



Teaching a pedagogically-useful schema of a default conversation in the EFL classroom

Anthony G. Ryan.

Aichi University of Education

Reference Data

Ryan, A. (2007). Teaching a pedagogically-useful schema of a default conversation in the EFL classroom. In K. Bradford-Watts (Ed.), *JALT2006 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

This article addresses the content and methodology of English conversation. Firstly, in terms of content, it outlines a model of a complete or default schema for an entire English conversation that incorporates the story-telling genres found in casual conversation and the most common types of exchanges. The model is particularly suited to the EFL context. Secondly, in terms of methodology, it proposes that by adhering to the pedagogical principles of the genre approach to language learning (Feez, 1998, p. 24), and the complementary notion of a top-down direct approach to teaching speaking that moves from teaching the larger elements to the smaller ones (Nunan, 1991, p. 45) - as opposed to the bottom-up direct approach of strategy instruction - this model can be successfully applied in the classroom, and serve as the departure point for the teaching of EFL conversation to university students with little background in the creation of whole spoken texts.

本論は英語会話の内容と教授法に関するものである。第一は内容についてである。英語会話全体に参加するか否かのスキーマのモデルが、EFL(外国語としての英語)教授に有益であることを概説する。このモデルは、日常会話に見られるストーリー・テリングのジャンルや最も一般的な会話のやりとりも含んでいる。第二は教授法である。まず、この教授法は、言語学習のジャンル・アプローチの教育的原理(Feez, 1998, p. 24)に基づく。次に、ストラテジー教授のボトムアップのアプローチに対して、大きな要素から小さな要素に移行するスピーキングのトップダウンのアプローチ(Nunan, 1991, p. 45)を補完するものである。このモデルは教室でも十分応用可能であり、話し言葉の会話テキスト全体の作成にほとんど背景知識のない大学生に外国語としての英語会話を教えるための出発点になる。

In designing and teaching any language course, teachers are primarily concerned with two components: content and methodology. In terms of teaching English conversation, content refers to the what (the knowledge and skills), while methodology refers to the how (the activities and procedures that the teacher uses in the classroom). However, both content and methodology are products of the teacher's understanding and interpretation of two variables: context and structure.

In regard to context, Dr. Donald Freeman, in his plenary address at the JALT 2006 Conference (2006, November 4) asked those present to consider why it is that “we [teachers] teach for later, not now.” In other words, Dr. Freeman was asking teachers to question language teaching content and methodology that was geared towards what learners may or may not encounter at some future date. Similarly, Bax (2003), in a paper advocating a greater role for context in language teaching, criticized CLT, textbooks, and teacher-training courses as largely ignoring the context in which the language teacher is or will be working. In essence, both Freeman and Bax advocated that language teachers give greater credence to contextual features of the learners, the teachers, and the cultural and situational context, in both the content of their syllabuses and their teaching methodology.

In regard to structure, Bruner (1960) wrote that when teaching any subject “the teaching and learning of structure, rather than the simple mastery of facts and techniques is central” (p. 12). The concept of structure is central to many human activities. Consider the analogy of building a house. A carpenter would never think of even starting without a blueprint that shows the complete structure of the house and a set of plans detailing the structure of the frame and the various rooms. In psycholinguistic terms, a mental blueprint of the complete structure of a typical instance of an event is known as a schema (Cook, 1997). However, concerns over conversation’s potential for unpredictability and probable disagreements over the norms upon which a structure would be based, has derailed teachers from developing pedagogy based on a conversation schema. In spite of this, in an EFL teaching context in which the majority of learners are non-English

majors, the majority of teachers are non-native speakers of English, and the reasons why non-majors are required to take ‘English Communication’ courses at university remain hazy at best, the idea of a schema of English conversation as the content basis for a beginning course in English conversation can be quite attractive to teachers. More importantly, EFL learners with primarily six years of ‘non-discourse’ English study behind them can benefit from a having a solid basis from which to develop their discourse skills.

