

TEACHERS' USE OF SPEECH STYLES IN THE KOREAN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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ABSTRACT

This study examines teachers' speech style use and shifts in upper-level Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) classrooms at an American university. It qualitatively describes how seven KFL teachers employ different speech styles during instruction to construct classroom activities and accomplish their roles as teachers. The data collected for this study comprise audio- and video-recorded conversations of seven KFL teachers and their students in the classroom. These data are supplemented by participant observation and field notes.

Although considerable attention has been recently devoted to Korean language education, the type of language used by the teachers as well as the nature of interactions occurring between teachers and students in the classroom remains an understudied topic in the field. This study analyzes teacher talk in KFL classrooms to examine the social meanings and functions of the speech styles. At present, there are only a few studies of teacher-student interactions in the Korean language classroom. This dissertation aims to contribute to a fuller understanding of classroom discourse and the teaching of Korean by providing a better idea of the language that students are exposed to in the classroom.

Traditional grammarians have proposed prototypical usages of each Korean speech style by describing the possible communicative contexts where each speech style can be used. They describe addressee honorifics as an extensive Korean grammatical system that expresses varying levels of politeness and formality. Although these traditional accounts provide solid explanations of the conditions for the use of each speech style, there are limitations to such an approach. These traditional accounts of speech styles are based on the assumption that there is a one-to-one association between the speech style and the context of its use. In this view, speech styles are mainly selected depending on the sociocultural characteristics of interlocutors. However, factors

that influence speakers' speech style selections are dynamic and complex because they are informed by the speakers' constantly changing feelings, stances, and identities in the course of interaction. This study will help us understand the various social meanings and functions of non-referential indexes through its case study of the Korean speech styles used in KFL classrooms.

By drawing on the theory of linguistic politeness, the concept of indexicality, and social constructionist views of identities, this study examines (1) which speech styles KFL teachers use and when they shift among them during instruction, (2) how the shifts in speech styles allow teachers to construct classroom activities and accomplish their roles as teachers, (3) how KFL teachers establish their identities variably by drawing on speech styles, and (4) how students respond to changes in teachers' speech styles. Thus, by exploring KFL teacher talk, this study accounts for what determines the teachers' speech style choices by relating speech style choice to their identities, which are shaped by the interactional demands during instruction.

The analyses of KFL teachers' speech style use offered in this dissertation provide a foundation for practical suggestions for enriching the input available to students and improving the teaching of speech styles. The findings can ultimately contribute to the design of professional development for teachers by helping teachers become more analytical of their own instructional practices. It is my hope that the outcomes of this study will help teachers in their efforts to provide a richer language environment for students with respect to speech styles.

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TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

(Adapted from Ochs, Schegloff, and Thompson, 1996, pp. 461–465)

- [The point at which overlapping talk starts
-] The point at which overlapping talk ends
- = If the two lines connected by the equal signs are produced: (1) by the same speaker, the continuous talk is broken up to accommodate the placement of overlapping talk; (2) by different speakers, the second follows the first with no discernable silence between them (i.e., “latched” to it).
- (0.0) The length of silence in tenths of a second
- (.) Micro-pause
- word Some form of stress or emphasis, either by increased loudness or higher pitch
- ° A passage of talk quieter than the surrounding talk
- ::: The prolongation or stretching of the preceding sound
- . Falling or final intonation
- ? Rising intonation
- , Half-rising intonation
- (()) Transcriber’s remark

ABBREVIATIONS

*	Ungrammatical or inappropriate
AC	Accusative particle
AD	Adverbial suffix; adverbializer
AH	Addressee honorific
DC	Declarative sentence-type suffix
DEF	Deferential speech style ending
DR	Directional particle
GN	Genitive particle
Hon.	Honorific word
HT	Honorific title
IN	Indicative mood suffix
INF	Infinitive suffix
INT	Intimate speech level or suffix
NM	Nominative speech level or suffix
NOM	Nominalizer suffix
PL	Plural suffix or particle
PLN	Plain speech style ending
POL	Polite speech style ending
PRM	Promissive sentence-type suffix
PRS	Prospective modal suffix
PST	Past tense and perfect aspect suffix
Q	Question marker, i.e., interrogative sentence-type suffix
QT	Quotative particle
RL	Relativizer (or adnominal modifier) suffix
RT	Retrospective mood suffix
SH	Subject honorific suffix
SMF	Semi-formal speech level or suffix
TC	Topic-contrast particle
VOC	Vocative particle

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Research Objectives

The primary objective of this dissertation research is to demonstrate how teachers of Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) utilize speech styles¹ during instruction. Teachers accomplish different interactional functions and take on multiple subject positions in the classroom through manipulating the speech styles available to them. Korean utilizes an extensive system of speech styles (the so-called “addressee honorifics”) in everyday interaction to indicate social relationships between speakers and addressees. Korean speech styles are determined by sentence-final suffixes attached to verbs and adjectives. This study scrutinizes teachers’ use of speech styles by conducting qualitative analyses to demonstrate the general patterns of speech style use that seven participants adopt while teaching. Qualitative analysis allows deeper understandings of how speech styles are employed to perform interactional functions and the contexts in which speech styles are used.

Korean speakers select speech styles according to the sociocultural background of the addressees in terms of the following categories: age, social status, kinship, in-groupness, and out-groupness (Sohn, 1999).² However, the function of Korean speech styles is not restricted to merely indicating hierarchical social relationships between a speaker and an addressee. Rather, speech styles carry out interactional functions and exhibit identities for the speaker. Therefore, in the context of a classroom, choosing to use particular speech styles plays a part in the

¹ The speech styles are often called “speech levels” because they are considered as expressing different levels or degrees of politeness and/or formality. However, in this study, the term “speech styles” is used instead of “speech levels” because they express not only politeness and/or formality, but also many other social meanings.

² See Lee and Ramsey (2000) for further discussion of possible factors (e.g., age, relationships formed at school, generational structure within a family, reckoning of the degree of kinship, occupational position, social class, gender, solidarity) that affect how the Korean honorifics system is used.

construction of a teacher's roles and social identities, which in turn contribute to the uniqueness of each teacher's approach to teaching by making the dynamics and the atmosphere of every classroom different. In order to better understand how speech styles contribute to a teacher's construction of social identities in an academic setting, this study examines the speech style use and speech style shifts of seven KFL teachers in upper-level Korean language classes.

The traditional approach to Korean speech styles has established a well-defined descriptive and normative usage in ordinary conversation. These studies focus on explaining the prescriptive rules that guide the language user to select speech styles based on their inherent deference and formality. Although these traditional descriptions of Korean speech styles are insightful, they do not provide sufficient information to account for the dynamic and strategic use of Korean speech styles in real communicative situations. For one, such studies are often premised on the assumption that each speech style possesses an absolute value, with little attention paid to other potential meanings that are contextually derived. Another limitation of the traditional approach to studying Korean speech styles is its hierarchical view of speech styles.

In this traditional view, Korean speech style use is predictable in that a speaker can only use a limited set of speech styles corresponding to the power relations between a speaker and an addressee. However, in reality, Korean speakers effortlessly change speech styles to convey subtle messages about attitudes, emotions, feelings, and intentions. Alternation of speech styles is what makes dialogues spoken in Korean authentic, natural, and social.³ This study challenges the traditional, deterministic approach to speech style use by proposing that speech style use is part of an individual's management of linguistic resources to accomplish certain interactional functions as well as present and enact particular identities in a given moment.

³ A speaker's ability to alternate speech styles and present speech in a spontaneous, unrehearsed way is an indicator of fluency. Maintaining one speech style exclusively results in a monotonous and rather unnatural presentation.

Recent studies in Korean speech styles have examined the situated meanings of speech styles in ordinary and public speech (Eun & Strauss, 2004; H. R. Kim, 2010; Kim & Suh, 2007; C. Lee, 2000; Park, 2008; Strauss & Eun, 2005; Yun, 2000). They share the theoretical stance that speech style choice results from the complex interaction between the context and speaker roles. While these studies provide valuable insight into speech styles, how speech styles are employed in KFL teacher talk has been largely unexamined. Teacher talk⁴ refers to “the special language that teachers use when addressing L2 learners in the classroom” (Ellis, 1985, p. 145). In the language learning context, it is often the case that the language used is the target language, of which the teacher is a native speaker and the learners are non-native speakers. As an indispensable part of language teaching, teacher talk serves as the primary source of linguistic input in the target language and as the vehicle for teachers to deliver instruction and organize classroom activities. Although a number of studies on teacher talk and its features have been conducted in second and foreign language contexts, few studies have examined teachers’ speech style use and speech style shifts in the context of the KFL classroom. This study aims to fill that gap through a close examination of KFL teachers’ speech style use and shifts.

Drawing on the concept of linguistic politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987), the theory of indexicality (Cook, 2008a; Ochs, 1990; Silverstein, 1976), and social constructionist notions of identities (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Ochs, 1993), this study demonstrates the ways in which Korean speech styles are utilized as indicators of teacher roles and identities in the context of language learning and teaching. Identities are considered to be fluid, multiple, and shifting

⁴ The language that teachers use in class is treated as “a register, with its own specific formal and linguistic properties” (Ellis, 1985, p. 145). In other words, teacher talk is often considered as speech used by teachers that is linguistically modified in areas of phonology, syntax, lexis, and discourse for the purpose of facilitating language input. However, these characteristics of teacher talk are beyond the scope of this study.

concepts, rather than a fixed set of social categories. The notion of identity as socially constructed sees the construction of identities as occurring through social interaction.

This study offers a microanalytic qualitative analysis of classroom interaction with the primary focus being on the seven KFL teacher participants' use of speech styles. The way in which each teacher uses speech styles is closely examined in the sequential organization of talk-in-interaction (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998). Four speech styles are of particular interest:⁵ the intimate style (*-e/a(?)* form), the polite style (*-yo(?)* form), the deferential style (*-(su)pnita/- (su)pnikka?* form), and the semi-formal style (*-(u)psita* form). The polite style is considered the baseline, as it is used predominately by all of the teachers who participated in this study. The objectives of the study are twofold. First, it extends the analysis of speech style uses and shifts into the KFL classroom context. Second, it investigates how KFL teachers' speech style uses and shifts contribute to accomplishing their roles as teachers and expressing their identities. The linkages between speech styles and identities have only recently been the subject of research in Korean, hence, much work remains to be done to improve our understanding of speech style use in actual discourse.

1.2 Research Questions

Reflecting the research objectives discussed above, this study qualitatively explores teachers' use of speech styles during instruction. The study considers the distributional patterns of the speech styles that the seven teacher participants use and examines the phenomenon of speech style use in detail. I seek to answer four questions in particular. The key theoretical concepts behind these questions are discussed in detail in Chapter 2. Three analytic chapters

⁵ Speech styles or sentence-final suffixes are often labeled based on their corresponding metapragmatic meanings (e.g., "intimate," "polite," "deferential"). The degree of deference and formality is the main criterion for this labeling. These labels can represent the stereotypical belief that a single meaning exists for each suffix ending while overlooking other potential meanings that are contextually derived. In this study, although these labels are used to refer to each speech style, I do not associate any particular metapragmatic meaning with the labels prior to analysis.

follow, each focusing on different speech styles and presenting an analysis guided by the same set of questions. Although previous studies have demonstrated speech style use in Korean by analyzing conversational data, they have not examined instances of teachers' speech style use in a systematic manner. To address this gap, this research uses classroom interactions as the main source of data to investigate the following questions:

1. Which speech styles do teachers use in the KFL classroom? What are the functions of each speech style used in the classroom? On what occasions do teachers shift their speech styles?
2. What types of classroom activities do teachers implement through speech styles? Within an activity, what roles and actions do they perform?
3. Based on the answers to #1 and #2, what kinds of social identities do teachers construct through using different speech styles?
4. How do students perceive speech style shifting and make sense of changes in context? What is the impact of teachers' speech style shifts on student participation?

Throughout this study, I hope to illuminate certain aspects of L2 classroom communication and to raise awareness of the importance of researching instructional processes. It is my intention that the findings help teachers of Korean and other languages make better decisions about their own teaching.

The answers to the research questions provide a comprehensive understanding of which speech styles KFL teachers use and when they employ them in teaching. The results of this study also explain how shifts in speech styles allow teachers to create classroom activities and fill their roles as teachers. The findings demonstrate how KFL teachers establish their identities variably through drawing on speech styles. In addition, this study provides insight into how teachers'

utilization of different speech styles is a consequential matter for the students by illustrating the ways in which students respond to changes in teachers' speech styles. Consequently, the analyses will help to provide a foundation for examining KFL classroom discourse, as well as a basis for practical suggestions for enriching the input available to students and improving the teaching of speech styles. Teachers' use of speech styles serves a dual purpose. By using specific speech styles, the teacher not only constructs his or her identities, but also models appropriate language use for the students so that they can use the language themselves in real communication situations.

1.3 The Classroom as a Research Site

This study explores how seven KFL teachers employ different speech styles during instruction to construct classroom activities and fulfill their roles as teachers. The data were collected in seven KFL classrooms at an American university. The data collected for this study comprise audio- and video-recorded conversations of the seven KFL teachers and their students in the classroom.

For learners of foreign languages who do not have easy access to a community of native speakers of the target language, the classroom is the main place where they acquire linguistic knowledge (e.g., grammar, vocabulary) as well as appropriate ways of using the language within the target society. To a large extent, in foreign language learning contexts, students' exposure to natural language use and opportunities for target language interaction are restricted to the language classroom setting. In Ohta's (1993) view, a language classroom is a socializing space in which students can be equipped with the norms and values of the target language society and therefore function as competent, full-fledged members of the particular society (Ochs &

Schieffelin, 1984). In foreign language contexts, the type of input and interaction made available by teachers has a crucial role in creating a linguistically rich environment for students.

The language classroom is a complex and dynamic discourse environment (Breen, 1985; Edmondson, 1985). Communication in the classroom is multilayered; a typical class lesson is composed of consecutive activities in which students construct their knowledge through social interactions with the teacher and other students. In this study, an activity is considered a goal-defined and socially constituted event (Levinson, 1992) engaged in by learners for the purpose of acquiring certain skills or concepts. Activities that can occur in the language classroom vary in structure and function; no classroom interaction is either purely instructional or entirely social (Kramsch, 1985).

Classroom activities can range from those with a clearly defined pedagogic goal to those with a social and interpersonal goal. The structure of the activities designed for pedagogic purposes tends to be highly organized and formal because the goal of such activities is to develop new knowledge and skills in the students. On the other hand, the structure of the activities implemented for social purposes is likely to be more unplanned and relaxed because the goal of such activities is to maintain rapport. An example of this type of activity would be a casual talk about a personal matter, which may or may not be set up by the teacher. Socially oriented activities are equally important to the teaching of language as they can enhance students' natural communication and social skills.

Ohta (1993) emphasized the importance of researching the spoken interactions of the classroom in order to understand whether the classroom environment appropriately prepares students for successful interaction with native speakers. In spite of the common belief that learning is fostered through classroom interaction, little attention has been given to exploring the

actual practices of language teachers in the classroom (Seedhouse, 2004). Seedhouse argued that researching actual classroom practices provides an empirical basis for evaluating the effectiveness of language instruction. Understanding of teacher talk will ultimately help teachers to better accommodate students' needs. Therefore, more research that examines naturally occurring talk in the classroom in detail is needed to gain greater insight into the functions of teacher talk and its potential contribution to language learning.

Building on Ohta's (1993) idea of the language classroom as a rich and important research site, this study analyzes teacher talk in the institutional setting of L2 classrooms, aiming to fill the gap in the existing literature by shedding light on how teachers use different speech styles to construct their identities and meet their own interactional and pedagogical needs in the KFL classroom.

1.4 The Targeted Speech Event

In this study, face-to-face interactions between teachers and students are the targeted speech event. Hall and Walsh (2002) pointed out the importance of classroom interaction in language learning. They claimed that an interaction is both the "medium through which learning is realized and an object of pedagogical attention" (p. 187). According to Wells (1981), linguistic interaction involves "the establishment of a triangular relationship between the sender, the receiver and the context of situation" (pp. 46–47). The role of interaction is consequential in "the creation of effectual learning environments and ultimately in the shaping of individual learners' development" because the majority of learning opportunities are created through face-to-face interactions with others (Hall & Walsh, 2002, p. 187).

Although considerable attention has been recently devoted to Korean language education, the type of language used by teachers, as well as the nature of interactions occurring between

teachers and students in the classroom, remains an understudied topic in the field. As Hall and Smotrova (2013) have pointed out, research on classroom discourse has mainly focused on “official forms of instructional talk” while overlooking the organizational aspects of classroom discourse (p. 75). This research examines the social meanings and functions of the speech styles used in teacher talk in L2 classrooms by conducting case studies. At present, there are only a few studies of teacher-student interactions in the Korean language classroom. This dissertation aims to contribute to a fuller understanding of classroom discourse and the teaching of Korean by providing a better idea of the language that students are exposed to in the classroom.

1.5 Organization of the Dissertation

In order to answer the research questions in Section 1.2, this study examines instances of speech style use and shifts in context and investigates the distinctive functions and social identities associated with each speech style used by the teacher participants.

The dissertation is organized as follows. Chapter 1 has described the research objectives and discussed the research questions, the research site, and the targeted speech event. Chapter 2 provides a literature review in order to present the relevant previous research and the theoretical background of this study. In Chapter 2, I review how prior research has explored speech styles both from prescriptive and discourse analytic perspectives. I then explicate the notions of linguistic politeness, indexicality, and social identities, which are the basis of the study’s theoretical framework.

Chapter 3 provides a description of the classrooms in which data collection was conducted and a discussion of the methodology employed in this study. Here, I give background information on each class and the study’s participants. I also explain the steps I took to conduct the qualitative analysis of the teacher talk. I discuss in detail the processes of data collection and

data analysis, which included frequency counts and the development of a coding system for sentence enders, as well as the sequential analysis of the interactional data.

Based on the framework described in Chapters 1 through 3, Chapters 4 through 6 analyze teacher-student interactions with a focus on showing dynamic aspects of teachers' use of speech styles. Each of the analysis chapters begins by discussing the frequency with which each teacher uses the speech styles and then presents a detailed and contextualized analysis. The qualitative analyses in Chapters 4, 5, and 6 are presented along with data excerpts that demonstrate the interactional functions of each speech style used and the multiple facets of teacher identities.

Chapter 4 examines teachers' use of the honorific speech styles (polite and deferential styles) in a classroom setting. This chapter describes the contexts in which the teachers use the honorific speech styles in teacher-student interactions and the functions these honorific styles perform in such interactive situations. The first part of the chapter shows how teachers predominantly use the polite style to deliver instruction. Excerpts highlight the teachers' use of the polite style when asking students questions related to class activities, directing students to follow instructions, and explaining concepts. The second part of the chapter illustrates the teachers' use of the deferential style, which frames their utterances as formal statements. Here, I describe seven uses of the style that were observed in the data: (1) opening the lesson, (2) marking a discourse boundary, (3) positively evaluating students' speech, (4) announcing classroom activities, (5) providing a summary, (6) closing the lesson, and (7) drawing students' attention.

Chapter 5 illustrates how teachers draw on the intimate speech style to deliver their inner thoughts and engage students in solidarity-building conversations. The chapter touches upon the characteristics of teachers' self-talk and social talk, both of which have been overlooked in the

L2 classroom literature. The first part of Chapter 5 demonstrates how teachers use the intimate style so as to index self-addressed talk, and the second part of the chapter illustrates how teachers use the intimate style to build intimacy with their students.

Chapter 6 examines teachers' use of the semi-formal speech style, especially its propositive form, *-(u)psita*. Teachers occasionally employ the *-(u)psita* form at the boundary between activities or phases of activities to signal to students that the present topic or activity is finished and a new one will start. This usage of the form has not previously been described; it is traditionally considered to have a very limited use as a style to be addressed to lower status people.

Chapter 7 is the concluding chapter of this dissertation. In this chapter, I summarize each analysis chapter (Chapters 4–6) and then discuss implications drawn from the findings of this study. I end by presenting some limitations of this study and by making a few suggestions for future research on teachers' use of speech styles in classroom settings.

CHAPTER 2

Speech Styles and Classroom Discourse

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the previous research and theoretical background relevant to this study. It first discusses the cultural origins of honorifics and the prototypical usage of each Korean speech style. It then examines creative uses of Korean and Japanese speech styles in different communicative settings from a discourse analytic perspective. This chapter also discusses the concept of politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987), the theory of indexicality (Cook, 2008a; Ochs, 1990; Silverstein, 1976), and social constructionist notions of identities (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Ochs, 1993) as the fundamental components of the theoretical framework I use to analyze the data.

2.2 Prescriptive Views of Korean Speech Styles

2.2.1 The cultural origins of honorific speech

This section describes the history and background of the Korean honorific system and outlines politeness ideologies specific to the Korean cultural setting that influence the way in which the use of honorifics is perceived. Honorifics are defined as “direct grammatical encodings of relative social status between participants, or between participants and persons or things referred to in the communicative events” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 179). Confucian ideology has played a fundamental role in shaping Korean culture, lifestyles, and morals.⁶ Its strong impact on Korean cultural values and belief systems is reflected in the ways people use the Korean language, including the use of honorifics (Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Park, 2006).

⁶ The era of globalization has intensified challenges to Confucian cultural practices, especially the existing norms of values associated with gender roles and inequalities within the family and society. Korean society has been undergoing a transition from a traditional society to an egalitarian society. Thus, in present-day Korean society, two distinct sets of social values coexist, one based on the traditional and conservative values and another on foreign and liberal values.

The goal of Confucian teaching is to create a stable and harmonious social order by first establishing hierarchical social relationships based on gender, age, and position in society. This teaching has greatly influenced how Korean relationships are defined. According to Confucian ethics, each relationship has a clear higher and lower member. There is thus a hierarchical order in the relationships between the ruler and the governed, parents and children, husband and wife, older siblings and younger siblings, and older friends and younger friends (Min, 2000; Sohn, 1986). Confucian principles suggest that harmony is achieved when people fulfill social roles and behave appropriately within these hierarchical relationships (K. Kim, 1996). For instance, younger people are expected to display respect and deference toward older people by humbly listening to them and showing willingness to learn from them, thereby creating stable and well-ordered families and communities. The Korean language reflects and embodies the hierarchical order derived from Confucianism.

The use of addressee honorifics contributes to the maintenance of this harmony. It is a sociocultural norm in Korean society; parents socialize their children into using appropriate honorifics and maintaining a polite demeanor as an important means of displaying respect to others (Park, 2006). The intricate and stratified structure of the Korean honorific system is prevalent in current usages (Sohn, 1999). It appears in various lexical and morphosyntactic linguistic elements: (1) personal pronouns (e.g., *na* ‘plain form I’ vs. *ce* ‘humble form I’), (2) address-reference terms (e.g., *apeci* ‘father’ vs. *ape-nim* ‘hon. father’), (3) nouns, predicates, and particles (e.g., *cip* ‘house’ vs. *tayk* ‘hon. house’), (4) subject- and addressee-honorific suffixes (e.g., the inflectional suffix *-(u)si*), and (5) speech styles (e.g., the plain, intimate, familiar, semi-formal, polite, and deferential styles).

Honorifics are “resources for indexing the relative position of interlocutors, referents and bystanders either in the lexicon or the morpho-syntax of a language” (Brown, 2011, p. 19). Korean honorifics are usually classified into two major categories: addressee honorification and referent honorification. Sohn (1999) defined honorifics as “grammatical and lexical forms encoding the speaker’s socio-culturally appropriate regard towards the addressee (i.e., addressee honorification) and the referent (i.e., referent honorification)” (p. 445). Addressee honorification indicates the speaker’s respect and deference toward the person being spoken to, and referent honorification denotes the speaker’s regard for a referent, the person being talked about. Addressee honorification, referent honorification, and a combination of the two allow for varying degrees of honorific meaning (Lee & Ramsey, 2000). Sohn (1999) asserted that in actual interpersonal communication, addressee honorifics are more crucial than referent honorifics because of “the subtlety of interpersonal feelings and face involved in face-to-face interactions” (p. 414). The addressee honorifics construct various aspects of context and specify relationships between interlocutors.

Of these two categories of honorifics, this study focuses on addressee honorifics, which are also known as speech styles, because addressee honorifics play a crucial function in displaying socially appropriate linguistic behavior. Korean speakers must always choose between honorific and non-honorific sentence final suffixes to produce a complete utterance. The Korean addressee honorific system is used to construct various aspects of context and specifies a rigid superior-inferior⁷ relationship between interlocutors engaging in communicative practices.

⁷ In this study, the terms “superior” and “inferior” are not used as derogatory terms. They simply specify the relative ages and social positions of the speakers. This information is the foundation for speakers to figure out where to locate themselves in relation to addressees in order to adjust their speech styles and mannerisms. For this reason, inquiring a person’s age is a common practice in Korean culture, which can be considered rude and offensive in Western culture. Korean people sometimes ask someone’s birth year or college class year as an indirect way of asking age.

The relationship is created on the basis of current sociocultural factors, defining each member at that moment in time. These factors include status, rank, sex, age, kinship, and many others. In general, a socially superior person is someone older or of higher status, or a stranger of roughly equal or greater age (e.g., an employer, a teacher, a customer). A socially inferior person is someone younger or of lower status (e.g., a younger stranger, a student, an employee). This social hierarchy has supported the development of elaborate speech styles and honorific registers that further complicate ways of communicating.

Korean has a productive set of speech styles to denote addressee honorifics (Rue & Zhang, 2008; Sohn, 1999). Speech styles mark “a hierarchical notion of greater or lesser degree of power or solidarity from the speaker’s point of view toward the addressee” (Yun, 1993, p. 103). According to Sohn (1999), there are six speech styles in Korean. These speech styles are represented by distinctive suffixes that are attached to the stem of a verb or an adjective. Verbs and adjectives are placed at the end of a clause or a sentence. Because suffixes are added to the end of a sentence, they are often called “sentence enders” or “sentence final particles.” These suffixes are determined by an utterance’s speech style and sentence type.

The six speech styles are commonly referred to as plain, intimate, familiar, semi-formal, polite, and deferential. The first four styles (the plain, intimate, familiar, and semi-formal styles) are considered non-honorific styles, whereas the latter two (the polite and deferential styles) are considered honorific styles (Sohn, 1999). This division also reflects the Korean common-sense distinction between *panmal* (informal, intimate speech, lit. ‘half-language’) and *contaymal* (respectful speech) (Brown, 2011). In other words, the addressee honorific system in Korean allows speakers to convey the same message in both honorific and non-honorific styles. Therefore, speakers choose appropriate speech styles based on their social relationships with the

addressees. Although the underlying messages are essentially the same, an utterance delivered in an honorific style conveys a message beyond its literal, semantic meaning. Depending on the situation, the meaning of an honorific speech style varies from respect and deference to flattery, joking, or sarcasm. The intended meaning can be inferred from contextual clues. In addition, although the focus of this study is speech styles, it should be noted that Korean speakers combine these speech styles with other linguistic resources to index their relationship with the hearer (Brown, 2010a). For example, to make a sentence deferential, a speaker may combine the subject honorific *-si* with the polite speech style sentence ender *-yo*, as in *eti ka-si-e.yo?* (“Where are you going?”).

The most frequently used styles in modern Korean are the plain, intimate, polite, and deferential styles (Song, 2005). The familiar and semi-formal styles appear only in limited social environments. Table 2.1 illustrates how different sentence enders are intertwined with various sentence types: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and propositive.

Table 2.1
Six speech styles with the four major sentence types

		Declarative	Interrogative	Imperative	Propositive
-Honorific	Plain	<i>-ta</i>	<i>-ni?/-(nu)nya?</i>	<i>-kela/E⁸la</i>	<i>-ca</i>
	Intimate	<i>-e/a</i>	<i>-e/a?</i>	<i>-e/a</i>	<i>-e/a</i>
	Familiar	<i>-ne-y</i>	<i>-na?/-nunka?</i>	<i>-key</i>	<i>-sey</i>
	Semi-formal	<i>-(s)ol-(s)wu</i>	<i>-(s)o?/-(s)wu?</i>	<i>-(u)ol-wu</i>	<i>-(u)psita</i>
+Honorific	Polite	<i>-yo</i>	<i>-yo?</i>	<i>-yo</i>	<i>-yo</i>
	Deferential	<i>-(sup)pnita</i>	<i>-(su)pnikka?</i>	<i>-sipsio</i>	<i>-(u)sipsita</i>

(adapted from Sohn, 1999, p. 413)

Speech style alternation within honorific or non-honorific styles as well as between the honorific and non-honorific styles is a common phenomenon in Korean. Further discussion on this phenomenon will be presented in Section 2.2.4 (Recent studies on Korean and Japanese speech

⁸ *E* represents “the alternation between *-a* (after *a* and *o* in the preceding syllable) and *-e* (elsewhere)” (Sohn, 1999, p. 413).

styles). In what follows, I will discuss the general usage of Korean addressee honorifics, which will provide a basis for understanding how speech styles work in classroom settings.

2.2.2 Definition and usage of the Korean speech styles

Speech styles have been traditionally classified in terms of \pm deference and \pm formality, as Table 2.2 shows. Suh (1984) and Sung (1985) offered this two-dimensional model, which was later criticized for viewing “formality” and “informality” as static characteristics of speech styles. The application of the so-called formal speech styles is not restricted to formal settings as the model would suggest. Yoon (2010) claimed that the notion of formality is “a matter of degree rather than something that can be dichotomized” (p. 118). \pm Formality features cannot fully explain the complex nature of a discourse event in which speakers mix both formal and informal speech styles with the same addressees according to the changing degree of formality (Eun & Strauss, 2004; Strauss & Eun, 2005). In Table 2.2, the six speech styles are classified in terms of deference and formality.

Table 2.2

The \pm deference and formality model of Korean speech styles

	+Formality	-Formality
+Deference	Deferential style Polite style	Plain style
-Deference	Familiar style Semi-formal style	Intimate style

(adapted from Brown, 2011, p. 24)

According to Song (2005, p. 124), the six speech styles can be placed on a continuum of deference (i.e., from less to more deferential), as in Table 2.3.

used in written Korean when writing for general readers, including in textbooks, news reports, or academic publications (Lee & Ramsey, 2000). When it is used in such texts, it indexes the writer's objective and impersonal approach to communication (Song, 2005).

The intimate style is commonly referred to as *panmal*, which can be literally translated as “half, halfway, incomplete speech” (Kim-Renaud, 2001, p. 27). It is normally formed simply by subtracting the polite style suffix *-yo* (Sohn, 1999); therefore, the intimate style ending is the *-e/a* form, as shown in Table 2.1. Although most Korean speech styles have different endings for different sentence types (declarative, interrogative, propositive, imperative), in the intimate style all four sentence types are marked by the same ending *-e/a*. The only exception is for the copula *(i)ta* ‘to be’: its intimate form is *(i)ya* and its polite counterpart is *-i-eyyo/-yey-yo* (See Table 2.4 for examples). For the intimate form of *(i)ta* ‘to be’, *-iya* is used after a noun ending in a consonant whereas *-ya* is used after a noun ending in a vowel (Sohn, 1999). For its polite counterpart, *-i-eyyo* is used when the noun ends in a consonant while *-yey-yo* is used when the noun ends in a vowel. The sentences in Example 2.1 illustrate how the same *-e/a* form is applied to all sentence types.

Example 2.1: Four sentence types with the intimate style ending

(1) Declarative

(na-nun) pap mek-e.
(I-TC) meal eat-INT
‘(I’m) eating the meal.’

(2) Interrogative

(ne-nun) pap mek-e?
(you-TC) meal eat-INT
‘(Do you) eat the meal?’

plain style to indicate newly perceived information also extends to exclamations, such as *yeyppu-ta!* (‘how pretty!’) and *masiss-ta!* (‘how delicious!’) (Choo, 2006).

(3) Propositive

(*wuli*) *pap mek-e*.

(we) meal eat-INT

'Let's eat the meal.'

(4) Imperative

(*ne*) *pap mek-e*.

(you) meal eat-INT

'Eat the meal.'

The intimate style is similar to the plain style¹⁰ in that it is used when talking with close friends of a similar age, family members, or people who are younger (Lee & Ramsey, 2000). In addition, the intimate style is the style that young children learn first and use to communicate with adult family members. Brown (2011) claimed that parents increasingly prefer to be addressed in *panmal* (non-honorific language) rather than *contaymal* (honorific language) due to “an increase in the effects of solidarity on the use of Korean honorifics” (p. 27). As indicated by its name, the intimate style often has been associated with intimacy and familiarity.

Lee and Ramsey (2000) described the intimate and polite styles as “the twin pillars of the speech style system of modern Korean” (p. 260). Korean speakers are sensitive to the presence or absence of the *-yo* ending in speech because it forms the boundary between *contaymal* (honorific language) and *panmal* (non-honorific language) (Brown, 2011). Korean speakers today add *-yo* to an utterance as a convenient means of making the speech polite (Lee & Ramsey, 2000). Table 2.4 lists the forms and provides examples of the intimate and polite styles and shows how the addition or deletion of the *-yo* form can mark the intimate or polite style. The targeted speech style endings appear in boldface.

¹⁰ Lee and Ramsey (2000) claimed that there are differences between the two styles. Their basis for distinguishing the intimate style from the plain style is the degree of social distance between the speaker and the addressee. According to Lee and Ramsey, although both the plain and intimate styles are associated with intimacy and familiarity, the intimate style signals a little more social distance than the plain style does.

Table 2.4*Examples of the intimate and polite speech styles*

	Intimate Style	Polite Style
Verbs (mek- ‘eat’)	<i>mek-e.</i> eat-INT ‘(I) eat.’	<i>mek-e.yo.</i> eat-POL ‘(I) eat.’
Adjectives (cak- ‘small’)	<i>cak-a.</i> small-INT ‘(It’s) small.’	<i>cak-a.yo.</i> small-POL ‘(It’s) small.’
Copula (i- ‘be’)	<i>haksayng-i-ya.</i> student-be-INT ‘(I’m) a student.’ <i>chinkwu-ya.</i> friend-be-INT ‘(She/he is) a friend.’ <i>haksayng-i ani-ya.</i> student-NM not be-INT ‘(I’m) not a student.’ <i>chikwu-ka ani-ya.</i> friend-NM not be-INT ‘(She/he is) not a friend.’	<i>haksayng-i-ey-yo.</i> student-be-POL ‘(I’m) a student.’ <i>chinkwu-yey-yo.</i> friend-be-POL ‘(She/he is) a friend.’ <i>haksayng-i ani-ey-yo.</i> student-NM not be-POL ‘(I’m) not a student.’ <i>chinkwu-ka ani-yey-yo.</i> friend-NM not be-INT ‘(She/he is) not a friend.’

In addition to the most representative intimate style ending *-e/a*, in modern Korean there are recently created sentence enders such as *-na*, *-ci*, *-nunka*, *-nunci*, *-nuntey*, *-ketun*, *-tanikka*, and *-telako*, which can be considered to belong to the *panmal* group (Han, 2004; Kim-Renaud, 2001; Sohn, 2007; Yoon, 2010). These enders, which may have originated from subordinate clausal final enders, are used to mitigate the illocutionary force of an utterance (Sohn, 2007). Kim-Renaud (2001) referred to these enders as “panmal-style forms” (p. 42). They occur in only two speech styles, the polite and the intimate; if the polite style ender *-yo* is eliminated, the utterance is regarded as the intimate style (Sohn, 2007; Yoon, 2010). For example, in the

discussion in Section 5.2.1, I consider the self-addressed question particle *-na* ‘I wonder’¹¹ to be an intimate-style sentence ender because no suffix follows *-na*. The self-addressed question particle *-na* is speaker-oriented and does not seek an answer from the addressee (Jang, 1999). Table 2.5 shows examples of the newly created sentence enders, which can be considered to belong to the *panmal* group, and their polite style equivalents (see Han, 2004 for more information). Notice that the two styles – the intimate and the polite styles – can be differentiated by the presence of *-yo* (Byon, 2006). The marker *-yo*, which occurs in the sentence-final position, has the function of transforming an intimate-level sentence into a polite-level one.

Table 2.5
Examples of the newly created sentence endings

	Intimate Style	Polite Style
Declarative	<i>-ci, -key, -ney, -nunkwun, -tey, -ketun, -nuntey, -ko, -tana, -cana, -ulana, -nuntako, -nunyako, -cako, -ulako, -nuntanikka, -naynikka, -canikka, -ulanikka, -illay, -ulkey, -nunkel, -ulkel, -komalko, -tamata</i>	<i>-ci-yo, -key-yo, -ney-yo, -nunkwun-yo, -tey-yo, -ketun-yo, -nuntey-yo, -ko-yo, -tana-yo, -cana-yo, -ulana-yo, -nuntako-yo, -nunyako-yo, -cako-yo, -ulako-yo, -nuntanikka-yo, -naynikka-yo, -canikka-yo, -ulanikka-yo, -illay-yo, -ulkey-yo, -nunkel-yo, -ulkel-yo, -komalko-yo, -tamata-yo</i>
Interrogative	<i>-ci, -key, -ney, -nunka, -na, -tey, -nuntey, -ko, -tani, -nyani, -cani, -ulani, -nuntako, -nunyako, -cako, -lako, -nuntamyense, -camyense, -ulamyense, -nuntay, -nuntaci, -ulkka, -ullay, -nunci</i>	<i>-ci-yo, -key-yo, -ney-yo, -nunka-yo, -na-yo, -tey-yo, -nuntey-yo, -ko-yo, -tani-yo, -nyani-yo, -cani-yo, -ulani-yo, -nuntako-yo, -nunyako-yo, -cako-yo, -lako-yo, -nuntamyense-yo, -camyense-yo, -ulamyense-yo, -nuntay-yo, -nuntaci-yo, -ulkka-yo, -ullay-yo, -nunci-yo</i>
Propositive	<i>-ci</i>	<i>-ci-yo</i>
Imperative	<i>-ci, -ko</i>	<i>-ci-yo, -ko-yo</i>

(adapted from Han, 2004)

¹¹ The following examples of simple sentences show the use of the self-addressed question particle *-na*: (1) *halapeci-ka ilena-sy-ess-na?* ‘I wonder whether grandfather woke up’ and (2) *na-nun encey kyelhonha-l swu iss-na?* ‘I wonder when I can marry’.

The familiar style is usually used by a person higher in social rank to a person lower in social rank as well as between relatives and in-laws (Sohn, 1983). The style has fallen into disuse and is now considered almost archaic. However, some older male speakers still use it. For example, it can be used by a male professor to a student, a male boss to a younger subordinate, a father-in-law to a son-in-law, a father to a son's friend, or a male who wants to show respect to a childhood friend when they are adults. This style expresses the speaker's courtesy and consideration to the addressee (Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Song, 2005) and is more formal than the intimate style (Sohn, 1999). Although the familiar style is used to denote respect, it can be perceived as authoritative because it is usually used to someone under the speaker's influence.

Similarly, the semi-formal style, also called the blunt style, is not commonly used in daily communication (Sohn, 1999). As modern Korean speakers favor less formal and ritualistic communication, the polite style has replaced the semi-formal style, which is characterized as authoritative and rigid (Lee & Ramsey, 2000). It is considered slightly more courteous than the familiar style (Song, 2005). An adult may use the semi-formal style when addressing someone in an inferior position in terms of age or social rank, and expressing a certain level of courtesy. According to Choo (2006), older-generation speakers may still use this style; however, contemporary younger-generation speakers rarely use it. Traditionally, middle-aged or older men have used it more frequently than women. For example, it can be used by a husband speaking with his wife, an older man speaking with a younger classmate, or a male superior at a workplace speaking with a subordinate. Interestingly, although the semi-formal style is hardly used in contemporary spoken Korean, it is widely used in historical dramas and movies as well as traditional literary works. In written documents, the style is found in test papers and signs that provide an authoritative direction or instruction. The familiar and semi-formal styles are good

examples of power-laden speech styles that have to a large extent disappeared from current colloquial Korean due to the transformation of social structures (Sohn, 1983, 1999).¹²

This study examines only the propositive form of the semi-formal style, the *-(u)psita* form. Although the semi-formal style is rarely used in declaratives, interrogatives, and imperatives, its propositive form, the *-(u)psita* form, is still occasionally used in contemporary Korean. A discussion of the general usage of the *-(u)psita* form is relevant in this study because it provides the basis for understanding how the form works in classroom settings.

The meaning of the *-(u)psita* form is equivalent to the English expression “let’s” (e.g., *ka-psita* ‘Let’s go’) (Sohn, 1999). Thus, the form is used to invite an individual, usually of lower or equal status, to participate in a joint action. Close adult friends, especially when they are middle aged or older, may use this form to suggest doing something together. In addition, the *-(u)psita* form can be used to address a group of people. For example, when a group stages a protest, they can use this form to show their members solidarity as equals. In addition, teachers may employ the form to talk to the whole class in situations that require authority in order to project solidarity for a joint action and formality for a transition. In addition, by using the form, teachers pay respect to the students as adults (Song, 2005), while still maintaining a social distance.

Syntactically, it consists of three morphemes: the addressee honorific (*-(u)p*), the requestive (*-si*), and the propositive marker (*-ta*) (Sohn, 1999). Pragmatically, it is not appropriate for a person of a lower status to use the form to a person of a higher status because it does not imply a high degree of politeness and respect (Lee & Ramsey, 2000) (See Sentence A in

¹² Since the 1980s, when Western values began to be introduced and disseminated in Korea via globalization, Koreans have experienced significant changes in their daily lives. As a result, Korean value systems have also changed, in favor of embracing an egalitarian ideology originating from the West. Through this globalization process, Koreans have adopted a new perspective toward social relationships while attempting to replace superiority-based, hierarchical social relationships with horizontal social relationships.

Example 2.2). For example, if a student were to speak to a former teacher in the *-(u)psita* form, as in Sentence A in Example 2.2, the student would leave the teacher with the impression that he or she is rude and offensive. This is because the utterance would be perceived as an attempt to include the listener of higher status (i.e., the teacher) in a joint action with the speaker, who is of lower status (i.e., the student). In contrast, to direct a polite proposal to a higher status person, a speaker would use the polite style with an interrogative or a more indirect expression (e.g., *sensayng-nim kuman ka-si-lkk-a.yo?* ‘Teacher, shall (we) leave now?’) (Han, 2004; Lee & Ramsey, 2000).

According to Sohn (1999), propositive sentences can be used to suggest not only “both the speaker and the hearer’s joint action, but also the speaker’s or the hearer’s action alone” (p. 274). Example 2.2 provides sentences that contain the *-(u)psita* form. Sentence A shows a pragmatically inappropriate sentence. Sentence B describes a situation in which the *-(u)psita* form suggests the speaker and hearer’s joint action. In the example, an older teacher proposes to his younger colleague to have a cup of coffee, and in the Korean social structure, this older teacher’s linguistic behavior is appropriate because the listener is younger. Sentence C illustrates a context where the *-(u)psita* form is used to suggest only the hearer’s action. In the example, a teacher tells the entire class to be quiet. In this case, although the *-(u)psita* form retains the proposal function, it does not include the participation of the speaker in the proposed action. Sentence D demonstrates a situation in which the *-(u)psita* form is employed to suggest only the speaker’s action. In the example, a passenger on a crowded bus utters *nayli-psita* ‘Let me get off’; the *-(u)psita* form does not suggest the participation of the hearer because the statement indicates only the speaker’s proposed action.

