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## ABSTRACT

The current study examines discourse strategies used by undergraduate students in a college English-medium seminar debate class within the framework of Conversation Analysis. The debate is one of the conflict talks whose main activity is agreements and disagreements, primarily focusing on bi-party interaction. Thus far, discourse strategies in a debate class have rarely been studied. Compared to the previous studies, this study, in particular, investigates discourse strategies that students use in an English-medium content class. The study also treats multi-party interactions focusing on how students show disagreements in terms of the discourse patterns holding the interactional perspectives.

The data for this study consists of nine English-medium classes, which are audio-recorded then transcribed. The class is an English-mediated seminar debate class, which includes two students' presentations and a group debate. It is one of the mandatory courses for students who are going to major/minor in the social science in the department of the College of Liberal Studies at one of the universities in Seoul. Each class lasts for 75 minutes and nine classes are collected. The participants are twenty-two Korean students with various majors, and two exchange students, who come from Canada and Hong Kong.

The framework of this study is adopted from Waring (2000) whose discourse strategies are classified into three parts: Conversational Management Strategies, Topic Management Strategies, and Social Strategies. Thus, the major findings focus on these three parts. Each strategy also has its sub-types such as the following: Conversational Management Strategies have two types: (1) the strategy of linking to a prior turn with the phrases "*adding to X*" or "*add to one's point*," and (2) the strategy of making early entries. Second, Topic Management Strategies have three types: (1) the strategy of disagreements including direct, indirect and questions, such as "*no (s)*," and "*but*" as direct disagreements, "*yeah but*", "*yeah X but*," "*it is*

*true X but*” and *“I agree with X but,”* as indirect disagreements, yes-no type and Wh-type questions showing a speaker’s disagreement, (2) the strategy of reformulation prefaced with *“so you’re saying”* and *“you said that,”* and (3) the strategy of repair which is self-initiated, other-completed one which has lexical turn construction units. Third, Social Strategies have two types of mitigating strategies: (1) the strategy of vulnerability acknowledging non-understanding with *“I don’t know”, “I don’t understand,”* and *“I’m not sure,”* and (2) the strategy of vulnerability for avoiding conflicts with the citation form, *“according to X.”* The discourse strategies in the present study reflect the nature of the setting, i.e., debate, in that showing the preferred turn shapes during disagreements, using various direct and indirect disagreement expressions.

This study contributes to understanding interaction between participants in an English-medium debate class and to finding discourse patterns among students by investigating discourse strategies and expressions. In particular, the present study shows that overall students’ participation is quite limited and that the students who join the debate display the skewing turn distribution patterns and the limited use of the discourse strategies. In this regard, this study offers significant pedagogical implications in the field of English for Academic Purposes at the college English level, by suggesting that it is necessary to change to improve the current situations, i.e., using limited discourse strategies and showing limited participation in an English-medium seminar discussion classes.

**Key Words:** discourse strategies, conversation analysis, debate, disagreement, EAP studies, Conversational Management Strategies, Topic Management Strategies, Social Strategies, seminar class.

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# Chapter 1. Introduction

## 1.1. Background and Motivation of the Study

As English has become used for widely diverse and specific purposes internationally, researchers' and educators' interests are drawn to deal with areas such as English for specific purposes (ESP) and English for vocational purposes (EVP). Additionally, to better meet the needs of ESL/EFL students in college and graduate school, more studies are being conducted in the area called English for Academic Purposes (EAP, hereafter) (e.g. Clennell, 1999; Flowerdew, 1992; Flowerdew & Miller, 1995; Flowerdew & Miller, 1999; Hyland, 1994; Johns, 1999; Jordan, 1999; Lynch & Anderson, 1992). These days, in Korean universities, the obligation of students to attend English lectures, make English presentations and write scholarly publications in English is growing rapidly. As a result, the interest in studies on EAP is also increasing. EAP studies are related to study skills, receptive skills—listening and reading, and productive skills—speaking and writing (Jordan, 1997: 9). As English becomes a key language of learning, the productive skills, i.e., writing and speaking, are of growing importance. Nevertheless, despite their significance research on productive fields in EAP, to date, the study is relatively limited.

Between academic writing and academic speaking, it is academic writing that has been more actively researched (Swales, 1981, 1990; Johns, 1997; Clannell, 1999; Hyland, 1990, 2000, 2002, 2003, 2004a, 2004b, 2005; Hyland & Bondi, 2006; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Paltridge 1997). Research in academic writing has mainly been done using a genre analysis approach. The genre-based studies focus on rigorous genre analysis and providing models for academic writing. The concept of genre makes teachers look beyond content, compromising

processes, and, textual forms to see writing as an attempt to communicate with readers, or to better understand the ways that language patterns are used to accomplish coherent, purposeful prose so students will write with a purpose. The many studies on academic writing using the genre approach include: undergraduate essays (Hyland, 1990; Kusel, 1992; Marshall, 1991; Martin, J. 1989; Wallace, 1995), thesis and Ph.D. dissertations (Bunton, 1998; Casanave, 2010; Hyland 2004b; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Pecorari, 2003; Shaw, 1991; Swales & Feak, 1994, 2000), abstracts (Harris, 2006; Ewert, D. 2009; Kamler & Thomson, 2004), research articles (Hiroso, 2003; Hyland, 2002; Porte & Keith, 2012), and the introduction of the research paper (Latour & Woolgar, 1997; Knorr-Cernina, 1981; Gilbert & Mulkay, 1984; Swales, 1981). In brief, the research on genre-based writing is systemically studied, and it has functions of being pedagogically applied for academic purposes.

In comparison to studies on academic writing, studies on academic speaking are very limited. Studies on academic speaking mainly deal with the linguistic functions or certain skills for good speaking. For example, Price (1977), Johns & Johns (1977) and Lynch & Anderson (1992) focus primarily on seminar strategies for designing college preparation courses, and they simply contain lists of functions (e.g., agree, disagree, request clarification) or expressions (e.g., “Excuse me,” or, “Can you clarify?”). Other studies by Chiseri-Strater (1991), Tapper (1996), Wennerstrom (1997) have focused on academic lectures, formal speaking, and pronunciation and they observed NNS’ exchange patterns in these three areas of discourse. Ferris (1998), however, did conduct a survey for students and professors about their college instructors’ requirements regarding listening and speaking skills, the participants’ own difficulties in meeting the requirements, and the relative importance of several selected academic oral skills or tasks. Based on his quantitative analysis of the responses and the oral skills ranking the students and professors, Ferris concluded that the two groups responded quite differently. Thus, a study focusing on writing might be

maintained “to the detriment of developing students’ academic listening and speaking abilities” (Ferris, 1998: 314).

Although Ferris (1998) asserted the importance of speaking, the previous studies in speaking are quite limited. On the other hand, Waring (2000) pioneered the study of seminars, and showed discussion patterns in undergraduate seminars. In this study, she pinpointed characteristics of discussion patterns other than normative pattern that repeatedly appeared and showed the characteristics as strategies. In this regard, Waring’s contributions have great importance in EAP studies.

EAP studies in Korea have been very rare. Nevertheless, colleges in Korea, recently have increased the number of English-medium classes and have emphasized the significance of the English-mediated classes. Also, the atmosphere in which native speakers of English (NS, henceforth) and non-native speakers of English (NNS, hereafter) study together has also grown. As a result, research into EAP is becoming increasingly important. In line with current research into EAP, this study examines an undergraduate seminar class in Korea that is composed of discussions and debates. This study is relevant to EAP for two reasons: 1) the class has NS and NNS as the participants, and 2) it is content-based and an English-medium course. Because of these characteristics, students strongly need to participate in the class, and they often use specific strategies to join the debate and discussion. In this respect, this study has a special contribution in EAP studies.

Debate is one method of oral academic communication, that is a significant area in academic speaking, and can be a critical part of academic courses such as seminars. The research on debates, however, has been very limited. Debates have been mainly studied among the general genres. In light of English as a second language (henceforth, ESL) perspective, Yoon (2009) explores how Korean students disagree in debates in an ESL classroom, emphasizing the types of disagreement expressions, sequence organization and



teacher talks. She finds some features of interaction in the context of debate by suggesting that the characteristics in a troubled talk in non-native speakers of English (hereafter, NNS) to pinpoint norms and patterns of NS's talk. Moreover, she finds that disagreements in a debate setting constraints the turn-taking system of learners so that disagreements are preferred by EFL students in general in the view of Korean EAP. This finding reflects the fact that students learn about disagreement from the textbooks but they do not know how, in a debate setting, to show the disagreement in the manner of native speakers. Waring (2000, 2001, 2002a, 2002b) investigates participation patterns in seminar discussion. These studies analyze the patterns of interaction related to the topic interaction which are closely related to the discourse strategies used in the seminar discussion data. Waring (2000) is especially pioneering since it is an in-depth study whose perspective is different from previous studies. In her research, she analyzes the data in terms of three aspects of seminar discourse strategies used in this study: Conversational Managements Strategies, Topic Management Strategies, and Social Strategies within the conversational analysis framework. In this respect, there are a few discrepancies between previous studies and the studies on interaction mentioned, because as noted above, there are several studies in the field of ESL. Most studies simply deal with lists, however, so it is necessary to undertake an in-depth analysis. Most universities, moreover, currently provide content-based courses whose medium is English for the ESL students. For those reasons, a review of the studies on the academic discourse demonstrates that there is a lack of detailed and context-based explanation of how discourse strategies work. Therefore, my study on debate in an English-medium undergraduate seminar course at a university in Seoul has independent significance in the literature.

This study tries to address the problem by investigating the nature of the interaction in the context of academic discussion in an undergraduate seminar. In particular, this study aims to investigate how non-native speakers of English whose English proficiency is fairly limited

interact with near-native speakers of English and with their professors in a debate class. In the era of globalization, among Korean university students, a few international students do participate in the class. In this respect, students interact with one another, and they manage their participation in the unique setting. The framework for the data analysis in this study is Conversational Analysis. Thus, this research tries to show the participation practices in three regards: (1) interactional practices, (2) participation patterns, and (3) the students' strategies. This study, in the conclusion, will suggest pedagogical implications in EAP speaking studies.

## 1.2. Organization of the Study

The study comprises five chapters. Chapter 1 explains the background and motivation for the study. Chapter 2 reviews the theoretical background of this research: first, Conversational Analysis, which is the fundamental framework for this study's research, is introduced. Second, the studies in debate whose main activity is disagreement are reviewed. Lastly, the dimensions and the types of Discourse Strategies in Waring's (2000) study are explained in detail. Chapter 3 describes the data collected in this research, i.e., the participants, the organization of the debate class, and the procedure of data collection. Chapter 4 presents the findings of this study from the analysis of the collected research data. Chapter 5 summarizes the major findings of this study. Chapter 5 also discusses the contributions of this research to the arena of conflict talk, and to EAP studies in English education. The chapter finally discusses some pedagogical implications, the limitations of the study and related areas of future research.

## Chapter 2. Theoretical Background

The theoretical background includes three parts: 1) Conversational Analysis, which is an analytic framework and provides the important concepts to my study, 2) Disagreements, which are regarded as the main activity in the interaction in the data, and 3) Discourse Strategies, which are the main object of the analysis in my study.

### 2.1. Theoretical Framework: Conversation Analysis

Conversational Analysis (hereafter, CA) is the main analytic tool in this study, and at the same time, provides some important interactional concepts for the analysis in this study. CA is defined as, “the study of recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction” (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998: 14) and aims “to discover and explicate the practices through which participants produce and understand conduct in interaction” (Drew & Heritage, 2006: 25). Although the name of the framework may be understood as taking only the ordinary conversation as its object of analysis, conversation analysts are concerned with “talk-in-interaction” as a whole, which includes ordinary conversation as well as institutional talk. Many studies have investigated talk in various institutional settings, for example, legal courts (Atkinson & Drew, 1979; Maynard, 1984) and doctor-patient interaction (Fisher & Todd, 1983; Heath, 1986). This study follows this vein of tradition, investigating an institutional setting in Second Language (L2 henceforth) classroom.

CA starts from carefully transcribed data of audio or video recordings, and not from a hypothesis or an assumption. With an unmotivated look at transcribed data, analysts find certain patterns of talk or systems governing the whole conversation. Although there can be an unlimited number of features that can describe a conversation, conversation analysts are concerned with the main aspects of conversation, including the turn-taking system, repair

organization, the preference structure, and alignment. Each point will be summarized below.

First, turn-taking is considered as, “a basic form of organization for conversation” (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974: 4). One turn is composed of a unit, called turn constructional unit (hereafter, TCU), with various types including, “sentential, clausal, phrasal, and lexical construction.” The point where each TCU is possibly complete and where the turn may shift to other speakers, is called the transition relevance place (henceforth, TRP). At those transition-relevance places, speakers seem to follow a certain set of rules. When the current speaker appoints a certain speaker, that speaker normally speaks up in the next turn. When this kind of appointment is absent, the first speaker to volunteer speaks at the next turn. When none of these takes place, the current speaker can continue to speak until the next TRP (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974).

Second, repair organization is also one of the fundamental aspects of conversation. Whenever people have trouble in conversation, repair organization will take place. It is worth noting here that repair in a CA sense not only includes correcting others’ wrong utterance, but also correcting one’s own talk or revising an earlier mentioned utterance, even when there is no obvious error or mistake in the talk.

Repair organization can be classified into four groups depending on the initiator of repair and the actual producer of the repair: self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, other-initiated self-repair, other-initiated other-repair (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998). Self-initiated and self-completed repair involves the originator of the trouble source realizing the problem and making repairs, usually in the same turn. Self-initiated and other-completed repair emerges when the originator of the trouble source initiates the repair sequence, and the recipient completes it. In other-initiated and self-completed repair, the recipient locates the trouble source and initiates the repair sequence, and the originator of the trouble source completes it. Other-initiated and other-completed repair happens when the hearer locates the

trouble source, and he/she both initiates and completes the repair sequence.

