1 Introduction

This chapter offers a brief introduction to the principal aspects of this PhD study. The motivation and background to the research will first be presented. This is followed by a description of the objectives and significance of the research. Finally, the research questions will be presented and the scope of the research will be outlined.

1.1 Motivation of the study

As the abstract of the thesis indicates, the research examines the interactional features of Chinese EFL learners discourse in a paired speaking test in comparison with those of Australian native English speakers. By using CA techniques, the study explores the interactional competence exhibited by Chinese learners of English in co-constructing dyadic conversation. To have a better understanding of Chinese EFL learners’ discourse, the spoken performances by Chinese EFL learners and Australian native English speaking university students in a paired task in English are compared so as to identify similarities and differences between the two groups in terms of their interactional behavior and the possible contributing factors to the variations.

The present study is motivated mainly by two factors: my EFL teaching career and the under-researched status of English discourse used by Chinese EFL speakers in examination contexts.

The first factor that has sparked this study is my experience as an examiner of Chinese learners in oral English tests in China. As an EFL instructor in a university in Beijing, I have frequently been involved in several locally designed English language tests, including the College English Test (CET) and the Public English Test System (PETS). In the practice of assessing speech production of Chinese learners of English in oral proficiency tests, I noticed that some test takers did very well in examiner-candidate interviews and/or in extended monologues, however, their performance in peer-peer collaborative tasks was not satisfactory, as evidenced by the fact that some of them participated inadequately in the interaction and others focused on their own task without devoting their speaking turns to cooperate with the other member(s) to co-construct the conversation. The lack of cooperation between the co-participant(s) in the task completion not only generates asymmetrical interaction, but also makes it harder for the assessor to award individual scores to the pair or group of test takers, who assume different roles in the conversation and make varying contributions to the talk. As an EFL instructor with a special interest in L2 oral assessment, I have been keen to explore these issues.
Another factor inspiring this research is the lack of research available on test talk by Chinese EFL learners in paired speaking tests (“paired orals”). A careful survey of the relevant literature shows that a substantial body of research has been undertaken on test discourse by EFL learners from other ethnic-linguistic and cultural backgrounds, yet very limited investigation has been conducted on test taker interaction by Chinese learners of English. The published studies on test-taker discourse by Chinese EFL learners in paired orals are very rare. This insufficiently-researched area merits further exploration.

1.2 Background of the study

As mentioned above, this research uses conversational analysis (CA) methods to examine the salient features of interactive discourse exhibited by Chinese EFL learners in a paired speaking test. The following section will describe the rationale of the research by way of posing and answering a series of probing questions.

1.2.1 Why study Chinese EFL learner speaking?

The thesis focuses on the spoken English of Chinese learners for two major reasons: (1) they are the largest group of EFL learners in the world; (2) many of them have problems with speaking English. This situation warrants investigation.

Speaking is the most common means of human communication, yet the learning of speaking is a complex process. To be fluent speakers, learners have to be competent across a range of componential areas, including linguistic, discourse, and rhetoric, among others. Needless to say, mastering the skill of EFL speaking is a daunting undertaking. Apart from developing basic linguistic skills and acquiring useful strategies, EFL speakers have to obtain a good grasp of culture-specific knowledge of the target language, including discourse conventions and conversational styles, so as to function appropriately in the language. During the past three decades or so, with the country’s opening up to the outside world, along with globalisation in the modern world, there has been a boom in English language learning and education in China, which now possesses the largest number (approximately 100 million) of EFL learners and users across the globe (Chen, 2011; Cheng, 2008; Crystal 2008). English courses are offered to Chinese learners at all levels of formal education, including primary school. English is a mandatory subject in secondary school and institutions of higher learning. To meet the demands of English learners for the evaluation of their learning outcomes, a variety of English tests have been designed for different purposes at various levels. In particular, English, as one of the three core subjects, along with mathematics and Chinese, is tested for students to enter junior and senior high school. All high school graduates are
required to take part in the College Entrance Examination speaking sub-test, known as the National Matriculation English Test (NMET), in addition to other subjects, so as to be eligible for admission to university. To obtain a bachelor’s degree in Chinese universities, the non-English major students often need to pass the College English Test (CET) after they have learned English as an obligatory course for two years. In a similar vein, the Test for English Majors (TEM) is an important tool for evaluating the English proficiency of English majors in Chinese colleges and universities. English is an examination subject for all students who wish to pursue a postgraduate degree (both at master and doctorate level). Apart from these tests in academic settings, English skills are tested for all those seeking promotion in governmental, educational, research and other government-supported institutions (He, 2001). For those who wish to pursue further education in English-speaking countries, obtaining benchmark scores in international English tests such as TOEFL and IELTS is a prerequisite. Thus, it is no exaggeration to say that being successful in the various English tests, for many Chinese, is not only an indicator of academic achievement, but more importantly, a key to the success in life (Cheng, 2008, p.17).

Consequently, millions of Chinese, young and old, devote much time and painstaking efforts to study English and consequently they generally obtain a good command of skills in reading, writing, and listening, which meet the desired levels of English proficiency required by the curriculum corresponding to their level of study, yet their speaking ability is relatively poor, as demonstrated by the fact that many of them have experienced difficulty in communicating effectively in real life situations, particularly in having a conversation with native speakers. The issues are complex and the reasons are multi-fold, including among others their lack of English conversational management strategies, i.e., initiating, sustaining and redirecting conversation successfully, and lack of awareness of specific discourse patterns embedded in the cultural matrix of English speaking countries (Clarke, 1992).

In a postmodern era, as English has become an international language (EIL) and lingua franca (ELF), there is accordingly increasing demand for improved oral English capabilities in China. Therefore, the problem Chinese EFL learners face in improving their spoken English skills calls for urgent attention because the ignorance of such problems will result in negative consequences, i.e., possible occurrences of misunderstanding in inter-cultural contexts and, more seriously, a potential risk of having limited access to education, employment, promotion, and other life opportunities, for which a satisfactory level of oral English proficiency is increasingly among the basic requirements in China.

To identify the obstacles confronted by Chinese EFL learners in speaking English, particularly in holding a conversation, and to come up with the relevant counter-measures to
address them, it is imperative for language educators and test researchers to carry out empirical studies to explore the characteristics of their speech, including their employment of conversational management strategies. The findings of such studies can inform English teachers and learners alike and provide a basis for the improvement of their English speaking skills.

1.2.2 Why study Chinese EFL learner speaking in a paired test?

To investigate Chinese EFL learners’ spoken discourse, I have chosen a timed impromptu oral test as my research focus. The “special talk” genre, involving two EFL learners in conversation, is chosen for the study for three reasons.

The first reason for choosing a speaking test as a means to investigating Chinese EFL learners’ speech is that their performance in the test can be examined to find out whether there are factors other than language proficiency which might affect their performance. While English language tests have such high stakes in contemporary China, it is widely accepted that most Chinese learners are generally able to obtain remarkably high scores in written examinations; however, their performance in English speaking tests is often unsatisfactory (Wen & Clement, 2003, p. 18). Their inadequate performance in the speaking tests deserves special attention as the scores obtained by the test takers in the tests are closely linked to their academic attainments, career opportunities, and eventually life success as mentioned above. In other words, there exists a need for language testing researchers to investigate and identify whether there are other factors exerting influence on the test discourse, in addition to their insufficient mastery of conversational English, including test constructs, rating criteria, task characteristics, and interlocutor effect, among others. Therefore, an investigation of Chinese EFL learners’ spoken English in an examination context is value-adding: apart from getting a better understanding of conversational management strategies employed by Chinese learners, it will also inform test designers of such areas as construct validation, rating scale development, task design, and other parameters involved in speaking tests.

The second reason for choosing a timed impromptu oral test as a site for investigation of Chinese EFL learners’ speech is that the two-way peer-peer discussion, which is seen as the most communicative or interactive of all tasks in the existing oral English tests in China, provides authentic-like contexts where natural interaction can take place. With symmetrical power between two participants, test takers in the paired talk enjoy freedom to initiate topics, raise questions, send backchannels, and display other interactional skills for the task completion though they also have the obligation to collaborate with their partner to co-produce conversation for successful communication. Obviously by having speakers engage in
a paired task, the researcher is able to capture their demonstration of interactional behavior just as in real life situations, such as turn-taking, speaker selection, topic change, and so on. Therefore, the paired task, which has the potential to elicit speakers’ interactional competence (May, 2009, p. 415), fits the purpose of the research perfectly.

The third reason for choosing a paired speaking test is that language test researchers in China seem to lag behind their international peers in terms of their research on spoken discourse in paired/group orals even though these new testing formats are being used in locally designed English tests, including the CET and the PETS. As conversational strategies such as the ability to initiate, respond, and negotiate meaning in situated performances have become a focus of L2 oral proficiency assessment during the last decade, there has been growing interest among language test researchers in exploring the nature of test talk elicited by paired/group orals. Although there has been a sizable corpus of research studies analyzing candidates’ spoken production by speakers from other linguistic-cultural backgrounds (e.g., Brooks, 2009; Duccase & Brown, 2009; Csepes, 2002; Egyud & Glover, 2001; Galaczi, 2004, 2008; Katona, 1998; Kormos, 1999; Iwashita, 1998; Van Moere, 2006, 2007; Nakatsuahara, 2011; Norton, 2005), published studies on oral test-taker interactive discourse by Chinese EFL learners in the new test model are quite limited. The present study attempts to contribute to this area of the literature.

1.2.3 Why study Chinese EFL learner paired speaking in the PETS-5-SET format?

The speech generated by Chinese learners in the paired task, i.e., part 2 of the Public English Test System Level 5 Spoken English Test (PETS-5-SET) (see Appendix A) is the target of the present research due to two major factors: it is the only public English test in China which encompasses the paired task format and, more importantly, it is designed to measure test takers’ interactional competence along with linguistic skills, which fits the purpose of the current study.

Jointly developed by the National Education Examination Authority (NEEA) (China) and the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES) (UK), and designed to provide assessment and certification of communicative English language skills in reading, writing, listening, and speaking at five levels of competence from Level 1 (low) to Level 5 (high), the PETS enjoys an increasing popularity with the Chinese public not only because it is the largest non-credential (no qualifications are required) language test in China, which is open to all its citizens regardless of age, profession or academic background, but also because, with five competence scales, it can easily be geared to the reporting needs of various
Apart from individuals using it to measure their level of English proficiency, the PETS, in particular level 5, is now used by some organisations for gate-keeping purposes. Additionally, the PETS uses an assessment configuration involving two-examiners (assessor and interlocutor) and two-candidates and a combination of holistic and analytic scoring methods, which provide more accurate and fairer assessment of the performance of test takers.

Apart from these facets, the most important feature of the test is that it is the only English language test administered in China (including both national and international tests) entailing the paired task in its speaking sub-test in combination with an examiner-candidate interview and extended monologue. The paired task is particularly designed to measure test takers’ interactional competence, which is evaluated against their performance by means of a sub-rating criterion labeled as ‘interactive communication’.

### 1.2.4 Why use CA techniques to study Chinese EFL learner speaking in a paired speaking test?

With its focus on turn-by-turn analysis of spoken interaction, conversational analysis (CA) is a most viable approach to investigating the interactive features of dyadic conversation by Chinese EFL learners in the paired oral test.

CA has been widely used in the study of talk-in-interaction, including both mundane conversations and institutional talk. As CA methods are especially useful for the analysis of interactional features which are quite complex at the micro-level, they are now being increasingly employed by test researchers in the investigation of the discourse generated by test takers under assessment conditions. The benefits yielded from the application of CA in the examination of test interaction have contributed to such areas as test validation, construct operationalisation, and rating scale development, among others (e.g., Lazaraton 2002; McNamara, et al., 2002; Shohamy, 1994). To improve language test quality, van Lier (1989) argues that CA must be used to identify and describe performances on tests and to analyse the test as a speech event in order to address the issue of validity. As a response to this call, many excellent research endeavors have contributed to oral assessment during the last two decades based on discourse analytic approaches, which either follow the framework of CA theory or incorporate the conventions of CA theory with other analytic methods (e.g., Brown, 2003; Davies, 2009; Dings, 2007; Galaczi, 2004, 2008; Johnson & Taylor, 1998; Lazaraton & Davies, 2008; Luk, 2010; Gan, 2008, 2010; Gan et al., 2009; Nakatsuha, 2004, 2006, 2009, 2011; Young & He, 1998; Young & Milanovic, 1992).
In contributing to this area, a few researchers have devoted their efforts to exploring the paired interaction of Chinese learners of English in the oral assessment context via CA (e.g., Davis, 2009; Li & Li, 2006; Lu, 2008; Pang & Pan, 2007; Wang, 2007). While these discourse-based studies target Chinese EFL learners’ spoken output either in international English language speaking tests like the First Certificate of English Test (FCE) or locally designed English language tests, including the PETS (i.e. Level 2, 3), no empirical studies have so far been published on the characteristics of peer-peer test taker interaction by Chinese EFL learners in the paired task of Public English Test System Level 5 Spoken English Test (PETS-5-SET), the highest level of the test battery. This study attempts to fill in this void.

1.2.5 Why compare the test talk of Chinese EFL learners and Australian students?

To address the research questions, the interactional features of dyadic conversation by Chinese EFL learners are compared with those of their native English speaking Australian counterparts, aiming to identify similarities and differences in their speech styles between two groups with a supplementary objective of detecting potential areas of discourse/pragmatic transfers by Chinese EFL learners from their native language and home culture.

Given the fact that, English, to Chinese learners, is a foreign language, which differs typologically from their native language, ranging from linguistic phenomena to discourse organisation principles, their use of English will inevitably be affected more or less by Chinese language through the phenomenon known as “negative transfer” in second language acquisition (Odlin, 1989). Apart from the influence of their native language, the discourse produced by Chinese learners might also be strongly influenced by their use of cultural-preferred rhetorical patterns and their adoption of culturally-valued conversational styles as indicated by the literature on cross-culture communications and contrastive discourse studies (see Chapter 2, Section 2.1.2) that Chinese learners, typically regarded as having rules of speaking and social norms very different from those of Westerners, might use discourse strategies at variance with those of native English speakers in their English conversation. For instance, Chinese tend to prefer an indirect rhetorical style whereas native English speakers generally favor a direct pattern in their organisation of discourse though both patterns may be used by either group (Kirkpatrick, 1991; Scollon & Scollon, 1991, 1995/2001). In terms of conversational styles, although both styles may be found in the conversations by either group, Chinese from a typical oriental collective culture tend to employ the ‘high considerateness’ style more frequently, whereas Australians from a western individualistic culture show more instances of the ‘high involvement’ style (Aritz & Walker, 2010). The variations in the speech
behavior between the two cultural groups imply that culture could be one of the factors which influences the discourse performance of Chinese EFL learners in the dyadic interaction. Therefore the conversations by Chinese EFL learners must be examined from a cross-cultural perspective for a more comprehensive understanding of their interactional behavior. The comparisons of pair talk between two different L1 groups provide a basis for such investigation.

To sum up, given the fact that China has the world’s largest number of EFL learners, users, and test takers and the reality that many of them experience difficulty in speaking English, particularly in having conversations in real life situations, it is important to examine their spoken interaction in a fine-grained way such as CA facilitates and from a cross-cultural perspective so as to obtain a fuller picture of their conversational styles in dyadic interaction. A paired task is considered the most appropriate way to elicit their speech as it can produce more natural talk than found in other oral testing configurations.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The overall objective of this PhD research is to identify interactional features exhibited by Chinese EFL learners in a paired task as compared with those of native English speakers, and the factors contributing to the potential variations between the two groups of speakers in their conversational styles.

In order to achieve this overall objective, I have set out to complete the following three tasks:

- Examine, based on conversation analysis, the salient features of interactive discourse exhibited by Chinese EFL learners’ English in a paired speaking test;
- Investigate, by means of comparative analysis, similarities and differences between Chinese learner English and Australian native speaker English in dyadic conversation;
- Explore, from cross-linguistic and -culture perspectives, factors that have possibly contributed to the variations between the two groups in their interactional behavior.

1.4 Significance of the study

By examining the interactional features of test discourse by Chinese EFL learners in a paired task, the research has important implications for a range of areas.

Firstly, this study has theoretical significance in that it not only contributes to a better understanding of speech features of Chinese EFL learners, but this knowledge may be of benefit to the wider world of EFL studies. Spoken English, in particular the dyadic conversation in the assessment context by Chinese EFL learners is insufficiently-researched.
Obviously the research adds knowledge to that research area, which in turn has implications for the EFL speakers in other sociolinguistic contexts as well.

Second, this study helps contribute to a deeper understanding of the paired interaction generated during two-way collaborative tasks in tests such as the FCE and PETS and the construct of interactional competence underlying the candidate-candidate paired format in these tests. Informed with the knowledge on dyadic conversation and the construct of interactional competence underpinning the paired task, examiners/raters might offer more accurate and fairer assessment of candidates’ output in these tests.

Third, this study provides test developers with insight into the development of rating scales for paired oral tests. Specifically, the conversational features identified from the research can be applied as a frame of reference for revising or validating the existing performance descriptors in paired test tasks, which might currently appear vague or not explicit enough as they are inadequately specified in terms of interactional competence. For instance, the performance descriptors used for the ‘interactive communication’ scoring rubric in the PETS-5-SET can be revised for potential improvement on the basis of the findings in this study. As such, the research also contributes to the scholarly concern of some researchers (e.g., Fulcher, 1996, 2003; O’Sullivan & Weir, 2002; Weir, 2005) for the construction of valid rating scales, which are empirically-derived and data-driven.

Fourth, this study has important methodological significance in two ways. First, through a fine-grained utterance-by-utterance analysis of what the speakers are actually doing in a dyadic conversation, the study attests to the value of using CA methods in investigating test discourse. Second, by combining CA techniques with a quantitative approach in the data analysis, the study not only lends support to the use of quantifications and coding in CA analysis, but it also helps contribute to a more objective and comprehensive conclusion.

Fifth, this study holds considerable pedagogical significance. It sheds light on problems and difficulties confronted by Chinese EFL learners in speaking English and in understanding effective conversational strategies employed by the Australian students, which is of value in improving their conversational English.

Finally, the findings from this study can contribute significantly to the current debate concerning the norms to be applied in English (EIL) learning and assessment in the postmodern era, which has resulted in three scholarly camps with different views: (1) the ‘native norms-standard English’ perspective (Davies, 2002); (2) the ‘new English norm--the World Englishes’ perspective (Lowenberg, 2002); and (3) the ‘both-norms-and-more-varieties’ perspective (Canagarajah, 2006). By comparing the conversational styles exhibited by Chinese EFL learners and Australian native English speakers in a paired task, the present
study offers a chance to clarify our understanding of two varieties of Englishes. Especially helpful will be to have a clearer picture of speech characteristics of China English (Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Wang, 1991; Xie, 1995), one variety of World Englishes which falls into the expanding category in Kachru’s three concentric circles model (1985, 1986, 1992).

1.5 Research questions

Four basic issues guiding this PhD study are set out below as four distinct research questions.

RQ1: What are the interactional features of Chinese EFL learners’ discourse in a paired speaking test?

RQ2: What are the interactional features of Australian native English speakers in a dyadic conversation?

RQ3: In what specific ways does Chinese EFL learners’ spoken English differ from that of Australian speakers in the paired discussion?

RQ4: What factors contribute to the variations between Chinese learners of English and their Australian counterparts in the dyadic interaction?

The theoretical framework of instrument design in terms of these research questions, along with the procedures for data collection by each instrument, and major stages involved in data analysis will be described in Chapter 3.

1.6 Preview of the chapters

This present chapter has introduced the principal aspects of my PhD study. Specifically, the background of the study has been provided in terms of motivations and reasons for conducting the research. In addition, the objectives and significance of the research have been outlined. The research questions and scope of the research have also been presented.

Chapter 2 presents a comprehensive review of literature relevant to the current study, covering the theoretical background underlying this study. This involves exploring three key aspects, namely interactional competence, cross-cultural communication, and conversational analysis. The review also provides an overview of previous discourse-based empirical studies which examine the nature of spoken interaction both in speaking tests and L2 learning in classroom contexts with a focus on the research investigating Chinese EFL learners’ performance on paired speaking tests using discourse analytic techniques.
Chapter 3 describes the research design and methodology followed in the study. It illustrates the rationale of instrument design, the procedures for data collection, and the major stages involved in data analysis.

Chapter 4 provides an overview of CA findings obtained from the pair talk analysis in this study in order to contextualise the more detailed illustration of the findings in the subsequent three chapters (5, 6 and 7).

Chapter 5 analyses the pair talk by Chinese student participants in terms of three dimensions: generic structure; interactional patterns; and turn-taking behavior.

Chapter 6 examines the pair talk by Australian native English speaking student participants from the same three aspects as the Chinese EFL learners set out in Chapter 5.

Chapter 7 compares the nature of spoken discourse by Chinese participants in the dyadic conversation with that of their Australian native English speaking counterparts from the three dimensions of generic structure; interactional patterns; and turn-taking behavior. The differences in the conversation of the two groups in the pair task and the important contributing factors to the variations are also discussed.

Chapter 8 concludes the study. It comprises four parts: a summary of the main findings; the contributions and limitations of the study; the implications of the study; and suggested areas for future research.

1.7 Summary

This introductory chapter has set the scene for the current study. The reasons for conducting the research, the objectives to be achieved, the significance of undertaking the research, and the questions to be addressed have all been presented. A preview of each chapter has also been provided.

In the next chapter, the theoretical background underlying this PhD study will be presented, including the theoretical framework guiding the study and an overview of previous studies related to the research topic.
2 Literature Review

This chapter will present a review of the literature relevant to the current study. The review is comprised of two major parts: theoretical underpinnings and previous research. The first part sets out the theoretical basis of the current study, involving interactional competence, cross-cultural communication, and conversational analysis. The second part surveys the discourse-based studies in both speaking tests and L2 interaction in classroom contexts with a particular focus on the research investigating Chinese EFL learners’ performance on paired speaking tests using discourse analytic techniques.

2.1 Theoretical underpinnings

Theoretically, the current study is informed by the concepts of “interactional competence” and “cross-cultural communication” and the theory of conversational analysis. The rationale for this is that developments in the exploration of the nature of language ability have great theoretical significance in explaining the role of interactional competence in L2 oral assessment. Studies on cross-cultural communication offer interpretations to the culture-bound differences observable in the discourse performance between Chinese EFL speakers and Australian native English speakers. The system of conversational analysis and related empirical research on spoken discourse provide the practical model for describing the interactional behaviour of Chinese learners of English in dyadic interaction.

2.1.1 Interactional competence

This section will provide a general review of the literature on interactional competence: the origin, development, and implications for L2 teaching and testing.

2.1.1.1 Concept of interactional competence

Interactional competence refers to the knowledge and skills participants bring to and apply appropriately to co-construct the interaction with their co-participants in a specific discursive practice within a particular socio-cultural context.

The notion of interactional competence (henceforth IC) was first proposed by Kramsch (1986), then taken up by Hall (1993, 1995, 1999), Hall and Doeler (2011), He and Young, (1998), and Young (2000, 2008, 2009, 2011), and also enriched by other researchers (Chalhoub-Deville & Deville, 2005; Ducasse & Brown, 2009; Markee 2000; McNamara, 1996, 1997; Savignon, 1983,1997; Tarone 1998). Following Kramsch (1986), these scholars, approaching from different perspectives, developed the theory into slightly different versions,
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and consequently came up with varying definitions. From a second language acquisition (SLA) perspective, Young (2008) defines IC as being specific to a single discursive practice between linguistic and interactional resources on the one hand, and the social context in which the resources are employed on the other (p. 204). Placed within a frame of conversational analysis, Ducasse and Brown (2009) state that:

“Interactional competence can be defined in terms of how speakers structure and sequence their speech, and how they apply turn-taking rules. It can also be defined in terms of how speakers collaborate and support their interactional partner to co-construct the spoken performance.” (p. 424)

Although there has been no universally accepted definition of IC, most scholars agree that IC is essential for spoken interaction and co-construction is central to a successful conversation. The following sections will outline the evolution of the construct of IC in the realm of SLA over several decades and its theoretical implications for L2 teaching and assessment.

2.1.1.2 Changed views on language ability

Since the advent of L2 teaching and testing as a profession, practitioners in the field have been in need of a widely accepted means of describing language ability since a proper operationalisation of the construct into an instructional framework could contribute to make the process of L2 teaching more effective. Similarly, a good understanding of the construct has far-reaching implications for several areas of L2 testing, including test design, rating scale construction, and validation research, among others. Therefore, the exploration of the nature of L2 ability became one of the focal points of linguistics and applied linguists since the late 1960s. Over the years, the theoretical advances on the issue have resulted in the development of different models, of which, there are two major ones: (1) the cognitive/psycholinguistic ability model (or simply cognitive/ability model) (Chapelle, 1998; Johnson 2001; McNamara, 1996; Young, 2000), on which the traditional communicative competence theories (Bachman, 1990; Canale 1983; Canale & Swain 1980; Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, & Thurrell 1995; Savignon 1983) center; and (2) the (social) interactional model or co-constructionist model (Chalhoub-Deville, 2003), which is advocated by the proponents of interactional competence theory (Kramsch, 1986; Hall, 1993, 1995, 1999; Hall & Doehler, 2011; He & Young, 1998; Young, 2000, 2008, 2009, 2011). Although mandated with the same goal of describing the nature of L2 use, the two paradigms differ fundamentally due to the varying focuses they have, which are identified and discussed by a number of scholars (Chalhoub-Deville, 2003; Hall, 1993, 1995, 1999; Hall & Doehler, 2011; He & Young, 1998; McNamara, 1996; Nakatsuahara, 2009; Tarone, 1998; Young, 2000, 2008, 2009, 2011).
In terms of the nature of language use, Chalhoub-Deville (2003) argues that the cognitive model emphasises that language ability resides in individuals and it segregates the abilities targeted and the context in which they are observed. By contrast, the social interactional approach maintains that language use is a socially-situated activity and the ability that language users possess and the context where the interaction takes place are inextricably meshed (p. 371-2). From a L2 learning point of view, Tarone (1998) claims that the traditional cognitive perspective sees the learner as a “decontextualised information-processing mechanism and working alone”, whereas the social interactional perspective holds that interaction ultimately consists of learners who ‘synchronise their interactive moves’ within certain context. Nakatsuahara (2009) explicates the distinction between two paradigms via the construct definition underling the oral tests proposed by Messick (1989, 1996) and Chapelle (1998), arguing that the tests based on the trait definition of the construct advocated by the cognitive model attributes test-takers’ performance solely to the ability within an individual, while test performance, founded on the internationalist construct definition, is perceived as a representation of underlying abilities and influenced by the context in which it occurs (p. 365).

In sum, the ability approach emphasises the cognitive aspect of individual language users while the interactional approach stresses the socio-cultural constructions jointly achieved by the participants in discursive practice. Of the two dimensions, it is generally accepted that the latter represents our contemporary understanding of interaction in SLA, that is, language use is a social event and interaction is co-produced by all participants in a given context (Young, 2008, p. 100). The following section will trace several influential competence theories relating to the two ‘theoretical camps’ noted above and their evolution over the last three decades or so which help shape and reshape our understanding of L2 use.

2.1.1.3 Communicative competence theories

Interactional competence has developed on the basis of communicative competence (CC) theories. To have a clear understanding of IC, this section will illustrate the CC theories and models that have emerged over the years.

2.1.1.3.1 Development of CC theories

2.1.1.3.1.1 Communicative competence theories in 1970s

The term ‘communicative competence’ (hereafter CC) was originally proposed by Dell Hymes (1972) in opposition to Chomsky’s (1965) highly grammar-focused theory of language competence. Hymes put forward a distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of their language) and performance (the actual use of language in real-life
situations). For Hymes (1974), Chomsky’s (1965) theory on language competence is limited in the way that he conceptually separated language knowledge from language use and gave no account of social interaction (Savignon, 1983, p.13). Therefore, it could not fully account for the knowledge and skills that individuals must have to understand and produce language appropriately in a particular cultural context.

Not content with the theory, Hymes (1972) proposed a four-dimension model of CC on the basis of L1, aiming to account for the rules of language use and the norms of language appropriacy in a given social situation. The four dimensions comprise systemic potential (i.e., knowledge of and ability to use the generative base of language, appropriateness (i.e., knowledge of language behaviour and its contextual features as well as the ability to use language appropriately), occurrence (i.e., knowledge of whether and to what extent action is taken with language and the ability to use language to take such action), and feasibility (i.e., knowledge of whether and to what extent something is possible, and then ability to be practical or feasible) (Hall, 2002/2005, p. 106).

Attempting to bridge the divide set up by Chomsky, Hymes’ (1972) CC model takes both ‘linguistic’ and ‘sociolinguistic’ elements into account, contrasting sharply with Chomsky’s (1965) theory, which came to be known as linguistic competence (Young, 2008, p. 96).

2.1.3.1.2 Communicative competence theories in 1980s

Building on Hymes’s (1974) work, Michael Canale and Merrill Swain (1980) offered their characterisation of CC, attempting to use Hymes’s model to develop a framework for ESL/EFL curriculum design and test construction. Their initial model of CC encompasses three interacting competences: grammatical competence (i.e., knowledge of the rules of grammar, including phonology and lexical items); sociolinguistic competence (i.e., knowledge of the sociocultural rules of use in a given context) and strategic competence (i.e., knowledge of how to use communication strategies to handle breakdowns in communication) (Young, 2008, p. 97). Canale (1983) subsequently updated the framework by adding a fourth component to the model: discourse competence, which refers to the knowledge to achieve coherence and cohesion in a spoken or written test (Weir, 1993, p. 8).

In terms of conceptualisation of language ability, Canale and Swain’s framework goes beyond the theory proposed by Chomsky as it extends the notion of competence with inclusion of CC components to the latter’s original formulation of grammatical competence. However, their understanding of language competence is similar in that they perceive CC to be a property of individuals and fail to consider adequately the contribution made by co-participants in interaction (Demo, 2006, p. 14).
2.1.1.3.1.3 Communicative competence theories in 1990s


While acknowledging that the CC theories proposed by Canale & Swain (1980, 1983) recognise communication as a dynamic process and that language use is contextually situated, they still view interaction largely in relation to an individual (Demo, 2006, p. 14). Bachman (1990) revised and broadened Canale and Swain’s framework, resulting in a hierarchical framework known as Communicative Language Ability (CLA). The model of CLA (see Figure 1) is composed of three dimensions at the highest level, language competence, strategic competence, and psycho-physiological mechanisms, each of which is further divided into subcategories. Language competence includes organisational competence, which consists of grammatical and textual competence, and pragmatic competence, which comprises of illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence. Strategic competence involves the more general knowledge and skills involved in assessing, planning, and executing communicative acts effectively. Psycho-physiological mechanisms refer to the neurological and physiological processes involved in language use, including the channel (auditory/visual) and mode (receptive/productive). As such, Bachman’s model includes both knowledge and ability for implementing that competence in an appropriate, contextualised communicative language use (Weir, 1993, p. 8).
Later, in collaboration with Palmer, Bachman refined the CLA model. The updated version by Bachman and Palmer (1996) (see Figure 2) involve five components: language knowledge (i.e., knowledge about language in the user’s memory); topical knowledge (i.e., knowledge about different topics that the user brings to a language use situation); personal characteristics (i.e., the basic features of a person such as age, sex and native language); strategic competence (i.e., the users’ meta-cognitive organisation and monitoring of the situation); and affective factors (the user’s emotional responses to the situation). In actual language use, the knowledge categories and personal characteristics are mediated by strategic and affective factors. As such, the amended model views language use as interaction between language users and contexts (Luoma, 2004, p. 98). With these assumptions, the theoretical model by Bachman and Palmer (1990, 1996) has become the most frequently used communicative framework in language testing for over the last two decades.
After Bachman and Palmer (1996), Celce-Murcia, Domyei, and Thurrell (1995) developed their CC model (see Figure 3), which consists of five competencies: discourse competence, linguistic competence, actional competence (i.e., the ability to perform common speech acts and speech act sets in the target language involving interaction), socio-cultural competence, and strategic competence. As shown in the Figure 3, discourse competence is the core of the five components and all the remaining components are constantly interacting with each other and the discourse component.

Figure 2. Model of Language Ability (Bachman and Palmer, 1996, p. 63).

Figure 3. Model of communicative competence (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995, p. 10).
Building on her previous work, Celce-Murcia (2007) subsequently revised the model, aiming to better serve language teaching (see Figure 4). In the updated framework, actional competence in the previous model is incorporated into interactional competence\(^1\) as a subcomponent, alongside conversational competence and non-verbal/paralinguistic competence. In addition, formulaic competence (which refers to the fixed and prefabricated chunks of language in daily use) is added to the model as a new component (Celce-Murcia, 2007, pp. 48-9). Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell’s (1995) model and the amended version by Celce-Murcia (2007) provide a clear picture of the interrelationship among all the components and Celce-Murcia’s is the first CC model which incorporates IC into a language ability construct, yet they are fairly abstract, and consequently hard to be operationalised and implemented as a reference framework for oral assessments. This inconvenience in practical terms may be one of the reasons why these models are less widely known than other frameworks.

\(^1\) The notion of interactional competence here happens to be one of the components in Celce-Murcia’s (2007) model on the construct of language ability. Semantically, it differs from the interactional competence theories being discussed in other sections of Chapter 3.
So far, four major CC theories\(^2\) have been presented. These models have significantly broadened our understanding of language ability, yet as Young and others have noted, there are still limitations in these theories (Kramsch, 1986; McNamara, 1996; Young, 2008), which fall into two main categories: (1) the various components of CC have, by and large, been treated as static, cognitive properties of individuals; (2) the focus of research has been on competence for speaking and not on competence of interaction (Hall & Doehler, 2011, p. 4). For example, Kramsch (1986) argues that these existing models took an oversimplified view on human interaction (p. 367) in that they ignore the interpersonal aspects of communication i.e., the inherently shared responsibility between participants in social interaction. Opposing the way that social interaction is transformed into an aspect of cognitive organisation of individuals as conceptualised by the authors of the CC models, McNamara (1996) points out, ‘a weakness of the current models is that they focus too much on the individual rather than the individual in interaction’ (p. 86). Viewing talk as an instance of ‘discursive practice’, Young (2008) contends that language competence is not the knowledge or possession of an individual person as claimed by the CC models, rather it is co-constructed by all participants in the practice (p. 101). To address these inadequacies, Kramsch and other researchers (Hall, 1993, 1995, 1999; He & Young, 1998; McNamara, 1996; Markee 2000; Swain, 2001; Young 1999, 2000, 2002) ‘pushed’ for a socio-cultural view of language interaction.

2.1.1.4 Interactional competence theories

As mentioned in section 2.1.1.1, the notion of IC was first proposed by Kramsch (1986), but a review of the literature reveals that in fact Savignon (1983, 1997) touched on the key premises of IC theory even before the coinage of the term by Kramsch, thus Savingson’s assumption of competence theory is discussed under the banner of IC rather than CC in the current study. Following these two researchers, the concept of IC was late taken up by Hall (1995, 1999), He and Young (1998), among others.

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\(^2\) Apart from these frameworks, other researchers have also proposed their conceptualization of language ability (e.g., Douglas, 2000; Purpura, 2004; Esther Usó-Juan and Alicia Martínez-Flor, 2008). Specifically, Douglas (2000) proposes a modification of Bachman and Palmer’s model to account for specific language use. Building on Bachman and Palmer’s (1996) model, Purpura (2004) addresses the ambiguous role of ‘meaning’ and ‘meaning conveyance’ in CLA. He puts forward a model of language knowledge with two interacting components: grammatical knowledge and pragmatic knowledge (See Purpura, 2008 for details). Based on Celce-Murcia et al.’s (1995) framework, Usó Juan and Martínez-Flor (2008) propose their model of CC, comprising five components: discourse competence; linguistic competence; pragmatic competence; intercultural competence; and strategic competence. These models have greatly enhanced applied linguists’ understandings of various facets of CC. However, for the purpose of the current study, only those models which are relatively influential have been reviewed.
2.1.1.4.1 Development of IC theories

2.1.1.4.1.1 Interactional competence theories in 1980s

After Canale and Swain (1980, 1983), Savignon (1983, 1997) also discussed the concept of CC, but she approached the issue from a different perspective, known as the interactional approach to communication (Demo, 2006, p. 23). Unlike Canale and Swain, who view CC into a set of separate, discrete knowledge components that an individual must minimally possess to be communicatively competent, Savignon offers a holistic model by putting forward the notion of interpersonal communication, which is fully consistent with the basic tenets of IC articulated by its advocates. Three key characteristics highlighted in Savignon’s description of competence in communication include: (1) CC is dynamic rather than static. It involves negotiation of meaning between the participants; (2) CC is relative, not absolute. It depends on cooperation of all the participants involved; (3) CC is context-specific rather than context-free. The success of communication relies on one’s understanding of the context and prior experience of a similar kind (Savignon, 1983, 1997, pp. 8-9). By recognizing communication as a dynamic, negotiated, co-constructed, and context-specific phenomenon, Savignon underscores the significance of socio-cultural aspects of language use in L2 contexts that the existing CC theories (Hymes, 1972; Canale & Swain, 1980) overlook.

Rejecting the existing CC models, Kramsch (1986) introduced the term of “interactional competence”. In her thinking, IC presupposes a shared internal context or ‘sphere of inter-subjectivity’ (p. 367). Conceptualizing language ability as such, Kramsch’s IC model targets how multiple participants employ interactional resources to co-construct a discursive practice (Pauper, 2009, p. 479). Additionally, Kramsch highlights the importance of IC in L2 oral assessment, calling for furthering understanding of IC in terms of operationalizing the construct in speaking tests and taking account of the inherently co-constructed nature of language use in test design and discourse interpretation. Thus, Kramsch contributes to IC development in the way she inspires a research agenda that continues to the present day. However, she does not identify specific linguistic features that would comprise of IC or how it can be translated into testing practices (Demo, 2006, p.13).

2.1.1.4.1.2 Interactional competence theories in the 1990s

In response to calls for more socially grounded, dynamic understanding of interaction, IC theory regained momentum in the 1990s, as seen by Hall (1993, 1995, 1999), Hall and Doehler, 2011; He and Young (1998), and Young (1998, 2000, 2008, 2009, 2011), who further developed the theory. It is from these researchers that IC has become more clearly defined.
Hall (1993, 1995, 1999) proposes the theoretical notion of ‘interactive practices’, which is conceptually equal to Young’s (2008) ‘discursive practices’. According to Hall, interactive practices are “socioculturally conventionalised configurations of face-to-face interaction by which and within which group members communicate” (Hall, 1993, p.146). She (1999) also indicates that language use is tied to the interactive practice, the participants involved, and the resources available rather than being individually motivated activity free from any social constraints (p. 221). Apart from its theoretical formulation, Hall’s work also relates to the IC development of L2 learners. Drawing on Hymes’ (1972) ethnography of speaking framework, Hall puts forward a specific pedagogical approach to the study of interactive practices in L2 classroom, which he calls ‘prosaics of interaction’, arguing that the development of L2 IC involves minimally two related activities: (1) systematic study of L2 interactive practices, where learners should be guided to detect the patterns used by the participants through the conscious analysis of their practices (Hall, 1999, p. 140); and (2) guided practice in those interactive practices, preferably with more experienced participants for better outcomes (Hall, 1999, p. 140). This pedagogical proposal for IC development is very useful in that L2 instructors may apply it in their practices to assist their students in acquiring IC.

In relation to IC, Young (1998) is best known for his proposal of a ‘discursive practice’ approach to language-in-interaction, which views social realities as interactionally constructed, interaction as meaning negotiated, and discourse as context-bound (Young, 2000, p. 1). To Young, IC comprises a descriptive framework of socio-cultural characteristics of discursive practices and interactional processes by which discursive practices are co-constructed by participants. Like Hall, apart from conceptualizing the notion, Young also proposes an analytic framework for analyzing the discursive practices co-built by participants. The framework\(^3\) consists of six components: (1) rhetorical script (i.e., knowledge of sequences of speech acts that are conventionally linked to a given type); (2) register (e.g. technical/expert vocabulary); (3) strategies for taking turns; (4) topic management (e.g. the rights to introduce/change topics and their placement); (5) roles and patterns of participation related to a given practice (i.e., novice-expert role relation; speaker-hearer reciprocity); (6) boundary signaling devices (i.e. opening-, transition- and closing-procedures) (Hall & Doehler, 2011, pp. 4-5).

Centred on the concept of discursive practices, the key features of the interactional competence theory advocated by Young can be summarised into three major aspects: (1) IC is

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\(^3\) Young (2011) revised the analytic framework for interactive practices (see Young, 2011, pp, 429-30). The amended version includes seven interactional resources, which fall under three headings: identity resources (participation framework); linguistic resources (register and modes of meaning); and interactional resources (speech acts, turn-taking, repair & boundaries). However, as the updated model seems to be more abstract, the old version is being reviewed in the current study.
concerned with language use in specific discursive practices rather than practice-independent over-arching competence that can be generalised to any settings; (2) IC is distributed across participants rather than residing in individuals; (3) Participants need to deploy a set of interactional resources to complete a discursive practice successfully. It is the interaction of these resources both within and among individuals that determines IC at any one moment of speaking (Demo, 2006, p. 15).

In sum, IC theory deepens our understanding of the nature of language competence, but so far, there has been no unified definition of IC and no consensus on the L2 construct. There remain a lot of issues to be resolved if IC is to be applied as a sound framework for L2 teaching and testing.

2.1.1.5 Implications of IC for L2 teaching and testing

As the construct of language competence constitutes an interface of second language acquisition (SLA), teaching, and testing, the theoretical strides in SLA on what it means to speak a second language will impact language teaching and testing in both theory and practice because there is always a need for practitioners in L2 teaching and testing to embody the newly-emerging theory in their practice to improve teaching effectiveness and to design valid tests. Over the past three decades, L2 teaching approaches have witnessed a departure away from an earlier cognitive approach to communicative language teaching (CLT) popular in the 1970s and 1980s, where learners were given opportunities for skill practice and communicative interaction, toward the social (cognitive) view of communicative teaching, which put more emphasis on language use in authentic social contexts to develop L2 learners’ communicative abilities. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, the emergence of a (social) interactional perspective of language use has contributed to the recent popularity of two teaching modes in L2 classrooms, i.e., project-based (Legutke & Thomas, 1991) and task-based approaches (Willis, 1996), which highlight the role of interaction in the instructed learning process and advocates great use of pair and group interaction, where learners are actively engaged in meaning negotiation in authentic contexts (Cutrim Schmid, 2010, p. 160).

In a similar vein, the theoretical advances in applied linguistics over recent decades undoubtedly brought about an evolution in L2 assessment. The last three decades have seen the important paradigm shift in L2 testing theories and test formats: from a ‘psycholinguistic-sociolinguistic’ view of language testing in the 1970s and 1980s, when the global integrative test was strongly emphasised with the perception that such tests could measure the ability to integrate disparate language skills in ways which more closely approximated the actual process of language use (Weir, 1993, p. 3), to a ‘communicative language testing’ approach in the 1980s and 1990s, which marked a move away from using a purely grammatical basis for
determining a learner’s oral proficiency to take into account the contextual features of linguistic interaction into the test repertoire (Dings, 2007, p. 3). In the 1990s, the performance-based approach to language testing was adopted to assess learner’s overall communicative ability where integrative and direct tests were employed in the oral proficiency interview (OPI) (McNarama, 1995, p. 159). During recent years, with the advent of the interactional perspective of L2 use and the increasing recognition of the weaknesses inherent in the traditional examiner-examinee OPI, peer-peer interaction has been widely used in oral language assessment (Ducasse & Brown, 2009, p. 425). It is argued that when candidates deploy their interactional resources to accomplish communicative goals in pair or group task, their IC can best be captured.

While language testers tout the benefits of the new IC theory, with its seemingly opposing features (e.g., it is co-constructed, but inherently local in nature), IC poses great challenges for oral assessment practitioners at least in three ways: generalisation of scores; rating of the performance; and development of rating scales.

The first challenge IC poses to L2 assessment relates to the generalisation of scores. If the social perspective in oral assessment is adopted, language testers face the conundrum of reconciling the inherently local nature of language use with the need for assessments to yield scores that can be generalised across contextual boundaries (Chalhoub-Deville, 2003, p. 373). In other words, as IC is meaningful only in a specific practice and the ability displayed by a test taker in one context of use differs from that in other situations, any inferences about ability from the performance in other contexts are questionable.

The second challenge that language testers encounter is the rating of candidates’ performance. If test talk as a specific discursive practice is viewed as co-constructed by the participants, the rater has the difficulty of disentangling an individual’s contribution to a communicative event to award a single score to an individual test taker in a paired or group speaking test to meet the test takers’ gate-keeping objectives, such as access to education, employment, or other high-stake life opportunities (Chalhoub-Deville & Deville, 2005; May, 2007).

A third challenge concerning the IC in oral assessment concerns the development of rating scales. Existing rating scales based on a cognitive approach of language use are inadequate for IC assessment, which undoubtedly creates problems for the raters when they try to unravel the impact of one candidate upon the other’s performance in dyadic or multi-party interaction. With the absence of rating scales specifically designed for IC assessment, raters are often forced to derive their own frame of reference in order to make a judgment about an individual’s interactive effectiveness in the context of a paired or group speaking test.
(May, 2007), which will certainly affect their rating reliability and ultimately the validity of the test.

To sum up, the incorporation of a social perspective of interaction in L2 oral assessment gives rise to a number of questions for consideration. Clearly, a convincing body of knowledge has yet to be accumulated in this regard.

2.1.2 Cross-cultural communication

It is widely recognised that communication and culture are inextricably linked and one manifestation of such interrelatedness is the influence of culture on the communicative behaviour of individuals (Cheng, 2003). Culture is a multi-faceted phenomenon and has been defined variously by different researchers. For the purpose of the current study, culture refers to a complex frame of references that consists of patterns of traditions, beliefs, values, norms and symbols that are shared to varying degrees by members of a community. As Fitzgerald (2003) notes, culture entails the customs and expectations of the people in the group/community, therefore, it affects their language use, i.e., communicative behaviour. Specifically, speakers from different linguistic and cultural background have their own culture-specific principles of discourse organisation, including rhetorical patterns and conversational styles (e.g., Chen, 1995; Gudykunst, 2004; Gudykunst et al., 1988; Hoff, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 1991, 1993, 2002; Li et al., 2001; Scollon & Scollon, 1991, 1995/2001; Tannen, 1984/2005; Ting-Toomey, 1999; Young, 1994). The current study involves a contrastive analysis of spoken discourse by Chinese and Australian students in the dyadic conversation, who are from two different languacultures, so it is imperative to take culture into account to have a better idea of interactional features. This section reviews the cultural dimension of spoken interaction as part of the theoretical underpinning for the current study, comprising two aspects: discourse strategies and conversational styles.

2.1.2.1 Discourse strategies

The nature of discourse is one of the most important considerations in any communicative study (Cheng, 2003). Studies of both cross-cultural communication, which typically compares the communication practices of one socio-lingual group with another (Browe & Martin, 2007, p. 3), and (cross-cultural) contrastive discourse, which involves comparing and contrasting discourse strategies deployed by speakers with different languacultures in social interaction (Clyne, 1994, p. 3), have demonstrated that cultures vary in terms of discourse strategies employed by their members in social interaction even though they share the same communication intent. For instance, Asians are found to prefer an inductive pattern for the introduction of topics and Westerners tend to favor a deductive pattern in their
idea presentation (e.g., Clyne, 1994; Connor, 1996; Gudykunst, 2004; Kirkpatrick, 1991, 1993, 2002; Samovar & Porter, 2004; Scollon & Scollon, 1991, 1995/2001; Scollon et al., 2000; Ting-Toomey, 1999; Young, 1994). Specifically, a discourse comparison between Chinese and English cultures reveals a preference of the former to a communication style, where the topic is delayed until sufficient background has been provided, and a tendency for the latter to adopt a direct mode of speaking, where a speaker’s main argument is placed at the beginning of a talk, followed by the supporting details (Chen, 2008, Connor, 1996; Kaplan, 1966; Scollon & Scollon, 1995, 2001; Young, 1994) though there is nothing inherently Chinese or Westerners about either practice as both patterns emerge in their respective cultures. Due to variability in their use of discourse strategies, talk by Asians appears indirect, ambiguous, and understated by nature as they tend to “beat around the bush”, while interaction by Westerners is direct, explicit, and to the point as they favor “call a spade a spade” (Gudykunst, 2004; Katan, 2004).

Apart from cross-cultural communication studies and contrastive studies comparing native discourse across cultures, another major approach investigating the role of culture in interaction is the inter-language approach (Clyne, 1994, p. 3), which examines the discourses of non-native speakers in L2. The relevant research on L2 interaction has revealed that there are preferred discourse patterns in L2 spoken interaction, particularly in EFL/ESL learning contexts (e.g., Chen, 2008; Connor, 2004; Johnson, 1992; Liu, 1995; Scollon & Scollon, 1994; Ting-Toomey, 1999). Many non-English (i.e., Asian) speakers adopt the “indirect” style and introduce topics in an inductive fashion in spoken interaction, while native English speakers employ the “direct” style and present topics deductively (e.g., Clyne 1994; Kachru, 1995; Kaplan, 1966; Kirkpatrick, 1991; Ramsay 2000; Scollon & Scollon, 1995/2001; Young, 1994). Unsurprisingly, these studies have also uncovered unequivocal evidence of variations in discourse patterns between English by Chinese learners and English by Anglo-Americans: a preference in Chinese learners’ English for an indirect/inductive style and a tendency by native English speakers for a direct/deductive mode in conversational interaction. A typical example is an inclination for Chinese speakers to give reasons for a request before making it, while native English speakers prefer to make the request and then provide justification for it (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 195).

To have a better understanding of the differences and the reasons behind these differences between Chinese and English speakers in their use of discourse strategies, four theoretical frameworks for analyzing cultural variabilities pertinent to the phenomenon will be drawn on and briefly discussed: Kaplan’s (1966) contrastive rhetoric hypothesis, Hall’s (1976, 1983) high-low context model, Hofstede’s (1980, 1991) collectivist-individualist

2.1.2.1 Kaplan’s contrastive rhetoric

Whenever contrastive discourse study is mentioned, the notion of contrastive rhetoric (Kaplan, 1966) cannot be ignored. According to Kaplan, rhetorical structures vary from culture to culture. Some Asian discourse is characterised by the use of a circular (indirect) style as opposed to a linear (direct) style in English. Interestingly enough, Kaplan’s contrastive rhetoric hypothesis, which was originally based on written discourse, finds its strongest support in analysis of spoken discourse when it comes to its application by Chinese speakers. His pioneering work has led to a number of further explorations on cross-cultural comparisons between Chinese and English, all indicating that Chinese speakers tend to adopt an indirect or circular mode and Westerners prefer a direct or linear pattern in their discourse organisation (Kirkpatrick, 1993; Young 1994).

2.1.2.1.2 Hall’s high-low context classifications

The differences noted between Chinese and English speakers in their employment of discourse strategies, in particular, the Chinese indirectness and the western directness, are embodied by Hall’s (1976, 1983) taxonomies of cultural patterns.

Hall (1976, 1983) classifies culture broadly into high-context and low-context cultures. According to Hall, speakers of high- (i.e., Chinese) and low-context (i.e., Australian) cultures demonstrate significantly different communication behaviour, including the major channel of information transfer, sequence of idea presentation, and interpretation of silence. In a high-context culture, much of the information is contained in the contexts and nonverbal cues rather than expressed explicitly in words; the talk is indirect as a substantial amount of face work is done before the topic is introduced and the ideas are presented inductively (Scollon & Scollon, 1991; Young, 1994); and silence is something people tend to experience comfort with as it is regarded as a communicative act conveying much meaning (Di Mare, 1990). By contrast, much of the messages in a low-context culture are transmitted in words rather than nonverbal cues and contexts (Martin & Nakayama, 2007); the talk tends to be direct in that the topic is introduced at the beginning of the discourse and information is structured deductively; and silence is not well tolerated as it is thought to interrupt the flow of conversation (Gudykunst, 2004).
2.1.2.1.3 Hofstede’s collectivist-individualist cultural dichotomy

Like Hall’s (1976, 1983) high- and low-context communication orientation, Hofstede’s (1980, 1991) collectivism-individualism dichotomy provides another dimension to understand the differences between Chinese indirectness and Westerners’ directness in their spoken text. Defined by the degree of relative importance attached by a cultural community to the individual as opposed to the community (Triandis, 1995), Hofstede (1980, 1991) divides cultures into collectivism-individualism paradigm. Briefly speaking, Asian collectivistic cultures are other-oriented and emphasise connectedness, harmony, and conformity, whereas western individualistic cultures are self-oriented, stress independence, and individual achievement (Hofstede, 2001). Differences in individualistic and collectivistic orientations entail different communication styles due to cultural differences in the importance people assign to values such as rapport and harmony versus independence and clarity in interaction (Wierzbicka, 1991). Collectivistic cultures, of which the Chinese is a typical example, are more concerned about building rapport or maintaining harmonious social relationship, which is the prime value of Confucian’s ideology (Gu, 1990). For this goal, speakers tend to ‘manipulate’ their language, i.e., use ambiguous statements to mask their true wants and thoughts, which results in the indirectness of their speech (Cheng, 2003). Although the collectivistic aspect of traditional Chinese society is gradually losing its structural strength and functional importance during China’s course of modernisation, collectivistic values still contribute significantly to the shaping of the Chinese self and their perception of the relationship between self and others or the outside world (Wen & Clement, 2003), which is accordingly reflected in their discourse. For instance, it is very common for the Chinese to engage in a small talk to build rapport before initiating the main topic, which is especially true of interpersonal communication in business negotiations (Li et al., 2001, p. 144). By contrast, individualistic cultures, of which the Australian is an example, clarity in conversation, which is seen as necessary for effective communication, is highlighted (Kim, 1994), thus people prefer to talk about their true intentions and desire explicitly, which leads to direct speech. In the case of making request, for example, individualistic cultures consider direct request the most effective strategy for accomplishing their goals and the reverse is often true for collectivistic cultures (Kim & Wilson, 1994).

2.1.2.1.4 Brown and Levinson’s face-saving framework

In addition to the three frameworks discussed above, Brown and Levinson’s face-saving/politeness theory provides another dimension to account for the observed differences between Chinese and English speakers in their discourse strategies. According to Scollon &
Scollon (2000), Chinese indirectness and western directness could result from their different ways of treating the face politeness relationship (pp, 23-24).

Brown and Levinson’s (1978/87) model consists of three basic notions: (1) face; (2) face-threatening acts (FTAs); and (3) politeness strategies. ‘Face’, refers to the desire that all people have to maintain and defend their own self-image in communication (Bowe & Martin, 2007, p. 27). Although face is something that every member of the society wants to claim for himself (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 66), it is conceptualised differently across cultures and different cultures attach a varying degree of importance to it, depending on the underlying social values (Aritze & Walker, 2010). For instance, face work plays a crucial role in the development and maintenance of social relationships in all cultures, but face-talk occupies a very conspicuous place in Chinese culture with Confucianism as its philosophical roots and harmony as the prime imperative (Cheng, 1986; Young, 1994).

With regard to the second dimension of Brown and Levinson’ model, they propose that speakers will employ some “polite” face-saving strategies to protect and enhance the addressee’s face when the inherently face-threatening acts (FTA) are perceived. They also posit that the assessment of the seriousness of a face-threatening act involves three culturally and contextually defined variables: (1) relative power (P); (2) social distance (D); and (3) ranking of imposition (R) (p.74). According to Feng, Chang & Holt (2011),

“Power refers to the degree to which one can impose one’s thoughts and plans on another. Social distance includes closeness and social similarity. Ranking of impositions means the absolute level of obligation the speaker wants to communicate to the hearer. The combination of P, D, and R affects the ‘weight’ (i.e., degree of face threat) of action in a specific context. When the weight is greater, one should choose a more polite strategy” (p. 304).

Judged by the three variables, the overall weight of action in Chinese culture, in comparison with Western culture⁴, tends to be greater in that, in Chinese society, where hierarchy is greatly emphasised, to recognise power relations and build interpersonal relationships with others in communication is considered a primary consideration for behaving appropriately (Gao & Ting-Toomey, 1998). To achieve this goal, a deferential style of communication is required to formulate the messages (Feng et al. 2011, p. 303). To speak ‘politely’, speakers normally resort to an indirect speech style, which is seen as a universal politeness strategy across cultures (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1980; Wierzbicka, 1991). One manifestation of the indirectness in Chinese speech is that Chinese frequently

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⁴ “Western culture” in the current study is used in a broad sense. It indicates people who speak English as their native language such as Americans, Australians, Canadians, and New Zealanders, and it also includes Anglo-Saxon-Celts and Western Europeans.
engage in ‘small talk’ (face work) before initiating the main topic in conversational interaction. The rationale for this is that speakers can make a deliberate maneuvering so as to satisfy each other’s wants of face, which in turn help build a harmonious relationship (Wang, 2008, p. 197). By contrast, in Western culture, where the ideology of egalitarianism is much stressed, communication emphasises conveying the exact meaning rather than building interpersonal relationships (Cheng, 2003). As such, the degree of face threat involved in Westerners in communication tends to be much less serious than in Chinese culture, and thus the Westerners are inclined to express their ideas more directly and explicitly.

So far, four theoretical frameworks have been used in this review to explain the differences between Chinese and westerners in terms of their speech style. It is argued that culture has a direct bearing on the variations between Chinese and English speakers in terms of communication behaviour. However, two points need to be noted when the issue of indirectness of Asians’ speech (i.e., Chinese) is considered: (1) Firstly, most of the aforementioned discussions on the indirectness of speech by Asians in general and Chinese in particular are based on the traditional cultural stereotypes, in fact, the Asian communication styles are becoming increasingly hybridised in the postmodern era. In other words, many Asian speakers, particularly the young, more educated from the urban segments of the society (Levine et al., 2007), use a direct style in their English speaking in the modern world. The co-existence of direct and indirect rhetorical styles in their communication by Asians shows a combination of their collectivist cultural identity incorporated with individualist orientation, which come as the result of their exposure to Western culture in the context of globalisation, and/or the changing EFL learning in the classroom, where English conventions i.e., including rhetorical strategy is implicitly instructed. Nevertheless, given the fact that many Asians (i.e., the Chinese) still employ the (culture-specific) indirect pattern in the information structuring in conversation, it is true to say that indirectness remains to be the distinct trait of communication by Asians, which distinguishes Asian and Western communication behaviour attested to by many studies on the cross/inter-cultural communication (e.g., Aritz, J. & Walker, 2010; Beaumont et al., 2001; Chen, 1995; Du-Babcock, 2006; Gudykunst, 2002; Hoff, 2010; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005) and contrastive discourse analysis (e.g., Cheng, 2003; Connor, 1996; Deng, 1998; Kaplan, 1966; Scollon & Scollon, 1991, 1995/2001). In addition, culturally-preferred discourse strategies, i.e., indirect or direct speech patterns, are not inherently Asian or Western, that is, individuals from the same culture may use both styles in interaction, depending on the contexts and the person(s) with whom they are talking. Apart from the employment of varying discourse strategies caused mainly by cultural differences,
the adoption of divergent conversational styles is speculated to be another factor which contributes to the differences between Westerners and the Chinese in their speech.

2.1.2.2 Conversational styles

Conversational style, according to Tannen (1984/2005), is the way speakers encode meaning in language and convey how they intend their talk to be understood (p.137). In this study, conversational style refers to the strategies applied by the speakers in carrying out a face-to-face conversation, involving the employment of conversational devices, such as turn-taking pattern, questions, interruptions, overlaps, latches, and backchannels. Research evidence from cross-cultural communication and contrastive discourse analysis suggest that there are culturally-based differences in conversational style, resulting from cultural values and social norms (e.g. Beaumont et al., 2001; Chen, 1995; Clyne, 1994, 2002; Fitzgerald, 2003; Hoff, 2010; Scollon & Scollon, 1995). In other words, cultures differ significantly in their approach to talk, what they expect from talk, and how they respond to talk. As such, it is possible, for instance, that some cultures are accustomed to what Tannen (1984/2005) calls ‘high-considerateness’ style, while others value ‘low-involvement’ (i.e., ‘high-considerateness’ style) more (Li et al., 2001, p. 139). Researchers differ in their views on the ways of speaking unique to the Asians or the Westerners (Clyne, 2002; Li et al. 2001; Tannen, 1984/2005; Trompernaars, 1993), however, generally, the speakers from the oriental collectivistic cultures tend to employ the ‘high considerateness’ style more frequently, whereas the interactants from the western individualistic cultures show more instances of the ‘high involvement’ style (Aritz & Walker, 2010, p. 33) though individuals from the same culture might use either of the two conversational styles, depending on the situation and the relative power of the interactants (Clyne, 1994). With a collectivist-orientation in terms of cultural patterns, Chinese speakers seem to favor a ‘considerateness’ style in their conversation. That is, they tend to be more concerned with the feeling of their conversational partners, as reflected by their refraining from stating disagreements, their tendency to avoid (incursive) interruptions, and their preference to leave some space for the partner for uptake in interaction (Yang, 2010), which might result in both longer turns and inter-turn pauses. English speakers, however, value the ‘involvement’ style, signaling the active participation and enthusiastic involvement, as evidenced by their spontaneous expression of disagreements and frequent generation of simultaneous speech in their talk, which in turns produce brief turns and face-paced talk.

According to Tannen (1984/2005), high considerateness style refers to the speaking style that gives priority to showing enthusiastic involvement as opposed to high considerateness style that gives priority to being considerate to others, but not imposing (Aritz
& Walker, 2010, p. 31). However, it is important to note that Tannen (1984) conceptualises the two conversational styles as varying along a continuum from slow to fast pace rather than two totally distinct categories. Thus, an individual speaker can be considered a low- or high-involvement speaker only in relation to the contrasting style of any given conversational partner (cited in Beaumont, 2001, p. 441). Apart from Tannen, the same concepts are explained by Yule (1996) in more detail.

“High involvement style is one type of conversation style, where the participation in conversation is very active, speaking rate is relatively fast, with almost no pausing between turns, and with some overlap or even completion of the other’s turn. High considerateness style is another conversational style, in which speaker use a slower rate, expect longer pauses between turns, do not overlap, and avoid interruption or completion of the other’s turn. This non-interrupting, non-imposing style has been called a high considerateness style. (p. 76)”

As shown above, these two conversational styles differ significantly as attested to by the definitions with seemingly opposing linguistic characteristics. Specifically, the high-involvement style is characterised by a faster rate of speech, faster turn taking, an avoidance of inter-turn pauses, and frequent initiations of simultaneous speech, while the high-considerateness style, on the other hand, consists of slower speech, slower turn taking, longer pauses between turns, and an avoidance of simultaneous speech (Beaumont et al., 2001, p. 422).

Conversation is a complex, dynamic process, involving a number of interdependent aspects, including turn-taking, questions, interruptions, overlaps, latches, backchannels, pauses, and so on. Thus, the impact of culture on conversational behaviour will also be reflected by these important aspects discussed in the following sub-sections.

2.1.2.2.1 Turn-taking

In terms of turn-taking, research findings indicate that there are cultural differences in turn-taking conventions (Aritz & Walker, 2010; Clyne, 1994, 2002; Wong & Waring, 2010). For instance, speakers from varying cultural contexts differ in their attitudes towards length of turn and the preferred turn type (discrete turns or simultaneous talk) (FitzGerald, 2003). With their preference for a “high-considerateness” style, Chinese speakers generally value discrete turn alternation and produce longer turns in their conversation in comparison with English speakers who advocate a “high involvement” speaking style, which results in frequent simultaneous talk and brief turns.
2.1.2.2 Questions

Questions might be viewed differently by varying cultural groups in terms of perception, frequency, and functions. For example, to westerners, it is somewhat unusual if one speaker keeps asking their interlocutor questions in an ordinary conversation unless it is an interview. They will feel uncomfortable or bored if they are just receiving or giving answers in spoken interaction. However, for Chinese speakers, asking questions is a means to build rapport, show interest, and express respect (Li et al., 2001). Furthermore, evidence suggests that Chinese may use questions as a linguistic strategy to encourage participation and push a conversation along (Fishman, 1983; Lakoff, 1975). The rationale is that when a question is asked, most interactional partners feel obliged to respond, which in turn guarantees the continuation of the conversation.

2.1.2.2.3 Interruptions

A culture’s perception and use of interruptions may vary greatly (Murata, 1994). It may be commonly accepted in one culture, but it may be considered rude or disrespectful to speakers in other cultures due to its inherent nature of intrusion upon other’s ongoing talk (Tannen, 1984/2005, 1993). For example, in Chinese culture, where harmony is of great significance in interpersonal relations and social communication (Yang, 2010, p. 204), interruptions, which are seen as a violation of the current speaker’s right to reach a possible turn completion point, are not encouraged in the first place and cooperative interruptions are commonly employed to demonstrate solidarity with the conversational partner(s). However, being interpreted as the interrupter’s willingness to participate in the ongoing conversation, showing support to the partner(s) (Cheng, 2003; Clarke, 1992), interruptions are high frequency features in English conversation.

2.1.2.2.4 Overlaps and latches

Overlaps and latches are important conversational management devices, which are also culturally-defined (Tannen, 1993). Research has shown that there are cultural differences in terms of how people perceive these two conversational devices and how frequently they expect it to be used in conversation. Viewing overlaps/latches as being somewhat pushy and intrusive, high-considerateness speakers tend to avoid them so as to show respect to the conversational partner. By contrast, being interpreted as a token of enthusiastic involvement, these two interactional tactics are frequently used by high-involvement speakers for the purpose of forging rapport and building solidarity (Aritz & walker, 2010, p. 31). For instance, Anglo-Australians use more overlapping, along with interruptions, in talk than Chinese speakers do (Deng 1998; Yang, 2010).
2.1.2.2.5 Backchannels

Back channelling is universal to all cultures (Heinz, 2003, p. 1113), but specific backchannel behaviours are culture-bound. Cultural variations exist among speakers in the employment of backchannels, involving the type and frequency of backchannels in ongoing talk (Clancy et al., 1996; Heinz, 2003; Tao & Thompson, 1991). In addition, backchannels are not predominant characteristics of Chinese conversations as reported in two studies. Tao and Thompson (1991) noted that Mandarin Chinese speakers employ backchannels much less frequently than American English speakers do. Clancy et al., (1996) also found that Mandarin Chinese speakers try to avoid sending backchannels during their interlocutors’ speaking turn out of respect for their right to produce their talk undisturbed (cited in Wolf, 2008, p. 292).

2.1.2.2.6 Silence/pauses

Apart from verbal communication, non-verbal behaviours are also culturally-defined, including silence/pauses in interaction. In other words, different cultures may ascribe the varying values to talkativeness (i.e. verbosity) and reticence (i.e. taciturnity) (Mushin & Gardner, 2009). The cultural differences in the attitude people have towards silence, the way people use silence, and the meaning they attach to silence (Jaworski, 1993) in turn affects speakers’ perception of the length and the frequency of inter-turn pauses in conversational interaction. For example, many Asians tend to have longer pauses between turns since they generally wait for a pause before speaking (Trompenaars, 1993, pp. 68-9), whereas Westerners are inclined to eschew inter-turn pauses to show interest and support (Tannen, 1984). Specifically, reticence or a long pause is usually not well tolerated in English-speaking cultures. However, it is accepted in a Chinese context (Cutting, 2002; Reynolds & Valentine, 2004).

In sum, culture has a great impact on our way of talking. Their respective culture is speculated to be one of the vital factors contributing to the observed variations between Asians and Westerners in their interactional behaviour. In addition to L1 use, the cultural influence on the speaking styles is also manifested in L2 interaction. Specifically, there is substantial and well-established evidence indicating that native Chinese speakers may transfer their culturally valued discourse strategies from Chinese into English in their inter-language (Fitzgerald, 2003; Matalene, 1985; Rublik, 2006; Scollon & Scollon, 2001). Consequently, Chinese EFL learners have a strong Chinese ‘discourse accent’ in their spoken interaction in English.
2.1.3 Conversational analysis

Conversation analysis (CA) is an approach to the study of talk-in-interaction. Evolving from ethno-methodology in sociology, CA was developed in the 1970s principally by the sociologist Harvey Sacks and his close associates Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson. During the course of its forty-year history, CA has spread rapidly and far beyond the borders of sociology and has now expanded to a variety of disciplines (Wong & Waring, 2010, p. 2). Through the minute turn-by-turn analysis of talk-in-interaction, CA studies the organisation and order of social action in interaction. Its main interest is uncovering the underlying machinery which enables interactants to achieve this organisation and order (Bowles & Seedhouse, 2007, p. 12). Originally designed to examine the basic architecture of mundane conversations, CA is now widely employed in investigating the organisational features of institutional-talk in various settings. The changed focus of CA research from “ordinary conversation” to “institutional interaction” marks a paradigm shift in the theoretical orientation from ‘pure CA’ to ‘applied CA’ (ten Have, 1999, p. 162). ‘Pure CA’, aims to produce fine-grained sequential analyses of the (common) conversation for the purpose of describing and documenting the operation and organisation of stretches of sequences of conversation as activity in its own right, requiring no recourse to extra-conversational facets (Luk, 2010, p. 32). By contrast, ‘applied CA’ refers to “applying” the acquired knowledge of conversational organisation specifically to these institutional interactions in order to show how these institutions were “talked into being” (ten Have, 1999, p. 8). The following section will introduce some of the major issues relating to the conversational analysis system, comprising four parts: premises of CA; methodology of doing CA; strengths and weaknesses of CA; and CA’s impact on L2 teaching and testing.

2.1.3.1 Premises of CA

CA studies spoken interaction and conversation, which is “the basic form of speech exchange system” (Sacks et al., 1974, p. 730), constitutes the foundation of CA. Sacks et al., (1974) show that conversation is locally managed and systematically organised. Participants in conversations orient to the underlying organisation of talk through mutual cooperation at all stages of interaction. According to Liddicoat (2007), the basic architecture of conversation involves three components: turn-taking mechanism, action sequences, and repair strategies, which are generally recognised as the fundamental building blocks of inter-subjectivity in conversational interaction (Young, 2008, p. 51). The salient characteristics of these three dimensions will be discussed in the ensuing section.
2.1.3.1.1 **Turn-taking system**

Turn-taking refers to how turns at talk are structured and managed by participants. For CA, the most fundamental organisation of practice for talk-in-interaction is turn-taking (Schegloff, 2007), which is an orderly, rule-governed process and also a socially constructed behaviour. Based on Sacks et al.’s (1974) model, turn-taking in English features one party speaking at a time and the minimisation of gaps and silences, which are made possible by a conversation system, comprising three aspects: (1) turn-constructional unit (TCU); (2) transition relevance place (TRP); and turn allocation component (TAC).

Firstly, a TCU is the most basic unit of a turn, and the end of which is termed a TRP (Sacks et al., 1974). Structurally, TCUs are the syntactically bounded linguistic categories, i.e., lexical, clausal, phrasal or sentential units (Woodffit, 2005, p. 27). TCUs have two key features: first, they have the property of ‘projectivity’ (Sacks et al., 1974), that is, it is possible for the interlocutors to project what kind of turn-construction unit is being used and, more importantly, at what point it is likely to end because TCUs have “syntactic, intonational, semantic and/or pragmatic status as potentially ‘complete’ (Lazaraton, 2002, p.32). In addition, a TCU brings into play a TRP as its boundaries (Woodffit, 2005, p. 27).

The notion of TRPs is another key component of Sacks et al.’s (1974) turn-taking system along with TCUs. TRPs are points of “legitimate transition” between speakers (Hutchby & Woodffitt, 1998, p.48), that is, they are places where a speaker’ talk is possibly complete and speaker change could happen (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 61). Therefore, speakers overwhelmingly try to initiate their turns at or in close proximity to TRPs.

The third key aspect of the turn-taking system described in Sacks et al.’ (1974) framework is turn allocation or speaker selection, which addresses who takes a turn after each TRP. Sacks et al., (1974) posit that there are generally three ordered options for turn distribution between the interactants at a TRP, which can simply be put as: a) current speaker may select next speaker; b) if not, the next speaker may ‘self select’; c) If (a) or (b) does not occur, the current speaker may continue (Ellis & Barkhuizen; 2005). Speakers are bound to observe these rules for successful transfer of speakers when they engage in talk-in-interaction.

2.1.3.1.2 **Action sequences**

Action sequences indicate the ways in which turns at talk are organised into conversation in an orderly fashion and how basic sequences can be expanded to produce larger, coherent units of conversational action (Wong & Waring, 2010). Action sequences are divided into two major categories: basic sequence, i.e., adjacency pair and preference organisation, and large sequence, i.e., topic sequence. The former refers to sequential
organisation, which is the key to understanding how the conversation unfolds (Bowles & Seedhouse, 2007, p. 20), and the latter indicates topic management, which is especially significant in institutional talk.

2.1.3.1.2.1 Adjacency pair

An adjacency pair is a two-move adjacent sequence, where the second part is functionally dependent on the first part (Rockwell, 2001, p. 96). In other words, an adjacency pair forges a ‘conditional relevance’ (Schegloff, 1968, p. 363) link between the first and the second pair part. For example, a greeting is conventionally followed by another greeting and a question followed by an answer. As the most basic building block of a sequence, an adjacency pair provides the foundation for sequence organisation in conversation (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 123) and more importantly, it is the major mechanism of establishing mutual understanding or inter-subjectivity between the interactants with talk (Heritage, 1989, p. 24).

2.1.3.1.2.2 Preference organisation

Preference organisation is intrinsic to an adjacency pair and it explains the structural bias manifest in the alternative second part of adjacency pairs (Bowles & Seedhouse, 2007, p. 27). In other words, of the two pair parts of an adjacency pair, certain first pair parts make alternative actions relevant in the second position. Examples include offers, which can be accepted or refused; and requests, which can be granted or declined. However, these alternatives are not equal as some actions (i.e., default responses) are ‘preferred’ over others (i.e., the non-default responses). The preferred and dis-preferred actions are delivered in a different manner. The preferred actions get produced in a simple, straightforward manner while the dis-preferred ones are routinely treated with some repair work. Specifically, they are either prefaced with the markers such as ‘well’, ‘but’, or they are characteristically accompanied with delay, hedges, mitigators, qualifiers, and accounts (Pomerantz, 1984, p. 47). As the preferred responses are often affiliative and conducive to social solidarity, they are what listeners expect. On the other hand, the dispreferred actions are often disaffiliative i.e., threatening the addressee’s face, therefore politeness strategies, such as hesitation, hedges, and mitigators, are employed to soften the effect of disagreement (Paltridge, 2006; Rockwell, 2001).

2.1.3.1.2.3 Topic sequences

Apart from the two structural sequences mentioned above, topic sequence constitutes another crucial aspect of conversational interaction. In fact, turns and topics are two strands of interactional management which are closely related to each other. The turn-taking system
provides a platform for the interaction and the actional aspect of turn-taking is topic development. The interrelatedness between the two dimensions is best indicated by Ducasse and Brown (2009) in their conceptualisation of “interactional management” in dyadic conversation. According to Ducasse and Brown, the management between adjacent turns could be viewed as ‘horizontal’, which makes the conversation flow and the management across topics could be termed as ‘vertical’, which allows smooth switching between topics (p. 436). Topic management is important for any speech exchange system, but, it is particularly vital for institutional talk, where the interaction is goal-oriented and task-related and the success depends, to a large extent, on the accomplishment of the talk.

2.1.3.1.3 Repair strategy

The third dimension of the machinery for producing orderly talk is the repair system. Repair is a strategy for dealing with problems or troubles in speaking, hearing, and understanding the talk in conversation (Schegloff, 2000, p. 207). Repair is a fundamental part of conversation and a vital mechanism to construct and maintain intersubjectivity (Bowles & Seedhouse, 2007, P. 34). There are 4 types of repairs: (1) self-initiated self-repair; (2) other-initiated self-repair; (3) self-initiated other-repair; and (4) other-initiated other-repair (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 173). Research evidence indicates that, of the four types of repair strategies, speakers have a conspicuous preference for the self-initiated self repairs and other-initiated other repair is least used by speakers (Bowles & Seedhouse, 2007, p. 47).

Of the six aspects of CA just discussed, turn-taking provides a fundamental framework for oral interactive organisation, enabling speakers to change their roles logically. Sequence organisation helps make interactants carry out coherent and meaningful interaction. In terms of two aspects of sequence organisation, an adjacency pair constitutes the most minimal format of conversational sequence and preference organisation helps ensure the smooth operation of conversational interaction because it may assist agreement and avoid the confrontation between participants. Topic management is vital for conversational techniques in a way that the goal of interaction is fulfilled through it. Repair performs its function whenever problems or troubles occur in the accomplishment of talk.

2.1.3.2 Methodology of doing CA

In terms of methodology, a number of introductory works on CA point out that there is no single, well-established model of analysis. However, there are some fundamental methodological features common to most research in the area (e.g., Bowles & Seedhouse, 2007; Drew & Heritage, 1992; Goodwin, 1994; Goodwin & Heritage 1990; Heritage, 1995; Hutchby & Wooffitt 1998/2008; Markee 2000; Paltrdge, 2006; Psathsa 1995; Schegloff, 1992,
Therefore, individual practitioners have to develop their own approach based on the particular purpose of their study. Despite a lack of a unified methodology, there are some unwritten rules for practitioners to follow in their practice. Earlier CA literature proposes some methodological tenets for doing CA, including: (1) using authentic, recorded data; (2) adopting an ‘unmotivated looking’; (3) eschewing the coding and quantifications, i.e., frequency counts (Lazaraton, 2002, p. 75). However, while practitioners still agree that CA works with the recorded naturally-occurring talk-in-interaction and operates within an emic/inductive paradigm, the landscape of CA practice has changed considerably in terms of the analytic approach during recent years. For instance, as ten Have (1999) reasons, it would be foolish to ignore completely the findings and insights accumulated through CA studies over the past 30 years. He therefore proposes a moderate approach to the issue: start the analysis with the data at hand, but allow a limited amount of reference to earlier CA work (cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 210). Quantifications used to be a controversial issue (Heritage, 1995; Lazaraton, 2002; Pashas, 1995, Schegloff, 1993), but a growing number of conversational analysts have incorporated a quantitative perspective to their CA study for the better in recent years. For instance, some of them use quantitative approaches as a supporting/auxiliary mechanism to quantify the results or trace the features obtained from using a CA approach. This is especially the case when a collection of actions rather than a single case is involved (Schefloff, 1993). In addition, coding moves are performed by some researchers along with CA to provide some quantitative comparisons between conversations (Dings, 2007, p. 87). Undoubtedly, the adoption of mixed method research approaches will contribute to more objective and comprehensive conclusions.

Apart from the general methodological orientations mentioned above, some researchers have come up with some guidelines for CA analysis, two of which include the set of tools designed by Pomerantz and Fehr (1997) specifically for the analysis of ordinary conversation, and a six-point scheme proposed by Heritage (1997) for the investigation of institutional talk. In Heritage’s (1997) model, six partly overlapping dimensions are recommended to probe the institutional nature of interaction, including: (1) turn-taking organisation; (2) overall structural organisation; (3) sequential organisation; (4) turn design; (5) lexical choice; (6) interactional asymmetries. These guidelines are valuable in the way that they may guide the CA researchers to examine the distinct features of the institutional talk more accurately (Heritage, 1997, p. 164).
2.1.3.3 Strengths and weaknesses of CA

CA has been used by practitioners as both a theoretical approach and a methodological tool. As an analytic instrument, CA offers the most sophisticated and robust account of the organisation of verbal interaction (Wooffitt, 2005, p. 2). With its focus on the microstructures of talk, CA as an analytic tool provides a powerful description of interactive and dynamic spoken interaction. Apart from the investigation of architecture of interaction in first language studies, CA has been widely used in the investigation of L2 interaction in both learning and testing contexts during recent decades. More importantly, CA techniques are thought to be beneficial in helping L2 instructors teach their students conversational strategies more effectively by means of analysing the transcribed recordings of ‘model’ conversational interactions and then guiding them to participate in the activities so as to improve their interactional competence (e.g., Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Bowles & Seedhouse, 2007; Brown, 2003; Burns, 2001; Burns & Moore, 2007; Hall, 1993, 1999; Seedhouse, 2008; Walsh, 2006; Wong & Waring, 2010; Young, 1999, 2000, 2010).

While they embrace the benefits of a CA framework, researchers have also identified weaknesses of the approach, which include, among others: (1) CA lacks systematicity of analysis and pays insufficient attention to the relationship between form and function (Brown & Yule, 1983; Eggins & Slade, 1997; Schriffin, 1994; Wooffitt, 2005); (2) There is no precise way of recognizing adjacency pairs’’ (Burns, 2001); (3) CA only takes account of the structure of discourse and ignores social (pragmatic or sociolinguistic) aspects of interaction, i.e., social and cultural values underlying discourse performance (Cuttings, 2002; Whetherell, 1998; Wooffitt, 2005). To offset the inadequacies, many researchers suggest that it might be more useful to combine CA with more ethnographic descriptions, such as interview, questionnaire, and participant observation (Hammersley, 2003; Wodak, 1996). This thinking corresponds with the paradigm shift in theoretical perspective from ‘pure CA’ to ‘applied CA’.

2.1.3.4 CA and L2 teaching and testing

In recent years, CA has become a new focal point in both SLA and L2 test research as the result of theoretical developments in these fields, together with its own obvious strengths for minute but dynamic analysis of conversational interaction.

As discussed in Section 3.1.2, there has been a paradigm shift in the theoretical orientation of the L2 construct from a cognitive perspective represented by communicative competence to an interactionalist view defined by interactional competence. The emergence of the new perspectives not only expands our understanding of what L2 use means, it also brings about a change of direction in the approach to L2 teaching from the proficiency
movement, which emphasises the static content structure, to the interactional movement, which encompasses both co-construction and the inherently local nature of the participants’ knowledge and interactive skills (May, 2007). Additionally, the advent of the new orientation (i.e., interactional competence) has also witnessed a departure of research topics from linguistic features of language use to the empirical study of learner discourse, which in turn results in the increasing use of CA techniques for investigating the inter-language produced by the learners (Storch, 2001, 2002; Watanabe, 2008).

With the improved understanding among researchers that language is a socially constituted, interactive phenomenon (Dings, 2007, p. 27) rather than just a transfer of information (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Long, 1983), interaction has been increasingly central to SLA in recent years. The value of interaction on L2 development has been a focal point of SLA research during the past three decades and studies on the relationship between interaction and L2 development have shown that interaction has a facilitative role in L2 learning (e.g., Ellis, Tanaka & Yamazaki, 1994; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Long, 1996), which is supported by the advocates of both interactionalist and more recently the socio-cultural approach to SLA research. The interactionalist perspective, represented by “The Interaction Hypothesis” in L2 acquisition articulated by Long (1996), postulates, on the basis of a large variety of research studies in this area, that conversational interaction has the potential to enhance L2 development (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Mackey, 2006, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2006; Mackey et al., 2000; Macdonough, 2004; Ross, 2007; Storch, 2002) as it is a source for negotiation of meaning, provision of feedback, and production of modified output needed for acquisition to take place (Foster & Ohta, 2005; Mackey, Gass, & Macdonough, 2000; Storch, 2001). In recent years, a growing number of studies, viewing social interaction as a site for knowledge construction (Watanabe, 2008) and language development as essentially a social process (Foster & Ohta, 2005), have begun to examine the socially-constructed nature of interaction and its significance to L2 learning (Swain et al., 2002; Swain, 2006), which is known as Vygotskian socio-cultural theory for SLA (Lantolf, 2000, 2006). Of the two perspectives on SLA, the socio-cultural perspective approach to SLA research has been increasingly embraced by the SLA community as it, by focusing more on the social aspects of communication, analysing the relationship between co-construction and the context in which the communication takes place (Storch, 2001), and hence stressing the co-construction of peer-peer interaction in L2, complies with the tenets of IC (i.e., the contemporary view of language use) and applied linguistics though both perspectives place the locus of acquisition in interaction and admit the positive relationship between interaction and L2 development.
Informed by the outcome of the SLA research that learner-learner interactions have the potential to enable students to engage in genuine communication (Long, 1983) and that conversational interaction has the potential to offer substantial learning opportunities at multiple levels of interaction (e.g., discourse management, interpersonal dynamics, topic continuity (Foster & Ohta, 2005), which will eventually help them to develop discourse competence rather than only linguistic competence at the sentence level (Tsui (2001), many teachers have organized group or pair activities in L2 classroom so as to create opportunities for learning.

Similarly, influenced by change in theoretical orientations to the nature of language use and general recognition that language testing is essentially a social activity (McNamara, 1997, p. 447), L2 oral assessment has witnessed a paradigm transfer in three aspects: assessment content, testing format, and research method. As for content of oral assessment, there is a departure from measuring the grammatical accuracy of candidates to evaluating the interactional competence, which highlights their ability to initiate, respond, and negotiate meaning in situated performance (Canagarajah, 2006; Purpura, 2008). With regard to the format of speaking tests, the novel alternative configurations involving peer-peer interaction in the form of pairs and groups have been increasingly incorporated into traditional interviewer-interviewee arrangements. When it comes to research methods, a qualitative approach, including discourse analysis (in particular, conversational analysis), has been widely used to investigate the discourse performance in speaking tests, particularly group and paired orals.

The hallmark of such a paradigm change is the application of discourse analytic techniques, particularly conversational analysis in oral assessment to examine candidates’ interactional competence. CA has proven an especially useful tool for test researchers as demonstrated by the following points: (1) CA is especially useful for the analysis of interactional features in group or pair orals that are quite complex at the micro level, and which is hard to examine by other means (Nakatsuhara, 2009); (2) CA has been an effective and illuminating instrument in investigating rater behaviour, which will help assist in the development of empirically-based rating scales (McNamara, et al., 2002); (3) CA analysis of test-taker discourse has provided vision into the construct of oral proficiency as operationalised in various types of speaking test (Brown & Hill 2007); (4) CA has been recognised as an invaluable methodology to describe and validate oral proficiency tests (e.g. Brown, 2003; He & Young, 1998; Lazaraton, 1992, 2002; Ross & Berwick, 1992); (5) CA is uniquely suited to examine issues of “competence” based on particular “performances,” (Lazaraton & Davis, 2008, p.316). In a word, there is now a general consensus in the
language testing community that CA is a viable approach to understanding candidate language within the context of an oral examination, particularly when the focus of the research is on interaction (Brown, 2004, Chalhoub-Deville, 2003; Galatzi, 2004, 2008; Lazaraton 2002; May, 2007). Needless to say, the popular use of CA in L2 testing during the last two decades has yielded a wealth of excellent research, which will be surveyed in the following section.

2.2 Previous research on spoken interaction

This section will review previous research of direct relevance to the current study. The review will firstly look at the previous work on the discourse-based studies which tap the interactional competence of L2 speakers in speaking tests, then shift to the discourse-based studies in peer-peer interaction in L2 learning contexts, and finally survey the discourse-based studies on Chinese EFL learner’s spoken English and the PETS-5-SET.

2.2.1 Discourse-based studies in speaking tests

As discussed above, in the wake of the paradigm change in L2 testing, a proliferation of research has been generated in the discourse analysis of students’ performance in speaking tests by using CA techniques. A survey of the literature indicates that these studies roughly fall into four major categories: (1) interlocutor effect (both interviewer and candidate); (2) construct validation (both testing format and test task); (3) test discourse (both interview conversation and peer-peer interaction); and (4) rater process (both rater behaviour and rating process). Earlier research focused on how interviewer behaviour can affect candidates’ performances or scores (e.g., Berry, 1996; Berwick & Ross, 1996; Brown & Hill, 1998; Brown & Lumley, 1997; Lazaraton, 1996; Ross & Berwick, 1992; Young & Milanovic, 1992) and the potential effect of certain variables (i.e., test tasks and test taker characteristics) on the discourse produced by candidates or the scores awarded by raters (e.g., Berry, 1993, 2004; Bonk, 2004; Bonk & Van Moere, 2004; Csepes, 2002; Iwashita, 1996; Lu, 2005; O’ Loughlin, 2000, 2002; O’ Sullivan, 2000, 2002; Young, 1995; Young & Halleck, 1998). These variables include proficiency level, personality, acquaintanceship/familiarity, gender, linguistic/cultural norms and other factors. Later, work shifted to explore validity of new speaking testing formats, exploring what makes the group/paired interaction truly different from interview performance and/or whether a specific group or pair oral test task actually measures what the test claims to target (e.g., Brooks, 2009; Fulcher, 1996; Fulcher & Reiter, 2003; Johnson, 2001; Kormos, 1999; Lazaraton, 1992; Tayler, 2001). More recent studies have concentrated not only on the nature of candidates’ discourse (e.g., Galaczi, 2004, 2008; Gan et al. 2009; He
& Dai, 2006; Lu, 2006; Luk, 2010), but also on the process of performance rating involved by
the rater in making decisions about awarding scores to the features of interactional
competence (e.g., Brown, 2003; Ducasse & Brown, 2009; May, 2007). The following sections
will review some of the key studies in three major areas: oral interview tests, group speaking
tests, and paired speaking tests.

2.2.1 Oral interview tests

Oral interview tests were the most basic means of measuring candidates’ oral
proficiency since the inception of performance-based assessment until the mid-1990s, when
peer-peer interaction was formally introduced in speaking tests. Language testing researchers
have closely examined the validity of traditional oral interviews and the resulting studies of
validation covered varying issues, which can be roughly classified into three dimensions:
interviewer variations, interlocutor effect, and construct validity. The ensuing sections will
review some of the key research in these respective categories.

2.2.1.1 Interviewer variations

Of the large body of research conducted on oral interview tests during last few years, a
main line of enquiry has been concerned with interviewer behaviour. The research has
indicated that interviewers, despite their trainings, vary considerably from each other with
regard to their interviewing behaviour. Such variabilities include the amount of support they
give to candidates, the level of rapport they establish with candidates, the way they elicit
information from candidates, and the extent they accommodate their speech to that of
candidates, among others (e.g., Berwick & Ross, 1996; Brown, 2003, 2005; Brown & Hill,
1998; Brown & Lumley, 1997; Kim, 2009; Lazaraton, 1996; Lu, 2005; McNamara & Lumley,
1997; Nakatsuhiara, 2008; Young & Milanovic, 1992).

Brown and Hill (1998) conducted a study on interviewer variation. They analysed the
interview discourse in the IELTS Speaking Test in terms of the “easy” or “difficult”
interviewers. The results revealed that the easier interlocutor shifted topics more frequently,
asked simpler questions, and engaged in more question-answer exchanges, while the more
difficult interlocutor challenged candidates more and acted more like a natural conversational
participants. Based on the finding, they suggest that the test developers take steps to ensure
that candidates receive equal treatment from the interlocutors.

Interviewer behaviour was also intensively explored by Brown (2003, 2005). In one of
these studies (2003), the author examined two interviews involving the same candidate with
two different interviewers. Employing a CA approach, Brown analysed the differences
between each of the interviewers in their interactional discourse and the candidates in terms of
the development of topical talk, questioning techniques, and the type of feedback each of the interviewers provided. The analysis revealed that the two interviewers differed in their interviewing styles on the same candidates’ performance, which were labeled as “teacherly” and “casual” respectively (p. 17). The variabilities in the interlocutor style in turn affected the quality of the interviewee’s discourse and hence the rater’s perceptions of the test-takers’ speaking ability. In addition, the analysis of raters’ comments on the candidates’ discourse resulting from the two interviews showed that the test taker was judged as an effective communicator when taking the test with the teacherly interlocutor who, among other things, developed and extended topics skilfully. However, the test taker was judged as being uncooperative in interaction while conversing with the casual interviewer, who used more non-test conversational eliciting strategies.

Interviewer variation was also investigated by Nakatsuhara (2008). This study focused on some specific aspects of the relationship between interlocutor behaviour and its impact on candidate performances and raters’ consequent perceptions of the candidate’s ability on analytical rating scales (i.e., pronunciation, grammar, fluency). Data were collected from two interview sessions involving the same candidate with two different interviewers. The results showed that a significantly different score was awarded to the candidates in ‘pronunciation’ and ‘fluency’ components in the two interviews. In addition, a CA analysis of interviewing discourse revealed that the two interviewers possessed their own ways of questioning, developing topics, and reacting to the candidate’s response. The differences in the interviewer behaviour were translated into the different ‘pronunciation’ and ‘fluency’ scores in ratings. The author concluded that there was a positive relationship between interviewer behaviour and test takers’ scores.

In this strand of enquiry, a few researchers have investigated interviewer behaviour from a socio-linguistic perspective on the assumption that interviewers from varying linguistic and cultural backgrounds possess culturally-different interview styles and differing expectations about interviewees’ ways of communication. Berwick and Ross (1996), Lu (2005), and Kim (2009) are among them.

Using both discourse and quantitative analysis, Berwick and Ross (1996) examined the interview performances of six Japanese as L2 (JSL) interviews and six English as L2 (ESL) interviews conducted by two trained male examiners (one Japanese and one American). The analysis demonstrated that the Japanese JSL examiner and the American ESL examiner varied systematically in terms of their interviewing discourse. Specifically, the Japanese interviewer was form-focused and offered significantly more accommodations to the candidates, such as display questions, overarticulation, lexical implication, and more control.
in topic shift. By contrast, the ESL examiner seemed to respond more to the content and gave the test takers more chances to elaborate on the topics. As such, the authors concluded that there was “a degree of cultural/pragmatic relativity” (p. 48) in the oral interview test.

Lu (2005) and Kim (2009) conducted two important studies which investigated NS-NNS interviewer variations. In her research, Lu (2005) explored the interviewing styles of native (NS) and non-native speaker (NNS) examiners in the Examination for the Certificate of Competency in English (ECCE). A discourse analytic approach following the systemic and functional tradition [sic] was employed to analyse 20 audio-taped ECCE speaking test events. The findings showed that there existed variations between the examiners in their eliciting discourse, i.e., facilitating examinees’ elaboration in replying to their initiation in discourse and initiatives in seeking information, and these differences were more prominent in some tasks than in others. Specifically, NNS examiners seemed not to have initiated the expected discourse from the examinees as the NS examiners did, which according to the author, resulted from the NNS examiners’ inclination to control the discourse (Lu, 2005, p. 95). Based on the findings, Lu proposed that the variabilities between NS and NNS examiners in the amount and types of discourse features may be caused by their linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

Employing a mixed methods approach, Kim (2009) examined how NS and NNS teachers assessed students’ oral English performance. The evaluation behaviour of 12 Canadian NS teachers and 12 Korean NNS teachers were compared in regard to their internal consistency, rating severity, and evaluation criteria. Results of a many-faceted Rasch analysis showed that most of the NS and NNS teachers maintained acceptable levels of internal consistency except for only one or two inconsistent raters in each group. In addition, the two groups of teacher raters also exhibited a similar level of rating severity across different tasks. However, a qualitative analysis of the data indicated that substantial differences emerged between the two groups in the way the raters applied the evaluation criteria in assessing students’ performances. Specifically, the judgments of the NS teachers were more detailed and elaborate than those of the NNS teachers in the areas of pronunciation, specific grammar use, and accuracy of transferred information.

2.2.1.1.2 Interlocutor effect

As a language test is “essentially a social activity”, the performance of candidates is undoubtedly influenced by various facets, which, according to McNamara (1996, P. 86) include the rating aspect (rater, rating scale, and criteria); the task aspect, and candidates characteristics, among others. Of the variables, candidate characteristics such as proficiency (Young 1995), personality (Berry, 2004, 2007), acquaintanceship/familiarity (Kotona, 1998;
O’Sullivan, 2000a), gender (O’Loughlin, 2000, 2002, 2007; O’Sullivan, 2000b), and linguistic/cultural background (Berwick & Ross, 1996; Lu, 2005; Kim, 2009), can affect the amount and quality of interaction in an interview test, and hence the discourse elicited from and scores assigned to candidates. In other words, these variables may compromise score validity as many studies indicate, and therefore they become a potential threat to test validity (Galaczi, 2004), which raises great concern among language test researchers. Of particular interest for this review are variables concerning proficiency level and linguistic/cultural norms.

Young’s (1995) study focused on the effect of proficiency level on candidates’ conversational styles. He compared the conversational styles of intermediate and advanced learners of ESL in an oral proficiency interview (OPI). By analysing the interview discourse in terms of interactional contingency, goal orientation, and conversational dominance, Young found that in terms of conversational styles the intermediate and advanced learners differed in three ways: the amount of talk and rate of speaking, context dependence, and the ability to construct and sustain narratives. Specifically, the advanced learners talked more and faster than intermediate learners; they elaborated more in answers to questions by persisting with a topic longer than their intermediate peers; and they constructed stories/narratives, which the intermediate learners failed to do. However, no differences were found between the two groups in the frequency of topic initiation, nor in the reactivity to topics introduced by the interviewers (p. 3). As such, the author suggested that the interview may obscure the differences among learners in their conversational competence.

Young and Halleck (1998) explored the impact of linguistic/cultural norms related to candidates by looking at the “talkativeness” of three Japanese learners and three native speakers of Spanish from Mexico representing different proficiency levels, and the effect of “conversational style” on test-taker behaviour in the OPI. A topical structure analysis revealed that Mexican candidates and higher proficiency candidates contributed more to the interaction, spoke faster, and shifted topics more frequently than the Japanese dyads did. Thus, the researchers argued that the transfer of conversational style from the L1 can negatively impact a test-taker’s rating if that style requires or prefers under-elaboration of answers in a setting where elaboration is valued (Lazaraton, 2002, P. 18).

2.2.1.1.3 Construct validity

Construct validation has been a topic of interest among language test researchers. With the increasing popularity of paired format in oral assessment, a number of researchers have compared the more traditional one-to-one interview arrangement with the paired speaking format (e.g., Brooks, 2009; Fulcher, 1996; Johnson, 2000, 2001; Kormos, 2009;
Kotona, 1999; Lazaraton, 1992; Ross & Berwick, 1992; Taylor, 2001; van Lier, 1989; Young & Milanovic, 1992). The results of the studies generally showed that the validity of the OPI to measure candidates’ interactional competence and the inference resulting from it might be problematic since it could not reliably measure candidate’s conversational skills used as in real-life situations.

In this line of research, Kormos (1999) compared the discourse produced in oral interviews with role plays in terms of candidates’ conversational structure and their opportunities to display their interactional competence. The analysis of 30 non-scripted interviews and 30 guided role play tasks showed that role plays could be better measures of candidates’ conversational management ability as they had opportunities to initiate topics, raise questions, and close the interactions, among others. In the oral interview, however, many of these activities were constrained as the result of the asymmetrical power relationship between the interviewer and interviewee. Based on the findings, Komors concluded that guided role plays display the main characteristics of ordinary conversation, and thus had the potential to compel candidates to exhibit their interactional competence (Kormos, 1999, p. 183) though the traditional oral interviews are able to measure linguistic aspects of oral language proficiency reliably (p.176). The findings accord with van Lier’s (1989) and Young’s (1995) claim that OPIs are not conversations due to the highly unequal partnership between the interactants, which in turn brings about asymmetrical interaction.

