of Using Backchannel Responses in English Conversation

This section deals with the analysis of backchannel responses in English conversation in the variety of ways. The conversations were recorded using video

recorder. The researcher analysed backchannel responses in those conversation from the point of view of verbal, non-verbal and both verbal and non-verbal simultaneously.

3.1.1 Analysis of the Verbal Backchannel Responses

In a conversation, interlocutors converse systematically. They exchange their turns systematically. In any conversation, one speaker taking the floor and the another becomes listener and expresses some lexical or non-lexical expressions to show the agreement, support, continuer and so on to the speaker. Such as 'yeah', 'yes', 'all right', 'oh I see', 'oh', 'uhm', 'mmm', etc. The researcher analysed the backchannel responses in the English conversations. The following examples show how the English speakers use backchannel responses verbally in conversations:

Example: 1

- A: We are brother a: :hm
B: [We' re form Holland.]
A: Yeah!
B: We have very very nice bus trip to Kathmandu.
A: Yeah
B: Can you tell more about feeling what Kathmandu or Nepal gave to you?
A: Hehehe yeah. India is very crowd a: :nd very noisy(.) and India is very dirty (.) and People have to struggle to survive their lives.
B: Nodding.
A: Now we are here in Nepal a: :nd people they may be perfect
B: [be open] (.)
also more educational oriented.
A: Yeah yeah.

In the above example, the speaker 'B' explained about his trip and 'A' replied 'yeah' as continuer. Similarly, 'A' told something about India and Nepal, then 'B' used nodding.

Example: 2

- A: What are you doing in Nepal?
B: Trekking. river rafting
A: Yeah
B: Do you do tracking every time come to Nepal?
A: Yeah yeah (nod)
A: I think you are from U.S.A.
B: No (head shakes)
A: Canada ?
B: No (head shake)
A: Hehehe.
B: I'm from Scot Land
A: Oh!

In the above example, 'A' asked 'B' what he was doing in Nepal, then 'B' answered trekking, river rafting. And then 'A' replied 'yeah'. Again 'A' asked 'B' about travelling then 'B' replied 'yeah yeah with nodding'.

Example: 3

- A: I have a guest but that one a little difficult name?
B: Huh huh (nodding)
A: May be I can give that tommrow only hehehe.
B: Tomorrow only?,
A: Yeah
B: Uhm do I know your problem?
A: nodding
B: Can I help you?
A: Yeah?,

In the above example, the speaker 'A' told 'B' about something then 'B' replied 'huh huh' with nodding head.

Example: 4

- A: Do you like Nepal?

- B: Yeah I love Nepal (.) I generally here for one month (.) but I'm extending my trip for another three months
- A: Wow great!
- B: I really love this country (.) beautiful.
- A: Yeah
- B: I generally come to Nepal for the mountains (.) for the scenery.
- A: May be you can for the people
- B: Yeah! Yeah that's why I came. Yeah (nodding)

In the above example, the speaker 'A' asked 'B' whether 'B' liked Nepal, then 'B' replied with 'Yeah' and explained about his/her staying in Nepal. Then 'A' replied 'wow great !'

The above examples are the samples of verbal backchannel responses in English conversation. From the above examples, it is inferred to that in English conversation, interlocutors use verbal backchannel responses such as: uhm, mmm, yeah, etc. verbal backchannel responses used in their English conversations are as follows:

Table No. 1
Summary of Verbal *Back-channels* Used by the Speakers

Verbal BC response	Number of Speakers	Percentage (%)
uhm	8	12.90
yeah	18	29.03
yes	3	4.84
okay	9	14.52
right	3	4.84
mmm	4	6.45
I see	-	0.00
oh yeah	6	9.68
Repeat	5	8.06
oh	2	3.23
Other		
That's true	1	1.61
That's great	1	1.61
That's nice	1	1.61
wow ! it's nice	1	1.61
Total	62	100

The above table shows that in English conversation, those interlocutors mostly used backchannel responses verbally. BC response 'uhm' is used 12.90 % of the research data. Similarly, BC response 'yeah' is used by 29.03 % of the research data. BC response 'yes' is used 4.84 % of the research data. The BC response 'Okay' is used 14.52 % of the research data. Similarly, the BC response 'right' is used 4.84 % of the data. The BC response 'mmm' is used 6.45% of the data. The BC response; I see' is not used so, it may rarely used as backchannel response. The BC response 'oh yeah' is used 9.68 % of the research data. 'Repeat' is used as BC response about 8.06 % of the research data, similarly, the BC 'Oh' is used 3.23 % of the research data. And there are other backchannel responses such as 'that's true', 'that's great', 'that's nice', and 'wow it's nice'. These BC responses are used 6.45 % of the research data.

The above table shows that 29.03 % of the English speakers used 'yeah', 14.52 % of the English speakers used 'Okay', 12.90 % of the English speakers use 'Uhm' similarly 9.68 % of the English speakers used 'oh yeah', 8.06 % of the English speakers used repeat as BC response. About 6.45 % of the people used 'mmm' and 4.84 % of the people used 'yes' and 'right' for each, 3.23 % of the people used 'oh' and 6.45 % of the people used other BC response such as 'That's right', 'That's true', 'That's great', 'that's nice', etc.

3.1.2 Analysis of the Non-verbal Backchannel Response

In any conversation, it is not always the same that the interlocutors use particular expressions such as 'yeah', 'okay', 'right all right', 'uhm', 'that's true', etc. to show his/her attention to the speaker in the conversation. These are called verbal backchannel responses. But sometimes interlocutors use non-verbal backchannel responses to show his/her agreement, support, his/her understanding to the speakers such as nodding, smiling, raising eye brow, remove eye contact, etc. The researcher also analysed the non-verbal backchannel responses in the conversations. The

following examples show how English speakers use non-verbal backchannel responses in their talk.