Third, preference, one of the key concepts of this study, derives from a more basic structure observed in conversation, i.e., adjacency pairs (Schegloff, 2007; Heritage, 1984; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998; Pomerantz, 1984). A minimal adjacency pair comprises two turns which are produced by different speakers successively. The first turn is called the first pair part, which initiates an interaction, and the second turn is called the second pair part, which responds to the prior turn. When a first pair part is uttered, only certain types of second pair parts can follow. For example, when an invitation is initiated, it can result in an acceptance or a refusal, thus inviting two different second pair parts. These alternative types of response are not equivalent. Other examples include an assessment being agreed to or disagreed with, and requests being granted or declined. The notion of preference arises when explaining these alternative types of second pair parts. The ones that align with the first pair parts, and, “that (which) is oriented to as invited,” (Pomerantz, 1984: 63), are referred to as preferred responses whereas their alternatives are referred to as dispreferred responses. For example, in general, agreement and acceptance are preferred, and disagreement and rejection are dispreferred. Even though there have been various ways of defining the concept of preference in a CA sense with an effort to categorize preference into several types, such as by Bilmes (1988) or by Schegloff (1988), I adopt the above definition in this study, which captures the concept of preference properly and explicitly.

It is crucial to note that the concept of preference is “a social/interactional feature of sequences and of orientations to them, (and) not a psychological one” (Schegloff, 2007). This is closely related to the reason why the concept of preference is often adopted in explaining features of conversation: it often determines the turn shape and second pair parts. Previous researchers have discovered that preferred turns and dispreferred turns have different characteristics in their turn shape and sequential placement (Sacks, 1987; Pomerantz, 1984;

Hutchby and Wooffitt, 1998; Schegloff, 1988). First, dispreferred responses may be mitigated and even attenuated to a point where the actual response is not articulated. Second, preferred responses are generally short and precise/concise, while dispreferred ones are more elaborate. Dispreferred responses are often accompanied with accounts, excuses, disclaimers (e.g., “*I don’t know*”) and hedges. Third, preferred responses tend to be produced right after the previous turns, or “contiguously” (Sacks, 1987), whereas dispreferred responses are pushed further behind, or “breaking the contiguity” and are often preceded by a pause. The following excerpt from Hutchby and Wooffitt (1998: 44) illustrates the point.

(1)

01 A: You coming down early?

02 B: Well, I got a lot of things to do before

03 getting cleared up tomorrow.

04 I w-probably won’t be too early.

Here, B’s turn in lines 02-04 show all three characteristics of a dispreferred turn. First, the turn starts with the discourse marker, “*well*,” and the response is elaborated with an account, “*I got a lot of things to do before getting cleared up tomorrow*.” These two statements together delay the actual response in the turn. The actual response is mitigated and attenuated as in line 3 where the speaker cuts off his turn, “*I w-*” and is likely inserted to tone down his answer. This study follows the veins of CA and incorporates the above mentioned terms and notions.

Lastly, alignment refers to the synchronization at emotional or intellectual levels among participants (Boztepe, 2009). According to Goffman (1959: 10), alignment is not "real agreement as to what exists, but rather a real agreement as to whose claims concerning what

issues will be temporarily honored." Social interaction depends on surface level agreement to avoid conflict and to allow individual goals to be met. Goffman (1959: 9) asserts, the maintenance of this surface of agreement or veneer of consensus, is facilitated by each participant concealing his own wants behind statements which assert values to which everyone feels obliged to give lip service." Goffman (1959), however, noted that not all alignment is a projection of surface level agreement, and that real consensus may exist as well. Thus, much seems to depend on the institutional arrangement within which a particular interaction occurs, and which defines the power relations among participants.

## 2.2. Disagreements

In this study, the data overall consist of debate classes and the chief activity of debate is disagreements. For that reason, in this section, I will investigate disagreements in two ways: turn design and in the arena of ESL/EFL.

Disagreements are defined as "communication of an opinion or belief contrary to the view expressed by another speaker" (Edstrom, 2004: 1499) or as an act which "involves the negation of a stated or implied proposition" (Kakava, 2002: 1539). Therefore, disagreements can be achieved in several different turn designs and have various functions.

### 2.2.1. Turn Designs

Disagreements are the main activity in conflict talk (Grimshaw, 1990). Therefore, some studies on conflict talk have focused on "how speakers disagree with each other." Moreover, as debates are one variety of conflict talk (Yoon, 2009: 9); disagreements are also the primary action in debates. Disagreements can be performed in several different turn shapes and have various functions. Previous studies have examined disagreement expressions and turn-shapes

based on their strength, overtness, and function.

Pomerantz (1984) investigates dispreferred turn shapes and categorizes the types of disagreements—strong and weak disagreements—in ordinary conversations depending on whether they appear with agreement components or not. She observes that agreements are usually preferred without any delay or even overlapped with the previous turn but disagreements are often delayed and emerge towards the end of a turn, that is, dispreferred, using silence, hesitating prefaces, requests for clarification as delay devices in the disagreement turns. She also defines a strong disagreement as “one in which a conversant utters an evaluation which is directly contrastive with the prior evaluation (Pomerantz, 1984: 74). By contrast, a weak disagreement is one that is prefaced with agreement components. In addition, she finds that indirect disagreement turns are weak with agreement tokens, i.e., *yeah*, asserted agreements and qualified agreements and that the disagreement components are formed as qualification, exception, or additions.

On the other hand, the turn-shapes show different characteristics in the institutional setting. For example, Greatbath (1992) examines British news interviews and asserts that disagreements are produced in a direct and unmitigated manner. That means that the turn-taking system used in news interviews differs from the one deployed in everyday conversation in that it places constraints on the production of types of turns. The constraints are related to the nature of the data; panel news interviews. To be specific, compared to ordinary conversation, disagreements produced in accordance with the provisions of the news-interview turn-taking system differ in that they are not systematically delayed and mitigated by the appearance of the preference features that are associated with ordinary conversations. Therefore, they are rarely qualified and not normally prefaced by agreement components or delayed sequences. Instead, they are promptly uttered in a direct and unelaborated manner. These constraints function in regard to the two identities, an



interviewer and an interviewee in an institutional setting, panel interviews.

Another study by Kotthoff (1993), observed in an institutional setting, is in the same vein of Greatbath (1992). Kotthoff (1993) shows how the preference structure changes as the argument starts, and how this affects speakers' talk. The data in this study were from the conversations during the professor's consulting hours between German and Anglo-American students and professors. Here, when the discussion starts, disagreement is produced with a format of a dispreferred action. That is, initially disagreement uses downgrading expressions such as "yeah," "well," "I mean," "I think" and an agreement first strategy using "yes, but" strategy. After the a few turns, however, the use of the dispreference markers decreases and disagreement becomes preferred and even aggravated in its turn shape lexically, e.g., *not of all, really* and intonationally, i.e., using a loud voice or emphasis. In other words, disagreements in disputes are dispreferred in the beginning and gradually changes into being preferred.

Gruber (1998) explores the study of disagreements in an Austrian television debate program, and then categorizes disagreements into two types based on how overt they are: overt disagreements and pragmatic disagreements. First, overt disagreements mean unmitigated disagreement expressions which are closely tied to the previous turns, and positioned during or immediately after the opponent's turn. One type of overt disagreement is "minimal reformulations," which are similar to "format tying" (Goodwin, 1990) in that interactants repeat the whole turn of their opponents with only a minimal change to express maximal contrast. The second type of disagreement is pragmatic disagreements, which does not have the formal features of overt disagreement and introduces new subtopics or shifts the focus of debates while opposing the previous turn. The pragmatic disagreements show characteristics of overt disagreements, so they are marked as a disagreement by the use of disagreement markers such as "but".

So far, four previous studies, Pomerantz (1984), Greatbath (1992), Kotthoff (1993), and Gruber (1998), are reviewed in terms of disagreements in ordinary setting and in institutional settings.

### 2.2.2. Previous studies on disagreements in the context ESL/EFL

Some studies deal with disagreements in light of interlanguage (IL, hereafter), pragmatics, the participation in group discussion, designing college preparation courses and the lists of functions or expressions in disagreement and other functions (e.g., agree and request clarification) and the way to disagree in the field of EAP.

Price (1977), Johns & Johns (1977), and Lynch & Anderson (1992) treat designing college preparation courses with lists of functions or expressions in disagreement and other functions.

Baldovi-Harlig & Salsbury (2004), in a study of a part of a program connecting ESL students with graduate students, displays the features of L2 learners' disagreements in audio-recorded interview data. This study is longitudinal and lasted for a year. This research examines disagreements in IL pragmatics in terms of three arenas: turn organization, general oral expression, and topic selection. They find that turn organization increased as time passed and earlier disagreements did not include agreement elements, but strong disagreement may include downgraders based on the time length. This study has a contribution to EAP in that: (1) it suggests a gradual improvement of disagreement and the developmental patterns of learners' disagreement expressions in IL, and (2) it shows the value of studying speaking in IL pragmatics studies.

Pearson (1984) deals with 900 minutes of normal everyday chat-type conversation and shows that half of the students in an EFL setting at a Japanese university are either not

expressing agreements/disagreements when they could/should have done so, or they are expressing it explicitly with the forms such as “*I agree*” or “*I disagree*.” On the other hand, by comparing the frequency of the use of agreements to that of disagreements, the native English speakers, in her data, disagree with each other much less often than they agree. She points out that ESL/EFL textbooks often provide equal emphasis on agreement and disagreement, and then suggests that English L2 learners are incorrectly led to believe that native English speakers use disagreements as frequently as they express agreement.

Yoon (2009) demonstrates how Korean students disagree with each other in light of the disagreement expressions and the preference structure in an ESL classroom setting. She finds four different types of disagreement expressions used by Korean EFL learners. The expressions include overt disagreements with “*no*,” overt disagreements with “*but*” and partial agreements with “*yeah, but*” and rhetorical questions. In addition, she finds that disagreement is overall preferred in her data, but it is context-sensitive; that is, the disagreement is sometimes dispreferred when introducing a sub-topic or in the beginning of the debate. In this respect, Yoon (2009) follows in the same vein in Kotthoff (1993). Yoon also provides the developmental stages of L2 learners’ use of disagreement expressions, i.e., the tendency of partial agreements/disagreements by advanced learners, and overt disagreements by intermediate (or less fluent) learners. Her study provides pedagogically meaningful implications in that very few studies have investigated NNSs’ disagreements in debates before, and her study demonstrates what actually happens in Korean students’ debates in an ESL classroom.

In sum, disagreements are the main activity in debates and other studies about turn designs and disagreements or debates/discussions in EAP areas have been reviewed. The previous studies are significant because most ESL/EFL students feel difficulty in disagreeing. For that reason, the disagreements are regarded as great challenges by English learners.

## 2.3. Discourse Strategies

Here, I will review Waring's (2000) study mainly in terms of the discourse strategies she used to analyze her data. Her study is based on a graduate student seminar course in the U.S., where a small group of native speakers and highly advanced nonnative speakers discussed and debated over various TESL-related topics. In her study, Discourse Strategies (hereafter, DS) are deployed in order to explain various types of interactions in participation and discourse management patterns. Since classification of DSs in Waring's (2000) study is adopted for current study, I will review the concept of DS and detailed classifications of it used by Waring (2000).

The term, "strategies" is used in Tannen (1984) in its standard sociolinguistic sense, to simply refer to a way of speaking. She intends neither the implication of "deliberate planning" nor "unconscious." Rather, the strategies are regarded as "automatic," which means that people speak in a particular way without "consciously thinking it through, but are aware, if questioned, of how they spoke and what they were trying to accomplish by talking in that way (Tannen, 1984: 47).

According to Waring, action is the term that means the function performed by the interactional phenomenon or device, which is "strategy." It is also referred to as "interactional work," or "interactional task (e.g. Wootton, 1989). Action is also defined as an "interactive product" of what is projected by prior talk and what the speaker actually does" includes both the dimensions of illocutionary forces and that of perlocutionary force (Drew and Heritage, 1992). For that reason, Waring concludes that an action is interactionally-defined and discourse-based speech act. In her study, she interchangeably uses the term "action" with "speech action" or "function." Following Tannen (1994), she defines "strategy" in the broad sense as a conversational device that gets things done with no implication of "deliberate

planning” (Tannen 1984: 47). In addition, Waring considers “strategy” on a more operational level, which refers to the spate of talk under examination. This definition is commonly used as a “conversational item,” an “interactional device,” an “interactional object” (Wootton, 1989), a “device,” a “phenomenon,” or an “interactional phenomenon” (Psathas, 1990, 1995; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998, cited in Waring (2000)). Waring extends the definition to her own strategies and provides three different types of them in her study: first, conversational management strategies are ways of speaking that manage the floor during each discussion; next, topic management strategies are ways of speaking aimed at the development of understanding, lastly, social management strategies are ways of speaking that maintain the social relations among participants.

### 2.3.1. Dimensions of Discourse Strategies

The types of DSs in Waring’s study are based on the studies on social dimensions as distinguished from task dimensions, which mean that it is necessary to consider these dimensions of DSs as well. The social dimensions and task dimensions are originally suggested in Bales’ (1970) and cited in Labov & Fanchel (1977). According to them, two crucial dimensions of group interaction have been reiteratively placed in the foreground in group communication research: task dimension and social dimension (cf. Arends & Arends, 1977; Hanson 1981; Jacques, 1984; Barker et al., 1987; Arnett, 1992; Tracy, 1997, cited in Waring, 2000). The task dimension directly relates to the group’s purpose. The social dimension, in contrast, attends to consolidating the relationships among members of the group.

In her seminar discussion data, Waring (2000) also finds that these two dimensions dominate group interaction. That means that participants come together to achieve a task in

order to get things done (e.g., devise a plan, solve a problem, or advance ideas) in task dimension.

In the meantime, participants share interests in attending to the group's social-emotional needs, i.e., maintaining relationships and developing community; this is the affective dimension of group communication.