Example 2.2: Sentences with the *-(u)psita* form

- (1) pragmatically inappropriate
(a student to his former professor)
- *교수님, 저랑 함께 갑시다.
Kyoswunim, ce-lang hamkkey ka-psita.
professor me-with together go-SMF
'Professor, go together with me.'
- (2) both speaker and hearer
(an older teacher to a younger colleague)
- 김 선생, 커피 한 잔 하고 갑시다.
Kim sensayng, khephi han can hako ka-psita.
Kim teacher coffee one cup with go-SMF
'Let's have a cup of coffee.'
- (3) hearer only
(a teacher to his students)
- 조용히 합시다.
coyonghi ha-psita.
quietly do-SMF
'Let's be quiet.'
- (4) speaker only
(a bus passenger to another passenger)
- 내립니다.
nayli-psita.
get off-SMF
'Let me get off.'

The polite style is one of the most commonly and broadly used speech styles, along with the intimate style (Kim-Renaud, 2001; Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Sohn, 1999). According to Song (2006), the polite style is used in a situation where politeness is required whereas the intimate style is used to symbolize intimacy, familiarity, or friendliness. The polite style is constructed by adding the particle *-yo* to the intimate style ending *-e/a*. Unlike other speech styles, the same sentence final suffix, *-yo*, is consistently used across the four sentence types: declaratives, interrogatives, imperatives, and propositives (Sohn, 1999). Children and adults widely use this style to speak to adults in informal and everyday conversation.

Lukoff (1982) terms the polite style the “honorific ordinary style” (p. 122) as it is appropriate for most situations, regardless of the addressee’s social status or age. The style is considered widely appropriate because it carries “an inherent meaning of respect for human

dignity” (Kim-Renaud, 2001, p. 34). Lee and Ramsey (2000) described the polite style as “the all-purpose style used with superiors and inferiors alike” (p. 259). Brown (2011) stated that the polite style represents “the most universal of the Korean speech styles in that it can be used both with superiors and with those of similar or younger age (when intimacy is low)” (p. 28). Furthermore, according to Choo (2006) and Hwang (1975), the practice of using the non-honorific speech styles to non-intimate adults, particularly strangers, is disappearing in modern Korean society because it may be considered an inappropriate linguistic behavior. In contrast, the use of the polite style establishes a relationship of equality and respect among all participants. Because of the polite style’s tone of mutual respect, teachers also generally use this speech style in classrooms when delivering instruction (Lee & Ramsey, 2000). However, Brown (2011) claimed that it can sound too casual or informal if a speaker repeatedly uses the polite style either in formal situations, such as job interviews or academic presentations, or when interacting with superiors.

The younger generation frequently uses the polite ending *-yo*¹³ in long sentences as a hedge in order to “maintain appropriate breaks (or pauses) or to make an utterance soft with a natural sounding rhythm” (Yun, 1993, p. 104). Example 2.3 illustrates speakers’ use of the *-yo* form after various parts of speech.

Example 2.3: Examples of the use of the *-yo* form

- | | |
|--|---|
| (1) <i>taum sosik-un-yo</i>
‘and now for the next news item- <i>yo</i> ’ | [topic particle <i>un</i> + <i>yo</i>] |
| (2) <i>pangpwuk kyeyhoyk-ul chwuysohay-ya hay-ss-ko-yo</i>
‘and she had to cancel her planned visit to North Korea- <i>yo</i> ’ | [connective <i>ko</i> + <i>yo</i>] |
| (3) <i>way-yo?</i>
‘why- <i>yo</i> ?’ | [WH Q word + <i>yo</i>] |

(Brown, 2011, p. 29)

¹³ The sentence ending *-yo* has been described as a sentential delimiter that indexes politeness in Korean; *-yo* may occur optionally after any major constituent (Sohn, 1999).

In addition to the equality and respect that the style manifests, structural productivity has played an important role in supporting its extensive use (Song, 2005). First, unlike other speech styles, the same sentence final suffix, *-yo*, is consistently used across the four sentence types: declaratives, interrogatives, imperatives, and propositives (Sohn, 1999). Song (2005) suggests that this simplicity and regularity in the linguistic structure of the polite style may result from the frequent use of the style in a variety of contexts. Second, certain Korean subordinate clause suffixes such as *-ci*, *-key*, *-nun-tey*, and *-ketun* can only utilize the polite style when they are used as sentence enders, as in *mek-ketun-yo* ‘eats’.¹⁴ These subordinate clause suffixes have been grammaticalized from subordinate clause constructions into indirect speech styles in contexts of mitigation to soften the speaker’s strong assertions and to manifest politeness (Kim-Renaud, 2001).

In contrast, the deferential style appears in a narrower set of contexts as well as more formal situations. It has been generally regarded as “higher, more formal and more masculine” than the polite style (King & Yeon, 2000, p. 202). The declarative form of the deferential style is *-(su)pita* and its interrogative form is *-(su)pnikka*. The declarative form of the deferential style consists of three morphemes: the addressee honorific suffix *-sup*, the deferential indicative mood suffix *-ni*, and the declarative sentence type suffix *-ta*. Referring to the deferential style as the highest form of deference to the hearer, Song (2005) argued that it is used to people with unquestionable seniority, and it is not used to someone with equal or inferior social status. In addition, due to its high level of formality, the deferential style¹⁵ is predominantly used on

¹⁴ As a conditional, the suffix *-ketun* ‘since, (even) if, provided that, given that’ is used only when the following main clause denotes the speaker’s intention (e.g., imperative, propositive, or intentive).

¹⁵ In writing, the deferential style tends to be used in public notices, signs, and advertising intended for the general public. When the deferential style is used in such cases, it indexes a personal approach to communication because it seeks “the reader’s cooperation or attention” in a non-authoritative way (Song, 2005, p. 151).

formal occasions and in speeches directed to a large audience, such as news reports, public lectures, or other types of ceremonial speech.

A speaker may mix the deferential style and the polite style, depending on the circumstances (Sohn, 1999).¹⁶ If one switches to the deferential style, it indicates formality and social distance toward the addressee. The deferential style is restricted in terms of expressing affective stance in that it cannot be combined with “a number of epistemic modal pre-final endings marking the status of information, such as *-ci-/canha-* (shared information), and *-ney-* (newly perceived information)” (Brown, 2010a, pp. 73–74). Due to the fact that the deferential style cannot occur with epistemic modal endings, this speech style ending tends to be used in strong statements of factual, new information, while the polite style is used to index common knowledge, conjecture, and personal comments (Brown, 2011, p. 29).

Honorifics are commonly understood as expressing deference or social superiority, which is associated with the relative ages and social positions of the speakers. The traditional, static views of honorific forms cannot account for the wider range of actual honorific usages, especially those that deviate from the normative usage. It is important to note that each speech style carries multiple social meanings when it is used in a specific situation. The context determines which meaning is intended. Brown argued that honorifics are “a central part of social deixis or indexicality” (p. 19). Similarly, Kim and Sells (2007) claimed that honorification is fundamentally an “expressive meaning” rather than simply conveying propositional meaning. Expressive meanings of honorific forms are not limited to feelings of superiority or respect (Brown, 2011).

¹⁶ Using the propositive form of the deferential style, *-(u)sipsita*, to a socially higher person (e.g., *sensayng-nim, ce lang hamkkey kapsita* ‘Dear Teacher, go together with me’) is generally thought to be rude, and it is discouraged because it creates discomfort by suggesting that a person is involved in some action with someone of lower status. An indirect speech act such as a question is generally employed as a substitute (Choo, 2006; Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Sohn, 1999; Yun, 1993).

Lee and Ramsey (2000) claimed that “in ordinary conversations today, *panmal* represents intimacy and informality, while its opposite in almost all situations is the polite style, a mode of speech that represents general courtesy and the reserved use of language” (p. 260). However, depending on the situation, the meaning of an honorific speech style varies from respect and deference to flattery, joking, or sarcasm. In addition, a non-honorific speech style, which is friendly and intimate by nature, can be viewed negatively as rude or impolite when used to the wrong person or in an inappropriate situation (Choo, 1999). Park (1976) also pointed out that the intimate style does not always convey intimacy; it may express the lack of intimacy depending on the communicative context. Similarly, Yoon (2010) claimed that the intimate style may be used for expressing negative feelings toward others, such as making complaints or criticisms. No one style is inherently polite or impolite in all situations (Choo, 2006). Thus, the exact intended meaning can only be inferred from the contextual features of a speech event.

2.2.3 Newly innovated sentence enders

In addition to the regular sentence-type enders shown in Table 2.1, which incorporate the six speech styles, Sohn (2007) has described several recently developed sentence enders¹⁷ in modern Korean. Sohn claimed that Korean speakers employ these newly innovated sentence enders more frequently than the regular sentence-type enders. Kim-Renaud (2001) has also claimed that these enders hold a solid place in the honorific system of modern Korean because they are commonly used in daily conversation. These new sentence enders include *-nun-ka* (‘whether’), *-nun-ci* (‘if, whether’), *-nun-tey* (‘given that’), *-ketun* (‘since, if, provided that, given that’), *-na* (‘or, whether...or’), *-ta-nikka* (reassertion marker), *-te-la-ko* (evidentiality marker), *-ci*

¹⁷ The emergence of these endings is partly fueled by the productive use of *-yo*, which can be attached to any type of sentence and any major constituent of a sentence if the speaker intends some degree of politeness (Sohn, 2007). Han (2004) provides a list of thirty two sentence enders which are hypothesized to have grammaticalized from subordinate clausal final enders.

(tag question marker), and *-(u)l-ke-l* ('I suppose').¹⁸ Kim-Renaud referred to these enders as “panmal-style forms” because they can be considered to belong to the *panmal* group (p. 42). In this section, I will provide a brief description of these newly innovated sentence enders.

According to Sohn (2007), these sentence enders developed from subordinate clauses. They are formed by deleting the main clause and attaching *-yo* after the subordinate clause; in other words, the original subordinate clause is restructured as the main clause and occurs in the sentence-final position. Sohn claimed that the newly created enders occur in only two speech styles, the polite and the intimate, and are used to form either a declarative or an interrogative sentence. If the ender *-yo* is attached, the utterance is regarded as the polite style, and without the ender *-yo*, the utterance is regarded as the intimate style. Therefore, Sohn distinguished the polite style as marked and the intimate style as unmarked. In the sentences in Example 2.4, the innovated sentence enders are in boldface with their rough meanings in brackets, and the polite *-yo* is attached.

Example 2.4: Examples of the newly innovated enders

- | | | | | | | |
|-----|----|-------------------|-----------------|--|---------------------|--------------------------------------|
| (1) | a. | <i>pi</i>
rain | <i>ka</i>
NM | <i>o-nun-tey</i>
come-R-place | <i>yo</i> ~
POL | ‘It’s raining. [What shall we/I do?] |
| | b. | <i>pi</i>
rain | <i>ka</i>
NM | <i>o-nun-ka</i>
come-R-whether | <i>yo?</i> /
POL | ‘[Do you think] it’s raining?’ |
| | c. | <i>pi</i>
rain | <i>ka</i>
NM | <i>o-nun-ci</i>
come-R-if | <i>yo?</i> \
POL | ‘[I wonder if] it’s raining.’ |
| (2) | a. | <i>pi</i>
rain | <i>ka</i>
NM | <i>o-ketun</i>
come-since/if | <i>yo</i> ~
POL | ‘It’s raining, [that’s why.]’ |

¹⁸ This list includes only some examples of the newly created sentence enders. For a full list of these sentence enders, please see Han (2004) and Yoon (2010).

- b. *pi* *ka* *o-na* *yo? /*
rain NM come-or POL
‘Is it raining? [I wonder.]’
- (3) *pi* *ka* *o-n-ta-nikka* *yo /*
rain NM come-IN-DC-because POL
‘[I told you that] it’s raining.’
- (4) *pi* *ka* *o-te-la-ko* *yo *
rain NM come-RT-DC-QT POL
‘It was raining, [you know.]’
- (5) *pi* *ka* *o-ci* *yo? ~*
rain NM come-NOM POL
‘It’s raining, [isn’t it?]’
- (6) *pi* *ka* *o-l-ke-l* *yo /*
rain NM come-PRS-fact-AC POL
‘It will probably rain, [I suppose.]’

(Sohn, 2007, p. 1)

The first three, *-nun-tey*, *-nun-ka*, and *-nun-ci*, in (1) are conjunctive enders that have subtle differences in meaning. *-nun-tey* is a background information provider, meaning ‘given that’, whereas *-nun-ka* ‘whether’ and *-nun-ci* ‘if, whether’ are used to form indirect questions. The forms *-ketun* and *-na* in (2) are also conjunctive enders; the former is used to construct a conditional sentence while the latter is used to construct an alternative question. They can be roughly translated as ‘since, (even) if, provided that, given that’ and ‘or, whether...or’, respectively. The form *-ta-nikka* ‘I told you’ in (3) is a conjunctive ender, which is developed from *-ta ko ha-nikka* ‘because (I) told you that’. This ender is used to express a strong reason. The form *te-la-ko* in (4) is a quotative construction in which the retrospective suffix *-te* (speaker’s own observation or experience) is followed by the declarative ender *-la* (a variant of *-ta*) and the quotative particle *-ko*. *te-la-ko* is also known as a direct evidentiality marker as it indicates that the speaker has obtained the knowledge through direct experience, such as visual, auditory, or other sensory experience (Kim, 2011). The form *-ci* in (5) is a nominalizer that

typically occurs before a negative verb or adjective (as in *pi ka o-ci anh-ayo* ‘it is not raining’). Its function in statements is to denote the speaker’s supposition or make a casual suggestion, and in interrogatives, to seek agreement as an English tag question does. The sequence *-(u)l-ke-l* in (6), meaning ‘I suppose’, is composed of a prospective relativizer *-(u)l* and its bound head noun *ke(s)* ‘thing, fact’ together with the accusative particle *-(u)l*. The emergence of these endings is partly fueled by the productive use of *-yo*, which can be attached to any type of sentence and any major constituent of a sentence if the speaker intends some degree of politeness (Sohn, 2007).

The sentences in Example 2.5 illustrate the fact that the innovated enders cannot be used in speech styles other than the polite style or the intimate style.

Example 2.5: Examples of incorrect use of the innovated enders

- (1) **pi* *ka* *o-nun-tey-p-ni-ta.*
rain NM come-R-place-AH-IN-DC
‘It’s raining. [what shall we do?]' (deferential declarative)

- (2) **pi* *ka* *o-ci-ni?*
rain NM come-NOM-Q
‘It’s raining, [isn’t it?]' (plain interrogative)

(Sohn, 2007, pp. 4–5)

The true meanings of the utterances with each innovated sentence ender are often difficult to determine because the enders do not contribute to an utterance’s referential meaning but express the speaker’s modality. According to Sohn (2007), they have a common function: to weaken or mitigate the illocutionary force of an utterance. In the next section, I will review co-occurrence relationships between address terms and speech styles.

In what follows, I discuss studies that draw on a discourse analytic method to examine speech style use in Korean and Japanese. The findings from these studies have added a new

dimension to the existing discussion of Korean and Japanese speech styles by investigating their multilayered indexical meanings.

2.2.4 Recent studies on Korean and Japanese speech styles

Recent studies on Korean and Japanese speech styles have focused on how speakers create social meanings by shifting speech styles within a communicative practice. Korean speech style uses and shifts¹⁹ within an interaction are a relatively new area of research (Strauss & Eun, 2005). Only a few studies (e.g., Eun & Strauss, 2004; H. R. Kim, 2010; Kim & Suh, 2007; C. Lee, 2000; Park, 2008; Strauss & Eun, 2005; Yun, 2000) have examined the flexible and dynamic aspects of speech style use within discourse events from a qualitative, discourse analytic point of view. The findings from several studies suggest that speakers use appropriate speech styles to strategically and actively position themselves within a particular context.

A notable example of this line of research is the work done by Eun and Strauss (Eun & Strauss, 2004; Strauss & Eun, 2005), who used a large corpus of naturally occurring speech as their primary data. In their 2004 study, Eun and Strauss examined the alternations between the deferential style, the *-(su)pnita* form, and the polite style, the *-yo* form, in different genres of public speech such as news broadcasts, English language television programs, sermons, radio talk shows, and television talk shows. They claimed that the choice of one form over another is not influenced by social relationships as described in traditional accounts. Rather, information status is the major factor that causes such linguistic alternation. Their analysis shows that the *-(su)pnita* form tends to be selected to introduce new information to an audience, whereas the *-yo* form is likely to be used for shared or common-sense information.

¹⁹ Brown (2010a, p. 68) defines speech style shifting as switching between different styles within the same speech event.

For instance, in a radio talk show that discusses Korean adults' health issues, a female hostess conversing with her male co-host switched to the deferential style when bringing up people, topics, and upcoming activities or introducing new and non-shared information to the audience. This information was marked by the deferential style because it could be assumed that the majority of the audience would not have been previously aware of it. The polite style, on the other hand, was used by the same speaker when delivering shared or common-sense information and when repeating information. This pattern suggests that in speech addressed a large audience, the choice between the polite and deferential styles is dictated by information status.

In their 2005 study, Strauss and Eun explored the same linguistic phenomenon in both casual and formal speech. They argued that the alternation between the polite style and the deferential style can be best explained by the semantic features of \pm boundary. Their findings suggest that the *-(su)pnita* form indexes an objective position and, therefore, indicates a stance of exclusion in relation to the audience while the *-yo* form indexes a shared understanding with the audience and, thus, signals a stance of inclusion.

For example, in a television program where guests are invited to locate family members separated from the rest of the family during childhood, one of the hosts changed from the polite to the deferential style when resuming his role as a spokesperson of the program. This shift indexes an interactional boundary between the hosts and the other participants, describing who is included within the particular realm of the action designated by the utterance (hosts) and who is excluded (audience). In contrast, when speakers use the polite style, they choose the feature of $-$ boundary and thus index a stance of inclusion. This means that the polite level establishes common ground with the audience. On the same show, the guests predominantly used the polite

level when narrating personally experienced events as a strategy to project a sense of shared understanding and emotion with the audience.

Among the few studies on teachers' use of speech styles in a classroom setting, research by Kim and Suh (2007) looked at alternating speech styles in teacher talk in Korean elementary classroom interactions. Kim and Suh (2007) claimed that the polite style is the style that teachers normally use during the classroom activities. They argued that the teachers' use of the different speech styles is systematic in that each speech style has a particular function in relation to classroom organization. For example, while the polite style is used as the dominant style of teacher talk, the intimate style is used to deal with managing the classroom, for actions such as disciplining, warning, or advising, and to address an individual student.²⁰ In a given situation, the use of the intimate style, which involves the pragmatic feature of "casualness," mitigates the force of face-threatening acts by reducing distance with the students. Thus, the teacher's speech does not sound as authoritative and blunt as it might. A second example of the intimate style that Kim and Suh (2007) provided is when teachers address an individual student. Interacting with an individual student in the intimate style helps to create a less formal atmosphere.

In contrast to the intimate style, a shift to the deferential style takes place when teachers are emphasizing key instructional elements and establishing boundaries between classroom activities. The form indexes the teacher's authority and control in that it is used in teacher-dominant talk where the teacher delivers subject-related knowledge in a monologic way rather than engaging in a shared dialogue with the students. This research implies that utilization of the different speech styles provides teachers with tools to effectively manage classroom instruction while taking on the various roles required of a teacher.

²⁰ These observations are congruent with Cook's (1996b) and Yamashita's (1996) findings on Japanese classroom interactions where the teacher tends to use the plain form in Japanese to individual students and then shift to the formal *masu* form when addressing the entire class.

Byon (2003) also examined teachers' speech style usage, especially the polite style ending *-yo*, in Korean as a Heritage Language (KHL) classrooms where the students were nine to fourteen years old. Table 2.6 below shows the great variation among the teachers in the frequency with which they used the polite and intimate styles.

Table 2.6
Teachers' use of the polite and intimate styles in Byon, 2003

Class/teacher	The polite style	The intimate style	Total clauses
Teacher P	93 (25%)	286 (75%)	379
Teacher C	217 (54%)	184 (46%)	401
Teacher L	48 (16%)	260 (84%)	308
Teacher S	18 (5%)	327 (95%)	345
Total (average)	376 = 94 (25%)	1057 = 264 (75%)	1433 = 358

(Adapted from Byon, 2003, p. 274)

The analysis showed that the teachers predominantly used the intimate style during instruction, except Teacher C, who used the polite style slightly more often. Overall, only approximately 25% of the teachers' utterances were delivered in the polite style. This finding contrasts with the results of Kim and Suh's (2007) study on the speech style use of teachers of young children. The reason may be that the KHL classes offered at a Saturday school in Byon's (2003) study were less formal and had a small number of students (six to eleven) in each classroom. These teachers therefore may not have felt the need to use a more formal style, unlike the elementary school teachers who teach more than thirty students. Based on the analysis of actual teacher-student interactions, Byon demonstrated that the teachers' use of the polite style toward students does not indicate politeness, as the students are significantly younger than the teachers. Rather, their use of the form indexes their role as a teacher, because the form is used when delivering instruction and engaging students in activities.

On the other hand, Lee (2000) examined the use of the intimate style in TV talk shows, where the formal register (i.e., the polite or deferential style) is the norm. Drawing on Goffman's theory of frames and footing, Lee looked at how multiple dimensions (frames) of a speech event may impose different constraints on the selection of speech styles. According to Lee, the use of the intimate style is possible, despite the public setting, when the ongoing context changes from a more serious interview into a casual conversation. For example, in one talk show, a middle-aged Korean male actor and his wife were invited to talk about their experiences as a married couple. In this segment, the wife talked about an incident where people misunderstood her to be single because she looks younger than her age. In reaction to this comment, the husband shifted to the intimate style and told a joke with a humorous and teasing tone of voice by saying "It is hard to believe her remark." This act of joking evoked a burst of laughter, and served to amuse and make a connection with the audience. Thus, in such situations, the intimate style conveys the pragmatic meaning of "non-seriousness" and indicates a more relaxed context. This research implies that the changing nature of a speech situation may impose different constraints as well as granting speakers freedom of speech style selection.

Based on an analysis of speech style use in TV programs, Yoon (2010) demonstrated that speakers use the intimate style for various purposes in different contexts. Its functions include the expression of interpersonal closeness, spontaneous feelings, or speakers' own inner feelings. The core function of the intimate style is to allow speakers to express their affect more directly because it entails less "situational restrictions" on communicative behavior (Yoon, 2010, p. 141).

Although previous studies on speech styles have made valuable observations regarding the flexible and dynamic aspects of speech style use within discourse events, knowledge about teachers' use of speech styles, especially the non-honorific styles, is still quite limited. Building

on the recent studies on the situated meanings of speech styles, this section examines teachers' use of the intimate style in the KFL classroom setting to understand the occurrence of certain shifts to the intimate style while the speaker is interacting with the same addressees in a given social situation.

Yun (2000) discussed the underlying reasons for changes in speech styles within a single speech event by employing the notion of code-switching, defined as alternating between styles within a language. He claimed that code-switching in Korean speech styles takes place to show the speaker's attitudes toward the addressee and the communicative environment. For example, a teacher in Yun's study intentionally switched to a higher code (e.g., from the intimate style to the polite style or the deferential style) when showing a sarcastic attitude toward a student who was late to class. In the example, this speech style shift co-occurred with the use of other honorific forms (e.g., the polite vocative marker *-ssi* and the honorific suffix *-si*) to deliberately treat the student with undeserved respect and create a psychological distance, therefore increasing the level of sarcasm.

Although speech style use and shifting in Korean is still a new area of research, Japanese speech styles have received a considerable amount of attention from sociolinguists (Cook, 1996a, 1996b, 1997, 1998, 2006, 2008a, 2008b; Geyer, 2008; Ikuta, 1983, 2008; Maynard, 1993, 2008; Okamoto, 1998; Saito, 2010). These studies have argued against the notion of *wakimae* 'discernment' (Ide, 1982, 1989; Ide & Yoshida, 1999) by asserting that the speaker's choices of linguistic forms are not regulated by static social parameters, but influenced by the speaker's linguistic ideology and contextual factors. The findings from the Japanese speech style literature provide support for the conceptual premise that the use of speech styles is a strategic choice rather than simple observation of social norms.

Comparing speech styles of salespeople in department stores and marketplaces, Okamoto (1998) questioned why many speakers are inconsistent in their use of honorifics including speech styles. A comparison of the salespersons' speech in the two contexts revealed that the department store salespeople used the *masu* form significantly more than the salespeople at the marketplaces. However, there were variations within both groups. While many of the people working at the market did not use the *masu* form, some did. To account for this inconsistency, Okamoto (1998) proposed that the speech style variations, which appear to be deviant, were the result of differences in the speakers' strategies, which were based on their assessment of the context as well as their ideologies regarding honorific use. For example, in Okamoto's data, although many salespeople working at the market preferred to express friendliness through the use of non-honorific forms in order to create a casual atmosphere, some chose to maintain formality toward their customers through the use of honorific forms in order to express a more socially distant relationship. In other words, although the speakers' social roles were similar, their choices of an honorific form depended on their individual strategies in a given situation.

Shifts between the plain and the *masu* forms have been found to index a variety of social meanings. Using conversations from TV talk shows and interview programs as data, Ikuta (1983) analyzed the mixed use of the *masu* and plain forms in relation to the concept of attitudinal distance. She proposed that the *masu* form represents the speaker's attitudinal distance from the addressee, whereas the plain form denotes their attitudinal closeness to the addressee. In her analysis of casual conversations and written discourse, Maynard (1993) attributed the choice of two kinds of speech styles to the degree to which the speaker is aware of the addressee. Maynard claimed that the *masu* form is the reflection of the speaker's higher awareness of the addressee, while the use of the plain form mirrors the speaker's internal thought.

In addition to expressing degrees of social distance and awareness of the addressee, Japanese speakers' use of speech styles has been shown to strategically project different social identities for the speakers. In Cook's (1996a, 1996b) study of classroom conversations, teachers shift between the *masu* and plain forms to display two different types of social identities. The teachers use the *masu* form to index a public presentational mode of self, which enables them to carry out their roles as teachers, and the plain form to signal a spontaneous mode of self where they are not conscious of being watched or observed. A more recent study by Cook (2008b) illustrated how professors shift back and forth between the *masu* and plain forms to blend their "professional identity" with their "personal identity" to enact two roles during academic consultation sessions.

Cook (1997, 2008a) has also demonstrated that speakers express their identities through style shifts between the *masu* form and the plain form within family conversations. In Cook's (1997) data, caregivers may shift to the *masu* form to take on a social persona of parent, especially when serving food, controlling household matters, teaching social norms and behavior, and disciplining, which are essential responsibilities of being a parent. In another study, Cook (2008a) analyzed interactions of host family members and learners of Japanese as a foreign language (JFL); the host mothers used the *masu* form when serving food or teaching Japanese social customs and language to the learners. In these two studies, the *masu* form indexes a self-presentational stance, helping speakers to evoke the social identity of a "parent" or a "host mother."

Saito (2010) explored subordinates' use of plain forms in superior-subordinate interactions in a workplace, where subordinates primarily used the *masu* form. In contrast to the previous literature on Japanese plain forms, which suggests that Japanese speakers are

discouraged from using plain forms while interacting with people of higher status, Saito observed that speakers employ plain forms in diverse situations to convey different indexical meanings such as the speaker's inward thought or an emphasis on information. Building on the findings of recent studies on Japanese plain forms, the data proved that plain forms serve to do more than establishing social differences in rank. This study is a good example of research demonstrating that the choice of the honorific and plain forms is an active and dynamic process, and not something exclusively governed by static social rules.

2.2.5 Recent studies on teaching Korean speech styles

While the aforementioned studies have focused on analyzing speech style use and shifts, most of this research has not discussed pedagogical issues related to speech styles. Only a few studies in the field have explored the teaching of speech styles (Brown, 2010a, 2010b, 2013; Byon, 2003, 2007; Choo, 1999). For example, Byon (2003) examined teachers' speech style usage in Korean as a Heritage Language (KHL) classrooms. His study especially looked at the teachers' use of the polite style ending *-yo* from a socialization perspective, illustrating how the *-yo* form socializes students into the use of the polite style and underlying values of Korean politeness. Byon (2003) claimed that a classroom is the primary place of socialization for KHL learners.

Brown (2010a) offered an analysis of Korean as a Second Language (KSL) textbooks. He argued that these textbooks concentrate on the polite style and exclude the non-honorific styles, as shown in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7
Frequencies of speech styles in Korean textbooks

		Sogang	Ewha	Koryo	Total	
Non-honorific	Plain	15 (1.2%)	7 (0.3%)	82 (6.6%)	104 (2.1%)	618 (12.4%)
	Intimate	127 (10%)	103 (4.1%)	284 (22.75%)	514 (10.3%)	
Authoritative	Familiar	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.1%)
	Semi-formal	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.1%)	1 (>0.1%)	
Honorific	Polite	992 (78.3%)	1262 (50.8%)	712 (56.9)	2966 (59.3%)	4385 (87.6%)
	Deferential	133 (10.5%)	1114 (44.8%)	172 (13.7%)	1419 (28.4%)	
Total		1267 (100%)	2486 (100%)	1251 (100%)	5004 (100%)	

(Brown, 2010a, p. 41)

Choo's (1999) analysis of more traditional KSL textbooks supported this finding. Brown (2010a) further claimed that the presentation of a simplified version of the honorific system in textbooks is closely associated with certain preconceptions regarding "what foreign learners are capable of doing with the language and assumed relationships they will form with Korean native speakers" (p. 36). This simplified representation of speech styles restricts learners' opportunities to learn the casual and intimate registers to interact with friends and family (Choo, 1999). Based on his findings, he suggested that teachers should provide at least some instruction in non-honorific speech styles from the beginner level by incorporating explicit metapragmatic discussion in order to expose learners to a wide variety of sociocultural contexts.

Second language (L2) learners' learning of speech styles and other honorific elements is complex, as various sociolinguistic factors (e.g., identities) affect the way in which they speak. Brown (2010b) highlighted the importance of understanding ideologies concerning L2 learners'

use of speech styles. The analysis of L2 learners' conversations reveals that their speech style use is not prescribed by native speakers' norms, but rather influenced by their pre-existing Western views of politeness. According to Brown (2010b), the implication for language teaching is that setting up native speaker norms as the goal of instruction may not be realistic. Instead, he advocated that teachers should educate learners about the native speaker norms, as well as the various social meanings of speech styles, so that learners can make an informed choice when choosing proper styles in daily interactions.

Byon's (2007) research is among the few studies on specific methods for teaching speech styles. It demonstrates how explicit metalinguistic activities can be used to teach the difference between the polite and deferential styles through adapting TV talk shows. Byon (2007) suggested that students can acquire productive skills through engaging in "close-type exercises" in which they have to understand the context and fill in the blanks with appropriate speech styles. These activities aim to raise learners' metalinguistic awareness and can help them establish the connection between linguistic forms and their pragmatic functions. In addition, in support of learner-centered teaching, Byon (2000) recommended that teachers modify instruction based on learner needs. For example, more time and effort should be devoted to teaching the deferential style, which is commonly used in business meetings and presentations, to learners who are learning Korean for doing international business.

In summary, the findings from the previous research on Korean speech styles provide support for the conceptual premise that speech style selection is motivated by the complex interaction between the context, speech acts, and speaker roles. The speech style and the pragmatic context of the verbal exchange interact with each other to determine the exact meaning of the speech style used. Furthermore, previous studies on the teaching of speech styles suggest

valuable pedagogical implications. However, knowledge about KFL/KSL teachers' use of speech styles is still quite limited. Therefore, the present study examines how KFL teachers use both honorific and non-honorific styles in interactions with their students in classroom settings. The findings should ultimately contribute to the teaching of speech styles and to the design of professional development for teachers by providing information that could help teachers become more analytical about their own instructional practices. The discussion now turns to a review of studies on classroom discourse, as the context of investigation in this dissertation is the KFL classroom. Therefore, this section aims to describe the essential characteristics of L2 classroom discourse.

2.3 Studies on Classroom Discourse

The language classroom is made up of a series of contexts that are linked to the objective of the lesson at a given moment. The contexts in which teacher talk is situated are diverse; within a language lesson, there are various interaction formats, from restricted Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) teacher-student interactions to whole-class, open-ended discussions. These contexts are co-constructed by teachers and students as they engage in face-to-face interaction in the classroom. In second and foreign language classrooms, language is central to teaching and learning because it is both the vehicle and object of the lesson. It is used as the primary means of delivering information and instruction to students as well as sharing feelings, opinions, and emotions. This is the reason why second and foreign language researchers direct a great deal of attention and interest toward communication in the classroom. Before presenting the fine-grained analyses of Korean language teacher talk in Chapters 4, 5, and 6, it will be useful to provide a comprehensive understanding of the characteristics of L2 classrooms. In the next section, I discuss the institutionality of classroom discourse.

2.3.1 Classroom discourse as an institutional variety

Classroom discourse has been characterized as a form of institutional discourse (Markee, 2005), which is produced by members of a particular speech community, that is, the teacher and students. This speech community is convened for the purpose of learning and teaching; therefore, members of the classroom speech community communicate within particular speech systems appropriate to serve that pedagogical purpose, as defined by the teacher. Thus, an essential feature of institutional talk is goal-orientedness; participant contributions are shaped by the institutional goals. The most familiar form of classroom discourse is teacher-led interaction (Markee, 2005). Classroom discourse has been defined as “contextualized or situated language use in classrooms, as specific interactional contexts, that reflects cultural and social practices” (Luk, 2008, p. 121). Drew and Heritage (1992) provided a characterization of institutional discourse:

1. Institutional interaction involves an orientation by at least one of the participants to some core goal, task, or identity (or set of them) conventionally associated with the institution in question. In short, institutional talk is normally informed by goal orientations of a relatively restricted conventional form.
2. Institutional interaction may often involve special and particular constraints on what one or both of the participants will treat as allowable contributions of the business at hand.
3. Institutional talk may be associated with inferential frameworks and procedures that are particular to specific institutional contexts (p. 22).

These characteristics determine the constraints underlying the interaction: participants’ orientations to the institutional tasks, restrictions of the participants’ contributions to the talk, and distinctive aspects of interactional inference.

Heritage (1997) suggested six domains of interactional phenomena, which can be determining factors for whether or not the ongoing context is an example of institutional interaction: turn-taking organization, overall structural organization of the interaction, sequence

organization, turn design, lexical choice, and epistemological and other kinds of asymmetry. These domains help clarify the distinctive institutional characteristics of classroom discourse and its instructional purpose.

As a typical example of the institutional context, the classroom is “a unique social environment with its own human activities and its own conventions governing these activities” (Breen & Candlin, 1980, p. 98). The properties of classroom interaction differ from those of natural conversation and other institutional varieties of talk, which occur in different institutions such as hospitals, courtrooms, and offices. For example, the re-occurring patterns of interaction produced in the classroom, such as the IRF cycle and display questions, enable the teachers to accomplish the institutional business of eliciting and evaluating students’ verbal participation. These goal orientations are closely connected to their ways of interacting as well as their institutional roles as teacher and students. Teachers and students alike design their conduct to display their institutional identities and relationships.

Due to the institutionality of classroom discourse, it should be considered a sociolinguistic variety, rather than being evaluated as inferior to or less real than natural communication. Seedhouse (1995) suggested employing a sociolinguistic approach to examining communication in the classroom. In a sociolinguistic approach, the researcher would attempt to establish the particular mechanisms of conversation inherent in the classroom discourse, and then to figure out how these characteristics serve to manage the business of learning, but would not characterize classroom discourse by opposing it to ordinary discourse. Cullen (1998) reinforced the view that a speech event in an institutionalized setting should be studied in its own right, taking into account the institutional context:

The classroom, typically a large, formal gathering which comes together for pedagogic rather than social reasons, will have its own rules and conventions of communication,

understood by all those present; these established patterns are likely to be very different from the norms of turn-taking and communicative interaction which operate in small, informal social gatherings outside. Any analysis of the characteristics of the communicative classroom needs to take these differences into account. (p. 181)

Cullen (1998) argued that applying criteria of communicativeness based on behavior outside the classroom is inappropriate inside it, because communication in the classroom and communication elsewhere are inherently different. Communicative talk in the classroom must be based on what is or is not communicative in the context of the classroom itself. In what follows, I move on to describing different categories of classroom discourse (e.g., IRF sequences, on-task and off-task talk) to understand the dynamics of classroom interaction that we need to consider in the analysis process.

2.3.2 Different categories of classroom discourse

It is useful to look at the nature and different categories of foreign language classroom interaction as the context for teacher talk. The foreign language classroom is a highly complex and dynamic discourse environment (Breen, 1985; Edmondson, 1985). Classroom talk consists of “a nexus of interrelated speech exchange systems, some of whose turn-taking practices are relatively pre-allocated, while others are relatively more locally managed” (Markee, 2005, p. 212). Therefore, there are a range of classroom talks that students may be exposed to in a given class.

How is interaction accomplished in the context of a foreign/second language classroom? One of the significant findings of earlier research is the identification of the teacher-led three-part sequence of Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF). An IRF sequence involves the teacher initiating a question to a student, which results in a student’s attempt to produce a response to the question, which is followed by the teacher’s feedback (Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Example 2.6 illustrates the IRF cycle.

Example 2.6: A typical example of the IRF cycle

1. T: Can you tell me what are the three parts of the description she gives about this man?
2. L: His character?
3. T: Yes, character.

(Van Lier, 1988, p. 202)

In Example 2.6, the teacher selects who may speak in line 1, the student then gives a response to the question in line 2, and the teacher evaluates the learner's response in line 3. This formal and ritualized exchange consists of two teacher moves for every student move. The IRF structure of classroom communication is widely known as the most common type of L2 classroom interaction.

As the example shows, an IRF exchange is a highly structured exchange where the teacher does most of the talking. It demonstrates clear status and power relations between teacher and students. In the IRF dialogue, the teacher plays the role of expert, whose primary instructional job is to elicit an utterance from the students and evaluate whether they can display their understanding of the grammatical item. Usually, this interaction lasts for a short period of time as the teacher moves on to ask a question of another student. In the IRF exchange, a short utterance is preferred. Thus, a student's contribution is limited to providing brief responses to the teacher's questions. An IRF sequence is one example of classroom interaction patterns that are unlike the ordinary speech that second language students encounter (Allwright & Bailey, 1991).

This three-part IRF dialogue has been criticized by communicative language approach advocates, who view the primary function of language as being a tool for communication (Dinsmore, 1985; Nunan, 1987). In this view, language learning should be done through the construction of meaning. The IRF routine has been perceived negatively because it is teacher-dominated and different from natural interaction. The philosophy behind the communicative

approach to language teaching believes that the interaction taking place in a classroom setting must resemble, as much as possible, natural conversation (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). In the IRF routine, students are considered as having restricted participation rights and opportunities to engage in meaningful communication, such as asking questions, agreeing and disagreeing, and self-correcting (Lee, 2007; Markee, 2000; Walsh, 2006). The teacher may serve as a “gatekeeper to learning opportunities” (Hall & Walsh, 2002, p. 188). Also, this particular pattern of teacher-student dialogue is criticized as taking an etic stance toward analyzing classroom discourse by imposing pre-set coding categories (Box, 2011). However, this restricted IRF teacher-student interaction can be modified to the needs of the students and allow maximum student participation and opportunity (Waring, 2009; Wells, 1993).

Another way of approaching the categorization of classroom talk is Walsh’s (2006) four modes of classroom discourse. Walsh divided classroom conversation into four “modes”: (1) managerial, (2) materials, (3) skills and systems, and (4) classroom context. Each mode of conversation has different interactional features and pedagogical goals. “Managerial mode” refers to the type of talk that the teacher delivers when managing the classroom, such as organizing classroom groups, establishing rules, planning, and moving from one activity to another. It is usually a single, extended teacher speech in the form of frequent repetitions, directives, or instructions. “Materials mode” refers to the talk that take place when teachers and students engage in an activity using specific materials. Because the pedagogical goal of the materials mode is to provide language practice, the interactional features of the mode include a number of actions: the IRF pattern, display questions, confirmation checks, elicitations, or evaluations. “Skills and systems mode” refers to the talk that occurs when the teacher guides students to use a particular linguistic system (phonology, grammar) or skill (reading, listening).

“Classroom context mode” refers to the language that students use when talking about their personal experiences or feelings in the form of casual conversation. These four modes can occur simultaneously, and shifts between modes are common in classroom discourse.

Classroom talk also can be categorized on the basis of whether it is pedagogical. Gil (2002) claimed that foreign language classroom talk has a hybrid nature composed of two complementary modes: the pedagogical and the natural. The pedagogic mode refers to talk with a pedagogic goal. An example of this type of talk would be focus-on-form talk, which includes explicit teaching of grammatical forms. In other words, the pedagogic mode is curriculum-related talk that teachers use to achieve a pedagogical goal. On the other hand, the natural mode refers to talk without a pedagogic goal. An example of this type of talk would be focus-on-meaning talk, which focuses on the message and the creation of shared meaning. It is talk that is not related to any specific instructional point or topic. The language used in the natural mode of classroom talk is similar to the language used in many natural communicative situations outside of the classroom. Gil suggested that the natural and the pedagogic modes of classroom talk are not static; they can mingle and overlap. According to Gil, this flexibility is an essential characteristic of successful foreign language classroom discourse because different types of classroom talk provide different opportunities for language learning.

In addition, classroom talk can be classified into two types of communication depending on the topic of discussion: on-task and off-task. Potowski (2007) used the term “on-task” to refer to talk directly related to the official and academically oriented activity assigned by the teacher and “off-task” to refer to talk completely unrelated to the official lesson. Example 2.7 shows a case of on-task talk. In this conversation, a student asks another student an on-task question about a term she is unfamiliar with.

Example 2.7: A typical example of on-task talk

1. April: What's "mito"?
2. Matt: Myth is like, something...passed on, century by century, that's either Greek, or Italian, or just...Do you get what I'm saying?

(Potowski, 2007, p. 69)

Off-task talk occurs in a space where students and teachers can make casual and personal comments (e.g., personal information, interests). Simply put, on-task talk is academic whereas off-task talk is social (Potowski, 2007). Example 2.8 shows off-task talk. Here, two students talk to each other while drawing an image of fire, which is not related to the content of the lesson.

Example 2.8: A typical example of off-task talk

1. Jesus: Should I draw fire?
2. Melissa: That would be cool, yea.
3. Jesus: Here – fire.
4. Melissa: Cool! Now draw like ice or something. And then plants. Or snow or something.