Example: 5

A: We came to Copenhagen is in Denmark?

B: [Nod]

A: on the 2nd of may (.)

B: Nod

A: And Then we flight to London

B: [Nod]

A: From where first we flight to Delhi

B: [Nod] Delhi

A: And we came from Delhi to Kathmandu

B : [Nod]

In the above example, 'A' explained about his/her journey to Nepal and 'B' nodded his head to show his understanding and let the speaker speak.

Example: 6

A: What's your profession?

B: Music.

A: Music?

B: Nod (.)

A: I play music in line ?,

B: In line ?

A: Yeah in line.

B: Nod

In the above example, 'A' made query about 'B's profession and 'B' answered music; 'A' produced the same utterance in raising intonation to confirm about his profession. And then 'B' nodded his head to show his agreement.

Example: 7

- (i) A: Are you born in Kathmandu?
 B: Yeah. I born in Kathmandu.
 A: Yeah (nod) (.)
- (ii) A: What type of painting do you do?
 B: Me?
 A: Yeah, Do you painting o: :r like sculpting ?
 B: Painting
 A: Painting [nod]

In the above example, the speakers used 'nod' and 'yeah' with 'nod' as BC responses.

Example: 8

- A: People used to be kingdom system around here?
 B: [Nod]
 A: Now all royal family is not any more
 B: [Nod]

In the above example, the speaker 'A' produced an utterance in a rising intonation weaker than question to tell about Nepal's by gone kingdom system then 'B' nodded his head to show his understanding.

The above examples show that in English conversation, interlocutors use non-verbal backchannel responses. During the conversation, they use non-lexical expression like 'nodding head, raising eye brows, smiling', etc. Generally, people used nodding as non-verbal backchannel in conversation.

The non-verbal backchannel responses used in English conversations are as follows:

Table No. 2
Summary of Non-Verbal *Back-channel*'s Used by Speakers

Non-verbal BC responses	Number of the Speakers	Percentage (%)
Nodding	15	44.12
Smiling	13	38.24
raising eye brows	6	17.64
Total	34	100.00

From the above table, it is found that most of the speakers used head nodding as backchannel responses. Nodding has the highest percentage. About 44.12 % of the research data, the speakers used head nodding. Similarly, smiling is used 38.24 % of the research data. Raising the eye brows is used 17.64 % of the research data.

The above table shows that 44.12 % of the English speakers used nodding. Similarly, 38.24 % of the English speakers smiled during the conversation and 17.64 % of the English speakers used raising eye brows as backchannel responses to their speakers in conversation.

3.1.3 Analysis of the Use of Verbal and Non-verbal BC Responses Simultaneously

The researcher also analysed the simultaneous use of verbal and non-verbal backchannel. During the conversation the interlocutors use both verbal and non-verbal backchannel responses at the same time, such as nod with yeah, nod with uhm, nod with right, etc. The following examples show how the English speakers use verbal and non-verbal backchannel responses simultaneously.

Example: 9

- A: Do you do travelling every time come to Nepal?
 B: Yeah (.) yeah (with nod)
 (0.0)

- A: Any climbing as well?
- B: No I used to climb when I was younger. (.) first I (.) keep a climbing when I was thirty (.) forty-two (.) forty-three (.) now I just high level practice need.

In the above example, the speaker 'A' asked a question about 'B's traveling and 'B' replied 'yeah, yeah' with nodding his head to show his agreement to the speaker 'A'.

Example: 10

- A: Do you do painting or like sculpting ?
- B: Painting
- A: Painting (nod)
- B: And I write short stories to make money
- A: Oh yeah (with nodding)

In the above example, the speaker 'A' questioned 'B' about his job. And 'B' replied painting. Then 'A' repeated the same word 'painting' with nodding his head. Again 'B' told that he wrote short stories to make money, then 'A' responded 'oh yeah' with nodding his head.

Example: 11

- A: You are going to Nepali wedding or: ...
- B: Yeah! oh?, Nepali wedding that they take foreign.
- A: >Friends are coming ?, <
- B: Yeah. Yeah (with nod)

In the above example, the speaker 'A' asks 'B', if 'B' is going to Nepali wedding or somewhere else. Then 'B' answered yeah and again 'A' asked whether friends were coming or not. Then 'B' replied yeah with nodding head.

The above examples show that the interlocutors use verbal and non-verbal backchannel responses in conversation.

Table No. 3
Summary of The verbal and non-verbal BC response used at the same time in English conversation

S.N	BC responses	Number of the speakers	Percentage (%)
1.	Nod with uhm	8	21.62
2.	Nod with Okay	7	18.92
3.	Nod with yeah	13	35.14
4.	Nod with oh yeah	3	8.11
5.	Nod with I see	1	2.70
6.	Nod with Right	1	2.70
7.	Nod with Repeat	3	8.11
	Other		
8.	yeah with razing eye brows	1	2.70
Total		37	100.00

From the above table it is inferred that English speakers use nod with uhm, nod with okay, nod with yeah, nod with oh yeah, nod with I see, nod with right, and so on. In the research data 'nod with uhm' is used 21.62 % of the data. Similarly, 'nod with okay' is used 18.92 % of the data. 'Nod with yeah' is used 35.14 % of the data, 'nod with oh yeah' is used 8.11 % of the research data. Similarly, 'nod with I see' and 'nod with right' used 2.7 % of the research data for each. 'Nod with right' is used 8.11 % of the research data. And other BC responses used 2.70 % of the research data.

