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A Study on the Use of General Extenders by English Learners in Conversation: Focusing on the Conversation by Korean and Chinese Speakers

영어 학습자 대화에 사용된 일반확장어 연구: 한국인과 중국인 화자 대화를 중심으로

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첸쭌찌에

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Abstract

A Study on the Use of General Extenders by English Learners in Conversation: Focusing on the Conversation by Korean and Chinese Speakers

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The present study, drawing on approximately 5-hour long conversation data, investigates how Korean and Chinese learners of English use general extenders, e.g., *(and) stuff (like that)*, *(or) something (like that)*, and *and so on*, during conversation. To achieve the above, the study first details the frequency distribution of the forms of general extenders by learners of different L1s at different English proficiency levels, and compares the attained distributional results between Korean and Chinese learners. Second, the study analyzes the functions of general extenders that are resorted to by these two groups of learners by employing conversation analysis as its analytical tool.

In terms of the frequency across proficiency levels, low-intermediate learners from both groups use the least general extenders. As for preferred forms, Korean learners, regardless of proficiency levels, use more disjunctive general extenders than adjunctive ones. Chinese learners, on the other hand, use both types nearly equally. Learners, in general, do not use general extenders in the same way as native speakers do; they substantially underuse general extenders and use fewer variants. Among the used, there are forms that are misused, and forms that suggest L1 influence. Furthermore, they also call upon more specific extenders. All of these are indicative of their lack of knowledge regarding, if not complete unawareness of, general extenders in English. On the other hand, the functions by general extenders that learners use, though limited, mirror those affirmed in the literature, and substantiate that general extenders, indeed, have functions in four conversational domains. Referentially, they function to (i) implicate a category and (ii) complete a list. Interpersonally, they function to (i) mark uncertainty and (ii) mark entertainment. Personally, they function to (i) mark something as minimum expectation or contrary to one's expectation, (ii) maximize a negative extreme value, and (iii) mark indifference. Textually, they function to (i) yield a turn and (ii) proffer a new topic.

The forms that are misused and those that are influenced by speakers' L1 do not seem to be restricted from performing many typical functions of general extenders. Such forms, however, do not facilitate communication in English. This is because certain forms of general extenders in English may be used to carry out specific function(s) that is/are related to the social aspects of language use. Learners have to be able to recognize and exploit them when they speak English for efficient

interactions within social and interpersonal contexts in order for the development and maintenance of personal and professional relationships. Learners, therefore, need to be made aware of what forms of general extenders exist, what functions these forms can have, and how different forms are used in a native-like manner. Additionally, general extenders are linked to aspects of fluency. They contribute to reducing learners' pressure imposed by the need to plan ahead while simultaneously producing speech on-line. All these point towards the need for pedagogical intervention in EFL teaching and curriculum planning in terms of facilitating the learning and teaching of this set of pragmatic expressions.

Key Words: general extenders, forms and functions, Korean learners of English, Chinese learners of English, learners' traces, conversation analysis

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Background and Motivation

Vague language is often stigmatized to be "a deplorable deviation from precision and clarity", and "a defect to be avoided whenever possible" (Jucker, Smith and Lüdge, 2003, p. 1738). Precision and clarity in language use, however, do not consistently parallel with the notion of efficiency in communication because precise expressions, as argued by Stubbs (1986), are not necessarily more efficient. Vagueness, far from being a "deficiency" (Rowland, 2007, p.94), is in fact an inherent attribute of natural human language as "any social group sharing interests and knowledge employs non-specificity in talking about their shared interests" (Channell, 1994, p. 193). It is as well an interactional strategy that could be employed either unintentionally when there is not "any precise referent in mind" or deliberately when there is a need to highlight the lack of commitment (Cutting, 2012, p. 284). Thereby, using vague expressions might sometimes, if not always, "better serve the communicative purpose at hand" (Williamson, 1944, p. 4869). This applies also to the deployment of a specific set of vague expressions widely known as general extenders, e.g., *(and) stuff (like that)*, *(or) something (like that)*, *and so on*, etc., which refer to something non-specifically (hence, 'general'), and extend utterances that are rather grammatically complete (hence, 'extenders') (Overstreet and Yule, 2021).

English general extenders, since the 1980s, have been extensively analyzed in native English discourse (e.g., Dines, 1980; Aijmer, 1985, 2002, 2013; Channell, 1994; Lerner, 1994; Overstreet and Yule, 1997, 2002, 2021; Overstreet, 1999, 2005,

2014, 2020; Pichler and Levey, 2010, 2011; Cheshire, 2007; Tagliamonte and Denis, 2010, 2016; Levey, 2012; Denis, 2017, inter alia). This burgeoning body of research has not only bred a plethora of competing labels given to general extenders, but also identified their variational nature with respect to their forms or structures. On top of that, studies have long shifted the initial analytic focus on their referential functions, as in set marking or category implication and list construction (e.g., Ball and Ariel, 1978; Dines, 1980, Jefferson, 1990, etc), to pragmatic functions, i.e., interpersonal and personal, as well as textual functions (e.g., Overstreet and Yule, 1997, 2002, 2021; Overstreet, 1999, 2005, 2014, 2020; Aijmer, 2002, 2013; Cheshire, 2007; Pichler and Levey, 2011; Levey, 2012; Vaughan et al, 2017; Wagner et al., 2015; Clancy, 2015; Brinton, 2017; Denis, 2017, to name but a few). As a result, their multifunctional trait has also been affirmed, serving to constrain generalizing about functions of general extenders or prioritizing one function over another (Cheshire, 2007; Levey, 2012).

Subsequent studies on English general extenders have brought to the fore the changing preferences of use in varieties of English. Investigating and comparing the use of general extenders across inner-circle varieties of English, such as American, Canadian, British, Australian, New Zealand, and Singaporean Englishes, have been placed onto the agenda (Overstreet and Yule, 1997; Tagliamonete and Denis, 2010; Pichler & Levey, 2011; Aijmer, 2013). Meanwhile, research on learners' use of general extenders have also been extensively conducted: Hasselgreen (2002) on Norwegian learners, Aijmer (2004, 2015) on Swedish learners, De Cock (2004) on French learners, Cheng (2007) on Hong Kong learners, Terraschke (2007, 2010) on German learners, Parvaresh et al. (2012) on Persian learners, Lin (2013) on

Taiwanese learners, Buysse (2014) on Dutch learners, Watanabe (2015) on Japanese learners, and Metsä-Ketelä (2016) and Ojanperä (2020) on Finnish learners. Most of the aforementioned studies on general extenders in learner Englishes observed noticeable discrepancy in frequency, varieties of forms, and pragmatic functions when compared with native speakers of English. Most reported a higher (but inappropriate) or lower frequency of certain forms, e.g., *and so on* or *and stuff*, respectively, a smaller range of possible forms, especially those short and routinized forms, e.g., *and everything* or *or anything*, and less diverse functions, especially pragmatic functions associated with positive/negative politeness, e.g., inviting solidarity from interlocutors or softening imposition, respectively.

Both the dearth of using English to interact and build up rapport with interlocutors in routinized ways and the potential L1 influence have a major impact on learners' use of English general extenders. Persian learners' *and and and* and *and this and that*, for example, bear parallel structures as those in their L1 (cf. *væ, væ, væ* and *væ in, væ un* in Persian, Parvaresh et al., 2012), which serves as evidence of their reliance on L1's conventions of forms. As a consequence, learners would inevitably develop "misconceptions of the typical functions" performed by different forms of general extenders, and those formed misconceptions, in turn, cause learners to use "inappropriate, or pragmatically non-equivalent" forms of general extenders (Overstreet, 2012, p. 10). On top of overcoming the absence of the target language environment and the L1 effects, tackling the variation in constituent types and forms of general extenders and dealing with the diversity of their functions is, in itself, a strenuous task for learners.

Among the fairly copious studies centering on learners' use of general extenders, some efforts have been made to examine Asian learners' use of them (Cheng, 2007; Lin, 2013; Watanabe, 2015). Little or none, however, is known about the use of English general extenders by learners from South Korea whose L1 is Korean and learners from Mainland China whose L1 is Mandarin Chinese. Furthermore, their respective L1s may also have a role to play in the use of such expressions, as are those reported in the English by learners of other L1s. These make the investigation of Korean and Chinese learners' use of general extenders a meaningful field of inquiry in that such a study would address the knowledge gaps. With the attained knowledge, it would help further the advancement of teaching contents and methods that address the use of general extenders, if any, especially from a viewpoint of facilitating the improvement of Korean and Chinese learners' communicative or interactive competence in speaking English in everyday life.

The current study, as a result, positions itself within this line of research and contributes to it by expanding the examination of English general extenders used by South Korean and Mainland Chinese learners of English. The primary objectives of this study are twofold: 1) to generate a distributional analysis of the use of general extenders by these two groups of learners according to forms and English proficiency levels, and 2) to put forth a functional analysis of the use of general extenders as a means to examine to what extent the functions of general extenders affirmed in the previous studies are performed by those used by South Korean and Chinese learners of English. To these ends, a qualitative analysis within the framework of Conversation Analysis (cf. Jefferson, 2004; Schegloff, 2007) will be conducted. First, the identified general extenders will be classified according to their

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forms, followed by a consideration of how they are used by conversants across learners of two different L1s and three proficiency levels. Each of their functions will then be inquired concerning what they themselves are doing and what (action) comes before and after them[1]. By closely examining the surrounding environment where general extenders appear, their textual and turn-constructional imports to the utterances will also be determined.

1.2. Organization of the Study

Beyond the introduction, where the general background, significance, and aims of this study were outlined, the rest of this study is organized as follows. Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature concerned with the subject by primarily examining the multiple functions of general extenders identified in prior works and the use of them by native speakers and learners of English. On top of that, it also reviews the theoretical framework of the study, i.e., conversation analysis. Chapter 3 describes the recruited participants, the conversation data obtained, and the ethical considerations taken for the participants. Furthermore, this chapter also devotes a separate section, which is orientational and methodological in nature, to the four fundamental mechanisms of talk. Chapter 4 presents the analysis of the distribution of general extenders according to their forms and learners' L1s and proficiency levels, followed by the analysis of their functions. Chapter 5, the conclusion, summarizes and discusses the findings, and propounds the limitations of this study along with directions for further studies in this area.

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[1] It is believed that the "action being performed" in a turn "goes to the very heart of the relationship between utterance form and function" (Clift, p. 21, 2016). This stakes out the importance of action or sequences of action, which CA takes as its focus, in the interpretation of utterance.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

The present chapter details the concepts and fundamental theories in existing literature. In Section 2.1, the forms and functions of English general extenders in native language, proposed and captured throughout the literature, are examined closely. Additionally, two main types of GEs, i.e., adjunctive and disjunctive GEs, are underlined, and their frequency as well as preferred forms in native discourse are reviewed. In Section 2.2, previous studies on the use of them by learners of English are summarized. Lastly, in Section 2.3, the historical development of conversation analysis is introduced along with its central tenets that set the tone for the study.

2.1. General Extenders

So-called general extenders are a group of vague expressions that are described as "general" because they refer to something non-specifically and "extenders" because they extend otherwise grammatically complete utterances (Overstreet & Yule, 2021). They are phrases like *or something (like that)*, *or anything*, *and stuff (like that)*, *and everything*, *or whatever*, and *and so on*, etc. The term *general extenders* has, for example, been used by Overstreet (1999), Cheshire (2007) and Aijmer (2013). In referring to this specific group of expressions besides *general extenders*, there has been great terminological variation in the history of literature: *generalized list completers* (Jefferson, 1990; Lerner, 1994), *tags* (Ball and Ariel, 1978), *set-marking tags* (Dines, 1980; Ward & Birner, 1993), *terminating or utterance-final tags* (Aijmer, 1985), *extension particles* (DuBois, 1993), *vague category identifiers* (Channell, 1994), *co-ordination tags* (Biber et al., 1999),

(un)restricted tags (Aijmer, 2002), *vague category markers* (O'Keeffe, 2004; O'Keeffe et al., 2007), and more. However, these terms appear to identify this group of expressions with a single function and disregard many others (cf. Overstreet, 1999). Among all, Overstreet's *general extenders* is now the most widespread label, and is defined by her as "non-specific" expression in reference that "extend utterances that are otherwise grammatically complete" (Overstreet & Yule, 2021, p. 1). The received popularity among scholars is largely attributed to its inclusiveness of other competing functions. For this reason, the current study refers to these constructions using Overstreet's term *general extenders* (hereinafter, GEs). Occurring typically, but not exclusively[2], at utterance-final position and being constructed by constituents of many kinds, GEs take various forms due to their 'slippery' nature in construction and fulfill diverse functions. Their diverse structures and functions make up the two subparts of this section in hopes to provide readers with the essential background on the subject.

2.1.1. Structures of GEs

GEs are "recognizable chunks of language" (O'Keeffe, 2006, p. 130). Apart from their fixedness, as in some invariable and completely fixed 'formal' structures such as *and so on*, *or whatever*, *and so forth*, etc., these 'chunks' can be realized in many different ways due to their "semi-fixed constructions" (Levey, 2012, p. 261). Their semi-fixedness results from the collocationality, optionality, and substitutability of their constituents.

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[2] They are observed to occur typically at the utterance-final position, rarely at the start of and occasionally within an utterance (Overstreet, 2005, p. 1849; 2020, p. 48; Overstreet and Yule, p. 200, 2021).

A limited number of collocational frames adopted from Aijmer (2013, p. 130), as in Tables 1-5, are presented to make known the typical constituents of GEs and to display their possible collocations among each other. As shown in the Tables, there are altogether five typical constituents of GEs, i.e., CONJUNCTIVE, COMPARATIVE, DEMONSTRATIVE, GENERIC NOUN, and QUANTIFIER.

Table 1. Collocational pattern 1

Conjunctive	Generic noun	Comparative	Demonstrative
and	*stuff/things (crap/shit)*	*like*	*that/this*

Long forms → *and stuff/things like that/this*
Short forms → *and stuff/things*
No conjunctive → *stuff/things like that/this*

Table 2. Collocational pattern 2

Conjunctive	Demonstrative	Comparative	Generic noun
and	*that/this*	*kind/sort/type of*	*stuff/thing*

Long forms → *and that/this kind/sort/type of stuff/thing*
Short forms → *and that*
No conjunctive → *that/this kind/sort/type of stuff/thing*

Table 3. Collocational pattern 3

Conjunctive	Quantifier (+ Generic noun)	Comparative	Demonstrative
and	*everything/all things*	*like*	*that/this*

Long forms → *and everything/all things like that/this*
Short forms → *and everything/and all*

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Table 4. Collocational pattern 4

Conjunctive	Quantifier	Demonstrative	Comparative	Generic noun
and	*all*	*that/this/those/ these*	*kind/sort/type of*	*stuff/thing(s) (crap/ shit/jazz)*

Long forms → *and all that/this/those/these kind/sort/type of stuff/thing(s)*
Short forms → *and all (that)*
No conjunctive → *all that/this/those/these kind/sort/type of stuff/thing(s)*

Table 5. Collocational pattern 5

Conjunctive	Quantifier	Comparative	Demonstrative
or	*something/anything*	*like*	*that/this*

Long forms → *or something/anything like that/this*
Short forms → *or something/anything*
No conjunctive → *something/anything like that*

Regarding the five generated patterns above, they themselves are the results of collocations with different/more constituents or the same constituents but in different positions. Among each of them, a greater number of GEs can be derived by dropping either conjunctive (i.e., *and* or *or*) or comparative and demonstrative, giving rise to GEs without a conjunctive (e.g., *stuff/things like that*) or short, routinized forms (e.g., *and stuff/things*) of them. Together with the long forms (e.g., *and stuff/things like that*), they are the three main kinds of variant forms, which are common among the five collocational patterns, except for the third one where deletion of the conjunctive is not possible. Among these variant forms, the ones prefaced by conjunctive *and* are called adjunctive GEs and those by conjunctive *or* are named as disjunctive GEs.

When the general nouns used within the collocational patterns of GEs are replaced by or adhered to other more specific lexical elements, e.g., *and many other good properties, and all of that stupid bureaucratic stuff,* or *an' things like that that*

aren't real attractive (Overstreet, 1999, p. 12; p. 52), they become more specific in reference. The interpretation of the GEs in these cases is constrained by the categories described or named as in *good properties*, or by the relevant or common characteristic properties of their members identified as in *stupid bureaucratic* and *that aren't real attractive*. Such examples, with "more specific lexical material used within the phrase", are identified as cases of "specific extenders" (hereinafter, SEs), resulting in a more limited referential range (Overstreet, 1999, p. 12; Overstreet and Yule, 2021, p. 2; p. 41). This differentiates them from GEs that are "necessarily non-specific" (Overstreet, 1999, p. 52). SEs have received little attention, however. In her pioneering work on GEs in native discourse, Overstreet (1999) reported that there was a rather small number of them in her conversational data (2 of 158, or 1.2% of the total number of occurrences), compared to that of GEs (156 of 158, or 98.8% of the total number of occurrences).