(Potowski, 2007, pp. 69–70)

On-task talk is interwoven with off-task talk, which is less goal-directed and more conversational in character. Depending on the type of communication, the context is likely to change. When engaging in on-task talk, the context becomes more formal and task-oriented, and when engaging in off-task talk, the context becomes more informal and conversational. Markee (2005) recognized “on-task” and “off-task” as different speech exchange systems in student-student interaction. Markee conceived of “off-task” as an “intersection that diverges from whatever topic(s) teachers designate as the current class agenda” (p. 197). He demonstrated that when the teacher fails to transition to a new topic, an interactional gap opens up and students start engaging in off-task talk. These “hybrid contexts of talk” yield special opportunities for language learning. According to Markee, off-task interaction may be just as useful as on-task

interaction because it is more related to the real world where students will need to interact with people of all types. Markee also pointed out that off-task interactions have implications for assessing a student's level of interactional competence because off-task interactions include natural language dialogue. As seen in the different approaches to categorizing classroom discourse, communication in the classroom is a multilayered, dynamic phenomenon. The next section describes the complex dynamics of teacher-student relationships and how the teacher-student relationship can influence student learning.

2.3.3 Teacher-student relationships

A classroom is not just a place that facilitates students' intellectual and linguistic abilities but also a social community that builds relationships between participants. Teachers and students collaboratively construct an understanding of one another and form friendships by engaging in meaningful communication and activities. They express their relationships by adopting certain roles and behaviors in the classroom. For example, the type of questions that a teacher poses to a student partially defines his or her stance toward the student and the nature of his or her relationship. When the teacher inquires about aspects of a student's daily life, he or she displays a personal relationship with the student. In turn, the student may perceive less social distance between himself or herself and the teacher and even feel a personal connection to the teacher. Improving relationships between teachers and students as well as among students has long-lasting implications for students' academic and social competence.

Traditionally, in classrooms, it has been believed that the major role of the teachers is to impart knowledge of their subject matter to students, whereas the role of the student is to learn the knowledge. However, the teacher-student relationship is not a static and deterministic construct. Rather, it should be viewed as a flexible and fluid concept. As the classroom activities,

as well as the dynamics within the classroom, are constantly changing, roles and relationships are likely to change. Maynard and Zimmerman (1984) defined a relationship as “something that is subject to on-going, step-by-step management within talk by persons, rather than as a state of affairs that underlies their talk” (p. 302). The type of teacher-student relationship underpins the interaction and the process of learning a language in the classroom.

In this study, the teacher-student relationship is defined by the elements of power and intimacy. The first element of the teacher-student relationship that will be discussed is the dimension of power. Within classroom discourse, it is natural to perceive the teachers as more powerful than the students as they hold most of the control in the classroom. According to Cazden (2001), the power asymmetry between teachers and students is most visible in speaking rights. In traditional classrooms where the students engage in teacher-led classroom talk, teachers mostly control the class. Teachers exercise their privileged rights to nominate conversation topics, and by deciding which students will talk and when. Students are compliant in this unequal power speech exchange system.

Because the teachers are the major source of knowledge and instruction, this power is inherent in their “institutional role” (Thornborrow, 2002, p. 7). As the teacher’s instructional goal is to deliver knowledge, it is the teacher who has more “floor” (Walsh, 2006, p. 6), which makes classroom talk asymmetrical. Cazden (2001) claimed:

Teachers have the right to speak at any time and to any person; they can fill any silence or interrupt any speaker; they can speak to a student anywhere in the room and in any volume or tone of voice. No one has the right to object. (p. 82)

Moreover, teachers are positioned as having higher status than the students in the power relationship because teachers are required to perform many face-threatening speech acts (Brown & Levinson, 1987), such as requesting, soliciting or asking questions, and correcting students’

utterances. These tasks can potentially lead to creating distance between the teacher and students (Nguyen, 2007). Ideally, students would be granted more opportunities to speak if teachers were to establish more symmetrical social relationships between themselves and students in the classroom (Gil, 2002).

Another important, although sometimes less evident, element in the teacher-student relationship is the dimension of intimacy. Intimacy is a complex concept, which is often difficult to precisely define. Previous research has discussed that a close teacher-student relationship is the key to improving students' motivation and learning (Dobransky & Frymier, 2004). The term "intimacy" is often associated with the feelings of a familiar and affective connection with another and close personal belonging. In the classroom context, intimate and personal conversations become the basis for forming the bond between students and teachers. Teachers occasionally attempt to engage students in social talk as a way to lessen social distance with their students and help relieve their students' level of anxiety related to speaking in the classroom. An informal, conversational style of social talk, in which teachers and students interact with each other as individuals, can be classified as interpersonal in nature (Frymier & Houser, 2000). This type of interaction leads to the possibility of increasing intimacy between the teacher and students.

Drawing from the work of Hambling-Jones and Merrison (2012, p. 1117), I refer to intimacy as a step-by-step construction of closeness in the immediate interaction, rather than a static representation of social relationships. Hambling-Jones and Merrison define intimacy as "intimate forms of interactional involvement" (p. 1117). In keeping with Hambling-Jones and Merrison's conceptualization of intimacy, I chose to focus on teachers "doing intimacy," that is, their engagement in various activities to construct relative closeness with students as well as the

strategic linguistic resources employed to achieve this interactional goal. Studying the interactional behavioral patterns of KFL teachers will enable us to better understand the social and interpersonal dimension of classroom talk.

The teacher-student relationship has also been viewed as a process of rapport-building (Nguyen, 2007). Nguyen (2007) claimed that building close teacher-student rapport is an essential part of teaching because students can learn better in a relaxed and friendly classroom environment. Nguyen broadly defined rapport as “a positive social relationship characterised by mutual trust and emotional affinity” (p. 286). Countering the dichotomy between instructional and social talk as two separate interactional processes, Nguyen (2007) demonstrated instances of teachers’ simultaneous management of rapport-building and instruction in the classroom. In the examples shown in her study, teachers strategically incorporate rapport-building into instruction to facilitate the instructional tasks by using both verbal and non-verbal cues, such as the contextualization cues of intonation, voice volume, speech rate, and facial expression. The effect of rapport-building on the performance of the tasks is to make the teachers’ highly threatening speech acts, such as calling for attention or correcting students’ errors, less face-threatening for students.

In summary, this section describes the different categories of classroom talk and the characteristics that underlie each type of talk. This information provides the background to my analysis of teachers’ speech in the Korean language classroom. The following section is devoted to reviewing several fundamental theories and concepts on which I base the ways that I analyze the dynamics of teacher-student communication.

2.4 Relevant theoretical concepts

This study draws on the theories of linguistic politeness, indexicality, and social identities, which approach the analysis of teacher identity as constituted and produced in linguistic interaction (Gumperz, 1982). These theories share a theoretical viewpoint that linguistic choices play a key role in establishing one's position and sense of self. The concept of linguistic politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987) provides us with a better understanding of what (im)politeness is and is not during various communicative practices. I also utilize the concept of indexicality (Cook, 2008a; Ochs, 1990; Silverstein, 1976) in analyzing the indexical capacity of speech styles to create social meanings²¹ and contexts. Furthermore, I apply social constructionist views of social identities (Bucholtz, 1999; Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Ochs, 1993) to examine how teachers creatively utilize different speech styles to construct their social identities and achieve their interactional goals.

2.4.1 Linguistic politeness

Honorifics are an essential means of expressing politeness among Korean speakers and play a major role in interpersonal negotiation. In the Korean language, politeness is embedded syntactically and morphologically within the language itself. Hill, Ide, Ikuta, Kawasaki, and Ogino (1986) defined politeness as “one of the constraints on human interaction, whose purpose is to consider others' feelings, establish levels of mutual comfort and promote rapport” (p. 349). Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed a universal theory of linguistic politeness, which has been influential in later studies on the topic. According to Brown (2011), the universal theory of politeness is important in discussing honorifics for two reasons. First, the theory established a crucial link between politeness and “face.” Second, it reserved a distinctive role for honorific

²¹ “Social meanings” refer to meanings that are context-dependent. The term is interchangeably used with “indexical meanings” or “pragmatic meanings” (Cook, 2008a).

systems in politeness theory. Brown and Levinson's model can be considered an attempt to create a theory of how speakers produce linguistic politeness (Watts, 2003).

In their theory, Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 58) constructed the concept of a "Model Person" (hereafter, MP) to account for some systematic aspects of language usage. The MP is defined as a speaker who inherently possesses two special properties – rationality and face. MPs are rational agents who can identify and manage face-threatening situations, and achieve ideal communicative goals by choosing the appropriate linguistic strategies. "Rationality" refers to the reasoning process for selecting appropriate linguistic means in order to accomplish specific goals. "Face" refers to a public image of self that every member of a speech event wants to claim for himself/herself. Face is a theoretical construct originally derived from the work of Ervin Goffman (1967) and from the English folk term, which relates face with "notions of being embarrassed or humiliated, or 'losing face'" (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61).

This face consists of two related aspects: (1) positive face, which is the desire to be approved of by others (one's self-esteem) and (2) negative face, which is the desire to be unimpeded by others (one's freedom to act). In other words, "positive face" can be characterized as the desire to be liked, admired, and related to positively, whereas "negative face" can be characterized as the desire not to be imposed upon. Lakoff and Ide (2005) elaborated on these two concepts:

Positive politeness is seen to address the hearer's need for approval and belonging and thus satisfies that hearer's positive-face wants by communicating solidarity with that aspect of the hearer's image. Negative politeness, on the other hand, serves to satisfy the hearer's negative face by the avoidance or minimization of imposition and is communicated by speaker self-effacement, formality, restraint, and the use of conventionalised indirectness. (p. 131)

These two aspects of face, which emphasize connectedness and recognition of the autonomy of others, are the basic desires that must be met in any social interaction that people

pursue in order to promote group harmony. All MPs have a mutual interest in cooperating to maintain each other's face. Thus, face is something that is “emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61). Sometimes people are inevitably forced to threaten either an addressee's positive or negative face by performing sensitive speech acts, such as requests, advice, threats, offers, promises, or warnings. For instance, giving advice or excuses can threaten the hearer's negative face whereas making confessions or apologies may cause damage to the speaker's positive face. Any rational speaker will seek to employ certain strategies to reduce the face threat in such utterances by redressing or mitigating potential damage to either the hearer's positive face (“positive politeness”) or negative face (“negative politeness”). In Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, politeness is viewed as these “intentional strategic behaviors” that the speakers employ to mitigate their Face Threatening Act (hereafter FTA) (Brown, 2011).

Participants in a speech event use various tactics to mitigate possible face damage to maintain harmonious interpersonal communication (Lakoff & Ide, 2005). In their universal politeness theory, Brown and Levinson suggested five possible strategies for dealing with FTAs, which are outlined in Figure 2.1.

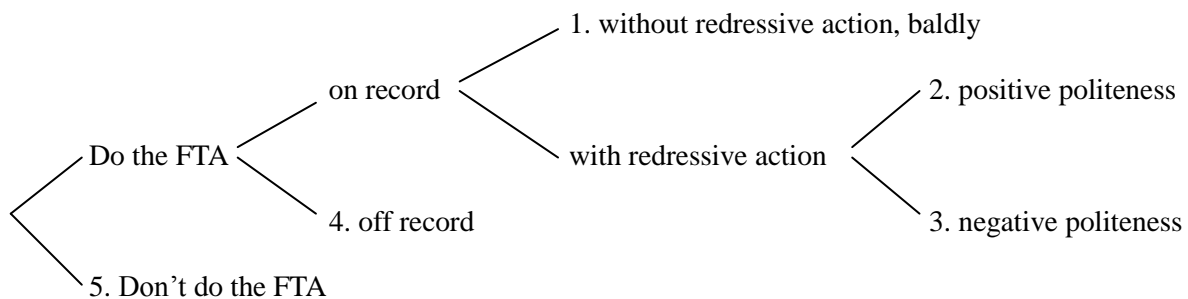


Figure 2.1. Possible strategies for doing FTAs (Source: Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69)

Each of the strategies can be divided into a number of subordinate strategies (see Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 68–71). Speakers pick and choose the strategies that they think will best serve to reduce the particular face-threat at hand. It is important to note that the five strategies are hierarchically arranged along a scale from less polite to more polite. The number next to each strategy corresponds to the level of risk associated with the particular FTA. The greater imposition the particular speech act involves, the higher-numbered the strategy the speaker will tend to use.

According to Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness model, the MP employs a strategy for performing a particular FTA based on his or her assessment of the weightiness of the FTA. The weightiness represents the face-threatening potential of the speech act. As indicated in Brown and Levinson's model, three factors are involved in calculating the weightiness of a FTA: (1) the social distance (D) between the speaker (S) and the hearer (H), (2) the relative power (P) between S and H, and (3) the ranking (R) of imposition in the particular culture (p. 76). These three factors are combined to come up with a numerical estimate of the weightiness of the FTA using the following formula: $W_x = D(S, H) + P(H, S) + R_x$. Brown and Levinson also noted that these three factors contribute to the determination of the level of politeness.

Brown and Levinson's theory (1987) categorizes the use of honorifics as a negative politeness strategy ("give deference"), which is about minimizing a particular imposition of a FTA. They challenged the previous descriptions of honorifics as markers of predetermined social standing and claimed that honorifics are "typically *strategically* used to soften FTAs, by indexing the absence of risk to the addressee" (p. 182). Brown (2011) argued that speakers may intentionally elevate honorific forms to deliver the message that the hearer is of a higher status than the speaker when performing FTAs. He further explained that elevation of honorific forms

may function to minimize “any threat of coercion that the hearer may feel and therefore communicates ‘politeness’” (p. 61).

However, Brown and Levinson’s (1987) theory fails to explain the use of honorifics in utterances that do not constitute FTAs (Matsumoto, 1988). Using Japanese as an example, Matsumoto (1988) argued that honorifics in Japanese are “relational-acknowledging devices” that indicate the interlocutors’ status differences rather than a negative politeness strategy (p. 411). She adduced examples where honorifics are used in non-FTA situations. Brown (2011) also argued that speakers of honorific languages such as Korean and Japanese are forced into “an obligatory choice between different forms in every single sentence, no matter how innocuous the propositional content or illocutionary force may be” (p. 61). Similarly, according to W. K. Lee’s (1991) study, the use of honorifics in Korean is based on pre-given social variables such as age and social status, and not activated by the need for negative politeness. Thus, both studies refute the idea that honorifics are triggered by the need for negative politeness.

2.4.2 Indexicality

Indexicality refers to “the capacity of language to point to something without directly referring to it” (Anderson, 2008, p. 423). In other words, it is the function of linking an index to the context of use for determining the complete meaning of what is being uttered (Cook, 2008a). Linguistic forms are indexical in the sense that they index different social meanings at different times and places. Silverstein (1976) introduced two types of index: referential indexes and non-referential indexes. Referential indexes contribute to the direct denotational meaning of an utterance. Examples of referential indexes include personal pronouns such as *I* and *you*, or temporal-spatial expressions such as *here* or *then*. On the other hand, non-referential indexes do not contribute to an uttered sentence’s referential meaning but instead signal the “speech

context” (Cook, 2008a, p. 23) or “some particular value of one or more contextual variables” (Preucel, 2006, p. 72). Korean honorifics are a common type of non-referential index because they signal the speech context by indicating the speaker’s attitudes or stance toward the addressee via special forms of language.

An indexical approach to language asserts the importance of context in understanding social meanings of a linguistic form. It is when the linguistic form is combined with the interactional context that actual meaning emerges and the speaker’s intention becomes interpretable. Context is “a frame (Goffman, 1974) that surrounds the event being examined and provides resources for its appropriate interpretation” (Duranti & Goodwin, 1992, p. 3). The full meaning behind an utterance cannot be understood without a context because context allows us to make sense of subtle nuances or connotations of utterances. The meaning of a linguistic form is found in “the local state of affairs that was operative at that exact moment of interactional time” (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998, p. 4). The elements of a context encompass “the setting, participants, language ideology, activity type, the sequential organization of talk and the state of knowledge of the interlocutors in the social interaction” (Cook, 2008a, p. 3). In addition, the relevant context also includes “locally and globally co-occurring linguistic resources” (Noren & Linell, 2007, p. 390). Linguistic and non-linguistic contextual factors combine to produce a given social meaning of a linguistic form.

It is important to consider how adopting an indexical view of language and identities might assist in the analysis of the teachers’ speech styles. Speech styles in Korean are non-referential indexes because they index certain metapragmatic elements of the context of a communicative event, such as the social identity of a speaker, speaker-addressee relationships, or the formality level of the context. An example of non-referential Korean speech styles would be

the deferential style (*-(su)pnita* form). In ordinary conversation, this style is used to a socially superior adult, a distant acquaintance, or a large audience; thus, it indexes a greater social distance and a formal context. However, it signals more extended meanings when used in other contexts. In KFL teacher talk, it can index a teacher's authoritative and professional identity in a creative form of indexicality. Speech styles have the potential to communicate multiple meanings depending on their use in particular contexts. It is difficult to allocate a unifying meaning for each speech style that can explain all the cases in which it is used, because meaning emerges through social interaction. Therefore, the theory of indexicality is particularly suitable in the study of speech styles, because speech styles generate creative and context-sensitive meanings. This approach allows me to capture the complexity and unpredictability of speech style use that has not been taken into account in the traditional research.

2.4.3 Identities

The social constructionists' view of identity is vital in examining the phenomenon of speech style shifts during teachers' instruction. According to Ochs (1993), social identity refers to "a range of social personae, including social statuses, roles, positions, relationships, and institutional and other relevant community identities one may attempt to claim or assign in the course of social life" (p. 288). Social constructionists embrace the perspective that identity is not a reflection of pre-given, fixed social categories but the interactional outcomes of evolving social personas that are shaped and reshaped in and through talk (Bucholtz, 1999; Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Ochs, 1993). Seen from this perspective, identity is co-constructed by the individual and other interactants. Thus, identities are a complex and situated construct that is subject to change across times and contexts.

Ochs (1996) proposed that the indexical relationship between language and social identities involves two levels. At the level of direct indexicality, linguistic forms immediately index stances and social acts. At the level of indirect indexicality, these stances and social acts become associated with particular social identities. In other words, Ochs's (1996) two step model of indexicality views social identity as indirect indexicality, and social acts and stances as a fundamental component of identity construction. According to Ochs (1993), a social act is "a socially recognized goal-directed behavior" such as making a request or asking a question; a stance is "a display of a socially recognized point of view or attitude" (p. 288). Stance comprises affective stance, which refers to one's degree of emotional intensity toward what is being said, and epistemic stance, which refers to one's degree of commitment to the truth of his/her utterances. Ochs (1993) claimed that no one-to-one direct correspondence exists between linguistic forms and identities. Social identity is not explicitly signified by linguistic forms, but rather, is inferred on the basis of social acts and stances. Social acts and stances are resources for structuring social identities (Brown & Levinson, 1979; Ochs, 1993). Thus, the ways in which diverse teacher identities emerge can be best understood by closely looking at what actions they perform within a specific activity and what attitudes they display.

Studies in Japanese have examined how speakers strategically manipulate their speech styles to display different identities on a moment-by-moment basis in a given context (Cook, 1996, 2006, 2008a). These studies proposed that the addressee honorific form, *masu*, indexes self-presentational stance, which further indexes various social identities such as those of a person in charge (e.g., parent, teacher), a knowledgeable party (e.g., teacher, other authority figures), or a presenter (e.g., newscaster, interviewer). The associations between speech styles and identities are deeply rooted in the cultural norms, beliefs, and values that underpin social

relations and linguistic practices. These cultural lenses guide the way we interpret the social meanings that a particular speech style entails.

In this study's KFL classroom data, teachers creatively utilize different speech styles to construct their social identities and perform various roles required of them as teachers. Teachers' different aspects of identity are switched on and off in response to interactional and pedagogical demands placed on the teachers. When teachers occupy roles within an activity, they are expected to fulfill the expectations associated with the specific roles, and these expectations govern the social relationship between teachers and students. For instance, in the classroom data collected for this study, a teacher tends to use the intimate style (-e/a form) during discussions of solidarity-building topics such as personal feelings or daily life events. By using the speech style, the teacher displays her personal identity and builds solidarity with her students. The teacher's role in this situation is to mediate tensions that build up during academic engagement and provide a relaxed social atmosphere.

2.5 Summary

This chapter reviews the cultural origins and background of honorifics and the general usage of Korean speech styles. It also discusses previous literature on classroom discourse and on Korean and Japanese speech style use. Finally, it outlines the fundamental theoretical concepts on which I base my analyses in Chapters 4 through 6. The present study is positioned within the theory of indexicality, which claims that linguistic forms depend on interactional context for their meaning.

Traditional grammarians have proposed a prototypical usage of each Korean speech style by describing the possible communicative contexts where each speech style can be used. In this view, speech styles are mainly selected depending on the sociocultural characteristics of interlocutors (e.g., age, status). However, the findings of more recent studies have demonstrated

that factors that influence speakers' speech style selections are dynamic and complex because they are informed by the speakers' constantly changing feelings, stances, and identities in the course of interaction (Ishida, 2009). While the findings of the previous studies provide valuable insights into the complex and indexical nature of Korean speech styles, to my knowledge, only a few studies have examined speech style usage by KFL teachers. Grounded on the findings and arguments of the literature discussed in this chapter, I analyze KFL teachers' use of speech styles in interaction with their students in classroom settings in Chapters 4, 5, and 6.

CHAPTER 3

The Study

3.1 Introduction

In this section, I describe the methodology I used for conducting this dissertation research, including the setting of the study, data collection procedures, and data analysis procedures. The data consist of audio-taped and video-taped recordings of face-to-face classroom interactions between the teachers and their students. This study employed qualitative research methods and frequency counts of tokens of speech style usage in order to examine the KFL teachers' use of Korean speech styles. The purpose of this study is to provide an in-depth qualitative analysis of teachers' actual linguistic practices in order to identify how speech styles are used during instruction, taking into consideration the context of the situation. Therefore, the main focus is on the qualitative analysis, and the token frequencies are employed to demonstrate the general patterns of speech style use for each teacher as background information for the qualitative examination of the classroom discourse.

In what follows, I first describe the setting of the study and explain the data collection processes. I then explain the specific procedures that were utilized for analyzing the data.

3.2 Research Site and Participants

In this section, I give an overview of the research site and the participants. Understanding teachers' speech style use and their identity construction is best achieved through investigating classroom discourse. Naturally occurring data are suitable to research the complex indexicality of speech styles because of such data's richness in contextual information. An indexical approach to a study of speech styles requires close attention to the details of interactional context as it is within the interactional context that linguistic forms acquire social meanings. For this

reason, the data were collected in seven upper-level Korean classes at an American university through audio- and/or video-recording. The courses were taught by seven individual teachers (four male teachers and three female teachers) who were in their 30s and had experience in teaching Korean in KFL contexts. The seven different teachers are hereafter called “Teacher A,” “Teacher B,” “Teacher C,” “Teacher D,” “Teacher E,” “Teacher F,” and “Teacher G.” All the teachers are native speakers from Korea, and the length of time they had been in the United States varied from two years to ten years at the time of the research.

Teacher A grew up in Korea and immigrated to the US during his senior year in middle school. He attended high school, college, and graduate school in the US. He completed a BA in history and an MA in Korean linguistics, and was pursuing a PhD in Korean when the data were collected. He had taught Korean for five years at the university, as well as at a Saturday school for Korean-American children. Teacher B received a BA in English in Korea and came to America to get an MA in Korean literature. She was in her second year of teaching Korean and was pursuing a PhD in English during the data collection period. Teacher C immigrated to the US after graduating from high school. He had a BA in English and an MA in Korean literature. He was pursuing a PhD in Korean linguistics and had taught Korean for four years. Teacher D grew up in Korea and completed her undergraduate and graduate studies in Korea before coming to the US to attend graduate school. She earned an MA in Korean linguistics and was pursuing a PhD in the same discipline. She had taught Korean at the university for five years at the time this research was conducted. Similarly, Teacher E also grew up in Korea and completed her undergraduate and graduate studies in Korea before moving to the US to pursue her PhD studies in Korean linguistics. She had taught Korean for three years at the time of the data collection. Teacher F came to the US to obtain his PhD in Korean linguistics. He received his BA in Korean

language and literature and MA in teaching Korean as a second/foreign language in Korea, and had taught Korean in the US for two years. Teacher G also came to the US for his PhD studies in Korean linguistics after getting his BA in Korean language and literature and MA in teaching Korean language as a second/foreign language in Korea. He was in his second year of teaching Korean at the time of the study.

Table 3.1 shows the teachers, their genders, course titles, semesters, number of students, and duration of the recordings from their classrooms used for analysis. It should be noted, however, that the gender of the speakers and other inherent variables such as their hometowns and ages, were not taken into account in this study. In the table, the category H refers to heritage students who were raised in a home where Korean was spoken. The category N refers to non-heritage students who had no home exposure to the language.

Table 3.1
Background information on participants and data collection

Teacher	Gender	Course number & name	Semester	# of students in attendance	Duration of recording
A	Male	KOR 380	S10	14 (H12/N2)	3 hours
B	Female	KOR 401	S07	10 (H8/N2)	3 hours
C	Male	KOR 401	S09	12 (H8/N4)	3 hours
D	Female	KOR 401	F10	16 (H12/N4)	3 hours
E	Female	KOR 402	S11	19 (H10/N9)	3 hours
F	Male	KOR 402	S12	16 (H9/N7)	3 hours
G	Male	KOR 401	F13	12 (H6/N6)	3 hours

Data collection was carried out in upper-level Korean classes because teachers in the upper-level classes draw on a larger repertoire of speech styles. This is the case for several reasons. First, the teachers have more freedom in their speech production because students have a higher level of comprehension. Second, compared to first-year and second-year teachers who focus on teaching basic Korean grammatical patterns, the upper-level teachers are likely to

engage more in natural dialogues with students, which allows them to interweave different speech styles more often. Thus, the target classes include one third-year Korean class (KOR 380 “Korean Proficiency through TV Drama”) and six fourth-year Korean classes (four courses of KOR 401 “Fourth Level Korean I” and two courses of KOR 402 “Fourth Level Korean II”). The Korean program at the university offers four levels of Korean language courses from first year (100 level) to fourth year (400 level). Table 3.2 summarizes information about the classes.

Table 3.2
Details of the classes

Course number	Course name	Class time	Pre-requisite	Course objectives
KOR 380	Korean proficiency through TV drama	T/TH (75 min)	KOR 302 or its equivalent	To elevate students’ proficiency level to advanced by challenging them to understand Korean dramas.
KOR 401	Fourth-year Korean I	M, W, F (50 min)	KOR 302 or its equivalent	To equip students with proficiency in the four language skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing at the advanced level.
KOR 402	Fourth-year Korean II	M, W, F (50 min)	KOR 401 or its equivalent	To enhance students’ presentation skills, expand their vocabulary of more complex and abstract concepts, and introduce students to authentic writings on various topics.

KOR 380 and KOR 401 are designed for students who have finished the equivalent of the third year of university-level Korean, and KOR 402 is designed for those who have successfully completed Korean language study up through the KOR 401 course. All of these courses are considered advanced level classes based on the complexity of material that is taught. In terms of

class hours per week, KOR 401 and KOR 402 meet three times a week for fifty minutes per meeting, whereas KOR 380 meets two times a week for seventy-five minutes per meeting.

Here, I will briefly describe each language course chosen for the study. KOR 380 is a course designed for those who would like to elevate their proficiency level by understanding and analyzing Korean TV drama episodes, which present language use in rich sociocultural contexts. The main topics of discussion involve sociocultural issues of language such as address terms, honorifics, and pragmatic expressions. The purpose of the KOR 401 course is to equip students with proficiency in the four language skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing at an advanced level. Teachers focus on helping students to enhance their vocabulary and reading skills through reading advanced academic texts and discussing Korean sociocultural issues. The KOR 402 class is intended to help students improve their speaking skills in more formal contexts as well as expand their literacy skills through reading authentic texts in various genres and styles (i.e., newspaper articles, essays, and literary works). The common focus of these three courses is an emphasis on developing sensitivity to the cultural nuances embedded in the language by exposing students to oral and written texts from a larger context.

3.3 Data Collection

The data were collected between 2007 and 2013, and ranged from five to eight hours of recordings for each class. Each class was observed during one semester and video-taped once or twice a week during the semester. For data analysis, I selected three hours of classroom interaction per class. Audio- and video-recordings of classroom discourse can serve as a useful means of close documentation and observation of teachers' verbal and non-verbal interaction with students. I was present during all recordings, because participant observation provides a context for understanding data collected through audio- and video-recordings. Both participant

observation and taking field notes is an important ethnographic method used to obtain information relevant to data analysis, such as the classroom atmosphere and students' characteristics.

The video camera was placed in a corner at the back of the classroom whereas the audio recorder was placed in the front of the classroom. Both were placed in a non-obtrusive location so as not to impede students' movements. Although the students at first seemed to be self-conscious when being recorded, they soon became comfortable with the recording process and considered it a natural part of the classroom. During the classroom observations, I used field notes to record what took place, including interactions between people, events, behaviors, and activities, to supplement the audio and video data.

3.4 Data Description and Transcription Conventions

This section provides a brief overview of the data analyzed in this study and of the transcription procedure. The data were transcribed according to the transcription conventions developed by Jefferson (1984) with minor modifications (see Ochs, Schegloff, & Thompson, 1996, pp. 461–465 for detailed descriptions). Transcription conventions appear in the appendix. The transcripts are in a four line format. The Korean utterances are romanized in the first line according to the Yale Romanization system. A morpheme-by-morpheme gloss that gives the literal meaning of each unit appears in the third line. The grammatical categorizations are based on Sohn's (1999, pp. xix–xx) work. The Korean utterances are represented in *hangul* (the Korean alphabet) in the third line. In the fourth line of the transcripts, I provide an English translation.

The target sentence enders of the different speech styles are boldfaced. The English translations are presented with single quotation marks. In terms of translating, when a turn extends beyond one line, it is difficult to provide an accurate English translation at the line unit

due to the different word order between Korean and English. Korean's canonical word order is subject-object-verb; a predicate must appear in a sentence's final position with a sentence ender. Therefore, in such cases, the turn's total utterance in Korean follows the third line, and the English translation is given at the end of each turn.

In order to describe and analyze the data, *KKamccaksay 1.5*, a synthesized Korean data processor, was used. This concordance program, which was developed in Korea, is used to count words, to analyze token frequencies and collocation frequencies, and to conduct lexical analysis. The most commonly used type of concordance is called the Key Word in Context (KWIC) concordance. It shows just one line for each transcript with the keyword in the center of the line. For the purpose of this study, the program was used to help analyze the Korean morphemes accurately and count the total number of words. The next section discusses what steps I took to analyze KFL teachers' speech style use and shifts in the classroom.

3.5 Data Analysis Procedures

This section provides a brief description of the data analysis procedure used in this study. The goal of this dissertation is to provide a detailed qualitative analysis of KFL teachers' speech style use. The study also incorporates token frequencies for the speech styles used by each teacher as a way of showing the general patterns of speech style use. The token frequency analysis was used to determine, for each class session, which sentence enders occurred and the number of occurrences for each speech style. Conducting this frequency count was a necessary step to characterize teachers' overall speech patterns to better understand the results of the qualitative analysis of specific excerpts.

The first step of the frequency count was to separate the utterances of the teachers and those of the students. Then, the frequencies of each speech style were calculated for each teacher

in each lesson. Sentential fragments were not included in this process because they cannot be classified into any of the speech styles, as a sentence ending is not present. Speech styles used in the classroom corpus were ranked in order to determine which speech style ends occurred most frequently in the classroom sessions. Next, each speech style in the classroom corpus was identified and then each token was categorized according to the major functions (i.e., delivering an announcement, asking a question). Then, the number of tokens for each major function was counted.

After the token analysis of each teacher's speech style use was conducted, I qualitatively examined instances of speech style use and shifts in the contexts in which they occurred. Based on the classroom conversational corpus, the analysis focused on what speech styles are used in each class session and the functions of each speech style in constructing a particular type of interaction. In particular, I present the use of the intimate, polite, deferential, and semi-formal styles in specific contexts.

A microanalytic qualitative research approach was used for data analysis because it clearly showed the process of how teachers adjust speech styles to create their desired identities in real time as they interact with their students. This approach made it possible for me to provide elaborate descriptions and detailed analysis of the phenomenon of speech style use and shifts while allowing specific examples of utterances to stand as evidence. Microanalytic qualitative research required going beyond the boundaries of the syntactic forms of the utterances containing speech styles. Because indexical meaning involves more than an understanding of a target linguistic form alone, it was important to incorporate contextual factors into the analysis (Cook, 2008a).

Therefore, when following the microanalytic qualitative research procedures, I examined the focal phenomenon in

its relations to co-occurring linguistic forms in the prior and present discourse structure, to subjective understandings of the propositional content of the utterances thus far, and of the activity those utterances constitute as well as subjective understandings of gestures and other dimensions of the non-vocal setting. (Gumperz & Levinson, 1996, p. 414)

In addition, it was necessary to observe co-participants' engagements and actions in the analysis because stance and identity are jointly created by all participants in interaction (Jacoby & Ochs, 1995; Kasper & Rose, 2002). Therefore, although the focus of the present study was on teacher talk, it took into account students' verbal participation (e.g., students' talk prior to changes in teachers' speech styles, students' uptake²² of teacher talk). The analysis of these contextual factors was an integral part of the qualitative research design adopted in this study because such factors guided teachers' choices of speech styles.

The procedure of the qualitative analysis involved three major steps: (1) identifying activities, (2) documenting the presence of speech styles, and (3) analyzing teacher identities. This procedure helped me to develop codes, categories, and themes inductively rather than imposing predetermined classifications. Because classroom practices are multifaceted, ever-changing, and too complex to be described entirely, a coding system is required for effective data analysis. Table 3.3 outlines the basic steps in the data analysis process.

²² "Uptake" is defined as "a student utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 49).

Table 3.3*Data analysis procedures*

	General procedures	Detailed description of each procedure
Step 1	Identifying classroom activities	1) Type of activity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ IRF: grammar, vocabulary ➤ Non-IRF: discussion, or other open ended tasks 2) Participation organization: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Whole class, group work, pair work, individual work 3) Content: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Focus on explicit language instruction, classroom management, or some other content 4) Type of teacher talk <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ On-task vs. off-task ➤ Monologic vs. dialogic
Step 2	Documenting the presence of speech styles	1) Mark which speech styles are present 2) Analyze the functions of the teachers' utterances 3) Mark where the teacher switches speech styles
Step 3	Analyzing teacher identities	1) Examine what social roles the teacher displays 2) Examine what identities the speech styles index

First, I assembled all the segments involving the use of each speech style. Then, the raw classroom data were organized into meaningful categories by identifying what types of activities were prevalent in each lesson and how speech styles helped the teacher construct the ongoing activities. The reason for segmenting teacher talk into activity-based subcategories was to explore the talk's overall structure and examine teachers' use of speech styles within a larger context. Activities are largely classified into two subcategories: activities occurring within the Initiation-Reply-Follow-up (IRF) structure (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) and activities occurring outside the IRF structure (e.g., discussions or other open-ended tasks). The structure of the

activity defines the roles and responsibilities of teachers. A common practice in language classroom discourse, the IRF structure represents three interactional components: an initiation by a teacher, a response from a student, and a follow-up from the teacher. This IRF structure provides a useful framework for analyzing a controlled form of teacher-student interaction in which the teacher directs students' attention to (re)producing grammatical items. In the IRF structure, the teacher tends to function as an evaluator by providing an explicit or implicit evaluation of the student response.

When the activities occur outside of the IRF structure, such as a class discussion or lecture, they are noted and coded within each transcript. Because the target classes are upper-level classes, activities outside of the IRF structure are more frequent than those within it. Patterns of teacher roles are identified in the transcript depending on the type of activity. For example, when the teacher engages in discussions with students, she or he tends to serve as a facilitator who encourages student talk by inviting students to engage in critical discussion and keep the conversation going. When the teacher delivers a lecture on a topic, she or he takes the role of the authority of knowledge who is in charge of explaining the subject matter.

During the process of identifying the activities, the type of teacher talk (on-task vs. off-task, monologic vs. dialogic) was also noted to uncover the nature of teacher talk within the activity. In terms of content, teacher talk can be divided into on-task and off-task talk. On-task talk is directly related to the task or the academic content of the lesson assigned by the teacher. On-task talk can be related to an explicit language focus, classroom management, or some other content, such as culture. Off-task talk is not oriented toward the task or lesson (Potowski, 2007). An example of off-task talk is a casual dialogue about events that have occurred in life. When participants are engaging in off-task talk, the context becomes more informal and conversational,

and when they are engaging in on-task talk, the context becomes more formal and task-oriented. On-task and off-task talk can be further divided into monologic and dialogic speech depending on the types of communication. Monologic talk is a type of teacher speech made up of mostly much longer and complete sentences, such as lectures or announcements, where the teacher has the ultimate control. On the other hand, dialogic talk is a type of communication involving a verbal exchange of ideas between teachers and students such as class discussions or a question-and-answer session.

For the purpose of analyzing the functions of the teachers' utterances, I used a coding scheme developed by Ohta (1993)²³ where, for example, "nomination" is the code for when the teacher nominates a student and "transition" is the code for when the teacher moves on to the next activity. As Ohta (1993) notes, these codes are not always mutually exclusive, meaning a piece of utterance can be assigned several codes simultaneously (e.g., "initiation" and "nomination"; "response" and "joke"). After speech styles were individually analyzed, I compared each of these coded incidents with the others and located commonly recurring functions. Table 3.4 presents the list of codes used to organize the classroom corpora.

²³ This coding scheme was designed to represent the activities occurring in a beginning level Japanese language classroom, but it can be applied to the advanced level Korean language classroom with modifications. I expanded the scheme by adding more activities as they emerged in the data.

Table 3.4
Activity codes

Code	Description
I, R or F	Initiation, Response, Follow-up Activity. I, R, & F turns coded separately with an I, R, or F.
AN	Announcement
AS	Assessment
C	Teacher corrects student
CO	Comment
D	Directive by teacher to class
ES	Expansion (either grammatical or related to content) of utterance just uttered by a student
EP	Exemplifying: Description of pictures, modeling of new vocabulary in context
G	Greetings
H	Teacher provides a hint
IF	Informal
IN	Informing: Teacher provides information to students, whether instructional (a grammar explanation, for example) or non-pedagogical in nature
IJ	Student interjection: Student calls out without being nominated. This is differentiated from an R (response) in that the student contribution does not follow any sort of initiation by the teacher.
JK	Joke
KI	Confirming known information
N	Teacher nominates a student
P	Prompt: Teacher provides vocabulary/grammatical structure for student use or prompts student to rephrase
PR	Praising student
QT	Quotation
RE	Reaction by teacher to a student's utterance/behavior
RS	Verbatim reception by teacher of student's utterance
SC	Self-correction
SE	Self-expansion: Teacher repeats what she has just said with expansion or change
SR	Self-repetition: Teacher repeats what she has just said
ST	Self-talk (self-addressed speech): Teacher talks to herself
SU	Suggestion
SY	Storytelling
TL	Translating own previous utterance
TR	Transition
TS	Test strategy
UC	Understanding check

(adapted from Ohta, 1993, p. 42)

Second, after the classroom activity codes were added to the transcripts, I documented the presence of specific speech styles and instances of speech style shifts. At this stage, I specifically marked which speech styles were present in each activity and what speech styles teachers switched into.

Finally, I examined teacher utterances containing speech styles, with a focus on what functions the speech styles performed in a given context and how the speech styles helped to construct the teachers' identities. By doing so, I noticed that these instances of speech style use are associated with several distinctive functions. Teachers' identities were reflected in the social roles the teachers performed and attitudes they displayed toward their students while using the specific speech styles.

3.6 General Linguistic Practices of the KFL Classrooms

Based on the classroom data examined in this study, teachers alternate their speech styles moment by moment while interacting with their students. When delivering the content of instruction, they predominantly use the polite style, the *-yo* form (Lee & Ramsey, 2000). The polite style is considered an appropriate style to address an addressee of any social status or age in most situations because it carries "an inherent meaning of respect for human dignity" (Kim-Renaud, 2001, p. 34). The polite style, which Lukoff (1982) terms the "honorific ordinary style" (p. 122), is widely used by children and adults in informal and everyday conversation. Lee and Ramsey (2000) also claim that the polite style, the *-yo* form, is the typical style that teachers employ to deliver the content of instruction in the classroom. The teachers use this form when providing information, giving an opinion, clarifying statements, and asking questions. Teachers' use of the polite style is associated with the teachers' duties (Byon, 2003). In KFL classrooms, teachers seem to employ the polite style as a baseline because they view the student audience

collectively and thus treat them with greater respect than they would an individual student. Students are also instructed to use the polite style with their peers and teachers in the classroom to reinforce their respectful behavior. The polite style is also generally used in Korean language textbooks (Brown, 2010a; Choo, 1999).

Although the teachers largely employ the polite style when teaching, they sometimes shift their speech styles. The question then arises of how to explain the occurrence of certain shifts to other speech styles while the speaker is interacting with the same addressees in a given social situation. This study investigates in what situations and why teachers draw on different speech styles during instruction.

Having established the methodological and theoretical foundations for the present study, I now proceed to Chapter 4 to present the teachers' use of the honorific styles. The analyses of their use of the intimate and semi-formal styles will be presented in Chapters 5 and 6. In each analysis chapter (Chapters 4–6), I first present the token frequency for each speech style by each individual teacher and then I qualitatively examine instances of speech style use, using excerpts from the transcribed data to show the contexts in which the speech styles occur.

CHAPTER 4

Teachers' Use of the Polite and Deferential Styles: Indexing the Teachers' Roles

4.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to examine teachers' use of the polite and deferential styles in a classroom setting. Specifically, the chapter addresses the contexts in which teachers use these speech styles in teacher-student interactions and the functions each style performs in such situations. The polite and deferential styles are considered honorific styles (Byon, 2006; Sohn, 1999); these styles are generally "used reciprocally between non-intimates and non-reciprocally by age-rank subordinates to superiors" (Brown, 2011, p. 25). The polite style is called the *-yo* form, whereas the deferential style is also known as the *-(su)pnita* form. Using the honorific speech styles in the Korean language is commonly understood as indicating politeness and showing respect to the addressee. In this study, in addition to referring to "honorific" and "non-honorific" styles, I use the Korean folk terminology *contaymal* 'respect-speech' (honorific styles) and *panmal* 'half-speech' (non-honorific styles).

The classroom data exhibit the mixed use of speech styles by all participants. No teacher strictly uses one speech style, although they mostly use the polite style and only occasionally shift to other speech styles. Students also use the polite style to interact with their teachers and classmates. However, teachers sometimes shift to the deferential style, the *-(su)pnita* form. This linguistic phenomenon raises two questions about the role of the polite and deferential styles within the classroom context: (1) In what contexts do the teachers employ the polite and deferential styles? and (2) What are the interactional functions of these styles? The findings indicate that both speech styles allow them to accomplish particular roles as teachers.