The task dimension has an inclination to involve "structuring activities, i.e., shifting topics, ending a discussion, and managing manipulative tasks" (Barnes & Todd, 1995: 79, recited in Wong, 2000: 7) and "information-based exchanges" (e.g., information seeking, information giving, opinion giving, clarifying, elaborating, coordination, orienting, testing, and summarizing (Jaques, 1984: 29, recited in Wong, 2000: 7).

The specific activities concerning the social dimension of group communication consist of "showing solidarity, showing tension release and agreeing" (Bale, cited in Labov & Fanshel, 1977: 16, recited in Waring 2000:8). Encouraging, mediating, gatekeeping, and relieving tensions are also believed to perform the social "maintenance" roles (Jacques, 1984: 28-29). Moreover, Barnes and Todd's (1995: 46-50) research illustrates that supportive behavior constitutes "formal expressions of agreement", "naming", "reference back", "explicit praise," and "expressions of shared feeling." Tracy (1997) finds in his study on colloquia that conversational practices which mark "friendliness and trust" constitute idea-crediting, speaking for another, think-aloud speech, humorous remarks, and making the connection between one's ideas here and now and conversations with other group members outside the event.

### 2.3.2. Types of Discourse Strategies

As described above, Waring (2000) divides DSs used in a graduate seminar class into three

categories: Conversational Management Strategies, Topic Management Strategies, and Social Management Strategies. Each strategy includes a few types and subtypes. Table 1 below shows how they are organized.

**Table 1: Categories of Group Interaction: Social Dimension and Task Dimension**

Task Dimensions	Conversational Management Strategies	Control over Choice of Speakers
		Control over Direction of Speakers
		Control over Progression of Speakers
	Topic Management Strategies	Initiating Topics
		Displaying Understanding of Prior Talks
		Contributing Understanding to Prior Talks
Social Dimensions	Social Strategies	Solidarity Building Strategies
		Mitigating Strategies

A complete list of each strategy is provided in Appendix I, II, and III. We will review each strategy in more detail below.

### 2.3.2.1. Conversational Management Strategies

Based on the types of the above described two dimensions, Waring (2000) categorizes conversational management strategies into three main types: (1) control over the choice of speaker, (2) control over the direction of discussion, and (3) control over the progression of discussion. Waring also suggests sub-categorization for each type. Here, we will review the strategy of making early entries since it often occurs in my data. The strategy of making early

entries involves making simple attempts to jump into the floor before the previous speaker completes his/her turn. This strategy is the basic technique of self-selection, which is to start first (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson, 1974: 718). The strategy is a result of this turn-taking technique. It involves making brief attempts to enter the floor before the previous speaker completes his/her turn. In Waring's (2000) data, this strategy is used with response markers ("well", "yeah"), agreement tokens ("right"), contrasting conjunctions ("but"), expansions markers ("I mean"), prolonged beginning consonants, ("sssss" "sh-") or cut-offs ("sh-"). Using these components as a linguistic or paralinguistic resource, the interactants begin with a brief attempt as another Possible Completion Point (henceforth, PCP) comes up until the speaker finally gains the floor. In Waring's seminar discussion, the speakers deploy this strategy systematically, prefacing with disagreement, persistence, and expansion or increment.

Thus far, we have briefly reviewed the first subtype of the DSs, Conversational Management Strategies employed in Waring (2000). These strategies are related to the turn-taking so I will use the concept in my study.

### 2.3.2.2. Topic Management Strategies

Topic management strategies are defined as the means in which participants initiate and develop topics in order to enrich and refine understanding (Waring, 2000:131). She originally classifies mainly three types of topic management strategies: initiating topics, displaying understanding of prior talk, and contributing understanding to prior talk. For each type, again, she suggests various subtypes. Here, I will review the strategy of reformulating and the strategy of disagreement because these two strategies frequently appear in my data as well.

As for the strategy of disagreeing, its occurrence is rare in Waring's data. In her data,



this strategy emerges in expressing disagreeing intent through rhetorical questions and questioning repeats. These rhetorical questions are proffered either without delay or with a brief delay in Waring's data. However, questioning repeats tend to involve a bit of delay and defy the truth value of the previous turn. The Waring's finding is somewhat different from previous studies. For example, Jefferson (1972) displays that the question repeats are produced without delay, but Waring's questions repeats are uttered with delay. Also, Yoon (2009) finds the same type of strategies during disagreement in EFL classroom. She shows, in her data, that rhetorical questions serve to express disagreement in a persuasive and effective way, and that they are a delayed way of disagreement. Following a similar vein in previous studies (Greatbath, 1992; Gruber, 1998; Kotthoff, 1993; Yoon, 2009), in Waring (2000), disagreements are preferred when the disagreement is in a statement form. On the other hand, the questioning repeats are slightly delayed in disagreeing and sometimes the question repeats are used to check up for understanding the discussion.

Reformulating is a strategy termed by Gonzales (1996), and which is displayed with the consistent use of the second person pronoun "*you*" and the metaverb "*saying*" such as "*you're saying*" frequently prefaced by a conjunction "*so.*" Waring (2000) differentiates reformulation and elicitation. Reformulations applied to debatable knowledge members have equal access to. In contrast, elicitation can be used within the larger activity of explaining often unevenly distributed factual knowledge. The strategy reformulation is one of an active listening strategy used by participants to show understanding. The strategy is "a distinct linguistic feature" using the second person pronoun "*you*" and the meta-verb "*saying*" prefaced with conjunction "*so*" such as "*so you're saying,*" as I mentioned before. The reformulation phrase "*you're saying*" identifies the interactant as the "author" and the "principal." And it puts the interlocutor "on the spot." While reformulating, the center of the matter concerns more arguable opinions than explanations of factual knowledge. This

strategy happens following conflicting opinions and persistent non-understanding.

### 2.3.2.3. Social Strategies

Social strategies consist of solidarity building strategy and mitigating strategy, and each strategy has several subtypes. Solidarity building strategies have three subtypes: (1) strategy of collaborative turn construction, (2) strategy of peer referencing, and (3) strategy of seeking help from others. And mitigating strategies include four subtypes: (1) strategy of disclaiming divergences, (2) strategy of asserting vulnerability, (3) strategy of framing as personal opinion, and (4) strategy of backing down. Here, because of its relevance to my data, we will mainly examine the strategy of asserting vulnerability and the strategy of framing as personal opinion. The mitigating strategies function as precautions taken by the current speaker in order to soften the force of the claims being made or the disaffiliative actions being taken. Especially, this strategy is shown with “hedges”. Waring mentions that hedge-related studies have been emphasized mainly with regard to writing (e.g., Hyland, 1994, 1998). In the Waring (2000) data, first, the oral discourse-based strategies of mitigation in the seminar discussion context can be found as discourse-based (or lexically-based), but as less formulaic disclaimers such as, “*It’s not that I don’t believe you*” or “*I don’t so much (.) dispute that but,*” or “*I think you...*,” and so on. Secondly, the strategy of asserting vulnerability, one of the mitigating strategies, is used during challenges, critiques, disagreements and knowledge displays. In addition, another type of mitigating strategy, the strategy of framing as personal opinion, is used when the addresser is displaying knowledge to other members, and when the current speaker is disagreeing with the opinion of the prior speaker.

In sum, the social strategies convey the relationships between the people who talk and contribute indirectly by providing the necessary components for maintaining the cohesiveness

of the group.

### Chapter 3. Data and Methodology

This chapter introduces the data and the methodology used for this study. More specifically, it describes the participants, the details of the course, and the data collections procedure used in the current study.

The data for this study consists of nine-sessions of audio-recordings of an English-medium undergraduate seminar course at a university in Seoul. The course titled as “Great Minds in Social Sciences,” is mandatory for the students in the social science track in the university. The recording took place in Fall, 2010, throughout the whole semester.

As for the participants, there were 24 students and the professor. The students’ majors, years, and other information are shown in Table 5 below.

**Table 5. Information of participants**

<b>Students</b>	<b>Major</b>	<b>Year</b>	<b>Nationality</b>	<b>Native language</b>
* S 1	Philosophy	Junior	French-Chinese	French,English, Chinese
* S 2	Sociology	Junior	Canadian-Chinese	English , Chinese
S 3	International studies	Junior	Korean	Korean
S 4	International studies	Junior	Korean	Korean
S 5	International studies	Junior	Korean	Korean
S 6	Chinese	Junior	Korean	Korean
S 7	Psychology	Junior	Korean	Korean

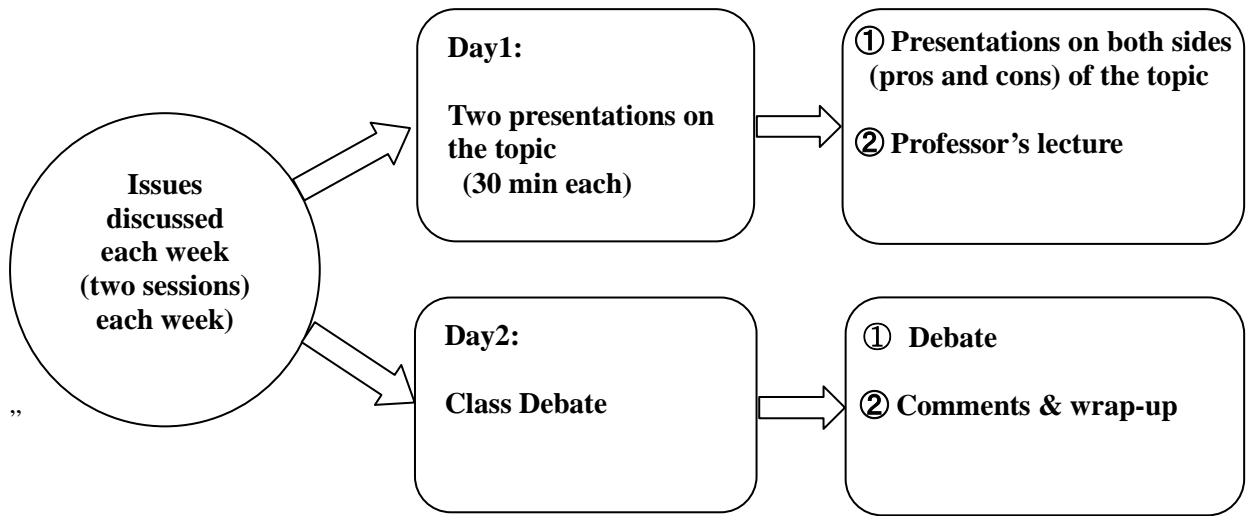
S 8	Politics	Junior	Korean	Korean
S 9	Sociology	Junior	Korean	Korean
S 10	Economics	Junior	Korean	Korean
S 11~24	College of Liberal Studies (Social Science Track)	Sophomore	Korean	Korean

\*note: S1 and S2 are foreign exchange students.

The students have various majors, and all the students are Koreans except for two international students, S1 from Hong Kong, and S2 from Canada. The overall students' English proficiency is high based on the questionnaire (See Appendix V in detail). The range of English proficiency is from 74 to 116 of iBT TOEFL score—one in the 70s, four in the 80s, five in the 90s, and nine in the 100-110s—and three from 900 to 930 of TOEIC score. Two students have not taken the English proficiency test. The professor is Korean who lived in the United States for five years.

The class lasts met twice a week, for 75 minutes each time. It had three kinds of sessions: presentation sessions, lecture sessions, and student-centered debate sessions. Students were expected to be present twice every week, and to submit a short essay on each topic every week before the start of the debate session. Each week a new topic was discussed, and there were two presentations: on Day 1, each of the student groups representing the pros and the cons of the topic; this was followed by a debate session on Day 2 (see Figure 1 below).

**Figure 1. Design of Class Sessions of “Great Minds in Social Science**



The course treated various topics in social science, all of which are controversial and debatable. The topics dealt with each week are shown in Table 6 below.

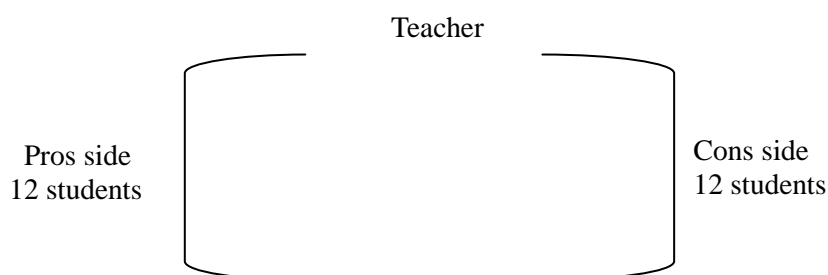
**Table 6. Weekly Discussion Topics**

Week	Topic
5	<b>Multiculturalism:</b> Is Third World Immigration a Threat to America’s Way of Life
6	<b>Family value:</b> Is the Decline of the Traditional Family a National Crisis?
7	<b>Sex Roles and Gender:</b> Should Mothers Stay Home with Their Children?
9	<b>Economic Inequality:</b> Is Increasing Economic Inequality a Serious Problem?
10	<b>Social Minorities:</b> Has the Law for the Social Minorities Outlived its Usefulness?
11	<b>Power and Business:</b> Is Government Dominated by Big Business?

12	<b>Government and Market:</b> Should Government Intervene in a Capitalist Economy?
13	<b>Welfare and Reform:</b> Has Welfare Reform Benefited the Poor?
14	<b>Violence and Terror:</b> Does the Threat of Terrorism Warrant Curtailment of Civil Liberties?

Students should read assigned chapters in the textbooks titled, “Great Minds in Social Science” where they were exposed to the main issues in the field for and against a given topic. Finally, the arrangement of the participants on the day of debate was as follows:

**Figure 2. Arrangement of Students and the Teacher in the Classroom**



Data was transcribed following CA conventions and analyzed within the framework of CA (See Appendix IV, cf. Jefferson, 1984, ten Have, 1999). These transcripts of the audio recordings serve as detailed reminders of how the participants, i.e., the professor and twenty four students, involved in the interaction competently locate, interpret, and collaborate in activities in the course of interaction (Lynch, 2002). That is to say, these transcripts are not a provision of uncontrived or unmediated access to the interactional activities of the time the recordings were made, but rather provide a realistic, practical solution to those who want to

describe an actual social event in details in their formative and interactional production (Markee, 2000). The data was analyzed within the framework of conversation analysis (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974).