A similar study was conducted by Brooks (2009). By adopting both qualitative and quantitative methods, Brooks examined the interaction of adult ESL test-takers in two oral tests: one with an examiner (the individual format) and the other with another peer (the paired format). Qualitative analysis of the data indicated that the paired testing format resulted in more interaction, negotiation of meaning, and more linguistically demanding performance. The results from the quantitative analyses showed that overall the test-takers performed better in the paired format than when they interacted with an examiner as evidenced by most of the test takers’ scores on their performances (p. 341). The findings are consistent with Taylor’s (2001) study, which showed that the paired speaking test elicited a wider range of language functions from candidates and the interaction was more symmetrical and interactive in the paired format than the individual oral interview.

Apart from the aforementioned two studies, Fulcher (1996) also examined the differences between an oral interview test and group speaking format. Participants were required to take three different oral tests (two were one-to-one interviews and one was a group discussion), respond to the questionnaire, and complete a retrospective report. The analysis seemed to suggest that the nature of the task will not only affect student performance, but also
the scores. However, the author noted that this effect will be limited if a rating scale which doesn’t refer to test method facets in its descriptors is used. In addition, the author proposed that group orals have a number of advantages over the interview oral test, one of which is that “engaging in a group discussion with a partner gives the students more confidence to express their ideas than to an examiner (p. 33)”.

To summarise, the empirical studies reviewed in this section have revealed that oral interview test discourse differs fundamentally from that of a conversation. Specifically, it can elicit a limited range of language samples, produce asymmetrical talk, and in turn generate unnatural conversation. These features make the oral interview not a very reliable instrument to measure candidates’ interactional competence.

### 2.2.1.2 Group speaking tests

In recent years, the group speaking format is increasingly used in oral assessment contexts, including both in high-stakes international tests and second language classroom assessment. The advantages of group speaking tests make them an appealing choice for test administrators of large-scale oral proficiency tests, including: (1) it is time-efficient and cost-effective as it involves less rater-hours of work per candidate with more than one test taker being assessed at the same time (Bonk & Ockey, 2003; Nakatsuhara, 2009; Ockey, 2001); (2) it is capable of eliciting richer language functions from test-takers than interview tests, providing a great potential to assess communication ability (Brooks, 2009; ffrench, 1999; Lazaranton, 2002); (3) it has the potential to maximise the opportunities for candidates to interact with one another in more symmetrical and authentic interactions than an interview oral test allows (Iwashita, 1996; Lazaraton, 2002); (4) it provides an environment for candidates to exchange ideas with their peers in a generally more relaxing and confident manner than in an interview format (Fulcher, 1996); and (5) it has potential positive washback for classroom teaching (Hilsdon, 1991, 1995). With the popularity of group speaking tests in oral assessment, researchers have conducted a number of empirical studies, which will be surveyed in the following sections.

#### 2.2.1.2.1 Test tasks and candidate variables

As mentioned in Section 2.2.1.1.2, test performance is affected by a number of factors, related to the test taker, test task, and rating criteria, among others. The impact of these factors upon candidates’ discourse in a group speaking test is more prominent than in other speaking test formats since it generally encompasses multiple tasks and involves more than two candidates. Researchers in these areas have highlighted the importance of the effects of test tasks (e.g., Bonk & Van Moere, 2003; Nakatsuhara, 2009; Riggenbach, 1998; Van Moere, 2003).

Van Moere (2010) explored the impact of task variables on candidate discourse and ratings in the context of group orals. The candidates were asked to perform three tasks: a group discussion task, a consensus task, and a picture difference task. Data analysis revealed that different tasks elicited a different range and frequency of interactional language functions (ILFs). Specifically, the picture task elicited more cases of negotiation of meaning, but the consensus task captured the widest range of ILFs. Van Moere noted the importance of a specific goal for interaction as the discussions that were not goal-oriented did not consistently elicit authentic conversations. In addition, the analysis also indicated that different groups constructed test discourse in very different ways. For example, some groups framed their discussion task as a series of monologues, adopting a parallel pattern of interaction as proposed by Storch (2001, 2002) and Galaczi (2004, 2008), while other groups modelled the very same task as a more ‘natural’ discussion with short turns, exhibiting the features of collaborative talk proposed by the aforementioned researchers in their models.

Language proficiency is one of the variables in Nakatsuhara’s (2011) study, which involved a multi-variable analysis of candidates’ discourse, exploring the interplay of test-taker characteristics, task types, and group size on group dynamics and interactional patterns. Some Japanese high school students were tested in groups (either of three or four) on three speaking tasks: information gap, ranking, and free discussion. Apart from the task variable, candidates were categorised according to extroversion and oral proficiency levels. By using mixed methods of analysis, including CA, Nakatsuhara (2011) found that while language proficiency was influential in all the tasks, extroversion-level variables had a greater impact in more open tasks, including the ranking and free-discussion tasks. In terms of the relationship between task and extroversion level, the study revealed that the more closed information gap task tended to minimise the impact of the extroversion level. Additionally, the analysis also revealed that the extroversion-level variables had more impact on groups of four than groups of three; by contrast, proficiency level variables had a greater impact in groups of three than in groups of four. Based on the findings, Nakatsuhara recommended that a group size of three
is more suitable for oral tests for the reasons that conversation becomes noticeably less natural since the introverted test-takers may contribute less to the talk in larger groups.

Another study with important implication for group oral testing is offered by Gan (2010), who explored the interactional features of the discourse generated by secondary ESL students in group oral assessment in Hong Kong. The students were divided into two groups by the proficiency level: higher-scoring and lower-scoring. The analysis of the talk showed that students from the two groups oriented to different patterns in their speech exchange. Within the higher-scoring group, the students engaged constructively and contingently with one another’s ideas, demonstrating a range of speech functions, including (dis)agreement, explanations, and challenges. The intensive engagement of students with one another’s remarks in the higher-scoring group was demonstrated by their competition for floor taking and frequent performance of turn overlapping. Within the lower-scoring group, on the other hand, the resulting interactions were more structured, apparently as a result of the pre-set prompts originally set for the purpose of facilitating within-group discussion. However, the research also revealed that lower-scoring group members naturally engaged in negotiation of meaning over linguistic impasses and actively assisted each other by means of inviting, prompting, and co-construction both to find the right linguistic forms and to express meaning. The nature of these interactions led the author to claim that the group oral assessment format can authentically reflect students’ interactional skills. However, the lack of contingent development of topical talk within the lower-scoring group implied that the assessor’s good intentions in providing pre-determined prompts may end up restricting students’ performance.

In sum, the three aforementioned studies have clearly shown that task types, candidate characteristics, group member’s characteristics, and task implementation conditions all affect the test-takers’ performance in group oral tests. As such, candidate’s performance cannot be seen as simply a reflection of the individual test-taker’s language ability, it is a product of various factors interacting alone and/or in combination.

### 2.2.1.2.2 Test discourse

Compared with other aspects of group speaking tests, documented studies that have investigated the discourse features of group interaction as an innovative form of oral assessment have been scant. However, more recently, three researchers have contributed to this area (i.e., Gan, Davison, & Hamp-Lyons, 2009; He & Dai, 2006; Luk, 2010). Interestingly, all these studies all had Chinese students as their subjects (from both mainland China and Hong Kong).

He and Dai (2006) conducted a corpus-based validation study on the group oral segment of College English Test-Spoken English Test (CET-SET) in China, which is claimed
as a direct assessment of the candidates’ ability in IC. By analyzing candidates’ group discussion in relation to the visual prompts, the study examined test discourse, comparing candidates’ actual performance against a checklist of eight ILFs specified in the test syllabus, including 1) (dis)agreeing; 2) asking for opinions/information; 3) challenging; 4) supporting; 5) modifying; 6) persuading; 7) developing; and 8) negotiating meaning. Contrary to the test designers’ intention, the results showed that “the frequency of the occurrence of ILFs is very low” (p. 392). Specifically, disagreeing and asking for opinions/information were the two most frequently elicited ILFs, accounting for nearly 50% and 24% of the coded ILFs respectively and the other six ILFs occurred at a very low percentage each as evidenced by the fact that less than a third of the total 144 candidates produced any of the following five functions: challenging, supporting, modifying, persuading, and developing. The authors speculated that three factors are contributing to the low occurrences of these ILFs in the group test interaction: (1) candidates’ framing of the task as an assessment event rather than a real discussion, where they tried to ‘demonstrate’ what they knew about the topic to the examiners for higher rating; (2) candidates’ perception of the examiners, rather than the peers in the group, to be their target audience (p. 389), which resulted in their simply presenting their own opinions in long turns rather than engaging in negotiation of meaning by resorting to complex functions; and (3) candidates’ interpretation of contribution to the discussion in terms of quantity rather than quality’ (p. 391). Based on their results, He and Dai claimed that the inadequate elicitation of ILFs from candidates may well pose validity problems for measuring students’ interactional competence as specified in the test syllabus. Additionally, they suggested that “conversational features do not appear in speaking tests just because we introduce speaking partners with equal social power” (p. 393). They also called for more research to investigate whether similar phenomena have appeared in other tests using the pair/group format.

Another study on group orals was undertaken by Gan, Davison, and Hamp-Lyons (2009), who explored the peer group interaction for school-based assessment (SBA) in secondary schools in Hong Kong. Through CA analysis of the test discourse, Gan et al. found that the four student participants demonstrated not only their linguistic competence, but also their interactional abilities to engage with each other in the discussion. In addition, the authors concluded that the range of speech functions characterizing the topic negotiation process by the participants in the discussion seemed to share some features of ordinary conversations. Alongside these positive notes about the validity of the group speaking format in bringing out the features of normal conversation, the authors noted cautiously the potential limitations of the findings from a single case.
As the studies by He and Dai (2006) and Gan et al. (2009) seem to have yielded different findings, Luk (2010) made a further investigation of discourse performances of peer group interaction for the SBA in Hong Kong. The SBA elements of the study by Luk were the same as the ones reported in Gan et al., only in a different school context and with slightly different tasks. Whereas He and Dai (2006) focused on identifying ILF occurrences, Luk examined qualitatively both the sequential structure of the turns of the talk and the micro-discourse features of the talk to show how the groups managed the whole piece of interaction from beginning to end, with a particular concern if the student discourse features in the interaction revealed a predominant desire to present a best possible impression of themselves for the assessor’s evaluation. Findings from discourse analysis of the discussions supplemented with data from interviews and a questionnaire revealed the emergence of a test-task specific genre featuring recurrent frames of talk for task management, content delivery, and response giving. These frames were characterised by discourse features that seemed to be ritualised, contrived, and colluded as indicated by ritualised opening and closing, orderly turn-taking practices, avoidance of negotiation, and the lack of genuine responses to peers’ utterances. Such interactional practices suggested a strong desire on the part of the students to maintain the impression of being effective interlocutors for scoring purposes rather than for authentic communication (p. 25). In other words, it seems that the students were interacting for performance purposes rather than for dialogic purposes. The authors highlighted the need to collect a greater variety of speech samples from oral assessment contexts that would better represent language use experience and domains of all sorts of students.

In sum, with its obvious advantages, i.e., allowing candidates to engage in more dynamic and interactive speaking tasks, group work has been welcomed by language testers. However, concerns are also raised on the separability of scores of one candidates from those of his/her group members (May, 2007) and the interlocutor effect, i.e., the influence of test-takers’ own and their group members’ characteristics on test-takers’ performances in group testing (e.g. Berry, 2004; Ockey, 2006, 2009). Therefore it has been suggested that in high-stakes tests, a group oral format should be used only as a part of an oral test battery rather than as a solo assessment tool (Bonk & Ockey, 2003; Van Moere, 2007, 2010).

### 2.2.1.3 Paired speaking tests

A paired speaking format has now been used as part of large-scale standardised oral proficiency tests, including the FCE in the UK and the PETS in China. Like group interaction, the paired speaking model is credited with possessing a number of advantages over the traditional individual interview, including: (1) cost-effectiveness of testing two candidates at one time (Berkoff, 1985; Berry, 1997); (2) wide ranges of discourse features it can elicit from
the test-taker (Fulcher, 1996; Kormos, 1999; Taylor, 2001); (2) generation of more balanced interaction by candidates (Iwashita, 1996; Lazaraton, 2002; Taylor, 2001); (3) potential positive washback engendered for effective language learning (Berry, 1997; Csepes, 2002; Taylor, 2000); (4) more relaxing atmosphere for candidate to display their interactional competence (Együd & Glover, 2001; Foot, 1999; Fulcher, 1996; May, 2000; Van Moere, 2006). A number of excellent studies have researched this new testing format. The following section will look at some of the studies, focusing on three aspects: interlocutor effect, test discourse, and rating process.

2.2.1.3.1 Interlocutor effect

Like other types of performance-based tests, relevant studies show that many factors may impact test-taker discourse in paired speaking tests, including proficiency level (Csépes, 2002; Davis, 2009; Iwashita, 1996; Lazaraton & Davis, 2008; Lu, 2005; May, 2007; Nakatsuhara, 2004, 2006; Norton, 2005), personality (Berry, 1997, 2000), acquaintanceship/familiarity (Norton, 2005; O’Sullivan, 2002), and linguistic/cultural norms (Lu, 2008; Young & Halleck, 1998), among others. Again, proficiency and linguistic/cultural variables are the main interest for this discussion and some of these studies will be surveyed.

Iwashita (1996), using data from both recorded conversations and questionnaire responses, explored whether the proficiency of a non-native speaking interlocutor had any impact on the assessment score and the nature of discourse in the paired task performance. Twenty learners of Japanese took a paired test involving two types of information-gap tasks twice, once with a partner of the same proficiency-level, and once with a partner of a different proficiency level. The results of descriptive analysis revealed that subjects gained slightly higher scores and talked more when their interlocutor was of high rather than of low proficiency (p. 62). However, not all subjects talked more when their interlocutors were high proficiency learners, which could be because, as she illustrated, some lower level students were provided with better quality language input from their more proficient partners who were willing to rephrase and accommodate to help them, than they would receive from other lower level partners. The results indicated that the proficiency level of paired candidates could have some impact on the amount of talk, but not the scores assigned.

The proficiency variable is also the focus of a study by Davis (2009), who examined the impact of proficiency level on the test scores assigned. Data were collected from 20 first-year students from a Chinese university, who were divided into groups of relatively higher and lower oral English proficiency. Each student was tested twice: once with a partner of similar proficiency and once with a partner of higher or lower proficiency. The speaking tasks consisted of photographs combined with a discussion question. In terms of the pattern of
interaction that the participants oriented to in the discussion, the analysis showed that the higher-proficiency group generally produced primarily collaborative or symmetrical dominant interactions (8 of 10 individuals), parallel and blended interactions were unusual (one case of each) in the high-proficiency dyads. More specifically, the majority of high-level dyads produced collaborative interactions as proposed by Galaczi (2004, 2008) unless a candidate was paired with a much lower-level partner, in which case the interaction tended to be asymmetrical as the former was engaged in eliciting language from the latter (p. 385). The author suggested that higher-proficiency participants tended to orient to a collaborative interaction pattern if their partner was capable of participating on an equal basis (p. 384). By contrast, a great variety of interaction types was identified among the lower-proficiency group. Collaborative interaction was still the most common in this cohort, but the lowest-scoring participants tended to orient to parallel or symmetrical passive exchanges. Davis thus concluded that, despite differences in the quantity of language, “the proficiency level of an examinee’s partner in a paired oral test had little influence on scores”. This finding echoes the study on partner proficiency effect by Csepes (2002), in which he did not find significant difference in awarded scores.

The influence of proficiency levels on candidates’ conversational styles in a paired speaking test was also the focus of Nakatsuhara (2004). She explored the impact of pairing candidates of the same (SPL) and different language proficiency (DPL) levels with a particular focus on investigating whether the mismatch in proficiency levels in pairs could be a threat for generating asymmetric interactions. Twelve SPL pairs and DPL pairs performed a problem-solving task in a section of the CAE test. Using slightly modified methodologies adopted by Young and Milanovic (1992), Young (1995), and Kormos (1999), the transcribed interactions were analysed for three conversational properties by using CA: interactional contingency, goal-orientation and quantitative dominance. The results showed that there were many more similarities than differences in conversational styles between SPL and DPL dyads. Specifically, while SPL pairs may be recognised as having slightly more ‘symmetrical contingency’ because of the balanced interaction between two groups, when the measures of goal-orientation and quantitative dominance were focused upon, the data suggested that both of the dyads did not significantly differ in their performance (p. 19). In other words, whether paired with SPL or DPL partners, students were likely to obtain rather similar opportunities to display their interactional competence and generate a similar conversational style though for different reasons. As such, Nakatsuhara concluded that ‘the pairing of the students with different language levels may not be as problematic as anticipated’ (p. 57).
In addition to proficiency level, test-takers’ linguistic/cultural background is another factor which has been examined by a few researchers in paired speaking tests. Inspired by the assumption that sociolinguistic variations in EFL/ESL test-takers’ discourse performance can be attributed to their linguistic/cultural background and their interlanguage pragmatics (Lu, 2005; Ross, 1998; Young, 1995; Young & Halleck, 1998), these researchers investigated the impact of (native) language and culture upon the non-native learners’ test performance, expecting to identify whether test-takers from different lingua-cultures perform differently in paired speaking tests and if so, how these variables affect their discourse and scores (p. 177).

To find out whether their native conversational styles affected their competence to elaborate on topics in conversation, Young and Halleck (1998) compared the spoken English discourse of three Japanese/Mexican pairs at superior, advanced, and intermediate levels with the expectation that the Mexican learners should perform better than the Japanese learners since they are supposedly from a talkative culture, while the latter from a taciturn culture. Results of the discourse analysis confirmed this hypothesis, indicating that the Mexican test-takers initiated and developed more topics, therefore they were judged by the examiners as the ones with higher language proficiency. Based on this result, Young and Halleck proposed that, since the examiners were from a western culture and regarded elaborating on topics as a norm in conversation in English, the Japanese test-takers may have been disadvantaged or under-evaluated because of their non-western taciturn styles in spoken discourse, which echoes Lu’s (2008) claim that examinee discourse might be under-evaluated by native speaker examiners due to their differing linguistic background and expectations about conversational interaction.

Another study, by Lu (2008), investigated the interlocutor effect of conversational styles on candidates’ discourse performance in the FCE Speaking Test. Data were collected from three socio-cultural groups: Chinese, Italian test-takers, and a bilingual group, in which the test-takers’ first language was different. Using a discourse framework based on a hybrid of functional and systematic approaches [sic] to examine the discourse features, Lu made a comparison of discourse performances between three groups of subjects. The results revealed that there existed differences between the Chinese test-takers’ and the test-takers from a western culture in their overall performance, most of which were in the amount of topic elaboration and the level of interactivenss between dyad members (p.186). Specifically, the Chinese test-takers generally produced smaller amounts of topic elaboration than their Italian counterparts. In addition, they were not as native-like in their spoken discourse as were the subjects in the bilingual mode, which may result from the fact that they have had to conform more to an English discourse style to enable their partners to understand them better. The discourse’s lack of topic elaboration and mutual interactivenss implied that the Chinese test-
takers’ discourse performance may have been influenced by their native culture, which falls into a taciturn kind of category. However, it is interesting to note that the analysis indicated that the Chinese test-takers are the least “talkative”, the bilingual group more ‘talkative’, and the Italian the most ‘talkative’ and Chinese dyads were only slightly disadvantaged or under-evaluated for being the least ‘talkative’ test takers in the speaking test (p. 185). She indicates that Chinese EFL test-takers’ cultural and linguistic backgrounds could lead to sociolinguistic variation in their spoken discourse as they completed different tasks in speaking tests; however, the variation depends on the types of task undertaken and the types of discourse features indicative of the EFL learners’ level of oral proficiency. Based on the findings, she concludes that sociolinguistic variation in the Chinese test-takers’ discourse performance might not be the only factors that significantly influenced their overall performance on the speaking test, suggesting that tasks and partner characteristics may also affect the discourse structures produced (p.175). In other words, Chinese test-takers’ discourse performance can be both culture-specific and test-driven (p. 187). The findings accord with the research on a similar topic by Young (1995) and Young and Halleck (1998).

Overall, the findings from these researchers on the task variable indicated that different tasks elicited varying language functions and dissimilar patterns. In addition, pairing candidates of differing language proficiency does not have a significant impact on the nature of their discourse and scores though they might influence the amount of talk produced. However, it appears that differences do exist between participants from varying linguistic/cultural backgrounds. All these features reflect the complexity of the paired speaking construct and the necessity to take these factors into consideration when a test task is designed.

2.2.1.3.2 Test discourse

In comparison with research on test task and candidate characteristics mentioned above, there has been lack of studies on the nature of paired test discourse until recently. Galaczi (2004, 2008) and Lu (2006) have aimed to fill the gap.

Lu (2006) investigated the nature of EFL test-takers’ spoken discourse competence and its impact on their overall oral communicative competence and spoken grammatical competence, aiming to ascertain if the test-takers’ speaking ability is represented by certain discourse features produced during the test. Through a task-based discourse analysis of 30 live FCE speaking tests by Cambridge ESOL, the study revealed that discourse competence is an independent, interactive, and complex component which predicts EFL test-takers’ overall oral communicative competence, but it is distinct from grammatical competence. Specifically, Lu found that certain learners’ discourse features, such as initiating, elaborating, developing
topics and supporting, can be indicative of their ability in spoken language. In other words, the ability to produce those discourse features is treated as evidence of important constituents in EFL learners’ interactional competence (p. 3). Based on the findings, Lu proposed that a test taker’s IC can be investigated through analysis of the discourse features exhibited in their interactions.

Galaczi (2004, 2008) conducted the most thorough study on paired interaction discourse so far (May, 2009). Drawing on the analytic model reported by Storch (2001, 2002) in peer-peer interaction in an L2 classroom context, Galaczi explored the 30 dyadic interactions in the paired candidate segment of the FCE from two dimensions: patterns of interaction assumed by the candidates in the discussion and the relationship between the patterns of interaction and the score awarded to the candidates in the “interactive communication” subcategory rating scale. Distinguished by two indexes proposed by Damon and Phelps (1989): equality and mutuality (see Chapter, 4, Section 4.2.1), Galaczi categorised the dyadic patterns of test-taker discourse into four major types: (1) collaborative pattern, where participants not only nominate and develop their own topics, but also help expand the topic initiated by the partner, exhibiting both high equality and mutuality; (2) parallel pattern, where two speakers work on separate tracks with little mutual engagement towards each other’s contributions, revealing a high equality, but low mutuality; (3) asymmetrical pattern, where one of the interactants acts more dominantly, nominates and develops more topics, while the other assumes a passive or reactive part in the conversation and makes limited contribution to the talk, indicating both low equality and mutuality; and (4) blended pattern, which demonstrates the traits of two or more interactional patterns. In addition, Galaczi recognised that the two defining indices (equality and mutuality) are intersected with the dimension of conversational dominance, which, according to Itakura (2001), comprises three categories: ‘participatory’, ‘sequential’, and ‘quantitative’. Based on the overall presence of conversational dominance observed in the talk, each of the three discrete patterns was subdivided into subgroups of low or high conversational dominance. As such, the four patterns of interaction mentioned above were further divided into two subgroups in terms of conversation dominance, which was operationalised in Galaczi’s study as quantitative dominance (the quantity of talk), participatory dominance (interruption), and sequential dominance (questions) based on Itakura’s (2001) classification. In the data set comprised of 30 paired candidate performances, Galaczi found that the majority of the test taker dyads “oriented either to a collaborative (30%), parallel (30%), or blended (30%) pattern of interaction, and asymmetrical dyads only accounted for 10% of the whole dataset” (p. 112). Another important contribution that Galaczi made in her study is that she also identified some
relationship between the patterns of dyadic interaction and scores awarded for the FCE “interactive communication” sub-rating scales of the test. Her analysis indicated that the candidates who use the collaborative patterns of interaction tend to obtain higher scores than those using asymmetrical interactional patterns, which is the most problematic aspect in terms of rating (p. 261). The findings showed that high scores generally oriented to a collaborative pattern of interaction, whilst the low scores assumed a parallel pattern. This study makes us aware of the need for investigating how raters actually award scores to joint interactions, and especially to asymmetric interactions.

2.2.1.3.3 Rating process

Like any other performance tests, paired (and group) oral tests are also subject to the threat to its scoring validity or reliability. There have been reports that testing researchers have perceived difficulty in assessing multiple candidates involved in the same interaction (Folland & Robertson, 1976; Hilsdon, 1991), in particular, when they come to the asymmetrical interaction as proposed by Galaczi (2004, 2008) in the paired speaking test. Therefore, an investigation of how the peer-peer interaction is rated should be invaluable for us to know how this is done, i.e., the explicit rating process. However, a survey of the relevant literature showed that rater behaviour has been the focus of a few researchers on speaking tests, including oral interview test (e.g., Brown, 2000; Brown et al., 2005; McNamara & Lumley, 1997; Norton et al., 1997; Orr, 2002), yet the issue of the rating process has received comparatively limited attention in peer-peer speaking tests. Of the available studies, some of them compared the behaviour of raters in terms of the level of harshness or leniency of ratings in the employment of the same rating scales or differences between raters from different linguacultures, including NS and NNS raters (Chalhoub-Deville & Wigglesworth, 2005; Lu, 2005; Zhang & Elder, 2010). Others did incorporate the rating aspect in the studies by comparing the scores awarded with the discourse elicited (Davis, 2009; Galaczi, 2004, 2008), but “their conclusions regarding features salient to raters were derived by inference, on the basis of correlating scores awarded with actual features of the discourse that emerged through a CA study” (May, 2007, p. 29). Yet only through careful examination of the rating process, i.e., how the rater applies the rating scales to award scores, can we know about the validity of such inferences. More recently, Ducasse and Brown (2009) and May (2007, 2009, 2011) made attempts in this regard.

Ducasse and Brown (2009) explored how raters construed and operationalised interactional competence. By analyzing the rater responses in a verbal protocol to the paired test discourse of 17 beginner-level Spanish students, Ducasse and Brown identified three main categories of interactional features salient to raters: non-verbal interpersonal
communication, interactive listening, and interactional management. Of the three parameters, nonverbal behaviour were seen by the rater as an indispensable and important aspect of interactional competence. Interactive listening, which was divided into two subparts by the rater (“supportive listening” and “comprehension”), highlighted the crucial role of listening in successful interaction. In addition, in terms of interactional management, the analysis revealed that, from a rater’s point of view, being able to manage a conversation skilfully means being adept at both turn-taking and topic level management. The study reflected both the complexity involved in rating paired speaking tests and the inseparability of listening from speaking in conversational interaction. The findings have the potential to inform the development of interaction-based, data-driven rating scales that reflect candidates’ interactional competence.

Following the same line, May (2007, 2009, 2011) conducted a series of studies which explored the construct of IC in paired speaking test from raters’ perspectives. With the paired talk from 12 EAP Chinese students at tertiary level complemented with scores given for interactive effectiveness, stimulated verbal recalls, notes, summary statements, and discussions from four trained raters, which enabled a multidimensional view of the rating process, May (2007) examined the features of a paired candidate EAP speaking test that were salient to the trained raters by examining the decision making process regarding a candidate’s interactional effectiveness. The author categorised 19 features of interactional competence that raters found salient when assessing a paired EAP discussion task. These features included assertiveness through communication, conversation management, and body language, among others. The study revealed that two SPL dyads orienting to asymmetrical interaction, which fall into Storch’s (2001, 2002) dominant/passive pattern or Galaczi’s (2004, 2008) asymmetrical mode of classifications. The asymmetrical talks were purposefully selected for a detailed analysis because they pose difficulty for raters in that they have to unravel the co-constructed performance in order to assign score to the individual test taker for interactional effectiveness (Galaczi, 2004). Data analysis showed that raters perceived some features of interactional effectiveness as mutual achievements. In addition, the author also identified the way in which raters dealt with asymmetrical interaction produced by candidates. Specifically, when raters were faced with asymmetric interactions, where one partner clearly dominates the conversation, raters had difficulty in separating the impact of one candidate on the other and awarding separate scores for their interactional competence. In these situations the raters would either compensate a candidate based on what they might have been able to achieve with a different partner or penalise one or both candidates for their role in co-constructing the asymmetric interaction (p. 220). The result echoes the findings from interview tests where
raters tend to compensate candidates for being disadvantaged in some way by their interlocutors (Brown, 2005; McNamara & Lumley, 1997).

Another important contribution that May made is that her research also examined the separability of the candidates’ contribution to the discourse in asymmetric patterns of interaction. Based on the study, she proposed a possibility of awarding a shared score for interactional competence to paired test-takers for interactional effectiveness while assigning a separate score for other analytical categories (p.226), which is one way of acknowledging the inherently co-constructed nature of interaction in paired speaking test. Later, May (2009, 2011) continued her exploration of the features of interactional competence salient to the raters of a paired speaking test in their rating decision making by looking at the extent to which the features of the co-constructed interaction were regarded by raters as mutual achievements. For the sake of analysis, interactional competence, operationalised in the rating scales developed for this paired speaking test, consisted of three aspects: the extent to which the candidate was able to understand the interlocutor’s message, respond to the interlocutor appropriately, and use communicative strategies appropriately (May, 2011, p.133). The results showed that the raters noted a number of features which were key aspects of a successful interaction, including conversation management, asking for opinion and clarification, challenging or disagreeing with a partner, and being able to deal with being challenged or disagreed with. May recognised that the ability to work together cooperatively, manage a conversation, communicate with assertiveness, demonstrate effective body language and interactive listening, could help to co-construct a collaborative pattern of interaction.

This section has surveyed the findings from the previous research on oral interview test, group oral, and paired speaking tests that have focused on interaction. As discussed above, while the new test formats have their obvious advantages over the traditional individual interview model, the caveats associated with paired tests cause concern among the language testing community. The fundamental problem inherent in paired test tasks, where the participants co-construct the conversation, is rating individual scores based on the jointly performed interaction and the interpretation of test results (McNamara, 1997; Swain, 2001). In other words, the validity of making separate speaking judgments about individuals who are involved in a joint enterprise with their peers tends to raise questions (e.g. Brown, 2003; Galaczi, 2004, 2008; May, 2006) because it is hard to evaluate one test taker’ performance without taking into account the contribution of the other. The problem is even more prominent when candidates produce asymmetrical interaction as indicated by some researchers. Another problem related to the complexity of the interactional dynamics in a paired speaking test is the pairing of the participants. There has been ample evidence that test
performance is clearly affected by the persons the test takers are interacting with, which is supported by Galaczi’s findings in her study on paired orals, suggesting that the test-taker pairs who operated in the most collaborative manner received higher scores on the interactive communication criterion (Galaczi, 2008, p.471). If a candidate was to end up in a partnership which did not interact in a collaborative manner (i.e. a more ‘parallel’ or ‘asymmetrical’ relationship), it would be likely to have a negative effect on his/her rating though s/he was very capable of interacting collaboratively. Obviously, if one test taker is paired with another peer and for some reason generates an asymmetrical interaction, where two speakers produce an unequal amount of talk and unbalanced distribution of topic initiation moves and expansion moves (Galaczi, 2008, p.110), this raises the issue of fairness. To address the problems the new test format poses to tester/raters, further research needs to be done.

2.2.2 Discourse-based studies in L2 learning contexts

Two research studies on peer-peer interaction in non-testing settings (i.e., a classroom learning context) are also reviewed in this section because they revealed the key issues which have been taken into consideration in the design and analysis of dyadic test discourse in the current study. In other words, the analysis of the pair talk in the current study is framed within the context of dyadic interaction in SLA.

Since research on group/pair learner interactions in SLA started three decades ago, there has been a proliferation of research on various facets of peer-peer interaction in classroom contexts (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Gass & Varonis, 1985; Long & Porter, 1985). Understandably, most of these studies, guided by Long’s interactional hypothesis (Long, 1983), have been predominantly acquisition-centered, investigating the effect of interaction on acquisition (Galaciz, 2004). More recent research in SLA focuses on the nature of learner-learner interaction or nonnative-nonnative speaker interlanguage (Gardner, 2007; Hellermann, 2006, 2009; Kasper & Kim, 2007; Markee, 2000, 2004, 2008; Olsher, 2004; Storch, 2001, 2002; Wagner & Gardner, 2004; Watanabe, 2008; Wong, 1994, 2000a, 2000b). These studies have great implications for L2 testing in that they not only aid in broadening our knowledge of interactional competence, but also provide insights into language testing (Markee, 2000). Two of these studies informing the current study include the work of Storch (2001, 2002) and Watanabe (2008).

In her longitudinal investigation of the nature of dyadic interaction in an adult ESL classroom over a range of language tasks, Storch (2001, 2002) investigated the salient

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5 Storch (2001, 2002) were basically the same study, but the former was her research project for PhD research and the latter was a published journal article, which reports the findings of the doctorate study.
features of dyadic interaction i.e., the patterns the learners orient to in conversation, and the relationship between these pattern types and L2 development. As for the former, she identified four patterns of interaction based on the indices of equality and mutuality, which were drawn from the work of Damon and Phelps (1989). These four patterns of interaction comprised collaborative, dominant/dominant, dominant/passive, and expert/novice (p. 127-9). Of the four patterns, the first three are conceptually equal to Galaczi’s (2004, 2008) “collaborative,” “parallel,” and “symmetrical” talk (see section 2.2.1.3.2), while the last mode is reminiscent of Davis’s (2009) pattern classification of dyadic interaction in a paired speaking test (see section 2.2.1.3.1). The analysis revealed that students operating in pairs may not necessarily work in a collaborative manner (p. 29). With regard to the relationship between these patterns and L2 development, the findings suggested that certain patterns of dyadic interaction were more conducive than others to language learning. Specifically, the participants working in the collaborative and expert/novice patterns of dyadic interaction showed the greater evidence of language learning/development compared to those operating in dominant/dominant and dominant/passive paradigms (p. 357).

Drawing on Storch (2001, 2002), Watanabe (2008) investigated the nature of the dyadic discourse in terms of words, language-related episodes (LREs), and patterns of interaction. Three Japanese ESL learners were asked to engage in a three-stage task: pair writing, pair comparison (between their original text and a reformulated version of it), one with a higher and one with a lower L2 proficiency level than their own, and individual writing. Along with the transcribed conversations, stimulated recalls and interviews were also employed in the data analysis. In terms of patterns of interaction, four patterns were identified: collaborative, dominant/passive, expert/novice, and expert/passive patterns. The first three pattern types fit into Storch’s (2001, 2002) and Galaczi’s (2004, 2008) pattern classification models except for the last one (expert/passive), where one of the learners in the discussion acts as an expert, who takes a leadership role and actively encourages the passive partner to become involved in the task, but s/he is not domineering in the discussion. However, the other is clearly passive and submits to the partner’s lead role (p. 618). In addition, the author also examined the relationship between proficiency level, interaction pattern, and L2 development. Further analysis revealed that the higher- and lower- proficiency peers could both provide opportunities for learning when they worked collaboratively. Thus, Watanabe proposed that proficiency differences do not necessarily affect the nature of peer assistance and L2 learning in dyadic conversation, instead, it is the pattern of interaction co-constructed by learners that may have greater impact on both peer collaboration and L2 development.
2.2.3 Discourse-based studies on Chinese EFL learners’ spoken discourse

For the purpose of the current study, the relevant discourse-based studies available on Chinese EFL learners encompass two parts: studies on Chinese EFL learners’ spoken discourse in general and research on Chinese EFL learners’ interactive discourse in the PETS-5-SET.

2.2.3.1 Studies on Chinese EFL learners’ spoken discourse

As discussed in Chapter 1, Section 1.1, Chinese learners of English are currently the largest number of non-native speakers of English anywhere in the world, yet most of them generally experience difficulty in speaking English, in particular holding conversations with native speakers. Therefore, there is an urgent need for language educators and test researchers to look into the matter and attempt to find solutions. To address the problem, a considerable body of studies have been conducted during the past decade to examine the nature of Chinese EFL learners’ spoken discourse both inside and outside China, covering various aspects of speech production under different settings, including discourse particles (Chen & Li, 2010; Chen & Wu, 2008; Lam, 2008; Wang & Zhu, 2005; Xu & Xu, 2007), conversational strategies (Gao, 2000; Clarke, 1992; Guo, 2010; Leng, 2005; Tang & Ren, 2008; Wong, 1994, 2000a, 2000b), error repairs (Wang, 2007; Wen & Zhuang, 2005; Yang, 2002), lexical study (He & Xu, 2003; Mu et al. 2005; Rong, 2007; Wei, 2007), verbal patterns (Heng, 2008; Qi & Ding, 2011), and code-switching (Chen & Hird, 2006). In addition, as reviewed in Section 2.2.1, a few studies have been published in international journals investigating Chinese EFL learners’ discourse characteristics in oral assessment across a number of issues by using discourse analytic techniques (e.g., Davis, 2009; Gan, 2008, 2010; Gan et al., 2009; He, 1998; Lu, 2008; Luk, 2010; May, 2007, 2009, 2011), which undoubtedly have contributed to the body of research on Chinese learners of English.

2.2.3.2 Studies on Chinese EFL learners’ discourse in the PETS-5-SET

As described in Chapter 1, Section 1.2.3, the PETS 5 is the largest non-credential English language test in China and the number of test-takers is increasing steadily in recent years. Understandably, a considerable amount of research has been conducted since its first administration in 1999. A survey of the literature on the test indicates that the great bulk of the research is documentary work which either introduces the test system (Ding & Cao, 2006; J. D. Liu, 2008; Q. S. Liu, 2008; Liu; Zhang, 2009) or discusses the washback effect on or implications for English language teaching in China (Li & Teng, 2001; Lin, 2004; Wang, 2007; Xiang & Xiao, 2003; Yang, 2004.). In addition, a few studies have examined the interactional strategies displayed by the candidates in the PETS-SET at Level 1-4 (He, 2010;
Li, 2010; Xiao & Xiang, 2004) and more interestingly, three researchers investigated the candidates’ test talk by using CA, including turn-taking mechanism (Li & Li, 2006), repair strategies (Wang, 2007), and conversational features (Pang & Pan, 2007).

Li and Li (2006) investigated the turn-taking strategies of the PETS-SET test takers in general. The results showed that there were some problems among candidates, such as simplified turns, lack of communicative strategies, and L1 negative transfer (p. 129). Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches together, Wang’s (2007) study focused on the patterns and features of conversational repairs exhibited by the candidates in the paired discussion segments of the PETS-2 and SETS-3. By comparing the features of conversational repairs between 14 PETS-2-SET and 14 PETS-3-SET test takers, she attempted to identify the differences between the two groups of students in terms of their conversational repairs. The results demonstrated that, on the whole, the candidates preferred self-repair strategies, but the frequency of other-initiated repairs was not much lower than the self-initiated repairs. Pang and Pan (2007) examined the discourse features of Chinese EFL learners in the PETS-5-SET against the basic components of CA theory in the tradition of Sacks et al. (1974): turn-taking, sequence, repair, and preferences. Results indicated a general lack of test-takers’ awareness of interaction and inability to manage the turn-taking and repair communication breakdowns. As for the reasons for these inadequacies, the author speculated that test-takers’ insufficient understanding of the nature of oral tests was partially responsible for their performance, among other things (p. 12).

As seen from the discussion above, the three PETS studies have either been based on the PETS-SET in general or the PETS-2- or SETS-3, and there have been no studies undertaken on the PETS-5-SET, the highest level of the system, from a discourse analysis perspective so far. To address this gap, the current study attempts to examine the nature of interactive discourse exhibited by Chinese EFL learners in the paired task segment of the PETS-5-SET. Needless to say, the study will add significantly to the research on Chinese spoken discourse in general and interactional features on paired orals in particular.

### 2.3 Summary

This chapter has presented a comprehensive review of theoretical underpinnings and previous research pertinent to the current study. In this review, three dimensions of a theoretical grounding were discussed, including interactional competence, cross-culture communication, and conversation analysis. This was followed by a survey of previous studies, consisting of two parts: the discourse-based studies in speaking tests in general and the discourse-based studies on Chinese EFL learners’ test performance in particular. The review
has provided a theoretical base for the design of the research that will be described in Chapter 3. It has also offered insights into the analysis of the data that will be illustrated in Chapters 4, 5, and 6, and provided the cultural explanations for the differences observed in the discourse performance between Chinese and Australian dyads expounded later in Chapter 7.
3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will present an overview of methodological procedures involved in the current study. It consists of two major sections. Section 1 will set out the rationale of the research design, the instruments used, and the procedure of data collection. Section 2 will describe the major stages involved in the data analysis. The presentation and discussion of the data analysis will be presented in Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7.

As stated in Chapter 1, Section 1.3, the study intends to explore the interactional features of Chinese EFL learners’ discourse in a paired speaking test by comparing the spoken performance of Chinese EFL learners with those of the Australian native speakers so as to identify similarities and differences between the two L1 groups. To achieve this goal, data were collected and analysed accordingly. The procedures involved in the data collection and analysis are described in detail in the following sections of this chapter.

3.2 Data collection

A mock oral test in the form of a paired discussion identical to that of the PETS-5-Test was conducted to collect the data. This section will discuss the rationale, instruments, and procedures of data collection in light of the research questions guiding this study.

3.2.1 Rationale of research design

With the objective of identifying the salient features of interactive discourse exhibited by Chinese EFL learners in a paired speaking test and the key differences between Chinese EFL learners and Australian native speakers in dyadic conversation, this research attempts to answer the following four research questions:

RQ1: What are the interactional features of Chinese EFL learners’ discourse in a paired speaking test?
RQ2: What are the interactional features of Australian native English speakers in a dyadic conversation?
RQ3: In what specific ways does Chinese EFL learners’ spoken English differ from that of Australian speakers in the paired discussion?
RQ4: What factors contribute to the variations in performance between Chinese learners of English and their Australian counterparts in the dyadic interaction?
To address these questions, it was essential that proper instruments were designed and applied to elicit a rich manifestation of spoken discourse from the recruited participants. As explained in Chapter 1, Section 1.2.3, a mock oral test in the form of paired discussion, i.e., Task 2 of the Public English Test System 5 Spoken Test (PETS-5-SET) was administered to gather the data rather than the authentic PETS-5-SET test, which is deemed as highly confidential in China. Being a PETS-5-SET examiner herself, the researcher was very aware of the issue of authenticity concerning test task and testing contexts, yet the dyadic conversations from both Chinese and Australian participants were recorded for conversational analysis on the rationale that the paired discussion is in fact a mock task for both Australian and Chinese participants, though the latter may have the chance to practice that sort of task if they plan to take the PETS-5-SET and the Australians would not normally be engaged in such paired task discussion in English. In addition, the investigation of the research also necessitated the researcher to recruit both Chinese and Australian participants and have them perform the same types of oral task in the same language under similar conditions. By doing that, the research would be able to directly compare and contrast the discourse performance of the two cohorts and identify similarities and differences in the interactional behaviour between the two L1 groups. To achieve this the researcher devised the test prompts by following the specifications for Task 2 of the PETS-5-SET as designated in the syllabus (NEEA, 2006) and had the participants perform the task under authentic-like examination conditions.

It is important to note that Australian students are involved in this study for two reasons: firstly, some form of standardised English was deemed necessary as a benchmark to compare this study’s China English data against. L1 (Australian native) speakers are used only because theirs is a recognised variety of World English as are any other types of English such as “China English”, which is the focus of the current study. By comparing and identifying similarities and differences between the two groups in terms of their interactional behaviour and the possible contributing factors to the variations, the researcher is able to obtain a better understanding of the discourse performance of the target group (i.e. Chinese EFL learners); and secondly, the Australian participants have been recruited in this study for practical reasons since the researcher was living in Australia while the research was being carried out. In other words, convenience sampling is applied in the data collection in terms of research methods. The data from the speakers of a different variety of English would have been collected if the researcher had happened to be located elsewhere for this project.

It is also necessary to point out that in comparing the spoken discourse of two groups of speakers the research intends to identify key differences between the interactional practices
of two varieties of World Englishes, and not deficiencies between non-native speakers of English (Chinese) and native speakers (Australian). Additionally, by involving L1 speakers, the researcher doesn’t mean to use the performance of native English speakers as a “standard norm” against which to evaluate the speech features of the Chinese non-native speakers in the test being discussed (the PETS-5-SET) since she is well aware of two points regarding “native English speakers”: (1) language proficiency in English is not something that all native speaker possess and possess uniformly well (Alderson, 1980; Bachman, 1990), thus it cannot be reliably used to distinguish them from the non-native speakers of English (Hamilton et al., 1993). To put it another way, the variability of language proficiency amongst native speakers themselves makes it hard to have an absolute distinction between the native and non-native speakers (Davies, 2003), which is among the challenges (i.e., the definition of the norm) regarding the traditional status of the native speaker norm in the wake of the rapid spread of English as a lingua franca as the result of globalization (Davies et al., 2003; Jenkins, 1998, 2002, 2003; 2007; Lowenberg, 2002; Pennycook, 2003; Schnitzer, 1995); (2) research studies (e.g., Evans, 1990; Hamilton, 1991; Lopes, 1992; Sheridan, 1991; Weir, 1988), based on the Australian post-secondary education contexts, reveal that the performances of native speakers in the communicatively oriented EAP tests, i.e., the reading and writing subtest of the IELTS, and the cloze test of other academic English tests, are far from homogeneous and their scores in some subtests are relatively lower than in other subtests. In this sense, it can be said that the performance of native speakers is not the ideal benchmark for scale descriptors in English tests designed for the non-native speakers even if we wanted to use them in this way.

In terms of research design, the process of gathering the spoken data involved six key procedures which together facilitated a comprehensive study of the interactional features of participants’ discourse in paired discussion:
1. recruiting volunteer participants for data collection conducted at three universities in China and Australia;
2. devising the task prompts for the recruited participants to take a mock oral English test for their speech samples;
3. developing and applying the model for CA analysis of the participants’ discourse performance in the paired task;
4. establishing the coding scheme for the inter-coder reliability check of categorisation of the patterns adopted by the participants;
5. sampling the core transcripts of the participants’ pair talks for a fine-grained comparative conversational analysis; and
6. comparing the salient features of interactive discourse by Chinese and Australian
participants in the paired discussion.

3.2.2 Procedures of data collection

This section will describe the procedures of data collection in detail. The participants in this study are comprised of Chinese and Australian students at university level. Prior to collecting data, the researcher received approval from Macquarie University Ethics Secretariat to conduct this research involving human participants (see Appendix B). The sampling criteria, participant profiles, and instruments employed to elicit speech samples from each group are introduced in the following sections.

3.2.2.1 Data from Chinese participants

3.2.2.1.1 Participants

A total of 60 Chinese university students participated in this study. The sampling criteria and participant profiles are discussed in the following sections.

3.2.2.1.1 Sampling criteria

To obtain a sample that would be broadly representative of the target population (i.e., students in tertiary education), the method of stratified sampling was applied in the recruitment process to strike a balance among the prospective participants in terms of their age, gender, areas of study, and level of study, with the expectation that any potential bias against a particular group could be avoided. In terms of areas of study, the participants were from two universities in China, namely Central University of Finance and Economics, where a majority of students are science majors, and Beijing Language and Cultural University, which primarily offers its students courses in liberal arts or human sciences though there are some overlapping courses between the two universities. In addition, given the fact that the tertiary-level English learners in China are usually divided into English majors and non-English majors, participant’s ‘major’ was another factor taken into consideration in the sampling. However, as English majors account for only a small proportion of a university’s student population, only six English majors were selected in the present study.

With regard to level of study, more undergraduate than postgraduate participants (both at master’s and doctoral level) were selected though all the student participants had a minimum of eight years of institutional formal English language education at the time the study was undertaken, including six years in high school before their admission into the university and two years’ compulsory English courses after they were enrolled in the institution.
As for their English proficiency level, it should be noted that the participants were not required to take a special English language test prior to their participation in the study. The reason for this was that the Chinese students (both English and non-English majors) at the same level of study, with the highly centralized system of education and homogenous linguistic/cultural backgrounds, have had quite similar English learning experiences, as they have been taught in a similar approach in terms of the teaching methodology adopted by the English teachers and the English language tests they are required to take at different levels of further education. For instance, before they were admitted to a university for their undergraduate courses, these students sat for the College Entrance Examination, along with an English subtest, known as the National Matriculation English Test (NMET) (Cheng, 2008), one of the high-stakes English language tests administered in Mainland China. Likewise, they were required to take the Graduate School Entrance English Examination (GSEEE), together with the core examination related to their specific area of study, administered by the individual university before being accepted for postgraduate study (both for master and doctorate students). In addition, in most colleges and universities, English is an obligatory subject for all undergraduate students during the first two years of their tertiary education and obtaining a passing grade in the nation-wide College English Test (CET) is one of the prerequisites for the bachelor’s degree.

As the participants were drawn from three tiers as mentioned previously, in terms of their spoken English proficiency, they could be roughly divided into three groups: non-English major undergraduates could be characterised impressionably as intermediate learners; non-English major postgraduates as the upper-intermediate learners, and English majors as advanced learners. Categorized as such, the English major students were considered to have relatively higher oral English proficiency than their non-English major peers at a corresponding level of their study as they had been exposed to more varieties of English courses and more hours of language practice though it is a fact that not all English majors exhibited ‘higher’ speaking ability than their non-English major peers (Davis, 2009) and students at a higher level of their study do not necessarily speak better English than the undergraduates.

Given the fact that postgraduate students being admitted to tertiary education through sitting for at least three standardized English proficiency tests, if not more, i.e., the NMET (as subtest of College Entrance Examination), the CET (College English Test Band 4 and/or 6), GSEEE (at subtest of the Graduate School Entrance Examination at both masters’ and doctorate), and the fact that they all had passed the cut-off scores prior to their enrolment in the university, it could be reasonably assumed that their English proficiency is relatively
similar across the cohorts at any particular level of their study. However, English proficiency is one of the selection criteria for undergraduate participants (either in their first or second year of their tertiary education). That is, their aggregate score in the NMET is 120 marks (out of 150 in total) or higher. Additionally, the oral proficiency levels of the undergraduate participants were confirmed to the researcher by their English teachers that the recruited students were interactionally competent to hold a conversation with others.

Based on these facts, the study subsequently accepted the assumption that participants at the same level of study have a fairly equal level of overall English proficiency.

3.2.2.1.2 Participant profile

Based on the criteria outlined above, 30 males and 30 females were recruited, including 24 undergraduates, 20 masters, and 16 doctorates. Their age range was 18-22 for the undergraduates, 23-28 for the masters, and 29 and above for the doctorates. They majored in over 16 different areas, including literature, language, psychology, chemistry, math, law, management, engineering, economics, finance, trade, statistics, anatomy, and so on. Table 1 sets out the profile of the Chinese student participants in the study.

Table 1. Chinese student participant profiles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of study</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Years of English Learning</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduates</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18-22</td>
<td>10m+10f</td>
<td>8 years +</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters’</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23-28</td>
<td>12m+12f</td>
<td>11 years +</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorates’</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29-45</td>
<td>13m+13f</td>
<td>12 years+</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.2.1.2 Stages of data collection

Data collection from Chinese students was conducted at the universities during two trips to Beijing. The first set of data was gathered between April and June, 2009. Additional data were collected between May and June, 2010.

3.2.2.1.3 Spoken data collection

As mentioned in Chapter 1, Section 1.2.3, a mock oral test in the form of paired discussion was administered to elicit the speech samples from Chinese participants so as to address the research questions. The candidate-candidate discussion segment of the PETS-SET (see Table 2, Section B) was chosen as a model task for two main reasons: (1) PETS-SET is the only English language test administered in China which entails the paired task (along with two other tasks, including examiner-candidate interview, and extended monologue); (2) the test assesses the interactional competence displayed by test takers in their discourse performance, which is the focus of this study.
The PETS intends to provide assessment and certification of communicative English language skills in reading, writing, listening, and speaking at five levels of competence, from Level 1 (low) to Level 5 (high). The test battery encompasses two subtests: written and spoken. The oral subtest of PETS 5, the highest level of the battery, also known as the PETS-5-SET, is designed to assess oral language competence and communicative ability of candidates. The total time allotment for the spoken subtest is approximately 15 minutes, including 5 minutes for Task 2, and the total score accounts for 5 points. The composition of the test is as follows.

Table 2. Composition of each section in the PETS-5-SET.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Time allotment</th>
<th>Test format</th>
<th>Prompts provided</th>
<th>Skills measured</th>
<th>Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>2 minutes</td>
<td>interlocutor and candidate</td>
<td>elicitation questions</td>
<td>interactive skills and effective communication</td>
<td>0-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>5 minutes</td>
<td>candidate-candidate discussion</td>
<td>prompts (text/picture)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>8 minutes</td>
<td>candidate extended monologue</td>
<td>prompts (text/picture)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15 minutes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To administer the oral test, the two most commonly applied types of (verbal) task prompts for speech samples were designed in line with the specifications of the PETS-5-SET syllabus (NEEA, 2006), including the expository genre (henceforth task Type 1) and argumentative genre (henceforth task Type 2) genres, where the participants use language to discuss, to agree and/or disagree, express an opinion, exchange ideas, and perform other language functions for communicative purposes (see A).

Prior to its formal administration, the mock oral test was piloted\(^1\) with four students from each of the two universities in April 2009. Each dyad was assigned to complete one oral task with a time allotment of about 5 minutes, i.e., they were to talk about one topic in the discussion. Permission to record their oral performance in the oral test was obtained from the participants before the commencement of the oral test, evidenced by their signature on the Information Statement and the Consent Forms (see Appendices C and E).

### 3.2.2.2 Data from Australian participants

#### 3.2.2.2.1 Participants

Thirty Australian students from Macquarie University, Australia, participated in the study. The sampling criteria and their profile are introduced in the following sections.

\(^1\) The pilot study revealed that some terms used in the rubrics of the task prompts in the oral test were ambiguous to the participants, which could affect their discourse performance. Specifically, with the original rubrics, some participants assigned to an argumentative task tended to generate quite long turns (i.e., extended monologue) rather than dynamic interaction marked with frequent change of speakers at the beginning part of the conversation, in which they were required to present their stance on the topic followed by the supporting details to defend their arguments. Following the pilot study, the wordings of the rubrics were revised.
3.2.2.1.1 Sampling criteria

Given the unique nature of student profiles at the tertiary level in Australia, where students of all age groups might study a course in the same classroom, the level of study was not used as a criterion of sampling though each pair had to comprise one male and one female. The reasoning was that they could serve the study purpose sufficiently whether they were undergraduate students or postgraduate. In terms of area of study, care was taken to ensure that the samples covered as many participants from different areas as possible. As native speakers of English, language proficiency was thought not to be an issue for these participants, so this criterion did not feature in the pairing allocations.

3.2.2.1.2 Participant profile

Except for two students who were studying for their master and doctorate degrees respectively, the remaining 28 Australian participants were undergraduates in different years of their undergraduate study, ranging from the first to the fourth year (15 at first year, 8 second year, 4 third year, and 3 fourth year) from four different faculties, majoring in over 15 different disciplines, including language, law, science, business, computer science, medicine, management, music, marketing and the like.

3.2.2.2 Stage of data collection

The data from Australian participants were collected in two phases. The first set of data was gathered between March and April, 2009 and additional recordings were undertaken during October 2010 to allow matching of the data from the Chinese group of participants.

3.2.2.2.3 Spoken data collection

To address the research questions, 30 recruited Australian student participants, in addition to 60 Chinese students, were asked to take the same mock oral test (i.e., paired discussion) so as to provide grounds for comparability between the two groups.

The speech samples from the Australian participants were obtained by following exactly the same protocol and procedures as those from the Chinese participants, including conducting a small-scale pilot study\(^2\) with four participants before its formal administration and obtaining permission to record their oral performances. Equally importantly, the mock oral test was administered under the same authentic-like conditions as for their Chinese counterparts. The only difference between the two groups was that each pair of Australian participant was asked to cover two topics within approximately 10 minutes (each topic lasted about 5 minutes) rather than having them talk about one topic within the same period of time as originally planned prior to the survey. As such, more language samples could be captured from the participants within the same time duration.

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\(^2\) The pilot study was conducted to determine the time limits and procedures of the survey. Each pair of participants was asked to cover two topics within approximately 10 minutes (each topic lasted about 5 minutes) rather than having them talk about one topic within the same period of time as originally planned prior to the survey. As such, more language samples could be captured from the participants within the same time duration.
participants was assigned to complete two oral tasks, i.e., talk about two topics in the discussion within approximately 10 minutes (each topic lasted about 5 minutes) rather than just one topic within about 5 minutes as their Chinese counterparts did. With one pair covering two topics, 15 dyads of Australian participants generated a total of 30 talks.

3.3 Data Analysis

This section will provide an overview of the major methodological procedures involved in the analysis of pair talk data collected.

3.3.1 Talk analysis

3.3.1.1 Data transcription

The 60 pair talks from the Chinese and Australian groups (30 from each group) were transcribed in two formats: CA transcriptions of the 16 core transcripts (8 from each group) for detailed comparative CA analysis, and orthographic transcriptions of the remaining 44 (22 from each cohort) for more general investigation on a global scale. The core talks were transcribed by following the CA transcription system (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984; Wooffitt, 2005) with slight modifications (see Appendix G), which attempt to produce an accurate representation of the most basic micro-level features of talk-in-interaction, including intra-turn fillers, length of pauses, interruptions, overlaps, latches, backchannels, strengthened and stressed sounds, and other characteristics of the talks, which reflect the interactive traits of the dyadic conversation. However, the more global set of spoken data was rendered verbatim without finely tuned CA features.

To ensure higher accuracy and thus greater reliability of the research, a native English speaker who was a PhD in linguistics specializing in conversation analysis, was invited to double check the 16 core transcripts in terms of both content and CA features, and another independent native speaker researcher (PhD in linguistics), whose area of expertise was L2 education, was recruited to check the content of the remaining 44 non-core transcripts for accuracy.

3.3.1.2 Analytic framework

Based on the nature of the data and purpose of the study, a three-tier analytic framework was developed for analysing the spoken data, comprising generic structure, topicality production, and turn-taking behaviour. Of the three, the overall generic structure forms the fundamental framework and it will enable the speakers to develop their topics at the global scale; topicality production refers to how the participants develop their ideas within the
topic sequences. A topic sequence, as the basic layer of organisation which speakers orient to in the course of talk-in-interaction, constitutes the basic discourse unit (topical framework), in which speakers will be able to nominate and develop the topics as a unified and coherent whole. A turn is the smallest unit of conversation and turn-taking provides a basic mechanism for oral interactive organisation at a local level, where speakers will be able to change their roles logically (Sacks et al., 1994).

The conversational management skills at these three hierarchical levels are essential for successful dyadic interaction in that the three dimensions are among the most basic architecture of a conversation, as proposed by Sacks et al., (1974). In addition, they are among the most important interactional resources that participants are supposed to deploy for effective interaction in a specific discursive practice (He & Young, 1998); and more importantly, they are the most fundamental conversational management skills which the speakers need to use in the institutional setting, including the paired speaking test.

In sum, conversational management skills at the three levels cited are essential for successful dyadic interaction. Therefore, a detailed three-tier analysis of discourse performance of participants in the pair discussion will certainly help provide a more comprehensive understanding of participants’ interactional behaviour. A detailed description of the three dimensions of the analytic framework is provided in the following sections.

3.3.1.2.1 Generic structure

Conversation, as one of the most prevalent uses of human language (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 1), seems somewhat chaotic owing to its nature of spontaneity and informality (Thornbury & Slade, 2006, p. 304); in fact, however, it is orderly and rule-governed (Sacks et al., 1974). Overall structure is a global structural framework which participants assume in the interaction to complete the task. As mentioned previously, the dyadic conversation in this study is a goal-oriented and task-based institutional talk, where the participants desire to fulfil some objective. Shaped by the constraints of the institutionally imposed goal, the speakers normally follow a pre-determined formula. This part of the data analysis investigates the macro-level structural organisation the speakers orient to in the task accomplishment.

3.3.1.2.2 Topicality production

As a goal-oriented speech exchange, for the task completion participants are obliged to nominate and develop topics, i.e., to produce topicality (Maynard, 1980), which is the core of peer-peer dyadic interaction under institutional settings. Drawing on the model proposed by Storch (2001, 2002) and Galaczi (2004, 2008), this part of the data analysis will identify and describe the patterns the speakers orient to in their production of topicality, focusing on
the role speakers assumed, the amount of talk produced, and the overall degree of conversational dominance displayed by the participants.

To fulfil the objective, a unit of analysis and distinguishing indices for interactional pattern identification were determined. Based on the nature of the data, a topic sequence was chosen as the unit of analysis, and the concepts of speaking roles, equality, mutuality, and conversational dominance were applied as the defining variables to distinguish and classify the patterns of interaction at three hierarchical levels (see Chapter 4, Section 4.2.1). This part of the data analysis focuses on the patterns of interaction assumed by the speakers in their topic development.

3.3.1.2.3 **Turn-taking behaviour**

Turn-taking is a basic structural feature of conversational interaction (Wilson et al., 1984, p. 159) and is also one of the fundamental aspects that make conversations orderly (Heritage, 1997, p. 164). It indicates how turns are exchanged, what order is followed, and who allocates the right to speak. In describing how speakers manage turn-taking in mundane conversation, Sacks et al., (1974) hold that turn order is not fixed, turn size varies, and turn alteration in interaction can be self-selected or abided by the speaker’s nomination of the next speaker (p. 700-701). According to Sacks et al., an ideal conversation is organised so that one party always talks at a time; and transition from one turn to the next occurs, for most part, with little or no gap, overlap, or interruption, which is commonly known as the ‘no-gap-no-overlap’ turn-taking rules. Obviously the desired regularity of interaction, where turns are alternated with little notable pause or simultaneous talking, calls for a good coordination between the speaker and listener, i.e., the speaker sends the right signals (verbal and/or nonverbal) to the listener when a turn change is due and the listener understands and takes up the signals for a smooth change of the turn at the occurrences of the transition relevance place (TRP) (Li, 2001, p. 260). However, in much naturally occurring talk-in-interaction, including the dyad conversation discussed in this study, the orderliness of this turn-exchange principle might be violated by incidences of interruptions, simultaneous talk, or long pauses.

To have a better understanding of the turn-taking strategies employed by speakers, this part of the data analysis covers two levels: primary turns (full-turn) and non-primary turns (non-turn) (Schegloff, 1982), focusing specifically on turn-taking style, speaking rights, and backchannel responses. Detailed descriptions of each dimension are presented in the following sections.
3.3.1.2.3.1 Turn-taking style

Turn-taking is locally managed and jointly organised. To ensure that a topic flows smoothly, speakers are expected to observe the relevant turn-taking rules and develop topics cooperatively so as to produce coherent discourse; the listener is also expected to listen actively to the primary speaker and provide timely listener feedback. However, owing to various factors (i.e., the topic of the conversation, degree of familiarity between participants, language proficiency, cultural background, and personality, among others), different dyads often demonstrate divergent turn-taking patterns in terms of sequence of turn, length of turn, distribution of turn, and preferred style even though they talk about the same topic. This part of the data analysis attempts to characterise the turn-taking style in those areas.

3.3.1.2.3.2 Speaker rights

Speaker rights, according to Dings (2007), refer to the distribution of rights that interlocutors have for introducing and changing topics (p. 14). In the present study, speaker rights are used to indicate two aspects: (1) floor-taking, highlighting how the speaker obtains the floor, i.e., by means of discourse control strategies such as questions, interruptions, and overlap; and (2) topic change, focusing on the realisation of turn transition through either self-selection of the current speaker or abiding by the current speakers’ nomination of the next speaker (Sacks et al., 1974, p. 700-701).

The features of speaker rights in this study are unique in that participants possess the characteristics of interactants in both institutional talk and mundane conversation. On the one hand, participants involved in the task are obliged to fulfil the goal, which is the determining feature of institutional talk. For goal fulfilment, they have to orient to a certain interactional framework. On the other hand, like other ordinary conversations, where participants are not ‘assigned’ the pre-determined roles with regard to who is the topic speaker and who is the listener, participants in the dyadic interaction enjoy equal rights, which means they are obliged to manage the turn-taking by themselves for effective communication. Imposed with the mandatory goal, participants involved in the interaction find it imperative for them to gain the opportunity to talk, which is particularly true under the examination context due to two major factors: (1) they have to, as required by the test, make an effort to contribute to the interaction and demonstrate their language proficiency, i.e., nominating and expanding a topic; and (2) more importantly, to have the floor may also prevent the other interactant from monopolizing the conversation (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 122) since the turn-taking pattern often decides the distribution of the talk. In this situation, it is possible for either of the speakers in the conversation to take initiatives to “control” the direction of conversation at any particular
moment by some means, such as questions, interruptions, or simultaneous speech. In doing so, the other speaker will be placed in a more passive position in the interaction as s/he is sequentially obliged to make responses. Therefore, participants are expected to share speaker rights with each other to ensure that conversations progress smoothly.

Therefore, based on the nature of the talk under investigation, speaker rights in the talk are analysed from two aspects: (1) how they take the floor for a chance of speaking: by taking the turn (over) at the occurrence of the TRP or via interruption or simultaneous speech; and (2) how the speakers gain the right to change topics: by self-selection or other selection. That is, to claim the floor first so as to have a ‘say’ in the interaction, participants generally resort to one of two means: either (1) start to talk at the end of a turn by predicting the TRP of the utterance of the prior speaker accurately or (2) ‘break in’ during the primary speaker’s speakership by means of interruptions or simultaneous talk. Additionally, for topic change, participants may either start a topic sequence directly through self-selection i.e., simply by nominating a new topic upon the completion of a unit type (at the terminal boundary of the unit-type) by the current speaker (normally in the form of a statement), or initiate a new topic by posing a question to the other through other selection. In a word, speakers could gain the speaker rights either for floor-taking by means of four interactional devices, including questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches or topic change by self- and other-selection. A brief description of each of these four tactics is provided in the following sections.

### 3.3.1.2.3.2.1 Questions

As fundamental conversational strategies, questions have been a popular topic for study by researchers as they perform a variety of roles in discourse (e.g., Galaczi, 2004; Moder & Halleck, 1998; Schiffrin, 1994). Apart from seeking information, inviting opinions, and requesting clarifications, the most important function of questions in the multi-speaker conversation is to obtain controlling power owing to their role of selecting both the speaker and topic in progress (Coulthard, 1977, p. 53) and the fact that the listener is also obliged to respond to whatever topic is being discussed either through minimal or substantive responses (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). However, the discourse analysis literature in dyadic interaction shows that questions do not necessarily indicate the speaker’s intention to dominate the conversation; instead they are also employed to serve other functions such as to facilitate conversational co-participation by means of eliciting interactional engagement of the other with a task. In addition, they are also used as a device for topic initiation and development moves (Galaczi, 2004; Itakura, 2001; Riggenbach, 1990; Tannen, 1994). Based on their specific research purposes and contexts, researchers have come up with differing classifications for questions. For instance, in Schiffrin’s taxonomy, questions are divided into
three types: “information seeking”, “information checking”, and “clarifying”. Galatzi (2004) classifies questions into three major categories and their subcategories: (1) “floor offer questions”, which are further divided into two subcategories: general and specific questions and “specific floor questions”; (2) “follow-up questions”; and (3) “ask for clarification”. But for the purpose of the current study, questions are categorised into five types: task management, floor offering, topic development, follow-up questions, and clarification questions.

3.3.1.2.3.2.2 Interruptions

Interruptions, as one of the key interactional devices (Murata, 1994, p. 399), are seen as performing varying functions. Traditionally, interruptions are synonymous with power, control, and dominance (e.g., Linell et al., 1988; Murray & Covelli, 1988; West & Zimmerman, 1983) as they intentionally intrude into the syntactically unfinished utterances of others (Hannah & Murachver, 1999) and restrict the current speaker’s right to maintain a turn (Sacks et al. 1974). However, this contention of equating interruption to power, control or dominance has been increasingly contested (e.g., Goldberge, 1990; Murata, 1994; Li 2001; Riggenbach, 1990; Tannen, 1994) during recent years as a growing number of researchers have been aware that some interruptions in conversational interaction, triggered by the interrupter's enthusiastic interest and active engagement with the interaction, may actually indicate support for the interruptee in interaction as signals of rapport (Goldberg, 1990), cooperation (Murata, 1994), alignment (Riggenbach, 1990), and involvement (Tannen, 1994), which often contributes to the development of the conversation by providing the current speaker with immediate feedback, inserting comments (informative or evaluative) for the current speaker, and/or jointly completing an utterance with the current speaker by supplying words or phrases (Murata, 1994).

Based on the functions these conversational devices perform, researchers identify two broad types of interruptions, which have been labeled in a variety of ways. Bennett (1981) differentiates the two types of interruptions as ‘conflicting’ and ‘less conflicting’; Kennedy & Camden (1983) distinguish them as ‘discomforting’ and ‘comforting’; Goldberg (1990) prefers ‘power’ and ‘manpower’, which echoes the dichotomy of ‘facilitative’ and ‘non-affiliative’ or ‘disaffiliative’ type by Makri-Tsilipakou (1994); Maynard (1990) uses the terms ‘power’ and ‘rapport’; Murata (1994) identifies them as ‘intrusive’ and ‘cooperative’; and Ng et al., (1995) detects ‘disruptive’ and ‘supportive’ types of interruptions. Whatever the labels used, according to Dunne & Ng (1994), interruptions could be power-related (intrusive) or non-power-related (cooperative), depending on the context it assumes in interaction. Of the two, intrusive interruption might violate the rights of the current speaker, control the content
of the talk, and disrupt the flow of the ongoing conversation, therefore it displays power or dominance whereas cooperative interruptions might indicate rapport, mutual interest, and solidarity towards the speaker as they often expand the ideas presented by the speaker, provide supportive feedback and facilitate the flow of conversation, indicating high involvement (Zimmerman & West, 1975). Therefore the employment of two types of interruption depends largely on the intention of the interrupter and whether he or she wants to support or control the interruptee. However, it might also be right to say that, in different contexts, interruption may reflect different functions. For instance, in conversation where power is not distributed equally, interruptions may reflect an attempt at dominance while in interaction with a more equal partnership between participants, interruptions may reflect engagement (Beaumont et al., 2010, p. 424).

3.3.1.2.3.2.3 Overlaps and latches

Apart from interruptions, overlaps and latches are also analysed in this part of my data analysis for two reasons: (1) they, along with interruptions, are fundamental aspects of the turn-taking system (Sacks et al., 1974); (2) they, like (cooperative) interruptions, can be used to take the floor with the intention of expanding the previously introduced topic, signaling cooperation, interest, and rapport (Tannen, 1994).

3.3.1.2.3.3 Listener response

Apart from turn-taking strategies exhibited in the primary turns, listener/backchannel responses, also called listener feedback performed by the participants in the non-primary turn are also investigated in this study. The examination of listener responses of the speakers is valuable for us to better understand the dyadic conversation for the following three reasons.

First, listening is identified as a crucial part of interaction (Ducasse & Brown, 2009; May, 2009, 2010, 2011) and backchannel responses constitute an indispensable component of the dynamic turn-taking mechanism. Participants in interaction have two roles to play: that of speaker and of listener, and effective interaction involves the speakers moving between the role of listener and speaker smoothly and performing both roles successfully. Effective conversation requires participants to take the initiative to nominate and develop topics while they are holding the floor and also listen attentively to the primary speaker for the TRP so as to provide timely responses as a nominal listener, ranging from minimal feedback to substantial responses, to show involvement with the prior speaker (Hughes, 2006, p. 225).

Second, listener responses by non-primary speakers (i.e., backchannel cues), as significant discourse activities (Clancy, 1996, p. 380), are essential for conversational management in spoken interaction. In a dynamic conversation, where participants work
cooperatively in their topic development, there is a need for speakers to show each other intersubjectivity frequently (Kramsch, 1986), signalling that they are understanding each other and are being understood so as to carry the conversation forward smoothly. Listener feedback, along with participant interaction, is an essential means by which speakers update their understanding of the current state of the discourse, which is crucial both for their own understanding of discourse (i.e., to incorporate new information provided by others) and their projected perceptions of the addressee’s understanding of the discourse (Luchjenbroers, 2002, p. 211).

Third, listener responses are key indicators of conversational co-construction. The wide variety and high frequency of backchannel responses in interaction often suggest a strong interactional style with numerous reactions from the non-primary speaker, and therefore signals a greater degree of support, cooperation, and involvement on the part of the listener (Stenstrom, 1994; Stubbe, 1998), as indicated by the fact that, through the production of small bits of language behaviour, such as ‘yeah’, ‘uh huh’, and so on, the listener provides a space for the current speaker to continue with the unit of talk in progress.

In the literature on spoken interaction, feedback provided by non-primary speakers has been defined in various ways by researchers to reflect the specific methodological approach to the phenomenon studied, including acknowledgement tokens (Jefferson, 1984), backchannels or backchannel behaviour (Yngve, 1970), backchannel responses (Duncan, 1972), listener responses (Dittman & Llewellyn, 1968), non-primary turns (Schegloff, 1982), and reactive tokens (Clancy et al., 1996), minimal responses (Young & Miller, 2004), among other descriptors. Given the nature of the study’s data, the analysis of non-primary listener responses in this study is limited only to the most commonly occurring type: backchannel cues, which refer to “short non-lexical utterances (i.e., ‘hm’, “hu-huh”, “oh”, or “mhm”, “yeah”) by an interlocutor who is playing primarily a listener’s role during the other interlocutor’s speakership (Tao & Thompson, 1991, p. 10). These backchannel cues will normally not disrupt or challenge the primary speaker’s speakership and will not incite a direct answer from the nominal listener either; therefore they generally do not ‘claim the floor.’ In terms of functions, backchannel cues often perform two functions, first as a ‘continuer’ (Schegloff, 1983), encouraging the speaker to go on talking, and second as a turn-passing move (Tsui, 1994), which helps pass up an opportunity for production of a full turn (Wolf, 2008, p. 282). In this study the term ‘backchannel cues’ are used interchangeably with ‘backchannel responses’.
3.3.1.3 Procedures of talk analysis

Based on the descriptions above, pair talks were examined from three dimensions: generic structure, topicality production, and turn-taking behaviour. The following sections will focus on the major steps involved in the analysis of pair talk data, including segmentation of data and coding of discourse features.

3.3.1.3.1 Procedures for analysing generic structure

Analysis of the generic structure involves three aspects: segmentation of sequential organisation, coding of rhetorical style and topic development moves. The following subsections will illustrate the procedures.

3.3.1.3.1.1 Data segmentation: sequential organisation

In the analysis of generic structure, the term ‘sequence’ is used as a unit to delineate the overall structural organisation of the talks, which, according to Mazeland (2006), “is an ordered series of turns through which participants accomplish and coordinate an interactional activity” (p.156). In this part of the analysis, the talk was found to consist of three major sequences, which were labelled in turn as “opening sequence”, “body sequence”, and “closing sequence” (See Chapter 4, Section 4.1.1).

3.3.1.3.1.2 Data coding: rhetorical style

Apart from sequential organisation, the pair talks are also explored from the perspective of rhetorical style. The investigation of the talks found that two rhetorical styles emerged, which are labelled as two major types: Structure A (direct) and Structure B (indirect). Although the speakers who orient to the two rhetorical styles may or may not preface their conversation with task management moves to negotiate who should start speaking first, there are differences between the talks in terms of discourse strategies used by the interactants. In the former style, the participants come to the task topic directly, that is, “opening the door and seeing the mountain”. To begin their conversation, they do not use any ‘off-task’ (Storch, 2002) or ‘prelude’ except for task management moves. In the latter case, however, the talk is preceded with some kind of lead-in, such as a greeting or background information. As it does not quite relate to the task itself directly, the talk with the preface may be perceived by native English speakers as “beating around the bush” (Young, 1994).

3.3.1.3.1.3 Data coding: topic development moves

To illustrate how the participants organise their ideas and arguments within the topical framework in the interaction, the notion of ‘move’ was used (Stenstrom, 1994), which was
operationalised in this study as the way in which the participants develop their topics in a turn. After the talk was segmented into sequences, the topic development sequences were coded for the distribution of these moves. As a result, a total of 10 types of move were identified, which were classified into three levels of a hierarchy. There are three moves at the highest level, ‘initiate’, ‘develop’, and ‘close’, of which, the second move ‘develop’ is further divided into two sub-moves: ‘sustain’ and ‘respond’, each of which is in turn further divided into sub-moves of ‘build’ and ‘append’ for the former, and ‘minimal acknowledgment’, ‘topic recycle’, and ‘substantial expansion’ for the latter. The relationship between the development moves at three hierarchical levels are illustrated graphically in Figure 5.

Figure 5. A representation of the relationship between the topic development moves.

Drawing on Galaczi (2004), but with some modifications, the topic development moves and their respective operational definitions are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Types and definitions of topic development moves coded in the pair talk.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>High-level</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiate</td>
<td>A speaker introduces a new topic within the topical framework of the task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop</td>
<td>A speaker continues with the prior topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustain</td>
<td>A speaker continues with the topic initiated by him/herself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build</td>
<td>A continuous speaker adds to the topics s/he initiated by herself/himself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Append</td>
<td>A speaker resumes the topic of his/her own once the floor is regained.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respond</td>
<td>A speaker develops the propositions set up by the prior speaker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimal...</td>
<td>A speaker responds to the proposition set up by the partner with a minimal response.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recycle</td>
<td>A speaker responds to the proposition set up by the partner by repetition/ref ormulation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expand...</td>
<td>A speaker contributes to the proposition set up by the previous by adding to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close</td>
<td>A speaker terminates the topic-in-progress, usually with a minimal response.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To have a better view of these moves, the following two excerpts illustrate how the coding scheme on topic development moves was applied in the data.
Excerpt 1

Task: C Talk 3 (Type 1)
Topic: What can students do to improve their study efficiency?
Speakers: T= Tian Li (female); Z= Zhou Ming (male)

21 T and I think um the
22 Z [uh]
23 initiate T I think the third is (0.3) expand your scope of knowledge by various means (0.6) as we all know that er learning is not just about uh textbooks (0.5) and er we um (0.4) especially in this modern um society, (0.3) we have a lot of access to (0.2) er different kin- kinds of uh different kinds of ways of learning (0.3) such as internet (0.4) um (0.9) uh the uh the television, (0.3) and newspapers, (0.4) and also from um your professions, (0.4) I I think (0.2) er if you are just (.). er (0.4) er CLOSE yourself in a very small room and reading, (0.3) and studying, and do- do not look out uh look out of your window to the beautiful outside world (0.4) and you will lost (0.4) information (0.4) and you will just (0.5) not called a person (0.3) just of uh maybe a person in a cage (0.3) and you d- you do- you do not know (0.2) what happened all around.

(0.6)

24 append Z um yes I think I um (0.7) um (1.0) I I want to continue my- er last er last (0.6) point discuss discuss challenging issues with teachers and classmates (0.5) em (0.6) to for er (0.8) for me I prefer to challenge myself rather than challenge um teachers and classmates

25 expand T okay, [that's maybe]
26 build Z [(u-u-) if I ] have some p- er (0.3) questions (0.7) um I (0.4) I prefer to search search on on the internet (0.8) [by myself.]
27 expand T [(mm hm) ] (0.5) but sometimes er the (0.3) the information on the internet are not very (0.4) confidential, (0.3) or very um (1.6) very a- (0.3) uh very (1.1) influential (.). I think. (. ) (continues)

Relating to this excerpt, it should be pointed out that ‘expanding’ a topic means adding to the content of the proposition set up by the prior speaker either in a positive or negative way. In other words, a speaker does not have to express one’s support/agreement to the prior speaker’s proposition in order to expand it. In Turn 27 of the excerpt, where Tian Li
expresses her disagreement towards the partner’s proposition that Zhou Ming prefers to search on the internet, this move is hence labelled as ‘expanding’.

Excerpt 2

Task: C Talk 16 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the reasons for university students to surf the internet?
 Speakers: L= Liu Peng (male); W= Wang Fei (female)

12 initiate L  so don’t you think search the latest news worldwide is not that important?
13 expand W  um I think you can obtain the latest “news” (0.7) er by watching TV or(0.3) watching TV or watching newspapers [and]
14 recycle L  [read] newspapers (laughs) right
15 expand W  right so I thi::nk we can get news from different means (1.0)
16 build L  but you know (0.3) we don’t use the TV (.) really (.) very often (0.4) [now ]
         W  [mm hm]
         L  we don’t read newspapers (0.7)
17 expand W  mm hm but I think you search the internet not for the special purpose of getting the latest news but for=
         L  =yea
         W  =[other] things
18 append L  [oh] you mean you mean that the latest (0.4) news worldwide we just do it we read it know it by by incidentally
19 expand W  yes (0.3) not for purpose
20 minimal acknowledgement L  yeah yeah yeah
21 W  mm [hm]
22 expand L  [mm] (0.4) like you are logging in the QQ you can (0.6) it will (0.5) give you the latest news
23 expand W  yeah almost for daily news
24 minimal acknowledgement L  yeah yeah yeah
25 W  mm.
{continues)

In Turn 18 of the excerpt, the male speaker “revisits” the topic of ‘the latest worldwide news’ after it has been lost for 4 turns (Turns 14, 15, 16 and 17), therefore it is labelled as ‘append’.

3.3.1.3.2 Procedures for analysing topicality production

Analysis of topicality production focuses on the patterns of interaction adopted by the participants in the conversation. For the purpose, data are segmented for unit of analysis and coded for patterns of interaction. The following sub-sections will illustrate the procedures.
3.3.1.3.2.1 Data segmentation: unit of analysis

In accordance with the specific research objective and the nature of the data, topic sequences emerged as the most appropriate unit of analysis for topicality production. Following the analytic steps outlined first by Pomerantz and Fehr (1997) and later by Galaczi (2004, p. 96), a “topical sequence” was operationalised in the current study as the segment of talk that indicates a specific verbal prompt available to the participants in the rubrics of the test. In other words, a sequence begins with the first turn that initiates a point or subtopic (verbal prompt) and everything that relates to that point is part of one topical sequence. Obviously, a topical sequence in this study was closely tied to verbal representations available to the test takers as the latter was used as a referent to judge whether a topic shift occurs. At this stage of analysis, each transcript was segmented into discrete topical sequences at points where a topic shift occurred on the basis of the verbal prompts provided to the test taker in the rubrics. To have a better idea of topical sequences, the excerpt below illustrates segmentation into two topical sequences: “neighbourhood environment” (initiated in turn 28 and closed in turn 34), and “access to shopping areas” (started in turn 35 and terminated at turn 53).

Excerpt 3

Task: A Talk 26 (Type 1)
Topic: What factors do you consider when you have decided to purchase a property?
Speakers: J=Jack (male); K=Kate (female)

26 J um what else I consider when purchase a property. (0.4)
27 K [mm].
28 J [also] also like another consideration when you purchase property would be (0.3) I guess the **neighbourhood environment**. I wouldn’t live in a place or buy a property where (0.7) the crime rate is exceptionally high (0.3) where [I know]=
29 K [It’s true] but .(.) uh like. (0.4)
30 J because=
31 K =safe place safe environment like (.). places are safe, it tends to be more expensive.
32 J yeah it’s getting more expensive but Like would you want to buy a property (0.3) if you were for example hypothetically speaking (0.4) if you (0.6) build a house [on it] K [uh huh]
33 J would you really want you kids and family to live in a place like that? (0.4)
K [mm ]
J or would you want [your] kids are born and raised in a place where you know K [mm ]
J (0.3) criminals you know stuff like [that ]?= K [I don’t] know but I wouldn’t wouldn’t put this as my priorities like one of them.
34 J ok.
Yeah I I consider more about the access to shopping areas. [shopping] areas.

[I don’t have a car].

[I think that’s important].

yeah [I don’t have ]

[I THINK that’s] important I think also access to (0.4) like like important destinations such as [shopping areas ],

[yeah like police] station,

driving

police station fire station,

[hospital]

[yeah (0.3) that would be another factor to consider (0.4) um (.)]

I would say shopping area is really important.

yeah.

because I don’t have a car it’s really hard for me to carry too big bags of groceries back home that kind of=

that’s true um (0.8) community infrastructure is also important I guess in a way um

um like library,

like er

like parks=

[parks and electricity lines and all that’s set up and like].
yeah yeah yeah

(continues)

In Excerpt 3, apart from the two topics “neighbourhood environment” and “access to shopping areas”, the speakers do mention some other ‘topics’, i.e., crime rate, police station, and so on, but they are not considered as a topic shift since they do not have verbal prompts as referents.

3.3.1.3.2.2 Data coding: interactional patterns

Grounded deeply in the spoken data and segmented by topical sequences, at the most basic level, a total of six discrete patterns emerged from the data as the result of analysis, which were labelled in turn as “collaborative”, “parallel”, “dominant/passive”, “interviewer/interviewee”, “consultant/client”, and “expert/novice”. Additionally, a seventh pattern which was found to be characteristic of two discrete patterns aforementioned was also observed. Judged against two distinguishing indices, these seven patterns are re-classified into either higher- or lower-order pattern categories. In accordance with the speaking roles that the dyads orient to, the six discrete and one mixed pattern are clustered into three major higher-order pattern categories: symmetrical, asymmetrical, and blended pattern. Based on the employment of conversational dominance devices (i.e., questions and interruptions) used to take the floor, two of the discrete patterns: collaborative and parallel patterns are further divided into two subgroups: collaborative and parallel patterns with low or high conversational dominance style, or LCD collaborative and parallel substyles and HCD collaborative and parallel...
styles respectively. These patterns at three levels of hierarchy and their respective defining variables will be illustrated in greater detail in Chapter 4.

Once the coding was established, inter-coder reliability was conducted for the coding of the patterns of interaction. A PhD in linguistics was recruited to conduct the external reliability check, which took place in three steps. First the co-coder was given a brief training session which involved explaining the distinct features of each category that distinguish different interactional patterns by giving the co-coder some exemplary talks representing each of these pattern types. Second, the co-coder was then asked to code independently a total of 22 pair talks, including six randomly selected transcripts (10% of the total talks) and 16 purposefully screened transcripts. The co-coder assigned the pattern type to each of these talks by reading the transcripts and listening to the accompanying recordings. Third, the result of the coding was compared. Of the 22 extracts coded, there were three instances of disagreement, which were discussed through a further review of the transcripts until a consensus was reached. Using the formula presented in Hatch and Lazaraton (1991), which divided the total number of agreements by the total number of coding, the inter-coder agreement was calculated to be 86%.

3.3.1.3.3 Procedures for analysing turn-taking behaviour

The analysis of turn-taking behaviour comprises three aspects: turn-taking style, speaker rights, and backchannel responses. To facilitate such analysis, data were segmented for words, turn units, turn length, and coded for interactional devices (i.e., questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches). The following sub-sections will illustrate the procedures.

3.3.1.3.3.1 Data segmentation: words

Words are chosen as the analytic unit to provide an estimate of quantity of talk for two reasons. Firstly, it has been proven to be a useful measure of quantity of talk in various studies of interaction (Itakura, 2001) and secondly, it is a more accurate measure of amount of talk as it is directly proportionate to floor presence (Galaczi, 2004, p. 87). Following Galaczi, filled pauses, false starts, and incomprehensive speech are excluded from the word count, but the cut-off words are counted if the meaning is clear enough.

3.3.1.3.3.2 Data segmentation: turn units

To examine the turn-taking strategies employed by speakers, the analysis of a turn in this study entails two types: primary turns (full-turn) and non-primary turns (non-turn) (Schegloff, 1982), or simply turn and non-turn. A turn, according to Crookes (1990) is “one or more streams of speech bounded by the speech of another, usually an interlocutor” (p.185).
A full turn is a turn which contains substantial meaning in terms of content and usually leads to a topic shift as far as function is concerned. Non-turn in this study is limited to backchannel cues such as ‘yeah’, ‘okay’, ‘mm’, ‘uh huh’, ‘right’, ‘really’ etc., and refers to “short non-lexical utterances by an interlocutor who is playing primarily a listener’s role during the other interlocutor’s speakership” (Tao & Thompson, 1991, p. 10).

Related to the coding of turn units are two further aspects of a conversation: pause and laughter. A backchannel cue coming after a pause (i.e., longer than 0.2 seconds) and/or at a TRP is counted as a full turn, otherwise it is regarded as a non-turn. Similarly, the utterance containing laughter is identified as a turn only when it occurs after a marked turn closing by the previous speaker. Excerpts 4 and 5 provide exemplifications, where backchannel cues and laughter are counted either as a full turn or non-turn.

Excerpt 4

Task: A Talk 3 (Type 1)
Topic: What can students do to increase their study efficiency?
Speakers: F= Florence (female); E= Edward (male)

25 F you’re (1.0) opening up (0.3) do haven’t you ever found that like (0.5) books that you’ve read outside of uni have (0.6) helped you in a particular course
26 E [mm ]
27 F or like? (0.6)
28 E %not really% I read% fiction=
29 F =really? cause I read= I was= started reading this um (1.0) um Darwinian book,
30 F yeah yeah Rich[ard Da]wkins (0.2) and he was talking about=
31 E [yeah ]
32 F =axioms and blah blah blah and all this stuff and I didn’t know what it meant and then I got into maths and they’re like axiom and I was like (.) I know what that MEANS.
33 E ((laughs))=
34 F =so like I guess reading outside (0.6) can help= can in-=
35 E [okay ]
36 F =like I= I mean you obviously have to be (0.5) doing things that are in= in line with your study, [but
37 E [yeah sure (1.0)
38 F [yeah]
39 E [okay] (0.2)
40 F I’m going to put something on here that’s not there, (0.3) don’t get a boyfriend.
41 E ((laughs))=
42 F =honestly
43 E [think that’s a good one actually.
(continues)
In Excerpt 4, the backchannel cue “yeah” in Turn 33 constitutes a full turn as it comes after a pause and at a TRP, whereas the backchannel cue “mm” in Turn 25 and “yeah” in turn 29 are non-turns. As they occur after a marked turn closing by the previous speaker, cases of laughter in turns 30 and 36 are counted as full turns.

**Excerpt 5**

**Task:** A Talk 8 (Type 1)
**Topic:** What are some of the causes for being stressed in modern society?
**Speakers:** K= Kate (female); J= Jack (male)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turn</th>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Utterance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>I think we’re getting (0.2) like (0.2) more obese, and more [un]healthy?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>J</td>
<td><a href="0.4">yeah</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>K</td>
<td>yeah</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 65   | J       | [especially with Australia [being (.) the fattest]
|      | K       | [((laughs)) ] |
|      | J       | country [in the world ] |
| 66   | K       | [yeah the fattest] country, |
| 67   | J       | [in the world now] |
| 68   | K       | [and ((laughs)) ] |
| 69   | J       | [it’s–] |
| 70   | K       | [over ] 60% [of (.) you know the [population are over]weight |
| 71   | J       | [yeah (of–) the ] |
| 72   | K       | [population yeah ] |
| 73   | J       | [that’s crazy.] |
| 74   | K       | [yeah ] |
| 75   | J       | [be sure you are not too fat ] |
| 76   | K       | [especially for us, you know when we’re fat, guys look at us differently= |
|      | J       | [Yeah (I guess) yeah {{laughs}}[also I think] time management is {{laughs}} |
|      | K       | [{{laughs}} ] |
| 78   | J       | pretty hard as [well], |
|      | K       | [yeah]= |
|      | J       | =I mean it’s hard to manage all the things like if you’re doing a part-time job |
|      | J       | if you’re studying full time= |
| 80   | K       | =Yeah yeah |
| 81   | J       | =it’s hard to manage everything and still come out on top. |
| 82   | K       | yeah= |
|      | (continues) |

In Excerpt 5, backchannel cues “yeah” in Turns 64, 80 and 82 are counted as turns as they occur either after a pause and/or at a TRP, whereas backchannel cues “yeah” in Turn 63 and 79 are non-turns. Unlike the cases of laughter in Excerpt 4, two instances of laughter in Turn 65 and 78 in this segment are labelled as non-turns as they overlap with the utterances of the previous speaker.
3.3.1.3.3.3 Data segmentation: turn length

The length of turns is normally indicated by the total number of words contained in a turn, including both a (full) turn and a non-turn. However, in this study, the comparison of the turn length between different speakers is conducted by counting the cases of continuous (full) turns contained in the last five minutes of each of the conversations which exceeds 50 words in length (it is approximately five lines in length as presented in the transcript). A continuous (full) turn refers to a full turn or part of a full turn which is not overlapped or latched with any other utterances (including backchannel cues such as “yeah” and “mm”) of the partner at any point. Following a similar approach proposed by Li et al., (2001) and Van Moere (2007) in their studies on spoken interaction, a cut-off five minutes of talk time for each transcript is applied primarily for two reasons: Firstly, the participants have entered the body part of the discussion; therefore, the examination of this segment of the talk is thought to be able to best capture the interactional features of the speakers. Secondly, this is a simple, but effective way to control for the varying talk length, which sets a base for comparison across speakers. Excerpt 6 exemplifies how the case of a continuous (full) turn is segmented for comparison in this study.

Excerpt 6

Task: C Talk 3 (Type 1)
Topic: What can students do to increase their study efficiency?
Speakers: Tian Li (female); Z=Zhou Ming (male)

01 T um (0.9) ok (0.6) um first I think um (0.5) we should er keep doing exercise regular- (0.2) re- uh regularly.
02 Z uh yes I (0.3) think so.{{(laughs)}}
03 T {{(laughs)}} yes (.) I think er (.) if um you don’t have a healthy body, (0.3) you could do nothing (0.3) er (0.2) if you want to travel (0.2) uh you a- you are very uh sick (0.2) and you you can- you cannot go, (0.3) and if you want to study (0.2) uh you feel very tired you have- you do- you do not have a clear mind (0.2) so you can study well. (0.6)and um (0.5)SECOND I think um (0.7) er we should um discuss challenging issues with teachers or classmates (0.5)cause um (0.5)different people have different opinions, (0.5) er (. ) er(0.2) classmates of your same age (0.4) er can (1.0) uh give you a different opinion from their aspects, (0.4) and teachers (0.2) of er not the same age (0.3) they have a more (. ) mature (er) attitude towards uh what happens (0.3) or a ma- mature opinion (0.2) and they- (gey w-u) uh give you a very (0.3) [uh]
04 Z [mm] (0.4) but sometimes I (0.5) I want to ask a question to our teacher (0.2) after class, (0.3) [but I] always (0.2) mm (0.2)I alw- always think
T [okay]
Z my question (0.4) maybe er maybe maybe the teacher th- er (0.2) will think my question is very boring, (0.2) so (0.5) um (0.7) uh (0.7) I- I am not going to [(a- a- ask her) ]


In Excerpt 6, there are two longer turns, i.e., turn 3 and 4, of which, Turn 3 is seen as one case of a continuous (full) turn exceeding 50 words (approximately 11 lines as presented in the transcript) since it is not overlapped or latched with the conversational partner at any point in the turn and also the number of words comes to 105 in total (excluding intra-turn fillers). However, turn 4 is not regarded as one occurrence of a continuous (full) turn in that it is partitioned by an instance of overlap (i.e., by “okay”) with the partner, and each part within the turn is less than 50 words in length.

3.3.1.3.3.4 Data coding: questions

As discussed in Section 3.2.1.2.3.2, different researchers define questions in a variety of ways on the basis of their research purpose. For the nature of this study, questions are roughly categorised into five types as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Definitions of the types of questions coded in the data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question type</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task management questions</td>
<td>Questions managing task procedures involved in interaction.</td>
<td>e.g. Who will speak first?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floor offering questions</td>
<td>Questions offering the floor to the conversational partner.</td>
<td>e.g. What do you make it? Agree or disagree?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic development questions</td>
<td>Questions employed for topic nomination and expansion.</td>
<td>e.g. Why do you think price is important?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up questions</td>
<td>Questions used for expanding the prior speaker’s proposition,</td>
<td>e.g. What are your long-term study goals?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification questions</td>
<td>Questions requested of the conversational partner for clarification.</td>
<td>e.g. What do you mean by that?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.1.3.3.5 Data coding: interruptions, overlaps and latches

As noted previously, both interruptions and overlaps may function as means of taking control of the conversation or demonstrating engagement with the current speaker, yet for the purpose of coding in the present study, differences between the two conversational devices should be clearly defined. As such, an interruption is structurally defined as simultaneous talk which starts at a non-TRP (a place other than a TRP), while overlap is simultaneous talk that begins at the TRP (Sacks et al., 1974) or less than two syllables away from the TRP (West & Zimmerman, 1983). In the latter case, the overlap can be treated as a case of the mis-projection of TRPS (Sack et al., 1974, p. 707). Latches are structurally defined as turns which begin immediately on the completion of the previous turn without any perceptible pause (Tannen, 1990). Based on Galaczi (2004), a summary of the definitions of these interactional features and the exemplary excerpts are provided below.
Table 5 Definitions of latches, overlaps and interruptions as coded in the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>latches</td>
<td>Talk that begins immediately after the previous turn without any perceptible pause (Tannen, 1990).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overlaps</td>
<td>Simultaneous talk that begins at the TRP (Sacks et al., 1974) or less than two syllables away from the TRP (West &amp; Zimmerman, 1983).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interruptions</td>
<td>Simultaneous talk that begins at a &quot;non-TRP&quot; (i.e., a place other than a TRP) (Levinson, 1983).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Excerpt 7

Task: A Talk 8 (Type 1)

Topic: What are some of the causes for being stressed in modern society?

Speakers: K= Kate (female); J= Jack (male)

22 K well um (.) I’m gonna (0.3) be focusing on relationships cause you know that’s what I [concerned] most about, (0.4) um yeah
   J [okay]
23 K overlap basically (0.4 um (0.3) like in terms of women? we’re expected to(0.3) be contribute more; in the=
   J [towards the [relationship I agree yeah. ]
24 K overlap [yeah towards relationship and] finance an- and every[thing],
   J [yeah]=
   K latch =like back then (0.3) um we don’t really have to pay (.) you know contribute in the [finance aspect, ]
25 J overlap [in financial {sexist}]
   K [yeah ]
26 J overlap [yeah but] yeah (.){the} love and affection is more you guys right,
27 K yeah=
28 J latch =I would say um(.)
29 K and you know money goes to the man ((laughs))
30 J overlap [man yeah exactly].
31 K latch [it’s your responsibility [but right now]
   J [but like now ] since it’s more like a twenty first century equality thing,=
32 K overlap [yeah equali[ty,]
33 J latch [yeah like n- I think now people are more a- at least couples are more inclined to make it like (.) pretty even? li[ke so if you’ve- yeah if you’ve pay for] |
34 K overlap [yeah to make it more equal ]
35 J latch one da- one night out, (0.3) you know [you might be ob[ligated
   K overlap [yeah ]
   J to pay for the next one. (.)[so ]
36 J latch [yeah it] makes it- (.) you know really awkward, cause [(you know)] we’re women,
   J overlap [Yeah ] you’ve- and like (.) guys always have in (their) mind if like (.) for example if we did decide ((laughs)) to ((laughs)) not to pay what would- what would the girl think=
37 K overlap =yeah yeah exactly.
   (continues)
In Excerpt 7, two speakers cooperate very closely in the co-construction of the conversation as reflected in their extensive use of interactional devices. Specifically, in the 17-turn segment, there are two instances of interruptions (Turns 23 and 32), 11 cases of overlaps (Turns 22, 24, 25, 26, 30, 31, 34, 35, 36 and 37), and five incidences of latches (Turn 23, 24, 28, 33 and 38). Even the two interruptions observed in the excerpt all fall into the category of cooperative interruptions, which are employed by the interruptee to show support and interest to the previous speaker.