Although traditional accounts of the speech styles in Korean provide solid explanations of the conditions for the use of the honorific speech styles, there are limitations to such an

approach. These studies rely on elicited simple sentences without a context and on native speakers' intuitions. Studies of Korean speech styles based on native speakers' intuition typically identify one prominent meaning for each speech style. They do not automatically provide a conscious and comprehensive picture of a speech style in all its contexts of use. Thoughts on speech styles are difficult to articulate because speech style use is a natural and unconscious process to a great extent (Cook, 2008a). Meanings of speech styles are underspecified and uniquely associated with the particular speech context. For these reasons, a more appropriate research method to examine the complex range of meanings of speech styles is to analyze speech recorded in natural settings (Cook, 2008a).

Drawing on authentic KFL classroom discourse, this chapter illustrates a distinctive pattern of the use of the polite and deferential styles among KFL teachers. The results of this study will help explain the complex and multilayered meanings of the polite and deferential speech styles, which emerge as a result of their interaction with a context. All the teachers shift their speech styles, rather than strictly using one speech style. There are variations across teachers in terms of the use of different speech styles; some teachers use certain styles more often than others. However, the issue of individual differences is beyond the scope of this study. In what follows, I describe how the polite and deferential styles are defined.

Building on these recent studies, this chapter illustrates distinctive patterns of use for the polite and deferential styles among KFL teachers and the ways in which the styles allow teachers to accomplish their roles and fulfill their responsibilities as teachers. The transcribed data contained a range of different speech styles. Table 4.1 summarizes the number of tokens of each speech style.

Table 4.1*Number of tokens of each speech style*

	Plain	Intimate	Semi-formal	Polite	Deferential	Total
Teacher A	36 (4.9%)	9 (1.2%)	8 (1.1%)	645 (87.9%)	36 (4.9%)	734 (100%)
Teacher B	34 (5.4%)	114 (18.0%)	14 (2.2%)	414 (65.3%)	58 (9.1%)	634 (100%)
Teacher C	25 (2.7%)	11 (1.2%)	6 (0.7%)	871 (94.5%)	9 (1.0%)	922 (100%)
Teacher D	40 (5.1%)	100 (12.7%)	2 (0.3%)	635 (80.7%)	10 (1.3%)	787 (100%)
Teacher E	33 (4.7%)	8 (1.1%)	2 (0.3%)	654 (93.0%)	6 (0.9%)	703 (100%)
Teacher F	42 (4.9%)	24 (2.8%)	2 (0.2%)	790 (91.5%)	5 (0.6%)	863 (100%)
Teacher G	30 (2.8%)	36 (3.3%)	5 (0.5%)	942 (86.7%)	73 (6.7%)	1086 (100%)
Total (average)	238 (4.2%)	302 (5.3%)	38 (0.7%)	4951 (86.5%)	197 (3.4%)	5726 (100%)

In Section 4.4, I present instances in which the polite style is used by teachers to deliver instruction.

4.2 Teachers' Use of the Polite Style

Unlike the elementary classrooms in the studies described in Chapter 2, a university KFL classroom is considered a social situation where formality and politeness are called for. The use of the polite style helps to constitute the formal role of teachers who are socially expected to interact with students in a polite and respectful manner in a KFL classroom setting. The teachers use this form when asking students questions related to class activities, directing students to follow instructions, and explaining concepts and class rules. Thus, teachers' use of the polite

style is associated with the teachers' duties. Table 4.2 shows the number of tokens of the polite style ending found in the data and how many of them were used for each function.

Table 4.2*Number of tokens of the polite style ending*

	Statements									Questions			Total
	Opening / Closing	Explaining	Quoting	Stating instruction	Orders / Directives	Announcement	Evaluation	Exemplifying	Off-task comments	On-task	Off-task	Tag questions (-ci)	
Teacher A	3 (0.5%)	147 (22.8%)	2 (0.3%)	61 (9.5%)	93 (14.4%)	11 (1.7%)	41 (6.4%)	16 (2.5%)	3 (0.5%)	169 (26.2%)	2 (0.3%)	97 (15.0%)	645/734 (87.9%)
Teacher B	4 (1.0%)	72 (17.4%)	3 (0.7%)	9 (2.2%)	23 (5.6%)	1 (0.2%)	3 (0.7%)	11 (2.7%)	28 (6.8%)	90 (21.7%)	24 (5.8%)	146 (35.3%)	414/634 (65.3%)
Teacher C	3 (0.3%)	233 (26.8%)	3 (0.3%)	32 (3.7%)	32 (3.7%)	17 (2.0%)	6 (0.7%)	17 (2.0%)	17 (2.0%)	143 (16.4%)	15 (1.7%)	353 (40.5%)	871/922 (94.5%)
Teacher D	3 (0.5%)	145 (22.8%)	4 (0.6%)	50 (7.9%)	38 (6.0%)	9 (1.4%)	30 (4.7%)	9 (1.4%)	20 (3.1%)	143 (22.5%)	41 (6.5%)	143 (22.5%)	635/787 (80.7%)
Teacher E	4 (0.6%)	106 (16.2%)	2 (0.3%)	66 (10.1%)	42 (6.4%)	32 (4.9%)	34 (5.2%)	3 (0.5%)	13 (2.0%)	184 (28.1%)	29 (4.4%)	139 (21.3%)	654/703 (93.0%)
Teacher F	3 (0.4%)	206 (26.1%)	4 (0.5%)	76 (9.6%)	87 (11.0%)	5 (0.6%)	22 (2.8%)	4 (0.5%)	18 (2.3%)	151 (19.1%)	15 (1.9%)	199 (25.2%)	790/863 (91.5%)
Teacher G	3 (0.3%)	203 (21.5%)	5 (0.5%)	15 (1.6%)	29 (3.1%)	4 (0.4%)	11 (1.2%)	28 (3.0%)	26 (2.8%)	181 (19.2%)	22 (2.3%)	415 (44.1%)	942/1086 (86.7%)
Total (average)	23 (0.5%)	1112 (22.5%)	23 (0.5%)	309 (6.2%)	344 (6.9%)	79 (1.6%)	147 (3.0%)	88 (1.8%)	125 (2.5%)	1061 (21.4%)	148 (3.0%)	1492 (30.1%)	4951/5726 (86.5%)

4.2.1 Explaining a concept

Excerpt 4.1²⁴ illustrates a teacher’s use of the polite style while explaining a concept during a whole-class discussion in a Korean 401 class (“Fourth-year Korean I”). The objective of that day’s lesson was to learn about traditional Korean marriage. Prior to the conversation, the teacher gave a lecture on the step-by-step procedures of the traditional Korean wedding. In Excerpt 4.1, the teacher starts a discussion on relevant social issues, such as the societal pressures on women to get married and contemporary people’s tendency to postpone marriage. The teacher employs the polite style to explain how in Korea, people are delaying marriage until later and later, using his personal example.

Excerpt 4.1: Marriage in Korea (Teacher C, KOR 401)

- 1 T: *Eylin-ssi-nun?* *hakeytoy-ntamyen?*
Erin-HT-TC do-if

에린 씨는? 하게 된다면?

‘How about you Erin? If you were to get married, (when do you want to get married?)’

- 2 ER: *te nuckey kunyang ton cal pel-ko cal sal-ko iss-umyen*
more late just money well earn-and well live-and stay-if

ku ttay kyelhonha-myen coh-keyss-e.yo.
that time marry-if good-may-POL

더 늦게 그냥 돈 잘 벌고 잘 살고 있으면 그 때 결혼하면 좋겠어요.

‘I would want to marry a little later. As long as I earn a lot of money and I live a good life, I would like to get married then.’

- 3 T: *kulayse cemcem hankwuk-eyse-to kyelhonha-nun yenlyeng-i nucecy-e.yo.*
so gradually Korea-in-also marry-RL age-NM get late-POL

그래서 점점 한국에서도 결혼하는 연령이 늦어져요.

‘That’s why in Korea the age of getting married becomes more and more delayed.’

²⁴ In the excerpts, T represents the “teacher,” and Ss represents the “students.” Two uppercase letters represent a student’s abbreviated name (e.g., ER for Erin).

- 4 *nai-ka* *nuckey* *kyelhonha-yyo.*
age-NM late marry-POL
- 나이가 늦게 결혼해요.
‘People marry when they’re older.’
- 5 *cehuy apeci-nun sumwul ilkop-ey kyelhonha-sy-ess-e.yo. ku-cyo.*
my father-TC 27-at marry-SH-PST-POL to be so-POL
- 저희 아버지는 스물 일곱에 결혼하셨어요. 그죠.
‘My father got married at 27, right?’
- 6 *sumwul ilkop. thwuweynthi seypun-ey.*
27 27-at
- 스물 일곱. 투웬티 세븐에.
‘27. At 27.’
- 7 *ce-nun ...*
I-TC
- 저는...
‘For me...’
- 8 S: *thwuweynthi nain.*
29
- 투웬티 나인.
‘29.’
- 9 T: *sseli wen. kyelhonha-n ci i nyen tway-ss-cyo.*
31. marry-RL whether 2 years become-PST-POL
- 써리 윈. 결혼한 지 이년 됐죠.
‘31. It’s been two years since I got married.’
- 10 *selun han sal ttay kyelhonhay-ss-e.yo. ce-nun nuc-ess-cyo.*
31 age when marry-PST-POL I-TC late-PST-POL
- 서른 한 살 때 결혼했어요. 저는 늦었죠.
‘I got married at 31. I was late.’
- 11 ER: *ku ttay-ka coh-un ke kath-a.yo. selun han sal.*
that time-NM good-RN thing seem-POL 31 age

그 때가 좋은 거 같아요. 서른 한 살.
'That seems like a good time to get married. 31.'

In line 1, the teacher starts a conversation by prompting a student, ER, to talk about when she would like to get married. In line 2, ER responds in the polite style by saying *te nuckey kunyang ton cal pel-ko cal sal-ko iss-umyen ku ttay kyelhonha-myen coh-keyss-e.yo* 'I would want to marry a little later. As long as I earn a lot of money and I live a good life, I would like to get married then.' Upon the student's prompt response, in lines 3–4, the teacher uses the polite style to explain the trend that Korean people nowadays are getting married later in life, which is aligned with the student's response. Then, to provide an example of this phenomenon, he draws upon his father's (line 5) and his own (lines 9–10) experience, using the polite style. When the teacher says he was late to marry, ER gives a supportive response that 31 is a good age to get married, reciprocating the use of the polite style (line 11). This positive assessment following the teacher's personal comment shows, first, that students are orienting to the story as complete and, second, they have understood the just-completed story. The student's use of the polite style foregrounds her polite attitude toward the teacher.

Thus, in this excerpt, the teacher consistently uses the polite style to achieve his instructional task of explaining a particular social phenomenon related to marriage by making use of his own personal experiences. The student, ER, also uses the polite style to interact with the teacher in a polite and appropriate manner.

Excerpt 4.2 below presents the teacher's use of the polite style during a vocabulary lesson. The conversation is on-task because the teacher is teaching a vocabulary item, *chiluta* 'pay, hold, go through'. The teacher uses the polite style when he attempts to elicit information from the students and explains the word's usage.

Excerpt 4.2: Vocabulary instruction (Teacher G, KOR 401)

→ 1 T: (gazes toward the students) *chiluta-ka mwusun-ttus-i issta kulay-ss-cyo?*
chiluta-NM what-meaning-NM exit say-PST-POL

‘치르다’가 무슨 뜻이 있다 그랬죠?
 ‘What is the definition of *chiluta* I mentioned?’

2 TH: (moving his hands up) Raise up.

3 (1.7)

4 PI: What?

5 LA: To prepare?

(1.4)

6 T: (gaze toward LA and moving his hands up) *a::: kuken ollita-ko. chiluta.*
ah that raise-and. pay

아, 그건 올리다고, 치르다.
 ‘Ah, that one is *ollita* (“raise”). *Chiluta* (“pay”).’

7 ER: Go through.

8 IO: Hold.

9 T: (eating gesture) *papulmek-ko kaps-ul chiluta.*
meal-ACC-eat-and price-ACC pay

밥을 먹고 값을 치르다.
 ‘After eating, you pay.’

10 JF: Pay.

→ 11 T: *phei-lan ttus-i iss-tako kulay-ss-e.yo.*
pay-QT meaning-NM have-QT say-PST-POL

‘pay’란 뜻이 있다고 그랬어요.
 ‘I said it means “to pay.”’

12 ER: *a:::*
ah

13 (1.5)

→ 14 (facing students) *tto mwe-ka issta kulay-ss-cyo?* =
also what-NM exist say-PST-POL

또 뭐가 있다 그랬죠?

‘What other definition does the word, *chiluta*, have?’

15 T: =*kyelhonsik-ul chiluta. mwe ilen-ke-nun?*
wedding-ACC have what this-thing-TC

결혼식을 치르다. 뭐 이런거는?

‘How about having a wedding? How about in this case?’

16 JF: To have a ceremony.

→ 17 T: (nodding once) *ku-cyo. kulen-kes-to iss-ko,*
to be so-POL that-thing-also exist-and

18 (writing down “hold” on the board) *holtu-la-nun ttus-to iss-ko,*
hold meaning-also have-and

→ 19 *ku taumey hokun kossulwu-lanun ttuss-to iss-e.yo.*
next or go through-called meaning-also be-POL

그죠. 그런 것도 있고 ‘hold’라는 뜻도 있고 그 다음에 혹은 ‘go through’
라는 뜻도 있어요.

‘Right. There is also that definition. *Chiluta* also means “to hold.” Next it also
means “go through.”’

In line 1, the teacher uses the polite style to remind students of the meaning of the word *chiluta* by saying *chiluta-ka mwusun-ttus-i issta kulay-ss-cyo?* ‘What is the definition of *chiluta* I mentioned?’. From lines 2 to 5, different students provide different answers. As the teacher still does not draw the answer that he expected, in line 9, he gives an example sentence with an eating gesture to give clues. Once a student answers correctly, in line 11, the teacher restates the meaning of the word in the polite style: *pay-lan ttus-i iss-tako kulay-ss-e.yo* ‘I said it means “to pay”’. In line 14, the teacher proceeds to draw other meanings of the same word, using the polite style, as in *tto mwe-ka issta kulay-ss-cyo?* ‘What other definition does the word, *chiluta*, have?’.

Note how the teacher uses the form *-cyo* in lines 1 and 14. *-cyo* is the polite style of the suppositive sentence ender *-ci* (Kim, 2007; Sohn, 1999). It is a contracted form of the suppositive *-ci* and the polite sentence ender *-yo*. Sohn (1999) claims that, in interrogatives, the function of *-ci* is to seek agreement, similar to a tag question in English. In this excerpt, the teacher uses *-cyo* to elicit information from students; thus, *-cyo* is used as a content-seeking strategy in that he asks a question to test whether or not the students possess the target knowledge. The teacher's elicitation makes the students more attentive to the instruction, which is a crucial condition for classroom instruction (Kim, 2007). Therefore, in this excerpt, the function of the polite style is to explain the meaning of the target vocabulary and elicit responses from the students.

4.2.2 Stating instructions

Excerpt 4.3 comes from KOR 380 class (“Korean Proficiency through TV Drama”), which focuses on understanding and analyzing Korean TV drama episodes. In this example, the teacher employs the polite style to give students instructions for the midterm examination; the interaction consists of students listening to the teacher's monologue. The midterm examination is an oral exam where students have to record their own speech about a drama episode and narrate a description of the main characters and a summary of the events in each scene.

Excerpt 4.3: Midterm examination (Teacher A, KOR 380)

- 1 T: *mituthem*, no reading from the script.
midterm
- 미드텀, no reading from the script.
'Midterm, no reading from the script.'
- 2 *yelepwuntul-i philyoha-n tane ek-ese kac-ko o-l swu iss-nuntey*
you-NM necessary-RL word write-and bring-and come-PRS way-but
- 3 *congi-lul po-ko kunyang ilk-nun ke-nun an tway.yo.*
paper-ACC look-and just read-RN thing-RN not can-POL

여러분들이 필요한 단어 적어서 갖고 올 수 있는데 종이를 보고 그냥 읽는 거는 안 돼요.

‘You can write and bring a list of vocabulary you need, but you can’t read from the paper.’

- 4 *sikan-un* *phal pwun-pwuthe* *sip pwun-kkaci*.
time-TC 8 minute-from 10 minute-until

시간은 8 분부터 10 분까지.

‘In terms of time, from eight to ten minutes.’

- 5 *yelepwun*, it should be at least eight minutes.
everyone

여러분, it should be at least eight minutes.

‘Everyone, it should be at least eight minutes.’

- 6 *yethay-kkaci* *paywu-n* *pokheppyuleli* *ssu-kwu-yo*.
now-until learn-RN vocabulary use-and-POL

여태까지 배운 보케뷰러리 쓰구요.

‘Use the vocabulary you have learned so far.’

- 7 pronunciation, formality, deferential form-*ul* *ceytaylo ssu-na*,
pronunciation, formality, deferential form-ACC properly use-whether

- 8 plain form *ceytaylo* *ssu-na* *e.yo/a.yo* form-*ul* *ceytaylo ssu-na*,
plain form properly use-whether *e.yo/a.yo* form-ACC properly use-whether

- 9 *po-l-ke yey-yo*.
see-PRS fact-be-POL

Pronunciation, formality, deferential form 을 제대로 쓰나, plain form 제대로 쓰나, 어요/아요 form 을 제대로 쓰나 볼 거예요.

‘I am going to see whether you properly apply pronunciation, formality, deferential form, whether you use the plain form properly, and whether you properly use the *e.yo/a.yo* form.’

- 10 *khentheynchu-nun* *mwuncey-ka* *twu mwuncey-ka* *nao-l-ke-yey-yo*.
contents-TC questions-NM two questions-NM appear-PRS-fact-be-POL

컨텐츠는 문제가 두 문제가 나올 거예요.

‘As for the (oral exam) contents, there will be two questions.’

11	<i>chespenccay</i> first	<i>mwuncey-nun</i> question-TC	<i>khaylikhetul-ey tayhan</i> character-about	<i>insang chakuy</i> physical features & attire	
12	<i>phicikhel</i> physical	<i>tisukhulipsyen</i> description	<i>ha-nun pwupwun,</i> do-RL part	<i>kutaum pwupwun-un</i> next part-TC	
13	<i>ku</i> that	<i>khaylikthe-ey tayhan</i> character-about	<i>talun khaylikthe</i> different character	<i>eneyllisisu-latenci</i> analysis whether	<i>mwe</i> or
14	<i>phaymilli</i> family	<i>paykkulawuntu</i> background	<i>ile-n</i> like this-RL	<i>pwupwun-ey tayhayse</i> part-about	
→ 15	<i>iyaki</i> talk-RL	<i>ha-nun</i>	<i>ke-yey-yo.</i> thing-be-POL		

첫번째 문제는 캐릭터들에 대한 인상 착의 physical description 하는 부분, 그 다음 부분은 그 캐릭터에 대한 다른 캐릭터 analysis 라던지 뭐 family background 이런 부분에 대해서 이야기 하는 거예요.
 ‘The first question is about physical descriptions of the characters. And the next part is about the characters’ different character analysis or family background.’

In line 1, the teacher opens up a conversation about the midterm examination. In line 2, he speaks in the polite style to emphasize that students are not supposed to read from a script. In line 6, he uses the polite style again to tell the students that they should utilize the vocabulary they have learned. In lines 7–9, the teacher emphasizes that he is going to check whether or not students use the target grammatical forms correctly, using the polite style. In line 10, he continues to use the polite style to state how many questions there will be for the midterm examination. In lines 11–15, he gives detailed explanations about the two questions, maintaining his use of the polite style. Thus, in this example, the teacher consistently employs the polite style to enact one of the main roles of a teacher: giving students detailed instructions on how to prepare for an examination.

4.2.3 Asking a question

Excerpt 4.4 presents a teacher’s use of the polite style when asking a display question within an IRF sequence in the Korean 380 class. A display question is a type of question where

the teacher already knows the answer. Display questions are used in language teaching in order to elicit language practice from the students. Before the class, students were required to watch an episode of the TV drama “My Lovely Samsong” and to briefly present their analysis of the episode to the entire class. The focus of the activity is on linguistic forms, and particularly on using descriptive vocabulary accurately. With this narrow pedagogical focus, the activity requires a rigid and structured routine and a controlled turn-taking system, which consists of teacher prompts and learner productions. Prior to the conversation, the teacher finished an IRF interaction with a student about the male character’s clothing. In the excerpt, the teacher uses the polite style to ask students about the female character’s clothing and accessories.

Excerpt 4.4: IRF activity (Teacher A, KOR 380)

- 1 T: *kuliko, neykkullesu. Juwuli ssi.*
and necklace Juri HT

그리고, 넥글러스. 주리 씨.
‘And, necklace, Juri.’
- 2 JU: *mokkeli-lul hay-ss-supnita.*
necklace-AC do-PST-DEF

목걸이를 했습니다.
‘She is wearing a necklace.’
- 3 T: *ney. Tanya ssi, anything else? Ciyen ssi, anything about her fashion?*
yes

네, 탄야 씨, anything else? 지연 씨, anything about her fashion?
‘Yes, Tanya, anything else? Jiyeon, anything about her fashion?’
- 4 ((Students are silent.))
- 5 *etten chima yey-yo?*
what kind skirt-to be-POL

어떤 치마예요?
‘What kind of skirt is it?’

- 6 TA: *cwulum.*
pleated

주름.
'Pleated.'
- 7 T: *cwulum chima. maybe.*
pleated skirt maybe

주름 치마, maybe.
'Pleated skirt maybe.'
- 8 *kuliko mwe tul-ko iss-e.yo? son aph-ey?*
and what carry-and exist-POL hand front-in

그리고, 뭐 들고 있어요? 손 앞에?
'And what does she carry? In her hands?'
- 9 TA: *hayntupayk*
handbag

핸드백.
'Handbag.'
- 10 T: *ney hayntupayk. pelsu. hayntupayk tul-ko iss-e.yo.*
yes handbag purse handbag carry-and exist-POL

네, 핸드백. 필스. 핸드백 들고 있어요.
'Yes, handbag. Purse. She is carrying a handbag.'
- 11 *ney, coh-supnita. ney, cilmwun iss-e.yo?*
yes good-DEF yes question have-POL

네, 좋습니다. 네, 질문 있어요?
'Yes, good. Yes. Do you have questions?'

In line 1, the teacher nominates a student, JU, to continue with the vocabulary drill exercise. Despite the teacher's lack of explicit direction, JU understands the teacher's simple nomination as a request to describe the necklace of a TV drama female character because the activity is routinized and already familiar to the students. In line 2, the student responds by using the target word, *mokkeli-lul hay-ss-supnita* 'She is wearing a necklace'. In line 3, the teacher

asks students if there is anything else to contribute about the character's fashion. Because students do not provide any response, the teacher asks a more specific question in the polite style, by saying *etten chima yey-yo?* 'What kind of skirt is it?'. In line 8, the teacher asks a follow-up question about the character, using the polite style: *kuliko mwe tul-ko iss-e.yo? son aph-ey?* 'And what does she carry? In her hands?'. Then, in line 9, students give a minimal response *hayntupayk* 'handbag'. In the next line, the teacher formulates a sentence with the target word *hayntupayk* 'handbag' for two possible reasons. First, he shows his affiliation with the student's response as a way to create a pleasant and smooth conversation. Second, he provides reinforced linguistic input by restating the target word in a complete sentence.

In line 11, the teacher closes the interaction with the student, TA, by giving a positive evaluation of her verbal production, shifting to the deferential style, with *ney. coh-supnita*. 'Yes. Good'. In these teacher-centric IRF sequences, the teacher plays the role of an expert who prompts student responses with accuracy and provides feedback on them. His students are guided to be responsive to the posed questions and have little opportunity to digress from the immediate topic. Personal meaning does not enter into the interaction. The purpose of the activity is to help students be able to use target words and phrases. Thus, in this excerpt, the teacher uses the polite style to achieve his instructional task of asking students display questions related to the IRF activity.

Excerpt 4.5 presents a teacher's use of the polite style when asking referential questions. Whereas the teacher in Excerpt 4.4 uses the polite style in a teacher-dominated IRF sequence to draw students' verbal production, the teacher in Excerpt 4.5 uses the polite style in an engaging interactional environment where students are encouraged to express personal meanings. The referential questions marked by the polite style are to develop ongoing conversation by

maximizing the opportunities for student participation. Before Excerpt 4.5, the teacher had students present their narrative essays on the topic of intergenerational gaps, and the teacher introduced a new activity, that is, discussing the topic as a class. The activity's main goal is to provide an opportunity for students to engage in discussion.

Excerpt 4.5: Generational gap (Teacher B, KOR 401)

→ 1 T: *ettehkey ha-myen kukpokha-l-swu iss-ul-kka-yo?*
 how do-if overcome-PRS can-wonder if-Q-POL

어떻게 하면 극복할 수 있을까요?
 ‘How can we overcome (the generational gap)?’

2 *cokum-ilato.*
 little-at least

조금이라도.
 ‘At least a little.’

3 HY: *kukpok, kukpok-i mwe-yey-yo?*
 overcome overcome-NM what-be-POL

극복, 극복이 뭐예요?
 ‘What is *kukpok*?’

4 T: *kukpok? opelkem*
 overcome? overcome

극복? 오벌کم
 ‘Overcome? Overcome.’

5 SO: *mos ha-n-tako sayngkakhay-yo.*
 cannot do-IN-DC-Q think-POL

못 한다고 생각해요.
 ‘I think we cannot overcome.’

6 JW: *mos ha-n-ta. ha ha ha ha ha*
 cannot do-IN-DC

못 한다. 하하하하하
 ‘Cannot. ha ha ha ha ha’

→ 7 T: *ani, kulem nemwu sekulphu-canh-a.yo?*
well then so sad-you see-POL

아니, 그럼 너무 슬프잖아요?
'Well then, that is very sad. Isn't it?'

8 SO: *ike-n ecce-l swu eps-nun-ke-yey-yo.*
this-TC cannot help-RL-thing-be-POL

이건 어쩔 수 없는 거예요.
'This cannot be helped.'

9 JM: *swul kathi masye-yo.*
alcohol together drink-POL

술 같이 마세요.
'Drink alcohol together.'

→ 10 T: *eccel swu eps-ta-ko kunayng nemeka-yo?*
cannot help-DC-Q just pass-POL

어쩔 수 없다고 그냥 넘어가요?
'Do you just disregard it because it cannot be helped?'

In line 1, the teacher asks the students a general discussion question in the polite style to develop the topic, which is personally related to the students. This discussion question, *ettehkey ha-myen kukpokha-l-swu iss-ul-kka-yo?* 'How can we overcome (the generational gap)?', is a referential question because it is open-ended and general. The function of this referential question at the beginning of the interaction is to lead students into the topic and stimulate their interest in participating in the classroom discussion. In line 5, SO self-selects as the next speaker and shares her opinion, saying that it is not possible to overcome such gaps.

In line 7, the teacher shares her affective state as a personal reaction to the student's unexpected answer, saying it's sad. In line 8, SO further responds that intergenerational gaps cannot be avoided. In line 9, JM recommends that people drink together as an activity that can bridge the intergenerational gap. In the subsequent turn, the teacher asks a follow-up question in

the polite style by asking whether they should just disregard intergenerational gaps because they are inevitable.

In this excerpt, by asking referential questions in the polite style, the teacher plays the role of a facilitator who encourages students to share new information concerning their feelings and experiences regarding a topic she has introduced. When the pedagogical goal is focused on meaning, the purpose of the instruction is to maximize opportunities for interaction rather than checking the students' understanding or testing their linguistic accuracy.

4.2.4 Giving an order

In Excerpt 4.6, the teacher uses the polite style to order her students to engage in an activity, that is, composing sentences. Prior to the excerpt, the teacher gave a lecture on grammatical expressions and provided several example sentences. In this conversation, the teacher attempts to have students work individually on creating sentences with the expressions that were just taught. The main goal of this instructional activity is to give the students practice in using new expressions in a sentence.

Excerpt 4.6: Sentence composition (Teacher B, KOR 401)

- 1 T: *yelepwuntul-i mwuncangul ttalo hana mantu-l swu iss-umyen*
you-NM sentence separately one make-PRS way-if
- 2 *mwuncang-ul mantul-e po-sey-yo.*
sentence-ACC make-try-SH-POL
- 여러분들이 문장을 따로 하나 만들 수 있으면 문장을 만들어 보세요.
'Please make a sentence if you can.'
- 3 *mwuncang-ul mantul-e po-l swu iss-keyss-supnikka?*
sentence-ACC make-try-PRS way-think-DEF
- 문장을 만들어 볼 수 있겠습니까?
'Do you think you can make a sentence?'

4 Ss: *ney.*
yes

네.
'Yes.'

→ 5 *han pen mantul-e po-sey-yo. (0.5)*
one time make-try-SH-POL

한 번 만들어 보세요.
'Please try making (a sentence).'

→ 6 *il pen-pwuthe mwuncang han pen mantul-e po-sey-yo.*
number 1 from sentence one time make-try-SH-POL

1 번부터 문장 한 번 만들어 보세요.
'Please make a sentence from Number 1.'

→ 7 *mwues-ul piloshan kuliko hakon hata. sensayngnim sikhye po-l-ke-yey-yo.*
'including' and 'used to do' teacher ask try-PRS-fact be-POL

'~을 비롯한' 그리고 '~하곤 하다'. 선생님 시켜 볼 거예요.
"Including" and "used to do." I'm going to ask you.'

→ 8 *cikum sensayngnim-i yey-lo cwu-n kes-un com polingha-cyo.*
now teacher-NM example-for give-RN thing-TC a little boring-POL

지금 선생님이 예로 준 것은 좀 보링하죠.
'The examples that I gave you just now are a little boring, right?'

→ 9 *kulenikka yelepwuntul-i mwuncangul manhi mantul-epo-sey-yo.*
so you-NM sentence-ACC a lot make-try-SH-POL

그러니까 여러분들이 문장을 많이 만들어 보세요.
'So, everyone, please make a lot of sentences.'

In line 1, the teacher requests students to make a sentence, using the polite style. She uses the expression *-(u)sey-yo*, which is a combination of *-(u)sey* (from *-(u)si* + *-e* in *e.yo*) and the polite ender *-yo*. This expression marked by the polite style is often used for commands and requests. In line 3, because there is no response from the students, the teacher shifts to the deferential style to ask whether they can make them. Here, the teacher shifts to a more formal

and authoritative form, the *-(sup)nikka* form, which is the interrogative form of the deferential style (Sohn, 1999). She chooses to use the deferential style in a firm voice to get the students' attention and elicit a response. The use of the deferential style constructs the teacher's authoritative attitude toward the students. The students collectively comply with the teacher's command by saying *ney* 'yes'. After line 3, the teacher switches back to the polite style to ask students to make a sentence. Therefore, in this classroom data, the polite style is used when the teacher gives a directive to the students.

Excerpt 4.7 illustrates a classroom interaction during a speaking activity in a Korean 401 class. Similar to Excerpt 4.6, Excerpt 4.7 presents the teacher's use of the polite style in commanding students to discuss different wedding cultures as a group, which is the main lesson of the day. The conversation takes place at the beginning of the lesson.

Excerpt 4.7: Group discussion (Teacher C, KOR 401)

→ 1 T: *ca, kulemyen, cikum haksayngtul-i manhi eps-kin hantey*
 okay, then, now students-NM a lot lack-but

swuep-ul sicakha-tolok ha-l-key-yo.
 class-ACC start-to the point where do-PRS-PRM-POL

자, 그러면, 지금 학생들이 많이 없긴 한데 수업을 시작하도록 할게요.
 'Okay, then, there aren't many students now, but I'll begin the lesson.'

→ 2 *cinan pen-ey tholonmwuncey nanwecw-ess-cyo.*
 last time-at discussion question give out-PST-POL

지난 번에 토론문제 나눠줬죠?
 'I handed out the discussion questions last time, right?'

3 *ike-ey tayhayse kantanhakey iyakiha-ko tholon-ul ha-l-ke-ntey...*
 this-about shortly talk about-and discussion-ACC do-but

이거에 대해서 간단하게 이야기하고 토론을 할건데...
 'We're going to talk about this shortly and have a discussion...'

- 4 *inwen-i pyello eps-unikka yeki-se ney pwun-i kathi*
 people-NM not (specially) lack-because here-from four people-NM together
- 5 *ha-si-ko kutaum-ey yeki ney pwun-i kathi ha-sey-yo.*
 do-SH-and next-at here four people-NM together do-SH-POL
- 6 *sicakha-tolok ha-sey-yo. ku-cyo?*
 start-to the point where do-SH-POL okay

인원이 별로 없으니까 여기서 네 분이 같이 하시고 그 다음에 여기 네 분이 같이 하세요. 시작하도록 하세요. 그죠?

‘There aren’t many people so you four work together and then four here. Please start. Okay?’

- 7 *ca, kulayse, yelepwun nalaeyse-nun kyelhon-ul ettehkey ha-nunci*
 okay, then, your country-TC wedding-ACC how do-whether
- yelepwun nala-eyse... Jennifer chinkwutul-i cwungkwuksik-ulo kyelhon-ul*
 your country-in Jennifer friends-NM Chinese-style-via wedding-ACC
- 8 *manhi hay-yo? chainicu suthail-lo kyelhonsik hay-yo?*
 a lot do-POL Chinese style-via get wedding ceremony do-POL

자, 그래서 여러분 나라에서는 결혼을 어떻게 하는지 여러분 나라에서... 제니퍼 씨 친구들이 중국식으로 결혼을 많이 해요? Chinese style 로 결혼식 해요?

‘Okay, so, how do people in your country get married? Jennifer, do your friends get married in a Chinese manner? Do they have a wedding in a Chinese style?’

- 9 JE: *ney.*
 yes

네.
 ‘Yes.’

In line 1, the teacher announces to the class that he is going to start the lesson, using the polite style. In line 2, the teacher uses *-cyo* in *cinanpen-ey tholonmwuncey nanwecw-ess-cyo*? ‘I handed out the discussion questions last time, right?’, expecting students’ affirmative response. The teacher asks this confirmation question to have students take out the handout as a preparation for the next activity. In lines 3–6, the teacher uses the polite style in directing the students to form groups and to discuss wedding activities practiced in different countries. Giving

orders to get students to follow instructional guidance is an important role of the teacher, and it is also related to the teacher's authority. Thus, teachers use the form as a polite way to have students perform a specific action.

4.3 Teachers' Use of the Deferential Style

This section examines teachers' use of the deferential style, the *-(su)pnita* form. The traditional approach to Korean speech styles claims that Korean speakers select speech styles according to aspects of the sociocultural background of the addressees, such as age or social status (Sohn 1999). However, the function of Korean speech styles is not restricted to merely indicating hierarchical social relationships between a speaker and an addressee. Discourse analytic studies of Korean speech styles suggest that speakers choose speech styles to achieve their interactional goals. Thus, the purpose of utilizing addressee honorifics is not just to conform to social norms and expectations determined by the status of the addressee or other situational factors. Building on recent research, this study examines the functions of the deferential style in KFL teacher speech. The analysis of teacher speech reveals that teachers' use of the deferential style is prompted by particular contexts that require them to play their role as professionals and carry out various responsibilities. In this section, I describe seven uses of the form that were observed in the data: (1) opening the lesson, (2) marking a discourse boundary, (3) positively evaluating students' speech, (4) announcing classroom activities, (5) providing a summary, (6) closing the lesson, and (7) drawing students' attention.

The *-(su)pnita* form is likely to be used in a context in which teachers frame their utterances as formal ones to execute authority and perform their professional roles. Many of the expressions that teachers utter in the *-(su)pnita* form are formulaic expressions. These expressions include *alkess-supnita* 'I understand', *coh-supnita* 'it's good', *swuep sicakhakeyss-*

supnita ‘class will begin’, and *swuko ha-si-ess-supnita* ‘you’ve worked hard’. The *-(su)pnita* form itself is a part of the formula. Table 4.3 shows the number of tokens of the deferential style ending found in the data and how many of them were used for each function.

Table 4.3*Number of tokens of the deferential style ending*

	Statements <i>(-su)pnita</i>							Questions <i>(-su)pnikka?</i>	Total
	Opening / Closing	Discourse boundary	Positive evaluation	Announcing activities	Summary	Explanations / Examples	Thanking	Asking questions	
Teacher A	4 (11.1%)	1 (2.8%)	29 (80.6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (5.5%)	0 (0%)	36/734 (5.5%)
Teacher B	0 (0%)	1 (1.7%)	0 (0%)	16 (27.6%)	0 (0%)	10 (17.2%)	0 (0%)	31 (53.4%)	58/634 (9.3%)
Teacher C	0 (0%)	5 (55.6%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (44.4%)	9/922 (1.0%)
Teacher D	2 (20%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (80%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	10/787 (1.4%)
Teacher E	3 (50%)	1 (16.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (16.7%)	1 (16.7%)	0 (0%)	6/703 (0.8%)
Teacher F	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (20%)	4 (80%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5/863 (0.6%)
Teacher G	1 (1.4%)	0 (0%)	1 (1.4%)	13 (17.8%)	10 (13.7%)	30 (41.1%)	0 (0%)	18 (24.7%)	73/1086 (5.8%)
Total (average)	10 (5.1%)	8 (4.1%)	30 (15.2%)	29 (14.7%)	11 (5.6%)	53 (26.9%)	3 (1.5%)	53 (26.9%)	197/5726 (3.4%)

In the following section, I discuss in detail how teachers play their professional roles through the use of the *-(su)pnita* form in classroom discourse.

4.3.1 Opening the lesson

One of the important functions of the deferential style is to open the class. The following excerpt shows the use of the form when the teacher begins instruction by saying the expression *swuep sicakhakeyss-supnita* ‘Class will begin’.

Excerpt 4.8: The beginning of the lesson (Teacher D, KOR 401)

((The teacher is at the front of the classroom and directs her gaze to the whole class.))

1 T: *ca, yelepwun annyenghasey-yo.*
okay everyone hello-POL

자, 여러분 안녕하세요.
‘Okay, hello, everyone.’

2 Ss: *annyenghasey-yo.*
hello-POL

안녕하세요.
‘Hello.’

→ 3 T: *ney, onul swuep sicakha-keyss-supnita.*
yes today class start-will-DEF

네, 오늘 수업 시작하겠습니다.
‘Yes. Class will begin.’

((Students become quiet and look at the teacher.))

4 *ca, onul yelepwun-i phainel nayss-ten-ke*
okay today all of you-NM final submit-PST-thing

5 *ta kathi pol-ke-n-tey ceyil mence*
all together watch-thing-RL-place most first

6 *Esther-ssi-ka ha-n-ke po-l-ke-yey-yo.*
Esther-Ms.-NM do-RL-thing watch-PRS-fact-be-POL

자, 오늘 여러분이 과제 냈던 거 다 같이 볼건데 제일 먼저 에스더 씨가 한 거 볼 거예요.

‘OK, today, we are going to watch the videos that all of you submitted as projects for your final. First, we will watch Ms. Esther’s presentation.’

In line 1, the teacher greets the students by saying *annyenghasey-yo* ‘hello’, which is the formal way of greeting in Korean. This traditional greeting helps the teacher establish the formal nature of the classroom. Here, the teacher prefaces the forthcoming greeting with a discourse marker *ca* ‘okay’ and the address term *yelepwun* ‘everyone’ in the utterance-initial position. These linguistic expressions are used to ensure the undivided attention of everyone in the classroom. In line 2, students return the teacher’s greeting. Then, in line 3, the teacher shifts her speech style from the polite style to the deferential style to indicate the formal start of a lesson with an explicit verbal cue, in *ney, onul swuep sicakhakeyss-supnita* ‘Class will begin’. The *-(su)pnita* form uttered with a louder voice adds to the formal tone of the utterance.

The teacher states this class-opening expression in the *-(su)pnita* form to increase the students’ attentiveness to the lesson. The use of the deferential style enables the teacher to perform an authoritative persona, allowing her to distance herself from the students. Upon the teacher’s formal opening of the lesson, the class looks at her while quietly directing their attention to her instructions. In this opening statement, the deferential style serves for more than just expressing politeness or deference. It enables the teacher to successfully manifest her official role as leader of the class. Then, in line 6, the teacher shifts to the polite style to announce the topic to be discussed, that is, watching the students’ final projects together.

4.3.2 Marking the discourse boundary

The deferential style is also used to mark a discourse boundary where an ongoing conversation ends and another begins. Excerpt 4.9, which is drawn from an informal conversation between a teacher and students, exemplifies this usage. In the following excerpt, the

teacher goes around the classroom to engage in a short dialogue with each student by asking them what they did over the spring break. This informal dialogue is devoted to catching up with students while creating solidarity among the students and between the teacher and students.

Excerpt 4.9: Spring break (Teacher B, KOR 401)

1 T: *eti-eyse ilhay-yo?*
where-at work-POL

어디에서 일해요?
'Where do you work?'

2 MI: um... I guess mostly at Banana Republic.

3 T: *mwe ceki Ala Moana Banana Republic?*
well, that Ala Moana Banana Republic

뭐, 저기 알라모아나 바나나 리퍼블릭?
'Well, that Banana Republic at Ala Moana Shopping Center?'

((lines 4–6 omitted))

7 MI: *keyswie hay-yo.*
cashier do-POL

캐쉬어 해요.
'I'm a cashier there.'

8 T: *Alice-ssi-nun?*
Alice-Ms.-TC

앨리스 씨는?
'How about you, Ms. Alice?'

9 AL: *kunyang swi-ess-e.yo.*
just rest-PST-POL

그냥 쉬었어요.
'I just stayed home.'

→ 10 T: *swi-ess-e.yo? al-keyss-supnita.* ha ha ha
rest-PST-POL know-intend-DEF

쉬었어요? 알겠습니다. 하하하
'You just stayed home? Oh, I see.'

((The teacher walks back to the front of the class))

11 *ca, kulemyen cikum haksayng-tul-i manhi*
 okay then now student-PL a lot

12 *eps-ki-n-ha-ntey swuep-ul sicakha-tolok*
 be not-NM-IN-do-but class-AC start-to the extent that

13 *ha-l-key-yo.*
 do-PRS-PRM-POL

자, 그러면 지금 학생이 많이 없긴 한데 수업을 시작하도록 할게요.
'Okay, even though there aren't many of you here, I'll start today's lesson.'

From line 1 through line 9, students MI and AL reply to the teacher's question by sharing their experiences from their break. In addition to the casual topic of the conversation, MI's use of English in line 2 in response to the teacher's question indicates that the ongoing conversation is informal and off-the-record, as students are encouraged to speak only in Korean during the lesson. In line 8, the teacher uses the polite style to open the conversation with another student, AL. After acknowledging AL's response in line 10 by echoing it, the teacher uses the phrase *alkeyss-supnita* 'I understand' to end the ongoing social talk with his students. Here, he switches from the polite style to the deferential style to initiate a smooth transition to the main lesson.

