(2005) Suzuki, Takash, Koji Matsumoto and Mayumi Usami. An analysis of teaching materials based on New Zealand English conversation in natural settings- Implications for the development of conversation teaching materials-. In Kawaguchi, Yuji, Susumu Zaima, Toshihiro Takagaki, Kohji Shibano and Mayumi Usami. (eds.) *Usage-Based Linguistic Informatics 1: Linguistic informatics -State of the art and the future.* John Benjamins Publishing Company: 295-315. 21頁. 2005年.

An Analysis of Teaching Materials Based on New Zealand English Conversation in Natural Settings – Implications for the Development of Conversation Teaching Materials –

Takashi SUZUKI *(Ferris University)*
Koji MATSUMOTO *(PhD Candidate, Tokyo University of Foreign Studies)*
Mayumi USAMI *(Tokyo University of Foreign Studies)*

1. Introduction

In virtually all the Japanese language textbooks and teaching materials which focus on conversation, most of the target items or skills are presented through non-authentic dialogs that are written specifically for the purpose of teaching those items/skills. Although non-authentic data has its own advantages over authentic data, it has been pointed out that there are considerable disparities between the two kinds of data (NUNAN 1989; 1999), and that being exposed only to non-authentic data can limit or hinder the learning process (NUNAN 1999). The need for studying authentic conversation with consideration to materials development, and incorporating the results of such research into actual teaching materials, has been acknowledged in recent years.

In this context, "Talk That Works" ('TTW' hereafter), a video-based "communication training kit" developed in New Zealand in 2002, deserves attention for two reasons:

1. TTW consists entirely of authentic conversations. Such teaching materials can rarely be found also in English.[1]
2. TTW's video is accompanied by a handbook with notes which are based upon recent research on discourse and communication.

In the present paper, we will first briefly analyze TTW as teaching material and outline what strategies and features of language it focuses on. Our purpose is not so much to evaluate TTW but rather to determine what it has that conventional textbooks with non-authentic dialogs do not.

[1] Other teaching materials of this kind include CRYSTAL AND DAVY (1975) and SLADE AND NORRIS (1986).

Next, we would like to consider the implications of the analysis of authentic data for the development of teaching materials. Since TTW is communication-training material targeted at higher-level learners, we need to examine whether, and in what ways, the analysis of authentic data can be beneficial to the development of conversation teaching materials in general, including those for lower-level learners. For this purpose, we will use the recorded conversations in TTW as data, and analyze them focusing on some of the basic functions realized there.

2. The foci of TTW as teaching material

In this section, we will outline what skills or aspects of language are focused on as study objectives in TTW. For the sake of simplicity, we refer to teaching materials consisting mostly of specially written dialogs as "conventional textbooks/materials", although we recognize that there are such materials whose dialogs are based on extensive research and resemble natural interactions closely.

In the teacher's handbook, TTW lists two groups of objectives: (1) Focus on communication and (2) Focus on discourse features, which are featured in the first half (Part I and II) and the second half (Part III) of the video respectively. The first part of the video is expected to provide learners with insights into effective communication at a macro-level and deals with such aspects of language as communication strategies and communication styles. For example, these issues are explored in Part I and II: "What is effective communication? How does the way we communicate affect workplace culture and relationships? What strategies do people use to get others to do things at work or to avoid miscommunication? How do different communication styles and processes affect the way a [factory] team work?" (STUBBE AND BROWN 2002: 3)

The second part of the video (Part III) focuses on "language and communication at the micro-level of discourse and pragmatics" (ibid.). The corresponding section in the handbook includes notes on such aspects of language as discourse processes (e.g. turn/floor taking, topic management, the joint negotiation of meaning, the joint construction of humor), pragmatic/discourse features (e.g. fillers, feedback, hedges, discourse markers), politeness strategies (e.g. indirect language, implicatures, getting people to do things), clarification and repair strategies, as well as non-verbal features and features of spoken language such as colloquial vocabulary, repetition and incomplete sentences.

Apart from non-verbal and colloquial features, we can categorize most of the study objectives in TTW as interactive linguistic behavior. Communication strategies, for example, involve more than one participant by definition, and so do such linguistic behavior as turn/floor taking, feedback, the joint negotiation of meaning, and the joint construction of humor.

While conventional textbooks tend to focus more on the production of linguistic forms on the speaker's side, TTW emphasizes the interactive nature of conversation by directing learners' attention to such linguistic behavior. To take one example, in the notes on discourse features of a recorded conversation, TTW handbook makes a reference to the minimal feedback given by one of the participants and provides the following explanation.

> Gordon has a calm, unobtrusive manner, and makes extensive use here of minimal feedback (*eg. yep, right*) both of which function to encourage Michael to keep talking. (STUBBE AND BROWN 2002: 31)

Suggestions of this kind on how to listen actively and effectively are not commonly found in the majority of conventional conversation textbooks/materials, in which "listening" tends to be regarded as passive retrieval of information.