The semi-fixed structures of GEs and the reasons accountable for their semi-fixedness have, thus far, been introduced from a 'formal' approach. Along the lines of introducing the collocationality of the five typical constituents of GEs and the optionality of some, the three main kinds of GE forms, i.e., long, short, and no-conjunctive GE forms, have also been noted, among which there are two essential types of GEs, i.e., adjunctive (*and*-prefaced) and disjunctive (*or*-prefaced). Furthermore, the classification between GEs and SEs has also been mentioned, from which it is underscored that GEs are 'necessarily non-specific' in reference.

2.1.2. Functions of GEs

GEs have been studied from many different perspectives. This is not surprising as they are realized in a variety of ways. Their structural variation has interested sociolinguists who are concerned with formal and social variation. In a pioneering work, Dines (1980) managed to show that there is a close association between the variation exhibited by set-marking tags (i.e., GEs), such as *and all that*, and the socio-economic class of the speakers. By referring to GEs as *set-marking tags*, he described that they function to mark a general set, under which the preceding one(s) fall(s). Though being dealt with only from the side, the use of GEs was also inquired by Jefferson (1990) who studied list construction and viewed the resort to GEs as merely a methodic solution when speakers have a problem of listing a third item in a list. She thus referred to them as *generalized list completers* functioning, as its name implies, to end a list.

It was not until the end of the 1990s that the pragmatic functions of GEs beyond the interpretation of the marked set or implicated category and list construction were sighted. A diverted analytic focus on the pragmatic uses of GEs rather than their semantic meanings enabled the identification of multiple interpersonal and personal functions GEs have in interaction. This move was first taken by Overstreet (1999) who argued that considering list completion as the primary function by GEs and tying the use of them overwhelmingly to the process of categorization impede us from observing other, probably more crucial, functions GEs have. Since then, the investigation of the pragmatic functions by GEs has exploded (e.g., Aijmer, 2002; Overstreet and Yule, 2002; Mauranen, 2004; Adolphs et al., 2007; Levey, 2012; Wagner et al., 2015; Clancy, 2015; Brinton, 2017; Denis,

2017). In more recent works, the focus has even been extended to GEs' imports to text or turn development (e.g., Cheshire, 2007; Pichler and Levey, 2011; Aijmer, 2013; Vaughan et al, 2017). The multifunctionality of GEs has then been unveiled. In one of their latest works, Overstreet and Yule (2021) took on the challenge of describing the multifunctional trait of GEs by "teas(ing) apart some of the factors involved in that multifunctionality" (p. 5), and were able to subsume the multiple functions by GEs, —identified under semantic, pragmatic or textual analytic frameworks—, under four aspects: referential, interpersonal, personal, and textual functions. These functions will be closely dealt with in the following four subsections[3].

2.1.2.1. Referential Function

As noted earlier, one of the typical constituents of GEs is demonstrative, i.e., *this/that/these/those*, which typically occurs in the longer forms of GEs, i.e., *and/or something like that*. They are indexical in that they point to a relation with an element or elements uttered earlier, on which the interpretation of them depends, and by which they suggest an antecedent-anaphor type of cohesive relationship. This kind of anaphoric relation has interested scholars to treat GEs as a means of indicating that there is a set or category being marked or implicated whose interpretation is constrained by the referent of the antecedent expression. In addition to referencing to a set or category, GEs can be interpreted as having another referential function in list construction, that is, referring to a list in the making. In

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[3] It should be noted that although each of the key functions of GEs will be discussed separately, that their use may be multifunctional on any occasion should be born in mind.

this subsection, these two referential functions are reviewed closely: a) set markers or category implicators and b) generalized list completers.

a. Set markers or category implicators

In the initial studies of GEs, their position as "tags" as being attached to a preceding element and their function as referencing to a "set" have been addressed fundamentally (Ball and Ariel, 1978, p. 38). More specifically, the referential function of GEs refers to a role in or an add-on to the propositional content of the utterance in which they occur by producing categories that are usually non/ underspecified. According to Ball and Ariel (1978), such referential function of GEs is realized by suggesting but not "specifying" that there are other "conjuncts" or "disjuncts" in the referential set, which are somewhat similar to the preceding (p. 36). In the case of the use of "or something" attached to "daughter" as in example (1), the alternatives in the referential set might potentially contain cousin, sister, etc., "evok(ing) the unifying property of a class of alternatives", i.e., a generalized set of these alternatives, which might be "younger female family members" (p. 41).

> (1) [Ball and Ariel, 1978, p. 41 —with GE boldfaced]
> ```
> It turns out she's the daughter or something of the late
> Benveniste.
> ```

Similarly, Dines (1980) characterized GEs as "set-marking tags" that are used "… in every case … to cue the listener to interpret the preceding as an illustrative example of some more general case" (p. 22, 25), and thus possess their set-marking function. GEs, then, "operate on 'parts' to relate them to 'whole'", by which "an underlying general notion is (has been) realized by a specific example" (p. 22) and a process of processing and identifying it is triggered. To illustrate how a GE along with 'an

illustrative example' can direct hearers to understand an 'underlying general notion' by a GE, an example from Dines is presented in (2).

(2) [Dines, 1999, p. 22 —with GE boldfaced]
```
1    My husband doesn't come home every night, not
2-> when he's working at Murrumbeena or somewhere like that.
```

Directed by the provided example "Murrumbeena" and marked by the disjunctive GE "or somewhere like that", the more general set for the hearer to construct is suburban areas, such as Murrumbeena, that are of some distance from home.

Subsequent studies addressing the function of GEs tended to privilege their referential use by uniformly associating them with a set-marking interpretation (See also Aijmer, 1985; DuBois, 1993; Channell, 1994). Such interpretation was later boiled down to the notion of "category implication" as suggested by Overstreet (1999, p. 80). That is, a speaker, as the launcher of GEs, deploys them in combination with the preceding items to "implicate categories"; a hearer, as the receiver of GEs, decodes them based on the previously named items to infer the speaker's "implicated categories" (p. 81). A general conclusion has been that GEs, in combination with one or more named exemplar(s), implicate categories so that hearers can infer additional or alternative members of some category that GE speakers have in mind.

Acknowledging the potential category implicative function of GEs and rather than treating all GEs as implicators of some category (cf. Dines, 1980), Overstreet (1999) took her analysis on this a step further by arguing that "if GEs (general extenders) are to be treated…as possibly implicating a category of some kind, then it would be helpful to find explicit evidence in the data that speakers treat them as such" (p. 38). With the attempt to locate traces of category implication in her data,

Overstreet (1999) found that speakers who call upon a GE do not "typically go on to make explicit mention of what was implicated" by their use of that GE, and thus it is difficult to empirically support the claim that they use GEs to implicate categories, of which "hearers can infer additional or alternative members" (p. 38). Albeit the predominance of opaque cases where there is little or none of such empirical evidence, Overstreet (1999) reported some perspicuous, but rare, cases where category implication is possibly at work. By way of illustration, two examples from her study are presented in (3) - (4).

```
(3) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 39 —with GE boldfaced]
1   Julie    Frederico, huh?
2   Crystal  Frederico=I know! An' his brother is Juan.
3            huh huh huh
4   Julie    O:::h, look out!
5   Crystal  Juan is one of those light ones. He has red hair
6->          an' everything. L-light hair, blue eyes, (.) white
7            skin, Mex-um, uh spanish, y'know.
8   Julie    Umhm
```

In lines 5-6 from example (3), Crystal describes Juan, brother of Frederico, as "one of those light ones. He has red hair an' everything". The given example here is "red hair", and it is followed by a GE "and everything". After the utterance of the GE, she goes on characterizing in a further way by supplementing three more physical features, i.e., light hair, blue eyes, and white skin, as in lines 6-7. Put differently, Crystal subsequently goes on specifying some of the additional things that seem to have been implied by her use of the GE "and everything". These named physical features could indeed be subsumed under a more general category which might be described as "physical features the 'light' Spanish people are presumed to have" (p. 40).

In example (4), Sara is describing how well her cat behaved despite the vet's prodding examination on him.

(4) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 38 —with GE boldfaced]

```
1  Sara   Y'know an' like uh (his emotional-) He was so good
          when I took him back to the vet to have him looked
          at?
2  Roger  Oh, he didn't have to be sedated?
3  Sara   No::, like, w-l mean, they just went an' sh- looked
          at him, she took his temperature, an' y'know stuck
          the thermometer up his butt, an' he didn't howl or
          anything. He didn't fi:::ght, or hiss, or scratch, or
          anything. He just kinda stoo:d the//re.
4  Roger  Oh
5  Sara   i was like 'Cool!' I was so::: pleased.
```

She reports that the cat "didn't howl or anything" when the vet put a thermometer in his bottom. Her further elaboration after this indicates that at least part of 'anything' that might have been includes: fighting, hissing, or scratching, to which a second GE "or anything" is attached. The category of behaviors referred to by the use of the first "or anything" might be called "the ways in which a cat might misbehave at the vet's office", and the use of the second one then further suggests other alternative ways in which the cat might have protested (Overstreet, 1999, p. 39).

The two examples show that speakers have additional or alternative instances of some category in mind when calling upon GEs, as evidenced by their subsequent exemplification of them which could also fall into the category that seem to have been implicated by their use of GEs. Cases like this are, however, uncommon, as on many occasions, GEs are used "simply to implicate the potential existence of additional or alternative instances" other than the named one(s) (Overstreet, 1999, p. 60). Though speakers' further specification would indeed "help to constrain hearers' interpretation" of what is being talked about or referred to, Overstreet (1999) argued it is unlikely, or at least unknowable as in most cases, that it "enable(s) them (a hearer) to infer some specific category (or category members) that a speaker has in mind" (p. 60). In one of her latest works coauthored with Yule (2021), they, then, called for the restriction of such an interpretation (p. 29).

b. Generalized List Completers

GEs can also be interpreted in terms of another referential function involved in creating lists. To be specific, the referential function of GEs refers to its role in list completion. In this connection of terminating lists with GEs, Jefferson's (1990) *generalized list completers* should be considered. In an early study concerning list construction, she proposed the notion of three-partedness, that is, lists that are constructed in conversation regularly have a three-part structure. Reporting such three-partedness as "empirically observable", she argued that "lists not only can and do occur in three parts, but *should* so occur". To buttress her argument and especially the latter part, Jefferson (1990) put forward the notion of "programmatic relevance" by which she meant speakers of lists "orient to" a three-part structure. A recurrent phenomenon was addressed to lend empirical support to this claim: "three-partedness can be found to constitute a problem for list-markers, for which at least one methodic solution is available and deployed" (p. 66-67). To tackle the problem of three-partedness, speakers resort to a generalized list completer, that is, a GE, to close the list under construction. Example (5) presents an example of such three-part list whose third slot is filled in by a generalized list completer.

```
(5) [Jefferson, 1990, p. 66 — with GE in bold]
1    Ernie    I said no I know his name is something else
2->           Teddy'r Tom'r or somethin.
```

With respect to Jefferson's (1990) proposed three-partedness and argumentation of speakers' reliance on GEs as a solution to the problem of searching and producing a third item, Overstreet (1999) rebutted the embedded notion of speakers' 'programmatic relevance to three-partedness' when list construction by showing the relatively low frequency of [2 item + GE]. In her data, Overstreet (1999) observed that such three-partedness accounts for only approximately 20%

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(with 32 occurrences out of 156), and as much as 74% occurred in the format of [1 item + GE] (with 116 occurrences) (p. 27). An example of GEs occurred in [1 item + GE] is presented in example (6).

(6) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 26 —with GE in bold]
```
1    William   Are any of the uh trees turning?
2    Julie     U:m they don't really turn much here I don't
               think.
3    William   They don't
4    Julie     Yeah.
5—>  William   Yeah. Most of 'em are evergreens around there I
               guess. Pine trees an' stuff.
```

The remaining 8 occurrences of GEs were found to be in the structure of [3 item + GE], exceeding the three-part structure. Consider example (7).

(7) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 26 —with GE in bold]
```
1    Julie     You takin' a nap?
2—>  Jean      No:::=I've been (.) vacuumin' 'n (1.0) washin':
               (1.0) clo::thes 'n dustin': 'n: all that stuff.
```

Though that being the case, Overstreet argued that lists consisting of more than three parts should, likewise, be considered as lists, which makes the GEs filling the fourth slot the completers of some list (p. 26-27). In Aijmer's (2002) more recent study, she reported even fewer cases (18%) with three-parted lists concluded by GEs. The inclusion of GEs in list construction has also been scrutinized by many others (e.g., Lerner, 1994; O'Keeffe, 2004; Denis, 2017; Masini et al., 2018), but the notion of three-partedness (with GEs being in the third part) has been largely disproved and as a result, any general uptake of the idea that GEs are best analyzed as *generalized list completers* in fulfilling the three-partedness has not been seen in their studies. Later, Overstreet and Yule (2021) stated clearly that GEs "can sometimes be used as part of a listing structure", that is, [2 or more item + GE], "but that is clearly not their primary function" (p. 33).

2.1.2.2. Interpersonal Function

In the social aspects of language use, the use of GEs may not be solely related to implicating a category or signaling the completion of lists. On the other hand, these referential functions may be mobilized as a means to fulfill the interactional needs at hand, such as creating and maintaining relationships with each other and mitigating the force of speakers' imposition or assertion. In doing so, GEs further suggest their correlations with Gricean's (1975) Maxims of Conversational Cooperation and Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory. In this subsection, the interpersonal functions of GEs identified in the literature are reviewed closely: a) solidarity inviters, b) markers of uncertainty, c) interpersonal entertainment markers, and d) imposition mitigators.

a. Solidarity inviters

As many scholars have asserted (e.g., Cicourel, 1974; Garfinkel, 1967; Heritage, 1984), much of what we say is bound by possessing similar interpretation of events, and up in establishing social connections by behaving as if we share conceptions of the world with our interlocutors. This assumption of shared conceptions is often described as intersubjectivity (cf. Rommetveit, 1974; Schiffrin, 1990; Schegloff, 1992). Subjective understanding or belief of what something is or what something should be of the world is necessarily distinct, yet the trace of our indication, assuming our interlocutors share with us our knowledge of things and how things are, is frequently if not always, noticeable during conversation.

The use of GEs appears to fit well in this aspect as they might direct hearers to interpret the implicated category or potential existence of additional or alternative

instances that is/are assumed to fall into their shared knowledge and expected to be understood effortlessly. In relevance to Grice's Maxim of Quantity, according to Overstreet and Yule (2021), where speakers are expected to make contribution as informative as is required and not to make contribution more informative than is required, the use of GEs, mostly adjunctive forms, indicates that speakers could say more, but choose not to under the assumption that there is shared knowledge among interlocutors. Speakers thus, keep congruent with this maxim by using intersubjectivity as a basis for saying less while simultaneously conveying a message: 'I do not need to say more, though there is more, because you can fill it in yourself'.

Abiding by the notion of intersubjectivity, Overstreet (1999) first proceeded to develop her analysis of GEs as markers of intersubjectivity that signal a common ground, on which solidarity[4] is sought and provided in a sense of positive politeness. In support of this, Overstreet (1999) pointed out that like *y'know*[5], GEs are as well deployed, in the assumption of shared knowledge or values, to invite solidarity from the interlocutors and to draw attention from them to create an interactional room centering on what is just being said (p. 76). Support for this interpretation of GEs having a role in inviting solidarity can be found in the opened interactive space where similarity among conversants is marked through co-construction of shared views. Examples (8) and (9) are illustrations of this[6].

---

[4] Solidarity here refers to the support by one for another because of shared feelings, opinions, aims, etc.

[5] i.e., a marker of "general consensual truths which speakers assume their hearers share through their co-membership in the same culture, society, or group" (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 267)

[6] It is also noteworthy that these two examples also serve as perspicuous cases of category implication where hearers' successful inference of some category members or specific category that GE speakers have in mind.

```
(8) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 72 —with GE in bold]
1    Crystal   an' this one girl you would not even know it.
2->            She looks like she works in a grocery store or
3              something.
4              Y'know. Just totally normal // an'
5    Julie     conservative
6    Crystal   Yeah, yeah.
```

To describe a stripper she has been hanging out with, Crystal says in lines 2-3 that "she looks like she works in a grocery store or something". In the following line, she uses an adjective "normal" to elaborate on what kind of people who work in a grocery store are for her. "Grocery store" here is merely an example provided to Julie to interpret the implicated category at work: *the type of person who works in a place like a grocery store*. After being prompted, Julie cuts in and provides a further characterization of the type albeit Crystal is at the moment, in an attempt of offering. In addition to being "normal", this type of person Crystal is referring to is also "conservative", as acknowledged by her in line 6. From here, we see that speakers, by demonstrating such assumption of shared knowledge with GEs, underscore a similarity with hearers, by which "existing familiarity" and "social distance" might be solidified and shortened. Hearers in this regard, "treating" the assumed shared knowledge ingrained in GEs as "unproblematic", "reciprocally underscores the participants' similarity" (Overstreet, 1999, p. 72-73).

