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From the editor:

Hello, and welcome to our third issue of this year. Whether you have been relaxing over the summer or taking part in professional development activities, or a mixture of the two, I hope you've had a worthwhile couple of months.

Some of you may have been on the SIG's recent workshop-retreat in Okayama prefecture. Fergus O'Dwyer gives us his observations. We also have three features in this issue. Yosuke Ogawa continues our 'how to do Conversational Analysis' series with an examination of some of the limitations of CA; Jim Smiley contributes what - since our SIG's publication last year - might be termed a pragtivity, a pragmatics-focused activity for the classroom; and Paul McAleese reports on a study of teacher-student interaction. His findings remind me of something I heard the vocabulary specialist Paul Nation say recently - that "the greatest obstacle to learning in the classroom is the teacher."

Anyone who knows Paul Nation's work will also know that he actually regards the teacher as playing a very important role. It was brought home to me recently how important our role in bringing pragmatics into the classroom is. For my university's entrance exams, I had to write a new style (for us) of multiple-choice reading question, based on short dialogues. One third of my proposed dialogues and/or questions were rejected, so I had to rewrite them. My colleagues said they were interesting and well written; there was no problem with the vocabulary or the grammar. However, they couldn't be used because they were questions of pragmatics and therefore were too hard for our prospective students. In my

編集者より :

皆様こんにちは、そして今年の第3号へようこそ。夏休みをのんびり過ごされた方、自己研鑽活動に励まれた方、その両方をおこなった方など様々だと思いますが、いずれにせよ有意義な2か月を過ごされたことと思います。

岡山県で最近開催された、プラグマティクスのワークショップに参加された方もいらっしゃるでしょう。今号ではファーガス・オドワイヤーがその報告をしてくれまます。今号にはさらに3件の記事が掲載されています。1件目は、会話分析シリーズの記事で、今回は小川洋介が会話分析の限界について検証しています。2件目は、ジム・シムリーによる、昨年当部会が出版物を発行して以来「プラグティビティ」と呼ばれている、プラグマティクス中心の教室活動についての記事です。3件目は、ポール・マックアリスによる、教師と学生のインタラクションについての研究報告です。この記事を読んで思い出すのは、語彙研究の専門家であるポール・ネーションが最近言った「教室における学びの最大の障害は教師である」ということばです。

もちろん、ポール・ネーションの研究をご存知の方なら誰でも、本当は教師が非常に重要な役割を担っているとネーションが考えていることを知っているでしょう。また、私は最近プラグマティクスを教室で教えることの重要性を改めて実感しました。新しいスタイルの入試問題を作成する必要があり、短い会話に基づく多肢選択問題を作ったのですが、同僚からその1/3について「面白いし良く出来ている、語彙的にも文法的にも問題はない。しかし、この問題は使えない。なぜならプラグマティクスの質問だから受験生には難し過ぎる」と言われてしまいました。私の考えでは（おそらく同僚もそう考えていると思うのですが）、これらの内容は高校の高学年であれば学んでおくべきことです。しかし、現実には彼らは学んでいません。そうであればなおさら、高等教育の教師はプラグマティクスを教えるべきではないでしょうか。ま

From the editor

thinking, and (it seemed) also to my colleagues' thinking, these were exactly the kinds of points students as young as high school seniors should be learning. But unfortunately they are not. All the more reason why those of us at the tertiary level should teach them. And all the more reason those of us teaching in secondary schools should try to.

Anyway, I hope to see some of you at the JALT national conference in Kobe soon. *There will be a large number of [pragmatics presentations](#) which you can find listed [here](#).*

Best wishes,



た中等教育の教師もトライすべきだと思います。

それでは、神戸で開催されるJALT全国大会で皆様にお目にかかれることを楽しみにしております。プラグマティクス関連の発表もたくさんあります。次にアクセスしていただくと一覧が見られます。 <http://www.pragmsig.org/#!jalt2013/cw1g>

敬具

ティム・ナイト

(Thank you **Naoko Osuka** and **Yukie Saito**, Japanese co-editors)

How is what they're doing related to CA?



Doing CA: Possible limitations of CA

Yosuke **Ogawa**

In this article Yosuke Ogawa, from *Kansai University*, discusses the possible limitations of Conversational Analysis and how to overcome or minimize them. It's the third in our series on 'doing CA', and follows articles on how to collect and transcribe data (issue no. 40) and how to organize and participate in data sessions (issue 41).

この記事では関西大学の小川洋介氏が会話分析の限界の可能性そしてその限界を克服するまたは最小限に抑えるための方法について議論します。この記事は“会話分析を行う”シリーズの第3弾となります。データ収集・転写方法(40号)そしてデータセッションの準備そして参加方法についての記事が続きます(41号)。

Introduction

In a series on “How to do CA”, we cannot avoid considering the limitations of CA and methodologically attempting to overcome or at least minimise them. Although CA is apparently a sensational way to analyse human communication, it might be recognised or misunderstood as just a description of how the participants think in the interaction from the analyst's, or a common, point of view. For people who start CA studies, there are some points that need to be considered carefully before getting into the research itself. Some limitations mentioned below might dampen a CA beginner's research enthusiasm, but I will also talk about how strong CA findings are.

In this part of the series, I will mainly examine two types of limitations, and how these can be overcome, or at least limited, by good planning before data collection. One type is limitations *in practice*, which come during the early stages of research planning, data collection, and transcribing the data. The other type is limitations *in analysis*, which we need to guard against while we are analysing interactional phenomena and features.

Limitations in Practice

First, as we might easily expect, there are many limitations in data collection. CA tries to always focus on *naturally occurring interaction*, and not controlled data. Therefore we cannot deal with movies, comedies or soap operas with certain scenarios. Those are likely to have been scripted, acted in several takes, then edited. Those controlled interactions are not with the participants' natural interactional strategies, but artificial interactional strategies designed by the scriptwriter, producer or director, and aimed not towards an interlocutor, but rather to the audience.

However, recorded interaction in public domains such as YouTube can be analysed as CA data if it is not scripted or controlled. Therefore, unscripted interactions can be CA data as long as the context of the talk is generally recognisable, which means natural data in which who is talking to whom, where, when and about what are known; if they are not, it is hard to analyse with CA. There are many possible sources of data, however. Not only are face-to-face

Limitations of CA: Ogawa

interactions data for CA, but there are also many computer-mediated-conversations such as Skype, YouTube and so on. What counts first and foremost as acceptable data in CA research is *natural interaction*. Additionally, data that allows for many details in the interaction to be observed is preferable, e.g. video recorded from multiple angles. As CA research pursues a qualitative approach, not quantitative, the length and amount of the interaction to be analysed is not a major consideration. We can fruitfully investigate many interactional features from just a short recorded interaction, and it is likely impossible to wholly analyse precise recorded data which is several hours long.