Though it may be also possible for conventional textbooks to focus on the interactive aspect of conversation, this will require the designing of non-authentic dialogs that effectively represent the characteristic features of authentic conversations including the interactive elements. This will in turn require not only great care and effort on the part of textbook/materials developers, but also detailed and extensive research on natural interaction, especially the kind of research which takes materials development into consideration.

To conclude, by analyzing and incorporating authentic conversations, TTW offers an interactive view of conversation and also study objectives based on such a perspective, which conventional textbooks have largely failed to include.

3. Analysis of the authentic data in TTW

In this section, we will analyze the authentic data in TTW and seek implications for the development of conversation teaching materials.

3.1 Purpose

As we saw in the previous section, TTW offers a kind of objectives which are difficult to include in conventional textbooks/materials and therefore it is likely to be a valuable tool for learners who wish to improve their conversation skills in English. According to the handbook, however, TTW is intended to be used with "people who already speak English well" (STUBBE AND BROWN 2002: 2), or intermediate to advanced level ESL/EFL students.

In fact, most of the study objectives and items focused on in TTW are either those at the global level of communication or those related to meta-communication; TTW does not elaborate on more basic skills that are essential to lower-level learners, such as how to perform basic speech/discourse acts (e.g. "giving a direction", "stating an opinion" etc.). We need to examine how the analysis of authentic data can be beneficial to the development of conversation textbooks/materials in general including those for lower-level learners.[2]

As a sample of ESL/EFL conversation teaching materials targeted at lower-level learners, we will take up the English Dialog Module in the TUFS Language Modules, which is currently under development at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies as part of the 21st Century COE Project on Usage-Based Linguistic Informatics[3]. The TUFS English Dialog Module ('the D-Module' hereafter) is web-based learning materials with an emphasis on conversation, targeted at young-age, elementary-level learners. It is based on a notional functional syllabus, which is a type of syllabus widely used in conversation textbooks/materials including more recent versions adapted to incorporate more "communicative" elements. In the D-Module, a typical unit includes the target function (e.g. "Asking about time"), a non-authentic dialog, and comprehension exercises. The dialog and exercises feature the linguistic forms learners need to master in order to carry out the target function.

Using the notional functional syllabus of the D-Module as a point of reference, we will now analyze the authentic conversations featured in TTW.[4] Specifically, we will investigate how some of the functions featured in the D-Module are realized in the authentic data in TTW and seek implications for the development of conversation textbooks/materials. Although we occasionally refer to the D-Module for comparison, our intention is not to evaluate it as teaching material, but rather to find how the analysis of authentic data can contribute to the development of teaching materials in general.

3.2 Data

Our data consists of 21 conversations included in TTW video clips, totaling 11 minutes and 25 seconds of talk. The number of participants and the topics in each conversation were not controlled. The participants are all members of factory teams in New Zealand and they include team members (factory workers) and team managers. Most but not all of the topics of the conversations are directly related to their work.[5] In the TTW video, some of the conversations are repeated in more than one section, but we only used one of the segments for analysis.

Although the TTW handbook contains scripts of all the video clips, we re-transcribed the data using the Basic Transcription System for English ('BTSE' hereafter) (USAMI 2003b). BTSE is a transcription system still in its trial stage, but has the following advantages for our analytical needs:

1. BTSE is based on "discourse sentences" rather than other units such as phrasal or intonation units. Although prosodic and pragmatic factors are also considered in the segmentation process, a "discourse sentence" is primarily a syntactically defined "sentence".[6] This facilitates comparisons between data in the BTSE format and other sentence-based data, such as dialogs in textbooks.
2. BTSE makes use of spreadsheet software (e.g. Microsoft Excel) and therefore it is suitable for quantitative analysis as well as qualitative analysis.
3. BTSE is an adapted version of the Basic Transcription System for Japanese (BTSJ) (USAMI 1997, 2002, and 2003a). Having the TTW English data in the BTSE format will enable cross-linguistic studies in the future.

Using BTSE, we re-transcribed the 21 conversations in TTW, referring to the transcripts in the handbook for unfamiliar names, unclear contexts, etc.

In transcribing authentic conversations using BTSE, one issue that needs particular attention is how to secure reliability of transcription, especially that of the segmentation of aural data into discourse sentences. We recognize that the segmentation of spoken language into sentences is a more compli-

[2] In the following sections, we will limit our discussions to the analysis of authentic data, rather than the actual incorporation of it in teaching materials, although the latter will likely be a logical step if the former proves to be feasible.

[3] Our discussion of the English D-Module is based on a trial version we obtained from the D-Module development team (led by Dr. Asako Yoshitomi) in June 2003. We would like to express our sincere gratitude to the development team for generously providing us with the material and giving us permission to use it for this study.

[4] In this and the following sections, the recorded conversations in TTW will be treated purely as conversational data for our analysis, rather than as part of teaching material they are meant to be.

[5] TTW also includes interviews with team managers but we excluded them from our data since the purpose of our study is to analyze "natural interaction" and consider its implications for materials development; interviews seem to be a rather unusual form of interaction in most people's daily lives.