Example (9) below, adapted from Cheshire's (2007) study, demonstrates as well this mutually-underscored similarity in conversants' ideas and/or values towards whatever is stated inexhaustively and concluded by GEs.

```
(9) [Cheshire, 2007, p. 182 —with GE in bold]
1    Ann    but I admire like they've what they've done.
2->         how they've got so. far and stuff
3    Sue    the girl power=
4    Ann    =the girl power thing
```

Differently, the implicated category underpinned by the two listed items here is decoded and understood by Sue as "the girl power" (line 11) without any prompt from Ann's end when they are talking about Spice Girls. Sue's attempt gets its confirmation from Ann without any delay as in line 4 where she repeats the whole term. Cheshire (2007) pointed out clearly that the use of *and stuff* here is involved in "the construction of solidarity between two friends" (p. 182). By appealing to their shared knowledge or opinions towards 'girl power', they highlight the similarity between them. Overstreet and Yule (2021) later on, identified such use of GEs as inviting solidarity in the assumption of intersubjectivity, that is, "signaling invited solidarity in interpreting what is being said" as a strategy of positive politeness (p. 51). Hearers, in this regard, drawing from and on the implicit shared knowledge as assumed, provide the invited solidarity by emphasizing similarity through the co-construction of shared opinions and/or values.

b. Markers of uncertainty

While adjunctive GEs are reported to be used more frequently in inviting solidarity, disjunctive forms of them are often employed as hedges[7] on the accuracy of what is just being uttered. Speakers' sensitivity to Grice's (1975) Maxim of Quality might account for the motivation behind the deployment of hedging expressions. With respect to the Maxim of Quality where speakers are expected to not say what is false while knowing and not say that for which you lack adequate evidence, the use of hedging expressions imply that speakers avoid flouting the

---

[7] The term 'hedge', originally introduced into linguistic analysis by G. Lakoff (1975), refers to a set of expressions, e.g., *kind of* and *roughly speaking*. These hedging expressions are resorted to by speakers to signal their little or no commitment towards the accuracy or reliability of what has been said or what is going to be said.

maxim of quality as the preceding 'whatever' does not stand for what was meant exactly or correctly. It seems that disjunctive GEs, such as *or something*, work perfectly in achieving this purpose, as they add a hedging element to what is being said. In doing so, speakers' uncertainty is marked.

The use of disjunctive GEs as hedges that signals speakers' uncertainty towards or the imprecision of what is just stated has been reported by many scholars. Disjunctive GEs *or something* for example, is used immediately after amounts (Craig and Tracy, 1983), actions (Erman, 1995), locations (Channell, 1994), ventured words or expressions (Pichler and Levey, 2010, 2011), and a person's age (Denis and Tagliamonte, 2016), of which speakers are not certain. Stenström et al. (2002) noted that while speakers appear to be having difficulty in expressing themselves, they still remember to mark their uncertainty towards the accuracy of what is being said with GEs, as shown in example (10) where the word "whatsit" is finally ventured in describing "the guy" in reference (p. 104).

> (10) [Stenström et al., 2002, p. 104 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> yes, he's gon-, told you, yeah the guy's a, he's probably like,
> like a whatsit or something
> ```

In addition to the aforementioned combinations, disjunctive GEs, e.g., *or something (like that)*, are also attached to the report of others' speech or news/information indicating speakers' hedge on the potential inaccuracy. Consider examples (11)-(13).

> (11) [Ball and Ariel, 1978, p. 37 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> I was just sitting here with John Dean and he tells me you were
> going to be sued or something
> ```

> (12) [Mauranen, 2004, p. 184 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> I think it was Mrs said oh good have you come to take them away
> or something like that
> ```

> (13) [Channell, 1994, p. 132 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> It is possible that the crew, because of some gas in the
> cockpit or something or heart attacks or what not, is unable to
> make the re-entry completely
> ```

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The use of either the short or long forms of the disjunctive GE as in (11) and (12),

accompanies a report of others' speech. When reporting news as in (13), both of the

disjunctive GEs, *or something* and *or what not*, are used to mark the speaker's

uncertainty of the explanations for the precise cause why "the crew…is unable to

make the re-entry completely" in a tragic disaster.

> (14) [Brinton, 2017, p. 274 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> I don't recall what he needed, cows or horses or what
> ```

Similar to *or something*, disjunctive GEs *or what not* and *or what*, are argued to be

"explicit" indicators of speakers' "doubt" towards certain aspect(s) of information

that is being reported as in (14). The hedging move by *or what* here confirms the

preceding epistemic disclaimer "I don't recall" (Brinton, 2017, p. 274).

c. Interpersonal entertainment markers

The occasion where speakers exploiting his/her uncertainty towards the uttered

for humorous effect extends the use of disjunctive GEs as markers of uncertainty to

markers of the entertainment of others. Likewise, the disjunctive GE *or something*

(like that), is used frequently by speakers to achieve entertaining effect. Such effect

of amusement produced by the use of it can be sourced from speakers being

intentionally inaccurate or intentionally humorous as in (15) and (16) adapted from

Aijmer (2002, p. 247) and Overstreet (1999, p. 120) respectively.

> (15) [Aijmer, 2002, p. 247 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> (he) went out in some ghastly regiment of foot
> Royal Warwickshire foot and mouth or something
> And flogged all round Africa
> ```

In (15), the name of a regiment of foot cannot be accurately and fully recalled and is

attached with a phrase for a disease, i.e., foot and mouth disease, that kills cattle.

This makes the whole line 2, ended with a GE *or something*, a nonsense expression,

"coined for humorous effect" (Aijmer, 2002: p. 147). *Or something* here then marks speakers' intentionally inaccurate utterance.

(16) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 120 —with GE in bold]
```
1  S:  that truck makes the most amazing snoring noises
       sometimes
2  R:  huh huh huh
3  S:  like when you're goin' up a hill
4  R:  right=
5  S:  =it makes a noise exactly - it sounds exactly like I
       dunno like a dog or a horse or something like like when
       it's when it's uh discontent heh heh heh it makes the
       strangest noise- every time it does I just bust out
       laughing
9  R:  huh huh huh haaaah okay
```

Not intentionally inaccurate, but unequivocally purposefully humorous is the employment of approximate expressions incorporating *or something*, for the noises made by an old truck as in (16). Subsequent laughters from both speakers verify the humorous effect generated (Overstreet, 1999). Here, what *or something* does is more than signaling uncertainty, but also indicating that the uttered inaccurate analogies are purposefully drawn to meet the interactional need in the moment, that is, entertaining others by the "creation of amusement" (Overstreet and Yule, 2021, p. 56).

d. Markers of imposition mitigation

In addition to hedges on the Maxim of Quality where the accuracy of utterances, of which speakers are uncertain, seems to be the focus, disjunctive forms are in fact frequently found in utterances where the aforementioned does not seem to be a concern. They instead are addressed to negative politeness matters when doing offers, suggestions, proposals, invitations, etc., where speakers risk imposition on interlocutors. In other words, linked with negative politeness strategy, speakers use a disjunctive GE as a negative politeness device to deliver the message: "there are

other potential alternatives, including more accurate ones, to the uttered" (Overstreet, 2005, p. 1854), to mitigate imposition on interlocutors' face by hedging the face-threatening-act in an utterance (Overstreet, 1999, 2005, 2020; Overstreet and Yule, 2021). The use of disjunctive forms here is a hedging behavior "for deference (if we are afraid that by making a certain statement we are overstepping our rights)" (R. Lakoff, 2004, p. 79).

When making invitations or requests, impingement on the activities of others is treated as potential, and thus avoided to the fullest extent. In (17), from Overstreet (1999, p. 105-6), speaker J is trying to invite speaker D to get together in several ways, that is, "hang out", "yack", "have dinner", and "a walk". To the end of the last proposed activity to do together, J resorts to a disjunctive GE *or something*, signaling D the possibilities of other option(s) than the four just mentioned. Offering options and indicating other potential alternatives to the offered ones is obviously one way to mitigate possible imposition involved in the doing of an invitation.

(17) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 105-6 —with GE in bold]
```
1  J:  Come over an hang out
2  D:  Okay
3  J:  We can always y'know – just yack an' have dinner
4  D:  Okay
5  J:  an' we could go
6  D:  But
7  J:  for a walk or something if ya wanna go
```

The following example (18), from Aijmer (2013, p. 144), also illustrates the indication of other possible alternatives to the proposed one, i.e., "dinner", which is in itself an alternative. In doing so, speaker manages to soften or mitigate the imposing act when inviting. Example (19) is an illustration of imposition mitigation when requesting for a meeting from a student to a teacher.

(18) [Aijmer, 2013, p. 144 —with GE in bold]
```
We could have dinner that evening or something
```

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(19) [Channel, 1994, p. 130 —with GE in bold]
```
Could we, when you give us our essays back, and give us titles,
could we sort of meet or something because, I mean, there might
be things we want to ask
```

By the way the request is made, it seems that the student is rather tentative in making the meeting request. One evidence for such tentativeness is the mention of the possibility of an alternative, i.e., "meet", to which a disjunctive GE *or something* is attached suggesting other potential alternatives to the uttered. By such, the student avoids imposing on the teacher to whom s/he is making the request.

Abiding by the concept of intersubjectivity that speakers make sense of each other by the assumption of shared knowledge or the creation of common ground, speakers exploit GEs, especially the adjunctive types, to invite solidarity and thus create intimacy with the other. In this regard, the use of adjunctive GEs in the utterance is then saturated with positive politeness. Disjunctive GEs, one the other hand, are frequently called upon to address matters of negative politeness, i.e., softening/mitigating imposition, besides marking uncertainty and the entertainment of the other. Either negative or positive, the notion of interpersonal interaction is salient as the utterances in focus, in which GEs occur, were addressee-oriented.

2.1.2.3. Personal Function

While addressee-oriented features are pervasive in all interactions, some utterances, including those with the occurrence of GEs, may be speaker-oriented. Known as "subjectivity", this aspect of talk concerns "the expression of self and the representation of a speaker's perspective or point of view in discourse" (Finegan, 1995, p. 1). Biber et al. (1999) drew near to this aspect of self-articulation/ expression by identifying stance markers that deliver "personal feelings, attitudes,

value judgments and assessments" (p. 966-69). At this juncture, Overstreet and Yule (2021) approached this in special relation to the use of GEs as stance markers broadly speaking, or in a narrow sense, a) markers of evaluation, b) maximizers towards extreme value, c) markers of expectations (beyond/contrary to/minimum), and d) markers of indifference.

a. Markers of evaluation

The most obvious cases of GEs being used as stance markers are the ones that incorporate lexical terms indicating an evaluation of what is currently being described. Overstreet (1999) reported a number of examples where GEs are used in combination with terms of negative value like "shit", "crap", and "garbage", as shown in (20)-(22) (p. 135-6).

> (20) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 135 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> I still zoom around and do what I do. I'd hate to have to go
> round thinking about health and shit like that
> ```
>
> (21) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 136 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> I was on the phone 12 hours a day making budgets and all that
> crap
> ```
>
> (22) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 136 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> I did not buy the fantasy of Prince Charming and all that
> garbage
> ```

Some other pejoratives, such as "junk", "mess", "nonsense", "rubbish", etc., have also been noticed at the position of the generic noun or pronoun in the GE construction forming specific GEs that carry with them negative value of evaluation. GEs of this kind are in fact of low to null frequency as reported in most studies that deal with the frequency of GEs from a statistical approach (e.g., Tagliamonte and Denis, 2010; Cheshire, 2007; Levey, 2012; Pichler and Levey, 2011).

Less obvious are the cases where there are no such negative lexical materials, but speakers' evaluations of what is being talked about are still marked by the articulation of self-experience. Consider the use of *and all that stuff* as in (23), taken from Overstreet (1999, p. 26).

> (23) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 26 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> No::: I've been (.) vacuumin' 'n (1.0) washin': (1.0) clo::thes
> 'n dustin':'n all that stuff
> ```

This is a response from a mother after being asked by her daughter whether she was taking a nap. Rather than simply saying "I have been doing housework." when the superordinate lexicalized category, i.e., "housework", is available and easily accessed, the mother chooses to flout the maxim of Quantity by naming a long list of chores she has been doing. The reason behind such move seems to be her defense against her daughter's assumption of what she had been doing, by which she attempts to give expression to a subjective experience that brings forth her underlying evaluation indicating 'I haven't been free/doing nothing.'.

b. Maximizers towards extreme value

Another occasion where speakers may seem to violate the maxim of Quantity is when describing something really or extremely remarkable. In the midst of indicating that, speakers use the GE *and everything* to indicate that "there is (a lot) more" than the named ones, as illustrated in example (24). Before giving examples of the ways in which the holiday is really a lot different, the speaker had expressed how "fantastic" it is as being "completely different" (Aijmer, 2002, p. 238).

> (24) [Aijmer, 2002, p. 238 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> sort of whole routine and atmosphere and climate and clothes
> and everything you know quite extraordinary
> ```

The use of *and everything* here appears to function not only as a typical adjunctive GE licensing the expression that "there is (a lot) more", but also suggest that there is something remarkable in what is being described. This suggestion is underscored by the expression "quite extraordinary" (line 2) later on. The extraordinariness rests in "everything" about the holiday, and thus places an extremely high/positive value to the holiday experience of the speaker. By resorting to the adjunctive GE *and everything* where a high/positive extreme end of value is vested in and that extends to the wholeness besides the mentioned, speakers highlight the accompanying information as remarkable (Aijmer, 1985, p. 383). This maximizing effect towards extreme value by *and everything* was also noted by Ward and Birner (1993) pointing out that the distinct use of *and everything* "exemplifies a high value on some inferable scale" (p. 205). Same can be found in example (25) where an extremely high/positive value on a person's education level is marked by *and everything*.

> (25) [Palacios Martínez, 2011, p. 2466 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> Her dad's kind of very well brought up. He went to Oxford and
> everything.
> ```

Such maximizing effect produced by *and everything* lies also at upper but negative extreme of value. Examples (26)-(27) depict such negative maximizing uses.

> (26) [Levey, 2012, p. 267 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> they've ate all their insides and everything
> ```
>
> (27) [Clancy, 2015, p. 239 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> 1   Son:      Oh look the state of the one mam hate mam hates
> 2             that because they're
> 3   Mother:   It's awful
> 4   Daughter: It's rotten
> 5   Mother:   Don't put it up
> 6   Daughter: It's rotten Jimmy
> 7   Mother:   It's all dirty and everything
> ```

When talking about horror movies, the speaker in (26) emphasizes the upper extreme of horror by *and everything*. As for the one in (27), the mother resorts to

and everything to put an accent on the negative value, i.e., "dirty", towards what "mam hates". They serve as a maximizer denoting "the upper (negative) extreme of a scale" (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 444), as in extreme high level of horribleness and dirtiness.

c. Markers of expectations

In marking expectations, adjunctive GEs are called upon to suggest something under discussion as either beyond or contrary to one's expectation. Disjunctive GEs, on the other hand, are used to deliver a signal of one's minimum expectation towards that 'something'. Besides the maximization of certain value in question to its extreme end, *and everything* is also used in implying that the accompanying information, that is, its attached portion, is something the speaker finds it hard to believe, and thus goes beyond his/her expectation. An illustration of this is in (28). The speaker at the moment is expressing how sweet and helpful a husband had been to his wife who was ill, and how unbelievably amazing it is. The husband's action "washed her CL<u>O</u>::::::thes" is marked as unexpected through the use of the stressed GE "**an' E:verything**!".

> (28) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 96 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> He washed her CLO:::::::thes an' E:verything!
> ```

> (29) [BBC News report, November 30, 2019 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> Its body is nearly intact — fur and all
> ```

GE *and all (that)* can also be used to indicate that something being talked about at the moment goes beyond one's expectation. (29) is an example for this. What is being described is a puppy that is unexpectedly well-preserved after being frozen for 18,000 years.

On top of *and everything* and *and all (that)* being employed to express one's unexpectation, they are also found to be used in situation where speakers of them are in the process of explaining that certain behavior under discussion may be contrary to social expectation. In (30), the speaker A describes a situation where she feels some kind of expectation to keep an individual, who is in need of attention, entertained. A detail of how "pathetic" he was is given as in "buttons hanging off his shirt", to which *and everything* is adhered.

(30) [Aijmer, 2002, p. 227 —with GE in bold]
```
A:   he was very- he was particularly upset
     that I couldn't keep him entertained in the evenings rather
     than the morning but I mean an evening is a lonely time I
     guess
B:   m – right
A:   he was obviously just rather pathetic and on his own
B:   yeah
A:   buttons hanging off his shirt and everything but I wouldn't
     have been that dedicated
```

What is marked by the GE here, according to speaker A's talk, is his expectation of her entertaining him. Speaker A however, could not comply with such expectation. Consider one more example of such personal function indicating speakers not aligning with the expectation that is being implied. In (31) this time, GE *and all that* is used. Prior to this is the speaker's description of how irresponsible a friend is in terms of a pet dog that died.