This paper proposes that when introducing EFL learners to spoken English conversational discourse, it is extremely beneficial to both teachers and learners, to adopt a default conversation schema as an initial content basis for pedagogy. In doing so we are taking on board the recommendation by advocates of the genre approach to language teaching (see particularly Nunan, 1991, p. 45) that the ‘English conversation’ be regarded as a distinct genre of communication, similar to a lecture, an interview, or a sermon. In terms of methodology, the content is taught according to three fundamental principles. The first is Bruner’s (1960; 1986) notion of a spiral curriculum in which syllabus content must be continually revisited by both teachers and learners. The second is Vygotsky’s (1934/1978) proposal that the teacher’s role is to help learners to bridge the gap (the zone of proximal development) between their level of independent performance and their hidden level of potential performance. Thirdly, in terms of a teaching sequence, regarding conversation as a distinct genre of spoken discourse means that it can ideally be taught in a top-down direct approach. In this approach, learners are first taught the structure of the larger elements before proceeding to the smaller elements

(Nunan, 1991). This is in contrast to pedagogy that initially focuses upon the microskills and / or speaking strategies of conversation - a bottom-up direct approach.

Definitions

In an attempt to both set the parameters of the description below and provide pedagogy with an objective, it is important to have clear definitions of what is meant by 'genre' and 'casual conversation'. As always, definitions of any phenomena are far from universal, and due to space restrictions, the ones given here will not be debated.

In terms of genre, definitions vary according to whether or not the particular scholar adheres to the ESP (English for Specific Purposes), New Rhetoric, or SFL (Systemic Functional Linguistics) schools (see Hyon, 1996 for a succinct description of each). The definition of genre in this paper is taken from scholars working in SFL. Martin, Christie, and Rothery (1987) state that genres are "social processes because members of a culture interact with each other to achieve them; goal-oriented because they have evolved to get things done; and staged because it usually takes more than one step to achieve their goals" (p. 59).

These three key concepts - that genres are co-constructed, structured, and purposeful - can also be applied to a definition of conversation. The definition adopted in this paper is that conversation is a socially-recurring spoken discourse genre co-constructed by participants with equal power to contribute freely at the time of its occurrence, with the purpose of firstly establishing, and then re-formulating the interpersonal relationship between participating interlocutors.

Content

Eggs and Slade (1997) found that in the ten hours of recorded data from casual conversations in an Australian workplace, there were two distinct types or segments of talk present: *chat* and *chunk* segments.

The first type of talk, chat segments, are highly interactive sequences during which speaker turns are transferred quickly and usually equally, and there are few extended turns at talk. These chats, in turn, are comprised of combinations of smaller structures called exchanges and moves (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

On the other hand, chunk segments comprise sections where one speaker takes an extended turn at talk while the other participant(s) listens and/or often contributes only minimal feedback (or backchannels), that can show attention, encourage the speaker to continue, clarify, or repair misunderstanding. When analyzed, the chunk segments were found to be of different types with distinct generic structures. Eggs and Slade (1997) identified seven clear genres, each with distinctive stages or steps. The seven genres include narrative, recount, anecdote, exemplum, opinion, gossip, and observation/comment. The stages of the recount, narrative and anecdote are explained below.

The structure of these two types of talk, chats and chunks, and the global structure of an entire default conversation, form the content of the syllabus. In keeping with a top-down theme, the next section gives a brief explanation of each of these in order from largest to smallest. For greater detail and more exact explication, it is recommended that teachers consult the original texts in the reference section, as what follows is the author's adaptation of theory drawn

from conversation analysis, discourse analysis, and genre analysis. Considerable license has been taken with the work of others and what are involved theoretical concepts have been simplified for use in the EFL classroom. The author bears full responsibility for this. Suggestions and recommendations for incorporation into classroom practice have also been included.

The Schema

The schema outlined below in Table 1 incorporates the notion that chats (exchange combinations) and chunks (story-genres) comprise the basic building blocks of the genre of casual conversation. In the model, the author has inserted the story genres (recount / narrative / anecdote) into the middle stages of the conversation.