[6] A "discourse sentence" is defined as follows: In actual conversation, backchannels indicating attention, agreement and so forth, as well as incomplete sentences, occur frequently. Also, there are cases in which words, though grammatically only a single word, fulfill a substantive function within the conversation. Our definition of "discourse sentences" includes "single word sentences" and incomplete sentences, as well as structurally complete sentences uttered by the same speaker, even when backchannels are used, or speakers briefly alternate. However, expressions such as "let's see", which are used as fillers, are not counted as independent discourse sentences unless they are uttered in isolation, even though they are structurally complete sentences.

cated task compared with that of written language. For this reason, we checked the intercoder reliability of sentence segmentation using a portion of the data, and obtained a kappa of 0.890.[7]

3.3 Methods

This section describes the methods and procedures we used to select the functions for analysis, to identify the realizations of them in the data, and to code the ways in which they are realized.

3.3.1 Selection of functions for analysis

Our purpose here is to examine how the functions featured in the D-Module are realized in the authentic conversations in TTW. In order to include a qualitative aspect in our study, we limited our analysis to the following seven functions which appeared frequently in the TTW data, out of the 40 featured in the D-Module.[8]

<ASKING FOR INFORMATION (ABOUT ATTRIBUTES)>, <STATING AN OPINION>, <MAKING A COMPARISON>, <GIVING A REASON>, <GIVING A DIRECTION>, <GIVING AN EXAMPLE>, and <GIVING ADVICE>.

3.3.2 Coding of functions and its reliability

The identification of functions in authentic data can become a highly subjective process if the criteria for identification are not articulated. For this reason, we first operationalized the seven functions with clear definitions and examples. Below are our definitions of the functions. (The definitions refer to "a discourse sentence in/with which the function is realized".)

<ASKING FOR INFORMATION (ABOUT ATTRIBUTES)>

A discourse sentence in which the speaker asks about attributes of a person or an object. An attribute is defined as a quality which can be found usually, normally, or for a long period of time, and it does not include a temporary state or such appearance.

[7] Two coders, one of whom is a native speaker of English, independently identified discourse sentences in a portion of the data, and then compared the results using Cohen's kappa as an index. When Cohen's kappa is used to evaluate intercoder reliability, a value of over 0.850 is generally considered satisfactory when the coding is of a mechanical nature, which is the case with sentence segmentation. (See BAKEMAN AND GOTTMAN 1986 and NISHIGORI 2002 for discussion.)

[8] These functions appeared in more than three discourse sentences out of the total of 291 (1.0%) in a sample data set.

<STATING AN OPINION>

A discourse sentence in which the speaker makes an assertion, judgment, projection, or evaluation. Statements which do not involve the speaker's judgment at all, such as a plain fact (i.e. the speaker believes that the truthfulness of the statement is obvious to the hearer), or a report of hearsay, and a pure expression of feelings/emotions are not included in this category. Directions from a person in a higher position are not included, but advice and suggestions are.

<MAKING A COMPARISON>

A discourse sentence in which the speaker discusses the differences/similarities or merits/demerits of two or more objects, persons, or situations etc.

<GIVING A REASON>

A discourse sentence in which the speaker states the cause of an event, emotion or situation, the motive for an action, or the basis for a decision or belief.

<GIVING A DIRECTION>

A discourse sentence in which a person in a higher position tells a person in a lower position to do something and has the expectation that this will be done. If the speaker does not have this expectation (i.e. a rejection from the hearer will not be considered non-normative), the discourse sentence will be categorized as <GIVING ADVICE>, <MAKING A SUGGESTION>, <MAKING A REQUEST>, etc., and will not be coded as having this function.

<GIVING AN EXAMPLE>

A discourse sentence in which the speaker talks about an item/items or a person/persons which belong(s) to a group or a type. The item/person is typical or representative of the group or type which the speaker is making an assertion or a judgment about, or describing.

<GIVING ADVICE>

A discourse sentence in which the speaker gives the hearer information that (the speaker believes) the hearer does not have, or recommends doing something, believing that such information or action will be for the hearer's benefit. In case a person in a higher position is forcing a person in a lower position to take a certain action, it will be coded as <GIVING A DIRECTION> rather than <GIVING ADVICE>.

After giving the functions these definitions and examples[9], two coders independently identified the discourse sentences with one or more of the

[9] Examples are not provided here for lack of space.

seven functions in the TTW data and compared the results.[10] Using 41.3% of the data as a sample, we measured the intercoder reliability and obtained a Cohen's kappa of 0.761.[11]

3.3.3 Coding of form-function relationships

After we extracted all the discourse sentences in the data in which one or more of the seven functions we selected are realized, we examined how the functions are realized there. Focusing on form-function relationships, we coded these discourse sentences as either of the following.

Type-1: One of the seven functions is realized in the discourse sentence and is accompanied by a corresponding linguistic form.
Type-2: One of the seven functions is realized in the discourse sentence but is not accompanied by any of the corresponding linguistic forms for that function.