(31) [Overstreet and Yule, 2002, p. 791 —with GE in bold]
```
I mean she is the caretaker of the dog and all that, but I-
I'm real serious about it – if she gets a pet in the next
few years I'm gonna slap her
```

The GE *and all that* is not used to refer to any other subordinate elements of any superordinate lexicalized category. Instead it is used to mark a social expectation implied by the saying "she is the caretaker of the dog", that is, the rights as a pet owner. What follows immediately is the speaker's assertion that works contrary to the implied expectation.

Different from these adjunctive GEs, disjunctive *or anything (like that)* is used in indicating a minimum expectation. In using it, the aforementioned 'whatever' is/ are marked as minimum expected, which might or might not be met. In (32), a nurse is "encourage(ing) the patient to disclose symptoms" by offering some basic or minimum expected symptoms and an open-ended element created by *or anything*.

(32) [Adolphs et al, 2007, p. 66-67 —with GE in bold]
```
Any intense headache or mental confusion or anything?
```

Here, "intense headache" and "mental confusion" work as minimum expected afflictions. As for the GE *or anything*, it is not only a means to elicit more information from the patient, but a marker of a minimum expectation made by the nurse. Minimum expectation of this kind as in (32) can be seen much clearer in (33) in which a speaker is talking about his father being not a drinker.

(33) [Macaulay, 1985, p. 118 —with GE in bold]
```
he wasnae a drinker he wasnae in the pub even once a week or
anything like that
```

The minimum the speaker expects of a drinker is going to the pub (at least) once a week. This minimum expectation is then marked by the GE *or anything like that*. Consider also examples (34)-(35) where the marked minimum expectations are not met.

(34) [Overstreet, 1999, p. 87 —with GE in bold]
```
so - but - your parents weren't there or anything?
```

(35) [Aijmer, 1985, p. 384 —with GE in bold]
```
so she quite put him off and now he never rings up or anything
```

In (34), what is being minimally expected by the speaker is parents' presence to the friend's small civil ceremony. But this minimum expectation is not met. Example (35) presents a similar case considering a phone call as a minimum expectation, which is not met. In this usage, *or anything (like that)* appears to lose its basic sense

of offering alternatives or indicating others, and becomes as if a formula used in marking the awareness of a minimum expectation.

d. Markers of indifference

Rather than projecting a positive image of self, speakers use disjunctive *or whatever* to leave an impression of lack of concern or indifference. Typically, it is used in implying that "it doesn't actually matter whether certain details are exactly correct", though there may be another or other alternative(s) (Overstreet, 1999, p. 123). Examples (36) and (37) are illustrations of this usage.

> (36) [Wagner et al., 2015, p. 712 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> and it would be like cousins brothers or sisters and parents or
> whatever
> ```

> (37) [Denis, 2017, p. 160 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> and of course in the wintertime, I guess, it was getting out,
> building forts and having a snowball fight or throwing some
> snowballs at somebody driving by or whatever
> ```

Both speakers in (36) and (37) signal that they do not care about the fact that there may be another or other alternative(s) nameable, and as a result, they conclude the listing with the GE *or whatever* suggesting that there may be others, "yet has retained its (speakers') sense of indifference to the identification of those 'others'" (Overstreet and Yule, 2021, p. 76).

2.1.2.4. Textual Function

Textual features of GEs, concerning the construction and development of the actual text[8] of the interaction, are omnipresent and frequently, if not always, concurrent with the referential and (inter)personal features of GEs. This is because a text is in itself the ongoing development and contextualization of referential and (inter)personal meanings (Mann and Matthiessen, 1991). The focus in this section, thus, is directed to the interactional text, that is, "the verbal record of a communicative act", where GEs occur (Brown and Yule, 1983, p. 6). The textual functions by GEs to be covered in this subsection are: a) punctors and b) yielders of a turn.

a. Punctors

The basic referential and (inter)personal indications by GEs may not be present, or at least not easily noticed, in some utterances, resulting in null semantic and pragmatic contributions to the utterances as well as the interactions. This use of GEs was first suggested by Macaulay (1985) as "oral punctuation markers" (p. 112). Examples (38) and (39) capture such use.

(38) [Macaulay, 1985, p. 113 —with GE in bold]
`but I remember him when he worked in the pits` **`and that`**

(39) [Macaulay, 1985, p. 113 —with GE in bold]
`he was flying from Prestwick to Ireland` **`and that`**

---

[8] Text and discourse are two common terms in linguistics. There are, in fact, arguments about the interchangeability of these two terms. Some linguistics consider that the former refers to written materials, whereas the latter concerns the use of language in social context, including both written and spoken ones. On the contrary, some treat them as the same process. Overstreet and Yule (2021), in describing textual functions of GEs, appear to view the term 'text' inclusive of oral records. For linguists who regard text differs from discourse, it would be helpful to note that by 'textual functions', Overstreet and Yule (2021) mean the functions GEs perform with respects to the construction and development of turn in spoken interaction.

There seems to be no set-marking or category-implicating function, i.e., the semantic interpretation of the GE *and that*, identifiable in these two utterances in that there is nowhere else "he worked" apart from "the pits" as in (38) and that there is nowhere else "he was flying .. to" apart from "Ireland" as in (39). According to Macaulay (1985), *and that* here is "almost the oral equivalent of a comma or full stop, depending on the intonation" (p. 112).

GEs of this kind serving as punctuation markers, was later described as "punctors" by Vincent and Sankoff (1992) arguing that they "have lost all or most of their original meaning or function" as they contribute nothing to the semantics of the utterances in which they appear (p. 206). Similarly, Aijmer (2013) also noted that some GEs in her data perform as a punctor as in (40), and even suggested that they could be used like pauses by speakers when planing what to say.

> (40) [Aijmer, 2013, p. 142 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> and um so she's (.) has a lot of problems getting around and
> things and the next one had a (.) major problems with drugs and
> she spent a lot of time in psychiatric wards and things
> ```

> (41) [Cheshire, 2007, p. 186 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> A:  and is there anyone you really admire? I mean you must have
>     lots of sort of sporting heroes do you?
> W:  er I admire my best friend
> A:  Oh right
> W:  cos erm he's had a lot of problems and everything with his
>     family and everything so and he's still coping and
>     everything
> ```

In (40), the GE *and things* is used to conclude a description of an individual before the start of the next. To this phenomenon, Pichler and Levey even estimated that GEs in such case are "devoid of referential (semantic) and pragmatic meaning", and only "serve to punctuate the discourse" (2011, p. 452). A similar illustration of what she regarded as a punctor, Cheshire (2007) documented the use of *and everything*, as in (41), in "simply break(ing) up the flow of discourse" (p. 186).

b. Yielders of a turn

The use of GEs as a turn-yielding signal is characterized and achieved by "a separate tone unit and with a falling intonation contour" in the production of them, according to Pichler and Levey's observation of their surrounding prosodic environments (2011, p. 451). In (42), GE *and stuff like that* is not used inside a tone unit together with its preceding linguistic elements and is ended with a falling intonation, functioning like a standalone. However, there is not indication of any kinds regarding the listener's response to the yielded turn by the GE, has been made.

> (42) [Pichler and Levey, 2011, p.451 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> But I quite like my accent. It's got touches of different sort
> of maybe a bit of American when I speak, and a bit of Scottish.
> And stuff like that.
> ```

> (43) [Vaughan et al, 2017, p. 216 —with GE in bold]
> ```
> S1: Fifty to sixty is an honour too.
> S2: Yeah.
> S1: Or fifty-five to sixty-five or something like that.
> S2: Yeah.
> ```

In Vaughan et al.'s study (2017), they have this addressed as shown in (43). Their documentation of responses to GEs evidences the use of GEs as yielders of a turn. To this, Vaughan et al. (2017) underscored that the use of GEs contributes to turn management and smoothes the "coordination of turns in conversational interaction" (p. 209).

Having described the functions of GEs from four different planes, that is, referential, interpersonal, personal and textual, I believe that we have had enough occasions to register the fact that GEs perform diverse functions, and that their functional diversity has been detected as a result of analyses shifting their analytic focus from semantic-oriented one to addressee-, speaker- and/or text/turn-oriented ones. The diverse functions of GEs have been inventoried and presented in Table 6, along with the mention of possible forms that carry them out.

Table 6. An inventory of GEs' multiple functions ^{with possible form(s) provided}

Domain	Function ^{possible form(s)}
Referential	Set markers or category implicators ^{both adjunctive and disjunctive GEs}
	Generalized list completers ^{both adjunctive and disjunctive GEs}
Interpersonal	Solidarity inviters ^{mostly adjunctive GEs}
	Markers of uncertainty ^{typically disjunctive GEs, e.g., *or something (like that)*}
	Interpersonal entertainment markers ^{typically disjunctive GEs, e.g., *or something*}
	Markers of imposition mitigation ^{typically disjunctive GEs, e.g., *or something*}
Personal	Markers of evaluation ^{mostly adjunctive GEs, e.g., *and shit like that*}
	Maximizers towards extreme value ^{typically *and everything*}
	Markers of expectations ^{(beyond and contrary to (adjunctive GEs, typically *and everything* and *and all (that)*), and minimum (disjunctive GEs, typically *or anything (like that)*))}
	Markers of indifference ^{typically *or whatever*}
Textual	Punctors ^{typically adjunctive GEs, e.g., *and that/things*}
	Yielders of a turn ^{both adjunctive and disjunctive GEs}

Though teasing apart their multifunctionality in this way makes easier the description and understanding of the different functions involved in that multifunctionality, it should be, to reiterate, born in mind that, like other pragmatic markers, GEs are typically multifunctional as "they can operate —often simultaneously— … to serve referential (ideational), textual, and (inter)personal functions" (Cheshire, 2007, p. 178; Levey, 2012, p. 275).

2.1.3. The Use of Adjunctive and Disjunctive GEs by NSs

Amongst the various forms of GEs that perform diverse functions, two types of GEs were argued to signal rather distinct messages to interlocutors (Overstreet, 1999; Overstreet, 2020; Overstreet and Yule, 2021), and thus should be treated

separately. With adjunctive GEs introduced by conjunctive *and*, speakers use them to signal that "'there is more' (that could be said), but you know what I mean (because of the assumed shared knowledge and experience)". By this, they are able to invite solidarity, maximize a value to its extreme end, or mark something as beyond or contrary to one's expectation. In the case of disjunctive GEs introduced by conjunctive *or*, on the other hand, speakers use them to deliver a signal indicating that "'there are other possibilities' (that could be mentioned), including more accurate information". By this, they are able to implicate approximation, imply potential inaccuracy, soften imposition, mark the aforementioned as minimally expected, or signal lack of concern for the identification of others. These two different kinds of messages are in fact at the core, largely derived from the two conjunctives of GEs. Conjunctive *and* signals additional information, whereas conjunctive *or* denotes alternative information. Therefore, the two indications signaled by adjunctive and disjunctive GEs can be perceived as the "common meanings" shared among the different variant forms of GEs of the same type (Overstreet and Yule, 2021, p. 1, 194). As a result, the current study, looking into the distribution of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners, conforms to their call for classifying GE forms into these two main types.

Many studies have also conformed to such distinction when looking into the use of GEs in different inner-circle varieties of English, e.g., American English (Overstreet and Yule, 1997), Canadian English (Tagliamonete and Denis, 2010), British English (Pichler & Levey, 2011), Australian English, New Zealand English, and Singapore English (Aijmer, 2013). They unveiled not only the frequency of

GEs, both adjunctive and disjunctive, but also the preference of forms in native discourse of different varieties.

As regards to the differences in frequency between adjunctive and disjunctive GEs within a variety and across varieties, Aijmer (2013) compared the distribution of frequencies of these two types of GEs across six varieties of English[9]. The results of the comparison are shown in Table 7. Figure 1 helps present the comparison.

Table 7. The frequency of adjunctive and disjunctive GEs across six varieties of English with frequencies estimated to 1,000 words (adopted from Aijmer, 2013, p. 133)

Form	USA		Canada		UK		New Zealand		Australia		Singapore	
	T	T per 1,000 words	T	T per 1,000 words	T	T per 1,000 words	T	T per 1,000 words	T	T per 1,000 words	T	T per 1,000 words
Adjunctive GEs	191	7.6	28	1.4	129	6.4	254	12.7	189	9.4	221	11.5
Disjunctive GEs	220	8.8	43	2.1	133	6.6	123	6.1	289	14.4	191	9.5
Total	411	16.4	71	3.5	262	13.0	377	18.8	478	23.8	412	21.0

T = # of tokens; T per 1,000 words = # of tokens per 1,000 words

Figure 1. The frequency of adjunctive and disjunctive GEs across different varieties

[9] Aijmer (2013) used ICE (shorthand for International Corpus of English) and SBC (shorthand for Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English), and restricted the searches of GEs in these corpora to "dialogue", which includes both private and telephone conversations. The conversations in ICE are generally by speakers, aged 18 or over, who have received education through the medium of English to at least the end of secondary school, and are thus "not a demographically representative cross-section of the population" (p. 131-132). Those in SBC, on the other hand, represent a wide variety of people of different regional origins, ages, occupation, genders, and ethnic and social backgrounds.

More disjunctive GEs were found to be used in Australian and American English. In New Zealand and Singaporean English, on the other hand, adjunctive GEs were predominant. As for the English in Great Britain and Canada, adjunctive and disjunctive GEs were found in similar frequencies. Furthermore, among the six varieties, the highest frequency of GEs, both adjunctive and disjunctive, was found in Australian English with more than 20 tokens per 1,000 words, followed by Singaporean English. That in Canadian English was found to be the lowest, the only one with less than 5 tokens per 1,000 words.

With respects to the use preference of GE forms, two lists of four frequently used forms of adjunctive and disjunctive GEs are presented in Tables 8 and 9. There are various short and long forms of GEs, both adjunctive and disjunctive, and the short ones, e.g., *and that*, *and everything*, *and things*, *and stuff*, and *or something*, are of much higher frequency across these six varieties of English.

Table 8. Four most frequent adjunctive GEs in rank order of 6 inner-circle varieties of English (adopted from Aijmer, 2013, p. 135)

	USA	Canada	UK	New Zealand	Australia	Singapore
1	*and stuff*	*and stuff*	*and that*	*and stuff*	*and stuff*	*and all that*
2	*and everything*	*and stuff like that*	*and things like that*	*and that*	*and everythin*	*and things like that*
3	*and blah blah blah*	*and everythin*	*and stuff*	*and things*	*and that*	*and all*
4	*and all that stuff*	*and things like that*	*and everything*	*and everything*	*and stuff like that*	*and everythin*

Table 9. Four most frequent disjunctive GEs in rank order ^{of 6 inner-circle varieties of English}
(adopted from Aijmer, 2013, p. 136)

	USA	Canada	UK	New Zealand	Australia	Singapore
1	*or something*	*or something*	*or something*	*or something*	*or something*	*or something*
2	*or anything*	*or whatever*	*or whatever*	*or anything*	*or anything*	*or something like that*
3	*or whatever*	*or something like that*	*or something like that*	*or whatever*	*or something like that*	*or whatever*
4	*or what*	*or anything*	*or anything*	*or something like that*	*or whatever*	*or what*

The popularity of these short forms was also reported by many others who documented the increasing preference of using them among younger speakers (e.g., Cheshire, 2007, 2013; Tagliamonete and Denis, 2010; Martínez, 2011; Pichler and Levey, 2011, inter alia). In other words, they are found to be increasingly favored with decreasing age.

The revealed frequency of adjunctive and disjucntive GEs, as well as the use preference of their forms in native discourse, serve as a yardstick for learners. The current study, however, regards them as merely a reference, rather than a benchmark, when examining the forms and frequency of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners due to the incomparability of the conversation data garnered in this study with those in ICE and SBC by Aijmer (2013).

2.2. The Use of GEs by Learners of English

In more recent years, there has been a surge in research studying the use of GEs by learners of English as a second or foreign language. Though there have been some varying results (e.g., Cheng, 2007), either in terms of frequency, range of forms or functions, from research on GEs in learner language in comparison to that in native speakers' English, four of the most common and consistent findings are as follows: 1) the frequently formal nature of the forms of GEs used in informal contexts; 2) the very limited number and restricted range of the possible forms; 3) the comparatively less diverse functions performed; 4) and the idiosyncratic use of GEs as a result of L1 transfer (Hasselgreen, 2002; Aijmer, 2004, 2015; De Cock, 2004; Overstreet, 2012; Terraschke, 2007, 2010; Fernandez and Yuldashev, 2011; Parvaresh et al., 2012; Lin, 2013; Buysse, 2014; Watanabe, 2015; Metsä-Ketelä, 2016; Ojanperä, 2020). These four common findings will be further delineated here.