The above table shows that 'nod with uhm' is used by 21.62 % of the English speakers, 'nod with okay' by 18.92 % 'nod with yeah' by 35.14 % of the English speakers and 'nod with oh yeah' by 8.11% of the English speakers. Similarly, 'nod with I see' is used by 2.70 % of the English speakers, 'nod with right' by 2.70 %

and 'nod with repeat' by 8.11 % of the English speakers. And other used 2.70 % of the English speakers.

From the analysis of the ways of using backchannel responses, it can be said 46.62 % of the English speakers used verbal backchannel responses during the conversation. Similarly, 25.56 % of the English speaker used nonverbal backchannel responses and 27.82 % of the English speakers used both verbal and non-verbal BC responses simultaneously. This can be shown as in the following table.

Table No. 4
Summary of Verbal, Non-verbal and both Verbal and Non-verbal BC Responses

Bc responses	Number of the Speakers	Percentage (%)
Verbal responses	62	46.62
Non verbal Be responses	34	25.56
Both verbal and nonverbal	37	27.82
Total	134	100

3.2 Analysis of the Distribution and Frequency of Backchannel Responses

There are various items of backchannel responses that are frequently used in English conversation. It is also important to know about the distribution and frequency of occurrence of the backchannel responses. For this purpose, the researcher studied the collected data to derive the result. The following table shows that the frequencies of occurrence of BC responses. The most frequent BC responses is 'yeah' which occurred 122 times. Among the other BCs, frequent BC is 'nodding' and 'nod with yeah' which occurred 103 and 100 times respectively. Similarly, the other frequent BC response is 'uhm' which occurred 30 times. The other frequent BC responses are 'Okay', 'oh yeah', 'nod with uhm', 'nod with okay', 'nod with yeah' which occurred 13 times, 10 times, 18 times, 9 times, 9 times

respectively. Similarly, 'right' which occurred 6 times, 'mmm' which occurred 5 times, 'repeat' which occurred 6 times, 'smiling' occurred 3 times, 'raising eye brows' which occurred 7 times and 'nod with I see' which occurred only one time. Some other backchannel responses such as 'I see', 'oh', 'nod with right', etc. did not occurred. This can be shown in the following table.

Table No. 5

Summary of the Categories and Frequency of Occurrence of BC responses

Categories	Frequency of Occurrence
Uhm	30
Yeah	122
mmm	5
Okay	13
right	6
I see	-
Oh yeah	10
Repeat	6
Nod	103
Smiling	3
Raising eye brows	7
Nod with uhm	18
Nod with okay	9
Nod with yeah	100
Nod with oh yeah	9
Nod with I see	1
Nod with right	-
Nod with sure	-

We can see in the table above that in English conversation the interlocutors most frequently use 'yeah', nodding, and nod with yeah. And the other BC responses

that the English speakers use frequently 'uhm', 'nod with uhm', 'oh yeah', 'nod with oh yeah' and 'nod with okay'. And the English speakers used, 'right', 'repeat', 'raising eye brows', and 'mmm' less frequently and, 'nod with I see' least frequently.

Comparing the frequencies of occurrence of verbal, non-verbal and both BC response, it is derived that verbal BC responses have higher frequency. The verbal BC responses occurred 192 times in the research data. The another most frequent BC responses are both and non verbal. These BC responses occurred 137 times in the research data. And non-verbal BC responses occurred 113 times in the research data. This can be clearly shown in the table as below:

Table No. 6
Comparing the Frequencies of Occurrence of Verbal,
Non-verbal and Both BC Response

BC responses	Frequency of Occurrence
Verbal	192
Non-verbal	113
Both verbal and non-verbal	137

The above table shows that verbal BC responses have higher frequencies in English conversation. Then the English speakers use both verbal and non-verbal BC simultaneously more frequent than non-verbal.

3.3 Analysis of the Form and Function of BC Responses

Forms of backchannel behaviour are highly dependent on the speakers' personalities and the functions that they desire their backchannel utterances convey. It is very important to learn about the functions of backchannels of the target group, along with possible forms that correspond to each function. This aspect of the backchannel behaviour likely to have greatest impact towards helping EFL learners' to improve in this area.

3.3.1 Analysis of the Continuers

The main functions of this type of backchannel are for the listeners to signal to the speakers that they are listening attentively and allow the speakers to continue their speaking turn. This can be seen in the following example:

A: We are from Holland.

B: Yeah !

A: And we are trekking with a group trip (.) for thirty days uhm. third day in Delhi in India.

B: Yeah !

A: And Agra uhm (.) Jaipur (.) uhm no first Jaipur then Agra and we have very very nice bus trip to uhm (.) Kathmandu.

In the above example, B's backchannel of Yeah ! signals that 'B' is listening to 'A' and 'A' should continue speaking.

3.3.2 Analysis of the Display of Understanding of Content

It is necessary to confirm whether the listener is understanding or not. During the conversation, this is, when the listener feels, it is necessary to show that he/she is understanding the speaker. The listener shows some signal of backchannel that confirms the speaker that listener is understanding him/her. This can be seen in the following example:

A: I talked to different English speakers since I came here.

B: Uhm uhm.

A: I found some differences between the accents (.).

B: Oh, yeah.

A: For example (.) there is big difference between British accent and American accent.

B: Oh yeah (nod).

In the above example, 'B' signals two types of understanding backchannel uhm uhm and oh yeah to signal to 'A' that he is understanding to content what 'A' is saying.

3.3.3 Analysis of the Support and Empathy Toward the Speaker's Judgment

This is when the listener feels necessary to show support or empathy to an evaluative statement made by the speaker in the conversation. This can be seen in the same example given in 3.3.2. In the example, 3.3.2, B sends two backchannel signals 'uhm uhm' and 'oh yeah' to show his understanding of content to A and B feels it is necessary to provide support to A's evaluative statement and uses backchannel signal oh yeah with nodding head.