Table 1. A default structure for a basic conversation between two participants

Stage	Progression	Exchange Initiation examples
Beginning (CHAT)	1. Greeting Exchange	Hi; G'day; Hello
	2. State-of-being Exchange	How's things; How are you?
	3. Initial Topic Exchange	How was your weekend? Did you see the game on TV?
Middle	4. Story 1	(story-genre of 1st speaker)
	5. Redirection move	How about you?:(And) you?
End (CHAT)	6. Story 2	(story-genre of 2nd speaker)
	7. Pre-closing exchange	Anyway, I have to get to class. Nice talking to you.
	8. Closing exchange	Bye; See you (later)

In practice, the schema above acts as a roadmap of a default English conversation. Teachers can 'script' an

initial conversation following these stages and according to the particular context in which the teaching takes place. Appendix 1 has an example of a conversation that actually took place between two students. It was recorded in a classroom situation and then rewritten and 'tweaked' by the author, and used as the basis for a class the year after. The content is topical to young university students and situational in that it occurred in their local area. The learners knew that it came from students in their own university, and these factors helped make it more 'real' to them.

Chunks

The story genre types, recount and the narrative, are suitable for the beginning oral communication course, and the anecdote and exemplum (see Eggins and Slade 1997, p. 237 for a comprehensive description of each type) can be reserved for later levels, as can the opinion and observation/comment genre types. This division is proposed because the anecdote, exemplum, opinion, and observation/comment genres require increasingly sophisticated levels of interpretation and evaluation of what has been said on both the part of the speaker and the interlocutors, and 'newer' learners unfamiliar with each other, are not likely to want to share opinions and feelings until they get to know each other more. A brief description of the recount and narrative follows.

The *recount* story genre involves the retelling of something (an event or series of events) that the speaker has experienced. In the classroom, this can translate to describing a weekend, a trip to Disneyland, or a fishing trip. This is the simplest structure and is thus the most suitable sub-genre to begin with when teaching. The narrative is

similar in structure, however, it includes a remarkable event or problem that is either explained or resolved. In the beginner's class, it is easier to refer to this as a problem that has been solved. Most everyone has had experiences that involve disputes with family, friends, workmates, bosses, or health that have all been successfully resolved in the end.

The third type, the anecdote, is almost identical to the narrative in structure, and if the teacher feels the learners can cope, can usefully be taught either in conjunction with the narrative or just afterward. The difference is that the remarkable event has no resolution either because it does not need one, or if it is a problem, it has not been resolved at the time of being spoken about.

Finally, in regard to the teaching of the metalanguage of these structures in the classroom, the language must be de-jargonized to allow for the particular level of the learners. Table 2 outlines a classroom-friendly structure of the recount and narrative, and adapts language more suited to the EFL classroom. In fact, there is no particular reason why these terms, and others that follow, cannot be translated into the L1 of the learners.

Table 2. Simplified structure of the recount and the narrative

RECOUNT		NARRATIVE	
<i>Technical term</i>	<i>Classroom term</i>	<i>Technical term</i>	<i>Classroom term</i>
Abstract	Theme	Abstract	Theme
Orientation	Setting	Orientation	Setting
Events	Step by step Events		Events leading to
Coda	Summary	Complication	Problem
			(possible events)
		Evaluation	Feelings
		Resolution	Resolution
		Coda	Summary

Chats

Scholars working in Conversation Analysis (CA), Discourse Analysis (DA), Second Language Acquisition (SLA), and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) have identified dozens of structured items within 'talk-in-interaction' (conversation). Many of these structures or sequences, although derived from different analytical approaches, can be incorporated into our conversation schema if one is willing to disregard theoretical constraints. For example, scholars have identified structures and or sequences involving co-participants that are used in: opening conversations (Schegloff, 1968); pre-closing and closing conversations (Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan, & Reynolds, 1991); sequences concerned with initiating topic through the use of initial topic elicitors (Button & Casey, 1984); adjacency pairs and various types of turns and their sequences including repair, (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974); conversational adjustments (Long, 1983; Pica, 1988), and ; non-understanding routines (Varonis & Gass, 1985).