The learners' fondness of GEs *and so on* and *etcetera*, which make their speaking "sound rather bookish and pedantic" (Channell, 1994, p. 21), is common among learners from different linguistic backgrounds. In a comparative study that De Cock (2004) conducted, both English L1 speakers and French L1 (advanced-level) learners of English in a university in Britain, were recruited to examine their uses of GEs in the speech context. In using adjunctive GEs, French L1 learners were found to have a reliance on using expressions such as *and so on* and *etcetera* in conversation, which were barely used by English L1 speakers. Instead, expressions like *and stuff (like that)*, *and things (like that)*, and *and everything*, especially the shorter forms as shown in Table 8 (p. 39), were favored by them. Learners of different L1s favoring formal GEs in informal contexts was also reported by many

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others[10]. The revealed divergence exactly parallels the difference of GEs in distribution between formal and informal spoken language use (Overstreet and Yule, 1997; Biber et al., 1999). Indeed, expressions like *and so on* and *etcetera* can be commonly seen in academic contexts, both spoken and written (Simpson, 2004). This might account for the reason why English learners rely on using these two forms predominantly even in interactive spoken contexts.

Learners of different L1s were also found to favor disjunctive forms of GEs, resulting in overuse of that and underuse of many others. Dutch learners of English, for example, were found to not only settle for a very limited range of GEs, but largely use disjunctive extenders especially when having production problems in speaking performance (Buysse, 2014; Aijmer, 2015). Particularly, the form *or something (like that)*, is mobilized to mark whatever has just been said, overwhelmingly forms of lexical items, as merely an approximation (Buysse, 2014, p. 230, 232). In keeping with Buysse (2014), Aijmer's (2015) findings showed that the Swedish learners of English used GEs either "excessively or scantily", because they tended to use disjunctive extenders (e.g., *or something*, with three times higher frequency) more and adjunctive GEs less than native speakers (p. 217, 230). Lin's (2013) study on Taiwanese learners also reported a similar finding on learners using considerably less adjunctive and more disjunctive GEs. This high frequency in using disjunctive GE *or something (like that)* seems to resemble that across the six inner-circle varieties of English: *Or something* was found to rank the highest with much

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[10] De Cock's (2004) study on French learners, Aijmer's (2004, 2015) on Swedish, French, German, and Dutch learners, Terraschke's (2010) on German learners, Parvaresh et al's (2012) on Persian learners, Buysse's (2014) on Dutch learners, Watanabe's (2015) study on Japanese learners (especially at low level), and Metsä-Ketelä (2016) and Ojanperä's (2020) on Finnish learners (especially at intermediate level)

higher frequency than its long form and other disjunctive forms, as shown in Table 9 (p. 40) and noted previously.

Though they carry a strong resemblance in terms of high frequency of use within their respective groups, what differ them greatly lie in the much wider pallet from which they draw on disjunctive GEs and the range of the possible functions that *or something (like that)* carries out. Among native speakers, *or something* was captured to function barely as an approximator to deal with problems of language production as nonnative speakers do, but as a hedging device or politeness strategy fulfilling many other interactional needs, such as, approximating uncertain or probably inaccurate contents when assertions and mitigating imposition when invitations (Aijmer, 2013, p. 144).

The limited functions of GEs in learner language is another common finding. Specifically, the less use of GEs associated with pragmatic politeness by learners was reported in some studies (e.g., Buysse, 2014; Fernandez and Yuldashev, 2011). They have raised concerns about how proficient learners truly are in mastering subtle pragmatic devices in English. Many studies, on the contrary, have presented that though not necessarily in the same way and admittedly constrained to a smaller range of functions, learners from various linguistic backgrounds display their capability to use GEs without notable misunderstandings or breakdowns in interaction (Terraschke, 2007; Cheng, 2007; Aijmer, 2015; Metsä-Ketelä, 2016, to name but a few). Albeit limited functions of GEs in learner language, what appears to be "universal" is their floor-yielding textual function, according to Metsä-Ketelä (2016) who investigated the pragmatic functions of GEs by Finnish speakers of English (p. 326). The findings of the study showed that the employment of GEs by

Finnish speakers of English facilitated communication in that GEs stimulate quick responses from recipients of them (Metsä-Ketelä, 2016, p. 345). When it comes to learners of lower proficiency level in the case of Japanese learners of English, the use of GEs (e.g., *and so on*) as yielders of a turn, might come in handy when speakers have "the desire to give up their turn" (Watanabe, 2015, p. 174).

The trace of L1 influence on the use of GEs by learners of English is sometimes tangible, which is the fourth common finding to be reviewed here. Evidence can be seen by looking at their reliance on L1's conventions of forms. Consider the triple *and*s used by Persian learners in (44).

(44) [Parvaresh et al., 2012, p. 266]
```
I have to study, I mean, memorize things and and and.
```

(45) [Parvaresh et al., 2012, p. 275]
```
A: No! I really love to be there
B: I love to be there and this and that
```

This repeated conjunction by Persian learners is said to be derived from its counterpart in their L1, which is *væ, væ, væ*. Such structure is not typical in everyday uses of English, and thus is unique usage to Persian English. Another structure considered as a transfer from Persian is *and this and that* as in example (45). Its parallel structure in Persian is argued to be *væ in, væ un*. Though being more frequently used in Persian English, *and this and that* is only occasionally recorded in the data of English native speakers (Tagliamonte & Denis, 2010). Functionally, according to Parvaresh et al. (2012), the form of *and and and* is commonly used to signal the basic meaning of adjunctive GEs indicating "there is more". On the other hand, the form *and this and that* by Persian is not used to deliver such a signal while English native speakers do. Instead, Persian learners call on it to show that the previously spoken comment is somewhat "offensive" (p. 275).

From these two cases, it is important to recognize not only that structurally distinct forms of GEs used in two varieties of English may function identically, but that structurally identical forms may have different functions. Overstreet (2012) argued that more attention should be put onto the latter since the "similarity in form disguises" the potential "difference in function" (p. 7-8).

Table 10. A summary of the four common traces of learners' use of GEs

1	Formal nature of the forms of GEs, e.g., *and so on* and *etcetera*, used in informal contexts
2	Restricted range of the possible forms among the GEs used and reliance on disjunctive GEs, especially, *or something (like that)*, when encountering production difficulty
3	Less diverse functions, especially those associated with pragmatic politeness, performed by the GEs used
4	The use of distinct forms, e.g., *and and and* and *and this and that*, suggesting L1 influence

The four common findings from studies on the use of GEs by learners of English have thus far been reviewed and are summarized in Table 10. Due to the lack of target language exposure in real-life, pragmatic awareness towards GEs in English and the potential L1 effects, it appears that speakers of different L1s end up 'overusing' from what is available in their restricted English GE pool and/or creating novel interlanguage forms based on what is parallel in their respective L1s.

2.3. Conversation Analysis

Conversation analysis (CA), inspired by Harold Garfinkel's observation (1967) on how people reason beyond what is said (i.e., action) and how the reasonings are shared (i.e., recognition of the action) and Erving Goffman's

insistence (1983) on conceiving interaction as an autonomous domain of study, originated through sociology in the late 1960s. It was then initially proposed and principally developed by the sociologist Harvey Sacks and his associates Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson. Different from the common 'top-down' approach of investigating social life and human sociality based on existing sociological theories, CA emerged but diverged from it in that it employs a 'bottom-up' method of looking into how people 'act' to constitute and maintain social order by observing actual social interactions (Sacks, 1984).

In the study of interaction through CA, utterances are considered more than just a tool for verbalizing ideas, but also a means for achieving social actions. Schegloff (1996), one of the principal creators of the field of CA, has well-captured this view in his outlook on language, that is, "language is not only a tool for thinking, it is also a tool for acting" (p. 4). In view of this, studies employing CA as theoretical framework are bound to investigate human interaction from the perspective of action formation and why that action is being formed at the moment, i.e., "why that now" (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973, p. 299). Conversants are in fact themselves the ones that in the first place raise this question in trying to establish what is being done through any given utterance by the apprehension of its sequential position. Analysts at this juncture, need to delve into what the conversants attempt to accomplish through their utterances which "are contextually understood (in the first place by conversants and ultimately by analysts) by reference to their placement and participation within sequences of actions" (Schegloff, 1984, p. 5).

This 'bottom-up' form of analyzing action or a course of action implemented through sequences of talk, is also distinctive from the three dominant theories within

pragmatics, i.e., Speech Act Theory, Gricean Implicature, and Relevance Theory, in three major regards: 1) CA takes naturally occurring conversation as the topic of analysis; 2) it concerns centrally conversants' construction of and orientation to action in the local context of sequences where it occurs; and 3) it aims to decide the kinds of actions being implemented and describe how they coordinate by locally aligning conversants' own understandings[11] of the ongoing interaction. CA, thereby, as a data-driven and bottom-up analytic approach (Sacks, 1984), places emphasis on studying and understanding (inter)action by using actual data collected from natural settings, in a situated and context-sensitive fashion, and based on interaction participants' self-displayed orientations to them. Analysts therefore, should also develop an emic perspective, i.e., analyze from the perspective of the subject under investigation rather than the observer, in delving into the interaction instead of drawing inference of any kinds.

If probing into action or a course of action is the core of CA study, scrutinizing its surrounding environment serves as an initial step and a means to understand more comprehensively and precisely the action or the course of action being performed. Here, surrounding environment refers to the local contexts in and through which a certain action or course of action is embedded and carried out. A set of context-free mechanisms that have been identified to operate in talk-in-interaction in early CA studies, build up the local contexts, and thus serve as fundamental constructs for the analysis of action. These fundamental constructs include turn-taking organization,

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[11] Participants' own displayed understandings, in Clift's (2016) words, "are only visible by examining the interactional sequences in which the actions are embedded" (p. 15). By putting their own understandings at the center of analysis and recognizing context as sequential, CA "makes the whole arc (i.e., trajectories of actions) available for inspection by grounding the moment both *before* and *after*" the utterance (action) in question (p. 64), and makes possible the precise specification of "how utterances implement actions" (p. 94).

repair organization, sequence organization, and preference organization[12]. Being in themselves the unveiled structural regularities in interactions, they help uncover the systematicity and orderliness of interaction that conversants follow while simultaneously serving as the prime source from which analytical observation of language in use, including the use of GEs, can be made.

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[12] The specifics of these four fundamental constructs are provided in Section 3.2. CA as Methodological Framework under Chapter 3. Data and Methodology.

Chapter 3. Data and Methodology

The present chapter reports on the overall procedure, prior to distributional and functional analysis, of this study: the recruitment of participants and the collection of conversation data. After this, it also devotes a separate section to the four mechanisms of CA that provide not only insights to the design of methodological procedures, but also a useful analytic lens to the investigation of the use of GEs. Section 3.1 makes plain the requirements for and the recruitment and distribution of conversation participants. In addition, it spells out some considerations made to facilitate the collection of natural conversation data. Section 3.2 centers on elucidating the four identified fundamental constructs of CA that are the building blocks to the current analysis. Lastly, Section 3.3 briefly describes some moves taken out of ethical consideration.

3.1. Participants and Conversation Data

Seeking to find answers to in what distribution and functions of GEs are employed by Korean and Chinese learners of English during natural conversation, this current study set out to recruit participants from whom conversation data were collected for the analysis. 40 current undergraduate and graduate students of Seoul National University (SNU) were recruited online via the medium of social network services or offline via college bulletin boards upon their voluntary consent to participating in the research. Among them, 24 are Koreans whose first language is Korean and 16 are Chinese whose first language is Mandarin. They major in various fields with English language and Literature and English Education excluded. To

ensure a sufficient amount of interactional output while simultaneously permit the attainment of distinctive uses of English among three levels, the recruitment notice specified that only those who possess low-intermediate, high-intermediate or advanced level of English proficiency are eligible to apply. The evaluation and determination of their English proficiency level were based on the reported (ranges of) scores on their respective tests taken within two years, which fall into the corresponding ranges[13] for these three levels (See Table 11).

Table 11. Distribution of participants by L1 and English proficiency level

No. of participants		English test				English proficiency level
Korean	Chinese	TEPS	NEW TEPS	TOEFL	IETLS	
8	8	501-600	268-326	80-96	6.5-7.0	Low-intermediate
8	8	701-800	387-452	107-112	7.5	High-intermediate
8	0	801-900	453-525	113-117	8.0-8.5	Advanced

It is worth mentioning that this study attempted to recruit Chinese participants at advanced level, but none could be recruited, probably due to the little or none existence of such target group at SNU. Furthermore, out of the consideration that it may be a potential variable for the analysis of the use of GEs, the duration participates studied and/or lived in an English-speaking country or environment was also controlled, and it should be less than 3 months.

After the 40 eligible participants were recruited, they were randomly distributed into a conversation group of 5 according to their first languages and

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[13] The score ranges indicating these three proficiency levels were determined based on the level system and the conversion table provided by TEPS® (shorthand for Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University) and the score conversions between TOEFL iBT® and IELTS® were taken from the comparison results reported by ETS® (shorthand for Educational Testing Service).

English proficiency levels. A total of 8 conversation groups were constituted. In each

group, two are Chinese (1 at low-intermediate and 1 at high-intermediate level) and

three are Koreans (1 at low-intermediate, 1 at high-intermediate and 1 at advanced

level). On the respective scheduled dates, they carried out an English conversation

on Zoom that lasted for at least 30 minutes as required based on, but not constrained

to, the 9 conversation topics (Appendix 1), such as *Life and Study during Covid-19*,

given to them. The data garnered comprise of approximately 298 minutes (nearly 5

hours) of conversations, amounting to 28,292 words. The total data size[14] is further

detailed according to learners' L1 and proficiency level, and is presented in Table

12.

Table 12. Description of the data size by learners' L1 and proficiency level

L1	Proficiency level	No. of words	No. of words in total
Korean	Advanced	6,187	14,138 (7,951)*
	High-intermediate	3,391	
	Low-intermediate	4,560	
Chinese	High-intermediate	8,138	14,154
	Low-intermediate	6,016	
Total			28,292

*The total number of words by the high- and low-intermediate speakers

Admittedly, the aid to conversation topics did offer some degree of control on

the contents of the elicited conversations, but hardly any on participants' ways of

conversation in general. There was instead, still quite a lot of leeway for them to

think, act, and interact freely and unstructuredly, as they were not required to take on

a role other than who they really are or to carry out any specific interactional

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[14] The commercial concordance software AntConc (Anthony, 2022) was used to calculate the data size.

actions, e.g., request and refusal, during conversation. This contributed to the collection of natural conversation. In addition to not assigning the participants with any roles other than the default one as a research participant, conversation groups with mixed nationalities and English proficiency levels were also designed for the purpose of attaining naturally occurring conversation data. This is because it would be unnatural to have people who share their first language gather together and talk with each other in a foreign language, and also uncommon to have a setting in real life where everyone happens to possess an identical language proficiency level. Notably, the increased naturalness here came at the expense of more balanced talks by participants of identical proficiency level. Imbalances where some conversants may dominate the talk and the other appear to heavily rely on them are nonetheless, quite a commonplace in real life.

3.2. CA as Methodological Framework

The fundamental mechanisms underlying talk-in-interaction in general serve as building blocks for the analysis of this study. Included are, as briefly mentioned but yet illustrated, turn-taking organization, repair organization, sequence organization, and preference organization. Each of them will be introduced sequentially, during which some terminologies applied in the analysis will also be stressed[15].

The mechanism of turn-taking organization unveils the orderliness of each speaker taking a turn during interaction, which is found to occur "overwhelmingly

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[15] This section does no more than provides an overview, of the four organizations, that is necessary for understanding the analysis of this paper. For a more detailed and comprehensive account of them, the reader is referred to Schegloff (2007) and Clift (2016), to which this section on the mechanisms of CA is indebted.

one at a time" (Sack et al, 1974, p. 700). Just before discussing how each speaker

takes a turn, I will introduce the four basic turn-constructional components that,

frequently, if not all the time, signal the relevance of turn-transition at which turn

allocation occurs. Speaking of turn-constituents, it is not always sentential since it

can also occur as a lexical, phrasal, or clausal construction. Each of them may set

out to construct a turn that has its own "consequentiality of its possible[16]

completion" (Schegloff, 1996, p. 112). These four different types of turn-

constituents are called turn constructional units (hereinafter, TCUs). The boundaries

of TCUs that project possible (i.e., at that point, potential) completion are the

empirically-attested places for speaker transitions. These places are called transition-

relevance place (hereinafter, TRP). Turn allocation happens at this place, either by

the current speaker selecting the next or by self-selection[17]. Whoever takes (back)

the turn during the transfer, the turn-taker gains (back) the right to the turn (Sack et

al, 1974). In projecting and recognizing a TRP, conversants utilize a convergence of

the grammatical constraints of syntax, the prosody, and the pragmatics of the turn-

in-progress. With that being said, whether an utterance is complete depends not only

on the grammar of the turn-so-far, but also its prosody, as well as the action being

performed by the utterance. If the prosody is kept non-terminal for example, be it a

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[16] The words *possible* or *possibly* are not used as tokens out of "analytic uncertainty or hedging" (Schegloff, p. 116, 1996) in conversation-analytic work, but ones that have long been standardized and are used "to indicate that the speaker has used the interactional resources available to bring the talk to a recognizable" *whatever*, say, *completion* or *invitation* (Clift, p. 51, 2016). That is, the act/doing of *completing a turn* or *inviting* is made recognizable and thereby a possible one, for an interlocutor who might not have treated it as such. This study conforms to this use.