We cannot control where participants talk in the camera frame or the volume of their voice. If it is a natural interaction, the participant might start to walk away from the recorder or make lots of noise, for example. Even though the technology and recording quality is really developed nowadays, it is hard to collect some kinds of interaction as data because of interference such as noise or obstacles in front of the camera. Furthermore, the placement of recording equipment should be carefully considered. As the first part of this series carefully illustrated conditions in data collection, researchers should take account of problems such as camera batteries dying, or needing to set up a camera next to a plug, or finding a good location for the camera so that it can record a lot, but is not so close that it distracts the participants.



These issues can lead to the question: Is it ever possible to record pure *naturally occurring interaction* or does the camera automatically make the interaction unnatural? If the recorders are set up explicitly, the participants' speech style might be different from their natural way. Any objects around interactants will affect an interaction, and so will recording

Limitations of CA: Ogawa

equipment. As a result, we should consider it as *an interaction being recorded* when we analyse it. If we use hidden cameras to record the conversation, there are ethical problems such as personal privacy. We need to get participants' permission to use the interaction as data for analysis and part of a CA report. However, we do not have to tell participants the exact details of the study, as further details could affect their behaviour more. For instance, can you talk naturally if you know that the length of pauses between utterances and frequency of overlapping in your talk will be analysed in detail? Or that the way you agree or disagree will be examined in minute detail?

So, for CA research, the research plan, how to record audio, where to set up the recording equipment, obtaining permission and so on, should be carefully decided and perfectly planned in advance. Accidental recording or illegal peeping cannot be data for CA research.

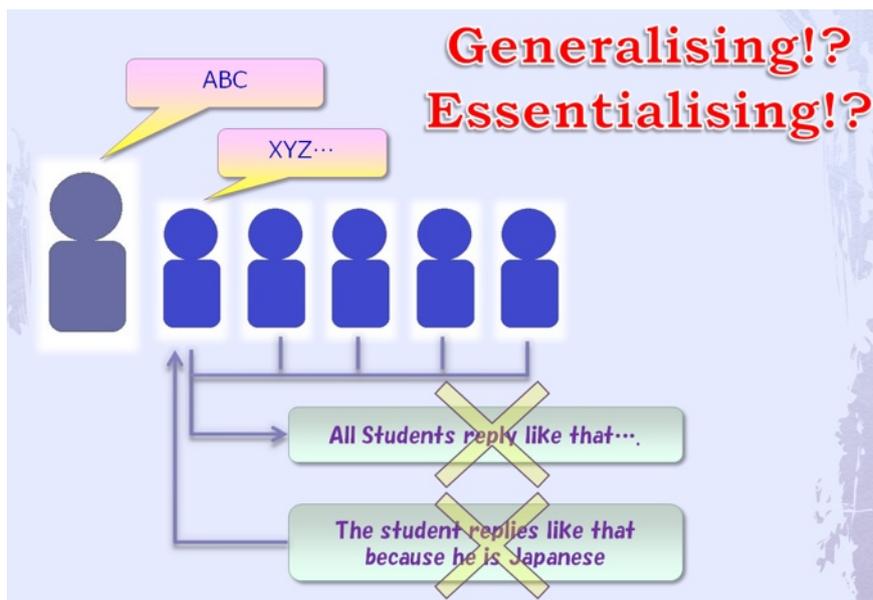
Moreover, as the first part of this series also explained, many details should be transcribed for CA research. Transcribing for CA is much more complicated than for discourse analysis, and needs some special training in order to handle many CA conventions (Jefferson, 2004). However, even when following the conventions, it is still difficult to transcribe paralinguistic features such as varieties of laughter and breathing. Furthermore, it is difficult to transcribe physical phenomena such as gestures and facial expressions. We may overcome these difficulties by using visual materials such as photos, sketch maps and screenshots. However, transcription is not an exact science, and does not need to be 100% perfect - analysis should always be done on the data (the video or audio recording) with the transcript just as support.

Limitations in Analysis

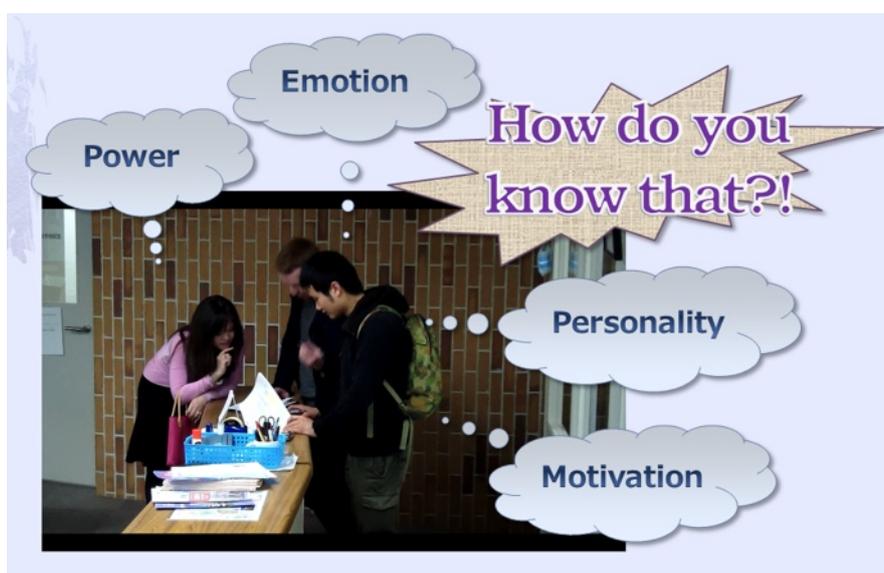
Now let's look at limitations in analysis. No interactions are identical and reproducible, so the analysis is neither reusable nor automatically true for other data. For example, when a participant laughs in a conversation, this does not mean any other participant would laugh in exactly the same way. But this is overcome by building *collections* of phenomena, such as laughing, and looking for *patterns* of behaviour (Seedhouse, 2005).

If a feature is observed in data, that is usable for the interaction in the data only. For example, if a particular learning style is observed in one English language class in Japan, we cannot overgeneralise that all English learners pursue the same strategy. Reversely, if an interactional feature is observed in one English language class in Japan, we cannot say they used that particular strategy because they are Japanese who are studying English in Japan. The CA method does not allow us to essentialise one feature from the background group the speakers belong to.

Limitations of CA: Ogawa



CA can only analyse things which are clearly observable in talk and physical action. So, the CA method does not consider what people are thinking. Things like motivation, power, personality and emotion are difficult for a CA perspective; in fact, it may be impossible to find them. For example, if a student talked less in a language classroom, the analyst may believe it is because of less motivation towards the language activity, a shy personality or that s/he is in a bad mood because s/he is hungry. But how do you know that? How do you link your analysis to their invisible emotions? CA does not employ a researcher's objective interpretation or common sense, and looks only at evidence found in talk and physical action. Plus, most importantly, CA is not concerned with things such as psychological and emotional conditions. It is concerned with how interaction is organised. The only case when participants' emotion is relevant to the analysis is if participants talk about their emotions explicitly in the interaction.