3.4 Summary

This chapter has provided an outline of the framework of the research methodology applied in this study. The methods illustrated in this chapter entailed two major parts: data collection and data analysis. As for the former, the rationale for each instrument used and procedures of data collection have been described. Regarding the data analysis, the development of the analytic models and stages of talk analysis have also been illustrated, including segmentation of the data and coding of the variables.
4 Overview of CA Findings

This chapter presents an overview of findings from the data analysis using conversation analytic methods in order to foreground and contextualise the detailed illustrations that follow in Chapters 5, 6 and 7. Accordingly, the results of the pair talk analysis will be briefly discussed from three different dimensions, namely the generic structure oriented to, the patterns of interaction adopted, and the turn-taking strategies employed by the participants in the conversation.

4.1 Generic structure

As stated in Chapter 3, Section 3.4.1, the investigation of the generic structure entailed two aspects: sequential organisation and rhetorical style.

4.1.1 Sequential organisation

In terms of overall structure, an examination of the pair talks by Chinese dyads indicated that the participants generally proceeded through three major phases in the dyadic interaction, i.e., opening sequence, body sequence, and closing sequence. However, not every dyad followed all three stages in their talk. Some of them entered stage two directly by self-selection without providing any lead-in or task management move and others chose to wind up their conversation by some unmarked terminal tokens when they had basically completed the task. In addition, the speakers assigned to different tasks, i.e., the expository (Type 1) or the argumentative genre (Type 2), were found to follow a slightly different “route” in terms of body sequence owing to the varying nature of these task types.

The opening sequence began with the commencement of the recording, and sometimes this involved the researcher’s participation in getting the conversation started (e.g. “are you ready?” or “would you start?”). Otherwise, the participants themselves began the talk with some formulaic expressions used to call for the start of the conversation, such as “shall we start?” or “do you want us to start?”. More specifically, the first speaker began the talk (itself) in one of the following ways. (NB: ‘C’ stands for Chinese students and ‘A’ refers to Australian students):

1) By extending greetings, e.g., “Hi, Bob, long time no see…” (C Talk 22) and/or background information, e.g., “As a member of the society, we have to deal with a lot of pressure…” (C Talk 8) prior to the topic initiation;

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1 All the citations in the excerpts in this thesis are verbatim, including grammatical errors if they occurred.
2) By prefacing the topic initiation through task management moves, negotiating who should speak first via a suggestion or suggestive imperative, e.g., “Let’s get started.” (C Talk 15), “Let’s go down to our topic.” (C Talk 18) or by means of question, e.g., “Who says first?” (C Talk 23) “After you?”(A Talk 21) and so on;

3) By initiating a topic through self-selection in the form of a statement or other-selection with a floor-offering question, such as “What’s your opinion?” (C Talk 29), “What do you reckon?” (A Talk 1) or “Why do you think keeping routine hours is important?” (A Talk 3), and entering the second phase directly.

In the second stage of the talk (i.e., the body sequence), the participants normally progressed through three steps, including topic initiation, topic development, and topic termination. As for the first step, the speakers initiated the topics either by self-selection (statement) or other selection (question). However, as mentioned earlier, the speakers assigned to task Type 1 worked in a slightly different manner from those in task Type 2 in terms of topic initiation in that the participants with Task 2 generally presented their points of view (either for or against) about the proposition first, prior to topic initiation, while the speakers in Task 1 simply selected the sub-points from the list given in the prompts before they proceeded to expand the topics. To develop the topics nominated, the participants in both tasks took turns by through employing several moves, i.e., they either sustained the development of their own topic or responded to the topic initiated by the partner. In the former case, they either built on their own topic by relating it to the prior move or appended their move to the topic initiated previously. If they responded to the partner’s turn, they normally did so by one of three means: (a) minimal acknowledgement, (e.g., “yes” or its variant “yeah”), (b) topic recycling (i.e., repeating or reformulating the partner’s proposition), or (c) topic expansion (i.e., adding substantially to the topic or proposition). Apart from initiating and developing topics, the speakers also closed topics, a move which was realised either by the performance of two successive minimal responses such as “yeah, yeah” or the initiation of a new topic. This format emerged in a recurrent pattern (usually three times) throughout the whole conversation as each dyadic member was asked to nominate three areas of support for their position or the topic being discussed.

In the third phase of the talk, i.e., the closing sequence, the talk ended either of its own accord, or through the intervention of the researcher when the standard time allotment had been achieved. The majority of the talks were terminated by the researcher using the terminal markers “ok, well done” or “excellent” when the speakers had basically fulfilled their task though occasionally the speakers terminated the conversation on their own by using some unmarked terminal tokens, including:
1. A brief summary of opinion, e.g., “So we think that have covered a lot.” (A Talk 21), “That’s all I want to say about the topic.” (C Talk 24), “Yes, I think that’s all.” (A Talk 10);
2. Two successive minimal responses, i.e., “yeah, yeah” (A Talk 6), accompanied by eye contact, smile, and/or other non-verbal behaviours;
3. Utterance of the word “good” with a rising tone directed towards the researcher (A Talk 13 & 20).

The distinct phases of the talk can be summarised diagrammatically as shown in Figure 6.

![Figure 6](image)

**Figure 6.** Overall structural organisation of performances in mock PETS-5-SET, Task 2.

### 4.1.2 Rhetorical style

Based on the representations in Figure 6, specifically the features of the opening sequence of the talk, it is clear that the participants adopted different patterns in terms of
rhetorical style, which can be divided into two major types: direct/deductive or indirect/inductive pattern. In other words, the speakers varied in the way they organised their discourse at a global scale. While some started their talk indirectly with the “off-task” utterances including greetings to the partner, e.g., “Hi, Bob, long time no see…” (C Talk 28) or background information, e.g., “As we all know that water pollution becomes more and more serious…” (C Talk 14), others opened the conversation directly without any type of face work or lead-in. While the adoption of direct/deductive rhetorical style by the Australian dyads echoes the relevant literature on cross-cultural differences concerning their preferred communication style, the fact that the great majority of the Chinese dyads adopt the direct/deductive rhetorical style in their idea presentation in the conversation seems to be contradictory to the traditional stereotype of the preferred communication styles used by the Chinese, that is, they tend to value the indirect/inductive mode more (see Chapter 2, Section 3.1).

### 4.2 Interactional patterns

A careful exploration of the talks using CA revealed that the dyads approached their task differently in terms of goal fulfilment, including the interactional roles they oriented to and the way their produced “topicality” (Maynard, 1980). Some worked collaboratively; others developed their topics individually; still others assumed two distinct roles in the dyadic interaction (i.e., one more dominant and the other more passive). These varying means of co-constructing the conversation in terms of role relationship resulted in different types of interactional patterns. The variability in the approach that the participants adopted to complete the task (i.e., paired discussion) was found to be parallel to Storch’s (2001, 2002) conceptualisation of pair talks in ESL classroom and also reminiscent of Galaczi’s (2004, 2008) investigation of a paired task in the FCE speaking test. Specifically, the use of the dimensions of equality and mutuality (see the definitions in Section 4.2.1) by both of these scholars and Galaczi’s application of the notion of “conversational dominance” in pattern categorisation have also been proven useful to conceptualise the patterns of interaction observed in the current study’s data; therefore, these three concepts were employed to illustrate the patterns identified in this data. The following sections of this chapter will present an overview of different interactional patterns as distinguished by the indices of equality, mutuality, and conversational dominance.
4.2.1 Pattern categorisation

As discussed in Section 4.2, participants varied in their co-construction of the paired task sub-test of the PETS-5-SET, which in turn generated different patterns of interaction. The categorisation of the patterns observed in the data of this study was basically carried out in three stages.

Firstly, drawing on Storch (2001, 2002) and Galaczi (2004, 2008), at the most basic level, these distinct modes of interaction were distinguished on the basis of the two variables: “equality” and “mutuality”. Equality refers to the work distribution between two participants, as evidenced by the quantity of talk produced and the distribution of topic development moves, and mutuality indicates the level of reciprocal engagement of the two participants towards each other’s ideas or contributions, as reflected by the cases of other-initiated topic expansion moves and the occurrences of backchannel responses to the partner. Defined by these two variables, the six different patterns were identified in the data and were in turn labelled collaborative, parallel, dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, and expert/novice. However, a further detailed analysis of the data also indicated that not all the dyadic interaction simply followed one of these six patterns of classification and some interaction represented a hybrid category which possessed the interactional features of two patterns and was labelled as a blended pattern type.

In addition, the analysis of the pair talk also revealed that the speakers displayed a varying degree of conversational dominance within one interactional pattern due to the differing level of competition between the dyad members in the interaction. For instance, some of the collaborative talks exhibited a higher level of conversational dominance than the others as there was more competition between the two speakers for the speaking floor in the former group. Conversational dominance, according to Itakura (2001), is a multi-componential construct and is manifested through three dimensions: (1) “sequential”, referring to one speaker’s tendency to control the direction of the interaction with questions or topic initiation; (2) “participatory”, referring to the restriction of speaker rights, typically via interruptions and overlaps; and (3) “quantitative”, referring to the level of contribution to the interaction in terms of the number of words spoken. For the purpose of this study, conversational dominance is defined as the tendency of one speaker to control the floor for speaker rights through the use of discourse control strategies including questions and interruptions in the conversation. Based on the relevant degree of discourse dominance displayed in the talk, two of the six discrete patterns (i.e. collaborative and parallel models), were further divided into two subgroups: collaborative and parallel patterns with low conversational dominance style (LCD collaborative or parallel) or high conversational...
dominance style (HCD collaborative or parallel) respectively. However, it is important to note that, except for the collaborative and parallel sub-patterns, the dimension of conversational dominance in the four asymmetrical interaction models was not investigated as the degree of conversational dominance exhibited in these sub-patterns is self-explanatory: the speaker who takes the ‘leading’ role in the sub-patterns is more ‘dominant’, with more access to the conversational floor, and contributes more to the talk than the other dyad member with the exception of the interviewer/interviewee model, where an interviewee might generate more talk than the interviewer when s/he responds to the former by elaborating substantially on the topic being discussed though the latter takes the lead in the speech event.

Finally, the concept of speaking roles was used to incorporate all the aforementioned patterns in the data into a higher level categorisation. According to speaking roles (the role the speaker orientes to), the six discrete patterns identified in the data were clustered into three major categories: symmetrical patterns (comprising collaborative and parallel sub-patterns); asymmetrical patterns (including dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, and expert/novice model); and the blended pattern (which normally combines two discrete patterns mentioned above). Of the three, the speakers in the symmetrical categories play equal or similar parts (i.e., both are active in terms of role relationship). By contrast, the dyads in the asymmetrical group assume unequal or different roles (i.e., one might be active or proactive whereas the other is passive or reactive). However, in the category of blended pattern, the two speakers change their speaking roles at different stages of conversational co-construction.

The relationship between the major patterns, subpatterns, and their subgroups is represented by the taxonomy displayed in Table 6.

Table 6 Taxonomy of interactional patterns adopted by the dyads in the conversation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern/category</th>
<th>Major categories</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
<th>Subgroups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pattern types</td>
<td>Symmetrical</td>
<td>Collaborative</td>
<td>Low conversational dominance style (LCD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>High conversational dominance style (HCD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parallel</td>
<td>Low conversational dominance style (LCD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>High conversational dominance style (HCD)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asymmetrical</td>
<td>Dominant/passive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interviewer/interviewee</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Consultant/client</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Expert/novice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blended pattern</td>
<td>Dominant/passive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+ collaborative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining indices</td>
<td>Speaking roles</td>
<td>Equality</td>
<td>Conversational dominance devices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mutuality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Of the patterns in the taxonomy, the six types of discrete patterns in the subcategories are the most fundamental. The relationship between the discrete patterns and the respective distinguishing variables can best be illustrated through the depiction of equality and mutuality using four quadrants formed by two intersecting axes: the horizontal axis, representing equality, and the vertical axis, representing mutuality, both of which, according to Storch (2001, 2002), should be thought of as a continuum, ranging from low to high. Figure 7 shows these quadrants and the discrete interactional patterns.

Figure 7. The relationship between discrete patterns and their respective defining indices.

**Quadrant 1** represents a collaborative pattern, where two participants work cooperatively in all aspects of task completion, revealing high equality and mutuality. In accordance with the relative degree of conversational dominance exhibited in the pair talk, collaborative patterns are further divided into two subgroups: LCD collaborative and HCD collaborative sub-style. The typical differences between the talks recognised as operating in these two sub-styles are frequent performance of conversational dominance devices (i.e., questions, interruptions, and overlaps) in the latter, along with faster speech, shorter turns, and higher interactivity. As shown in Figure 7, the HCD collaborative talk reveals a higher level of mutuality than the LCD sub-style though both of them are of more or less the same quality.


Quadrant 2 represents a parallel pattern, where two participants develop their topic individually with little engagement in each other’s ideas, exhibiting high equality, but low mutuality. Like the collaborative model, in light of employment of conversational dominance devices, parallel patterns are further divided into two sub-groups: low conversational dominance parallel (LCD parallel) and high conversational dominance parallel (HCD parallel) sub-style. But unlike collaborative interaction, the HCD parallel sub-pattern displays a lower degree of mutuality than its companion LCD sub-style. It should be noted that only the LCD parallel sub-pattern was identified in this study though the HCD parallel substyle is quite possible theoretically.

Quadrant 3 represents a dominant/passive pattern of interaction, where two participants demonstrate asymmetrical roles with one acting in a more dominant fashion and the other more passive or reactive in the talk, indicating both low equality and mutuality.

Quadrant 4, unlike the other quadrants, has multiple patterns of interaction: interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, and expert/novice. Similar to the dominant/passive pattern, all three configurations of the asymmetrical category have the common characteristic of low equality and high mutuality.

In sum, a total of seven types of discrete patterns (i.e., LCD and HCD collaborative, LCD parallel, dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, expert/novice) and one blended pattern were identified and classified. Relating to the literature, in addition to the five types of patterns (collaborative, parallel, dominant/passive, expert/novice, and blended patterns) reported by Galaczi (2004, 2008), Storch (2001, 2002), and Watanabe (2008) in either L2 classroom context or assessment conditions, two new patterns, i.e., interviewer/interviewee and consultant/client models, were identified in the present study. This is one of the most important findings of the current study. However, it should be noted that the above categorisation is by no means perfect. With regard to the dimensions of mutuality, equality, and conversational dominance, the terms ‘high’ and ‘low’ are very useful heuristic devices that help the researcher to categorise and distinguish these patterns, yet, as Storch (2001) and Galaczi (2004) admit, they are by their very nature relative and not precise (Storch, 2001, p. 204; Galaczi, 2004, p. 112).

4.2.2 Operational definitions

As discussed above, the speakers approached the task differently in their topical development in terms of the roles assumed, the type of speech patterns adopted, the quantity of the talk produced, and the amount of assistance offered to their partner in the coproduction of the conversation. Below are the operational definitions of the pattern types identified in the
data set, but the typical exemplary talk representative of these pattern types will be presented in Chapters 5, 6, and 7, where patterns of interaction that emerged in the pair talks will be discussed in detail.

### 4.2.2.1 Symmetrical interaction

#### 4.2.2.1.1 Collaborative talk

The collaborative pattern exhibits high equality and mutuality. The most salient feature of the model is the close cooperation between the two participants in their co-construction of the conversation. Resembling two people playing a ‘duet’ in a musical performance, the dyad members not only take the initiative to nominate and develop their own topics, but also willingly devote their speaking turns to support the topic development of the partner, which results in both high equality and mutuality. Built cooperatively, the talk represents a very good example of co-producing talk-in-interaction in the institutional context in that the speakers fulfil both the individual goal (their own topic development) and more general goals (successful completion of the task).

As illustrated earlier, defined by the performance of conversational dominance devices, the collaborative pattern is further classified into LCD collaborative and HCD collaborative subgroups. Of the two subpatterns\(^2\), which are both of high equality, the LCD collaborative talk is marked with slow listener-speaker role switching, a low rate of conversational dominance devices (i.e., questions), but high occurrences of intra-turn fillers (e.g., “er”, “um”) and acknowledgement tokens (i.e., “yeah”, “yes”). By contrast, the HCD collaborative substyle is characterised by fast pace, rapid speaker change, frequent use of discourse control strategies, and a high rate of backchannel cues. With these traits, the HCD collaborative substyle demonstrates a high level of competition for the speaking floor and a higher degree of mutuality than does the LCD counterpart since the speakers in the former category are more actively involved in the interaction.

#### 4.2.2.1.2 Parallel talk

The parallel pattern reveals high equality, but low mutuality. Motivated with their individual goal fulfilment, both speakers actively engage in topic development by means of initiating and expanding moves, making a balanced contribution to interaction in terms of the amount of talk and distribution of topic development moves, which results in a high level of equality. However, instead of devoting their efforts to help their partner in the topic development as in the collaborative talk, the speakers in the parallel model work separately in

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\(^2\) In this study, the terms subpattern and substyle are used interchangeably to indicate the subgroups of the two major pattern types (i.e., collaborative and parallel patterns) identified in the data.
a “solo vs. solo” fashion. The little involvement between the dyad members in each other’s remarks in the interaction leads to a low level of mutuality.

Like collaborative interaction, parallel patterns are further divided into two subgroups: LCD parallel and HCD parallel substyles. Both parallel subgroups share some common features in that the dyad members are actively involved in their topic development though they work individually. Resembling the collaborative subgroups, the parallel substyles differ in the degree of mutuality though both of them are of high equality. In fact, the LCD parallel substyle reveals a higher level of mutuality than the HCD parallel subgroup (see the sections below).

It should be acknowledged that both collaborative and parallel patterns and their sub-patterns share commonalities and variations. The collaborative and parallel models are the same in the way the participants have equal access to the conversational floor and topic development, and therefore contribute more or less equally to the talk, but the former work collaboratively and the latter operate independently. In a similar vein, the talks identified as the LCD collaborative and LCD parallel substyles present low incidences of conversational dominance devices, i.e., questions, interruptions, and simultaneous talk, and consequently, there is not much competition for floor-taking between the speakers, as indicated by slow change of speakers and construction of multi-unit turns. By contrast, the talks with the HCD collaborative and HCD parallel sub-styles feature relatively short turns, fast speaker-listener role changes, and frequent employment of conversational dominance devices, indicating a high competition for the speaking floor.

Another important difference between collaborative and parallel patterns concerns the relative degree of mutuality between their respective subgroups: LCD and HCD collaborative and LCD and HCD parallel subpatterns. As mentioned previously, an LCD collaborative subpattern demonstrates a lower degree of mutuality than does an HCD collaborative substyle as there is a higher level of competition for the speaking floor in the latter. However, a LCD parallel subpattern displays a higher degree of mutuality than an HCD parallel substyle due to the fact that the speakers working in a parallel model will become even more concerned with their own task fulfilment, resulting in a high presence of conversational dominance. Consequently, there is even less ‘room’ left for the two speakers to be involved mutually with each other’s topic development. To better understand the reasons for the discrepancy, the relationship between the features of conversational dominance and distribution of interactional patterns are explained below.

Conversational dominance reveals a differential distribution of features across varying patterns of interaction (Galaczi, 2008, p. 98). In other words, the features of conversational
dominance are manifested differently in different pattern types, including both forms and features. In terms of configurations representing conversational dominance, conversational dominance in the collaborative talk is mostly “sequential” (Itakura, 2001), where the dyads most often resort to questions and next-speaker selection to control the direction of the interaction. In the case of the parallel paradigm, however, the conversational dominance is mostly “participatory” (Itkura, 2001), that is, the speakers most frequently use interruptions for the purpose of conversational control. With regard to features of conversational dominance displayed, in the case of the collaborative pattern, the conversation dominance tend to be facilitative and other-directed (Galactzi, 2008, p. 98) and therefore, conversations identified with a high conversational dominance style generally signal a higher degree of mutual engagement between the participants than those recognised with an LCD substyle as they push forward the conversation in a cooperative manner. Understandably, these HCD conversations are highly interactive and dynamic. In the parallel pattern, on the other hand, the conversational dominance is self-centred as it often violates the current speaker’s right to complete the utterances (Galactzi, 2008, p. 98), thus, conversations identified with an HCD substyle often reveal an even lower degree of mutual involvement between the participants than those recognised with an LCD subgroup as they carry forward the task in a competitive fashion. Unsurprisingly, these HCD parallel conversations are uncooperative and even sound like arguments.

4.2.2.2 Asymmetrical interaction

4.2.2.2.1 Dominant/passive talk

A dominant/passive pattern of interaction displays a low level of equality and mutuality, where one of the speakers dominates the interaction while the other speaker plays a predominately reactive part in it. Treating the task as his or her own responsibility, the dominant speaker makes more contribution to the talk than the more passive one as s/he normally has more access to the conversational floor and consequently initiates and expands more topics, resulting in low equality. Additionally, as the dominant speaker, who guides the agenda of the conversation, concentrates more on his/her own topic development and the more passive dyad member orients to a role of reacting to the initiation moves of the partner, there is little mutual involvement with each other’s contribution, resulting in low mutuality.

4.2.2.2.2 Interviewer/interviewee talk

The interviewer/interviewee pattern is characterised by low equality but high mutuality. In this type of interaction, one of the participants, acting as the interviewer, largely controls the direction of the conversation by asking questions to elicit information and the
other is obliged to respond with an answer. The format of interaction predominantly resembles the interviewer-interviewee relationship in an interview as the talk is dominated by question-and-answer routines, which form recurring ‘adjacency pair’ sequences in terms of turn alternation. With respect to the amount of talk produced, the interviewee might contribute more to the conversation than the interviewer as s/he normally answers their questions substantively by expanding the ideas further. The imbalanced contribution to the talk between the two participants results in low equality. However, the talk reveals a high degree of engagement with each other’s contribution as manifested by the ‘interviewer’s consistent interest in the interviewee’s contributions and the respondent’s overt willingness to respond to these questions, which leads to high mutuality.

4.2.2.2.3 Consultant/client talk

In the ‘consultant client’ scenario, one participant enacts the role of a consultant and the other a client. To find a solution to the problems encountered by the client, both participants collaborate closely in the task completion. The consultant is obliged to negotiate with the client on the issue concerned so as to come up with a good action plan. Similarly, the client behaves equally actively to obtain suggestions or assistance from the consultant. As both participants are fully engaged in exchange of ideas, which is realised by mutual topic development, i.e., topic expansion of both self- and other-initiated topics, the talk exhibits high mutuality. However, with unequal status in the partnership as on other consultation meetings, the consultant, who is ‘endowed’ with the expert knowledge and professional experience, makes more contribution to the talk in terms of quantity of talk and more cases of topic expansion moves.

4.2.2.2.4 Expert/novice talk

Like the other three asymmetrical sub-patterns, the ‘expert/novice’ pattern of interaction reflects low equality and high mutuality. In the talk, the two speakers orient to the role of an expert and novice respectively. Of the two, the expert speaker takes on the part of a teacher and prompts their partner (the novice), who behaves somewhat passively at the beginning of the conversation probably due to lack of initiative, as evidenced by the unwanted silence/gaps between turns, to become involved in the task by means of questions and requests. However, as the conversation proceeds, the novice becomes more actively engaged in the interaction, particularly at the later stages of the talk. The passivity of the novice speaker at the earlier stage of the interaction leads to an unequal contribution to the talk, but the active participation of the novice speaker at the later part of the discussion makes up for the loss and contributes to high mutuality on the whole.
So far, six major discrete patterns of interaction (i.e., collaborative, parallel, dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, and expert/novice), have been illustrated, and, based on the speaking roles the participants assume and the speaking efforts they devote to the interaction, the former two patterns are incorporated into two superordinate categories: symmetrical and asymmetrical patterns. The speakers in the symmetrical category orient to an equal role in the discussion and consequently, they contribute more or less equally regarding the amount of language produced and the number of other-initiated topic development moves, revealing high equality. By contrast, the interactants in the asymmetrical category have made an imbalanced contribution to the task completion in terms of language output and cases of other-initiated topic development moves, exhibiting low equality.

Of the two patterns in the symmetrical category, the speakers in the collaborative pattern work cooperatively, indicating high mutuality, and those in the parallel model, on the other hand, operate independently, leading to low mutuality. With regard to the asymmetrical category, the four types of patterns share both similarities and differences. They are similar to each other in that the dyad contributes differently to the interaction due to the unequal role partnership in the conversation. However, differences also exist across these patterns in three major ways. Firstly, the interviewer/interviewee pattern, the consultant/client pattern, and expert/novice pattern vary with the dominant/passive model in that, unlike the dominant/passive style, the participants reveal a relatively high level of mutual involvement in each other’s contributions, as indicated by both or either of the speakers willingly committing their speaking turns to interact substantially with the partner, which results in high mutuality. Secondly, although question-answer (Q-A) sequences emerge in all the three patterns, they are asked for different purposes. As illustrated above, Q-A routines constitute the major frame of interaction in the interviewer/interviewee talk, where the interviewer asks questions to elicit the information needed to evaluate the performance of the interviewee against certain criteria. With the goal-oriented nature of the interview, the interviewee is obliged to answer the questions and thus she is cast into a somewhat passive role in the conversation though the information flows from the interviewee to the interviewer. Likewise, the Q-A sequences are also the key characteristics of the consultant/client pattern, where both the consultant and the client ask each other questions. The consultant asks the client questions to diagnose the problems faced by the client and to find a better solution and the client asks questions to the consultant to seek the advice or suggestions for the problems s/he encounters in life, work or study. Obviously, the information transmits from the consultant to the client as in any other consultation meeting. As the client also takes initiatives to provide information
needed and consult the consultant by asking questions, the former is an active participant in the discussion. The information transmits from the consultant to the client. Questions also occur in the expert/novice talk since the expert tries to encourage the novice speaker to be involved in the conversation by means of questions or requests, in particular at the beginning part of the conversation possibly due to the passivity of the novice resulting from lack of topic knowledge or lower language proficiency though the situation changes during the other part of the discussion as the latter becomes more actively engaged in the interaction. Thirdly, the consultant/client pattern is distinguished from the interviewer/interviewee and expert/novice pattern in the way that the two participants in the consultant/client pattern contextualise themselves in a consultation scenario and assume the role of the consultant and client respectively, where the former provides professional or expert advice in an area specific to the issues/problems in question, i.e., career planning, job hunting, so as to resolve an issue, reach a positive outcome, or create an action plan. Another key distinction between the consultant/client pattern and the other two asymmetrical configurations lies in the active participation of the speakers in the interaction, mutual involvement with each other’s ideas, and close cooperation in the problem-solving process between the dyad members through they enact unequal roles in the discussion.

4.2.2.3 Blended interaction

The talk in the blended pattern type is characterised by displaying the features from two or more discrete patterns of interaction mentioned above. Under this pattern type, two or three discrete sub-patterns co-exist in one conversation. Typically the dyad would vary their roles and shift from one pattern to another at different stages of the interaction. For example, at the beginning phase, a dyad might begin the interaction in a parallel manner, where they work individually with little mutual involvement in each other’s contribution, but then they may ‘warm up’ and collaborate with each other in the topic development as indicated subsequently by their more or less equal contribution to the talk and mutual expansion of the partner’s propositions.

To sum up this overview of CA findings that lay down a foundation for the more detailed analyses that follow in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, seven discrete and one blended pattern of interaction were identified from the data and they were classified into categories at different hierarchical levels and described in terms of their respective degrees of equality and mutuality.

4.2.3 Inter-coder reliability check

Given the highly inferential nature of the pattern categorisation, it is extremely important to establish reliability in the coding of the data in this study. To achieve this end, a
co-coder (a PhD in linguistics) was recruited to join the researcher to accomplish the external reliability check once the patterns of conversations had been established. As illustrated in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.2.2, the co-coder was first given training, which involved explaining the coding scheme for interactional patterns and coding sample transcripts representing each of these pattern types, and then she was assigned a total of 22 transcripts, including six randomly selected transcripts (10% of the total talks) and 16 purposefully screened transcripts. Finally, the results of the coding between the researcher and the second coder were compared and the discrepancies were resolved by discussing the differences in the coding. The inter-coder agreement was calculated to be 86%, which was considered a highly acceptable level of inter-coder reliability, based on the level of coding agreement range in discourse studies noted by Storch (2002).

4.3 Turn-taking behaviour

The turn-taking strategies of the speakers were investigated through examining three important aspects: turn-alternation style, speaker rights, and backchannel responses.

4.3.1 Turn-taking style

In terms of turn-taking strategies, it was found that speakers differed in their alternation of turns with regard to the length of turn, turn-alternation strategies, and preferred style in the dyadic interaction. Some displayed a fairly active turn alternation, indicated by brief turns, swift listener-speaker role reversal, and frequent use of backchannel responses. These are particularly evident in the talks recognised as operating in the collaborative model, which results in spontaneous conversation. Others applied a slow-paced turn-taking strategy, which help generate longer and indeed extended turns owing to their infrequent performance of backchannel responses from the nominal listener. Still others applied turn-taking rules mechanically, reflecting a linear pattern of turn-taking, that is, their turns alternated in a seemingly pre-determined ‘rhythm’ rather than produced on a moment-by-moment basis by the unfolding of the conversation. In addition, some speakers generally revealed a preference for a discrete turn-taking style, as indicated by the fact that they immediately withdrew from the turn-in-progress when the listener overlapped, while others tried to maintain the turn if overlaps occurred, revealing a preference for simultaneous talk.

4.3.2 Speaker rights

The analysis of speaker rights in this study was concerned with floor taking and topic change. To obtain a chance to talk, the participants made use of conversational dominance
devices, including questions, interruptions, and overlaps. For topic change, the participants mainly resorted to two means: (1) self-selection in the form of a statement, or (2) other-selection by raising a question. Of the two options, the former was the preferred one. This was understandable in that the task rubric required the participants to nominate three topics and thus, they could not simply rely on the partner for his/her topic nomination through other-selecting.

4.3.3 Listener responses

The CA analysis of the talks indicated that there were variations between the participants in their performance of backchannel responses. Some dyads displayed a very active listenership while others evidenced much fewer listener responses during the primary speaker’s speakership. The frequent performance of backchannel cues in the talk revealed a high level of collaboration between the two participants, hence a dynamic conversation, whereas very limited use of backchannel responses often exhibited a lower degree of mutual collaboration between the dyad members, which in turn yielded a conversation with long turns and slower speaker exchange, revealing a low level of interactivity.

To sum up, in terms of turn-taking strategies, the analysis indicated that there exist variations between the dyads in terms of length of turn, turn-taking strategies, and preferred turn-taking style as well as the employment of backchannel responses in terms of their range and frequency. However, all the participants tended to use self-selection for topic change and apply discourse control strategies for floor taking.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has presented an overview of the findings from the data that were derived from conversation analytic techniques. The structural organisation at the global level has been discussed, indicating that participants follow a similar linear pattern in the completion of the task, and that they also employ the same basic moves in topic development. In addition, a taxonomy of patterns of interaction adopted by the participants in the talk has been presented and the relationship between the pattern types and their respective defining indices of equality and mutuality discussed. The turn-taking behaviour of the speakers, including turn-taking mechanism, speaker rights, and backchannel responses performed by the dyads in the conversation has also been briefly illustrated. This overview will enable the reader to better understand the detailed data analysis and discussion that now follows in Chapter, 5, 6 and 7.
5 Interactional Features of the Chinese Dyads: A CA Perspective

This chapter will report the results, using a CA approach and techniques, of the analysis of the pair talk by the Chinese dyads. It will first offer an overview of the chapter. This will be followed by a description of the distinct features of the dyadic conversation by the Chinese speakers. Finally, it will briefly summarise the salient characteristics revealed by the Chinese dyads in the paired task.

5.1 Overview

This chapter aims to address the first research question of the current study, i.e., what are the interactional features of Chinese EFL learners’ discourse in a paired speaking test? To address this question, the discourse performance of Chinese learners of English at university level in a peer-peer interaction task of the PETS-5-SET was analysed, focusing on the conversational management strategies employed by the speakers in the conversation. The following sections will report the findings drawn from a CA analysis of the data.

5.2 Interactional features

Following the framework outlined for the talk analysis in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.2, the interactional features of the Chinese dyads’ discourse in the pair talk were examined from three key dimensions: generic structure, interactional patterns, and turn-taking behaviour. This section will present a detailed analysis of the dyadic interaction from these three aspects respectively.

5.2.1 Generic structure

As introduced in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.1, the investigation of the generic structure that the Chinese students orient to in the pair talk entails two aspects: sequential organisation and rhetorical style.

5.2.1.1 Sequential organisation

Following the coding scheme illustrated in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.1.1, the discourse arrangement of the 30 conversations the Chinese students were analysed on a macro scale. The results indicate that the dyads generally followed three major stages in the goal fulfilment, i.e., opening sequence, body sequence, and closing sequence. However, not every dyad followed all three stages as some of them entered the second stage of the conversation directly through self-selection without any kind of lead-in and others chose to close their
conversation themselves when they had basically completed the task rather than having the ending mediated by the researcher. In addition, although the dyads involved in the two different tasks (i.e., expository and argumentative genre) took a slightly different “path” in terms of the procedures of topic initiation in the body sequence, they observed the three-step formula and also employed the same moves to develop the topics nominated (see the details below).

In terms of sequential organisation, with the utterances from either the researcher or the speakers calling attention for the start of conversation as mentioned in Chapter 4, Section 4.1.1, the talk started in one of the following three ways (NB: ‘C’ stands for Chinese students):

1) By extending greetings prior to topic initiation, e.g., “Hi, Bob, long time no see…” (C Talk 22) and/or background information, e.g., “Along with the development of our society…” (C Talk 28).

2) By using task management moves as a prelude, negotiating who should speak first, either via a suggestion or suggestive imperative, e.g., “Let’s get started.” (C Talk 15), “Let’s go down to today’s topic.” (C Talk 18) or by means of a question, e.g., “Who says first?” (C Talk 23).

3) By initiating a topic through self-selection in the form of a statement or other-selection by means of a floor-offering question, e.g., “First, I think um we should keep doing exercises regularly…” (In C Talk 3), “What’s your opinion, agree or disagree?” (C Talk 1), “What benefit do you think you can get from travelling abroad?” (C Talk 5), and entering the second stage directly.

The ways in which the Chinese dyads open the discussion is summarised in Table 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Dyads/Transcripts</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Background information</td>
<td>C Talks 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 20, 21, 22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task management</td>
<td>C Talks 9, 15, 18, 23</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct opening</td>
<td>C Talks 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 10, 11, 14, 16, 17, 19, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7, overall, the majority (60%) of the Chinese dyads began the talk by initiating a topic directly. However, slightly over one quarter (26.7%) of the Chinese pairs prefaced their topic initiation by providing either personal greetings or background

1 All the citations in the excerpts in this thesis are verbatim, including grammatical errors if they occurred.
information. The remaining (13.4%) Chinese participants started the conversation by some kind of “about-task talk” (Storch, 2001), i.e., discussing how to go about completing the task.

In the second phase (i.e., the body sequence), the speakers working with two different tasks (i.e., expository and argumentative genres) took a slightly different “path” in terms of the procedures of topic initiation: the dyads assigned to task Type 1 (i.e., the expository genre) simply nominated the topic from the prompts and then proceeded to extent the topics, while the pairs engaged in task Type 2 (i.e., the argumentative genre) presented their stance on the statement first as required by the rubric prior to the topic initiation. Nevertheless, the two dyad members progressed through three steps (i.e., topic initiation, topic development, and topic termination) and also employed the basic moves in topic development such as sustaining their own topics through building and/or appending, and responding to their partner’s turn by means of minimal acknowledgement (e.g., “yes” or “yeah”), recycling or extending of the topic.

In the closing sequence, the conversations ended either voluntarily by the speakers themselves or by being called to an end by the researcher as summarised in Table 8.

Table 8. Summary of talk termination by the Chinese dyads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Dyads/Transcripts</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Called off by researcher</td>
<td>Talks: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 19, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brief summary</td>
<td>Talks: 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, 24</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from Table 8, the majority of the discussions (N=22) were terminated by the researcher, accounting for about 73% of the total talks. Eight of the conversations were closed by the speakers themselves through briefly summarizing the opinions discussed by using a pre-closing sequence entailing either a token of “so”, e.g., “So I agree with you…” (C Talk 15), “So the first thing…” (C Talk 18), “So I think different order…” (C Talk 26), or “That’s (all)”, e.g., “Ok, that’s all…” (C Talk 12), “That’s my opinion…” (C Talk 17), and “That’s all I want to say about on the topic…” (C Talk 24).

5.2.1.2 Rhetorical style

With regard to rhetorical style, the analysis of the talk by the Chinese dyads based on the coding scheme illustrated in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.1.2 reveals that examples of both Structure A (direct/deductive pattern) and Structure B (indirect/inductive pattern) are found in the dyad discourse. Specifically, as seen from Table 7, 18 out of the 30 Chinese dyads (60%) adopted a direct/deductive style in the presentation of their ideas, eight out of the group (26.7%), however, organised the talk in an indirect/inductive fashion, as evidenced by their
starting the conversation indirectly such as extending personal greetings and/or introducing the background information.

To sum up, the results of the analysis show that the Chinese speakers generally follow the same procedures in topic development in the conversation at the macro level, they proceed through three steps, and employ the same basic moves in topic development. However, they present their ideas differently in terms of rhetorical structure. While the majority of the Chinese dyads adopt a direct/inductive pattern in organizing the discourse, a number of them structure their information indirectly/inductively, as indicated by their use of some kind of lead-in prior to the topic initiation.

## 5.2.2 Interactional patterns

Following the coding scheme for the pattern categorisation discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.2.2, the 30 conversations by the Chinese dyads were examined for patterns of interaction on the basis of three distinguishing indices, i.e., equality, mutuality, and conversational dominance. The analysis shows that the Chinese dyads assume varying roles in the conversation, which results in diverse patterns of interaction. The distribution of patterns adopted by the Chinese dyads is represented in Table 9.

### Table 9. Frequency distribution of interactional patterns by the Chinese dyads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Collaborative</th>
<th>Parallel</th>
<th>D/P</th>
<th>I/I</th>
<th>C/C</th>
<th>E/N</th>
<th>B/P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LCD</td>
<td>HCD</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>LCD</td>
<td>HCD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>76.7%</td>
<td>82.6%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                  | LCD/HCD collaborative/parallel | (major) pattern with low conversational dominance and an “HCD” collaborative/parallel subpattern refers to a collaborative/parallel (major) pattern with high conversational dominance. Namely, an “LCD collaborative/parallel” subpattern refers to a collaborative/parallel (major) pattern with low conversational dominance and an “HCD” collaborative/parallel subpattern refers to a collaborative/parallel (major) pattern with high conversational dominance.

As shown in Table 9, 23 out of the 30 Chinese discussions (76.7%) are identified as working in a collaborative pattern, two (6.7%) were recognised as operating as a parallel pattern, and one case (3.3%) for each of the four asymmetrical subpatterns: dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, and expert/novice. In addition, one talk is recognised as adopting a blended pattern, which exhibits the interactional features of both

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2 In this table, “D/P”, “I/I”, “C/C”, “E/N”, and “BP” stand for, respectively, dominant/passive pattern, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, expert/novice, and blended pattern.

3 In this study, “LCD” and “HCD” in turn stand for the two subpatterns of collaborative and parallel (major) patterns with either low or high presence of conversational dominance. Namely, an “LCD collaborative/parallel” subpattern refers to a collaborative/parallel (major) pattern with low conversational dominance and an “HCD” collaborative/parallel subpattern refers to a collaborative/parallel (major) pattern with high conversational dominance.

4 The percentage for the major patterns (e.g., collaborative and parallel) as indicated in the ‘Total column’ in Table 9 refers to the proportion that these patterns account for in the pattern distribution across 30 conversations by the Chinese dyads. However, the percentage for their respective subpatterns (i.e., the LCD/HCD collaborative/parallel subpatterns) as indicated in the ‘LCD/HCD column’ indicates the proportion that these two subpatterns account for within each of the two major pattern types only.
dominant/passive and collaborative models. Of the two symmetrical subpatterns (i.e., collaborative and parallel), the overwhelming majority of the talks indicate a lower level of conversational dominance as indicated by the fact that 19 (82.6%) out of the 23 collaborative dyads are recognised as working in an LCD subpattern and the remaining three are identified as operating in an HCD substyle. However, the two parallel patterns are of both LCD subpatterns. In other words, both collaborative LCD and HCD substyles are observed, but no case of HCD parallel subpattern is found in the pair talk by the Chinese dyads.

In sum, the interactional patterns adopted by the Chinese dyads in the conversation tend to be diversified across the group. While the majority of the pairs orient to a collaborative pattern, over a quarter of them assume a non-collaborative pattern in the topic development, including a blended pattern, combining the dominant/passive and collaborative model together. In addition, of the 23 collaborative dyads, 19 are of an LCD substyle and only 4 fall into an HCD subpattern category. As such, it could be said that except for a few HCD collaborative pairs, which produce highly dynamic interaction, the majority of the Chinese dyads tend to generate talk with low interactivity though they are symmetrical in nature. The reason for this is that although both of the collaborative styles are of high equality, the LCD subpattern is characteristic of long turns, slow listener-speaker role switching, low rate of conversational devices, but high occurrences of acknowledgement tokens (i.e., yeah, yes). By contrast, the HCD collaborative substyle is marked with short turns, rapid speaker change, frequent employment of interactional tactics, and a high rate of backchannel cues. With the contrasting traits, the HCD collaborative subpattern demonstrates a higher degree of mutuality (also a high level of competition for the speaking floor) than their LCD companions since the speakers in the former category are more actively involved in the interaction.

To have a better understanding of these patterns, the following sections will illustrate the two most commonly adopted types of these patterns observed (i.e., collaborative and parallel) and their corresponding subgroups identified in the discussions by the Chinese dyads. A detailed description of the other five types of interactional patterns and their accompanying traits, along with exemplary excerpts, is provided in Chapter 7.

5.2.2.1 Collaborative talk

As explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.2, the collaborative talk is characterised by both high equality and mutuality. The speakers identified as working with in this model cooperate closely with each other in the task accomplishment. They are actively involved in the interaction.

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5 In this study, the terms subpattern and substyle are used interchangeably to indicate the subgroups of the two major pattern types (i.e., collaborative and parallel patterns) identified in the data.
development of both self- and other-initiated topics. Within the collaborative category, the dyads may display varying degrees of conversational dominance. Based on the presence of conversational dominance, the collaborative talk is further divided into LCD and HCD substyles respectively. The following two excerpts (8 and 9) will illustrate the major characteristics of these two subpatterns observed in the discussions by the Chinese dyads.

**Excerpt 8**

Task: C Talk 7 (Type 1)  
Topic: What are some of the reasons for adolescents’ addiction to the internet?  
Speakers: C=Cai Qiang (male); D=Ding Ling (female)

03 C yes firstly er (0.3) there are a large number of attractive games on the internet'=
D mm hm.
C according to my friends and my own experience when we began to play a game, we just could not stop ourselves (.) or stop the strong desire to play it. (0.4) I can’t desc- describe the specific reason by words but the games give us much satisfaction.
D satisfaction (. ) well (0.6) there are reports saying that some adolescents are SO addicted to the computer games (0.3) that they often escape from school (0.7) compared with adolescents, the the situation for the university students (0.6) are much better (0.8) because they are more mature, but I know (0.5) they also spend a lot of time on the internet if not play games. (0.9)
05 C yes I also enjoy the online (0.4) computer games, but when I have classes, (0.3) especially compulsory courses, (0.5) I will quit it.
06 D uh quit it (0.6) ok so you are not so seriously addicted to it, (0.3)
07 C mm hm.
08 D yes, from my opinion, I think lack of self discipline (0.3) to the use of time (wisely) is also important reason to um (0.5) addict to the internet because I think some of the students in the university like just like me (0.3) and can’t use the time wisely because I don’t have a clear schedule, (0.5) when I go back to the door I just turn on my computer and open the g-mail (. ) or search on the face book or some chatting(s) (0.6) because I have nothing to do. so I think when you have a clear goal, it will help you to get out of this (. ) internet stuff because you have to engage in other things that some of my cla- stud- (0.3) not my students just like
09 C classmates=  
10 D =classmates yes um (0.3) I’m in grade 3 (. ) some of them are applying for the furthering the resumes for abroad (0.5) so that they had to prepare some English tests (. ) or apply for the jo- jobs some of them (0.4) an: : that’s why they can

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6 The full transcripts from which these excerpts have been extracted are available in Appendix H.
7 In this study, the utterances in red indicate an excerpt which is the focus of analysis. For instance, it may indicate either the topics initiated by the speakers in the interaction in accordance with the verbal prompts as referents in the rubrics of the mock oral test (as in Excerpts 8 and 9) or the features of conversational strategies employed by the participants in the dyadic talk (as in Excerpts 11, 12 and 13).
Excerpt 8 is part of a talk orienting to an LCD collaborative subpattern. As shown in the segment, the two dyad members work cooperatively in the discussion. They not only initiate and develop their own topics, but also help expand the topic initiated by the other. For instance, in Turn 1, Cai Qiang nominates the topic “there are a large number of games on the internet”, which accounts for his own ‘obsession’ with the internet along with his friends. The topic is extended by Ding Ling in Turns 4 and 6, in which she elaborates on Cai Qiang’s ideas, saying that university students tend to spend a lot of their time on the internet if not on computer games. Then Cai Qiang echoes her remarks and responds that he will quit the game if he has classes. In a similar vein, after Ding Ling initiates her first topic (in Turn 8), i.e., “lack of self discipline to the use of time (wisely) is also important reason to um addict to the internet”, she builds and elaborates on the topic (in Turns 8 and 10), admitting that she, unlike some of her friends busy with important things (i.e., preparing for a test and finding a job), has also been obsessed with the online chatting due to absence of a clear goal in her study. This topic is expanded by Cai Qiang as indicated by two points: (1) he performs a “collaborative finish”^8 (Clancy et al., 1996) in Turn 9; and (2) he expands her proposition in Turn 11, suggesting having a good planning of time is one way to overcome the internet addiction. The co-construction of the conversation with meaning negotiation between two participants results in high mutuality. In terms of equality, it seems that Ding Ling in this segment produces more talk, but actually both speakers contribute fairly equally to the interaction if we look at the full transcript.

When the issue of conversational dominance is considered, this talk falls into the category of an LCD collaborative subpattern. In terms of conversational devices used, there are two instances of backchannel responses by means of acknowledgement tokens (in Turns 3 and 7) in the conversation. However, questions and overlaps are non-existent in the talk though there are quite a few TRPs in Turn 8, which could be taken up by Cai Qiang, but he fails to do so. The dyad clearly tends to take turns at approximately the TRP except for at the

^8 According to Clancy et al., (1996), “when the non-primary speakers finishes a previous speakers’ utterances, it is called a ‘collaborative finish’ (p. 360).
place where the “collaborative finish” occurs as in Turn 9. In other words, the speakers normally take the floor when the partner finishes his/her turn rather than using discourse control strategies such as question and interruption to compete for the speakership. As such, the conversation is characteristic of longer turns (in particular Turn 8) and relatively slower switching of listener-speaker roles, sharing the major features of a “high considerateness” style of talk (Tannen, 1984/2005).

Excerpt 9

Task: C Talk 16 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the reasons for university students to surf the internet?
Speakers: W=Wang Fei (female); L=Liu Peng (male)

33 W um and (0.4) because I I know boys always (0.3) um play game online (entertainment) (0.3)
34 L yeah yeah (0.3)
35 w mm=
36 L =I do it
37 W yeah so it’s it’s (0.5) entertainment.
38 L YEAH I think it’s the most important because no matter what you do the final goal is=
39 W =[mm hm]
40 L [that ] you want to entertain yourself=
41 W =ye:s
42 L so you don’t purchase good on internet? (0.4)
43 W VERY VERY little (0.7) because I don’t know (0.3) what the good what the quality of the good sold on the internet=
44 L =yeah people always worry about that
45 W yes=s and the credit system online pur- purchasing is not very (0.5) ENOUGH(0.6)
46 L uh {} you mean that’s not safe right?
47 W right
(0.6)
48 L uh huh (0.8) I think [it ]
49 W [too] many (.) ch- too many er (0.5) bad people [on the internet] just for
L [((laughs)) ]
W making money (.)
50 L but you know that's kind of (.) um convenient (0.4)
51 W ye:s
(continues)

Excerpt 9 presents a collaborative talk rich in high conversational dominance moves. The most salient feature of the talk is that the conversation is highly collaborative, as
evidenced by the fact that the speakers are actively engaged in the conversation and are involved substantially in each other’s topic development. Specifically, in the exchange of 19 short turns, each speaker nominates one topic (Turns 33 and 42), which is expanded by the partner, consequently the two topics persist over eight (Turns 34-41) and nine turns (Turns 43-51) respectively. Another conspicuous characteristic of the conversation is that the talk is highly interactive, as reflected by the active use of conversational devices, including two questions (in Turns 42 and 46), one case of interruption (in Turn, 49), three instances of latches (in Turn 36, 41 and 44), and three occurrences of overlaps (in Turns 40 and 49), and frequent performance of backchannel cues (in Turns 34, 39, 41 and 51).

Apart from the common traits of a collaborative talk, this segment displays the major features of an HCD subpattern (see Chapter 4, Section 4.2), compared with Excerpt 8 presented above. With these characteristics, i.e., fast pace, rapid speaker change, frequent employment of discourse control measures such as questions, interruptions, and overlaps, along with high occurrences of backchannel cues, the talk basically corresponds to the key tenets of a “high involvement” style (Tannen, 1984/2005).

5.2.2.2 Parallel talk

As introduced in Chapter 4, Section 4.2, the parallel talk is characterised with high equality, but low mutuality. The speakers recognised as operating in a parallel paradigm work individually, focusing on their own goal fulfilment. That is, they initiate and expand their own topics, but do not (willingly) make efforts to assist in the topic development initiated by the partner. The unilateral topic development by both speakers exhibits a low degree of mutual involvement in each other’s ideas though their contribution to the interaction is fairly balanced as they concentrate on their own task completion. When the presence of conversational dominance is examined, the two parallel talks observed in the data both fall into the LCD strand (though an HCD subpattern is certainly possible in theory). To illustrate the salient features of this pattern of interaction, an example is presented in Excerpt 10.

**Excerpt 10**

**Task:** C Talk 11 (Type 2)

**Topic:** Are you for or against the statement “Young people should buy lottery for a better life”?

**Speakers:** F=Feng Li (male); G=Gao Jie (female)

02 F um as I know more and more people and especially the students just (0.3) teen teenagers they are (.) more eagerly to buy the um lottery (0.3) just maybe is (0.4) um (0.6) is a little (.)is a little um (.) little street that so many
people would use their money to buy um to buy the very (0.4)very small opportunity (. ) to um (0.9)opportunity to er win win the (0.3)the large sum of money (. ) so I am very (0.2)very (. ) strongly against that (0.4) buying the lottery.

03 G yeah actually I agree with your opinion (0.3) I don’t think it’s proper for young people to buy lottery (0.4) um because I think those (.) who like to buy er lottery is those people who are opportunistic who think (0.4) er they can get er money (0.3) by chance without any effort (.) or any sweat or blood (0.3) or pain (0.8) so (.) um (0.4) um. 

(1.1)

04 F em (0.4) but sometimes (0.3) I think um if you spend a little money or just (0.5) it’s a small small part of your (.) pocket money to buy the lottery it’s ok (0.3) but somebody who puts all their money to um to earn earn the lottery (.)I think it’s um (1.0) I think it’s kind of very (0.4) very crazy action. 

(0.7)

05 G so you think it’s a problem of degree (0.3) you think if he’s not addicted so buying lottery is ok (0.3) but I don’t think so. I think er this (.) action can reflect this man’s mind (.) his thought (0.5) em he wants to buy because he (0.6) think there’re there is possibility of winning a large amount of (0.3) money (0.4) if he does win such kind of (0.3) maybe (0.4) just accidental (.) fortune (0.4) is not good for him (0.7) he may become very (0.7) he may just quit his job (.) and just (.) indulge in entertainment (0.3) and just spend or waste money (0.3) at the end of the day, he may lose his money (0.3) and at last (0.4) he will become penniless, what do you think? 

(0.9)

06 F no I just said that I I’m um (0.3) strongly against that if put all their money to get their fortune but sometimes (0.6) um sometimes people just spend little money ju- to buy the lottery just for interest (0.3) and and just tell my experience is an example and I was I used (0.4) I am a football fan so when the I remember the (0.3) 2002 and (0.5) South Korea and Japan hold World Football Cup I bought the shark shark lottery to guess which team will win (0.3) I remember that I spent er 13 yuan and I think it is ok (0.3) I think it’s interest I just said an especial interest and (0.6) if they um don’t um (0.7) reach the limit and not behave wild I think (0.3) we can accept the lottery. 

(continues)
reveals a general lack of mutual involvement in each other’s remarks. However, it does not prevent them from producing a balanced amount of talk as both of them build and expand the self-initiated topics by means of logical reasoning (Gao Jie in Turn 5) or personal experience (Feng Li in Turn 6).

To sum up, with regard to patterns of interaction, most Chinese dyads orient to a collaborative paradigm in the conversation, which helps generate symmetrical interaction, however, a great majority of these collaborative talks are of an LCD collaborative pattern, displaying lower presence of conversational dominance. Moreover, a few of the pairs adopt a non-collaborative model in the conversation, including two parallel and four asymmetrical patterns (dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, expert/novice). As explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.1, the LCD collaborative talk generally displays a slow-paced turn-taking and a low performance of conversational devices than do the HCD collaborative companions due to lack of completion for the speaking floor between the dyad members, the Chinese conversations tend to exhibit a relatively low degree of interactivity.

5.2.3 Turn-taking behaviour

The turn-taking practices revealed by the Chinese speakers are investigated through examining three aspects of their discussions: turn-taking style, speaker rights, and listener responses.

5.2.3.1 Turn-taking style

The investigation of the turn-taking style reveals that, except for a few Chinese HCD collaborative dyads, most Chinese speakers generally produce long turns, follow a somewhat mechanical turn-taking sequence, and prefer the direct turn format.

First, while quite a number of Chinese speakers take brief turns in the interaction (i.e., C Talks 2, 4, 16, 18, 22, 24, 26 and 28), in particular the HCD collaborative dyads, most of the Chinese discussions tend to have fairly long turns. The turn-taking features of the Chinese conversations in terms of the length of turns are set out in Table 10 (see next page).

As shown in Table 10, except for C Talks 16 and 26, the remaining 28 Chinese dyads generate a varying number of cases of continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words in length. Of the 30 dyads, 28 of them produce a total of 117 cases of continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words in length and dyads 16 and 26 do not produce any case of such long turns. Specifically, the four LCD collaborative (C Talks 5, 12, 15, and 19) and two parallel talks (C Talks 1 and 11) all contain six and above instances of continuous (full) turns longer than 50 words. In addition, C Talk 15 (LCD collaborative) contains as many as nine cases of such long turns and C Talks 5 and 12 have eight cases of the extended turns. With a total of 117
cases of such extended turns, each of the Chinese dyad produces an average of 3.9 instances of continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words. However, excluding the six talks (C Talks 1, 5, 11, 12, 15 and 19), which entail the highest number of cases of continuous (full) turns in the group, the total number of occurrences of continuous (full) turns longer than 50 words in the remaining 24 Chinese dyads reach 73. Counted in this way, on average, each Chinese discussion entails approximately 3.4 instances of continuous (full) turns which are longer than 50 words.

Table 10. Frequency distribution of cases of the continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words\(^9\) by the Chinese dyads.

| Dyads/Transcripts | C1 | C2 | C3 | C4 | C5 | C6 | C7 | C8 | C9 | C10 | C11 | C12 | C13 | C14 | C15 | Subtotal |
|-------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-------|
| No. of turns\(^9\) | 6  | 2  | 3  | 2  | 8  | 3  | 5  | 4  | 5  | 5  | 7  | 8  | 4  | 3  | 9  | 74    |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transcripts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of turns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Second, the Chinese dyads display a diversified picture in terms of turn-taking strategies. Several dyads reveal a very active turn alternation, in particular the four HCD collaborative dyads (e.g., C Talks 16, 18, 22 and 26), which help produce a conversation featuring brief turns, swift listener-listener role reversal and fairly frequent use of backchannel responses in the interaction. However, the majority of them apply a slow-paced turn-taking strategy in the interaction. That is, they tend to talk as much as they feel necessary for their topics when holding the floor and they as listeners appear to wait for the completion of the turn by the speaker rather than compete for the floor, which constitutes another reason for the production of long turns in the talk. In addition, a few dyads tend to apply the turn-taking rules mechanically in the whole or part of their talk (e.g., C Talks 1, 11, 15 and 25), reflecting a linear pattern of turn-taking. In other words, they seem to use a pre-determined ‘rhythm’ in turn alternation rather than produce it based on the immediate context, which violates the turn-taking rules that turns are locally managed and spontaneously created (Sacks et al., 1974).

Finally, the Chinese speakers appear to prefer the discrete turn-taking style, as reflected both by the relatively low occurrences of simultaneous talk in the conversation and

\(^9\) The comparison of the turn length involves counting the cases of the continuous (full) turns contained in the last five minutes of each of the conversations, which exceed 50 words in length. A continuous (full) turn refers to a full turn or part of a full turn which is not overlapped or latched with other utterances (including backchannel cues such as “yeah” and “mm”) from the conversational partner at any point. Following a similar approach proposed by Li et al., (2001) and Van Moere (2007) in their studies on spoken interaction, a cut-off five minutes of talk time for each transcript is applied primarily for two reasons: Firstly, the participants have entered the body part of the discussion; therefore, the examination of this segment of the talk is thought to be able to best capture the interactional features of the speakers. Secondly, this is a simple, but effective way to control for the varying talk length.

\(^{10}\) The number of turns indicates the cases of continuous (full) turns that exceed 50 words in length in the last five minutes of each talk.
their immediate withdrawal from the talk rather than trying to maintain the turn if overlaps do occur (e.g., C Talk 3).

To illustrate the aforementioned characteristics, the following three excerpts (11, 12 and 13) are used as examples, representing the conversations featuring, respectively, brief turns, longer turns, and discrete turns.

**Excerpt 11**

**Task:** C Talk 27 (Type 1)

**Topic:** What are some of the ways to keep one fit?

**Speakers:** J=Jiang Hui (male); K= Kai Li (female)

35 J can you tell me (0.4) your regular diet (. ) one one day?

36 K mm (0.3) I I think I have a regular diet (0.3) and I um I have breakfast at about eight (. ) and lunch at about er twelve (0.7) and er supper (0.6) at about six o’clock.

37 J mm (0.5) yeah=

38 K =yeah

39 J do you eat eggs and some milks in the morning?

(0.5)

40 K um I I sometimes sometimes um I don’t like milk. (0.4)

41 J yeah

42 K and I always eat some bread and eggs and some er er some others=

43 J =yeah yeah my wife told me eat eggs (. ) is um very useful for [the ] health [yeah]

44 K because eggs um have some nutrition and don’t (0.4) make a person fat

45 J yeah yeah [yeah]

46 J [so ] I eat eggs and (0.3) breakfast breakfast bread and it’s very useful to

47 K Yeah yeah [yeah]

48 J [eat] breakfast what do you think the (0.7) lunch and (1.2) supper?

49 K [lunch is ]

50 J [what what] is important?

51 K mm lunch is um also important um but supper is (0.7) er er when we talk about supper I think we should eat too (. ) we could not eat too much because we will go to bed if we eat too much (0.3) maybe you will feel un- (0.3) uneasy=

52 J =uncomfortable

53 K yes uncomfortable (continues)

Excerpt 11 demonstrates a segment of the talk with a short turn alternation, where each turn lasts less than three lines. The 16-turn segment, which is characteristic of swift speaker change and frequent employment of overlaps (Turns 43, 45 and 47) and latches (Turns 38, 43 and 49), reveals a highly interactive conversation. In addition, this extract also supports the argument that Chinese speakers tend to use a lot of questions in the conversation,
by which they organise the discourse. As seen in the exchange, as many as four questions are raised in the conversation (Turns 35, 39, 45 and 47).

**Excerpt 12**

**Task:** C Talk 12 (Type 2)

**Topic:** Are you for or against the statement “Pupils in primary school should have their own mobile phones”?

**Speakers:** M=Mao Dong (male); N= Nie Yuan (female)

05  M  I am against the use of mobile phones by school pupils so because I think the radiation of the mobile (. ) is very harmful to students ( .) as we know that as we know (0.4) um there are er (0.3) there are more chances of for the pupils (. )to use their mobiles (0.4) and (. ) er and other (. ) um tech um (0.6)ex um and other electronic devices such like the televisions or computers. And according to the medical survey that (0.4) um the radiation is very harmful (0.2) it can cause a lot of disease diseases such such like the brain cancer, (0.6) so why do you think still think so that er that it is necessary for pupils in primary school to u- have their own mobile phones. (0.5)

06  N  as you said I want to inform of you that (0.6) um although (0.7) em pupils in primary schools (0.5) have their own mobile phones that does not mean (0.3) um he (0.4) um they (0.3) turn it on all day (a) long um they can turn it on when they use it (0.3) so I think the radiation is not a big problem. (0.4) um from my own perspective I think as the pressure of (0.5) um of their study (0.3) even in primary schools is become higher and higher (. ) so (. ) um mobile phones becomes er new (. ) um communication platform (0.3) among students and teachers and parents (0.3) um they can chat with each other more easily than ever. (0.8)

07  M  er well I think (0.4) even if you don’t consider the radiation problem I think mobile phones is not good (0.3) because I think er the pupils who use their own mobile phones is (are) too young and they do not have enough self control and besides they maybe be um easily to get addicted to the mobiles (0.3) um mo-mobile games (. ) as we know there are more (. ) and there are more and more games (. ) um in the mobiles now. (0.9)

08  N  yeah I think that is quite a problem but don’t you think it is a good chance for pupils in primary schools to (0.3) cultivate their er ability to ability of self control? (0.4) And also I think the problem can be solved by (0.6) um parents and sch- and teachers. (0.3) parents can only buy their (. ) children um every simple (0.9) um mobile phone with fundamental fundamental (. ) um functions of (0.5) of using or making mobile phones and just (. ) sending text messages (0.3) and also (0.4) teachers can limit the- (0.4) time of using mobile phones in class. (continues)

In Excerpt 12, both speakers take turns in expressing their views on the issue discussed in the A-B-A-B order. When one speaker finishes the turn, s/he hands the floor over to the partner. The orderly turn-taking mechanism seems to violate the turn-taking rule...
proposed by Sacks et al., (1974) that turn-taking is locally managed and strategically organised. In other words, turn order is not fixed and it occurs on a moment-by-moment basis. The performance of the neat turn order is speculated to result from at least two factors: (1) participants probably believe that maintaining an orderly turn-taking mechanism is one way to ensure each of them have an equal chance to express their ideas; (2) it might be the legacy of prior task rehearsal as the topic was emailed to the selected participants one day ahead of the talk being performed.

Excerpt 13

Task: C Talk 22 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the reasons for adolescents’ addiction to computer games?
Speakers: X=Xiu Jun (male); Y=Yu Hong (female)

70 X yeah they are addicted to computer games they waste so much time (0.3) and efforts I mean it’s very hard I mean this is so valuable (.) he lost something that’s so valuable. (0.4)
71 Y they loss chance commu- to communicate with others, [yeah they ]
72 X [that’s also] important
73 Y they are eager to (0.3) communicate on the on the internet
74 X [yeah]
75 Y [just] chat on the on the (.)
76 X [online]
77 Y [W O W W O W .
78 X yeah (((laughs))) ]
Y (((laughs)))
79 X yeah it’s it’s like so sometimes they think the fellows (0.3) their their buddies (.).on online is much more important than their buddy in
Y [yeah]
X their daily life because [you know ]
80 Y [they they] think- (0.3)
81 X just like real world (works) (.). that’s why they just engage them [yeah] absorbing in the virtual world
Y [yeah]
X and they never want to come out (0.4) yeah they they really need someone to talk to (.)I [mean]
82 X [yeah] they they just want to get rid of the reality-
83 X yeah get rid of the reality
(continues)

Excerpt 13 demonstrates a talk\textsuperscript{11} indicating that both or one of the speakers withdraw from the speaking turn when they are aware that they are overlapping with each other (in

\textsuperscript{11} Turn 47 in Excerpt 8 is another example indicating that Chinese dyads tend to prefer discrete turns over simultaneous speech. In the dyadic conversation, both speakers quit the speaking turns when overlapping with the other.
Turns 71, 79 and 81). For instance, in Turn 81, Xi Jun quits the floor when he realises that he is talking simultaneously with the partner and Yu Hong goes on with the conversation (in Turn 82).

5.2.3.2 Speaker rights

As for the issue of speaker rights in these pair talk interactions, the Chinese speakers generally make use of discourse control strategies to seize the floor, including questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches, and mainly resort to self-selection for topic change. To complete the task, they are bound to nominate (three) topics. To achieve this goal, they need to obtain the chance for topical nomination in the first place as mandated by the task. The normal way to seize the floor is to employ the aforementioned discourse control measures. Of the conversational tactics, questions are used quite frequently, simultaneous talk is performed at a lower rate, and interruptions (either incursive or competitive types) are employed quite infrequently.

First, the Chinese dyads initiate questions frequently in the conversation mainly because, as discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.2.3.2.1, questions are used by the Chinese speakers as a linguistic means to elicit the partner’s commitment to the talk, advance an argument, and keep a conversation going (see C Talks 9, 25, 26, 27 and 11), apart from the normal purposes i.e., to nominate topic, offer floor, and request clarifications.

Second, except for the four collaborative HCD dyads (C Talks 16, 18, 22 and 26), the majority of the Chinese speakers appear to be somewhat reserved in their use of the other three conversational devices, i.e., interruptions, overlaps, and latches. For instance, two dyads in the data (i.e., C Talks 1 and 11) virtually do not perform any conversational management devices in the discussion at all. The speakers in C Talks 12 and C Talk 15 only perform two and three instances of overlaps respectively.

To illustrate these features relating to the speaker rights in conversation by Chinese dyads, four exemplary excerpts (14, 15, 16 and 17) are presented in the following section.

Except 14

Task: C Talk 26 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the factors to consider when you decide to purchase property?
Speakers: W=Wu Di (male); Z=Zou Mei (female)

32 W so the graphical situation is the first factor, what is the second one?
33 Z um the second factor I think (0.3) um the size of the property (0.3)
34 W yes the size of the property.
35 Z for I think (0.3) um when we buy er when we purchase property=
In Excerpt 14, the dyads perform three questions in a 16-turn segment, including one floor-offering question (Turn 32) and two questions requesting clarifications (Turns 36 and 38). To ask for clarifications, Wu Di made two attempts, first through a repetition of the same expression “simple purchase” and then through a complete utterance “What do you mean?”.

Excerpt 15

Task: C Talk 25 (Type 2)
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Modern people should do shopping online”?
Speakers: S=Sui Yi (female); P=Pei Gang (male)

04 S um as far as I know you bought your cell phone online so what do you think of it? (0.8)
05 P because really it’s it’s cheaper (.). than most usual stores (.). and it has much (0.6) wide range of um (1.1) the brands. (0.5)
06 S so do you do you ever worry er about worry about the quality of the goods you bought online? (1.2)
07 P no (0.5) because I can check (.). the good before I pay (0.8) pay them in cash. (1.0)
08 S er so (0.7) anywhere do you like er do you like do shopping online? (1.0)
09 P um I can’t give you absolute judgment (0.3) that’s depends on what (0.5) I wan to buy (0.4) or where I live (0.4) for example (0.3) um as for the books (1.0) I think (0.3) it’s much easier and convenient (0.7) to buy online (.). because you just (0.4) type the title or the author of the books (0.5) and you (0.3) they give you a list (0.9) and cheaper.
10 S so when you check books online do you often obsessed with the other books that you like? (1.0) and (0.4) you know that will lost cause you a lot of time.
P  no I am not that kind of person I have got what I need and ignore other books.

S  mm um **what do you think is the (0.5) disadvantages of shopping online?**

P  um (1.6) sometimes I have to wait for the delivery man (.) you know (0.5) because usually they sent the the good (0.5) at noon so (0.4) I have to wait for the call (1.6) and (0.5) but I have to take a nap you know

S  okay

P  **do you know the new word “house girl” (0.6) or “house (0.4) boy”?**

S  oh yes the house girls and house boys are girls and boys who stay at home and and shop (0.4) shopping and (0.4) do their shoppings online (0.7) and (0.4) it is not (0.3) necessary for them to go out to to (0.3) shopping and (.) maybe they think it is (0.7) good for them.

P  **do you think you can live what (0.7) the way like them?**

S  mm sometimes I I shop (0.3) I often shop online because I think um (0.6) I can select lot a lot of things (0.3) online and (0.5) er as you mentioned it’s cheaper (0.3) and and (0.7) quality is as good as those

P  from the real- (0.5) real time shop.

S  yes.

P  en er (2.1) **are you afraid of being cheated?**

S  mm no (0.5) um I (0.4) I think it’s (1.1) it’s it will never happen (0.3) because um (0.3) the city (0.9) and (0.6) as for the safety I think um (0.6) as you have mentioned before you can pay you can pay er for the good when the postman deliver it (0.6) to your doorstep and so (.) it’s I think it’s generally very safe.

P  **mm how about the clothes?**

S  [mm]

P  [I] think it is (0.5) impossible to buy clothes online.

S  That is the worst part of shopping online because I bought many many clo- clothes which doesn’t they looks good but does not fit on me ((laughter))

P  mm ((laughs))=

S  so I think that waste a lot of time waste a lot of time as well as much money. (continues)

Excerpt 15 represents part of a conversation by a Chinese dyad in which questions are used as a means to keep the discussion going. In the 25-turn extract, nine questions are posed, including five by Sui Yi (in Turns 4, 6, 8, 10 and 12) and four by Pei Gang (in Turns 15, 17, 21 and 23). Of the nine questions, the first one offers the floor to the partner, the last two questions (Turns 21 and 23) are used for topic development, and the remaining six questions
are performed to seek the information. As such, the conversation features the question-answer sequences though the two participants cooperate with each other in the task completion.

**Excerpt 16**

**Task:** C Talk 11 (Type 2)

**Topic:** Are you for or against the statement “Young people should buy lottery for a better life”?

**Speakers:** G=Gao Jie (female); F=Feng Li (male)

07 G but how can you make sure that you can control (0.4) um this um action and **how can you prevent (0.4) er your addiction to this buying?** (1.3)

08 F I think it's um up to people's um (0.8) determination or their (0.4) relation and I think if um somebody is rational they will behave (0.6) er behave in a good way that is ok (1.1) if he is if he is uh very very um (0.4) addicted to it, (0.4) he will buy the lottery, and if you can control yourself (0.4) you clearly know what you are doing (0.6) you can er get far from the lottery. (1.3)

09 G um you know even you just buy don't buy too much but if you um save this money you spend um buying the lottery and put it in another area (0.3) maybe day by day is er also a large amount of money (0.4) em **don't you think it is just useless?** (1.5)

10 F I think so many (people) would like to pay um pay a lot of pay money for what they er (0.3) what they are interested um (1.2) someone think it is useful and someone could spend money on on something that maybe someone (else) think it is useless (0.6) but you think it deserves your money because (.). you lie in lie its on your (0.5) er to get satis- satisfaction or get the content um (.). you get your self-esteem from it (2.2) I think I don't think that you um just to earn you life (money) by buying lottery I just I just said that it is just entertainment (2.3)

11 G well I got your points but still (0.4) I don't think it is proper action (0.4) and I think it's better way for people to keep away from the (0.4) er er maybe (0.7) er of the illusion (0.5) um someday maybe um he just can't control himself and be addicted to it. (continues)

Excerpt 16 represents a segment of a talk where, except for two questions raised by Gao Jie (in Turns 7 and 9), the dyad does not employ any other conversational devices (i.e., interruptions, overlaps or latches) though the talk is grammatically cohesive and therefore coherent. The absence of interactional tactics and the employment of extended turns result in

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12 This talk is labelled as a “collaborative” pattern rather than an “interviewer/interviewee” paradigm though the conversation mainly comprises a question-and-answer sequence. This is because the two participants assume the same roles and they make a balanced contribution to the interaction. More importantly, they cooperate with each other in the topic development, which is in contrast with the “interviewer/interviewee” model, where the two speakers orient to different roles, with the interviewer having a dominant control of the conversation.
a conversation with comparatively low interactivity. It seems that these are the common features of conversations labelled as the parallel pattern of interaction (See C Talk 1 as well).

5.2.3.3 Listener responses

As a fundamental component of spoken interaction, backchannels are indispensable for effective conversation. Like the three conversational devices discussed above, Chinese students generally display a relatively low incidence of backchannel responses though a number of the pairs create highly interactive conversations, in particular, the four HCD collaborative talks. Three out of the 30 Chinese dyads do not use backchannels at all in the conversation lasting over 5 minutes (i.e., C Talks 1, 11 and 15). Interestingly, these four talks are also those conversations recognised as characteristic of extended turns (in Section 5.2.3.1) and infrequent occurrences of the interactional tactics (in Section 5.2.3.2). This is self-explanatory in the sense that if the speakers use these conversational devices and/or backchannel cues extensively, then conversation is highly interactive, featuring a fast pace, rapid speaker change, and brief turns. Therefore, the limited use of the backchannel response by Chinese dyads reveals a low degree of collaboration between the dyads and a general lack of active listenership in the interaction, which in turn yield a talk with long turns and slower speaker change.

To illustrate the aforementioned characteristics, the following excerpt is used to exemplify a conversation with rare use of backchannel responses

Excerpt 17

Task: C Talk 12 (Type 2)
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Pupils in primary school should have their own mobile phones”?
Speakers: M=Mao Dong (male); N= Nie Yuan (female)

05 M I am against the use of mobile phones by school pupils so because I think the radiation of the mobile (.) is very harmful to students (.).as we know that as we know (0.4)um there are er (0.3) there are more chances of for the pupils (.).to use their mobiles (0.4)and (.).er and other (.).um tech um (0.6)ex um and other electronic devices such like the televisions or computers. And according to the medical survey that (0.4)um the radiation is very harmful (0.2)it can cause a lot of disease diseases such such like the brain cancer (0.6) so why do you think still think so that er that it is necessary for pupils in primary school to u- have their own mobile phones.
(0.5)

06 N as you said I want to inform of you that (0.6)um although (0.7)em pupils in primary schools (0.5)have their own mobile phones that does not mean (0.3)um he

13 Excerpt 15 is another example in which backchannel cues are rarely used.
(0.4) um they (0.3) turn it on all day (a) long um they can turn it on when they use it (0.3) SO I think the radiation is not a big problem. (0.4) um from my own perspective I think as the pressure of (0.5) um of their study (0.3) even in primary schools is become higher and higher (.), so (.), um mobile phones becomes er new (.) um communication platform (0.3) among students and teachers and parents (0.3) um they can chat with each other more easily than ever. (0.8)

07 M er well I think (0.4) even if you don’t consider the radiation problem I think mobile phones is not good (0.3) because I think er the pupils who use their own mobile phones is (are) too young and they do not have enough self control and besides they maybe be um easily to get addicted to the mobiles (0.3) um mobile games (.), as we know there are more (.). and there are more and more games (.), um in the mobiles now. (0.9)

08 N yeah I think that is quite a problem but don’t you think it is a good chance for pupils in primary schools to (0.3) cultivate their er ability to ability of self control? (0.4) And also I think the problem can be solved by (0.6) um parents and sch- and teachers. (0.3) parents can only buy their (.) children um every simple (0.9) em mobile phone with fundamental (.). em functions of (0.5) using or making mobile phones and just (.). sending text messages (0.3) and also (0.4) teachers can limit the- (0.4) time of using mobile phones in class.

(continues)

Excerpt 17 demonstrates a segment of a pair talk by one Chinese dyad not using any backchannel cues though there is only one case of overlap and one instance of latch in the rest of the conversation (which are not shown here). As seen in the four-turn excerpt, the talk actually comprises a series of mini-monologues or a short spoken composition. Obviously, if the speakers perform conversational strategies rarely and/or provide listener responses infrequently, then it necessarily leads to a talk with long turns.

In this section, the features of the Chinese dyad discussions have been examined in terms of their turn-taking practices. Except for the HCD collaborative dyads, most Chinese speakers tend to take fairly long turns, apply a slow-paced turn-taking strategy, and prefer the discrete turn-taking format rather than risking simultaneous speech in the interaction. As for the issue of speaker rights, the Chinese speakers realise topic change mainly via self-selection and they claim the speaking floor by means of discourse control measures, i.e., questions, interruptions, overlaps and latches. Of these four conversational devices, questions are employed quite frequently, interruptions are performed quite infrequently, and simultaneous talk is used in a reserved manner. As such, it seems that overlaps and latches occur less frequently than they might otherwise be. Similarly, the Chinese conversations also display a relatively low performance rate of backchannel responses.
5.3 Summary

This chapter has presented the major findings determined by a CA analysis of the pair talk by Chinese dyads from three key dimensions: generic structure, interactional patterns, and turn-taking behaviour. The generic structure has been examined from two aspects: sequential organisation and rhetorical style. The analysis indicates that the Chinese dyads generally follow a three-stage sequence (i.e., opening sequence, body sequence, and closing sequence) at a global level in the task completion and they also make use of the same basic moves in topic development, however, they use different rhetorical styles in information structuring (i.e., direct/deductive and indirect/inductive patterns). As for patterns of interaction, the majority of Chinese students orient to an LCD collaborative model, whereas a few of them assume non-collaborative paradigms in the talk, i.e., parallel, dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, expert/novice, and blended pattern. The turn-taking strategies are investigated from three aspects: turn-taking style, speaker rights, and backchannel responses. With regard to the turn-taking mechanism, most Chinese speakers tend to take fairly long turns, apply a slow-paced turn alternation strategy, and prefer a discrete turn-taking format in the interaction. When speaker rights are considered, the Chinese speakers often resort to self-selection to nominate a topic and they employ discourse control measures (i.e., questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches) to seize the floor, but these devices are performed at varying rates. Of the four strategies, questions are employed quite frequently, interruptions are performed quite infrequently, and simultaneous talk is used quite conservatively. In addition, the Chinese conversations also display a relatively low performance of listener responses. To sum up their interactional practices, the Chinese speakers, on the whole, generate talk featuring relatively long turns, comparatively slow change of speakers, low occurrences of conversational devices and a reserved use of backchannel cues though questions are used quite frequently.
6 Interactional Features of the Australian Dyads: A CA Perspective

This chapter will report the results of CA analysis of the pair talk by the Australian dyads. It will first offer an overview of the chapter. This will be followed by a description of the distinct features of the dyadic conversation by the Australian speakers. Finally, the chapter will briefly summarise the salient characteristics revealed by the Australian dyads in the paired task.

6.1 Overview

This chapter attempts to address the second research question of the current study, i.e., what are the interactional features of Australian native English speakers in a dyadic conversation? To address this question, the discourse performance of Australian university students in a peer-peer interaction task modelled on the PETS-5-SET was analysed, focusing on the conversational management strategies employed by the speakers in the conversation. The following sections will report the findings of CA analysis.

6.2 Interactional features

In accordance with the framework illustrated for the talk analysis in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.2, the interactional features exhibited by the Australian dyads in the pair talk were examined from three key dimensions: generic structure, interactional patterns, and turn-taking behaviour. This section will present a detailed analysis of the dyadic interaction from these three aspects in turn.

6.2.1 Generic structure

As introduced in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.1, the examination of the generic structure that the Australian students assumed in the pair talk entailed two aspects: sequential organisation and rhetorical style.

6.2.1.1 Sequential organisation

Following the coding scheme illustrated in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.1.1, the discourse arrangement of the 30 conversations by Australian students were analysed at a global scale. The results indicate that the Australian dyads generally proceeded through three major phases in the dyadic interaction, i.e., opening sequence, body sequence, and closing sequence. However, not every dyad went through all the three stages in their talk as some of
them entered stage two of their conversation straightaway through self-selection without any kind of lead-in and others wound up their conversation themselves when they basically completed the task rather than having the ending mediated by the researcher. Additionally, although the dyads involved in the two different tasks (i.e., expository and argumentative genre) took a slightly different “route” in terms of the procedures of topic initiation in the body sequence, they observed the three-step formula and also employed the same moves for topic development (see the details below).

In terms of opening, following some formulaic expressions to call for the start of the conversation from either the researcher or the speaker as discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.1.1, the talk begins by one of the following two means (NB: ‘A’ stands for Australian students).

1) By prefacing topic initiation with task management moves via a suggestion, negotiating who should be the first speaker, e.g., “Shall I start?” (A Talk 8), “After you?” (A Talk 21), “Would you like to speak first?” (A Talk 26).

2) By initiating a topic and entering the second stage directly through self-selecting in the form of a statement, e.g., “I am very prone to the city…” (A Talk 9), “I think addiction to computer games does affect how much people play sports…” (A Talk 22), or other-selecting via a floor-offering question such as “So Keaton, why do you think keeping routine hours are important?” (A Talk 3), “What do you reckon?” (A Talk 13), “What do you think are the most important ways to keep fit?” (A Talk 27).

The ways in which the Australian dyads open the conversation are summarised in Table 11.

Table 11. Summary of talk opening by the Australian dyads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Dyads/Transcripts</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task management</td>
<td>A Talks 2, 5, 8, 12, 15, 16, 19, 21, 24, 26, 28, 30</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct opening</td>
<td>A Talks 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 17, 18, 20, 22, 23, 25, 27, 29</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 11, 60% of the 30 Australian dyads started the conversation directly and the remaining 40% negotiated who should speak first by means of task management moves prior to the topic initiation.

In the second phase (i.e., the body sequence), the speakers involved in task Type 1 (i.e., the expository genre) followed a slightly different ‘path’ from those assigned to task Type 2 (i.e., the argumentative genre) regarding the procedure in topic initiation. That is, the former group just nominated the subtopics from the prompt and then extended them, while the
latter group presented their viewpoints on the statement first as required by the rubric before they initiated and expanded the subtopics in order to justify their opinions. These speakers progressed through three steps (i.e., topic initiation, topic development and topic termination) and also employed some basic moves in topic development, i.e., sustaining their own topics through building and/or appending, and responding to the partner’s turn through minimal acknowledgement (e.g., “yes” or “yeah”), recycling or extending of the topic.

In the closing sequence, conversations ended in one of two ways: voluntarily by the speakers or by being called to an end by the researcher, as summarised in Table 12.

Table 12. Summary of talk termination by the Australian dyads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Dyads/Transcripts</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Called off by researcher</td>
<td>Talks: 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 22, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brief summary</td>
<td>Talks: 1, 10, 21, 23</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimal responses</td>
<td>Talks: 3, 6, 18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Token ‘good’</td>
<td>Talks: 13, 20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 12, 21 of out of the 30 conversations (70%) were called to an end by the researcher due to reaching the time allocation for the task, and the remaining 30% of the discussions were terminated by the speakers themselves through some unmarked terminal tokens in one of the following three ways: (1) a brief summary of opinion, e.g., “I think it’s definitely good to have a part-time job in the university.” (A Talk 1), “I think that’s all.” (A Talk 10), “So we think that have covered a lot.” (A Talk 21); (2) two successive minimal responses, i.e., “yeah, yeah” (A Talks 3, 6 and 18), accompanied by eye contact, smile, and/or other non-verbal behaviours; and (3) uttering the token “good” with a rising tone (A Talks 13 and 20).

6.2.1.2 Rhetorical style

Following the coding scheme illustrated in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.1.2, the 30 dyadic conversations by the Australian students were examined regarding the rhetorical structure they speakers adopted. The results show that they all used a direct style in discourse organisation in the interaction. In other words, all the Australian students presented their ideas in a direct/deductive fashion as they started the talk either by using task management moves, discussing how to complete the task or nominating the topic straightaway without any type of lead-in (i.e., background information).

To sum up, the results of the analysis reveal that the Australian dyads basically follow the same steps in the task accomplishment on the global scale; they employed the same basic
moves in topic development; and they structured the information in a direct/linear mode in terms of rhetorical structure, which is valued in English-speaking Western culture.

6.2.2 Interactional patterns

The 30 conversations by the Australian dyads were analysed for the three key variables (i.e., equality, mutuality, and conversational dominance) illustrated in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3.2.2, to determine their pattern categorisation. The analysis shows that the Australian participants generally assumed the same roles in the conversation, which resulted in more stable patterns of interaction. The distribution of patterns oriented to in the talk by the Australian dyads is represented in Table 13.

Table 13. Frequency distribution of interactional patterns by the Australian dyads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collaborative</th>
<th>Parallel</th>
<th>D/P</th>
<th>I/I</th>
<th>C/C</th>
<th>E/N</th>
<th>B/P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total LCD</td>
<td>HCD</td>
<td>Total LCD</td>
<td>HCD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>96.7%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>86.2%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Inter-coder agreement = 86%

As shown in Table 13, all the Australian dyads orient to symmetrical patterns in the conversation, of which, 29 out of the 30 dyads adopt a collaborative pattern and only one pair uses a parallel pattern. In terms of the issue of conversational dominance, 25 of the collaborative dyads fall into an HCD subpattern and only four of them are of an LCD substyle. In addition, the only one parallel talk is identified as working in an LCD substyle. In other words, approximately 97% of the Australian dyads orient to a collaborative pattern and about 86.2% of these collaborative dyads reveal a high degree of conversational dominance in the conversation. As discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2.1.2, the conversations identified as

1 In this table, “D/P”, “I/I”, “C/C”, “E/N”, and “BP” stand for dominant/passive pattern, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, expert/novice, and blended pattern respectively.
2 In this study, “LCD” and “HCD” in turn stand for the two subpatterns of collaborative and parallel (major) patterns with either low or high presence of conversational dominance. Namely, an “LCD collaborative/parallel” subpattern refers to a collaborative/parallel (major) pattern with low conversational dominance and an “HCD” collaborative/parallel” subpattern refers to a collaborative/parallel (major) pattern with high conversational dominance.
3 The percentage for the major patterns (e.g., collaborative and parallel) as indicated in the ‘Total column’ in Table 13 refers to the proportion that these patterns account for in the pattern distribution across 30 conversations by the Australian dyads. However, the percentage for their respective subpatterns (i.e., the LCD/HCD collaborative/parallel subpatterns) as indicated in the ‘LCD/HCD column’ indicates the proportion that these two subpatterns account for within each of the two major pattern types only.
4 In this study, the terms subpattern and substyle are used interchangeably to indicate the subgroups of the two major pattern types (i.e., collaborative and parallel patterns) identified in the data.
an HCD collaborative talk, where the features of conversational dominance are facilitative and other-directed (Galaczi, 2004, p. 98), generally signal a higher degree of mutual engagement between the participants as they push forward the conversation in a cooperative manner, which helps generate a conversation marked with fast pace, rapid speaker exchange, frequent occurrences of interactional devices, and a high rate of backchannel responses. With all these traits, the conversations by the Australian speakers are generally dynamic, indicating a high level of interactivity.

In sum, the patterns of interaction adopted by the Australian dyads are quite stable across the pairs. The overwhelming majority of Australian speakers assumes equal roles in the interaction and adopts a collaborative pattern, which contributes to symmetrical interaction with high interactivity.

To have a better understanding of these patterns, the following sections will illustrate the two types of pattern (i.e., collaborative and parallel) and their corresponding subpatterns identified in the Australian conversations. More examples of these two patterns of interactions and the accompanying traits, along with exemplary excerpts will be provided in Chapter 7.

6.2.2.1 Collaborative talk

As discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.2, the most salient feature of a collaborative talk is the combination of high equality and mutuality, where the speakers cooperate closely in the topic development and they also make a balanced contribution to the interaction in terms of language output and topic development moves. On the basis of the degree of conversational dominance displayed in the conversation, the collaborative pattern is subdivided into two subgroups: LCD and HCD collaborative substyles. The following two excerpts will exemplify the major characteristics of these two subpatterns observed in the discussions by the Australian dyads.

Excerpt 18

Task: A Talk 19 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the factors to consider when you decide to choose a career?
Speakers: J=Jacob (male); M=Mary (female)

03 J ((laughter)} all right well (0.3) I ('ve) (0.6) basically (1.5) without sort of

5 The full transcripts from which these excerpts have been extracted are available in Appendix H.
you know sitting down and picking to be an environmental scientist I would of uh (0.6)I would’ve said that it came about through interest (0.3)uh because (0.7)I(’d) (you know) always always had interest in that it’s (1.0)uh (0.4)and so it just sort of made sense that that’s where I ended up. (0.3)Um (0.6) and I THINK that if you sort of look behind that it comes down to (0.6)uh to basically (1.3)happiness (0.8)um (0.8)so I mean a lot of those things sort of tick that happiness box but interest um yeah I would say interest would be the the most related back (0.3)to happiness in inverted commas. (0.9)

M mm hm yu- I’d agree and I think that um when you look at people who are successful in their careers it’s normally because they have interest in it and makes them happy. (0.6)Um (0.3) for me interest would probably (0.4)(been) (0.3)high on the list (0.4)and after that (I- I’m (0.9)Um (0.8)%a bit of sensible person% (as a) sometimes so I I then look at things like um employment prospects and salary as well (0.4)because (0.3)for me happiness is also about lifestyle so (0.3) I want to be able to afford t’ go on holidays (.) and do other things as well.

J mm hm (0.9)

M %Yeah%. (0.8)

J um (1.1) yeah (I’m)(0.5) starting off a- at uni (.) uh and I’d you know started my degree ten years ago (0.6)um sort of environmental science was getting a- a bit bigger and there were jobs and more funding but it was still a pretty (0.8) um you know you’re not gonna (0.5) you’re not just gonna to fall into a job and you’re not gonna

M [mm]

J [straight to a high salary and that sort of thing.(0.5) And (1.6)um like (0.3) I gave it a fair bit of thought (0.3) and (0.6) at the end of the day it’s sort of always keep coming back (0.6)to um (0.7)you know I I can live (.) with the old car I’ve got now (0.5) rather than a new one when I’m fundamentally (0.3) you know happy with (4 sylls.) when I’ve got a level of satisfaction that isn’t from (0.8) uh you know having uh having nice clothes or or a or driving a cool car (0.3)

M mm

J um (0.4) but (0.3) like the (0.3) idea of of say employment prospects or good salary or (0.3)or stable income certainly comes into it, it’s just a matter of (0.9) um you know recognizing that (1.8) uh you (know) I I don’t think I actually need (1.6) a um (0.6) a cool car (0.4) t’ [to be] happy en t’ (0.9)

M [yeah ]

J t’say that I’ve got uh a decent salary something like that [that’s]

M [Yeah ] yeah I I agree(d) as well- so (0.8) when I say (0.3) a good salary I

---

6 In this study, the utterances in red indicate the features of part of a conversation/excerpt which is the focus of analysis. For instance, it may indicate either the topics initiated by the speakers in the interaction in accordance with the verbal prompts as referents in the rubric of the mock oral test or the characteristics of turn-taking strategies employed by the participants in the dyadic talk.
mean enable- (0.3) enables to support myself [and] do things I want to do so

J [mm]

M it’s not necessarily having a great [car] (. ) or nice clothes but (0.5) um like

J [yeah]

M I said be able to go on holidays (0.4) and um (0.3) yeah do thing that are

enjoyable but being (. ) happy in your work is (0.3) which u- takes up most of

your life unfortunately is definitely a lot higher on the uh on the list-

11 J =yeah

12 M for me this is (0.4) um my second career so I’ve- of my undergrad is in

something completely different(0.3)so I’ve made a complete (. ) change from

business into (0.5)linguistics and (0.7)um and I (0.4)didn’t become student for

the last three years {{laughter}} to (0.3)uh yeah I was making good money

before I

J mm=

M =left that job to (0.8) earn a pittance and (. ) uh start all over again

so (0.6) yeah definitely money’s not that high on the list for me it’s more

about satisfaction.

13 J yeah.

(continues)

Excerpt 18 is a segment of a conversation adopting an LCD collaborative pattern. As shown in the excerpt, the two speakers work cooperatively in the completion of the task. In terms of topic development, Jacob nominates his first topic in Turn 3, indicating that “interest” is one of the factors he considers when choosing a career. Mary extends this topic further and then she initiates another two topics (of her own), i.e., “employment prospects” and “good salary” (in Turn 4). Both of the speakers build and expand their own topics by describing their life experience in Turns 7-9 (Jacob) and 10-12(Mary) respectively. Although it seems that Jacob does not extend the topics nominated by Mary, he does provide his support to his partner via acknowledgement tokens (“mm” and “yeah” in Turns 5, 10, 11 and 13).

However, the exchange reveals a lack of competition for the speaking floor, as indicated by the fact that firstly the speakers generally take long turns (e.g., Turn 3, 4, 7, 10 and 12) and change the speaking floor slowly; and secondly the role of the listener tends to be strong vis-à-vis of the speaker. That is, the listener shows their support in the form of acknowledgement tokens and involvement in the form of overlaps (in Turns 7, 9 and 10) and latches (in Turns 11 and 12), which comply with the key features of an LCD collaborative subpattern.

Excerpt 19
Task: A Talk 27 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the ways to keep one fit?
Speakers: M=Michael (male); J=Jennifer (female)
okay do you think any other points?
(0.3)
I would say (1.1) probably (.) a balance between life and work and study?
(0.5)
because if you don’t have a balance you don’t really (0.6) have time to (0.6) put in these (0.3) other points or having a good diet and exercise
mm mm
'tcause you need to work it all out (0.6) what is your third one?
I don’t think any other (0.3) I guess all are important this is no large issues I think diet and exercise are the main things.
(0.4)
do you think the balance between life and work and study is not [important]?
[I THINK ] they are all important (0.3) BUT I think that the top two are more predominant than the rest.
(0.7)
ok now what is your third point? (. out [of]
[If] if I have to choose a third point?
yes=
I think maybe 'happy' (0.7) that’s good (0.4) all start there.
what? (0.3) yeah=
=optimistic to[ward life]
[there you] go yeah and also to control one's mood to
[stay happy]
[Everything] starts on the mood {{laughter}}
{{laughs}}
um (0.5)
why do you think that?
(0.5)
think what?
(0.4)
that [being happiness (0.3)
happiness] I don’t know I think it is part of everything (0.6) say if you could have good luck, water and happiness
(0.5)
{{laughs}} okay (0.6).
(continues)

The exchange in Excerpt 19 represents a typical collaborative talk with high conversational dominance, where the two speakers are highly engaged with each other and orient to mutual topical development. As shown in the segment, the two speakers are substantially staying on the topic; consequently, each of the two topics initiated (in Turn 7 and 18) is getting extended over ten turns. Apart from the extensive topic extension moves of both self- and other-initiated topics, the talk is also characterised by the frequent employment of conversational control strategies: one case of interruption (Turn 16); four instances of
overlaps (in Turns 14, 21, 22 and 28) and three occurrences of latches (Turns 8, 18 and 20); and eight questions, including three floor-offering questions (in Turns 6, 11 and 15) and two follow-up questions (in Turns 13 and 25), and three clarification requests (in Turns 16, 19 and 26). These questions tend to be used functionally as topic extension moves rather than as an attempt to dominate the interaction and thus develop topics further. In addition to the performance of these conversational devices signalling the involvement in the interaction, three cases of backchannel cues (Turns 8, 10 and 24), along with full, but short statements, are employed to show listener support to the primary speaker. As such, the talk is characterised by a fast pace, rapid speaker change, and frequent occurrences of interactional devices, resembling the nature of a “high involvement” style (Tannen, 1984/2005).

6.2.2.2 Parallel talk

As described in Chapter 4, Section 4.2, a parallel talk is characterised as having high equality, but low mutuality. In this model, both speakers initiate and develop topics, but engage little with each other’s ideas. As the interactional behaviour is self-focused and the speakers mainly concentrate on their own task fulfilment, they do not make an effort to help develop the topic initiated by the partner. Similar to the case of collaborative dyads, the dimension of conversational dominance is also at play in this pattern of interaction. However, only the LCD subpattern is identified in the data (though an HCD is theoretically possible). To illustrate the salient features of an LCD parallel subpattern, one exemplary excerpt is presented in the following section.

Excerpt 20

Task: A Talk 30 (Type 2)
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Children should plan their study by themselves”?
Speakers: D=David (male); J= Jessica (female)

01 D who is starting?
02 J ok yeah I THOUGHT to a certain degree (0.5) yes children should plan their own study but to a certain degree NO: because I think children (1.5) at a younger age they found it hard how to motivate themselves and also they don’t actually know their responsibility. I don’t think they can take ownership over their own learning when they are so young. (.) They just do whatever mum tells them to do or they (.) just choose whatever they think is more fun, (0.3) so I think that (0.5) at a younger age (0.8) I do not believe that (.) children will actually study in the first place (.) because of the motivation and (0.3) yeah the whole ownership thing that I was discussing (0.3) and therefore I think that (0.3) parents should have (0.3) some sort of control over that. (0.5) um (0.6) but after a while I think that (0.6) they should they should like you know (0.3)
they should after a while have no (.) parental kind of contact whatsoever they should actually for like say Year 7 and 9 I think the children should be more (0.6) independent in their study they should actually say (0.5) ‘well I am failing in this and I need to improve in this’ they should kind of (0.9) control how much they know (0.4) and improve on that so they should they kind of manage their own learning I think I think from that age onwards (0.6) [what do you]?

03 D [um yeah ] children I don’t think children can study by themselves because they don’t know the repercussions of not studying (0.6) like I know I certainly didn’t ever study much

J (laughs)

D but I’m still here I’m still in the university like (0.4) um (1.0) like you do learn from your mistakes (0.3) but it can take you a long time to learn from them. So (0.8) um I don’t think (0.8) like me not studying was a mistake I think it is like a delay (.) making me moving forward (0.8) but um (0.3) it certainly opens different directions for you (1.2) that (0.5) I don’t think (.). parents’ influence on children’s studying is like (0.7) um it all depends on (0.4) the person (0.3) like my parent my (0.3) mum pushed me a lot but like my daddy didn’t (0.7) and (0.6) then if you look at like you know (0.5) um (.) like generalization that people are vested with parents (0.6) you know don’t really care (0.4) er=

04 J =that’s a generalization not parent-vested

05 D yeah I know that’s what I said

06 J uh ok yeah (0.4)

07 D like (0.4) pa- parents ok let me rephrase parents don’t really care about their children like you know they don’t want them to go to university they don’t want them to go to college (0.6) they kind of (0.4) um they don’t push their children (0.7) to learn at all they just like you know (.) off you go and play get out of my hand kind of thing

08 J yeah (laughs)

09 D I don’t want to deal with you and then (0.4) you know their children kind of get into crimes you know all sorts of stuff like that=

10 J =well they think teaching is enough school is e[nough],

D [yeah ]

11 J they don’t think they don’t need to sch- homework (continues)

The spate of talk in Excerpt 20 presents an interaction operating within a parallel model. Both speakers share the same view over the issue that children should not plan their study by themselves, but they differ in the way they think the children can get help. Specifically, Jessica proposes that children should seek assistance from their parents because they know their children intimately, while David argues that children definitely need help in their study, but that the helper may not necessarily be their parents because some parents just do not care about their children’s education and others are so busy with their work that they do not have much time to oversee their children’s study. As their stand on the issue differs, basically they have to rely on themselves for topic development. In terms of topic
development, each speaker nominates one topic (in Turn 2 and 3) and builds and/or expands the topic on his/her own without getting much support from the partner. For instance, instead of extending the topic initiated by Jessica in the previous turn, David starts to nominate his own topic in Turn 3. Similarly, Jessica in Turns 4 and 10 expresses her disagreement with her partner’s points, but she does not expand them. Apart from the bilateral topic development with the self-focused interactional behaviour, the talk features long turns, which indicate there is a low level of competition for the floor as each speaker allows the partner sufficient “talking space” to express ideas. Thus, the talk shares the major traits of an LCD parallel pattern.