We defined "a corresponding linguistic form" as "a linguistic form featured in the D-Module to represent the function"[12] or "a linguistic form which is considered to represent the function from its literal meaning or conventional usage". After defining corresponding linguistic forms as above, we also coded the discourse sentences which fit the following description.

Type 3: One of the corresponding linguistic forms is present in the discourse sentence but not the function itself.

3.4 Results

We show the results related to Type-1 & Type-2 first (3.4.1 & 3.4.2), followed by those related to Type-3 (3.4.3).

3.4.1 Overall distribution of Type-1 & Type-2 discourse sentences

Figure-1 shows the overall distribution of Type-1 (a discourse sentence with one of the seven functions realized with a corresponding linguistic form) and Type-2 (a discourse sentence with one of the seven functions realized without a corresponding linguistic form) among all the discourse sentences in which one of the seven functions is realized.

[10] When more than one function is present in a discourse sentence, the sentence was coded separately for each function. For this reason, the total number of sentences with the seven functions is calculated to be larger than that of the actual number of such sentences.

[11] This is above the standard (k = 0.7) generally considered satisfactory for this kind of coding, which inevitably involves subjective judgment by the coders (NISHIGORI 2002).

[12] The D-Module features "adjectives" as one of the forms to be used to "state an opinion". However, we excluded "adjectives" from our list of "corresponding linguistic forms" since they are such a generic category that the link between the form and the function seems to be much weaker compared with the other forms.

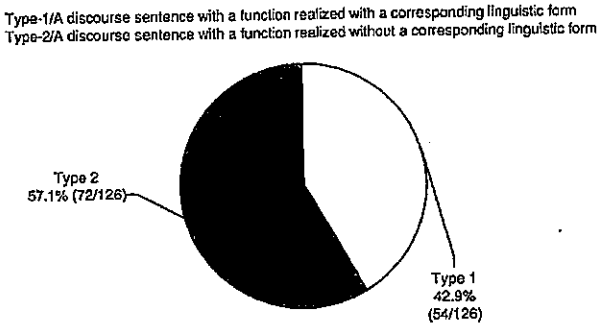

Figure 1: Distribution of Type 1 & 2 among the discourse sentences with the 7 functions

As we can see from Figure-1, more than half (57.1%) of the discourse sentences in which one of the seven functions is realized are not accompanied by any of the linguistic forms corresponding to that function.

3.4.2 Realizations of the seven functions

In this sub-section, we show how the seven functions are realized in the TTW data.

Table 1- How the seven functions are realized

The numbers after each linguistic form indicate the number of times each form appears in the TTW data. The linguistic forms in bold are those featured most prominently in the D-Module unit for that function.[13] (e.g. In the D-Module's unit for <ASKING FOR INFORMATION (ABOUT ATTRIBUTES)>, interrogative sentences with "BE", such as "Is this/that -?", are the linguistic forms featured most prominently.

[13] Which linguistic form is featured the most prominently in the D-Module was judged based on our observation.

<ASKING FOR INFORMATION (ABOUT ATTRIBUTES)>

TYPE-1	**Interrogative Sentences with "*BE*"**	*Is this/that -?*	4	5 (45%)
	Interjections	*eh*	1	
TYPE-2	No corresponding linguistic form		6	6 (54%)
Total			11 (100%)	

<STATING AN OPINION>

TYPE-1	Modals	*can/could, have (got) to, shall/ should, will/would, be going to*	13	20 (28%)
	think/hope etc.	*think, hope, bet*	4	
	(Dis)Agreement Backchannels	*yes, yeah, why not?*	3	
TYPE-2	No corresponding linguistic form		52 (72%)	
Total			72 (100%)	

<MAKING A COMPARISON>

TYPE-1	**Comparatives**	*better, lower*	2	2 (67%)
TYPE-2	No corresponding linguistic form		1	1 (33%)
Total			3 (100%)	

<GIVING A REASON>

TYPE-1	**Conjunctions**	*because, cos, so that*	9	11 (69%)
	Prepositions/Prep. Phrase	*thanks to,*	1	
	Infinitives	*to soften up*	1	
TYPE-2	No corresponding linguistic form		5 (31%)	
Total			16 (100%)	

< GIVING A DIRECTION>

TYPE-1	**Imperatives**	*Keep going, Make sure*	10	12 (71%)
	Modals	*have (got) to, be supposed to*	2	
TYPE-2	No corresponding linguistic form		5 (29%)	
Total			17 (100%)	

< GIVING AN EXAMPLE>

TYPE-1	**Prepositions**	*like -*	2	2 (67%)
TYPE-2	No corresponding linguistic form		1	1 (33%)
Total			3 (100%)	

< GIVING ADVICE>

TYPE-1	Imperatives	*Smile, Ask*	2	2 (50%)
TYPE-2	No corresponding linguistic form		2	2 (50%)
Total			4(100%)	

For <GIVING ADVICE>, the D-Module features "*You should/had better*", which does not appear in the TTW data.