Limitations of CA: Ogawa

Thus, CA is not compatible with other socio-cultural theories. To analyse data in the CA method, it does not use *a priori* theories because it is always and only based on the data. That is one of the big differences between CA and other forms of SLA research methodology. Many researchers are tempted to use a theory to explain their findings. While this is also the case in a few CA studies, many others have shown that outside theories are not needed to make useful findings (Hauser, 2011).

The CA method tries to be objective, but it is still likely to result in some interpretations. Therefore, as the previous part in this series discussed, that is why CA analysts share data and analysis. Nobody can do CA completely by themselves, independently on their own. Therefore, CA data sessions are vital and fruitful for all researchers because they can re-analyse the data and find more in-depth interactional phenomena; moreover, they are fun.

Findings and Evidences

As we have very briefly discussed some possible limitations of CA research, some of you who are not familiar with CA may feel how disappointingly small CA findings are, not sensational at all. Moreover, it takes a long time to record, transcribe and analyse even just several seconds of interaction for the tiny findings. But the findings are all evidence-based, and all of the findings can respond to the simple question “how do you know that?” first, because there is strong evidence and second, because the analysis can be assessed by others.



Limitations of CA: Ogawa

This part in this series has discussed possible limitations of CA research. Until now, we have introduced three aspects of CA research: how to collect data, how to organise a CA data session, and how to minimise the limitations of CA research. The next, and final part of this series will wrap up and discuss the usefulness and importance of CA research.



Yosuke Ogawa, presenting
at PanSIG 2013, in Nagoya

References and Suggested Further Readings

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Real-time meaning development in reading using paper-blocks

Jim Smiley

Jim Smiley, from *Tohoku Bunka Gakuen* University in Sendai, outlines a pragmatics-focused activity for a reading class.

仙台の東北文化学園大学のジム・スマイリー氏は、語用論に焦点を当てたリーディングクラスのアクティビティを概説します。

<i>Learner level:</i>	False-beginner or elementary university
<i>Class time required:</i>	From 10 minutes to a full reading class of 90 minutes
<i>Resources used:</i>	Blank paper and a selected reading text
<i>Goals:</i>	To encourage real-time meaning extraction by discouraging sentence-level analysis

Introduction

Pragmatics is premised on the dual assumptions that language items have multiple meanings and uses and that users knowingly utilise a subset of those uses during interaction. Misunderstandings between speakers occur when one available meaning uttered is replaced by another by the interlocutor. Arguably, if language comprised only direct one-to-one content-meaning symbols, there could be no place for the study of pragmatics. Not being so, this places the study of pragmatics temporally after the study of at least a number of lexical and grammatical items.

At the university I work and at many others in Japan, there is a focus on preparing students for the TOEIC test. At my institution, the level of English necessitates that we do not use the full TOEIC but the TOEIC Bridge test, which uses a far-restricted range of word families and grammatical structures than does the full test. Even so, our average student scores under 50%, some scoring not much above chance. This test is conducted in weeks 8 and 23 in the students' first year. Discussions about delaying standardised testing until a basic course has been completed necessarily include deeper philosophical debates about the nature and purpose of English education to students who have failed at the high school level. Furthermore, the political imperative of *tatemae* (i.e. showing variously the faculty as a whole, the rest of the university, prospective parents and students that we are committed to preparing students for the test) results in the continued inclusion of the Bridge Test in our curriculum.

Yet, the Bridge Test contains elements that allow near entry-level students the opportunity of discovering the pragmatic nature of language while developing their core (i.e. lexical and grammatical) language skills. At this stage, developing students' sense of awareness prior to actual use in situ becomes the key focus of the education. Also, through a different method, students learn both what I believe to be a more productive attitude towards language-in-action and towards their individual study methods.

Reading class activity: Smiley

Paper blocks begins students' training in pragmatics in a safe environment because the study is done individually and incrementally. The physicality of the paper blocks off future confirmations of meaning and focuses students' minds on to possible meanings. This mimics real-time discourse effectively and non-threateningly. In this manner, even more elementary students can start their journey through pragmatics early on.

Jim Smiley



Now, how to make and do the activity:

Preparation

1. Students use some white paper to block their view of the next word in a sentence and the sentences below. This paper is the shape of a sans-serif uppercase 'L' [L] and is approximately the physical length of the prepared reading paragraph and at least three lines tall. Either prepare enough of these for the class group, or ask students to bring appropriate paper with them. A pair of scissors or a ruler are useful to make clean cuts on the paper.
2. Prepare a large paper block big enough to cover the next word in a sentence and the sentences below at the size you present on the board.
3. Prepare a reading passage that avoids highly dense clause structures and is very literary. Texts that work best to introduce this activity are those that comprise single clause sentences, or where the flow of text does not include many backward referents. The actual level of the text used to introduce the activity should be easier than the class group's reading ability. The level of any secondary text used for practice may be higher.

Procedure

1. Explain to students that they will learn about a new way of reading that will help them understand spoken language much better. This method mimics how we construct meaning as listeners, and that no one listens in their native language by hearing a full sentence, memories that and works back from the beginning of the sentence to get the meaning. Rather, meaning is built up bit by bit as the speaker continues.
2. Present a paragraph to the students as a group. Hide all but the first word of the sentence.
3. Ask students what the meaning is.
4. Uncover the next word. Ask about the meaning again.

Reading class activity: Smiley

5. Repeat #4 until the sentence is finished.
6. Repeat #4 and #5 until every sentence is finished.
7. Have students do the activity with a prepared paragraph on their desks.

Options

1. Prepare a thick sans-serif 'U' [**U**] paper block that hides the previous word as well as the following words. This helps develop memory and non-visual based meaning retention.
2. Have students work in groups. They discuss the potential meanings together. This aids the development of cognitive strategies in listening and reading as students need to vocalise their methods of thinking during reading. I encourage this activity in the students' native language. If they had the skill to perform this task in English, the likelihood is high that they would not need this instruction.
3. This activity can be done aurally using an audio player and stopping after every 'word'. This is problematic for at least two reasons: usually in speech, there is no distinction between words, and finding places to stop is tricky; and unless there is access to an audio device per student (or student group if working in small groups), the pace of the activity is difficult to gauge.

Rationale

A common practice in middle and high school English education is for a teacher to present a sentence to students, and then analyse this sentence. Broadly speaking, this analysis may come in one or two forms: the *yakudoku* system, or the 'SVO' system. Both types are predicated on the pre-existence of the sentence as a finalised unit of discourse, and rely on a post-hoc method of analysis. School pupils spend six years experiencing such analyses, and a typical result among the lower achieving students is that they enter university with little or no ability in understanding real-time communication. Furthermore, they often spend copious amounts of time constructing full sentences in their mind before opening their mouths to begin their own communication. In other words, students have become fixated on the sentence as the basic unit of discourse. Such training is of course useful when the medium of communication is written but hardly does justice to real-time verbal intercourse.