To sum up, in terms of patterns of interaction, the overwhelming majority of Australian speakers adopt a collaborative model and only one pair use the parallel pattern. Out of the 29 collaborative talks, only four of them are of an LCD substyle and the only parallel paradigm falls into an LCD parallel subcategory. Therefore, it can be said that the Australian dyads generally assume an equal role in the conversation and they typically collaborate closely with each other in the task fulfilment, which in turn results in a highly interactive and dynamic talk.

6.2.3 Turn-taking behaviour

The turn-taking strategy exhibited by the Australian speakers was examined in terms of three key aspects: turn-alternation style, speaker rights, and backchannel responses.

6.2.3.1 Turn-taking style

The investigation of the pair talk by the Australian dyads in terms of turn-taking style indicates that, except for a few LCD collaborative dyads, the great majority of the Australian speakers tend to generate fairly short turns. The turn-taking characteristics of the Australian conversations regarding the length of turns are set out in Table 14.

Table 14. Frequency distribution of cases of the continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words by the Australian dyads.

| Dyads/Transcripts | A1 | A2 | A3 | A4 | A5 | A6 | A7 | A8 | A9 | A10 | A11 | A12 | A13 | A14 | A15 | Subtotal |
|-------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|--------|
| No. of turns      | 7  | 0  | 1  | 0  | 3  | 6  | 0  | 4  | 3  | 3   | 2   | 1   | 1   | 1   | 27     |

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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of turns</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>76</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The number of turns indicates the cases of continuous (full) turns that exceed 50 words in length in each talk.
As shown in Table 14, except for the four LCD collaborative (A Talks 7, 19, 24, 28 and 29) and the single parallel talks (A Talk 30), the majority of the Australian speakers take short turns, as evidenced by the fact that eight dyads (A Talks 1, 3, 4, 6, 8, 17, 26 and 27) do not produce any case of continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words in length and ten pairs generate only one or two cases of such long turns. Moreover, the six conversations (i.e., A Talk 7 and 28, A Talk 19 and 24, A Talk 29 and 30), of which four are recognised as working in an LCD collaborative and the other two are of a parallel subpattern, produce the highest number of cases of extended turns. With a total of 76 cases of continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words, each of the Australian dyad in the group produces an average of 2.5 instances of such long turns. However, excluding these six talks, which contain the highest number of occurrences of continuous (full) turns long than 50 words, the total number of instances of continuous (full) turns in the remaining 24 Australian dyads reaches 44. Counted in this fashion, on average, each Australian discussion entails approximately 1.3 cases of continuous (full) turns which are longer than 50 words. Clearly, the extended turns are much more concentrated in the three dyads\(^8\), which further confirm the assumption that LCD collaborative and parallel patterns tend to produce longer turns as discussed in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.3.1.

With regard to turn-taking strategy, the great majority (about 90%) of the Australian dyads change speaker rapidly and alternate turns quickly, which is contributed to in part by the active listenership of the interactants during the primary speaker’s speakership either in the form of minimal acknowledgement (backchannel cues) or by means of extended responses (a multi-turn statement) (e.g., A Talks 1, 3, 4, 8, 11, 17, 26 and 27). However, a few Australian dyads also take fairly long turns in part of the conversation though they do manage turns locally. In other words, they alternate turns on a moment-by-moment basis as the conversation proceeds. This is especially true of the LCD collaborative and LCD parallel patterns mentioned above.

Another salient feature of the talk by Australian dyads is that they seem to be using simultaneous speech fairly frequently. They appear not to mind if they happen to talk with their partner at the same time, which accounts for the relatively frequent occurrences of simultaneous talk in the conversation (e.g., A Talks 4, 12 and 17).

\(^8\) As is designed in this study, one Australian dyad is required to discuss two topics. As such, the 15 Australian pairs generated 30 conversations in total.
To illustrate these features, the following three excerpts (21, 22 and 23) are shown as examples, representing conversations by the Australian dyads characteristic of, respectively, brief turns, long turns, and simultaneous speech.

**Excerpt 21**

**Task:** A Talk 26 (Type 1)

**Topic:** What are some of the factors you consider when deciding where to purchase a property?

**Speakers:** J=Jack (male); K=Kate (female)

66 J yeah I do agree with that (0.4) um but yeah also like I guess (0.4) traffic condition would also be a factor too
67 K that’s true=
68 J =because I won’t like (0.5) for example everyone body has to get to work at nine once you finish the university that is
69 K [um huh]
70 J [about] 9:00am I would say and 8:30 everybody leaves at around that time frame (0.4) so like there is a lot (.) I guess that is everywhere
71 K that’s everywhere yeah=
72 J =but like (0.9) I don’t know like (0.3)
73 K ok for me I live in Parramatta (0.3) so I’m literally living next to the M4 (0.4)
74 J [ok]
75 K [that’s] that’s kind of something to consider ’cause it’s gonna get really noisy at night=
76 J ={really]
77 K [and I ] wouldn’t be able to sleep well
78 J oh yeah (.) that’s true (2.0) um
79 K I guess that goes into environment=
80 J =yeah, that’s definitely fall into that category. (0.7)
81 K that is basically um (1.4) yea::h as for the size of the property, (0.5) um I won’t care much about that (0.5) unless I have kids.
82 J yeah yeah yeah
83 K like I live with my husband right [now]
84 J [yeah] I guess that won’t be that=
85 K =that’s won’t [be a big issue].
86 J [be a big deal ] yeah.
87 K even even the studio apartment it is [fine for us].
88 J [yeah that ] would be pretty good yeah yeah that’s true (0.6)
89 K because=
90 J =sometimes I guess like the studio apartment is actually comparatively cheap=
91 K =>yeah, yeah, yeah< and it is easier to afford. The affor[dabilit]y factor is easier.
92 J [yea::h]
Excerpt 21 is a segment of a talk featuring short turns and rapid speaker change, revealing that the dyad applied a very active turn-taking strategy in the interaction. In the exchange, two topics are nominated, which are expanded substantially by the two speakers, stretching over 12 turns in both cases. In the first half of the extract, Kate extends the topic “traffic conditions” nominated by Jack in six turns (67, 69, 71, 73, 75 and 77). Similarly, Jack spends six speaking turns (80, 82, 84, 86, 88 and 90) to extend the topic “size of the property” nominated by Kate. Apart from brief turns and swift listener-speaker role reversal, another salient feature of the exchange is the frequent occurrences of conversational devices, which demonstrates the major characteristics of an HCD collaborative pattern with a “high involvement” speech style (Tannen, 1984/2005).

Excerpt 22

Task: A Talk 7 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the reasons for adolescents’ addictions to the internet?
Speakers: J=James (male); E=Elizabeth (female)

01 J   ok well (0.3) I believe that um adolescents (0.5) spend a lot of time on the internet and that they er (0.4) enjoy (0.4) the social networking aspects to it (.) such as (0.4) new programs like face book and my space (. ) and the chat online chat programs (0.4) so they can keep very up to date with all their friends because I think (0.5) in a modern culture (0.3) they (0.5) find that it’s really important to stay up to date you know almost to the second with everything is going on so that they don’t feel like they’re missing out (1.0) what do you [think?]

02 E   [yeah ] I definitely agree with that because I think when you your status on the internet also fall into your (0.3) real life so if you have a person or this many friends on the internet or this many (0.4) ideas or things that you do on the internet (0.5) that can gain recognition (.) in the rest of your life. (1.2)

03 J   um I think (0.6) what they say here is desire for the early experience of adult life is is relatively true the internet humongous (0.3) wealth of information and (0.5) to have access to unfiltered (0.6) information you know when schools (0.3) that they’re probably in high school most adolescents (0.3) they’re subject to all of this sort of (0.5) en broad education information and it’s all very filtered (0.4) and when they go into the internet they can read anything they like and they could (0.7) experience yeah anyone’s opinions not just (0.4) the things they are forced to learn. (1.0)

04 E   yeah it’s definitely a big temptation when like (0.5) I see you’ve got pornographic ones as well but also bomb making or even suicide or maybe eating disorder or things like that, they can all stem from the internet. We can get access to do whatever we want (0.4). You know we have (0.5) the choice of what way we want to lead our lives through that information being so readily
available.
(0.3)
05 J um (.) and I think it’s very it’s part of being adolescents that rebellion of finding (0.3) really you know sort of pornographic or (0.3) inappropriate materials so that you can (0.3) and that’s ties in wanting to be an adult because you can (.) find out some of these things maybe you won’t be quite ready to find out yet.
(0.3)
06 E yeah and you are not judged because nobody is looking at [you] J
07 E =so it’s just
(0.9)
08 J anonymous as well=

In Excerpt 22, the two speakers take fairly long turns compared with Excerpt 20. In this segment, the dyads also nominate two topics for discussion, yet the segment still lasts only eight full turns, which is one third of the speaking turns in Excerpt 21. As shown in the excerpt, the two speakers extend each other’s topics, but they do it mainly by means of extended statements (in Turns 2, 4, and 5) rather than minimal responses (i.e., backchannel cues), which leads to long turns. Although the dyad takes fairly long turns in this part of the talk, they reverse the listener-speaker roles fairly rapidly in the remaining part of the discussion, thus the talk exhibits a collaborative model overall. However, when the presence of conversational dominance is considered, the talk falls into an LCD collaborative subcategory with relatively limited use of conversational devices.

**Excerpt 23**

**Task:** A Talk 12 (Type 2)

**Topic:** Are you for or against the statement that “Pupils in primary school should have their own mobile phones”?

**Speakers:** S=Simon (male); L=Linda (female)

02 S right I I believe that pupils in primary schools should (.) actually have their own phones um (.) one of one of the reasons for this would be (0.6) they could relax (.)
03 L they can relax {{laughs}}=
04 S =Yeah that school is a stressful place (.) and [you have]
05 L [schoo:1 ]
06 S got all these things to worry about I got this assignment due I got to do this work then do my home work for this teacher should be [really mad to me]
08 E [primary school? ]
08 S yeah [then I am not talking about]
Excerpt 23 shows a segment of a conversation where the Australian speakers perform several cases of simultaneous talk (in Turns 4, 5, 7, 8, 10 and 12). As the two speakers hold different opinions on the controversial statement of whether “primary school students should own their own mobile phones”, they argue with each other. While both speakers stick to their own stance, they maintain their speaking turns even if they are talking at the same time. Although they continue to talk rather than withdraw from the turn, which results in simultaneous speech, they keep a fairly swift change of speakers, revealing the features of a collaborative pattern.

6.2.3.2 Speaker rights

In terms of speaker rights, the Australian speakers change topic mainly by self-selection and make use of discourse control strategies (questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches) to take the speaking floor. To nominate the topic, the speakers need to claim the floor first. As discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.2.3.2, generally there are two ways of floor-taking: (1) either start to talk at the end of a turn by predicting the TRP of the utterance of the prior speaker accurately or (2) “break in” during the primary speaker’s speakership by means of interruptions or simultaneous talk. The CA analysis of the data reveals that, of the four conversational devices, overlaps and latches are performed very frequently (particularly in an HCD collaborative talk), interruptions are employed fairly frequently, and questions are used in a more reluctant manner by Australian dyads. As such, the conversations by the Australian speakers reveal the major features of a “high involvement” speech style (Tannen, 1984/2005).

To illustrate these features relating speaker rights in the conversation by Australian dyads, one excerpt (24) will be provided to exemplify the traits in the following section.

Excerpt 24

Task: A Talk 22 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the consequences for adolescents’ addiction to computer games?
Speakers: B=Benjamin (male); L=Lauren (female)

26 B what else do you reckon?
27 L =I am not sure what cost so
(0.4)
28 B I think they can cost
29 L because you play games how much do you [think cost]
30 B [yeah they ] they can cost money but
(0.3) if you just stay like one game or something I guess that is fine I don’t think that is a big (0.4) problem (0.4) but if you like buy new games, that would be different=
31 L =yeah with addiction to it if you do you think it could be quite (0.8)
Detrimental economically or
(0.5)
32 B um (0.3) maybe with some games like (0.3) "Wild" stuff like with ongoing fees I don’t think so unless it completely impacts on your (. ) work and life (0.4) so you have no income at all you spend it all (. ) on [the ] game
L [yeah]
B with that, it does affect definitely affect your diet and sleep pattern (0.4) with=
33 L =yeah I [mean you stay at home playing games ]
34 B [you are not sleeping not eating stuff] because you can not get away
from the computer
35 L and that again affects (. ) everything from study and work and to communicating
(0.8)
36 B mm
37 L yeah just (0.3) physical or mental health (1.2) so it could affect quite a lot
(0.7)
38 B which can also influence your (. ) communication with friends and parents
39 L yeah
(0.5)
40 B with the point with violent games normally influences violence with kids that
could cause series crimes I’m not too convinced that this is a big problem
41 B [yeah]
42 L [I am] not saying kids play star wars would actually go out and try to hurt
people and=
43 B =yeah that's true I don't think it will affect them that much though it can
you know if it is
(continues)

The segment given in Excerpt 24 demonstrates a talk rich in conversational control strategies, in particular, interruptions. In this segment of 18 turns, five cases of interruptions (in Turns 28, 30, 32, 33 and 43) are performed, along with four instances of latches (in Turns 27, 31, 33 and 43), three occurrences of overlaps (in Turns 32, 34 and 42), and one question (in Turn 26). Apart from the simultaneous speech, which is a clear indicator of the co-construction of the conversation by the participants, all the cases of interruptions are of a
cooperative type. That is, they are used to show agreement and alignment with the partner on the issue being discussed rather than dominating the conversation. As such, the conversation shares the major features of an HCD collaborative pattern.

6.2.3.3 Listener responses

Backchannels, along with the conversational devices discussed above, are a basic component of successful spoken interaction. Except for a few dyads, which are recognised as working in LCD collaborative or LCD parallel patterns, the Australian speakers generally exhibit a relatively high rate of listener responses. Expectedly, it is found that the discussions characteristic of a high rate of conversational devices, including (cooperative) interruptions, generally have short turns and frequent employment of backchannel responses, including both minimal responses and extended statements, signalling active listener participation. As shown in the previous sections of this chapter, the great majority of the Australian dyads orient to an HCD collaborative pattern in the interaction, revealing a general high degree of collaboration and mutual involvement, thus their conversations display a relatively high rate of backchannel responses.

To illustrate the aforementioned characteristics, the following excerpt (25) is used to exemplify the conversation with high occurrences of backchannel responses.

Except 25

Task: A Talk 17 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the qualities of a good employee?
Speakers: P=Paul (male); S=Sarah (female)

24 P that brings in 'honesty' then though [um ] as (0.5) as a good quality
S [yeah]
25 P for (.) an employee= 
S Yeah (. ) honesty it definitely important for an employee
26 P 'cause if you have a liar and this comes along don't they?=
27 S Yeah yeah ((laughs)) [there is ] such people.
28 P [you start] you start getting problem (.) with
  you know (0.3) well (.) they say this happened is that really true?=
29 S Yeah
  (0.7)
30 P But um yeah=
31 S =No one likes this kind of person and also (.) the 'committed' was definitely
  one for me because I mean a good employee can (.) casual, part time or full
  time. I'm leaning towards more like (0.3) full time or career aspect, so
  [that] sort of clarify my mind (0.5) but I guess if you are committed
S =you are more likely to gonna respect what you're doing and you're gonna (0.4)
want to um improve yourself [as ] well

P

[yeah]

S as the company so (0.3) =

32 P =yeah if oh if you take pride in sort of [what] you are doing then too I think

S [yeah]

P you can em apply ‘committed’ into (0.4) part time (0.4)[and] casual work too

S [yeah]

P though (. )[so ] you are not

S [yeah]

P going to be pulling out in the last minute saying I’m sorry guys

33 S yeah that’s annoying

34 P I can’t work that shift and=

S =yeah

P so

(0.4)

35 S that’s true.

(continues)

The exchange in Excerpt 25 presents a talk which demonstrates a high rate of backchannel responses, i.e., minimal response (“yeah”). In the 12-turn segment, each speaker nominates a topic (in Turns 24 and 31 respectively), which is then expanded jointly by the two speakers. In the discussion, the speakers make use of both backchannel cues (in Turns 24, 29, 31, 32 and 34) and the full statements (in Turns 25, 27, 32 and 34) to show support and agreement for the partner’s ideas. As such, the topic development moves are intermingled with the backchannel cues, which produce a talk with high interactivity.

In this section, the features of the Australian pair discussions have been examined in terms of their turn-taking practices. Except for the four LCD collaborative and one LCD parallel talks, the great majority of the Australian speakers take short turns, employ a very active turn-taking strategy, and use simultaneous speech frequently. With regard to speaker rights, the Australian speakers take the floor invariably by means of discourse control measures (i.e., questions, interruptions, overlaps and latches) and nominate a topic primarily through self-selection. Of the four discourse strategies, questions are employed quite infrequently, but interruptions are performed fairly frequently, and simultaneous speech is employed very frequently. In addition, the Australian discussions also reveal a high rate of listener responses, in particular, backchannel cues.

6.3 Summary

This chapter has presented the major findings of a CA analysis of the pair talk by the Australian dyads from three key dimensions: generic structure, interactional patterns, and turn-taking behaviour. The generic structure has been examined from two aspects: sequential
organisation and rhetorical pattern. The analysis indicates that the Australian dyads generally proceed through three distinct phases (i.e., opening sequence, body sequence, and closing sequence) in the task accomplishment at a macro scale; they employ the same basic moves in topic development; and they adopt a direct style in the presentation of ideas in the interaction. With regard to patterns of interaction, the Australian dyads generally assume equal roles and in turn exhibit a fairly stable pattern of interaction across the group. Turn-taking practices are investigated from three perspectives: turn-taking styles, speaker rights, and backchannel responses. As for the turn-taking mechanism, most Australian speakers tend to take short turns, apply a very active turn alternation strategy, and perform simultaneous talk quite frequently in the interaction. Regarding speaker rights, the Australian speakers nominate a topic mainly through self-selection and they seize the speaking floor by employing discourse control measures (i.e., questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches), but these devices are performed at varying frequency. Of the four strategies, questions are employed quite infrequently, interruptions are performed fairly frequently, and simultaneous talk is used very frequently. In addition, the Australian conversations also display a notably high incidence of listener responses. In their interactional practices, overall, the Australian speakers generate talk characterised by shorter turns, swift reversal of listener-speaker roles, frequent employment of conversational devices, and extensive use of backchannel responses.
7 Comparison of the Pair Talk by the Chinese and Australian Dyads

7.1 Introduction

The last two research questions of this study are concerned with investigating the differences between the Chinese and Australian dyads in the interactional behaviour in the paired task and giving an account of some of the most important contributing factors to these variations:

RQ3: In what specific ways does Chinese EFL learners’ spoken English differ from that of Australian speakers in the paired discussion?

RQ4: What factors contribute to the variations in performance between Chinese learners of English and their Australian counterparts in the dyadic interaction?

To answer these questions, the dyadic interaction of the two groups of speakers is compared and the reasons for the variations in the conversational characteristics are discussed.

7.2 Comparison of the pair talk

This section aims to address the third research question of this study “In what specific ways does Chinese EFL learners’ spoken English differ from that of Australian speakers in the paired discussion?” Thus, the findings from the CA analysis of the Chinese and Australian speakers’ interactional behaviour will be compared in terms of three key dimensions: generic structure, interactional pattern, and turn-taking behaviour.

7.2.1 Generic structure

The generic structure oriented to by the speakers in their pair talks was examined from two aspects: sequential organisation and rhetorical style.

7.2.1.1 Sequential organisation

The comparative analysis of the pair talk indicates that both Chinese and Australian speakers generally shared a similar linear pattern in the task completion, i.e., opening sequence, body sequence, and closing sequence, though not every dyad observed the three-stage formula in terms of the way the talk opened and closed. In addition, in the body sequence, the speakers from both groups progressed through three steps, i.e., topic initiation, topic development, and topic termination, and they also employed the same basic moves for topic development despite the fact that the dyads involved in the two different tasks (i.e.,
expository and argumentative genre) followed slightly different ‘routes’ regarding the procedures of topic initiation.

In the first stage, i.e., the opening sequence, although both Chinese and Australian dyads opened the talk in one of three ways, the two groups varied in their realisation of the purposes as demonstrated in Table 15.

Table 15. Comparison of talk opening by the Chinese and Australian dyads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Dyads/Transcripts</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Background information</td>
<td>Chinese dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 20, 21, 22</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australian dyads</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task management</td>
<td>Chinese dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 9, 15, 18, 23</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australian dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 2, 5, 8, 12, 15, 16, 19, 21, 24, 26, 28, 30</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct opening</td>
<td>Chinese dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 10, 11, 14, 16, 17, 19, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australian dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 17, 18, 20, 22, 23, 25, 27, 29</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 15, 18 dyads (60%) from each of the two groups initiated the topic straightaway. However, four Chinese pairs negotiated who should speak first by means of task management moves prior to their topic initiation, which is only approximately one third of the Australian dyads (N=12) who began the conversation in the same fashion. Additionally, unlike the Australian counterparts, slightly over one quarter of the Chinese pairs prefaced the talk either by extending greetings or providing background information.

In the second stage of the talk (i.e., the body sequence), the speakers from both groups normally followed three steps, involving topic initiation, topic development, and topic termination, though the dyads working with the two different types of tasks worked in a slightly different fashion in that the speakers assigned to task Type 1 (i.e., the expository genre) simply nominated the topics from the prompts in the rubric and then proceeded to expand these topics, whereas the dyads involved in task Type 2 (i.e., the argumentative genre) generally presented their points of view (either for or against) concerning the statement prior to topic initiation. Moreover, the speakers from both groups employed the same basic moves to develop the topics nominated, i.e., sustaining self-initiated topics by means of building or appending, and responding to the partner’s turn through minimal acknowledgement, topic recycling or topic extension.

As for the third stage, apart from being interrupted by the researcher when the time allotment had been achieved, both Chinese and Australian dyads also chose to terminate the conversation on their own. However, they did so in different ways, as reflected in Table 16.
Table 16. Comparison of talk termination by the Chinese and Australian dyads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Dyads/Transcripts</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Called off by researcher</td>
<td>Chinese dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 19, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australian dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 22, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brief summary</td>
<td>Chinese dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 20, 24</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australian dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 1, 10, 21, 23</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimal responses</td>
<td>Chinese dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 3, 6, 18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australian dyads</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Token ‘good’</td>
<td>Chinese dyads</td>
<td>Talks: 13, 20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australian dyads</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 16, approximately 70% of the discussions from each of the two groups were called to an end by the researcher and the remaining conversations were closed by the speakers themselves. However, of those dyads who chose to wind up the conversation themselves, eight Chinese speakers terminated the talk by briefly summarizing what had been discussed through using a pre-closing sequence with either a token of “so” or “that’s (all)” (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.1). By contrast, the Australians speakers ended the talk in more diverse ways. Four of them provided a brief summary of the discussion; three of them sent two successive minimal responses (i.e., “yeah”); and the remaining two pairs uttered the token “good”, signalling the completion of the talk (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.1.1).

7.2.1.2 Rhetorical style

In terms of rhetorical structure, the examination of the pair talk reveals that, while all the Australian dyads adopted a direct rhetorical style in the discourse organisation of their interaction, the Chinese pairs exhibited a hybrid of direct and indirect styles in their information structuring. As shown in Table 15, all the Australian pairs presented their ideas in a direct/deductive fashion, of which, 12 of them (40%) negotiated who should speak first by means of task management moves and the remaining 18 dyads (60%) nominated the topic straightaway without any type of lead-in. As for the Chinese group, 22 out of the 30 dyads (73.3%) presented their ideas in a direct/deductive mode, of whom, 18 of the dyads (60%) initiated the topic straightaway and four pairs (13.3%) employed task management moves prior to topic initiation. However, unlike the Australian counterparts, the remaining eight Chinese dyads (26.67%) structured the information in the talk in an indirect/inductive pattern. In other words, they prefaced the topic initiation through either extending greetings to each other and/or providing background information.

To sum up, the comparative analysis of the dyadic conversation by the Chinese and the Australian dyads shows that there exist both similarities and differences between the two groups in terms of the generic structure. The two groups resemble each other in that they
follow the same procedures in the task accomplishment and they employ the same basic moves for topic development. However, the two groups differ both in the way they open and close the talk and the rhetorical style they adopt in organizing the discourse in the conversation.

### 7.2.2 Interactional patterns

The analysis of the paired discussions by the Chinese and Australian speakers reveals that the two groups approached the task differently in terms of topicality production. The Chinese dyads tended to assume varying roles in the conversation and that in turn produced diversified patterns of interaction. By contrast, the Australian dyads generally oriented to the equal roles in the conversation, which helped to generate more stable patterns across the pairs. The distributions of pattern types adopted by the two groups are represented in Table 17.

Table 17. Frequency distribution of interactional patterns by the Chinese and Australian dyads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Collaborative</th>
<th>Parallel</th>
<th>D/P</th>
<th>I/I</th>
<th>C/C</th>
<th>E/N</th>
<th>R/T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>LCD²</td>
<td>HCD</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>LCD</td>
<td>HCD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese dyads</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>%</td>
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Table 17 illustrates the patterns of interaction co-constructed by the Chinese and Australian dyads in the conversation. As shown in the table, 23 out of the 30 Chinese dyads (76.7%) oriented to a collaborative pattern, 19 of which were of an LCD collaborative subpattern⁴ while four fell into an HCD collaborative subcategory. Of the remaining seven non-collaborative Chinese dyads, two of them adopted an LCD parallel substyle and the other

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¹ In this table, “D/P”, “I/I”, “C/C”, “E/N”, and “BP” stand for, respectively, dominant/passive pattern, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, expert/novice, and blended pattern.

² In this study, “LCD” and “HCD” in turn stand for the two subpatterns of collaborative and parallel (major) patterns with either low or high presence of conversational dominance. Namely, an “LCD collaborative/parallel” subpattern refers to a collaborative/parallel (major) pattern with low conversational dominance and an “HCD” collaborative/parallel” subpattern refers to a collaborative/parallel (major) pattern with high conversational dominance.

³ The percentage for the major patterns (e.g., collaborative and parallel) as indicated in the ‘Total column’ in Table 17 refers to the proportion that these patterns account for in the pattern distribution across 30 conversations by both Chinese and Australian dyads. However, the percentage for their respective subpatterns (i.e., the LCD/HCD collaborative/parallel subpatterns) as indicated in the ‘LCD/HCD column’ indicates the proportion that these two subpatterns account for within each of the two major pattern types only.

⁴ In this study, the terms subpattern and substyle are used interchangeably to indicate the subgroups of the two major pattern types (i.e., collaborative and parallel patterns) identified in the data.
five pairs assumed an asymmetrical pattern, including one dominant/passive, one interviewer/interviewee, one consultant/client, one expert/novice, and one blended pattern. As for the Australian speakers, except for one pair who used a parallel model, the remaining 29 dyads all adopted a collaborative pattern, accounting for 96.7% of the total. Out of these 29, 25 were of an HCD collaborative substyle and only four fell into the LCD collaborative subcategory. Thus, on the whole, the Chinese speakers constructed more divergent patterns of interaction than their Australian counterparts though the collaborative dyads constituted the largest group compared with the non-collaborative dyads in both groups.

To illustrate the similarities and differences between the Chinese and Australian speakers regarding the interaction patterns they oriented to in the conversation, nine talks from each group were identified for a detailed comparative analysis. As discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.1, a total of eight different pattern types were identified from the data, therefore, eight talks by the Chinese dyads considered to be typical instances of each of these nine pattern types were firstly selected. They were then matched by the Australian dyads that performed the same task and topic. The following sections will present the comparative analysis of the nine pairs of talks by the speakers from the two groups.

7.2.2.1 Comparative study 1 (collaborative pattern)

The first two Chinese conversations chosen for the comparative study were recognised as orienting to a collaborative pattern, one being an LCD collaborative subpattern and the other being an HCD collaborative subpattern. However, the matched discussions by the Australian dyads, where the same task and topic was assigned as their Chinese counterparts, both display an HCD collaborative model. To identify the similarities and differences between the two groups in the patterns of interaction they adopt in the discussions, four excerpts (26, 27, 28 and 29) exemplifying the two subpattern types will be compared in two groups (A and B) in the following section. As a reminder, the defining features of the collaborative pattern and their subpatterns will be briefly introduced first.

Collaborative pattern

As illustrated in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2.1.1, the most salient feature of this model is that both speakers cooperate closely in the task completion, displaying high equality and mutuality. Based on the degree of conversational dominance displayed in the talk, a collaborative pattern is subdivided into the LCD and HCD collaborative substyles. Of the conversations identified to be working in these two subpatterns, an LCD collaborative talk is marked with long turns, a slow shift of listener-speaker roles, low performance of
conversational dominance measures (i.e., interruptions), and a fairly high rate of acknowledgment tokens, whereas an HCD collaborative talk is characteristic of short turns, rapid speaker change, and frequent employment of conversational devices, along with high incidences of listener responses.

7.2.2.1.1 Group A: LCD collaborative subpattern

This section will compare the first pair of talks (one by the Chinese dyad and the other by the Australian dyad). In terms of the pattern orientation, the Chinese dyad adopted an LCD collaborative pattern, whereas the Australian dyad assumed an HCD collaborative pattern. Two excerpts⁵ (26 and 27) are used to illustrate the similarities and differences between the two discussions.

Excerpt 26

Task: C Talk 4 (Type 2)
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Adolescents should have free access to the Internet”? 
Speakers: Y=Ye Jun (male); Z=Zhang Li (female)

01 Y for um when it comes to (.) (uh-) to the internet I- I think the uh (0.2) uh (0.2) just like a coin has two sides (and) there are pros and cons for (.). uh for uh for adolescents’ access to the internet=
02 Z =yeah
03 Y um (0.2) uh (0.9) I (..) I do- I DO (0.3) think that (0.2) uh em (0.2) u- uh- (0.8) er adolescents (they) can benefit a lot from the (0.2) internet but (0.2) um the problems (0.2) um (0.4) to what extent, (..) do we have uh (0.3) er do- do they have f- free access to (..) the internet. (0.6)
04 Z yeah so- so basically you are against (0.5) er that the er adolescents should have free access to the internet, you hold the- (e-) opposite opinion? (0.8)
05 Y um (0.8) well (0.2) er (0.6) er not really, but I think we should be dialectic in this um (0.4) er to (0.4) we should be dialectic to look at this um (0.3) issue, (0.5) right?= 
06 Z =yeah (0.5) uh well ac- actually I think that we we already know that there is no absolute freedom (0.2) [where]ever and
Y [yeah]
Z [where]ever, (0.3) so (0.3) er (0.2) I think we have- we should have bounds and
Y [mm ]
Z limitations,(0.8) yeah so (0.5) so you share the same (0.2) opinion with me (in) [on this]? [yeah]
07 Y [yeah ] [ex- ] yeah ex- e- uh exactly (.). er (1.2) but I think (0.3) um

⁵ The full transcripts from the exemplary excerpts in this chapter have been extracted are available in Appendix H.
you know um whe- when we say (0.2) they should not have free access to
(0.3) um to the internet, um the problem is (0.3)er (0.5)how should we take
measures to (0.3) um to o- (0.5)to um (0.5) withstand the- (0.5)the negative
aspect of the internet.
(0.6)
08 Z yes so I think this is on the uh (0.4) this is the parents’ duty or (. ) school
teachers’ duty to (. ) you know (0.7) er supervise them?
(0.5)
09 Y but uh- I think (0.2) uh not only for parents uh- [uh I think] uh (0.3) the-
Z [mm mm ]
Y the soc- the society should take the responsibility maybe the government er (. )
they have to (0.3) um come up with the new measures, new regulations- to (0.3)
um to to to um (0.7) new measures to to- (0.5) sh- sh- to um (0.3) to su- to
supervise the internet.
(continues)

Excerpt 26 illustrates a talk displaying an LCD collaborative pattern of interaction. In
the extract, the two speakers construct the conversation cooperatively. They not only actively
develop their own topics, but also devote their speaking turns to assist in the topic expansion
of the partner. Specifically, Ye Jun presents his stance on the statement whether “adolescents
should have free access to the internet”, indicating that “there are pros and cons for
adolescents’ access to the internet.” (in Turn 1) and then he nominates the first topic “we
should be dialectic to look at this” (in Turn 5), which is echoed by Zhang Li in the subsequent
turn (6) and extended further by both speakers in the next few turns (Turns 7, 8, and 9). Apart
from the joint topic development by the two speakers, the collaborative nature of the talk is
also reflected by the substantial meaning negotiation taking place between the two speakers.
For example, Zhang Li requests the clarification of Ye Jun’s opinion on the statement (in
Turn 4) and he responds by elaborating on the idea (in Turn 5). As the two speakers assume
an equal partnership in the conversation and engage mutually to each other’s contributions,
the interaction format of the talk is collaborative, revealing a high equality and mutuality.
However, except for two questions raised to request either for clarification or confirmation (in
Turns 4 and 5), the talk features longer turns, slower speaker change, high occurrences of
intra-turn fillers, and absence of interruptions. Thus, the pattern exhibits a low presence of
conversational dominance.

Excerpt 27
Task: A Talk 4 (Type 2)
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Adolescents should have free access to the
internet”?
Speakers: S=Sarah (female); P=Paul (male)
it’s it’s- (0.2) double-sided really cause in a way you sort of think it’s- it’s a great way to be able to communicate with people that you can’t see but=

at the same time if you can see them it’s sort of like it’s (0.3) not detrimental, but you think oh you know, theoretically (0.7) maybe they shouldn’t just be able to always do that maybe they should (. ) not forced but have the [option]

I don’t know I- I was sort of torn between (0.3) I couldn’t definitely say they should or they should not? (it) was sort of like I can understand (0.6) um for educational purposes,( . ) that the internet (0.3)

it depends what [con]text you put [into,] (0.2) for a

ch- like from a child per[sa- uh protection view then,]

I’d be leaning toward a disagree, [er] (. ) disagreement with the statement

because you got (0.2) predators on the internet [and] (0.8)

there’s) getting so good now that (0.3) they can (. )
im[itate (. ) (a) f- yeah ]

[they fool the police yeah]

15 year old boys and u- like=

ty[ey ap]

[to girls and stuff, (0.5)

yeah=

and organize meetings stuff and you-=

=like I completely understand that and I agree I think that (. ) especially with the younger ones (0.4) the older ones it’d still be a bit of an issue but[at least] they’ve

matured a little bit more so they can [recognize recognize[zing] when (0.2)

[well you start [yeah]

th- like certain questions asked like oh so where do you live? or (0.2)
[you know what’s] your favorite clothing?

and they ask all [that stuff to] suss you out.(0.5)

[yeah yeah ]

but (0.5) um and also in the context of um (0.2) sort of health and obesity, (1.1)

yeah=

i- (0.4) the internet you’ve (0.2) ks- got kids sitting on my space all day, [or like a]ll night, (0.2) or on MSN

for hours on end. (. ) and you go well (0.3) you’re not going out[s]ide and(. ) in the backyard playing cric[ket yeah ]

[get] them [running or] (0.8)

[so. ]

[yeah] (1.6) I don’t think you’d be able to um (0.5) give anyone free access to all the sites though especially if [they’re ](0.3)
Excerpt 27 is a representative example of an HCD collaborative pattern. In this exchange, Sarah presents her view on the statement, indicating that she “could not definitely say yes or no”. In other words, she takes a ‘sit-on-the-fence’ attitude toward the controversial issue whether adolescents should have free access to the internet or not. This stand is echoed by Paul, who expresses his agreement with her ‘dialectic’ proposition by putting forward two points: he opposes the statement from a child’s protection view, but he supports the statement from a child’s development/education perspective (which is presented in the remaining part of the talk). For the sake of protecting children, he proposes that adolescents should not have free access to the internet for two reasons: (1) there are predators on the internet, which may pose a threat to children’s safety; and (2) the addiction to the internet causes health problems such as obesity. Holding the same view on the statement, the two speakers easily find common ground. They are mutually involved in topic development either as a primary speaker or nominal listener. Moreover, the high occurrences of conversational devices, including 15 cases of overlaps (in Turns 26, 27, 29, 32, 33, 36, 37 and 39), five instances of latches (in Turns 26, 29, 31, 32 and 36), and two occurrences of cooperative interruptions (in Turns 28 and 33), indicate that they are enthusiastic speakers, and the frequent performance of backchannel cues (N=15) signals that they are also active listeners. With active participation and mutual involvement, the talk features short turns and swift speaker switching, revealing high competition for the speaking floor.

To sum up, for this task and topic, both Chinese and Australian dyads orient to a collaborative pattern, however, they differ in terms of conversational dominance displayed by the speakers in the conversation. The Chinese dyad assumes an LCD while the Australian adopts an HCD subpattern. As a result, the conversation by the Australian dyad exhibits a higher level of interactivity as there is more competition for the floor-taking than in the case of the Chinese pair.

7.2.2.1.2 Group B: HCD collaborative subpattern

In this study, backchannel overlaps are also counted as cases of overlaps. Following Tao and Thompson (1991), ‘backchannel overlap’ refers to the occurrence of backchannel responses within another speaker’s turn. In other words, backchannel overlaps are backchannel cues which are uttered by the nominal listener and are overlapping the primary speaker’s utterances in the previous turn.
This section will compare the second pair of talks (one by the Chinese dyad and the other by the Australian dyad). Interestingly, both of the dyads are recognised as orienting to a collaborative pattern with a high presence of conversational dominance. Two excerpts (28 and 29) are used to illustrate the similarities between the two talks.

Excerpt 28

Task: C Talk 16 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the reasons for university students to surf the internet?
Speakers: W=Wang Wei (female); L=Liu Peng (male)

07 W yeah yes it’s free (0.4) and looking for information needed (0.5)is I think it’s the most (1.0) I I do because I often (0.3) always prepare for some information for some tasks (0.4) or=
08 L =presentation?
(0.3)
09 W yeah (.I)I can search for the information about (..) people who [had] already do it (0.4)
10 L [yeah] yeah (.3)
11 W mm
(0.6)
12 L so don't you think obtain the latest news worldwide is not that important? (0.4)
13 W um I think you can obtain the latest news (0.7) er by watching TV or (0.3) watching TV watching newspapers [and ]
14 L [read] newspapers ((laughs)) right?
15 W right so I thi::nk we can get the news from different means (1.0)
16 L but you know (0.3) we don’t use the TV (..) really (..) very often (0.4)
[now ]
W [mm hm]
L we don’t read newspapers
(0.7)
17 W mm hm but I think you search the internet not for the special purpose of getting the latest news but for= L =yeah
W [other] things
18 L [oh ] you mean you mean that the latest (0.4) news worldwide we just do it we read it know it by by incidentally?= W =Yes (0.3) not for purpose
19 L yeah yeah yeah
20 W mm [hm]
21 W [mm] (0.4) like you are logging in the QQ you can (0.6) it will (0.5) give you the latest news
22 W yeah almost for daily news
23 L yeah yeah yeah
(continues)
Excerpt 28 illustrates a typical HCD collaborative talk. As shown in the extract, the exchange is especially rich in terms of collaborative features such as topic development moves extending both self and other-initiated topics (in Turns 9, 19, 22, and 23), completing a “collaborative finish”\(^7\) (Clancy et al., 1996) (in Turn 8), other-initiated repairs (in Turn 14), and clarification request (in Turn 18). In terms of topic extension, which is seen as the most salient characteristic of a collaborative talk, two topics are initiated (in Turns 7 and 12) and expanded. For instance, Liu Peng initiates the second topic “obtaining the latest news” via the internet in Turn 12, which is expanded by the two interactants with substantial meaning negotiation and, as a result, the topic stretches over for 12 full turns (from Turns 13 to 24). Apart from showing support to the other’s ideas in full turns by elaborating on each other’s contribution, the co-constructed nature of the talk is also reflected by the dyad’s performance of backchannel cues which are used to acknowledge their agreement with the partner (e.g., Turns 10, 16, 17, 20 and 24). Additionally, the two speakers also make frequent use of discourse control strategies, including two questions (in Turns 12 and 18), two occurrences of cooperative interruptions (in Turns 8 and 14), four instances of overlaps (in Turns 10, 16, 18 and 22), and three cases of latches (in Turns 8, 17 and 19), which help produce an HCD collaborative talk featuring short turns and rapid speaker change, and in turn a dynamic conversation.

**Excerpt 29**

**Task:** A Talk 16 (Type 1)

**Topic:** What are some of the reasons for university students to surf the internet?

**Speakers:** J=Jason (male); I=Irene (female)

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\(^7\) According to Clancy et al., (1996), when the non-primary speakers finishes a previous speaker’s utterances, it is called a Collaborative Finish (p. 360).
you(0.5) you know you view the relationship in terms of entertaining oneself=
=((laughs))(1.3) but also includes like (1.0) you know (1.1) games and art
[stuff like]
11 I
12 J [Yeah yeah ] yeah (0.3)
13 I ((laughs)) um (0.4) but also (0.5) I would would um be extended (1.3) such
things as (1.5) listening to music (1.0) and getting music of the internet as
well=
14 J =oh I think so (0.6) yeah (1.5) um and downloading music.
15 I mm (0.5) especially like ‘My Space’ and stuff like [that]
16 J [yeah] that’s true.
17 I ok, go back to games, I guess playing online game is also one of the ways (0.3)
people spend their spare time, that’s um entertaining oneself, isn’t [it?]
18 J [yes] it’s true. But for me, I would rather chat on the internet rather
than play games because I think it is really a waste of [time].
19 I [yeah] but a lot of
adolescents, in particular boys, they are obsessed with the online
games and=
20 J =they spend huge amount of time on it.
21 I and money as well
22 J wow (0.7) it really sucks that we’re having an agreement (0.8)
(continues)

Similar to Excerpt 28, this segment of talk displays the major characteristics of an
HCD collaborative subpattern, where two speakers are actively involved in the co-
construction of the conversation. Close collaboration is seen between the two speakers, which
is clearly demonstrated by a high rate of other-initiated topic development moves and a high
level of mutual engagement to each other’s ideas. In this 19-turn segment, each of the
speakers nominates one topic (in Turn 4 and 9), which is mutually expanded by both speakers.
For example, Irene nominates the topic “entertaining oneself” (in Turn 9), which is supported
and expanded by Jason either in the form of backchannel cues (in Turns 12 and 16) or multi-
unit turn statements (in Turns 10, 14, 18, 20, and 22). As a result, the topic expansion spans
over 13 full turns (from Turn 10 to 22). In addition, resembling the Excerpt 27, the dyads also
employ the conversational strategies extensively, i.e., three questions (in Turns 4, 9, and 17),
two cases of interruptions (in Turns 12 and 20), three occurrences of overlaps (in Turns 16, 18
and 19), and four instances of latches (in Turns 6, 11, 14 and 20).

To sum up, a comparison of the two segments excerpted above demonstrates that both
Chinese and Australian dyads perform similarly to each other in several ways, including
mutual topic development, high performance of listener responses, and frequent use of
discourse control strategies, which contribute to a talk marked with short turns, fast pace, and
swift listener-speaker role reversal. With these traits, the two talks exhibit the features of a

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collaborative HCD and their interaction frameworks share the key features of a “high involvement” speech style (Tannen, 1984/2005).

7.2.2.2 Comparative study 2 (parallel pattern)

The third Chinese talk chosen for the comparative study is of a parallel pattern of interaction. However, the Australian conversation with the same topic is identified as a collaborative model. Accordingly, there exist marked differences between the two discussions. To illustrate the dissimilarities, two excerpts (30 and 31) from the talks will be compared in the following sections. As a reminder, the defining features of a parallel pattern and their subpatterns will be briefly introduced first.

Parallel pattern

As explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2.1.2, a parallel pattern is characterised by high equality but low mutuality. The speakers in the parallel dyads initiate and develop their topics, but they focus on making their own contributions. As the two speakers engage little with each other’s ideas, topic extensions of other-initiated topics are rare in the parallel pattern. In addition, like in the collaborative pattern, the parallel configuration is also further classified into two subgroups (i.e., LCD and HCD parallel substyles) based on the degree of conversational dominance displayed in the talk. As there is not much competition between the dyad members for taking the speaking floor, an LCD parallel talk presents infrequent performance of conversational control measures (i.e., interruptions), which in turn results in a talk characterised by a slow change of speakers and frequent occurrences of multi-unit turns. By contrast, an HCD parallel talk features relatively short turns, fast speaker-listener role change, and frequent employment of discourse control strategies, indicating a high competition for the speaking floor.

Excerpt 30

Task: C Talk 1 (Type 2)
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “University students should have a part-time job”?
Speakers: X=Xiao Kang (female); W=Wen Bao (male)

01 X so what’s your what’s your opinion? agree or disagree? (0.4)
02 W um (0.2) in my opinion, I found uh a part-time job is (0.3) um good (0.3) for u:s (0.3) college students to (.). uh for the following 3 reasons. (0.2) um the first is that (.). um it can to some extent ease um (0.6) ea::se (0.3) uh
our financial burden (0.4) %cause% it provides us with (0.2) um extra money, (0.5) and the second (is) that (0.3) um (.:) we can have chance to develop our working skills (0.2) during the experience of (0.5) a part-time job (0.6) and the last but not the least is that (.:) we learn how to cope with different people (0.2) in the society, through um the experience of er part-time job. (0.4)

03 X um I'm sorry uh I'm afraid I can't agree with you, (.:) and- and I think (0.2) university students shouldn't have part-time job and I (.:) I have the three following reasons (.:) and the first reason is that I think part-time job will affect our er academic study, (0.3) and second reason is that (0.2) if we do part-time job (.:) that means we will have less time to communicate with our classmates (0.3) and I think it is- (0.2) um (don't) be beneficial, (.:) and the last reason is that (.:) I think the skills or practice you ('ll) learn from (0.2) uh part-time job can also be learned if you er after your graduation, (0.3) so I think there is no need for a university student to do part-time job. (0.7) and and um(.:) for me: I think (.:) uh in one's who:le life, (.:) each period people should focus (0.2) on one main duty (.:) and for university students (.:) our main duty is to study well (0.3) but part-time job will take up our study time, (0.3) so I think er part time job i- is not so good. (0.4)

04 W um I think (.:) your point is superficially plausible, (0.4) since there's no (reason) have shown that a part-time job will (0.2) have bad effects on our study, (0.3) and uh I think (0.2) it is sometimes necessary for some of us to take a part-time job since (0.2) um financial burden (0.3) or even financial problems for us to go on study in the university does EXIST(1.0) for some students, (0.4) and it is (0.3) um (0.4) not only um effective, (0.3) but also (0.2) um (0.3) indispensable for (0.2) them (0.3) those who have (0.2) a financial burden (0.5) burden to have a part-time job (0.2) in order to um get more money, (0.4) um to support their er study. (0.4)

05 X (hm)(2.6) bu- but you know I- I still think um the (.:) experience or skill you learn from (0.2) your part-time job is limited. (0.2) I mean um you- you (don't) have enough knowledge you don't have enough experience, (.:) and um but when you have already graduate that means you have obtained enough (.:) er things or information you- you need (.:) then at the time when you er maybe get (a) (.:) professional job, you can learn more (0.2) and more effective and efficient, (0.6) (uh) so I- I- I still don't think part-time job e- e is- is e- um is um be- er is good. (1.0) and also (.:) uh you know I think (0.2) the (0.2) CLASSMATES in our university is very important in our (0.2) er life er after our graduation, (0.3) (and) we are in the same fie:lds and w- w- maybe we- we- we can help each other (0.2) er after graduation, (0.2) but if you do part-time job that means you have (0.3) um less time to communicate with our university classmates (0.2) um may be this will (0.3) um um u- um- (this) will (0.3) not so good. ((laughs)) (continues)

Excerpt 30 typifies an LCD parallel pattern. In the interaction, both speakers primarily focus on their own topic development without much involvement in each other’s remarks. In the 5-turn segment, each speaker initiates and extends three topics of their own, which contributes to a balanced amount of talk and evenly distributed topic development moves.
However, their interactional behaviour is basically self-directed with very limited expansion of other-initiated topics. In terms of the employment of conversational devices, except for the single floor-offering question raised at the beginning of the conversation, interruptions, overlaps, latches, and listener responses are virtually absent in the talk. One of the major reasons for the absence of interactional tactics in the talk is that the speakers take turns mechanically in a linear fashion. As such, the conversation is characterised by an orderly turn-taking alternation and slow speaker change, exhibiting a general lack of collaboration, which in turns results in a talk with low interactivity and to some extent lacking in naturalness.

**Excerpt 31**

**Task:** A Talk 1 (Type 2)

**Topic:** Are you for or against the statement “University students should have a part-time job”?

**Speakers:** E=Emily (female); F=Freeman (male)

06 E and I think it’s really good to have one (part-time job) like (0.5) *it sucks not having one* I have no money=

07 F =yeah (0.2) it’s definitely a problem (.) (cause you don’t earn) extra money (0.3) especially when you’re at university it’s very expensive (0.4) to pay for all your books and everything like that.

08 E yeah (0.6) and transport,

09 F yeah

10 E and all those things.

11 F it does help to (0.8) have a job as it gives you like lots of extra money (0.4). well not lots of extra money (.) but (0.3) SOME extra money that [you can]

12 E [yeah ]

13 F use=

14 E =and you like you can save, so (0.7) [like I’m] about to grad, (0.6)

15 F [mm ]

16 E a:nd I think if I have a job and I graduate, then even if it’s not my industry at least like (0.9) [I can] kind of like (0.6) carry on with that job and

17 F [yeah]

18 E like (1.0) keep– look for other work and stuff, (0.4) whereas like right now, economically if you grad and you don’t have a job and you can’t get one (then)=

19 F =you just kind of end up [just doing (laughs)] doing

20 E [{(laughs)} yeah like ]

21 F [nothing.]

22 E [yeah ] that’s true.

(continues)

This segment contains the salient features of a collaborative talk. As shown in Excerpt 31, both speakers are actively involved in the topic expansion (in Turns 7, 8, 10, 11, 12 and 13) within the topical sequence of ‘money’ initiated by Emily, which reflects their mutual
support and bilateral engagement with each other’ contributions. Apart from high instances of topic expansion moves, the collaboration between two speakers is also demonstrated by frequent occurrences of agreement expressions by means of the extensive use of “yeah”, which is employed either as a turn-opening device to acknowledge the partner’s remarks (in Turns 7, 8, 12 and 16) or a backchannel cue to signal listener support (in Turns 9 and 12). In terms of conversational devices, the dyad performs six cases of overlaps (in Turns 10, 11, 12, 14 and 16), and five instances of latches (in Turns 7, 12 and 13). With these features, the conversation is marked with relatively short turns, rapid speaker change, swift speaker-listener role reversal, a high rate of supportive simultaneous talk, and frequent employment of backchannel responses. Although no questions and interruptions are seen in this segment, they are performed fairly frequently in other parts of the conversation. Therefore, overall, the talk is considered to be an HCD collaborative one.

To sum up, although both the Chinese and Australian dyads talked about the same topic in their paired talk, they orient to totally different patterns of interaction. The Chinese adopt a parallel pattern, while the Australians use an HCD collaborative model. While the two talks are both of a symmetrical pattern, the Chinese speakers work on their own individual track with limited involvement in each other’s ideas. The Australian pair, on the other hand, collaborates closely in the co-production of their conversation. Structured in this manner, the Chinese dyad produces a talk that may sound unnatural, in contrast to the Australian discussion, which is highly interactive.

7.2.2.3 Comparative study 3 (dominant/passive pattern)

The fourth pair of talks chosen for the comparative study is a dominant/passive talk by a Chinese dyad but a collaborative talk by their Australian peers, though they discussed the same topic. To illustrate the distinctions between the two conversations, two excerpts (31 and 32) will be compared. As a reminder, the defining features of a dominant/passive pattern will be briefly introduced first.

Dominant/passive pattern

As illustrated in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2.2.1, the most conspicuous nature of a dominant/passive pattern is the asymmetrical roles (i.e., one dominant and one passive) the two speakers assume in the interaction, revealing both low equality and mutuality. The more dominant speaker controls the agenda of the discussion and has more access to the conversational floor, therefore, s/he tends to initiate more topics and take longer turns. By contrast, restrained by the partner with an authoritative stance, the more passive speaker
injects limited input to the interaction. The unbalanced contribution from the two dyad members in terms of amount of talk and cases of topic development moves results in low equality. Moreover, as the more dominating speaker spends more speaking turns in extending his/her own topics and produces limited chances for the more passive one to express his ideas in the first place, this in turn produces few opportunities for the two speakers to be involved in each other’s topic development, indicating a low mutuality.

Excerpt 32

Task: C Talk 3 (Type 1)
Topic: What can students do to increase their study efficiency?
Speakers: T=Tian Li (female); Z=Zhou Ming (male)

01 T um (0.9) ok (0.6) um first I think um (0.5) **we should er keep doing exercise regular- (0.2)** re- uh regularly.
02 Z uh yes I- I think so. [({laughs}))
03 T [({laughs}))] yes (. ) I think er (. ) if um you don’t have a healthy body, (0.3) you could do nothing (0.3) er (0.2) if you want to travel (0.2) uh you a- you are very uh sick (0.2) and you you can- you cannot go, (0.3) and if you want to study (0.2) uh you feel very tired you have- you do- you do not have a clear mind (0.2) so you can study well.(0.6)and um (0.5) SECOND I think um (0.7) er we should um discuss challenging issues with teachers or classmates(0.5)cause um (0.5) different people have different opinions,(0.5) er (. ) er (0.2)classmates of your same age (0.4) er can (1.0) uh give you a different opinion from their aspects,(0.4) and teachers (0.2)of er not the same age(0.3) they have a more (. ) mature er (er) attitude towards uh what happens(0.3) or a ma- mature opinion (0.2) and they- (gey w-)uh give you a very (0.3) [uh]
04 Z [mm] (0.4) but sometimes I (0.5) I want to ask a question to our teacher (0.2) after class, (0.3)[but I] always (0.2) mm (0.2)I alw- always T [okay] Z think my question (0.4) maybe er maybe maybe the teacher th- er (0.2) will think my question is very boring, (0.2) so (0.5)um (0.7) uh (0.7) I- I am not going to [(a- a- ask her)]
05 T [so so what kind of] er er ta- uh what kind of questions do you (0.2) always >ask your teachers<? (0.5) it depends I think. (0.7)
06 Z um so- so- s- s- um some questions uh em I think is very (0.4) [silly ]
07 T [interest]ting=
08 S =very silly (0.3)
09 T silly?
10 Z yeah (0.3)
11 T (nu-) so why you ask teachers these silly questions? (0.5)
because I (0.7) er I want uh (0.4) um (0.3) maybe (0.6) th- she can (0.5) give er give me a surprising answer.
(0.6)

I think maybe she um (0.5)um she don’t uh she doesn’t have (0.5)any preparations (0.3) of er (0.4)a:ns:wer:ing your er so-called silly questions, (0.4) er I think er if er (0.3)er she (0.3) er uh thinks it for a while, (0.3) and maybe after a few days she will (g-) er give you a more (0.4) er reasonable answers. (0.4) a- and (0.3) em (0.6) BUT also I think you can’t always (0.3)count on your teachers (0.4)and you cannot always challenge (0.3) her or him (0.3) uh she- (0.2) er (0.7) (she or him) is also an (0.3) ordinary people (0.4) and she may (0.2) also have something (0.4) er (0.8) she thinks er (0.4) that is not wO- w- (worthy to)

[uh you know ] uh you know not not um every teacher (0.4) um is erudite, (0.6) they are not geniuses.
(0.5)

[OK]

[so] (0.4) er if er l- like uh these days we study (0.4) our text is about (a) presidential system (1.1) of Am[erica right (1)]

[yes (that) I th]ink (w- w-) we are

[{{(laughs))}) (0.3)
Z [yeah ]
T u- u- [I think [w- we] should (0.3) s- s- (\%straight\%)=

Z [SO ] [if I-]

=[(0.4) on this topic, {{(laughs)}

Z [\%okay\% ]

[(we are] rather) little far. (0.6) a[nd I] think um the

(continues)

Excerpt 32 manifests a dominant/passive pattern of interaction. Of the two speakers, Tian Li takes control of the ‘agenda’ of the conversation and Zhou Ming only plays a relatively subservient role in it. The dominance of Tian Li is demonstrated in a number of ways, including, among others: (1) she opens the talk by self-selection (in Turn 1) without negotiating who should speak first; (2) she nominates and develops three topics on her own; (3) she ‘hogs’ the floor, producing two extended turns (in Turns 3 and 13), which last about 12 and 9 lines respectively; (4) she raises two questions (in Turns 5 and 11), which is one of the most common ways to gain controlling power; (5) she performs two instances of intrusive interruptions (in Turns 5 and 17), which restrains her partner’s opportunity for talking; and (6) she monopolies the task, as is indicated in Turns 17-19, where she continues with her initiation of the second topic (in Turn 21) after she said “I think we should go straight on this topic”. Due to her dominance of the interaction, Zhou Ming, to some extent, was obliged to take the more passive role. A typical case in point is that he makes two attempts (in Turns 16 and 18) for speaking rights, but he fails because Tian Li cut him off by means of her intrusive interruptions in succession. Apart from the domineering stance of the female speaker, another
possible contributing factor to the asymmetrical interaction in the dyad might be the male speaker’s inadequate English proficiency and/or lack of conversational skills, which may also affect his participation and contribution to the talk. For instance, in Turn 2, due to limited English, he does not talk much in his speakership turn and he cannot express himself fluently even though the floor is offered to him by the partner. Additionally, he actually has a chance to take up the floor at the TRPs in Turns 3 and 13, but again his lack of conversational management skills may prevent him from obtaining the speaking rights from the partner. Therefore, both Tian Li’s dominant stance and Zhou Ming’s low level language proficiency and/or inadequate conversational skills might be the key factors contributing to the asymmetrical talk. The asymmetry in the role relationship between two speakers not only leads to a skewed distribution of speaker rights and unbalanced contribution to the conversation, but it also affects the achievement of the core objective (i.e., negotiate and construct the talk jointly), and therefore the talk reveals both low equality and mutuality.

Excerpt 33

Task: A Talk 3 (Type 1)
Topic: What can students do to increase their study efficiency?
Speakers: R=Robert (male); F=Florence (female)

01 R so Keaton, (0.2) why do you think keeping um routine hours are (0.8) important? (0.6)

02 F um (0.2) I just think it’s really important to be able to organize your time [like (0.3)] as I mean (0.2) yeah so we chose that- (0.3) that one, but- (0.9)

03 R [mm:] 
F we also I think that the MOST important one is the long-term goal (0.3)(and) to use your time wisely cause [like] (0.3)
R [okay]
F =if you can’t see what you’ve already got planned ahead, then how can you manage your time (0.3) as you’ve got it [now.]

04 R [okay] (1.2) alright=

05 F =like that’s why I was talking about that big calendar that I did where I put all the assessments that I need for the semester,

06 R alright

07 F [so planning ahead is definitely, (0.5)

08 R okay=

09 F =definitely really [really important](0.2)

10 R [(Itu-)] I agree: with that planning ahead is (0.5) is important, (0.6) but um just as important is (0.5) um as well keeping a routine is is a balance, (0.2) so if you [don’t have a] balance [yeah yeah ]

R between (0.8) study and play, (0.8) um and work, then

11 F [yeah no] (.) yeah definitely like you need to be able

12 R [( ]

13 F to take some time off, (0.7) (kind of) dedicate (1.5) different days to
Excerpt 33 exemplifies a collaborative talk. In the segment, both speakers initiate one topic of their own and develop them jointly, engaging with each other’s remarks. The mutual involvement in each other’s contribution is evidenced both by the frequent provision of listener feedback to the primary speaker, which is in particular the case of Robert (in Turns 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 13 and 14), and their willingness to devote the speaking turns in their speakership to extend the partner’s topic, which is typically true of Florence (in Turns 3, 11 and 13). Consequently the speakers produce a balanced amount of talk (high equality) and an even distribution of topic development moves (high mutuality) in the conversation. Similar to other collaborative talks discussed in the previous sections, this talk is also abundant in overlaps (N=11), which are seen as a strong index of conversational co-construction by the speakers involved. The equal partnership assumed by the dyad helps generate a symmetrical interaction characterised by brief turns, swift speaker/listener role reciprocity, high instances of overlaps, and frequent occurrences of backchannel responses.

To sum up, both the Chinese and Australian dyads talk about the same topic in the interaction, but they adopt different approaches in the topicality production. The Chinese dyad adopts an asymmetrical (dominant/passive) pattern, while the Australian dyad assumes a symmetrical (collaborative) pattern. The asymmetry of the role relationship ‘cast’ by the two Chinese speakers leads to a skewed distribution of speaker rights and in turn an uneven contribution to the conversation. By contrast, the symmetrical role status assumed by the Australian dyad helps generate a collaborative talk with a balanced contribution from both interactants.

7.2.2.4 Comparative study 4 (interviewer/interviewee pattern)

The fifth pair of talks chosen for the comparative study is an interviewer/interviewee talk by the Chinese dyad. In the Australian conversation, where the same task was performed,
speakers followed a collaborative pattern. To illustrate the dissimilarities between the two conversations, two excerpts (34 and 35) will be compared in the following sections. As a reminder, the defining features of an interviewer/interviewee pattern will be briefly introduced first.

**Interviewer/interviewee pattern**

As discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2.2, and similar to a dominant/passive pattern of talk, an interviewer/interviewee pattern is characterised by an unequal role status, where one of the speakers acts as an interviewer, largely maintaining control over the conversation by asking the partner questions, and the other speaker plays the part of an interviewee, who is obliged to respond with answers. Although the teacher-student classroom discourse pattern (initiation-response-feedback) (IRF) sequence (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, 1992) occasionally occurs when the interviewer provides feedback (i.e., evaluation or comments) to the interviewee, this format of interaction predominantly resembles the interviewer-interviewee relationship in an interview as the talk is dominated by the question-and-answer routines, which generate a recurring ‘adjacency pair’ sequence in terms of turn taking. With respect to the amount of talk produced, the interviewee might make more contribution to the conversation than the interviewer since s/he often responds substantially by elaborating on their ideas, and this results in low equality. Another feature of the interviewer/interviewee model is that the two speakers actively engage with each other’s topic development in the way that the interviewee is overtly willing to respond to these questions raised by the ‘interviewer’ and the interviewer in turn shows a consistent interest in the interviewee’s contributions. Therefore, the interaction exhibits high mutuality.

**Excerpt 34**

Task: C Talk 9 (Type 2)
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Modern people should live in big cities”?
Speakers: Y=Yang Liu (male); M=Mu Ling (female)

01 Y lady comes first ((laughs))
02 M =okay (.) *where do you live?*
       *(0.8)*
03 Y *well my hometown is in a small town.*
       *(0.3)*
04 M *small town?*
05 Y *[yeah (0.2)*
06 M *like a suburb or a [ci-?]*
07 Y *[s- ] (0.9) s- nm (.) it’s kind of (0.3) suburb (0.4)*
yeah.
(0.4)

and do you like it?
(0.8)

well um (0.6) it's hard to tell whether I like it or not because (0.3) um I have lived (in the) in bigger cities er for er a period of years (0.5) so (0.3) um (0.3) becau- I l- I LOVE it because it's my hometown but (0.3)it is the place where I was born and grew up (0.5) in my childhood but also (see a) a lot of disco- disadvantage of it.
(0.6)

um so compare (0.3) your hometown and Beijing,
(0.2)

[um]

well they’re they both have er advantage or disadvantage.(0.6) um well I- (0.6) to some extent, (0.2) I love Beijing but(0.3) I am (0.4) I’m- I’m- just not into it because of (0.3)is er (0.7) traffic con-con- condition because (0.2)you can see every um every morning in the rush time, the the bumper to bump traffic (0.3) on the street (0.6) yeah that’s that’s that bothered me a lot.
(0.5)

but (0.4) I see a lot kind of transportation here,(.)

uh? (0.5) mm hm=

=um >that could be another side< right,
(0.2)

uh [so] you mean we have a lot of choices. (0.3)

yeah (.) yeah yeah [yeah (sorry)]

[(laughs)] er but (0.7) well I’m (0.7) I prefer: that kind of er (0.2) em idyllic lifestyle (0.5) in the in the small town or countryside, (0.5)it is usually peaceful and quite also less I like that environment (0.6) I don’t- (0.2) I’m just NOT into this (hassle and f-) (0.9) bustle er er lifestyle in big cities, just like Beijing this- this kind of stuff.

so it’s a life style choice,

yeah.
(continues)
output than Mu Ling though he has a limited chance to nominate topics. However, from the perspective of topic development, the two speakers do it collaboratively though they contribute to the co-construction of the conversation in their own ways regardless of the different roles they assume in interaction. The interviewer nominates and expands topics mainly by means of asking questions and the interviewee extends the topics initiated by the interviewer in answering these questions, therefore they jointly accomplish the task mainly through the mechanism of question-answer routines. As such, the interviewer/interviewee dyad produces a relatively high mutuality though it has low equality.

Excerpt 35

Task: A Talk 9 (Type 2)
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Modern people should live in big cities”?
Speakers: H=Helen (female); G=George (male)

73 H uh crime (1.2) I th[ink there’s a fair bit of crime in (0.3) not big cities as well in- in country areas, especially where um (0.7) there’s less employment less things for young people, (0.3) [there’s] a lot of just random violence

74 G [mm ]

75 H and vandalism and (0.4)

76 G drunkenne[s [which leads to] (0.5) so it- there’s (0.6)

77 H [ye]ah, there is. []

78 H less of a social infrastructure as (.)[there’s and the-]

79 G [yeah abs]olutely.=

80 H =and then you have to kind of deal with less policing, (.)

81 G [and ] in an insular community, which (0.6) will kind

82 H [mm hm]

83 G of protect one an[other again]nst the poli- I mean you get that I know

84 H [mm ]

85 G you get that in most areas,

86 H [mm: ]

87 G [but] the insular nature of the (. [country world’s {so}.]

88 H [I think it’s worse. ] yeah (0.5)

89 G well my [grandmother’s in] Albury (1.0), um which again isn’t that

90 H [(can’t help it) ]

91 G country but still much much smaller than here and they have a big problem with

92 H [young] people

93 G [mm ]

94 H cause there’s nothing to do, (0.6) [for the]m and (0.6)

95 G [mm ]

96 H yeah (0.8) there’s less policing, and (0.3) yeah big problem with crime=

97 G =yeah

(continues)
Excerpt 35 presents a collaborative talk. As shown in the extract, Helen initiates the topic that there is crime in country areas (or ‘not big cities’) as well as big cities, in particular in the country where there is less employment for young people, random violence and vandalism frequently occurs (in Turn 73). George joins her in topic development by actively elaborating on the topic. His active involvement in the topic expansion demonstrated both by a “collaborative finish” (Clancy et al., 1996) (in Turn 74) and his substantial statements (in Turns 74, 76 and 80) makes one think that he is the primary speaker though it is actually Helen who has nominated the topic. Consequently, the topic gets extended for nine turns (Turns 74-82). In addition, as seen in other collaborative talks, the dyad makes frequent use of conversational devices in the co-production of the conversation, including eight cases of overlaps (in Turns 73, 75, 78, 80 and 81), two occurrences of interruptions (in Turns 77 and 79), and two instances of latches (in Turns 78 and 82).

To sum up, the Chinese and Australian dyads discuss the same topic, but they approach the task in a different manner regarding pattern orientation. The Chinese dyad develops the topics in an interviewer/interviewee format, the Australian pair, on the other hand, constructs the talk collaboratively. In the Chinese discussion, the two speakers assume unequal roles, which results in asymmetrical interaction. By contrast, the Australian speakers play the same part in the interaction and cooperate closely in the topic development, which contributes to a highly interactive talk.

7.2.2.5 Comparative study 5 (consultant/client pattern)

The sixth pair of talks chosen for the comparative study (one by the Chinese dyad and the other by the Australian dyad) represents a consultant/client and collaborative pattern respectively though the same topic was discussed in the conversation. To illustrate the differences between the two discussions, two excerpts (36 and 37) will be compared in the following sections. As a reminder, the defining features of a consultant/client pattern will be briefly introduced first.

Consultant/client pattern

As discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2.2.3, in the consultant/client pattern of interaction, the two speakers enact the roles of a consultant and client respectively. The most obvious characteristic of this model is that there is a high degree of collaboration and substantial meaning negotiation between the two speakers as the dyad work closely together in order to find a solution to the ‘problem’ encountered by the client, which results in high mutuality. Another important feature of the consultant/client pattern is the frequent
performance of Q-A sequences, where both speakers raise questions, but for different purposes. The client asks questions in order to seek advice from the consultant on how to deal with a problem s/he faces, whereas the consultant raises questions so as to ‘diagnose’ the problem faced by the client and come up with a better solution. Of the two speakers, as in any other similar scenarios between a service provider and a client (e.g., doctor and patient, teacher and student), the consultant, who possesses the expert knowledge and practical experience in the area being consulted, is likely to pose more questions to the client, thus s/he contributes more to the interaction, which leads to low equality.

Excerpt 36

task: C Talk 20 (Type 1)
topic: How can university graduates find a job in the competitive job market?
speakers: T=Tao Hua (female); S=Song Shu (male)

01 T Sarphone (.I was told that recently you got an offer (0.2) I met m- many problems when (0.2) finding a job so would you give me some advices? (0.3)

02 S ok um the (0.2) the job is goo- is (i-) very important for me j- I just applied online (and uh) got the interview, and uh and uh the test, (0.3) and uh I think the job (0.3) I think the job is er very hard for a person to get (0.2) because many people applied for the position and uh I can give you s- (0.3) a list of uh suggestions for-=

T =yea[h

S [and (.) the first I think is (0.3) you should not- you should not (0.3) um pay (0.8) too much expectation on the job itself. (0.2)

03 T oh re[jally?

04 S [no ] yeah=

05 T =no) I always want to find a good job (mm) (0.2) I mean the (XXXX) (0.3) [(uh)some]thing like the management

S [yeah ]

T =(. or the (0.3) design (0.3) you- you know my dream career is mark- in marketing, (0.3) so I always- always want to find the (0.4) um to (0.2) design a mar- marketing process,

(0.2)

06 S oh I know [I know ]

07 T [(mm) but] sometimes the company often offers me the opportunity to (0.3) sell or promote (. some products in the like uh (0.3) um (0.2) supermarket, or somewhere else. (0.5) so I (find) there is really a difference between my expectation and what the- I can get.

(0.3)

08 S ok I ask you (k-) a question, (0.2) um (0.4) if you want to ge-(0.3) be a designer for the marketing process (0.2) and what’s most important for you, (. expect- e- uh expect er except uh the theory itself?

(1.5)
BUT I think the principles we (learn) from the courses (0.4) is the most important thing.
(0.6)

um I- I suggest that the most important for the processing of the marketing (0.3) um product (0.3) is the experience (. you know? (0.7)
[y-um if]

[really?]
yeah (. if you have the experience (0.2) and (the-) then you can know how to-
what’s the demand for the (0.3) customers (0.2)(or) something like the (0.2) producers the demand for (the product).(. and uh I think (0.3) um if you c-
pay too expect- too high expectation on the job (0.5) and you won’t (the) you
will ignore the experience.

yeah well=

=for most important for the for the employee- employer (0.4) and uh experience
is (the) most important, (0.2) they think it’s very (0.3) ve- very important.
(0.2) so I- (0.2) suggest that you need to have some (. practical skills.
(0.3)

practical skills do you think that I can get the skills from (. taking more
courses (0.3) like uh um the CPA?

ye[ah it’s very, it’s ] very good (.) a[nd ] uh if=

(or something like that)] [(mm)]

=you: had the (0.2)ex- opportunities to got some (0.3)courses or for some
certificate, (0.3) uh like the (a) [CPA or AC]CA, (0.2) it’s very useful

[yeah ( ) ]

(continues)

Excerpt 36 illustrates a conversation exemplifying a consultant/client pattern of interaction. In this exchange, the dyad seems to contextualise their conversation as a kind of consultation scenario, where one of the speakers orients to the role of a consultant and the other assumes the part of a client. To complete the task, the two interactants support each other in topic development and engage mutually with each other’s remarks. Specifically, to deal with the problem encountered by the client in hunting for a job, the speakers are vigorously involved in meaning negotiation by way of questions and discussions, as reflected by opinion-seeking questions (in Turns 1 and 15), clarification questions (in Turns 3 and 11), and extended information exchange (from Turns 5 to 18). In the process of identifying the ‘problem’ the client faces so as to find a solution, both parties make due efforts to develop topics mutually, which helps push the conversation forward. As such, the interactional behaviour by the dyad resembles a brainstorming session, where the two speakers cooperate closely and work constructively with each others’ ideas in a problem-solving task. However, in terms of the amount of the output, predictably, the consultant contributes more as he initiates three topics, including ‘do not have high expectation toward initial job opportunities’, ‘try to gain some practical skills’, and ‘prepare oneself thoroughly for the job you are going to pursue’, whereas the client nominates two topics, i.e., ‘get to know the real market demand’
and ‘attend market-oriented courses’. With these features (see the full transcript in Appendix H), the talk exhibits a low equality, but high mutuality profile.

Excerpt 37

Task: A Talk 20 (Type 1)
Topic: How can university graduates find a job in the competitive job market?
Speakers: R=Rose (female); K=Kevin (male)

15  R  um (1.4) uh I like (0.3) I like the last point keep [an eye]  
K  [mm ]  
R  open for potential job opportunities because a lot of people wait for the-(0.8)  
um you know jobs to come to them? (0.2) you know, and (0.5) and rely on (0.3)  
um rely on people that they know to  
K  mm=  
R  =give them the right contacts but it’s (.) up to you you know to find your own  
job, and (0.6) to find what best suits you. (0.2)  
16  K  yeah no totally agree and also (I- making) a point on that one (0.5) um being  
creative in your job search I mean obvious[ly (hh)]  
R  [mm ]  
K  I don’t know anyone these days who looks in the paper? physically looks into  
the paper any mor[e because ]  
17  R  [exactly right]  
18  K  (0.6) now there are so many different ways of (0.7) looking for work and (0.2)  
19  R  especially onlin[e (you just-)]  
20  K  [online I’ve ] always found (0.5) the jobs that I’ve had  
always online=  
21  R  =yeh that’s true.  
22  K  it’s just so easy and (0.4) and um (0.8) yeah so tha- it’s ma:de job hunting  
more accessible I think you know having these (0.5) um creative options for  
looking for work  
23  R  yes (0.4) but also you’ve got to put like job hunting in the context of (0.5)  
today and i- just look at the difficulties that we’re facing,(0.5) um (0.5)in the  
whole big scheme things like (0.8) the great financial crisis that caused  
you know=  
K  =m[m  
R  [huge (0.6) you know burdens on families because you know lots of people are  
out of work and so [you’ve gotta] (0.4) also be conscious that (1.0)  
K  [mm ]  
R  even though (0.2) um you’re new to the work force there are people (0.6)  
looking for the same jobs as you that’ve had experi[ce like] (0.4) years and  
K  [mm ]  
R  years of experience behind their back so (1.0) [yeah. ]  
24  K  [and that can] get you down (.)  
[you know] (0.2) um there is definitely more competition you know with people  
R  [mm ]  
K  that are more experienced  
(continues)
Excerpt 37 shares the major features of a collaborative talk. In the ten-turn exchange, Rose nominates one topic “keep an eye open for potential job opportunities” (in Turn 15) and then builds on it by providing the justifications. Kevin extends the topic further by suggesting that one should be creative in a job search, indicating that an online job search is an easy and effective way to find a job in modern society. In the discussion, as primary speakers, both are actively engaged in the topic development and as listeners they listen attentively and offer constant support to the primary speaker by means of acknowledgement tokens (in Turns 15, 16, 23 and 24). In other words, both speakers engaged mutually with each other’s utterances by showing support and agreement through expanding the prior speaker’s topic or by giving backchannel cues. In their joint construction of the conversation, conversational devices such as overlaps (in Turns 15, 16, 17, 23 and 24) and latches (in Turns 15, 21 and 23) are frequently employed and cooperative interruptions (in Turns 19 and 20) are also performed. Collaborative though it is, the conversation still reveals a low presence of conversational dominance. In other words, there seems not to be much competition for the speaking floor as indicated by the high instance of backchannel cues sent by the nominal listener during the primary speaker’s speakership, which shows that the listener allows the speaker enough ‘space’ to express his/her ideas without attempting to take the floor. When the speaker change does take place, they interact in a similar fashion. As such, the conversation displays an LCD collaborative pattern.

To sum up, the Chinese and Australian speakers talk about the same topic in their discussion, however, they adopt different patterns in their topic development. The Chinese dyad situates the task in a consultant/client context, where the client seeks advice/suggestions from the consultant for a solution to the ‘problem’ s/he faces in finding a job in the competitive market. To deal with the situation, both the consultant and client ask questions of the other either for the purpose of obtaining the advice or ‘diagnosing’ the problem the client has. As such, the conversation resembles a consultation meeting. By contrast, the Australian pair, assuming symmetrical roles, is mutually involved with each other’s ideas, and eventually generates a collaborative talk. Although both Chinese and Australian discussions reveal a high level of mutuality as the two speakers in each group cooperate with each other in the task completion, the asymmetrical role status between the two Chinese speakers leads to a relatively lower level of equality in the interaction.

7.2.2.6 Comparative study 6 (expert/novice pattern)

Like most of the matched conversations discussed above, the seventh pair of talks chosen for the comparative study by both Chinese and Australian dyads is of differing
patterns. Although the two dyads were assigned the same task and topic, the Chinese are found to orient to an expert/novice pattern while the Australians follow a collaborative pattern. To illustrate the differences between the two conversations, two excerpts (38 and 39) will be compared in the following sections. As a reminder, the defining features of an expert/novice pattern will be briefly introduced first.

**Expert/novice pattern**

As discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2.2.4, like the other three asymmetrical sub-patterns found in the data, the ‘expert/novice’ pattern of interaction is characterised by low equality, but high mutuality. In such interactions, the two speakers enact the role of an expert and a novice respectively. The novice member assumes a more passive role at the beginning part of the conversation due to their lack of initiative or topical knowledge, which results in an uneven contribution to the talk and hence low equality. To push the conversation forward, however, the (more knowledgeable) expert speaker then takes on the role of a teacher and actively assists and prompts the novice to participate in the discussion through questions and requests and also offers encouragement and support by providing backchannel cues. Interestingly, the expert speaker seems to adopt their role owing to the passivity of their partner. Nevertheless, as the conversation proceeds, the novice becomes more actively engaged in the interaction, particularly at the later stages of the talk. As such, although the passivity of the novice speaker at the earlier stage of the interaction leads to an unequal contribution to the talk, the active participation of the novice speaker at the later stages of the discussion makes up for this ‘loss’ and contributes to high mutuality on the whole.

**Excerpt 38**

Task: C Talk 8 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the causes for being stressed in modern society?
Speakers: X=Xiao Dan (female); W=Wang Hai (male)

01 X um as member- (0.3) as members of the society we have to deal with a lot of (.). pressure or stress: (0.2) almost everyday, (0.2) so (.). have you ever thought about the factors that may cause the stress nowadays. (0.2)

02 W mm yes (0.6) (and) I think in the list, (0.3) I: (0.3) I will choose the finance problems, (.). and work pressure (0.4) and the relationship difficulties. (0.6) and um in my opinion (0.5) nowadays people (are) (.). live (0.4) live a life (with- ver-) very great pressure (0.5) and er (0.8) they should deal with this uh pressure everyday (0.3) they will feel unhappy. (0.5) and uh how do you think do (though)? (0.7)

03 X yes I totally agree with you about the first two factors you just mentioned,
and um especially the financial problem (0.2) you know after the uh financial crisis in 2009 (0.2) it becomes really hard to- to find a perfect job in the labor mar:ket (0.4) and um uh this leads to more stress for some people, (0.5) and um could you please explain more about the working experience you just mentioned? (1.1)

04 W um (0.9) um I think- uh (0.3) I also think the (0.6) fina- financial crisis is a factor to (a) pressure and=
X =%yes%
W mm (1.2) and (0.4) em (0.4) as we all know in (0.7) in China there has a large population, (0.4) it is hard to find (a satisfy) job (0.7) so we must keep our job everyday and uh (1.0) em because (0.4) we can (’t) get (. ) get little from our parents, (0.4) so (0.6) we must earn more by ourselves. (0.9)

05 X =yes I totally understand (0.4) and uh ah you just mentioned the working ex- uh working pressure (0.4) right?
06 W mm yes=
07 X =uh so um (0.7) do you want to say something (.) here about er working pressure? (0.6)
08 W um (1.2) m[m:]
09 X [you] know there are so many people with so few jobs outside and uh (. ) er even after the the- they have found their jobs working pressure can be really har- r- r- still be a problem, (0.3) because of the fierce competition in this industry (. ) a:ll the [ti:me,] right?
10 W [mm ] (0.2) yes (0.4) um I think er the competition (is very) fierce? (0.4) and the (high technology) and the pace (0.3) faster pace of life (0.4) make people always (0.7) always on the run, (.) they have no time (0.4) to relax and (0.3) make some fun with their friends.
m[m X [%yes%] uh- so you just mentioned the relationship difficulties right? (0.5)
11 W [mm yes. ]
12 X [so could you] please (al-) er explain a li- a li- a little bit more about this: er factor you just mentioned? (0.5)
13 W yes uh I chose (uh relationship) (0.3) because I think sometimes (0.2) the pressure (0.3) also come from our parents, (0.4) [we are] young, mm (0.6) they give us too many= expectations, (0.5) and we should (0.3) work on hard- work hard (on the) study (0.3) and (0.4) now (0.3) they hope us can get a good job=
14 X =yes [absolutely.]
15 W [so ] (0.7) I I feel I not feel relaxed, (0.3) I always live (under) pressure.(0.4) mm (0.6) and you (chose) uh? (0.6) (continues)

Excerpt 38 displays an expert/novice pattern of talk. In the exchange, Xiao Dan takes the role of an expert, while Wang Hai assumes the role of a novice. As seen in the excerpt, Wang Hai behaves somewhat passively at the beginning of the discussion, which could be due to his lack of initiative or topical knowledge. The inactiveness of Wang Hai in the first
half of the conversation is reflected by his failure to respond in a timely manner to the two questions raised by Xiao Dan, who invites him to contribute to the talk (in Turns 3 and 7), and which also results in two long pauses, including both inter-turn pauses (Turns 3 and 4, Turns 7 and 8) and intra-turn pause (at the beginning of Turns 4 and 8). The long pauses occur because Wang Hai fails to take up the opportunity occurring at the TRP (at the boundary of Turns 3 and 7). Therefore, Xiao Dan is obliged to take the role of expert due to the partner’s passivity or lack of ideas. To carry on with the conversation, Xiao Dan seeks to encourage and involve Wang Hai in the interaction by prompting him with questions (in Turns 3, 7 and 12) and providing explanations that will lead him to share her view (Turn 9). However, the situation changes later on when, with the ‘encouragement’ and ‘guidance’ from the partner, Wang Hai appears to have gained more confidence and becomes increasingly active as indicated by his taking up the opportunity when it is available (in Turns 13 and 15) and even asking Xiao Dan questions in the remaining part of the conversation.

Excerpt 39

Task: A Talk 8 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the causes for being stressed in modern society?
Speakers: K=Kate (female); J=Jack (male)
Excerpt 39 reveals the features of a typical HCD collaborative pattern. In the interaction, Kate nominates the topic that “working pressure” is one of the causes for people in modern society to feel stressed (in Turn 86), which is substantially extended by both speakers, stretching over 16 full turns (Turns 87-102). The close cooperation between the two dyad members in the topic development and the mutual involvement in the other’s contributions is clearly demonstrated by their frequent performance of listener responses in the form of both backchannel cues and extended statements. In addition, the two speakers also make quite extensive use of conversational devices in the interaction, including ten cases of overlaps (in Turns 86, 88, 89, 90, 91, 93, 95, 99 and 100), four instance of latches (in Turns 89, 94 and 97), and three occurrences of interruptions (in Turns 89, 92 and 101), which help generate a dynamic conversation featuring short turns, a fast pace, and rapid speaker/listener switches, resembling a “high involvement” style (Tannen, 1984/2005).

To sum up, the Chinese and Australian speakers orient to two different patterns though they are involved in discussing the same topic. The Chinese dyad adopts an asymmetrical expert/novice pattern while their Australian peers assume a symmetrical collaborative model. One member of the Chinese dyad fails to take much initiative, behaving passively at the beginning stage of the conversation and, consequently, the other speaker feels obliged to take the role of an expert. However, the novice (passive) speaker later on becomes more actively involved in the interaction with the encouragement and the tutoring (Damon & Phelps, 1989) of the expert. As such, although the dyad fulfils the task’s goal, the talk still reveals an asymmetrical type of interaction. By contrast, the two Australian speakers are actively engaged in the conversation at all stages through to the task completion. The active participation and mutual involvement from both speakers help generate a dynamic and interactive talk.

7.2.2.7 Comparative study 7 (blended pattern)

The last talk chosen for the comparative study is of a blended type in terms of interactional pattern of the Chinese dyad, whereas the matched Australian conversation,
where the same topic was discussed, displays a collaborative model. To illustrate the
differences between the two conversations, two excerpts (40 and 41) will be compared in the
following sections. As a reminder, the defining features of a blended pattern will be briefly
introduced first.

**Blended pattern**

As discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.2.3, a blended pattern possesses the
characteristics of more than one discrete pattern among those discussed above. In this model,
two patterns exist side by side within one talk. That is, the dyad varies their roles and shifts
from one pattern type to another at different stages of the interaction. For instance, the dyad
may assume asymmetrical roles and interact in an interviewer/interviewee pattern at the
beginning stage of the conversation, where the interviewer asks questions and the interviewee.responds accordingly. However, they might then switch to a collaborative model later on as
the interviewee speaker takes more initiative and is more actively involved in the interaction,
i.e., jointly expanding the topic. As the role status between two speakers becomes more equal,
the dyad may thus produce a collaborative talk.

**Excerpt 40**

Task: C Talk 2 (Type 1)

Topic: What are some of the solutions to dealing with traffic congestion in big cities?

Speakers: R=Researcher; Z=Zhu Ge (male); S=Shi Liu (female)

01 Z ok uh since I am student (I so) no ‘ladies first’ ok, [and uh (.)]
02 S [((laughs)))]
03 Z especially in uh (0.2) metropolis
04 Z okay=
04 Z =I will just start the topic.and our topic is (.) traffic congestion big cities
such as Beijing, and uh (.). my three points are the first one (.) that is (to)
educate citizens to obey the traffic rules, and the third one open more bus
routes (. ) to move passages quickly (0.2) and the fifth one (if I’m right)
develop a subway s- network system. and as for the first (0.3) first point (.)
educate citizens to obey the traffic rules, (0.2) I think uh especially in China
and e- in the minds of the uh (.). western people, that is rules (0.2) is rules,
it is very important it can’t be banned (0.6) under any circumstances. (0.2) so
(0.2) er rules (0.2) traffic rules can make (0.2) the transportation more
efficient, (. ) and disobeying the rules may cause (. ) chaos or accidents (0.2)
and will further lower (. ) the uh efficiency of the transportation, (. ) so I
think the first one (0.2) I should (pick) the first one. (. ) and then the third
one open more bus routes to more passages quickly, (0.3) and I think er maybe
(0.2) the bus in Beijing um (. ) certain lines (. ) certain routes (0.2) they are
too too much crowded inside and uh (0.4) uh arguments disputes stepping on he-
he- on the feet may happen during (. ) uh our journey (0.2) er to certain
destinations, (0.2) so opening um more bus routes (0.6) or if one bus route is added and then more than one bus route(s) (0.4) will be relieved of the pressure on the traffic, (0.2) so this one (. I will pick. (0.4) and uh (0.3) the third one I think will be used together with the last one (. that is encouraging the residents to use public transportations, (. so if the public don’t use the tr- (0.2) public transportations, (. and you just added bus routes (. that make the road more crowded with uh (. public transportations buses, (. so that’s no good for us. (. and the fifth one (. develop [a better subway system (right)]

Rh: [uh I’m sorry you- you do not dominate the discussion, you have to join him.

S: okay [er you] choose the first (uh) one educate citizens=

Z: [okay ] [yeah]

S: = (0.2) but uh how to educate them? (0.2) especially in China you know person

Z: [yeah]

S: always [(can’t) ]

Z: [yeah muh-] maybe (. er stronger fines, stronger punishments, that will be a (. good education for most of the rule breakers, (0.2) I think so yeah. (0.9) but I’m not driving a car, so I don’t know (. how the drivers (view it) when they are fined, breaking a minor rule right? so (0.4) just think in my head (. %so%. (0.3)

S: [ok but I] (think in practice (it very hard.) (0.3)

Z: [(no practice)] yeah it is can be harder yeah=

S: =yeah

Z: yeah

S: (0.8)

Z: (u[m] )

S: [yeah] uh yeah please. (0.8)

Z: [uh (0.3) [[do f- do finish?]]]

S: [(so I o-I) go on with it] yeah (0.2) no there is still the last one (to) develop a better subway network system. (0.4)

Z: (continues)

Excerpt 40 illustrates a blend of a dominant/passive and collaborative patterns, marked with the features of these two discrete patterns of interaction. At the beginning of the conversation, Zhu Ge takes the lead, nominating three topics and offering his justifications by means of a long monologue. However, his partner (Shi Liu)’s contribution is fairly limited. As such, the dyad assumes a dominant/passive pattern at the beginning part of the interaction. Therefore, the dominance of the talk by Zhu Ge in the first half of the conversation is due to both his dominant stance and the passivity of his partner. On one hand, Zhu Ge behaves in a very dominant manner, i.e., claims the floor by self-selection and then ‘hogs the floor’ (which lasts as long as 25 lines), intending to say all he has to say about the topic until the researcher reminds him that he should not dominate the conversation because it does not leave much chance for the partner to speak. On the other hand, Shi Liu behaves quite inactively in the first half of the talk as evidenced by the fact that she does not take much initiative and,
consequently, she misses several opportunities for taking a turn. Thus, Zhu Ge’s dominance of the conversation is also reinforced by Shi Liu’s lack of initiative to make her own voice heard. However, the participation framework of the talk changes significantly after the intervention of the researcher (Turn 5) and the dyad switches to a collaborative pattern in the second half of the conversation. Shi Liu starts to get involved in the interaction more actively, as indicated by the fact that she nominates and expands three topics. Moreover, she also raises questions and performs interruptions in the remaining part of the discussion (see the full transcript in Appendix H). At this stage, Zhu Ge plays a more supportive role in the interaction. Although the talk is dramatically altered by the intervention and agency of the researcher, it was not a foregone conclusion that the effect would result in a shift to a collaborative pattern. Indeed, having been in a sense ‘reprimanded’ by the researcher, Zhu Ge might have retreated to a passive role himself for the rest of the discussion. That he did not do so suggests that he was still focused on the goal of task completion. So, in this dyad’s interaction, on the whole, the pair accomplishes both individual goals and general goals mandated by the task.

Excerpt 41
Task: A Talk 2 (Type 1)
Topic: What are some of the solutions to dealing with traffic congestion in big cities?
Speakers: B=Betty (female); M=Mark (male)

61 B and (0.4) I reckon trains need to be improved cause they’re always late (1.1)
like (0.6)
62 M (oh yeah) 
63 B [same with] buses (0.7)
64 M just generally faster trains? (1.1)
65 B not necessarily faster but just on time. (0.8)
66 M oh yeah=
67 B =((laughs)) (0.6) and make them nicer? (0.5)
68 M yeah (0.5) like [the one down at (.).] Macquarie over there=
69 B =YEAH (0.7)
70 M which allows people to get (from all the way) (0.3) from the city (0.2) to
[Mac]quarie (0.6)
B [mm]
M and also Woolloomooloo (0.3)
Excerpt 41 displays a talk exhibiting the major characteristics of a collaborative pattern. Like all the collaborative talks discussed above, in this talk one topic is nominated by a speaker (in this case Betty in Turn 61) and it is extended jointly by both participants over 16 full turns. As seen in the extract, the exchange is characteristic of all the key features of a collaborative model, i.e., short turns, fast pace, frequent use of conversational devices (overlaps and latches), and occurrences of backchannel cues.

To sum up, the Chinese and the Australian dyads orient to differing patterns of interaction though they were assigned the same task and topic. The Chinese dyad adopts a blended pattern, which combines a dominant/passive and collaborative pattern together in one talk. The asymmetry of conversation at the beginning stage is recognised to be due to both the dominance of the male speaker and the passivity of the female speaker. But the dyad becomes collaborative in the second half of the discussion as the female speaker is more actively involved in the interaction, following the intervention of the researcher. The Australian dyad, however, assumes an equal role in the discussion and orients to a collaborative pattern throughout the whole discussion. Thus, on balance, the Chinese speakers generally produce a conversation revealing a lower interactivity than their Australian counterparts.

In this section, eight pairs of talks from both Chinese and Australian speakers have been compared in terms of the patterns they orient to in their interaction. The results show that all eight Australian pairs orient to the symmetrical collaborative pattern regardless of the task types and topics, whereas the Chinese dyads adopt a more diversified range of patterns, including symmetrical and asymmetrical, collaborative and non-collaborative patterns in their topic development. As the Australians’ talk often reveals a higher level of collaboration between the two dyad members than does the non-collaborative Chinese talk, the
conversations of the Australian pairs generally display a higher level of interactivity than those of their Chinese counterparts.

7.2.3 Turn-taking behaviour

The nature of turn alternation by the Chinese dyads and the Australian dyads is compared from three key aspects: turn-taking style, speaker rights, and listener responses.

7.2.3.1 Turn-taking style

The analysis of the pair talk by the Chinese and Australian dyads shows that the two groups differ in terms of turn-taking behaviour in relation to the length of turn, the turn-taking strategy, and the preferred turn format. Except for the four HCD collaborative dyads (i.e., C Talks 16, 18, 22 and 26), most Chinese speakers generally produce fairly long turns, apply a slow-paced turn-taking mechanism, and display a preference of the discrete turn format over the simultaneous talk, as compared with their Australian counterparts, who perform short turns, adopt an active turn-taking strategy, and generate simultaneous talk frequently. Each of these aspects is elaborated below.

First, the Chinese dyads generally take longer turns than their Australian counterparts. The variations between the two groups in the length of turns can be seen in Table 18.

Table 18. Frequency distribution of cases of the continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words by the Chinese and Australian dyads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Dyads/Transcripts</th>
<th>Total cases of turns</th>
<th>Average cases of turns (against the 30 dyads)</th>
<th>Average cases of turns (excluding the 6 talks with the high number of cases of continuous full turns)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese dyads</td>
<td>Talks (N=28): 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 27, 28, 29, 30</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian dyads</td>
<td>Talks (N=22): 2, 5, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 28, 29, 30</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 18, 28 Chinese dyads produce varying cases of continuous (full) turns longer than 50 words as opposed to 22 Australian pairs. In other words, all the instances of continuous (full) turns generated by the remaining two Chinese and eight Australian dyads are less than 50 words in length. Taking all the 30 dyads into account, averagely, each Chinese and Australian dyad generates 3.9 and 2.5 cases of continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words respectively. However, excluding the six dyads which entail the high number of cases of continuous (full) turns, on average, each Chinese dyad (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2.3.1)

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8 The number of turns indicates the cases of continuous (full) turns that exceed 50 words in length in the last five minutes of each talk.
produces 3.4 occurrences of continuous (full) turns longer than 50 words as compared to 1.3 instances of such turns produced by each Australian pair (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.3.1) in the conversation. Whilst the gap between the two groups is not exceptionally large, the most important point to note is that the cases of continuous (full) turns in the Chinese group are more widespread across the 28 conversations. The instances of such long turns in the Australian group, on the other hand, are mainly concentrated among six talks by three pairs, who orient to either an LCD collaborative or a parallel pattern (A Talks 7, 19, 24, 28, 29 and 30) in the interaction. These three pairs generate a total of 44 cases of continuous (full) turns longer than 50 words, which accounts for approximately 60% of the total cases of the extended turns by the Australian group. Excluding these three pairs, each Australian dyad produces only 1.3 cases of continuous (full) turns in the discussion on average.

The second aspect of turn-taking behaviour to highlight concerns how the two groups of speakers vary regarding the strategy the speaker applies in turn alternation. While a dynamic turn alternation is observed in the HCD collaborative talks, most Chinese dyads employ a slow-paced turn-taking strategy. Furthermore, a few Chinese dyads seem to apply a ritualised turn-taking mechanism in the interaction without attending to the situational appropriateness. In other words, these Chinese dyads tend to apply the turn-taking rules somewhat mechanically as indicated by their orderly A-B-A-B turn sequences. By contrast, the majority of Australian pairs generally reveal an interactive style of turn-taking. That is, they alternate turns on the basis of the immediate context and the moment-by-moment unfolding of the conversation in interaction, which helps generate dynamic talk.

The third aspect of turn-taking behaviours of interest concerns the type of turn-taking format the two groups prefer. The analysis of the pair talk indicates that the Chinese speakers appear to prefer a discrete turn-taking pattern, as evidenced by the fact that one or both of the dyad members generally withdraw immediately if overlaps occur. However, the Australian dyads use the discrete pattern in turn alternation but nevertheless tend to perform simultaneous speech quite frequently. Unlike the Chinese speakers, it is quite common for the Australian speakers to keep talking if they are overlapping with their partner.

### 7.2.3.2 Speaker rights

As in the case of the turn-taking strategies, there exist both similarities and differences between the Chinese and Australian speakers in terms of practices evidencing speaker rights.

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9 As determined by the study’s design, each Australian dyad is required to talk about two topics in the discussion. For instance, the six talks (A Talks 7, 19, 24, 28, 29 and 30) are constructed by three Australian pairs.
The two groups resemble each other regarding the major means they use to take the floor and the primary mechanism they apply for topic change. However, the two cohorts display variation with respect to their performance rate of conversation devices used for the floor-taking.

To accomplish the task mandated, the speakers have to make use of discourse control strategies (i.e., questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches) in order to have a chance for speaking either for the purpose of control (i.e., leading the story-line of the interaction) or for the sake of topic initiation (i.e., nominating and developing three topics). In addition, the two groups of speakers mainly resort to self-selection rather than other selection for topic change as each of them has their own goal to fulfil.

Regardless of employing the same strategies for seizing the speaking floor, the two groups of speakers differ in the frequency of occurrence of the discourse control measures for the floor-taking. Specifically, the Chinese dyads initiate questions much more commonly than their Australian peers. By contrast, the Australian speakers demonstrate a considerably higher rate of instances in the use of the other three conversational devices as compared with their Chinese counterparts.

7.2.3.3 Listener responses

The analysis of the pair talk shows that although the Chinese and Australian speakers send listener responses (i.e., backchannel cues) to show their support or involvement to the partner, the two groups vary in terms of the performance rate of listener feedback, i.e., the Chinese dyads tend to offer backchannels substantially less often than their Australian peers, especially in the form of backchannel cues.