DA, SFL, and genre analysts working in the field of professional discourse, prefer the 'exchange' as a unit of discourse and, from their perspectives, have also labeled various types and structures of exchanges (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Coulthard & Brazil, 1981; Berry, 1981; Burton, 1981; Ventola, 1987; Tebble, 1992; Martin 2000). Structures below these co-constructed items – that is, those made by one speaker - have been variously termed as turns (CA), or acts and moves (DA/SFL). Eggins and Slade (1997, ch. 5) give a comprehensive list of the moves they observed in casual conversations between native speakers of English.

The large number of move types and the great variety of language associated with each rules out the teaching of all in any short program of instruction. The job of the teacher is to select the most appropriate and prioritize them. This selection should be based upon the following criterion:

- 1) the importance of the move in the functioning of the exchange
- 2) the frequency of occurrence in informal speech
- 3) the needs of the particular group of learners

The set of moves

In selecting our basic ‘set’ for pedagogy, we need to consider theory and reality. The IRF theory of exchange structure (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) tells us that the bare minimum number of moves for an exchange to be an exchange is two: the *initiation* and the *response* moves. These are our first two moves, the (*I*) and the (*R*).

The native English speaker’s use of fillers as hesitation devices to take the place of silence (thereby keeping the floor), strongly suggests that non-native speakers need to be taught how to use the English equivalents and thus avoid either losing the turn or the development of tension when in conversation with native speakers. This is our third move - the *staller* (*S*).

The ability to use language to repair breakdowns in comprehension - which are also present in NS-NS discourse - is essential for non-native speakers to acquire. In particular, moves to *clarify*, *confirm* and *check*, are vital. This set comes under a ‘general’ move labeled the *Clear-Up* move (*C*).

In places where native speakers of Englishes feel the need to build context verbally, Asian speakers see no similar need, instead relying on the listener’s ability to ‘fill-in’ the missing context. EFL conversation teachers need to teach students to say more than they feel is necessary in order to build context (*to append*). In other words, we need to teach learners to give further information to their response move in order to give the listener the option to use this information in their next turn. We label this similarly to Sinclair and Coulthard’s ‘follow-up’ move, but add the notion of the ‘Response / Initiation’ move proposed by Coulthard and Brazil (1981). Thus our fifth move becomes the *Follow-up Initiation* (*FI*) move.

For the final move in the basic set, the publishers of the most popular junior high school textbook series used in Japan, *New Horizon*, note in the preface of the team-teaching manual that “Many people have complained that the six years of English language teaching in Japanese junior and senior high school produces few people able to carry on even a simple conversation in English” (2000, p. 4). In other words, learners need to know how *to continue* and to *sustain* a conversation. The notion of exchange encompasses the idea of each speaker having a short, quick turn before either (a) losing the turn by being interrupted, or (b) turning the floor back over to the other interlocutor. The second of these can be taught as one of the most basic methods of sustaining a conversation (the first can be taught as learners progress). One technique is for the second interlocutor, after making a response, to bounce back, or *rebound* the same initiation (usually a question) that they were asked – almost like a *quid pro quo* aspect: you do something for me, I do something for

you. We have labeled this move the punchback or *Payback Initiation (PBI)*.

There are further types that are necessary to the roles of the speaker (to monitor) and listener (to acknowledge, to confirm, to accept). However, these moves can be usefully focused upon during the teaching of chunks. The six basic moves and their basic functions are summarized Table 3.