3.3.4 Analysis of the Agreement

In a conversation, the backchannels function agreement when the listener reacts to a question or question like utterance made by the speaker. This can be seen below in the example.

A: What's your profession ?

B: Music

A: Music ?

B: (Nod)

(.)

A: I play music in line ?

B: In line?

A: Yeah. In line.

B: (Nod)

In the above example, the speaker 'B' reacts with backchannel head nod to show agreement to 'A's' question like statement.

3.3.5 Analysis of the Strong Emotional Response

During the conversation, the listeners used strong emotional response, when he/she feels necessary to respond emphatically to a statement made by the speaker. These responses indicate more than simple continuer, understanding, or support. Such backchannels are found in the forms of laugh and exclamatory statements as in the following example.

A: What you did in Nepal ?

B: Uhm (0.0) trekking

A: [Trekking]

B: Trekking climbing (.) visiting

A: Uh[↑]m that's very nice !

In the example, 'A' responds emotional response of backchannel utterance uh[↑]m that's very nice ! to give emphasis to the statement made by 'B'.

The analysis of the data show that the same backchannel response has various functions such as 'uhm' function as continuer, display of understanding of content, and agreement. Similarly, the backchannel response 'yeah' functions as continuer, agreement and support or empathy towards the speakers judgment. Head nod functions as agreement, understanding and continuer. Thus backchannel responses in English have various functions, which can be shown in the following table.

Table No. 7

Summary of Forms and Functions of BC Responses

Categories of Bc responses	Functions
uhm	CON UND NUN AGR
yeah	CON AGR SUP
Okay	CON SUP
Right	AGR
Mmm	CON UND NUN
I see	UND
Oh yeah	UND
Nod	AGR UND
Nod with uhm	UND CON
Nod with okay	CON
Nod with yeah	AGR
Nod with oh yeah	UND
Nod with I see	UND
That's true	AGR
wow! that's greart	EMR
wow! very nice!	EMR

Note:- CON= Continuer, NUN= non- understanding, SUP= Support/empathy,
SMR= Strong emotional reaction, UND= Understanding, AGR= Agreement

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study was carried out in order to find out the use of back channel behaviors in English conversation. For the completion of the study twenty English conversations were recorded through video tape from different places of Kathmandu valley. The findings of the study have been pointed out as follows:

4.1 Findings

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the data, the following findings have been extracted:

- i. In English conversation, it was found that the interlocutors used backchannel responses.
- ii. The English speakers used verbal, non-verbal and verbal and non-verbal simultaneously in their talks.
- iii. The English speakers were found to be using non-lexical and lexical BC responses uhm, yeah, yes, okay, right mmm, oh yyeah and utterances like BC responses that's ture, That's great, that's nice and wow! it's nice.
- iv. The English speakers were found to be using non-verbal BC responses nodding, smiling and raising eye brows.
- v. The English speakers are found to use verbal and non-verbal BC responses nod with uhm, nod with okay, nod with yeah, nod with oh yeah, nod with I see, nod with right, and raising eye brows with yeah.
- vi. The verbal, non-verbal and both verbal and non-verbal BC responses were compared to one another shows the English speakers mostly used verbal BC responses.
- vii. The English speakers used 'yeah', nodding and 'nod with yeah' as BC responses used most frequently.

- viii. The frequencies of occurrence of verbal, non-verbal and both verbal and non-verbal BC responses were compared to one another also shows the verbal BC responses had higher frequency in English conversation.
- ix. The analysis of form and function of BC response shows that the same form of BC response may have various functions.

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings of the study, the following recommendations have been made for pedagogical purposes:

- i. Since backchannel is one of the exponents of conversation analysis, linguistics students are advised to focus on the backchannel in conversation.
- ii. Since the backchannels play an important role to make the conversation go smoothly, the teacher should teach about backchannel behavior in conversation.
- iii. Backchannel responses are equally important to encourage the speaker to speak. Therefore, the teachers are advised to use backchannel responses in the classroom to encourage students to speak.
- iv. Backchannels are responses from listeners, therefore, it is important to know about it for all kinds of students to understand them.
- v. Backchannel responses have some functions, it is beneficial to ESL learners to improve their communicative competence. This is why, such behaviours should be paid attention in all the fields.

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APPENDIX
Recorded Data

Speech Event-1

- A: Yeah, I woke up this morning (.) Uhm. I love this day already (.) Uhm(.) yesterday we arrived in Kathmandu and two day or three day just to walk in the Kathmandu city. Uhm, yes we did uhm. So far (.) and we want to be place. mmm.
- B: Yeah, we walked centre of here (.) uhm. My leg has been injuring so I have to be careful on it (.) a::nd we have walked almost 50 minutes and then we arrived at (.) uhm.
- A: >New square <
- B: Yeah!
- A: >New square< (.) yeah (.)
- B: So we faced a lot of temples (.) The::n uhm
- A: [we both]
- B: Uhm have recorded painting uhm (.)
- A: [Tango]
- B: Yeah Tango (.) for uhm (.) yeah. Our home (.) an::d we are brother, uhm (.)
- A: We are from Holland (.) uhm I live in hedge and he lives in delta (.) near the hedge (.)
- B: Yeah!
- A: An:d (.) we are trekking with a group trip for thirty days(.) uhm third day in Delhi in India.
- B: Yeah!
- A: And Agra (.) uhm (.) Jaipur (.) uhm no first Jaipur then Agra and we have very very nice bus trip to (.) uhm (.) Kathmandu.
- B: Yeah (.) tomorrow we'll go to sunny place(.) what's the name of the place?