To sum up, Section 7.2 has compared the nature of the pair talk by the Chinese and Australian dyads in terms of three key dimensions (generic structure, interactional pattern and turn-taking behaviour). The comparative CA analysis has shown that there exist both marked similarities and pronounced differences between the two groups of speakers in terms of their interactional behaviour. We have seen that the two groups share four similarities: (1) they follow the three distinct stages in discourse organisation at the macro level; (2) they make use of the same basic moves in topic development; (3) they make use of discourse control measures (questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches) in regard to the speaking floor; and (4) they resort to the same mechanism (i.e., self-selection) for topic change. However, the speakers from the two groups also vary in their interactional behaviour in five areas: (1) they adopt differing rhetorical styles; (2) they orient to differing patterns of interaction; (3) they display different turn-taking behaviour; (4) they employ conversational devices at varying
rates; and (5) they send listener responses at differing frequencies. With regard to the contributing factors to these resemblances in the dyadic conversation by the two groups, the goal-oriented, internationalised nature of the task is an important influence and constraint as the speakers are bound to follow the pre-determined “agenda” as required in the rubric for successful task completion, employ the basic moves for topic development, and apply the common discourse strategies for speaker rights so as to fulfil the mandated goal. However, the reasons underlying the differences between the two groups in their interactional practices are multi-fold and complex, and will be discussed in the following section.

7.3 Differences and contributing factors

The fourth and final research question of this study was “What (factors) contribute to the variations between Chinese learners of English and their Australian counterparts in the dyadic interaction?” To address this question, the differences and the factors which seem most likely to contribute to these variations in the interactional features of the two groups of speakers will be described in detail.

As illustrated above, while the Chinese and Australian speakers do share similarities in sequential organisation, topic development moves, strategies for gaining the speaker floor, and means for topic change, the two groups also differ in five areas, namely rhetorical style, interactional patterns, turn-taking strategies, employment rate of discourse strategies, and performance frequency of listener responses. The factors potentially accounting for these variations between the two cohorts will be explained in the following sections.

7.3.1 Rhetorical style

The adoption of varying rhetorical styles by the Chinese and Australian speakers in the paired task constitutes one of the most striking differences between the two groups in terms of their interactional behaviour. The analysis of the pair talk reveals that, while over one quarter of the Chinese speakers organised their discourse indirectly/inductively, over 70% of the Chinese dyads presented their ideas directly/deductively in the manner of all the Australian dyads.

The co-existence of direct and indirect rhetorical styles in the conversation by the Chinese dyads may imply the effects of L2 development and their first language (L1) and native culture (C1) transfer in the L2 usage. First, the fact that a majority of the Chinese speakers structured the information directly/inductively in the conversation may be due to their subconscious acquisition of English rhetorical strategy through being exposed to western
culture (i.e., western media) and direct contact with native speakers as a result of globalisation. Equally, it may be a positive outcome of the implicit instruction of direct rhetorical strategies in their EFL learning, where they have learned to follow the western-preferred speech style in spoken interaction, either aiming to enhance their interactional strategies so as to communicate effectively with native speakers in real life or attempting to help them obtain high scores in English proficiency speaking tests, particularly internationally designed speaking tests such as TOEFL or IELTS, where their performances are often judged by native English speaking examiners. Second, the fact that approximately one quarter of the Chinese speakers in this study presented their ideas in an indirect rhetorical style suggests the cross-linguistic/cultural transfer of the culturally-valued discourse strategies (communication style) from Chinese to English in their interlanguage (e.g., Fitzgerald, 2003; Matalene, 1985; Rublik, 2006; Scollon & Scollon, 2001).

7.3.2 Interactional patterns

The second prominent difference in the interactional behaviour of the Chinese and Australian speakers is in their patterns of interaction. Although the number of dyads that oriented to a collaborative pattern constitutes the largest proportion compared with the pairs adopting a non-collaborative pattern in both groups, the Australian and Chinese varied in three major ways in terms of their interactional patterns: (1) pattern types; (2) distribution of these patterns; and (3) presence of conversational dominance in these patterns. The Australian dyads generally assumed equal roles in the discussion and produced more stable patterns (collaborative and parallel). This was in contrast to the Chinese dyads, who enacted varying roles in the interaction, which helped produce diversified patterns of interaction, i.e., symmetrical (collaborative and parallel), asymmetrical (dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, expert/novice), and blended patterns. Apart from the disparities in pattern types, the two groups of speakers also differ regarding the frequency of these patterns occurring, as evinced by the fact that: (1) six more Australian (20%) than Chinese dyads generated collaborative patterns; (2) two Chinese dyads (approximately 6.7%) produced a parallel pattern in contrast to only one by Australian dyads; (3) five Chinese dyads (about 17%) adopted each of the asymmetrical patterns respectively, which were not identified in the Australian conversation; (4) one Chinese dyad assumed a blended pattern while this pattern was not found in the Australian talk. In addition, the Chinese and Australian speakers displayed a varying degree of conversational dominance in the interaction, as
indicated by the fact that 70% more Australian (N=21) than Chinese dyads oriented to an HCD collaborative subpattern in the talk.

A number of factors are likely to exert influence on the adoption of certain patterns by the speakers and the most important of these among others include the discrepancies in conversational management skills, the application of culturally-valued conversational styles, and the differing conceptions toward the oral task. These factors may interact with one another and impact on the type of patterns the two groups of speakers co-constructed in the discussion. First, discrepancies in the interactional competence of the two groups of speakers could be a major factor for the orientation to diverging patterns in the conversation. For instance, a Chinese dyad assumes a dominant/passive pattern probably because one of the speakers gains an ‘advantage’ in the status in the conversation as a result of the passivity of the partner due to his/her low level of language proficiency and/or inadequate conversational skills. In other words, the speaker is interactionally passive since s/he might have difficulty in ‘managing’ the conversation skilfully and hence loses the speakership quickly. However, language proficiency and conversational skills are normally not an issue for the Australian native English speakers. They are linguistically proficient and interactionally competent to converse with the partner on an equal footing. As such, they might assume the same role in the interaction and in turn generate a collaborative pattern.

Another factor accounting for the disparities between the two groups in the pattern orientation is likely to be their adoption of culturally-valued conversational styles. For example, an Australian pair that orients to an HCD collaborative subpattern in the discussion may well be doing so due to the application of a “high involvement” conversational style (Tannen, 1984/2005), which accords with their respective cultural matrix. In western culture, where the ideology of egalitarianism is valued and conveying the exact meaning is highlighted (Cheng, 2003), the speakers tend to express their ideas more directly and explicitly. They are more inclined to perform interruptions to show both the convergence and divergence of their opinions to the primary speaker. Equally, they might also make use of overlaps and latches as well as backchannel responses to indicate their interest and agreement with the primary speaker, which will lead to a collaborative pattern of interaction. Furthermore, with a fast-paced turn-taking strategy and frequent use of conversational devices to express their ideas constructively regardless of agreeing or disagreeing with the partner, their interactions display a relatively high competition for the speaking floor between two dyad members, and thus a high presence of conversation dominance. Likewise, a Chinese pair assumes an LCD collaborative subpattern in the conversation at least partially as a result of
their adoption of a “high considerateness” conversational style (Tannen, 1984/2005), which complies with their cultural values. In Chinese culture, where harmony and face work are strongly emphasised in both personal communication and social interaction, the speakers tend to express their ideas indirectly and implicitly. As such, interruptions are not encouraged in the first place and simultaneous talk does not commonly arise in conversation because it is regarded as impolite to interrupt or talk concurrently while the partner is talking. With a comparatively slow-paced turn-taking mechanism and a relatively low performance rate of interruptions and simultaneous talk, there is not much competition for the floor-taking between two dyad members and consequently, their interaction might exhibit a low presence of conversational dominance even if the speakers co-construct the conversation collaboratively.

A third factor contributing to the different pattern orientation by the Chinese and Australian speakers is likely to be their differing perceptions of the oral task itself. Both through observation of the task completion by the researcher and a close examination of the transcripts reveal that the Chinese students, who tend to perceive the oral task as a test and assume that they are being judged by how much they say (quantity) rather than just how they say it (quality) within the allotted time duration, try to display what they know about the topic as much as they can in their speakership, hoping to get higher scores. With such a mindset, they may ‘hog’ the floor for a while once they have claimed it, which makes it possible for one of the dyad members to take a more dominant role and orient to an asymmetrical pattern of interaction, i.e., dominant/passive or interviewer/interviewee. By contrast, the Australian speakers, who approach the task more as just an ordinary dialogue and who are aware that the value of their conversation depends on both quantity and quality of their performance, hold the discussion more for authentic communication rather than for assessment purposes. Therefore, their conversation is interactive and dynamic featuring brief turns and high instances of simultaneous talk, revealing the characteristics of a collaborative pattern.

7.3.3 Turn-taking behaviour

Along with rhetorical style and interactional pattern, turn-taking behaviour constitutes another major disparity in the interactional behaviour of the Chinese and Australian dyads in the paired task. The Chinese dyads generally produce long turns, apply a slow-paced turn-taking strategy, and prefer a discrete turn-taking mechanism, whereas the Australian dyads normally generate short turns, adopt a fast-paced turn-taking strategy, and perform simultaneous talk quite frequently.
Three factors are likely to contribute to the variations in the turn-taking behaviour of the two groups of speakers: (1) their adoption of differing patterns of interaction; (2) their use of their respective culture-valued conversational styles; and (3) the discrepancies in conversational management skills. The first contributing factor to their different turn-taking behaviour could be their orientation to different patterns, which exhibit varying degrees of conversational dominance. As discussed previously, the majority of the Chinese dyads assume an LCD subpattern, where the listener often provides sufficient “talking space” to the primary speaker by sending backchannel cues, which allows him/her to express the ideas sufficiently in the speakership. The reverse is also true when the change of speakers occurs. Clearly, there is not much competition between the dyad members for the speaking floor; consequently the interaction necessarily leads to long turns, slow-paced turn alternation, and a low performance rate of simultaneous talk. By contrast, approximately 97% of Australian dyads adopt a collaborative pattern and the overwhelming majority of them are of an HCD collaborative subpattern. With a high presence of conversational dominance, there is normally much competition between the dyad members for the speaking floor, which warrants a need for frequent employment of conversational devices and that in turn contributes to a conversation characteristic of short turns, rapid speaker change, and high performance of simultaneous talk.

The second factor contributing to the differences in the turn-taking behaviour of the two groups may stem from their adoption of respective culture-valued conversational styles. Influenced by their cultural values such as harmony and politeness, listening-centeredness (Rublik, 2006, p. 29) is much more stressed in the Chinese communication and not infringing on the other’s turn space is often seen as appropriate respect for the primary speaker’s right to produce their talk (Beaumont et al., 2010, p. 441). The Chinese thus show a strong tendency to avoid interrupting the current peer speaker and they would like to wait for the possible turn completion points or TRPs by the speaker rather than compete for the speaking floor, which accounts for their preference for a non-imposing ‘high considerateness’ speech style (Tannen, 1984/2005) in the conversation. The slow-paced turn-taking strategy advocated by the speech style slows down the rhythm of the interaction and that in turn contributes to a conversation displaying the limited performance of simultaneous talk and long turns.

The Australian speakers, influenced by their cultural matrix of egalitarianism and exact meaning conveyance in communication, tend to adopt a “high involvement” conversational style (Tannen, 1984/2005), where the interactants are normally involved enthusiastically in the interaction by means of frequent employment of conversational devices
and extensive use of backchannel responses. This helps produce a conversation featuring fast-pace, brief turns, and frequent initiation of simultaneous talk.

The third contributing factor for the differences in the turn-taking behaviour of the Chinese and Australian speakers is thought to be the discrepancies in conversational management skills. As EFL learners, some Chinese speakers might have difficulties in taking turns effectively in such a highly demanding academic testing context even though they do have a fairly good knowledge of the English language, but which is not matched by their overall interactional competence. By contrast, the Australian native speakers are able to accomplish the task successfully as they generally have attained a high level of English proficiency and acquired adequate conversational skills.

### 7.3.4 Conversational devices

Both Chinese and Australian speakers employ conversational devices in the conversation; however, they perform them at varying rates. While the Chinese use questions very frequently, initiate interruptions quite infrequently, and employ conversational devices fairly commonly though less than they should, the Australians use questions infrequently; perform interruptions fairy frequently; and employ overlaps and latches very frequently.

The first disparity between the two groups in the employment of conversation devices is that the Chinese speakers use questions a lot more frequently than their Australian counterparts. This could stem from the fact that, apart from being used to seek information, offer the floor, or request for clarifications, questions are also employed by the Chinese speakers both as a linguistic strategy to maintain and develop a conversation (Fishman, 1983; Lakoff, 1975) and as an effective way to nominate and develop topics in goal-oriented talk-in-interaction. Therefore, like interruptions and simultaneous talk, which are performed by Australian speakers as tokens of conversational participation and active listenership, the use of questions by the Chinese speakers may signal interest and engagement of the participants. However, the Australian speakers are likely to feel that it is not a natural conversation if one of the speakers keeps asking the partner questions unless the task is meant to be an interview.

The other two differences between the Chinese and Australian speakers concern the employment of interruptions, overlaps, and latches. The Chinese dyads initiate strikingly fewer interruptions and employ notably less simultaneous talk than their Australian peers. Three major factors are thought to be the cause of the disparities between the two groups in these two conversational devices: (1) the orientation to the varying patterns of interaction; (2) the adoption of culture-valued conversational styles; and (3) the discrepancies in their
conversational management skills. The first reason for the differences in the performance of these two devices between the two groups could be their orientation to the differing patterns of interaction, which exhibit a different level of collaboration between the dyad members. As discussed previously, due to the adoption of the non-collaborative patterns by quite a number of the speakers and an LCD collaborative subpattern by the majority of the dyads, the Chinese speakers, on the whole, reveal a lower level of collaboration than their Australian counterparts. The relative lack of meaning negotiation and idea exchange between the two speakers in these models necessarily reduces the need for these interactional tactics. By contrast, the great majority of the Australian dyads operate in an HCD collaborative pattern, where they not only have great enthusiasm for initiating and expanding their own topic, but more importantly, they are actively involved in the development of other-initiated topics. Clearly, when they engage actively in co-constructing the conversation, there is a high demand for the employment of these devices for effective interaction.

Another reason for the distinctions between the two groups in their use of discourse control measures is likely to result from their adoption of respective cultural-preferred conversational styles. As discussed earlier, Chinese culture (as a typical collectivist culture) values harmony and face politeness. With these cultural values reflected in their communication style, interruptions (in particular intrusive type) and simultaneous talk are not encouraged in the first place though they might employ cooperative interruptions to demonstrate solidarity and engagement with the co-participant in a conversation, which accords with the key features of the “high considerateness” speech style (Tannen, 1984/2005; Yule, 1996). With the slow-pace turn-taking mechanism, the interactants have sufficient time to anticipate a TRP and take the floor at that point. Therefore, there is not much need for the listener to ‘break in’ during the speaker’s speakership by means of interruptions or simultaneous talk. By contrast, in western culture, where egalitarianism is highlighted and the clarity of ideas or conveying a precise meaning is much appreciated, the Australian speakers prefer to express their opinions truly and explicitly. With these cultural values manifested in their communication, conversational devices are substantially employed as they are seen as the speakers’ willingness to participate in the on-going conversation. Thus, it is quite common for them to just ‘break in’ during the primary speaker’s speakership by initiating interruptions and simultaneous talk to show support for or disagreement with the primary speaker’s ideas rather than wait for the TRP as the Chinese dyads do. This accounts for their preference for a “high involvement” speech style (Tannen, 1984/2005, Yule, 1976), which advocates enthusiastic, face-paced involvement of the participants in the interaction.
The third factor contributing to the different use of conversational devices may result from the discrepancies in the conversational skills between the two groups. Apart from the cultural reasons and their adoption of culturally-preferred conversational style, another factor for the reserved use of conversational devices, in particular, simultaneous talk, is that some Chinese speakers may have difficulty in competing for the speaking floor and sustaining and regaining turns when interrupted, whereas the Australian native speakers with their English proficiency and interactional competence are generally adept at performing the interruptions and simultaneous talk when the need arises.

7.3.5 Listener responses

The last notable difference to discuss in the interactional behaviour of the Chinese and Australian speakers relates to the frequency of listener responses, i.e., the Chinese send much fewer listener responses to their partner than their Australian counterparts do.

As with the performance of conversational devices, the same three factors are thought to lead to the differences in the employment of backchannel responses between the two groups, including their orientation to differing patterns of interaction; their adoption of the culturally-preferred conversational styles, and the discrepancies in their conversational management skills.

The different pattern orientation could account for the difference in the performance rate of listener responses between the two groups. As discussed earlier, most Chinese adopt a non-collaborative pattern and an LCD collaborative subpattern, displaying a low level of collaboration between the dyad members, which results in a conversation characterised by long turns, fairly frequent performance of conversational devices, and reserved use of listener responses. By contrast, the great majority of the Australian dyads adopt an HCD collaborative pattern in the interaction, revealing a generally high degree of collaboration and mutual involvement. The conversation generated is marked with short turns, frequent employment of conversational devices and extensive use of backchannel responses.

The second contributing factor to explain the variations between the two groups in terms of listener responses may result from the adoption of culturally-valued conversation styles. Using a “high considerateness” speech style, which puts a premium on being considerate towards others and not imposing on others in their speakership as a way of showing proper respect for their speaking rights (Aritz & Walker, 2010, p. 31), the Chinese dyads normally take longer turns without much supportive feedback from the listener. By contrast, most Australian dyads use a “high involvement” speech style, where listener
responses, along with simultaneous talk, are extensively employed since they are viewed as a
token of active involvement on the part of the listener (Stenstrom, 1994) and alignment with
the partner to complete the task collaboratively.

Another factor contributing to the disparity between the two groups could be the
discrepancies in their conversational management skills. With inadequate interactional skills,
the Chinese speakers as non-native speakers might not be strategically competent to produce
timely and appropriate backchannel responses to their partner in spontaneous conversation
even if they wished to do so. However, Australian speakers, as native speakers with high
interactional competence, can make use of the appropriate strategies to respond to the primary
speaker at the right time and on the right terms.

In Section 7.3, some of the most likely factors contributing to the observed variations
between the Chinese and Australian speakers in the interactional behaviour have been
discussed. Although there are a number of reasons underlying the disparities in their
conversational strategies, it is likely that their orientations to the differing interactional
patterns, their adoption of respective culturally-valued conversational styles, their
discrepancies in conversational management skills, and their diverging perceptions of the oral
task, are four major factors leading to the variations in the conversational style between the
two groups. Therefore, it appears that the variations between the Chinese and Australian
dyads in their interactional practices in the paired task are caused by multiple variables and
factors other than the discrepancies in language proficiency between the two groups (i.e.,
cultural/linguistic identity/background) also work to affect the interactional behaviour of the
participants. These factors also illustrate the complicated nature of L2 spoken interaction and
the difficulty involved in measuring learners’ L2 interactional competence.

7.4 Summary

This chapter has presented the major findings of a CA analysis comparing the pair talk
of both Chinese and Australian dyads. The comparison has been conducted in terms of three
key dimensions: generic structure (i.e., sequential organisation and rhetorical structure);
interactional patterns (i.e., symmetrical, asymmetrical, and blended patterns); and turn-taking
behaviours (i.e., turn-taking styles, speaker rights, and listener responses). The results of the
comparative study indicate that there are both noticeable similarities and striking differences
between the Chinese and Australian speakers in their interactional behaviour in the paired
task. The important contributing factors to the observed variations between the two groups
have also been discussed. All the findings of this study will now be discussed in Chapter 8.
8 Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This study has attempted to investigate the salient features of Chinese EFL learners’ discourse as found in the paired task of the Public English Testing System Level 5 Speaking Test (PETS-5-SET). To achieve the objective, the nature of the spoken performances by Chinese university students in a dyadic discussion was examined by using CA techniques. To further and better understand the Chinese EFL discourse, the interactional features of the Chinese discussions were also compared with those of Australian students at tertiary level in a matched paired discussion, with the aim being to identify similarities and differences between the two L1 groups in the interactional features as well as the factors possibly contributing to the variations. In Chapters 5 to 7, the findings from the analysis of the pair talk by the two groups of speakers have been presented and discussed. This chapter will conclude the thesis, and is comprised of four subsections: a summary of the main findings; an evaluation of this study in terms of its contributions to the field and limitations; the implications of this study; and some suggestions for future research.

8.2 Summary of main findings

In this section, the main findings of this study will be presented with regard to the research questions and in light of the existing literature. As in the findings chapters, the results of the major features of the Chinese and Australian pair talk are firstly presented in turn, followed by a discussion of the similarities and differences in the interactional behaviour of the two groups and an interpretation of important contributing factors to the variations between the two groups in the paired task.

8.2.1 Characteristics of the Chinese pair talk

The first research question of this study was “What are the interactional features of Chinese EFL learners’ discourse in a paired speaking test?” This question has been investigated from a CA perspective in Chapter 5. The pair talk by the Chinese speakers was analysed at three levels, namely, generic structure, interactional patterns, and turn-taking behaviour. The key points that emerged from the findings are described in the following three sections.
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8.2.1.1 Generic structure

At the macro-structure level, the Chinese speakers generally followed the same sequences in the task completion and they made use of the same basic moves in the topic development. However, they presented their ideas differently in terms of the rhetorical structure.

Overall, the Chinese speakers observed three distinct stages at a global scale in the goal fulfilment (i.e., opening sequence, body sequence, and closing sequence) though not all dyads covered all three steps in terms of the way the conversation opened and closed (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.1). In the body sequence, the speakers working in the two task types (expository and argumentative) took a slightly different “route” in that the dyads assigned to task Type 1 (i.e., expository genre) simply nominated the topics directly from the prompt and then proceeded to expand these topics, whereas those pairs involved in task Type 2 (i.e., argumentative genre) generally presented their stance (either for or against) on the statement prior to topic initiation. Nevertheless, all the Chinese students progressed through three steps in topic development (i.e., topic initiation, topic development, and topic termination) and they also employed some basic moves for topic development, i.e., sustaining their own topics through building and/or appending, and responding to the partner’s turn by means of minimal acknowledgement (e.g., “yes” or “yeah”), recycling or extending of the topic (see Chapter 4 Section 4.1.1). The findings that the Chinese speakers seemed to follow the same overall structural organisation in the task completion and used the same basic moves of topic development are attributable to the institutionalised nature of the task, which is goal-oriented. To fulfil the goal, they have to observe the “agenda” as required in the rubric and use the fundamental moves to develop the topics nominated.

Regarding the rhetorical structure, both direct/deductive and indirect/inductive patterns were found in the Chinese talk. Specifically, the majority of the Chinese dyads (73.3%) adopted a direct/deductive style in the presentation of their ideas, but quite a number of them organised the discourse indirectly/inductively as indicated by their prefacing the talk with some type of background information. The fact that the majority of Chinese speakers use the direct/deductive rhetorical style in the dyadic conversation is one of the most important findings of this study. The co-existence of direct/deductive and indirect/inductive rhetorical models in the Chinese conversations poses a challenge to the traditional stereotype on the preferred way of Chinese speakers in their discourse organisation frequently cited in the literature on cross-culture communication and contrastive discourse studies, i.e., Chinese speakers tend to prefer the indirect/inductive style more in communication in contrast with the
direct/deductive style favoured by Westerners (e.g., Clyne, 1994; Kachru, 1995; Kirkpatrick, 1991; Scollon & Scollon, 1995/2001; Young, 1994).

The different ways of information structuring in the conversation by the Chinese dyads may indicate both the effect of their L2 development and the influence of their L1 and C1 onto the interlanguage. First, the fact that the majority of Chinese speakers structure the information directly/deductively may well suggest the effect of their natural acquisition of the English rhetorical strategy as they are more exposed to western media or have easier access to the linguistic/cultural input of English as the result of globalisation and/or the positive outcome of the formal, implicit instruction of discourse strategies in the EFL classroom learning, where they have learned to use the western-preferred rhetorical style in spoken interaction in English. Second, the fact that about one quarter of the Chinese dyads adopts the indirect rhetorical style in the conversation in English could be due to negative transfer of their native language (L1) and culture (C1). Namely, due to the cross-linguistic/culture influence, these Chinese EFL learners apparently carry the pronounced Chinese ‘discourse accent’ in the conversation in English. This finding was in agreement with the literature on interlanguage that native Chinese speakers may transfer their culturally-valued discourse strategies from Chinese into English in their L2 usage (Fitzgerald, 2003; Matalene, 1985; Rublik, 2006; Scollon & Scollon, 2001).

8.2.1.2 Interactional patterns

Regarding the patterns of interaction, the analysis of the pair talk reveals that the great majority of Chinese speakers (N=23 out of 30) oriented to a collaborative model; slightly less than a quarter of them adopted non-collaborative models in the talk, including two parallel patterns and one case for each of the four asymmetrical patterns, i.e., dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, expert/novice; and one dyad assumed a blended pattern, which exhibited the interactional features of both a dominant/passive and a collaborative model. As for the presence of conversational dominance, of the 23 collaborative dyads, 19 were of an LCD subpattern and only four fell into the HCD collaborative subcategory; and the two parallel dyads exhibited an LCD subpattern. With a few of them adopted the asymmetrical patterns and a fairly large number of them oriented to the LCD subpatterns, where there is no much competition for the speaking floor between the dyad members, the conversation generally features long turns, slow listener-speaker role switching, and low performance of conversational devices. As such, it could be said that, except for the four HCD collaborative pairs, the majority of the Chinese dyads display a relatively low level
of collaboration between the dyadic members and that in turn generates a conversation with relatively low interactivity.

In relation to the existing literature, the result concerning the pattern distribution corroborates both Davis’s (2009) and Galaczi’s (2004) findings that collaborative interaction was the most common in the cohort of their studies. Moreover, in addition to the five types of patterns (collaborative, parallel, dominant/passive, expert/novice, and blended patterns) reported by a few researchers in both L2 classroom context and the speaking test conditions (Davis, 2009; Galaczi 2004, 2008; Storch, 2001, 2002; Watanabe, 2008), two new patterns, i.e., interviewer/interviewee and consultant/client models, were identified in the present study. This is the most important finding of the current study, and it expands the work by these researchers in the dyadic interaction. However, it should be pointed out that the expert/passive pattern identified by Watanabe (2008) was absent in the current study.

Apart from the identification of new patterns, this study also suggests that a number of variables may exert influence on the adoption of certain patterns (also test discourse at large) by L2 speakers in a paired task in an oral assessment context, in particular the non-collaborative patterns. The possible contributing factors might include the interlocutor characteristics (i.e., L2 proficiency level, personality, gender, personal interactional style and conversational management strategies), linguistic/cultural background/identity, and the nature of the task. These multiple facets tend to determine the roles the two dyad members assume in the interaction and in turn the type of patterns they orient to. This result aligns with the findings in the previous studies that a multitude of factors may impact the discourse generated (e.g., Berry, 1997, 2000; Berwick & Ross, 1993; Csépes, 2002; Davis, 2009; Galaczi, 2004, 2008; Iwashita, 1996; Larazaton & Davis, 2008; Lu, 2005, 2008; May, 2007; Nakatsuhara, 2004, 2006; Norton, 2005; O’Sullivan, 2002; Ross, 1998; Storch, 2001, 2002; Young, 1995; Young & Halleck, 1998). For instance, if a dyad is assigned to a task which is argumentative in genre and the two speakers hold opposite views on the topic, then there is a tendency that the dyad might orient to a parallel pattern as each of the speakers tend to focus on their own topic development so as to complete the task. By the same token, if an interactant is a slow speaker by nature (in terms of personal interactional style), then the fast-speaking partner is inclined to accommodate the slow-speaking partner and talks in a measured pace accordingly in the interaction as conversation is teamwork (Stenstrom, 1994). Therefore, the dyad might orient to an LCD subpattern whether it is a collaborative or parallel talk. Moreover, the speaker in an asymmetrical dyad may be interactionally passive either due to the internal factors such as low L2 proficiency and inadequate conversational management skills, or external variables, i.e., the passivity, the lack of initiative of the conversational
partner, or cross-cultural norm of conversation (Ross & Young, 1998; Young, 1995). For example, if the candidates have insufficient English proficiency and/or interactional competence, they may have limited participation in the conversation as they are not able to seize the floor at the first place or maintain the floor long enough during the speakership. On most occasions, the candidates with poor language ability might be cast into a passive role and consequently produce an asymmetrical pattern of interaction.

Based on the aforementioned empirical research and the evidence from this study, a taxonomy of potential contributing factors to patterns of interaction in Task 2 of the PETS-5-SET is proposed in Figure 8 below.

As can be seen in Figure 8, at least eight factors, which are placed under three major domains, including interlocutor characteristics, linguistic/cultural background of the speakers, and traits of the task, are speculated to impact on the types of patterns the speakers might assume in the conversation. This finding implies two important points. First, spoken interaction is a very complex process involving a number of facets, which may mutually interact and influence the patterns oriented to and also the discourse generated. Second, it lends strong support to the tenets of IC theory that L2 interaction is not a cognitive process residing in an individual learner as advocated by the cognitive view of L2 construct held by communicative competence theory, rather it is socially-situated, co-constructed, and jointly created by the participants involved.

8.2.1.3 Turn-taking behaviour

In terms of turn-taking behaviour, except for the HCD collaborative talks, who took brief turns and exhibited a very active turn alternation, most Chinese speakers generally took
fairly long turns, as attested to by the high occurrences of continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2.3.1), and they adopted a somewhat slow-paced turn-taking strategy in the conversation, which is particularly true of parallel and certain asymmetrical subpatterns. Expectedly, a few dyads tend to apply the turn-taking rules mechanically in the whole or part of their talk, reflecting a linear turn-taking pattern. This result concurs with Luk’s (2010) research findings on the discourse performance by a group of Hong Kong students in L2 oral proficiency assessment in the form of peer group interactions regarding the consistently neat and orderly turn-taking mechanism being co-constructed by some of the students. Additionally, the Chinese speakers appear to prefer the discrete turn-taking style, as reflected by their immediate withdrawal from the conversation by one or both of the speakers when they are overlapping with the partner rather than trying to maintain the speaking turn. This finding complies with cross-cultural studies regarding the culture-specific nature of turn-taking conventions (Aritz & Walker, 2010; Clyne, 1994/2002; Wong & Waring, 2010) in that speakers from varying cultural contexts differ in their attitudes towards length of turn and the preferred turn type (discrete turns or simultaneous talk) (FitzGerald, 2003).

Regarding speaker rights, the study shows that the Chinese speakers employ the same mechanism for the floor-taking and topic change. That is, they normally made use of discourse control measures (i.e., questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches) to seize the speaking floor and they mainly resorted to self-selection for topic change so as to accomplish the task. However, these devices are performed at a varying rate. Of the three strategies, questions were employed quite frequently, interruptions were performed fairly infrequently, and simultaneous talk conservatively. Similarly, the Chinese conversations also displayed a relatively low performance of backchannel responses.

With the interactional features described above, on the whole, the Chinese speakers generate a talk featuring relatively long turns, a slow change of speakers, low occurrences of conversational devices, and measured use of backchannel responses. As such, the conversation exhibits a low level of interactivity and to some extent a lack of naturalness.

### 8.2.2 Characteristics of the Australian pair talk

The second research question of this study was “What are the interactional features of Australian native English speakers in a dyadic conversation?” This question has been explored from a CA perspective in Chapter 6. The pair talk by the Australian speakers was analysed from three dimensions: generic structure, interactional patterns, and turn-taking behaviour. The major issues that emerged from the findings are interpreted in the following three sections.
8.2.2.1 Generic structure

Regarding overall structural organisation, the Australian speakers followed three major phases in the task completion (i.e., opening sequence, body sequence, and closing sequence) though not every dyad observed all the three stages in terms of how the talk started and ended (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.1). In the body sequence, despite the fact that the dyads engaged in two different tasks (expository and argumentative) and followed a slightly different “route” in that those involved in task Type 1 (i.e., the expository genre) simply nominated the topic from the prompts and then expanded the topics, whereas the pairs assigned to task Type 2 (i.e., the argumentative genre) often presented their point of view on the statement first prior to topic initiation, all the Australian students progressed through three steps in topic development (i.e., topic initiation, topic development, and topic termination) and they also employed the same basic moves for topic development, i.e., sustaining their own topics through building and/or appending, and responding to the partner’s turn by means of minimal acknowledgement (e.g., “yes” or “yeah”), recycling or extending of the topic (see Chapter 4, Section 4.1.1).

In terms of the rhetorical structure, all of the Australian dyads organised the discourse in a direct/deductive style either by means of direct topic initiation or task management moves. In other words, they started the talk straightaway without any type of face work or lead-in in the conversation. This finding confirms the literature on cross-cultural communication and contrastive discourse studies that Western English speakers favour the direct/deductive mode more in communication than do the Chinese, who tend to prefer an indirect/inductive rhetorical pattern (e.g., Clyne, 1994; Kachru, 1995; Kirkpatrick, 1991; Scollon & Scollon, 1995/2001; Young, 1994).

8.2.2.2 Interactional patterns

As for patterns of interaction, the examination of the pair talk indicates that the Australian speakers generally assumed equal roles between the dyad members in the conversation and they generated more stable patterns of interaction across the pairs. Specifically, 29 out of the 30 Australian conversations exhibited a collaborative pattern and the remaining one displayed a parallel model. When the presence of conversational dominance was considered, of the collaborative talks, 25 fell into the HCD subpattern category and the remaining four were of the LCD subpattern; and the only one parallel talk exhibited an LCD subpattern.

With such a pattern orientation, i.e., the overwhelming majority of the Australian dyads oriented to a collaborative pattern, which demonstrated a high level of collaboration
and mutual involvement between the two dyad members, and the great majority of the
collaborative talks are of an HCD subpattern, where there is high competition between the
two interactants for speaking rights, the Australian speakers tend to generate a conversation
featuring a fast pace, rapid speaker exchange, frequent occurrences of interactional devices,
and high rate of backchannel responses.

8.2.2.3 Turn-taking behaviour

In terms of turn-taking behaviour, except for the LCD collaborative dyads (in
particular, the LCD collaborative dyads), the majority (about 90%) of the Australian speakers
generally adopted a fast-paced, active turn-taking strategy, which resulted in long turns, as
evidenced by the low occurrences of continuous (full) turns exceeding 50 words (see Chapter
6, Section 6.2.3.1). Moreover, the Australian dyads employed simultaneous talk fairly
frequently in addition to the discrete turn-taking format in the discussion, as demonstrated by
the tendency to maintain the speaking turns when they are talking simultaneously, which is
particularly true when the two speakers are arguing with each other about the issue being
discussed.

Regarding speaker rights, the Australian speakers generally employed discourse
control measures (i.e., questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches) to take the floor and
they mainly relied on self-selection for topic initiation so as to fulfil the goal, however, these
discourse control strategies were performed at a varying rate. Of the three strategies, questions
were employed conservatively, interruptions were performed quite commonly, and
simultaneous talk was used extensively. These findings accord with the research by Clark
(1992) and Cheng (2003) that interruptions were high frequency features in English
conversation. The results also echo the studies by Deng (1998) and Yang (2010) that Anglo-
Australians performed interruptions and overlap quite a lot in their spoken interaction. Apart
from the frequent employment of conversational devices, the Australian talk, predictably, also
displayed high occurrences of listener responses except for a few pairs, in particular, the LCD
collaborative dyads. This result shows a parallel with Clancy et al., (1996) that native English
speakers performed listener feedback commonly to indicate their interest and agreement to the
speaker’s ideas.

With the discourse characteristics discussed above, overall, the Australian speakers
generate a talk featuring fairly short turns, a rapid change of speakers, high occurrences of
conversational devices, and extensive use of backchannel responses. As such, the
conversation exhibits a high level interactivity and spontaneity.
8.2.3 Similarities and differences between the Chinese and Australian pair talk

The third research question of this study was “In what specific ways does Chinese EFL learners’ spoken English differ from that of Australian speakers in the paired discussion?” and the last research question of this study was “What factors contribute to the variations in performance between Chinese learners of English and their Australian counterparts in the dyadic interaction?”. These two questions have been addressed in Chapter 7, where the Chinese and Australian conversations were compared from the same three aspects (generic structure, interactional pattern, and turn-taking behaviour). The similarities and differences between the two groups of speakers are illustrated and the possible contributing factors to these major features are interpreted in the following sections.

8.2.3.1 Similarities and contributing factors

The comparative analysis of the Chinese and Australian conversations in terms of the three aforementioned dimensions shows that there exist both similarities and differences between the two groups in their interactional behaviour. The Chinese and Australian speakers shared similarities in four aspects of the conversation: global sequential organisation, topic development moves, strategies for the speaker floor, and means for topic change. Specifically, they followed a similar linear pattern in the task completion at the macro-structure level, involving three distinct stages (i.e., opening sequence, body sequence, and close sequence), and they also employed the same basic moves in the topic development, i.e., sustain their own topic through building and/or appending, and respond to the partner’s turn by means of minimal acknowledgement, recycling or extending of the topic. In addition, the two groups of speakers resorted to the same mechanism for speaker rights, namely, they made use of discourse control measures (questions, interruptions, overlaps, and latches) for the speaking floor and they also employed self-selection for topic change.

The resemblances between the two groups in the four aspects in the paired task are largely due to the goal-oriented, institutionalised nature of the task. Mandated with the task of goal fulfilment, the speakers were bound to follow the pre-determined ‘agenda’ as required for the task completion, that is, to employ some basic moves for topic development, to apply discourse control strategies for the speaking floor, and to rely on self-selection (of the next speaker) for topic change.
8.2.3.2 Differences and contributing factors

Despite the resemblances between the Chinese and Australian dyads in the four aspects mentioned above, differences were also identified between the two groups in five areas of their interactional behaviour, namely rhetorical style; interactional patterns; turn-taking strategies; employment rate of discourse strategies; and performance frequency of listener responses.

8.2.3.2.1 Rhetorical style

The rhetorical style used is among the most prominent differences in the interactional behaviour of the Chinese and Australian speakers in the paired task. The data analysis shows that while all the Australian dyads presented their ideas in a direct/deductive fashion, the Chinese speakers exhibited a hybrid of direct/deductive and indirect/inductive styles in the talk in terms of rhetorical structure. Over 70% of the Chinese dyads organised the discourse directly/deductively, whereas slightly over one quarter of them presented their ideas indirectly/inductively. These findings, while strongly supporting the literature on the cross-culture communication and contrastive discourse studies pertaining to the communication style favoured by English native speakers, (i.e., a direct/deductive rhetorical style), they certainly challenge the validity of the traditional stereotypical view on the culturally-valued rhetorical strategy by Chinese, (i.e., an indirect/inductive rhetorical style) (e.g., Clyne, 1994; Kachru, 1995; Kirkpatrick, 1991; Scollon & Scollon, 1995/2001; Young, 1994). As mentioned in Section, 8.2.1.1, the co-existence of both direct and indirect rhetorical patterns in the Chinese talk may indicate both the effect of their L2 development and the influence of their L1 and C1 in their interlanguage.

8.2.3.2.2 Interactional patterns

The orientation to the differing patterns of interaction is another important difference in the interactional behaviour of the Chinese and Australian dyads. Despite the fact that the number of collaborative talks exceeds the cases of non-collaborative conversations in both groups, which concurs with the results from both Galaczi’s (2004) and Davis’s (2009) studies that collaborative interactions are the most common of all pattern types, variations were identified in three aspects in terms of interactional patterns, including pattern types, the distribution of these patterns, and the presence of conversational dominance in these patterns. The Australian dyads generally assumed the equal roles in the discussion and produced more stable patterns across the pairs (collaborative and parallel), whereas the Chinese dyads enacted the varying roles in the interaction and generated the diversified patterns of
interaction, i.e., symmetrical (collaborative and parallel), asymmetrical patterns (dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, expert/novice), and blended pattern, which possessed the features of more than one pattern type. Additionally, the two groups also varied in the frequency of occurrence of these patterns. Specifically, while the Australian dyads generated 20% more collaborative dyads (N=6) than their Chinese counterparts, the Chinese dyads produced one more parallel talk (N=2) than their Australian peers. Moreover, the Chinese pairs also adopted each of the four asymmetrical patterns and one a blended pattern, which were not observed in the Australian cohort. Finally, the Chinese and Australian speakers displayed a varying degree of conversational dominance in the interaction. For instance, the Australian group produced approximately 70% more HCD collaborative talks (N=21) than the Chinese speakers. The Chinese dyads generated four HCD collaborative talks, which was exactly the same number of LCD collaborative talks co-constructed by the Australian dyads. The finding that the Chinese speakers generated more variety of patterns of interaction than their Australian counterparts is in agreement with Galaczi’s (2004, 2008) projection that non-native speakers produced more varieties of interaction in the dyadic conversation.

As explained in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.1, symmetrical patterns, collaborative patterns, and HCD collaborative subpatterns generally reveal a higher level of dyadic collaboration and mutual involvement among the dyad members than asymmetrical patterns, non-collaborative patterns, and LCD collaborative subpatterns respectively. Therefore, the conversations by the Australian dyads tend to display a higher level of interactivity.

The disparities between the Chinese and Australian speakers in the pattern orientation are thought to result from a number of factors. However, based on this study, it seems most likely that the variations between the two cohorts stem from three main factors: the conversational management skills; the culturally-valued conversational styles; and the differing perceptions of the oral task, which was framed as a test by the Chinese dyads, but more as a real conversation by the Australian peers. The finding regarding the last of the three variables accords with the claims made by both He and Dai (2006) and Luk (2010) in their studies on test discourse in Mainland China and Hong Kong respectively that Chinese candidates tend to frame the oral task as an assessment event rather than a real communication.

8.2.3.2.3 Turn-taking behaviour

The third difference between the Chinese and Australian speakers in their interactional features concerns the turn-taking strategy. The two groups of speakers displayed varying turn-alternation strategy in the conversation with respect to the length of turns, the turn alternation
style, and the preferred turn-taking format. The Chinese dyads generally produced long turns; applied a slow-paced turn-taking strategy; and preferred a discrete turn-taking mechanism, whereas the Australian dyads normally generated short turns, adopted a fast-paced turn-taking strategy, and performed simultaneous talk quite frequently. The results relating to the turn-taking behaviour of the two groups are in agreement with the literature on the culture-specific nature of turn-taking convention (Aritz & Walker, 2010; Clyne, 1994/2002; Wong & Waring, 2010).

The variations in the turn-taking behaviour of the two groups could be accounted for by three factors: the differing patterns of interaction; the culturally preferred conversational styles; and the discrepancies in English conversational skills between the two L1 groups.

**8.2.3.2.4 Conversational devices**

The fourth difference between the Chinese and Australian speakers in the interactional behaviour is the employment of conversational devices. While the four conversational devices (i.e., question, interruption, overlap, and latch) were employed by both groups in the interaction, they were performed at a varying rate. The Chinese initiated questions much more frequently than their Australian counterparts; whereas the Australians employed a notably higher rate of interruptions and simultaneous talk than their Chinese peers.

The Chinese dyads raised questions much more frequently than their Australian counterparts in the dyadic conversation. This could stem from the fact that, apart from being used to seek information, offer the speaking floor, and request clarifications, questions are also viewed as tokens of interest and engagement with the interactants in the interaction, and are also employed by the Chinese speakers both as a linguistic strategy to maintain and develop a conversation (Fishman, 1983; Lakoff, 1975) and as effective way to nominate and develop topics in the goal-oriented interaction. In addition, the Australian dyads initiated both a considerably higher rate of interruptions and a notably higher frequency of simultaneous talk than their Chinese peers.

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These differences, like the turn-taking behaviour, are thought to result from three factors, namely, their orientation of different patterns of interaction; their adoption of culture-valued conversational styles; and their discrepancies in their conversational management skills. The finding relating to the adoption of their preferred conversational styles in the discussion by the two groups of speakers in this study confirms the assumption made by Aritz and Walker (2010) that, generally, collectivist cultures show more instances of a “high considerateness” style whereas western individualistic cultures tend to exhibit a “high involvement” style though the communication styles are not inherently Chinese or Australian (p. 33).
8.2.3.2.5 Listener responses

The final difference between the Chinese and Australian speakers in terms of their interactional features resides in the employment of listener responses. The Australian dyads provided a considerably higher number of listener responses to their partner than their Chinese counterparts did in the dyadic interaction. As with the conversational devices, the same three factors are thought to lead to the varying performance of backchannel responses between the two groups, that is, their orientation to different patterns of interaction; their adoption of culturally-preferred conversational styles, and their discrepancies in their conversational management skills.

To sum up, a CA comparative analysis of the pair talk by both Chinese and Australian dyads in terms of three key dimensions (generic structure, interactional pattern and turn-taking behaviour) revealed both noticeable similarities and striking differences between the two groups in the interactional behaviour. Similarities were found in four areas, i.e., macro-level sequential organisation, topic development moves, strategies for the floor-taking, and means for topic change. However, differences were also identified, including rhetorical style, interactional patterns, turn-taking strategies, employment rate of discourse strategies, and performance frequency of listener responses. The resemblances between the two groups in their interactional features are largely due to the institutionalised, goal-oriented nature of the task and the differences are thought to result from four major variables, including, but not limited to, their orientation to the diverging patterns of interaction, their employment of culturally-preferred conversational styles, their discrepancies in the conversational management skills, and their differing perceptions of the oral task. Thus, it appears that the variations between the Chinese and Australian speakers in the interactional behaviour in the paired task are caused by multiple variables and factors other than the discrepancies in language proficiency between the two groups also exert influence on how a speaker behaves in the co-construction of the conversation.

Despite the salient features illustrated above, attention should be drawn to the possible discrepancies between the actual performances of the participants in the mock oral task and the authentic live PETS-5-SET test, in particular, the Chinese participants, who are likely to take the test for various purposes. In addition, there might also be a problem in the generalization of the findings to “real” discursive practices as the discourse generated in this simulated paired task may not be representative of any “authentic” talk in real life events, which is particularly the case for Australian participants as they would normally not be engaged in such a paired task discussion in English.
8.3 Evaluation of the study

8.3.1 Contributions

The present study makes significant contributions to theory and practice in several areas. First, this study has theoretical significance in that it not only contributes to a better understanding of speech characteristics of Chinese EFL learners, but it also adds knowledge to the repertoire of EFL speaking for other sociolinguistic contexts. Through the careful examination of how the Chinese students are managing their discourse in the speaking test, this study makes a very useful contribution to the field of researching EFL spoken interaction both within China and beyond.

Second, by providing a fine-grained CA analysis of the process of interactive discourse production and a detailed description of interactional competence displayed by the speakers in the paired discussion (i.e., open the talk, initiate and expand topic, claim and quit turns, send backchannel cues), this study not only contributes to the development of “interactional competence” theory (Kramsch, 1986; Hall, 1993, 1995, 1999; He and Young, 1998; Young, 1999, 2000, 2010), but it has also proven the strength of the paired PETS-5-SET task as a valuable instrument for eliciting and measuring test takers’ interactional competence.

Third, this study contributes to L2 oral assessment theoretically in terms of the IC construct, performance rating, and rating scale construction. By providing a detailed examination of the interaction process and strategies employed by the speakers in the two-way collaborative tasks in the PETS-5-SET, this study helps obtain a deeper and more sophisticated understanding of the construct of interactional competence underlying the candidate-candidate pair speaking format. Informed with a clearer view of dyadic interaction and the construct of interactional competence underpinning the performance of the candidates, examiners/raters might offer more accurate and fairer assessment of candidate’s output in the tests. In addition, this study provides insights into the issue of empirically-derived, data-driven construction of rating scales for the PETS-5-SET and other similar spoken tests such as the FCE. It is suggested that the interactional features identified in this study could be incorporated into rating criteria for interaction effectiveness adding to the existing descriptors in paired test tasks such as the PETS-5-SET so as to make them adequate from the viewpoint of interactional competence. For instance, the performance descriptors used for the ‘interactive communication’ scoring rubric in the PET-5-SET can be revised for potential improvement on the basis of the findings in this study.
Fourth, apart from the aforementioned areas, another important theoretical contribution this study has made is the development of the three-tier hierarchical framework for the investigation of the dyadic conversation under the examination context, which could also be applied to examine the fundamental conversation management skills which the speakers bring with them to talk-in-interaction in other institutional settings. In addition, the identification of the two new subpatterns in this study, i.e., “interviewer/interviewee” and “consultant-client” pattern helps expand the frameworks proposed by both Storch (2001, 2002) in L2 learning context and Galaciz (2004, 2008) in the examination context. Moreover, the establishment of the three-tier taxonomy of interactional pattern (symmetrical, asymmetrical, and blended pattern) (Chapter 4, Section 4.2.1) on the basis of the speaking roles assumed by the speakers in the task completion, along with the other three defining variables (equality, mutuality, and conversational dominance) employed by Storch (2001) and Galaczi (2004), helps develop a more delicate categorisation of patterns identified in the dyadic interaction and a clearer illumination of the logical relationship between the patterns than the framework previously proposed by these two researchers.

Fifth, this study makes important methodological contributions to the research on test discourse in two ways. The study lends strong support to CA being a valuable tool for investigating the nature of interaction in examination contexts to inform the assessment of speaking ability. By highlighting the benefits of the use of CA techniques to inform oral assessment, this study has further strengthened the interdisciplinary link forged between oral assessment and CA methodology in previous studies (e.g. Brown, 2003; Davis, 2009; Dings, 2007; Galaczi, 2004; Lazaraton, 2002; Lazaraton & Davies, 2008; Lu, 2006, 2008; Nakatsuhara, 2004, 2009). In addition, by combining the thicker descriptions and quantifications of some salient discourse features, this study has confirmed the possibility and strength of using a quantitative approach as a supplementary tool to CA techniques for the examination of paired test talk.

Sixth, this study has great pedagogical significance. The detailed investigation of the interactive discourse sheds light on problems and difficulties faced by Chinese EFL learners in making conversation and it also informs language educators of the effective conversational strategies employed by their Australian counterparts in dyadic interaction. This helps L2 teachers offer implicit instruction of conversational management skills, such as active participation, mutual involvement, and supportive feedback, which will contribute to the learners’ improved conversational English.

Finally, the findings from this study contribute significantly to the current debate on the norms to be applied in English language teaching and testing in the postmodern era. The
CA comparative analysis of the speech styles exhibited by both Chinese EFL learners and Australian native speakers in the paired task help clarify our understanding of the conversational features of these two varieties of World Englishes: China English and Australian English, which represent the “Expanding Circle” and “Inner Circle” Englishes respectively, based on Kachru’s three concentric circles model (1985, 1986, 1992).

8.3.2 Limitations

This study is one of the first empirical studies to investigate the test discourse of the PET-5-SET paired task using CA techniques. Nevertheless, while the study has made significant contributions to the fields in several academic areas as discussed above, it is not without limitations, particularly in terms of both methodology and scope, which should be acknowledged.

Firstly, the qualitative CA analysis, with emic interpretation of the spoken data is inevitably a subjective endeavour, one that involves an inductive, data-driven approach to examine talk-in-interaction. As a consequence of this methodology, the study’s findings are more explanatory than generalisable. If other methods had also been adopted (e.g. interviews or think aloud protocols), then an even richer account could have been provided.

A second limitation derives from the data, which were elicited by using mock oral tests rather than a real setting of the test. The difficulty in getting permission from the examination authority in China for the recordings of “real” tests was the main reason for this shortcoming as tests are deemed to be highly confidential in China, and there is not (yet) an openness to the potential benefits that might arise from allowing researchers access to such data. Thus, although the “simulated” test was administered in near-authentic conditions, including the active role of the assessor (or researcher in the case of this study) when necessary, it is possible that some candidates may not have performed in the same way that they actually would have in a real test situation. Therefore, the issue of generalization of findings seems problematic as the paired task may not represent the specific type of real discursive practice. Further research which gathers data from test takers from the authentic PETS-5-SET will yield more accurate and reliable conclusions in terms of findings related to this particular test.

Another limitation of this study lies in its scope. As it rested on one test task component of the PETS-5-SET only (i.e., a paired candidate discussion) rather than the entire test, even though the most interactive task was chosen for the analysis and it held the potential to illuminate peer-peer dyadic discourse the most, this relatively limited focus could somewhat undermine the generalisability of the results. Thus, there is no way to generalise the
findings from this thesis beyond this particular speaking test task. Consequently, this study cannot offer a full picture of Chinese students’ interactive behaviour in the PETS 5 speaking test.

A fourth limitation of the study is in the sampling of universities. Only two universities, both located in Beijing, were represented. Although the participants recruited for this study are very well-balanced regarding the age, gender, disciplines, and level of study within the two locations, no representative samples were collected from any university outside the capital city. Future research which includes a wider representation might generate results which could be generalised to the total population of all tertiary students in China.

Finally, the study examined the salient features of the interactive discourse exhibited by Chinese EFL learners in a paired discussion using CA methodology based on the transcripts of the audio-recordings of their spoken performances. The lack of video-recordings of the talk makes the investigation of nonverbal behaviours, which are seen as important characteristics of conversations (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008) and a crucial aspect of interactional competence as shown by previous studies (Duccase & Brown, 2009; May, 2011), impossible. Though this is beyond the scope of the present study, its absence could lead to overlooking some important components for the interpretation of the data, which would otherwise provide a more complete description of Chinese EFL learner’s interactional behaviour in the dyadic conversation.

**8.4 Implications of the research**

In light of the contributions presented in Section 8.3.1 above, this section discusses the implications of this study in a range of areas, including for theory, L2 teaching and testing practice.

**8.4.1 Theory**

An important finding of this study for theory is that the Australian (NS) speakers generally assume equal roles and orient to more stable patterns of interaction regardless of the task and topic while the Chinese (NNS) dyads tend to enact different roles in the conversation and adopt diverse patterns of interaction. As shown from the data set of this study, a few Chinese pairs used asymmetrical (dominant/passive, interviewer/interviewee, consultant/client, expert/novice) and blended models in their conversation though the collaborative and parallel patterns emerged in the discussions by both groups of speakers. This finding is in agreement with the results in Galaczi (2004) that non-native speakers orient to different patterns of interaction. However, two new pattern types were identified in this
study in addition to those reported in Galaczi (2004, 2008) as well as those observed in Storch (2001, 2002). Therefore, the present study adds to the growing body of research on dyadic conversation in both L2 classroom learning contexts and L2 oral assessment conditions.

Another implication for theory is that the direct/deductive mode of speaking is the major rhetorical style Chinese speakers adopt in their presentation of ideas in dyadic interaction though there are still a number of them structuring the information indirectly/inductively due to the cross-cultural influence from C1 and L1 (negative) transfer, where the main point is delayed until some kind of background information has been presented. The examination of the pair talk by both Chinese and Australian dyads in terms of rhetorical structure revealed that 73.6% of the Chinese and all Australian speakers oriented to a direct/deductive pattern in the dyadic conversation. Therefore, the traditional notion that Chinese prefer an indirect/inductive communication and rhetorical style in contrast to the direct/deductive style favoured by Westerners in the discourse structuring (e.g., Clyne, 1994; Kachru, 1995; Kirkpatrick, 1991; Samovar & Porter, 2004; Scollion & Scollon, 1995/2001; Young, 1994) is only partially true. In other words, the tag conventionally labeling Chinese speakers as preferring an indirect style over a direct style in information structuring is invalid in the postmodern era. This may be attributable to their L2 development as a result of (1) their increasing access to native/authentic linguistic and the socio-cultural input of English-speaking countries through western media as part of the process of globalisation; and (2) direct instruction of English discourse strategies in the L2 classroom.

The final important implication of this research for theory concerns the potential factors impacting the candidates’ discourse performance in the paired speaking test, in particular, the pattern of interaction they oriented to in the conversation. The CA findings from this study suggest that some construct-external variables such as interlocutor characteristics (i.e., L2 proficiency, personality, gender, personal interactional style, conversational management skills), linguistic/cultural background, the nature of task, may influence the discourse of test takers. As an illustration of this point, the Chinese dyad (C Talk 3) adopted an asymmetrical pattern probably due to the passivity of the male speaker, his inadequate language proficiency or his lack of conversational management skills. By the same token, the three Australian pairs (A Talks 7 and 28, A Talk 19 and 24, A Talk 29 and 30), with their personal interactional styles, produced long turns in the interaction regardless of the task and topic. These results indicate that spoken interaction is a very complex process involving multiple factors, which mutually interact to result in certain patterns of interaction. Thus, the findings also lend strong support to interactional competence theory (Hall, 1993, 1995, 1999; He & Young, 1998; Kramsch, 1986; Young, 1998, 2000, 2008, 2009, 2011) in
that L2 interaction is socially-constructed and jointly created by the participants involved, rather than being a cognitive process residing in an individual learner/speaker as supported by a cognitive view of the L2 construct held by communicative competence theory (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Canale & Swain, 1980, 1983; Celce-Murcia, 2007; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995).

8.4.2 L2 teaching practice

This thesis has four main implications for L2 teaching. First, the results of this study revealed that speakers approached the task differently in their task completion in terms of topicality production as indicated by their orientation to different patterns of interaction, which in turn resulted in a conversation marked with different features. For instance, the overwhelming majority of the Australian dyads oriented to a collaborative pattern of interaction and consequently, they produced a dynamic conversation characterised by short turns, rapid speaker change, high occurrences of conversational devices, and frequent incidences of listener responses. By contrast, quite a number of Chinese speakers adopted a non-collaborative pattern in generating their conversation, indicating a lower level of interactivity. In other words, on the whole, the Australian students seemed to exhibit a higher level of interactional competence in the dyadic interaction. Since the adoption of certain patterns might impact the interaction produced, it is argued that the implicit instruction of conversational management skills might benefit L2 learners greatly. To enhance their interactional competence, it is suggested that conversational skills be taught implicitly to L2 learners. Furthermore, following the proposals by a number of researchers (i.e., Barraja-Rohan, 2011; Bowes & Seedhouse, 2007; Brown, 2003; Burns, 2001; Burns & Moore, 2007; Hall, 1993, 1999; Seedhouse, 2005; Walsh, 2006; Wong & Waring, 2011; Young, 1999, 2000, 2010), CA-informed pedagogical approaches are strongly recommended to be applied in the L2 learning process so as to improve learners’ interactional competence. According to Barraja-Rohan (2011), CA can be effectively used in L2 classrooms to initially raise students’ awareness of both the mechanisms and norms of spoken interaction and also eventually help them become analysts of conversation as well as more effective conversationalists (p. 479). Based on Hall (1999), the development of L2 IC involves minimally two major stages: the systematic study (consciousness analysis) of model interactive practice and guided practices in those interactive practices. Therefore, L2 teachers are expected to analyse the transcribed recordings of ‘model’ talk-in-interaction by means of CA techniques (see also Wong & Waring, 2010), discuss the conversational (interactional) characteristics of the exemplary talk,
and then guide learners to practice using these observed skills in the classroom activities. As the result, their conversational skills and eventually interactional competence can be improved.

A second implication for teaching practices relates to learner’s L2 development. The results of the study showed that speakers orient to different patterns of interaction in the dyadic conversation even if they are working on the same task and topic, but not all of the patterns are conducive to learning from an L2 development perspective, which highlights the need for the teacher to guide the learners to interact in a desired manner for their target language development. According to Storch (2001, 2002) and Galaczi (2004, 2008), certain types of interactional patterns in the dyadic conversation, i.e., collaborative and expert/novice models, are more conductive/beneficial to language development than other pattern configurations. Storch (2001) argues that these two types of patterns create greater opportunities for language development where the speakers share their ideas, build common knowledge, and engage with each other’s contributions. It is therefore recommended that L2 teachers need to not only organise proper learning activities such as pair and group work, but more importantly, carefully monitor the type of dyadic relationship that evolves between learners in these activities, and facilitate them to work cooperatively in the task completion, with a focus on discourse features such as ways of expanding the partner’s topic and means to providing the supportive feedback. Additionally, this coaching of empowering the learners to play a more active, supporting role in the discussion should not be viewed as a one-off training session; learning to engage in collaborative responses is a long-term goal needing to be developed throughout the learning process.

The third main implication for teaching practices lies in increasing EFL learners’ awareness of the significance of active participation in effective conversational interaction in the target language. The findings from this study demonstrated that, along with close collaboration, enthusiastic involvement of the Australian speakers in each other’s contributions helped them co-construct a more dynamic and interactive conversation than did their Chinese peers, as indicated by the former’s active listenership and frequent performance of backchannel cues. To train L2 learners to take more initiative and participate more actively in conversational interaction, apart from creating a relaxing, supportive learning atmosphere by applying an interactive approach and arranging meaningfully learning activities so that students might feel less worried about making errors and are more willing to take risks in using the target language in the classroom, another crucial recommendation for L2 teachers is to motivate students, by various means, to speak willingly in classrooms. To achieve this goal, Chinese EFL teachers are also expected to be more tolerant of spoken errors made by the students, be sensitive about the importance of ‘face’ in their culture, and be more strategic in
handling their oral mistakes. For instance, in terms of error correction, teachers might resort to ‘reformulation’ rather than using ‘rejection’ strategies; they might provide collaborative responses rather than critical or evaluative feedback to students’ contributions in the teacher-student interaction as the latter might make students lose face, feel embarrassed, and consequently become even more reluctant to speak in the classroom.

The final implication for teaching practice pertains to the teaching of the target culture. By examining the factors contributing to interactional behaviour, the present study revealed that the speakers’ respective cultures certainly play an important role in the interaction and they are one of the vital variables for the observed variations between the two groups in their conversation. As shown in the study, although the two groups of speakers engaged in the same task with the same topic in the same language, the Australian dyads adopted the discourse patterns favoured by western culture, including a direct/deductive rhetorical style, a “high involvement” conversational style, and frequent employment of interruptions, whereas the conversations by many of the Chinese dyads exhibited a strong Chinese discourse “accent” as evidenced by their use of an indirect/inductive rhetorical style, their adoption of a “high considerateness” conversational style, and their employment of the conversational strategies valued by Chinese culture (i.e., using questions very frequently, but interruptions quite infrequently) in the interaction. Therefore, if the Chinese learners are to acquire the effective conversational strategies employed by their Australian peers, the knowledge about western culture should be part of the learning repertoire. The concept of culture is not new, but it becomes more crucial from an L2 acquisition point of view in today’s diverse plural-lingual and multi-cultural societies. The importance of cultural information of the target country in L2 development is best reflected by Lussier’s (2007) proposal that intercultural (communicative) competence be integrated into the existing model of language competence in response to the social realities that people encounter continually changing intercultural situations. Therefore, it is recommended that EFL teachers try to both raise students’ awareness of cultural differences between the native and target cultures and also equip them with the culture-specific knowledge and skills of the target language for intercultural communication. Only in this way will L2 learners be able to not only use the linguistic code of the target language appropriately, but also be completely clear about the cultural roots underlying the linguistic code.

8.4.3 L2 testing practice

The present study has several important implications for L2 testing practices. The first implication relates to performance rating in paired speaking tests. As shown in this study,
although the majority of the Chinese dyads oriented to a collaborative pattern of interaction, quite a number of them produced asymmetrical interaction (i.e., dominant/passive) with one speaker dominating the conversation, which makes it harder for raters to separate the two candidates’ contributions to the discourse so as to award a single score to individual test takers (Chalhoub-Deville & Deville, 2005). To give a fair evaluation of candidates’ performance co-produced in a paired speaking test, following May (2007), raters are recommended to consider the possibility of awarding a shared score to the paired test-takers for interactional competence, while assigning a separate score for other analytical categories.

The second testing practice implication of this study is associated with rating scale construction. As the existing rating scales of paired speaking tests, which are based on a cognitive approach of language use, are inadequate for IC assessment, this undoubtedly creates problems for raters when they try to unravel the impact of one candidate upon the other’s performance in dyadic interaction. With the absence of rating scales specifically designed for IC assessment, raters are often forced to derive their own frame of reference or follow their own internalised standards in order to make a judgment about an individual’s interactive effectiveness in the context of paired speaking tests (May, 2007), which will certainly affect their rating reliability and ultimately the validity of the test. This is certainly true of the descriptors for the paired task in the PETS-5-SET. As the scoring rubrics, in particular, the subcategory “interactive communication” relating to the interactional behaviour of the test takers are no longer adequate from the interactional point of view, a revised version would be useful. Based on the findings of this study, recommendations are offered to revise the existing performance descriptors in the PETS-5-SET scoring rubrics (see Appendix A) in two ways if possible. First, test designers might consider the feasibility of creating two sets of rating criteria for the test including one which is more holistic to be applied to all three tasks, and one specifically targeting the paired task (since it is the most interactive of the three and has the most potential to elicit the interactional competence of the candidates) with a focus on interactional effectiveness. Alternatively, the existing performance descriptors for the PETS-5-SET scoring rubrics seem too general and not explicit enough and there appears a need for revision to highlight the salient features of conversational interaction from the IC perspective.

To reach this objective, against the backdrop of interactional competence, drawing on the literature (e.g., Davis, 200; He & Dai, 2006; May, 2007; Ducasse & Brown, 2009; Galaczi, 2004, 2008; Lu, 2003), and based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are provided for the performance descriptors used for the two subcategories
“discourse management” and “interactive communication” in the PETS-5-SET scoring rubrics\(^1\). The two categories are defined and in turn operationalised as the band descriptors.

According to Cambridge First Certificate in English 6 Teacher’ Book (2003), “discourse management” refers to “the candidate’s ability to link utterances together to form coherent monologue and contributions to dialogue” (p.13). This scale mainly concerns the “coherence” (logical arrangement of utterances to develop an argument or theme), the “extent” (appropriate length of individual contributions to develop the discourse), and “relevance” of each candidate’s individual contribution to the completion of the tasks, i.e., to maintain a coherent flow of language and how relevant the contributions are to the propositions mentioned previously. “Interactive communication” refers to “the candidate’s ability to use language to achieve meaningful communication.” (p.13). This ability includes the use of conversation management skills to accomplish the communicative event assigned, such as initiating topics relevant to the given task, responding to the partner in a timely manner, negotiating meaning with the co-participant substantially, and applying proper turn-taking strategies to realize a smooth transition between turns.

To be compatible with the other two subcategories of the existing scales of the PETS-5-SET (grammar/vocabulary and pronunciation/intonation), only three major levels of band descriptors, i.e., level 1, 3 and 5, which are equal to 1, 3 and 5 points respectively in the existing rating scales, are provided in the revised version of the rating scales for both “discourse management” and “interactive communication” sub-categories in Table 19.

### Table 19. Subcategory rating scales for the PETS-5-SET (discourse management and interactive communication) (see next page).

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\(^1\) The suggested revision of the rating scales for the test at this stage only concern two subcomponents, i.e., “discourse management” and “interactive communication”. The reason for this is that my PhD research mainly deals with the conversational management strategies of the dyadic conversation, which are closely related to the two discourse-relevant scoring rubrics mentioned above, in particular the latter. Additionally, the findings of my PhD research clearly indicate that these two descriptors could be improved. The other two subcategories (grammar/vocabulary and pronunciation/intonation), which concern linguistic aspects of the conversation (Lu, 2003), along with the area of non-verbal behaviour, which are seen as important characteristics of conversations (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008) and an crucial dimension of interactional competence (Ducasse & Brown, 2009; May, 2011), have not been dealt with in this revision since these are beyond the scope of what my research has shown and without a stronger basis, I feel it unwise to suggest any recommendations for those items.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels/items</th>
<th>Discourse management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Level 1 (1 point)** | Overall communication is virtually unsuccessful, demonstrating an inadequate operational command of language and poor mastery of discourse management skills.  
- Produce short and incoherent discourse with unclear logic between utterances, indicating lack of awareness of discourse organization and limited control of cohesive devices.  
- Organize discourse/information mostly in indirect/inductive fashion, namely, main ideas are generally placed after the supporting details for justifications or reasons.  
- Hardly develop topics. With disjoined utterances and frequent pauses, communication is fairly impossible; therefore it is hard to follow.  
- Offer very simple arguments/opinions not quite related to the topic being discussed. Respond to the partner’s ideas inadequately and inappropriately. Contribute little to the task completion. |
| **Level 3 (3 points)** | Overall communication is basically successful, demonstrating a fairly adequate operational command of language and quite good mastery of discourse management skills.  
- Produce fairly extended and coherent discourse with the connections between the utterances adequately marked, though the means for marking the relationship is quite limited.  
- Organize discourse/information both directly/deductively and indirectly/inductively, that is, main ideas are mostly placed before supporting arguments for justification/reasons, but occasionally, they are put after the supporting details.  
- Develop topics with logically arranged utterances, though the contributions are relatively simple. Generate fluent speech with occasional pauses while searching for words.  
- Offer fairly complex argument/opinions generally corresponding to the topic. Respond fairly appropriately to the partner’s ideas. Contribute considerably to the task completion. |
| **Level 5 (5 points)** | Overall communication is very successful, demonstrating an adequate operational command of language and good mastery of discourse management skills.  
- Produce extended and coherent discourse with the relationship between the utterances clearly marked using a variety of means, i.e., cohesive devices to organize the speech event.  
- Organize discourse/information in a direct/deductive style. In other words, main ideas are always presented before the supporting details for justification or reasons.  
- Develop topics adequately with complex but logically arranged utterances. Generate continuous and fluent speech without obvious pauses between subsequent turns.  
- Offer quite complex arguments/opinions corresponding to the topic. Respond appropriately to the partner’s ideas. Contribute substantially to the task completion. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels/items</th>
<th>Interactive communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Level 1 (1 point)** | Overall communication is virtually unsuccessful, demonstrating a poor operational command of language and low level of interactional competence.  
- Communicate only the most basic information. Express opinions/ideas in a fairly limited manner on very common topics. Negotiate rarely with a very limited repertoire. Possess very limited interactional language functions and almost no communicative strategies. Without constant help, the conversation is almost always likely to break down.  
- Initiate topics when nominated. Rarely nominates the other speaker, even when he/she has the floor. Poor mastery of discourse strategies makes it hard to seize the floor. Has no ability to expand the topics. Respond minimally to the co-participant. The discourse generated mainly consists of isolated words rather than a continuous talk.  
- Has almost no ability to exploit turn-taking strategies effectively to keep a conversation going. Role switch between a listener and speaker is always difficult with frequent inter-turn pauses and inter-turn fillers. Utterances between turns are poorly contingent upon one another.  
- Listens fairly carefully, but most often cannot understand the interlocutor’s message and respond timely and appropriately either. Inadequate language proficiency and poor communicative strategies. Provide only minimal listener feedback to the partner. |
| **Level 3 (3 points)** | Overall communication is generally successful despite some inadequacies, demonstrating a fairly effective command of the language and adequate interactional competence.  
- Communicate information fairly effectively. Express opinions/ideas sufficiently on common topics. Negotiate often and with a fairly adequate repertoire. Maintain a conversation by using basic interactional language functions and communicative strategies, though they are not always applied effectively or appropriately.  
- Initiate and develop one’s own topics, but may work separately in topic development. Lack of cooperation between the speakers or overt passivity from one of the speakers may contribute to a non-collaborative pattern of interaction (i.e., dominant/passive, parallel interaction).  
- Adopt a fairly interactive turn-taking strategy, but occasionally apply the turn-taking rules mechanically without attending to the situational appropriateness. The equal partnership cast between the participants result in frequent performance of interruptions to gain speaker rights.  
- Listen actively to the primary speaker, but may not be supportive. Basically understand the interlocutor’s message and respond accordingly but with occasional lapses. Provide relatively limited listener feedback to the partner as the speakers concentrate on their own topics. |
| **Level 5 (5 points)** | Overall communication is very successful, demonstrating a fully operational command of language and high level of interactional competence.  
- Communicate effectively. Express opinions/ideas on a variety of topics. Negotiate with the partner persistently whenever needs arise. Use a wide range of interactional language functions and communicative strategies to maintain and ‘repair’ the communication if necessary.  
- Take initiatives to nominate and develop one’s topics. Work cooperatively with the partner by supporting his/her topic development. Engage mutually in each other’s contributions, which helps co-construct a dynamic conversation and generate a collaborative pattern of interaction.  
- Adopt interactive turn-taking strategies. Alternate turns on the basis of immediate context along with the unfolding of the conversation. Make proper use of discourse strategies in gaining the speaker rights, i.e., floor-taking by interrupting politely and purposefully.  
- Listen actively and supportively to the primary speaker, fully understand the interlocutor’s message and provide listening support through offering timely and appropriate feedback by means of either full statements or backchannel cues. |
Similarly, the revised version of the ratings scales for the two subcategories “discourse management” and “interactive communication”, which are empirically-based and data-driven, may provide insights into the possible improvement of other similar speaking tests such as the FCE, in particular when interactional competence is the main focus of the speaking assessment. It is necessary to point out that this revised version is far from perfect, in particular, due to limitations of time, though it is felt the new version is more detailed and explicit than the existing version. Therefore I would wish to claim that the two aspects of the new version are just an exploratory step toward an explicit, comprehensive picture of test-taker talk in a paired task from a CA perspective.

The final testing implication of this study concerns the design of test tasks. As discussed in this study (Chapter 2 Section 2.2.1.3.3), the issue of fairness has been raised by critics regarding the pairing of the dyads in the new testing format, in particular, asymmetrical dyads of interaction. How to make sure that paired test takers receive equal opportunities to display their speaking skills in the dyadic conversation is a question warranting investigation. Based on the previous empirical work and the evidence of this study, three approaches are recommended to resolve this dilemma: (1) multiple tasks should be designed in the speaking tests, which allows for potential participation inequality of the speakers in a paired task to be readdressed by providing adequate opportunities for contribution in the other task so that interactional imbalance between two test takers might be minimised. In this sense, the PETS-5-SET is a well-constructed test as it entails three tasks in different speaking genres (interlocutor/examiner-candidate interview, candidate-candidate discussion; and candidate monologue); (2) the same type of task (either expository or argumentative or other types) should be assigned to the candidates across the board in any given test so as to avoid the possibility of any test takers being judged negatively or awarded lower scores by the examiner as a result of their co-construction of a parallel talk, which might follow from their being assigned to the argumentative task, whilst the examiner may think the interactional format (parallel) is not quite collaborative; and (3) examiners should be trained to “afford equal opportunities to both test takers and to elicit the best possible performance from each speaker” (Taylor, 2001). To reach that goal, examiners should monitor the testing process carefully and mediate the discussion if necessary to make sure that one test taker does not dominate the other.

8.5 Recommendations for future research

While making positive contributions to a better understanding of the interaction in a paired test talk by an in-depth CA analysis, this study is not without shortcomings. On the
basis of questions that have emerged from the present study, some recommendations are suggested for further research in the future.

The most important direction for future research would be to gather data from the authentic PETS-5-SET test so as to draw more accurate and reliable conclusions about that particular language testing instrument. This recommendation would only be possible if permission could be obtained from the examination authority in China to record the live test discourse.

Another recommendation for future research would be the supplementation of the study with other instruments in data collection (i.e., interview, questionnaire, and think-aloud protocol). The inclusion of the ethnographical approaches, along with the recordings of the test performance of the participants, would provide a wider range of interpretations of the discourse co-constructed by the test takers in the paired task of the PETS-5-SET. With the input from the participants, the study would provide a fuller and more explanatory perspective on the issues under investigation that would not have been possible by looking at the spoken data alone.

The present study only examined the most commonly applied task type (i.e., paired discussion) listed in the paired task of the PETS-5-SET by using CA techniques. A follow-up study might investigate the remaining task types of the paired task (i.e., role play, decision-making, problem-solving) in order to obtain a fuller picture of Chinese EFL learners’ interactional styles in the paired testing format.

A follow-up study is also recommended to investigate the discourse features of Chinese EFL learners in the other two PETS-5-SET tasks, i.e., interlocutor/examiner-candidate interview and candidate monologue. This would provide a more holistic picture of the interactional features of the test talk by the Chinese EFL learners in the whole test system so as to enable the generalisation of the findings.

Finally, a useful further extension of the present study would be to expand the data set by both audio- and video-recording the discourse performances of the Chinese learners of English so that non-verbal behaviours of the speakers could be examined to capture a more complete picture of Chinese EFL learner’s interactional behaviour in the dyadic conversation. Obviously, it would be best if permission to record the live PETS-5-SET test could be obtained from the education authority in China.

8.6 Summary

This thesis has presented a study investigating the English spoken in paired discussions elicited through simulations of part of the PETS-5-SET English proficiency test. Chapter 1 set
the scene for the present study. At the beginning of the chapter, the background of the study (motivation and rationale) was provided. The objective of the study, i.e., to investigate the salient features of Chinese EFL learners’ discourse in the paired task of the PETS-5-SET by using CA techniques, and its significance were then described. The research questions and scope of the research were also presented.

Chapter 2 provided a comprehensive review of literature relevant to the current study, comprising two major aspects: the theoretical underpinnings of the current study, including three key dimensions (i.e., interactional competence, cross-culture communication, and conversational analysis), and the previous discourse-based empirical studies in both speaking tests and L2 interaction in classroom contexts, focusing on the research investigating the nature of test talk by Chinese EFL learners on group and, in particular pair orals using CA methodology.

Chapter 3 described the research design and methodology followed in the study, comprising two major parts: data collection and data analysis. In the former, the rationale for the research design, i.e., to record the performances of both Chinese and Australian students at the university level in a matched paired discussion, and the procedures of collecting these two sets of spoken data were outlined. The latter illustrated the analytic framework developed for analysis of the spoken discourse, comprising three dimensions (generic structure, interactional patterns, and turn-taking behaviour), and the procedures involved in the analysis of the pair talk, including data segmentation and coding of the variables necessary for the data analysis in each of the three dimensions.

Chapter 4 provided an overview of CA findings from this study that derived from the analysis of the pair talk based on the analytic framework mentioned in Chapter 3. With a brief discussion of the results of pair talk analysis from the aforementioned three dimensions, this chapter contextualised the detailed illustrations of the findings in chapters 5, 6, and 7. Chapter 5 and 6 reported the results of pair talk analysis by both Chinese and Australian participants from the three aspects respectively, while Chapter 7 compared the interactional features of the pair talk exhibited by Chinese and Australian participants in terms of the same three aspects, discussed the differences in the interactional behaviour of the two groups, and also gave an account of some of the most important contributing factors to these variations.

In Chapter 8, a summary of the main findings of the present study and an evaluation of the study in terms of its contributions and limitations have been presented. The implications of this research for theory, L2 spoken teaching and testing as well as the recommendations for future research have also been discussed.
8.7 Thesis conclusion

This research project has shown that, except for a few dyads, which oriented to a high conversational dominance (HCD) collaborative pattern and produced a fairly dynamic conversation, the majority of the Chinese speakers displayed a relative lack of supportive collaboration in the task completion and mutual involvement in the topic development between two speakers in the paired speaking task. This was evident in terms of their interactional features, i.e., longer turns, slower change of speakers, frequent employment of questions, low performance of conversational devices, and reserved use of backchannel response, indicating a lower level of interactivity and to some extent naturalness. The study also demonstrated that the Chinese speakers shared both similarities and differences with the Australian speakers regarding their interactional styles. Briefly, the Chinese dyads are similar to their Australian counterparts in four major ways: they followed the same linear pattern in terms of sequential organisation; they employed the same basic moves for topic development; they made use of the same discourse strategies for speaker floor; and they resorted to self-selection for topic change. The resemblances between the two cohorts in the four aspects are largely due to the goal-oriented, institutionalised nature of the task. However, the Chinese speakers differ from their Australian peers in five major aspects: they applied different rhetorical style in idea presentation; they oriented to different patterns of interaction in topicality production; they adopted different strategies in turn alternation; they performed discourse control measures for speaker rights at varying rates; and they employed backchannel responses for listener feedback with differing frequency.

In a broad sense, the variations observed between the two groups in their interactional behaviour are thought to result from a number of factors, including language proficiency, personality, personal interactional style, culturally-valued conversational style, linguistic/cultural background/identity, and the nature of the task, all of which played different roles in contributing to the differences in interactional behaviour of the Chinese and Australian speakers. However, based on the findings of this study, it is argued that the three most prominent factors which impact the observed variations between the Chinese and Australian speakers in terms of conversational style in the dyadic conversation are interactional patterns, culturally-valued discourse strategies, and conversational management skills. Specifically, more Chinese dyads oriented to non-collaborative patterns, while more Australian dyads assumed collaborative models. The Chinese pairs adopted a speech style valued by Chinese culture, which shares the major features of a “high considerateness” conversational style, whereas the Australian pairs use a “high involvement” style, which accords well with western culture. The Chinese speakers as EFL learners were not as skilful
as the Australian counterparts in manipulating the language and they were not as strategically proficient as their Australian peers in managing the conversation either. Owing to these factors, the Australian speakers exhibit a higher level of active participation, closer collaboration, and mutual involvement between the dyad members in the interaction than the Chinese speakers.

The findings from this study raise two important points. First, if we accept the perspective that the primary goal of language learning is to become competent interactivity, then it is crucial for learners to learn how to acquire this competence. It can be achieved through engaging in diverse discursive practices (Hellermann, 2006, p. 378), such as those inherent in the paired task used in the PETS-5-SET. Second, if we value the conversational strategies (i.e., collaborative interaction) employed by the native (Australian) speakers in the paired task and consider them as the desired target for EFL learners (which is very much the case in China as indicated by the limited but still significant studies on the attitudes of Chinese students toward the ‘native English’ as a norm of learning (He & Li, 2009; He & Miller, 2011; Jin, 2005; He & Zhang, 2010; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Yu, 2010), then the Chinese learners of English may need to approximate the native speakers by applying the findings from this study as a frame of reference so as to improve their conversational English, including learning to adopt a “high involvement” conversational style, active turn-taking strategy, and a collaborative pattern of interaction in the dyadic conversation, among others.

To acquire “native-like” interactional skills, L2 teachers are recommended to teach their students these conversational strategies explicitly, preferably by using CA techniques, i.e., analysing their interactional features and guiding them to practice using these skills in well-designed, task-based classroom activities. During the activities, teachers are expected to encourage and facilitate students to participate actively in the task completion, interact collaboratively with the partner, and be involved mutually in each other’s contribution. As a result, their conversational management skills or interactional competence can be improved.

In recent years, with the rapid spread of English as the result of globalisation and its status as an international language (Crystal, 1997) and its function as a lingua franca (Jenkins, 2007), there has been keen debate among scholars regarding the norms to be applied in L2 learning and teaching. Of the three main options, i.e., ‘native norms-standard English’ (Davies, 2002); ‘new English norm-the World Englishes (Lowenberg, 2002); and ‘both-norms-and-more-varieties’ (Canagarajah, 2006), it is expected that “native English” will remain the ideal model of learning and teaching in Chinese EFL contexts for a long time to come for two major reasons. First, the preferred norm of English learning for the majority of Chinese students is basically native-speaker-bound as indicated by the aforementioned studies.
on Chinese students’ perception of World Englishes. One of the major reasons reported in these studies for their preference of “native English” as the ideal model of learning is that Chinese students expect to acquire “standard” or “authentic” spoken English, especially in terms of pronunciation (He & Miller, 2011, p. 437) though they recognise the existence of varieties of World Englishes and they have a positive attitude towards “China English”. Second, excluding students’ goals and needs, teachers’ expertise, and the availability of materials and resources, until “China English” has been clearly defined and adequately described in terms of its system as a language, its status of ‘legitimacy’ clearly established, the issues like “mutual intelligibility” resolved, and above all, until it has been supported and accepted by the Chinese public, it is impossible to apply “China English” as the norm in EFL teaching practices in China. Therefore, this study is of considerable relevance to Chinese learners of English, and the findings can be used as guidelines for the improvement of their conversational English.
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APPENDICES
Thesis Structure

(Part B- Appendices)

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Appendix A

The Public English Test System Level 5 Spoken English Test (PETS-5-SET)

1. Content and structure

The PETS intends to provide assessment and certification of communicative English language skills in reading, writing, listening, and speaking at five levels of competence, from Level 1 (low) to Level 5 (high). The test battery encompasses two subtests: written and spoken. The oral subtest of the PETS 5, the highest level of the battery, also known as the PETS-5-SET, is designed to assess language competence and communicative ability of candidates. As shown in Table 12 (Chapter 2, Section 3.2.2.1.3, p. 61), the PETS-5-SET comprises three sections: examiner-candidate exchange; candidate-candidate collaborative task, and candidate extended monologue. The total time allotment is approximately 15 minutes, including 5 minutes for Section B, and the total score accounts for 5 points.

As a reminder, the composition of each section in the PETS-5-SET is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Time allotment</th>
<th>Test format</th>
<th>Prompts provided</th>
<th>Skills measured</th>
<th>Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>2 minutes</td>
<td>interlocutor-candidate interview</td>
<td>elicitation questions</td>
<td>interactive skills and effective communication</td>
<td>0 - 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>5 minutes</td>
<td>candidate-candidate discussion</td>
<td>prompts (text/picture)</td>
<td>communication</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>8 minutes</td>
<td>candidate extended monologue</td>
<td>prompts (text/picture)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15 minutes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Task types in Section B

As shown in Table 19, there are three types of oral tasks in the PETS-5-SET: interview test, paired discussion, and individual presentation. The second task, which is the most communicative of the three, attempts to measure candidates’ interactional competence. It entails several types, including “problem solving”, “sequence ordering”, “role play”, “decision-making”, “discussing about a given topic”, and “arguing over an controversial issue” (NEEA, 2006, p. 21). Of the six task types, the last two (i.e., “topic discussion” and “controversial issue”) are the most commonly applied ones, which are applied and, for the sake of convenience, are labeled as “expository” (Task Type 1) and “argumentative” (Task Type 2) in this study.

In the “expository” task, each participant is required to select three items (subtopics) out of seven or eight from the list (i.e., factors/benefits/reasons/causes/solutions) given in the rubrics and justify the choices, i.e., to tell the partner why s/he thinks the three items chosen are the most important. If they hold different opinions, participants may argue with each other and add their own ideas which are not listed in the prompts. With the “argumentative” task, participants are asked to present their points of view on the controversial statement first and then justify their claims by choosing three items (subpoints) each from the list given in the prompts and discuss with their partners. The prompts in the second task type present two groups of opposite positions: four reasons for and four reasons against the statement, from which participants might choose three as the supporting arguments for their claims. They may talk about the reasons for or against or both sides of the issue (i.e., a more balanced view). If they hold different opinions, participants may argue with each other and add their own ideas which are not listed in the prompts. In both cases, the task completion time is approximately 5 minutes. To illustrate the features of the two types of tasks, two examples are given below.
3. Sample tests for Section B
Sample task Type 1
Topic: what are some of the reasons for one to learning a foreign Language?

What do you think are the main reasons for one to learn a foreign language? Choose three from the list and tell each other why. If you hold different opinions you may argue and you may also add your own ideas that are not listed here.

*Reasons for one to learn a foreign language:*
- To travel abroad for sightseeing
- To meet the academic requirements
- To do business with foreign countries
- To learn more about their own language
- To learn about the values of another culture
- To learn about the history of another culture
- To communicative with people from another culture

Sample task Type 2
Topic: Are you for or against the statement that “Modern people should live in big cities”?

Here is a list of the phenomena and causes given for the topic (see the list below). Do you agree or disagree with the statement? Choose three from the list and discuss with your partner. You should tell each your opinion on the issue and why you think so. If you hold different opinions you may argue with each other and you may also add your own ideas that may not be listed. You may talk about only reasons for or against or both sides of it.

*Reasons for “Modern people should live in big cities.”*
- There are more opportunities for jobs.
- There are good facilities for recreation.
- People may have much easy access to shopping areas.
- They are equipped with excellent educational institutions.
- …

*Reasons against “Modern people should live in big cities.”*
- It is noisy in big cities.
- Air is much more polluted.
- Price of property is much higher.
- Traffic congestion might be a problem.
- …
4. Performance rating

1) Rating scales

a. Chinese version

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>总体评分标准</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>总体表现</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 交流中断，需要给予进一步的指导或帮助。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 语言表达有限，不连贯，不准确，不正确的发音可能会给对方造成困难。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 主动进行交流，语言表达连贯流畅。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 所用语法基本准确，词汇基本恰当。语言表达能使人理解，几乎不会给对方造成理解困难。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 轻松主动地进行交流，语言表达连贯流畅恰当。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 几乎没有语法错误。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 用词广泛，语言表达易于理解。</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>分项评分标准</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>语法与词汇</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 有语法错误，影响口试任务。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 所用词汇有限，不恰当。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 所用语法基本正确，尽管使用复杂结构时出现一些错误。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 所用词汇基本恰当，较丰富，但在谈论复杂的话题时不得不借助于简单词汇。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 语法正确，但在使用复杂结构会出现一些错误。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 用词恰当、丰富。</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>话语运用</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 所用语言知识不足以完成所规定的任务。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 产出话语有限，不恰当，缺乏连贯。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 使用恰当的语言知识完成本级所要求的任务。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 能够展开话题，话语基本连贯，恰当。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 使用丰富的语言知识完整有效地完成所要求的任务。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 能够恰当地展开话题，且流畅连贯。</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>语音与语调</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 发音不正确而且有些话语不易理解。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 母语口音给对方造成困难。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 单词发音较清晰。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 重音、节奏和语调较恰当。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 母语口音明显但是多数话语易于理解。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 语音和语调的掌握和韵律特征。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 话音口音明显但是话语易于理解。</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>互动交际</strong></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 不能有效地进行交流。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 时常停顿需要他人的耐性。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 能够进行交流。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 能有效地区分和接受之间转换。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 能够主动引导话题。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 时常停顿。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 能够完整而有效地进行交流。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 能够轻松自如地在产出和接受之间进行转换。</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• 能够主动引导话题。</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Overall (global) rating scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall performance</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With communication breakdown, further reminder or help is needed from the interlocutor to complete the task.</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate, incoherent and inaccurate language output, along with inaccurate pronunciation, makes it hard for the interlocutor to comprehend the speech.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Active participation, coherent, and smooth communication.</td>
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<tr>
<td>With accurate grammar, appropriate vocabulary, and intelligible discourse, the interlocutor can understand the speech without difficulty.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Active participation; relaxing interaction; and coherent and natural use of the language.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Virtually no grammatical mistakes occur.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wide range of vocabulary and easily comprehensible discourse.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Sub-category (analytical) rating scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar &amp; vocabulary</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical mistakes may affect the task completion.</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
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<tr>
<td>Limited and inaccurate use of vocabulary.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fairly accurate use of grammar though some errors might occur in case of complex structure.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A wide variety and proper use of vocabulary though simple words are needed for the difficult topics.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Correct use of grammar but some minor errors might occur in case of the complex structure.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Proper use and richer variety of vocabulary.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse management</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate language proficiency makes it difficult to complete the task.</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
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<tr>
<td>Limited, inappropriate, and incoherent language output.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Be able to complete the task by using appropriate language required for this level (of competence).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Be able to develop the topic with fairly coherent an accurate discourse.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Be able to complete the task required substantially and effectively with adequate language proficiency.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Be able to expand the topic naturally and coherently.</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronunciation &amp; intonation</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inaccurate pronunciation and occasional incomprehensible language.</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Chinese accent makes it harder for the interlocutor to comprehend the speech.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Clear pronunciation for words.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Proper stress, rhythm, and intonation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Easily comprehensible discourse on most occasions despite the accent.</td>
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<tr>
<td>A good mastery of pronunciation and prosodic features of English language.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easily comprehensible discourse despite the Chinese accent.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interactive communication</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not be able to communicate effectively.</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant pause makes the interlocutor impatient.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be in need of constant reminder and help in interaction.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Be able to communicate.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be able to switch between the roles of a listener and speaker appropriately.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be able to respond and introduce topics.</td>
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<tr>
<td>With occasional pauses.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Be able to communicate substantially and effectively.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be able to switch between the roles of a listener and speaker smoothly.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be able to respond and introduce topics actively and properly.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1. This is my translation of the rating scales of the PETS-5-SET in the Chinese version (see the previous page) and these descriptors are confidential (and not publicly available), but are provided for benefit of thesis examiners only.
2) **Benchmark criteria**
Examiners assess the candidates’ spoken performance based on the following four subcategory criteria. The total score is 5 points and 3 points is the benchmark for qualification (NEEA, 2006, p. 84).

**a. Grammar and vocabulary.**
Candidates’ performance is evaluated in accordance with the appropriateness and accuracy of the grammar and vocabulary. The candidates are expected to be able to express themselves effectively, demonstrating the proper use of grammar and a wide range of vocabulary, but the candidates are also allowable for some mistakes in their language output.

**b. Discourse management**
Candidates are assessed against cohesion and coherence of their discourse in performing the tasks. They are expected to manipulate/manage the language proficiently, convey messages and express one’s ideas coherently. However, candidates are also allowable for some sporadic incoherence in their discourse.

**c. Pronunciation and intonation**
Candidates’ performance is judged by the degree of intelligibility of their utterances, including the clearness of single phonemes, the appropriateness of elision stress, rhyme, and intonation in their speech. If it does not affect the intelligibility, the candidates are also allowable for their mother tongue accents in their speech.

**d. Interactive communication**
Scores are awarded to the candidates with reference to their task completion and mutual interaction. They are required to respond properly and introduce the topic in a timely manner, including maintaining the interaction by employing functional language and making proper repairs via applying communicative strategies. They are also expected to take turns naturally to interact with each other in the conversation and take the initiative in expanding a topic.
Appendix B
Ethics Approval Letter

12 March 2009
Ms Lianci Liu
39/12 Waterloo Road
Mansfield
NSW 2122

Reference: HE28NOV2008-D08183L&P

Dear Ms Liu,

Title of project: Discourse Features of Chinese EFL Learners' English in an Oral Proficiency Test

Thank you for your recent correspondence. Your responses have addressed the issues raised by the Faculty of Human Sciences Sub-Committee of the Ethics Review Committee (Human Research). Approval of the above application is granted, effective 9th March 2009, and you may now proceed with your research.

STANDARDS ATTACHED TO APPROVAL:

1. Approval will be for a period of twelve (12) months. At the end of this period, if the project has been completed, abandoned, discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are required to submit a Final Report on the project. If you complete the work earlier than you had planned you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. The Final Report is available at:

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/researchers/ethics/human_ethics/forms

2. However, at the end of the 12 month period if the project is still current you should instead submit an application for renewal of the approval if the project has run for less than five (5) years. This form is available at:

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/researchers/ethics/human_ethics/forms

If the project has run for more than five (5) years you cannot renew approval for the project. You will need to complete and submit a Final Report (see Point 1 above) and submit a new application for the project. The five year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Sub-Committee to fully re-review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws.

3. Please remember the Sub-Committee must be notified of any alteration to the project.

4. You must notify the Sub-Committee immediately in the event of any adverse effects on participants or of any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.

5. At all times you are responsible for the ethical conduct of your research in accordance with the guidelines established by the University:

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/researchers/ethics/human_ethics/policy

If you will be applying for or have applied for internal or external funding for the above project it is your responsibility to provide Macquarie University’s Research Grants Officer with a copy of this letter as soon as possible. The Research Grants Officer will not inform external funding agencies that you have final approval for your project and funds will not be released until the Research Grants Officer has received a copy of this final approval letter.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Shirley Wyver
Chair, FoHS Ethics Review Sub-Committee, Ethics Review Committee (Human Research)

Cc: Dr Stephen Moore, Department of Linguistics

ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE (HUMAN RESEARCH)
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/researchers/ethics/human_ethics

www.mq.edu.au
Appendix C
Consent Form for Chinese Student Participants

Department of Linguistics
Faculty of Human Sciences
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY NSW 2109 AUSTRALIA
Phone +61 (0)2 9850 8740
Fax +61 (0)2 9850 9199

Information Statement and Consent Form
(English version)

Name of Project:
Interactional Features of Chinese EFL Learners’ Discourse in a Paired Speaking Test.

You are invited to participate in a study of the salient features of interactive discourse by Chinese EFL learners in a paired speaking test. The purpose of the study is to investigate the interactional features displayed by Chinese learners of English in a paired discussion and key factors contributing to those features by using conversational analysis techniques.

The study is being conducted by Liandi Liu (Tel: 0431273397; Email: liandi.liu@mq.edu.au) under the supervision of Dr. Stephen Moore (Tel: 98508742) of the Department of Linguistics of Faculty of Human Sciences, Macquarie University, Australia. This study is being conducted to fulfil the requirements of a PhD in Linguistics.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked firstly to have a mock oral test i.e. a paired discussion (Task Two of Public English Test System Level 5 Spoken English Test) (about 5 minutes), where the researcher will be present to administer the activity, then respond to a questionnaire (about 20 minutes), and finally participate in a group interview (about 20 minutes). All the three tasks will be completed within approximately 50 minutes.

Your oral performance in the paired discussion and responses in the interview will be audio-recorded and the questionnaire will be conducted anonymously. At the completion of the tasks, you will be treated to a generous Chinese lunch as well as a movie ticket as appreciation for your participation.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential. A code rather than your real identity will be applied to the data in the process so as to ensure that your confidentiality is fully protected. Any publication as a result of this research will not include any information identifying your participation.

The data collected will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in Department of Linguistics of Human Sciences, Macquarie University. Nobody will have access to the data except the researcher and her supervisor.

If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

____________________________________________________________________

I, ( ), have read and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant’s Name: ________________________
(block letters)

Participant’s Signature: ____________________ Date: ______________________

Investigator’s Name: Ms Liandi Liu
(block letters)

Investigator’s Signature: ____________________ Date: ______________________

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Review Committee (Human Research). If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone 00612-9850 7854, fax 00612-98508799, email: ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

Alternatively, you may contact locally for ethics related issues:  
Contact person: Ms Xu Jie,  
Tel: 13521883750  
Email: Agnesxuje@126.com  
Lecturer of English Language Education Center,  
Beijing Language and Culture University, Beijing, China.

(Investigator’s [or Participant’s] Copy)
研究项目名称:

中国英语学习者在英语口语考试中的话语特点分析。

您被邀请参加“中国英语学习者在英语口语考试中的话语特点分析”的研究项目。该项目采用会话分析的方法，探究中国英语学习者在两人结对英语口语考试中的互动特点及其形成因素。

该项目由刘连娣（电话：0061-431273397；邮箱：liandi.liu@mq.edu.au）以其指导教师斯蒂芬-穆尔博士（澳大利亚麦考瑞大学人文科学院语言学系教授，电话：0061-98508742）的指导下，为完成语言学博士学位（PhD in Linguistics）而进行的研究。

如果您愿意参加，您将被邀请完成三个活动：首先参加公共英语5级两人结对讨论部分的模拟考试（约5分钟），接着填写问卷（约20分钟），最后参与小组访谈（约20分钟），完成所有三项活动共计约50分钟。作为对您参与活动的感谢，您将被邀请享受一顿丰盛午餐并赠给一张电影票。

口试和访谈过程将被录音，问卷采用匿名形式。所有活动中数据的采集采用编码，而非真实身份，以完全保护您的个人信息。所有收集到的数据和您的个人信息将被严格保密，日后发表的作品也不会包含您参与过该研究的任何说明。

收集的数据将被存放于麦考瑞大学人文学院语言学系的文件柜中。除了研究者和她的导师之外，其他任何人没有机会获得这些资料。

如果决定参加，您有随时退出进一步参与研究的权利，不必给出理由。

我，（）阅读并领会以上信息，我所有的问题都从中得到了满意的答案。我同意参加研究，知道可以自由选择是否参加进一步活动，而不会产生任何后果。我持有一份“信息说明和同意书”（参与者副本）。

参加者姓名（正楷）：______________________

参加者签名： ____________________________日期：

研究者姓名（正楷）：______________________

研究者签名： ____________________________日期：

该研究所涉及的道德问题得到了澳大利亚麦考瑞大学道德审查委员会（人文研究）的批准。如果您对参加该研究所涉及的任何道德问题存在不满或有所保留，您可以与其主管与道德审查委员会联系（电话：0061-98507854，传真：0061-98508799，邮箱：ethics@mq.edu.au）或就研究涉及的相关道德问题咨询北京语言大学英语教育中心徐老师（电话：13521883750，邮箱：Agnesxujie@126.com）。

(研究员或学生副本)
Appendix D

Invitation Flyer for Chinese Student Participants
(English version)

Volunteers needed!