## Chapter 4. Analysis

This chapter offers the analysis of the students' use of discourse strategies adopted from the Waring's (2000) classifications of Conversational Management Strategies, Topic Management Strategies, and Social Strategies. Conversational Management Strategies are used to manage the floor and turn-taking, Topic Management Strategies are employed to formulate topics and to enhance understanding, and Social Strategies are employed to mitigate the current speaker's aggravated tone when the speaker disagrees with the prior speaker's opinion. Typically, this is accomplished through showing vulnerability to save one's face, and by avoiding conflicts during the debate. We will investigate the three discourse strategies with their subtypes.

### 4.1. Conversation Management Strategies

The first type of discourse strategies examined is that of conversational management. Conversation management overall has to do with turn-taking; that is, how to take turns to participate in the debate. Thus, we will first look at how turn-taking takes place in the data, and then examine some strategies that students showed to manage turn-taking.

#### 4.1.1. Turn Distribution

Before we examine actual conversation management strategies, we will first look at the overall turn distribution, which will be pursued in two ways: first, we will look at the turn distribution after the professor's topic proffer both in the very beginning of the class and in his intervening turns—the professor often intervenes and offers a new topic when there is a topic decay or students do not seem to be able to go on with the previous topic. Participating in these two positions seem to be more challenging to students in that the student's first turn

tends to direct the overall discussion and that upon hearing it, other students participate with countering opinions and disagreements. In other words, it receives more attention from the professor and the other students. Second, we will look at the overall turn distribution of all the participants in class.

Let us first examine Table 7 that illustrates the students' turn distribution after the professor's topic proffer.

**Table 7. Students' Turn Distribution after the professor's topic proffer**

<b>Frequency</b>	<b>After the initial</b>	<b>After intervening</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Participants</b>	<b>topic proffer</b>	<b>topic proffers</b>	
S1	1	3	4
S2	1	2	3
S6	0	2	2
S7	0	1	1
S8	5	4	9
S9	1	1	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>21</b>

What is striking about Table 7 is that only six students out of 24 participated in turn-taking after the professor's topic proffers. Even among those six students, it is S1, S2, and S8, i.e., two exchange students and one Korean student, who have much higher frequencies of participation than other nineteen Korean students. That is, the result shows a severe skewing pattern among the students in terms of turn-taking.

To get a full picture, we will now examine the turn distribution of all nine classes. Table 8 below shows the results.

**Table 8. Overall Turn Distribution**

Day	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	D9	Total
Professor	24	11	20	17	28	29	20	53	17	219
S1	21	18	16	32	30	34	37	35	14	236
S2	21	13	38	24	12	28	9	7	6	163
S3	3	0	0	2	1	2	1	0	3	12
S4	5	11	0	4	8	3	4	8	10	53
S5	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
S6	10	9	6	13	9	11	17	13	14	99
S7	5	2	0	8	1	0	10	9	0	35
S8	9	7	4	6	5	9	3	12	7	61
S9	7	1	1	7	6	2	2	11	4	41
S10	1	13	18	1	8	11	15	20	3	90
<b>Total</b>	<b>106</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>118</b>	<b>169</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>556</b>

Table 8 shows that again a very limited number of students—ten out of 24 students—participated throughout the nine classes when the data collection took place. Even among these ten students, it was primarily five students, S1, S2, S6, S8, and S10, who had frequently took turns, and the frequencies demonstrated a big gap among students, i.e., as low as 2 (S5) and as high as 236 (S2). In other words, in the Table 8, the skewing was even greater than in Table 7.

What both Tables 7 and 8 show is very striking. In this English-medium undergraduate seminar and debate course, less than a half of the students participated throughout almost the whole semester, and the rest of the students stayed silent. According to the survey conducted (See Appendix V), students mentioned that there are several reasons why they did not participate actively in class: the biggest reasons were that lack of self-esteem and of fluency

in spoken English for active participation even though most students in the debate class are in the advanced level of proficiency in English.

No matter what causes the students to be silent in class, it raises concerns about the reality of the English-medium courses in universities in Korea, and makes one wonder what can be changed to improve the situation. While keeping this in mind, we will examine the participating students' use as discourse and conversation management strategies in the next section to determine what set them apart.

#### 4.1.2. The Strategy of Linking to a Prior Turn

Here, we will examine two conversational management strategies: (1) the strategy of linking to a prior turn, and (2) the strategy of making early entries. First, the strategy of linking to a prior turn is used with the phrases "*adding to X*" and "*Add(ing) to one's point.*" Second, the strategy of making early entries is used as a self-selection by starting to speak first when no other speaker emerges in the next turn.

The first strategy is employed when a participant takes his or her turn by connecting to the points mentioned in the preceding turns. The data below demonstrates how the strategy of linking to a prior turn is deployed with the phrase "*add to one's point*" during the debate.

#### (2) Power and Business

01 P: is it a difficult question?  
02 (2.4) it was just look like a negotiation team.  
03 ((everyone laughs))  
04 Korea, and United States.  
05 (0.6)  
06 S8: I agree with that it's influential in the past.  
07 Nowadays, participatory, society like individual people

08 are getting more power to um, power to, do they speak up  
 09 their voice to the government↑, and government (.) ya tends  
 10 to listen to the voice, from the lower lower lower ( ).  
 (lines omitted)

15 so, these days (.) people have a right something on  
 16 the: to the website, Agora, so there were many inferential,  
 17 or *Kimyongchul*, *Koyoungchul*, who was the significant  
 18 lawyer, Samsung, so I can (say)he was people, he was dominated  
 19 by a big business in the past, I think, nowadays, it's getting  
 20 um(.)losing power.

21 P: =and ( )

22 S8: =and ya (.) that's what I'm saying=

23 P: so:: that's the argument.

24 (0.5)

25→S4: (hhh) just add to her point, to mention that, it's kind of  
 26 in the past, it was influential, but, nowadays, in my  
 27 opinion, I don't think on the cozy relationship between  
 28 business and the, politics, ever been gone away, but I  
 29 think like from our side, meet the fact, frustrated that.

The professor initiates his turn by asking the question to students in line 01, but there is no answer because there is a long pause (2.4). After this silence, the professor introduces an example to prompt participants' turn, in line 04, but there is still a micropause (0.6) in line 05. After this silence, S8 takes her turn by saying that "*I agree with that it's influential in the past*" and then expands her turn by claiming in her argument that individual people have a power to speak, and the government has a tendency to listen to what people say at lines 06-10. S8 continues, claiming, that people have a right to speak their voice on the internet and that the government has less and less power to control peoples' lives as a result at lines 15-20. After S8's turn, the professor recapitulates what the previous speaker said in line 21 and S8 reconfirms by rephrasing it as "*That's what I'm saying.*" in line 22. After the professor's turn, there is a pause (0.5), and S4 takes her turn by saying "*just add to her point*" and then expands her turn with her disagreement by saying "*but, nowadays, in my opinion, I don't*

*think.*” Note here that it is clearly a disagreement turn, but S4 starts her turn with the expression to emphasize the relatedness of her statement with the prior turn. Let us examine another example in excerpt (3), whose weekly topic is multiculturalism, by means of another linking phrase, “*adding to one’s point*” below.

### (3) Multiculturalism

01 S3:okay, um, that’s sort of thing, I’m sorry.  
02 ((gazing at the teacher))  
03 P:that’s from the(.)=  
04 S3:=I’m sorry.  
05 S5:(hh) actually, >the main reason why they came to Korea< (.)  
06 most of people are illegal but not reaching them five years  
07 u:m, but they choose to (.)Korean laws, The foreigners who  
08 married Korean woman, they lived together for a certain  
09 period time, they have a, um, For instance, (0.2)  
10 according to them, they have five children<  
11 S1: And (.) you said (.) that was the host country do more  
12 responsible for the: immigrants<sup>↑</sup> (.)in case of Korea<sup>↑</sup>,  
13 immigrants are more responsible<sup>↑</sup> because Korean government  
14 tries to (.)immigrants , such as we have to (.)we have to,  
15 they really (.) For they emphasize, in case of Korea,  
16 immigrants are much more ( )  
17 (0.3)  
18 →S7:(hh) >adding to her point<, I think, according to this country,  
19 in the whole condition. In case of Korea, it is a lot regulate,  
20 industrial change, because it is too much abuse.

In the excerpt (3), S3 and the professor talks with each other at lines 01-04. S3 shows her vulnerability by saying “*I’m sorry*” in line 01 and 04 because she cannot find the proper words. Then, S5 starts her turn by focusing on the reason the immigrants come to Korea in line 05 and then asserts her opinion about immigrants by saying “*most of them are illegal*” in line 06. Also, she gives an example of an immigrant who married a Korean woman at lines

07-10. After S5's turn, S1 rephrases S5's argument at lines 11-12 in order to show his understanding of the previous comment and expands his turn at lines 13-16. After a short pause (0.3), S7 takes her breath and employs the linking strategy by saying "*adding to her point*" in line 18. S7 would like to participate in the discussion by categorizing her stance by relating her opinion to that of S5: that is, that there is a great deal of illegal immigration in Korea. Then she expands her comment by noting influence of immigrants in Korea at lines 19-20. Again, here, the strategy of linking to points is not used in the turns just prior to the current speaker's one, but referencing a few turns before the present addresser takes.

In brief, excerpts (2) and (3) show how students use the strategy of linking to a prior turn. The participants deploy the linking strategy when they want to take their turn by relating their opinion to points in the prior talk.

### 4.1.3. The Strategy of Making Early Entries

The strategy of making early entries is one of the types of self-selecting strategies in turn-taking. According to Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), the basic skill of self-selection is to start first. That means that if no other speaker appears, then starting one's turn early is one method of self-selection.

It is notable that such (nearly) simultaneous starts to testify to the independent-for-each-party projectability of possible completion points of the talk that occupies the current turn (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson, 1974: 707). Excerpt (4) illustrates the point.

#### (4) Sex Roles and Gender

01 S5: okay.

02 S1: So, of course, it doesn't mean that children be better

03 for their life↑ but they'll do much worse ( ) than

04 mothers care for them.=

05 S5:=Okay, it is better for (.) it might be better for (.)

06 mom and the babies (.) mothers stay at home↑ but that

07 doesn't mean that you like, um(.)

08 S1: I:: do not.

09 S5: Okay. Let's say that an example of (.) I don't know(.)

10 exercising. Exercising makes people healthy and

11 consequently,(they) become healthy(.) society can be (.)

12 free from (.) I don't know healthier problem. That

13 doesn't mean(.) doesn't make (.) exercising is

14 responsible for all the people. That doesn't mean (.)

15 people (.) who do not exercise (.) are to blame (.)

16 are( ) for all healthy ( ) problems by their society,

17 S1:so (.) normatively speaking(.)should exercise!=

18 S5:=uh?

19 S1:Ask anyone, any [doctor

20→S5: [Can you criticize people?=  
21 S1:=um?=  
22 S5: =Can you criticize people who don't exercise?=  
23 S1: =yeah, in my society, I should.  
24 I, myself, first, criticizing people, I should [( )  
25→S5: [people  
26 think that with full criticize, um, people, is that  
27 issue, by saying that mother don't stay at home?

In excerpt (4) , S1 and S5 argue about the topic of “Economic Inequality.” S5 uses the strategy of making an early entries in lines 20 and 25. In line 21, as part of the overlap resolution, S1 tries to recycle his turn beginning as he does in line 17. However, it is latched with S5’s turn and blocked again line 18. Then, S1 takes his turn in line 19 and S5 makes an early entry in line 20 and blocks S1’s turn again. After S5’s turn, S1 reblocked S5’s turn in line 21, and S5 also takes her turn back by asking that “*Can you criticize people who don’t exercise?*” Then, S1 re-obtains his turn in line 23 and expands his opinion. S5 then uses the strategy of making early entries one more time in line 25, showing her opposition to S1 for disagreement. Below is another example of the strategy of making early entries. The topic of



the segment is “economic inequality.”

### (5) Economic Inequality

01 S6:= the reason why women haven't stopping work and have (.)  
02 nothing there has been children because it's hard to go to the  
03 first place, we have to: that's why the, the, want↑. =  
04 S1: =of course=  
05 S6: so: we should [criticizing ( )]  
06→S1: [The fact that women should be allowed  
07 to particular area. Overall another thing that is life.  
08 Did you get that? Women should stay at home. There are just  
09 two normative statements that cannot be (.) at the same  
10 time. (0.2) Both are should be but just be cannot at  
11 the same time.

In excerpt (5) above, S1 and S6 are on the opposite sides of the argument. S6 talks about the reason why women should keep working at lines 01-03. In his first turn, S1 agrees with the S6's statement by saying “*of course*” in line 04 and then S6 argues that participants criticize the statement that women should work. In the meantime, in line 06, S1 uses the strategy of making early entries and shows his disagreement with the S6's opinion without any disagreement markers at lines 06-11. In this data, the strategy of making early entry is employed when the speaker wants to take one's position earlier than s/he actually has the turn to speak. Especially, in my data, the strategy of making early entries is used for displaying disagreement. There is one more segment in which the strategy of making early entries is used. The topic of the excerpt below is “family values.”

## (6) Family Values

01 S1: tell me, how is it fair or more receive the others [( )]  
02 S10: [because: =  
03 S1: =tell me, [they fought?  
04→S10: [the[y  
05→S1: t[ell me, the brother? Why they are fair.=  
06 S10:=because it. Actually (.) promote. And they are make  
07 a big( ). One people, who dominate.

The excerpt (6) shows that S1 initiates his turn and argues his opinion in line 01. After S1's turn, S10 attempts to take her turn by interrupting S1's turn at the end of S1's statement in line 02. Then, S1, in line 03, asks S10 to tell the reason and S10 takes her turn in line 04 by using the strategy of making early entries. After S10's turn, S1 uses the same strategy as S10 in line 05 by trying to interrupt S10's turn quickly. In the long run, S10 retakes her turn and explains her point and argument at lines 06-07.