[17] More specifically, (i) a particular interlocutor should take the turn addressed to them if the current speaker has made it apparent; or (ii) if no selection has been made at the TRP, an interlocutor might self-select, but need not do so, after recognizing the TRP projected by the current speaker's turn; and (iii) if no selection has been made and no interlocutor has self-selected at the TRP, the current speaker might, but need not, continue by taking back the yielded turn with a new TCU. No matter which one of the three rules has been operated, the rule-set (i-iii) comes into play for the next TRP, and recursively at each subsequent TRP, until transfer is put into effect.

single lexical unit, phrase, clause, or sentence, it indicates to an interlocutor that there is more to come, and consequently, the interlocutor might understand and respond to it as such.

Though the mechanism of turn-taking organization is observed to be overwhelmingly one-party-talking-at-a-time and interlocutors are expected to not violate it by withholding talk, it is not always a clear-cut regulation. This is because it might not happen right after the full completion of the current speaker's turn if observing when an interlocutor takes a turn. Consider two turn-taking facts: an interlocutor's overlapping turn and quasi-turn that are not turn-competitive. First, an interlocutor's turn might likely overlap with the speaker's turn which has not yet reached its end. This normally happens at TRP or a pre-possible completion point where an interlocutor somehow possesses enough knowledge to 'monitor a stretch of talk for upcoming potential turn transition'. Second, an interlocutor might make a non-floor-taking turn by which he/she signals the listener's role in the process of the current speaker's (multi-unit) turn. These two aforementioned turn-taking facts suggest that conversants follow the interactional regulation, and violations[18] are acceptable when they are carried out at TRP and/or as a non-floor-taking turn (Clift, 2016).

The second fundamental construct in CA involves the organization of repair where the speaker and/or the interlocutor, i.e., the recipient of the problem, work to address "problems in speaking, hearing, and understanding" (Schegloff et al., 1977, p. 361). By doing so, the original upcoming turn or ongoing action by a speaker will be temporarily suspended until the problem is solved within the same turn by the

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[18] Silence and choral talk, in the achievement of particular international objectives, are also common departures from the 'one-speaker-at-a-time' regulation (Clift, 2016, p. 126-132).

speaker per se or within the newly-constituted repair sequence between the speaker and the recipient. More specifically, in the sequential surrounding environment of repair, if the repair is initiated by the speaker per se, i.e., self-initiation repair (SIR), be it self-repaired (SISR) or other-repaired (SIOR), it then slows down the onward progression of the turn at that moment; whereas if the repair is initiated by the other speaker, i.e., other-repair, be it self-repaired (OISR) or other-repaired (OIOR), it then temporarily holds back the progressivity of the ongoing action that is originally intended by the speaker of the problem. If taking into consideration the halted progressivity as a consequence of SIR or OIR, the speaker of SIR is in pursuit of an appropriate word or formulation to do a specific action at the moment but ends up giving a rather delicate delivery, and thus the progressivity of his/her turn is interrupted; the recipient of OIR, i.e., the interlocutor of the trouble source 'maker', is in an effort of hearing or understanding the speaker's utterance since his/her apprehension of 'something' has gone awry. In requesting for a repair, the progressivity of speaker's original sequence is then suspended for the moment till the problem is settled and everyone is on the same page.

In relation to turn-taking mechanism, whichever repair operation may it be, once a repair is initiated until the point it gets completed, it can take priority over the turn-taking system as it would be treated as a prioritized activity by the conversants. In other words, organization of repair can supersede that of turn-taking. If it does happen, it not only takes the place of whatever was supposed to come in a turn when SIR is at work, but also interrupts the progressivity of the sequence that was supposed to come (Clift, 2016).

Next, I will review the third fundamental construct in CA, sequence organization, which is germane to the organization of turn-taking and repair when observing how conversation works or is grouped in "batches or clumps" within which bunches "cohere". The notion of sequence here refers to the coherence across a clump or clumps of talk where "courses of action" are contingently shaped. Sequence organization then refers to the organization of these "courses of action enacted through turns-at-talk – coherent, orderly, meaningful successions or sequences of actions or moves". Thus, talk-in-interaction is also argued to be examined according to action, that is, "for what it is doing" rather than topicality, that is, "for what it is about" (Schegloff, 2007, p.1-2). In relation to turn-taking, the smallest and the most basic unit in sequence organization is called "adjacency pair" (Schegloff, 2007, p.13) whose minimal pair is one comprised of two turns with each of the turn produced by different speakers. The first turn of this pair is called first pair part (hereinafter, FPP) by a speaker, and the second turn of this pair is called second pair part (hereinafter, SPP) by an interlocutor. The SPP is where a following turn becomes relevant in the context by the production of the FPP, and both belong to "certain classes of utterances [that] conventionally come in pairs" (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008, p.39). To be specific, when a certain type of FPP is uttered, only the SPP of "conventional relevance" can follow (Clift, 2016, p. 70), as the action performed by means of that FPP "projects the relevance of a particular (range of) 'next' actions to be done" by that SPP (p. 69). For example, utterance of greeting is followed by a return greeting, a question by an answer, an invitation by an acceptance or a rejection, a request by a grant or a decline, and an assessment by an agreement or a disagreement. From this, we can see that only a "pair-type related"

SPP can be the component of an adjacency pair in response to the action performed in the FPP (p. 70).

In the naturally occurring conversation however, adjacency pairs do not always appear in such simplicity. The interactional phenomena of insert-expansion[19] can clarify this. An insert-expansion is in itself an adjacency pair which is produced and completed for continuing the interrupted base adjacency pair. Consider an invitation-rejection pair as a base adjacency pair set in the spate of four-turn interaction. After the invitation is sent out in the base FPP (1st turn), instead of accepting or rejecting (an expected base SPP), a question might come after for the purpose of hearing or understanding accurately the base FPP. This inserted question then temporarily suspend the activity of invitation under way, and gives its own right to be the FPP in the question-answer pair. The speaker of the base FPP is expected to produce a SPP to the FPP before the original activity is resumed. From this, we not only see sequences of two adjacency pairs in an embedded relationship, but the OISR at work[20].

As another fundamental construct in CA, preference organization is the last but not least one that I will review here. In relation to sequence organization, the notion of preference arises in that there are certain preferred responses whereas their alternatives are referred as dispreferred in response to certain activities. In response to activities such as an invitation, a request or an assessment, just to name a few,

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[19] Consider as well the interactional phenomena of pre-expansions and post-expansions to a, what Schegloff (2007) calls, "base pair", that is, a base adjacency pair before or after which some pre-sequences (such as pre-invitation or pre-announcement), or post-sequences (such as "sequence-closing third (SCT)" and "post-completion musing (PCM)" that are designed to possibly close or complete a sequence with a minimal turn, or non-minimal repair sequences that are designed to take up more than one turn), are "built around it" (p. 27; p. 118; p. 144; p. 154).

[20] This is dubbed as "*post-first* insert expansion" centering on the doing of repair (Schegloff, 2007, p. 100). The other type of insert expansion is called "*pre-second* insert expansion" (p. 109). Different from '*post-first* insert' type, it ensures whether a particular condition is satisfied or not for the production of a particular SPP.

acceptance, grant, and agreement are preferred, whereas rejection, decline, and disagreement are dispreferred. Note, however, that sometimes reversed preference structure exists under certain contexts such as self-deprecation towards which what is generally preferred would be disagreement but not agreement. It is equally important to note that the distinction between what is preferred and what is not does not refer to the psychological states of conversants or their inclinations to a specific action, but rather to the "recurrent and institutionalized features of the turn and sequence structures in which the alternative actions are carried out" (Heritage, 1989). The concept of preference in CA thereby, is a structural phenomenon concerning the features of turn designs and sequence placements to which conversants orient instead of a psychological one. Such orientations amidst conversants are of consequences. They have determining affects onto how a turn is shaped and a sequence is placed depending whether it is a preferred or a dispreferred one. Specifically, preferred responses are generally with little or no delay, whereas dispreferred responses tend to be marked with delay or hesitation such as multiple pauses, stops, or sound stretches, accompanied with accounts or excuses (Schegloff, 2007; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Clift, 2016).

Thus far I have reviewed the four context-free mechanisms of CA that underpin this study as building blocks. The study has not only followed the traditions of CA but applied CA transcription conventions[21] (Jefferson, 2004; Schegloff, 2007; Clift, 2016 (for the transcription of talk); Lee & Burch, 2017 (for the transcription of embodied actions); Also see Appendix 2) in transcribing the recorded data. In addition, it has incorporated the aforementioned terms and notions

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[21] CA transcription conventions were developed "to look to the eye as it sounds to the ear" (Clift, 2016, p. 48), that is, to capture the temporal and online production of utterances in talk.

into the analysis of the use of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English in conversation.

3.3. Ethical Consideration

To comply with the requirements for social and behavioral research at Seoul National University, the researcher[22] completed the Human Research Ethics Workshop offered by Seoul National University Institutional Review Board (SNUIRB) and obtained the certificate on February 9th, 2022. Upon the completion of the workshop (Completion Report Number: SNUIRB 2022-01-67), the incipient research design together with participant recruitment document, information sheet, consent form, questionnaire, debriefing letter, and more (See Appendices 3-7), were submitted to SNUIRB for review. The researcher acquired the approval from SNUIRB to launch the research (IRB No. 2204/003-007) on April 18th, 2022.

To prevent purposeful (non-)uses of English GEs when conversing, participants were not informed of that their use of them would be critically analyzed prior to the conversation. Instead, they were only given a rather general research title and purpose. To protect and further guarantee their right to be informed, a letter of debriefing making known the actual title of the research and its specifics was sent to participants through email immediately after their conversation. The sent debriefing letter required their signature once more upon their continuous consent to participation after being completely informed about the study.

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[22] The researcher's advisor, Prof. Yong-Yae Park, who also has access to the audio- and video-recordings of the collected conversation, completed the CITI (Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative) Program through an online course and obtained the certificate on Mar 11th, 2022 (Completion Record ID: 47898749).

As initially designed, no collected personal information of the participants was exposed in this thesis. To maintain the anonymity but at the same time increase the readability of the excerpts taken from and transcribed based on the collected conversation data, all the participants' names were substituted with randomly-assigned English names as pseudonyms according to their gender before the work of transcription. All information mentioned during conversation, such as department, name of a friend or a school instructor, residential area, etc., that might risk exposing participants' identity, were purposely left un-transcribed in the quoted excerpts.

Chapter 4. Analysis

This chapter delineates the results from the proposed distributional and functional analyses. Section 4.1 presents an overlook of the distribution of GEs used by Korean and Chinese learners of English in conversation, based on which it further draws comparisons between these two groups of learners. Section 4.2 follows with an analysis of the functions performed by them.

4.1. Distribution of GEs

The distribution of GEs used by learners of different L1s, Korean and Chinese respectively, is closely examined according to learners' proficiency levels and two main types of GE forms. This is followed by comparisons drawn between these two groups of learners.

It is introduced first and foremost according to learners' proficiency levels, i.e., advanced, high-intermediate, and low-intermediate, as shown in Table 13. As a result of different data sizes collected from each proficiency-level group, estimated frequencies have been used to achieve maximal comparability between Korean and Chinese learners at different proficiency levels. The frequencies have been estimated to 1,000 words.

Table 13. The frequency of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners at different levels

L1	Proficiency level	T	T per 1,000 words
Korean	Advanced	5	0.81
	High-intermediate	3	0.88
	Low-intermediate	3	0.66
	Total	11	0.78
Chinese	High-intermediate	7	0.86
	Low-intermediate	4	0.66
	Total	11	0.78

T = # of tokens; T per 1,000 words = # of tokens per 1,000 words

A total of 22 tokens of GEs have been identified: 11 by Korean learners, and 11 by Chinese learners. Low-intermediate learners, both Korean and Chinese, are found to use the least GEs with identical frequency. High-intermediate learners from these two groups are found to use GEs in a similar frequency. Korean learners at advanced level, however, are found to use GEs slightly less than those at high-intermediate level. All the frequencies compared above are less than 1, which means that both Korean and Chinese learners, regardless of proficiency levels, hardly call upon a GE every 1,000 words.

The distribution of GEs used by these two groups of learners at different levels is further introduced by the two types of GEs, i.e., adjunctive and disjunctive, including GEs without a connector[23]. Table 14 presents the results of this further distribution.

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[23] No-connector GEs haven been distributed into either adjunctive or disjunctive GEs as they suggest additional or alternative information, as are those with a connector *and* or *or*.

Table 14. The frequencies of adjunctive and disjunctive GEs by Korean and Chinese learners at different levels

L1	Proficiency level	Advanced		High-intermediate		Low-intermediate	
		T	T per 1,000 words	T	T per 1,000 words	T	T per 1,000 words
Korean	Adjunctive GEs	0	0	1	0.29	0	0
	Disjunctive GEs	5	0.81	2	0.59	3	0.66
Chinese	Adjuncitve GEs	-	-	4	0.49	2	0.33
	Disjunctive GEs	-	-	3	0.36	2	0.33

T = # of tokens; T per 1,000 words = # of tokens per 1,000 words

Korean learners, regardless of proficiency levels, appear to use more disjunctive GEs than adjunctive ones. Chinese learners, on the other hand, seem to use both types of GEs nearly equally. Again, the differences across levels appear to be small.

In the context of foreign language teaching and learning, the objective must lie in improving learners' communicative competence and helping them come close to native-like proficiency. This necessitates making comparisons between learner language and that by native speakers. This is also true of the use of GEs in between Korean and Chinese English and native speakers' English. It was briefly mentioned in Chapter 2 that Aijmer (2013) restricted the searches of GEs in ICE and SBC to 'dialogue', including both private and telephone conversations. Admittedly, however, the conversation data in this study differs from those in ICE and SBC. This is largely due to the standards of data collection, e.g., the requirements for desired participants, the given conversation topics, the time limit, the online setting, etc. All of these contributed to a different contextual circumstance, from which the data was garnered. It follows that any comparisons made would be problematic and the results of them would, thus, not be reliable. Acknowledging the problem of

comparability, the study presents these data here, once again, only for reference purpose and highlighting the low frequency of this set of pragmatic expressions in Korean learners' and Chinese learners' English. Table 15 presents the rather low frequency of these two types of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners. Figure 2 helps present the comparison between them with the figures regarding the use frequency of GEs reported in British and American English included for reference only (See Table 7 and Figure 1 for more detailed reference, p. 38).

Table 15. The frequency of adjunctive and disjunctive GEs by Korean and Chinese learners compared to that in six inner-circle varieties of English

Form	Korean		Chinese	
	T	T per 1,000 words	T	T per 1,000 words
Adjunctive GEs	1	0.07	6	0.43
Disjunctive GEs	10	0.71	5	0.35
Total	11	0.78	11	0.78

T = # of tokens; T per 1,000 words = # of tokens per 1,000 words

Figure 2. The frequency of adjunctive and disjunctive GEs across different varieties

There is, as mentioned earlier, hardly a single GE in every 1,000 words in Korean learners' and Chinese learners' English. It follows that these two groups of learners substantially underuse GEs on the whole, let alone certain types or forms of them.

An inquiry into the specific forms of GEs used by these two groups of learners reveals that they use fewer variant GE forms, and among those used, misuses and traces of L1 transfer exist. All of these suggest their lack of knowledge about GEs, which seem to account for their underuse of GEs in general. Table 16 illustrates all the GEs, both adjunctive and disjunctive, used by Korean and Chinese learners.

Table 16. An inventory of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners

Type	Korean	T	Chinese	T
Adjunctive with no-connector GE forms included	*everything**	1	*and other things*	2
			and the other things	1
			*and something**	1
			and such a thing	1
			and nothing	1
Disjunctive with no-connector GE forms included	*or something*	5	*or something*	2
	or anything	2	*or other relating stuffs**	1
	or something else	1	*something like that*	1
	*whatever**	1	*things like these*	1
	*something**	1		
Total		11		11

T = # of tokens; * indicates misuses of the forms

Among all forms identified, the one with the highest frequency is disjunctive GE *or something*, which is a shared form between Chinese and Korean learners. Following is the disjunctive GE *or anything* by Korean learners and the adjunctive GE *and other things* by Chinese learners. Interestingly, *or something* is as well the most

frequently-used disjunctive form across inner-circle varieties of English (cf. Table 9, p. 40). The disjunctive form *or anything* is also a commonly-used one by native speakers.