Are you a Chinese student? Are you learning English? Would you like to enjoy a FREE but delicious Chinese lunch plus a movie ticket?

60 university students are needed to participate in three activities (a mock oral test in pairs, questionnaire, and group interview).

The activities are being undertaken as part of my doctoral research at Macquarie University, Australia, and will be held on campus at Beijing Language and Culture University, China.

Only 50 minutes of your time is needed.

To participate or for more information, please contact:
Ms. Xu: Beijing Language and Culture University
Mobile: 13521883750
Email: Agnesxujie@126.com
Ms. Liu: Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia
Tel: (0061) 431273397
Email: liandi.liu@mq.edu.au
研究参与者招募广告

您在学习英语吗？

您愿意享受一顿丰盛的免费午餐和一张电影票吗？

作为我在澳大利亚麦考瑞大学博士研究的一部分，现招募 60 名学生参与 3 项活动：

两人结对英语讨论、填写问卷和小组访谈（该活动将在语言大学校内进行）。

所有活动仅仅需要您约 50 分钟的时间！

有兴趣参与者，请联系：
徐老师：北京语言大学
电话：13521883750
电子邮箱：Agnesxujie@126.com

刘老师：澳大利亚麦考瑞大学
电话：(0061) 431273397
电子邮箱：liandi.liu@mq.edu.au
Appendix E
Consent Form for Australian Student Participants

Department of Linguistics
Faculty of Human Sciences
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY NSW 2109 AUSTRALIA
Phone +61 (0)2 9850 8740
Fax +61 (0)2 9850 9199

Information Statement and Consent Form

Name of Project: Interactional Features of Chinese EFL Learners’ Discourse in a Paired Speaking Test.

You are invited to participate in a study of the salient features of interactive discourse by Chinese EFL learners in a paired speaking test. The purpose of the study is to investigate the interactional features displayed by Chinese learners of English in a paired discussion and key factors contributing to those features by using conversational analysis techniques.

The study is being conducted by Liandi Liu (Tel: 0431273397; Email: liandi.liu@mq.edu.au) under the supervision of Dr. Stephen Moore (Tel: 98508742) of the Department of Linguistics of Faculty of Human Sciences, Macquarie University, Australia. This study is being conducted to fulfil the requirements of a PhD in Linguistics.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to have a paired discussion on two assigned topics in English. The task will take you a total of approximately 20 minutes, including 15 minutes for the actual talk and 5 minutes pre-talk preparation i.e. attending a mini-orientation to the task completion and signing the Information and Consent Form if you agree to participate in this research. Your oral performance in the oral test will be audio-and video-recorded. At the completion of the task, you will be given two movie voucher tickets as appreciation for your participation.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential. A code rather than your real identity will be applied in the process so as to ensure that your confidentiality is fully protected. Any publication as a result of this research will not include any information identifying your participation.

The data collected will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in Department of Linguistics of Human Sciences, Macquarie University. Nobody will have access to the data except the researcher and her supervisor.

If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

I, ( ), have read and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant’s Name: ____________________________
(block letters)

Participant’s Signature: ____________________________ Date: ____________________________

Investigator’s Name: Ms Liandi Liu
(block letters)

Investigator’s Signature: ____________________________ Date: ____________________________

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone: [02] 9850 7854, fax: [02] 9850 8799, email: ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

[Investigator’s [or Participant’s] Copy]
Appendix F
Invitation Flyer for Australian Student Participants

Volunteers needed!

Are you an Australian student?
Are you a native speaker of English?

Would you like to get two FREE movie vouchers
and a chance to win an ipod?

30 university students are needed to participate in a mock English test.
The test will be held on campus at Macquarie University
Only 20 minutes of your time is needed.

To participate or for more information, please contact:
Ms. Liandi Liu
Tel: 0431273397
Email: liandi.liu@mq.edu.au
Appendix G

Transcription Conventions

Overlapping talk
Latching of utterance segments
Pauses short than two seconds
Length of a pause a tenth of a second
Abrupt cutting off of a sound
Lengthened vowel sound (extra colons indicate greater lengthening)
Emphasis/stress
Increased volume
Softly spoken sounds
Decreased speed
Increased speed
Continuing intonation
Falling intonation
Rising intonation (not necessarily a question)
Nonverbal action, e.g., laughter
Inaudible or unintelligible sound (extra Xs indicates more syllables)
Arrows indicate a marked falling or rising intonational shift. They are placed immediately before the onset of the shift.

Note: Adapted from Atkinson and Heritage (1984) and Wooffitt (2005).
Appendix H

Transcripts for the Pair Talk – Chinese Student Participants

Task: C Talk 1 (Type 2)
Duration: 5:40 minutes

Topic: Are you for or against the statement "University student should have a part-time job"?

Speakers: R=Researcher; X=Xiao Kang (female); W=Wen Bao (male)

R Are you ready?

01 X so what's your what’s your opinion? agree or disagree?

(0.4)

02 W um (0.2) in my opinion, I found uh a part-time job is (0.3) um good (0.3) for u:s (0.3) college students to (.) uh for the following 3 reasons. (0.2) um the first is that (.) um it can to some extent ease um (0.6) ea::se (0.3) uh our financial burden (0.4) %cause% it provides us with (0.2) um extra money, (0.5) and the second (is) that (0.3) um (.) we can have chance to develop our working skills (0.2) du:ring the experience of (0.5) a part-time job (0.6)and the last but not the least is that (. ) we learn how to cope with different people (0.2)in the society, through um the experience of er part-time job.

(0.4)

03 X um I’m sorry uh I’m afraid I can’t agree with you, (. ) and- and I think (0.2) university students shouldn’t have part-time job and I (. ) I have the 3 following reasons (. ) and the first reason is that I think part-time job will affect our er academic study. (0.3) and second reason is that (0.2) if we do part-time job (. ) that means we will have less time to communicate with our classmates(0.3) and I think it is- (0.2) um (don’t) be beneficial, (.) and the last reason is that (. ) I think the skills or practice you (’ll) learn from (0.2) uh part-time job can also be learned if you er after your graduation, (0.3) so I think there is no need for a university student to do part-time job. (0.7) and and um(. )for me: I think (. ) uh in one's who:le life, (. ) each period people should focus (0.2)on one main duty (. ) and for university students (. ) our main duty is to study well (0.3) but part-time job will take up our study time, (0.3) so I think er part time job i- is not so good.

(0.4)

04 W um I think (. ) your point is su:perficially plausible,(0.4) since there’s no (reason) have shown that a part-time job will (0.2) have bad effects on our study,(0.3)and uh I think(0.2)it is sometimes necessary for some of us to take a part-time job since (0.2)um financial burden (0.3) or even financial problems for us to go on study in the university does EXIST(1.0)for some students, (0.4) and it is (0.3) um (0.4) not only um effective, (0.3) but also (0.2) um (0.3) indispensable for (0.2) them (0.3) those who have (0.2) a financial burden (0.5) burden to have a part-time job (0.2)in order to um get more money, (0.4)um to support their er study.

(0.4)

05 X (hm)(2.6) bu- but you know I- I still think um the (. ) experience or skill you learn from (0.2) your part-time job is limited. (0.2) I mean um you- you (don’t) have enough
knowledge you don’t have enough experience, (. ) and um but when you have already graduate that means you have obtained enough (. ) er things or information you- you need (. ) then at the time when you er maybe get a (. ) professional job, you can learn more(0.2) and more effective and efficient, (0.6) (uh) so I- I- I still don’t think part-time job e- e is- is e- um is um be- er is good. (1.0) and also (. ) uh you know I think (0.2) the (0.2) CLASSMATES in our university is very important in our (0.2) er life er after our graduation, (0.3) (and) we are in the same fie:1ds and w- w- maybe we- we- we can help each other (0.2) er after graduation, (0.2) but if you do part-time job that means you have (0.3) um less time to communicate with our university classmates (0.2) um may be this will (0.3) um um u- um- (this) will (0.3) not so good. 

[((laughs))]

06 E [um (0.8) we'll um] (0.4) > it can’t be denied that part-time job will take some time from our study< but a part-time job is called a part-time job because it only took a part time, (0.6) um (0.4) > it won’t take too much time< that we still have chances and opp- and (the) time to communicate with students and classmates and (. ) er what’s more, we have (0.3) er (0.2) a > part-time job< can give us (0.2) more opportunity to um communicate with different people from (0.3) in the society OUTSIDE the er uh academic yard and (. ) er and er (1.0) wh- which may ALSO um taught us how to um (0.3) deal with teamwork, (0.9) er as a RESULT, (. ) we may learn er about (. ) er to:lerance and cooperation and (. ) so which are needed for our future career (0.3) er (0.4) especially (and) to be a leader (0.5) (and a s-) (0.4) the like. (0.5)

07 L Well(0.3) it sounds reasonable but you know that the main task for the university students is (0.2) er study to get as much knowledge from the courses (0.4) you have chosen as possible in order to prepare themselves (0.3) for their future career if you acu- (0.5) accumulate enough knowledge then it is good for you to er find a job when you graduate (0.2) but it will affect your study if you do part-time job because it certainly (0.3) reduce your time for study.

R OK good.
Task: C Talk 2 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:10 minutes
Topic: What are some of the solutions to dealing with traffic congestion in big cities?
Speakers: R=Researcher; Z=Zhu Ge (male); S=Shi Liu (female)

R shall we start now?
01 Z ok uh since I am student (I so) no 'ladies first’ ok, [and uh (.)]

Z especially in uh (0.2) metropolis
03 S okay=

Z =I will just start the topic. and our topic is (.). traffic congestion big cities such as Beijing, and uh (.). my three points are the first one (.). that is (to) educate citizens to obey the traffic rules, and the third one open more bus routes (.). to move passages quickly (0.2) and the fifth one (if I’m right) develop a subway s- network system. and as for the first (0.3) first point (.). educate citizens to obey the traffic rules, (0.2) I think uh especially in China and e- in the minds of the uh (.). western people, that is rules (0.2) is rules, it is very important it can’t be banned (0.6) under any circumstances. (0.2) so (0.2) er rules (0.2) traffic rules can make (0.2) the transportation more efficient, (.). and disobeying the rules may cause (.). chaos or accidents (0.2) and will further lower (.). the uh efficiency of the transportation, (.). so I think the first one (0.2) I should (pick) the first one. (.). and then the third one open more bus routes to more passages quickly, (0.3) and I think er maybe (0.2) the bus in Beijing um (.). certain lines (.). certain routes (0.2) they are too too much crowded inside and uh (0.4) uh arguments disputes stepping on he- he- on the feet may happen during (.). uh our journey (0.2) er to certain destinations, (0.2) so opening um more bus routes (0.6) er if one bus route is added and then more than one bus route(s) (0.4) will be er relie:ved (.). of the (0.2) pressure on the traffic, (0.2) so this one(.). I will pick. (0.4) and uh (0.3) the third one I think will be used together with the last one (.). that is encouraging the residents to use public transportations, (.). so if the public don’t use the tr- (0.2) public transportations, (.). and you just added bus routes(.). that make the road more crowded with uh (.). public transportations buses, (.). so that’s no good for us(.). and the fifth one (.). develop [a better subway(.). system (right)]
05 R [uh I’m sorry you- you do not do]minate the discussion, you have to join him.
06 S okay [er you] choose the first (uh) one edu[cate] citizens= Z [okay ] [yeah]

S = (0.2) bu[t uh ] how to educate them? (0.2) especially in China you know person

Z [yeah]

S always [(can’t) ]
07 Z [yeah muh- ] maybe (.). er stronger fines, stronger punishments, (.). that will be a (.). good education for most of the rule breakers, (0.2) I think so yeah. (0.9) but I’m not driving a car, so I don’t know (.). how the drivers (view it) when they are fined, breaking a minor rule right? so (0.4) just think in my head (.).%so%. (0.3)
08 S [ok but I ] think in practice (it very hard.) (0.3)

Z [(no practice)] yeah it is can be harder
yeah=

10 S =yeah
11 Z yeah
[(u[m)]
12 S [yeah ] uh yeah please.
[(0.8)
13 Z uh (0.3) [(do f- do finish)? ]
14 S [(so I o- I go on with it] yeah (0.2) no there is still the last one (to)
develop a better subway network system. (0.4) and uh as for this one I think uh (0.4) um
subways travels (run) underground so it doesn’t take space above the ground and it
will (. ) alleviate um make more room for the uh- traffic above the ground, and (uh)
(.) the subways they run on tracks (0.3) so er (we) won’t have to regulate them (0.2)
where to go,(.) so (0.2) people just get (into) the subway coaches (. ) and the coaches
(.) go where it should go (right), (0.2) where it is bound for (0.4) and uh (0.4) er
subway systems they don’t have uh much congestion problems(0.3) [(right)?] uh (0.4)
[$\text{yeah% }$
16 S and [in summer] (. ) [they’re very] cool=
17 Z [except ] [yeah yeah ]
=yeah yeah yeah e- except uh there are jumpers (0.2) right, in the subway system
to (0.2) cause emergencies and accidents(0.3) so (0.2) that’s my point. uh=
S =((mm)=
Z but what about [(your uh (. ) yeah)]
18 S [um ] maybe you’re right but I think the most
important is (uh)[inc]rese the fees
Z [yeah]
S for parking in the city areas (0.2) [because I] think [er- ] (. )
19 Z [yeah ( ) ] [(c-)]
20 S the root cause of uh (0.2) the traffic jam is there are too much um (. ) (uh)
vehicles on the road so=
Z =ye[ah
S [so we should uh reduce the levels of vehicles on the road. (0.2)
[uh ] (0.2) if the cost of driving uh uh is uh
Z [yeah]
S is uh high enough,
(0.2)
Z %ye[ah%
S [and the driver may (0.2) uh might uh cl- be cl- be less inclined to the- the- the-
uh their- their- their cars (0.3) and uh so it can reduce the (numbers)
of cars. ]
21 Z [yeah on this] point I totally agree and (0.3) your (suggestion) (0.2) is
[uh your suggestion]=
S [{(laughs)}
Z =is more important right? (uh) maybe the er parking fees (0.2) should be uh classified
or adjusted according to the time periods, (0.2) for example u day time (. ) um (. )
there will be higher (0.2) parking fees and at night there will be lower right?
(0.4)

S (I guess)

Z [yeah]

S [and I think this means uh measure uh can encourage the resident to utilize the [public] transportations yeah yeah the there is more [yeah ] encouragement in [that right]

Z [and uh] in London (although) it's very successful for uh charging (.) er (0.6) uh charging the the [congestion uh fees] (0.2) [in the] downtown areas.

Z [the parking fees right] [yeah ]

S yeah so people in London are (.) er (. ) sweeping around the suburb areas and the rural areas they go home go (. ) yeah ]

Z [yes (it very) slows the traffic=]

S =yeah yeah yeah [that's good (one)]

Z [um ] and uh I think (0.2) um develop a be- bu-

better subway n- (0.2) uh [no no uh build ] underground tunnels for vehicles is

Z [networks (you mean) ]

S [also im]portant uh (0.2) [like] uh (0.2) like overpasses,

Z [mm ] [mm ]

S =(0.3) [uh we can ] use the underground uh uh a-

Z [yeah overpasses]

S adequately=

Z =yeah [yeah yeah]

S [so I think that's a very important (0.2) and I ]

Z [yeah ] (0.3) and there is- uh less cost (.) in um building uh there is uh (. ) more cost in building a: subway system than building uh (. ) overpass (.) right??

S YES [yes yeah]

Z [yeah less] cost[ly] yeah (0.3) [that's good]

S [mm ] [and uh ] the last I think uh (0.2)

S I agree with you encourage the residents to us- utilize pu- pu- public uh transportations?

Z [so ] this is our common ground= 

S =yes I [I also] agree with you the government should create a comfortable (. ) um public uh transportations like uh don't uh like uh let people waiting a long time for (their) (. ) er bus stops, (0.4) [and ]

Z [yeah yeah] yeah (0.2)

S and uh I think uh the- the government should also add the subsidies (0.3) er for the [public trans- yeah ] (0.2)

Z [(that's a serious one)]

S =like Beijing's uh low fares uh for the for the commuters. (0.2)

Z [(mm)]

S [yeah] yeah.

R ok very good.
Task: C Talk 3 (Type 1)
Duration: 5:06 minutes
Topic: What can students do to increase their study efficiency?
Speakers: R=Researcher; T=Tian Li (female); Z=Zhou Ming (male)

R are you ready?

01 T um (0.9) ok (0.6) um first I think um (0.5) we should er keep doing exercise regular- (0.2) re- uh regularly.

02 Z uh yes I- I think so. [((laughs))]  
03 T [((laughs))] yes (.). I think er (.). if um you don’t have a healthy body, (0.3) you could do nothing (0.3) er (0.2) if you want to travel (0.2) uh you a- you are very uh sick (0.2) and you you can- you cannot go, (0.3) and if you want to study (0.2) uh you feel very tired you have- you do- you do not have a clear mind (0.2) so you can study well (0.6) and um (0.5) SECOND I think um (0.7) er we should um discuss challenging issues with teachers or classmates (0.5) cause um (0.5) different people have different opinions, (0.5) er (.). er (0.2) classmates of your same age (0.4) er can (1.0) uh give you a different opinion from their aspects, (0.4) and teachers (0.2) of er not the same age (0.3) they have a more (.). mature (er) attitude towards uh what happens (0.3) or a ma- mature opinion (0.2) and they- (gey w-).uh give you a very (0.3) [uh]

04 Z [mm] (0.4) but sometimes I (0.5) I want to ask a question to our teacher (0.2) after class, (0.3) but I always (0.2) mm (0.2) I alw- always T [okay]

Z think my question (0.4) maybe er maybe maybe the teacher th- er (0.2) will think my question is very boring, (0.2) so (0.5) um (0.7) uh (0.7) I- I am not going to [((a- a- ask her)]

05 T [so so what kind of] er er ta- uh what kind of questions do you (0.2) always >ask your teachers<? (0.5) it depends I think. (0.7)

06 Z um so- so- s- s- um some questions uh em I think is very (0.4) [silly]

07 T [interest]ing=

08 S =very silly (0.3)

09 T silly?

10 Z yeah (0.3)

11 T (nu-) so why you ask teachers these silly questions? (0.5)

12 Z because I (0.7) er I want uh (0.4) um (0.3) maybe (0.6) th- she can (0.5) give er give me a surprising answer. (0.6)

13 T I think maybe she um (0.5) um she don’t uh she doesn’t have (0.5) any preparations (0.3) of er (0.4) answering your er so-called silly questions, (0.4) er I think er if er (0.3) er she (0.3) er uh thinks it for a while, (0.3) and maybe after a few days she will (g-) er give you a more (0.4) er reasonable answers. (0.4) a- and (0.3) em
BUT also I think you can't always count on your teachers and you cannot always challenge her or him uh she - er (she or him) is also an ordinary person and she may also have something that she thinks is not worthy to talk about.

[uh you know] uh you know not every teacher um is erudite, they are not geniuses.

Z [OK]

Z [so] er if er l- like uh these days we study our text is about (a) presidential system of America right?

T [Yes (that) I think we are [(laughs)]]

Z [yeah ]

T u- u- [I think we should (%straight%)=

Z [SO [if I-]

T =(0.4) on this topic, {(laughs)}

Z [%okay% ]

T [(we are] rather) little far. a[nd I think um the ]

Z [uh ]

T third is expand your scope of knowledge by various means. um (0.5) um (0.6) as we all know that er learning is not just about uh textbooks and er we um especially in this modern um society, we have a lot of access to different kinds of uh different kinds of ways of learning such as internet um uh the television, and newspapers, and also from um your professions, I think er if you are just er er CLOSE yourself in a very small room and reading, and studying, and do- do not look out uh look out of your window to the beautiful outside world and you will lost information and you will just not called a person just of uh maybe a person in a cage and you do- you do not know what happened all around.

Z um yes I I think um (0.7) I 0.8) uh I want to continue my- (0.3) er last (0.3) er (0.6) last point uh discuss challenging issues with teachers or classmates (0.4) em (0.6) to for er (0.8) u- for me I prefer to challenge myself rather than challenge um teachers and classmates,

T okay [that's maybe .]

Z [{u- u-} if I have] some p- er (0.3) questions (0.7) um I (0.4) I prefer to search search on on the internet[by myself.]

T [ (mm hm) ] (0.5) but sometimes er the information on the internet are not very confidential, or very um (1.6) very a- (0.3) uh very (1.1) influential .I think.

R OK that’s all for this part.
Task: C Talk 4 (Type 2)
Duration: 5:15 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement "Adolescents should have free access to the internet?"
Speakers: R=Researcher; Y=Ye Jun (male); Z=Zhang Li (female)

R Would you start?

01 Y for um when it comes to (.) (uh-) to the internet I- I think the uh (0.2) uh (0.2) just like a coin has two sides (and) there are pros and cons for (.) uh for uh for adolescents’ access to the internet=

02 Z yeah (.)

03 Y um (0.2) uh (0.9) I (.) I do- I DO (0.3) think that (0.2) uh em (0.2) u- uh- (0.8) er adolescents (they) can benefit a lot from the (0.2) internet but (0.2) um the problems (0.2) um (0.4) to what extent, (.) do we have uh (0.3) er do- do they have f- free access to (.) the internet.

04 Z yeah so- so basically you are against (0.5) er that the er adolescents should have free access to the internet, you hold the- (e-) opposite opinion?

05 Y um (0.8) well (0.2) er (0.6) er not really, but I think we should be dialectic in this um (0.4) er to (0.4) we should be dialectic to look at this um (0.3) issue, (0.5) right?= 

06 Z yeah (0.5) uh well ac- actually I think that we we already know that there is no absolute freedom (0.2) [where]ever and

Y [yeah]

Z [when]ever, (0.3) so (0.3) er (0.2)I think we have- we should

07 Y have bounds and limitations, (0.8) yeah so (0.5) so you share the same (0.2) opinion with me (in) (.) [on this]? [yeah]

Z [yeah] [ex- ] yeah ex- e- uh exactly (.) er (1.2) but I think (0.3) um (0.8) you know um whe- when we say (0.2) they should not have free access to (0.3) um to the internet, um the problem is (0.3)er (0.5)how should we take measures to (0.3) um to o- (0.5)to um (0.5) withstand the- (0.5)the negative aspect of the internet.

08 Z yes so I think this is on the uh (0.4) this is the parents’ duty or (.) school teachers’ duty to (.) you know (0.7) er supervise them?

09 Y but uh- I think (0.2) uh not only for parents uh-

Z [mm mm ]

Y take the responsibility maybe the government er (.) they have to (0.3) um come up with the new measures, new regulations-, to (0.3) um to to to um (0.7) new measures to to- (0.5) sh- sh- to um (0.3) to su- to supervise the intern[et.]
[yeah actually we know that from the er news we er get that the
[government]nt er has just er launched a series of

[mm]  
Z  
er (0.3) uh- projects to (0.3) er like (0.2) how to say to um (0.7) uh (0.4)
uh to uh make er (0.3) clean internet environment for teenagers.
(2.0)

Y  
yes so- so in this way the teenager will be (0.2) be immune from the (0.4) the such
as the porno-(g-) graphic (0.2) er information (0.4) on the internet?
(0.2)

Z  
yes I think this is the er (0.3) the (0.4) er (0.4) er (. ) u- u- ultimate way to (0.4)
er (0.2) to solve the problem
(0.4)

Y  
yeah.
(0.3)

Z  
I mean (0.2) you know to (0.4) eliminate the uh pornographic site- sites
forever, (0.6) yeah and [from the] roots, (0.3) [so ]

Y  
[ [mm ]  
yeah I agree (0.2)

um and (. ) uh but if we- (. ) we- we look at this problem in in the long way, (0.2)
uh- (0.4) I- I think (0.2) um (0.2) something like morality, (0.2) the code morality
should be (. ) um should be injected to (0.3) the u- internet information provider and
also the internet users, (0.2) what do you think?
(0.4)

Z  
yes and al- I also think that the (. ) moral standards of our whole society
should be er (0.3) leveled up, (0.8) um (. ) yeah.
(0.9)

Y  
so so mm (1.2) s- s- so (0.3) can you tell me your own er experience? (1

Z  
[well] ((throat clear))

Y  
[as a] as an internet surfer?
(0.8)

Z  
yeah actually I uh (. ) I’ve uh I’ve only been you know (0.4) uh (an) internet
user for like (1.1) mm (0.4) f- f:our or five years?
(0.4)

Y  
mm
(.)

Z  
er s- cause I uh I didn’t (0.2) get a computer until I was er (0.5) junior (0.4) junior
year in uh college, (0.4) so (0.6) um (. ) at that time when I was- say (0.2) twenty
years old, (0.2) er (. ) I was mature enough to choose you know from bad (0.2) to (0.3)
er good (0.4) on the internet I- I have the ability but, (0.4) um (0.2) teenagers we
say (0.5) (you know) (0.4) er (0.7) kids (0.7) between (0.4) u- kids under (0.2) say
18 or 16 (0.4) they may do- they do- they may- (0.2) not have the ability to judge,
(0.5) so they need guidance.
(0.3)

Y  
yeah so I- I think maybe the reason for (0.3) er the one who list the reason against
(0.3) uh aga- again- against uh this argument (0.3) um f- for them um (0.4) ob- to
solve this (prob-) uh- I think that (it’s a-) (0.3) probably a problem (0.2) of the
(0.3) er um (0.2) incompatibility of the (0.2) er education of the internet education,
and the students have received from the school.

[s- so the education on internet is uh- sort of lagged behind]

Z [yes]

Y behind the school education.

R ok, that’s enough for this part.
R  Are you ready?

01  O  Hey what do you think er you can get benefit from traveling abroad?

02  A  Um: maybe I will um the most most reasons I want I want it um (0.4) is um (0.3) is enjoy enjoying different culture.

03  O  Oh I I can't agree because that you know em the internet technology develops so fast in nowadays and we can know different cultures from internet from photos or radios all like that. What's more I think we can em read books to experience different culture is more cheap er is cheaper way to en- experience different culture so=

04  A  =But em but I think you can um maybe you can get some information on the internet um or from radios but I think if you can stand there and talk to the people and then you will get more information and different um different feelings.

05  O  But I think if they do not have the money especially for em just ordinary people they got normal ordinary salaries or income they cannot afford for this expensive travelling fee so they can enjoy their abroad abroad experience on internet or from books is better=

06  A  =No I think different people have can have different kinds of travel travel travelling because if you have er if you have if you are rich you can live in five star hotels or if you are um you are poor also you can you can er stay in the KFC or MacDonald for a night.

07  O  But I still don't think it's um that's your efficient way to experience different culture I think you can get more knowledge and information from books from internet and um I think the most important benefit we can get from travelling abroad is that to relax also because um ordinary people we are facing we are facing great high pressure in our work so I think the benefit the most important benefit is to relax our mind.

08  A  Oh yes um I think that that's one reason for me but I don't agree {{(laugh)}} it's the most important because average em every time you travel to a place you can um um you um always can relax yourself.

09  O  But it's different with um travelling aboard or stay home I think um in your opinion that just stay home is good way to relax but I don't think it's good way to relax because so many young people especially they (are) stay in their dormitory whole days and without going out is um and is for um for weeks. I don't think em stay home is a good way to (0.3) relax I think travelling abroad is a better way.

10  A  Mm anywhere I think maybe it's it's um travelling is kind of relaxing yourself can help in your enjoying something.

11  O  Mm hm.

12  A  Mm and I think another reason for me is broaden one' mind travelling can broaden one's min(d) mind.

13  O  Um um I I know but I can't agree with you because I think if you just travel abroad you just travel and you don't you don't know what's the background of this culture or what's the history of the culture just travelling is useless to to travelling the first before travelling must read so many books and search information on the internet.
So I think it's not a better way it's a way to broaden our mind but it's not the best way.

14 A Um: maybe oh because I er for me travelling maybe before it I just look at where is um the cheapest order um the maybe the suitable um suitable places for for me to stay em not track too much information on which is the famous place I have to go to there I will just go to um places and and enjoy what is beautiful and I will go to there [there].

O [Mm hm]

A So I can relax myself and at the same time I can talk to so many people.

15 O But you have you ignore this fact that after the traveling that everybody feel very is more tired than before the travelling aboard because they have climbed mountains or (rode) bags or do walks or sometimes it’s hot or it's cold also the weather so after the travelling maybe they won’t relax but after the travelling they are more tired than before.

16 A ((laughs)) maybe but you can gain um after um no pains no gains I think.

17 O [((laughs))]

18 A [((laughs))) if you not experience such things and you always stay in a home and in the office or at at school all right you can't um practice yourself I think I think.

19 O Em Em I I agree that we should travel abroad because nowadays we are every people everybody (are) lack of lack of exercise lack of moving but I think you should travel with the family because travelling with family or friends and you take photos- or videos and then em after the travelling is good you can cherish your me- beautiful memory and I think this is most important because staying home with the families is boring is very boring.

20 A Yes of course ((laughter))I I agree with it and because (two syllabus) I think um is the best mem- memory

21 O Mm.

22 A For everyone um together with you.

R OK Good!
Task: C Talk 6 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:08 minutes
Topic: What are some of the benefits of afforestation?
Speakers: R=Researcher; M=Ma Bin (male); L=Li Mei (female)

01 M Ok (0.3) Hay Amy what about what do you think?
02 L We'll in my opinion I think the following three are the major benefits from afforestation and first one I think is maintaining the biological balance because I think the eco system is a very crucial factor to our planet you know
03 M [yeah]
04 L [And] if the eco system were out of balance [um]
05 M [hm]
06 L the earth we live will be on the verge of destruction and at that time our human being is also on the verge of distinguish. And so we should plant more trees and flowers and also keep from animals and to maintain the biological balance and protect our planet. And er=
07 M =Ok I totally agree with you in that point and I also think afforestation can regulate our climate and maintain the biological balance just like (the) you said the eco system.
08 L Yes
09 M And trees through the for two (things) um absorbing carbodioxide and split um (0.6) oxy
10 L =[Yo] mean (0.3) oxygen or something? [Mm]
11 M Yeah yeah yeah oxygen if there is no (0.3) aff afforestion the oxygen in the system may be not match with human and biological needs. And that's my opinion.
12 L I in in this point [I think]
13 M [yeah ]
14 L We are on the same degree also the pre the green plant can reduce the greenhouse effect (0.4) and that can um protect our environment from
15 M yeah=
16 L =from some some rays from the outer space or something.
17 M Yeah
18 L Yes and I think er the second one is improving air quality nearby
19 M [Mm]
20 L [We] know that with the rapid development of our economy the pollution problem is becoming more and more serious
21 M Yeah
22 L The air around us is become more and more dirty and we know that if we liv- if we living in this- (0.4) dirty air for a long time we can get sick you catch cold or we can get some problems our our em em (0.3) systems and so and so em em for our human beings and we should plant trees to purify our the air and we have a better impvo- er better environment to live in.
23 M Yeah (0.3) that's a good point.
24 L Yes and the third one I think is um planting trees and flowers can enhance human being: or human well-being.
25 M Yes
Um um I think there are many ways that afforestation can do good to us such as um when we see some green trees and flowers we will be very happy and this can relieve our pressure and also like I said plants can purify the air and this is good to your health. And they can absorb the noise and give us a more quality and a beautiful living place. And that's my opinion about the benefits the major benefit from afforestation and what about you?

Yeah you mention that the the er afforestation can- absorb the noise from the air?

Yes

That's the point from mine.

((laughs))

Afforestation can also absorb noise from the air. Noise pollution is very harmful to human er life

((laughs))

[study] work and rest and so on so it can be called- enemy or other things. and it also can harm our er listening part

yes

blood pressure and so on time to time. But for- for- fortunately afforestation can reduce that noise four or five times so we need afforestation.

Keep on.

um ok um my third point is um preventing water loss and soil (0.3) erosion. How about you about the water loss and soil things?

Um right that's a very important fact for the [over] afforestation but (0.5) Anyway

Yeah]

these all: seven factors are very important.

But I thought it's er very very important

Why?

Because in Beijing righ- right [here]

[Yes]

Um in in March

[There] is er you mean sad storm

[uh ] Yeah you are a clever girl.

((laughs)) that's obvious.

Um ok human irrational export- er exportation on on natural resource is main reason for um biological imbalance.

%Yes%

Um defforest- deforestation and overgrowing will cause soil erosion. So af- afforestation can prevent water loss and soil erosion and er you just mention sad storms.

Yes

So you can protect our environment and and is so important.

(0.4)

%Yes%

Especially in Beijing

(0.3)

((laughs))

((laughs))

Ok all right.
Task: C Talk 7 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:35 minutes

Topic: What are some of the reasons for adolescents’ addiction to the internet?

Speakers: R=Researcher;  C=Cui Qiang (male);  D=Ding Ling (female)

01 C Um the internet provider an amazing forum for the free exchanges of ideas and besides that at the potential for the internet to dramatically alter our global society for the better however many adolescents are addicted to the internet nowadays and that becomes a serious problem.

02 D Of course yes er um today we have probably have several reasons to contribute to this problem. So maybe you have some opinions about yourselves.

03 C Yes firstly er (0.3) there are a large number of attractive games on the internet [net]

D [Mm hm].

C According to my friends and my own experience when we began to play a game, we just could not stop ourselves (.) or stop the strong desire to play it. (0.4) I can’t describe the specific reason by words but the games give us much satisfaction.

04 D Satisfaction (.) well (0.6) there are reports saying that some adolescents are so addicted to the computer games (0.3) that they often escape from school. (0.7) compared with adolescents, the the situation for the university students (0.6) are much better (0.8) because they are more mature, but I know (0.5) they also spend a lot of time on the internet if not play games.

05 C yes I also enjoy the online (0.4) computer games, but when I have classes,(0.3) especially compulsory courses,(0.5) I will quit it.

06 D Uh quit it (0.6) ok so you are not so seriously addicted to it, (0.3)

07 C Mm hm.

08 D Yes, from my opinion, I think lack of self discipline (0.3) to the use of time wisely is also important reason to um (0.5) addict to the internet because I think some of the students in the university like just like me (0.3) and can’t use the time wisely because I don’t have a clear schedule. (0.5) when I go back to the door I just turn on my computer and open the g-mail (.) or search on the face book or some chatting(s) (0.6) because I have nothing to do. So I think when you have a clear goal, it will help you to get out of this (.) internet stuff because you have to engage in other things that some of my cla- stud- (0.3) not my students just like

09 C Classmates=

10 D =Classmates yes um (0.3) I’m in grade 3 (.) some of them are applying for the furthering the resumes for abroad (0.5) so that they had to prepare some English tests (.) or apply for the jo- jobs some of them (0.4) an: that’s why they can get rid of this kind of internet because they know what to do (0.6) they have a goal (0.6) [yeah].

11 C [Yes] I believe that the internet should be used wisely to serve human (0.3) and to help people achieve important goals in their life. (0.8) people need to set goals (.) and plan their time. (0.3) addiction to the internet will affect their study and work. (0.5)
D: What else?

C: [Another] another point is um not only adolescents but also adults all like to chat on the internet there is no limits on money distance and even if they don’t know each other before and chatting is a good way to deal with the spare time.

(0.3)

D: Yeah so in chatting will uh have some reasons to do good for your life(s) or something

(0.4)

C: [Um]

D: [How] much time do you spend to chatting on the internet?

C: Maybe every night,

D: Every night ok {{(laughter)}}

C: {{(laughter)}}

D: So you really have a close relationship with your friends.

C: Yes [especially ]

D: [It’s actually] yeah

C: in [my hometown]

D: [Especially ] with your girlfriend?

C: No=

D: When you have a girl friend you always uh chatting or typing on the internet um I think another reason to contribute to this problem I think um the peoples or students just addict to this- internet because they can get satisfactions to get all of the virtual world because just like you said um we don’t know each other

C: [Yes]

D: [we] are: totally new or refresh on the intern: et and you can feel free to talk anything an:: I think that when you get on the internet nobody knows who you are and where are you studying from or are you rich or poor or anything so you can get respect when you’re chatting or just find each other's or something else. So some peoples get into that internet just to show that I think get ano:ther kind of respect that they can’t get in the reality. Yeah.

(0.8)

C: An::d [oh]

D: [What] else I think you have another opinion different with me (0.8). I think enjoying friend on the internet. Oh Ok the chatting chatting one. Ok how about your guys opinion about these reasons why do you disagree with them?

C: Well the temptation of the pornographic websites it’s it’s [not ]

D: [Have] you even tried that?

C: Of course

D: [{{(laughs)}}]

C: [{{(laughs)}}] and it’s em it’s not very important reason because girls um wouldn't do do that and also child children

D: Mm hm.

C: They just they’re just little kids an::d they want to experience the early experience of adult life oh that's that's maybe a reason. And I think uh (0.8) as as we grow up um we we better- prepare for the future life when we become an- adults um ((laughs))

D: Mm hm(0.3)um what do you do on the internet just searching for I know the chatting
the games what else do you watch some or search some of the- news or something?

37  C  Maybe er when I prepare this task I need to
D  ((laughs))
C  find some information about the in[ternet] addiction

38  D  [uh huh] maybe when we're doing
homework(s)=

39  C  =Yes
D  we search for er the this kind of information and paste that ((laughter))
C  [And of course]
D  [and that’s true%]

40  C  movies and [music]
D  [Um ] movies yes music.
C  and [many entertainment work.]

41  D  [So I think that is one of] the reasons to get rid of the pressure from daily school
work. (0.3)

42  C  Yes=
D  =Yes
C  All all the entertainment can can take out of the [pressure]
D  [Yeah yeah]

43  C  so you use the movies and music?
D  Mm
C  Yes=
D  =and the games
C  and games ((laughter))
D  so games are your favorites
C  Yes.

R  Ok well done.
Task: C Talk 8 (Type 1)
Duration: 7:10 minutes

Topic: What are some of the causes for being stressed in modern society?
Speakers: R=Researcher; X=Xiao Dan (female); W=Wang Hai (male)

01 X um as members of the society we have to deal with a lot of pressure or stress almost everyday so have you ever thought about the factors that may cause the stress nowadays.

02 W mm yes and I think in the list I will choose the financial problems and work pressure and the relationship difficulties and um in my opinion nowadays people live a very great pressure and they should deal with this uh pressure everyday they will feel unhappy and uh how do you think do (though)?

03 X yes I totally agree with you about the first two factors you just mentioned and especially the financial problem you know after the financial crisis in 2009 it becomes really hard to find a perfect job in the labor market and um could you please explain more about the working experience you just mentioned?

04 W um I think uh I also think the financial crisis is a factor to pressure and=

05 X =%yes% W mm (as) we all know in China there has a large population it is hard to find a satisfying job so we must keep our job everyday and uh because we can get little from our parents so we must earn more by ourselves.

06 W mm yes=

07 X uh so um do you want to say something here about working pressure?

08 W um m[m:] [you] know there are so many people with so few jobs outside and uh even after the they have found their jobs working pressure can be really hard still be a problem because of the fierce competition in this industry all the time right?

09 X [mm ] (0.2) yes um I think er the competition is very fierce and the high technology and the pace faster pace of life make people always always on the run they have no time to relax and make some fun with their friends.

W [mm] [%yes%]
uh- so you just mentioned the relationship difficulties right?
(0.5)

11 W [mm yes. ]

12 X [so could you] please (al-) er explain a li- a li- a little bit more about this er factor you just mentioned?
(0.5)

13 W yes uh I chose (uh relationship) (0.3) because I think sometimes (0.2) the pressure (0.3) also come from our parents, (0.4) [we are] young, mm (0.6) they give us too many= expectations, (0.5) and we should (0.3) work on hard- work hard (on the) study (0.3) and (0.4) now (0.3) they hope us can get a good job=

14 X =yes [absolutely.]

15 W [so ] (0.7) I I feel I not feel relaxed, (0.3) I always live (under) pressure. (0.4) mm (0.6) and you (chose) uh?
(0.6)

16 X uh I think (uh) family problem can be another f- um factor that causes (0.4) er the stress. (0.7) er especially for college students because you know the relationships between the college students and their (0.3) parents can cause m really serious problems (0.4) er especially when we w- when we graduate from (0.2) college, (0.4) um (0.2) we may argue a lot about the jobs uh we'd like to do, and the industry we want to enter (0.2) and even the working place uh we decide to stay at, (0.4) you know s- s- someone (. ) choose to choose so- someone (. ) chooses it to um stay at BEIJING but uh (0.2) uh his or her parents want him or her (0.3) to stay (0.2) um at SHANGHAI

17 W [mm[m]]

18 X [for ins- for instance (0.4) and THIS can be really serious leading to more stress (0.3) er in their life.
(0.6)

19 W mm yes (0.2) I agree with you;(0.6) and I think in (0.6) in m; now- in modern in modern society, (uh) more and more people feel (0.8) feel tired because er (0.6) the pace of life is too fast, (0.5) mm and (0.6) I think uh (0.9) [I=]if or- (. ) uh(0.4) if your face (0.3) face (the) pressure in your daily life? (0.3) how do you:, (0.7) how do you deal with it?
(0.8)

18 X well (0.2) um (. ) it depends. um if I have some (0.3) stress from my parents I will definitely t- er talk with (. ) them and talk to them and uh (0.5) um tell them how I feel, (0.2) because it pre- it's pretty important (0.3) to let them know (0.3) um what I feel and what I want to do (0.2) and I believe I will- (. ) er I will be understood if they (0.2) um care about me enough? (0.4) and uh from this way I can (0.2) um r- I can release my stress (0.4) um (0.5) maybe just partly, bu- but [it- ] (0.3) it really works. (0.6)

19 W [mm]

X and how about you, how do you (0.2) [um] release your st[ress]?

19 W [mm] [mm ] I think your method is good (0.3) and for me e- I (0.6) I will have some relax and uh (0.9) um listen to some good music, (0.4) [I thi-] I think it's a good
(a) way to let me out of pressure.

W

yes it will be really helpful. (0.4) and um (.) uh you
W

just mentioned the working experience right uh w- working pressure right?

(.)

X

just mentioned the working experience right uh w- working pressure right?

(.)

X

W

mm:=

22 X

=and do you have any uh personal experience about this point,

(0.8)

W

um (0.7) I think em (1.2) maybe the work pressure (0.8) er (1.9) is a great important

(0.3) grea- um (0.8) great factor in our life, (0.7) and we should um (0.8) treat it

(.)in a right way.

(1.3)

24 X

so um is the stress from working (spe-) u- u- working pressure (0.3)

W

[mm]

X

(uh 0.7) really r- r- really serious for you, (0.4) uh I mean (0.2) for boys than for

girls, (0.2) do you really think so?

(0.6)

W

mm maybe sometime (0.8) the girls will (0.6) they will get more pressure?

(0.4)

26 X

yes (.). yes definitely (0.2) a- as a girl I feel um s- uh so (1.0) um different, (.).w-

when I: er (.) when I (0.2)uh want to enter an industry, (0.4) um because um the- the

employer- the the employers um prefer (0.2) boys to girls you know,

(0.6)

W

mm

28 X

so it’s pretty hard for me to get a perfect job (0.4) and THIS gives me- (.). more

stress (0.6) than ever before SO.

(0.7)

W

[I think] it’s totally different

(0.5)

30 X

[between ge]nders. (0.2)

32 X

[yes        ]

33 W

I agree with you:.

(0.9)

R

Ok well done.
Task: C Talk 9 (Type 2)
Duration: 6:02 minutes

Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Modern people should live in big cities”?

Speakers: R=Researcher; Y=Yang Liu (male); M=Mu Ling (female)

R: Are you ready?

01 Y (laughs)

02 M Okay. Where do you live?

03 Y Well my hometown is in a small town.

04 M Small town?

05 Y Yeah.

06 M Like a suburb or a city?

07 Y It's kind of suburb.

08 M And do you like it?

09 Y Well it's hard to tell whether I like it or not because I have lived in the bigger cities for a period of years. I LOVE it because it's my hometown but it is the place where I was born and grew up. In my childhood but also a lot of disadvantages.

10 M Um so compare your hometown and Beijing,

11 Y Um?

12 M Um? Can you tell me something?

13 Y Um?

14 M They both have an advantage or disadvantage. To some extent, I love Beijing but I am just not into it because of the traffic conditions. You can see every morning in the rush time, the bumper to bump traffic on the street.

15 Y Yeah that's that bothered me a lot.

16 M But I see a lot of kind of transportation here.

17 Y Uh? mm hm.

18 M That could be another side, right?

19 Y Uh, you mean we have a lot of choices.

20 M Yeah, yeah yeah.

21 Y (laughs) But well I prefer that kind of er
em idyllic lifestyle (0.5) in the in the small town or countryside, (0.5) it is usually peaceful and quite also less, I like that environment (0.6) I don’t – (0.2) I’m just NOT into this (hassle and f-) (0.9) bustle er er lifestyle in big cities, just like Beijing this- this kind of stuff.

22 M so it’s a life style choice,
23 Y yeah (0.9)
24 M oh (0.3) ok what do you do for recreation in your hometown? (0.9)
25 Y uh what? (0.3)
26 M what do you do for recreation? (1.0)
27 Y [well (0.5)] yeah there i- so (0.3) there is
28 M [(in your home town)]
29 Y so little ch- choices choice for- so few choices for me so (0.5) well uh I usually (0.3) um (0.9) turn on the computer and (0.3) just search in the net.
30 M just like living in big cities right? (0.3)
31 Y I don't think so if you live in the big cities you can hang out with you friends, to a lot of places, (0.6) just like bars=
32 M =uh so (0.2) you LIKE big cities for these recreation facilities? (1.3)
33 Y I (0.4) don’t I don’t mean it (0.4) but (0.4) um (0.6) there are a lot of choices but (0.5) that don’t mean I love these choices. (0.7)
34 M okay
35 Y uh (0.7) what's your opinion? (0.3)
36 M um (0.4) I definitely prefer living in big cities=
37 Y =uh huh=
38 M =um because (0.3) when I travel, (0.4)
39 Y uh=
40 M =the mo:st (0.3) annoying and disturbing thing i[s the]
41 Y [uh ]
42 M bathroom. (0.6)
43 Y [bathroom]
44 M yeah (0.3) the- they are di:ry.
45 Y w[ell]
46 M [and] (0.4) I like the bathroom- restroom toilet in big cities.
47 Y in big cities (0.3)
48 M yeah (0.6) and (0.3) the food, (0.4) um I like (02) the multiple choices in big city for if I want to eat something, (0.3) [you can have it.] (0.2)
M and (0.3) I don’t think I can get everything I want to eat in the uh rural areas, (0.5) mm maybe that’s that (true but). (0.7) um (1.5) in modern time we just (0.4) have lot of choices just (0.3) well uh in my vacation, I (0.3) I just (bought) something from internet (0.6) the transportation in my hometown now is is- is just convenient and I can go to whatever I want to and get what I want. (0.3)

M but if (0.4) you’re living in the- in an isolated area the transportation is so bad that you can’t receive (0.3) anything that (0.2) so: immediately

Y uh:

(0.3)

M as (you (0.2) booked it.)(0.2)

Y [( ) maybe you mean that (0.3) that (0.3) definitely true (0.4) um rural places not my hometown(0.2) my [hometown] just .]

M [(uh )]

Y just er in the balance of (0.4) the big city and the rural places. [((laughs))]

M [oh (0.2) ok a small town.=

Y =ye[ah a small town. Huh]

M [( ) okay ] um (0.3) um I like big cities for (0.6) the educational institutions. (0.3)

Y uh huh?

(0.2)

M because um where do you study (0.6) in your English? (0.7)

Y my my English?

(0.4)

M yes

Y well [(my-]

M [at school? (0.6)

Y uh?= at school right?

(0.4)

Y yeah at school. (0.4)

M and do you take uh (0.3) any part time (0.5) like um (0.4) some training classes? (0.6)

Y no:

(0.3)

M [(( ) ]

Y [there are] few (0.3) choice for me. (1.0)

M that's (0.5) the reason I like big cities.

Y a:h (0.7)
M yes

Y bu- (0.5) but we practice a lot in English (corner) just (0.3) just ourselves in the school in the cam[pus].

M [OK (0.6) but (0.2) um the teachers here,(0.2)

Y uh (0.2) it’s much better right? {{laughs}}

M {{laughs}} yes.

Y uh the (0.4) the the English teacher in in my high school (0.5) uh they they just graduated in a very(0.5)er low level(0.4)uh college, {{laughs}} so they they cannot(0.4)do as well as the teachers in in the big cities(1.0)%yeah% that's a problem.

M so (0.4) that could be a thing that you like about big cities (0.4) right?

Y well to some extent.

M THEN why do you come to Beijing (to) for study?

Y well it's (0.6) er (1.0) it's (0.5) it’s because (of) I want to (0.6) to um(1.0) um (0.6) experience some new life life (0.5) not not because I like like it because I want to (0.3) get experience- (0.3) because life life is too short to to for you to (0.5) to experience all of the things in the world,(0.4) I just want to try something new. {{laughs}}

M so you just came here because (0.6) Beijing is different from yo[ur your] home [town,] (0.3)

Y [Yeah ] [yeah ]

M um it c- it could be also be uh Shanghai or any big cities,

Y yeah

M okay

Y uh=

M =no particular e- reasons?

Y um (1.0) just as you said the teachers here are (0.2) very good {{laughs}} so (0.3) that's that's one- one of one- one reasons of my (0.6) m- of my coming to Beijing.

M okay I see.

R ok well done.
Task: C Talk 10 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:42 minutes
Topic: What are some of the qualities of a good teacher?
Speakers: R=Researcher; J=Ju Yi (female); L=Li Bai (male)

R would you start?

01 J Ok hi Chen Chen could you tell me which three um qualities are most important for being a teacher

02 [Um] 

03 J [A] good teacher?

04 L Above all I think updating one’s knowledge constantly is most important for being a good teacher you know the pace of modern society is very fast if one cannot upgrade his knowledge constantly he will fall behind.

05 J Yes I think this is especially important for young teacher. You know at first he might not be very knowledgeable in the area of teaching but if he keep up keep up updating his knowledge very often I think he will come up with the high pace of the modern society so what’s your second choice?

06 L My second choice is commitment to the career um I relate the commitment to the career to sense of responsibility I think the sense of responsibility is very important for all kinds of jobs. Um if the teacher er feels the responsibility to teach the students he can teach the students with his full heart. %What do you think?%

07 J Yeah: but uh in my opinion I think expertise er in the teaching methodology is more critical you know uh the teacher might be very knowledgeable and he might be very responsible=

08 =[Yeah]

09 J [But] if he can’t teach in the right way the students can’t understand him and I think um he may lead the students to the wrong way. So er I in my opinion I think expertise in the methodology is more important and my thir(d) what is your third choice?

10 L My third is the personality em I think the er a teacher with good personality will attract students and make the class more interested so students will be um happy and feel at home when listening to his to what he’s teaching(0.3).

11 J Well I think um charisi- (0.3)er charisma is more exact than personality you know um people um the teacher can be very kind but I think a teacher who lacks charisma um would be less attractive and the class will be very dull the students will loss the interest. So I think um people the teacher um if he is a good teacher he must have he must have passion and um the class must be interesting so um in my opinion I think charisma is is more exact than personality.

12 L Em maybe I have confused personality with charisma. Now I agree with you that um charisma is very important. Maybe charisma is my third choice. Um I like the teacher with a good er charisma I want to go to the class er whose teacher is very interesting and funny and can attract me um to the knowledge he is teaching.

13 J Yeah ok um actually I um I still I I think I also agree with you that commitment to the career is very important for a teacher um if a teacher his um he has he has is er of charisma and he often know new things and um he has a good personality but if he lacks responsibility and um he always er think about himself I I don’t think students will like him.
Yeah a person who dedicates himself to the career is the person who can receive most respect and I also think being knowledgeable in the area of teaching is important because [Um] [I]think especially this is very important for the professors in the university.

Mm

Um I think in the university students uh grew up and they are more mature they need more knowledge and um the teacher must be very knowledgeable.

Em the knowledge is foundation of what he’s teaching.

Yeah and also the teacher must be very professional uh they must um have some um um special knowledge in the area they are they teaching.

Ok (0.5) what else that is not listed in the list do you think is important?

For a good teacher?

Yeah.

Uh I think they must have very good um=

Maybe interviews to children or to the students after class.

Yeah and I still want to um talk more about the teaching methodology um you know um we we have the um the foreign (0.3) teachers for example in the English class uh I think the the way er foreign teachers teach us and the way um Chinese teacher teach us are different.

Yeah [very] different

Yeah you know the John,

[Um ]

Yeah you know the John,

[Um]

[he] er taught us to not to write a composition

Mm

they he told us to um read more articles read many articles and um then um he told us must we can’t copy others

[Yeah]

[Um] yeah I think this is extremely important.

Mm.

And but I think in Chinese teacher's class they they

[( XXXX )]

[emphasize]on grammar and=

Em maybe the foreign teachers are more free-styled in teaching. Um but Chinese they they attach much importance to the knowledge transmission.

Yeah I think this is also very critifil- critical for a person um to become an honest people.

Mm=

=or person.

Ok well done.
Task: C Talk 11 (Type 2)
Duration: 6:38 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Young people should buy lottery for a better life”?
Speakers: R=Researcher; G=Gao Jie (female); F=Feng Li (male)

01 G Well um today I’d like to talk about um the topic about lottery with you so what's your opinion about the phenomenon that young people buy lottery those

02 F Um as I know more and more people and especially the students just (0.3) teen-teenagers they are (.more eagerly to buy the um lottery (0.3) just maybe is (0.4) um (0.6)is a little (.)is a little um (.). little street that so many people would use their money to buy um to buy the very (0.4)very small opportunity (.). to u (0.9) opportunity to er win win the (0.3)the large sum of money (.). so I am very (0.2) very (.). strongly against that(0.4) buying the lottery.

03 G Yeah actually I agree with your opinion (0.3) I don't think it’s proper for young people to buy lottery (0.4)um because I think those(.) who like to buy er lottery is those people who are opportunistic who think(0.4)er they can get er money (0.3)by chance without any effort (.) or any sweat or blood (0.3) or pain (0.8)so (.) um (0.4)um. (1.1)

04 F Em (0.4) but sometimes (0.3) I think um if you spend a little money or just (0.5) it’s a small small part of your (.). pocket money to buy the lottery it’s ok (0.3) but somebody who puts all their money to um to earn earn the lottery (.).I think it’s um (1.0) I think it’s kind of very (0.4) very crazy action. (0.7)

05 G So you think it’s a problem of degree (0.3)you think if he’s not addicted to buying lottery is ok (0.3)but I don’t think so. I think er this (.). action can reflect this man’s mind (.).his thought (0.5) em he wants to buy because he (0.6)think there’re there is possibility of winning a large amount of (0.3) money (0.4)if he does win such kind of (0.3) maybe (0.4)just accidental(.). fortune (0.4)is not good for him (0.7)he may become very (0.7)he he may just quit his job (.).and just (.).indulge in entertainment (0.3)and just spend or waste money (0.3) at the end of the day, he may lose his money(0.3) and at last(0.4) he will become penniless, what do you think? (0.9)

06 F No I just said that I I’m um (0.3) strongly against that if put all their money to get their fortune but sometimes (0.6)um sometimes people just spend little money ju-to buy the lottery just for interest(0.3)and and just tell my experience is an example and I was I used (0.4)I am a football fan so when the I remember the (0.3)2002 and (0.5)South Korea and Japan hold World Football Cup I bought the shark shark lottery to guess which team will win (0.3) I remember that I spent 13 yuan and I think it is ok (0.3)I think it’s interest I just said an especial interest and (0.6)if they um don’t um (0.7)reach the limit and not behave wild I think (0.3)we can accept the lottery.

07 G But how can you make sure that you can control (0.4)um this um action and how can you prevent (0.4)er your addiction to this buying? (1.3)

08 F I think it's um up to people's um (0.8) determination or their (0.4) relation and I think if um somebody is rational they will behave (0.6) er behave in a good way that
is ok if he is if he is uh very very um addicted to it, he will buy the lottery, and if you can control yourself you clearly know what you are doing you can er get far from the lottery.

Um you know even you just buy don’t buy too much but if you um save this money you spend um buying the lottery and put it in another area maybe day by day is er also a large amount of money em don’t you think it is just useless?

I think so many (people) would like to pay a lot of money for what they are interested um someone think it is useful and someone could spend money on on something that maybe someone (else) think it is useless but you think it deserves your money because you lie in lie its on your er to get satisfaction or get the content um (. . ) you get your self-esteem from it.

Well I got your points but still I don’t think it is proper action and I think it’s better way for people to keep away from the er er maybe of the illusion um someday maybe um he just can’t control himself and be addicted to it.

Ok well done.
Task: C Talk 12 (Type 2)
Duration: 5:18 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement "Pupils in primary school should have their own mobile phones"?
Speakers: R=Researcher; M=Mao Dong (male); N=Nie Yuan (female)

R Would you start?

01 M Hello Maggy [Do]

02 N [Hello] Tony.

03 M Do you think that it is necessary for the pupils in primary school to use the mobile phones of their own?

04 N Yes I think so what about your opinion?

05 M I am against the use of mobile phones by school pupils so because I think the radiation of the mobile phones is very harmful to students. As we know that as we know (0.4) there are more chances of for the pupils to use their mobiles and other technologies. And according to the medical survey that the radiation is very harmful (0.2) it can cause a lot of disease such as the brain cancer. So why do you think still think so that it is necessary for pupils in primary school to have their own mobile phones.

06 N As you said I want to inform you that although although (0.7) pupils in primary schools have their own mobile phones that does not mean (0.3) they can use them all day long. So I think the radiation is not a big problem. (0.4) um from my perspective I think as the pressure of their study (0.3) even in primary schools becomes higher and higher. (0.6) So mobile phones become a new communication platform among students and teachers and parents. (0.3) They can chat with each other more easily than ever.

07 M Er well I think (0.4) even if you don't consider the radiation problem I think mobile phones is not good (0.3) because I think the pupils who use their own mobile phones are too young and they do not have enough self control and besides they maybe be easily get addicted to the mobile games. As we know there are more and more games in the mobile phones now.

08 N Yeah I think that is quite a problem but don't you think it is a good chance for pupils in primary schools to cultivate their ability to control? (0.4) And also I think the problem can be solved by parents and teachers. (0.3) Parents can only buy their children a simple mobile phone with fundamental functions. And also (0.4) teachers can limit the time of using mobile phones in class.

09 M So you mention that the teacher may forbid students to use their mobiles in school and in this way why should the students still have the mobiles of their own? They just go back to home and call their friends. They don't need the mobile they
just they can use their telephone at home.

Well there is condition that many violent campus murder frequently occur nowadays so::: um under this condition when the emergency occurs um pupils in primary schools who have their own mobile phones can call the police or ambulance for help when emergency hap- occurs, um which could reduce the losses to its minimum I think this is very essential for pupils in primary school to have their own mobile phones from this aspect. (0.3)

Um you mention the murderers of the society right? but do have you considered about the murderers of the technology I mean the the for example the er the: technical er defects of the mobile is maybe sometimes it is prob- it’s possible that er the mobile will have some problems such like the explora- exploration (explosion) of the battery and I think um it ma:y have a lot of have a great harm er to students a:nd to pupils and in this way if we just avoid of of using the mobile for students we can protect them um very effectively I think.

Yeah um but as the saying goes 'every one has its two sides’ um if we forbid the pupils in the primary school to u- use mobile phones just because some technical defects why we why shou- why don’t we forbid the adults em or em everyone to use the mobile phones because of the technical defects everyone may be affected or maybe harmed by this.

Well I think the pupils are um let’s say the pupils are tomorrow of the the the tomorrow of the country and besides [I think the ]

yeah the future of the country and besides I think the necessity of the for er of the stu(dents) the necessity of using the mobile for the pupils is not as much as we do.

ok that’s all
R would you start?

01 X Em you know recently more and more people start to er learn(ing) a second foreign language er just in our class there are about one third students learning em French er Japanese or Germany I also have learned Japanese for about one year. What about you?

02 H Um yeah I have one study French er when I was in grade one and have classes just in this classroom (now let’s go on).

03 X Um so oh I remember but what do you think do you think why er it is important to learn a second foreign language?

04 H Um there will be there are many reasons why people choose to study a second language

05 X [Mm]

06 H [and] but I think there are some reasons which are very important um and I think the first of all many people study a second language because they are interested in it or they are

X [Mm]

H [cur]ious about it um um as because of the college entrance ex- er examination system um many students come to study their major while they are they maybe er they may not(0.3) interested in so when they are in college they will use their spare time to study a second language or something el- something else em because they are interested in it.

07 X Yes of course I agree with you because in our school many students er didn’t learn what their favorite major so do do you learn French er for this reason?

08 H Um (0.3) no I think er because my mum wants me to study French er she thinks a person who can speak French is very fashion.

09 X Oh I I got it.

(2.3)

10 H Um yeah er and another reason is people study it for fun em do:: [you]

X [Mm]

H agree with this?

11 X Yes of course I know many people just I just want to take the Japanese for example many people learn Chinese just learn Japanese just to er enjoy the Japanese cartoons or play the video games I er when I decided to learn Japanese I just want to play the Japanese video games [um]

12 H [Oh] yeah I think so because when er when she grasps grasper the language well she can um watch t- Japanese cartoons without er watching the um without watching the version version that is translated into Chinese

13 X Yes I think learning I think enjoying many er many foreign movies can help you to learn more about culture of the country so you can em you can em learn er what people in that country often do everyday what what they like and their hobbies and every and a lot of things er from the TV shows I think.
Yeah er because when when people who knows other country's culture well um it is important for them it is especially important for people who wants to going abroad. Nowadays going abroad is more and more popular among the graduates they want to study abroad or just travel abroad to er visit the sceneries um and if er you grasp the language well you can em talk with people without many obstacles and may have less pressure.

Do you have plans to go(ing) abroad?

Uh no ((laughter)).

((laughter)) yes I agree if you want to um if you want to live in in an- another country it's really important to um learn that language very well so and you it can help you to er communicate with local people very well um (0.5) so yeah I agree er so different people live abroad may have different experience because they may gain um they gain the experience um(0.3)um

Gain the experience?

Yeah um so um some people going abroad er just to er promote himself and then went er back to China to find some jobs. Um you you just mentioned jobs yes I think the most rea- er my the most important reason for of me to learn Japanese is that I think it it is a kind of advantage when I um search for a job [it]

[um] they may gain more chance to find hu- when hunting for jobs.

Yeah I think if you know some er second foreign language it can improve your values and improve your competitions when you um when you are searching for a job.

[Er]

[So] I think it is very important.

Yeah for example when you are hunting jobs in Shan Xiandai Car op- Corporation= and er there are two interviewer interviewees um in front of the human resource management or manager and sh- he will choose the one with a second language like Korea because he may he may read er some Korean er

[Mm]

(0.3)

Er (0.5) er

Ko- Korean works

(0.3)

Er yeah documents

[Mm ]

[Well]

I I also remember you know last se se er winter vacation just after we finished the final exam our teacher said there are there are some chances to to the intern (0.3) intern work in by (do)

[Yeah]

[and] the re- the re- the only require er is you can s- you know a a second foreign language so

No.

I think it is really important to learn a second foreign language.

OK yes. OK well done.
Task: C Talk 14 (Type 1)
Duration: 5:33 minutes

Topic: What are some of the possible causes for water pollution?

Speakers: R=Researcher;  G=Guo Lu (female);  F=Fang Jian (male)

01 G Uh ok so as we all know that er the water pollution becomes more and more serious and there are many causes um of the water pollution and what do you think is the most possible causes for water pollution?

02 F The first one leadership.

03 G Yeah (0.3) I agree with you.

04 F Yeah.

05 G I also choose the leadership.

06 F [oh because]

07 G [so why ] do you why do you think it’s the- possible causes cause for water pollution?

08 F Oh I think water pollution em I think economic activities were taken by common people but influence of government is very important when government influence is lacking em the um water pollution would come

09 G Yeah yeah so I think that if the government has strong or we can say powerful policies to restrict the (0.3) pouring of the polluted water there will be so- there will not be so much water pollu or waste water poured from the industry(ies)

10 F [Mm]

11 G [I] think the waste water poured from industry(ies) um causes many um mu- much the water pollution.

12 F [mm]

13 G [Yeah] do you agree?

14 F Mm I I agree

15 G Yes.

16 F but you think how can we deal with?

17 G we means the government right?

18 F Mm hm

19 G The government so yeah as I said that they should em set up many er policies um for example um to um equip with um um is said water treatment.

20 F OK [water treatment]

21 G [yeah]

22 F Um some countries take the environment tax [envonment tax]

23 G [Yeah yeah ] right so the second import the second possible causes for the water pollution is what do you think?

24 F Um lack of funds of waste water treatment.

25 G Yeah so why?

26 F Because I think very local environment in our country em I know um they take good policy on po- pollution environment em but they have little effect because they lack of funds of waste water treatment. They couldn’t close all the factory which pour waste waters um with one hand we need DPG increase but on the other hand we need the clean water ((laughs))

27 G But in my opinion I think the second serious is the waste water
F: Oh.

G: Yeah you just give us the example that is industry water um in my opinion it is from many aspects ex (0.5) besides besides the industry water it is also from our life and the hospital um and with the fast process of industrialization um the the industrial water waste water becomes more and more besides some of the waste water is also poisoned for [example]

F: [Mm mm ]

G: from the hospital and from the industry um the chemical chemicals so I think it the waste water is a serious cause of water pollution yeah how do you think about this er this cause?

F: This cause uh [em]

G: [Do] you think it’s very serious?

F: Yes it’s serious the biggest reasons for this um for this part em I think is the em we need we need good policy we need good policy if the government punish the factory’s bosses

F: Mm hm

G: Um so um I think it will be good.

G: Yeah so so we relate the government leadership with the waste water.

F: Yes ((laughs))

G: ((laughs)) I think so and next which one do you think is also the cause for wa- um water pollution?

F: Em inadequate education for keeping water clean

G: [oh:] .

F: [I] think this is the basic reason

G: Um uh mm

F: basic rea[son.]

G: [ Um ] um you mean um common people?

F: Yes common people

G: Mm mm

F: Mm

G: can you give me some examples?

F: Um in my home town many people don’t have environment protect protection consciousness

G: Mm hm

F: consciousness em so they living they living with waste waste water they just pour it into the clean river em and the river was polluted and many bosses many bosses of factories they lack of they lack of education of the keeping keeping water clean they just pour the factory’s waste water into the river so this is the basic reason for such serious er [po] water pollution.

G: Um yeah so yeah I agree with you and many causes for example we just mentioned the poor leadership and the waste water they are all related with our human beings.

F: Mm.

R: OK well done.
Let’s get started. Um our topic today is environment protection and particularly how individuals can do to improve the air quality. Um I think there are several ways to achieve this goal and um the first one is driving less um for example in two thousand and eight um in order to hold the Olympic Games Beijing um needs some limitations for private cars. Um every car has its own number(s) it’s either odd or even so I think it’s a good way to decrease the emission of carbon. What do you think of it?

I think it’s very hard for me to agree with you. Um as for the limitations on private cars I think most private car owners buy cars in order to be convenient for their drive to work or to other places if I was limited to by this ban I only can drive three or four days a week so that is that will be cause a lot of inconvenience for me.

Um but er our country’s advocating Green GDP and Low Carbon Economy so I think um in order to solve this problem I think we should um we might as well promote the public transportation system like the subway and bus and as we all know er it caused us only um zero point four yuan per er citizen for each travel and we students are even cheaper we just need er zero point two yuan so I think it’s a better way.

Yeah yeah public transportation is definitely cheaper than private cars but you mean in Beijing Shanghai or Tianjin big cities I think public transportation is very very convenient but you know I’m from er my hometown is only a second class city in our country where public transportation’s not so that is not so developed so um if er very well it’s long still a long way to go for the constructors of our city to promote public transportation so um maybe um we still need forty or fifty years. Um during this four forty or fifty years I think the environment has already been ruined by the economy or by people’s uh by people- or by the pollution. Um as for for driving cars I think um as individuals what we can do is only to change our driving habits maybe we also have this experiences every week we only or we go to shop we go sh
ing for several times maybe we can group our er parents and only go to the supermarket once a week or maybe next time we go to lunch we can get out of the car and by the way do some exercises I think that will do a lot of help to our health.

Yeah yeah as we talked about health I think there is another way to um to do good your health that is quit smoking it has two benefits um the first one it can do you good to your health and the second one it can do good to the environment. So so.

So you really think quitting smoking is very practical in our country with such a big population? A lot of men and women smoke every day so I think if if you ask the people around you to quit smoke quite to quit smoking I think that will be unfair and also it violated their um it violates their human rights, right?

Um yeah but um you might also think that it em can do harm to the um economic growth but em I I want to know which do you prefer um the the GDP growth or our em friendly
08 Y Ok I got your idea you mean that tobacco industry er contributes a lot to the growth of our country’s economy if we ask everybody to quite smoking that will do a lot er harm to our er development of of economy right?

09 L [Yeah.]

10 Y [But] I think that’s that’s not the question we are er we are supposed to discuss right now

11 L ok [ok] forget it and

12 Y [so]

13 L I I think there is er a third way to improve the air quality which is that we can use the cloth bags instead of using the plastic bags I think is um another way to improve.

14 Y [Yeah] yeah our country has promoted this matter for a long time but did you find that in the the in the vegetable markets around um our college there are few people who use um cloth bags, uh they they um the sellers the vegetable sellers they offer the plastic bags for free so everybody will absolutely take the free plastic bags.

15 L Yeah we

16 Y So I think maybe we can um ask the uh the sellers to use thicker plastic bags maybe that will be more practical.

17 L But you are still using the plastic bags.

18 Y Ah but yeah yeah I agree that

19 L Yeah=

20 Y =But sometimes we think that if we can buy things uh produced locally and packed with renewable packages I think that will um do a lot of good um do a lot of help to the environment protection also I think um energy uh most of the energy in our country produ- is produced by er by er solid fuels so maybe what we can do is to save lights with lights um always leave the lights off turn the lights off um as soon as we leave the room and also remember that we cannot leave the cameras, cell phones or um cameras, cell phones plug plugged in when when we do not use them.

21 L Yeah yeah so so I I agree with you yeah so so (0.3) there are already several em a lot of ways to achieve this goal like uh changing our habit changing our driving habits and in our daily life some um very um there are a lot of de- details we to we need to improve.

R ok well done
Task: C Talk 16 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:34 minutes

**Topic:** What are some of the reasons for university students to surf the internet?

**Speakers:** R= Researcher; W=Wang Fei (female); L=Liu Peng (male)

---

**R** ok are you ready?

**W** Hi Xue topics (. reasons for internet access what about your opinion? (0.4)

**L** I think people (0.4) people em (.3) possible reasons for people to access the Internet (0.6) the most (0.5) important three are 'entertain oneself', 'obtain the latest news while- (.4) world wide' and 'build social network'. (0.6)

**W** Mm build [social ]

**L** [and your] your opinion? (0.6)

**W** Um mine is my build social network um look for information needed and er (0.6) and entertain oneself- myself (.6) because I (0.8) I am not stand for all the people I just stand for um the college stu[ents] (0.6)

---

**L** [okay] yeah um for we all search the renren.com (0.3) QQ and fishing (0.3) that is to build social network to connect with (0.5) our classmates or friends it’s more (0.5) um free free and (.3) um how to say

**W** You don’t have to pay for it= (0.3)

**L** yeah yes it’s free (0.4) and looking for information needed (0.5) is I think it’s the most (1.0) I I do because I often (0.3) always prepare for some information for some tasks (0.4) or=

---

**W** =presentation? (0.3)

**L** yeah (.3) I can search for the information about (.3) people who [had] already do it (0.4)

**W** [yeah] yeah (.3)

---

**W** Mm (0.6)

**L** so don’t you think obtain the latest news worldwide is not that important? (0.4)

**W** UM I think you can obtain the latest news (0.7) er by watching TV or (0.3) watching TV watching newspapers [and ]

**L** [read] newspaper ((laughs)) right?

**W** right so I think we can get the news from different means (1.0)

**L** But you know (0.3) we don’t use the TV (.4) very often (0.4) [now ]

**W** [Mm hm]

**L** we don’t read newspapers (0.7)

---

**W** Mm hm but I think you search the internet not for the special purpose of getting the
L latest news but for=
W [other] things
L [Oh ] you mean you mean that the latest (0.4) news worldwide we just do it we read it know it by by incidentally=
W =Yes (0.3) not for purpose
L yeah yeah yeah
W Mm [hm]
L [Mm] (0.4) like you are logging in the QQ you can (0.6) it will (0.5) give you the latest news
W yeah almost for daily news
L yeah yeah yeah
W Mm.
L what about entertain yourself
W Yeah [I ]
L [why] do you choose this?
W I I’m always (0.4) watching mo- movies (0.5) because it’s cheap (0.8)
L [((laughs))]
W [it’s ] cheaper than go to the um um the (0.2) theat- er(0.3) film theatre (0.3)
L yeah
W Um and (0.4) because I I know boys always (0.3) um play game online (entertainment) (0.3)
L Yeah yeah (0.3)
W Mm=
L =I do it
W yeah so it’s it’s (0.5) entertainment.
L YEAH I think it’s the most important because no matter what you do the final goal is=
W =[Mm hm]
L [that] you want to entertain yourself=
W =ye:s
L so you don’t purchase good on internet? (0.4)
W VERY VERY little (0.7) because I don’t know (0.3) what the good what the quality of the good sold on the internet=
L =Yeah people always worry about that
W ye:s and the credit system online pur- purchasing is not very (0.5) ENOUGH (0.6)
L Uh (.) you mean that’s not safe right?
W Right (0.6)
L Uh huh (0.8) I think [it ]
W [too] many (.) ch- too many er (0.5) bad people [on the internet]
L: [((laughs))]

W: just for making money
(0.4)

50 L: But you know that's kind of (.1) um convenient
(0.4)

51 W: yes:

52 L: if you buy things on the internet and sometimes you like (0.6) your cell

W: [Mm hm]
(0.4)

L: you can you can pay just on the internet

53 W: Yes it’s true but I always (0.4) um purchasing books on the internet for example DongDong

but if the money is too too large I will not (0.8) I will not do it online

54 L: yeah

55 W: I I would like to (.1) pay more time (0.3) to to buy (0.6) um to my goal I was very

(0.6) er (0.6) comfortable

56 L: [((laughs))]

57 W: [((laughs))]
(0.7)

58 L: do you often check emails?

59 W: yes everyday
(0.3)

60 L: Oh
(0.6)

61 W: But (.1) um (0.4) I I search net I search the internet it's not (just) er (0.3) for checking

(0.3)

62 L: [((laughs))]

63 W: =emails it’s just um (0.3) um how to say regulations

(0.4)

64 L: Mm

65 W: Mm hm

66 L: (1.3)

67 W: Ye:s BUT I think doing business online is very (.3) cost-effective

68 L: Yeah yeah

69 W: Mm hm (0.5) and what is your: (0.4) opinions on do you (.1) DO YOU search the internet to

re-(0.7) to chit-chat with your friends (.1) classmates

[or ] families? (0.9)

70 L: [yes]

W: yes (.1) of course because QQ is so common you (0.3) you can send

messages by fishing and you don’t have to pay for it
(0.3)

71 W: Ye:s

72 L: Like you know sometimes (0.6) playing online games you have to pay for pay for it

[so]

W: [Uh] huh

L: if you go (.1) if you want to pay for it you must buy card (0.4)
Mm hm and um (.4) what is your most(0.3) time to do on the internet?

(0.9)

playing online games

Yeah it's entertain yourself

(0.3)

yeah

(0.4)

Do you watch TV on the internet?

(1.0)

Um (0.7) some (0.3) American TV series I I love it just like (0.6)'How I met your mother? Have you ever heard of it?

(0.4)

NO

Um [that's ] that's really interesting you know

[(laughs)]  uh huh em (0.5)

You you watch(0.3) TV series(.5)or film on the internet?=

=yes 'Gossip Girl'

(0.3)

((laughs))

and Vampire Diary.

((laughs))

Yeah and(0.3)er it’s the internet benefit [(laughs)]

Yeah yeah]

Mm hm (0.4) so I think your (0.6) first choice maybe (.build social network'(0.4) look for information needed’ and 'entertain yourself’

(0.3)

YEAH YEAH

Yeah it’s the same to me [(laughs)]

Well done thank you.
Task: C Talk 17 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:46 minutes

Topic: What are some of the qualities of a good employee?
Speakers: R=Researcher; X=Xia Tian (female); H=Hang Dong (male)

R would you start?
01 X Um what do you think is the most important qualities of an employee?
02 H Uh a good a good employee I think oh let me see I tend to choose honest skillful and cooperative so how about you?
03 X Um um two of your ideas is I think that is honest[and ]
04 H [honest]?  
05 X Um honest and cooperative and I think hard-working is also very important [er]
06 H [ok] here there is difference now
07 X But yeah
08 H yeah you you choose hard-[working but] I choose skillful
09 X [hard-working] skillful?
10 H Mm
11 X so why do you choose honest?
12 H Uh honest I think as human beings being honest is er a prime no matter what you are doing no matter you are a student a teacher a doctor or an employee
13 X yeah
14 H so because you are honest people may have people may believe you and the company er is likely to give you more chances do you agree?
15 X Yeah right very agree
16 H Um I think honest is the key er quality of a person
17 X [Yeah]
18 H [and] just as you said no matter who you are and what people you are you have to give honest to everyone and as you are employee of your company you also should be honest to the company and to the boss um so they will give you the opportunity or the chance to
19 X To
20 H Mm give you=  
21 X =To achieve a job do you [mean]?  
22 H [Yes ] yes and how about um cooperative
23 X Cooperative?
24 H that means team work
25 X Um this time I want to see to hear your explanation first
26 H um ok I think um teamwork is very important nowadays um because every body has his or her um advantages and disadvantages so when we do work or take a job we can come together and do our work do a job and we can think together and with many good ideas if we do the work by ourselves I think we can not or work successfully done our work do you think so?
27 X Yeah as as you mentioned I think er coop- cooperative people is likely to get along well with others and if people if people work together they cooperate in they cooperate er that um they maybe they maybe more efficient
yeah they maybe more efficient and benefits (0.3) more benefit to a company

Yeah that's em both both companies and the employees are can benefit from this kind this co- cooperation um yeah em so er let's come to the third one and I want to say hard-workin is most er important than skill skillful

Do you think so? [because ] yes because hard-working nowadays there are a lot so many people who are hard-working I think I think so so um even you are in a company um hard-working

And if you are hard-working you can learn many things after (in) a word no matter where you are no matter um what's your age is er just keep on learning and you are able to um you can have opportunity to learn many skill things so I think skillful um is just um of job {{(laughs)}}

Do you think do you think hard-working is more important than skillful do you? So I just I just [said]

I'm afraid not] because and reason I choose skillful is er companies hire employees and pay them money so an employee must have the abilities to earn more money for the companies

But hard-working means that you are willing to learn so you um so you can learn many things very quickly yeah that's a problem if if I hire the people um he who is not skillful enough so I imagine that I am I am a boss

Boss um And I have to spend a lot of time and money er making making him skillful Mm I don’t think so in a long term em hard-working is may may do many good things for you but skills are just er so what? {{(laughs)}}

Only um you if you are hard-working that means you are loyal to the company so I think a person who in hard working will realize the skillful things so he or she will tend to learn and keep on learning and that's my idea and skillful just um are not so important

that the company the company needs want the person to be so you can choose um the job so [so ]

but] you have and so if you if you are boss you you will will choose a skillful um you will choose a [hard-working] one but not a skillful worker? [hard-working] Mm hard-working and skillful is also very important but um the basic skillful things a person should have to be should have on (the job).
55 H Oh
56 X that’s my opinion.
   R ok
Task: C Talk 18 (Type 1)  
Duration: 6:18 minutes  
Topic: What factors do you consider when deciding where to shop?  
Speakers: Researcher; Q=Qiu Feng (female); C=Chun Yu (male)

01 Q  ok Let’s go down to today's topic ‘factor you consider when you decide where to shop.
02 C  OK I think er this is depend er this depends [um ]
03 Q  [what] do you mean?
04 C  for example when I want to buy some daily life stuff yeah we are just choose the nearest 
     nearest er supermarket to to my shopping yeah
05 Q  So you say when you buy er the living living stuff you will consider the distance 
     from your living [place]
06 C  [Yeah ] yeah
07 Q  ok the same I had the same idea
08 C  but er when you buy some er item(s) is very important expensive such as a car 
     [or] er TV set, maybe you need to um to think about the um the reputation
09 Q  [mm]
     of the store and the reputation of the brand yeah=
10 Q  yeah yeah yes of course of course I I remember that I buy the computer um with internet 
     with internet internet
11 C  yeah the internet access with wideband
12 Q  I um choose it just for the reputation of the stores I know if you buy um something 
     very important and when you will use it for long for a long term you must guarantee 
     the quality quality
13 C  But I think when you er try something in the internet such as computer er the price 
     range is also an important er things you should to consider
14 Q  Yeah [yes]
15 C  [yeah]
16 Q  Price the advantage of all the being sold.
17 C  [Yeah]
18 Q  [You]
19 C  for example you you chose er like er computer
19 Q  [Yeah]
     [yeah] you want [to um offer the]
20 Q  [Have a discount?]  
21 C  offer offer the price maybe round from er 400 to 5000 yuan
22 Q  Yeah yeah [yes]
23 C  [yeah] 4000 to 5000 yuan
24 Q  Yeah
25 Q  You just um look for the um brand and the (guarantee) in this round
26 Q  yeah yeah yes so the reputation is very important
27 C  yeah=
28 Q  =very important ok um as girls we love we love we enjoy we enjoy shopping that's because 
     we like the environment of shopping areas er you can see some um mo- modern um 
     big um shopping mall with many many people and music background music make you relax 
     relaxing I like the I like that shopping area um even though I haven’t I don’t want
to buy something I like to er walk in and I 'd like er to walk in

Just try some new new fashions.

Yeah yeah yeah

((laughs))

It's um happy happy hobby happy hobby.

Happy hobby

Yes

Yeah yeah I think the environment er can reflect the quality of the store

Yeah

if if the store is er er large and the environment er is very good maybe the

service and quality is guran- guranted yeah

Yes ok how about your boys when you um did you um like shopping in

er a big shopping mall?

((laughs))

Er you know a man em is hate to go shopping [yeah]

Yeah yeah yeah

because [um]

[Yeah] yeah yeah

considering the convenience convenience is very important.

yeah yeah yeah they just I hate to bargain with the sellers

Yeah [yeah]

[Yeah] um every every time when I buy something and after er er said the fierce

bargain I always felleed maybe I was cheated by the seller so I prefer to buy something

in the supermarket [becau]se er in the supermarket the the

[Yeah ]

c the bargaining is unnecessary you you just pay for the [price] you buy on

[Yeah]

c the er[good]

[without] without negotiation

Yeah yeah

without bargain

Yeah yeah no [negotiation.]

[Yeah yeah ]

c yeah

So convenience is suitable for your boys and girls like enjoying the environment

environment and the variety of goods being on display.

Uh another um factor I I think is also very important is the variety of goods you can

choose.

Yeah [yeah]

[be]cause there is er so many er sellers in a department store

[yeah]

[so ] you can em compare the quality

[Yeah]

[and] and [price]

[price] yeah yeah

and make maybe a right decision to buy something.

Yeah yeah do you experience when you go to the supermarket you buy too many
things such as food and clothes and some er living uses

you mean daily necessities

yeah such such as such like that um if there are not enough goods you can choose you will er buy this from this supermarket and buy that from that that supermarket that will be most annoying environment.

Yeah yeah er you you know some daily life stuff(s) um you need you can find all the things in the supermarket

yeah er it didn’t it needn’t to um to buy something in this er store and er walk long to get some other other things you need [so] it’s maybe save save your time

[yeah] yeah [yeah]

[yeah] yeah [yeah]

so variety of goods being on displayed is very very important

yeah er so I think the we are when we are going shopping um we: first we: should we should decide what we are er you want to buy

Yeah yeah=

=Yeah and and second you should decide um um where you need to to go yeah.

yeah so the first thing you decide the things you want to buy

yeah.

and the next one is to the place=

=of shopping

you want to go.

Ok well done.
Task: C Talk 19 (Type 2)
Duration: 6:08 minutes

**Topic:** What are some of the factors to consider when you decide to choose a career?

Speakers: R=Researcher; Z=Zen Dong (male); Y=Yuan Min (female)

R Would you please start?
Z ok

01 Y Um I'd like to know what do you what will you consider when you choose a job um choose a career?

02 Z Yeah I think the most important is the interest um if I want to do this job I must like it because the interest can er accelerate my um working working speed you know can encourage me to go on. And second one is the high status I think er no one wants to know wants to do a job which the others think it’s a bad job you know

03 Y Mm

04 Z and also the third one is the income

05 Y Mm hm

06 Z the third one is the income so the money money would be satisfying will be satisfying so this is my choices.

07 Y Um I agree maybe I can agree with you er but some of your points I can’t agree with um such as the interest um I think interest is not very important you know er in these days er job hunting is very difficult for our er students who just come out of from the universities. So I the graduates must loose their interest to find a job just wh- er which just has a high income high salary.

08 Z Yeah

09 Y Um so I think it is um it is er an unhappy thing for the graduates=

10 Z =Yeah yeah.

11 Y Um and then I think er if I um would like to choose a job I think I will um consider about the employment prospect um you know in China um the career er opportunities is er very limited and if you want a a high salary and a high qualified life life um you um will choose a a job that can give you a high salary so I think the the job prospect is very important such as the bank

12 Z Bank I know

13 Y such as the government official er

14 Z Mm=

15 Y =em such as the financial cooperation

16 Z yeah

17 Y Um so I will choose these job as my as my first choice

18 Z Yeah

19 Y Um um although although em I have no interest in them.

20 Z Yeah yeah I see you but I can’t agree with you because I think maybe um if you: are not interested in your job you can never complete it successfully you know so you can’t be promoted to a higher po- position and you can not make a lot of money you know.

21 Y But you know as a female in the in the job um the job prospect is very limited er than is than the the male and um um (0.3) so I think if if a female in the job she just um want to a steady steady job and er she just want to get a steady salary every month so we don’t want to get a higher higher position in the job {{laughs}} um.
Um I don’t think so I think it’s just an excuse um

Uh huh

because um everyone want to be happy when he’s when he is doing his job you know when he’s working if he feels very happy he everything change you know um if you find a job which you don’t like I think it is real- impossible very terrible.

Um [but]

I have no choice um

No no I to find a job is very um is er is very difficult as for the women or the both for the women and man you know.

No no no I think it is too difficult for female more difficult than the male um um such as take me as an example when em I graduated from the er when I when I get a master’s degree I can go to go out of the school to get a job but but I just don’t want to go with others to keep up keep up with others other students like um they they most of them went to the government official so I don’t want to I just I just don’t like the the the job the government official job so I I choose to stay in the school to um get another degree doctor degree so I think when I when I get a doctor degree I will um have er a lot of other choices [when I]

[I think]

when I get a job.

I see you mean if you get if you get your doctor degree you can find a job which you really like.

Yeah yeah.

[(laughs)]

[If if ] if er if I didn’t er reach reach a higher level in the [education] educational system [I I ] think I will em loose many many

[Yeah yeah]

[yeah]

choi- chances to choose a job=

=yeah

And I will be less freedom=

=Yeah

less free so I think when I get a high level in the educational system I will get more more freedom.

Mm

Ok well done.
Task: C Talk 20 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:18 minutes

Topic: What can university graduates do to find a job in the competitive market?
Speakers: R=Researcher; T=Tao Hua (female); S=Song Shu (male)

R are you ready?
T Sarphone (.I was told that recently you got an offer (.I met m- many problems when (.I just applied online (and uh) got the interview, and uh and uh the test, (.I think the job is er very hard for a person to get (.because many people applied for the position and uh I can give you s- (.a list of uh suggestions fro-
S ] and (.I think is (.you should not- you should not (.um pay (.too much expectation on the job itself.
T =yeh
S [and (.I think is (.you should not- you should not (.um pay (.too much expectation on the job itself.
T o[h re]ally?
S [no ] yeah=
T =[no] I always want to find a good job (.I mean the (XXX) (.I want to find some thing like the management
S [yeah ]
T =[.I want to find a good job (.I mean the (XXX) (.I always want to find the (0.4) um to (0.2) design a mar- marketing process,
S oh I know [I know ]
T [(mm but] sometimes the company often offers me the opportunity to(0.3) sell or promote (.I some products in the like uh (0.3) um (0.2) supermarket, or somewhere else. (0.5) so I (find) there is really a difference between my expectation and what the- I can get.
S ok I ask you (k-) a question, (0.2) um (0.4) if you want to ge-(0.3) be a designer for the marketing process (0.2) and what’s most important for you, (.) expect- e- uh expect er except uh the theory itself?
T BUT I think the principles we (learn) from the courses (0.4) is the most important thing.
S um I- I suggest that the most important for the processing of the marketing (0.3) um product (0.3) is the experience (.I you know? (0.7) [y-um if]
T [really?]
S yeah (.I if you have the experience (0.2) and (the-) then you can know how to- what’s the demand for the (0.3) customers (0.2)(or) something like the (0.2) producers the demand for (the product).(.I) and uh I think (0.3) um if you c- pay too expect- too
high expectation on the job (0.5) and you won’t (the) you will ignore the experience.

S =for most important for the for the employe- employer (0.4) and uh experience is (the) most important, (0.2) they think it’s very (0.3) ve- very important. (0.2) so I- (0.2) suggest that you need to have some (.1) practical skills.

T practical skills do you think that I can get the skills from (.1) taking more courses (0.3) like uh um the CPA?

S ye[ah it’s very, it’s ] very good (.3) a[nd ] uh if=

T [(or something like that)] [mm]

S =you: had the (0.2)ex- opportunities to got some (0.3)courses or for some certificate, (0.3) uh like the (a) [CPA or AC]CA, (0.2) it’s very useful for

T [yeah { } ]

S when you hi-(0.2) when you’re looking [for a] job and (will hire you) if there

T [yeah]

S will be (0.3) um (0.3) more easier for you to get a hi- get a good job.

(0.5)

T (oh then) I think I should also to (know) the (0.3) real market demand,

(0.3)

S y[eah ]

T [what] they want but not only what I am.

(0.7)

S for (example)(0.4)um if you want to find a m- job in the marketing, there will be

T [mm]

S be hires the people= who(‘11-) would like- uh who more (0.3) prefer to be more open-minded,

(0.5)

T [(ah) (.1) (oh) that’s important]

S [and uh (!) yeah ] (.1) they would be (0.3) more talkative, (0.4) like uh rever- prefer to talk and uh they would prefer to (0.3) communicate with others.

(0.2)

T %yeah%=

S =It’s very important for the personnel (0.6) i[tself.]=

T [yeah ]

S =and uh (.1) what do you think er is your problem (0.2) right now?

(0.8)

T I think my most- (0.3) my biggest problem is I don’t know what the market really want,

(0.5)

S yeah [it’s ]

T [yeah I think] I don’t know what (the) company want (0.5) from us, (0.5) yeah uh so I don’t know how to prepare myself for their (0.2) demands.

(0.4)

T mm=

S =ok you- I ca- I can suggest that you can go to some (0.2) websites to [f- s-] to view some the experience,(0.2) people write
T [yeah]  
S about [them(elves)]  
32 T [from other]s ye[ah]  
33 S [yeah from [others, it’s very] important (and it’s v-)  
T [from their { } ]  
34 S  
35 T very useful. [and ] if you (.) and they always tells (.) their (0.4) high  
S [yeah]  
T hard experience (.) when they finding a job (0.3) even they (0.2) some people even  
-e- the- the- they don’t find the job they will exs- write something. (0.6)  
S [yeah]  
36 T [yeah ] uh that’s the first hand [in-] (0.2)  
S [yeah]  
T information [right? ]  
37 S [yeah it’s] first hand it’s more useful than books that (0.2) are just  
a book list uh very (0.3)first you should do this for (and then) (.)  
you should do that  
38 T [yeah that’s] really useless  
39 S yeah useless] and uh the most important for you is the experience, (0.3) no matter  
( .) they are success or not. (0.9)  
40 T ok thank you (0.2) [(thank you) very mu]ch ( .)  
41 S [yeah you’re welcome] oh ALSO I can suggest you should  
(0.4)(correctify) cla- clarify your (0.4) um resumes (.) resumes, (0.3) because y-  
(0.4) it’s (uh) the first thing (0.3) um the in- the the first=  
42 T =uh im[pression (you [mean])  
43 S [yeah ] yeah the first impression (0.2) and uh if you got a very  
wonderful resume, and if you got a really(0.2)amazing amazing experience(for example)  
you were the volunteer for the Olympics or for the expo, (0.2) or the you are the you  
are had the (interns in a) great company like Microsoft, (0.2) and like Oracle, like  
uh like others  
T m[m  
44 S [biggest- big companies (0.3) and you also have the experience in the school society,  
(0.4) you (are) very perfect uh person so I will see WHAT’S the (man) is really is  
(0.3)(really is so they will (. ) got you, (. ) contact you, and you will got an  
interview.(0.2) if you had the interview opportunity you will (0.4) have the (0.3)  
50% to get the job  
[for]  
45 T [50%,=  
46 S =yea[h  
47 T [really?  
(0.4)  
48 S the 50% is get (a) job (and) the other 50% is not get job the- (0.2) so the resume  
is very important and also if you had the opportunity to know some HRs (0.2) ask them  
(0.2) wh[at they need ]  
48 T [how to design] a [( ) ]
yeah what they need and design your and uh make your resume great and [they will]

know (0.7) a really um patient people so I can contact them and I [will use] them for other

practice yeah.

%Ok ok% thank you I will design my resume again.

yeah

Yeah >thank you thank you very much<.

ok, well done.
Task: C Talk 21 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:35 minutes
Topic: How can government encourage its citizens to utilize public transportation?
Speakers: R=Researcher; M=Ma Bin (male); Y=Yao Di (female)

R would you start?
01 M Um um when you go out mm mm which em what transportation do you choose?
02 Y Mm I would like to choose by bus choose bus bus?
03 M By bus?
04 Y Yes {laughs})
05 M when we when you want to go em some farther place er I think by bus will by bus?
06 Y Yeah.
07 M Bus will take you er cost you a lot of time.
08 Y Yes it's true but er it’s very cheap you know the the taxis um than the taxis er and it um it is less er it is will be less than less traffic jam than the than you than you drive a car by yourself.
09 M OK um don’t you think um it’s very convenient to own you’re your own private car?
10 Y Um yes of course {laughs}).
11 M Yeah do you have?
12 Y I haven't er haven’t a car er but um sometimes I I actually wish I had a car er especially when I er when I have some emergen- emergency er but er the the traffic is so terrible er I think is er this time I wish I have I had a car and would you like do you like to er would do you like to do you like to choose do you to like to choose some traffic some traffic or transport to to go to um
13 M yeah
14 Y work
15 M {laughter}yeah I think em my I agree with you I think the government should encourage the [people]
16 Y [mm hm]
17 M to use some public transportations
18 Y [yeah yeah] yeah yeah
19 M [such as] bus and subway
20 Y Mm mm
21 M Mm because the private car there are so many private cars in big cities in China now and it costs a lot of natural resources
22 Y Mm mm yeah
23 M And it er er produced many exhaust gas.
24 Y Yeah I agree with you.
25 M Yeah um um for pollute the environment an:- and is very good for health too so mm I think the government should take some um um
26 Y mea- measures
27 M yeah me:- measure or ways to encourage people to use er bus and subway
28 Y Which kind of measures do you think is is benefit to the=
29 M =Yeah for
30 Y transport.
for example to raise fees for private car parking

Um yes yes

yeah um and at the same time to lose lower the fees for um public transportation
I [think]

Um the government of Beijing um is um doing is doing a good example for us.

Um yes um er maybe we should er I think we should split the people two parts one part
is er they had to use the bus

Yeah
to go to go out another part is they can they have they have chance to use the bus
or another chance to drive their car to go out this the last part is very important
er it is very important to to the er is sorry the last part is very important er
to the the conditions the physical condition of the public
transportation [er]

[Yes] I agree with you too

Em and and I think the low low fee the lower the fee the low the fee the price of the
fee is important to a lot of peoples um I er com- I compared er the Beijing's um the
Beijing's fee of the public transportation with my hometown er Beijing is very lower
than my hometown.

Yeah yeah so do I and I think the er physical conditions of pubic transportation system
is also very important too=

yeah yeah yeah

and we er every traveler or every citizen in the city er wants a safe convenient
transportation system.

Yeah in addition but companies want to get more money from the transportations.

What company?

Um like car er bus company

((laughs))

they want to get more money.

Bus Company

Yeah

belong to public transportation system em em they can be supported and they can um
be supported by the government yeah in my opinion I agree with you that em the government
should raise the fees for private car parking parking and lower or reduce the fees
for pubic transportation and improve the physical conditions

[Um]

[and] further the government should limit the private the uses of the private
car(s) in the cities.

[and]

[Um]

This this me- this method er er could er (lessure) [(lessure) the jam]

[yeah yeah yeah ] I I

I think you you have a nice point but er I want to ask you er a as as er as a person
who who have a car and er and er er the person have the right to drive the car

Yeah

how to limit it you have no right to limit it.
Yeah as I said raising fees for private car parking only the rich
[rich man can]
[er by by some] using some use some er poli-
Charges
Policy to [con]trol
[yeah]
to control
yes
OK well done.
Task: C Talk 22 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:18 minutes

**Topic:** What are some of the reasons for adolescents’ addiction to computer games?

**Speakers:** R=Researcher; X=Xiu Jun (male); Y=Yu Hong (female)

01 X  Ok
02 Y  Um hi Bob long time no see.
03 X  ((Laughs))
04 Y  ((Laughs))
05 X  Yeah
06 Y  Recent days my er my roommate’s always online um um playing computer games I I I can’t sleep well.
07 X  We suffer from the same problem you know.
08 Y  [Yeah]
09 X  [My] room you know just click the mouse and stay there nights nights and nights
10 Y  yeah
11 X  I think people= Yeah I um I mean em they did not but DO it that’s the biggest problem because you know it’s not just you know do it in leisure time they just do it every day I mean they cannot live without computer that’s why I I= 12 Y  Yeah
13 X  ((laughs))
14 Y  Not em not just the time they also er put their a a large quantity of money in it.
15 X  Mm [hm ]
16 Y  [The] they buy in order to obtain um um advanced virtual weapons like
17 X  [Yeah]
18 Y  [they] they buy them
19 X  Yeah they buy them yeah my you know do you know that my roommate has donated about at about wa 7000
20 Y  [Uh]
21 X  [RRB] [((laughs))]
22 Y  [ok]
23 X  for its virtual weapons yes every everyday just like hey say just come here and look my weapons [((laughs))]
24 Y  [Um ] I it is said that er almost every boy in their bedroom they play when they play the games they will shouting and very excited and they they won’t sleep at night and they they just play all the nights.
25 X  Not actually everyone but you know er er mo:st of them mo:st of [us ]
26 Y  [yeah]
27 X  you know yeah I also do a little but but I also play a little but but not too much but I am I have to say that I am disturbed by their behavior because you know
28 Y  Yeah=
29 X  sometimes I just want to have a quiet sleep or or or s- read some books but it’s hard.
30 Y  They just keep on killing killing monsters and
And to to to gain some high level in the in the games I think it’s boring [when] You’re always doing these things

So let’s save the time for complain just let’s talk about something about about the consequences. I think it’s boring [when] You're always doing these things

Every time I want to I want to to tell them that this’s very bad not only to your study but also to your health.