- A: Hehehe.
- B: Uhm (.) Bhaktapur (.) know?
- A: Bhaktapur (nodding head)
- B: Yeah we'll go to Bhaktapur (.) and I think I'll journey uhm (.) to (.) uhm Tibet Lanta and we will eletricalfication pay in China.
(0.0)
- A: Yes, and the First (.) uhm (.) nice try turn early in the morning (.) tomorrow at 6 O' clock (.) uhm we'll go to take plane and make flight to first Emalaya,
- B: Yeah. (.) we will collect pictures (0.0) and hopefully (.) we will have good weather (.)
- A: Yeah! yeah (.) can you tell more about feeling what kathmandu or Nepal gave to you?
- B; Hehehe yeah. India is very crowd a:nd very noisy (.) and India is very dirty (.) and people they have to struggle to survive their lives
- A: Nodding
- B: Now we are here in Nepal a:nd people they may be perfect (.) uhm uhm (0.0)
- A: [be open] (.) also more educational oriented.
- B: Yeah, yeah.
- A: Uhm. yes. see a lot of school buses and education (.) and and (.) then the nice schools (.) and very good atmosphere (.) or o:r more patience (.) yeah so many impressions people we have faced around here.
- B: Yeah.
- A: Yeah.

Speech Event -2

- A: >You like(.) how can we start?<
- B: Yeah

C: Yeah! anything I don't mind.
B: Yeah (.) literature (.) philosophy (.) hehehe (.)
A: >How do I get to Hall? <
C: True their one of the countries, know!
A: Yeah nice him (.)
B: Yeah
A: Very safe (.) very friendly (.) and too wonderful (.)
B: Mmm. (nodding)
C: Mmm.
B: Very good (.)
C: Gorgeous (.)
B: (Smiling)
A: Ra:mro
C: Speak English (.)
A: Why don't ? Huh?
C: (Smiling) We don't know a lot (.)
B: Mmm (.)
C: Huh (.) It's amazing (0.3) language
B: Why don't we talk about people?
A: I:I like talk about the same.
B: Yeah (laugh) nothing my problem (.) (drink beer) (0.0)
C: Well, you know the people, honey hunt?
A: No↑ (raising eye brows)
C: No ?
B: Honey hunting?
C: Yeah. honey-hunting (.)
A: honey-hunting.
B: People are so crazy
A: On pemble?

C: Yeah.
B: Come down from place of complex (.)
C: Yeah.

Speech Event-3

A: What are you doing here (.) in Nepal?
B: Trekking (.) river rafting (.) then I go to Bhutan I'll just come back from Bhutan (.)
A: Yeah, adventurous activity.
B: Just traveling.
A: Yeah (nodding) (.) do you do tracking every time here come to Nepal?
B: Yeah yeah (nodding) (.)
A: Any climbing as well?
A: No I used to climb when I was younger (.) first I (.) keep a climbing when I was thirty (.) forty-two (.) forty-three (.) now I just high level practice need.
A: I think you are from U.S.A.
B: No (head shakes)
A: Canada ?
B: No (head Shakes)
A: Hehehe
B: I'm from Scotland
A: Oh! really (.) but the way you speak it.
B: Yeah I know (.) the thing because I have experience of last personal talk to (.)
A: Oh, really, hehehe.
B: (drinks beer)
A: Uhm (.) I talked to different English speakers.
B: Huhuh.

A: I found differences between accents
B: Oh yeah. (nod)
A: For example, (.) there is a big different between the British accent and the American accent (.)
B: Oh yeah. Big difference and there is big difference between scottish accent and English accent.
A: Yeah. That's right (.) So sometime I can tell where they from (.)
B: Sometime it's true. I can just to be tell Australian from New Zealand.
A: That's right.
B: Yeah, but it's easy to tell Canadian to American because they ... they talk really differently (.) I think (.)
A: Yeah, yeah (.) yeah.

Speech Event -4

A: I have a guest but that one a little difficult name.
B: Hum hum. (nodding)
A: May be I can give you that tomorrow only hehehe.
B: Tomorrow only ?,
A: Oh really?
B: Uhm do I know the problem? (Smiling)
A: Nodding.
B: Can I help you↑
A: Yeah, (.) and then they are also doing some works.
B: Huh huh (nodding)
A: They are already married, (smiling)
B: Uhm where do they come from? Canada?
A: Yeah.
B: It's to be very difficult to give her everything (.) I know uhm (.) Nina would like to get rejected.
(0.0)

A: Anyway

B: You know, best thing of Nepali is traveling (.) different ideas (.) we travel as not we do everything right. He learns from me the same.

A: Yeah.

B: Nodding.

Speech Event-5

A: (Reading the department's letter) Bach-channel behaviour?

B: College student?

A: Yeah

B: Nodding

C: She is the princess from the England (laugh).

A: Can he tell us about it himself ?

B: Yeah.

C: Uhm

A: How's the English?

(guide to the researcher) : Uhm tapai afai kura garnuna.

Speech Event -6

A: (Smiling) have you heard?

(A and C): Laughing

B: Smiling

A: Yeah.

B: People think in camera on nothing.

C: Laughing

A: Sound and videos?

C: Yeah, sound and videos

A: O::h

C; Laughing

A: I'd offer cookie.

B: Laughing.

A: done.

C: done, offer cookie.

(A to the researcher): offer you cookie, I don't think to record conversation.

Speech Event -7

A: We came to Copenhagen in Denmark?

B: [Nod]

C: On the 2nd of may (.)

B: [Nod]

A: And then we flight to London.