The phrase *alkeyss-supnita* 'I understand'²⁵ is similar to the English expressions *alright* or *okay*, which can be used to signal a discourse boundary where one kind of classroom interaction ends and another begins. Marking the statement with the deferential style indicates its formal nature. The use of *-(su)pnita* in this utterance enables the teacher to extricate himself from an extended informal conversation without appearing rude, and to conclude the ongoing

²⁵ Due to the formal nature of the phrase *alkeyss-supnita* 'I understand', it is often used to index the close of conversation in formal interviews and meetings.

conversation to execute the next agenda item, which is to start the lesson. After closing the conversation in line 10, the teacher walks back to the front of the class to introduce the main activity by reminding students of the discussion questions he passed out during the previous session. Here, in line 13, the teacher shifts back to the polite style, which teachers generally use when teaching. Thus, the use of the deferential style indexes a change of situation from informal to formal within a classroom context, rather than achieving politeness goals.

4.3.3 Positively evaluating students' speech

A third function of the deferential style found in the KFL classroom data seems to be to evaluate a student's utterance that occurs within an IRF activity. The deferential style is sometimes used when the teacher delivers positive feedback on students' speech, emphasizing the teacher's professional role of evaluating students. The ongoing class activity occurring in the following student-teacher interaction shows the teacher attempting to elicit a student's response to an episode of "My Lovely Samsong," a Korean TV drama. In order to help students remember the storylines of the episode, the teacher distributed a handout, which outlines each scene in the order it occurs. The teacher asks students to individually describe the settings and actions of the main characters in each important scene in the episode. The focus of the activity is on recounting the sequence of events while using speech styles and descriptive vocabulary properly. In the following conversation, a student, WI, reports to the teacher and the class which characters were in the scene, what actions were undertaken, and what was said.

Excerpt 4.10: Evaluation (Teacher A, KOR 380)

1 T: *open, open-un* *William ssi*
no. 5 no. 5-TC William Mr.

오 번, 오 번은 윌리엄 씨.
'No. 5, as for Scene No. 5, William.'

2 WI: *open-ey cinwen.i-nun hyenwu-hanthey*
no. 5 Jinwon-TC Hyunwoo-to

3 *samswun.i-lul koylophi-ci mal-la ko*
Samssoon-AC bother-NOM do not-DC-QT

4 *kulay-ss-supnita.*
tell-PST-DEF

오번에 진원이는 현우한테 삼순이를 괴롭히지 말라고 했습니다.
'As for Scene No. 5, Jinwon told Hyunwoo not to bother Samssoon.'

5 T: *ney. kucen-ey, kucen-ey twul-i ettehkey*
yes prior prior two-NM how

6 *manna-ss-e.yo?*
meet-PST-POL

네, 그 전에, 그 전에 둘이 어떻게 만났어요?
'Yes. Even prior to that, where did the two meet?'

7 WI: *yakhonsik-eyse.*
engagement ceremony-at

약혼식에서.
'At an engagement ceremony'

8 T: *yakhonsik-eyse manna-ss-supnita.*
engagement ceremony-at meet-PST-DEF

약혼식에서 만났습니다.
'They met at the engagement ceremony.'

9 *twul-i manna-ki ceney nwukwu-lang*
two meet-NM before who-with

10 *iyakiha-ko iss-ess-e.yo?*
talk-and stay-PST-POL

둘이 만나기 전에 누구랑 이야기하고 있었어요?
'Before the two met, who was Hyunwoo talking to?'

11 WI: *a, samswun-i-hako iyaki ha-taka*
ah, Samssoon-with talk-while

giving correct answers, he uses a variety of positive evaluation tokens in the deferential style, such as *coh-supnita* ‘It’s good’, *cal hays-supnita* ‘You did well’, and *kwaenchanh-supnita* ‘It’s alright’. Although the teacher could use the polite style to provide feedback, he tends to choose the more formal and authoritative *-(su)pnita* form to encourage students to generate correct answers. The teacher does not give negative evaluations in the *-(su)pnita* form because it would sound overly direct or harsh, thereby discouraging students. Rather, he asks a series of questions that can guide the students to give fuller responses. When he does give negative evaluations, this teacher employs the polite style to mitigate their face-threatening effect.

4.3.4 Announcing classroom activities

In a different context, the deferential style is sometimes used to announce the next classroom activity in a commanding tone. Consider Excerpt 4.11, in which the teacher uses the deferential style when explicitly stating what is going to take place next. Excerpt 4.11 took place right before Excerpt 4.5. The topic of the ongoing lesson is the generational gap between Korean children and parents. That day, students were required to individually present on the topic. After the presentations, the teacher started a class discussion where students had to revisit the issues brought up during their presentations and come up with solutions to overcome the generation gap.

Excerpt 4.11: Generation gap (Teacher B, KOR 401)

- | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|----------------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1 | T: | <i>ile-n</i>
this-TC | <i>seyday</i>
generation | <i>chai-lul</i>
gap-AC | <i>kukpokha-ki</i>
overcome-NOM |
| 2 | | <i>wihayse</i>
in order to | <i>ettehkey</i>
how | <i>hay-ya ha-l-kka-yo?</i>
do-only if do-PRS-Q-POL | |
| | | 이런 세대 차이를 극복하기 위해서 어떻게 해야할까요?
‘What should we do to overcome this kind of generational gap?’ | | | |
| 3 | | <i>kulwup-ul</i>
group-AC | <i>ttalo ttalo</i>
separately | <i>nanw-ese</i>
divide-by | <i>ha-l-kka-yo?</i>
do-PRS-Q-POL |

그룹을 따로 따로 나눠서 할까요?
'Shall we discuss in separate groups?'

4 *ta kathi unonhay po-l-kka-yo?*
all together discuss try-PRS-Q-POL

다 같이 의논해볼까요?
'Shall we discuss as a whole class?'

5 *kukey hwelssin caymiiss-keyss-cyo?*
that by far fun-think-POL

그게 훨씬 재미있겠죠?
'It is going to be more fun that way, isn't it?'

6 T: *ca, seyday chai kukpok pangpep-ey tayhayse*
okay generation gap overcome way-about

→ 7 *wuli-ka han pen iyaki-lul haypo-keyss-supnita.*
we-NM one time talk-AC try-intend-DEF

자 세대차이 극복 방법에 대해서 우리가 한 번 이야기를 해보겠습니다.
'Okay, we will talk about how to overcome the generational gap.'

The excerpt starts with the teacher's question directed to the class, asking for recommendations for dealing with the generation gap between children and parents. Here, the teacher uses the polite style. This question is formulated to invite all students to share their own ideas on the topic. Then, in lines 3–5, the teacher asks students, in the polite style, whether they would like to have a small group discussion or a whole class discussion. After that invitation to students to participate in decision making, in line 6, the teacher shifts to the deferential style to announce the activity in a more formal and authoritative manner. This announcement of the next classroom activity is prefaced by the discourse marker, *ca* 'okay', which signals students to pay attention as well as indicating the end of the prior talk. In this example, the discourse marker, *ca* 'okay' and the *-(su)pnita* form together contribute to transitioning the students into the next part of the lesson by firmly announcing the activity.

Excerpt 4.12 portrays the teacher's use of the deferential style in announcing what will be covered during the next lesson. The use of the deferential style in this situation is related to the teacher's authority and responsibility as a professional teacher who knows how to organize and plan a lesson. The conversation takes place at the end of the lesson.

Excerpt 4.12: Next lesson (Teacher G, KOR 401)

- 1 T: *kulayse onul-un yeki-kkaci ha-ko, taum sikan-ey-nun icey*
so today-TC here-up to do-and next class-in-TC now
- 2 *swuntay macimak ha-kwuyo, pwutayccikay-lul kongpwuhal ke-pnita.*
Korean sausage last do-POL Korean stew-ACC study-PRS plan-DEF
- 그래서 오늘은 여기까지 하고, 다음 시간에는 이제 순대 마지막 하구요, 부
대찌개를 공부할 겁니다.
'So, we covered up to here, and during the next lesson, we will finish the last
section of the reading on *swuntay* ('Korean sausage') and study about
pwutayccikay ('Korean stew').'
- 3 *pwutayccikay cohaha-sey-yo?*
Korean stew like-SH-POL
- 부대찌개 좋아하세요?
'Do you like *pwutayccikey* ('Korean stew')?'
- 4 Ss: *ney.*
yes
- 네.
'Yes.'

In line 1, the teacher closes the lesson and announces to the class the plans for the next lesson, that is, finishing the last section of the reading on *swuntay* 'Korean sausage' and starting a new lesson on *pwutayccikay* 'Korean stew'. Then, the teacher asks the class whether they like *pwutayccikay*. In line 4, the students provide a short reply, *ney* 'Yes'. Whereas the deferential style in Excerpt 4.11 was used to state the forthcoming activity within the ongoing lesson, in Excerpt 4.12, the teacher uses the form to announce the topics for the next lesson. Similar to

Excerpt 4.11, the use of the deferential style in Excerpt 4.12 indexes the teacher’s professional identity.

Excerpt 4.13 presents the teacher’s use of the deferential style to provide a summary for the discussion before beginning the next unit of the activity. The ongoing activity is reading an article on the popularity of Korean dramas in Vietnam and going over the important expressions and issues as a whole class. Previously, the teacher called on a student to read a paragraph about why Korean dramas are more popular than American dramas. The role of the teacher in this activity is to ask students questions about the reading and provide further detail on the issues introduced in the article. The conversation begins with the teacher asking the class the definition of a word, *phoklyek* ‘violence’, from the reading.

4.3.5 Providing a summary

Excerpt 4.13: Korean dramas (Teacher G, KOR 401)

→ 1 T: *phoklyek-un mwe-cyo? phoklyek.*
 violence-TC what-POL violence

폭력은 뭐죠? 폭력.
 ‘What is *phoklyek*? *phoklyek*.’

2 YU: Violence?

3 T: *paiollensu. kulayse, keki mwe ttayli-nun ke, cwuki-nun ke,*
 violence so there well hit-RL thing kill-RL thing

4 *chong sso-nun ke, ile-n key manhi nao-nta-nun ke-cyo.*
 gun shoot-RL thing this-RL thing a lot appear-PLN-RL thing-POL

Violence. 그래서, 거기 뭐 때리는 거, 죽이는 거, 총 쏘는 거, 이런 게 많이 나온다는 거죠?
 ‘Violence. So that means (in the American dramas) there is a lot of hitting, killing, shooting, and the like, right?’

5 *kkangphay ile-n iyaki. kulayse, mikwuk tulama-nun pyello*
 gangster this-RL talk so America drama-TC not really

6 *cohaha-ci anh-ko hankwuktulama-lul cohaha-nun iyu-nun ettehkey*
like-not-and Korean drama-ACC like-RL reason-TC how

7 *po-l swu iss-e.yo?*
see-PRS way can-POL

깡패 이런 이야기. 그래서 미국 드라마는 별로 좋아하지 않고 한국 드라마를 좋아하는 이유는 어떻게 볼 수 있어요?
'Like gangster stories. So what is the reason why they don't really like American dramas and prefer Korean dramas?'

8 CE: *swipkey po-l swu iss-e.yo.*
easily see-PRS way can-POL

쉽게 볼 수 있어요.
'People can watch easily.'

9 T: *swipkey po-l swu iss-e.yo. kapyewu-n maum-ulo*
easily see-PRS way can-POL light-RL heart-with

10 *po-l swu iss-e.yo. phyenanha-n maum-ulo po-l swu iss-e.yo.*
see-PRS way can-POL comfortable-RL heart-with see-PRS way can-POL

쉽게 볼 수 있어요. 가벼운 마음으로 볼 수 있어요. 편안한 마음으로 볼 수 있어요.
'They can watch it easily. They can watch it without taking it too seriously. They can watch it at ease.'

11 *kulayse, hankwuk tulama-lul cohaha-nun iyu-ey tayhayse*
so Korean drama-ACC like-RL reason-about

→ 12 *iyakihay-ss-supnita. kuliko, um, twu penccay mwuncang-ey*
talk-PST-DEF and well second sentence-on

13 *'iey panhay'-lanun phyohyen-i iss-cyo?*
in contrast-called expression-NM exist-POL

그래서, 한국 드라마를 좋아하는 이유에 대해서 이야기 했습니다. 그리고, 음, 다음 두 번째 문장에 '이에 반해'라는 표현이 있죠?
'So, we discussed the reasons why people like Korean dramas. And, next, in the second sentence, there is an expression "in contrast," right?'

Upon the teacher's prompt in line 1, a student replies by saying 'violence'. The teacher acknowledges her response and further explains what types of violence the American dramas

usually contain (lines 3–4). In line 5, the teacher uses the polite style to continue with his discussion by asking students why people like watching Korean dramas, according to the article. In line 8, a student replies, saying Korean dramas are easy to watch. The teacher confirms this and provides other possible answers by paraphrasing the student’s sentence with the use of synonyms. This is an instructional strategy to help students expand their vocabulary. Then, in line 12, the teacher shifts to the deferential style to give a summary point for the paragraph that they just went over together. Through the use of the deferential style, the teacher wraps up the preceding stage of the ongoing discussion. In line 13, he moves on to the next topic by bringing up the expression *iey panhay* ‘in contrast’. Thus, in this example, the teacher’s use of the deferential style serves to strengthen the sense of completion of the ongoing discussion and to orient students to the next stage of the activity.

4.3.6 Closing the lesson

The fifth function of the deferential style found in this study’s data is to end a lesson formally. Excerpt 4.13 takes place right before the end of the lesson.

Excerpt 4.13: Closing the lesson 1 (Teacher G, KOR 401)

1 T: *onul swukcey-nun paykyuksipsa pheyci pwutayccikay cip-eyse,*
today homework-TC 164 page Korean stew home-at

2 *ney, ilkeo-si-ko.*
yes read-SH-and

오늘 숙제는 164페이지 부대찌개, 집에서, 네, 읽어오시고.
‘Today’s homework is (the reading on) *pwutayccikay* on page 164. Yes, please read it at home.’

3 *e, macimak-ulo wuli pokha khwicu ha-nun ke*
ah last-by means of we vocab quiz do-RL thing

4 *cey-ka wetu lisuthu-lang yusuphwul iksuphuleysyen lawulima-ey*
I-NM word list-and useful expression Laulima-on

5 *eplotu ha-l ke-yey-yo. kuke kongpwuha-sey-yo.*
upload do-PRS fact-be-POL that study-SH-POL

어, 마지막으로 우리 보카 퀴즈하는 거 제가 워드 리스트랑 유스풀 익스프레스션 라우리마에 업로드 할 거예요. 그거 공부하세요.
'Ah, the last thing, I will upload the word list and useful expressions on Laulima for vocabulary quizzes. Please study that.'

6 *cilmwun iss-e.yo? hoksi? kwaynchanh-cyo?*
question have-POL by any chance okay-POL
질문 있어요 혹시? 괜찮죠?

((Students remain silent.))

7 (talking to a student) *swuyoil-ey sam pwun suphichi cwunpiha-sey-yo.*
Wednesday-on three minute speech prepare-SH-POL

수요일에 3분 스피치 준비하세요.
'Please prepare for your three-minute speech on Wednesday.'

→ 8 *onul yeki-kkaci ha-keyss-supnita.*
today here-up to do-may-DEF

오늘 여기까지 하겠습니다.
'I will end today's lesson here.'

9 Ss: *kamsaha-pnita.*
thank-DEF

감사합니다.
'Thank you.'

In lines 1 to 4, the teacher tells the students what their homework is. In line 5, he reminds students of the vocabulary quiz and what they need to study, using the polite style. Then, the teacher closes the ongoing interaction about administrative issues by asking students if they have any questions. When there are no questions, the teacher talks to an individual student who has to prepare a speech for the next class (line 7). Upon delivering all the important information that the students need to know, in line 8, the teacher ends the lesson by shifting to the deferential style: *onul yeki-kkaci ha-keyss-supnita* 'I will end today's lesson here'. This instance of the *-(su)pnita*

form indexes that the teacher is in charge of the immediate goal of the situation, which is signaling the end of the lesson formally. By doing so, the teacher displays his professionalism and gives students the feeling that they are part of the formal instruction.

Excerpt 4.14 displays another example of the deferential style used to end the lesson. The teacher starts to explain the upcoming oral midterm examination. In the excerpt, a student asks the teacher a question regarding the process of the examination. Upon responding to the student in the polite style, the teacher finishes class by thanking the students in the deferential style for their participation.

Excerpt 4.14: Closing the lesson 2 (Teacher A, KOR 380)

- 1 SO: *wuli-ka ssu-ko ilk-ul-swu iss-e.yo?*
we-NM write-and read-PRS-can-POL

우리가 쓰고 읽을 수 있어요?
'Can we read from a script?'

- 2 T: *kuke-n an toy-yo.*
that-TC not OK-POL

그건 안 돼요.
'You can't.'

- 3 *yelepwun-i malha-l-ttay ssu-ko*
you-NM speak-PRS-when write-and

- 4 *malha-nun-key ani-canh-a.yo.*
speak-RL-thing not-you see-POL

여러분이 말할 때 쓰고 말하는게 아니잖아요.
'Because when you speak, you don't read from what you wrote.'

- 5 *yey, cengmal khemwunikethipu thaysukhu-yey-yo.*
yes really communicative task-to be-POL

네, 정말 커뮤니케티브 태스크예요.
'Yes, it's really a communicative task.'

- 6 SO: *ney.*
‘Okay.’
- 7 T: *swukoha-si-ess-supnita.* *annyenghi ka-sey-yo.* *kamsaha-pnita.*
hard work-SH-PST-DEF peace go-AH-POL thank-DEF
- 수고하셨습니다. 안녕히가세요. 감사합니다.
‘You’ve worked hard. Goodbye. Thank you.’
- 8 Ss: *kamsaha-pnita.*
thank-DEF
- 감사합니다.
‘Thank you.’

In line 1, a student asks the teacher if she can read from a script for her oral examination. In line 2, the teacher responds negatively in the polite style. After the teacher’s response, the student who asked the question displays her understanding by saying *ney* ‘okay’ in line 6. Given no further questions or comments from students, the teacher finishes the lesson with the expression *swuko ha-si-ess-supnita* ‘you’ve worked hard’, in which the verbal suffix *-(u)si* is used to show respect for the students. This expression is followed by another formulaic expression, *kamsaha-pnita* ‘thank you’.

Both of these expressions are used in the deferential style in order to thank the students for their participation. In this excerpt, the teacher’s use of the *-(su)pnita* form seems to function to do more than closing the lesson. It demonstrates respect toward the students, thereby giving them encouragement to perform at higher levels. Upon the teacher’s expression of gratitude in line 7, the students echo *kamsaha-pnita* ‘thank you’ to express their gratitude to their teacher. The students’ use of *kamsaha-pnita* ‘thank you’ in the deferential style indexes deference toward the teacher because students, who are of lower status than the teacher, use it for the purpose of showing respect toward him. The student response in the deferential style suggests that they have been taught this form as a formulaic expression. Here, the students reinforce the teacher’s

professional persona by displaying their own institutionally sanctioned identity through the use of the deferential style.

4.3.7 Drawing students' attention

Excerpt 4.15 shows how the teacher shifts to the deferential style, the *-(su)pnikka* form, to direct students' attention to the immediate situation. In this interaction, some students were engaged in an off-task conversation, not listening to the teacher even after she told them to open their textbooks. The teacher seems to have a challenge: recapturing students' attention to get it back on the presented material. The use of the deferential style is a way to get students' attention in a quick and reliable manner and to engage them in the ongoing task.

Excerpt 4.15: Sentence composition (Teacher B, KOR 401)

- 1 T: *paykisipi-ccok* *pye-sey-yo.*
122-page open-SH-POL

백십이쪽 펴 보세요.
'Turn to page 122.'

(3.0)

- 2 (setting up an overhead projector) *yelepwuntul* *i-ke cal* *poy-e.yo?*
everyone this-one well be seen-POL

여러분들 이거 잘 보여요?
'Can you see this well?'

- 3 ((A student tells other students a story about an interesting experience he had with *mwulpasu* 'Korean Topical Analgesic Liquid'.))

((lines 4–10 omitted))

- 11 Ss: ha ha ha ha ha ha ha ha ha ha

- 12 T: *yelepwun,* (2.0) *cikum mwe* *ha-ko iss-ta-ko?* (1.0)
everyone now what do-and stay-DC-QT

여러분, 지금 뭐 하고 있다고?
'What did I say we are doing now?'

네].
'Yes.'

In line 1, the teacher begins the lesson by instructing her students to turn to page 122 of the textbook. In line 2, while getting the overhead projector set up, the teacher asks students a yes/no question, addressing the entire class formally with *yelepwun-tul* 'everyone'. However, in lines 4–10, a group of students display off-task behavior, talking about an irrelevant personal story related to *mwulpasu* 'Korean Topical Analgesic Liquid'. The whole-class laughter that follows in line 11 is not regarded as a welcome behavior but as a trouble source. This is off-task behavior because it interferes with others who are on-task, making remarks that are unrelated to the topic, and laughing at off-task conversation.

The evidence for the existence of the problem lies in the teacher's use of the address term solely, *yelepwun* 'everyone' and a 2-second pause, which is an attempt to attract everyone's attention (line 12). In the same turn, the teacher disciplines students' misbehavior to gain control of the class and prevent them from getting away with more off-task behaviors by using *panmal* (non-honorific style) and asking a question in quotative constructions. In line 13, the teacher repeats the same question, using the polite style. These questions are understood as a signal to stop the ongoing off-task conversation, as demonstrated in a student's apology, "Sorry," in line 14.

Despite the teacher's attempt to reprimand the students by asking about her initial directions, students still show their disengagement in the task. In lines 16–19, students are clueless as to what the teacher's original instruction was. The teacher shifts back to *panmal* in line 16 and 18 to repeat what page the students are supposed to look at. By using *panmal*, which can sound harsh and rude, the teacher attempts to adjust the degree of formality down and at the same time to shift more power to herself. The students give wrong answers, as in *cey yuk kwa*

'Lesson 6' and *pheyici* 'page' (lines 17 and 19). In line 20, the teacher shifts to the deferential style, *-(su)pnikka*, in a firm tone of voice to ask whether they are looking at the textbook. This form expresses a strong desire to gain their attention and get them back on task. Its use conveys specific messages: The teacher displays an authoritative stance, and she successfully alters inattentive student behavior to attentive behavior, as shown in the students' reply *ney* 'yes'. Throughout this sequence, the teacher's disciplinary speech is constructed in a step-by-step fashion, utilizing both honorific and non-honorific styles.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has qualitatively examined the teachers' use of the honorific styles, the polite and deferential styles, at a discourse level, focusing on situated contexts of classroom interaction. Excerpts 4.1 to 4.7 illustrate that teachers use the polite style when asking students questions related to explaining a concept, stating instructions, asking a question, and giving an order. Thus, teachers' use of the polite style is related to the teachers' duties.

This chapter also explored the patterns of use for the deferential style and its functions in KFL classroom interaction. The rareness of the occurrence of the deferential style in the teachers' utterances highlights its particular purpose. It is sometimes used in a classroom context in which teachers frame their utterances as formal ones to perform their professional roles while executing an act with authority. Excerpts 4.8 to 4.15 demonstrate seven uses of the form that were observed in the data: (1) opening the lesson, (2) marking a discourse boundary, (3) positively evaluating students' speech, (4) announcing classroom activities, (5) providing a summary, (6) closing the lesson, and (7) drawing students' attention. These uses of the deferential style differ from those related to a lower-status speaker's deference toward a higher-

status person. They index teachers' professional identity and help them construct an authoritative stance toward the students.

CHAPTER 5

Teachers' Use of the Intimate Style: Indexing Inner Thoughts and Solidarity

5.1 Introduction

Although the teachers largely employ the polite style when teaching, they sometimes shift their speech styles. During the lesson, they occasionally shift to the intimate style. The intimate style is a non-honorific form that is traditionally assumed to be used in informal and intimate relationships. In a discourse setting where the polite style dominates, when do teachers use the intimate speech style? The intimate style does occur, but only when a specific need arises.

Based on the analysis of the data, two possible motivations seem to exist for switching to the intimate style. First, a teacher may use the intimate style to deliver his or her inner thoughts, as shown in Excerpts 5.1–5.7. Second, a teacher can express solidarity with his or her students by using the intimate style, as Excerpts 5.8–5.12 demonstrate. When the form expresses the speaker's inner thoughts, it tends to occur while the speaker is uttering self-addressed questions and exclamations. On the other hand, when the intimate style functions as a solidarity marker, it tends to be used during discussions of intimacy-building topics where personal feelings are shared. Thus, in KFL classroom settings, teachers' use of the intimate style indexes (1) the speaker's internal thought; and (2) the speaker's expression of solidarity with the listeners. Throughout this chapter, I will boldface the teachers' use of the intimate style in the data I present.

Although previous studies on speech styles have made valuable observations regarding the flexible and dynamic aspects of speech style use within discourse events, knowledge about teachers' use of speech styles, especially the non-honorific styles, is still quite limited. Building on the recent studies on the situated meanings of speech styles, this section examines teachers' use of the intimate style in the KFL classroom setting to understand the occurrence of certain

shifts to the intimate style while the speaker is interacting with the same addressees in a given social situation.

In the classrooms examined in this study, the teachers occasionally employ the intimate style in interactions with their students. In such cases, the teachers' use of the intimate style functions to deliver their inner thoughts and to express solidarity with their students. Table 5.1 shows the number of tokens of the intimate style ending found in the data and how many of them were used for these functions.

Table 5.1*Number of tokens of the intimate style ending*

	Self-talk			Off-task	On-task			Total
	Self-addressed questions	Self-addressed statements	Exclamations	Personal / Informal	Exemplifying / Quoting others' voice	Command	Comments	
Teacher A	3 (33.3%)	0 (0%)	1 (11.1%)	1 (11.1%)	3 (33.3%)	0 (0%)	1 (11.1%)	9/734 (1.4%)
Teacher B	10 (8.8%)	2 (1.8%)	4 (3.5%)	79 (69.3%)	15 (13.2%)	0 (0%)	4 (3.5%)	114/634 (18.3%)
Teacher C	0 (0%)	1 (9.1%)	3 (27.3%)	3 (27.3%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (36.4%)	11/922 (1.2%)
Teacher D	5 (5.0%)	7 (7.0%)	2 (2.0%)	77 (77.0%)	0 (0%)	1 (1.0%)	8 (8.0%)	100/787 (14.3%)
Teacher E	3 (37.5%)	1 (12.5%)	2 (25.0%)	2 (25.0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8/703 (1.1%)
Teacher F	3 (12.5%)	1 (4.2%)	1 (4.2%)	3 (12.5%)	8 (33.3%)	2 (8.3%)	8 (33.3%)	24/863 (2.7%)
Teacher G	1 (2.8%)	1 (2.8%)	0 (0%)	3 (8.3%)	29 (80.6%)	0 (0%)	2 (5.6%)	36/1086 (3.3%)
Total (average)	25 (8.3%)	13 (4.3%)	13 (4.3%)	168 (55.6%)	55 (18.2%)	3 (1.0%)	27 (8.9%)	302/5726 (5.3%)

In the next section, I offer a detailed analysis of when and why teachers employ the intimate speech style by analyzing specific excerpts of teacher-student interactions.

5.2 The Speaker's Inner Thoughts

In the data analyzed in this study, there are several observed cases where teachers use the intimate style when uttering self-addressed questions or exclamations. Self-addressed questions and exclamations are part of one's self-talk or private speech, which is neither social communication nor silent thought, but vocalized thought. In other words, they are self-directed but are still spoken out loud. Thus, the use of the intimate style in such contexts indexes what Maynard (1991) and Saito (2010) called "inner thoughts." In these situations, the shift from the polite (honorific) to the intimate style (non-honorific) indexes a metapragmatic shift from a dialogic to a soliloquial mode of discourse (Okamoto, 1999).

One of the few studies that has examined teacher self-talk is by Hall and Smotrova (2013). According to this study, there are times during instruction when teachers seemingly speak to themselves. Self-talk is spoken more softly than the surrounding talk, but is still audible. These moments occur when the teacher is confronted with troubles in managing the technological medium being used to facilitate the instructional task. The study's findings indicate that teacher self-talk is significant to teaching because it helps manage classroom interaction and build affective teacher-student relationships. By making the students aware of the teacher's technological difficulty, self-talk helps to maintain the instructional space and keep students' focus on the instructional task while the trouble is being resolved. Similarly, in the classroom data collected for this study, teachers sometimes use the intimate style to deliver self-talk to deal with a technology-related issue. In what follows, I present such uses of the intimate style in teachers' soliloquial mode of discourse.

5.2.1 Self-addressed questions

The data collected for this study demonstrate that teachers talk to themselves and guide their own actions by delivering self-addressed questions in the intimate style. When teachers deliver self-addressed questions, they use the self-addressed sentence marker *-na* or *-ka* ‘I wonder’, which expresses uncertainty and doubt (Jang, 1999). Here, teachers use the intimate speech style, which is the non-honorific style, because when they are talking to themselves, the hearer is not involved and therefore politeness constraints are not taken into account.

Excerpt 5.1 illustrates an instance in which a teacher employs the intimate style to ask himself a question while setting up the microphone for an oral examination. The teacher asks a self-addressed question in this task-oriented situation as a way to process his thoughts and outwardly reflect on what he is doing.

Excerpt 5.1: Microphone (Teacher A, KOR 380)

- 1 T: *yelepwun-tul-uy* *maikhu-ka* *cal* *toy-nunci*
 everyone-PL-GN mike-NM well function-whether
- 2 *an* *toy-nunci* *kkok* *hwakinhaypo-sey-yo.*
 not function-whether for sure try checking-SH-POL
- 여러분들의 마이크가 잘 되는지 안 되는지 꼭 확인해 보세요.
 ‘Please check if your microphone works.’
- 3 *phissi layp-ey* *iss-nun* *khemphyuthe-lo* *sihem-ul*
 PC lab-at exist-RL computer-through exam-ACC
- 4 *po-nun* *ke-ki* *ttaymwun-ey...*
 take-RL thing-NOM reason-at
- 피씨 랩에 있는 컴퓨터로 시험을 보는 거기 때문에...
 ‘Because you will take the oral examination using the computer at the PC lab.’
- 5 SJ: *likhoting-i* *sa* *pwun* *ssik-i-la-kwu-yo?*
 recording-NM four minute once each-copula-DC-QT-POL

리코딩이 사 분 씩이라구요?
'Did you say the recording would take four minutes?'

6 T: *ney.*
yes

네
'Yes.'

7 ((The teacher is checking Audacity, the audio recording program, on his computer.))

8 T: *likhoting nwulu-myen toy-ko phecu nwulu-myen phecu toy-nun ke-kwuyo.*
record press-if can-and pause press-if to be paused-POL

리코드 누르면 되고 퍼즈 누르면 퍼즈 되는 거구요.
'You can press "record," and if you press "pause," you can pause.'

→ 9 (talking to himself) *°ikey toy-na?° ah*
this work-INT oh

이게 되나? 아.
'Does this work? Oh.'

10 ((Students remain quiet and are looking at the teacher.))

11 T: (clicking the keyboard) *ney, tway-yo.*
yes work-POL

네, 돼요.
'Yes, it works.'

12 *kulayse yelepwuntul-i yensupha-l key mwenya-myen...*
so everyone-NM practice-PRS thing what-if

그래서 여러분들이 연습할 게 뭐냐면...
'So what you will practice is...'

In this exchange, the teacher provides general guidelines for taking the upcoming oral midterm examination, which involves using a computer microphone to record and submit oral assignments online. In lines 1–4, the teacher instructs the students to test their microphones before recording their speeches. Here, the teacher uses the polite style because he is addressing

this instruction to the entire class. In line 5, a student confirms the length of the oral examination. After responding to the student's question in line 6, the teacher employs an intimate style ender, *-na* 'I wonder', in line 9 to ask a self-addressed question regarding whether or not his microphone works. Here, through the use of the *-na* form, which is commonly used to ask a question indirectly, the teacher not only communicates with himself but also reveals his internal thoughts to the audience – what one would call “thinking out loud.” In this case, it seems like the teacher is deliberately thinking out loud to avoid an awkward silence in the classroom. As discussed by Maynard (1991), the teacher speaks in the intimate style because he is less conscious of the audience and linguistic social conventions when addressing himself.

The self-addressed question delivered in line 9 is produced more softly and quietly than the surrounding speech, which clearly distinguishes it from other utterances in the same interaction. This side sequence produced in the intimate style is a “temporary break, after which the ongoing sequence resumes” rather than a termination of the ongoing sequence (Hall & Smotrova, 2013, p. 79). The teacher's production of the side sequence of self-talk while managing the technology issue appears to be important to maintaining the instructional floor and keeping students' attention (Hall & Smotrova, 2013). While the teacher attempts to resolve the computer issue for several seconds, the students participate by displaying their orientation to the side sequence as a temporary phenomenon (e.g., maintaining their attention via eye gaze and body positioning). Then, in line 11, he answers his own question by shifting back to the polite style. Here, he uses the polite style because his answer is directed to the students rather than himself and hence, he has a high awareness of the addressees. Upon delivering the side sequence, in line 12 the teacher continues to deliver the instructions on how to prepare for the oral midterm

examination. Given this evidence, it is plausible to interpret the teacher's use of the intimate style in this extract as an indication that his utterance is internal speech.

Excerpt 5.2 provides an instance in which another teacher delivers a self-addressed question using an intimate-style sentence ender *-na*, while preparing an overhead projector (OHP) for a vocabulary lesson. In this segment, the teacher is getting ready to go over example sentences on an OHP transparency to help students learn the vocabulary from the last lesson. Asking a self-addressed question serves to maintain the teacher's hold on the instructional floor as she sets up the OHP.

Excerpt 5.2: OHP transparency (Teacher B, KOR 401)

- 1 ((The teacher is looking for the OHP transparency.))
- 2 T: (talking to herself) *a, yeki iss-kwun-a!*
oh here exist-INT
- 아, 여기 있구나!
'Oh, here it is.'
- 3 *ca, sensayngnim-i cepen-ey tto nasta-lako*
okay teacher-NM last time-at also *nasta-QT*
- 4 *hay kaciko ttus-i cokum talukey*
do with meaning-NM a little differently
- 5 *ssui-ketun-yo.*
be used-given that-POL
- 자, 선생님이 저번에 또 '낫다'라고 해 가지고 뜻이 조금 다르게 쓰이거든요.
'Okay. Last time, I said *nasta* which has a different function.'
- 6 ((The teacher is setting up the overhead projector.))
- 7 (talking to herself) *cwunpi-lul hayw-ass-nuntey poi-na?*
preparation-ACC come-PST-but be seen-INT
- 준비를 해왔는데 보이냐?
'I came prepared. Can (the students) see?'

- 8 (0.5)
- 9 *poi-keyss-ta!*
be seen-think-PL
- 보이겠다!
'They can see!'
- 10 *ca, yeki-nun ettehkey toy-pni-kka?*
okay here-TC how work-DEF-Q
- 자, 여기는 어떻게 됩니까?
'Okay, how does it (*nasta*) work here (in these sentences)?'
- 11 *wuli cepen-ey nasta-lako haykaciko*
us last time-at *nasta*-QT with
- 12 *cokum heyskally-ess-te-n-ke iss-cyo?*
little confused-PST-RT-RL-thing exist-POL
- 우리 저번에 '낫다'라고 해가지고 조금 헷갈렸던 거 있죠?
'Last time, we covered *nasta*. It was a little confusing, wasn't it?'
- 13 Ss: *ney*
yes
- 네.
'Yes.'

In line 2, as the teacher locates her OHP transparency, she shows a sudden realization saying, *a, yeki iss-kwun-a!* 'Oh, here it is!', in the plain style (Sohn, 1999). This exclamatory ending, *kwun-a*, prefaced by a "change-of-state" token, *ah* 'oh', indicates the teacher's immediate reaction to the information that has just been received (Heritage, 1984). In this case, by employing the intimate style, the teacher delivers her inner thought. The utterance is in the intimate style, a non-honorific style, because it was produced instantly when the thought entered into her consciousness. Since the teacher is talking to herself, she is not expecting students to respond to her statement. In line 3, the teacher uses the polite style, initiating the conversation to

discuss the usage of the expression *nasta* ‘be better than’ with students. Then, in line 7, the teacher asks herself whether or not the students can see the text on the OHP transparency, employing the intimate-style sentence ender *-na*.

This utterance is produced as self-talk in that it is spoken in a lower voice than the surrounding talk. Since self-addressed questions are detached from the major flow of the ongoing conversation, the speaker is free from the risk involved in changing from the polite to the intimate style, which might be considered inappropriate and disrespectful. A change from public speech to inner speech can also be considered a shift in footing from the ongoing instructional activity to a side sequence of action, teacher self-talk, in which a technology-related issue is resolved. Thus, the shift from the polite style to the intimate style indexes a change from public to inner speech. Because the teacher is talking to herself, she is not expecting students to respond to her statement. The teacher’s utterance in line 7 can thus be considered to be directed to herself, like the teacher’s usage of the intimate style in Extract 5.1. In line 9, she answers her own question in the plain style, which indicates an expression of “newly perceived information” (Kim, 2010; H. S. Lee, 1991, 1993). The teacher maintains the instructional space and keeps students’ focus on the instructional task while a problem is being resolved. Immediately after the OHP projector is set up, the teacher shifts to the deferential style with *ca, yeki-nun ettehkey toy-pni-kka?* ‘Okay, how does it (“*nasta*”) work here?’. The teacher shifts to the deferential style in order to appear more authoritative and to draw students’ attention to the instructional material.

In the following excerpt, which is taken from a KOR 402 class, we find a similar case in which the teacher’s internal thought appears in the intimate style. The conversation takes place prior to the start of a lesson. In this conversation, the teacher and a student are talking about an online faculty evaluation. Prior to the excerpt, the teacher had announced to the class that they

should fill out the online evaluation before the semester ends. She then asked the students whether they had received an email from the university notifying them when and how to log on to the course evaluation website. A student had responded that he had received the email but immediately deleted it.

Excerpt 5.3: eCAFE evaluation (Teacher E, KOR 402)

- 1 T: *palo kunyang ciw-ess-e.yo?*
immediately just delete-PST-POL
- 바로 그냥 지웠어요?
'Did you just immediately delete it (email)?'
- 2 JO: *spaym-i-cwu-l al-akaciko...*
spam be-RL that think-and
- 스팸인줄 알아가지고...
'I thought it was a spam...'
- 3 T: *cincca?*
really?
- 진짜?
'Really?'
- 4 (talking to herself quietly) *tasi kuke-l han pen likheyuthu*
again that-AC one time request
- 5 *ha-l swu iss-na?*
do-PRS way can-INT
- 다시 그걸 한 번 리퀘스트 할 수 있나?
'Can I request them (to send an email) again?'
- 6 JO: Uh. It's not from you. It's from the UH system. So I just erased it.
- 7 T: *ney, ney.*
yes yes
- 네, 네.
'Yes, yes.'

8 JO: If it was from you, I wouldn't have.

9 T: *ney.*
yes

네|
'Yes.'

10 Ss: ha ha ha ha ha

In line 1, the teacher echoes the student's statement by asking a question, *palo kunyang ciw-ess-e.yo?* 'Did you just immediately delete it (email)?'. The student then explains that he thought the email was spam. In line 3, the teacher expresses her surprise by saying *cincca?* 'really?'. This teacher utterance is produced in *panmal* (non-honorific language) because it is not marked by an honorific sentence ending, such as the polite style ending *-yo* or the deferential style ending *-(su)pnikka*. The absence of the sentence ending is an indication of the non-honorific form, and the teacher's use of *panmal* indexes the informal and spontaneous nature of the ongoing talk.

Then, in line 5, the teacher begins with an instance of teacher self-talk in which she asks herself a question in the intimate style, *tasi kuke-l han pen likheyuthu ha-l swu iss-na?* 'Can I request them (to send an email) again?'. Here, the teacher uses the self-addressed question marker *-na* to convey her uncertainty. The teacher directs her speech inwardly, as evidenced by her lower volume of voice (Makino, 2002). Then, the student attempts to provide his justification for erasing the email by saying "Uh. It's not from you. It's from the UH system. So I just erased it." In line 7, the teacher says *ney, ney* 'Yes, yes.' to show the student that she understands, and that she is not asking him to respond or explain himself. After the teacher's acknowledgement, in line 8, he continues giving his explanation, "If it was from you, I wouldn't have." The other students, who have remained silent while monitoring the student's actions, react with laughter

- 3 *elkwul-i* *iss-na?*
face-NM exist-INT
- 연예인들 중에 역삼각형 얼굴이 있나?
'Do we have a person with an inverted triangle face amongst the celebrities?'
- 4 ((Students remain silent.))
- 5 Reversed triangle, small chin...
- 6 ((Students remain silent.))
- 7 *cal* *molu-keyss-e.yo.* *ce-to...*
well not know-may-POL I-also
- 잘 모르겠어요. 저도...
'I have no idea. Me too...'
- 8 WI: *Yeksam* means a reversed triangle?
- 9 T: *ney, yek samkakyeng.* "Yek" means reversed. "Samkakyeng" means a triangle.
yes inverted triangle
- 네, 역삼각형. 역 means reversed. 삼각형 means a triangle.
'Yes, inverted triangle. "Yek" means reversed. "Samkakyeng" means a triangle.'
- 10 *ki-n* *elkwul, elkwul* *ki-n* *salam* *nwukwu iss-e.yo?*
long-RL face face long-RL person who exist-POL
- 긴 얼굴, 얼굴 긴 사람 누구 있어요?
'Long face, is there a person with a long face?'
- 11 ((Students are looking at the PowerPoint slide.))
- 12 Ss: ha ha ha ha ha ha
- 13 T: *ney.* (talking to himself) *tto* *nwukwu* *eps-na?*
yes again who not exist-INT
- 네. 또 누구 없나?
'Yes, isn't there anyone else?'
- 14 *elkwul* *ki-n* *salam,* *yenyeyin-tul* *cwungey-to*
face long-RL person celebrity-PL among-also

15 *elkwul* *ki-n* *salam* *nwukwu* *iss-ci* *anh-a.yo?*
 face long-RL person who exist-NOM not-POL

얼굴 긴 사람, 연예인들 중에도 얼굴 긴 사람 누구 있지 않아요?
 ‘A person with a long face, isn’t there a person amongst these celebrities with a long face?’

16 T: *eps-e.yo?*
 not exist-POL

없어요?
 ‘There isn’t any?’

In this excerpt, the teacher uses the intimate style to rephrase a question to stimulate student conversation. In these two instances of the intimate style, the interrogative form *-na* is used, which signals self-addressed talk and the sense of doubt. In line 1, the teacher employs the polite style to ask a question to students about whether or not there is a celebrity with an inverted triangle face, *yek samkakhyeng elkwul*. This question aims to help students connect the material being taught with real-life examples. Since this original prompt fails to elicit any student response, the teacher rephrases the question into a self-addressed question by shifting to the intimate style in lines 2–3. This example shows an extended function of the self-addressed question, which originally does not seek an answer from the interlocutor, but here is used as an indirect, polite question. By expressing doubt in the form of a self-addressed question in the presence of students, the teacher invites students to participate in the ongoing discussion. Therefore, the teacher expects his students to bring up any information that is appropriate to the current context, that is, coming up with celebrities with an inverted triangle face.