Um when when boys er play computer games all the night they they just sleep er in the class.

Yeah yeah yeah

Yeah yeah because you know every day you know if you fancy too much about the characters in the game you know um when you look at normal guys you will think yeah he might be one of the characters.

[He] can not we can not communicate with our partners formally and

normally because we we always er we always fancying about you know something in the future and always=

Do you know why for boys um it’s very hard to get rid of it because what we have buddies everybody has buddies but we have buddies when they want to do that hey let’s play (dots) we have four we need four people here [just]

Squeeze you around we need you he can’t he can’t just say no because we say hey hey hey you suck man [([laughs]))]

Yeah we never disappoints that's [why]

and and for another thing you know why they like to play this because you know what sometimes when you ranked when you ranked for the (lost) in your class you know your [your score]
Yeah your score is not that good you don’t want to study sometimes you just want to be recognized.

You want to be distinguished, some times you just want to be the king or be yeah to rule his kingdom it’s like he feel good to

He wants to number one.

He owns the best weapons

Yeah yeah the dignities I want to kill everyone anyone I want ((laughter)).

Yeah so I I think the boys have less time to to have other activities.

Yeah they just spend times in computers

They they don’t play football

Yeah um I think the biggest problem is not just like that I mean it’s like we are more than 20 right now we are over 20 right now it’s the time to grow up I don’t know why they engage occupy doing all this kind of stuff he can not grow up I mean it’s time to know the world it’s time just learn some skills for you to find a job

They loss chance communicate with others, [yeah they ]

They are eager to communicate on the on the internet

Yeah [[(laughs)]]

Yeah it’s it’s like so sometimes they think the fellows their buddies online is much more important than their [buddy] in

their daily life because [you know]
Just like real world (works) . that's why they just engage them
[Yeah] absorbing in the virtual world
[Yeah]
and they never want to come out (0.4) yeah they they really need someone
to talk to (.) I [mean]
[yeah] they they just want to get rid of the reality=
yeah get rid of the reality sometimes yes but it's hard to say I mean everybody
has his own choice once=
Yeah
you think you are addicted you know no one can just convince you I mean.
Maybe we are young we have time and money to waste but I think is um horrible.
Yeah but but it's hard I mean there are so many fancy things on the internet we have
to say this [yeah ]
[I think]
something in the real world you have to spend money you know there are so many rules
and laws but in the on the internet in the on the internet there are so many things
that fan- so fancies so much fantastic things [right]
[Yeah ]
there are new things everyday.
Yeah=
they never get bored.
You can just do whatever you want.
Yeah that' why that's why.
OK.
**Task:** C Talk 23 (Type 1)

**Duration:** 6:45 minutes

**Topic:** What are some of the housing problems in big cities?

**Speakers:** R=Researcher; L=Lei Jia (female); G=Gan Kang (male)

R  You can start your discussion

01  L  Who says first?

02  G  Lady first

03  L  Ok and I have a question do you think our city really face such a house shortage?

04  G  Um I don’t think so um because because Chinese is a developing country and you can see more and more um people in the countryside they want to to move into the urban to to live a urban life so more and more um house er will be needed in the future but but see now er the urban urban the urban city– citizens they they even don’t have enough money to buy a house for themselves how about the the countryside's people they they are not wealthy than than the urban people so I don’t think so

05  L  So the so then you think it’s a the shortage of money not shortage of the housing supply.

06  G  Um [house-

07  L  [the] wealthy people can buy the house but the poor people from the er rural areas they can’t afford to buy their hous- housing in the urban areas.

08  G  I think the most important problem is not the the housing supply it’s it’s just because the shortage of money [Er ]

09  L  [Yeah] yes yeah I think so many as I said so the first reason as the first reason illustrates that some wealthy people make profit by purchasing [luxurious house] in big cities

10  G  [yeah yeah yeah ] such as Wenzhou and Wenzhou's people and and many people in in in Shan in Shanxi um they are they are wealthy they are very rich

11  L  Yeah they hold for speculation they they those speculation activities on one hand will increase the housing price and on the other hand the en the house supply becomes become less and more and more poor people can’t afford to buy the housing=

12  G  =Yeah

13  L  So I think housing shortage is not for the luxurious property luxurious house but for some economically affordable houses for those poor people so I think the housing shortage.

14  G  I I will ask you a question.

15  L  [OK]

16  G  [How] do you choose after graduation will you choose in Beijing a big city or=

17  L  =yeah I think it’s a reason for housing shortage nowadays um for me also for me many graduates want to live in the big city because they think they have more chances to work and can see the world and widen and their horizon such that um so I think it's a reason for the housing [shortage ]

18  G  [How how do] you have confidence in buying such such rich er such expensive houses

19  L  [No]
[face] up
Yeah
faced by this er high the high price
I don’t I really don’t think so you know many graduates many they share a house
together they rent houses
[Yeah yeah]
[maybe] after 5 years or 10 years they can only afford um only 50 or 40 % um
per[cert]
[per] square yeah yeah so it is really a problem and but do you want to live in
such a big city?
Yeah I I want to live in Beijing after my graduation
Mm hm
but it’s quite a problem for me too to buy a house in Beijing
I heard that the Ren zhigang er the Huanyuan the Huanyuan company's chairman who said
that these house are not for for the poor people they just for the wealthy people.
Yes
I don’t it’s quite a problem for us but I think I can I can make I can make a living
to to support support my myself
((laughter))
myself myself in Beijing um and er some day I will buy a house er after some
opportunities
yes we both face a very hard time
and
to buy such
And China publish published some policies to reduce the price em
But you know recently those those policies didn’t make much effect on those
house on those high prices and price the housing shortage problem is still
Yeah [yeah]
[exist]tling
yeah it's quite a problem for for Chinese government to to to solve this.
I think those those wealthy people they are not really short er short of the houses
they just short of ways of investing because
Yeah [yeah]
[you ] know the interest rate can’t always can’t keep with the inflection and
meanwhile the stock market is er is facing with so many uncertainty and risk so they
just want um so they have so many money they do not
[have ways to invest them]
[they want to invest it]
Yes they invested into the real estate area to in in the hope of making um profit and
um can have a stable more stable and increasing profit so I think if they had more
choices to to invest their money maybe they are not investing their money on the real
estate and maybe the housing shortage problem will be will be less a problem
Yeah housing shortage will be quite a problem for China
Do you think urban population is growing alarmingly fast and put enormous pressure
for property in big cities?
Yeah as I said before it’s a problem urban population is growing so fast because of the countryside people they come to the cities because they want to find opportunities to make money and change their fate.

Yes but they add a lot of burden to the city with limited resources they have to live somewhere but they do not have enough money for the house because it is so expensive. Many people have no place to live

Yeah it becomes a problem

some just sleep in subways or something like.

Yeah it becomes a problem

But it is those people those farmers build those luxurious houses for the urban people so it is unfair for them.

Yes um China will be a developed country in the future so what’s the feature of a developed country they I heard that it is said that um 90% of the people of the whole population um they will be lived in the city instead of the countryside.

So there will be more pressure in cities especially big ones.

Yeah agriculture will be modernized and maybe one person will be in charge of a great amount of land to support agriculture but China has over one point three billion people in now so it's quite a problem um for China to solve to solve.

Yes there is still a long way to go.

Ok good.
Task: C Talk 24 (Type 2)
Duration: 6:00 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement "The use of private car should be limited"?
Speakers: R=Researcher; W=Wen Hua (female); J=Jiang He (male)

01 W our topic is whether private cars should be limited
02 J ok (ignore the background voice of the researcher)
03 W Do you take for or against?
04 J Um personally speaking I think private car's use should be limited you see nowadays we are facing a rush for purchasing cars.
05 W Yes
06 J There is a rush ok on the road getting all kinds of cars ok
07 W so um which the factors or causes do you think is the most important?
08 J Um on (the) first place I think too much cars um to be put to use would cause the serious traffic jams of course
09 W [Yeah]
10 J [you] see um on rush hours
11 W Mm
12 J especially in Shanghai Beijing and Shenzhen such big cities um people really suffer a lot from that
13 W and traffic jam
14 J Yeah
15 W Um but in my opinion private car is not sole cause of or the only cause I mean for the traffic accidents. And um as long as there are cars um then there are chances for accidents so I think it’s unfair to blame private cars for the accident in this way.
16 J Sure of course I think the too much use of private cars would be the most important factor of the traffic jams ok not the only one
17 W Okay
18 J I mean that.
19 W And other reasons?
20 J And second place I have sure about is the pollution you know the um exhaust of cars can cause the greenhouse effect and er the emission of the cars can er worsen the air quality of course.
21 W Um but um we can develop other technology of um clean energy yeah solar energy for example
22 J Maybe I’m expecting the environmentally er environmentally-friendly cars
23 W Uh yes but I admit that it takes a long time(s) a long-term goal.
24 J Maybe we [can]
25 W [Yeah] and um for my part er I think if we are restricted use of um private cars um people will tend to move um near to um bus stations um or J [Mm hm]
26 W [subways] that um may cause the housing problem.
27 W [Yes]
do you agree with that?

Yeah yeah

Is that too much er parking lot withdraw many fer- fertile agriculture land and say for building of the express ways um um the stations and roundabouts something like that

Yeah there is not enough space had a joke saying that um um I don’t like sports

Yeah huh&

except for car parking

yeah of course this kind of saying really leads you er high skills of some times

((laughter)) yeah and the most important reason I think for the um against the statement is is that um that (my paper) people will be um out of employment.

[Yeah of course]

[because] because we restrict the development of car industry or motor industry

sure of course especially in China we have large population and say withdrawal from the private car manufactory sometimes can really say um expire the workers from that industry.

Yeah and and maybe a decline of GDP

yeah of course yeah

but problem is um the capacity of pubic transportation is um comparatively small smaller I mean um when it is compared to the demand um and there is some measures that had been taken for example the license plate number for car use and according to what we can call it um um double or single number restriction.

yeah of [course]

[um ] but but people sometimes they um came up with solutions for their own good um for example some people may buy two cars

yeah

((laughter))

[((laughter))) that may become the government policy you see=

Yeah em

Actually (the thing) is the bus or the subway should be considered as the first place to as the critical or the most important means of transportation ok you know um [too much]

[It’s fast]

Yeah

Too much use of the private cars can sometime um you see the choke of the city.

Um yeah but um in in Beijing that um I have experienced this kind of thing is um I waited for maybe um for how many um very very er long time that I even couldn’t get on the subway

[yeah yeah]

[you know] it’s too crowded.

So it needs to be improved ok

Yes

Anyway I think the um this is er=

=And road planning

Yeah and (with that) I think environment we are living in is the most important so thing so I think generally speaking private car use should be limited not to be
banned do [you agree with that]?

[and not restricted] yes I think there are because they have both advantages and disadvantages

59 W Yeah=

60 J =So the measures should be balanced

61 W yeah personally speaking I think the the disadvantages um um overnumbers the advantages.

62 J outweigh

63 W yeah

64 J um

65 W that’s all I want to say about on the topic.

R OK well down.
Task: C Talk 25 (Type 2)
Duration: 6:30 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Modern people should do shopping online”?
Speakers: R=researcher; P=PeiGang (male); S=Sui Yi (female)

01 P OK our topic is er modern people should shop online so um I think I am more more traditional and conserve- conservative man and er I don’t waste my time online so I don’t really know that is shopping online.

02 S Mm shopping online means that you buy things online and it’s I think it’s it has many advantages for example it’s more convenient and you um don’t have to go shopping and outside wasting a lot of time so have you ever go shopping online?

03 P Er not too much um because um um because I think I can buy all the things I needed um from nearby stores.

04 S Um as far as I know you bought your cell phone online so what do you think of it? (0.8)

05 P because really it’s it’s cheaper (.) than most usual stores (.) and it has much (0.6) wide range of um (1.1) the brands. (0.5)

06 S so do you do you ever worry er about worry about the quality of the goods you bought online? (1.2)

07 P No (0.5) because I can check (.) the good before I pay (0.8) pay them in cash. (1.0)

08 S Er so (0.7) anywhere do you like er do you like do shopping online? (1.0)

09 P Um I can’t give you absolute judgment (0.3) that’s depends on what (0.5) I want to buy (0.4) or where I live (0.4) for example (0.3) um as for the books (1.0) I think (0.3) it’s much easier and convenient (0.7) to buy online (.) because you just (0.4) type the title or the author of the books (0.5) and you (0.3) they give you a list (0.9) and cheaper.

10 S So when you check books online do you often obsessed with the other books that you like? (1.0) and (0.4) you know that will lost cause you a lot of time. (2.2)

11 P No I am not that kind kind of person I have got what I need and ignore other books. (0.8)

12 S Mm um what do you think is the (0.5) disadvantages of shopping online? (2.2)

13 P Um (1.6) sometimes I have to wait for the delivery man (.) you know (0.5) because usually they sent the the good (0.5) at noon so (0.4) I have to wait for the call (1.6) and (0.5) but I have to take a nap you know you know

14 S Okay (1.0)

15 P Do you know the new word “house girl” (0.6) or “house (0.4) boy”?

16 S Oh yes the house girls and house boys are girls and boys who stay at home and and shop (0.4) shopping and (0.4) do their shopings online (0.7) and (0.4) it is not (0.3) necessary for them to go out to to (0.3) shopping and (.) maybe they think it is (0.7) good for
Do you think you can live the way like them? (0.3)

Mm sometimes I shop (0.3) I often shop online because I think um (0.6) I can select a lot of things online and (0.5) as you mentioned it's cheaper and (0.7) quality is as good as those from the real- (0.5) real time shop

Sometimes I shop online because I think um (0.6) I can select a lot of things online and (0.5) as you mentioned it's cheaper and (0.7) quality is as good as those from the real- (0.5) real time shop

En er (2.1) are you afraid of being cheated? (0.8)

Em no (0.5) um I (0.4) I think it's (1.1) it's it will never happen because um (0.3) the city (0.9) and (0.6) as for the safety I think em (0.6) as you have mentioned before you can pay you can pay the good when the postman deliver it to your doorsteps and so (.) it's I think it's generally very safe.

Mm how about the clothes?

[1] think it is (0.5) impossible to buy clothes online.

That is the worst part of shopping online because I bought many many clothes which doesn't they looks good but does not fit on me {laughter}

Mm {laughs}=

So I think that waste a lot of time as well as much money.

Mm I know some girls most of the girls I know they like they enjoy the pleasure of opening up um um every morning they wake up they get a call from the delivery man and open the the item the goods they think it's pleasure I think they are addicted to online shopping, is [that right]?

[some girls] yeah some girls may be addicted to shopping online some girls are very very sensitive sensible and I think they can um make good choice and the right choice.

Mm but I I think most people don't trust the internet.

[Uh]

[ I ] one and I am one of them.

The internet yeah yes some people are cheated in online when they do shopping online because they pay the cash before the er before the goods comes to them but um some girls I think they are very intelligent and they they can they {laughs)

They can they can tell um which is the genuine(s) which is the false one?

Yeah I think so.

Mm do you think the do you think shopping online will be the main way of we purchase?

Mm em maybe I think it depends.

Mm.
Task: C Talk 26 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:56 minutes

Topic: What are some of the factors to consider when you decide to purchase property?

Speakers: R=Researcher; W=Wu Di (male); Z=Zou Mei (female)

R Would you start?

01 W OK when you decide to to buy a house something property what um important factor do you think? What is important?

02 Z Mm I think um for we don’t earn so much money I think so the first the factor the most important factor we should consider maybe the price of the [property]

03 W [price ]

04 Z price I think um um for um we should consider the financial status of us

05 W Yeah

06 Z and at which price we can afford to pay for the property.

07 W What’s the reasonable price do you think?

08 Z Um I should consider how much I can um afford for the um it

09 W Yes

10 Z Um

11 W the price of the property um

12 Z yes the average um um house price house price at the area we know um from different areas the price

13 W yes I agree with you

14 Z the price is um the price maybe vary a lot so we can find the suitest suitable suitest price.

15 W Suitable price um what about average price for your hometown your city?

17 Z In downtown um I think the price maybe 4000

18 W 4000

19 Z 4000-5000

20 W 5000

21 Z yuan per square meters.

22 W Oh yes different from my city.

23 Z [Em]

24 W [My] city is in Qunming is a strange place surrounded by mountain area so the house is a little expensive about 7000 yuan per square meters

26 Z In center of [the city]?

27 W [It’s upper] upper area in suburb maybe 5000 per square meters

28 Z Oh it’s more it’s more expensive than us.

29 W perhaps it’s because the graph-

30 Z [graphical] situation

W [yeah yeah]

31 Z okay

32 W So the graphical situation is the first factor, what is the second one?

33 Z Um the second factor I think (0.3) um the size of the property (0.3)

34 W Yes the size of the property.

35 Z For I think (0.3) um when we buy er when we purchase property
W =M=
Z =we don’t make a simple purchase.

(1.0)

36 W Simple purchase?
37 Z Don’t make a simple purchase (0.8){we}
38 W [What] do you mean?
39 Z Er I think um we: (...)er just do er (0.4) er life investment.

(0.5)
40 W Oh life [investment yeah]
41 Z [life investment] expensive investment
42 W yeah yeah yeah
43 Z so um we must um consider the size of the property
44 W Mm=
45 Z =the (0.9) number of the rooms=
46 W =number of rooms
47 Z the rooms and the size of the rooms (0.6) and the number of bathrooms maybe (0.6) like this er I [think]

48 W [Do ] you think?
49 Z the property may have three
50 W Three bedroom yeah
51 Z three bedroom for my child [one] for my child
W [Yeah] yeah yeah
Z one for um I and my husband and then I think maybe a study room
52 W yes yes
53 Z the study room for us so I think three rooms maybe more perfect for us.
54 W Yes I think so um maybe er golden size is maybe 100-150 square meters apartment
55 Z Oh it is very=
56 W =three bedrooms and two bathrooms is better but that depend on your financial situation
57 Z Yes yes
58 W so sometimes you had to buy something small ((laughs))
59 Z But I think the the size is if the size is as if you um you’re your your choice as your
your choice I think the price maybe uh very high
60 W yeah [yeah yeah ]
61 Z [(large large)] house I think
62 W of course third important factor
63 Z the third important factor I think maybe the graph- er geographic location
64 W yeah the location
65 Z yeah location
66 W I agree with you.
67 Z Um I think um it must be convenient for us
68 W Convenient [yeah]
69 Z [to] go to work to go for my children to go to school and sometimes
we go to hospital, to shopping
70 W Yeah yeah yeah that’s very important I agree with you I think to to younger parents
the children is most important thing
71 Z [So]
W: [so] I think education is very important
Z: so the school must be near
W: if most people consider the factor they consider education children easy to go to school
Z: um maybe close to school
W: oh [yes]
Z: [very] good but it also depends on if you are old enough your children old enough
W: no necessary to go to school maybe you consider about the situation good condition
Z: a lot of green green area uh
W: Yes but this depends on the financial situation
Z: Yeah yeah [yeah]
W: [if ] if you have a car your family if your family have a car
Z: =yeah yeah yeah
W: it maybe much far away a little far away
Z: a little far away
W: but if just public transportation it must um um near very nearby a little near
Z: yeah yeah yeah so I agree with you but I think different order I think location is
W: most important thing the first one {(laughs)}
Z: Um location
W: the first the second is the price third is size yes
Z: Uh location
W: So I think different order {(laughs)}
Z: maybe you maybe much er richer than me I think.
R: Well done thank you.
Task: C Talk 27 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:10 minutes
Topic: What are some of the ways to keep one fit?
Speakers: R=Researcher; K= Kai Li (female); J=Jiang Hui (male)

01 K Oh Mr Tao what do you think are the most important ways to keep keep your keep you fit?
02 J yes for me I think do some exercises and have er regular diet is very important.
03 K Oh um what kind of food or what kind of diet do you um share do you?
04 J Yeah I prefer the plenty food and simple food for example the grilled fish and vegetables and the milk I think this is very important for me and more nutritious for me
05 K yeah yeah em um what about your routine hours, I mean at your time er you get up and what time you go to sleep?
06 J Uh [yes I ]
07 K [go to bed]
08 J often get up early
09 K Yeah
10 J six o’clock in the morning and I go to the studio and go jogging and do some exercises often I in the noon
11 K Yeah
12 J or at the night I will go to the studio um gym and play the badminton and play the table ten[nis] I think these regular exercises
K [Oh]
J are also very important for me
13 K Yeah yeah yeah that’s very good and my opinion of er my opi- my point of view is that I think optimistic er toward life is also important.
14 J Yeah I I think so yeah
15 K yeah yeah I I I think it’s very important especially for the older people if he always worry about his health and if you always worry about his future maybe he always easy to get some disease.
16 J yeah I=
17 K =yeah
18 J I think what do you think keep fit to another reason can also keep the fit?
19 K yeah yeah I think er maybe take part in a lot of social activities is also important
20 J Oh
21 K because er through taking part in some activities you can feel maybe you feel er you feel happy you feel er optimistic you feel positive toward life social like is important for a normal human being because we are not living in vacuum and we need to communicate with others including friends, colleagues, and relatives and so on.
22 J Uh what do you think so some entertainment relax the mood [what do you think?]  
23 K [the entertainment]
yes yes I think it’s it’s very good
24 J yeah I think if if we want to keep the fit
K yeah
J I will do some regular general trip to do tour
you do it by yourself?

K yes by yourself=

J when do you do it during weekday or on weekdays?

K nearly every weekend I think this is also can keep fit very good

J okay

K yeah yeah especially since you know we are living in high pressure and excessive work

J [yeah yeah]

K so I think [it’s also]

J [yeah yeah]

K important

J in our society you and me every person have a very high pressure from study and from

work and also from the [family]

K [yeah ]

J I think so I think keep the optimistic mood and do some exercises and take part in

some social activities and do and do take part in some entertainment is also very

important to keep fit

K Yeah yeah I think so

J can you tell me (.4) your regular diet (.1) one one day?

K Mm (.3) I I think I have a regular diet (.3) and I um I have breakfast at about eight

(0.7) and lunch at about er twelve (0.7) and er supper (0.6) at about six o’clock.

J Mm (0.5) yeah=

K =yeah

J do you eat eggs and some milks in the morning?

K Um I I sometimes sometimes um I don’t like milk (.4)

J yeah

K and I always eat some bread and eggs and some er er some others=

J =yeah yeah my wife told me eat eggs (.) is um very useful for [the] health

K [yeah]

J because eggs um have some nutrition and don’t (.4) make a person fat (.)

K yeah yeah [yeah]

J [so] I eat eggs and (0.3) breakfast breakfast bread and it’s very

useful to

K Yeah yeah [yeah]

J [eat] breakfast what do you think the (0.7) lunch and (1.2)

supper?

K [lunch is]

J [what what] is important?

K Mm lunch is um also important um but supper is (.7) er er when we talk about supper

I think we should eat too (.3) but we should have proper amount of food at supper I

mean we could not eat too much because we will go to bed if we eat too much (.3) maybe

you will feel un- (.3) uneasy=

J =uncomfortable

K yes uncomfortable

J yeah yeah some women eat only eat vegetable
K [yeah]
J [in] their supper what do you think
52 K oh
53 J this is useful or or bad things?
54 K I think it’s it’s bad for his for her health um because you know we as as a um as a person as a human being we need all kinds of um nutrition such as such as milk such as um meat pork and other things um if you um you only eat vegetables I think it’s not very good for your health
55 J Yeah yeah you are you are a vegetarian?
56 K No no [no].
57 J [No].
58 K I I can eat meat
59 J yeah I think so eat some variety food [is ]
K [yeah]
J very important to keep fit
60 K yeah yeah yeah
R Ok well done thank you.
Task: C Talk 28 (Type 2)
Duration: 6:00 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement "Modern people should shop on commercials"?
Speakers: R=researcher; F=Fu Yu (male); G=Ge Xia (female)

01 F Ok um along with the development of our society there are more and more commercial commercials and (0.5) what about you think about the commercials?
02 G Yeah I I think er sometimes it’s very useful um
03 F Mm
04 G I buy something often based on commercials it can offer me a lot of choices er if I want to buy a personal computer er I will I can find a lot of useful information on the internet or TV program and other places er er I can compared them and then decide what I should buy so it’s convenient and it’s useful er er for us to buy something
05 F Yes I I think so and in the modern society there there are are many new products er but the consumers er know nothing about the about them for example their price their function their their disadvantages and advantages and using using the commercials er producers can make the consumers to um know what are they what are they so the consumers can be well aware of the product and service available in the market.
06 G Yeah yes I agree with you er it’s useful tool for companies I think advertisement is very useful for the companies companies can use advertisement to increase sales volume and er to um um to make the goods um um popular in the pu- in the public um I know my my son er
F Yeah
G often attracted by some kind of advertisement such as um fast food or some drink like coco cola
07 F [Yeah]
08 G [um] so I think the advertisement the companies can er attract a lot of consumers potential consumer er potential consumer [through] the advertisement
09 F [Yeah ] yes then the companies make companies can make much money and then they can er deve- develop the er many new products
10 G Yeah
11 F And=
12 G =Yes
13 F Using consumers um consumers can save their (0.3) time because when they have have their lunch, take yes bus or walk along street they can get get much information er and they don’t need to spend extra extra time to um to
14 G Know
15 F go to go to the different s- stores [yeah]
16 G [yes] yeah advertisements are around us
17 F yes [um]
18 G [Do] you know er er too exce excessive er advertisement er
F Mm
G are often do some harm to us do some harm to us
19 F Yes [and their]
[If there are too many advertisement if there are too much advertisement advertisement um um putting into the TV program or er in the books or in some programs er people will feel angry and feel er uncomfortable so er every coin has two sides er]

Yes especially especially when I watch um watching TV and when the light highlights of the story will come will coming er but I [adver] advertisement [yeah ] interrupt it so I have to wait just wait.

Yeah I think yeah it’s not uncom- it’s uncomfortable sometimes we the advertisement er off offered us some false information or some um hide some er truth=

Yeah I think the authority should carry out some er law to regulate to regulate it regulate the commercials [Yeah] [Yeah] maybe

Mm

maybe we should take some steps to re- er [supervis]

[regulate] yes

advertisement company can use advertisement to er increase sales volume

Yeah

but it should be based on the consumers’ health,
yeah

and er er hobbies

yeah

or um um or other the other er other use

And the the the companies should tell the consumers er about their truth information

[Truth]

[Truth] truly information

Yeah

er and do not hide the side effect er for example medicine

Yes that is important

Yes er yes like medicine uh I think foot food the advertisement of food also be supervised supervised

Ok well done.
Ok Mi- Miss er zhao today we are talking about the topic of individual er er unemployment so for this topic what’s your o- opinion about the main causes of the individual unemployment.

Ok I think unemployment has been a common and popular topic in nowadays in my opinion there are three major causes for unemployment firstly since two thousand and eight the world economy has been in trouble and crisis even though our government has made great efforts to recover the development of economy we also have a difficult economic situation for example er in China um many industry and er company

Mm hm

em had been had been downsizing downsizing

Yes ex[actly.]

[there]fore many people who want to get job um become unemployment

Mm hm

in other words er many people lost the chance of employment secondly em the population of China um is larger than other countries

Mm

um but the job opportunities are so limited and=

Yeah

That is to say to provide for jobs um exceeding demand for jobs in current employment mar- um [market]

[Market]

finally um some people who cannot er get er job are related to individual opinion

[Mm]

[now] the graduated students cannot always er evaluate by (them)selves correctly

[Mm]

for instance they (over)estimate er of their ability.

Yeah yeah [yeah ok]

[because] they they graduate from a university

[yeah]

[but] actually they they don’t have the er er enough skills or something like that to to do a better job.

Yeah yeah

Ok

or they er want to another another job for higher salary.

Yeah yes uh yes actually I do agree with you your opinions and the so for the for your opinion of the the large population you know the you know um as you just said the the job provided by the society is limited um and er I think the main cause is that you know in er in our government er main cause is is caused by policy and then carried carried out by our government which is that you know the enlarge the en- enrolment
of the um students in the university
24 Y yes [yes]
25 X (and) so um in in this case um large population grad- large population graduated
from the um from the university and but it exceed the the en- en- (en)quirements of
the er the real society or exceed the real society requirement and another thing I
think is you know er in in China in China in our er in the uni the education in university
is always um general not specialized it’s general not sp- special specialized so many
in er most of the students they have to er study er some subject core subjects but
they these subjects that they really do not interested in so I think is this maybe
there is some problems in our education systems or or make me think you know in for
in China you know the education in the university or colleges they I think they they
do not investigate the what kind of er talents what kind of the students they they
really want.
26 Y Ok so er do you think unemployment er unemployment is er is problem for society for
our government or individual?
27 X [Mm]
28 Y [is] important
29 X I actually you know em it's um as a coin they they have two sides you know er the society
also is also is the main causes you know especially in our society in our country um
the policy will influence the the education the the er chance for hunting a job
and also um individual er individually the students themselves they need to develop
their skills um perfectly so that they can meet they can get or they can um catch er
er er a good oppo- opportunity to of er of get of getting er a good job so my er I
two two things I I two as- two as-
30 Y Two as- two aspects=
31 X Two aspects I I also um both of them are are important are important for the er
em er employment for unemployment er unemployment or employment I say maybe this is
the challenge for both the government and individual
32 Y yeah
33 X um actually I think you know er both of them not the not just because of the
in- individual.
34 Y yeah yeah=
35 X =you know if our country or society can provide can er lau- can laun- can carry out
a good policy er it will be better than nowadays and of course individual qualifications
and skills are very important very very important for the for the for ge- for hunting
a a job.
36 Y yeah.
37 X I think
R OK well done.
Task: C Talk 30 (Type 2)
Duration: 6:41 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Children should plan their study by themselves”?
Speakers: R=Researcher; J=Jing Xiu (female); L=Luo Yong (male)

01 J Ok let's talk about the statement that children should plan their study by themselves
02 L Yeah
03 J Um in my opinion I think in my opinion children should plan their study by themselves
04 L Um
05 J Uh I think for children the aim of receiving um education is not is not only learning the knowledge
06 L Um yeah
07 J but also um developing um good character
08 L [Um]
09 J [I think independence is good an important
10 L Yes
11 J character for them
12 L yes
13 J um if we ask children to develop to plan their study by themselves I think it is er help to er develop their independence. Um Do you think so?
14 L Yeah yeah you are right um but don't you think they are too young to be independence um? (0.8) they are they are too young and didn't know how to do um when they are um facing a thing, so um once they always fails fail to do something so um in the future they will become er to afraid of to do anything they didn’t dare to do a thing
15 J [Um]
16 L [so] I think um independence is very important er for children but in er at the beginning of er of their their study um parents should help them teach them how to do how to er say a thing
17 J yeah yeah
18 L yeah
19 J I you are right er maybe it is difficult for children to plan their study for the first time.
20 L yeah
21 J um um as as what you er said
22 L [em]
23 J [pa]rents should give some advice or help them.
24 L yeah yeah
25 J or um when they face the failures
26 L Um
27 J um parents can help them to analyze analyze reasons of failures
28 L Em
29 J I think er er it is a good experience for children to to do so this um
30 L Yeah um and also um um the children um because children didn’t know er how to do how to when they are when they have difficult question they will a lot of spend a lot of time in answering the question um such as the my children
yeah my daughter she always er finish his er homework until very very late until
11 o’clock evening er even 12 o’clock so um if they spend a lot of time in doing their
homework I think er they couldn’t to um they are er have not enough time to sleep I
think it’s time for to their helps.

J yeah then you help him to plan [his study]
L [yeah yeah] I I think my many time in many time that
the parents had to had to do because they are too small to do so many things such as
um maths and Chinese and English and to listen and to write too many homework to do.

J But during when you do this do you think of their er your daughter’s interesting?
L Er I think um
J I I think parents should er respect um the students er especially their willingness
or inter- interesting.
L Um yes I think import- it is important I think I know and I think I should respect
respect their own opinion
J yeah
L um but I think um um parents should er teach them how to do er to er to do
a thing using um less time using less time
J Yes I I agree with you
L Yeah
J Um parent should help them
L Yeah
J or give them some advice er um but I: think it’s not a good way to er (0.3) plan:
er children’s study for them instead of them
L Yeah yeah I think after all study is study er is not all of the children in in their
development and studying is one and also um cause even more important and you must
keep er help they can er grow er grow normally yeah you must you must to keep their
them enough sleeping and and more er exercise physical exercise
J Uh
L and more movement
J Um
L So I think um the children too young er to um to know er how time how important
time is
J [Um]
L [so] they er always waste more time in doing a thing
J I yeah you are right I think another advantage
L Yeah [yeah]
J [of] er planning their [advantages]
L [Yeah yeah]
J for children to er plan their study for themselves
L eah
J is that they can take taking you er they can take their er interesting um so they can
take interesting for them
L yeah
J er I think after all um interesting is best teacher for them
J yeah you you are right. Um if if er you are right I agree with your opinion I think
the same I share the similar opinion with you if the children have interest have their
own interest they er they um they would like to do a thing er their own by their
own opinion they do a thing very quickly

61 J yeah
62 L but if they are not inter-
63 J yes I think if um Bill Gate’s parents um deprived of his interest he will not he would
not be such a famous person.
64 L Yeah. I think so.
R Ok thanks.
Appendix H

Transcripts for the Pair Talk – Australian Student Participants

Task: A Talk 1 (Type 2)
Duration: 5:12 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “University student should have a part-time job”?
Speakers: R=Researcher; F=Freeman (male); E=Emily (female)

01 F what do you reckon?
   (0.5)
02 E I say they should.
03 F yeah I I think definitely think so because I think (0.4) I’ve got mates who don’t do anything, like they don’t have a part-time job so they just go home and (0.3) either study or just go home and go out, (0.4) and use their parents’ money (0.3) to go [and ] get=
E [(mm)]
F =drunk (.) which is probably (.)
E m|m
F [not a good option? (0.5) but (0.6) %what do you% think?
(1.0)
04 E I- I don’t I’ve just moved to Sydney, so I don’t have a job at the moment, but I want one.
   (0.4)
05 F ye[ah (b’t you get a battle).]
06 E and I think it’s really good to have one (part-time job) like (0.5) it sucks not having one I have no money=
07 F =yeah (0.2) it’s definitely a problem (.){cause you don’t earn} extra money (0.3) especially when you’re at university it’s very expensive (0.4) to pay for all your books and everything like that.
   (0.4)
08 E yeah (0.6) %and% transport,
   (0.4)
09 F ye[ah
10 E [and all those things.
11 F it does help to (0.8) have a job as it gives you like lots of extra money (0.4). well not lots of extra money (.) but (0.3) SOME extra money that [you can]
E [yeah ]
F use=
12 E =and you like you can save, so (0.7) [like I’m] about to grad, (0.6)
F [mm ]
E and I think if I have a job and I graduate, then even if it’s not my industry at least like (0.9) [I can] kind of like (0.6) carry on with that job and
F [yeah]
E like (1.0) keep- look for other work and stuff, (0.4) whereas like right now, 
economically if you grad and you don’t have a job and you can’t get one (then)=
13 F =you just kind of end up [just doing ((laughs))) doing
14 E (((laughs))) yeah like
15 F [nothing.]
16 E [yeah ] that’s true=
17 F =(uh) so yeah it’s- and also I think it is a good way to (0.5) develop your 
working %skills% cause I’ve had one since I was like (0.4) fifteen whatever. 
(0.4)
18 E mm
(0.9)
19 F and so (0.9) I think- I think that’s probably a good thing (0.4) because you learn 
more about how you’re supposed to interact in a- like (.) corporate environment, and 
all that kind of thing,
(0.8)
20 E and networking’s important for future jobs.
(0.4)
21 F yeah
(.)
22 E (mm)
(0.6)
23 F you learn like (0.3) who to talk to and (not) talk to what to say and all that kind 
of thing, (1.0) which is usually good. (0.6) um it does (0.3) it is a good chance for 
that(0.3) like t- for your future career, (0.8) I think because specially if you get 
(0.3) a job in the specific industry that you wanna (0.4) work in like=
E =yeah=
F =don’t you think?
24 E yeah then it’s awesome. (0.8) I think even if you don’t get paid and it’s in your industry, 
it’s probably worth the experience (0.4) like depending what you’re doing.
(0.5)
25 F yeah (0.4) I suppose like something like yeah (0.5) um can’t really think anything 
that would be (0.5) or like an unpaid internship or something like that.
26 E yeah (well) like I’m doing film and television, so you can (0.6) like they’ll always 
have people helping out on sets and music videos and 
th[ings] (0.6) and it’s worth like the=
F [yep]
E =people you’ll meet who might hire you or (0.6) the contacts and things to do that 
some[times, 
27 F [so are you doing that at the moment?(0.3)
28 E yeah I do the- I like help out with music videos and stuff.
(0.2)
29 F oh that’s cool so tha- THAT’S helping you with your future career obviously.
(0.6)
30 E yeah
(0.3)
31 F that’s pretty cool.
you get PAID sometimes but it’s like it’s it’s not a lot.(.)

what if they decide to pay you or not=

yeah (laughs) I u- I like I’ve been getting like a hundred bucks a day so that’s o[k but it’s not] regular. (0.3)

[oh that’s good]

YEAH YEAH cause there’s a music video every w- (0.5) whenever.

yeah that’s still pretty cool though, (0.4) so THAT gives you both that gives you (0.5) extra money (0.3) and (0.5)extra like experience=

Yeah (0.8)

that’s good (0.4) and it’s cool if you see it on %TV%.

[I’m like] yea:h. (((laughs)))

[(done that)]=

=see I was holding up that piece of like material you can see the background.

((LAUGHS)) RIGHT THERE in the corner on the left hand of the VERY top of

[(the)] screen

oh that’s cool. (0.4) I DEFINITELY think you should like I mean if you don’t have one (0.5)(think) stuff like this like (0.3) their academic study will be affected like who goes to uni (0.6) all the ti:me and wor:ks all the time?

mm [it’s part-time job.]

[No one does both of] those yeah.

m[m:

[like] (. ) I work (0.5) two or three nights a week like >FRIDAY, Saturday, and Sunday night or something like that, or a Friday Sunday and a Tuesday night. (0.6) like a part-time job is not something that’s gonna to be (0.2) go from uni straight (till) work and have no time

mm.

to do anything else other than (0.4) work and uni,(1.0) which would be like (0.9) the main reason for saying you’d be falling behind or whatever.

YEAH I think like sure you’ll have less time for extra-curricular activities but it’s kind of (0.6) prioritizing,(0.3) w(you’ve just got)a plan.(0.5)

[(myeah) ]

work it out yourself when you want be there and when you got to work and (0.4) if you’ve got an assignment you gotta (1.2) %tell them you can’t work or whatever,

yeah

rather than
THAT's why it’s good cause it makes you plan.

If you– whereas if you so much free time like it
you don’t have to plan (or any ( ) (of those things))
you just kind of sit around and then go oh I’ve gotta] do that oh I’ll do that later

eyes why, make a balance between work and
Use time widely
yeah (1.0) ah they’ll have less time to communicate with their classmates I don’t
think that really matter(h)s

You [ah]

Yeah like if they got offered a- (like) extra like position or something
like that, and then decided to s- like not to go to [uni ],

[yeah]=

and just keep going to work and making money which is one thing my parents said
to me if I got a job they’re like make sure you don’t just end up (deciding) to
work r[ather than] going to uni. (0.2)

[joy]

job at McDonalds, (((laughs))

[[[laughs]]] yeah exactly

hey this is awesome a two dollar rise

I’m getting like six bucks an hour now.

([uh: ]

[sweet] but no I think I think it’s definitely important(you have
a part-time job% when you’re at uni.

yep and I agree.

Ok, excellent.
Task: A Talk 2 (Type 1)
Duration: 5:08 minutes
Topic: What are some of the solutions to dealing with traffic congestion in big cities?
Speakers: R=Researcher; M=Mark (male); B=Betty (female)

R: Would you start?

M: well um to deal with the traffic congestion in like big cities like what we’ve got in Sydney’s CBD, um I reckon if they do increase the fees for parking in the city areas like there’d be so many less people willing to go into the city, and go into the car park, and wanting to drive around there because it’s just way too expensive and would be much more cheaper to find another way of getting there.

B: yeah like my mum always makes us catch the train cause if you park at like QVB it’s sixteen dollars.

M: ((laughs))

B: for like two hours.

M: oh right=

B: and no one wants to pay that=

M: yeah

B: and it’s so much like there’s quite a lot of public transport going to the city, so it’s quite easy to get there.

M: yeah

B: but um oh and they have a new train line here?

M: oh where? oh yeah the Macquarie

B: at Macquarie?

M: Macquarie yeah

B: and so then there’s and that makes it easier as well, cause it was usually people from out this way that had to drive to the city? (0.3)

M: yeah

B: um

M: well I think the people on the train lines seem to like developing a better subway network system, so [and that kind of thing] well the I think everyone that’s on the train line seems to be able to catch the train and go into um go into the city but all those people that only have cars and don’t have a train people living up in the North Beaches they’re pretty
much forced to
(0.2)

18 B   yeah like how- [{.} they c- ] I guess they can get=

19 M   [get in the city.]

20 B   =the L90 (0.3) but [that ta]kes like two hours

21 M   [oh yeah]

22 B   [and no one can be bothered.]

M   {{{laughs}}}] {0.3}

23 B   you can never get a seat.
(0.8)

24 M   %yeah% (0.2) so if you increased the fees for parking then they probably wouldn’t wanna
(0.2) they wouldn’t want to drive in there and if they improved (0.4) and developed
a better subway system then um (0.9) the people from the North Beaches c- {.}[all c]atch=

B   [mm   ]

M   =the train (and) there’d be much less traffic congestion=

25 B   =and they should probably like decrease prices (0.3) for public transport cause e-
(..) I know everyone’s always like oh it costs so much=

26 M   =oh yeah.
(0.5)

27 B   and all that stuff.

28 M   yeah
(0.8)

29 B   but (0.7) I don’t know why they would drive instead cause that would cost more.

30 M   yeah

31 B   um (1.5) {well} they should r- (0.4) widen roads I %reckon%? (0.4) cause like in
Queensland they have like (0.6) five lanes going in the one direction,

32 M   oh yeah

33 B   whereas if you look at like Epping Road there’s one lane (0.4) and one bus lane (0.8)
and so there’s always heaps of traffic there=

34 M   =yeah
(0.6)

35 B   um (2.3) but they did do the (0.2) Lane Cove Tunnel, (0.8) which has increased
it? (0.5)[I mean   ] (.) [decreased traf]ffic (a [bit]).

36 M   [{yeah but}] [it helps   ]   yeah (0.9)

37 B   (yeah)
(0.8)

38 M   but it’s not so much a big city (1.3) but (.).=

39 B   =yeah=

40 M   =(well) I suppose it is a big city.
(1.4)

41 B   but in comparison to other places it[’s no]t that bad. (0.7)=

42 M   =yeah (0.6) well it’s um (0.3) I think it’s only peak hour that it gets really really
[congested]=

B   [yeah   ]

M   =like [if you’re just driving around at like twelve o’clock=
354

43 B [{ }]

44 M =yeah that’s fine. (0.9)

45 B in the day (0.7) there’s like no traffic.

46 M %yeah% (0.3) but on Military Rd like in (0.3) at um peak hour you [can’t get

B [(mm)]

M =anywhere, (0.7) you can’t get from like Mosman to (0.5) Manly or %something%?

(1.2)

47 B you can [go the ba]ck way.((laughs))=

48 M [(no way )]

49 B =but not everyone knows that [[](laughs)]]

50 M [{I don’t–}]

[no- no one knows the back way (laughs)]

51 B (laughs))

52 M (you gotta show me the back way)

(0.8)

53 B you know the one near like- (1.0) um Hugh’s (0.5) house=

M =oh yeah

B like (Alora) Sreet and stuff?

54 M oh well you can- (0.3) maybe that’s another way to deal with traffic congestion=

55 B =exactly.

56 M [show them- (0.4) show them detours

(0.2)

57 B but then traffic could go there ((laughs)) and then that would be annoying.(0.3)

but I [guess it’d be] more evenly spread out=

58 M %=yeah%

(0.6)

59 B mm=

60 M =be in quiet streets,(1.0) [then ever] you’ll probably end

B [mm ]

M up (1.2) going the faster way anyway.

(1.6)

61 B and (0.4) I reckon trains need to be improved cause they’re always late (1.1) like

(0.6)

62 M (oh yeah) ]

63 B [same with] buses

(0.7)

64 M just generally faster trains?

(1.1)

65 B not necessarily faster but just on time.

(0.8)

66 M oh yeah=

67 B =((laughs)) (0.6)and make them nicer?

(0.5)

68 M yeah (0.5) like [the one down at .] Macquarie over there=

69 B =YEAH

(0.7)

70 M which allows people to get (from all the way)(0.3) from the city (0.2)to
Macquarie (0.6)

and also Woolloomooloo (0.3)

but um yeah (0.4) developing a better subway network system is probably the best way to do it=

=yeah (0.4)

or not- (0.3) and like maybe not better but (0.5) or better but also (0.3) (it’s) just more spread,

(you) gotta go further out (.). more further out (0.2) every suburb in entire (0.5) of Australia could be %linked%. (1.0)

%exactly%= 

=but er (1.2) yeah it’s very hard to deal with traffic congestion I (s’pose) that’s why the government has (0.6) so much trouble doing it [all]. (1.4)

but um (1.1) yeah I’m sure in the future (it’ll) (0.4) get better or (0.2) much worse (0.8) just cause

=no one- no one (to) really (0.5) throws away cars anymore they just gives them to people, (0.4) [so there’s] just been

heaps and (0.4) thousands of new cars being made. (1.2)

[yeah]

[yeah]

[so ] (1.1) maybe they can make a limit on how many (0.6) cars a person can have (0.5) on[ly (.)] two ca]rs.

[yeah that’s good] (0.5) and then there’s (0.2) a lot more like immigration (0.4) to like the CBD, (1.0) but those people usually don’t use cars they’re more (0.4) public transport (0.3) just cause they like just come (1.3) to the country and you don’t really need a car (0.4) in the CBD it’s more than suburban (0.3) people (0.4) [that] use them? (0.9)

[yeah]

alright ok
Duration: 5:32 minutes

Topic: What can students do to increase their study efficiency?

Speakers: R=Researcher;  R=Robert (male);  F=Florence (female)

R Are you ready?
F we’re ready.

01 R so Keaton, (0.2) why do you think keeping um routine hours are(0.8) important?
(0.6)

02 F um (0.2) I just think it’s really important to be able to organize your time
[like (0.3)] as I mean (0.2) yeah so

03 R [mm: ]
F we chose that– (0.3) that one, but– (0.9) we also I think think the MOST important
one is the long-term goal (0.3)(and) to use your time wisely cause [like] [0.3]
R [okay]
F =if you can’t see what you’ve already got planned ahead, then how can you manage your
time (0.3) as you’ve got it [now.]

04 R [okay] {1.2) alright=

05 F =like that’s why I was talking about that big calendar that I did where I put all
the assessments that I need for the semester,

06 R alright
07 F [so planning ahead is definitely,
(0.5)

08 R okay=
09 F =definitely really [really import]ant.(0.2)
10 R [(Iu-) ] I agree: with that planning ahead is
(0.5) is important, (0.6) but um just as important is (0.5) um as well keeping a routine
is is a balance, (0.2) so if you [don’t have a] balance between
F [yeah yeah ]
R study and play, (0.8) um and work, then
(0.8)

11 F [yeah no] (.) yeah definitely like you need to be able
12 R [ ( ) ]
13 F to take some time off, (0.7) (kind of) dedicate (1.5) different days to different things
[or you know] like and=
R [mm hm ]
F =once again that brings back the routine cause like if you work in a particular day,
(0.8) like a SATURDAY for example=
R =mm
F =or like you work a Thursday night, (0.7) then you can plan the rest of Your week
around [that]? (0.8)
R [mm]
F so that’s your work. (0.3) but it’s im- like it’s important to take time off as well
[(like) you need to kind of (0.5)
14 R [yeah (absolutely) ]
15 F zone out for a bit and
so what kind of long-term goals do you think are important?

I don’t know you were you were saying that you think it’s you’d like to decide WHAT you’re gonna learn for the semester, but I’m more about what I expect myself to achieve in each subject, it’s what I expect myself to achieve in each subject, I find myself closer to achieving that at the end of the semester.

I mean it is important as we were saying? setting goals% is important as we were saying?

but um actually I was just thinking like another top- another point on here, %expand your scope of knowledge by various means%, when like down time for me I like obviously like to go out and enjoy the day or whatever, but things like reading, like I read at night or I do crosswords and that’s kind of a different?

does that?

like it’s still mental stimulation, but it’s still a break from study?

it’s- yeah yeah so- so that comes back to that comes back um to a balance, yeah yeah [yeah]

but- but does that increase your study efficiency?

I think so, you’re keeping your mind active

like you know you’re opening up do- haven’t you ever found that like books that you’ve read outside of uni have helped

you in a particular course or like?
%not really I read% fiction=

=really? cause I read- I was- started reading this um (1.0) um

Darwinian book,

yeah yeah Rich[ard Da]wkins (0.2) and he was talking about= 

[yeah ]

=axioms and blah blah blah and all this stuff and I didn’t know what it meant and then

I got into maths and they’re like axiom and I was like (. ) I know what that MEANS.

((laughs))=

=so like I guess reading outside (0.6) [can help=] can in= 

[okay ]

=like I- I mean you obviously have to be (0.5) doing things that are in- in line with
your study, [but

[yeah sure

(1.0)

[yeah]

[Okay]

(0.2)

I’m going to put something on here that’s not there, (0.3) don’t get a boyfriend.(.)

=((laughs))=

=honest[ly

[think that’s a good one actually.

I didn’t do any study over the last week and=

=yeah

(0.6)

((laughs)=

=yeah

(0.7)

but yeah (0.3) but I was thin:king this morning actually,(0.5) um(0.5) I was like oh
can’t believe (like) I have a boyfriend [now] I’m not going to be able

[mm]

=to dedicate enough time to study, like I’ve got SO: much to do: (0.6) but (0.3) how
many- uh students are like working full-time or working part-time

even [or ha]ve=

[mm]

=kids (0.3) or have (0.3) you know and I’m like (0.3) I’m freaking out I work one day
a wee:k and I’m trying to organize my study, (. )

[what- what I’ve actua-]

[cause other] } people have so much more to do. (. )

w- what I’ve found though is that (0.4) the MORE you have to do, I don’t KNOW (if this
is just me) the more you have to do the more organized and more efficient you are.

(0.4)

I completely [agree with that]

[so when ] when we were doing three units I was (0.3)

far: less [organized and disciplined]=

[s:o lazy

=y[eah] and so lazy and then doing four all of a sudden you
F: [yep]
R: have more to do,
(0.2)
50 F: I know=
51 R: you’re more disciplined more organized,
52 F: definitely
(0.4)
53 R: so
(0.2)
54 F: THAT’s the difference between this semester like last semester was so full-on=
55 R: =yeah
(0.8)
56 F: [that you just ]
57 R: [and we did well.]
(.)
58 F: [exactly [we did really well.]
R: [(()((laughs))) ] yeah
F: whereas this semester (0.2) nah it’s still full-on, but it’s (0.6) you know,
(0.3)
59 R: (little)=
60 F: =It’s true [the more you have to do the more you do.
61 R: {[easier]
(.) yeah and th[en e- a]nd then yeah so okay and then d-
62 F: {[ }
63 R: discussing issues with- with teachers, (0.6) and and classmates, (0.7) so I mean you
and I we[discuss (0.2) um
64 F: [((no)]
65 R: everything outside that we talked about in classrooms, and outside classrooms,
66 F: yeah it [does help our [underst]anding [of it.
67 R: [s-
[and that-] [yeah absolutely
68 F: helping oth- I think it’s important (1.1) efficiency actually, (0.5) study efficiency
I think (0.3) like if you have a group (0.4) to study with or at least one other person.
(1.0)
69 R: I disagree with that, [I can’t study in ] a [group.]
70 F: [yeah but how many-] [but ] (0.2) not in a group, (1.1) not
in a group, but (0.6) like (1.5) well it depends like you can do in a group (b-) but
[us] like we study together,
R: [mm]
F: OH YEAH YEAH=
and that works for us.
71 R: [yeah]
72 F: [like] I think I prefer (0.5) i- I need a BALANCE cause I don’t (0.3) enjoy your company
that [much.
R: [(()((laughs)))
73 F: so [(()((laughs))) no
74 R: [you love my company ((laughs))]
75 F: no I mean you need you need time to study by yourself [but like] with other
people (0.4) as well.

R

0.8

F

okay

0.5

F

so yeah definitely

R

mm

F

I agree with that.

(2.3)

R

ok well done.
Task: A Talk 4 (Type 2)
Duration: 6:23 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement "Adolescents should have free access to the internet"?
Speakers: R=Researcher; S=Sarah (female); P=Paul (male)

R are you ready
S yeah [yeah]

P [yeah] I’m fine. (0.2) this one’s really great [with me? um] (0.2) I have
S [([laughs]))

P a- (0.3) I don’t agree with it, [but I] don’t (0.3) disagree with it,
S [no]

P [(it’s t-)]
S [it’s gre]y area I think ((laughs)) [in a major way depends on what] (0.3)

P [and (it) also ((laughs))]
S context (0.3) um (0.3) mm (0.4)=
P =how (0.3) to the- what extent is free .)((laughs))
S y[eah yeah]

P [access ] so (0.3) [how far are you gonna go. ]
S [I wouldn’t say its arbitrary] yeah (0.6)

P um (0.3) uh (0.3) cause I think you got- all problems at the moment with um, (0.2)
cyber bullying and [stuff] (0.2)
S [yep ]
P on the internet so if you got (0.6) uh- (0.4) like teenagers on the internet all the
time then=
S =mm
P a- they’re more exposed to that or they could be (0.4) bullying another kid=
S =yeah ye[ah

P [mm ]
P on the internet. (0.4)

S for sure (0.3) but I mean u- u- the way I was (0.5) I found it so ambiguous because
(0.3) the- the word teenager is such a broad spectrum, like you think like with the
thirteen year olds definitely I don’t [think they] should free
P [mm]

S reign (0.3) no way, I mean just thi[nk about it ((laughs)) ]

P [well then you’d go to all] of the sort
S of [colorful ] pornographic sites [that are on] there. (0.3)

P [(there’s so many-)]

S [([laughs))]

P yeah

S but I mean even like (the) simplest chat rooms not necessarily MSN or anything, but
(0.4) the things that people stumble across these [day]s, and
P [yeah]

S the amount of even as simple as you stumble across a site and it has like a worm or
a trojan horse or something just causing trouble and they don’t fully understand,
(0.4)

P well=

S =a lot of [them anyway ]
[they don’t have] the [(uh-) capacity] yet to screen [sort of] certain
[(they can’t) ] [yeah ]
(thing-) especially your younger ages say your thirteen, fourteen,
they’re gonna (0.6) and curiosity takes over too[and they’re like oh]
[yeah ] [yeah yeah ]
(0.3) you know I’ll just go have a look at that.
(0.3)
yeah=
um (.) on the other side though, (0.2) [it-
[it is the information (0.3) with
[school ]
[like develop]lop wise [for] (.) children, (0.6) they do (0.4) socialize
[mm ]
through the internet [now ?] (it’s) sort of (0.5) they moved away
[yeap ]
from face to face stuff and
(0.2)
yeah=
you’ll be on facebook you’ll be on my space.
(0.2)
It’s it’s- (0.2) double-sided really cause in a way you sort of think it’s- it’s a
great way to be able to communicate with people that you can’t see but=
[mm ]
at the same time if you can see them it’s sort of like it’s (0.3) not detrimental,
but you think oh you know, theoretically (0.7) maybe they shouldn’t just be able to
always do that maybe they should (.) not forced but have the[option]
[to I don’t know I- I was sort of torn between (0.3) I couldn’t definitely say they
should or they should not? (it) was sort of like I can understand (0.6) um for educational
purposes,(.) that the internet
(0.3)
It depends what [context you put [into,] (0.2) for a
[yeah]
ch- like from a child pers- uh protection view then,
yeah
I’d be leaning toward a disagree, [er] (.) disagreement with the statement
[mm]
because you got (0.2) predators on the internet and (0.8)
[yeah]
(there’s) getting so good now that (0.3) they can (. )
imitate (. ) (a) f- yeah  
[they fool the police yeah]
15 year old boys and u- like=
ye[ap]
[to girls and stuff,(0.5)
yeap=
and organize meetings stuff and you=

like I completely understand that and I agree I think that (. ) especially with the younger ones (0.4) the older ones it'd still be a bit of an issue but [at least] they've [mm ] matured a little bit more so they can [recognize

[well you start recognizing when] (0.2)
[yeah]

th- like certain questions asked like oh so where do you live? or (0.2) [you know what's] your favorite clothing?

[yeah yeah ]

and they ask all [that stuff to] suss you out. (0.5)

[yeah yeah ]

but (0.5) um and also in the context of um (0.2) sort of health and obesity, (1.1) yeah=

=i- (0.4) the internet you’ve (0.2) ks got kids sitting on my space all day,

[or like all night, (0.2) or on MSN

[yeah ]

for hours on end. (. ) and you go well (0.3) you're not going ou[tside and(. ) in the backyard playing cric[ket yeah ]

[get] them [running or] (0.8)

[so. ]

[yeah] (1.6) I don't think you’d be able to um (0.5) give anyone free access to all the sites though especially if [they’re ] (0.3)

[ ((laughs))]

teenagers I mean i- it’s I don’t know, (1.0) th- there’s always some dodgy sides you find on the net(1.0)

[they’re kind of always download the A ctive X of

[oh you’ll have that anywhere though? ]

something or other and you think oh yeah that’d be fun, (0.6) um but no (. ) I think (0.3) generally grey area I’m tending towards NO, (0.3) because of the um (1.0) protection reasons, just that because it is so expansive, because the it is (0.7) the internet like it’s so wide, and varied, there’s always a chance that something [could go] wrong and you think (. )

[yeah ]

do you really want to expose a kid to that. (0.3) I mea[n sure]

[yeah ]

there is information element but is it worth it (0.6)

[yeah but with ] um (0.5) I agree with (0.4) disagreeing(.)

[to have them]

[with that thing- well (. ) more

[((laughs))]

leaning toward a disa-

[ I agree to disag]ree] ((laughs)) yeah

[um ] but (0.6) I think then you have problems too

[((laughs))]

363
if you start limiting access it’s like cen- [censor]ship

and you know oh (0.2) big no no you [can’t] start censoring everything and

(0.6) so it is difficult=
yeah (0.9) I just think yeah I- (0.4) I don’t know I- I think it’s fine they
should have age, (0.3) appropriate things [for some] particular areas,

like I know in high school you couldn’t access particular sites because you know it
was (0.4) they were- um blocked by the Board of Studies
[or something,](0.3)

um a lot of cartoons, and things like that if people tried to get in there,
(0.4) [at school but (sort stuff) ] that kinda stuff. (0.4) and I guess it’s

sort of (0.3) [I don’t know]

[well in an ] educational context it [would make] sense,

[i’m not sure]

cause] you’re not gonna [you know say here (.). go to all the] sites

[yeah]

[(on) the internet when] you don’t need to.

[(Call of Duty) yeah ]

yeah yeah that’s true (0.6)

I don’t know and I agree with you what you said about how (1.2) if they had
free access they’re probably waste a lot of time sitting there exploring instead
of [I don’t know]

[yeah (oh and there’s a--) no there’s time for everything though I mean there’s
times when you not have (.). absolute free access,
[but [(0.2)] you can have access to your social

[yeah [(of) course not ]

networking=

=mm

[like twitter, or whatever I don’t know (0.3) [and] (0.2) games, and (0.6)

whatever sort of interests them and

[providing it’s not (0.5) adult material?

[no, no,] no, ((laughs)) no that’s fair enough I think like with everything you can’t
have (0.7) full support of or

[full,.(.) coordination] it’s sort of [yeah y-

[no I’d have to sit on [the fence with r- r[egard to that statement.

It sounds a bit dodgy saying I’d sit on the fence but I know what you mean cause
you got to think with both aspects you can::’t (0.4) like give total censorship, but
can’t give them total control ei[ther you] sort of have to

mediate it, (0.9) which is a little bit difficult? ((laughs)) cause
[what define]s what’s appropriate. [([laughs])]

59 P  [yeah well ]  [it’s the env- like what environment
they’re in at the certain time (.). that [sort of] (1.2) yeah and especially
S  [yep ]
with the ages because it can vary between [you know] (.). thirteen and nineteen
P  [mm ]
S  0.3)[you would] expect[(u-)= by nine teen [at (.). uni]
60 P  [yeah ]  [u- yeah]  [by nineteen, you should] have
[little bit of um ]
S  [should be able to] (0.9) [I mean]
61 P  [street] (.). sense and=
62 S  =well you’d hope so [yeah.] I mean (0.4) especially if you’re at uni for instance
P  [yeah ]
S  I- I think should be (0.7) I don’t know not more lax but (0.5) a little bit
different [because it is] [yeah ]
63 P  [nineteen though [you’re an adu]lt [so
S  [yeah
P  you don’t need to be sort of restricted, ]
64 S  [you can drive you can vote] you can yeah ([laughs])
65 P  in every (0.3) respect, so=
66 S  =compared to just yeah (0.2) thirteen, fourteen years old that (0.7) aren’t entirely
sure especially when they’ve [just been ] introduced to the
P  [([laughs)])
S  internet [then it’s sort of like w]ow okay([laughs])
67 P  [oh exactly yeah ]  [oh let’s go there
[and say hello][([laughs)])
68 S  [yeah yeah ([laughs)]) [yeah yeah no I understand that.
R  excellent, well done.
Task: A Talk 5 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:12 minutes
Topic: What are some of the benefits of travelling home and abroad?
Speakers: R=Researcher; J=Jason (male); I=Irene (female)

R Are you ready?

01 J OK I’ll go first I think my my three main benefits that I think people travel at home and abroad but especially abroad is um widen widen one’s vision cultivate one’s temperament and taste different styles of food. Why widen one’s vision because the more that you experience the more that you can kind of enjoying these yourself and cultivate one’s temperament because um the only way you cultivate your temperament is if you are in a comfortable situation but usually travelling is kind of like you know it’s uncomfortable but you know but you probably see you can see it can cultivate your temperament. Taste different styles of food because I really like food everyone like different types of food

I =((laughs))

02 J and taste different styles of food.

I Ok I have to agree to two of these three I think widen um one’s vision it’s pretty important as well and cultivate one’s temperament especially um but I think even though food is kind of important um experiencing different cultures is really important as well because it’s kind of helps you understand your culture better by seeing what the difference with others but also when that it’s a kind of in cultivating one’s temperament I guess it’s I guess it’s spending time with whom you are travelling with like if you travel by yourself then it doesn’t really account but um spending time with some of your friends or people you’ve met overseas is I think really important thing about travelling as well (0.4) because you (0.2) find out more about yourself and other people.

I ((laughs))

03 J Yeah I know I found that overseas earlier it’s like four guys chilling out there together and said let’s have DNMs (deep and meaningful conversations).

04 I ((laughs))

05 J So yeah like heard a lot about my granddad that I never heard before

06 I Mm.

07 J because we were just sitting, like chilling out and about the mountain village so and apparently if you chill out in the mountain village you had DNMs a lot but I think you kind of like you kind of say widen one’s vision laughter but I think I think understanding your culture like comes under that I think you can still pick tasting different styles of food.

08 I ((laughs))

09 J and still three.

10 I I am not saying that your choices are bad I’m just saying that ones.

11 J So what are your [three ones]?

12 I [I think ] experiencing different cultures, widen visions and cultivate your temperament as well but I think experiencing different cultures is pretty cool like

J Yeah

I Maybe not just because you can widen one’s vision but because you can see

J Yeah
I and experience different things

J Yeah.

I by widening one’s vision (laughter)

J No no because I think widening one’s vision is different from experiencing different cultures because when you widen your vision you kind of actively engaged and if you are experiencing different cultures you can be like you know

I uh huh

J in Indonesian or other countries just being like assaulted by having to face different things which is not something you are used to. That’s experiencing a different culture but you are not widening your vision like the way you are in the same way.

I that’s true put yourself out of your comfort zone um.

J Yeah

I Mm

J that’s in but to me that’s cultivating one’s temperament something like that

I ((laughter)) um I agree um yeah I think it’s difficult to find well because going for overseas is like a situation yeah you can’t really replicate in any other way so um and

J yeah

I so definitely you wouldn’t be able to cultivate your own temperament um through a similar experience because it can’t really find something quite similar.

J Oh having said that because it’s travelling at home and abroad, I think you could achieve some of that level of difference travelling at home for example if you jump like western line train and go to Redfern that would be a different experience.

I That’s true but would you say it’s the scale of how far away you go the better experience it is

J Um maybe er maybe not how far but how to do because like if I am going to the US and it wouldn’t be different from like going to Thailand or something.

I That’s true.

J Because there’s still cultural similarity would be difficult to widen my vision in the US and also I wouldn’t taste different type of food in the US because they don’t have styles of food and I just have chips

I ((laughs))

J and fatty things

I Mm

J but you could taste different styles food if you travel to Yarra Valley you could have wine and cheese

I That’s true

J but

I but may not be positive benefit I guess

J Yeah but I don’t know I still think experiencing different cultures kind of encompassing tasting different styles of food as well=

I =okay

J because it’s also about um you know meeting people have different world views and um experiencing like other society like um like er public holidays and stuff (laughs) celebra[tions]

I [Yeah]
J stuff like that.
36 I Yeah
37 J So I reckon yeah even tasting different styles of foods is important
38 I Yeah
39 J I think experiencing different cultures is more important.
40 I Ok so this is um experiencing different cultures is a kind of umbrella term which encompasses that
41 J Yes ok I must have a different focus psychologically focusing on food.
R Ok well done.
Task: A Talk 6 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:22 minutes

**Topic:** what are some of the benefits of afforestation?

**Speakers:** R=Researcher; M=Michael (male); J=Jennifer (female)

01 M Um the benefits of afforestation I think the main thing is um maintaining biological balance because they can offset pollution and
02 J So that relates to improving air quality as well
03 M Yes both
04 J Well I definitely think that as an important one but so that’s a benefit like a human’s health
05 M I think everyone’s talking about the environment obviously
06 J Yeah so okay that health wide benefit?
07 M yeah
08 J What about like mental or
09 M I’ve seen no mental benefit of trees
10 J Well I think it could enhance human well being because they’re getting into the environment like they’re acknowledging the environment around them
11 M Yeah I think if you’re doing for that purpose only that is a waste
12 J No because you know by planting trees that it’s gonna improve the air quality which it’s gonna help you breathe
13 M yes but that’s bio-factor of health not
14 J yeah but and then by recognizing that by you contributing to the environment and help it is helping your health that would help your wellbeing as well because you feel good about yourself
15 M Um I disagree I wouldn’t say that make me feel better by planting a tree [at all]
16 J [Oh:: ] that is just you’re your mental-mental state
17 M But
18 J how you think ‘cause you are a boy
19 M yeah but why would you you wouldn’t plant a tree to make you feel better
20 J some people do: it makes them feel it’s like why do people do um like community service voluntary work
21 M too much time on their hands
22 J well some people are retired and they don’t work and they need to do [things]
23 M [would]
would you plant a tree and make yourself feel better
24 J Yes and I’ve planted a tree as well and do you know what it does make you feel good because you’re helping the environment and you’re helping people some people like helping other people
25 M disagree
26 J Okay what else do you think is important then?
27 M I think that the only real thing is for the health of the society um air quality
28 J what about preventing water loss
29 M I was unaware of that prevents water loss they prevent water loss and so
30 J well because is=
=again that’s an environmental factor and so I don’t agree with that I say that’s the main thing
and you drink a lot of water so water is important to you?
yeah
Yeah say well because water is important to me so by planting trees
yeah but it’s nothing to do with mental state
but it helps the benefits
that’s not
I’m talking about mental state I’m talking about the benefits
yeah all=
=it’s giving me health benefits by not losing water considerably into the road in Australia so water is so precious
Why I don’t think it’s an important matter though it’s good to prevent water loss
I think actually I think I’ll say all these are pretty important I don't really think beautifying the environment is that
Important?
it depends what type of person you are like if you’re obviously a woman into (plant) is like crazy
yeah
because I don’t really see how that benefits humans but absorbing noise that’s important as well
yeah I think it might yeah
and I think although it’s kind of annoying because it would block like sunlight
[Yeah]
[getting] proof as well because like if it’s a big plant but um
Improving air quality what do you think about like trees in the city and stuff
I think that’s very important
because I know they cut trees down and people complain about it so
yeah because there’s so much pollution from all the cars driving
do you think it’s a danger having trees in the city?
Um where would you be talking about?
All like on the sidewalk or stuff I know European stuff they do they have trees right more trees than in the city than we do
I think it’s good.
[Yeah]
[I ] don’t think it’s a danger why do people think it is a danger
Well that’s what I mean they think we need more parks with really big gums in the middle in the=
=Oh like the big oak type one that spreads
Yeah yeah
I don’t see there is a danger unless er the drunken people walk or tripping on them
yeah
but I think they are nice because people enjoy sleeping in the park and looking at those trees because that like hundreds of years old
What about when you move remove trees at home can council like recommend to tree replacement policy so if you remove you have to replace them similar height
Yeah but it depends on like what the reason is for removing them because if it's because roots are getting into pipes and stuff then I don't really think they should make you put a tree back into that spot.

Oh yeah=

because that is gonna do exactly the same thing

but I think there should be more trees in the city because there is so much pollution from all the cars there all the public transports going through that it's needed to absorb it in a fresh air and not to make it so toxic for everyone there

are trees the answer or more pubic transports and less cars the answer

Both

Okay interesting

Because they all level out=

Yeah

on the scale but obviously cutting out transports helps humans a lot

yeah more public transport would be good um

but Um creating a place of recreation is kind of like we are talking about in the city with all the trees

that isn’t for recreation that’s for health and safety so it is not safety so much but health

well it is for benefits benefit in the human

yeah but it's not like recreation

yeah no if you think about like office people they go there for their break especially in the city near Hyde Park and they'll go and just sit in Hyde Park and eat their lunch or something

that's true

and that's kind like a comparison of

Yes

you know being in the office

often seeing they going outside

yeah to like enjoy the fresh air and the scenery there so it’s kind of their place of recreation which

yeah [that’s true]

[give their] life style a balance

like having their food and lunch as well so=

yeah they can do exercises you know how they have special exercise classes?

Yeah

and they can do that to get out of the just block of office building?

yeah

but yeah

yeah

I’d say

ok excellent.
Task: A Talk 7 (Type 1)

Duration: 5:15 minutes

Topic: What are some of the reasons for adolescents' addictions to the Internet?

Speakers: R=Researcher; J=James (male); E=Elizabeth (female)

R  So are you ready?

01 J  Ok well (0.3) I believe that um adolescents (0.5) spend a lot of time on the internet and that they (0.4) enjoy (0.4) the social networking aspects to it (.) such as (0.4) new programs like face book and my space (.) and the chat online chat programs (0.4) so they can keep very up to date with all their friends because I think (0.5) in a modern culture (0.3) they (0.5) find that it's really important to stay up to date you know almost to the second with everything is going on so that they don't feel like they're missing out (1.0) what do you [think?]

02 E  [yeah ] I definitely agree with that because I think when you your status on the internet also fall into your (0.3) real life so if you have a persona or this many)friends on the internet or this many (0.4) ideas or things that you do on the internet (0.5) that can gain recognition (.) in the rest of your life. (1.2)

03 J  Um I think (0.6) what they say here is desire for the early experience of adult life is is relatively true the internet humongous (0.3) wealth of information and (0.5) to have access to unfiltered(0.6) information you know when schools (0.3) that they're probably in high school most adolescents (0.3) they're subject to all of this sort of (0.5) en broad education information and it's all very filtered (0.4) and when they go into the internet they can read anything they like and they could (0.7) experience yeah anyone's opinions not just (0.4) the things they are forced to learn. (1.0)

04 E  Yeah it's definitely a big temptation when like (0.5) I see you've got pornographic ones as well but also bomb making or even suicide or maybe eating disorder or things like that, they can all stem from the internet. We can get access to do whatever we want (0.4). You know we have (0.5) the choice of what way we want to lead our lives through that information being so readily available. (0.3)

05 J  Um (...) and I think it's very it's part of being adolescents that rebellion of finding (0.3) really you know sort of pornographic or (0.3) inappropriate materials so that you can (0.3) and that's ties in wanting to be an adult because you can (.) find out some of these things maybe you won't be quite ready to find out yet. (0.3)

06 E  yeah and you are not judged because nobody is looking at [you]

J  [Mm]=

E  =so it's just

(0.9)

07 J  anonymous as well=

08 E  =Yeah.

09 J  what else is there yeah should be the games as well like obviously adolescents enjoy
that very short attention span now the internet is almost sort of a TV with millions of channels, you can do whatever you like and you can spend thirty seconds somewhere and decide you want to go to another game or to another place and that can tie with with social aspects as well with online channel.

10  E   Yeah with interactive games where you’re playing against a real person as opposed to playing against a computer

11  J   Yeah

12  E   so why go outside and play soccer when you can play soccer against someone on the internet.

13  J   Yeah I think older people have trouble understanding that, which is why there’s always problem between adolescents and their parents they spend a lot of time on the computer, they think they are being social and networking when their parents see is them playing games

14  E   mm

15  J   and wasting their time as they say but

16  E   Yeah definitely you’re being social even it looks like you are being you know spending time by yourself. If you’re using all those different parts of the internet then you are interacting with people the whole the time you know.

17  J   I remember spending many hours on the chat MSN messenger when I was in high school and my parents getting very annoyed.

18  E   ((laughs))

19  J   Mm yeah you say whatever you want to say in the chat rooms.

20  E   Mm.

21  J   When I was 15 or 16 everyone like I’m now going to break up with you.

22  E   You always broke up with your girlfriend on the internet, which is the easiest way.

23  J   yeah

24  E   Um good on the internet

25  J   Mm

26  E   I think all of your points (to the researcher) are really relevant like I think I agree with all of them.

27  J   I think self-discipline is true and that can be applied to all of them really because it’s so easy to go to you could be doing your homework before you’re doing one of these things you are looking at game or social networking.

28  E   Yeah every time I go on the internet I put on either my Hotmail or face book or something whilst I’m doing my study.

29  J   you can

30  E   Every time I don’t even think about why I do it

31  J   You could entertain yourself Mm I used to growing up with like that

32  E   Mm. oh yeah, here is the issue of chatting

33  J   about the chatting? Um apart from face book kind of websites not just networking but real chatting?

34  E   yeah, I guess

35  J   yeah I think it’s a good way of a lot of adolescents say it’s a free way to talk to people you can instead of staying on the phone where you get in trouble with your parents for phone bill [or ] something it’s more- [it’s free] and

36  E   [yes] [it’s free]
you know and also it’s an easy way to talk to someone you do not have to devote all your attention to the person while you’re talking to them. You can flick to their little box on the screen and you can say a few words and then you go to something else. You can go look at another website and it’s um an easy way to keep the conversation running with several people at the same time. I think for adolescents that are the very efficient way to keep social life um in order.

R  Ok, well done.
Task: A Talk 8 (Type 1)
Duration: 5:25 minutes

Topic: What are some of the causes for being stressed in modern society?

Speakers: R=Researcher; J=Jack (male); K=Kate (female)

01 J should I start?
(.)

02 K yeah you should start.
(0.6)

03 J um (0.3) I think the main causes for stress in modern society is (0.6) finance problems? because of financial constrains people are (0.7) are forced to work, (0.6) maybe part-time [or ]
K [(right)]
J you know (0.3) and like (0.5) they’re always under the pressure of how they’re gunna get (0.3) the money paid back, (0.2) to o[ther (0.4) ] to the bank
04 K [Yeah that’s true]

05 J or you know (0.2) to other vin- individuals they borrowed from? (. and then like (0.3) (so they’re) always like (. wondering (0.2) how they’re gonna do that, and that might cause (I don’t know)stress to people? (0.6) and like (0.8)

06 K and um I also think cause um you know (. we have a better health system right now, so: (0.2) older people are going to live longer,(0.3) so it’s going to add stress to you know (.)
07 J oh yeah ye[ah=
08 K [(the) children’s finances.
(0.2)

09 J yeah that too but like you could also (think of) from other (0.3) point of view that (0.6) um IF (0.3) your grandparents are like established individuals,(0.2)they might leave behind a lot of (0.6) you know I don’t know (0.5)
10 K [assets:: yeah,]
11 J [sh assets yeah,] (0.4) like property and stuff like that like that may be a good thing too so.
(0.2)

12 K yeah either way [ei- either you-] either you get money or
13 J [either way yeah]

14 K you lose m[oney. ]
15 J [money] y(h)e(h)ah that’s [true ]
16 K [you know] for the sake of them.
17 J yeah um (0.5) also I think another (0.5) important problem is like emotional problems?
(0.2)
18 K yeah=
19 J =and that could stem from a variety of things (. relationships, (. families
(0.3)

20 K mm [stress from your employers, ]
21 J [(just) stress from wor- yeah] employ[ers,] (0.4)
K [(mm)]
J um (0.3) yeah what else do you think is important?

K (0.3) be focusing on relationships cause you know that's what I [concerned] most about, (0.4) um yeah basically (0.4 um (0.3) like in terms of women? we're expected to (0.3) be contribute more in the=

J towards the [relationship I agree yeah. ]

K [yeah towards relationship and] finance and- and everything like, yeah=

J =like back then (0.3) um we don't really have to pay (.) you know contribute in the [finance aspect, ]

K [in financial (sexist)]

J [yeah ]

K [yeah but] yeah (.) (the) love and affection is more you guys right,

J =I would say um (.)

K and you know money goes to the ma[n ((laughs))

J [man yeah exactly.

K [it's your responsibility[but right now]

J [but like now ] since it’s more like a 21 century equality thing,=

K =yeah equali[ty,

J [yeah like n- I think now people are more a- at least couples are more inclined to make it like (.) pretty even?

li[ke so if you’ve- yeah if you’ve pay for]

K [yeah to make it more equal ]

J one da- one night out, (0.3) you know [you might be ob]ligated

K [yeah ]

J to pay for the next one. (.) [so ]

K [yeah it] makes it- (.) you know really awkward, cause [{you know}] we're women,

J [Yeah] you’ve- and like (.) guys always have in (their) mind if like (.) for example if we did decide {{laughs}} to {{laughs}} not to pay what would- what would the girl think=

K =Yeah [yeah exactly.

J [you know wha- wha- what judgment would she (0.4) you know [have about us. ]

K [yeah the girl mi]ght think oh my god you’re [so stingy. ]

J [Yeah (and th-)] and yeah that might c- cause stress (0.5) in modern society I gue[ss, and um (0.7) also

K [That’s true]

J I would say (1.9)

K family [problems yeah ]
family problems I I) (same here.) I had a lot of family problems (0.6) um (0.6) I would say um (0.7) well since=

lik[e ever since my dad’s been passed away, (0.5) um]

yeah that’s ok (0.2) um like (. . .) our family doesn’t (treat us the) same anymore? (0.4)

so it’s-

[Oh O: kay]

yeah it’s a lot different now, um (0.6) yeah I go– received a lot of stress when I was there, so like I– would (0.6) think from that point of view
[like that’s stress]

because I don’t know f- how they’re- (. . .) like I’m here, and my family’s back home and I know how they’re treating them,

(0.2)

that’s true=

and stuff like that so [like] you know (0.8) [that causes] stress for me

[yeah]

[yeah]

sometimes.

for me you know my parents are divorced and (you know)

[Oh okay yeah ]

[it– really](. . .) it gave me a lot of stress when was [y–(.)]

[( )]

[ye—]

[a little girl.]

[yeah exactly ] yeah=

um yeah (0.4) I’d say um cause of the workload? we’re having right now, you know nowadays,

[um ] we’re getting like (0.4) we’re not ea—

[yeah yeah]

eating proper food, and we’re not] getting enough

[yeah ]

exercise[es (so it’s–)]

[yeah not getting enough]sleep,

yeah exactly that’s that’s a big point.

I agree

yeah um=

“I think we’re getting (0.2) like (0.2) more obese, and more [un]healthy=”

(0.4)

Yeah

[especially with Australia [being (. . .) the fattest]

[(laughs)]

country [in the world ]

[yeah the fattest] country,

[in the world now]

[and ((laughs))]
[over ] 60% [of (.)] you know the [population are over]weight=

[yeah (of-) the [population yeah ]

[that’s crazy.]

[um ] yeah I know. um (1.5) yeah I THINK that’s (.) a huge factor
to consider when you’re considering stress
[I mean](0.9) is [this-] I THINK another thing is like=

[yeahh] [be sure you are not too fat ]

time manage[ment?]

[especially for us, you know when we’re fat, guys look at us
differently=

Yeah (I guess) yeah {{laughs}}[also I think] time management is {{laughs}}

[{{laughs}} ]

pretty hard as [well],
K

[Yeah]=

=I mean it’s hard to manage all the things like if you’re doing a part-time job if
you’re studying full time=

Yeah yeah

it’s hard to manage everything and still come out on top.
(0.3)

yeah=

=and that causes a lot of stress cause you might not be able to decide (0.6) you know
which part- which aspect you should put more emphasis on?
[and which one] you shouldn’t?
K

[right ]

(0.2)

mm hm=

=so I think that might be (.) another (0.8) key point.
J

{{laughs}} yeah

um (0.9) yeah [and] the work pressure I’d say um it (suits) more
J

[yeah]

K

and you know (0.3) for the f- financial crisis,
(0.6)

O[h yeah yeah]

[yeah (so i]t’s now badder). [cause] um you know the employers they expect
J

[yep ]

K

more, (0.2)(than) the employ[ees ] (0.2) and [um

[yeah] [especially with the job that
I’m working I’m w- working promotions, =
K

=oh right=
J

=so like they really expect me to generate a certain amount of leads
ever[y] every [day?]

[yeah] [like] they expect you to work [more]
J

[work] more than you

[really ]

K

[meanwhile] they’re- they’re paying you [less. ]

[you le]ss=
yeah [exactly] and um like I’m– it’s very stressful cause i– (0.3) a that day like for example I have to generate leads and I’m not able to get any? (0.2)
mhm= 
I’m under a lot of stress. (. a lot. (laughs))
((laughs)) so I’m like if I don’t get enough leads (. my employer might fire me, then) I won’t have any money, (0.2)
[Yeah they’re gonna fire me, ]
[to pay for] my (. living costs and]
((laughs)))
like (. that’s gonna to affect my studies [and stuff like that, and (. (i– )]
[yeah that will affect everything]
it’s just gonna to be really stressssful
ok well done.
Task: A Talk 9 (Type 2)  
Duration: 6:18 minutes  
**Topic:** Are you for or against the statement “Modern people should live in big cities”?  
**Speakers:** R=Researcher; G=George (male); H=Helen (female)

01 G I’m- I’m very very pro cities.  
(0.4)

02 H yeah

03 G yes  
(1.2)

04 H w- why?  
(1.2)

05 G well beca- (0.2) I think one of the greatest things that-(0.3)er: city- a city or at least urbanized living get’s you-  
(0.3)

06 H mm=

07 G =is that (0.8) >(I think several)< I live in admittedly a suburb not quite a city (0.3) but in between:: (0.9) going from my house to the local train station (0.4) I pass: people represent- I pass (0.4) people from %y’know% different cultures all around the world, (0.9) cause I- I live in a fairly kinda multicultural area,  
H =mm  
(0.2)

08 G apart- it uh it helps bring- it helps kinda create a sort of tolerance when you live among everyone who’s (0.9) (y’know) a bit (0.5) er > (as I say)< different to you, (0.3) it creates tolerance for different people different ideas different (0.8) whatever (0.4) that may be.  
(0.7)

09 H mm hm c[ause] you’re all forced to live in close quarters and-  

10 G [mm. ] %yeah% uh  
y’ [look< en] you just (0.3) (yeah) you c- it shows just how similar we  
H [yeah ]

G all are cause we’ve all got the same (0.2) kind of lives.  
(1.0)

11 H mm  
(0.8)

12 G that’s %yeah that was my% that’s my big argument pro urbanized living.  
(1.2)

13 H um {1.5} I’s thinking about this and I was thinking though that when you live in big cities, (0.8) something strange happens, the opposite of what you’d expect people tend(0.5) well in my experience (0.8) to not feel as much of a community?(0.5) as they do in country areas?  
(0.4)

14 G uh=

15 H =because the- like in the country areas, you find- (0.8) much more like clichê(0.2) family values community because (0.3) they’re spread out they’re forced to have these (0.3) get togethers, (0.2) you know um (0.7) country ladies’ associa[tion]s and
that and (0.4) they look out for each other a lot more? whereas I find in- (0.3) in a big city (1.2) I hardly know any of my neighbours any more (0.5) and everybody gets in their car goes to work comes back in the car (it) goes in the garage and you don’t have (0.3) as much of that? (0.8) um (0.9) but on the other hand, I still (0.7) prefer living in a big city (0.4) one of the reasons for what you’ve said also convenience. (0.2)

that’s true [(it’s- yeah)]

[I’ve grown up] in the city and I enjoy being able to (0.5) go to all different areas to eat different things, (. ) and see galleries, movies, entertainment, (0.6) um but (0.7) at the same time I also like that (0.5) you know Sydney’s, (0.2) you can drive out of Sydney and be in the country for a bit of green, a bit of space, (0.2) um (1.0)

I don’t like the country (0.3) where everybody knows everybody’s business? (0.6)

(tha-) that [annoys ] me [(yeah).]

[that’s::] [that’s :]::

[ lack of privacy

ri[ght

[yes

[@yeah% tha- that’s an in- yeah an inherent side effect the thing you’ve=

=mm (. ) the [community ]

>=of what you mentioned<=

=exactly

>(e- in that=

=it)< it creates a somewhat insular inward facing community (and they) (0.5) like it’s hard to kinda break into it, [especially] if you don’t meet their=

=yeah::

[somewhat] which in a s- in a rural area they tend to be a little more conservative in their values, (0.6)

yeah

(0.7)

so

(0.7)

they’re a [bit cliqu]ey.(1.0)

[( ) so (that) creates a problem (0.3) when- if your only social interaction is these people you’re kind of forced to (1.2) [get into] their (0.8) thi- in[to their] (0.3)

[mm. ] [yeah. ]

way of life but if I live in the city and I don’t like my friends, i- i- can quite easily go find new friends,

( .)

yeah

(0.4)

I’ll find people- (0.3) because of the different,
and there’s much broader

different (.) everything in the city
[I can (just) do] that. (1.0)

possibilities ] yeah
(0.8)
m m mm
(0.7)

we haven’t re[hh]ally look[ed at any other of the [reasons]=

I can (just) do that. (1.0)

possibilities ] yeah
(0.8)
m m mm
(0.7)

we haven’t re[hh]ally look[ed at any other of the [reasons]=

[ ] [( )[( )[(yeah)
(0.5)

um

th- ah ((I like) the one of (0.2) the educational institutions, because you can kind
of concentrate all your intellectual capital
(0.3)
m m hm.
(0.6)

as opposed to having just y’know a professor of (you know) literature over there and
hi[story there and] science there

[mm:: ]

(assorted sciences of over there) y’ can have ’em all (0.3) together kind of working
(0.2) as one.
yeah.
(0.5)

they had one of those in (0.6) (6 sylls) it was quite good.
(0.8)
yeah (1.0) oh property prices (0.7) in the city,
(.)

[Yeah]

[yeah] that might be down[side for sure. ]

[that’s: that is the] inherent
(.) downside of it?

yeah a friend of mine just moved out up to the um (0.6) central coast (0.6 c- for that
very reason like f- th- compared to um (0.2) the place they rented in Sydney, (0.3)
they have huge house in the central coast (0.5) four new bedrooms for the kids, big
backyard and its (.) less than the rent price they were paying here for a (0.3) two
bedroom place (0.8) which(0.4) >but then AGAIN<(0.3) if you do live in country, well
it’s not really country, central coast bu=
yeah

it’s out of big city, (0.6) then you have the commuting fees (0.2) because (0.4) there’s
less jobs and less employment opportunities up there,(0.6) so [a lot of]=
yeah

people still have to come back to Sydney.
(0.3)

that’s yeah that’s a downside of the um (0.7) of the suburban kind of model?
(0.2)
m m[::=
It’s built around the idea that if you’ve got a car, you’re fine.

or access to the alleged public transport and s- yeah so that’s it’s it become quite painful once can once the traffic fees start to add up, specifically

with privatization of the roads.

so it’s what two or three dollars to go down the M2.

I don’t know there is no real answer.

I like being able to have both,

I could not live in a huge big city exclusively

[I-] I’d have to get out. ((laughs))

a WELL-BUILT big city is quite workable and if you go into say, we’ll go where we were last year in discussing Tokyo,

and that they’ve they’ve planned out this fantastic kind of subway system=

>(I didn’t get a chance to try the buses, but I hear they’re good also,

and so that that deals with so much traffic congestion you can get a train or two or maybe even three

yea

[to various points around the city with

enough convenience if they had that- if they had that level in the Sydney, so many more people would not need cars which would help so much and that those who did have them or who presumably need them would have

greater ability to get around.
uh crime (1.2) I th[ink there’s a fair bit of crime in (0.3) not big cities as well in- in country areas, especially where um (0.7) there’s less employment less things for young people,(0.3) [there’s] a lot of just random violence

and vandalism and (0.4)

[which leads to] (0.5) so it- there’s (0.6)

[ye[ah, there is.]

less of a social infrastructure as (.)[there’s and the-]

[yeah abs]olutely.]

=and then you have to kind of deal with less policing, (.)

[and ] in an insular community, which (0.6) will kind

of protect one an[other agai]nst the poli- I mean you get

[yep ]

that I know you get that in most areas,

[mm: ]

[but] the insular nature of the (.) [country world’s (so).]

[I think it’s worse. ] yeah (0.5)

well my [grandmother’s in] Albury (1.0), um which again isn’t that

[(can’t help it) ]

country but still much much smaller than here and they have a big problem with

[young] people

[mm ]

cause there’s nothing to do, (0.6) [for the]m and (0.6)

[mm ]

yeah (0.8) there’s less policing, and (0.3) yeah big problem with crime=

yeah

ok, well done.
Topic: What are some of the qualities of a good teacher?

Speakers: R=Researcher; H=Helen (female); G=George (male)

01 H Um I pick one straight off I think charisma is a very big factor um over above the others because even if I have some teachers that have been excellent in their area know everything um sort of good at explaining things but they’re dead boring ((laughs))=

02 G Mm

03 H and you pretty much lose attention after a couple of minutes and I think someone with charisma also really draws you in and makes me want um to make an effort and do well and impress them I think for teachers where you don’t really have connection with them I don’t know I tend to not push myself as much um yeah.

04 G I I certainly say I wouldn’t call it the most important partially because even if the teacher is boring that’s part of the work you know you got to as it forces us to take an interest in it

05 H [Yeah]

06 G [because they even like a charismatic say maths teacher you still stuck with the dullest material in existence so I said, the most important probably being knowledgeable in the area of teaching.

07 H [But] I guess yeah it depends what you respond to I guess by being a good teacher is being able to get the main points across the majority of people so then again being knowledgeable of course is another important factor um I personally had some teachers in high school who actually hadn’t read the set texts ((laughs)) and she lost us from the beginning of the term and never got us back

08 G really?

09 H yeah because we just had no one respect and you know obviously that’s a very important part um expert in teaching methodology I [don’t] think it’s very important[ac]tually well being an expert in how to teach is as supposed to being able to teach I don’t know is that a different thing?

10 G On the teaching methodology I think that would mean like knowing how to how to get your point cross in the most effective way whether it’s um if your teaching is doing with maps you break out the maps

11 H Mm

12 G or the diagrams and maps are invaluable for studying history because it can show you what things looked like at the time

13 H Yeah

14 G and things like that so it would be knowing when and by what means to convey the relevant information.

15 H Yeah and also being able to because I think methodology I think set way I think also you have to be able to throw out the plan and be able to just go on the class whatever
the class is em I don’t know I am much more creative in how I like classes to be and I do not quite like such a set like A B C kind of thing and if you go off the tangent I think that’s fine but at the same time I guess it depends where you’re teaching as well and what you are teaching

yeah

because if in high school you need to follow the syllabus and so things whereas I think uni. often is much more fun to go off a little pathway and explore. Yeah but yeah of course a good teacher will know when to pull that rein back in ’cause we had in German we also learn the cultural part of the course=

= Mm hm

and part of that is so we can go often like our teacher might tell us story about something interesting she did in Germany because it’s always a kind of a lesson or two in there and then that was Yeah I suppose that’s a very good methodology ’cause she’s keeping you join in but at the same time she’s slipping in a little points which are worthwhile Teaching us about the knowledge.

Yes that might be the most effective thing.

good.

Mm

at the same time she is very knowledgeable about actually learned German as a second language=

= Mm hm

and having actually been there she learned a lot of ways to I mean she has great familiarity with the methodology.

I think um probably the only one I would pick.

yeah they are actually the ones what I’d choose as well

I don’t think DEVOTION to the career is really one that I would pick as cause you to be a good teacher.

you know I think it’s a good thing to [have].

[It’s] a factor, but It wouldn’t be with the top three we have been arguing

No.

’cause if you are devoted to your career and you can stay longer and you can to some extent pass on the skills to emergent teachers that won’t.

that’s true.

The things they won’t probably our teachers at university like a little I imagine that a small part of the traits so as to speak.

You can hardly learn anything in the university especially for traits when I was a nurse before and pretty much everything I learned was after university

Mm

not from my teachers although teachers tend to tend to give us world views I think and more um like emotional factors and things to prepare us for the actual learning which I don’t know

Uh huh

maybe that’s a sign of a good teacher too to like teach how to learn rather than teacher you what to learn.
What? I’m following you I’m following you yeah yeah.

((laughs))

Yeah devotion also means you would be a better teacher after time you ‘cause in your first couple of years of teaching you have to you have to go and learn the materials yourself=

Mm

Yeah buy the books and make make the sheets [and]

[yeah]

and everything like that so in later years provided that your syllabus doesn’t change massively you can kind of so after the period so you could [become better]

I guess I would

teacher by virtually not having these distractions

Em I would mean that to be passion for your teaching as opposed to I don’t know devotion to the career just sounds just sounds like gives me different idea then like a passion for teaching which I think is really important

That’s true

because you want somebody who is eager to teach you, try and phrase things so that you could understand whatever but sometimes I have temp. teachers and staff they really don’t care that they’re just there for the day and that really affects the class atmosphere.

yeah

so I think we’ve pretty much said why all that are very important.((laughs)) yeah um I can’t think of any other than that we haven’t mentioned earlier

um

Yeah I think that’s all.

Ok, well done.
Task: A Talk 11 (Type 2)
Duration: 7:00 minutes

Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Young people should buy lottery for a better life”?

Speakers: R=Researcher; E=Edward (male); F=Florence (female)

R Are you ready?

01 E yeah alright so I am against um I don’t think that people should buy a lottery for a better life as such I think that sure in a short term you might get you know it might be a bonding thing or or whatever like that but I don’t think that’s gonna get you a better life in the long term so um there is a risk of losing money um people do become addicted to it and um through any addiction it’s um you know when you win it’s not enough.

02 F Yeah I guess but maybe with Lotto like not all the time when you win like this here you become rich overnight when you win you can win big that can be the end of it

03 E But how many people are like that?

04 F Yeah I guess I guess.

05 E But if you win big you get a better life?

06 F Yes

07 E Yes {(laughs)} all right

08 F Yes if I spent a little bit of money and won a lot I’ll be very happy with my life at that point in time um {(laughs)}

09 E Okay at that point in time=

10 F =at that point in time

11 E okay

12 F yeah

13 E also um:: yeah okay so someone becomes addicted they are they’re spending money that could be spent er on other things so things they might need at home so a young family may need you know supply and things like that for their new-born child someone with a gambling problem is buying lottery tickets instead it’s gonna destroy a family.

14 F Yeah I sup[pose]

15 E [I ] say money could be put to better use.

16 F Yeah but this point here actually now that I think about this I really like this because=

17 E =Mm

18 F You contribute to the society if I won a lot of money in Lotto I I always said I would donate a lot of it to charity.

19 E Okay.

20 F and I really would or if I won enough that I didn’t have to work for the rest of my life and=

21 E =Mm

22 F I’ll be there volunteering.

23 E So wouldn’t necessarily be improving your life but it would be improving other’s life as well.

24 F No but I think by doing that you are improving your life like you’re donating to charity or you’re volunteering I think that would be such an improvement like

25 E Yeah I agree I agree so so
of your life.

Yeah absolutely.

And see beneficial for you to develop your ability of reasoning and logical thinking=

Okay.

Makes me think about how I would separate that money.

[Okay]

[I] I always always did that how much you give to the charity and how much you give to your parents because they love you.

I don’t agree with this point though um that addiction to lottery might affect one’s normal life so I mean if it was another form of gambling then yeah sure then you know sitting at in front of the [internet]

[mm hm ]

you know every night that’s obvious gonna to affect your study and and your social life but lottery is just a matter of going and buying tickets, isn’t it?

Yeah.

Yeah so I mean it is 30 second transaction it’s over.

That’s why I don’t think that addiction would be a very big problem when it comes to lottery because I don’t believe that the form in which you purchase the tickets you wait for the number to come up and stuff over a week period of time

Yeah

I don’t think that’s [not addictive].

[No I am not ] talking about the period of time you wait to see if you win or lose I’m talking about the quantity of money you spend trying to win.

Yeah it’s not a lot of money that’s why I don’t think it should be a deal like it’s only it usually is only a little bit of money.

Um [usually]

[and ] there’s a possibility of winning a lot

There are people spending 500 dollars on lottery a week.

yeah that’s true I suppose well you go find them.

So yeah you are for and I’m against the statement that’s it.

Yeah I think it can make for a better life if it’s used in the right way.

I think it won’t give you a better life long term. What else do you think about lottery for a better life can Keaton?

What else I think about lottery for a better life? Well this point is a short-cut for you to realize your long- awaited dream in [life]

[Okay]

if you want to win spend a little money win a lot of money you end the job you hate and think I am gonna quit it I want to do whatever I am going to do because now I have the ability to do that.

Okay.

[[I think ]]

[I agree. ]

Okay yeah compare to other forms of gambling I think this well a higher chance of you being able to do that when you win like ‘cause you often

I do agree that yeah it is a be- if you’re going to gambling yeah that is a better
form of gambling and yeah okay so if you get out of a job if you don’t enjoy and sure winning 500 million dollars will enable you to do that but how much money do you spend getting to win that 500 million dollars?

well say spend 10 dollars a week.

With that 10 dollars you can spend on something else.

like what?

Food.

((laughs))

((laughs)) ten dollars a week adds up so that’s so that’s fifteen two dollars a year.

[Yes ].

[Right]? It adds up.

No if you win 500 million dollars that’s nothing

What is your chance of winning 500 dollars?

Uh that’s relevant.