B: [Nod]

A: From where first we flight to Delhi.

B: [Nod] Delhi (.)

A: And then we came from Delhi to Kathmandu.

B: [Nod]

A: And then we came yesterday (.)

B: Nod

A: And now we've been kathmandu for 24 hours.

B: Twenty-four hours (nodding)

A: And we have been mostly in travel.

B: (Nod) we have been three temples (.)

A: Nodding

B: We have been shopping.

A: (Nodding) we like Nepal a lot (.)

B: A lot (nodding)

A: Uhm computer system is good (.) and the traffic is so clear (.) it's charming.

B: Nodding

A: And wheather is very nice.
B: Huhuhu (nodding) the people of here are very nice.
A: Very nice (nodding) (.) and we have got two guides who are also very frankly
B: (Nodding) And road is very good.
A: (Nodding) Very good. And beer (.) the Kathmandu beer is good.
B: So we looking forward to see more Nepal's mountains Sukala.
A: (Nodding) Tomorrow, we will contact.

Speech Event - 8

Setting: Making a drink in a glass.

A: (Smiling) Naturally milk sake.
B: Yeah don't say it milk sake (.)
A: Yeah.
B: Yeah take one (.) take.
A: Yeah (nodding) take.
(0.0)
B: I thought you should take it. (pouring beer into a galss)
A: Mmm (.) take another one.
B: Yeah (smiling) but later (.) what are you going to later?
A: What?
B: What are you doing later?
A: Uhm (.) reading.
B: Yeah you are reading (.)
A: And you are going home back?
B: Yeah, I think.
A: Uhm you are buying new bag?
B: No I think I'll keep that one. I don't got a weight.
A: O.K. Yeah.

B: So, I'll keep it (.) next time may be.
A: Yeah, think about to buy some rope and (.) tying bags together.
B: Yeah, make one bag.
A: Yeah (.) there is no problem.
B: Yeah.
A: Yeah, right!

Speech Event - 9

A: People used to be kingdom system around here?
B: Mmm (nodding).
A: Now all Royal families are not anymore (.)
B: Nodding
A: And now we have prime minister and people to make New Nepal.
B: Nodding
A: But political parties still do not working well.
B: Nodding
A: They take a lot of money and spend for everything (.) they have big houses, cars, a lot of bank balance and lots of lands (.) they are buying everything (.) you know.
B: Nodding
A: This is happening now in Kathmandu.
B: Mmm
A: Before in kathmandu if you go one place you will get dal bhat, and meat in thirty (.) forty rupees. Now a days you have to pay three (.) four hundred rupees?
B: Three (.) four hundred rupees?
A: Yeah
B: Daal, bhat?
A: Daal, bhat and meat (.)

B: That's great!

A: Now for one k.g meat you know how much?

B: No.

A: Five hundred forty rupees for one k.g. before we used to pay one hundred thirty (.) one hundred fifty (.) like that.

B: Nodding

A; Because price of everything is going very high.

B: Nodding

A: And after five years I think one Kilo rice will cost five hundred rupees.

B: Nodding

A: And who has money they just try something like that (.) I don't think so (.) they will get meat or not.

B: Oh yeah.

A: Because everything is coming from far away (.) and now everything is going to be sticky in Nepal (.) every body wants Nepal. I don't know why?

B: Nodding

A: This is a peaceful country, and friendly people (.) that's why uhm (.) I don't know what a problem with the government.

B: (Nodding). Yeah (.) good people, not so good government.

A: Yeah, yeah yeah. Because now a days the government is not doing so good you know my friend (.) they take a lot of money.

B: Yeah (nodding)

A: And when they want to be elected (.) they do first like this (joining hand together (.) and after when they get votes (.) they win (.) they do like that (moving hands)

B: They doing like that. (moving hands)

A: They come in Pazeru doing like that (moving hands) (.) before they walked in Streets.

B: System is good, politics is shit.

- A: Politics is not so good now.
 B: (Smiling) Most country, but here very bad.
 A: Here is very very bad you know my friend.
 B: Huhuh (nodding)

Speech Event -10

- A: We arrived today kathmandu from Turkey (.) and....
 B: Hehehe a long trip.
 A: (Nodding) Long trip.
 B: Ye(h)ah.
 A: We like it so far. It's so much clean (.) very different kind.....
 (0.0)
 C: Yeah we gonna to countryside (.) right ?
 A: Yeah.
 B: Yeah, we are going to Nagarkot tomorrow.
 (0.2)
 A: Yeah↑ we gonna go to kathmandu uhm (.)
 D: [Pokhara, Pokhara]
 A: National park (.) Chitwan national park (.) will be exciting with our friends.
 C: (Nodding) Huhuh, (0.3) (langhing). It's nice temperature here? uhm people are friendly (.) Uhm.
 (0.15)
 B: We were in India first two weeks. Uhm (.) I think Kathmandu (.) the people are columnar (.) Uhm (.) they seem nice to so far (.) Showing good so far (.) yeah.

Speech Event -11

- A: We can just talk about English Language .
 B: Yeah.
 A: You like English Language?

B: Yeah, I like English language.
A: (Smiling) Look at the temple.
B: Yeah (Smiling)
A: It's very high.
(0.5)
B: Nothing to speak.
A: Yeah.
B: But you have to converse.
A: Yeah.
(0.3)
A: He is very well dressed.
B: Yeah. (Smiling)
A: Nice shoes.
B: Yeah (.) nice shirt and nice mobile.
A: Look at his watch.
B: Yeah. (Smiling)

Speech Event -12

A: Do you like Nepal really?
B: Yes (.) uhm (.) I'm also Nepali (.) hehehe.
A: Oh! really (.) what's your profession?
B: Teacher.
A: What do you teach?
B: Eng(h)l(h)ish also.
A: English language?
B: No (.) uhm like in an institute.
A: Institute?
B: Huhuh huh (nodding)
A: What's your subject (.) which you teach?