Apart from the very few similar uses, learners' traces are salient in several regards. Starting with the most noticeable, both Korean and Chinese learners are constrained to using GEs with limited variant forms, compared to those used by native speakers (cf. Aijmer, 2013, p. 135-136), which is in line with most earlier observations (e.g., Hasselgreen, 2002, inter alia). With regards to learners' misuses of GEs, Korean learners are found to drop the connectors of some typical and/or invariable forms of GEs, such as *and everything*, *or whatever*, and *or something*, used in maximizing a negative value, indicating the indifference of further identifying other alternative information, or marking uncertainty, respectively. Chinese learners, on the other hand, are found to generate GE forms that suggest possible traces of L1 influence. To be specific, all the adjunctive forms, i.e., *and (the) other things*, *and such a thing*, and *and something**, and the disjunctive form, i.e., *or other relating stuffs**, used by them, seem to be direct translations from Chinese, which are *he/yuqita/biededongxi* (和/与其它/别的东西), *he/yuzheyangdedongxi* (和/与这样的东西), *(he/yu)shenmede* ((和/与)什么的), and *huoqitaxiangguandedongxi* (或其它相关的东西). All of the adjunctive forms indicate the existence of additional information, except from the hybrid form *and something**, that is, a form with mixed lexical elements of adjunctive connector and generic noun typical to disjunctive GEs. It is, in fact, called upon to mark uncertainty of the just ventured words, indicating other possible alternatives, including more accurate ones, to the uttered. The limited variant forms by Korean

and Chinese learners, their misuses of certain forms of GEs, and the word-for-word translations from their L1 to English (in the case of Chinese learners), are all evidence of their lack of knowledge about, if not unfamiliarity with, not only the common forms of English GEs but English GEs in general.

Another possible indication of Korean and Chinese learners' lack of knowledge about GEs is their frequent use of SEs whose frequencies are nearly or more than half as much as those of GEs. Table 17 summarizes all the SEs used by these two groups of learners.

Table 17. An inventory of SEs by Korean and Chinese learners

Form	Korean	T	Chinese	T
Adjunctive	*and others laws that you can choose to study*	1	*and other cities*	1
			and other countries	1
			and I don't know maybe some others majors	1
			and other kinds of	1
Disjunctive	*or other daily things*	1	*or other countries*	1
	or any other needs	1	*or maybe in other countries*	1
	or other major	1		
	or something we can use for our thesis of our paper	1		
Total		5		6

T = # of tokens

As noted earlier, SEs accounted for only a small proportion (1.2%) against the predominant cases of GEs (98.8%), as reported by Overstreet (1999) in her native-speaker conversational data. That is to say, a great majority of extenders that native speakers were found to use are general, i.e., GEs. Though Korean and Chinese

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learners are, indeed, found to use more GEs than SEs in this regard, the proportions of their respective SEs used are by far larger, reaching to more than 30%. Lack of knowledge about GEs, learners cannot but mobilize extenders in a more specific way when there is an urgent interactional need to call upon an extender.

Thus far, the distribution of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English has been closely detailed from two regards, i.e., learners' proficiency levels and the two types of forms of GEs. The results from the distributional analysis have been further taken up for comparisons between these two groups of learners. The comparison between Korean and Chinese learners in terms of frequency, have unveiled that Korean learners, despite different proficiency levels, tend to use more disjunctive GEs than adjunctive ones, whereas Chinese learners tend to use them in a similar frequency. Looking at the forms of GEs used by these two groups of learners, some forms are found to be misused, and some forms, especially adjunctive GEs, appear to be specific to Chinese learner group, and therefore, dependent on their L1. This seems to account for the much higher frequency in using adjunctive GEs by them. Comparisons with native speakers have been avoided to a great extent in order not to breed unreliable results. It is, however, noticeable that learners substantially underuse GEs in general, use fewer variants, misuse certain forms, rely on L1's resources (for Chinese learners), and use more SEs.

4.2. Functions of GEs

GEs used by Korean and Chinese learners of English are observed to have functions in the four communicative domains, i.e., referential, interpersonal,

personal, and textual, often simultaneously. Each of them is examined further for better illustrations before their multifunctional trait is noted.

4.2.1. Referential functions

The GEs used by Korean and/or Chinese learners of English have referential functions in implicating a category and completing a list.

4.2.1.1. Implicating a category

A close examination of the 22 tokens of GEs reveals the uncommonness of the category-implicative function of GEs used by Korean and Chinese learners of English, and that their role in simply implicating the potential existence of additional or alternative instances is, on the other hand, pervasive. Only one GE is empirically identified to seemingly implicate a category as illustrated in example (46).

The segment presented in example (46) is built up from a basic question-answer sequence where Grace, as the only undergraduate, launches the question, an FPP, (lines 11, 13-15) to the other graduate students, inquiring them of what a better career path is between further study and work after undergraduate school. Prior to the question, there are some moves that serve as pre-expansions uttered to make relevant the addressees of the question and to provide an account for asking the question.

(46) *Hearts of Various Shapes* (CG3-20220602)
[Grace - ADK; Emily - HIK; Matthew, LIK; Joseph, HIC; Daisy, LIC]
```
                      ...
11   Grace:    [+S:o mm (0.2) so +I just wanted to ask you
12   Emily:    [+Hehhehheh.
     Grace:                        +smiles
13             guys, .hhh (0.4) u::h (0.3) what is better?
14             (0.4)
```

```
15   Grace:     To study more? (0.3) [O:::r ju[st
16   Emily:                          [Mm:::
17   Matthew:                              [Nothing better.
18              (0.7)
19   Joseph:    Hehhehheh [+hehhehheh hehhehheh
20   Emily:     Hehhehheh [+hehhehheh hehhehheh
21   Grace:               [+Hehhehheh hehheh .hhh heh [.hhh heh
     Daisy:             +laughs silently
22   Emily:                                         [He's
23              right. (0.1) .hhh Yeah, °he's right°.=
24   Grace:     =Hehheh[heh.
25   Matthew:         [Wasting you::r YOUTH, (0.2) and you're
26              wasting [you:r (0.7) +tuition FEE,=
     Joseph:                         +laughs silently
     Daisy:                          +laughs silently
27   Emily:           [Ye:::ah. Hehheh.
28   Grace:     =Oh, [no::.
29   Emily:          [Ye::ah.
30              (0.1)
31   Joseph:    Hehheh[hehhehheh.
32   Emily:           [Your time,=
33   Grace:     =A:h, hehhehheh.=
34-> Emily:     =Yeah, [your °tuition° fee, hehheh [**Everything.**
35   Joseph:           [You are a <u>bad</u> boy.         [Hehhehheh.
36   Emily:     Hehheh.=
37   Grace:     =Ok:[ay.
38   Matthew:      [Remember yo:::u (.) waste your (0.1) not-
39              uh not only your tuition fee, but your (0.1)
40              YOUTH.
41              (0.6)
42   Grace:     +O::[:h, hehheh.
     Joseph:    +mouths 'Oh.' with a shocked face and laughs
                 silently
43   Emily:          [Yeah. Yeah, [youth and °your opportunity?°
44   Joseph:                      [Nonono, don't listen to HIM.
45              He hehheh +he's lying. [He's <u>lying</u>, hehhehheh.
     Daisy:              +laughs silently
46   Emily:                            [Opportunituy.
47   Grace:     Hehhehheh.
```

Upon being addressed to and in overlap with Grace's ongoing turn, Matthew cuts in

and says "Nothing better" (line 17), a first SPP, in response to her question that is

unfinished. After 0.7 seconds of silence, this rather unconventional answer, which is

also in itself an assessment, not only creates an amusing effect among interlocutors

as seen in the following turns (lines 19-21), but receives an affirmation from Emily

as in lines 22-23. In lines 25-26, Matthew takes back his turn and goes on providing

accounts for his assessment by listing the drawbacks of going to a graduate school.

To the two listed drawbacks by Matthew, i.e., wasting your youth and tuition fee, Emily jumps in each one of them and affirms by saying "Yeah" as in lines 27 and 29. Furthermore, she adds onto the list by saying "Your time" (line 32) and recycles Matthew's tuition fee as in "your °tuition° fee", to which she calls upon a GE "Everything" (line 34). What is intuitively clear is the category being possibly implicated by "Everything" here, which could be described as *drawbacks of going to graduate school*. Whether the GE is really used to implicate such a more general category definitely requires more evidence from not only the speaker per se but interlocutors. What follows immediately after the GE is Grace's acknowledge token "Okay." (line 37). In overlap with it, Matthew underscores the two negative consequences listed by repeating them and urging Grace to remember (lines 38-40). To this, Emily, again, affirms and recycles one of his repeated consequences, i.e., "youth" (line 43), before she adds one more onto the list, i.e., "°your opportunity?°" (line 43) which is re-uttered in line 46 as a result of overlapping with Joseph's cut-in (lines 44-45). What can be observed in these subsequent turns after Emily's "Everything" is her further exemplification of additional drawbacks and Matthew's recycle of the previously-named drawbacks, both of which could also fall into the implicated category. The former shows clearly that Emily, the GE speaker, has at least one, — if not two as one of them is in fact recycled from Matthew's, and thus can be just a prompted one at the moment —, additional instance of this category in mind at the moment of uttering "Everything", i.e., opportunity. The latter indicates that Matthew collaborates with Emily in further exemplification of additional drawbacks. This appears to evidence that he is aware of this implicated category. Emily's and Matthew's further exemplifications of this category would surely help

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to constrain Grace's interpretation of what is being referred to, but it is still not necessarily the case that their specifications have enabled her to infer the category that they probably have in mind.

4.2.1.2. Completing a list

The second referential function of GEs, observed to be in common between two learner groups, is completing lists. Examples (47)-(50) are illustrations of how GEs are used to complete a list under construction, among which the former two present the canonical use of GEs in three-part structure, i.e., [2 item + GE], as list completers, whereas the latter two display the typical employment of GEs to discontinue listing in the structure of [1 item + GE].

In Example (47), after a former speaker, Chloe, complains (an FPP) about the things that she did the most, as a freshman whose major is Business Administration, were Python and IA, and that she still cannot get a hold of it, William sets out to provide his opinion, a SPP, saying that not "everyone should kn:ow how to: (0.5) use C language, or Python", to which the GE "or something" is attached (line 45).

(47) *How to Think Logically* (CG2-20220602)
[Chloe - ADK; William, HIK]

```
                ...
43    William:    I don't thi:nk (0.1) everyone should kn:ow how
44                to: (0.5) use (0.2) C language, or Python,
45→                or something, +I think
      Chloe:                    +nods
46                what is important is to: .hhh (0.1) know how
47                to +work with computer…
      Chloe:         +nods
```

Clearly, the GE "or something" is used by William in a three-part structure when listing. "C language" is the first item in the structure, followed by "Python" (line

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44). To the end of these two listed items, GE "or something" is called upon by the list maker, William, to accomplish the work of list completion.

This [2 item + GE] structure is also used by Chinese learners, as shown in (48) where the list maker's attempt to list a third item can be observed. Prior to the extracted segment are Ethan's question (an FPP) of whether the food in Xian, a city in China, is spicy, and Asher's answer, a SPP, saying the food in Xian is not spicy but rather special. After his adhered assessment, Asher goes on elaborating on the speciality of the food in Xian.

(48) *From A Different Perspective* (CG8-20220624)
[Avery - ADK; Ethan - HIK; Parker, LIK; Asher, HIC; Jasmine, LIC]

```
                          ...
26    Asher:      +I mean Xian is famous about this
      Jasmine:    +mouths the word 'Muslim'
27                flour? Like noodles [and (0.6) noodles and
28    Ethan:                          [+Uh huh.
      Ethan:                           +nods
      Jasmine:                         +nods
29    Asher:      (0.1) baked bread, Chinese traditional s-
30->              (0.1) style bread, +(0.6) +and other things.
      Avery:                          +nods
      Parker:                               +nods
32    Ethan:      +Uh huh.
      Parker:     +nods
```

Starting from line 26, Asher first points out what Xian is famous for is its "flour" (line 27), and further exemplifies some foods that are made of it. They are noodles and baked bread, which are the two items listed prior to his deployment of the GE "and other things" in line 30. What also precedes the GE is a pause lasting for 0.6 seconds. The pause carries with it a suggestion that Asher, the list marker, is in an attempt to list a third item, but end up calling upon the GE as not being able to come up with one. Such use of GEs demonstrates not only that they carry out a role in a three-part structure as list completers, but that list makers deploy them as a solution to production difficulty.

What is also common is the deployment of GEs as list completers in the format of [1 item + GE]. Examples (49)-(50) are cases with only one item before the employment of GEs. Among them, what is identical is speakers' act of giving up the search and veering to the deployment of GEs. What is different, however, is that they do so in the midst of searching for a second item, rather than a third one. This act not only confirms the ongoing work of listing, but also differs the GEs called upon to end the listing work from the others which are used in an identical structure, i.e., [1 item + GE]. Constructing a list, nonetheless, involves providing at least two exemplars, which is different from the exemplification where one would suffice. It is, indeed, arguable whether the work of listing also occurs in the structure of [1 item + GE]. At this juncture, evidence showing speakers' attempt of searching a second item would confirm that such work of listing is, in fact, in progress, though it ends up being terminated, resulting in the [1 item + GE] structure. Consider examples (49)-(50).

(49) *From A Different Perspective* (CG8-20220624)
[Asher, HIC; Jasmine, LIC]
```
43   Asher:       Are you talking about the (0.1) Ninten- the
44                Nintendo World?
45                (0.9)
46—> Asher:       The Super Mario, (0.8) and the other things?=
48   Jasmine:     =U:h, (0.1) uh (0.6) N:O.
49                (0.6)
```

Example (49) is a confirmation request-response sequence, taken from a larger one where the collaborative work of searching for the name of a Japanese artist called "Miyazaki Hayao" is ongoing. In this confirmation request-response sequence, Asher sends out a request for confirmation in the form of a question, an FPP, asking whether Jasmine is referring to Super Nintendo World, a themed area at Universal Studios in Japan. After almost one second of silence and upon receiving no response

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from Jasmine, Asher takes back his turn and provides an example of a well-known character in Nintendo World, Super Mario, in re-launching his request for confirmation and probably also in hopes of helping Jasmine recognize what he is talking about. Asher ends his second confirmation request with a GE "and the other things" (line 46) after 0.8 seconds. The nearly-one second pause here indicates that Asher is possibly in an attempt of searching for a second Nintendo character, e.g., Zelda or Kirby, but fails to do so.

Example (50) is an extracted segment displaying an answer (a SFF) to a question (an FPP) asking how people usually make friends during the Covid-19 period by Daniel. In answering, Henry suggests a possible way people may make friends, which is to " jo::in (0.5) some c<u>lub</u>" (line 9).

```
(50) Ice-Breaking (CG1-20220525)
[Daniel, ADK; Sarah, HIK; Henry, LIK]
9    Henry:    I guess maybe they jo::in (0.5) some club?
10             (0.2)
11-> Henry:    Like (.) s- (0.2) +sports club +o::r (1.1)
     Daniel:                     +enlarges eyes and nods
     Sarah:                                   +nods
12->           something else,(0.5) and they (0.5) make friends
13             there.
14             (0.2)
15   Daniel:   °Yep°
```

He further goes on giving an example in terms of what kind of clubs people may join in line 11. The example he gives is "sports club", to which he calls upon a GE "o::r (1.1) something else" (lines 11-12). What is interesting here is that the 1.1 second-long pause does not mediate between the named example and the GE as the one shown in example (49), but sits right after the connector *or* which further introduces the GE. Together with the lengthening when uttering the connector *or*, they serve to support the interpretation that Henry is in the midst of searching for a second example, an alternative to "sports club" where people may make friends.

Such attempt confirms the ongoing work of listing. It seems that the work of listing a second item (cf. Jefferson's (1990) 'three-partedness' where native speakers are noticed to have a difficulty to come up with a third sometimes), can also be found to constitute a problem for list-makers, or more specifically, learners of English who are making some list, like Asher and Henry. Though that being the case, it is true that at least one 'methodic solution' is available for them, which is the deployment of GEs.

4.2.2. Interpersonal functions

The GEs used by Korean and/or Chinese learners of English have interpersonal functions in marking uncertainty and entertainment.

4.2.2.1. Marking uncertainty

Upon examining the use of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English, the first widely-used interpersonal function of GEs portrays its role in marking uncertainty towards what is just uttered. Examples (51)-(53) are illustrations of this uncertainty-marking use of GEs. The GEs in the first two examples are deployed to hedge on uncertain or probably inaccurate contents inferred, whereas the one in the third example is called upon to approximate uncertain or probably inaccurate words ventured.

Example (51) involves a basic question-answer sequence where William is asking Elijah, a graduate student from Law School, whether they do research at Law School as well. However, this question (an FPP) asked (lines 1 and 3) receives no

immediate response from Elijah[24]. After one second, William takes back the yielded

turn and relaunches his question by, firstly, confirming whether the school Elijah is

attending is a graduate school and, secondly, repairing his question, as in lines 5 and

7.