3.4.3 Ratio of Type-3 among all discourse sentences

Figure-2 shows the ratio of Type-3 discourse sentences among the total number of discourse sentences.

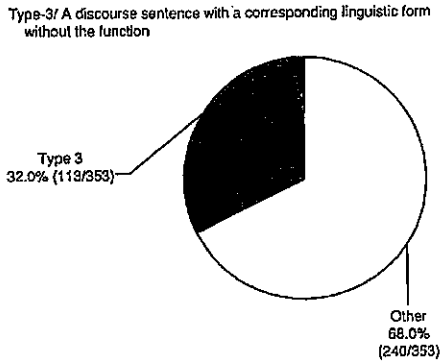

Figure 2: Ratio of Type 3 among all discourse sentences

As we can see from Figure-2, in about one third (113/353 = 32.0%) of the discourse sentences in our data, one or more of the corresponding linguistic forms are present, but not the function which the form corresponds to.

4. Analysis

In this section, we analyze each type of discourse sentences, focusing particularly on Types-2 & 3.

4.1 Functions realized with corresponding linguistic forms (Type-1)

As we saw in Figure-1, among the 126 examples where the seven functions are realized in our TTW data, 54 (42.9%) are accompanied by corresponding linguistic forms. We can see in Table-1 that most of the linguistic forms featured most prominently in the D-Module are also used in the TTW data. Although this is not clear from Table-1, on the whole, wider ranges of linguistic forms and their variants are used for each function in the TTW data than in the D-Module.

4.2 Functions realized without corresponding linguistic forms (Type-2)

As we saw in Figure-1, among the 126 cases where one of the seven functions is realized in TTW, 72 (57.1%) are not accompanied by any corresponding linguistic forms. As it is this kind of example that conventional textbooks/materials have failed to give much attention to, we would like to

take a close look at some of these cases and examine how the functions are realized without the existence of any corresponding forms.

4.2.1 <ASKING FOR INFORMATION (ABOUT ATTRIBUTES)>

As Table-1 shows, out of the 11 examples of this function, six (54%) are realized without corresponding linguistic forms. Here we show two examples. (See Appendix for key to transcription symbols.)

<Example 1> W: Team member, G: Team manager
(W points to the paper G is holding. 'Congo' is a color name.)

1	*	**W**	**Some of it is congo?. [↑]** <ASKING FOR INFORMATION (ABOUT ATTRIBUTES)>
2	*	G	Congo.
3	*	W	Congo.

<Example 2> L: Team manager, C: Team member
(L has just come to C's station where she is sewing shoe parts, and starts talking to her. 'Jayne' is a style name of shoes.)

1	*	L	Yeah Jayne, you got any urgent ones here?. [↑]
2	*	C	Nah.
3	*	L	All finished?. [↑]
4	*	**L**	**That a trial line?. [↑]** <ASKING FOR INFORMATION (ABOUT ATTRIBUTES)>
5	*	C	Yeah a trial line.
6	*	L	Oh yeah okay well that's urgent anyhow.

Neither line 1 in example 1, nor line 4 in example 2, is equipped with grammatical or lexical clues to indicate that they are questions asking for "information about attributes". However, we can see this function is realized in those lines from the way the other parties respond in the following lines. (Line 2 and line 5, respectively.)

As Table-1 shows, there are six examples of this function realized without corresponding linguistic forms (Type-2). Not only are these examples all produced with a rising intonation, but they are all produced in a situation where the participants can actually see the object being discussed. This transparency of context is apparently contributing to the syntactic simplicity and terseness of these discourse sentences, enabling them to be produced and interpreted as "asking for information about attributes" even without formal clues.

Among the six Type-2 examples, there are also three that are produced directly after another question or after a question-answer sequence. In these cases, the participants can be considered to be already attuned to the context in which one is asking the other a question. This can also account for the absence of corresponding linguistic forms in these discourse sentences.

Thus, we can say that it is thanks to the interplay of prosodic features, physical context, and discourse context, that this function is realized in the six Type-2 examples of <ASKING FOR INFORMATION (ABOUT ATTRIBUTES)>.

4.2.2 <GIVING A REASON>

As Table-1 shows, out of the 16 examples of this function, five (31.3%) are realized without corresponding linguistic forms. Here we show two of such examples.

<Example 3> L: Team manager, S: Team member
(L notices S is wearing gloves while he is at work.)

1	*	L	And what's with the gloves?.
2	*	**S**	**Don't want to get my hands dirty. [Smiling]** <GIVING A REASON>
3	*	L	Don't want to ruin your manicure. [Smiling] <GIVING A REASON>

<Example 4> R: Team member, J: Team manager
(J comes over to talk to R. R asks him if she can take a smoke break.)

1	*	R	<Can I>{>} , can I go for a smoko?.
2	*	J	Uh... , have you been good?.
3	*	R	Oh yes.
4	*	J	Give me a reason why.
5	*	**R**	**Um finished the run for the day.** <GIVING A REASON>
6	*	R	# finished # tomorrow. <GIVING A REASON>[14]
7	*	J	Yeah it's pretty hard.
8	*	R	<Why?>{<}.
9	*	J	<Yeah alright>{>}.