Table 3. The six basic moves of the exchange

Move	Classroom Name	Function
to initiate	Initiation (I)	start an exchange
to respond	Response (R)	reply to initiation
to clarify/check/repair	Cleaning-up (C)	clarify and or check comprehension and repair miscomprehension
to append	Follow-up Initiation (FI)	give more information
to re-challenge	Pay-Back Initiation (PBI)	pass the turn back
to hesitate	Staller (S)	gain time to respond/keep the floor

Arranging the moves diagrammatically (Figure 1) not only assists learners to internalize them, but also allows them to analyze and trace the 'path' of different exchanges. An easy way to remember this figure is to imagine that it looks like a human being with his/her hands on his hips while standing on a surfboard or a skateboard. The head is 'I', the stomach is 'R', the hands are 'C' and 'S', and the feet are 'FI' and 'PBI'. The arrow from FI to PBI is the skateboard. Chats are built by combining exchanges.

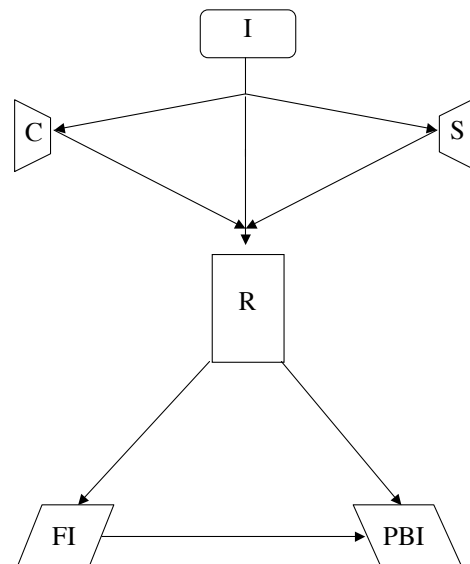


Figure 1. Skater Boy

Teaching methodology

When the departure point for conversation pedagogy is strategy instruction, we are clearly taking a bottom-up approach that, unfortunately, does not give learners any clear idea of where they are meant to heading - their ultimate goal. Nunan (1991; 1999) proposes that conversation needs to be treated as a distinct genre of discourse, and thus, as a genre, should be taught in a top-down approach, starting with the larger elements and concluding with the smaller ones.

The genre approach to language learning takes into account the whole text aspect of naturally-occurring conversation, and is based upon the three following principles (Feez, 1998). They have been interpreted to reflect language learning from the perspective of the teaching of English conversation.

The first principle: learning language is a social activity

Feez (1998), paraphrasing Halliday, writes that students need to understand that the target language is a resource they can use to interpret and organize their own reality. Moreover, this ‘organization of reality’ process must take place in collaboration with the teacher and other students. This principle specifically highlights not only the role of interaction in the learning process, but also the importance of the students’ experiences in this collaboration process. In other words, the target language should be taught so that students can make meaning about their own personal experiences. In terms of the teaching of conversation, the principle can be expressed in the following way: As conversation is a social activity that reflects a speaker’s personal reality, then the learning of English conversation should be a social activity that reflects the speaker’s personal reality.

Second principle: Learning occurs more effectively if teachers are explicit about what is expected of students.

This principle specifically advocates that for effective learning to occur, the syllabus objectives and expected outcomes, the content, and the process of its implementation

be transparent to the learners. Most importantly, it charges the teacher to inform the learners directly and explicitly about these. In other words, this principle urges that teachers share ownership of the above factors with students. As a result, accountability and responsibility for learning are shared between the teacher and the student. In terms of teaching conversation, the principle can be expressed as follows: The learning of English conversation will occur more effectively if teachers are explicit about not only the objectives and outcomes that are expected, but also about the nature of the process they will undergo.

Third principle: The process of learning language is a series of scaffolded developmental steps which address different aspects of language.

This principle specifically highlights the importance of a developmental and structured syllabus design in the teaching process. Bruner’s (1960; 1986) emphasis on structure, and his notions of the spiral curriculum and scaffolding are integral to this process, as is Vygotsky’s (1934/1978) theory of the zone of proximal development. Curriculum design should reflect not only structure in its content, but a structured approach to pedagogy that allows content to be continually revisited by both teachers and learners (a spiral pedagogy). Vygotsky (1934/1978) proposed that learners use language at a level of independent performance, but have a hidden level of potential performance. The teacher’s role is to help learners to bridge the gap, which is called the ‘zone of proximal development’, between these two levels, by slowly withdrawing the teacher’s contribution in the learning process and replacing it with increasing levels of

independent functioning on the part of the students. In terms of teaching conversation, the principle can be expressed as follows: The process of learning conversation is a series of scaffolded steps which address different aspects of English conversation.