Overall, the strategy of making early entries is used when the speaker takes one's turn before the TRP in order to take one's position early. This means that the current speaker does not wait until the previous speaker completes his/her turn and both speakers try to start with a brief attempt in order to enter the floor at or near a PCP in the course of a prior turn, cutting off the ongoing talk when the prior speaker keeps talking, and repeats the attempt as another PCP comes up till s/he finally obtains the floor. Note that this strategy is related to the disagreements, as were the excerpts (4) and (5), and to emphatically taking one's turn as in the excerpt (6).

## 4.2. Topic Management Strategies

The topic management strategies are related to the nature of the data, debate. For that reason,

the strategies are shown when the participants disagree with the previous speaker's opinion. This strategy has three types: (1) the strategy of disagreements, (2) the strategy of reformulation, and (3) the strategy of repair. The first strategy, disagreements can be subdivided into three types: strategy of direct disagreement, strategy of indirect disagreement, and strategy of disagreement with questions.

### 4.2.1. Disagreements

The disagreement strategy reflects the characteristics of the discourse genre, debate, because it signals the disagreement with various types of expressions as noted above: Direct Disagreement, Indirect Disagreement, and Disagreement with questions. The first type of strategy, direct disagreement is used with “*no*” or “*but*.”

#### 4.2.1.1. The Strategy of Direct Disagreements

This strategy is used also when the speaker shows direct disagreements, as can be seen in the examples below. There are two types of direct disagreements: 1) prefaced with “*no*” or multiple “*no*'s”, and 2) prefaced with “*but*.”

#### (7) Power and Business

01 S1: I think government dominate big company. We are  
02 not saying that government should do official and  
03 big business.  
04 S2: That's not. (0.2) That's the whole point?  
05 →S1: no no no, by the ecology or any sustainable (.)  
06 actually government can the profit is a big  
07 → business. But this kind of things is not not the  
08 (.) a big business on the (.)on the um (.)

In excerpt (7), S1 initiates his turn by saying that government dominates company businesses and shows the relationship between government and a company business at lines 01-03. Then, in line 04, S2 displays her disagreement and asks S1 about his previous remark. After S2's turn, S1 shows direct disagreement to that of S2 by saying "No, no, no" in line 05. This multiple "no's" shows direct disagreement, and it is notable that it occurs three times. Here, repetition of direct disagreements, "no, no, no" aggravates the disagreement (Goodwin, 1990). In addition, S1 shows another disagreement in line 07 by saying "but" continuously. This means that disagreement is preferable in the data because the interaction occurs in the debate setting. The second example in the data also demonstrates the use of direct disagreements, "no."

#### (8) Economic Inequality

```
01 S1:= it's not bad. It's not useful for right now. It's like,  
02     because, how many opportunities are undermined. We have (.)  
03     opportunities right now all we have is same opportunities last  
04     night. It's not opportunity. The thing is that last chance.  
05     That's all. That doesn't mean that we have all opportunity  
06     for the first time. Affirmative action is firstly used because  
07     everyone has same opportunities.=  
08→S2:=no, no. That's a whole point?=  
09 S1:=no, no. Last week, we had same opportunity that get to  
10     the top last chances we have.=  
11 S2:=yes
```

In excerpt (8) above, the topic is "Economic Inequality." S1 elaborates his turn by talking about the opportunities for all people and explaining that real equality does not mean the given opportunities which everyone has but the equality given from the birth. By this, he means that affirmative action, in his opinion, can be an example of the same equality at lines 01-07. S2 shows direct disagreement, in line 08, to this by answering with multiple "no" s

and asks S1 about what S1 said by saying “*That’s a whole point?*” Then, in the next turn in line 09, S1 responds to the S2’s question and takes an example about the same opportunity as Americans. S2 uses the strategy of direct disagreement and the disagreement with questions, which we will review in the next section, at the same time in line 08 in this segment. The following segment shows the debate session in which students are talking about the topic “multiculturalism.”

### (9) Multiculturalism

01 S1: not necessarily, of course<sup>↑</sup>, just as many peaceful  
02 Third world people, that’s(0.1) violent people  
03 in the third world countries, the thing  
04 Is that, regardless of the whole violent people are,  
05 and increased third world immigration is correlated  
06 increased violence in the host country.=  
07→S6=but(.) also in another respect, I don’t remember  
08 which country it is, it’s USA, I’m not sure, that.  
09 Some India worker, working in google, with, you know,  
10 they did a lot, because thank to really foreign workers<sup>↑</sup>,  
11 and tha:t that is the third world bias things.

The excerpt (9) has S1’s talking about people from developing countries. In his turn, he argues that they are violent in the host country and that, as a result, the violence has increased because of their immigration to a host country at lines 01-06. On the other hand, S6 shows her direct disagreement by saying “*but*” in line 07, and continues to claim her opinion in a somewhat softened manner with “*I don’t remember*” in line 07 and with “*I’m not sure*” in line 08 by taking the example of Indians in the United States. In the data, S6 wants to expand her turn by disagreeing with the S1’s claim so she shows her direct disagreement by signaling “*but*.” The next data displays how “*but*” is deployed in a less mitigated way in disagreements.

## (10) Multiculturalism

01 S6: Is it possible?  
02 S1: of course  
03 S2: it's not because it's from third world country. Canada  
04 but because they are not allowed Chinese, as well as ( )  
05 does it make sense? Koreans, and Canada=  
06→S1:=but=  
07→S2:=but=  
08 S1: many countries do that, many western countries do that.

In excerpt (10), S6 initiates her turn by asking a question to S1 in line 01 and then S1 answers to the question in line 02. After the S1's turn, S2 argues in lines 03-05 that violent people (referring to “*they*” in line 04) such as the Chinese are forbidden to enter Canada although they are not from the third world country. In line 06, S1 shows his direct disagreement right after the S2's turn by saying “*but*,”: and then S2 tries to disagree directly in line 07 by saying, without delay, “*but*” as well. This mutual direct disagreement between S1 and S2 at lines 06-07 means that the two speakers actively are participating in the debate. Finally, S1 takes his turn and then asserts his opinion in line 08. In the data, “*but*” is also used for demonstrating one's direct disagreement. There is one more example in which the participant uses the “*but*” as their direct disagreement.

## (11) Muticulturalism

01 S8:= there is a humiliation (.) probably different from you  
02 sure, but you don't kill, that's surprise, don't kill!  
03 ((everyone laughs))  
04 that's the: last and worst thing you can do.  
04 You don't kill! (.) okay. That's (.) I think that  
05 both sides (.)states (.)that government, is trying to help,  
06→ immigrants, so on. (0.2). but you think of it. Governments

07→ really (have) no responsibility for?  
 (lines omitted)  
 15 Don't ask for. So, what's the host country have for them?  
 16 Actually non. But stealing is benefits. It's plus! =  
 17→S9:=but government accepted the immigrants, they should accept  
 18 that (.)because we don't like people come to our country.

In the data (11), S8 at lines 01-04 says that killing is the worst and last thing that people do, and that the host country (government) tries to help the host citizen and the immigrants (referring to “*both sides*” in line 05). She then claims in lines 15-16 that the host country does not have to be responsible for the immigrants’ economic benefits. After the S8’s turn, S9 displays her counter-claim about what S8’ says by signaling “*but*” without delay in line 17, and then expands her argument in opposition to S1.

So far, we have examined two types of direct disagreements in my data: (1) no or multiple *nos*, and (2) *but*. Both types of direct disagreements are sometimes shown in the questions forms in order to disagree with the prior speaker’s opinion.

#### 4.2.1.2. The Strategy of Indirect Disagreements

This strategy is used when the speaker shows disagreements in a less aggressive manner. The strategy starts with an agreement, then is followed by disagreement. This strategy can be seen in the example below.

##### (12) Multiculturalism

01 S1:To what extent, sure, but to my point is, sure □  
 02 there are situations are whites and non-whites’ bias.  
 03 White people, more easily forgiven, compared to  
 04 (.), more easily, ethnically colored people. That

05 sounds very bad. Um, but, if you look, at the case of  
 06 the Hong Kong, for example, people who go there, 100 of  
 07 population from developed countries, Japan, Korea,  
 08 generally speaking, world. The criminality almost  
 09 existent □, compared criminality,  
 10 things. That are not only (.) CRI-MI-NAL-ITY, killing.  
 (lines omitted)  
 14 (0.2)  
 15 yes, gloss all, than it's baby, it's styles, and □,  
 16 and, that, this example, there should be A bias, to my  
 17 actually be sometimes.  
 18 (0.3)  
 19 →S2:what, yeah, but that's like problem is people have a  
 20 bias (0.2) because like they were (.)other, they were  
 21 dirty or more violent something like that. The reason  
 22 why they were more violent than some of the  
 23 western countries (0.2)come to, go to HongKong or Korea to  
 24 have a decent job, but most of (0.2)countries will over  
 25 hear, it is not a decent job, most of them have 3D  
 26 jobs. That's why, that's why it is (0.2) they are,  
 27 they're little bit poorer something like that, there  
 28 gonna be that's why they were might be that does not  
 29 mean that third world people violent and (.)

In the excerpt above, S1 starts his turn with an agreement “*To what extent ... sure*” and then expands his opinion. He argues at lines 01-17, that there is a bias towards non-white people, especially those who immigrate to developed countries such as Korea and Japan, because the host country citizens think that the immigrants show criminal behaviors, such as, killing other people. However, after a pause (0.3) in line 19, S2 makes known his disagreement with the what S1 spoke of in the previous turn by saying “*yeah, but*” in line 19 and then expands her arguments in lines 19-29. This indirect disagreement is similar to that discussed by Yoon (2009). There is another excerpt where another type of indirect disagreement is employed. The topic of this segment is “social minorities.”



### (13) Social Minorities

01 S1: That's whole point.=  
02 S2: =no, no. ( ) last week, we had opportunity that  
03 get to the pie last chances we have.=  
04 S1:=yes  
05 P: that's a good point to discussion.=  
06 →S1:=yeah, that's the exactly ( ). But, we're talking  
07 about the ( )chances. (.)  
08 For the same marriage, because (.) if two people.  
09 ( )have same marriage, ( ).From Paris, ( )they  
10 should have same chances into the same company, as  
11 the same rates, rights? If they ( ) vision( )is  
12 that the highest division, highest rate. Both get  
13 same chances (.). that's what's um, ethnologist  
14 exist for. Colored people had, same chances,  
15 regardless of background.

The excerpt (13) shows indirect disagreement “*Yeah X but..*” which is slightly different from that shown in the segment (12) discussed above. The segment (13) firstly shows the statement by S1, followed by S2’s response of saying “*no*” in line 02 and continues S2’s turn until line 03. Then, S1 shows his agreement, actually using “backchannels” in order to continuing the flow of the talk in line 04. After S1’s turn, the professor compliments S2’s comments in line 05. S1 at lines 06-15 then displays his partial agreement, “*yeah*” by saying that “*That’s the exactly ( )*” in line 06 and finally says “*but*” and elaborates his opinion. Compared to excerpt (12), “*Yeah, but*” is displayed without any element in between. To be specific, “*Yeah, but*” sounds more direct than “*Yeah X but*” in that the former just shows the current speaker’s opposition to the prior speaker’s comments, but the latter shows partial agreement with the statement then demonstrates disagreement. However, both indirect disagreements can be used when the addresser accepts the other’s opinion then expands his or

her argument. Furthermore, these two indirect expressions even show the preference structure in the debate talk, which means that disagreements are preferable because the indirect disagreement phrases appear at the beginning of each speaker's turn. There are other types of indirect disagreements as the following: "*it is true X but*," and "*I agree with that X but*."

#### (14) Multiculturalism

01 S2: So, your saying that in that example, I have a bias against  
02 those Americans, beca:use obviously, they do not commit  
03 crimes, obviously (.)there are not more violent tha:n  
04 my poor neighbors (0.4). I mean, sure<sup>↑</sup> people might have bias,  
05 but it's because people have bias? The truth is not there<sup>↑</sup>(.)  
06 You see what I mean. (0.2)  
07→S7:Hmm, it is true in case of Brussel or America, it is true  
08 that there are band and a lot of violence there, but in  
09 case of Korea, it has not been that much issue crime(.)  
10 to each other foreigners and foreigners, a:nd it's like (.),  
11 yeah, it's not a part of Korean situation at all.

In the segment above, S2 reformulates what the prior speaker says in line 01 and asserts in lines 03-04 that the statement that Americans in the United States are less violent than other colored-people is biased. After the S2's turn, S7 shows partial agreement by saying that "*It is true that X but*" at lines 07-08. S7 accepts S2' opinion at first but she shows disagreement by signaling with "*but*" in line 08, and then expands her opinion about the Korean case, which is different from cases of Brussels or the United States. This indirect disagreement is shown with the statement form "*it is true that-clause plus but*." There is another example where "*it is true that but*" is used below. The topic of the data is "family values."

## (15) Family Values

01 S1:but they're not any more. It's a traditional family has a child  
02 or children. But you're saying about second form of family.  
03 S6:=um  
04 S1:=not the superficial? Any more.  
05→S6:=ya: it's true that but it's little allowed communication  
06 but it's a traditional family form because they're a lot  
07 of child because(0.2) they have a lot of communication.  
08 Even though they a lot of time, they communicate.

In this excerpt, S1 talks about the traditional form of family, clarifying what the form is, and then, he rephrases what S6's said in the previous turn at lines 01-02. In S6's turn, she gives positive responses to what S1 said in line 02, and S1 points out in line 04 that the classification by S6 is superficial. After S1's turn, S6 expands her turn by claiming that the traditional family has many children and that there is much communication among each other. However, the form of the family S6 has spoken of has little communication at lines 05-08. At S6's turn, she shows indirect disagreement by saying that "*it is true that but..*" in line 05 but continues her remarks. There is another excerpt in which a different type of indirect disagreements, "*I agree with that X but*" is employed.