In line 1 in example 3, L asks S why he is wearing gloves. To this, S replies in line 2 "Don't want to get my hands dirty", providing a reason with-

[14] This discourse sentence is coded as <GIVING A REASON> based on possible reconstructions of the discourse sentence, such as "Almost finished for tomorrow".

out any corresponding linguistic forms such as "because". In line 4 in example 4, J asks R (jokingly) why she thinks she deserves a smoke break now. To this, R gives a reason in line 5 "Um finished the run for the day", again without any corresponding linguistic forms. What these two discourse sentences (line 2 in example 3 and line 5 in example 4) have in common is the context in which one participant is explicitly demanding a reason as an answer. Since this context will enable almost any kind of reply by the other participant to be produced and interpreted as "a reason", the discourse sentences are freed from the necessity of explicit corresponding forms.

It is interesting to note that in both examples, additional reasons are given again without corresponding linguistic forms in the following lines (line 3 in example 3 and line 6 in example 4). As we saw with questions produced directly after another question-answer sequence (4.2.1), the participants here are already attuned to the existing context where reasons are being provided. In these discourse sentences too, discourse context is an essential factor for the functions to be realized.

4.2.3 <STATING AN OPINION>

As Table-1 shows, out of the 72 examples of this function, 52 (72.2%) are realized without corresponding linguistic forms. Here is one example.

<Example 5> L: Team manager, A: Team member
(L is leading a team meeting.)

1 * L So um that's about that's about it from me.
2 * L Does anybody uh want to bring anything up ###?.
(OMISSION THREE LINES)
6 * L Come on <anybody>{<}.
7 * A **<Just let>{>} them know that we've got two styles that running out. <STATING AN OPINION>**
8 * A They are all urgent. <STATING AN OPINION>
9 * A <And they running out>{<}.
10 * L <Oh yeah that's right>{>} yeah.

In example 5, the imperative form, which we designated as a corresponding linguistic form for <GIVING A DIRECTION> and <GIVING ADVICE>, is used in line 7. However, since speaker A works under L, and the content of the discourse sentence is directly related to their work, which is under L's authority, the function of A's discourse sentence cannot be <GIVING A DIRECTION>. Neither can it be "advice" since the discourse sentence is not produced for L's benefit. Since A is making an assertion based on her judgment, the function of this discourse sentence is coded as <STATING AN OPINION> according to our definitions.

Notice this discourse sentence does not have any formal clues such as "I think" or "-should" to indicate that it is "an opinion". It is, however, produced after an explicit demand from the meeting leader asking for contribution from the members. Although she is not specifically demanding an opinion rather than other kinds of comments, contributions from non-leading members at a meeting are usually limited to a fairly restricted range of comments including opinions. Therefore we can say that the situation in lines 6 to 7 is similar, in terms of discourse context, to the situation where one participant is explicitly demanding a reason from the other and where any response is likely to be treated as one (See 4.2.2).

Although what follows is a Type-1 example rather than Type-2, let us discuss it here as it concerns the absence of corresponding linguistic forms for this function.

<Example 6> L: Team manager, B: Team member
(L is leading a meeting.)

1 * L = But there's been some health and safety people monitoring the dust levels and the fumes with the um solvent and glue, you know.
2 * B Did they also ### do the noise?.
3 * B She asked, ###### uh... she, she asked about um that it's a bit noisy.
4 * **L Oh I think they were doing the noise.= <STATING AN OPINION>**
5 * L =I put a I put a uh question mark beside noise because I wasn't absolutely certain.

Many learners of English will probably associate the function <STATING AN OPINION> with the form "I think", which is arguably the linguistic form most frequently taught in textbooks and classrooms for this function. It is therefore interesting to note that there are only four cases of this function realized with "I think", "I hope" etc. in our TTW data (4/72 examples = 5.6%), with the exact form "I think" appearing only once.[15]

Moreover, in the single case in which "I think" is used in its literal form, this linguistic form appears to be used to add a different note to the quality of the opinion being stated, specifically "uncertainty". In example 6, when L talks about "health and safety people" checking the dust and fumes in the

[15] The other three examples are "I thought", "I hope" and "I bet".

factory, one of the workers, B, asks if they were also checking the noise level. L answers to this in line 4 with "I think", but then adds in line 5 that she wasn't "absolutely certain". In this example, L is using the linguistic form "I think" but is not stating her opinion with total confidence. On the contrary, the linguistic form "I think" appears to be used to show a certain degree of uncertainty or lack of confidence in the speaker's judgment, rather than to simply state an opinion.

In sum, in our TTW data, "opinions" are stated more frequently without a corresponding linguistic form. The linguistic form "I think" is rarely used to realize this function in our data, and when it is, it appears to be used to add an element of uncertainty to the opinion being presented.