Real-time meaning construction does occur in such a post-hoc manner. Listeners and readers build up the interlocutory force of an utterance or printed sentence during its reception. Possible avenues are discarded and retained as the number of new items are introduced. Receivers hone into a message's meaning and experience a sense of completion at its end, or a feeling of cognitive dissonance if the utterance is continued unexpectedly.

Lower-level learners typically fail to understand this process as they wait for completed and fully-formed utterances to be presented before they begin their own process of understanding. They are accustomed to seeing finished units of meaning and expect to have to work backwards as they dissect and reassemble the meaning according to their ways. '*Yakudoku*/ translation-reading' is the method in which each element of a sentence receives a

Reading class activity: Smiley

rough Japanese equivalent, Japanese participles are inserted after the elements to show their grammatical purpose, and finally a Japanese sentence is formed from the existing clues. The 'SVO' method works slightly differently. Rather than initially look for item-to-item translations, the reader looks for potential English subjects, verbs and objects. Once these have been located, the other elements in the sentence are placed. After this, translation occurs. Neither method is conducive to real-time reading or listening. And I argue that both effectively restrict fuller development of English language skills.

The paper-block activity restricts access to the next language item, rather like pausing an audio player after each word. The requirement to state what the reader currently understands about the sentence has a dual role: it forces the student to recognise that they actually do understand something, even though that understanding may be nebulous; and it promotes an awareness of strategies or methods that the student may employ to, variously, retain information, associate new with existing information, deal with ambiguity, deal with multiple potential meanings and so on.

Also, paper-blocks can be highly effective in preparing for TOEIC-style tests. Lower-level students are often confused by the extraneous language in test questions. Many of the Appropriate Response and Extended Listening questions are structured to provide the key information quite early. These are listening questions, but giving students access to the printed versions and having them use paper-blocks on them can be a simple way of teaching the useful test strategies of discarding irrelevant information to the question and reducing listening when the answer is clear. The Appendix shows two examples of this.

Caveats

By definition, university lower-level students have failed in English during their compulsory school years. They have probably not developed a bank of study, meta-cognitive, or critical thinking skills. The lack of this bank can make the early discussions of meaning quite difficult. Some students become frustrated even at the very task of discussing what they know. They fail to see beyond the obvious item-to-item translation aspect of meaning creation. To them, simply saying their meaning of an English word in Japanese is sufficient to accomplish the task. This gap in their ability is, of course, a rich area for their development, both as an English student and a general scholar. Beginning this process, however, needs to be in baby-steps.

Reference

Ashmore, E., E. Carter, T. Duke, M. Hauck, M. Locke, R. Shearin. (2002). *TOEIC Bridge: Koushiki Gaido & Mondaishu*. ETS: Tokyo. p.10.

Reading class activity: Smiley

Appendix

Here is presented some examples from a TOEIC Bridge preparation book. The (??) is a point where there is a possible answer. The ']' is the point at which the answer is clear. After some practice, most students (who are anyway at a level appropriate to take this test) are able to disregard any following and irrelevant information.

The question is delivered entirely aurally during the test. The given question is followed by three responses. Students choose the appropriate response. Using paper-blocks, students see all of the information.

21. Where did you park your car?
 a) Red with a black top.
 b) About (??) three years.]
 c) Around (]) the corner.

The question word 'where' requires an answer indicating a place. the a) choice is immediately discarded. After b) 'About', students are forced to entertain the possibility of phrases such as 'about two blocks down', 'about a mile away', and so on. The answer, c), is clear at the end of b), but the 'Around' confirms this.

22. You like baseball, don't you?
 a) The second game.
 b) Yes]. I play a lot.
 c) It's a new ball.

The question tag 'don't you' expects a positive response. This comes in b). The third option, c), can be ignored. Getting students to ignore it, however, is not so easy.

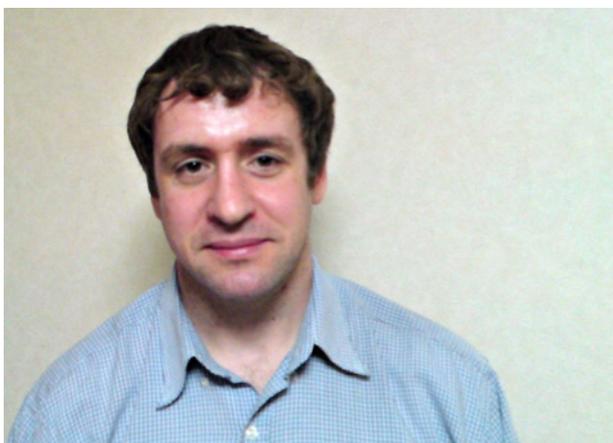
25. Who's going to the movie with you?
 a) My brother (??) is].
 b) I saw the last one.
 c) Tomorrow night.

The question word 'who' requires an answer indicating a person. After 'brother' the answer is nearly clear, but there is the possibility that the verb may be in the negative. After 'is', all ambiguity is gone.

SIG events & activities

In early September the SIG sponsored a double event of presentations and a workshop-retreat in Kansai. Thanks are mainly due to Donna Fujimoto and Tim Greer for organizing these events which, by all accounts, were very successful.

On September 7th, 31 people attended presentations at Temple University Osaka (co-sponsored by the local JALT chapter there) by Adam Brandt, from the University of Newcastle in Britain, and Chris Jenks, from City University in Hong Kong. Then, from the 8th to the 10th, Brandt and Jenks facilitated sessions on Conversation Analysis, in which ten people participated, at a retreat at one of the international villas in Okayama Prefecture. Buoyed by the success of these events, the SIG is looking to offer other 'face-to-face' events in other parts of Japan. These will, of course, depend on volunteers in other regions putting forward some proposals.



*For now, one of the participants in the September workshop-retreat, **Fergus O'Dwyer** (left), offers his personal take on doing CA and doing cooking in Okayama.*

Workshop-retreat report (Sept. 8-10)

The retreat was an invigorating experience I am very glad I had the opportunity to participate in. The location itself was amazing - the rambles into the middle of wilderness and mountains were a good chance to clean out the cobwebs and push

out the boat mentally. The living space provided ample space for chilling out with beautifully positive intellects, and preparing nourishment; the curry on the Monday evening was delicious.



Retreat report: O'Dwyer

Once in the CA zone, the participants were able to learn from each other in a focused but open manner. Personally, it was a chance to significantly push out my boundaries of knowledge and aspirations.