Figure 2 outlines a top-down teaching sequence that starts by alerting learners to common elements within the conversation of all languages, and, depending upon contextual features such as objectives of the syllabus, number of students, etc., ends by focusing upon the smaller individual moves within the exchange.

Awareness Stage

In terms of what students already know about conversation, Japanese students know how to conduct a conversation in their own language. English conversation teachers need to use this knowledge, but rather than emphasize the differences between English and Japanese conversation, it is recommended that teachers emphasize the similarities. One way to do this is to allow students to first have a five-minute conversation in Japanese, and then analyze it for topic, the person who introduced the topic, and finally, the type of talk that was involved when talking about each topic. For example, when you talked about topic X, did you and your partner talk like a game of ping pong or boxing – that is, with very quick turns each of you saying only something short, OR did one of you talk like a game of bowling or basketball when one person holds the ball for a long time – that is, one person spoke a lot about the topic while the other just nodded along or made short quick comments. If the topic was talked about like ping pong, direct them to write an ‘E’ next to the topic. If the topic was

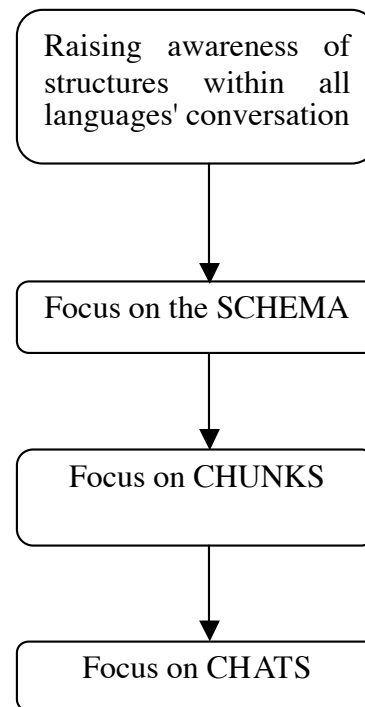


Figure 2. The teaching sequence

talked about like bowling, direct them to write an ‘S’ next to the topic.

Schema Stage

In this stage (and for those following), the best idea is to use a taped-conversation of two students from a previous semester as an example conversation, in order to make it

contextual to the students. However, the teacher needs to adapt and re-write it in order to include correct discourse connectors (in the chunks) and to ensure the six moves types are present and clear. This conversation is the example from which the content for both the chunk and chat stages is drawn, so it is important to select a good one. The one that the authors use is included in the appendix and was originally recorded two years ago. Activities at this stage include, firstly, jumbling the example and then getting students to order it correctly, and then label each part.

Chunk Stage

In this stage, students get to plan, write, and then tell their own stories as part of a conversation with a partner. The stories from the example conversation can serve to illustrate the four stages of the recount – theme, setting, step-by-step events and summary.

The teacher's job is to stimulate students to tell their own stories. The best way to do this is to ask students about the experiences they had during the week. The author asks students ten or so from the following list of questions each week and gets them to write 'Yes' or 'No' after they hear each question. If they write 'Yes' they also need to write the past tense of the main verb. Then, beside each 'Yes' answer, ask students to think about whether or not it was a positive (+) or negative (-) experience for them, and to label each appropriately. Many of the positive experiences can be used as recounts and the negative answers can be used as narratives.