4.3 Corresponding linguistic forms not representing the seven functions (Type3)

As we saw in Figure-2 in 3.4.3, 113 out of the 353 discourse sentences (32.0%) in our TTW data include one or more of the corresponding linguistic forms for the seven functions but not the functions themselves. This is not surprising considering many of these linguistic forms can also be used with functions other than the ones to which we assigned them. Although what function can be realized using a particular linguistic form may be dependent on various factors, let us show one case where an important factor is the global context in which the discourse sentence is situated.

We designated "yes" and other backchannels as linguistic forms corresponding to the function <STATING AN OPINION>; when used directly after another participant's opinion or judgment, backchannels function this way.[16] In the following example, however, the backchannel in line 2 is used with a different function.

<Example 7> L: Team manager, D: Team member
(L is telling D a story about her experience over the weekend.)

1	*	L	###, we we went out for dinner on Friday night [↑].
2	*	D	Yeah. ~~<STATING AN OPINION>~~
3	*	L	With Barry [↑].
4	*	L	And he was pretending to be the king of Tonga [↑]. (< laugh >)

In this example, L is starting to tell a story about her personal experience,

[16] We categorized this function as <STATING AN OPINION> because "Agreeing/Disagreeing" are not on the 40-function list of the D-Module.

which is clear from the way she lists the typical components of a narrative opening (the place, time, people involved, etc.) and how she uses a rising intonation in line 1. Since the discourse sentence in line 1 includes virtually no element of "opinion" or "judgment" of the speaker, D's discourse sentence in line 2 cannot be interpreted as having the function <STATING AN OPINION>. If we look at the way L continues her talk in lines 3-4, it is clear that "yeah" in line 2 functions as a "continuer" (SCHEGLOFF 1982), which signals L to keep the floor, rather than as a sign of agreement.

The actual function that can be realized with a backchannel may be dependent on several factors, including intonation, its location relative to the other participant's utterance, etc. An important factor in this example, however, seems to be its global context, which is storytelling performed by the other participant. Since storytellers tend to provide factual information pertaining to the story at the beginning of a narrative (LABOV 1972), rather than state their opinions, we can say that backchannels used in this context more often function as a continuer than as a sign of agreement.

In this way, corresponding linguistic forms may be used with different functions depending on the global contexts in which they are situated.

5. Conclusions: Implications for the development of conversation teaching materials

What we found through our analyses can be summarized as follows. We hope these findings can, and will, be applied to the development of conversation teaching materials in the future.

5.1 Choice of linguistic forms or patterns to be featured in conversation teaching materials

We saw in Table-1 that "I think", a linguistic form commonly taught in conversation textbooks/materials for the function <STATING AN OPINION>, is rarely used for this function in our authentic data. The use of "I think" can even suggest uncertainty of the speaker as we saw in example 6. Although we should not make sweeping generalizations based solely on our database, we can at least claim that the choice of linguistic forms to be presented in conversation teaching materials should be based on research on authentic conversations so that it will reflect what kind of linguistic forms are, or are not, used frequently to carry out the target functions in natural interactions.

5.2 The importance of contextual information

As we saw in 4.2.1 and 4.2.2, some functions are realized in different ways depending on their discourse context. For example, although many

conversation textbooks/materials present "Why-?" and "Because- " as a paired sequence, "because" is not always used to give a reason in our data, especially in a context where a reason is explicitly demanded (4.2.2). We also saw that backchannels used in the context of storytelling are more likely to function as a continuer than as a sign of agreement (4.3). This kind of fairly simple contextual knowledge can, and should, be introduced to learners from an early stage; it will help learners carry out the functions in more authentic ways and understand in what kind of context a certain linguistic form is used for a particular function.

5.3 Form-function mappings

In many conversation textbooks/materials, especially those based on a notional functional syllabus, the focus is on the mappings of forms to functions, i.e. what linguistic form(s) learners should use in order to carry out a particular function. In our data, however, we saw that functions can often be realized without a corresponding linguistic form (4.2), or with a linguistic form often used for another function (4.2.3). These results suggest that the mappings of functions to linguistic forms have to be presented with care in conversation textbooks/materials. In 4.2.3 for example, we saw how the imperative form can be used to <STATE AN OPINION>, in a certain context. Those learners who think of imperatives as a linguistic form used exclusively to "give directions/advice" may have difficulty learning how to state opinions, or how to use the imperative form for different functions. Thus, placing too much emphasis on form-function mappings in conversation textbooks/materials could hinder the learning process and must be avoided. Learners should be exposed to various ways in which functions can be realized flexibly with different linguistic forms, or without any linguistic forms, in authentic conversations.

By first analyzing TTW as teaching material, and then analyzing the authentic conversations in TTW as data, we hope to have demonstrated that the analysis of natural interactions can contribute to the development of conversation teaching materials for learners of various levels. Since functions are often realized through context without corresponding linguistic forms in authentic conversations, we believe that learners should be exposed to authentic data displaying such examples from an early stage. A possible extension of this study would be to expand the range of functions to be analyzed and to include a kind of authentic data whose context is closer to that of the dialogs in the conversation textbook/material under development. This will allow us to apply the findings of the analysis of authentic conversations more directly to materials development.