Due to the lack of student participation, however, he moves on to another shape by describing the long face, *ki-n elkwul*, in line 10, and shows a new image in the PowerPoint. Then he asks the students whether they know of any celebrity with a long face, using the polite style, in line 9. He uses the polite style as the question is directly addressed to the students. Because the

students remain silent, the teacher attempts to ask the same question differently, again by converting it into a self-addressed question and employing the intimate style in line 13, just as he did in line 3. By putting the question in a self-addressed form, the teacher politely attempts to stimulate student conversation by giving students more time to process his utterances and search for their answers. In this example, the sentence ender *-na*, which is traditionally considered a self-addressed interrogative marker, demonstrates its extended function as an indirect, polite question marker.

In sum, teachers sometimes shift to the intimate style when they ask self-addressed questions. These self-addressed questions reflect their thoughts and uncertainty, such as when they engage in technology-related tasks. During these moments of self-communicating thoughts out loud, the addressees are excluded from the private dialogue; thus, the speakers are less concerned about choosing polite language. Verbalizing thoughts in the form of self-addressed questions can help teachers manage tasks and provide direction for completing it. Teachers seem to clearly distinguish self-addressed speech and addressee-directed speech by the volume of their voice as well as by a speech style shift to the intimate style. Self-addressed questions are spoken more softly and quietly than the surrounding utterances within the same conversation. The intimate style occurs when teachers are less conscious of the existence of the listeners or the communicative direction is speaker-oriented (Makino, 2002), which explains the lack of addressee honorifics in self-addressed questions.

5.2.2 Exclamatory remarks

Teachers adopt the intimate style not only in self-addressed questions, but also in exclamations. Exclamatory expressions indicate the speaker's immediate, emotional reactions to new, salient, and often surprising events. Like self-addressed questions, exclamatory remarks are

often not directed to a particular person. They are an abrupt display of one’s feelings (e.g., joy, anger, disappointment, or excitement), and the use of the intimate style in this context indexes the speaker’s inner thoughts (Maynard, 1991; Saito, 2010).

Exclamatory remarks are more or less spontaneous and natural utterances produced in “low awareness situations” (Maynard, 1993) where a speaker does not monitor his/her language or give much attention to the choice of words. Such less socially bound contexts allow the speaker to adopt the intimate style, which is often used between friends or in a relaxed or unofficial situation (Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Song, 2005).

In Excerpt 5.5, the teacher uses the intimate style to convey her disappointment and frustration with her students. This use of the intimate style indexes the teacher’s internal thoughts. In this extract, the teacher and students discuss final oral presentations.

Excerpt 5.5: Final presentation (Teacher C, KOR 401)

- 1 T: *phainel phuleycuntheyisyen thopik iss-e.yo?*
 final presentation topic have-POL
- 파이널 프레즌테이션 토픽있어요?
 ‘Did you decide on your topics for your final presentations?’
- 2 ((Students remain silent.))
- 3 *sayngkak-un iss-e.yo? sukhulipthu iss-e.yo?*
 thought-TC have-POL script have-POL
- 생각은 있어요? 스크립트 있어요?
 ‘Do you have an idea? Do you have a script?’
- 4 ((Students remain silent.))
- 5 *kuke-pwuthe hay-ya tway-yo. acwu ticeysuthe-yey-yo.*
 that-from do-must-POL really disaster-be-POL
- 6 *cikum-kkaci amwu-kes-to an ha-ko... an tway-yo.*
 now-until any-thing-also not do-and can’t happen-POL

그거부터 해야돼요. 아주 디제스터예요. 지금까지 아무것도 안 하고... 안 돼요.

‘You have to do that first. This is a “disaster.” You haven’t done anything up until now. It can’t happen.’

7 *ca, kulemyen sensayngnim-i yaykihaypo-l-they-nikka*
okay then teacher-NM try talking-PRS-will

8 *il cwuil te cwu-myen ha-l swu iss-e.yo?*
one week more give-if do-PRS can-POL

자, 그러면, 선생님이 얘기해볼테니까 일주일 더 주면 할 수 있어요?

‘Okay, if I give you one more week to prepare, will you all be able to finish?’

9 Ss: *ney.*
yes.

네
‘Yes.’

10 ES: *sensayngnim, an ha-myen honna-nun-ke yey-yo?*
teacher not do-if be punished-fact be-POL

선생님, 안 하면 혼나는 거예요?

‘Will we be in trouble if we don’t complete it?’

11 T: *tangyenhi honna-cyo.*
of course be punished-POL

당연히 혼나죠.

‘Of course you are going to be in trouble.’

12 *nay-ka elmana kwenwi-ka eps-umyen...*
I-NM how much authority-NM not have-if

내가 얼마나 권위가 없으면...

‘You must think I have no authority.’

→ 13 (talking to herself) *awcu khunil-i-ya!*
really trouble-be-INT

아주 큰일이야!

‘Hmm, this is troublesome!’

In line 1, the teacher opens a conversation with the students in the polite style, asking if they have decided on their topics for their final oral presentations. Because the students remain silent, the teacher asks follow-up questions concerning whether they have thought about their presentation topics and whether they have written scripts for their presentations. Here, the teacher continues using the polite style.

The teacher interprets the students' silence as a negative response to her questions. In line 3, the teacher points out the seriousness of the situation by describing the students' idleness as a "disaster." She reminds students that they must start working on their scripts. Then, she announces that she will extend the deadline until next week in line 4. The students gladly accept the teacher's suggestion by saying "yes" in line 5. The teacher is surprised and disappointed by the fact that the students did not prepare for their presentations on time. In line 8, she reveals her inner thoughts with her comment *nay-ka elmana kwenwi-ka eps-umyen* 'You must think I have no authority'. Here, the teacher does not complete the utterance, which makes it less forthright and forceful (Hasegawa, 2002). She omits the end of the sentence where a verb would normally appear because she is talking to herself.

Subsequently, the teacher exclaims, *khunil-i-ya!* 'This is troublesome!', in a loud, surprised tone of voice in line 13, shifting to the intimate style. This sudden, emotive phrase is produced as an exclamation, expressing the speaker's disappointment and frustration in the given context. The use of a sentence fragment and exclamation by the teacher in this extract can be best characterized as a reflection of the speaker's sudden surge of emotion. The use of the intimate style signals an "immediacy and directness in expression" (Maynard, 1991, p. 559). To prevent the negative impact of being too direct and authoritative, the teacher uses the intimate style, instead of a more formal form, to reprimand the students for not properly preparing for the class.

The teacher does not completely show her anger toward the students because treating students in that way would be too disrespectful and unkind. Thus, the teacher uses the polite style in questions directly addressed to the students (lines 1–3) and uses the intimate style in the exclamation directed to herself (line 13).

Excerpt 5.6 provides another example of a teacher using the intimate style when uttering an exclamation in teacher-student interactions. This conversation occurs at the beginning of the lesson. In this extract, the teacher is about to give a test to the students. While they are taking the exam, she asks them to submit their final projects. The teacher exclaims her surprise suddenly in the middle of an announcement by shifting to the intimate style.

Excerpt 5.6: Pokemon T-shirt (Teacher C, KOR 401)

- 1 T: *sihem cwu-l-key-yo.*
test give-PRS-will-POL
- 시험 줄게요.
'I will give you the test.'
- 2 *yelepwun, annyengha-sey-yo.*
everyone peaceful-SH-POL
- 여러분, 안녕하세요.
'Hello, everyone.'
- 3 Ss: *annyengha-sey-yo.*
peaceful-SH-POL
- 안녕하세요.
'Hello.'
- 4 T: *ney, yelepwun, phainel phuloceykthu kaciko w-ass-e.yo?*
yes everyone final project bring-PST-POL
- 네, 여러분 파이널 프로젝트 가지고 왔어요?
'Yes, everyone, did you bring your final project?'
- 5 *sihem po-nun tongan yeki olmki-key*
RL take-RL during here transfer-so that

6 *cikum cwu-sey-yo.*
now give-SH-POL

시험보는 동안 여기 옮기게 지금 주세요.

‘While you are taking the test, give me your project (saved on your flash drive) so that I can transfer it.’

7 Ss: *ney.*
yes

네.
‘Yes.’

8 ((Students take out their final projects.))

9 T: *ca, kuliko, yelepwn, onul sihem po-ko welyoil...*
okay and everyone today exam take-and Monday

자, 그리고, 여러분, 오늘 시험보고 월요일...

‘Okay, everyone, there is going to be a test today and on Monday...’

10 ((A student wearing a Pokemon cartoon T-shirt enters the classroom.))

→ 11 (Looking at the student) *eme, kwiyeu-e!*
oh my gosh cute-INT

어머, 귀여워!

‘Oh my gosh, that’s so cute!’

12 *welyoil-ey phuloceykthu kathi po-ko*
Monday-on project together watch-and

13 *swuyoil-ey-nun phathiha-ko kkuth-i-eyyo.*
Wednesday-on-TC party-and end-be-POL

월요일에 프로젝트 같이 보고 수요일에는 파티하고 끝이에요.

‘On Monday, let’s look at the project together, and on Wednesday, we will have a party and that will be the end.’

In line 1, the teacher initiates a conversation using the polite style and telling her class that she will hand out the test. Then, in line 2, she greets the class and asks the students to submit their final projects while they are taking the test, using the polite style. In line 7, the students

willingly respond to their teacher's prior request to submit their final projects by taking out their flash drives. Upon the students' compliance, the teacher begins to announce to the class that they are going to watch the final projects together next Monday. While the teacher makes the announcement, a student wearing a Pokemon cartoon T-shirt enters the classroom, and the teacher turns toward the student. In line 11, the teacher pauses in the middle of delivering the announcement and, in a high pitch, exclaims: *eme, kwiyeu-e!* 'Oh my gosh, that's so cute!', showing her surprise. This utterance is an immediate reaction to what the teacher has seen. Here, she shifts her speech style from the polite style to the intimate style. This exclamation, co-occurring with a discourse marker *eme* 'oh', is used in assessing the student's T-shirt.

By marking the exclamation in the intimate style, the teacher indicates that her utterance is self-addressed speech and she is not trying to elicit a response. Following the teacher's exclamation, she returns to the polite style to continue with the rest of the announcement. Therefore, her use of the intimate style in her exclamatory utterance can be interpreted as expressing an inner thought. In addition, it is plausible to claim that, like Teachers A and B in Extracts 5.1 and 5.2, Teacher C also mixes different speech styles during instruction in order to match her speech style to the given situation by avoiding speaking too informally or too formally (Okamoto, 1999). In this way, teachers in this study make use of different contexts that arise in the course of the classes to speak in different styles and to balance the level of formality in their speech, thus exposing the students to a wider variety of Korean speech styles than the textbooks usually present.

Like Excerpt 5.6, Excerpt 5.7 illustrates an instance in which a teacher uses the intimate style when uttering exclamations. This conversation occurs at the beginning of the lesson. Prior to Excerpt 5.7, the teacher had handed out the attendance sheet to the students and asked them to

take the roll themselves, while waiting for the rest of the class to arrive. In the following extract, the teacher chooses to use the intimate style to abruptly convey her disappointment with her students because many of the students still had not shown up to class even after she had delayed beginning for five minutes.

Excerpt 5.7: Absence (Teacher B, KOR 401)

- 1 T: (frustrated) *ewu, way ilehkey an wa-yo?*
on earth why like this not come-POL
- 어우, 왜 이렇게 안 와요?
‘Why on earth aren’t students coming (to class)?’
- 2 *eccelswu epsi, ca, wulikkili swuep-ul hayyaci toy-cyo?*
inevitably okay we-between lesson-AC must do-POL
- 어쩔수 없이, 자, 우리끼리 수업을 해야지 되죠?
‘Inevitably, okay, we can start class (without them), right?’
- 3 ((A student suddenly enters the classroom.))
- 4 (surprised) *kkamccak-i-ya!*
surprise-be-INT
- 깜작이야!
‘What a surprise!’
- 5 *chulsekpwu-nun nwuka kaciko iss-supnikka?*
roll-TC who have-DEF
- 출석부는 누가 가지고 있습니까?
‘Who has the roll?’
- 6 (picking up the roll) *a, yeki iss-kwuna!*
oh here exist-INT
- 아, 여기 있구나!
‘Oh, it was here!’
- 7 (looking at the roll) *nemyeng-i chwulsekhay-ss-ney!*
four people-NM attend-PST-INT

네 명이 출석했네!
'Surprisingly, only four students came!'

8 (surprised and disappointed) *ani, ile-l-swu-ka!*
no this-PRS-way-NM!

아니, 이럴 수가!
'How can this be?'

9 ((returning to the front of the classroom and grabbing the textbook))

10 *ca, kulemyen paysam ccok-ul po-psita. payk sam-ccok.*
okay then 103 page-AC look-SMF 103 page

자, 그러면 103 쪽을 봅시다. 103 쪽.
'Okay, then, let's turn to page 103. Page 103.'

11 CH: *tasi cey cali-lo ka-l-key-yo. ta iccok-ulo iss-unikka...*
again my seat-to go-PRS-will-POL all this way-to exist-because

다시 제 자리로 갈게요. 다 이쪽으로 있으니까...
'I'm going back to my original seat. Since everyone is sitting here...'

In line 1, the teacher asks the class why students are not arriving to class by using the exclamatory discourse marker *ewu* 'on earth', which displays her frustrated feeling. Here, the teacher uses the polite style as she addresses the question to the entire class. According to Lee and Ramsey (2000), within the classroom setting, the student group as a whole is viewed "as more powerful than the individual and therefore is treated more carefully and with more reserve" (p. 259). In line 2, in order not to sound as disappointed as she was in front of the class, the teacher announces to students that class will start despite low attendance. In this line, by using a suppositive form, *-ci-yo*²⁶ at the end of the utterance, the teacher seeks agreement from the students and encourages them to be cooperative in starting the instruction.

²⁶ In the suppositive, the polite level has the polite suffix *-yo* following *-ci* and the intimate level has no suffix following *-ci*. This mood either denotes the speaker's supposition or makes a casual suggestion. In interrogatives, its function is to seek agreement as an English tag question does (Sohn, 1999, p. 360).

While the teacher is standing in front of the classroom, a student suddenly enters and the teacher exclaims *kkamcak-i-ya!* ‘What a surprise!’ in line 4, using the intimate style. The use of the intimate style in this utterance expresses the teacher’s surprise while marking the utterance as spontaneous and informal. She delivers this exclamation immediately, as the thought enters her consciousness. Thus, the use of the intimate style in this instance indexes the speaker’s inner thought. Next, in line 6, when the teacher takes a look at the roll with only four students names on it, she utters *ani ilelsswuka!* ‘Oh no!’, expressing her emotion out loud and showing her continued disappointment.

After revealing her internal thoughts about the absence of so many students in the form of exclamations, the teacher starts the instruction in a formal way by shifting to the semi-formal style, the *-(u)psita* form, in line 10. The *-(u)psita* form is the propositive of the semi-formal style. The teacher uses the propositive to unite herself with her students and to have the students collectively engage in opening the book. The use of the *-(u)psita* form marks the beginning of an activity and frames the utterance as an official statement (see Geyer, 2008). By shifting to the *-(u)psita* form to begin the lesson, the teacher disengages from her previous emotionally charged, ongoing off-task talk about the absent students and constructs a more distanced and objective stance toward the students. In other words, this shift in speech styles from the intimate style to the semi-formal entails a change in the teacher’s stance from emotional to objective in order to manage the rest of the lesson. A detailed analysis of teachers’ use of the semi-formal style ending *-(u)psita* appears in Chapter 6.

In summary, we have observed speech-style shifts to the intimate style when teachers deliver self-addressed questions and exclamations, which are usually uttered as an immediate reaction to some event to express feelings, emotions, or attitudes. In both cases, the intimate style

indexes the speaker's inner thoughts (Maynard, 1991; Saito, 2010). Self-addressed questions and exclamations are external and out loud, but they are still private speech in the sense that their purpose is not communication with the students but reporting one's own thoughts (Hasegawa, 2002). The inner thoughts displayed in self-addressed utterances provide students with an opening into the teachers' thinking processes or mental states (Hasegawa, 2002). When reporting their own thoughts, the teachers resort to the intimate style because they are not consciously addressing the students. Thus, teachers do not feel the need to design their utterances in a socially sensitive manner, such as using appropriate speech styles (Maynard, 1991). Students also perceive the utterances to be self-addressed, so they show their understanding by not responding to their teachers' self-communication.

This section examined the teachers' use of the intimate style in self-addressed questions and exclamations, both of which express their inner thoughts. The next section illustrates cases in which the teachers use the intimate style as a strategy to build intimacy with students. Usually such utterances in the intimate style are addressed to individual students instead of the entire class. The following excerpts will show the ways in which the teachers show personal interest in students and engage them in social talk (Cadorath & Harris, 1998; Edwards & Westgate, 1994; Nguyen, 2007).

5.3 Building Intimacy with Students

Occasionally, the intimate style is employed in solidarity-building speech activities where the teacher and students build rapport²⁷ and co-produce a non-serious, informal context. For example, a teacher may joke around with students or discuss topics other than the subject matter. High interpersonal solidarity leads to the formation of a bond between teachers and their students

²⁷ The notion of rapport is defined as "a positive social relationship characterised by mutual trust and emotional affinity" (Nguyen, 2007, p. 286). Sharing tokens of laughter and/or smiling are among many ways to build mutual trust and emotional affinity in social interaction.

as well as among students. This section explores the interpersonal contexts in which the teachers employ the intimate style to build solidarity.

Excerpts 5.8–5.12 present shifts from the polite to the intimate style in teachers’ dialogic mode of discourse. Despite the importance of good teacher-student relationships (Coupland, 2003; Tsui, 1996), there is little understanding of how a teacher can create and maintain rapport in ongoing interaction with the students. As Nguyen (2007) has argued, the existing educational literature that provides guidelines for building rapport with students in a language classroom discusses the importance of rapport as an abstract and a general notion, but does not show how it can be constructed in specific and contextualized interactions. Nguyen (2007) pointed out that “saying that using humour can help establish a positive classroom atmosphere for rapport building does not specify *how* humour can be brought into the sequential organization of classroom interaction – at what moment, in what action and in what context” (p. 286, emphasis in original). As the teacher-student relationship is integral to successful teaching and learning (Coupland, 2003; Nguyen, 2007), it is necessary to examine the actual practices of classroom interaction to investigate how teachers balance between developing positive personal relationships with students and maintaining a productive level of control in the classroom.²⁸ Understanding the interpersonal aspect of teaching for teachers who work with students across boundaries of difference such as ethnicity and language is particularly important. Therefore, this section explores the interactional contexts in which the teachers employ the intimate style to mark solidarity.

A sense of intimacy can facilitate classroom management and instruction in that it can help create a learning environment that is relaxed and conducive to students’ learning. Especially

²⁸ Relationship building is often done through interactions that may be highly nuanced and ambiguous to outsiders. Observing the classes over a whole semester allowed me to get to know students and understand their relationships with the teacher.

in a second language classroom, building rapport with students can make the difference when teaching. As Krashen's (1985) affective filter hypothesis indicates, learners who have a low level of anxiety are more likely to take in comprehensive input than those who do not. Allowing for jokes and relaxed conversation at certain times can help lower anxiety in the classroom. High interpersonal intimacy can make students less afraid to speak up, ask questions, and express their opinions freely in a second language. The analysis in this section focuses on how the teachers and students initiate, develop, and maintain such relationships despite the predefined pedagogical agendas they have to fulfill.

In this study, the notion of intimacy is conceptualized as a moment-by-moment outcome of an intimate interaction (Hambling-Jones & Merrison, 2012). Central to the analysis are instances of highly nuanced intimate interactions that construct relative closeness in the social relationship. I find three terms to be useful in analyzing intimacy in an interaction. These terms are drawn from a broad discussion of social psychological perspectives by Svennevig (1999, p. 34):

solidarity, involving a set of mutual rights and obligations,
familiarity, involving mutual knowledge of personal information, and
affect, involving mutual liking (or dislike).

Brown (2011) provided a concise definition for each of these terms and supplied additional detail related to the Korean context. Solidarity refers to a feeling of unity among individuals with a common interest as members of a community of practice or participants within a speech event. According to Brown (2011), solidarity may increase when people relate to a sense of belonging through participating in the same group that is united in a common goal. Such commonalities directly related to the Korean community and honorifics usage include "same sex, same family, same hometown, same company, same school, same department (within the

company or school) and same club (social, leisure, etc.)” (p. 52). The notion of familiarity refers to a sense of closeness and a feeling of comfort from sustained personal interactions. Closeness results from knowledge gained about another person through spending time together and getting to know each other. Increased familiarity leads to some relaxation in the use of honorifics (Brown, 2011). Affect describes the expression of emotion or feelings displayed to others through linguistic and non-linguistic expressions (e.g., facial expressions, hand gestures, voice tone, and other emotional signs).

For a language teacher, social chat or small talk plays an important role in achieving rapport with students. As Coupland (2003, p. 1) commented, social chat builds “social cohesiveness, reduces inherent threat values of social contact, and helps to structure interaction” (Coupland, 2003, p. 1). Nguyen (2007) claimed that when participants loosen up their existing institutional roles and participate in social chat, they are “renewing and strengthening the social fabric that defines their relationship” (p. 286). In the context of the classroom, intimacy develops between the teacher and students through a dynamic process whereby they share personal information, thoughts, and feelings with one another. For example, the teacher and the students may discuss topics other than the subject matter and make jokes to get to know each other. These informal conversations promote social interaction, build a sense of community in the classroom, and lead to forming a warm and intimate bond between teachers and their students.

Consider Excerpt 5.8, in which the teacher uses the intimate style during off-task talk²⁹ as a way to express solidarity with her students. The teacher and her students discuss going on a field trip to *noraebang* (Korean karaoke). This conversation is off-task talk because it is not related to the academic content of the lesson (Markee, 2005; Potowski, 2007; Thornborrow, 2002). In Excerpt 5.8, the teacher engages her students in an approachable, interactive, and even

²⁹ In the classroom context, off-task talk is often light and casual conversation about common, everyday issues.

comical way, stepping out of her authoritative teacher role. The teacher's use of the intimate style during this off-task talk results in the elaboration of jokes and laughter.

Excerpt 5.8: Karaoke (Teacher B, KOR 401)

- 1 JA: *sensayngnim, kathi pwulu-l-ke-canh-a.yo.*
 teacher together sing-PRS-fact-you know-POL
- 선생님, 같이 부를 거 같아요.
 ‘Teacher, you’re going to sing with us. Right?’
- 2 T: *tangyenhi pwul-l-e.ya-ci.*
 of course sing-PRS-must-INT
- 당연히 불러야지.
 ‘Of course, I’m going to sing.’
- 3 CH: *sol.i-ka laypha-nun ke tul-e.ya toy-nuntey...*
 Sol-NM rap-RL thing listen-must-but
- 솔이가 랩하는거 들어야 되는데...
 ‘I’m supposed to listen to Sol’s rap.’ (Sol is one of the students.)
- 4 *kyay-nun wenlay nolay-ccokulo cohaha-yse...*
 she-TC originally singing-toward like-since
- 개는 원래 노래쪽으로 좋아해서...
 ‘She’s always liked singing.’
- 5 T: *e, kulay? cal ha-y?*
 oh really well do-INT
- 어, 그래? 잘 해?
 ‘Oh, really? Is she good?’
- 6 ((Sol enters the classroom))
- 7 T: (speaking playfully) *Sol-i onul nuc-un ke-llo nayil layp pwull-e.*
 Sol today late-RL thing-for tomorrow rap-sing-PR-INT
- 솔이 오늘 늦은 걸로 내일 랩 불러.
 ‘Sol, since you’re late today, rap tomorrow.’

- 8 SO: *kamki kelly-ese moksoli-ka cal an nao-nuntey-yo.*
cold catch-since voice-NM well not come out-but-POL
- 감기걸려서 목소리가 잘 안나오는데요.
‘I caught a cold so my voice isn’t really good.’
- 9 *coysongha-pnita.*
apologize-DEF
- 죄송합니다.
‘I apologize.’
- 10 T: (speaking playfully) *ani-ya. pel-i-ya.*
no-INT punishment-be-INT
- 아니야. 벌이야.
‘No. It’s a punishment.’
- 11 Ss: ha ha ha ha ha
- 12 T: (speaking playfully) *ankulem nayil cengmal nolaypang mwun*
otherwise tomorrow really karaoke door
- 13 *tat-ase mwun mos yelkey ha-l-ke.ya.*
close-so door not open do-PRS-fact-INT
- 안그럼 내일 정말 노래방 문 닫아서 문 못 열게 할거야.
‘Otherwise, I’ll go to the karaoke room and close the door so they can’t open.’
- 14 SO: *sacangnim a-nuntey*
owner know-but
- 사장님 아는데...
‘I know the owner...’
- 15 T: *kulay-yo?*
really-POL
- 그래요?
‘Really?’
- 16 T: *ppalli ha-sey-yo. Cinwung-i, il pen.*
hurry do-SH-POL cingwung No.1

빨리 하세요. 진웅이 1 번.

‘Please hurry and do the assignment. Jinwung, problem number 1.’

The excerpt begins with a student asking the teacher whether she is going to sing with the students, using the sentence ender *canhayo* ‘you know’, which expresses the student’s assumption that the teacher will agree with her. In line 2, the teacher complies with excitement and says *tangyenhi pwul-l-e.ya-ci* ‘Of course, I’m going to sing’, using the intimate style. In line 3, a student, CH, mentions that her classmate SO sings; the teacher asks CH a follow-up question about SO’s singing, continuing to use the intimate style. While the teacher and students are having this conversation, the student being discussed enters the classroom. The teacher turns toward SO and in a playful manner requests that she sing tomorrow, again using the intimate style, in line 7. SO politely turns down the teacher’s request in lines 8–9.

Despite this refusal, the teacher jokingly insists that SO should sing a song, telling her that it is a “punishment” for being late to class in line 10. Here, the teacher uses the intimate style again. When the teacher makes this humorous remark, the students’ immediate response is laughter (line 7). To laugh at humor is an indication of involvement in the interaction (Eggins & Slade, 2005); the humor seems to function to bring the teacher and students closer together than they usually are during explicit and serious lectures (e.g., Burden & Byrd, 1999; Hill, 1988; Holmes & Meyerhoff, 2003; Kougl, 1997). Thus, in line with Brown’s (1994) claims, a feeling of solidarity between the teacher and her students develops. From a pedagogical perspective, by using the intimate style in the casual dialogue, the teacher effectively establishes a friendly persona and creates a more relaxed classroom atmosphere. In line 16, the teacher closes the off-task dialogue on karaoke and shifts to the polite style to resume the main activity by asking students to work on their grammar exercises. Here, the teacher returns to a more authoritative and objective stance. Thus, the teacher’s use of the intimate style combined with other linguistic

expressions of affect (e.g., addressing students by their first names, without the honorific suffix *-ssi* which roughly translates as “Mr.” or “Ms.”) leads to the development of intimate interpersonal meanings that allow social relations to be maintained.

Excerpt 5.9 is another example of the use of the intimate style to build solidarity. This conversation takes place at the beginning of the class. In the excerpt below, the teacher explains the objectives of that day’s lesson – learning about traditional Korean marriage. However, she is interrupted by a student, ES, who asks her about a handout describing a game that was distributed during the previous class. Although the teacher already has a lesson planned for that day, she acknowledges the student’s interest in the game and tells her they will play it in the next class. Although this conversation is class-related, it is off-task because it diverges from the topic the teacher designated for the current lesson.

Excerpt 5.9: Mafia game (Teacher C, KOR 401)

1 T: *centhong honlyey. thaykil-kkaci*
 traditional wedding selection of the wedding date-up to

2 *hay-ss-ess-cyo.*
 do-PST-PST-POL

전통 혼례. 택일까지 했었죠.

‘Korean traditional wedding ceremony. We did up to the selection of the wedding date.’

3 *napphyey-pwuthe ha-l ke yey-yo.*
 presentation of the gifts-from do-PRS fact-be-POL

납폐부터 할 거예요.

‘We’re going to start with the presentation of the gifts to the bride.’

4 ES: *sensayngnim, kuntey wuli-hanthey mwe*
 teacher by the way us-to something

5 *cw-ess-canh-a.yo. simsimha-l-ttay ha-lako...*
 give-PST-you see-POL bored-PRS-when do-Q

선생님, 근데 우리한테 뭐 줬잖아요. 심심할 때 하라고...
 ‘Teacher, you gave us some kind of a handout. A handout to do when we’re bored.’

→ 6 T: *kulay, na³⁰ kuke ha-ko siph-e.*
 yes I that one do-and want-INT

7 *kuntey naleyithe-lul nwuka ha-y?*
 by the way narrator-AC who do-INT

그래, 나 그거 하고 싶어. 근데 나레이터를 누가 해?

‘Yeah, I want to play the Mafia game. But who’s going to be the narrator?’

8 ES: *ha-l swu iss-nuntey...*
 do-PRS way can-but

할 수 있는데...
 ‘I can do it...’

→ 9 T: *cincca ha-ko siph-untey ne-ka com ha-myen*
 really do-and want to-but you-NM a little do-if

10 *an tway? taum sikan-ey? kyuchik al-a.yo?*
 can’t-INT next time-at rules know-POL

진짜 하고 싶은데 너가 좀 하면 안 돼? 다음 시간에? 규칙 알아요?
 ‘I really want to. Can’t you just do it? During the next time? Do you know the rules?’

→ 11 T: *eyllies ssi-lang ne-ka taum sikan-kkaci cwunpihayw-a.*
 Elliot Mr.-and you-NM next time-until come prepared-INT

엘리엇씨랑 너가 다음 시간까지 준비해 와.
 ‘You and Elliot come prepared for next time.’

12 ES: *onul hay-yo.*
 today do-POL

오늘 해요.
 ‘Let’s do it today.’

³⁰ The teacher’s use of the first person plain form *na* ‘I’, a pronoun used when addressing a child or a close friend, is highly noticeable. By selecting the use of this particular pronoun, the teacher brings herself closer to her students and creates a relationship of familiarity.

→ 13 T: *onul ha-l cwul molu-canh-a.*
 today do-PRS not know-you know-INT

오늘 할 줄 모르잖아.
 ‘You can’t do it today because you don’t know how.’

14 *wuli taum sikan-ey maphia keyim ha-l-key-yo.*
 us next time-at mafia game do-PRS-will-POL

우리 다음 시간에 마피아 게임 할게요.
 ‘Next time, we will be playing the Mafia game.’

15 *onul-un napphyay-ha-ko ha-ki ceney*
 today-TC presentation of the gifts-do-and do-NOM before

16 *camkkanman lipyu poksup cokum-man*
 for a little review review a little-only

17 *hay po-l-key-yo.*
 try doing PRS-PRM-POL

오늘은 납폐하고 하기 전에 잠깐만 리뷰 복습 조금만 해 볼게요.
 ‘Today, we will be doing the presentation of the gifts to the bride, however right before we start, we will do a small review.’

In lines 1–2, the teacher introduces the topic for the day, and a student, ES, interrupts her by referring to the Mafia game handout distributed during the last class session. The teacher responds to ES’s comment by expressing her interest in playing the game and asking her who can be the narrator. In this instance, the teacher shifts to the intimate style to engage students in casual talk. Expressing such a spontaneous reaction to the student with the use of the intimate style signals the teacher’s less formal and friendlier stance.

Upon ES’s willingness to be the narrator, the teacher asks her if she knows the rules. The teacher then asks ES and another student to come prepared for next time by uttering an imperative sentence in the intimate style, *eyllies ssi-lang ne-ka taum sikan-kkaci cwunpihayw-a* ‘You and Elliot come prepared for next time’. The informal and relaxed classroom context marked by the teacher’s use of the intimate style allows ES to express her own opinions and

desires more comfortably. In line 8, ES proposes playing the game today. Instead of rejecting ES's proposal directly, in line 14, the teacher suggests that they play next time since they do not know the rules. Here, the teacher does not refuse the student's proposal harshly with a straight-out "no," perhaps because she wants to maintain a friendly relationship with ES. Instead, the teacher shows her willingness to modify the next class's lesson plans to align herself with the student and to build solidarity with her.

When the teacher announces to the entire class that they will play the game next time in line 14, she shifts her speech style to the polite style in order to make the announcement official. In lines 15–17, she resumes the main activity by telling the class that she will do a review and start the lesson. The shift to the polite style indicates the opening of on-task talk, signaling the teacher's intent to move ahead to the next phase of instruction. The polite style indexes the teacher's objective attitude and professional persona because it indicates the teacher's attempt to organize her instruction by controlling the flow of information. This excerpt demonstrates how teachers' speech style choices highlight changing aspects of their identities and indicate their different orientations to their students from moment to moment (Holmes & Meyerhoff, 2003).

Excerpt 5.10 below presents another example in which the teacher employs the intimate style during off-task talk about her age. The conversation is off-task because the teacher places an ongoing activity on hold by stepping out of her objective teacher role and engaging in a casual conversation with a student. The ongoing activity in this example is to discuss traditional Korean marriage ceremonies. Prior to this conversation, the teacher had been explaining the procedures of traditional weddings, and she gave an example of someone who got married in that way. During this conversation, the language becomes more informal and the teacher and students behave in a comfortable and personable manner with each other.

Excerpt 5.10: Age (Teacher C, KOR 401)

- 1 T: *cincca pwuca-ko na-to kule-n salam manna-ko siph-untey...*
really rich man-and I-also like that-RL person meet-want to-but
- 진짜 부자고 나도 그런 사람 만나고 싶은데...
'He is really rich, and I would like to meet someone like him.'
- 2 SH: *sensayngnim, myech sal-i-eyyo?*
teacher how old-be-POL
- 선생님, 몇 살이에요?
'Teacher, how old are you?'
- 3 T: *kuke-n way mwul-e?*
that-RL why ask-INT
- 그건 왜 물어?
'Why are you asking?'
- 4 SH: *elye poy-ese-yo.*
young look-because-POL
- 어려 보여서요.
'Because you look young.'
- 5 T: *ni maum-taylo sayngkak.ha-y.*
your mind-like that think-INT
- 니 마음대로 생각해.
'Think as you want.'
- 6 SH: *sayngil-i encey-yey-yo?*
birthday-NM when-be-POL
- 생일이 언제예요?
'When is your birthday?'
- 7 T: *nam-uy sasaynghwal-ey...*
other-GN private life-about
- 남의 사생활에...
'That's my privacy.'

→ 8 *nwukwu?* *iltan* *malhaypw-a.*
who first speak-INT

누구? 일단 말해봐.
'Who? Tell me first.'

→ 9 *nwukwu-ntey?*
who-but

누군데?
'Who is he?'

10 SH: *nai-ka* *etteh-key* *toy-sey-yo?*
age-NM how become-SH-POL

나이가 어떻게 되세요?
'How old are you?'

→ 11 T: *kuke-lul* *way* *mwulepo-nya-ko!*
that-AC why try asking-Q-QT

그거를 왜 물어보냐고!
'Why are you asking!'

12 T: *swumwul han-sal.*
21-age

21 살
'21 years old.'

13 SH: *intheneysey* *alapo-l swu iss-ci anh-a.yo?*
internet-on find out-PRS way can-NOM not-POL

인터넷에 알아볼 수 있지 않아요?
'Can't we look it up online?'

14 T: (in a playful manner) *nai* *malha-ci* *mal-la-ko* *thuleyining*
age say-NOM stop-be DC-QT training

→ 15 *pat-ass-nuntey?*
receive-PST-but

나이 말하지 말라고 트레이닝 받았는데?
'I was trained not to tell my age.'

The excerpt above begins with the teacher sharing her personal feelings by telling her students that she would like to meet someone. The teacher brings her personal feelings into the conversation in order to build shared knowledge and connect with her students. The informal atmosphere of the conversation can also be recognized in other linguistic features. When talking to the students during on-task talk, the teacher usually uses the first-person humble form *ce* ‘I’ to show greater respect toward the students or refers to herself as *sensayngnim* ‘teacher’ to indicate her role as a teacher. However, in this excerpt, the teacher chooses to use the first-person pronoun *na* ‘I’ in line 1 to refer to herself. By selecting the use of this particular pronoun, the teacher brings herself closer to her students and creates a relationship of familiarity.

In line 2, a student, SH, expands the off-task conversation by asking the teacher her age. The student asks this question because she would like to introduce someone to the teacher. By asking a personal question of the teacher, the student shows an understanding that the ongoing conversation is non-serious or informal and on a different trajectory from explicit orientation to the task or academic content. The teacher questions the student about why she is asking such a question, using the intimate style in line 3, *kuke-n way mwul-e?* ‘Why are you asking?’. In this situation, the informal content of the talk informs the teacher’s use of the intimate style.

In lines 7–10, we see the teacher’s continued use of the intimate style, whereby the teacher avoids revealing her age in a playful and joking manner, by saying that she is twenty-one years old and that she was trained not to share her age. Although the student’s persistent questioning of the teacher’s age (lines 2, 6, and 10) could be seen as rude and potentially embarrassing, the teacher does not seem offended at the question and uses the intimate style to make the tone friendlier and more familiar. The shift from on-task to off-task talk is not only

marked by the teacher's employment of the intimate style but also the teacher's change in attitude. In this off-task talk, the teacher appears to present herself as more approachable. Thus, the teacher's use of the intimate style in this off-task dialogue opens up a space, which consequently contributes to creating a relaxed atmosphere in class and building rapport with the student. In addition, as Cadorath and Harris (1998) point out, when meaning and real life intervene in the conversation, people tend to use a lot of "unplanned language" and promote rapport.

Consider next Excerpt 5.11, in which the teacher uses the intimate style to build interpersonal solidarity with the students. The following conversation takes place when the teacher concludes the lesson and engages students in social talk about the weekend. This excerpt shows the process of the teacher initiating a conversation to communicate personally relevant information to students in relation to a plan she has.

Excerpt 5.11: Picnic (Teacher B, KOR 401)

1 T: *sihem chi-l ke-nikka alanohtolokha-ko*
test take-PRS fact-since know-and

2 *nameci cilmwun iss-supnikka?*
rest question have-DEF

시험 칠 거니까 알아놓도록하고 나머지 질문 있습니까?
'Remember we have a test, and do you have any questions?'

3 *cwumal cal ponay-ko phikunik ka-sey-yo.*
weekend well spend-and picnic go-SH-POL

4 *sensayngnim phikunik ka-l yeyceng-i-ntey...*
teacher picnic go-PRS plan-be-but

주말 잘 보내고 피크닉 가세요. 선생님 피크닉 갈 예정인데...
'Have a good weekend and go for a picnic. I'm planning on going.'

5 ((A student turns in his homework that was supposed to be submitted at the beginning of the class.))

→ 6 *wa-se hay-ss-kwuna! ile-myen an toy-nuntey...*
come-and do-PST-INT if-this way shouldn't-but

와서 했구나. 이러면 안 되는데...
'You did it after you came. You shouldn't have.'

7 JI: *annyenghi kyey-sey-yo.*
well stay-SH-POL

안녕히 계세요.
'Good bye.'

8 T: *cwumal cal ponay-yo.*
weekend well spend-POL

주말 잘 보내요.
'Have a good weekend.'

9 JI: *sensayngnim-to-yo.*
teacher-also-POL

선생님도요.
'You too, teacher.'

→ 10 T: *sensayngnim nemwu papp-a.*
teacher really busy-INT

선생님 너무 바빠.
'I'm really busy.'

11 JA: *hyuil-i-cahn-a.yo.*
holiday-be-you know-POL

휴일이잖아요.
It's a long holiday, right?

→ 12 T: *ung. nemwu hayngpokhay cwuk-keyss-e.*
yes really happy die-will-INT

응. 너무 행복해 죽겠어.
'Yes. I'm really happy to death.'

13 SJ: *nuc-ese coysongha-pnita.*
late-because sorry-DEF

늦어서 죄송합니다.
'I'm sorry for being late.'

→ 14 T: *kwaynchanh-a.* *way nuc-ess-e.yo?*
okay-INT why late-PST-POL

괜찮아. 왜 늦었어요?
'It's okay. Why were you late?'

In line 1, the teacher finishes the lesson by reminding the students to study for the upcoming exam and by asking if they have any questions. Here, she uses the deferential style, the *-(su)pnikka* form, and projects her institutional identity as a competent teacher who is responsible for checking students' understanding and encouraging students to ask for clarification. The use of the deferential style constructs the teacher's authoritative stance toward the students. Upon the teacher's question, there is no forthcoming response from the students, which marks the end of the lesson. In line 2, the teacher changes her stance and transforms the interaction with students into small talk where she tells students about her weekend plans. Here, the teacher delivers the statement in the polite style, as she addresses the entire class. Then, in line 10, the teacher initiates an informal conversation with an individual student by using the intimate style to talk about her busy life. When the student tells the teacher that a long holiday is coming up in line 11, the teacher responds by describing her emotions – she is feeling happy. In line 13, a student, SJ, who arrived late for class apologizes to the teacher and shows the teacher his respect. In line 14, the teacher accepts his apology by saying *kwaynchanh-a* 'It's okay' in the intimate style. Here, the teacher uses the intimate style in an informal and friendly tone in order to make the student feel at ease.

As Excerpt 5.11 illustrates, when the teacher changes from an authoritative stance to a personal stance with the use of the intimate style, she can create a stronger feeling of rapport with the students. Instead of just saying "good-bye" to the class, the teacher finishes the class

with a personal conversation in which she shares her plans and feelings. The teacher's use of the intimate style, along with being personable, functions as a strategy to obscure the institutional status difference and invite social intimacy with her students. By displaying a personal identity different from her authoritative teacher identity, the teacher brings herself closer to the students and creates a friendly classroom environment.

Excerpt 5.12 presents the beginning of a class in which students are scheduled to take a vocabulary exam. Prior to this excerpt, a student, JM, told the teacher that he has to leave right after taking his vocabulary exam because he has to catch a plane to attend a conference. What is significant about this example is that the student's unexpected but playful use of the intimate style results in the teacher's use of the intimate style. This use of the intimate style brings laughter into the classroom.

Excerpt 5.12: Vocabulary test (Teacher B, KOR 401)

1 JM: (in a humorous tone) *sihem-ul po-ca.*
 exam-ACC take-PR (PLN)

시험을 보자.
 'Let's take the exam.'

→ 2 T: *huh? mwe? mwe-lako?*
 huh what what-QT

허? 뭐? 뭐라고?
 'Huh? What? What did you say?'

→ 3 (in a playful tone with soft laughter) *ne way panmal ha-ko kulay?*
 you why half-talk say-QT say

너 왜 반말하고 그래?
 'Why do you speak in *panmal* ("half-talk")?'

4 Ss: ha ha ha ha ha

5 T: *ca, cwunpitway-ss-cyo?*
 okay be prepared-PST-POL

자, 준비됐죠?
'Okay, you are prepared, right?'