## (16) Economic Inequality

01 S1: The background is probably, it's most important thing.  
02 of course, Of course but what? Then(.) they don't  
03 accept one, or two examples, you want for things,  
04 yes of course, but what, what is it? One African-American  
05 woman, black American, African-American, how  
06 many millions? Please do tell me how many millions could?  
07 I think American in that sense. Or not position, in order to,  
08 um,please do tell me (about) it?

09 S9: ( )  
 10 S1: please, you don't.  
 11 ((Everyone laughs ))  
 12→S9: I agree with that (.) it is unfair (.) but how about this one?  
 13 Is it fair to( ) not only( )but also ( )but how about  
 14 this part? Is(.)is hire that those who(.) who have social  
 15 background to revolve possibilities and that because only one=  
 16 S1:=but,=  
 17 S9:=I don't understand

In this segment, S1 starts his turn by talking about the importance of ethnic background and raises questions to everyone at lines 04-08. Then, S9 says her opinion quietly in line 09 that her point is lost. After S9's turn, S1 asks S9 to clarify the point again by saying "*please you don't (tell me about it)*" in line 10. After S1's utterance, S9 uses indirect disagreement to oppose S1's claim by saying "*I agree with that X but*" in line 12. Then, S9 continues her argument by pointing out a different aspect by saying "*how about this part*" in line 13. This indirect disagreement is used in order to show partial agreement with disagreement but also reflects NNS's modesty during debate.

In all, there are four types of indirect disagreements, "*Yeah but,*" "*Yeah X but,*" "*It is true that X but,*" and "*I agree with that X but.*" Both NSs and NNSs seem to be able to use various indirect disagreement expressions. The third type of disagreement, disagreement with questions, is shown in the next section.

#### 4.2.1.3. The Strategy of Disagreements with questions

In this section, special type of disagreements using question forms is discussed. This strategy is used when the speaker wants to disagree, but shows disagreements by using questions, that signal that the current speaker is opposed to the previous participant. There is an excerpt in which the disagreement with questions is deployed.

## (17) Multiculturalism

01 S7: do they do that illegal immigrants? Or to only (.)  
02 S8: even if they come here as illegal workers<sup>↑</sup> they could  
03 be illegal workers, because employer they out there (.)  
04 their experience really  
05 S9:(0.3) you know what to ( ). I agree government allows a  
06 lot the, um, immigrants<sup>↑</sup>, but the, the, the core  
07 problem is that, these immigrants are not be some government,  
08 I mean, this, these immigrants are, here to live life, so, more,  
09 um, um, force to people around them, whether people up in the  
10 government structure, so I believe, even though government  
11 try hard to stimulate people, persuade?  
12 for example, uh, uh, it was a this year, there was an immigrant  
13 who killed a:: Korean citizen, and I believe that increased  
14 crime rates there was the problem is, with the: Korean  
15 citizen, this person, who were killed:, uh, were responsible  
16 for pain<sup>↑</sup>,the immigrants for his work, however, because, uh,  
(lines omitted)  
23 Korean themselves, was not assimilated to their immigrants  
24 they are not a lot of crime rates in host countries. It's(.)  
25 it's possible for.  
26→S1: um, yeah, first of all, do you kill for money?  
27 ((everyone laughs))  
28 I mean, no matter reason, you don't kill for money.  
29 I mean, basically, anyone except that (.) to say=  
30 S9: =uh, uh, even though I don't agree that people kill for  
31 money,however, the core problem is that uh, the,  
32 employer<sup>↑</sup>, they are.

The topic of the excerpt is “multiculturalism.” S7 initiates her turn with a questioning form as “*do they do that illegal immigrants?*” then S8 takes her turn in response to S7’s remarks in lines 02-04. After S8’s turn, there is a silence (0.3), then S9 starts her turn by arguing. She agrees with the statement that the government allows immigrants to come to the host country. She also points out that there is not close relationship between crime rates and immigration, although she acknowledges by using an example of a particular murder case in

Korea some immigrants who kill the host citizens at lines 05-25. After S9's long turn, S1 shows partial agreement "yeah," then asks the question as "do you kill for money?" in line 26. He answers himself by saying that "you don't kill for money" in line 28 in order to his actual disagreement with S9's perspective regarding immigrants. After S1's turn, S9 shows again her disagreement with what S1's said in the prior turn signaling with the use of "however" in line 31. In the data, S1 uses 'yes-no questions forms.' Below is another segment in which the second type of disagreement with questions is used.

### (18) Power and Business

01 S1: on the other hand, there are many(.) many policies  
02 go against big companies and talk about them.  
03 ((everyone laughs))  
04 S3: and you're saying (.)like because government um  
05 (.)um on(.) on business. let's say that government  
06→ on the(.) but why was so much taxation cuts,  
07→ so much sense, um, which is name?=  
08 S1: =royals  
09 S3: He has s[omething  
10 S1: [it was taxation cuts, right which is ( )temporary  
11 and ( ) prices.  
12 S3: really?  
13 S1: if you look at (.) go get China. We're talking  
14 about go government.

In this excerpt, S1 begins his turn by showing disagreement signaled by "on the other hand" then expands his argument. After S1's turn, S3 rephrases what S1 said in the previous turn by saying "you're saying (.) like.." in line 04 and continues her talk until line 07. In S3's talk, she shows her disagreement with the S1's argument that the government has a policy against big companies by asking to S1 question such as "why was so much taxation cuts, so

*much sense, um, which is name?"* in lines 06-07, prefaced with the disagreement marker, *but*. This disagreement is shown with 'Wh-questions' as a kind of rhetorical questions. S1 quickly answers S3's question in line 08 and S3 expands her turn in line 09. However, S1 cuts off S3's turn even though S3 does not finish her turn in line 10, and S1 keeps arguing his opinion about the government's policy regarding big companies until line 11. S3 subsequently responds to S1's talk by saying "*really?*" with the intention to check the truth of the fact which S1 presents in line 12, S1, next, reasserts his point by taking an example of China at lines 13-14.

In summary, my data shows that the strategy of disagreement in questions is used to disagree with the prior speaker's disagreement by signaling with two types of questions: (1) yes-no questions in excerpt (17), and (2) Wh-questions in segment (18). Similar types of disagreements are found in Waring (2000) and Yoon (2009), and are shown as question repeats or rhetorical questions.

#### 4.2.2. The Strategy of Reformulation

The strategy of reformulation is used when the current speaker shows an understanding of the point that the prior speaker mentioned, then disagrees with the opinion in the next turn. There are two forms of reformulation shown in the collected data in this study: "*so you're saying...*" and "*you said that...*". The function of reformulation is to display taking up the point of the prior turn and also to show one's opinion about the previous argument. The strategy of reformulation can be aggravated if the disagreement is uttered frequently, as repetition often is (Goodwin, 1990). There is an excerpt in which the strategy of reformulation, "*so you're saying...*" is deployed below.

(19) Power and Business

01 S2: I think government dominate big company. We are  
02 not saying that government should do office and  
03 big business.  
04 S1: That's not (0.2) that's the whole point.  
05 S2: no no no, by the ecology or any sustainable (.)  
06 actually government can the profit is a big  
07 business. But this kind of things is not not the  
08 (.) a big business on the (.)on the um (.)  
(lines omitted)  
25 S1: on the other hand, there are many many policies  
26 go against big companies and talk about them.  
27 ((everybody laughs))  
28 →S3: so (.) you're saying (0.2) like because government  
29 um (.) um (.) on on business? Let's say that  
30 government on the (.) but why was so much taxation  
31 cuts, so much sense, um, which is name? =  
32 S1: =royals  
33 S3: he has s[omething  
34 S1: [it was taxation cuts, right which  
35 is temporary and ( ) prices.  
36 S3: really?  
37 S1: If you look at (.)go get China. We're talking about  
38 government. I'm not curious (.)China I

There is the same excerpt as that of (18). In this segment, S1 and S2 are on the opposite sides of the argument. S1 argues that government is dominated by big companies in line 04. In contrast, S2 states a counter-opinion in line 05, and S1 follows by showing his disagreement with S2's statement in line 04. In line 05, S2 says "no no no" in order to show a counter-opinion about S1's claim. Then, S2 demonstrates her disagreement in lines 25-26. S3, in line 28, comes into the discussion and reformulates: "*So you're saying like because government (is) on business?*" By doing so, she forces S1 to clarify what is being implied. S3 thus, attempts to "test the limit" (Gonzales, 1997: 194) of S1's argument by forcing S1 to say what "might have been only alluded to." What S3 does by reformulation is, along with the



expansion of turns, a modified confirmation of utterances which S1 makes earlier. There is another excerpt in which different type of reformulation, “*you said that ..*” is used below.

(20) Sex role and Gender

01 S1:= um, I think that (.)because society, the pressure  
02 (0.2) when choices, too something it's not  
03 something ((laughing))force=  
04 S2:=uh=  
05 S3:=and force  
06 P: =it is the, the choice?  
((Everybody is laughing))  
07 this is what, the, person, according to the (.) the  
08 (.) and the other (.) it says, biological (0.2)  
09 and then, force issues, the false choice, it's not  
10 the choice, (.)and, and the according to Claudia  
11 wants or government (.)issue (.)choice is too  
12 that's not false, it's not false=  
13 →S2:=you said that it's not the false choice,  
14 exercising the both they call the children properly  
15 being fault regardless of being men or women. But  
16 you have false the choice (0.2) the choice before  
17 the choice and things as they should (.) That's the  
18 false choice, that:s not false and someone and the  
19 other. You know what I mean=

In excerpt (20), the topic is “Sex Role and Gender.” S1 argues that the government forces people to choose sex roles, and S2 and S3 attempt to respond to S1’s opinion without hesitation in lines 04 and 05 respectively. Next, the professor clarifies the point and S2, in lines 06-12, reformulates what he said, actually clarifying S1’s remarks. After the professor’s turn, S2 shows her disagreement by using “*You said that...*” in line 13. In this case, reformulation also occurs at the beginning of the turn and is used for the purpose of addressing conflicting opinions based on the disagreement marker, “*but*” in line 15.

In sum, the two reformulating forms, “*so you’re saying that*” and “*you said that...*” have similarity in where they emerge in the debate, that is, in the initial turn. These two types of reformulation have slightly different structures in that: “*so you’re saying that*” has the framing conjunction “*so*” plus the clause, “*you’re saying*” followed by the conjunction “*that*” leading to a version of previous statement. However, “*you said that...*” has the structure of a main clause “*you said*” plus a conjunction “*that*” followed by a version of prior talk. According to Gonzales (1996), the most reformulations occur at the beginning of a turn or to turn construction unit, and they have a tendency to begin with a single conjunction “*so*” or to a wh-word (“*what*” as in “*what you said that...*”). In my data, the construction of the reformulation is similar to that of Gonzales (1996). As for the function of the strategy of reformulation, it is not just the repetition of the prior talk. Rather, it provides some version of what have been said earlier. In this respect, the properties of reformulations mean that they always follow the prior talk. As the data shows, the strategy of reformulation relies on and is inferentially built upon prior talk and in a sense, “next” to that prior talk (Schegloff, 1992).

Briefly speaking, the strategy of reformulation displays not only the current speaker’s understanding but also makes the speaker’s understanding more explicitly, or more “exposed” manner (Gonzales, 1996: 189). In addition, the strategy foreshadows a speaker’s understanding, bringing it to the conversational table. In my data, this is inherently related to disagreements because of the nature of the setting: debates.

#### 4.2.3. The Strategy of Self-Initiated, Other-completed Repair

Repair is a resource for interlocutors to address all problems (the trouble source, TS, henceforth) in speaking, hearing, and understanding the talk (Schegloff et al, 1977). According to Schegloff et al (1977), repair is not a random phenomenon but an orderly

organization of practices. Repair includes two parts: (1) repair-initiation, marking something as a problem, and (2) repair-completion, solving a problem regardless of success or failure. In my data, there are two examples in which the current speaker of the TS initiates the repair but s/he cannot complete the repair and other interactant(s) carry out the repair, which is called self-initiated, other-completed repair. Self-initiations exploit various non-lexical speech perturbations such as cut-offs, sound stretches, and ‘uh’ to signal the possibility of immediate repair-initiation.

Other-completed repair has a function of finding a proper word that the current speaker wants to use and of designing the current speaker’s turn. This strategy is used to continue the discussion of a topic when the current speaker asks for help from the other participants. There is an example of self-initiated, other-completed repair below.

#### (21) Welfare and Reform

01 S1:how many workers, so many workers(.) free in charge (.)  
02 for (.) I don’t know (.) for day or something.  
03 P: the(.) eight hours per day=  
04 TS S1:=eight hours per day?  
05 (0.4)  
06 → S9: forty-five=  
07 S1: =forty-five. In France, the maximum, total hours, is (.)  
08 twenty-five (.)

In this excerpt, S1 raises his query by saying that “*how many governments..?*” at lines 01-02. Then, the professor responds to S1 in line 03 and S1 restates the professor’s answer by saying “*eight hours per day?*” with a question form in line 04, which means that the professor’s answer becomes a TS by S1. After S1’s turn, S9 gives the answer that S1 wants to get (the weekly total working hours in Korea) in line 06, and S1 confirms the answer in line

07 by comparing the working hours in Korean with those of France. In the data, S1 initiates the repair, then S9 completes it in order to give the right answer to S1. An example of repair used by a participant is shown below.

## (22) Government and Market

01 S1: well, begin the example, were, how many governments,  
02 the government, but a few things, to mention, is,  
03 there was (.) government is a company. For example,  
04 for China, are China, basically of, companies.  
05 As take your friends, Germany, England, to I'm not  
06 naturally saying that, Europe,  
07 many becomes. There are water companies, companies,  
08 u:m, so on. Government of companies, s:o,  
09 in that sense, government was dominated by them.  
10 The government owns them. A:nd those are things  
11 that are prioritized. Yet many countries.  
(lines omitted)  
22 S6:=How (can) be government on everything though?  
23 S1:they don't do everything. They deal companies.  
24 TS Those companies I mention, like, w: =  
25→ S6:=water?  
26 S1:waters (0.2). Waters in French.