B: U:: hm (shrugs shoulder) I don't know (.) uhm (.) epidemiology (.)
geography (.)

A: Geography?

B: Mathematics

A: Mathematics?

B: Yeah (.) language also (.) yeah funny (smiling)

A: In a school?

B: Yeah (.) in a school.

A: And institute also.

B: Yeah. But (.) this is camera only I..... (Smiling)

A: (Smiling) Don't worry about that. That is for our educational matter.

B: I hope (.) hey otherwise

A: O.K.

B: (laughing) . Hehehe .

A: I don't mind (.) you know who am I?

B: Uhm?

A: You know who am I?

B: No

A: I'm Lord Shiva from Kailash. (Smiling)

B: Yeah.

A: You know why I'm here? To talk with you.

B: Really?

A: Yes.

B: Oh. (Smiling)

A: And he is here to take our videos.

B: Yeah, yeah (nodding)

A: It's all upon destiny
(Laugh)

A: No. no. I'm joking o.k. (laugh)

B: O.K. (nodding)
A: It's for our language study.
B: O.k.(nodding)
A: For thesis.
B: What school?
A: Tribhuvan University
B: Oh yeah (nodding)
A: One and only famous university in Nepal.
B: Oh yeah (nodding)
A: My profession is painting (.) I'm an artist.
B: Oh yeah. (nodding)
A: And he is a language student and I'm helping him.
B: O.K. o.k nodding
A: And you gave us your time (.) Thank you.
B: Thank you.

Speech Event- 13

A: Where are you from?
B: Belgium
A: Belgium?
B: Nodding
A: What's your profession in your country?
B: Music
A: Music?
B: Nodding
A: I think we met before?
B: No.
A: I play music in line
B: In line?

A: Yeah in line.
B: Nodding
A: But there is no sound (.) I play there (.) I play still.
B: Nodding
A: There is some natural rules to make it sweet.
B: Nodding
A: And here (.) like Harmonium (.)
B: Nodding
A: Rhythm (.)
B: Nodding
A: Violin (.)
B: Huhuh (nodding)
A: And composition.
B: Nodding
A: These everything can be same for painting also.
B: Nodding
A: In my painting you can also feel rhythm. Hehehe.
B: (Nodding and smiling) good.
A: You know hikus?
B: Huh?
A: Hikus.
B: Kikus?
A: Yeah (.) Japanese
B: Yes (nodding) I know.
(0.3)
A: You like to listen to my one hiku?
B: Fine here.
A: Etcetera etcetera etcetera
etcetera etcetera full stop.

B: smiling (nodding)
A: My own hiku.
B: (Nodding) Very deep.
B: Born in Kathmandu?
A: Yeah in countryside.
B: Nodding
A: My mom is a teacher
B: Nodding
A: She teaches Nepali language.
B: Nodding
A: My dad was in police force (.) he died.
B: (Nodding) O.K.

Speech Event -14

A: You are born in Kathmandu ?
B: Yeah, I was born in Kathmandu.
B: Nodding
A: I'm an artist.
B: You are an artist?
A: Yeah (.) also reading in a university (.) final year.
B: Uhm (.) that's nice.
A: And you are always in Katmandu.
B: Yeah.
A: Did you around (.) uhm (.) it all (.) Nepal (.) have you traveled?
B: Yeah, of course.
A: (Nodding) You travelled.
B: To understand and learn from nature is my duty.
A: Yeah.
B: My creation is like natural (.) everything whatever I learnt from nature not by so called features.

A: Okay, yeah (nodding)

B: You never heard about Frida Kahlo?

A: No

B: Frida Kahlo is the Mexican lady (.) artist of the 18th century.

A: Oh Frida (.) yeah yeah, of course.

B: Did you watch that movie Salma Hayek?

A: Yeah yeah, I have watched that movie (.) it's good movie.

B: Maybe in 2001 I watched that movie (.) I really felt good.

A: Yeah (.) uhm (.) It makes to think (.) good movie (.) I went to Frida's exhibition actually four months ago (.) For exhibition they had her painting (.) my mom says the painter Frida.

B: Frida?

A: Yeah.

B: she keeps monkey and cat in her home (.) the colour of her home (.) when shown starting of that movie is really cool.

A: Yeah yeah.

B: It touched my heart.

A: Hehehe (.) what type of painting do you do?

B: Me?

A: Yeah (.) do you do painting or like sculpting?

B: Painting

A: Painting (nodding)

B: And I write short stories to make money.

A: Oh yeah (nodding)

B: I sell them to magazines and they pay me some money and I buy colour, etcetera, etcetra.

A: That's like good.

B: Yeah.

A: What type of short story?

B: Huh?
A: What type of short story ?
B: Short story (.) do you wanna listen?
A: No, I don't wanna listen whole thing but like (.) short story mostly about----
B: [conflict between soul and mind]
A: O.K.
B: Conflict between soul and mind.
A: Conflict of the soul and mind. Hehehe.

Speech Event-15

A: People get married here.
B: Nodding
A: People think they get good husband.
B: Nodding
A: Then also the.... When you were here, three person would give you work (.)
Three persons (.) three.
B: Oh yeah (nodding)
A: Uhm...We have ten persons..... but in Nepal living together is
impossible.
B: Yeah.
A: But you can (.) how you getting together (.) yeah.
B: Yeah (nodding)
A: But in Nepal (.) they can't.
C: Oh really?
A: People can do that but very-very seldom.
B: Yeah.
A: I have never known anyone living together (.) you know.
B: Oh yeah (nodding)
A: They will marry or elope.