I did not have a working knowledge of CA before attending, but can now humbly say that I am more comfortable with the field. I could gain many new perspectives from the well-constructed and informed activities. The leaders of the activities talked the talk (for example, by emphasizing that everybody in a CA data session, regardless of experience, should actively participate); and they walked the walk (that is, they fostered an atmosphere and structure where everybody talked and contributed).

I may not aim to be a dedicated CA professional in the future, but, as a result of the time away, I believe the theoretical lens of CA is something that will inform the work I intend to pursue in the near future. It is very easy to be a lazy linguist. It takes more effort, but it is necessary to conduct micro-analysis of spoken data in order to view language in a well-grounded, objective way. Connecting with exemplary CA professionals in the retreat has inspired me to aim to introduce a keen sense of rigour to future linguistic analysis. Participating in data sessions in the future can help me make steps toward realising this goal.

All in all the retreat was a credit to all who created the event, and is something that all focused groups like JALT SIGs should aim for in the future. All language professionals should make the time to experience such educational times with colleagues. (*Fergus O'Dwyer*)

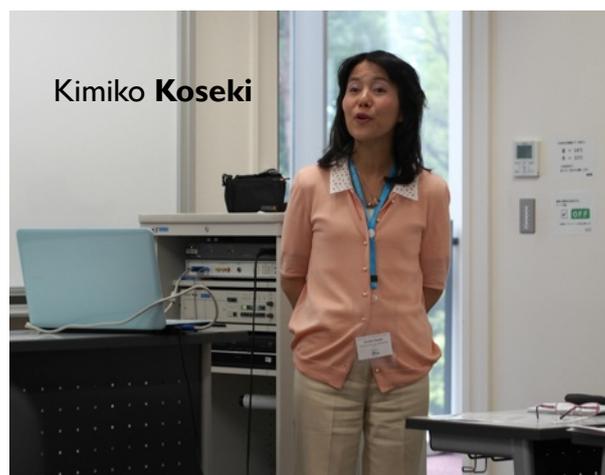


SIG events and activities (continued)

SIG/JALT Osaka Chapter presentations, Sept. 7, 2013



Pragmatics presentations at *PanSIG 2013*, at *Nanzan University, Nagoya*, on May 18 & 19



SIG events and activities continued**Pragmatics presentations at PanSIG 2013,
at Nanzan University, Nagoya, on May 18 & 19 part 2**

Journal watch

Akiko Hagiwara

今回は三編の論文を見てみました。初めの二編は「定型表現」の習得に関するものです。Bardovi-Harligのものは量的分析のもので、Burdelski & Cookのものは language socialization(言語社会化)に注目した質的分析のものです。両方ともオリジナルリサーチではなく、最新のリサーチを概観したレビュー論文です。最後のものは、関連性理論の枠組みで発話をする側ではなく聞く側の視点に立って、どのような聞き手が語用論的失敗を冒す可能性が少ないかを論じたものです。特に、定型表現は最近注目されていますから、是非ご一読下さい。



I spent three weeks in Irvine, California during the first part of summer. It was a cool and relaxing time, and now I am back in Tokyo. I just cannot leave the air-conditioned room. Enough said about the heat. I got the copy of ARAL earlier, but I did not get to have a chance to really read it until this summer. Two articles that I picked from the issue are review articles, so this is a review of reviews...

I hope I am not the only person who is interested in pragmatic aspects of formulaic sequences in second language studies. Not only for those who are anxious for the new findings, but also for those who are new in this field, here is a state-of-the-art review of studies on formulas in pragmatics. The author, Bardovi-Harlig, has been conducting extensive research on formulas in second language acquisition. She reviews recent studies by dividing issues into three types: foundational issues, recurrent research questions, and the populations studied. In the section, she attempts to define what formulas in pragmatics are by reviewing recent literature, both theoretical and empirical. Then, she introduces how to operationalize the concept of formulas, and lastly, she shows the ways in which formulas can be identified in context. After these foundational issues, she went on to describe several other topics that are related to formulas. This part is loaded with information. At the last section, she introduces some of the studies focusing on socio-cultural differences in different speech communities including those in English as a lingua franca. To me it was especially interesting to read about the studies on ELF (English as a lingua franca).

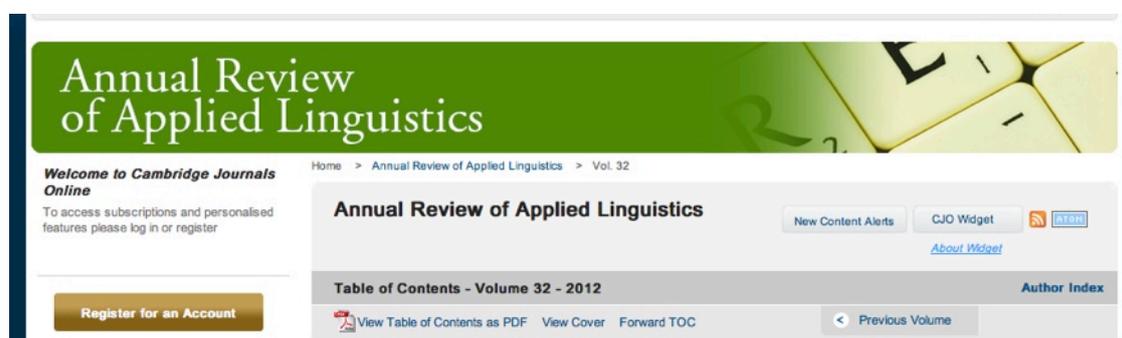
The users of ELF tend to rely more on literal meaning, avoiding less semantically transparent formulas when they produce. The data that I have also show the same tendency.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2012) Formulas, routines, and conventional expressions in pragmatics research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* (2012), 32, 206–227.

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The second article is also a review article on formulaic language. As the title suggests it mainly focuses on language socialization, involving L1, L2 and heritage language learning. It argues formulaic language plays an important role in language socialization in two ways: socializing to and through formulaic language; using formulaic language as a resource for participating in social interaction. The first section is further divided into three types: politeness, hierarchy, and social identity, citing various studies in languages such as Japanese, Korean, Thai and so on. These studies show how children are exposed to the society around them through caregivers' linguistic input. They not only use formulas in socially appropriate way, but they sometimes use them in novel ways to index other meanings.

Burdelski, M. and Cook, H. M. (2012) Formulaic language in language socialization. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* (2012), 32, 173–188.



The last paper is a theoretical account of understanding utterances in intercultural communication. The author explains because of the cultural differences in social and linguistic norms, comprehending each other's utterances is not straightforward. She bases her discussion on the relevance theory. In her approach, in order to avoid possible miscommunication, she suggests that cautious optimistic hearer is advantageous, rather than an optimistic hearer or a naïve hearer, because the cautious optimistic hearer can modify her interpretation. If you have enough patience and interest in the relevance theory, this paper illustrates how a hearer may comprehend the meaning that the speaker intends in intercultural interaction without misunderstanding. This means that we need to teach our students to become cautious optimistic hearer.