In the excerpt (22) above, the topic is “Government and Market” and the main issue is whether government should intervene in a capitalist economy. S1 argues that government is (like) a company in China and that the government is dominated by companies, and offers two examples—one Chinese and one European company—offered in lines 01-21. After S1’s turn, S6 raises her questions about what S1 said in line 22 of the previous turn. Then, S1, in line 24, tries to explain his points in detail, but shows as cut-offs because he cannot find the word that he wants to use, for example, by saying “w-” which is TS. In the next turn, in line

25, S6 completes a repair by finding the word in a question form in order to clarify without delay (see latch in line 25), and then confirmation is followed by S1 after it is elicited in line 26. Thus, the trouble source was solved by S6.

The TCU construction is lexical (“*forty-five*” and “*water*”) in the two excerpts above. To be specific, the TCU consists of a component of repetition, and it is answered with hesitation (pause) along with qualified expansions, which give a detailed explanation of the topic that is discussed. The repair in this excerpt functions as a word-search so that the speaker can continue to expand his turn.

In general, repair is employed at first when speakers show that there has been a problem in understanding or hearing the interlocutor’s prior utterance. Overall, in the data, the strategy of self-initiated and other-completed repair is demonstrated as finding the right information in the segment (21) and as word-searching as in the excerpt (22) followed by confirmation after other-completed repair. This type of other-completed repair strategy shows preferred based on the latch, which means without delay or hesitation.

### 4.3. Social Strategies

There are also social strategies used: strategies of vulnerability while non-understanding and strategies of vulnerability for avoiding conflict. Strategies of vulnerability during non-understanding, and strategies of vulnerability for avoiding conflict are used to mitigate the current speaker’s aggravated tone when the speaker disagrees with the prior speaker’s opinion.

#### 4.3.1. The Strategy of Vulnerability Acknowledging Non-understanding

Asserting vulnerability is used in the context of an existing critique. This strategy is

used with the phrases “*I don’t know*”, “*I don’t remember*,” and “*I’m not sure*.” These phrases function to mitigate the current speaker’s assertion when he/she disagrees with the prior speaker. The excerpt below shows the situation.

### (23) Family Values

01 S1: not necessarily, of course<sup>↑</sup>, just as many peaceful, Third  
02 world people, that’s(.) violent people in the third world  
03 countries, the thing is that, regardless of the whole violent  
04 people are, and increased third world immigration is  
05 correlated (to) increased violence in the host country.=  
06→S5: =but also in another respect, I don’t remember which country  
07→ it is, it’s USA, >I’m not sure<, that. Some India worker,  
08 working in Google, with, you know, they did a lot, because (.)  
09 thank to really foreign workers<sup>↑</sup>, and tha:t that is the third  
10 world bias things.

Excerpt (23) above shows the interaction between S1 and S5. The topic of this talk is “Family Values”, and the issue of the ongoing talk is that immigration from the third-world to the developed world can be a threat to the citizens in the host country. At lines 01-05, S1 argues that people from the third-world are harmful to the host citizens. S5 aggressively and without delay casts doubt on S1’s argument by showing latches in line 06. Here, S5 does not clearly know about the name of the country that she uses as an example to support her moderated contention by saying, “*I don’t remember which country it is, it’s USA, I’m not sure, that*” at lines 06-07. Then, she continues her talk by also giving another instance, Korea and counter-claims that third world people are victims of crime by Koreans, for example. The S4 shows her vulnerability by saying the phrase, “*I don’t know*” with a calmer tone than that of her preceding remarks.

## (24) Economic Inequality

01 S4: why, should do, regardless itself<sup>↑</sup>, the well-known of  
02 social pressure should be?  
03 S1: technically, social pressure should do exist, because  
04 society, because that social pressure in your own. Before  
05 women position (.). I'm not very very sexiest right now.  
(lines omitted)  
11 women decide to choose the place in the first pace? Don't  
12 say it's fast. But only know but society<sup>↑</sup>, is made by  
13 its component. Including women, you deal (with) women (.)  
14 of yourself.<sup>↑</sup>  
15 (0.7)  
16 S5: I think that uh, uh (0.3) not only that society, by  
17 someone force, and remain to choose ( ) not  
18 only (.)changing, but also, women<sup>↑</sup>, (0.1) somewhat feel  
19→ guilty. Because they feel (.) I don't know women,  
20 historically educated, either historically educated or  
21 woman feels guilty when they have to a:nd (0.2), ya, that  
22→ is the point that. I don't know the front guy that ( )  
23 S1: first of all, in my argument? It is noticed that most  
24 of pressure put onto (.) from the women<sup>↑</sup>, is not made by  
25 the evil like we are. I mean, most of men,,made by  
26 mother, other women, do different trust.

In the data above, S1 and S4 are talking about “Economic Inequality.” S4 initiates the turn with questions about the way social pressures exist in lines 01-02. S1 then expands his turn in lines 03-14, by responding to the S4’s question. In line 19, S5 shows her vulnerability by saying, “*I don’t know*” after the pause (.) because she does not have enough understanding about the historical background of the education of women. In addition, S5 shows her vulnerability again in line 22 because she is not sure of the point of S1’s argument (“*the front guy*” in line 22).

In summary, the participants use “*I don’t know*” or “*I don’t remember*” or “*I’m not*

*sure*” as hedges in order to mitigate the conflict between the groups in the debate. The expressions seem to show non-understanding, but they function to lessen the conflict between the two opposing sides.

### 4.3.2. The Strategy of Vulnerability for Avoiding Conflict

The strategies of vulnerability for avoiding dispute consist of two parts: disagreeing with “citation,” and using the phrases “*according to X*” in order to support the prior speaker’s stance followed by an assertion of one’s opinion that is actually aimed at showing one’s disagreement.

According to Brown & Levinson's (1987), disagreements are most likely to constitute a threat to the hearer's positive bearing, as disagreement usually questions the hearer's competence or even truthfulness and thus damages his or her self-image. Therefore, agreements will be preferred over the Face Threatening Act (henceforth, FTA) of disagreement whenever possible. In my data below, the speaker tries to defend himself/herself. However, he/she does not offend the listener’s position by consciously softening the assertion of his/her disagreement. There are two excerpts below from the study data, which show the use of citation to avoid conflict based on the FTA.

#### (25) Multiculturalism

01 S2:the problem is they are not a because money  
02 in Korea (.) countries assimilated they thought to say, um,  
03 they easy to, um, they thought to, um, =  
04 P: =actually, they don't want to assimilate, they didn't want  
05 to, they don't want to be Koreans. They just want to something  
06 like that  
07 (0.2)



08 →S4:um, according to the last class<sup>↑</sup>, the professor said  
 09 that : there was an tendency, there was , in this perception,  
 10 I don't see that the host countries were more responsible to  
 11 commit the crimes, as well as two times because we wanna be  
 12 more concept, you know, (.)So that , I believe that  
 13 the responsibility, as her point (.)you know, and there are  
 14 many crimes<sup>↑</sup>, they come to Korea to earn money, and<sup>↑</sup>,  
 (lines omitted)  
 20 though they work, you know, work in our country lonely, just  
 21 give them proper social welfare<sup>↑</sup>, we didn't give a, um,  
 22 you know, same condition, you know, Korean workers, or  
 23 factories, that's might be the reasons why they committed  
 24 much more crimes.  
 25 S3: okay, um, that's sort of thing, I'm sorry.

In the excerpt (25), S2 in lines 01-03 initiates her turn by suggesting the problem in Korea is that Koreans think that immigrants are assimilated to host citizens. Then, the professor, in lines 04-06, points out that the problem is about whether immigrants do not want to be assimilated with the host citizens. After the professor's turn, there is a pause (0.2) and then S4 shows his/her disagreement by saying, "*according to the last class*" in line 08. This is a citation format because he/she expands her opinion based on what the professor said in the class in the previous presentation session. In expressing a disagreement with a "citation", the phrase "*according to X*" is used to mitigate the conflict with the opposed speaker who is being opposed. As seen in the excerpt, S4 then expresses her counterargument by saying, "*I don't see*" later in line 10 and expands her talk until line 24. S3 then finally understands S8's point. There is another example in which "*according to X*" is deployed.

## (26) Sex Roles and Gender

01 P: Corporation will increase using the government for their company.  
 02 (0.3)  
 03 S10: I think foreign reminds me (.) uh, WTO, you know,

04 many produce and farmers but, um, those kind of  
05 things, uh, actually that hard, but, those kind  
06 of things, actually done in Korea, you know people  
07 who are came, those kind of WTO, where the organization,  
08 enforce the government, but the world trade or  
09 organization actually ( )bad thing in the company, right?  
10 What ( ) just we're see that, even though many people  
11 protested and demonstrated their opinions, I don't  
12 think that those kind of things, are actually more  
13 effective than, u:m other than big business.  
14 (1.2)

15→S8: According to the author, Geoffrey:::=  
16 P: =Geoffrey Reiman.  
17 S8: =uh, Geoffrey Reiman, oh, yeah, the author, not  
18 corporate a corporation, a company, business are ( )  
19 focus on individually but it's very easy for them to make  
20 although the coalition↑ each other. It's they have common  
21 goals to: actually like public goods. So(.) I think  
22 (.) ya(.) actually (.) really look up the side of general  
23 ( ) it can't be wait but(.) these days being for  
24 gathering to: u:m to increase their life (.) actually  
25 their goals, not like business, (but) a way to  
26 pressure to government↑ it's like, how to say that,  
27 government is from the five big business?

In this excerpt, the professor initiates his turn by saying that companies use the government for their business: S10 agrees with the professor's opinion, in lines 03-14, and takes an example of the WTO in order to support her claim. Then, there is a long pause (1.2) and S8 starts her turn in line 15, by using the citation form, "*according to the author, Geoffrey:*" but does not complete her argument because she does not remember the author she wants to cite to express her opinion about what S10 said in the prior turn in a more mitigated manner. When the professor suggests the full name of the author, answer in line 16, and S8 restates her assertion that the author argued that the big companies do not corporate a big business or industry and rather focus on individuals because of the public goods. Based

on the author's claim, S8 thinks that companies do not use the government, and that they pressure governments, as distinguished from what S10 asserted in the two turns before in lines 18-28. Here, to avoid conflict with S10, S8 adopts the citation form, "*according to X*" to show her disagreement.

So far, participants use the reformulation in order to assert their disagreement based on the prior speaker's point. This strategy reflects NNS' characteristics during debates. Moreover, NNS are conscious of their non-nativeness in EFL classroom setting. For that reason, most participants show vulnerability during an English-medium debate.

In brief, we have reviewed three types of discourse strategies: conversational management strategies, topic management strategies, and social strategies. Each strategy has functions. First, conversational management strategy is engaged in order to manage turns. Moreover, they are related to turn-taking by providing two kinds of turn distributions. Second, topic management strategies are used to formulate topics, to enhance understanding and to continuously expand one's turn. They are also closely related to showing the current speaker's disagreement, using various disagreement expressions, and the strategy of reformulation and that of repair. Lastly, the social strategies convey the relationships between the people who are speaking and contribute to the same purpose indirectly by providing the necessary components for maintaining the cohesiveness of the group. They are related to mitigating by showing vulnerability in order to acknowledge non-understanding and to avoid conflict.

## Chapter 5. Conclusions

This study analyzed students' discourse and interaction management strategies used in a university seminar discussion class within the framework of conversation analysis. The salient findings of the current study are as follows: three discourse strategies are used, e.g., conversational management strategies, topic management strategies, and social strategies. Before investigating each strategy, I showed the two types of the turn distribution: (1) students' turn distribution after the professor proffers a topic, and (2) overall turn distribution. To be specific, the turn distribution after the professor proffers a topic was showed in the very beginning and after in the middle of the class, or the professor interrupts and provides a new topic when there is a topic caveat or the students do not seem to expand on the prior topic. Participations in the very beginning or after in the middle of the class after the professor's topic proffer are difficult because the students' first turn has a tendency to direct the discussion and because other students join without counter-arguments and disagreements. Thus, the result shows a skewing pattern in terms of turn distribution. The overall turn distribution has displayed that only a limited number of the students participate, not the whole classes. The number of the students who frequently take turn was five (S1, S2, S6, S8, and S10). This frequency of participants demonstrates a wide gap among participants. The skewing is even greater in overall distribution than in the distribution after the professor's topic proffer.

Concerning the three strategies, the findings are as follows: first, the conversational management strategies include: (1) the strategy of linking to prior turn with "*adding to X*" or "*add to one's point*," and (2) the strategy of making early entries. The two subtype strategies are related to the turn-taking. As for the strategy of linking to prior turn with "*adding to X*" or "*add to one's point*," it is used to relate one's opinion to the prior talk and connect the

previous points to those by the current speaker in the light of turn-taking. What looks interesting is when the current speaker tries to link to a point of the other speaker's, which is situated a few turns before. As for the strategy of making early entries, the strategy reflects the current speaker's projectability for the purpose of making a turn by taking a position before TRP, and of showing one's disagreement. Second, the topic management strategies encompass three subtypes: (1) disagreements, (2) the strategy of reformulation, and (3) the strategy of self-initiated, other-completed repair. First, disagreements have three strategy subtypes. Direct disagreement prefaced with "no" and *but*," indirect disagreement prefaced with "yeah but" or "yeah X but," "It is true X but" and "I agree with X but," and disagreement with questions (in my data, yes-no type and Wh-type questions). Second, the strategy of reformulation is used with "so you're saying" and "you said that," which display not only the current speaker's understanding but also makes the speaker's understanding more explicit, or in a more "exposed" manner (Gonzales, 1996: 189). In addition, this strategy foregrounds a speaker's understanding by bringing the idea to the conversational table and is inherently related to disagreements in my data because of the nature of the setting, debate. Third, the strategy of repair whose type is self-initiated and other-completed which have lexical TCU whose construction is shown as "forty-five" and "water." As for the repair, in my data, its TCU consists of a component of repetition, and it is answered with hesitation (pause) along with qualified expansions, which is followed by a detailed explanation of the topic that is discussed. The repetition in this excerpt functions as a word-search so that the speaker can continue to expand his turn. Finally, the social strategies have two types of mitigating strategies: (1) the strategy of vulnerability acknowledging non-understanding, and (2) the strategy of vulnerability for avoiding conflict. The vulnerability-showing strategies are used when the speaker does not have enough knowledge about the topic or the point of an argument in the previous turn. These are typically expressed with the phrases, "I don't know"

or “*I don’t remember*” or “*I’m not sure.*” The strategy of avoiding conflict is demonstrated with the citation form prefaced with “*according to X,*” where in order to mitigate conflict the current speaker admits others’ opinions but wants to speak his/her opinion.