6 JM: *nongtam i-yey-yo. heh heh*
joke be-POL heh heh

농담이에요.
'It is a joke. heh heh.'

7 T: *ca, o pwun, kulenikka, samsip pwun toy-myen palo sicak ha-psita.*
okay 5 minutes so 30 minutes become-if right away start-SMF

자, 오분, 그러니까, 삼십분 되면 바로 시작합니다.
'Okay, in five minutes, so when it is 12:30, we will start.'

8 ((Jungmin acts hurriedly.))

→ 9 *way? cengmin.i ppali ka-yaci tway?*
why Jungmin urgently go-have to

왜? 정민이 빨리 가야지 돼?
'Why? Do you have to go early, Jungmin?'

10 JM: *ney*
네.
'Yes.'

→ 11 T: *encey?*
when

언제
'When?'

12 JM: *yeltwu si pan*
12 hour 30

열두 시 반
'12:30'

13 T: *yeltwusi pan? nwu-ka phikepha-ki lo hay-ss-e.yo?*
12:30 who-NM pick-up-NM DR decide-PST-POL

열두시 반? 누가 픽업하기로 했어요?
'12:30? Is someone going to pick you up?'

The conversation starts with JM telling the teacher to start the exam in the intimate style, which is not appropriate to use to the teacher: *sihem-ul po-ca* ‘Let’s take the exam’. Although the teacher can address the students in the intimate style, students are not allowed to use this form because it can be viewed negatively as rude and impolite. However, the teacher interprets his remark as a joke because JM delivers the statement in a humorous tone. JM’s use of the intimate style is awkward but funny. Then, the teacher responds to JM’s joke by playfully scolding him for talking to her in *panmal*. Here, the teacher uses the intimate style with *mwe? mwe lako? ne way panmal ha-ko kulay?* ‘What? What did you say? Why do you speak in *panmal* (“half-talk”)?’. In this conversation, the teacher could have been offended by the student’s inappropriate use of *panmal*, but she chooses not to be. Thus, it is her choice of using the intimate style in response that makes his joke interpretable as a joke, rather than as an error or an offense. The teacher’s spontaneous response to JM’s playful behavior results in laughter in line 4. This laughter shows the students’ understanding of JM’s statement as a joke. While the original joke is the student’s utterance, it is the teacher’s acceptance of it as humor that has the effect of bridging the student-teacher gap by allowing the students to consider the teacher as more approachable and friendly.

In Line 5, the teacher asks the students whether they are ready to take the vocabulary exam, shifting to the polite style. By using the polite style, the teacher presents herself as someone who is responsible for administering the exam. The teacher announces that she will give out the exam in five minutes, shifting to the *-(u)psita* form. After the announcement is made, in line 9, the teacher notices that JM is in a hurry and asks him if he has to leave the class early, shifting back to the intimate style: *way? cengmin.i ppali ka-yaci tway?* ‘Why? Do you have to go early, Jungmin?’. The use of the intimate style helps to open up a space for discussing a

genuinely personal issue. Upon the student's affirmative response, the teacher asks a follow-up question, *encey?* 'When?' in *panmal* to continue the off-task interaction (line 11).

The intimate style is employed during off-task talk for addressing personal matters and building solidarity with students. Shifts to the intimate style demonstrate broader social relationships that go beyond the contextually constrained student and teacher roles. The use of the intimate style tends to occur when a teacher is closely involved in an interaction, such as making comments on students' personal matters. These rapport-building conversations lessen the seriousness of classroom conversation and enable teachers to reveal personal identities. During rapport-building talk, the teacher keeps the lines of conversation open and takes on an interactive role as a conversationalist and a member of the classroom community rather than as the sole knowledge transmitter. Rapport-building conversations such as those shown in Excerpts 5.8–5.12 are similar to ordinary conversation due both to the absence of teacher feedback moves in the follow-up to the students' utterances and to the inclusion of jokes and laughter. Being personable with students helps to mediate tensions that build up during academic engagement and provides a relaxed social atmosphere.

As seen in Excerpts 5.8–5.12, the intimate style tends to be used when the teacher is closely involved in off-task interactions, such as sharing feelings or commenting on students' personal matters. The employment of the intimate style, along with the off-task content and other informal linguistic forms, appears to create greater familiarity and solidarity between the teacher and students. The teachers' central concern in these excerpts seems to be maintaining the social relations in the classroom. The use of the intimate style allows a teacher to take on a friendly persona that creates a less intimidating environment and advances solidarity by framing the teacher's utterances as less official and more spontaneous. The teachers are more likely to use

the intimate style when addressing an individual student. Thus, according to this study, the function of the intimate style is not mainly to mark socially hierarchical relationships, but to express the speaker's wish to establish a common ground and solidarity with the addressees.

However, although teachers can shift from the honorific speech styles to non-honorific speech styles, students must always address their teachers in the honorific speech styles – regardless of the level of solidarity in the class – as a way to show respect to the teachers. Although Korean society is moving toward more horizontal patterns of language usage (Choo, 2006; Sohn, 1986; Yun, 1993), outside of a few close family relationships, the influence of power surpasses that of solidarity (Brown, 2011). For example, regardless of how close an employee may be to a supervisor, s/he cannot use *panmal* when interacting with the supervisor at the workplace.

Moreover, it is important to note that when the teachers shift their speech style to the intimate style, their identity seems to change. They step out of the authoritative teacher role and instead take on an identity as a member of the classroom community in which power differences are diminished. In other words, the teachers use language to make the setting feel non-institutional and to bring the classroom discourse closer to natural conversation. By using the intimate style, the teachers create a teacher-student relationship that moves beyond a role-based perspective and treat students as fellow conversationalists. Teachers' speech style choices highlight changing aspects of their identities and indicate different orientations to their students from moment to moment (Holmes & Meyerhoff, 2003). Thus, by drawing on different speech styles, teachers construct different social contexts and identities depending on the goals of the interaction and the situations (Geyer, 2008).

The analysis also indicates that in a language classroom, the teachers deliver not only task-oriented, instructional talk, but also social talk through which they can co-construct a relaxed and friendly classroom atmosphere with their students (Nguyen, 2007). As Krashen's (1985) affective filter hypothesis implies, comprehensive input is not sufficient for language acquisition. Students can take in and produce the language only when their affective filter is low (i.e., when they feel relaxed, motivated, and comfortable). Therefore, it is important for teachers to create a safe, welcoming classroom environment in which students feel safe making mistakes and taking risks. The analysis has demonstrated how teachers' use of the intimate style, along with other co-occurring (non)verbal behaviors, can help achieve this goal.

5.4 Summary

This chapter focuses on the teachers' use of the intimate style in interactions with their students in a classroom setting. Building on the findings of recent studies on the intimate style in Korean, the data in this study demonstrate that teachers use the intimate style in diverse contexts, and that such usage conveys different indexical meanings: (1) the speaker's internal thought and (2) solidarity with the listeners. These different indexical meanings are foregrounded depending on the given context. Extracts 5.1 to 5.7 illustrate that the intimate style indexes the speaker's internal thought in the form of self-addressed questions and exclamations. On the other hand, Extracts 5.8 to 5.12 present cases in which the teachers deploy the intimate style in order to express intimacy toward the students while discussing intimacy-building topics. An important aspect of this analysis is that it confirms the importance of examining how unplanned classroom moments are accomplished in talk-in-interaction. The analysis thus supports the view of a classroom not as a predictable sequence of pre-scripted actions but as "part of a lively discourse

in interaction that calls for immediate, contingent and communicative acts from the teacher” (Lee, 2007, p. 1226).

It is important to note that only the teachers can shift to the intimate style in a dialogic mode of discourse, because they maintain their higher status over the students. In an academic setting, the hierarchical relationship is clearly defined. The college students in this data do not shift to the non-honorific style in dialogic discourse with their teachers during instruction except in a single, unusual case (Excerpt 5.12), where the student purposely used the intimate style as a joke for the purpose of amusing the class. Kim and Suh (2007) also mentioned that while the teacher can use any of the honorific or non-honorific speech styles in an elementary classroom setting, the students cannot use non-honorific forms to the teacher. They observed in their data that young students (elementary school students) generally use the polite style *-yo* form to the teacher. Thus, students observe the socially prescribed linguistic norms, whereas the teachers have some freedom to shift between different speech styles. As Hasegawa (2012) emphasizes, although sociopragmatically competent speakers do not always passively observe prescriptive social norms, they are not free agents. Students cannot violate pre-existing social relationships like that of teacher-student by using non-honorific styles, because such a violation could bring disadvantageous consequences to the speaker, such as being evaluated as disrespectful, uneducated, and inappropriate. Even the teachers do not always freely shift their speech styles when teaching. Their speech style shifting occurs in contexts where it is needed or appropriate, so the teachers are also constrained in their choice of speech style, but in a different way than the students are.

CHAPTER 6

Teachers' Use of the Semi-Formal Speech Style: Implementing Activity Transitions

6.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the teachers' use of the semi-formal speech style in teacher-student interactions in the KFL classroom setting. The analysis focuses on the *-(u)psita* form, which is the propositive form of the semi-formal speech style in Korean. The English equivalent of the Korean *-(u)psita* is "let's." The function of the form that is described in this chapter has not been previously described. As discussed in Chapter 2, the semi-formal speech style is rarely used among contemporary speakers. It is traditionally considered to have a very limited use as a blunt style to be addressed to lower status people (Sohn, 1999).

My findings demonstrate, however, that in a classroom setting, KFL teachers occasionally shift to the *-(u)psita* form. Their use of this form is not random; the major function of the *-(u)psita* form is to signal a transition where one kind of classroom interaction ends and another begins. In this study, by analyzing specific moments of teacher-student interactions in classroom settings, I demonstrate that teachers adopt the *-(u)psita* form to signal to students that a new activity will start. By using the form to index the beginning of an activity, teachers collectively move the students onto the next item on the agenda as a unified party. Teachers' use of the *-(u)psita* form also reinforces their right to establish the agenda for the students and to make transitions between different activities. In this sense, the form is a means of enforcing power and authority within the interactional event, which in turn contributes to the teachers' construction of their professional identity. The goal of this chapter is to uncover how teachers use the *-(u)psita* form to accomplish transition-signaling processes during instruction.

There has not yet been much empirical research looking specifically at how KFL teachers draw on speech styles to organize their lessons by marking boundaries between activities. Hall and Smotrova (2013) have pointed out that research on classroom discourse has mainly focused on “official forms of instructional talk” (p. 75), overlooking the organizational aspects of classroom discourse. Jacknick (2011) also noted that there are very few microanalytic studies on how classroom activity transitions are negotiated by teachers and students. Thus, this analysis adds to the considerable literature on L2 classroom interaction by specifying how teachers design transitions in systematic ways to gain students’ attention in L2 classrooms. In the case of the KFL teachers in this study, one of the resources they draw on is a shift to the semi-formal style with utterances using the *-(u)psita* form. This chapter’s analysis focuses on addressing where the KFL teachers employ *-(u)psita* and what roles they construct while doing so.

This chapter focuses on a single linguistic item, the *-(u)psita* form, and teachers’ practices of making transitions to a next activity through the use of this form. Previous research has analyzed various discourse markers in different languages that mark a boundary in discourse. For example, English *okay* has been shown to have a transitional function in various contexts. Schegloff (1968, 1979, 1986) observed occurrences of *okay* at topic transitions, especially significant ones, such as the initial topic of a phone call. *Okay* also may be used as a “linking device” between two stages or phases of a service encounter, as Merritt (1980, p. 144) showed, or as a signal of “a state of readiness for moving to next-positioned matters” (Beach, 1993, p. 330). In the case of Australian English, *alright* is similar to *okay* in that it enables participants to move from one activity or topic toward another, especially at major topic changes, at major activity shifts, and as the final pre-closing token in an interaction (Gardner, 2007, p. 325). In Estonian, *nii*, which is originally a manner proadverb meaning “in this way, like this,” has been

shown to function as a marker of transitions from one activity to another or at a break between two topics in teachers' talk (Keevallik, 2010). In Hebrew, *tov* serves to mark expected transitions in textual discourse, such as the beginning of a narrative, between the episodes of narrative discourse, or the ending of a topic/action (Maschler, 2009).

In the KFL classrooms observed for this study, the *-(u)psita* form seems to be a natural choice over other propositive sentence enders, such as the *-ca* (plain), *-e/a* (intimate), or *-yo* (polite) forms, for signaling the beginning of the next activity or topic because the *-(u)psita* form enables the teachers to simultaneously achieve both solidarity building and authority claiming. First, the *-(u)psita* form, meaning “let’s” and implying collaborative action, indexes inclusiveness and affiliation. Feelings of inclusiveness and affiliation are the necessary basis for proposing a collective course of action because they mitigate potentially face-threatening actions. Second, the *-(u)psita* form, which is the power-laden semi-formal speech style, can help express a proposition to a group of people in a formal way. Formality is necessary for achieving a transition move, which requires authority. Thus, by using the form, the teachers display their official teacher roles and claim their authority to impose a boundary on the students and to move on to the next activity on a predetermined agenda.

So far, I have provided a general discussion of the *-(u)psita* form by explaining how it is used in ordinary conversations. We have seen that the form entails the meaning of “let’s” and is used to express a proposal to a person of lower status. The *-(u)psita* form extends its function when it is used as a marker of transition in the classroom. In the context of KFL classrooms, some teachers occasionally use the *-(u)psita* form at the time of transitions while uniting the individual students into a single group and proposing a new course of action. In order to analyze the use of the *-(u)psita* form as a transition marker in a specific social situation, it is important to

first examine how the term “transition” has been defined in the field. Therefore, in the next section, I will discuss the definition of transitions and the roles they play in classroom management. I will then move on to examine how the *-(u)psita* form is used for marking such transitions.

6.2 Research on Transitions in the L2 Classroom

In this section, I describe the nature of teacher-initiated transitions in L2 classroom settings. As seen in the different approaches to categorizing classroom discourse, communication in the classroom is a multilayered, dynamic phenomenon. In their interactions with students, teachers face the challenge of managing and balancing multiple activities and tasks at the same time (Hall & Smotrova, 2013). Transitions play a crucial role in structuring this complex and fluid classroom interaction in a well-organized manner. Teachers are generally entitled to mark openings and closings of topics or activities at the times they think appropriate. Because there is little research that explores transitions in the KFL classroom, I draw on studies that examine transitions in other L2 classrooms.

A typical class lesson is composed of consecutive activities in which students construct their knowledge through social interactions with the teacher and other students. According to Arlin (1979), a transition is a “teacher-initiated directive to students to end one activity and to start another” (p. 42). Transitions are one of the essential classroom management skills that assist in setting clear routines for accomplishing everyday tasks and activities. Teachers tend to begin a lesson by exploring one specific topic, further developing it by adding subtopics, or shifting to new topics. Smooth transitions are consequential for teaching and learning as they can enable teachers to become more effective in establishing an orderly learning environment (Icbay, 2011). During a transition period, the students are expected to perceive the transition and react

according to the directions given by the teacher. The role of the students is to follow the pre-established rules and procedures and demonstrate attentive listening. The ongoing flow of instruction can be interrupted when students misinterpret the teacher's actions. Effective transitions are crucial to minimize student confusion, disruptions, and misbehaviors. Consequently, in a classroom context, the teacher and students need ways of signaling to each other that the context has changed and a new segment is beginning.

Therefore, the boundaries between the instructional segments must be marked in such a way that students can clearly understand the process of transition in the current interaction. One effective approach to implementing transitions is to provide students with consistent and specific types of cues, such as visual prompts or verbal commands (Arlin, 1979). Jacknick (2011) pointed out that transitions are accomplished by the co-occurrence of some or all of the following elements: “transition markers (e.g. “OK”), prosody (e.g. increased pitch and/or volume), non-verbal behaviour (i.e. gesture and eye gaze), silence, and talk explicitly referring to the closing or opening of activities (cf. managerial mode in Walsh 2006)” (p. 26). Seedhouse (2004) also argued that transitions may include a discourse marker, a shift marker such as *okay*, reference to procedure, and/or use of materials. The *-(u)psita* form is one of the resources that are used by KFL teachers in signaling a transition to the next activity, and it often co-occurs with other features.

Transitions can take place in different interactional environments throughout the course of a lesson. I analyze two distinct transition types: inter-activity transitions and intra-activity transitions (Jacknick, 2011). Inter-activity transitions refer to the transitions that occur between activities, whereas intra-activity transitions refer to the transitions that occur within an activity. In other words, inter-activity transitions involve the closing of one activity and opening of a new

activity, and intra-activity transitions involve the closing of one stage of activity and opening of another stage of the same activity. In the next section, I present a qualitative analysis of teachers' use of the *-(u)psita* form in implementing transitions in different interactional environments.

Table 6.1 shows the number of tokens of the semi-formal style ending found in the data and how many of them were used for each function.

Table 6.1
Number of tokens of the semi-formal style ending

	Inter-activity transitions		Intra-activity transitions	Other suggestions	Total
	Off-task activity to on-task activity	On-task activity to another on-task activity	Between phases of the same activity		
Teacher A	0 (0%)	2 (25%)	6 (75%)	0 (0%)	8/734 (1.2%)
Teacher B	3 (21.4%)	5 (35.7%)	3 (21.4%)	3 (21.%)	14/634 (2.2%)
Teacher C	0 (0%)	3 (50%)	3 (50%)	0 (0%)	6/922 (0.7%)
Teacher D	1 (50%)	1 (50%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2/787 (0.3%)
Teacher E	0 (0%)	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1/703 (0.1%)
Teacher F	1 (50%)	1 (50%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2/863 (0.2%)
Teacher G	1 (20%)	4 (80%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5/1086 (0.5%)
Total (average)	6 (15.8%)	18 (47.4%)	12 (31.6%)	3 (7.9%)	38/5726 (0.7%)

The ten examples in this section offer evidence that teachers employ the *-(u)psita* form when marking transitions in different interactional environments during instruction. Excerpts 6.1–6.3 show how teachers mark boundaries between off-task and on-task activities at the

beginning of the lesson. Excerpts 6.4–6.6 demonstrate cases where teachers make transitions from an on-task activity to another on-task activity. Excerpts 6.7–6.10 illustrate how teachers signal transitions within phases of activities. These examples not only illustrate instances in which teachers adopt the *-(u)psita* form to begin an activity, but also demonstrate that they draw on various other linguistic and non-linguistic contextualization cues, including discourse markers and phonological features, to provide students with clear notice that transition is imminent. In addition, I explore the issue of how a teacher's exercise of the right to impose activity boundaries on the students reinforces his or her authority as a teacher. In the next section, I show how teachers project inter-activity transitions by using the *-(u)psita* form as a particular kind of transition marker.

6.3 Inter-Activity Transitions

Inter-activity transitions consist of two types: (1) off-task to on-task activity transitions and (2) on-task to on-task activity transitions. On-task talk is talk directly related to the academic content of the lesson assigned by the teacher, whereas off-task talk is talk that is not related to the lesson (Potowski, 2007). An example of the first type of transition is the transition from a casual discussion of everyday issues to a formal discussion of a lesson topic. The off-task talk often takes place in the beginning of the class in the form of announcements or informal conversations. The purpose of the off-task talk in this case is to take care of administrative issues related to the course (e.g., exams, project/homework deadlines) or to build rapport. An example of the second type of transition is the transition from independent reading to a whole group discussion about the reading.

6.3.1 Off-task activity to on-task activity

Excerpt 6.1 provides an example of how a teacher uses the *-(u)psita* form to mark the beginning of an activity. The conversation occurs at the beginning of the class after the teacher greets the students. The first activity of the current lesson is taking a test. The excerpt begins as the teacher engages students in a conversation about the schedule of the final exam. This is considered off-task talk because it is about an administrative issue, which is not directly linked to the objective of the lesson. Upon finishing her talk about the administrative issue, the teacher attempts to start the lesson by handing out the tests. However, a student interrupts the flow of the lesson by digressing into an irrelevant topic and showing an inappropriate behavior. This excerpt highlights how the teacher controls the student's off-task behavior and successfully begins the instruction again (lines 12–19). In doing so, the teacher employs the *-(u)psita* form to express her stance of strong authority toward the students.

Excerpt 6.1: Final exam (Teacher D, KOR 401)

1 T: *phainel sihem-nal talu-n swuep-ilang sikan kyepchi-nun*
 final exam-day different-RL class-with time overlap-RL

2 *salam iss-e.yo? ilkop-si pan. achim ilkop-si pan.*
 person exist-POL 7:30 morning 7:30

파이널 시험날 다른 수업이랑 시간 겹치는 사람 있어요? 일곱시 반. 아침 일곱 시 반.

‘Does anyone have a class that conflicts with the final exam time? It’s at 7:30. It’s at 7:30 in the morning.’

3 MI: *swuyoil-i-eyyo?*
 Wednesday-be-POL

수요일이에요?
 ‘Is it on Wednesday?’

((lines 4–9 omitted))

10 *sihem cwu-l-key-yo.*
exam give-PRS-will-POL

시험 줄게요.
'Let me pass out the tests.'

11 ES: (in a loud voice) *a, an toy-yo. cwunpi an tway-ss-e.yo.*
oh not happen-POL preparation not become-PST-POL

아, 안 돼요. 준비 안 됐어요.
'Oh, no, you can't! I'm not ready.'

12 T: (in a playful manner) *cepttay sihem-i swipta-ko nanlichi-n key*
last time exam-NM easy-and big deal-RL thing

13 *nwukwu-ntey mwel kul-ay? sihem po-ci-to anh-ko*
who-but what be so-INT exam take-NOM-even not-and

14 *ettehkey al-a? maynnal po-ci-to anh-ko...*
how know-INT everyday take-NOM-even not-and

15 *coyonghi ha-ko.*
be silent-and

접때 시험이 쉽다고 난리친 게 누군데 뭘 그래? 시험 보지도 않고 어떻게
알아? 맨날 보지도 않고...

'Who was the one complaining that the exam was too easy last time? How can
you know if you haven't even taken the test yet? You say that every time before
an exam. Be quiet.'

16 ((The student ES becomes quiet.))

17 (asks the whole class) *cilmwun iss-usey-yo?*
question have-SH-POL

질문 있으세요?
'Do you have any questions?'

18 ((The class remains silent.))

→ 19 (in a firm voice) *ipwa-yo. yelepwun. sihem sicakha-psita.*
look-POL everyone test start-SMF

이봐요. 여러분. 시험 시작합니다.
'Excuse me, everyone. Let's begin the exam.'

20 *ta* *neh-ko.* *ca,* *ta* *neh-usey-yo.*
 everything put-and okay everything put-SH-POL

다 넣고. 자, 다 넣으세요.

‘Put all your things away. Put away your stuff now.’

Lines 1–3 are off-task talk about the final exam. From line 4 to line 9, which are omitted, the teacher covers another administrative matter (reminding students about peer evaluations of final presentations), with the persistent use of the polite style. After the teacher finishes delivering these two announcements, in line 10, she attempts to move out of the off-task talk and begin the lesson by saying *sihem cwu-l-key-yo* ‘Let me pass out the tests’ in line 10. However, in line 11, a student playfully refuses by telling the teacher that she is not ready. The student delays the start of the test by being loud and disruptive. In response, the teacher lightly admonishes the student in a joking manner (lines 12–15). Here, the teacher shifts to the intimate style, as observed in *kul-ay?* ‘be so-INT’ and *al-a?* ‘know-INT’, which indexes a feeling of casualness and mitigates the face-threatening act of disciplining the student (Kim & Suh, 2007). This verbal admonishment results in the student’s silence (line 16).

Then, the teacher asks the class if they have any questions in line 17. This teacher question allows students to predict the coming transition and the closure of the ongoing conversation with some degree of certainty, given that the teacher checks if there are questions at the discourse boundary where the ongoing conversation ends and another begins. In other words, this teacher question marks the ending of a sequence. No next student turn is projected in line 18. Upon the students’ silence, the teacher draws on features of talk that contextualize her utterance as having a teacher’s authority to distance herself from the students and perform a structuring move. First, in line 19, the teacher increases her speech volume and, in a firm voice, uses the expression *ipwa-yo* ‘excuse me’ and address term *yelepwun* ‘everyone’ to attract their attention.

Once the teacher has the students' full attention, she again begins the lesson by asking the students to take the test and using the *-(u)psita* form: *sihem sicakha-psita* 'Let's begin the exam'. This use of the *-(u)psita* form indexes the start of the activity because of its meaning and function; as the propositive, the *-(u)psita* form means "let's," and performs the function of inviting people to participate in a joint action. Upon delivering this proposal, in line 20, the teacher uses a command to direct students to take the test by saying *ta neh-ko, ca ta neh-usey-yo* 'Put all your things away. Put away your stuff' in the polite style.

In this excerpt, the transition from off-task to on-task activity is accompanied by teacher turns that close down the previous conversation (*cilmwun iss-usey-yo?* 'Do you have any questions?' and *ipaw-yo, yelepwun.* 'Excuse me, everyone') and that explicitly refer to the upcoming activity, marked by the *-(u)psita* form (*sihem sicakha-psita* 'Let's begin the exam.').

Excerpt 6.2 illustrates an instance in which another female teacher uses the *-(u)psita* form to begin the lesson. Prior to this excerpt, the teacher engaged students in small talk while waiting for the students who still had not arrived to class. The teacher's shift to the *-(u)psita* form indicates the start of the first activity, reviewing reading comprehension exercises. In this excerpt, the transition is accompanied by more apparent changes in the teacher's prosodic features and body movements than in the previous excerpt.

Excerpt 6.2: Reading comprehension (Teacher B, KOR 401)

- | | | | |
|---|--|------------------------------------|--|
| 1 | T: (picking up the roll from a student) | <i>nemyeng-i</i>
four people-NM | <i>chwulsekhay-ss-ney!</i>
attend-PST-INT |
| | 네 명이 출석했네!
'Surprisingly, only four students came!' | | |
| 2 | (surprised and disappointed) | <i>ani,</i>
no | <i>ile-l-swu-ka!</i>
this-PRS-way-NM! |

아니, 이럴수가!
'How can this be?'

3 ((Teacher returns to the front of the classroom and picks up the textbook))

→ 4 (in high pitch and volume) *ca,* *kulemyen,* *paysam ccok-ul* *po-psita.*
okay then 103 page-AC look-SMF

5 *payk sam-ccok.*
103 page

자, 그러면, 백삼쪽을 봅시다. 백삼쪽.
'Okay, then, let's turn to page 103. Page 103.'

6 CH: *tasi cey cali-lo ka-l-key-yo.* *ta iccok-ulo iss-unikka...*
again my seat-to go-PRS-will-POL all this way-to exist-because

다시 제 자리로 갈게요. 다 이쪽으로 있으니까...
'I'm going back to my original seat. Since everyone is sitting here...'

7 T: *payksam ccok.* *ca,* *kulemyen* *payksam ccok* *il pen-pwuthe...*
103 page okay then 103 page 1 number-from

백삼쪽. 자, 그러면 백삼쪽 일 번부터...
'Page 103. Okay, then, from page 103...'

8 (gazes at a student's face) *ca,* *kulemyen,* *cin.i-pwuthe*
okay then Jin-from

9 *han pen haypo-l-kka-yo?* *il pen.*
one time do-PRS-whether-POL 1 number

자, 그러면, 진이부터 한 번 해볼까요? 일 번.
'Okay, then, shall we start from Jin? Number 1.'

The excerpt starts with the teacher commenting on the absence of many students. In this off-task talk, the teacher uses the intimate style in lines 1–2, as shown in *chwulsekhay-ss-ney!* (attend-PST-INT), which indexes the informal and spontaneous nature of the ongoing talk. In line 3, the teacher returns to the front of the classroom and picks up the textbook, which indexes the teacher's attempt to move out of the ongoing off-task talk. Then, the teacher begins a lesson

in line 4 by inviting the students to take a look at their books, with *ca*, *kulemyen*, *payksamccok-ul po-psita* ‘Okay, then, let’s turn to page 103’. The *-(u)psita* form signals the start of a new activity mainly because the form means “let’s” and is used in contexts where the speaker invites someone to engage in a joint action. While delivering this invitation with the use of the *-(u)psita* form, the teacher forms the individual students into a single cohort and focuses student attention on the instructional task. To make the transition clear, she also uses a variety of contextualization cues, such as discourse markers, *ca* ‘okay’ and *kulemyen* ‘then’, as well as high pitch and volume, together with the *-(u)psita* form. In particular, the discourse marker *-ca* ‘okay’ used in this turn marks a state of readiness to transition from one topic to the next course of action (Beach, 1993). Walsh (2011) has pointed out that discourse markers in the classroom context are useful resources to help students follow “what is being said and give direction to the discourse” (p. 114).

After employing the *-(u)psita* form, in lines 4–5, the teacher launches a new activity, that is, going over reading comprehension exercises as a whole group activity. The initiation of a new activity is followed by the teacher’s nomination of a particular student to supply the answer for the class (lines 8–9). The teacher’s use of several features to signal the transition, including the style shift, helps students learn to be on-task and engaged in the learning activities that the teacher has planned for them. The teacher’s intent to terminate the off-task talk and move on to the next activity is made explicit in her uses of the discourse markers, transition marker *-(u)psita*, reference to the textbook, and her body movements indicating the shift. Moreover, by uttering the *-(u)psita* form and suggesting students move on, the teacher makes a claim to having the authority and the right to define a boundary.

Consider the next example, in which the *-(u)psita* form functions to transition from off-task talk to on-task discussion. In the conversation, the teacher starts an informal conversation

about Thanksgiving Day. This conversation is off-task talk because it is not related to the academic content of the lesson (Potowski, 2007). He closes the ongoing off-task conversation and explicitly launches a new on-task topic by using the *-(u)psita* form. The teacher uses the *-(u)psita* form to have the students engage in reviewing an article together. Thus, the shift to the *-(u)psita* form indicates the opening of on-task talk, signaling the teacher’s intent to move ahead to the next phase of instruction.

Excerpt 6.3: Thanksgiving Day (Teacher G, KOR 401)

1 T: *ttayngsukiping-ttay masiss-nun umsik manhi mek-ess-e.yo?*
 Thanksgiving-when delicious-RL food a lot eat-PST-POL

뽕스기빙 때 맛있는 음식 많이 먹었어요?
 ‘Did you eat a lot of food on Thanksgiving Day?’

2 Ss: *ney.*
 yes

네|.
 ‘Yes.’

3 T: *chilmyenco mek-ess-e.yo.*
 turkey eat-PST-POL

칠면조 먹었어요?
 ‘Did you eat turkey?’

4 SE: *ney.*
 yes

네|.
 ‘Yes.’

5 T: *thekhi chilmyenco?*
 turkey turkey

터키, 칠면조?
 ‘Turkey, turkey?’

6 MI: *ney.*
yes

네
'Yes.'

7 T: *ce-nun chilmyenco malko chikhin wing mek-ess-nuntey.*
I-TC turkey not chicken wing eat-PST-but

저는 칠면조 말고, 치킨 윙 먹었는데.
'I ate chicken wings instead of turkey.'

8 Ss: ha ha ha ha

9 T: *chilmyenco-nun nemwu khe-se ce-lang waiphu-ka ta*
turkey-TC too big-because I-and wife-NM all

10 *mek-ul swu eps-e.yo.*
eat-PRS way cannot-POL

칠면조는 너무 커서 저랑 와이프가 다 먹을 수 없어요.
'Turkeys are too big so I can't eat it all with my wife.'

11 *ca, kulemyen tasi umsik yayki. paykyuksipsam peyici,*
okay then again food talk. 163 page

자, 그러면 다시 음식 얘기. 163 페이지.
'Okay, then, back to the discussion of food. Page 163.'

→ 12 *wuli cinan cwu-ey kongpwuha-n ke tasi han pen poksuphaypo-psita.*
we last week-during study-RL thing again one time review-SMF

우리 지난 주에 공부한 거 다시 한 번 복습해봅시다.
'Let's review what we studied last week.'

13 (pointing to a student) *chayk, twu salam khati po-si-ko.*
book two people together see-SH-and

책, 두 사람 같이 보시고.
'You two, please share the textbook.'

14 *ca, keki mikwuk salam-hako hankwuksalam-i nao-cyo?*
okay there American-and Korean-NM appear-right

자, 거기 미국 사람하고 한국 사람이 나오죠?
'Okay, an American and a Korean appear in the reading, right?'

15 *mikwuk salam ilum-un mwe-yess-supnikka?*
American name-TC what-PST-DEF

미국 사람 이름은 뭐였습니까?
'What was the American person's name?'

16 S: *sukhwimisi ssi.*
Squeamish Mr.

스퀴미시 씨
'Mr. Squeamish.'

17 T: *sukhwimisi ssi-ka iss-ess-ko, sukhwimil ssi-nun namca-yess-e.yo?*
Squeamish Mr.-NM to be-PST-and Squeamish Mr.-TC male-PST-POL

스퀴미시 씨가 있었고, 스퀴밀 씨는 남자였어요?
'There was Mr. Squeamish, and was Mr. Squeamish a male?'

In line 1, the teacher opens up an informal conversation by asking the students whether they had eaten a lot on Thanksgiving Day. Here, the teacher uses the polite style, which he generally uses to address students. In line 2, the students respond by saying *ney* 'yes'. Then, the teacher continues with the off-task talk by saying he ate chicken wings instead of turkey because he and his wife cannot finish one entire turkey by themselves. This teacher's humorous remark results in laughter among students in line 8. By engaging students in a non-serious, informal dialogue, the teacher attempts to form a warm and intimate bond with his students. In line 11, the teacher closes the off-task dialogue about Thanksgiving Day by asking students to turn to page 163 in their textbook. Then, drawing on the *-(u)psita* form, he opens the main activity, which is reviewing the reading that was covered during the last lesson. The *-(u)psita* form used in this situation indexes the teacher's objective attitude and professional persona because it indicates the social distance between the teacher and his students. This distance in turn contributes to the teacher's ability to organize his instruction by controlling the flow of information.

Once the teacher launches a new topic in the *-(u)psita* form, he shifts back to the polite style to continue with his instruction by asking students questions about the reading, such as *ca, keki mikwuk salam-hako hankwuksalam-i nao-cyo?* ‘Okay, an American and a Korean appear in the reading, right?’. When there is no response from the students, in line 15, the teacher asks a question about the reading, using the *-(sup)nikka* form, which is the interrogative form of the deferential style (Sohn, 1999). Here, the teacher shifts to a more formal and authoritative form, the deferential style, with a louder voice to get the students’ attention and elicit their response. This deferential style contributes to the teacher’s assertive tone. In line 16, a student provides a minimal response by saying *sukhwimisi ssi* ‘Mr. Squeamish’. During this transition period, the teacher controls most of the speech turns by asking the class questions (Walsh, 2011).

What is also noticeable in this example is that it illustrates a mixed style. The extract demonstrates that the teacher alternates his speech style moment by moment in an ongoing interaction with students, by drawing on the polite style, the semi-formal style, and the deferential style. The teacher does so to interactively accommodate the addressees and be highly engaged in teaching the lesson. After announcing a topic shift, in line 12, the teacher subsequently switches his speech style to the polite style and then the deferential style, with the *-(sup)nikka* form, and then later shifts back to the polite style, the *-yo* form, in line 17. The use of formal speech styles, including the semi-formal, polite, and deferential styles, demonstrates the speaker’s awareness and recognition of the audience as well as his institutional identity as a teacher.

In summary, teachers occasionally use the *-(u)psita* form to mark a transition from off-task talk to on-task talk and to deliver instruction in a more formal and straightforward way that

contrasts with their usual use of the polite style. Next, in Section 6.4.2, I will examine how teachers accomplish transitions between on-task activities through the use of the *-(u)psita* form.

6.3.2 On-task activity to another on-task activity

The following excerpt illustrates a teacher's use of the *-(u)psita* form in implementing an inter-activity shift where the teacher closes the ongoing activity and starts a new one. Prior to the conversation, the teacher and students were discussing activities parents and children can do together to overcome intergenerational gaps. In the excerpt, the teacher closes the ongoing discussion by responding to a student's question about a kind of snack that is popular with older Koreans, and then moving on to a new discussion topic, the World Cup. By explicitly stating a shift from one discussion topic to another, the teacher enables the students to pay attention to the structures of the activities and reduces the possibility of them misunderstanding what exactly is being discussed.

Excerpt 6.4 presents a process in which the teacher and students co-construct a transition through communication and participation. The teacher coordinates both verbal and non-verbal actions to mark the transition, while the students display their understanding of the new activity being launched.

Excerpt 6.4: World Cup (Teacher B, KOR 401)

- 1 JD: *phallama-ey-to kuke phal-a.yo?*
 Palama-at-also that sell-POL
- 팔라마에도 그거 팔아요?
 'Is this sold at Palama?'
- 2 T: *phallama-ey-to phal-a.yo. kunikka twungkulkey toyeiss-nun-kes-to*
 Palama-at-also sell-POL so round be made-RL-thing-also
- 3 *iss-ko kangnayng-i-lako pwull-e.yo. al-keyss-e.yo?*
 have-and corn snack-be-QT call-POL know-may-POL

팔라마에도 팔아요. 그니까 둥글게 되어있는 것도 있고 강냉이라고 불리요.
알겠어요?

‘Yes, they sell it. So, there are round-shaped types and they are called corn snacks.
Do you understand?’

4 *ca,* *kulemyen,* *ta* *toy-ss-ko...*
okay then everything finish-PST-and

5 *cilmwun eps-cyo?*
question not have-POL

자, 그러면, 다 됐고... 질문 없죠?

‘Okay, that’s it for now... You don’t have questions, right?’

6 *cilmwun iss-e.yo?*
question have-POL

질문 있어요?

‘Do you have any questions?’

7 ((The class remains silent.))

→ 8 T: (picking up the textbook) *o kwa han pen phye po-psita. sa kwa.*
5 lesson once open look-SMF 4 lesson

오 과 한 번 펴 봅시다. 사 과.

‘Let’s turn to lesson 5. Lesson 4.’

9 *ca,* *weltukhep-i* *encey* *ilena-ss-e.yo?*
okay World Cup-NM when happen-PST-POL

자, 월드컵이 언제 일어났어요?

‘Okay, when did World Cup happen?’

10 *encey kaychoy toy-ess-e.yo?*
when take place-PST-POL

언제 개최되었어요?

‘When did it take place?’

11 SO: Past summer.

12 JD: *icheni-nyen.*
2002-year

2002 년.
'In 2002.'

13 JD: *wenlay* *hankwuk* *weltukhep-iy-ess-nuntay* *ilpon-i*
originally Korea worldcup-be-PST-but Japan-NM

14 *kkiyetu-nun palamey...* *ilpon-i* *kkiyetul-ekaciko...*
intervene-because Japan-NM intervene-because

원래 한국 월드컵이었는데 일본이 끼어드는 바람에... 일본이
끼어들어가지고...

'Korea was originally going to host the (2002 FIFA) World Cup, but because Japan
intervened...because Japan intervened...'

The excerpt begins with a student asking the teacher a question. After responding to this question, the teacher ends the ongoing discussion by explicitly stating closure with *ca, kulemyen, ta toy-ss-ko* 'Okay, that's it for now' (line 4), and asking the class if there are any questions (lines 5–6). This teacher-initiated question encodes a transition point by indexing the ending of an activity and implying the teacher's readiness to shift to a new activity. Then, in line 8, while picking up the textbook, the teacher shifts to the *-(u)psita* form to open a new discussion on the World Cup by saying *o kwa han pen phye po-psita. sa kwa* 'Let's turn to lesson 5. Lesson 4'. Using this form, the teacher proposes a collective course of action for the class. The use of the *-(u)psita* form in an on-task context frames the utterance as an official statement (Geyer, 2008), and reinforces the institutional student-teacher roles. By shifting to the *-(u)psita* form, the teacher delivers instruction in a more formal and straightforward way.

Once the teacher launches a new topic in the *-(u)psita* form, she shifts back to the polite style to continue with her instruction by asking students questions, such as *ca weltukhep-i encey ilena-ss-e.yo?* 'When did it take place?' (lines 9–10). The students then align with the teacher's suggested next action by behaving and responding in a relevant manner. In line 11, the student SO provides a minimal positive confirmation in English, "Past summer." In line 12, the student

JD answers when the World Cup was held by saying *icheni-nyen* ‘in 2002’. Then, in lines 13–14, he further explains how Korea and Japan got to co-host the 2002 FIFA World Cup. Here, students reinforce the teacher’s authority by displaying their institutionally sanctioned identity through accepting the transition and getting involved in appropriate ways in the activity proposed. Thus, the boundaries of talk in the classroom are co-constructed by the teacher proposing an activity shift and by students participating in the new activity. What is also noticeable in this excerpt is the extended nature of the inter-activity transition. Notice that prior to announcing the new activity, the teacher explicitly states the closure of the previous activity (line 4) and twice asks the whole class if there are any questions (lines 5–6). Thus, the “seams” (Jacknick, 2011, p. 24) between activities are far apart, allowing students sufficient time to process information and mentally get ready for the next activity.

Consider the next example in which a male teacher uses the *-(u)psita* form when making a transition from one activity to another activity. The topic of the ongoing lesson is email communication and proper email etiquette. That day, students were required to read an article on email communication and discuss why they use email and how often they check their email. After the group discussion on the reading, the teacher launches a new activity of discussing email etiquette. The *-(u)psita* form serves to manage moving to the next phase of the same activity. Excerpt 6.5 demonstrates how the teacher brings relevant context from the previous activity to the next, which contributes to achieving a smooth transition.

Excerpt 6.5: Email etiquette (Teacher C, KOR 401)

- | | | | | | | | | |
|---|----|-----------------------|-----------------|----------------------|----------------|-------------|---------------|--------------|
| 1 | T: | <u>ca</u> , | <i>yelepwun</i> | <i>imeyil</i> | <i>pothong</i> | <i>elma</i> | <i>elmana</i> | <i>cacwu</i> |
| | | okay | everyone | email | usually | how much | how much | often |
| 2 | | <i>cheykephay-yo?</i> | | <i>hwakinhay-yo?</i> | | | | |
| | | check-POL | | check-POL | | | | |

자, 여러분, 이메일 보통 얼마 얼마나 자주 체크해요? 확인해요?
 ‘Okay, everyone, how often do you check your email?’

3 SH: *mayil.*
 everyday

매일.
 ‘Everyday.’

((lines 4–10 omitted))

11 WI: *mayil-mata.*
 everyday-every

매일마다.
 ‘Everyday.’

12 T: *ca,* (0.2) *wuli-ka* *imeyil-ul* *manhi sayongha-nikka*
 okay we-NM email-ACC a lot use-since

13 *eythikheys-i* *iss-e.ya toy-keyss-cyo.* *yelepwun-i* *sayngkakha-nun*
 etiquette-NM have-must-may-POL everyone-NM think-RL

14 *imeyil* *eythikheys-i* *iss-na-yo?*
 email etiquette-NM have-Q-POL

자, 우리가 이메일을 많이 사용하니까 에티켓이 있어야 되겠죠. 여러분이 생각하는 이메일 에티켓이 있나요?
 ‘Okay, since we use a lot of email, we need to learn proper etiquette. Can you think of examples of email etiquette?’