Padilla Cruz, M. Understanding and overcoming pragmatic failure in intercultural communication: From focus on speakers to focus on hearers. *IRAL* (2013), 5, 23-54.

Analysing discourse communicativeness in a small-group EFL classroom

Paul McAleese

In our final feature, Paul McAleese reports on an exploratory study into patterns of spoken student-teacher discourse in a small group lesson. His analysis shows that **teacher control** over the interactions not only **limits the amount of student participation**, but **also the functions of student language and rights to initiate or maintain interactions**. He argues that while it may be a pedagogical necessity in the classroom, such power imbalances rarely reflect the variety of discourse outside the classroom and therefore may have limited real world communicative value.

次の記事では、ポール・マッカリース氏が学生と教師の口語談話のパターンについての探索的研究報告を行います。彼の分析によると教師による対話の制御は学生の(対話への)参加量を制限するだけでなく、学生の言語機能そして学生が対話を始め、維持しようとする権利をも制限する。彼はそのことは教室内では教育的に必要なかもしれないが、そのような権力の不均衡は教室外の談話の多様性をまれにしか反映していないし、それゆえに実世界でのコミュニケーションの価値を制限してきた可能性があるかと論じています。

Introduction

Over the years there has been considerable interest in the types of discourse used in the EFL classroom. With the recent popularity of the communicative approach to teaching there has been increased interest in practical language that can be used by students outside the classroom in the real world. Analyzing spoken discourse occurring in a classroom context can provide valuable insights into the types of discourse taking place and provide insights into its actual communicative value. While this paper is a brief exploratory study looking at one part of a single EFL class, the patterns and balances identified will potentially be applicable to wider contexts and provide a reference point for future studies.

This paper will first provide a brief outline of the study background and an overview of the methodology and method of transcription used in the analysis. The context of the class and students in question will then be briefly outlined. Following this, the results of the study will be presented followed by a discussion of more general potential implications.

Background

There have been a number of studies carried out on the types of discourse used in the classroom (Carter & McCarthy, 1997; Coulthard, 1985). As a result, characteristics peculiar to classroom discourse have emerged. A primary characteristic is the relatively high degree of discourse control exerted by the teacher. This results in the interactions often following a teacher-pupil-teacher (IRF) pattern where the teacher initiates interactions, the student responds and the teacher provides feedback on the student response. Furthermore, in many

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of these patterns the teacher is asking students questions in order to evaluate student knowledge or ability rather than to gain unknown information. Such characteristics result in a limited range of discourse available to students in the classroom and are in contrast with the majority of discourse occurring outside the classroom where power-sharing relations are comparatively more balanced and discourse patterns and types much more varied (Levinson, 1983; McCarthy, 1991).

In order to analyse the discourse patterns in this study, Sinclair and Coulthard's (1992) model (also known as the Birmingham Model) was chosen. It is a relatively simple model that it can be used to analyze spoken discourse on a number of levels. In a similar way to Halliday's (1991) grammar model, the levels operate in a hierarchical manner ranging from units such as exchanges which reflect the overall progress of the discourse on a macro-level, to moves which reflect patterns of interaction between different speakers, and acts which look at the functional purposes imbedded in individual moves (see Appendix 1 for more detailed outline). The Sinclair and Coulthard model (1992) has been modified on a few occasions and become widely known in the field of discourse analysis. McCarthy (1991) states that, while it is not the only approach to analyzing discourse, it is a "relatively simple and powerful" (p. 12) model. However, the model is not without its critics and even Coulthard (1992) himself acknowledges that the model has some drawbacks, for example in addressing discontinuity in discourse. However, as classroom discourse is generally thought to have comparatively clear interactions it was thought this would not be a significant problem.

Methodology

Class and students

For this analysis a small-sized EFL class of upper-beginner level proficiency students was used. The class was an EGP (English for General Purpose) class at a private vocational school in Japan. The class consisted of three young adult female Japanese students. The teacher was born and educated in an English-speaking country and had over ten years experience in the EFL field. The stage of the lesson used in the analysis was the first seven minutes of the last class in a fifteen-week course. Accordingly, the teacher and students were already familiar with each other creating a relatively informal and relaxed lesson atmosphere. Additionally, this class had been recorded previously and the students appeared comfortable and natural being recorded. It was hoped that such factors would produce a relatively natural and representative sample of classroom language.

Procedure

After obtaining permission from the students, the teacher recorded the lesson by placing the digital recorder in a location that was unobtrusive, but enabled the classroom discourse to be clearly recorded. To enable the context of the discourse to be most easily understood, the first seven minutes of the lesson was chosen to be recorded. During the recording the teacher also made brief notes of any noticeable paralinguistic actions (for example gestures, eye contact).

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After the lesson, the recorded material was transcribed, annotated according to any paralinguistic notes from the teacher, and then categorized into exchanges, moves and acts in accordance with the Sinclair and Coulthard (1992) model. As the focus of the study was the types of teacher-student interactions and language functions being employed, only the ranks of exchange, move and act were used. As mentioned above, previous research had found the IRF pattern to be common in classrooms so it was also decided to further categorize all moves into initiation, response and feedback columns using a table and column format adopted from a study by Akins (2001).

Categorizing the transcribed discourse into exchange-move-acts was mostly a simple process. There were, however, a few cases where students had acts while the teacher was talking. As these did not appear to be initiation moves they were considered a type of back-channeling and assigned acknowledge acts. An example of this can be seen in table 1.

Table 1

Focusing move <S 01> Today erm is the last lesson... and we're going to...do some review(ms)...ok? (ch)	<S 02> Review (ack)	9
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Notes on transcription

As this analysis focused on exchange-move-act ranks, a method of transcription was created that would enable these aspects to be followed in the most easy-to-understand way. Accordingly, unless aspects of the discourse such phonetic and intonation markers were directly relevant to classification in question they were omitted. A number of the transcription symbols and meanings used were also adopted from McCarthy's (1997, p. 20-21) "notes on transcription" for discourse analysis. A summary of the transcription symbols used in this study are outlined below (see Table 2).

Table 2

Symbol	Meaning
<S 01>	Teacher, male (35)
<S 02>	Student, female (19)
<S 03>	Student, female (19)
<S 04>	Student, female (19)
()	Contain act units
italics	Japanese language occurring in discourse
{ }	Contain approximate English translation of any Japanese utterances
/	Significant rising intonation
\	Significant falling intonation
	Contain language occurring simultaneously to previous move
,	As speakers use punctuation differently to writers, a comma was used only when the speaker recasted speech.
~	Move interrupted by the following move
...	Pauses longer than one second but less than two seconds.
[]	Contain descriptions of non-verbal and paralinguistic-type actions eg. laughter or pointing. These were also used to indicate if discourse was inaudible.
Non-words and hesitation devices:	Words that were not full words or were hesitation devices etc. were transcribed as accurately as possible. Eg. "erm", "ahuh"
Orthography	Used a fully articulated approach and did not transcribe certain informal contracted forms eg. "want to" not "wanna"
[pause]	Pauses longer than two seconds. Number indicates length of pause in seconds. Eg. [pause 8] = a pause of eight seconds.