B: Yeah (nodding)
A: Hehehe
C: This is (.) uhm, another temple?
A: Temple (nodding) (.) This is a pagoda o.k. pagoda.
C: Okay.
A: Pagoda (.) pagoda is a name of the temple, you know. They are temples.
B: Nodding.

Speech Event -16

A: Hi, hello how's the day?
B: Really cool.
A: I,m really sorry, I'm getting ready is for yoga class.
B: Nodding.
A: Uhm, so anyway ladies take.....
B: Nodding
A: How long you staying in

C: Four months.
A: O:::Kay, (0.0) do you have paper?
C: Yeah.
A: Oh write and take it (.) write it , there is confirmation that email me sometimes.
B: Okay.
A: Yes.

Speech Event -17

A: You like Nepal?
B: Yeah I love Nepal (.) I generally here for one month (.) but I'm extending my trip for another three months.
A: Wow great!

B: I really love this country (.) beautiful.
A: Yeah.
B: Yeah, sometime sleep only (.)
A: Yeah. Hehehe
B: Make more people care (.) five days in Kathmandu.
A: Nodding
B: I generally come to Nepal for the mountains (.) for the scenery (.) we don't have sculpture.
A: May be you can for the people.
B: Yeah! yeah that's why I came. Yeah (nodding)
C: I'm sure you have heard about the people (.) they way they live (.) actually people are different.
B: Yeah.
C: The way they live is different.
B: Yeah (.) when I first got here (.) uhm in Thamel (.) I called (.) oh well this is like (.) uhm makes between India and Thailand (.) all the people's faces some (.) uhm (.) Indo Aryan.
C: Yeah. We are like, yeah, we are mostly like mangole.
B: Yeah.

Speech Event -18

A: How's your work going on?
B: Uhm (.) it's not really going on so good (.) making a trekking so far.
A: Oh. Do you need people?
B: We are seeking a trainer (.) like waiting for the trainer for (.) in September or October.
A: Oh that's good
B: Yeah (.) It's like excitingly training class. And then we'll start very very classes in October (.) November.

A: You're going Nepali wedding or:.
B: Yeah! Oh↑ Nepali wedding that they take foreign.
A: >Friends are coming<
B: Yeah yeah. (nodding)
A: Very nice. You know we all are like.....
B: [up and down]
A: Up and down (.) you know somebody told like this (.) life is like a (.) if
your're standing down there you know (.) life is always up
B: Yeah
A: If you're standing here (.) life is like that (showing in the sky)
B: Yeah.
A: And if yhou're standing there (showing in the sky) life is here (showing
downwards)
B: Yeah↑ yeah (nodding) yeah exactly.
A: Hehehe
(A whispers something to B)
B: Oh yeah?
A: Oh really, but (.) uhm not sure huh (.) like she wanna exhibit some trails
B: O::h

Speech Event -19

A: Why do you come to Nepal?
B: Because I heard about the biggest mountain.
A: Yeah.
B: I actually talked to all friends who's been to Nepal.
A: Oh, did you get information like by internet or by some friends (.) how did
you get information?
B: No (.) as we looking on internet on the photo, that is shown (.) hehehe.
A: You know already that there is Nepal?

B: Yeah (.) uhm I spent three months in India because of my best friend that I used to go with him.

A: Nodding

B: Then I set (.) I planned to Nepal.

A: Nice

B: But I heard from my aunt and some other people about trekking,

A: O.k. swiss man (.) so what you did in Nepal?

B: Uhm (.) trekking

A: Trekking (nodding)

B: Trekking (.) climbing (.) visiting (.) uhm↑ I have followed few works.

A: uhm↑ that's very nice. What did you do in work?

B: Me?

A: Yeah (.) what you did ?

B: Teaching English.

A: Oh, that's very nice (.) so how you find (.) you know like easy or::

B: Oh (.) it was easy.

A: Is it easy with Nepali people ? How did you find?

B: Uhm (.) they are really fine (.) well they want to play (.) but actually (.) if you can (.) if you like (0.0) o.k you know they love your clothes (.) and then photos (.) you get something (.) I get something back.

A: Yeah definitely. So if you want to work in Nepal like your volunteer work, your mountaineer, hiking (.)

B: Oh yeah yeah (nodding)

A: Everything is amazing, yeah.

B: (Nodding) Really that things recognize to Nepal. Hehehe.

A: These thing have change your life some way?

B: No.

Speech Event -20

A: Do you like it?

B: Yeah ↑ I like it (.) friendly people are everywhere (.) this is a very nice place.

A: We saw people simple (.)

B: Yeah(.)

A: You want things to buy?

B: Yeah (.) hehehe . We went to museum (.) and::: yeah (.) tomorrow again we just returning (.) and I don't know.

A: I want to buy your carpet.

B: Hehehe

A: And::: pasmina (.) what is pasmina?

B: (Laughing)

C: (A Nepali women showing pasmina) Pasmina is like this.

A: (Nodding) This is pasmina (.) o.k. (.) it's very nice.

C: You can buy special pasmina there. (Pointing to a shop)

A: Uhm (.) there is pasmina.

C: Natural pasmina like there.

(A and B): O.k

A: We just think today in kathmandu (.) think to be very beautiful city, where is nice people.

B: Yeah! (nodding) hehehe

(0.0)

B: Uhm (.) we come from France (.) and :: I don't know (.) Uhm (.) we live in countryside is very nice (.) uhm but.....

A: And now we live in Sakha in china.

B: Yeah (nodding) we actually walk in chaina (.) hehehe

A: O.k thank you.