Questions: Since the last class, did you:

a) go anywhere?

b) buy anything?

c) meet someone new (or someone you hadn't seen for a long time)?

d) eat out at a restaurant?

e) see anything interesting on TV or watch a movie?

f) change anything about you? e.g., your fashion style; hair; mind; job; boyfriend/girlfriend

g) make a decision about something? e.g. holiday; work; school

h) learn anything?

i) practice anything or take a test in anything?

j) have a problem? at work; with a classmate; teacher; family member

k) speak English or talk to foreigner

l) get angry about something

m) laugh about something

n) hear anything? a new song; gossip; joke

o) write a report

p) make a presentation

q) take part in a meeting or party

r) design; draw; paint anything? (for art students)

s) compose anything (for music students)

- t) take part in a sports competition
- u) talk to a stranger
- v) make any plans (for the weekend, vacation)

Chat Stage

This is the final stage and includes activities that focus upon both the exchange level and the individual move level. As far as exchange-level activities, the teacher can designate a particular structure (such as I – C – R – PBI), and, in pairs, the students can plan, write and practice an exchange that follows that structure. At the individual level, each move within the exchange can be analyzed for grammatical correctness or discourse appropriateness. The possibilities are endless.

Conclusion

This article advocated that it is time to systematize the teaching of conversation by defining the content base of conversation more clearly, and secondly, by instituting a simple, yet effective method of instruction that is geared towards not only the majority of students, but also the majority of teachers in the cultural and institutional context in which the teaching takes place. Both the content and method were not designed to be theoretically-watertight and withstand the rigors of academic debate. Nor will it, primarily because the content is still under debate, and the methodology is adapted from what was originally developed in Australia, an ESL-environment. Nevertheless, it is hoped that the ideas outlined above can be of value to teachers of English communication or conversation classes in the EFL context.

Anthony (Tony) Ryan is currently analysing EFL conversation for structural elements as part of his never-ending and probably never-to-be completed PhD thesis. Professionally, he is most interested in EFL conversation teaching methods and primary school English curriculums. Personally, watching Aussie football codes on the net takes up valuable sleeping time.

References

- Bax, S. (2003). The end of CLT: A context approach to language teaching. *ELT Journal*, 57(3), 278-287.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., Hartford, B.A.S., Mahan-Taylor, R., Morgan, M. J., & Reynolds, D.W. (1991). Developing pragmatic awareness: Closing the conversation. *ELT Journal*, 45(1), 4-15.
- Berry, M. (1981). Systemic linguistics & discourse analysis: A multi-layered approach to exchange structure. In M. Coulthard & M. Montgomery (Eds.), *Studies in discourse analysis*. (pp. 120-145). London; Boston-Henly: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Bruner, J. S. (1960). *The process of education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bruner, J. S. (1986). *Actual minds possible worlds*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Burton, D. (1981). Analysing spoken discourse. In M. Coulthard & M. Montgomery (Eds.), *Studies in discourse analysis*. (pp. 61-81). London; Boston-Henly: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

- Burns, A., & Joyce, H. (1997). *Focus on speaking*. Sydney: NCELTR, Macquarie University.
- Button, G., & Casey, N. (1984). Generating topics: The use of topic-initial elicitors. In M. Atkinson & J. Heritage. (Eds.), *Structures in social action: Studies in conversation Analysis*. (pp. 167-190). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cook, G. (1997). Schemas. *ELT Journal*, 51(1), 86.
- Coulthard, M. & Brazil, D. C. (1981). Exchange structure. In M. Coulthard & M. Montgomery (Eds.), *Studies in discourse analysis*. (pp. 82-106). London; Boston-Henly: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Eggs, S., & Slade, D. (1997). *Analysing casual conversation*. London: Cassell.
- Feez, S. (1998). *Text-based syllabus design*. Sydney: NCELTR, Macquarie University.
- Freeman, D. (2006, November 4). *Plenary Address*. JALT2006, Community, Identity, Motivation. Kitakyushu, Japan.
- Long, M. (1983). Linguistic and conversational adjustments to non-native speakers. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 5(2), 177-193.
- Martin, J. (2000). Factoring out exchange: Types of structure. In M. Coulthard, J. Cotterill, & F. Rock (Eds.), *Dialogue analysis VII: Working with dialogue. Selected papers from the 7th IADA conference, Birmingham 1999*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag.
- Martin, J. R., Christie, F., & Rothery, J. (1987). Social process in education: A reply to Sawyer and Watson (and others). In I. Reid (Ed.), *The place of genre in learning: Current debates*. (pp. 52-82). Geelong, Vic.: Centre for Studies in Literary Education, Deakin University (Typereader Publications 1).
- Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology: A textbook for teachers*. Sydney: NCELTR, Macquarie University.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching & learning*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Paltridge, B. (2000). *Making sense of discourse analysis*. Gold Coast, Australia: Antipodean Educational Enterprises.
- Paltridge, B. (2001). *Genre and the language learning classroom*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Pica, T. (1988). Interlanguage adjustments as an outcome of NS-NNS negotiated interactions. *Language Learning*, 38(1), 45-73.
- Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. (2002). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Rowling, J. K. (1999). *Harry Potter and the chamber of secrets*. New York, NY: Scholastic Inc.
- Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1974). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn taking for conversation. *Language*, 50(4), 696-735.
- Schegloff, E. (1968). Sequencing in conversational openings. *American Anthropologist*, 70(6), 1075-1095.
- Schegloff, E. A., Jefferson, G., & Sacks, H. (1977). The preference for self-correction in the organization of repair in conversation. *Language*, 53, 361-382.