My study differs from that of Waring (2000) in three ways: (1) the objectives of the classes, (2) the participants, and (3) the classroom setting. First, Waring (2000)’s data was SLA seminar classes, so the objective is to give opportunities to ask questions, to give new information (Jordan, 1999: 196), and to understand and discuss SLA related-topics. However, my data was drawn from debate classes that are a part of seminar class. Thus the aim of the class was to clarify one’s argument or show agreement or disagreement to participants. Second, Waring (2000)’s participants were mainly comprised of NS with some international students (NNS). In contrast, my study’s participants primarily consisted of NNS—Korean students and two native and near-native exchange students. Third, the environment of Waring’s study (2000) is an ESL classroom, but my study is EFL environment. As a result of these differences, my study shows different characteristics in using discourse strategies from those in Waring (2000).

The current study makes contributions to the understanding of interaction in debate talk and to finding the discourse patterns by NNS students. Especially, my study has pedagogical implications to the field of EAP at the college English level by discussing the strategies and expressions which students use during discussing in an English-medium class. This contribution comes from the characteristics of the data in this study and the features are as follows: (1) the research data chiefly focuses on non-native English speakers’ inactive participation in the debates. The reason is that the main participation of NNS in the debate sessions was very limited (see Table 7 and Table 8 in chapter 4) since the number of main participants in each debate session was 10 out of 24 students and the frequency of the overall turn distribution by NNS participants (S3 to S10, eight students in total) is lower than that of

NS students. Accordingly, (2) the current study has captured the NNS-NNS limited interaction. In general, participation in seminars or academic discussions has been noted as area of major difficulty; basically, students do not participate. The main reason might be the lack of students' participation and English speaking disfluency combined with frustration about being unable to enter the discussion (Jordan, 1999: 46) or other personal factors such as shyness, lack of self-esteem, or losing the speakership due to irrelevance to the prior talk among other reasons.

There are, however, two limitations in my study. First, as I mentioned before, because of the nature of the data setting, i.e., participants included two exchange students who are native and near-native speakers of English and twenty-two NNS, this study has spontaneously observed the interaction between NNS-NS and NNS-NNS. Thus, this study observes two groups of participants (NS and NNS)' interactions and discourse patterns instead of primarily investigating them between NNS and NNS. Second, if the data had been collected on video, it may have captured the non-verbal interaction, which might affect interaction patterns. Therefore, further research into the other data of seminar discussion classes will reinforce the grounds on which this study stands.

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## Appendix I.

**Table 1. Conversational Management Strategies –Waring’s (2000) Taxonomy of DS**

Conversation Management Strategies									
Control over Choice of Speakers				Control over Direction of Discussion			Control over progression of Discussion		
① Strategy of Inviting Participation				① Strategy of Indicating Problems			① Strategy of Using Backchannels		
When the speaker is presenting	When points of confusion arise	In absence of uptake	Understanding	When prior turn shows disfluency	Follow completed prior sequence	② Strategy of Explicitly Stating Difficulty in Progression			
② Strategy of Making Early Entries				② Strategy of Requesting Permission			③ Strategy of Synthesizing with “so”		
Preface Disagreement	Preface Persistent	Preface expansion or increment	During another’s presentation	At impasse in discussion	End extended turn		Follow absence of uptake		
③ Strategy of Projecting Action							④ Strategy of Resuming with		
Preface further topic development	Preface preliminary action	Preface misplaced action	Preface dispreferred action				“I was just going to say”	Follow simultaneous talk	Follow Side Sequence
							⑤ Strategy of Commenting on Manner of Progression		

## Appendix II.

**Table 2. Topic Management Strategies –Waring’s (2000) Taxonomy of DS**

Topic Management Strategies							
Initiating Topics		Displaying Understanding of Prior Talk			Contributing Understanding to Prior Talk		
Strategy of Claiming Non-understanding		① Strategy of Eliciting			① Strategy of Extending		
		Follow initial question	Follow explanation or interpretation		Reinforce a larger issue	Broaden possibilities	Weave a stronger argument
		② Strategy of Reformulating			② Strategy of assessing		
		Follow conflicting opinions	Follow persisting non-understanding		③ Strategy of disagreeing		
					Use rhetorical questions	Use questioning repeats	Use statements
		③ Strategy of Rephrasing			④ Strategy of Persisting		
	Use transparent language	Use jargon	Use definite language	Softened Persisting		Unsoftened persisting	
Presenter claims	Non-presenter claims	④ Strategy of Analogizing					
		Draw upon the literature	Draw upon the Familiar				
		⑤ Strategy of illustrating					
Substantiate a claim	Show agreement	Make the implicit explicit					

### Appendix III.

**Table 3. Social Strategies -Waring's (2000) Taxonomy of DS**

Social Strategies					
Solidarity Building Strategies			Mitigating Strategies		
① Strategy of Collaborative Turn Construction			① Strategy of Disclaiming Divergence		
Displaying understadning	Offer assistance	Show agreement	② Strategy of Asserting Vulnerability		
			During challenge	During Critique	
② Strategy of Peer Referencing			③ Strategy of Framing as Personal Opinion		
			During disagreement	During knowledge display	
During interpretation	During critique	At turn beginning	At turn ending	④ Strategy of Backing Down	
③ Strategy of Seeking Help from Others			Follow unresolved persisting	Preface persisting	

## Appendix IV. Transcription Conventions

(Jefferson, 1984)

- [ Overlapping or simultaneous talk
- = A latch sign is used when the second speaker follows the first with no discernible silence between them. It can also be used to link different parts of a single speaker's utterance when those parts constitute a continuous flow of speech that has been carried over to another line to accommodate an intervening interruption
- : Colons indicate prolongation of the immediately prior sound. Multiple colons indicate a more prolonged sound.
- a Underscoring indicates some form of stress, via pitch and/or amplitude.
- A Capital letters indicate louder voice than the surrounding talk.
- (0.5) Length of pause
- (.) Micropause
- ° A degree sign is used to indicate a passage of talk which is quieter than the surrounding Talk
- . A stopping fall in tone, not necessarily the end of a sentence
- , A continuing intonation
- ? A rising intonation, not necessarily a question
- ¿ A slightly rising intonation
- A cut-off or self-interruption
- > < "More than" and "less than" symbol indicate that the talk in-between was produced Quicker than the surrounding talk
- hhh Hearable aspiration. It may represent breathing, laughter, etc.
- .hhh Hearable inhalations

- |         |  |
|---------|--|
| (( ))   | Transcriber's descriptions of events             |
| ( )     | Uncertainty on the transcriber's part            |
| (guess) | Transcriber's best guess at an unclear utterance |

## Appendix V. Questionnaire

I am a graduate student and my name is Jungyeon Koo from Department of English Language and Literature at Seoul National University. This questionnaire will be used in addition to research data. This research is part of Master thesis and all information that is obtained through this research and that can be identified with me will remain confidential. Answer about yourself and write either Korean or English in your convenience. Thank you for your cooperation.

1. What is your major? \_\_\_\_\_

2. What year are you in? (freshman, sophomore, junior, senior) \_\_\_\_\_

3. Do you have a plan to select your double major/minor from Social Sciences Track in Scranton college?        YES \_\_\_\_\_    NO \_\_\_\_\_

4. Have you ever taken English proficiency tests?    YES \_\_\_\_\_        NO \_\_\_\_\_

(e.g. TEPS, TOEFL, IELTS, TOEIC)?

If yes, write down what kind of test is and what the scores are. \_\_\_\_\_,

5. Other than this debate session, do you frequently use English?

YES \_\_\_\_\_        NO \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, specify where. (e.g. English conversation class on campus/

private    Language    Institute    /English-speaking    clubs,    and    so    on).

\_\_\_\_\_

6. Have you ever lived / traveled to English speaking countries?

YES \_\_\_\_\_        NO \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, write down the country and the length of stay.

\_\_\_\_\_    \_\_\_\_\_    yrs/ mths

7. Do you think that you have participated in the debate sessions (on Fridays) actively?

YES \_\_\_\_\_    NO \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, go to Question 8.

If no, go to Question 9.

8. Why do you think that you have participated in the debate session actively? Please specify the reason. (e.g. interest in topic, relatedness to your major, knowledge about the topic, confidence in speaking English, and the like)

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9. Why do you think that you joined the debate session inactively? Please specify the reason. (e.g. no interest in topic, unrelatedness to your major, lack of knowledge about the topic, lack of confidence in speaking English, and the like)

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## 국문 초록

본 연구는 대학의 영어 매개 전공 세미나 과목의 일부로 진행되는 토론 수업에서 학생들이 사용하는 담화전략(discourse strategies)을 대화분석의 틀에서 살펴볼 것이다. 토론은 갈등 담화(conflict talks) 중의 하나로서 그 주된 행위가 찬성과 반대로, 이제껏 선생님과 학생 간, 혹은 학생과 다른 학생간의 상호행위에 주로 중점을 두어 연구가 되어 왔을 뿐, 담화전략은 거의 연구되어 오지 않았다. 선행 연구와 비교할 때, 본 연구는 특히 영어를 외국어로 하는 수업 상황에서 학생들과 교수 사이에 담화전략을 살펴본다. 이 연구는 또한 상호행위적 관점을 견지하며 담화 규칙성의 관점에서 학생들이 어떻게 반대를 하는가에 중점을 두면서 다자 간의 상호행위를 다룬다.

본 연구에서 분석된 자료는 9개의 영어 매개 수업으로 구성되며, 음성녹음 된 후 전사되었다. 수업은 영어 매개 토론 세미나(seminar) 수업으로, 두 학생의 발표와 단체 토론으로 구성되어 있다. 이 수업은 서울의 한 대학에서 자유 전공학부에 개설된 사회 과학과목을 전공 혹은 부전공 하려는 학생들을 위한 필수 과정중의 하나이다. 각 수업은 75분이며 총 9개의 수업이 수집되었다. 참여자는 다양한 전공을 공부하는 22명의 한국학생들과 캐나다와 홍콩에서 온 두 명의 교환학생으로 구성되어 있다.

이 연구에서 주요한 발견은 세 가지 측면에 중점을 둔 토론자 간의 토론수업에서 사용된 담화전략이다: 대화 운용 전략, 주제 운용 전략, 그리고 사회적 전략. 각 전략은 다음과 같이 그 하위 유형의 전략을 갖는다. 대화운용 전략은 두 가지 유형의 전략을 갖는다: (1) “*adding to X*” 혹은 “*add to one’s point,*”의 구로 선행 말차례(turn)를 연결짓는 전략, (2) 이른 도입(*making early entries*) 전략. 둘째, 주제 운용전략은 세 가지 전략을 갖는다: (1) 직접, 간접, 그리고 의문형 반대 전략, 예를 들면 직접 반대전략으로 “*no (s),*” 와 “*but,*”, 간접 반대전략으로 “*yeah but,*”, “*yeah X but,*” “*it is true X but*” 와 “*I agree with X but,*” 그리고, 발화자의 반대를 나타내는 질문형 반대전략으로 예-아니오 유형과 의문사 유형이 있고, (2) “*so you’re saying*”과 “*you said that*”로 시작되는 재공식화(*reformulation*) 전략, (3) 어휘적 말차례 구성단위 (Turn Construction Unit)를 갖는 자기선행, 타인주도

수정전략이 있다. 셋째, 사회적 전략은 두 가지 유형의 완화전략을 갖는다: (1) “*I don’t know,*” “*I don’t understand*” “*I’m not sure,*” 로 시작되는 비이해를 감지하는 취약성 전략, (2) “*according to X*” 라는 인용형으로 시작되는 충돌 회피를 위한 취약성 전략이다. 이 연구에서 사용된 담화전략의 특성을 고려할 때, 담화전략은 반대하는 동안 다양하고도 직접적이고 간접적인 표현을 사용하면서 선호되는 말차례 모양을 나타내는 점에서 대화의 장의 속성인 토론의 특성을 반영한다.

이 연구는 영어를 매개로 하는 내용 중심 토론 수업에서의 참여자들간의 상호작용을 보이고 담화전략과 표현들을 살펴봄으로써 학생들 간의 담화 유형(patterns)을 찾는다는 점에 기여한다. 특히, 본 연구에서는 전반적으로 학생들의 참여가 극히 제한되고 토론에 참여하는 학생들도 치우친 말차례 분포 유형과 제한된 담화전략을 보인다는 점에서 연구 자료의 두드러진 특징을 보여준다. 이러한 점에서, 본 연구는 대학 영어 수준에서, 현 상황—즉 제한된 담화전략의 사용과 영어 매개 연구 토론 수업에서의 제한된 참여—을 개선시키기 위해 학업목적의 영어 분야에서 변화가 필요하다라는 중요한 교육적 함의를 갖는다.

주요어: 담화전략, 대화분석, 토론, 찬성, 반대, 학업목적의 영어연구, 대화 운용 전략, 주제 운용 전략, 사회적 전략, 세미나 수업.

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문학석사 학위논문

EFL Students' Discourse Strategies  
in an English-medium Undergraduate Seminar

2013년 2월

서울대학교 대학원  
영어영문학과 영어학 전공  
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