Appendix / Key to Transcription Symbols

Among the symbols used in BTSE, only those relevant for this paper are listed here.

. (period)	The end of a discourse sentence. A period is added also after a question mark.
*	An asterisk shows that a discourse sentence ends in that line.
,	Commas are used where they are conventionally placed to facilitate reading.
...	Hesitant tone.
?	A question mark is used at the end of a question. This mark is used if the discourse sentence is judged to function as a question from its intonation etc., even if it does not have the syntactic features of a question.
[↑]	Rising intonation.
< >{< }	Section of speech which is overlapped by another speaker's speech.
< >{> }	Section of speech which overlaps another speaker's speech.
( )	A short backchannel without a particular meaning is placed in brackets with the other speaker's discourse sentence.
<laugh>	Laugh.
(<laugh>)	Laugh overlapping another speaker's speech. (Placed with the other speaker's discourse sentence.)
[ ]	Paralinguistic or non-verbal features.
###	Untranscribable or incomprehensible speech. The number of # indicates the relative length of that section of speech.
=	No or shorter-than-average pause between discourse sentences.

References

BAKEMAN, R. AND GOTTMAN, J. M. 1986: *Observing interaction: an introduction to sequential analysis*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

CRYSTAL, D. AND DAVY, D. 1975: *Advanced Conversational English*. Longman, London.

LABOV, W. 1972: *Language in the inner city*. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia.

NISHIGORI, J. 2002: "Shizenkaiwa-data GUUZEN NO SHOTAIMEN no kokai -sono hohoron ni tsuite- [Public release of the authentic conversational data THE ACCIDENTAL ACQUAINTANCE -The methodology-]" *Jimbungaku-ho* 330.1-18

NUNAN, D. 1989: *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cam-

bridge University Press, Cambridge.

NUNAN, D. 1999: "Authenticity in Language Teaching", New Routes 5, http://www.disal.com.br/html/nroutes/nr5

SCHEGLOFF, E. 1982: "Discourse as an interactional achievement: Some uses of 'uh huh' and other things that come between sentences". In TANNEN, D (ed.), *Analyzing Discourse: Text and Talk*, 71-93. Georgetown University Press, Washington D.C.

SLADE, D. AND NORRIS, L. 1986: *Teaching Casual Conversation: Topics, Strategies and Interactional Skills*. National Curriculum Resource Centre, Adelaide.

STUBBE, M AND BROWN, P. 2002: *Handbook for Talk That Works: Communication in Successful Factory Teams - Resource materials and notes to accompany the video*. Language in the Workplace Project, School of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies, Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington.

USAMI, M. 1997: "Kihonteki na mojika no gensoku (Basic Transcription System for Japanese: BTSJ) no kaihatsu ni tsuite [On the development of the Basic Transcription System for Japanese: BTSJ]" in J. NISHIGORI (Chief Researcher), *Nihonjin no danwa kodo no script/strategy no kenkyu to multimedia kyozai no shisaku [Studies on the scripts/strategies in discoursal behavior of Japanese speakers and on the trial development of multimedia teaching materials] - Heisei7-8 Mombusho Kagaku Kenkyuhi Hojokin Kiban Kenkyu (C)(2) - Kenkyu seika hokokusho [Heisei 7-8 research report for Scientific Research (C) (2) funded by Grants in Aid for Scientific Research]*:12-26

USAMI, M. 2002: *Discourse Politeness in Japanese Conversation: Some Implications for a Universal Theory of Politeness*. Hitsuji Syobo, Tokyo.

USAMI, M. 2003a: "Kaiteiban: kihonteki na mojika no gensoku (Basic Transcription System for Japanese: BTSJ) [A revised version: Basic Transcription System for Japanese :BTSJ]" in M. USAMI (Chief Researcher), *Tabunka kyosei shakai ni okeru ibunka communication kyoiku no tame no kisoteki kenkyu [Core research for the education in cross-cultural communication in the multicultural society] - Heisei13-14 Mombusho Kagaku Kenkyuhi Hojokin Kiban Kenkyu (C)(2) - Kenkyu seika hokokusho [Heisei 13-14 research report for Scientific Research (C) (2) funded by Grants in Aid for Scientific Research]*:4-21

USAMI, M. 2003b: "Eigo (New Zealand) no nishakan-kaiwa - BTSE (Basic Transcription System for English :BTSE) shisakuban-rei [Dyads in English (New Zealand) - A trial version of BTSE (Basic Transcription System for English)]" in M. USAMI (Chief Researcher), *Tabunka kyosei shakai ni okeru ibunka communication kyoiku no tame no kisoteki kenkyu*

[Core research for the education in cross-cultural communication in the multicultural society] - Heisei13-14 Mombusho Kagaku Kenkyuhi Hojokin Kiban Kenkyu (C)(2) - Kenkyu seika hokokusho [Heisei 13-14 research report for Scientific Research (C) (2) funded by Grants in Aid for Scientific Research]:Shiryoshu [Appendix] 113-115