Sinclair, J., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse*. London: Oxford University Press.

Stenstrom, A. (1994). *An introduction to spoken interaction*. London: Longman.

Tannen, D. (1984). *Conversational style: Analyzing talk among friends*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing.

Tebble, H. (1992). The genre element in the systems analyst's interview. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 15(2), 120-136.

Varonis, E., & Gass, S. (1985). Non-native / non-native conversations: A model for negotiation of meaning. *Applied Linguistics*, 61(1), 71-90.

Ventola, E. (1987). *The structure of social interaction: A systemic approach to the semiotics of service encounters*. London: Frances Pinter.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1934 / 1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Appendix 1

An example conversation

WHO: Ken and Toshi, two male university students who are friends and have some of the same classes.

WHERE: Room 306

WHEN: In English class during conversation practice.

SITUATION: They are talking with each other for the first time on that particular day.

- A:** Hi Ken. Greeting
- B:** Hi Toshi.
- A:** How's it going? State-of-being
- B:** Great!
How about you?
- A:** Not bad.
What did you do on the weekend? Initial topic
- B:** The weekend?
Nothing much. Stayed home mostly.
What about you?
- A:** Well...let's see...
I had a pretty interesting Saturday. Story 1: recount
- [**B:** Great]
- My girlfriend and I went and saw that new Harry Potter movie at Miyoshi Jusco.
- B:** Uh-huh.
How was it?
- A:** Pretty good - lots of special effects. The story was pretty hard to follow though.
- [**B:** Really]
- Anyway, then we had lunch at Mr Curry..you know, on the second floor .
- [**B:** Oh yeah...yeah. Not bad.]
- A:** After that I ended up buying a couple of CDs.

[B: Uh-huh]

I must have got home about 5 - a good day but I spent too much money.

[B: Too bad]

How about you? Did you just stay home the whole weekend?

Redirection

B: I can't wait for history this week.

{B looks at his mobile phone}

Anyway. I've got to go. I'm meeting with Mr Suzuki in five minutes.

Pre-closing

B: No..I got bored just watching TV, so I ended up going to iMall too on Sunday.

Story 2: recount

A: Yeah..Okay. I'll see you at lunch.

B: Catch you later. Save me a seat.

Closing

A: Yeah..Bye

[A: Uh-huh]

Yeah.. I got there about 10, just as they were opening up Mr Donuts. And guess what?

A: What?

B: You know that cute girl in history class,

[A: Yeah]

she works there.

[A: Really?]

I ate about six donuts just so I could stay there longer. Anyway, about 11 the staff started looking at me kind of strangely. You know - they wanted me to leave. So, she came over and said...Hey...Katoh-san could you please leave?'. Wow. I couldn't believe it! She knew my name.

[A: That's great.]

Appendix 2

Combining exchanges