15 (moving his arm in a circular clockwise motion) *tolaka-myense*
 go around-while

→ 16 *han pen* *yaykihaypo-psita.*
 one time discuss-SMF

돌아가면서 한 번 얘기해봅시다.
 ‘Let’s discuss it as we go around.’

17 *teyipitu-ssi-ka* *sayngkakha-nun...* *ike-n* *kkok* *cikhy-e.yatoy-n-ta.*
 David-Mr.-NM think-RL this-TC surely observe-must-IN-DC

데이비드 씨가 생각하는 이걸 꼭 지켜야된다.
 ‘The (etiquette) that David is thinking about... This has to be observed.’

The excerpt starts with the teacher asking his students how often they check their email. Here, he uses the polite style – the style that the teacher generally uses when delivering a lesson. Upon the students’ responses to his question (lines 3–11), the teacher attempts to close the current discussion on how often students check their email, and move on to a new activity within the same topic area, where students have to individually present their ideas on email etiquette. What is interesting in this excerpt is that during the transition period, the teacher establishes a link between the previous activity and the next. Notice that in lines 12–14, the teacher begins his introduction of the new topic by defining the issue and posing a question to the entire class: *ca, wuli-ka imeyil-ul manhi sayongha-nikka eythikheys-i iss-e.ya toy-keyss-cyo? yelepwun-i sayngkakha-nun imeyil eythikheys-i iss-na-yo?* ‘Okay, since we use a lot of email, we need to learn proper etiquette. Can you think of examples of email etiquette?’. This information is particularly relevant in the context of transition because it bridges two activities and allows one activity to flow into another without any breaks in the delivery of the lesson.

Then, in line 16, the teacher launches the new activity by shifting to the *-(u)psita* form while moving his arm in a circular clockwise motion, saying *tolaka-myense han pen yaykihaypop-sita* ‘Let’s discuss it as we go around’. Here, the *-(u)psita* form occurring with the teacher’s bodily movement clearly highlights the start of the new activity – going around the class to hear everyone’s ideas. In line 17, the teacher nominates an individual student, David, to present his ideas to the class. The right to make a transition and to designate the next speaker is a means of implementing authority (Keevallik, 2010). In this example, the teacher structures the transition effectively with the relevant contextual information, use of a discourse marker *ca* ‘okay’, and body movement along with the *-(u)psita* form to move students from one activity to another activity.

Excerpt 6.6 illustrates a process of shifting from one activity to another activity. At the beginning of that day's lesson, two students were required to give three-minute speeches on topics of their choice. After the student presentations, the teacher reviewed important vocabulary and cultural concepts that were brought up by the speeches. Then, the teacher launches a new activity of reading an article on *swundae* ('Korean sausage'). *Swundae* is a Korean pork sausage filled with boiled sweet rice, pig's blood, and sweet potato noodles, which is sold by various restaurants and street vendors. Excerpt 6.6 presents the process in which the teacher shifts to the next activity, using the *-(u)psita* form.

Excerpt 6.6: *Swundae* 'Korean sausage' (Teacher G, KOR 401)

((A student, J, delivered a three-minute speech about his future dreams.))

- 1 T: (looking at JO) *cosyuya ssi-nun kongpwu-lul yelsimhi hayya-keyss-ney-yo?*
Joshua Mr.-TC study-ACC hard must do-may-POL

조슈아 씨는 공부를 열심히 해야겠네요.
'Joshua, you must study hard.'

- 2 *meytikhel sukhwul ka-lye-myen.*
medical school go-if

메디컬 스쿨 가려면.
'If you want to go to medical school.'

- 3 JO: *ney.*
yes

네.
'Yes.'

- 4 *kuliko, hankwuk-un pieyi-pwuthe meytikhel-ul, uysa toy-nun*
and Korea-TC BA-from medical-ACC doctor become-RL

- 5 *meyice-ka iss-cyo?*
major-NM exist-POL

BA 부터 메디컬을, 의사 되는 major 가 있죠?
'And, in Korea, there is a bachelor's degree in medicine, right?'

6 *kulayse, kuke-l icey uyyeykwa-lako ha-nuntey-yo.*
 so that-ACC now medical department-to be called-but-POL

그래서 그걸 이제 의예과라고 하는데요.
 ‘So, that’s called *uyyeykwa* (medical school).’

7 *kuntey, mikwuk-un icey ta kuleycyueyis sukhwul-i-cyo.*
 but America-TC now all graduate school-be-POL

근데 미국은 이제 다 graduate school 이죠.
 ‘But, in America, they’re all graduate schools.’

8 *pieyi tikuli pat-un hwu-ey ka-cyo.*
 BA degree earn-RL after-at go-POL

9 *kulayse mikuk-eyse-nun meytikhel sukhwul-ul*
 so America-in-TC medical school-ACC

BA degree 받은 후에 가죠. 미국에서는 medical school 을.
 ‘People go (to medical school) after earning a BA degree.’

10 *hankwukmal-lo ha-myen uyhak tayhak animyen uyhak tayhakwen,*
 Korean-in say-if medical school or medical graduate school

11 *tayhakwen-i kuleycyueyis sukhwul-i-cyo.*
 graduate school-NM graduate school-to be-POL

그래서 미국에서는 medical school 을 한국말로 하면 의학대학 아니면
 의학대학원, 대학원이 graduate school 이죠.
 ‘So, in Korean, medical school is called *uyhaktayhak* (medical school) or *uyhak
 tayhakwen* (medical graduate school). *tayhakwen* is graduate school.’

12 *kulayse meytikhel sukhwul-un pieyi kaci-n,*
 so medical school-TC BA possess-RL

13 *pieyi iss-nun salam-man ka-l swu iss-cyo.*
 BA have-RL person-only go-PRS can-POL

그래서 medical school 은 BA 가진, BA 있는 사람만 갈 수 있죠.
 ‘So, people who already have a BA can go to medical school, right.’

14 *kulayse, uyhak tayhakwen, uyhak-ilan mal-un meytikhel.*
 so medical graduate school medicine-called word-TC medical

그래서 의학대학원, 의학이란 말은 medical.
'So, in the word *uyhak tayhakwen*, *uyhak* means medical, right?'

15 *ku-chyo?* *ilehkey* *malha-myen* *toy-pnita*.
right-POL? this way speak-if can-DEF

그쵸? 이렇게 말하면 됩니다.
'Right? You can say this way.'

16 *onul* *elyewun* *tane-lul* *manhi* *kongpwuhay-ss-cyo?*
today difficult-RL word-ACC a lot study-PST-POL

오늘 어려운 단어를 많이 공부했죠?
'We studied a lot of difficult vocabulary, right?'

17 *okheyi,* *kulemyen* *tasi,* *elyewu-n* *yayki* *malko* *swuntae* *yaykil-ul*
okay then again difficult-RL talk not Korean sausage talk-ACC

→ 18 *tasi* *haypo-psita*.
again do-SMF

오케이, 그러면 다시, 어려운 얘기 말고 순대 얘기를 다시 해봅시다.
'Okay, then, again, let's talk about *swundae* instead of difficult talk.'

19 Ss: ha ha ha ha

Prior to the excerpt, a student, JO, gave a three-minute speech about his dream – becoming a pediatrician. He discussed what inspired him to want to become a medical doctor and what efforts he has been making to achieve that goal. After the student finished presenting, the teacher responds by saying *cosyuya ssi-nun kongpwu-lul yelsimhi hayya-keyss-ney-yo* 'Joshua, you must study hard' in the polite style. Upon the student's acknowledgement in line 3, the teacher discusses the differences between Korea and America in terms of the medical school system in lines 4–9. He highlights the fact that, in Korea, people can become doctors after completing their BA in medical school whereas, in the US, people must go to a graduate school to obtain a medical degree. In lines 10–14, he covers the essential vocabulary such as *uyhak tayhak* 'medical school'.

What is interesting in this excerpt is that the teacher employs the sentence ender *-cyo* to explain relevant vocabulary and concepts in lines 5, 7, 8, 11, 13, and 15. *-cyo* is a contracted form of the suppositive *-ci* and the polite sentence ender *-yo*. Sohn (1999) claims that, in interrogatives, the function of *-ci* is to seek agreement, much like a tag question in English. In this excerpt, the teacher continuously uses *-cyo* to seek agreement from students, assuming that students already possess knowledge of what he is saying. Using *-cyo* is a strategy to make students more actively involved in the instruction and heighten their cooperation in the classroom activity (Kim, 2007). In line 15, the teacher shifts to the deferential style, the *-(su)pnita* form, to conclude his preceding utterances. The use of the deferential style adds to his authoritative stance. In line 16, the teacher ends the vocabulary lesson by asking a confirmation question using *-ci*, in *onul elyewun tane-lul manhi kongpwuhay-ss-cyo?* ‘We studied a lot of difficult vocabulary, right?’. This line can be understood as closing the previous talk on the medical programs and preparing to start the next phase of the lesson.

Then, the teacher introduces a lesson topic on *swundae* (‘Korean sausage’), shifting to the *-(u)psita* form. The shift to the *-(u)psita* form indicates the opening of another topic, signaling the teacher’s intent to transition to the next phase of instruction. The use of the *-(u)psita* form occurs along with other contextualization cues (Gumperz, 1992) in the utterance-initial position: the borrowing from English *okheyi* ‘okay’, *kulemyen* ‘then’, and *tasi* ‘again’. These discourse markers work together with the *-(u)psita* form to draw students’ attention and help them recognize a discourse boundary where a new on-task topic starts. The students’ laughter in line 19 shows their recognition of the transition.

In summary, in this excerpt, the transition from one on-task activity to another on-task activity is accompanied by teacher turns that close the previous conversation (line 16) and that

explicitly refer to the upcoming activity, marked by the *-(u)psita* form (line 18). To make the transition more salient, the teacher also uses various other contextualization cues.

So far, I have discussed the inter-activity transitions, which involve the closing of one activity and the opening of a new activity. As shown in Excerpts 6.1–6.6, by using the *-(u)psita* form, teachers mark a new activity and have students become prepared for engaging in the next activity by enabling them to understand what activity will be coming next and their role in the activity. In what follows, I will illustrate intra-activity transitions. In KFL classrooms, the *-(u)psita* form is occasionally used as a resource to announce a boundary within the course of an activity; in such cases, it marks the beginning of the next stage of the same activity.

6.4 Intra-Activity Transitions

Excerpt 6.7 provides an instance in which a male teacher adopts the *-(u)psita* form during an intra-activity transition. The lesson was about the language of appearance. Prior to the interaction in the excerpt, the teacher went over the vocabulary and expressions related to faces (e.g., round, oval, oblong, base-down triangle, base-up triangle) while showing pictures on a screen. In the conversation below, the teacher tries to trigger students' knowledge of a descriptive vocabulary item *ki-n elkwul* 'long face' by asking them questions (e.g., 'Is there a celebrity with a long face?'). This excerpt particularly shows the ways in which the teacher determines the appropriate time to terminate one stage of an activity and initiate a new stage of the same activity.

Excerpt 6.7: Face shape (Teacher A, KOR 380)

((The teacher is changing the on-screen picture.))

1 T: *ki-n elkwul, elkwul ki-n salam nwukwu iss-e.yo?*
long-RL face face long-RL person who exist-POL

긴 얼굴, 얼굴 긴 사람 누구 있어요?
'Long face, is there a person with a long face?'

2 ((Students are looking at the on-screen picture))

3 Ss: ha ha ha ha ha ha

4 T: *ney.* (talking to himself) *tto* *nwukwu* *eps-na?*
yes again who not exist-INT

네, 또 누구 없나?
'Yes, isn't there anyone else?'

5 (1.0)

6 *elkwul ki-n salam, yenyeyin-tul cwungey-to*
face long-RL person celebrity-PL among-also

7 *elkwul ki-n salam nwukwu iss-ci anh-a.yo?*
face long-RL person who exist-NOM not-POL

얼굴 긴 사람, 연예인들 중에도 얼굴 긴 사람 누구 있지 않아요?
'A person with a long face, isn't there a person amongst these celebrities with a long face?'

8 (1.0)

9 T: *eps-e.yo?*
not exist-POL

없어요?
'There isn't any?'

10 (1.0)

11 (turning to the next picture) *ca,* *kulemyen,* *meli*
okay, then, hair

→ 12 *moyang po-psita.*
style look-SMF

자, 그러면, 머리 모양 봅시다.
'Okay, then, let's look at hair styles.'

In line 1, the teacher starts the conversation by asking whether or not there is a celebrity with a long face, *elkwul ki-n salam nwukwu iss-e.yo?* ‘Is there a person with a long face?’. Here, the teacher uses the polite style, as he addresses this question to the entire class. The students recognize this question as funny, evidenced by their laughing in the next line. Then, in lines 4–7, the teacher asks the same question in different ways in an attempt to generate class participation. In line 9, because the teacher still has not drawn any answers from the students, he asks a confirmation question to the students, *eps-e.yo?* ‘Aren’t there any?’, to give students a last chance to respond. However, there is still no response (line 10). This teacher-initiated question serves as a pre-closing move (Hellermann, 2008), which indicates to the students that the teacher intends to move on to the next item. In this situation, the teacher interprets the absence of the students’ contribution to the current topic as the proper time to disengage from the previous interaction on “faces” and move on to a new discussion topic, that is, “hair style.”

In lines 11–12, the teacher launches a new discussion topic by saying *ca, kulemyen, meli moyang po-psita* ‘Okay, then, let’s look at hair styles’ in the *-(u)psita* form. The *-(u)psita* form works here as a transition device to a new phase of an activity because it invites students to engage in a joint action, that is, discussing hair styles. In addition, by using the *-(u)psita* form, the teacher makes salient his right to decide on the exact timing for when transitions within the course of an activity should be carried out. Prior to the *-(u)psita* sentence, there are other signals that mark the ending of an activity: discourse markers that can be considered prefatory to announcing an activity shift (Schegloff, 1996), *ca* ‘okay’ and *kulemyen* ‘then’, along with the non-verbal behavior of turning to the next picture on the screen.

In the following excerpt, the teacher uses the *-(u)psita* form to index the next stage of the activity. Prior to the conversation, the teacher provided a handout and asked students to do the

grammar exercises on it in small groups. Because the propositive *-(u)psita* form means “let’s,” it functions to bring the whole class back together in a joint action after the small group activity; in the conversation below, the teacher uses the form to invite students to go over the answers together as a class. This use of the form designates activity sequences within the same topic and conveys the teacher’s professional identity.

Excerpt 6.8: Bank account (Teacher B, KOR 401)

((The teacher goes around the class and asks students to do a grammar exercise.))

1 T: *ca, cwunpitoy-myen kulwup pyel-lo hana-ssik, han myeng ssik*
 okay be ready-if group per-by means of one-per one person per

nawa-se wen thwu ssuli hana-ssik phwu-sey-yo. mwuncang hana-ssik.
 come out-and one two three one-per solve-SH-POL sentence one-per

자, 준비되면 그룹별로 하나씩, 한 명씩 나와서 원 투 쓰리 하나씩 푸세요.
 문장 하나씩.

‘Okay, if you are ready, one person from each group should come out and solve problems 1, 2, and 3 (on the whiteboard). One sentence each.’

2 JE: (referring to her handout) *sensayngnim, payngkhu ekhawunthu-ka mwe-yey-yo?*
 teacher bank account-NM what-be-POL

선생님, बैंक 어카운트가 뭐예요?

‘Teacher, what is a bank account (in Korean)?.’

3 T: *ney? payngkhu ekhawunthu? unhayng, unhayng thongcang.*
 yes bank account bank bank book

네? बैंक 어카운트? 은행, 은행 통장

‘Yes? Bank account? Bank, bank book.’

4 *a, ani, ani-ya. unhayng, unhayng kyeycwa. ney, ney. com elyep-cyo?*
 oh no no-INT bank bank account yes yes a little difficult-POL

아, 아니, 아니야. 은행, 은행 계좌. 네, 네. 좀 어렵죠?

‘Ah, no, no. Bank, bank account. Yes, yes. (It’s) a little hard, right?’

5 *kuntey, nay ekhawunthu-lako-to manhi ha-nun kes kath-a.yo.*
 but my account-called-also a lot say-RL thing seem-POL

근데, 내 어카운트라고도 많이 하는 것 같아요.
'But, it's also often called my account.'

6 *nay unhayng ekhawunthu-lako-to ha-nuntey, wenlay hankwukmal-lo-nun*
my bank account-called-also say-but originally Korean-in-TC

7 *ilehkey ikes-to kyey, kyeyceng-un imeyil ekhawunthu-ko*
this way this-also account-TC email account-and

8 *kyeycwa-nun unhayng, payngkhu ekhawunthu-ka toy-cyo.*
account-TC bank bank account-NM become-POL

내 은행 어카운트라고도 하는데 원래 한국말로는 이렇게 이것도 계,
계정은 이메일 어카운트고 계좌는 은행, 뱅크 어카운트가 되죠.
'It's called my account, but originally in Korean, *kyeyceng* is an email account,
and *kyeycwa* is a bank account.'

9 ER: *sensayngnim, cilmwun.*
teacher question

선생님, 질문
'Teacher, (I have) a question.'

10 T: *mwe, mwe-ka elyew-e.yo?*
what, what-NM difficult-POL

뭐, 뭐가 어려워요?
'What, what is difficult?'

11 MI: This is hard!

→ 12 T: *ca, kathi ha-psita.*
okay together do-SMF

자, 같이 합시다.
'Okay, let's do it together.'

13 ER: Why is it 6 all of a sudden?

14 T: *a, ce, thaipo.*
ah well typo

아, 저, 타이포.
'Ah, well, (it's) a typo.'

In line 1, the teacher asks each group to come up to the whiteboard and write the answers. Then, in line 2, a student, JE, asks the teacher what a bank account is in Korean. In lines 3–8, the teacher responds to the student’s question. Then, in line 9, a student, JE, attempts to ask another question regarding the exercise. In line 10, the teacher says *mwe, mweka elyew-e.yo?* ‘What, what is difficult?’ in the polite style. In line 11, another student, MI, shows frustration, saying that the exercises are hard. Because the students seem to be having difficulty solving the grammar exercises, the teacher in line 12 proposes that they go over the answers together, shifting to the *-(u)psita* form. The teacher possibly uses *(u)psita* instead of a declarative form here to suggest that he and the students are engaged in a joint action; if the students find the lesson difficult, he proposes, they will all work on them together as the next stage of the activity. Simultaneously, he expresses his professional identity and maintains his distance by remaining objective, disengaged, and rational in dealing with the subject matter.

Excerpt 6.9 provides another example in which the same teacher shifts to the *-(u)psita* form to make a smooth transition between subtopics during an IRF activity. In the conversation below, the teacher starts the lesson by asking the students to describe the physical appearance of the characters portrayed in a Korean TV drama called “My Lovely Samsong.” The purpose of the activity is to enable the students to make accurate descriptions using appropriate vocabulary and expressions. In Excerpt 6.9, the teacher goes around the classroom and asks each student to contribute an item about the character Jinwon’s physical appearance (e.g., clothes, hair style, face) while looking at images in a PowerPoint.

Excerpt 6.9: Face shape (Teacher A, KOR 380)

((The teacher is changing the on-screen picture.))

1	T:	<i>Stephanie</i>	<i>ssi</i>	<i>Jinwon.i-ey tayhayse</i>	<i>yayki-haypo-sey-yo.</i>
		Stephanie	HT	Jinwon.i-about	talk-try-SH-POL

스테파니 씨, 진윈이에 대해서 얘기해보세요.
'Stephanie, please talk about Jinwon.'

2 It does not have to be what he wears. It could be the shape of his face.

3 ST: *cal sayngky-ess-e.yo.*
well look-PST-POL

잘 생겼어요.
'He's handsome.'

4 Ss: ha ha ha ha ha ha ha

5 T: *cal sayngky-ess-e.yo. ney. okeyi. Jay ssi.* Are you okay with that?
well look-PST-POL yes okay Jay HT

잘 생겼어요. 네. 오케이. 제이 씨, are you okay with that?
'He's handsome. Yes. Okay. Jay, are you okay with that?'

6 Ss: ha ha ha ha ha

7 JA: *aph meli-lul seyw-ess-e.yo.*
front hair-AC make stand-PST-POL

앞머리를 세웠어요.
'He's got his hair spiked in front.'

8 T: *ney. aph meli-lul seyw-ess-e.yo. aph meli-lul seyw-ess-e.yo.*
Yes front hair-AC make stand-PST-POL front hair-AC make stand-PST-POL

네. 앞머리를 세웠어요. 앞머리를 세웠어요.
'Yes. He's got his hair spiked in front. He's got his hair spiked in front.'

9 *Tanya ssi etten elkwul-i-nke kath-a.yo?*
Tanya HT what kind face-be-seem like-POL

탄야 씨, 어떤 얼굴인 거 같아요?
'Tanya, what kind of face shape does he seem to have?'

10 TA: *yek samkakyeng.*
reverse triangle

역 삼각형
'Reversed triangle.'

11 T: *yek samkakhhyeng. ilehkey po-nikka yek samkakhhyeng kath-cyo?*
 reverse triangle this way see-as reverse triangle seem like-POL

역 삼각형. 이렇게 보니까 역 삼각형 같죠?
 ‘Reverse triangle. As we look at it this way, it looks like a reverse triangle.
 Right?’

12 T: *coh-supnita.*
 good-DEF

좋습니다.
 ‘Good.’

((lines 13–22 are omitted.))

→ 23 *ca, Heejiin.i-ey tayhayse iyaki haypo-psita. (0.5) Hyuna ssi.*
 okay Heejin-about talk try-SMF Hyuna HT

자, 희진이에 대해서 이야기 해봅시다. 현아 씨.
 ‘Okay. Let’s talk about Heejin, Hyuna.’

24 HY: *nulssinhay-yo.*
 slim-POL

늘씬해요.
 ‘She’s slim.’

25 T: *ney. coh-supnita. Keylen ssi.*
 Yes good-DEF Karen HT

네. 좋습니다.
 ‘Yes. Good. Karen.’

26 KA: *kin weyibu meli-ka iss-e.yo.*
 long wave hair-NM exist-POL

긴 웨이브 머리가 있어요.
 ‘She has long wavy hair.’

In line 1, the teacher begins a new activity by nominating a student, ST, to describe the male character, Jinwon. In line 2, ST says he is handsome, which results in laughter among the students in the classroom. Then, the teacher asks the next student, JA, if he agrees by saying “Are you okay with that?”. This question also leads to laughter among the students. Then, JA

contributes to the ongoing discussion by describing Jinwon's hair style. After repeating what JA said in line 8, the teacher asks another student, TA, about Jinwon's face shape. After TA responds *yek samkakhyeng* 'reversed triangle', the teacher provides a positive evaluation of her utterance using the deferential style: *coh-supnita* 'Good'. In lines 13–20, omitted in the excerpt, the teacher continues nominating students to talk about Jinwon. In line 23, the teacher shifts his speech style to the *-(u)psita* form in order to move on to another topic within the ongoing activity, discussing a female character, Heejin: *ca, Hicin.i-ey tayhayse iyaki haypo-psita. Hyuna ssi* 'Okay. Let's talk about Heejin. Hyuna.'

By using a discourse marker *ca* 'okay' along with the *-(u)psita* form, the teacher calls the attention of the students and opens a new subtopic by initiating an interaction with a student, HY. In other words, the teacher moves the students as a cohort from one topic to another – from describing the appearance of Jinwon to describing the appearance of Heejin. The nominated student immediately goes on with the new task in line 24. With this shift, the teacher and students can achieve a collaborative understanding of what is going on in the classroom, which is crucial for this moment in classroom interaction. The use of the *-(u)psita* form following the discourse marker, *ca* 'okay', and the specific student nomination all work together to encode a transition point implying the teacher's readiness to shift to a new subtopic.

Excerpt 6.10 illustrates another example of a teacher using the *-(u)psita* form to terminate one stage of an activity and initiate a new stage of the same activity. This excerpt is a continuation from Excerpt 6.3. In contrast to the other excerpts, in this excerpt, the teacher's talk lacks the discourse markers that function to make boundaries more salient. The excerpt begins as the teacher engages students in discussing the *hanlyu* phenomenon. *Hanlyu* literally means "Korean wave"; it refers to the surge of popularity of South Korean culture throughout the world.

The first stage of the current activity is defining what *hanlyu* means. After the teacher terminates the first stage of the activity, she shifts to the *-(u)psita* form in order to announce the next stage of the activity, that is, reading lesson objectives. What is noteworthy in this excerpt is that a student experiences difficulty recognizing the subtle transition and copes with the situation by asking the teacher a question.

Excerpt 6.10: Korean wave (Teacher B, KOR 401)

1 T: *hanlyu-ka mwen-ci al-ko iss-e.yo?*
Korean wave-NM what-NOM know-and exist-POL

한류가 뭐 지 알고 있어요?
'Do you know what *hanlyu* is?'

2 SO: Yes.

3 JW: Korean [wave

4 JD: [Korean wave

5 T: *hanlyu yelpwung.*
Korean wave popularity

한류 열풍
'Popularity of Korean culture.'

6 *yekise han-un hankwuk-i-la-nun mal-i-cyo?*
here *han*-TC Korea-be-DC-RN meaning-be-cyo

여기서 한은 한국이라는 말이죠?
'Here *han* means Korea. Right?'

((lines 7–11 omitted))

12 T: *kuleh-key ha-myen toy-ko.*
that way-AD do-if okay-and

그렇게 하면 되고.
'Having said that.'

→ 13 T: *um::: objective-lul haksupmokphyo-lul han pen ilke-po-psita. =*
well objectives-ACC objectives-ACC one time read-see-SMF

음, 오브젝티브를 학습목표를 한 번 읽어봅시다.
'Well, let's read the objectives.'

14 =*payksip il-ccok, il il il, e, HY-i-ka han pen ilk-e-po-l-kka-yo?*
111-page 1 1 1 eh HY-NM one time read-INF-try-Q-POL

백십 일 쪽 일 일 일, 어, 하영이가 한 번 읽어 볼까요?
'On page 111, would you read, HY?'

15 (1.0)

16 HY: *eti iss-e.yo?*
where be-POL

어디 있어요?
'What page are you on?'

17 T: *payksipil.*

백십일.
'111.'

18 HY: *oh, ha.*

오, 하.
'Oh, ha.'

In line 1, the teacher asks a question that assesses the students' background knowledge, *hanlyu-ka mwen-ci al-ko iss-e.yo?* 'Do you know what *hanlyu* is?'. This question is delivered in the polite style. Upon the teacher's question, the class directs their quiet attention to the teacher and one student, SO, provides a minimal positive confirmation in English, "Yes." In lines 4–5, JW and JD answer by saying "Korean wave" simultaneously. This means all participants are on the same page about the sequencing of the activity. From line 7 to line 11, which are omitted, the teacher delivers information on *hanlyu*, with the persistent use of the polite style, the *-yo* form. After the explanation, the teacher closes the sequence of the activity in line 12 by saying *kuleh-key ha-myen toy-ko* 'having said that'. In line 13, the teacher progresses to the next stage of the activity, reading lesson objectives, by shifting to the *-(u)psita* form. The teacher uses the -

(u)psita form to have the students engage in reading the objectives together. In line 14, the teacher shifts back to the polite style, the *-yo* form, while nominating an individual student, HY, to read the objectives out loud for the class. In this excerpt, the teacher uses the *-(u)psita* form to deliver step-by-step instructions that students are asked to follow and displays her professional role as the instructor, organizing the instruction by marking a transition between activities and within the sequences of an activity.

6.5 Summary

In summary, because the *-(u)psita* form is a propositive and means “let’s,” it is often used to engage students in a joint action. The teachers’ shifts to the *-(u)psita* form tend to emerge in a specific sequence in classroom interaction when there is a transition between topics or within activity sequences, and are linked to particular functions of organizing instruction. This linguistic resource provides the students with knowledge of the boundaries of the topics being discussed. These boundaries are essential; they help students to properly follow instructions and to understand what is going on in class.

In the classroom data collected for this study, the *-(u)psita* form is only found during on-task talk; it is not used to make transitions in off-task talk. As a resource whose classroom use is limited to on-task interactions, the form also conveys the teachers’ professional identity. As shown in the excerpts, the teacher’s objective and professional identity is realized not only by using the *-(u)psita* form but also by deciding the topic of conversation and the structure of the activity carried out during the lesson. This leaves little possibility for negotiation on what is being discussed. Because the teacher has control over topic management (Edwards, 1981), the students seem to understand both what they are supposed to be doing and the importance of keeping the teacher’s talk free of interruptions.

Utilizing effective transitions and presenting a lesson in an orderly manner is an essential task that teachers have to perform throughout the lesson (Icbay, 2011). Previous research suggests that there are both linguistic and non-linguistic devices that can facilitate smooth transitions. As this chapter has shown, the *-(u)psita* form is such a device in Korean. The teachers in this data seem to use this form to effectively suggest that both the speaker (teacher) and the hearers (students) are engaged in a joint action of moving on to the new activity or the next stage of the same activity. When teachers employ the *-(u)psita* form, they address a whole group of students at one time and exercise their right to impose boundaries on the activities of the entire group.

Employed at the activity shifts, the *-(u)psita* form helps emphasize changes in context because the delivery of instruction is usually characterized by the polite style, the *-yo* form, and therefore the use of *-(u)psita* is highly noticeable. Teachers' use of the *-(u)psita* form frames their utterances as on-task and formal. The form successfully serves to bring closure to ongoing discussion and move the whole class on to the next activity because the power-laden tone of the form helps the teacher draw students' attention and achieve the desired student behavior. Furthermore, the findings indicate that transitions are often accompanied not only by the *-(u)psita* form, but also by other elements, such as discourse markers, prosodic cues, and body positioning (Jacknick, 2011; Keevallik, 2010; Seedhouse, 2004). These various features help to make beginnings and endings of activities more salient.

The boundaries between activities or within phases of activities are essential because they help students properly follow instructions and prepare to be involved in the next activity. Teachers' ability to establish clear transitions is consequential for student behavior in the classroom. The role of the students when transitioning is to quietly accept the transitions, stop

what they were doing, and follow the teacher's directions. When transitions are not announced clearly, students may not recognize the boundaries and therefore may fail to react to the teacher's directions. Consequently, teachers who are unable to make transitions effectively may confuse and distract students. Thus, the ability to make smooth transitions between activities and to maintain consistent momentum within activities is crucial to effective classroom management.

Moreover, the *-(u)psita* form used during transitions reinforces the teacher's role as the person who sets the agenda and is responsible for the transitions between the different activities. Even though transitions are a collaborative accomplishment, teachers still control the flow of instruction in a way that serves their purpose. In the classroom, it is generally the teachers who decide the topic of conversation and the structure of the activity carried out during the lesson. Sequences of activities are often structured in a predetermined way according to the pedagogic goal of each learning segment. This leaves little room for negotiation on what is discussed and how much time is going to be given to each activity. Students are expected to accept the boundaries as well as the ordering of activities suggested by their teachers. The occasional use of the *-(u)psita* form, at transitions but rarely elsewhere, may contribute to establishing the authority of a teacher to impose a collective boundary (Keevallik, 2010).

The aim of this chapter is not to present a list of the many teacher practices for making transitions; rather, it describes the interactional practices of four teachers and their students. It is important to note that not every KFL teacher may use the *-(u)psita* form as a transition marker. There is no one particular transition strategy that might apply to all teachers and all situations. Although employing the *-(u)psita* form was found to be one of the strategies that these four participants all used in their teaching, individual teachers have a wide choice of ways to establish activity shifts. Furthermore, following Jacknick (2011), the goal of the present study is not to

provide prescriptive suggestions for teachers with regards to marking boundaries between activities, although raising awareness of teachers' discourse practices in the classroom may help them be aware of their own pedagogical practices and suggest other ways to structure a lesson. Whereas this study adds to the considerable literature on L2 classroom interaction, more research needs to be done on the usage of other linguistic and non-linguistic devices that are used to organize classroom talk. Research on teacher talk with regards to classroom organization is of crucial importance because students are better prepared to absorb new materials when instruction is presented in an orderly manner.

CHAPTER 7

Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This study applies qualitative methods to examine speech style use and shifts among seven teachers in upper-level KFL classrooms at an American university. The qualitative analysis of student-teacher interaction allows detailed examinations of examples involving the phenomenon of teachers' speech style use. The analysis particularly focuses on the patterns of use for the intimate, semi-formal, polite, and deferential styles, and their functions in KFL classroom interaction. This analysis of Korean language classroom discourse reveals how teachers' mixing of Korean speech styles can function as an interactive strategy that enables a teacher to construct different social identities and accomplish communicative goals. In this concluding chapter, I first summarize each analysis chapter (Chapters 4–6). I then explain the implications of this study and make suggestions for future research on Korean speech styles.

7.2 Summary of Analysis Chapters

The analysis chapters provide a comprehensive understanding of which speech styles KFL teachers use and when they employ them in teaching. An indexical approach allowed me to examine speech style use as a resource for performing pedagogical actions and indexing social identities. The findings of Chapter 4 demonstrate that KFL teachers occasionally adopt the intimate style (*panmal*) in diverse contexts, such as when asking self-addressed questions, delivering exclamations, and discussing solidarity-building topics. In KFL classroom settings, teachers' use of the intimate style indexes (1) the speaker's internal thought and (2) the speaker's expression of solidarity with the listeners. Regardless of the teacher's shifts to the intimate style, the students typically maintain the use of the polite style to enact their institutional student roles.

The polite style, a form used in contexts where politeness is called for, is motivated by the dominant institutional ideology that affirms power dynamics in teacher-student relationships. Thus, students observe the socially prescribed linguistic norms, whereas the teachers have some freedom to shift between different speech styles. It should also be noted that these indexical meanings of the intimate style are only some of the social meanings that the intimate style bears. The intimate style in the present data helped to create feelings of solidarity because it was mostly used in pleasant classroom interactions. In other situations, such as face-threatening or unpleasant ones, the intimate style can mark different indexical meanings.

The data analysis presented in Chapter 5 illustrates teachers' use of the honorific speech styles, the polite and deferential styles. The first section of the chapter presents how teachers predominantly use the polite style to deliver instruction. Excerpts included in Chapter 5 highlight the teachers' use of the polite style when explaining concepts, asking students questions related to class activities, stating instructions, and giving orders, which are related to the teachers' roles. The second section of the chapter explores teachers' use of the deferential style. The deferential style tends to be used in contexts in which teachers frame their utterances as formal ones to perform their professional roles while executing an act with authority. This study describes seven uses of the form that were observed in the data: (1) opening the lesson, (2) marking a discourse boundary, (3) positively evaluating students' speech, (4) announcing classroom activities, (5) providing a summary, (6) closing the lesson, and (7) drawing students' attention. These uses of the deferential style differ from those related to a lower-status speaker's deference toward a higher-status person.

Chapter 6 examines teachers' use of the semi-formal speech style by looking at interactions in which the semi-formal style's propositive form, *-(u)psita*, occurs. The data show that teachers occasionally employ the *-(u)psita* form at the boundary between activities or phases of activities to signal to students that the present topic or activity is finished and a new one will start. Utilizing effective transitions and presenting a lesson in an orderly manner is an essential task that teachers have to perform throughout the lesson (Icbay, 2011). The teachers in this data seem to use this form to effectively suggest that both the speaker (teacher) and the hearers (students) are engaged in a joint action of moving on to a new activity or the next stage of the same activity. The meaning of the *-(u)psita* form as the propositive ("let's") and its function (inviting someone to participate in a joint action) work together to accomplish this interactional goal. When teachers employ the *-(u)psita* form, they address a whole group of students at one time and exercise their right to impose boundaries on the activities of the entire group. Furthermore, the findings indicate that transitions are often accompanied not only by the *-(u)psita* form, but also by other contextualization cues, such as discourse markers, prosodic cues, and body positioning (Jacknick, 2011; Keevallik, 2010; Seedhouse, 2004). These various cues were used in the sequential organization of interaction for specific purposes – helping to make the ends of activities more salient.

7.3 Implications of This Study

This study's findings have theoretical and pedagogical implications. First, by focusing on the indexicality of Korean speech styles, this study has challenged stereotypical assumptions about Korean speech styles and demonstrated that the social meanings of speech styles are diverse and context-bound. The traditional views claim that speech style choice is static and predictable, depending on the social relationships between the interlocutors. In this study,

however, I have shown that these social factors are not the only component that determines speech style selections. Rather, contextual factors, including the goal of the situation, teachers' roles, and the content of the conversation, are intricately interwoven with one another and influence the speaker's choice of speech styles in a given context. The findings in this study confirm the results of the recent studies on Korean speech styles that suggest the dynamic and indexical nature of speech style use (Eun & Strauss, 2004; Kim, 2010; Kim & Suh, 2007; Lee, 2000; Park, 2008; Strauss & Eun, 2005; Yoon, 2010; Yun, 2000). Based on the analysis of teacher-student interactions in classroom settings, KFL teachers select speech styles to serve their interactional goals in a given situation. Complete social meanings of speech styles can be found only when they are articulated with actual utterance contexts.

In terms of the methodological rigor of microanalytic qualitative research, this study demonstrates the importance of qualitative analysis of spoken data. The microanalytic qualitative analysis that I used in order to study the speech styles of KFL teachers during classroom instructions involved the process of analyzing the data line-by-line, and identifying occurrences of KFL teachers' speech style shifts as well as occurrences of their identity displays. Traditional studies of Korean speech styles have not included this type of qualitative analysis because they assume that speech styles are either non-honorific or honorific styles, overlooking other social meanings. This study conducted a deeper analysis of the speech style shift phenomenon through the use of microanalytic procedures; by doing so, it revealed aspects of speech style usage that counter the traditional accounts. To my knowledge, this study is one of very few to focus exclusively on speech styles in the KFL context and to document KFL teachers' identity construction through their use of various speech styles.

Finally, this study contributes to the teaching of Korean as a foreign or second language. The analysis of KFL teacher talk provides a better idea of the language that students are exposed to in upper-level KFL classrooms. The findings can ultimately contribute to the design of professional development for teachers by helping teachers become more analytical of their own instructional practices. It is my hope that the outcomes of this study will help teachers use this information in their efforts to provide a richer language environment for students with respect to speech styles. Furthermore, the present study offers implications for language socialization. It confirms the significant role of teacher talk in socializing L2 learners into appropriate use of the target language. The teachers who participated in this study illustrated to students the ways in which both the honorific and non-honorific styles are used and what social meanings they index in the classroom. Thus, students were implicitly socialized into the usage of honorific and non-honorific styles. In particular, by using the intimate style in self-addressed speech and solidarity-building conversations, teachers effectively modeled for students how to ask self-addressed questions, deliver exclamations, and talk to people in a friendly and casual way in the target language.

7.4 Suggestions for Future Research

Since the data in this study are limited, having been collected in the very specific context of seven upper-level KFL classrooms at one university, it is essential to conduct future research on the use of speech styles in similar classroom settings well as in different conversational contexts to identify other important indexical meanings of each speech style. Further study should look at the alternation of speech styles in a wider range of classroom situations because the analysis of larger data sets can provide a better idea of the language that students are exposed to in KFL classrooms.

It is also important to point out that language is merely one of the semiotic resources that create social identities. Bodily conduct, such as gesture or gaze, provides another essential dimension of contextual information, and therefore should be taken into account in future discussions in order to grasp a deeper and more holistic understanding of speech style use and shifts. In addition, I suggest that future research expand its data to include ordinary conversations in order to explore how classroom discourse differs from and is similar to casual speech in terms of the use of speech styles. Finding and analyzing such differences and similarities may provide a better understanding of how the classroom environment can be enriched for KFL students with respect to the learning of speech styles.

This study has been an examination of how speech styles were used in the KFL classrooms of seven teachers. The data have shown that while all teachers use different speech styles in their classroom talk, they vary both in the frequency of speech style use and in the range of speech styles used in their talk. Future research should look into such individual variations³¹ by examining how teaching philosophies and ideologies might influence the ways in which teachers use language including speech styles in the classroom. Interviews with teachers could be conducted to gain insight into their teaching backgrounds, pedagogical goals, and beliefs about language teaching. Such interviews may yield rich information that would help to explain the differences in the ways the teachers use the speech styles in the classroom.

³¹ Ohta (1993, 1994) examined Japanese language teachers' use of sentence-final particles. Her findings suggest that teachers vary in the frequency and range of sentence-final particles used in their talk in a classroom setting. By connecting teaching philosophies to the analysis of teachers' language use, Ohta argued that the most important distinguishing factor is the teacher's stance towards their teaching. Teachers who were more oriented toward communicative use of language tended to use sentential particles much more frequently than those who focused on the teaching of grammatical forms.

APPENDIX: CONSENT FORM

Date:

Dear potential participant:

(PURPOSE OF STUDY)

I am inviting you to participate in a research study conducted by a researcher from the Department of East Asian Languages and Literatures. The purpose of the inquiry is to understand the ways in which the teacher and students use different Korean speech styles, as marked by sentence-ending suffixes, in an advanced Korean language class. I especially look at what pragmatic functions the teacher's speech style shift has within the dynamics of the classroom.

(BENEFIT TO PARTICIPANT)

The teacher may become a better Korean language teacher because he can reflect on his own speech upon the completion of the research. The students may enhance their awareness of the different speech styles. Students can also have language tutorials with the researcher during the research process. In addition, the findings from this study may help other Korean teachers better understand the effects the teacher's speech style shift has upon the classroom interaction and management.

(WHAT THE PARTICIPANT IS ASKED TO DO)

The researcher will audio-record the classroom interactions between the teacher and the students during _____ semester. Some of the class sessions will be video-recorded. The video camera will be fixed in the back of the classroom facing the teacher and blackboard to reduce its obtrusiveness in class. At the end of the semester, the teacher and students will be asked to participate in an informal interview with the researcher to share relevant information on the experiences of using the Korean language in the Korean language class. All personal information will be kept confidential to the extent allowed by law. Agencies with research oversight, such as the UH Committee on Human Studies, have the authority to review research records. Research records will be kept in a locked file in the investigator's office for the duration of the study. Pseudonyms will be used to protect participants' confidentiality. All personal information will be destroyed upon completion of the research project. The data from you and audio files will be given back to you after this study or destroyed, if you prefer.

(VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION)

If you would like to participate in this research study, you will be asked to sign this consent form once all your questions have been answered to your satisfaction. Your participation is entirely voluntary, and you can withdraw at any time. All information collected will be confidential. At no time will any individual be identified in any reports from this study.

You may ask questions about the study at any time. Call the investigator at (808) 778-4232 or email mypark@hawaii.edu. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please contact the UH Committee on Human Studies at uhirb@hawaii.edu.

Thank you. Miyung Park

I have read this consent form and I understand what is being requested of me as a participant in this study. I freely consent to participate. I have been given satisfactory answers to my questions. The investigator provided me with a copy of this form.

Name of participant (written):

Name of participant (signed):

Date:

Name of researcher (written):

Name of researcher (signed):

Date:

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