((laughs))

((laughs))

So decided to become rich overnight makes people addicted to it yeah I agree with that people not everyone becomes addicted to it but it is a form of gambling so people come back and back spend more and more money until they think they win enough

As I said before like you be spending a little money on gam- on lottery a week and then you win a lot of money.

that’s that’s if you win so the question is people should buy lottery for a better life so people are now so nine out of ten people

There’s a chance for a better life

but it doesn’t say people should buy lottery for a better life so nine of ten people are not gonna win anything of their life from buying lottery does it improve their life?

It’s up to the individual person it may.

Can you get satisfaction out of out of not winning? spending money if.

No you get satisfaction of trying to win.

Mm

Out of being in it got to be in it.

To win it ((laughs)).

I think it’s fun.

I [think ]

[I think]

I think most of the people would be annoyed if you go week and week out not winning anything sure they spend 10 dollars a week on lottery tickets but at the end of the year spend 520 dollars and you haven’t you just spent 520 dollars

Yeah but there’re a lot of things you spend money on isn’t necessarily improve your life but you have this perception of it improving your life like you [You think that it is].

[Surely okay] so it’s a dream. It’s a dream.

No it’s just it’s.

So you want I
80  F  Exactly.
81  E   =I want win twenty [million.]
82  F  [Exactly.]
83  E   I want a yacht and I want a mansion and I want things [like]
84  F  [Yeah] I think [that.]
85  E  [So it’s] a dream it’s a goal.
R    Ok well done.
Task: A Talk 12 (Type 2)
Duration: 5:40 minutes
Topic: Are you for or again the statement that "Pupils in primary school should have their own mobile phones"?
Speakers: R=Researcher; L=Linda (female); S=Simon (male)

You can start first this time.
Right I I believe that pupils in primary schools should (.) actually have their own phones um (.) one of one of the reasons for this would be (0.6) they could relax (.)
They can relax ((laughs))=
Yeah that school is a stressful place (.) and [you have]
[school ]

got all these things to worry about I got this assignment due I got to do this work then do my home work for this teacher should be [really mad to me]
[primary school? ]
yeah [then I am not talking about]
[primary is such stressful ]
yeah [you know you know] primary school [can be a stressful]
[as primary school] [oh my god year two]
is such as stressful place
yeah everyone is [different people ]
[everyone is different]
don’t cope with that there are bullies in [primary school]
[yeah stressful] childhood=
Yeah that’s right what about what about kids with stressful parents or something they (.) they brought into the world of the stress they cannot deal with it so.
(continues)
but they say technology increases the stress because I mean like as the world gets busier with technology that’s like increases the things that people can watch for like to handle
[yeah]
[you] know what I mean as the world gets busier as you can connect with more people and that make you get more stressed because people can contact with you everywhere and then you’ve got like all these other things you have to do.
you could say about anything doesn’t necessarily have to be technology [anything is going to] give you stress when
[but it is technology] It says as technology advanced as the world becomes like a busier place like people have no time to have face-to face contact any more.
That’s untrue we’re talking face-to-face right now
Yeah look we have to go ((laughs))
that is a great example
No
we talk face-to-face all the time it’s fun but I think you know technology especially mobile phones it would depend on how you use it to depend on whether it’s a good thing
or a bad thing

but it undermines relationships I mean like on face books like you have friends how
many would you like to talk to I mean and children who are like I don’t know like 10
years old something they’re only just learning I mean like in my subject yeah I bring
it out again soon in my subject in education psychology um it’s all about like they
have to learn they don’t even know the concepts of like friendship and play they have
to learn all that because you think they are little adults sometimes but they’re not
they really have to learn all about it to bring like technology into that you could
腐itude the way they learn about what friendship is and what relationships are so you
could really like stifle their growth and how to understand the relationship it’s just
like an instant thing.

Sure what about the age of um safety so the [kids are safe because ] they have
[yeah I agree with that]

a way of contacting their parents

I agree with that as I was like I don’t think this is a black and white issue and I
thought this is an area of grey so I thought you could have mobile phones for little
kids but they would be like you can get one you don’t need you can have three numbers
in it and you can’t contact anyone else.

Only three numbers

Yeah like home um your mum’s mobile or something and then like the emergency service
sure

so that’s all you can do so you cannot contact your friends you
[there’s no games or ] anything.

[What about the school.] Why does the child need to contact the school?
[their parents can] contact the school [they could be late]

what if children is cut off from their parents.

That’s basically showing that if they have a phone that is gonna increase like
independence but not necessarily in a good way because a little child who’s at 10
shouldn’t be contacting the school say they’re going to be late for school.

But if one needs to become independent at some stage

No that’s what their parents are there for

Independence is a good thing.

I mean if you encourage that in child you could just ring up when they off doing whatever
like anyhow everyone is like getting is mature quick anyhow

yeah

and like that it’s not necessarily a good thing because you have like a little girl
who’s going on like 20 and I think it just increases that.

Do you think this is directly because of mobile phones or technology?

I think I don’t know I don’t think you can put all downs to mobile phones but I think
it’s just another step towards it that we don’t really need.

OK but granted that we may not just give them this game system or put them on SMS if
it was broken down into just a couple of numbers they could call
for safe[ty]

[For] safety yeah
or being able to contact their parents at any time maybe they have a stressful day they just need to talk to mum and dad.

Yeah
Yeah so
Yeah I’m fine with that like I said I’m not completely [against it]
give them a mobile phone they could even be a whole government implemented system where specific operating system was given to the phone companies.
Yeah I’m good with mobile phones but they shouldn’t be like game ones they should just really basic
shouldn’t iPhones
Yeah no, iPhones
no games or things

Shouldn’t be reasons like relaxation or anything that you brought up they just be
[sure]
[well relaxations is a]

L [for safety and for contacting people because I [I do agree I agree with that]
good point I thought I mean I relax in my lunch time by messing around my phones]

L [I think] that will encourage the whole technological thing like kids should be out they should go play games or sports or something if they want to relax they shouldn’t need a whole bunch of phones.

But that’s a part of primary school
No that’s not a part
Yeah was part of my primary school I’m entirely sure.
I don’t think it’s part of primary school

you learn all sorts of things you learn to play outside that’s that’s just part of [primary school]

L [but something] you shouldn’t learn that early not when they don’t have the mental reasoning to know what’s good good in phones and what’s bad so if they’re given phones they’re just gonna accept it not really question whether what they’re doing is the right thing or not
But it happens a mobile phone the wrong thing to do?

It depends like you say iPhones how may applications could you have on the Iphones and like all those rich parents buy their kids these stuff and so I mean like you can get on the internet access you can be on different websites and stuff on a mobile phone like mobile phones is like a mini-computer nowadays

Sure

So it’s not just like a phone to call people like you’re really giving them access to a lot.

but we’ve already gone over that and decided that if this if this was a good idea they wouldn’t have access to that

Yeah but then you rebrought up the relaxation point though and I don’t think
Ok that’s right

if your mobile has three numbers you can use it for relaxation
you can relax by speaking to your parents kids have a bad day
[and distressed calling mummy]

[Okay, your first] point of relaxation that's about relaxation now you're just
changing it that's all

yeah ok understandable ((laughter)) alright that's fairly enough

Okay well done.
Task: A Talk 13 (Type 1)
Duration: 5:20 minutes

**Topic:** what are some of the reasons for one to learn a second language?

Speakers: R=Researcher; F=Freeman (male); E=Emily (female)

01 F What do you reckon?
02 E I think to learn about the people or to communicate with the people from that culture.
03 F Yeah. But wouldn’t I suppose but wouldn’t you have like learn other stuff about the country as well. What do you learn that when you learn a language ‘cause I haven’t actually done learning a language before.
04 E I haven’t either I learned some Spanish but I think that way you can learn more about the culture much more than if you don’t speak their language ‘cause you could go live there or
05 F Yeah I suppose.
06 E You can.
07 F I think that would be a good reason actually but I think there is a lot of effort involved so I think it has lot to do with financial things maybe when you go to overseas and make money.
08 E To do business.
09 F Yeah to do business exactly like friends says because like at the moment we like the economy and stuff it is really good to have another language like you could use to do that so like communicate specially like China or something like that where there is so much like development and so many business opportunities there.
10 E yeah doubles your opportunities
11 F Yeah exactly.
12 E And making money I guess.
13 F For two countries you could do. Ha, you could work in Australia, or America or whatever or China or something like that so it’s pretty useful.
14 E Yeah especially you can do trade between the two countries.
15 F yeah you’d better like understand I suppose there is a difference between like written language and verbal language but you got to understand like the emails and stuff like be able to do more communication rather than like just trying to send something in Chinese that you don’t really understand or trying to send English that you don’t like they’re not gonna understand or something like that.
16 E That probably depends on the language too ‘cause certain languages where there isn’t really an economic incentive to know like I was born in Africa if you know of Zimbabwe language probably not much economic incentive=
17 F =Yeah.
18 E ‘cause
19 F but that would be more of like a fun thing to learn for travel and
20 E yeah like curiosity and culture.
21 F Yeah I suppose that’d be like.
22 E Oh I guess it may be useful for some people.
23 F yeah to [meet ]
24 E [a bit] tough.
University requirements that that would be a lot of harder than just learning it out of like fun or something like that when 'cause you have tests all that kind of thing, and they think it’s the hardest way to learn a language is to learn it like that like. To be forced to learn it.

Yeah I’m sure like as you said did you come from Zimbabwe?

Yeah and they think it's the hardest way to learn a language is to learn it like that like. To be forced to learn it.

Yeah I did worse I didn’t learn it until I started school because It wasn’t just like oh this is how you say it but like this is a pronoun that you need to add to this or that or something you don’t actually think about it like that.

Oh yeah when you just learn it and you speak. You just pick up something this’s a word for this whatever=

Yeah yeah yeah that’d be a lot easier than trying to learn it out of a book or something like that. But I think if you’re trying to do it for uni. um it could be pretty complicated.

I never thought about this one I don’t think I’ve learned a language to learn more about my own language but maybe it’s

What do you mean like would you?

I don’t know. It doesn’t like 'cause that says you could learn more about your own language.

well like comparing the differences between other languages with your own language or something?

Yeah I guess.

But I [suppose ].

[I probably] wouldn’t do that for that reason.

Yeah I wouldn’t either actually. But I think when I did German in like Year seven or something like that it was a lot easier to say how stuff in English came about like because it comes from a lot of other languages=

Yeah Like I don’t know have all sorts of variables I think that will be a very complicated way to learn more about your own language.

yeah what you think?

yeah (XXX) doing bilingual English but it doesn’t make sense

yeah you have three there or whatever things like that yeah it is rather complicated so I say first um to learn about the culture, and then about curiosity, then especially travel like that kind of thing.

Yeah.

Then maybe business.

Yeah then business.

I I think that’s very important.

yeah so you take business first?

yeah oh maybe not first but you either be out of travel or fun or for business

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that would be my points because mainly the reason why you learn a language is to go overseas

57  F  Yeah you usually go overseas for business or travel.

58  F  Yeah ’cause I know when I went to Thailand I learn like bit of Thai like just so I can speak to people when I was ordering food or trying to find where this but that was a language I learned for travel.

59  E  yeah

60  F  but I don’t know so that is the top three ones

61  E  yeah I don’t think we argue much about this

62  F  No we kind of tended to agree good?

R  Ok, excellent.
Task: A Talk 14 (Type 1)
Duration: 5:23 minutes
Topic: What are some of the possible causes for water pollution?
Speakers: R=Researcher; M=Mark (male); B=Betty (female)

01 M Um I think sewage waste would be a possible cause.
02 B Why is that?
03 M Why because I think things like runoff from actually I think toxic chemicals with as a part of the waste like
B Mm hm
M Yeah probably runs off from a um factory or nuclear waste plants.
04 B I probably think overpopulation because the more populated a place is the more pollution there is
05 M oh yeah
06 B And therefore the more water pollution.
07 M It’s possible but there is also um like waste water which [is industrial]
B [That’s true]
08 M which I think is a part of sewage waste actually.
09 B Yeah.
10 M at the same time I think but um yeah from the runoff from like nuclear places or industrial waste there seems to be probably laws abiding to from what I know you know
11 B yeah exactly
12 M I don’t know how much water pollution actually is
13 B Yeah especially when they do like shipping like um chemicals and stuff and have spills and everything
14 M Oh yeah
15 B has severe damage
16 M Yeah well there’s also I have no idea what kind of keeps the water clean or how to keep the clean there seems to be inadequate inadequate education.
17 B Yeah they need more like um what’s it called program to tell people what to do.
18 M Yeah like in primary school they tell you all about how to how to clean how to keep water clean how to stop water getting polluted.
19 B Mm hm.
20 M That’s pretty important.
21 B Yeah they need like government initiatives and stuff like that.
22 M You tell them you can tell the public at the start because if you tell them when they’re in preschool and like in primary school years before they get to high school they can learn it beforehand um they can learn about how to stop water pollution from happening because with water pollution people can’t drink water which is pretty important.
23 B They also have to come up with new ways to provide water for people.
24 M Yeah
25 B We become like a water poor country
26 M Yeah clean water is really important.
27 B ((laughter)) definitely.
28 M but um sewage waste again what what causes sewage waste and pollution?
I think it’s when like they release it onto the ocean do you know what I mean? 

Oh like the seals covered in oil?

I think that’s more toxic chemicals sewage water is like water from water pipes and toilets

Yeah water pipes.

Yeah aren’t they doing aren’t they going to make like instead of chlorinating more water to drink are they going to make use of sewage water and like reuse it or something so it doesn’t get [put out in]to the ocean so that

That’s recycling.

Yeah

Ah recycling yeah

Yeah which is good

Yeah that means we would have water actually apparently through million millions of years um we’re we’re like using the same water now like water doesn’t run out it’s the same water like dinosaurs used to drink you know they pee out that’s[that’s kind of]

[they pee out ] {(laughs)}

Then it goes up in the clouds that’s kind of kind like water waste or sewage waste like overtime kind of clean itself.

{(laughs)}

But I suppose the water pollution we’re talking about now is kind of a short-term like keeping water clean.

like the pollution that comes from overpopulation like rubbish instead of like chemicals and stuff so that’s easy to stop

yeah

just tell people to put stuff in bins

Well if you tell them early there is adequate education like

Exactly

Now everything ties in these days with water pollution no good. yeah I think we’ve [covered water] pollution

[yeah which should be part of the government agenda]

yeah

[covered] it all

funding issue

Em oh I don’t know whether there would be lack of funds we are in Australia anyway I don’t think Australia has a problem with [funds] for waste water

[yeah]

but oh actually that’s pretty expensive for the renewal

Mm

if that’s what it means

but then you have like down near Thredbo you have like the hydro-electricity bases they’re like using heaps of water

Oh

but I think they [recycle]

[the go ]vernment’s got a lot of money

Yeah
I feel it's fine in Australia but I'm not sure about other countries er I think water pollution is probably a big problem for other countries. Yeah like when I was in Thailand you can't even use the water coming out of taps contaminated water. Yeah like Africa and stuff. OK excellent.
Task: A Talk 15 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:58 minutes

Topic: What can individuals can do to protect the environment?
Speakers: R=Researcher; B=Barbara (female); C=Chris (male)

01 B Do you want to go or do you want me to go?
02 C You go.
03 B ok um I think that um just going back to my job like before um companies definitely now are looking at how they can um reduce the impact of um say plastic bags or pa-packaging on the environment and how they take so long to decompose and how that’s negatively effective. So for example where I work, when I am using 100% recycled plastic bags, which I don’t know how good that is, but also we’re encouraging people to buy like the our company’s version of green bags
04 C Yeah
05 B and it’s actually really surprising so I worked at the cashier’s just and it’s surprising that just how many people are buying sort of environmentally-friendly products so rather than buying a say for example a folder di[vider]
C [yeah]
B [they’re] buying um the paper but recycled paper version rather than the plastic or the cardboard so they have environmentally-friendly I don’t know how environmentally-friendly but they are more environmentally-friendly than other ones
06 C [Mm]
07 B [And] now like for example ‘cause the place where I work also sell technological things um how you can buy like Apple the new [lap]
08 C [Yeah] the new laptop yeah
09 B like that’s supposed to be really good for environment because it’s making other people aware like we don’t give out bags because we charge bag for bags so if people say “Oh, can I have a bag?” now we say ‘We’re actually charging
C Mm
B for them now’ because we are recycling them like all worldwide so we explain that it’s bad for environment and we’re trying to um reduce the impact and so I think it’s really important to make people aware of it
10 C Yeah
11 B yeah so what do you think? {{laughs}}
12 C Yeah well I guess I I agree with what you said about um you know there’s definitely some big initiatives you know to try to start such as green [bags]
B [Yeah]
C and you know um environment-friendly bags. I guess to you know the thing I guess I am concerned about is it really enough though because you know like
13 B I think it is a start though.
14 C It’s a good start but like it’s just effective and that calls that you guys have the cycled plastic
15 B Yeah
16 C but I know a few places don’t have that.
17 B Yeah
C And you know like you forget your green bags there. Like I mean like I agree
completely with you but I think most people are generally sort of like you know oh it’s convenient just to get plastic bags

18  B  [Yeah]
19  C  [If] you forget your bag like 
    B  yeah
    M  unfortunately I don’t see many people say ‘Oh I forget my green bag oh well
    C  I just carry everything to the car’.
20  B  Um you’re actually be surprised like because I’m on the cashier’s just like the whole [day]
    C  [Yeah]
    B  during my shifts that’s what I do um the amount of people who say ‘I just carry it.
    has it’s amazing how many people just say ‘I just carry it.’ or like if you’ve got heaps of stuff that’s ridicu[lous]
    C  [Mm]
    B  I I suggest ‘Do you want to use a basket?’ so they take it down to the car in the basket and chuck everything in their car and leave the basket in the car [park]
    C  [Yeah] yeah.
    B  Which is good ‘cause that’s like they are not buying the bag which is good on environment it’s still plastic but=
    C  =Mm
    B  it’s um more heavy duty so it does sort of I don’t know I’m not sure exactly of the reduced toward the bags but um because it’s recycled [be]cause it’s] um more
    C  [Mm]
    B  environmentally-friendly than regular bags
21  C  Yes yeah like I I agree completely with what you say about I think it’s right to use environment-friendly bags. But what about, you know, I’m just taking the defensive=
    B  =Yeah
    C  but what about say you know ‘cause you work in a stationery shop that sells pen, pencils and maybe books, what about if it was like groceries you know
    B  =yeah
    C  like 10 cans or you know like.
22  B  Yeah well some people they put it like say they buy a printer, for example, Yeah
    C  and printer and then paper really big items some of them just take the trolley down
to the car park or whatever they park and then just transfer everything from the trolley
to their car and then just leave the trolley.
23  C  Um that’s a fair call
24  B  As like you can fit a printer in the bag but you know you know what I mean
25  C  Yeah yeah
26  B  So but I think also like I think everyone is becoming more sort of aware of the whole
global warming and environment
27  C  Yeah it’s definitely you know
28  B  Like I don’t drive so I I use I use trains so I’m helping environment.
29  C  Yeah well with with driving I I definitely think you know petrol is not a good thing but you know there are alternatives like um I I remember er you know wa- watching TV
and they’ve got this thing with hydrogen now=
B =Yeah
C and and just makes like
B yeah
C just a bit of water
30 B Yeah like oh you know there is [also] you know little cars
C [yeah]
B the mini ones=
31 C =Yeah
32 B They usually have like um advertisement like all over [them]
33 C [smart] cars?
34 B they are really new ones=
35 C =yeah
36 B I think they are electric, aren’t they?
37 C Oh
38 B or like hybrid
39 C Yeah I don’t know but yeah well probably {laughter} but yeah like um so yeah like I think really hydrogen idea is pretty funky you know and
B Mm
C they say everyone’s saying but the problem is that that it costs as much as regular petrol I mean
B Mm
C I think if people are given the choice they will pick hydrogen over petrol yeah
40 B yeah I think like even with the whole recession I think it’s very important for us to be aware
41 C alright ok but smoking um yeah I think it’s really it’s tough one smoking because you know like I sort of have a bit of sympathy for you know elderly people who DO smoke because you know they weren’t as aware about it then you know=
42 B =They are brought up with it.
43 C Year they’re brought up with it you know like
44 B It’s fashionable.
45 C Yeah exactly but with people today like I saw this young girl, probably younger than me, maybe 18, and she was just smoking and I’m thinking ah ah you know=
46 B =Yeah
47 C you shouldn’t be judgmental but at the same time it’s so
48 B Well I think it’s dirty,
49 C Yeah
50 B Even even yeah it’s bad for environment as well but like it’s bad for you:
51 C Yeah it’s
52 B I’m just wondering why you would do that to yourself?
53 C and and they cause really like bushfires
54 B Yeah
55 C example [like]
B [yeah]
C some people just throws one and
B  yeah
C  then the next thing yeah you got
56  B  20 people dead and like thousands of people homeless excellent,
57  C  ((laughs))
58  B  yeah
59  C  Yeah yeah so it’s just horrible and um. Smoking is bad.
60  B  I don’t agree I don’t agree with smoking
61  C  Yeah I agree.
R  ok excellent
J Shall we start?
01 R ok so I reckon the three major reasons for university students to surf the are TO look
for information needed for assessment, especially now with um databases of like (1.8)
articles and (0.4) all the newspapers and or if you need library anymore anyway (0.6) um
also to um (1.5) check emails (0.3) because it’s a pretty easy and um (1.5) effective way
of communication nowadays (0.5) and also to entertain oneself and also in entertaining
oneself I think that’s kind of a term that includes socialization (0.2)
J OK
I over Facebook, and MSN (0.3) and (0.4) everything but also finding websites like
‘Craig’s List’ and (0.7) {(laughter)} (0.5) um play games (0.7) and stuff like that.
02 J OK (1.0) yeah I agree that um (0.6) looking for information you need is one of the
main reasons for university students to use the net because (0.7) (not everyone) study
on the internet just in general um it’s really helpful (0.8) and (0.4) I agree check
emails because all what I do is check my emails (0.7) and then send emails to people
(0.8) and get emails back and talk on the emails (0.7). um (0.8) and (0.8) um I agree
that entertainment oneself was what I did
03 I {{laughs}}
04 J I don’t I don’t think making friends is one because I don’t make friends over the internet
like (0.6) I always maintain friendships through Facebook I have never made them (0.6)
does that make sense?
05 I Um I had I have made friends over the internet but (0.8) I don’t think it’s primary
use of university students especially thing is um (0.5) like specially MQ University
if it’s like everyone is on the one campus=
06 J =Yeah
07 I you don’t really need to try to make friends on the internet because there are so many
people around. (0.3)
08 J Yeah
09 I um (1.1) yeah, what about entertaining oneself?
10 J I guess that entertaining oneself is a very interesting umbrella to put (1.0) like
hanging out different under (0.6), because how do you see friends (0.7) if you (0.5)
you know you view the relationship in terms of entertaining oneself=
11 I ={{laughs}} (1.3) but also includes like (1.0) you know (1.1) games and art
[stuff like]
12 J [Yeah yeah ] yeah (0.3)
13 I {{laughs}} um (0.4) but also (0.5) I would um be extended (1.3) such things as
(1.5) listening to music (1.0) and getting music of the internet as well=
14 J =oh I think so (0.6) yeah (1.5) em and downloading music.
15 I Mm (0.5) especially like ‘My Space’ and stuff like [that]
that’s true.

Ok, go back to games, I guess playing online game is also one of the ways (0.3) people spend their spare time, that’s um entertaining oneself, isn’t [it?]

[Yes] it’s true. But for me, I would rather chat on the internet rather than play games because I think it is really a waste of [time].

but a lot of adolescents, in particular boys, they are obsessed with the online games and=

=they spend huge amount of time on it.

and money as well

Wow (0.7) it really sucks that we’re having an agreement

(0.8)

Yeah (0.8), I guess many adolescents are addicted to the games as they were kind of curious about all these stuff on the internet.

Wow (0.7) I really sucks that we’re having an [agreement ] (0.8)

[(laughs)] ok well one of the problems (0.5) our problems of looking for um the information on the internet is even though you got the databases (0.3) and um stuff that um can be proved by the university and [stuff]

[okay ]

but you got these random (0.4)sites (1.8) that unnecessarily don’t necessarily have credibility necessarily to (0.6) reference um so even if that is (0.6) one of the main reasons that university students use the internet perhaps it’s not such a good thing (1.6)

Ok (.6) I agree

(0.5)

((laughs))

So I am going to I am going to have some cross discussions now since I think you can surf the internet to cultivate your temperament directly toward people who post really strange things on the internet

(0.6)

but do you think it’s too a good thing (0.3) if people (0.9) cultivate their temperament by the internet but then don’t seek to do it?

(1.3)

oh NO it wouldn’t be a good thing if that was the case (0.8) but possibly as a university student as a psychology student (0.7)if I can go onto websites and then drag out some people with social anxiety (0.5)and get chance to talk about these issues (0.7) then have a great understanding (0.2)of these people in their real life.

(0.7)

But if you go back em to the point that I had before that if we don’t know the sources (0.4)

Yeah

You can’t guarantee the source of the information

yeah

we then (0.2) essentially we could be reading other stuff about (XXX) and (0.5) and
people with anxiety that (0.5) people are just making up for it’s just kind of giving us (0.4)a bad view on (1.0) what these sort of they really are

Well could be the case but you portray it with precaution it would be fine (1.2) like

Does there’s a certain amount of precaution you can have? You can’t treat everything you learn (0.7) as a possibility you have to take some on board and have these as hard facts.

(0.6)

Well and (0.6) then you can have then you can think well I’m taking these as hard facts but in the back of my mind I know it might not be I’m just going to use them as axiom (0.6) you are mathematician you can be anti-realist to use (xx) science.

((laughter)) (1.4) er so that come under look for information need and for entertainment as well

Well that’s both

((laughs))

Now I think it’s good the websites I go to (0.5) I’m pretty sure that it’s not just a bunch of 13-year-old playing games socially anxious or something (0.8) which is pretty sad.

(1.0)

that’s true although (1.0) the the internet is a very very different social (1.0) er like (0.6) kind of (0.9)‘arena’ so (0.6) maybe people are more confident in saying certain things in certain ways (0.6)than in real life.

Um no doubt (0.6)especially socially-anxious people. (0.7)

But if you have someone with this you know someone who’s socially anxious (0.5) they will be more willing to say something in certain way on the internet rather than in real life.

(0.4)

Yeah.

So which one would be more (1.6) kind of (1.2) creditable?

(1.0)

Oh I guess if you want to know what they’re thinking then (2.1) I mean you Have to combine the two bits of information.

(0.5)

But what If you don’t have access to this information

(1.3)

well obviously if you don’t I’m never going to meet these people on the web (0.4) then it’s generalizations developing generalizations like (0.6)ok and um ok so experience like experience different cultures.

(0.9)

[(with cultures)] inside their head (0.4)so you have to you have to make predictions and (0.8)construe (0.4) [their mentality] into it

construe their reality (0.7) and to be extended that construe what a socially anxious person feels like (0.5)you can interact with them in a positive way.

(0.8)

em that’s a good point (0.9) so so you’re saying that (0.6) even though (0.9) all these
personal anecdotes or postings or whatever may not have the best credibility it’s still good to build an overall idea.

(0.2)

54  J yeah

55  I About what it is.

(0.6)

56  J Yeah I think so.

R Ok, excellent.
Task: A Talk 17 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:23 minutes
Topic: What are some of the qualities of a good employee?
Speakers: R=Researcher; S=Sarah (female); P=Paul (male)

R  Are you ready?
S  sure=

01 P  ok well I pick three um I thought employee a good one has to be reliable you can not have like
02 S  for sure
03 P  some task sort of not turning up on time or [stuff]
S  [yeah]
P  like that you could not get good productivity then like committed to sort of tiding to
S  Yeah
P  and like yeah you have to be one in your company and do your best and stuff
04 S  Yeah
05 P  if you want be good employee and hardworking as well obviously.
06 S  Yeah I actually have same answers as well yeah anyone sort of varying with me that
I was considering whether or not they should be skillful I mean it’s really important
as well they have to be reliable but at the same time it’s sort of hope
07 P  Yeah well you
08 S  that they’re gonna to turn up they’re gonna also to be productive in that way it’s
not [gonna] to be always that’s true I agree with that resources
09 P  [yeah]
[yeah] um I didn’t think being skillful is so relevant um unless it’s some
S  [yeah]
P  sort of arty [general job]
10 S  [advertising] ((laughs))
P  yeah yeah but um I also think that they have to be they should be willing to like take
on new skills and acquire new skills.
11 S  Mm mm should be flexible yeah
12 P  Because that will add the skillful to the elements that’s why I didn’t list that as
because that’s my other point but
13 S  That’s tough yeah I mean some of them I found lapse in rituals like punctuality sort
of well you know like
P  Yeah
S  sort of like reliability in a way because if you are reliable you are more likely to
get turn up [be on] time so
14 P  [Yeah ] that’s true
15 S  I don’t know I just from my limited exposure of work place that I know that always
I found that it’s always a lot easier to find employees they actually work hard because
nothing worth like have a slacker.
16 P  Yeah no slacker then it bring anyone else down to
S  Yeap
P  because it pick up for um
these days

I think the responsibility is um also important if you don’t have if you have someone
is like not acting in a way that’s
[Yeah]
P [taking] your company no way that er like ethics stuff

Yeah

which ties with responsibility yeah they are not really good employee

Not really I mean I thought that you know accountability like you sort of hope they would

Well

Not necessarily (XXX) but be able to constructively say this is what happened thus
this could improve this matter but

That brings in ‘honesty’ then though [um ] as (0.5) as a good quality
[Yeah]

P for (.)an employee=

=Yeah (. ) honesty it definitely important for an employee

‘cause if you have a liar and this comes along don’t they?=

=Yeah yeah (laughs)) [there is] such people.

[you start] you start getting problem (.) with you know (0.3)well

(.) they say this happened is that really true?==

=Yeah
(0.7)

But um yeah=

=No one likes this kind of person and also (.) the ‘committed’ (.) was definitely one
for me because I mean a good employee can (.) casual, part time or full time. I’m leaning
towards more like (0.3) full time or career aspect, so
[that] sort of clarify my mind (0.5) but I guess if you are committed

P [yeah]

S you are more likely to gonna respect what you’re doing and you’re gonna (0.4) want
to um improve yourself [as ] well

P [Yeah]

S as the company so (0.3) =

=yeah if oh if you take pride in sort of [what] you are doing then too I think you

[Yeah]

P can em apply ‘committed’ into (0.4) part time (0.4) [and] casual work too though (.)
[yeah]

P [so ] you are not going to be pulling out in the last minute saying
[yeah]

P I’m sorry guys

yeah that’s annoying

P I can’t work that shift and=

=yeah

P so
(0.4)

that’s true.

yeah.
I don’t think that for some reason I was yeah thinking of the other one but now I mean it makes sense because you always about hear people always try to shift around and shifts and

P Yeah

cancel at the last minutes

marking that stuff

No one like that unless they might give you more shifts if that happens so.

Oh exactly yeah if you can’t sort of commit to one shift then ask at the last minute Johnson’s inviting me to the movie

Yeah yeah then you get really

then they got to cancel.

No one respects for [even] without thinking about it

[no]

hard-working is obviously really important one because when you get there you are not just wasting time

Yeah

Actually you’re gonna to do what you must do unless you shouldn’t be there.

Wa [is there] so many yeah you always have these employees

[XXX]

though you got [to be systematic in your]

[Somehow get away with it]

recruitment prob-processing yeah yeah I do not know yeah I have met a few people like that thinking how do they they always seem to get away with it thinking how? Because you could be always vital you know they definitely looking forward to it.

Yeah or they are on the face book all day

Yeah yeah

Well you know how hard you are really working they must be doing something in their spare time otherwise they will not on the face book something

No I agree with you I don’t think be creative is essential.

I think it’s quite well it’s relevant to certain um industries but to manufactures stuff or like sort of conveyable work do you really need to have sort of creativity stricken you to

No

sort things?

=Over other things especially like you know um yeah I mean like it could be important but compared to other aspects I think it’s probably not as it’s more specific in terms of what you are doing

if you are like if it’s an employee in sorry an industry like you know flowery or someth[ing] you arrange things like artistic work,

[Mm]

then you’re gonna to have to be pretty creative yeah

Then you’re gonna to

I guess I mean there is real difference from just being innovative to creative even of sort of difference I mean it’s I don’t know like maybe being flexible with your job to have progressive ideas but not necessary be fully creative

[Yeah]
[just] integrate [that:] in a logical way

Yeah I didn’t think it was the key

No

Um quality though

Compared with other ones anyway that’s why I think punctuality yeah comes in the other ones I think

Mm

because that was also I was looking I thought they sort of assuming that you would be punctual but at the same time that’s a key to being reliable or responsible that’s sort of thing

I think you can check flexibility in a way too [I mean ]

[yeah yeah] for sure

To see if it fits into you know family life and other sort of

yeah yeah

outside work stuff um because the boss will ask if they can call on you to

To do things you are not always busy all sorts of thing

yeah

Ok excellent.
Task: A Talk 18 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:12 minutes

Topic: What factors do you consider when you decide where to shop?

Speakers: R=Researcher;  B=Barbara (female);  C=Chris (male)

R  are you ready?
B  sure
01  C  all right um I think that um the most important thing when it comes to the shopping
is definitely what’s on the display
02  B  Mm hm huh
03  C  because I think you know with so many stores around the variety is very important and
but also presentation
04  B  Mm hm
05  C  what do you think about that?
06  B  Um yeah I think also um like what do you mean with display, do you think like um window
shopping type of thing?
07  C  Yeah yeah I think I think really, like walking past shops oh well that’s interesting to go into the shops so it’s like
appeal.
08  B  Yeah yeah I think that’s appeal yeah appeal.
09  C  yeah all right
10  B  Does it make sense?
11  C  all right yeah all right but you do agree that like if you have exact the same clothing,
12  B  Yeah
13  C  in two different shops,
14  B  yeah
15  C  if in one was presented better than the [other]
16  B  [yeah] definitely
17  C  then you would like to go to that one.
18  B  Yeah yeah like something was visually appealing as such.
19  B  Yeah I definitely go in there um if I didn’t know anything about the shop in the first
place like two completely new shops, I say oh that one looks better so I go in there
so, I definitely agree with you ((laughs))
20  C  Yeah I think it’s really interesting to have you like I always said before you know
what kind of shop and you know what’s in there it’s kind of you are almost loyal to
that shop too like you know.
21  B  Yeah if I know they got something of quality from that shop,
22  C  Mm
23  B  then I definitely go there again rather than not necessarily not necessarily risk going
to another one, another shop but I already know that other place like the first place
I’ve gone to have quality why go somewhere [else]?
But I did definitely shop around. Do you shop around?

oh I might try.

Um Ok so would you say yeah like I I some sometimes shop around Sydney but I live on the coast

Yeah

so um I do not really think distance is important what what do you think?

Um well sometimes 'cause I don’t have a car I have to rely on public transport but um like I probably prefer to go somewhere closer but I do like to go to places like the city which is a little bit far-further [away]

[Yeah]

because I know they’ve got a range of things that I like I’m more willing to buy than necessarily going to when it was their top brand because I did not have much variety so variety is definitely important when you are shopping

yeah so like if there is a place has a big variety you wouldn’t mind going there for like an extra 30 minutes

Yeah that’s fine if I really like [something I’d like to go].

[Yeah I agree too yeah same]

But also like prices like the other day when we went to Chatswood

and bought it’s a Japanese drink that I like, it was like 4 dollars at one place, but then I found a different shop it was only 2 dollars. So I prefer to travel to Chatswood, than go to MQ to just get a discount [because I prefer to]

[Yeah]

buy the cheaper one than the more expensive so also variety and price

Yeah price is definitely important.

um yeah so what kind of things do you usually buy because you are a student so you don’t need to buy your (food).

Um yeah you know I sort of I sort of buy just stationery for university um (I can serve)

stationary ((laughs))

yeah you know stuff like that I sometimes go out often with my friends you know a lot of mine goes to that yeah because I am a guy shopping is not the huge thing you know I guess I buy clothing and stuff.

Yeah ok um yeah ((laughter)) do you so you would say by saying that would you say you shop around as such or?

Yeah I think I [would] yeah you know there is definitely more varieties

in Sydney [in the] shops than there’s

[Mm hm]

in the coast

yeah=

=a lot of people travel more to the city if they want something particular in their mind

[yeah]
C [that’s] really particular.
B yeah very particular yeah ok ([laughs]) what else?
C reputation of the [store]?
B [reputation] [yeah] um I definitely think that reputation is good
C yeah
B like I said loyal to some places over other places if I know about quality but I hear
something from my friends so if I heard from you that like Shop A is
really bad [then]
C [Mm]
B I probably wouldn’t go there because I had friends or someone I trust say no it’s crap
C yeah
B so I just wouldn’t I probably wouldn’t even go there to look for myself unless for
some reason I heard from someone else it’s good so I think definitely um sort of um
opinions of other people
C Yeah
B do definitely influence where I go and what I decide to buy.
C [Yeah]
B [from] certain places to like going back to the drinking thing before I said don’t
ever buy that drink from MQ from shops of MQ because it’s so expensive,
C [Yeah]
B [but] in Chatswood it’s like two dollars as opposed to four so so
C Yeah I I agree I think reputation is very important like if you sort of hear things
about the store that are not good served you generally avoid it
B Even if you think that well I am sort of level-minded and I don’t take in other people’s
sort of [bias]
C [yeah]
B I like to experience myself you sort of do
C Yeah
B yeah subconsciously sort of think er::: I heard that was bad maybe next time
[some]thing like oh there is a MQ um there is a sushi place in MQ and with several
C [Yeah]
B but I went to one of them um one day and I just got really bad salmon Sushi so I said
no I’m never going in there again and
C [Mm]
B [I] have never been there ever since so I said there are other food are very nice but
I said to people stay away from raw food there
C Mm
B because it’s a bit doggy and then so I think I influence people
C yeah
B in that aspect like don’t go there so they don’t go there they go somewhere else so
C Yeah
B I think word of mouth is definitely important.
C very important
B Mm
C yeah and yeah:
R Ok, excellent.
Task: A Talk 19 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:43 minutes
Topic: What are some of the factors to consider when you decide to choose a career?
Speakers: R=Researcher; J=Jacob (male); M=Mary (female)

01 J Would you like to start? %I don’t mind%.

02 M Or maybe given that you’re already working and I’m not just yet.

03 J ((laughter)) all right well (0.3) I’ve (0.6) basically (1.5) without sort of (0.6) you know sitting down and picking t’ to be an environmental scientist I would of uh (0.6) I would’ve said that it came about through interest (0.3) uh because (0.7) I’d (you know) always always had interest in that it’s (1.0) uh (0.4) and so it just sort of made sense that that’s where I ended up. (0.3) Um (0.6) and I think that if you sort of look behind that it comes down to (0.6) uh to basically (1.3) happiness (0.8) um (0.8) so I mean a lot of those things sort of tick that happiness box but interest um yeah I would say interest would be the the most related back (0.3) to happiness in inverted commas. (0.9)

04 M Mm hm yu- I’d agree and I think that um when you look at people who are successful in their careers it’s normally because they have interest in it and makes them happy. (0.6) Um (0.3) for me interest would probably (0.4) been (0.3) high on the list (0.4) and after that (I-) I’m (0.9) um (0.8) a bit of sensible person% (as a) sometimes so I then look at things like um employment prospects and salary as well (0.4) because (0.3) for me happiness is also about lifestyle so (0.3) I want to be able to afford t’ go on holidays (.) and do other things as well.

05 J Mm hm

06 M %Yeah%. (0.8)

07 J Um (1.1) yeah (I’m) (0.5) starting off a- at uni (.) uh and I’d you know started my degree ten years ago (0.6) um sort of environmental science was getting a- a bit bigger and there were jobs and more funding but it was still a pretty (0.8) um you know your’re not gonna (0.5) you’re not just gonna to fall into a job and you’re not gonna [mm] J [straight] to a high salary and that sort of thing. (0.5) And (1.6) um like (0.3) I gave it a fair bit of thought (0.3) and (0.6) at the end of the day it’s sort of always keep coming back (0.6) to um (0.7) you know I I can live (.) with the old car I’ve got now (0.5) rather than a new one when I’m fundamentally (0.3) you know happy with (XXX) when I’ve got a level of satisfaction that isn’t from (0.8) uh you know having uh having nice clothes or or a or driving a cool car

08 M Mm

09 J Um (0.4) but (0.3) like the (0.3) idea of of say employment prospects or good salary or (0.3) or stable income certainly comes into it, it’s just a matter of (0.9) um you know recognizing that (1.8) uh you (know) I I don’t think I actually need (1.6) a um (0.6) a cool car (0.4) t’ [to be] happy en t’ (0.9)
t’say that I’ve got uh a decent salary something like that
[that’s]

[Yeah ] yeah I I agree(d) as well- so (0.8) when I say (0.3) a good salary I mean enable-
(0.3) enables to support myself [and] do things I want to do
[Mm]

so it’s not necessarily having a great [car] (.) or nice clothes but (0.5)
[J] [Yeah]

um like I said be able to go on holidays (0.4) and um (0.3) yeah do thing that are enjoyable
but being (.) happy in your work is (0.3) which u- takes up most of your life unfortunately
is definitely a lot higher on the uh on the list=

=yeah

for me this is (0.4) um my second career so I’ve- of my undergrad is in something
completely different(0.3) so I’ve made a complete (. ) change from business into
(0.5) linguistics and (0.7) um and I (0.4) didn’t become student for the last three years
((laughter)) to (0.3) uh yeah I was making good money before I

[Mm]

=left that job to (0.8) earn a pittance and (.) uh start all over again. So (0.6) yeah
definitely money’s not that high on the list for me it’s more about satisfaction.

Yeah. Does um I like the high status [sarcastic] I it’s completely anathema to me.

Yeah

That you could um spend so much of y’ of your life heading toward something
that when you get there you kind of go oh really? Is this it?

[D] =left that job to (0.8) earn a pittance and (.) uh start all over again. So (0.6) yeah
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definitely money’s not that high on the list for me it’s more about satisfaction.

Yeah. Does um I like the high status [sarcastic] I it’s completely anathema to me.
lichens okay.
yeap um and I mean the the push toward doing it is because "a" it’d be it’d be fun I’d enjoy it um and (the-) it then opens the possibilities to doing like more travel with work while doing something that
okay
you really enjoy um and sort of those little I suppose they’re not quite side benefits they’re you know they’re a um they’re something that makes work satisfying
mm
(That uh)
So where are where is there hoard of lichens around the world that you could
Oh they’re- they’re everywhere.
[(Laughs)]
[(laughs)]
I thought as much (XX) I- I can’t even remember exactly what lichens are to be honest so maybe you can enlighten me.
They’re the little- little things that grow on grave stones and rocks and well they’re- they’re the ones that everyone thinks of
Okay.
But they’re a a little symbiosis of fungi and algae.
And it’s a very light green color (it’s) usually circular.
Yeah=
=Yep ok
So yep no one in Australia’s got a career out of them=
=Mem hm
There’s a few people that uh that do other other other jobs at universities and that’s their little fetish but uh
Okay %yes%
Okay well done.
Task: A Talk 20 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:55 minutes

**Topic:** What can university graduates do to find a job in the competitive market?

**Speakers:** R=Researcher;  R=Rose (female);  K=Kevin (male)

R are you ready?

01 R [yeah ]

02 K [%yeah%] start? (.)

03 R yeah sure okay so (0.6)um as soon as you leave uni, (0.2)and you’ve– you’ve got your graduate degree, (0.4) you’ve gotta um humble yourself, (0.4)I think to go out (0.3) out into the uh job market? (0.3) you know like um (.) but once you get out there you’ve gotta (0.5) like prep right so you’re gotta do the whole you know, (0.6) um (0.5) fill out your resume well and (0.3) um get in the right (0.5) like frame of mind for um (1.6) frame of mind for whatever job that you’re going after, you’ve gotta (0.6) um structure your life accordingly? (0.2)I don’t know (.)
[yeah.] so how about you? (0.6)

04 K [mm hm] um I think um (0.4) to be prepared like just a few points here like learning some practical skills, obviously (0.7)not all um courses are profession-related

R [mm hm]=

K =um (0.4) so for people studying like something more general like (0.5) arts, or something like that, (0.4) um (0.9) it's really tough obviously to find work in (0.2) jobs that aren't profession-related so (1.1) um people who complete those courses you know getting practical skills by maybe doing short courses that (0.4) can make them job ready? w- [you know]

R [mm ]

K will be really (0.4) really beneficial, um (0.9) and (0.4) obviously like (0.9) (w-) what I think’s really important is to be really enthusiastic and [passionate] about your (0.6) your area (0.3) of um potential work. (0.3) so

R [mm ]

K obviously you- you study something for a reason uh and I mean beyond learning knowledge, (0.4) um it’s good to (0.5) um (0.6) you know be absolutely passionate about what you’re doing and that shines through(0.5) [yeah] (0.3)

R [mm ]

K (like I’m) employed at the moment and I study at the moment, but (0.5) I think what got me over the line was my enthusiasm for what I do, and (0.5) and um (0.5) and I guess (0.2) I sort of take that on board wherever I go [so.

05 R [yeah %definite%] experience is huge one [I think.] (0.3)

K [yeah] [ (mm)  ]

R =um (0.6) and it’s it’s one of the most vital things especially in teaching these days, (0.4) and in a lot of university degrees they put their (0.3) students into (0.7) their preferred um (0.5) y’know choice of study, you know like (0.4) nurses go out, and are nursing you know (1.1) in their first semester of study[so ] (0.7)

K [yeah ]
R: Yeah I think experience is huge one (you're right in) there and=

K: (mm)

R: It- (the) (0.3) thing you talk about enthusiasm and (0.2) positivity about your job
no (0.3) no person's going to (0.7) um (.) I agree with that because no person is going
to hire you know, (0.4) some guy (who's (0.3) really sad all the time).

[and]

06 K: [mm] (0.8) or might be really (.) m- or might be really
07 R: [(and lazy) ]
08 K: Smart but may not be able to (0.6) portray that um in the work place so then
ob[viously] you know (0.3) I think=

R: [mm]

K: that if some people (0.5) are shy fair enough lots of people are gonna be scared and
shy for their first job (0.5) and looking for their first job and uh being in a really
uh weird situation (or) going to the (0.5) interview for the first time
[you] know getting nervous, but (0.2)=

R [mm]

K: at the end of the day (0.3) if people (0.6) are not confident within their own skills,
(and themselves) they may need to (0.6) um explore that further and further
[develop that](0.5) trait (.)

09 R: { { } yeah }
10 K: you know to be able [to]
11 R: [hone] down on their skills=
12 K: =hone down on their skills] yeah.
(0.2)
13 R: yeah definitely=
14 K: =yeah
(0.7)
15 R: um (1.4) uh I like (0.3) I like the last point keep [an eye]
K: [mm ]

R: open for potential job opportunities because a lot of people wait for the- (0.8) um
you know jobs to come to them? (0.2) you know, and (0.5) and rely on (0.3) um rely
on people that they know to

K: (mm)

R: =give them the right contacts but it's (.) up to you you know to find your own job,
and (0.6) to find what best suits you.
(0.2)
16 K: yeah no totally agree and also (I- making) a point on that one (0.5) um being creative
in your job search I mean obvious[ly (hh)]

R: [mm ]

K: I don’t know anyone these days who looks in the paper? physically looks into the paper
any mor[e because ]

17 R: [exactly right]
18 K: (0.6) now there are so many different ways of (0.7) looking for work and (0.2)
19 R: especially onlin[e (you just-)]
20 K: [online I’ve ] always found (0.5) the jobs that I’ve had always
online=

421
It's just so easy and um... yeah that's true. It's just so easy and um... job hunting more accessible I think you know having these um creative options for looking for work yes but also you've got to put like job hunting in the context of today and just look at the difficulties that we're facing. The great financial crisis that caused you know burdens on families because you know lots of people are out of work and so you've gotta also be conscious that even though um you're new to the work force there are people looking for the same jobs as you that've had experience like years and years of experience behind their back so yeah. [and that can] get you down. and in finding that first job it can be tough so um what you're studying you've e- you've chosen really well in terms of a really good combination for future work in two professions you could do yeah. That's true um but I can't image how hard it would be for someone studying like anthropology or archeology fascinating topics to learn and thing but to actually find a job in that area is really hard and you might need really difficult to the think the problem is you need money first to then explore what you want to do like an anthropologist an anthropologist um you know studying cultures may want to go to I don't know um you know the deep forests of South America and learn all about the tribes there, but= (exactly) to get there you need money first I guess that's a bigger issue. [yeah] [you] know all about economics and how all that works I guess that's a [mm] [mm ] but also you've got to be flexible I think and not always think that you're gonna get your um you know the prime job.
K: first, you’ve gotta go through backstreets before you can get (0.6) to the y’know main highway.(0.5)=
R: definitely yeah [good] good metaphor. [{{(Laughs)}]}
K: [mm ]
R: [[{{(Laughs)}]]= yeah cause (0.7) um (just done like an analysis of) (0.8) um (0.6) the CEO of McDonalds in Australia he started work at sixteen just you know,(0.5) um cleaning out toilets and [then he] went from that to (0.4) manager, and (0.4)
K: [mm ]
R: %yeah (0.3) you know just% (0.8) it was his (worth) ethic and HE HE didn’t (0.7)
K: [mm ]
R: and and that highlights that it’s not always (0.6) um (0.8) it’s no always you know the degree, and how hard y[ou stu]dy but it’s also your work e-(0.2) work
K: [mm ]
R: ethic and ] (0.3) and um (0.9) you know yeah (0.3)
K: [ethic yeah]
R: all of that (.) too (0.3) so (0.3) mm. (0.2)
K: good (0.3)
R: okay well done.
Task: A Talk 21 (Type 1)
Duration: 5:20 minutes
Topic: How can government encourage its citizens to utilize public transportation?
Speakers: R=Researcher; S=Simon (male); L=Linda (female)

01 S After you?
02 L After me? Okay so what can government do to encourage its citizens to utilize public transportation. Yes I use public transport a lot as you know
03 S Mm hm
04 L I have to go really far um so I thought lower the fees because I am a poor student
05 S Yeah
06 L and I really appreciate lower fees but then I thought mainly increase the services provided so increase the number of trains going because I’m from the Central Coast when I get from the city at night I get home unless I got one after 1:45 that’s real pain .
07 S Yeah sure
08 L That is what I thought that’s the main thing especially like Chris other Chris were saying bus only
09 S Yeah L runs like every two hours or something then that’s certainly makes it so hard that is why he would have to drive from here I think that’s really important.
10 S Sure so that be more services
11 L Yeah more services for buses and trains that’s okay
12 S That’s okay I agree with lowers fees in fact I go so far as to say remove these for transports all together um city rail has run at a loss and they publicly stated this every year for the last ten years and it doesn’t make sense if we pay the money we not even cover the cost of running the services then the government gonna have to subsidize that much money into it anyway so um they might just take everything from tax if you’ve got the whole Australia to pay for the entire public transportation system for each state um everyone’s taxed it’s not actually that much when you take it out of 21 million people when you take out of each particular person who is travelling then it becomes quite a lot of money um it’s not enough for them to sustain the network because everyone was taxed people would want the transport because they want to get their money worth.
13 S Yeah that’s right.
14 L And [would push] people towards,
15 S [people are]
16 L That’s right
17 S Yeah as long as they’re clean ‘cause I really hate dirty train
18 L Yeah [that’s right you have to maintain]
19 S [as long as they did get rid of ]
20 L Yeah it had to be
21 S I agree and I also say to raise the fees for car parking in big cities makes a lot of sense you don’t want a lot of traffic going through the city that much maybe as an alternative have car parks just outside the city and take public
22 L [Maybe]
[Transport] into it if you need to travel that sort of distances

I don’t know I don’t necessarily agree with that because I don’t know that some people who like travelling when you going from holiday whatever so you park your cars because you’re staying at hotels or something it seems a bit rich if you have to pay

Yeah that’s not gonna to happen that often it wouldn’t be daily lifestyle thing sort of be one off large payment to deter people from doing that all the time

I suppose but then a lot of I don’t know I don’t necessarily agree with that still

That’s right.

I think it’s a bit of harsh to make people pay more because it is already really expensive

I know I would be upset if I have to drive

Oh I wouldn’t drive that’s

You wouldn’t drive full stop

That’s ridiculous because it already cost a lot

So all depends on as long as they gave more services then [because]

[Yeah ]

if they made it free and they increase car park costs then you be like to stand in the train the whole time so they have increase services otherwise I could not be really sure

Sure and specifically um more services around peak times [because] in the morning and night time they had a lot of issues with too many people on th trains too many people on the buses so it’s quite [packing] and

[Yeah ]

sardine sort of things

Yeah and then try to have all the technical glitches out because that’s I think that even though it only happens sometimes I don’t even think it is a big deal some people [got on about it]

[It happened yes]terday.

but I don’t think it is too big deal but it happens once everyone goes oh that bloody city rails this is why I catch trains=

=Yeah

So I think they have to be really carful if that happens a lot of people would have a bad opinion about it they would stop travelling by train

Fair enough I do agree with that. Um another thing the actual people we deal with the conductors and drivers I always found them a bit they kind of village people I always find they are the sort of persons that just doesn’t enjoy their jobs

Really do you know I had one conductor who was like singing the national anthem over though it is on the train going from Epping to Hornsby it’s on your train?

Ok

But they are always some funny one and there were some random ones out there

Okay

yes

Yeah a fairly couple of fine ones but yeah apart from that my general experience is that they are not very nice people they are not that willing to help that puts me off using the service
43 L Yeah I suppose that’s customer service, that they have to deal with a lot of people that are annoying
44 S Exactly that’s right
45 L And if you made it free probably have a lot of you know not you know a lot of characters
on the train
46 S Yeah that’s true
47 L That would be (XXX)
48 S That’s true.
49 L Because you have to make sure you have security and stuff
50 S But that wouldn’t give you much security no one gonna to check tickets no one is gonna
to be you know that relieves a lot of labourhood but can [not ] be people aren’t feeling
51 L [Yeah]
secure on the trains
52 S That’s right
53 L on the public transporta[tion.]
54 S [So ] security guards rather than guard to come and beat
people who haven’t tickets.
54 L Yeah tickets
55 S yeah that’s right um apart from that I think that’s pretty much everything
56 L Yeah I think we have covered a lot
57 S Is that ok?
R Ok, well done.
Task: A Talk 22 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:32 minutes

**Topic:** What are some of the consequences for adolescents’ addiction to computer games?

Speakers: R=Researcher; L=Lauren (female); B=Benjamin (male)

R Ok are you ready?
01 L So I think addiction to computer games does have an effect on how much people play sports because I mean people are going out less when they’re playing games what do you think?
02 B Oh yeah I guess it’s a time factor like you play games at time that you would be playing sports
03 L yeah
04 B does that make sense?
05 L Yeah yeah so with that I think it also takes a lot of time instead of studying what because you are on the computer when you are studying
06 B Yeah we fall into the same point I reckon as you know you’re spending all your time playing the games as opposed to sport activities or in this case you know study and work so I agree ((laughs))
07 L (laughs)) okay
08 B With the and you know the same thing goes again for the last point um I reckon that you know reduces the time to communicate with your parents and your loved ones and stuff because you’re spending your time on the games
09 L yeah
10 B what do you reckon?
11 L no only your parents I think it’s friends as well because it’s the same thing with the whole internet all you do is you’re playing games it is not really face-to-face
12 B unless you’re playing with your friends in the games
13 L If you are playing with your friends but you don’t exactly going out playing games like they did it all the day in the street
14 B What is the same kind of thing but virtual
15 L [yeah]
16 B [it’s] like if you could be playing sports games with friends online
17 L yeah but then that’s also another point is like physical activity sitting on the computer all day and
18 B yeah but that doesn’t affect one’ communication with their parents or friends
19 L that’s true yeah ((laughter)) all right well then again with sport activities when you really are just sitting there all the day
20 B yeah that’s true there is no [physical side]
21 L [you should go] out there should be compromise on how much you are playing games on the internet and how much you’re going outside
22 B I suppose yeah we could add a physical component to games
23 L ((laughs)) you could
24 B so when you’re playing games you get your physical exercise be a kind of affect your study and work with motivation stuff all you want to do is play the games
25 L yeah
26 B what else do you reckon?
I am not sure what cost so
(0.4)

I think they can cost
28

because you play games how much do you [think cost]
29

[yeah they ] they can cost money but (0.3) if
30

you just stay like one game or something I guess that is fine I don’t think that is
31

a big (0.4) problem (0.4) but if you like buy new games, that would be different=
32

yeah with addiction to it if you do you think it could be quite (0.8) detrimental
33

economically or
34

(0.5)

um (0.3) maybe with some games like (0.3) “Wild” stuff like with ongoing fees I don’t
35

think so unless it completely impacts on your (. ) work and life (0.4) so you have no
36

income at all you spend it all (. ) on [the ] game
37

[yeah]
38

with that, it does affect definitely affect your diet and sleep pattern (0.4) with=
39

yeah I [mean you stay at home playing games]
40

[you are not sleeping not eating stuff] because you can not get away from the
41

computer
42

and that again affects (. ) everything from study and work and to communicating
43

(0.8)
44

Mm
45

yeah just (0.3) physical or mental health (1.2) so it could affect quite a lot
46

(0.7)
47

which can also influence your (. ) communication with friends and parents
48

yeah
49

(0.5)
50

with the point with violent games normally influences violence with kids that could
51

cause series crimes I’m not too convinced that this is a big problem
52

[yeah]
53

[I am] not saying kids play star wars would actually go out and try to hurt people
54

and=
55

[yeah that's true I don't think it will affect them that much though it can you know
56

if it is]
57

It depends on the state of mind who is playing but
58

yeah though they are addicted to the games
59

yeah
60

yeah I know they might become violent if the games take them away
61

((laughs))
62

something
63

yeah depends on the age as well like I guess that influence
64

oh yeah what about um long hours in front of the screen I think it can hurt your eyes
65

I’ve hurt my eye before I’m not bad but yeah staring at the screen for ages it’s not
66

healthy
67

It could cause you headache I know there’re some studies if you’re on the computer
68

late at night especially people with an addiction would be on at night you can’t get
69

much sleep which again linking to the lack of sleep which is harmful to health
yeah and watching it can also cause epileptic fits from some games

I think another point it like some people are really addicted to like it affects their whole life I mean some some games can become your life

so I don’t’ think it can affect your life style if that’s going to be your life like Second Life people quit job because they can make money in the game to support themselves they just spend their whole time in

So I don’t know much about that side but that person must be pretty shocking socially

Well not really because they’re interacting with everybody else that’s also in the game

But they also so so they are not necessarily like completely search- social introverts

what about [physical] [but] they can be very social in game maybe not physical like (XX) but it will not affect their characters or anything I don’t think it will impact your social skills as this

Like other people do get like addicted to other games now you know always on them have like regular time they meet often yeah can be a bit hassling and definitely affect like your work and study when you have to meet people or friends at a certain time a certain day of the [week]

[yeah]

In some games well it it also can affect the relationship like I know you play games I get a bit cranky at times like I’m wondering why you’re playing games instead of hanging out with me so could affect relationship

unless the relationship the other person plays the games as well

((laughs)) I guess it could be a compromise there

The game is fun in the game

okay
**Task:** A Talk 23 (Type 1)  
**Duration:** 6:50 minutes  
**Topic:** which is better: Renting or purchasing accommodation?  
**Speakers:** R=Researcher;  B=Benjamin (male);  L=Lauren (female)

01 L ok well my stand on renting especially for people at our age I think is the best choice if you live out of home because no one in my age are gonna to be able to afford to

02 B To buy

03 L To buy or have a mortgage mortgage is so much pressure

04 B Is it?

05 L I mean if you can not afford for mortgage than if you can not afford for a [mortgage]

06 B [What ] is difference between mortgage and=

07 L =A mortgage is when you try to buy the house but you do it in payments um like a little interest on top of that so house is gonna to a lot [more]

08 B [So] that’s a lot of money but you get to own the house

09 L in say twenty if someone is 18 you are not got to be trying to buy a house

10 B Ok so there is less pressure if you are renting

11 L That is definitely a lot of less pressure

12 B that’s like less pressure and money-wise

13 L Yeah it is moneywise then again you’re gonna to have to look after the house following the rules as much you can like especially

13 B So there is more pressure living style than you how you’re living

14 L Yeah

15 G But less pressure=

16 L =Less economically definitely because the rules can just be annoying sometimes there is rules on parties

17 B You can not have pets

18 L Yeah you can not have cats or dogs

19 B Yeah it is I guess it’s not worth try to buy a house

20 L It isn’t really say you try to start a family I think yeah

20 B You think you should start=

21 L during your thirties you should try [to]

21 B [I ] think if you start a family you should probably buy a house

22 L Yeah that’s why I say yeah you should

23 B Yeah If you have a house you can not just continuously renting

25 L Say my parents rent now that’s because we are it’s easier if you want to move from place to place whereas if [you stuck]

26 B [freedom ]

27 L yeah if you stuck in mortgage after [you need]

28 B [You can] not get out you can’t get out

29 L You can get it out but you lose the money at the end the day and you’re going to sell the house going through that process so renting is generally easier the differences you won’t pay so much you want keep it at the end of the day.

30 B yeah you never get it yet the money is gone
It is still give you (two syllabus)

So young people should definitely rent an accommodation just for that reason alone

Yeah

as apposed to buy unless of course they are rich as

[they can buy a house] straight away then definitely

[They can buy a house]

Well yeah you can invest extra money in other things

You could definitely I mean

Spend money

yeah it would be a lot of easier to buy other things you need like a car or what not

so renting would be easier and again it would be easier if you want to move to somewhere

else then you have to tell your landlord

ok then again the landlord can just kick you out

They can that’s another you should think about positive things um they are yeah they
can do that but generally there is rule of they have gonna to give you 6 week notices

[ok]

[or] something like that there has to be clauses of contract things they can push you

out unless you get completely broken then there is nothing you can do nothing

The landlord

yeah so

So they can move when you are renting

Yeah

You just leave um yeah your quality of life is definitely reduced

When you um have [mortgage]

[if you] rent and you obey strictly to the rule like no pets no parties

keep the house clean I mean it is not your house you got that [emotion

[Yeah]

the whole time but yeah you would have more money if you are renting

Yeah

To do thing I guess as supposed to mortgage what about against?

Against (1.0)

all sorts of nuisance so rent to move a house does cost a lot that’s a lot of money

if you move house so like just for renting you can move it isn’t going to be costly

Yeah again yeah if you can’t afford for it you are losing money at the end of the day

and you might even have to put up things like your cars or other assets that you used

to pay it off

just move

No because when the if you are in doubt you cannot afford it so they then they end

up taking that property from your house.

That’s all right um what about tolerate others' regular habits of life?

So that has to do with neighbors you think?

I guess it’s it’s against renting so they would be to do with your landlord or imagine

or if you have a roommate if you share a place [with someone]

[yeah another] thing with renting is

um they can be both of them when the interest rate go up your landlord is gonna to

be like okay
yeah price rise
your rents go up a lot more
[Yeah]
[so ] could go from 241 a week 300 next
Just pay their own
or you could be not sure then against if interest rate go up in turn your mortgage
is gonna to go up repayment is gonna to go up so much
More or less than the rent.
It probably work out about the same amount I think but because because the banks are
(repugn) of and landlord is getting (repugn) of as well because they want to make much
profit as much as they can
Yeah
So you get to lose money either way
I think there is no point yeah if you rent you have to share some um place for some
way
Yeah
and they are frake.
(laughter)
they eat your food but not contribute to playing games addictively or might um
I mean the most ideal situation would be to buy a house y you do not have to go through
landlord you do not have to go though getting loans from bank so generally if you are
rich enough to buy your own house it is the best idea although then again you do have
to go through the selling process and that might take a while.
Yeah also you are renting then you are not really you have no feeling of ownership
[Yeah]
[over] the place you are renting.
Yeah that’s very true also you do feel quite unsecure.
Yeah you do not feel at home as much.
Yeah yeah definitely so our stand is when you are young get a mortgage when
you try to start a family buy a house
Yes I agree
Ok
Task: A Talk 24 (Type 2)
Duration: 7:02 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement "The use of private car should be limited"?
Speakers: R=Researcher; J=Jacob (male); M=Mary (female)

01 J Well do you want to go first?
02 M Okay um okay I guess I I start by saying I think there is a need generally in society to have transport of some sorts and public transportation isn’t always the the answer because it’s for a lot of reasons including um time limits and scarcity and all those sorts of things um but I also think that there probably are too many cars on the road at a particular time and I am concerned about the impact they have on the environment in terms of air quality and air pollution that sort of thing or I’m not sure the answer or I think there is a huge array of answers and it’s a big problem to tackle actually.

03 J I pretty much agree with you I think it’s a question of balance. Um you know the cars um you know public transport isn’t always the answer. I know I am a culprit because as in terms of straight distance by road I’m 10 kilometers from from home to MQ but if I take the public transport, it takes about an hour and a half. That’s just er I think that’s a big chunk of time compared to

04 M Yeah
05 J 20 minutes’ driving
06 M [Yeah]
07 J [if ] I were at peak hour.
08 M Where about you are staying?
09 J Craymond.
10 M Ok.
11 J Um so I think I think private car use should should be limited um but in in such a way almost the idea of putting a price on carbon um because if you if your goal is protect the environment, then you know you price to reflect that so that it does become a better use of your time and money to catch public transport

12 M Mm
13 J um it is more efficient to do that than to take a car um then you know it’s an easy answer.
14 M Yeah I agree I think I mean I live in Epping which is ten minutes down to road but it took me one hour to go home yesterday. By the time I go to the bus stop, wait for the bus, and get thee it was one hour. So I just think it is ridiculous I could have walked at that time probably I should have but yeah it’s just inefficiency like that

15 J Mm
16 M they have been always late that is the other thing being late what have you and they are polluting environment as well they are using diesel I don’t know. But I don’t own a car at the moment, but I do use a car. And Actually I haven’t never owned a car I haven’t had my own car to use in the last three years and I coped pretty well but um yeah I don’t have a problem.

17 J Mm hm
18 M until now but I get annoyed when I see households when they have a car per person
19 J Mm
20 M in the household and thing like that I just think it’s way too many but then I do think
people in the car industry what would happen to those workers I think we need to develop other areas that we can hire people into so that it would have less impact on the economy.

21 J Yeah I think the idea is seriously impact on fuel resources shortage you know if you want individual mobility, then you know there are alternatives um develop a different source of fuel something like if it’s about protecting the environment then um you know the if that is your goal then it’s gonna be sort of collateral damage on those things you know it will be more expensive for people to to drive cars or it will be not quite convenient to catch a bus or you know the car industry will shrink in um.

22 M Maybe that will stop wars 'cause they won’t be fighting anywhere any more.

23 J but we can find something better to fight over like water.

24 M That’s right, water, religion.

25 J Um but I mean it’s it’s funny too because we’re arguing totally from our perspective there are you know plenty places where having a car it’s not just a given um.

26 M Definitely I mean even economies like China for example where the population is so much larger and um high density living and all those sorts of things there are a lot less cars and also the political environment but now there there is a lot more cars in in the cities um more I mean the impact that has on their living standard and things

27 J Mm

28 M and then there are countries where they can’t go without them.

29 J Yeah.

30 M I mean I just recently came back from The Northern Territory where their public there’s no train there’s only buses. And buses aren’t very good like I only had two buses to choose from where I was staying in. On the weekends there was only one bus,

31 J Yeah.

32 M and it would take what should have been really 10 minutes drive would take half an hour or 40 minutes. If you want to go anywhere outside the very small metropolitan area you needed a car.

33 J [Yeah]

34 M [and] you know

35 J um you know if I think if you live in somewhere like New York and you know your life was in the city you’d have been mad to have a car because it just be such a horrible expense for such a little benefit.

36 M Mm

37 J Um whereas I am thinking in somewhere like Sydney we are a lot more spread out, uh and if you’re not just between home and work um if you got friends on the other side of the city you duck out to the mountains on the weekends or something like then not having a car can be a big limitation

38 M Mm

39 J or you know the cost versus the pay off of spending half an hour driving to work instead of an hour and a half sitting on public transport

40 M Mm

R Ok well done.
Task: A Talk 25 (Type 2)  
Duration: 6:22 minutes  
Topic: Are you for or against the statement “Modern people should do shopping online”?  
Speakers: R=researcher; K=Kevin (male); R=Rose (female)

01 K I’m happy to start um so reasons for people to shop online um I partially agree with it and partially disagree with it um I think obviously we live in a busy world and everyone’s well those who do work um you have no time to shop everyone says I have no time I have no time but um um obviously shopping online will make thing really convenient I’m thinking from groceries’ point of view =

02 R ==[mm ]

03 K [like] shopping to buy food but um that’s why you know lots of people are eating poorly because that they don’t have the time and they don’t make the time to shop properly that sort of things but um I think it’s a bigger issue I think it demonstrates that people have out of out of balance

K [with] their life and I think um people should um create more life balance so that they are able to do what they need to do for work but then find some ways of enjoying shopping or making shopping um a type of wind down at the end of the day or preparation um at the start of the day so I think um I think people should really analyze their use of time

04 R Mm

05 K =and it may demonstrate they are really time poor even it is half an hour to do a quick shop at least you know make that worthwhile not like ’Ah, it’s a hassle’ so it’s psychological I think

06 R Em that’s reason- it’s interesting you went down the philosophical route =

07 K =Mm

08 R Because um when you think about shopping tha’s just you know it’s not really it’s a chore that we’ve got to do=

09 K =Mm

10 R now the chores we can get other people to do for us it’s taken out of our hands=

11 K =Mm

12 R it’s quite interesting um but yeah I agree that um the reasons behind why um you know modern people do online shopping is because they are time poor

13 K Mm

14 R But that doesn’t make it more or less um positive or negative I think I think the real you know crux of the statement is is that um um shopping online is dangerous and you can get your I I don’t agree with that

15 K [Mm]

16 R [Like] you can get your um you know your details um stolen or your money and sometimes it says here like things that don’t really fit you know

17 K [Mm]

18 R [you] buy groceries that aren’t the right ones you know you get marked up marks up but um reasons for I guess um especially in groceries shopping sometimes they just give away freebies be[cause] sometimes they have extra stuff that

K [Mm ]
are left overs especially one of my friends that is the case for her but um also um shopping online we can’t always look at um people being time poor as negativity you know

Maybe that because shopping is available online we’ve got time to you know spend quality [time] with our children and

spend quality time with our friends or in work=

And so it’s it’s a great tool you know that yeah it easily assists especially elderly and um yeah it’s really really interesting.

That’s right you make me say being time poor enable us to do thing you wouldn’t be doing otherwise for example a sale person who works 12 hours a day gets home at 8 and then all of sudden okay I’m gonna see my kids you [know]

but then shopping is less a priority so that obviously by shopping online um having it delivered then they are be able to spend quality of time with family=

obviously yeah with the elderly I mean people who are less mobile and shopping is definitely it’s more than the chore it’s um it’s exhausting

Um I’ve seen it in first hand in my work but I think um yeah there are pros and cons I mean I I shop online for CDs or

you know I got eBay sometimes get like technological things but for clothing no way like I have to go out and shop for clothing it’s hard

um and because I’m fit and able to go shopping I do use as a bit of wind out not that I’m the best cook or anything but it’s at lest it’s something and I don’t have a car you know

That’s a big one.

But I still you have transport restrictions um I mean no transport but has to be done

but I use it as I use it for philosophically you have to stay positive about ha you know face the shopping line and you know that’s sort of thing so

well obviously um I use reputable well so called reputable websites

Yeah that’s true.

But yeah there’re a lot of scammers out there you know um so it IS dangerous [uh huh]

So I try to use I think eBay is reputable because it has a good um safety net just in case=

But only only I got to so rarely that I don’t have my own account I mean others can
get stuff for me

40  R  Yeah
41  K  Yeah so obviously there are pros and cons um in modernity lifestyle
42  R  [Mm]
43  K  [um] and then see what works for you at the end of the day but for me if I can avoid
it I will avoid it you know for to have a bit of balance in my life.
44  R  Yeah
45  K  [Mm ]
46  R  [Yeah] exactly you don’t want to stay in front of the computer screen all day every
day
47  K  Exactly yeah
48  R  you’ve got to get out and interact with others
49  K  Yeah that’s right.
      R  Ok well done.
Task: A Talk 26 (Type 1)
Duration: 5:20 minutes
Topic: What factors do you consider when you have decided to purchase a property?
Speakers: R=Researcher; J=Jack (male); K=Kate (female)

01 J Would you like to speak first?
02 K Yeah um of course I am going to consider more about the price of the property because you know nowadays we’re earning a proportion of the money we earn and the price of the property is not really you know,
03 J Yeah yeah I agree.
04 K Um um
(0.4)
05 J Up to the level=
06 K =Yeah up to the level where we can really afford it it’s getting more and more expensive.
07 J Yeah and plus the interest rate is [very high].
08 K [yeah ] the interest rate [back then]
09 J [It was ] it was okay to get a mortgage but now you have like (0.3) a lot of aspects like insurance or like I don’t know what is yearly expenses that you have to pay on that property=
10 K =Yeah yeah.
11 J And property tax >like there’re so many things you have to consider if you buy one <If if you are not able to afford it throughout the whole time and like then there’s [always]
12 K [You might] you might get sacked meanwhile you [are paying your mortgage]
13 J [Yeah exactly ] you might not be able to pay your mortgage like=
14 K =Yeah, exactly.
15 J being yeah you might go into bankruptcy maybe {{laughs}}
16 K And that’s bad.
17 J That’s [bad].
18 K [And] banks got to take your property away you know.
19 J Yeah exactly (0.3) they might take it as collateral or something like that.
20 K Yeah.
21 J Uh also there’s also the chance that the p- p- pri (0.3) price of the property might go down.
22 K Yeah
23 J So it may decrease in value which
24 K You’re losing money=
25 J Yeah you’re losing [money]
K [yeah]
26 J Um what else I consider when purchase a property.
(0.4)
27 K [Mm].
28 J [Also] also like another consideration when you purchase property would be (0.3) I guess the neighborhood environment. I wouldn’t live in a place or buy a property where (0.7) the crime rate is exceptionally high (0.3) where
[I know ]=
29   K
[It’s true] but (. ) uh like.
   (0.4)
30   J
Because=
31   K
=Safe place safe environment like (. ) places are safe, it tends to be more expensive.
32   J
Yeah it’s getting more expensive but Like would you want to buy a property (0.3) If you were for example hypothetically speaking (0.4) if you (0.6) build a house
J [on it ]
K [Uh huh]
J Would you really want you kids and family to live in a place like that? (0.4) or would you want [your] kids are born and raised in a place where you know (0.3)
K [mm ]
J criminals you know stuff like [that ]?=
33   K[I don’t] know but I wouldn’t wouldn’t put this as my priorities like one of them.
34   J
OK.
35   K
Yeah I I consider more about the access to shopping [areas ].
36   J
[shopping] areas.
37   K
[I don’t have a %car%].
38   J
[I think that’s important].
39   K
Yeah [I don’t have ]
40   J
[I THINK that’s] important I think also access to (0.4) like like important destinations such as [shopping areas ],
41   K
[yeah like police] station,
42   J
police station fire station,=
43   K
=hospital=
44   J
=hospitals yeah (0.4) that would be another factor to consider (0.3) um (0.5)
45   K
I would say shopping area is really important.
46   J
yeah.
47   K
because I don’t have a car it’s really hard for me to carry too big bags of groceries back home that kind of=
48   J
That’s true um (0.8) community infrastructure is also important I guess in a way um
49   K
Um like library,
50   J
Like er
51   K
Like parks=
52   J
=parks and electricity lines and all that’s set up and like.
53   K
Yeah yeah yeah
54   J
Stuff like that may be important I guess you wouldn’t buy want to buy a property
55   K
When you have kids that is
56   J
Yeah but still I mean you wouldn’t want to buy a property in the country or something right
K ((laughs))
J because that would be like as much
57   K
well that’s depend on if I really like the er countryside sure I go to
58   J
I’m pretty sure that it is modern age now nobody wants to live in the countryside
I don’t know

I’d love to live next to (the university???)

((laughs)) yeah

Mm yeah I definitely want to live next to like I want to buy a property which is next to you know em (0.3) bus stops.

Yeah yeah that’s true also train stations so you do not have to walk as far you know ran for.

Because the petrol price is now going skyrocketing=

It’s getting really expensive to drive these days.

Yeah I do agree with that (0.4) um but yeah also like I guess (0.4) traffic condition would also be a factor too

That’s true=

because I won’t like (0.5) for example everyone body has to get to work at nine once you finish the university that is

[um huh]

[about] 9:00am I would say and 8:30 everybody leaves at around that time frame (0.4) so like there is a lot (.).I guess that is everywhere

That’s everywhere yeah=

but like (0.9) I don’t know like

Ok for me I live in Parramatta (0.3) so I’m literally living next to the M4

[Ok]

[that’s] that’s kind of something to consider ’cause it’s gonna get really noisy at night=

=[really]

[and I ] wouldn’t be able to sleep well

oh yeah (.) that’s true (2.0) um

I guess that goes into environment=

=yeah, that’s definitely fall into that category.

that is basically um (1.4) yea::h as for the size of the property, (0.5) um I won’t care much about that (0.5) unless I have kids.

Yeah yeah yeah

Like I live with my husband right [now ]

[yeah] I guess that won’t be that=

=That’s won’t [be a big issue].

[be a big deal ] yeah.

Even even the studio apartment it is [fine for us].

[Yeah that ] would be pretty good yeah yeah that’s true

(0.6)

because=

=sometimes I guess like the studio apartment is actually comparatively cheap=
yeah, yeah, yeah<

and it is easier to afford. The affordability factor is easier. because

the apartments right now are pretty much like it’s round 300k to 400k

Yeah 300 to 400 that’s the whole idea

(0.4)

That’s a lot of money.

Yeah that’s true.

Ok, excellent.
Task: A Talk 27 (Type 1)
Duration: 6:18 minutes

Topic: What are some of the ways to keep one fit?
Speakers: R=Researcher; J=Jennifer (female); M=Michael (male)

01 J Okay what do you think are most important ways to keep fit?

02 M I think diet and exercises are the main two

03 J Okay well I would definitely say diet because if you don’t have a good diet then there is no way you can do exercise or be healthy

04 M What do you mean by a good diet just like a range of food or just ways of being healthy

05 J Em both you need to have a variation of foods and but not too much so it’s only in proportion and then because I think exercise as well so by having a good diet you’re letting yourself have a healthy body to be able to do [exer]cise

M [mm ]

J so like you’re eating food and you know very healthy food not fatty food then you can do exercise so that you won’t be overweight or struggling

06 M Okay do you think any other points?

07 J Um (0.4) I would say (1.1) probably (. ) a balance between life and work and study?

08 M =Yeah=

(0.5)

09 J Because if you don’t have a balance you don’t really have time to (0.6) put in these(0.3)other points or having a good diet and exercise

10 M Mm hm

11 J ’cause you need to work it all out (0.6) what is your third one?

12 M I don’t think any other (0.3) I guess all are important this is no large issues I think diet and exercise are the main things.

(0.4)

13 J Do you think the balance between life and work and study is not [important]?

14 M [I THINK] they are all important (0.3) BUT I think that the top two are more predominant than the rest.

(0.7)

15 J Okay what is your third point? (0.5) out [of]

16 M [If] if I have to choose a third point?

17 J Yes=

18 M =Um (0.6) I think maybe ‘happy’ (0.7) that’s good (0.4) all start there.

19 J What? (0.3) yeah=

20 M =optimistic to[ward life]

21 J [There you] go yeah and also to control one’s mood to [stay happy]

22 M [Everything] starts on the mood ((laughter))

23 J ((laughs))

24 M um (0.5)
why do you think that?

Think what?

That [being happiness]

I don't know I think it is part of everything say if you could have good luck, water and happiness

((laughs)) okay okay well I guess while they are all important but I also said relationship with others as well because like that can help

Yeah=

=encourage each other to do these like the points keeping healthy you kind of have a reason=

=Yeah I think without relationship that like life might be hard as you need to talk to downside of your life

Yeah exactly so let’s say that’s also very important they are all important

Mm yeah=

=but definitely diet and exercise are the most important do you think there is another one that’s not on the list that may be important?

Um not I can think of [uh]

[Oh] social activities

What's that?

Yeah

That's all in them we have gone through all of them

Yeah but do you think social activities is important?

Yeah I think all that goes to maintaining a good relationship=

=Yeah help you to socialize then you get to those you can get to encourage each other to keep doing those exercises and all the other points.

Um what do you think about dieting just as a topic because it’s in there do you think it’s healthy people do like no carbon diet and things?

No but no if it’s out of a reason like for a skinny person is doing a diet=

=Hmm

Or someone who is already extremely unhealthy going on a diet but I say for people who don’t eat healthy then it would be a good point because they might not be happy without themselves or they might not have a good relationships

ok

which will help them to it gives them the reason to diet

yeah

being healthy in life because they are not alone and what do you think about mood?

mood? I said it’s good to be happy

Okay what do you think negative mood how that might affect one being fit or healthy

I don’t think a negative mood will affect people being fit or healthy

Why?
because I’m negative sometimes I’m still fit and healthy
Okay and how do you think that will affect others?
Um depend on if they want to affect them, doesn't it?
Yeah [okay]
[s]o take it personally um their choice
But I think you need a good attitude to be healthy and fit {{laughs}}
I disagree
Okay why?
Why? because I think you can be unhappy and still be fit and healthy
Yeah but
I’m not always in much an unpleasant state all the time but I still manage to=
Yeah okay what about when you are unhappy would you go to do exercise
[or ] would you eat healthy?
[Yes] I will I won’t eat healthy but I still do exercise
Yeah why won't you eat healthy 'cause you’re not happy?
No
do you think you need to give you some bad food to be happy
No because I like chocolate
So you have comfort food when you’re not happy
I eat chocolate I am healthy as well
Okay well I think happiness is important
I already said that at the beginning
Yeah I know yeah I know but I think I think being a bad mood can put me off um trying
to be fit
Okay
trying to be fit
Different person different opinion
Yes um
What sort of social activities do you think like er?
Sporting ones
Sports going out
Uh
I think [all sports] are good
Because they cover exercise and health as well as
and socializing
yeah
like meeting new people I’m not sure it depends on how you define 'going out’ whether
you are going out and drinking and all that
Yeah
you may make friends but that does not necessarily keeping your fit but otherwise I
can’t think of other social activities I already said that
Yeah
I think it’s important for old people
Could be both
Yeah like it still keeps them meeting new people
Yeah
Which keeps them mind moving and thinking and then it’s a way of being fit.
Knitting classes?
Sorry?
Knitting classes?
Yeah because it helps giving them memory which obviously helps keep them fit in a way because it’s keeping their mind healthy. So, yeah I say it’s very important for old people as well to keep fit by doing that.
uh
OK well done.
Task: A Talk 28 (Type 2)
Duration: 6:35 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement "Modern people should shop on commercials"?
Speakers: R=Researcher; J=James (male); E=Elizabeth (female)

01 J Do you want to start?
02 E yes uh consumers I think they shouldn’t buy products based on advertising just because it gives you like the false information So you know you get these ads with shining lights this is the best product on the market you need this it’s going to make you healthy and it’s going to make this happen. You read the back instructions on something and has you know it’s all full of sugar like fisherman vitamin water oh

J Mm

E this many vitamins, bla, bla, bla and it gives you energy vitality looking at the back it’s like glucose, water

03 J Mm
04 E that’s it
05 J %that’s%
06 E and then maybe few colors and addictives so it’s been made something look like good for you. Instead of buying a coco cola instead of something else you buy that but have the same amount of sugar.

07 J Because you think it’s healthy.
08 E ((laughs))
09 J But I have to say I probably argue differently 'cause I would say that these days consumers are very wise wise towards all the marketing tactics. You can see you know everyone has seen McDonald commercials for example the burger won’t look like that but it’s sort of glorified version so you still get the information you need and you never have to worry too much about false ads because it has a very strict um group the the ACCC I think they call the um organization review all these commercials that make sure that there is no false information um so there is still you know it’s a very sort of yeah glamorous and glorified version of the product or the service but you still know all the information you really need to know whether or not it’s marketed right atI you if you look for you know a low-budget appliance or perhaps something for more [rich people].

10 E [that’s low ] budget things are not advertised
11 J Yeah that’s true
12 E it’s only high market you know the most expensive product in the supermarket the most expensive camera and the most expensive MP3 player like Apple.
13 J [Mm that’s true]
14 E [You know] you do not see Sony ones or Creates one I can do it but not as big as out there.
15 J Because they don’t have money
16 E So I think it is only gives you the high-end of the scale so if you’re in like a position where you don’t have that much money you’re seeing all these beautiful things on the TV or billboards or ads anywhere else and there’s something that you’re striving to reach for but you have no idea why like you can still get something else it works just
as well

17 J  Mm
18 E  that doesn’t have the same picture on the front, but it makes you want to have the
other product even you don’t know why you just want the more attractive one.
19 J  So I suppose these days it’s happening more I guess I know I do this I’m sure people
do as well we both smart ((laughs)) smart teenagers we look at the product, but we’ll
also do a little bit of our own research, will perhaps read the some of the reviews
you know we won’t go and spend all that amount of money before we go sort of from a
non-profitable source like for example the internet discussion forums or talking to
talking to a store manager somewhere that
E  [Mm]
20 J  [has] lots of brands so there isn’t any pressure to advertise one particular brand.
So I guess that touches on both the reasons for and against it um it’s good it’s good
to a certain point to let you know that it’s out there and you go and find out some
of your own things I guess.
21 E  how about excessive advertising?
22 J  excessive advertising yeah that’s that’s annoying ((laughs)) that that gets to people
23 E  Especially when you have the same ads on like twice or even three times in
the same advertisement break
24 J  Mm hm
25 E  like I guess I love Burger Bread you know that CD yummy bread but when the Big Losers
is on they add that on every single ad. break at least three times at least 2 to 3
I think I am sick of that and I do not want to see that bread any more ((laughs)) I
mean just gets too [much]
J  [Mm]
E  you know they’re hurting themselves by overadvertising I think.
26 J  the the only the only really you see ads. on TV that are really funny or clever that’s
the kind of ads I like and you stick your head to it for that reason not because they
just push the product at you there with the they just flood you with all the information
and images
27 E  Have you seen Boag’s beer ad.?
28 J  the Boag’s Beer?
29 E  you know James Boag’s?
30 J  Oh yeah
31 E  they put it the water [and]
32 J  [Yeah]
33 E  make something better
34 J  they have clever
35 E  Yeah that’s so good
36 J  that’s that’s the thing we see those ads and make us want to buy
37 E  Yeah=
38 J  because we see them not only as having a good beer if it is James Boag but also=
39 E  =But clever people
40 J  but they are clever people and we want to be part of that.
41 E  Yeah definitely.
42 J  But yeah generally excessive advertising is very frustrating because you can
never really escape it’s everywhere you go.

And also ads on medicine we do not much of that, don’t we?

yes, I guess medicine ads unless you are in somewhere since that’s very specific

yeah that’s true.

Um I I think a lot of people have a very strong idea about what medicine they would use. If they had a headache, they go for Panadol because they know the brand. I think, yeah, it is important to people, especially for medicine because it’s not just a CD player, they put them inside the body. They want to know it’s going to work, it’s not a doggy product. Um yeah if you do come across false information on medicine that could be a lot more problematic than false information about something else I suppose but I’m sure that commercials about medicine are pretty well reviewed they will not give you too much

Yeah I do not have the problem with that especially with medicine even like any sort of supplements or anything you want to take I always consult my doctor

Mm

to see it won’t clash with any other medication I’v got I have really got even if I see something advertised I always talked to my doctor before I took it anyway

Mind you that internet advertising medicine is a huge thing

Mm?

there are a lot of spam emails come out all the time they always send you em cheap cheaper prescription medications you can get from overseas and things?

Oh doesn’t it? ((laughs))

Yes every I have seen so many in my spam box saying 99 cents Viagra pills and they got the dodgy substitutes they try to advertise it to you obviously through the internet so it’s obviously not very reliable but I’m sure lots of people have bought supplements or things on the internet through those kinds of emails so I guess that yeah that just goes back to that consumers having to be a bit more clever about it and remembering to research and not too sucked in by the advertising in the commercials

Mm

Ok, excellent.
A Talk 29 (Type 1)

Duration: 7:05 minutes

Topic: What are some of the reasons for individual unemployment?

Speakers: R=researcher; D=David (male); J=Jessica (female)

R: Are you ready?

D: I think so I think the um the major causes for unemployment are we’re going into a like a tough economic situation where we don’t have that many jobs in Australia any more and they’re all been shipped overseas because it’s a lot cheaper to like have um to have jobs over in like India or China where you can have like all your phone operators and all your computer processing kind of done offshore and then it can be download all the information can be downloaded into Australia overnight.

J: Yeah I agree like I said that um obviously the business focus of a company is to maximize profits and minimize costs so therefore ah an easy cost to minimize is um your wages so often outsourcing to the cheaper labor forces in (I ag-) like same thing like you know even just like call centers to India and- and all your manufacturing and things like that off to China um so I agreed on that point.

D: [but]

J: [Um] the other point I thought that was quite important was the poor leadership I thought poor leadership leads to unemployment as um basically leaders can control inflation to facilitate growth and investment and they can manipulate the demand um as well as um they have like different like they implement(ing) wage laws taxes and other regulations that discour- um discourage like all the hiring so um I was thinking even in Australia you have those like um unfair dismissal claims and things like that so often people like um ah business are hesitant in employing people because of unfair dismissal like that they could get like legal implications as a result of that um and another form of leadership which curbs like that would form unemployment is that you can u- you can manipulate your UAI they have like UAI is really high for a certain thing because they don’t need as many people in that certain degree so say they need more nurses they might lower the UAI so therefore more people are ent(ry) into um nursing and things like that

D: Mm that’s true

J: so that’s poor leadership I thought I don’t know what else did you (XXX)?

D: I agree with that but the other part on like um like governments controlling stuff if you know what I mean like political reasons I don’t I don’t really think they control it that much I think it’s more to do with like our impact on like or the the external world’s impact on Australia so like ah America’s like the major like employment ah not employment (n’) like where all the money goes ok so ah China makes the products and they send ‘em to America which is I like the biggest consumer and then China gets all it’s like you know r- raw materials from Australia so we sell them all of our like metal and um we export um coal and what else do we export uranium?

J: Everything all the minerals and stuff.

D: Most of- most of the stuff we export to China. So like at the moment we don’t because er like America’s kind of heading toward recession or they’re in recession ah China’s not producing as much because America’s not spending as much and then we’re not really sending as much to them so I think it’s- it’s not so much what the government’s doing
but it’s more like there is no room like we-

But they’re still leaders

we can’t change it

They’re still leaders like America is leading Australia in that.

Yeah but that’s not because the government,

So it’s poor leadership.

That’s because of

Yeah but it’s just poor leadership in general it’s not necessarily government leadership.

But how how is it their fault America’s fault?

Well uh because they’re swaying like their- their influence over Australia and things like that like

((laughs))

((laughs)) um another point I thought um but this wasn’t on the- the list I thought

Oh that’s good

was an increase in technological changes so basically th- technology is con- rapidly changing always and basically people are unemployed because now machines are taking over their jobs or um IT like um people uh- businesses are really reliant on IT factors so s- even like maybe certain accountants like the data entry people are no longer required and things like that but also the increase in technical changes also changes the demand for certain products so therefore the jobs are kind of d- dependent on the different like changes in technology in that people (will) have different tastes in the products (so) the products will change I don’t know if that make sense? Like yeah

Yeah.

[I] really think that technological changes is a real important factor to why unemployment is now increasing.

Mm yeah I agree with that if you look at the the new Coke factory that’s in Wetherill Park I think it’s fully automated like you back truck up -

Yeah

and a computer will go and pick up all the cases of coke that they need all the bottles and then sh- put it onto the back of a truck and then they drive off and it just prints out a report of what’s on the load and where it’s gotta go. And they have just a bar (code) so all it is is is like 6 people running an entire warehouse that supplies all of Sydney

yeap

and (then) like drivers and that’s it and then you look at um

Just even like they s- Coles sends out like they have like computerized things they just say like ‘inventory’ we need more inventory and it just sends out to the supplier where someone used to would’ve had to send out a purchase order -

Yeah

so that person’s job is now lost as a result of the tech- technology

yeah that’s [true yeah ].

[like improvements] yeah that sort of stuff

yeah

yeah why

even even like um people working like as tellers ah not as tellers as like check-out people like they’ve reduced [that now] because
they don’t have like you know buy 12 items or less you go in this lane it’s self serve
you can go do your own items and they just have one person there who looks after
[six]
[secu]rity and stuff mm yeah
six units.
yeah that’s exactly right so now employment has increased as a result.
Decreased.
Uhm decreased excuse me unemployment um what other things (were) I thinking um I also
kind of did a little bit of research about education
%education%
I just looking at a few websites and they were saying like basically 9 out of 10 uni.
graduates have a job compared with 4 out of 10 like school educated people ONLY so
I thought that that was really interesting and that
Yeah there’s a definite difference between someone who’s got a uni degree that has
and because you’ve got a little piece of paper you can get a job even if that has nothing
to do with what you studied at the uni.
((laughter)) it’s kind of true yeah that’s true
but like I experienced that where I am at the moment like I don’t have a degree I’m
working on getting a degree but ah while I still don’t have a qualification I’m still
still kind of bound to like not becoming management because I’m not seen as having
ah a greater understanding of the real world in some aspects.
you’re restricted yeah
Yeah.
Ok, excellent.
Task: A Talk 30 (Type 2)
Duration: 6:55 minutes
Topic: Are you for or against the statement "Children should plan their study by themselves"?
Speakers: R=Researcher; D=David (male); J=Jessica (female)

01 D Who is starting?=

02 J =OK yeah I THOUGHT to a certain degree (0.5) yes children should plan their own study but to a certain degree NO: (.) because I think children (1.5) at a younger age they found it hard how to motivate themselves and also they don’t actually know their responsibility. I don’t think they can take ownership over their own learning when they are so young. They just do whatever mum tells them to do or they (. ) just choose whatever they think is more fun, (0.3) so I think that (0.5) at a younger age (0.8) I do not believe that (. ) children will actually study in the first place (. ) because of the motivation and (0.3) yeah the whole ownership thing that I was discussing (0.3) and therefore I think that (0.3) parents should have (0.3) some sort of control over that. (0.5) Um (0.6) but after a while I think that (0.6) they should they should like you know (0.3) they should after a while have no (. ) parental kind of contact whatsoever they should actually for like say Year 7 and 9 I think the children should be more (0.6) independent in their study they should actually say (0.5) ‘well I am failing in this and I need to improve in this’ they should kind of (0.9) control how much they know (0.4) and improve on that so they should they kind of manage their own learning I think I think from that age onwards. (0.6) What do you? 

03 D [Um yeah] children I don’t think children can study by themselves because they don’t know the repercussions of not studying (0.6) like I know I certainly didn’t ever study much

J ((laughs))

D but I’m still here I’m still in the university like (0.4) um (1.0) like you do learn from your mistakes (0.3) but it can take you a long time to learn from them. So (0.8) um I don’t think (0.8) like me not studying was a mistake I think it is like a delay (.) making me moving forward (0.8) but um (0.3) it certainly opens different directions for you (1.2) that (0.5) I don’t think (.) parents’ influence on children’s studying is like (0.7) um it all depends on (0.4) the person (0.3) like my parent my (0.3) mum pushed me a lot but like my daddy didn’t (0.7) and (0.6) then if you look at like you know (0.5) um (.) like generalization that people are vested with parents (0.6) you know don’t really care (0.4) er=

04 J =That’s a generalization not parent-vested

05 D yeah I know that’s what I said

06 J Uh ok yeah (0.4)

07 D Like (0.4) pa- parents ok let me rephrase parents don’t really care about their children like you know they don’t want them to go to university they don’t want them to go to college (0.6) they kind of (0.4) um they don’t push their children (0.7) to learn at all they just like you know (.) off you go and play get out of my hand kind of thing

08 J yeah ((laughs))

09 D I don’t want to deal with you and then (0.4) you know their children kind of get into
crimes you know all sorts of stuff like that=

- well they think teaching is enough school is enough,
  [yeah]

- they don’t think they don’t need to sch- homework

- yeah yeah um but in that sense it’s like parents should because parents need to guide their children to what they are doing, it’s like um that’s the way it should go and yeah

- that’s there they need to

well I thought a reason against that children should plan their own study was that I agree with this point that parents know better how to arrange time than their children which first of all I think parents have learned from their own mistakes and I think they had their own experiences and then they can kind of um like you said guide their children depending like on their certain mistakes or experiences. I think there should be parents’ parental input on a child’ study definitely um but then also there was a point saying if children fail they can learn from their failures. I agree to a certain point as well but there are certain children who say like my brother if he fails he’ll just give up. So I think that’s like you know he would just not care any more he would therefore just fail all the time and not care about his study. Whereas other children if they fail they got to ha next time I’m gonna to try so much harder and I am gonna to get a distinction in that I’m gonna do really well. It really depends on the child. So some children they are just lazy if the study is up to themselves, they just won’t study at all I think.

- Yeah

- Its very terrible.

- it can also be like detrimental to children ’cause it starts to if they’re continuously thinking they are failing they are and doesn’t seem like anyone helping them. Then they kind of feeling like the failure there is no point in trying it at all. But like if you look at your brother asking help him kind of he is more interested in doing [the work].

- [more ] motivated yeah with that my brother knows that it is his assignment and now he feels more excited about university or about school excuse me and shows interest in his assignments than before. So I think sometimes someone helping them with their study children helping people helping children with their study, kind of help motivate them to kind of push them harder and things like that.

- That’s definitely an example I think it does help him that but it’s an example

- Yeah he is lazy um ((laughter)) the other thing I did as I went and had a chat with my friend who is doing like primary school teaching in a university, she says that modeling which is particularly important for children at a younger age because they learn by an example so um there is no like I’m saying children can’t study by themselves without examples given to them. So Sometimes when the teacher sits down and encourages and shows how to do something, that’s how they learn, whereas they are not going to be discovering the conclusions themselves, because they find it too hard. So I think children should um have a degree of guidance and shouldn’t plan their own study.

- But if you look like who is responsible for children learning, is it like on the teachers’ or on the parents’?

- Both.
Is it both of them? Because if you look you have a lot of parents work a lot of time, they will go out at 8 in the morning and come back at 8 in the morning, they won’t see their kids.

Yeah, sorry. Like they do not really have impact on their children’s like learning as much as like you know, that is why some students got a tutor in school like I had a tutor, just going through examples and stuff.

You can ask him questions. It’s more like one-and-one, but still not the same relationship with parents because they know their children more intimately and they know how to push them.

Mm I think you definitely need someone to guide children I don’t know how do you define ‘children’ but you need someone to guide them I think. I don’t think children can plan their study by themselves.

If you put in the timetable perspective I think you definitely need someone to guide them as to how to do a timetable because they don’t know how long they need to do fresh things they’re gonna to be like

The concept of time yeah

You don’t really get a concept of that until you finish school by that point oh even like if you study for your school certificate which I think it’s Year 9 to Year 10 is a very big transition where you kind go from child to adolescents because um it’s more on you like children in Year 9 don’t have any concept of what they have to be responsible for they need guidance there but then from Year 10 I think they are older and much mature they start to take over but-

That’s when they should plan their study.

Ok, excellent.
References for Appendices