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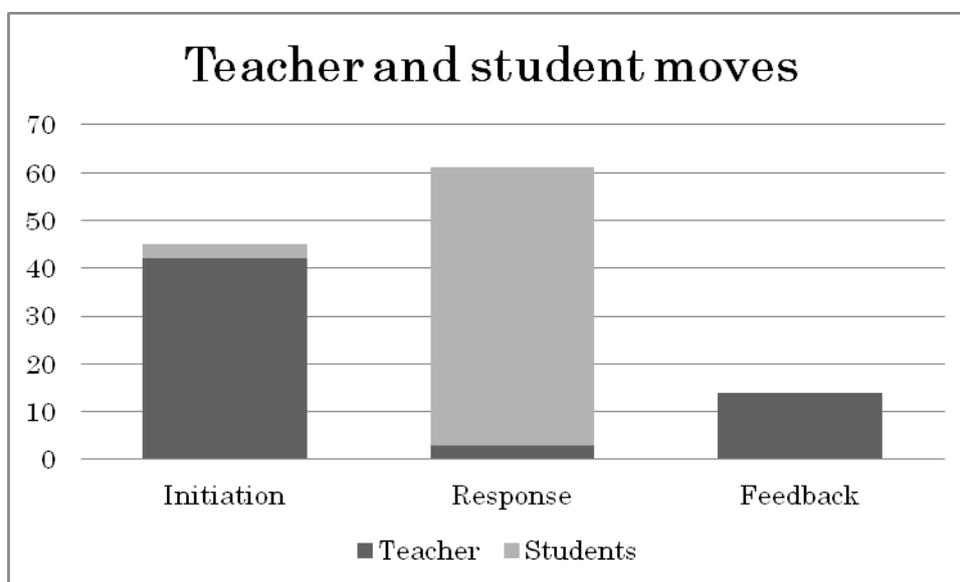
Results

The results of the analysis were then tallied and compared on a student-teacher basis in three main areas: moves, acts and exchange patterns.

Student-teacher moves

Tallying the number of teacher and student moves by initiation, response and feedback type it was clear the overwhelming majority of the initiating and feedback moves were performed by the teacher and almost all of the response moves were performed by the students (see Fig. 1). It was also noticeable that not only were the total number of feedback moves considerably less than initiation and response moves, none of them was performed by students.

Fig. 1



Looking at the discourse transcript more closely, the teacher initiations were occurring on both and boundary exchange and regular exchange levels. First, the teacher used framing and focusing moves to initiate boundary exchanges to progress through different stages of the discourse. An example of this is in exchanges 33-34 (see Table 3).

Table 3

Framing move <S 01>OK^ (m)			33
Focusing move <S 01> We're going to listen to...a short er...piece, recording about Florida (ms)			34

Secondly, the teacher used opening movies to initiate exchanges within the different stages of the discourse. An example of this is in exchange 26 (see Table 4).

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Table 4

Opening move <S 01> [stops writing on blackboard] Do you know anything about Florida (el)	Answering <S 02> I don't know (rep)		26
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The teacher was also choosing to follow up on about a third of the student response moves, resulting in the total number of moves by the teacher being greater than the total of all three student moves combined. Furthermore, looking at the individual moves in more detail, the length of the student moves appeared to be generally much shorter. Indeed, the majority of the student moves were often short one-two word responses that could only be understood in the context of the full exchange (see Table 5).

Table 5

Opening move <S 01> Did you have a good, good week (el)	Answering <S 01> Excellent (rep) <S 03> Erm, so so (rep)	Follow-up <S 01> Yeah/(acc)	6
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Student-teacher acts

The total numbers of teacher and student act were then tallied according to type (see Table 6) (see Appendix 2 for a summary of act types). From the table it is clear that the range of student act types is significantly smaller than those of the teacher. Specifically, the teacher used 11 act types while the students used only 6. While the teacher was using a comparatively wide variety of acts, the student acts are mostly limited to replies and acknowledges. This was hardly surprising due the fact that most student moves were limited to responses

Table 6

Teacher <S 01>		Students <S 02><S 03><S 04>	
accept	10	reply	29
marker	9	acknowledge	23
elicitation	8	informative	4
informative	7	aside	4
metastatement	7	react	3
evaluate	6	check	1
directive	5		
clue	5		
nomination	2		
check	1		
reply	1		
TOTAL	61		64

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Looking at the acts in more detail, from the teacher acts that lead to student responses there were teacher acts such as clues that were followed by student replies and then followed by teacher evaluates. In other words, the teacher appeared to be asking the students questions that the teacher already knew the answers to. Then the teacher followed up by using evaluate acts to grade the quality of the student response rather than react to its content. An example of this was in exchange 32 where the teacher pointed to a picture of a space shuttle and asked what it was (Table 7). Here, the teacher appeared to know the word and was checking the student's knowledge of it and then evaluating the correctness of the student's knowledge.

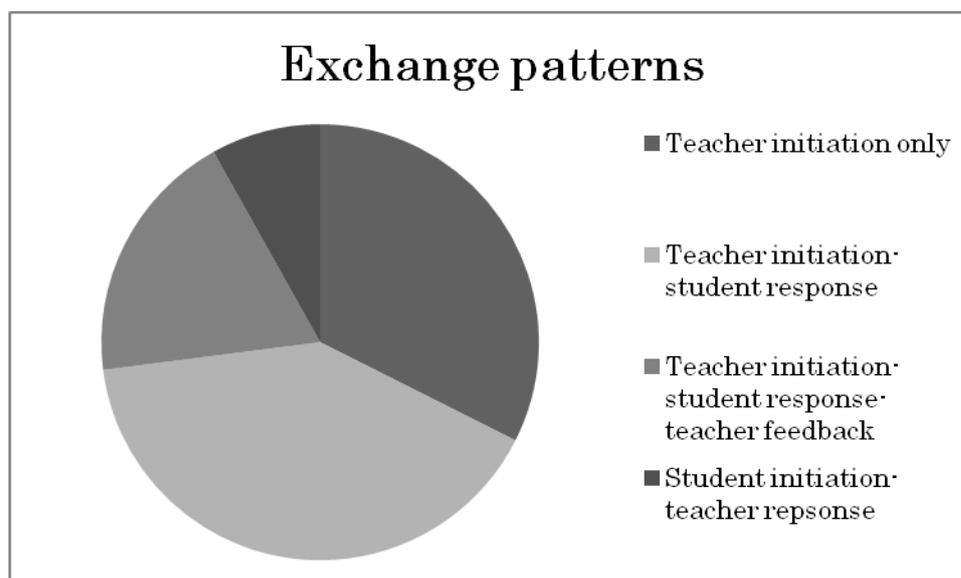
Table 7

Opening move	Answering	Follow-up	
<S 01> What do we call this [points to the space shuttle in the same picture] [pause 3] (cl)	<S 02> Space shuttle (rep)	<S 01> Yeah yeah yeah\ (e)	32

Exchange patterns

A total of 36 exchanges were identified in the discourse. Looking at these exchanges, a number of patterns emerged (see Fig.2).

Fig. 2



The largest proportion of exchange types were teacher initiation-student response which accounted for about a third of all interactions. Roughly a quarter of the exchanges followed three stage cycle of teacher initiation, followed by student responses and then teacher feedback. In such exchanges the teacher often used elicit acts to gain student responses and then follow them up with evaluate or accept acts.

There were only three exchanges initiated by students and all of them were opening moves. In other words, none of the student initiations were boundary exchanges, meaning there were

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no apparent attempts from the students to initiate an entirely different stage of the discourse. Furthermore, none of the student initiated exchanges resulted in student feedback moves. Looking more closely at the transcript, it could be also argued that none of the three student initiated exchanges were genuine attempts to take the floor. For example in exchange 28, in the student opening move below (see Table 8) it appeared the student the student opening move functioned solely to finish the exchange and yield the floor to the teacher in order for the lesson to progress.

Table 8

Opening move	Answering		
<S 02> Finish (i)	<S 01> OK [pause 3] (ack)		

In another example in exchange 20, the student appeared to be only clarifying information with a check act, rather than taking the floor (see table 9). Once again the student follow-up is notably absent.

Table 9

Opening move	Answering		
<S 02> Florida in America/ (ch)	<S 01> Yeah, Florida in America (acc)		20

Discussion

From the results we can see the discourse in question is being extensively controlled by the teacher. The teacher achieves this by initiating almost all exchanges both on the level of boundary exchanges and regular exchanges. The teacher controls the overall direction of the discourse using framing and focusing moves and also within exchanges using opening moves. This control role is also further maintained by the teacher choosing to give feedback on a significant proportion of student responses. There were only a very small number of student initiation moves and none of them appeared to be attempts initiate new exchanges or even take the floor in any meaningful manner. Furthermore, there were no cases of student follow-up to these initiations, giving further evidence of students yielding control to the teacher.

This teacher control has resulted in limited quantity and variation of student moves. The very high proportion of teacher initiation moves have largely limited student participation to response moves. Accordingly, this has limited the types of acts available for students to use and hence a limited range of language functions the students have an opportunity to produce with. This has also resulted in a much higher number of teacher moves in the discourse, to the extent that the number of teacher moves is higher than the number of student moves combined.

The student-teacher interactions identified also appeared to follow fixed patterns. In all

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cases where the exchanges followed a full initiation-response-feedback pattern, both the initiation and feedback were performed by the teacher and the response was performed by the student. Furthermore, in a number of these cases the purpose of the exchange interaction appeared to be a request for a response the teacher already knew the answer and then to and then evaluate that response on correctness rather than communicative content. In other words, rather than exchanging information, it was to test the knowledge or ability of the student.

Wider implications

Although only a small part of the discourse in a single lesson was analyzed in this paper the results have potentially have wider implications. Such high degrees of teacher control and limited student speaking rights and roles are still common in more general classroom environments (McCarthy, 1991). Teachers will always have pedagogical objectives for lessons and in order to achieve these asserting a degree of control will most likely be inevitable, particularly at the beginning of lessons or new lesson stages. A teacher giving immediate feedback on the quality or correctness of a student response may be a necessity in an EFL classroom where both language knowledge and ability are comparatively relevant. In some cases students may be so conditioned to such feedback that if the teacher does not immediately evaluate their response they will assume there is a problem.

However, with the continuing trends in communicative language teaching it seems equally important for teachers to be giving students not only as many opportunities to speak as possible, but also exposure to and opportunities to produce language that is as authentic as possible. Accordingly, it would seem important that students are empowered as much as possible to use a variety of language that is not limited to passive acts in to response to teacher talk. This can only occur in environments where the dominant role of the teacher is minimalised, at least to the extent where there is a clear distinction in the classroom balance between teacher talk and authentic communication. In some cases students may even be given authority to control certain parts of the lesson which might have been traditionally more teacher-centered. Student-centered group or pair-work based activities have become commonplace in communicative EFL classes. Such activities may be effective in reducing teacher control, however, merely having students interact autonomously in the target language may not necessarily mean that authentic discourse is taking place. Not only do these activities need to give students the freedom to use a wide variety of discourse functions but also, and equally importantly, empower students to initiate, maintain and follow up in interactions. Only then can students become proficient in the range of features of real-life discourse such as starting conversations, holding the floor, reacting to the speaker and changing topics.

Conclusion

In this paper the spoken discourse of part of a class containing a small-group of Japanese EFL students was recorded, transcribed and then analyzed using Sinclair and Coulthard's (1992) model. The analysis has showed the discourse in this lesson to be controlled by the

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teacher on a number of levels. This has resulted in students being given limited speaking rights and as a result limited to using an impoverished range of discourse functions. As these results were from a brief exploratory study on a single small-group classroom care needs to be taken when generalizing them to wider contexts. However they appear to concur with the patterns revealed in other studies on larger-group classroom discourse. In order to achieve pedagogical objectives such teacher-talk may have a justifiable place in the lesson, however the imbalances in student-teacher quality and quantity of discourse suggest it is not representative of language outside the classroom. In a communicative language lesson it seems to be equally important to give students as many opportunities as possible to interact using the types of language they are most likely to encounter outside the classroom. Accordingly, students need to be empowered to use a variety of interactional language types and functions in the classroom. This should help students overcome of the traditional passive learner roles and feel empowered and confident to take part in discourse outside the classroom.

In addition to the limited scope of this study there are other factors that need to be considered when looking at the results of this study. In addition to the few cases where it was difficult to categorize acts mentioned earlier, as the lesson was not video recorded some paralinguistic features may have overlooked. Although the teacher was required to make a note of any significant non-verbal actions, this may have been challenging to do at the same time as teaching a lesson. Accordingly, paralinguistic features such as eye-contact or putting hand up to initiate a turn may have been missed.



Paul McAleese

As far as future studies are concerned, it would be interesting to do further study on other lesson stages such as student-student discourse occurring in more student-centered lesson activities to analyze what other discourse patterns emerge. It would also be interesting to compare such discourse to similar situations outside the classroom. Transcribing and annotating large amounts of spoken language is a very time-consuming process. The use or creation of a spoken conversation corpus that is annotated according to discourse functions and levels such as Sinclair & Coulthard's (1992) exchange-move-act might be also be very powerful analytical tool moving forward.

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