(51) *How to Think Logically* (CG2-20220602)
[Chloe - ADK; William - HIK; Elijah, LIK; Michael, HIC; Luke, LIC]
```
1    William:  [Bu:t, (0.5) do- do yo:::u do re- reser-
2    Luke:     [Uh,
3    William:  research at law school as well?
4              (1.0)
5    William:  Isn't that a graduate school? So: yo[::u write
6    Elijah:                                        [O::h.
7->  William:  a paper or something?
8              (0.2)
9    Elijah:   Ye:ah, bu:t (1.2) it's kind of (1.0) that (0.1)
10             part is quite different from other graduate
11             school.
12             +(0.2)
     William:  +mouths 'Oh'
13   Elijah:   Because +(0.6) most graduate schools have to:
     William:          +nods
     Chloe:            +nods
14             (0.1) write paper, +(0.6) to:: (0.4) acquire a
     Michael:                     +nods
15             master degree, +.hhh +but (.) actually, (1.4)
     Luke:                    +nods
     William:                       +nods
     Chloe:                         +nods
     Elijah:                        +nods
16             in law school, there are two tracts, (0.2) two
17             tracks +so:, .hhh (0.6) the one track (0.3) i:s
     Michael:         +nods
     Luke:           +nods
18             >writing paper and getting the master degree
19   Elijah:   about law, +and the other is becoming a
     Chloe:               +nods
20             (0.5)
21             lawyer.< +So::, .hhh (1.9) so when so in
     William:          +nods
22             becomi- (.) so:, (0.1) there are not that much
23             (.) research (0.8) things or writing things.
24             But it's mostly (1.2)  memorizing and running
25             things, +(0.4) preparing for the test.
     William:          +nods
```

The repaired version differs from the original one in that it is not designed in the

structure of an interrogative question. Instead, it is structured as an assertive

_____

24 Elijah's epistemic marker "O::h." in line 6 makes clear that he finally understands what William is trying to ask, which accounts for the 1-second silence in line 4.

sentence doing the work of inference (a reformatted FPP) on the basis of the information made available to William, that is, Elijah is studying for his MA degree. To its end, a disjunctive GE "or something" is attached. The use of "or something" ended with a rising intonation serves to mark the inference "yo[::u write a paper" as something uncertain, which also opens an interactional space for Elijah, who possesses the first-hand knowledge in this regard, to either accept and/or reject such inference. This time, the addressee of the question, Elijah, takes up the turn after 0.2 seconds. He responds (a SPP) positively to William's confirmation check in the format of a yes/no question before proceeding to answer his repaired question on whether they write papers in Law School, starting from line 9 to the end of the segment.

Following example (52) presents a similar interactional instance in which a Chinese learner resorts to a GE to mark her uncertainty towards the validity of what others said about her fast pick-up of Korean. It starts with Joseph's claim, an FPP, about the difficulty in learning Korean for Chinese people (lines 1-2). After 0.6 seconds, this is responded by Grace with a confirmation check (a SPP) "°Really?°" (line 4) displaying her lack of knowledge on this matter.

(52) *Hearts of Various Shapes* (CG3-20220602)
[Grace - ADK; Emily - HIK; Joseph, HIC; Daisy, LIC]
```
1    Joseph:  But Korean is really HA:RD for us, for Chinese
2             people.
3             (0.6)
4    Grace:   [°Really?°
5    Daisy:   [But I- I am Korean Chinese, so it's a little bit
6             (0.1) easier for me to learn. [But .hhh at first,
7    Grace:                                  [Wow.
8    Daisy:   (0.1) I didn't learn I- (0.3) I- my family don't
9             u:se Korean, (0.3) because my u:h (0.1) .t
10            hometow:n [has no one speaks
11   Emily:             [+M:::m.
     Emily:             +nods
12   Daisy:   Chinese at a:ll, .hhh so: th:e Chinese became
13            my:: uh mother (.) tongue, +.hhh I started to
```

```
        Emily:                              +nods
14              lea:rn Korea::n u:h (0.3) many- (0.1) after I::
15              came here. .hhh But it's [like I lea::rned very
16      Emily:                           [O:h, real:ly?
17      Daisy:  (.) fast. (0.1) .hhh So they say +maybe it's
        Emily:                                   +nods
18→             gene<u>tic</u> memory **or something.**
19      Grace:  [Wo::w.
20      Emily:  [Yeah.
```

In overlap with Grace, Daisy expresses her partial agreement, another SPP, to Joseph's claim that includes also her as being a Chinese. To exclude herself from the group of referents by Joseph, she makes known that learning Korean is "a little bit (0.1) <u>ea</u>sier" (lines 5-6) for her as being not just a Chinese, but a Korean Chinese. To further explain why she regards that learning Korean is easier for her, she shares a personal learning experience where she picked up Korean "very (.) fast" (lines 15 and 17). As for the reason of her fast pick-up, she mentions "gene<u>tic</u> memory" (line 18), an account given by others that she herself is not so sure about, for which reason she calls upon the GE "or something" (line 18) to mark her uncertainty.

The GE in example (53) differs from the previous two in that it is used to deal with a problem of language production as a result of the speaker's uncertainty towards the words just ventured. Prior to the segment presented in example (53), speakers are attempting to break the ice. Eventually, Emma self-selects and breaks the ice by suggesting a topic, an FPP, i.e., "My hobby or interest", to start with (lines 1-4).

(53) *MBTI* (CG5-20220606)
[Conner - ADK; Elli - HIK; Emma, HIC]

```
                ...
1       Emma:   Oh <u>then</u> I will just (1.3) go fo::r (.) this
2               topics, (0.8) if you (.) don't (.) mind.
3               +(0.8)
        Elli:   +nods
4       Emma:   My hobby or interest.
5               +(0.2)
        Elli:   +nods
6       Emma:   .t (0.9) O:h, .hhh (0.2) uh (0.1) I'm (0.1)
```

```
7              real:ly into: (0.1) league of legends ga:mes.
8    Emma:     [+And that's kind of (.) reason why I chose to
9    Elli:     [+O::::h.
     Elli:      +nods
10             come to Kore::a? +(.) A::nd +nowadays, due to
     Elli:                      +nods
     Conner:                    +nods
     Elli:                                   +nods
11             there are some cancelati:on? .hhh (.) of the (0.1)
12—>           quaranti:::ne .hhh (0.2) protection >stuff +and
     Elli:                                                 +nods
13—>           +something.< +I can go to se::e like (0.1) offline
     Elli:     +nods          +nods
14             ga:mes.
15             +(1.6)
     Elli:     +nods
     Conner:   +nods
16   Emma:     Wuhoo! Next.
17   Elli:     °°Hehhehheh.°°
```

This receives agreement, a SPP, from Elli whose nodding can be noticed in overlap with line 5 where there is a 0.2 seconds silence. As the suggester of this topic, Emma starts to share what she is "real:ly into", which is a video game called League of Legends (lines 6-7). After this, Emma emphasizes how much she is crazy about the game by stating that it is "kind of" the reason why she chose to come to Korea (line 8), and that she is now excited to watch the game offline because of the "cancellati:on? .hhh (.) of the (0.1) quaranti:::ne .hhh (0.2) protection" (lines 11-12). Along these two lines, it seems obvious that she is facing a production problem indicated by her pauses and lengthening of the word "quaranti:::ne". On top of that, by "quaranti:::ne .hhh (0.2) protection", which appears to be a direct translation from Chinese *gelibaohu* (隔离保护), she attempts to say self-quarantine safety protection.

To her ventured term, she adheres not only a marker of vagueness "stuff" signaling the possible inaccuracy of it, but a GE "and something" serving to indicate that 'there are other potential alternative, including more accurate ones, to the uttered, but you know what I mean' (lines 12-13). Immediately after the GE, Elli displays her understanding on what is/are yet specified through nodding that functions as is a

continuer saying something like 'Yeah, I understand what you mean and you may move on'.

4.2.2.2. Marking entertainment

Though not found in the use of GEs by Korean learners, resorting to them to fulfill the interpersonal need of entertaining others occurs once in the deployment of GEs by Chinese learners. The disjunctive GE "or something" (lines 27-28) in example (54) is used to fulfill such need.

Example (54) begins with Joseph's question, an FPP, asking about whether it is "<u>hard</u> to be: graduated .hhh (0.1) in SN<u>U</u>:?". After his question and 0.6-second silence, Matthew self-selects and answers (a SPP) that it would probably be "ha:rd to graduate without any problems." (lines 5-6), overlapping with Emily's acknowledgment token "O:::h" at the start (line 4). Nearly 1 second after Matthew's answer, Daisy prefaces her turn with "Actually, for me," (line 8), a harbinger of contrastive idea. However, she ends up withholding her turn (an attempted SPP) as a result of Joseph's interruption. In overlap with Daisy's turn and in response to Matthew's answer, he cuts in and expresses his guess that holds a contrastive idea to what Matthew considers, that is, it would be easier for foreigners to graduate at SNU. His epistemic disclaimer "I <u>don't</u> know" in line 15 after few pauses reveals that he holds little to no commitment towards his speculation.

```
(54) Hearts of Various Shapes (CG3-20220602)
[Grace - ADK; Emily - HIK; Matthew, LIK; Joseph, HIC; Daisy, LIC]
1    Joseph:   So speaking o:f (.) graduation, (0.3) is it hard
2              to be: graduated .hhh (0.1) in SNU:?
3              (0.6)
4    Emily:    [O:::h,
5    Matthew:  [Probabl:y (0.2) ha:rd to graduate without any
6              problems.
7              (0.9)
```

```
8    Daisy:    Actually, [for me,
9    Joseph:            [But we are foreigners, I think maybe
10             th:e (0.1) we have (0.1) kind of do:uble
11             standards.
12             (0.2)
13   Joseph:   Hehhehheh.
14             (0.8)
15   Joseph:   I [don't know.
16   Emily:      [O:h.
17             (0.4)
18   Daisy:    °I want to sha:re a: little bit ex (0.1) pence
19             from my si:de, maybe °°it°° will encou+rage
     Emily:                                        +nods
20             you. .hhh (0.1) +I m:m entered SNU i::: n like
     Joseph:                   +nods
21             almost nine years ago from my [+PhD started.
22   Emily:                                  [+Hm huh.
23   Grace:                                  [+O::h.
     Joseph:                                 +mouths 'Nine
                                             years ago' with
                                             a shocked face
24   Daisy:    Hehhehheh..hhh +So (.) looking m::y u::m (0.5)
     Matthew:                 +mouths 'Ah' with one hand
                              covering his opened mouth
25             stu- stu- student numbe:r, uh uh +everyo:ne (.)
     Joseph:                                    +nods
26             everyone was like- (0.1) ah-(0.1) ah- (0.2) ah-
27             (0.3) +It's like [two- two +zero something.
     Joseph:       +mouths 'Oh'
     Emily:        +smiles
     Daisy:                              +laughs
28   Joseph:                    [Oh my GOD, who's THAT
29             [+Hehhehheh      [hehheh.
30   Daisy:    [+Hehhehhehheh. [Thirteen or something.=
     Emily:     +nods as smiling
     Joseph:    +laughs with one hand covering his face
31   Emily:    =+Ye:ah. Yeah, you are right. Really.
     Emily:     +nods as smiling
     Daisy:     +laughs
```

After 0.4 seconds, Daisy resumes her halted turn and starts her multi-unit turns of telling a story of her own experience (a resumed SPP). Along the lines, she shares that she enrolled in the PhD program at SNU almost 9 years ago with the intention of encouraging the others. That the interlocutors are surprised by this can also be observed along the lines either from their response tokens or non-verbal reactions (lines 23-24). Daisy then goes on sharing how shocked others were when looking at her student number by acting out their reactions, as in "ah-(0.1) ah- (0.2) ah- (0.3)" (line 26). After this, she further makes known what her student number is as

laughing, which is "two +zero something" (line 27), followed as well by her laughters. Probably recognizing that these two stated numbers, identical with the number of the year of her enrollment, cannot really show the more-than-expected length of her PhD study, she takes back her turn and specifies what the 'something' is as in "two +zero something", which is "Thirteen". To this number, however, she attaches a disjunctive GE "or something" (line 30). It could, at one glance, appear that Daisy uses "or something" as a marker of uncertainty of the number "Thirteen", but a deduction with the number of the present year, 2022, and the number 9 as in "<u>nine</u> years ago" can unveil that the number 13 should be an accurate one. The attachment of the disjunctive GE "or something" (line 30) to an accurate number, in reference to the year of her enrollment that she herself would know the best, suggests that Daisy is being purposefully humorous. Concurrent laughter by herself in saying "or something" together with the subsequent non-verbal smile by Emily confirm the humorous effect generated.

4.2.3. Personal functions

The GEs used by Korean and/or Chinese learners of English have personal functions in marking something as a minimum expectation or contrary to expectation, maximizing a negative extreme value, and marking indifference.

4.2.3.1. Marking expectations

Reviewing the identified tokens of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English, they are found to be used in situations where speakers of them are in the process of marking something under discussion as either minimum expected or

contrary to expectation. This personal function of marking expectations occurs in the use of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners. By way of illustration, two examples for each case are presented below.

Example (55) involves Daniel's multi-turns where he is telling a personal story regarding what happened to him an hour ago. Just prior to his sharing that starts in line 9, speakers are again confronted with the issue of ice-breaking. To break the silence, Daniel takes up the turn, comments on the situation in which no one talks (line 1), and then sends out an alert (lines 4-6). The alert, as a pre-expansion, warns interlocutors to the awkwardness of the topic that Daniel is going to pick up and go after, an FPP. In line 11, he informs his intended topic that might come out "awkward" (line 6), that is, "weather". Thereafter, he begins to tell his interlocutors that he encountered a sudden rain just now while being outside and having no umbrella with him (lines 21-28), after providing an account for why the rain was unexpected (lines 11-20), that is, the increasingly hot weather.

```
(55) Ice-Breaking (CG1-20220525)
[Daniel - ADK; Sarah - HIK; Henry, LIK; Lyla, HIC]
1    Daniel:  So we are havi::ng again +an ice to breaks,+s::o
     Henry:                            +smiles            +smiles
     Sarah:                            +smiles
2             u::m .t .hhh
3             (2.6)
4    Daniel:  >I am gonna just say anything.<
5             (0.1)
6    Daniel:  Even it's awkward.
7             (0.2)
8    Daniel:  U:::h=
9    Henry:   =+hehhehheh
     Sarah:    +smiles
10            (0.5)
11   Daniel:  About the weather tho:ugh, (0.8) I:: hhh (1.1)
12            recently in the:se days, .hhh (0.5) haven't (.)
13            checked for weathe:r, +(0.8) not even once, +(1.0)
     Henry:                        +nods                 +nods
14            afte:r– since (0.2) the weather became hotter and
15            hotter?
16            +(0.8)
     Henry:   +nods
     Sarah:   +nods
```

```
17   Daniel:  Yeah.
18            (0.2)
19   Daniel:  .hhh +I:: honestly thought .hhh u:h there won't be
     Lyla:         +nods
20            any rain from now on. >.I really thought so,<
21            +(0.4) An:d- (0.3) so I: (0.8) went out without
     Henry:   +nods
22            an:y (0.5) pla:n fo::r ra:ining, (0.5) +.t .hhh
     Henry:                                          +nods
23   Daniel:  (0.4) an:d abo:ut an hour ago:, +(0.6) it suddenly
     Henry:                                   +nods
24            began to ra:in, [an:d I was like- (0.2) u::h
25   Henry:                   [+Yeah.
     Henry:                    +nods
26            (1.7)
27   Daniel:  >Oh my god, oh my god, what do I do +now, what do
     Henry:                                       +smiles
     Sarah:                                       +smiles
28─>          I do. +I have n::o< well umbrella or anything.
     Henry:         +smiles
     Sarah:         +smiles, takes up a bottle of water, and
                     smiles
29            (3.1)
30   Daniel:  [.hhh
31   Henry:   [Hehheh.
32            (0.4)
33   Daniel:  °Yeah°. An::d that was +(0.6) what happened to
     Sarah:                          +smiles
34            m::e, (0.7) an hour ago.
```

To describe how he reacted to the sudden, unexpected rain, he makes known his internal monologue at the moment of being caught in the rain (lines 27-28). During this, he mentions that he did not have "umbrella" with him, to which a disjunctive GE "or anything" is attached (line 28). It is intuitively clear that "umbrella" is the minimally expected tool for use in the rain among other possible alternatives, e.g., raincoat. The GE adhered to, then, marks having it as a minimum expectation. After a few seconds of silence, Daniel self-selects and sets out to wrap up his telling of what happened to him around an hour ago (lines 33-34).

Different from the one deployed to mark minimum expectation, the GE in example (56) below captures the use of the GE "and nothing" to signal something under discussion as contrary to expectation. The segment in example (56) follows

after Emily's emotional venting about her hatred of graduate school and her informing that she was once on the pill for her depression.

(56) *Hearts of Various Shapes* (CG3-20220602)
[Grace - ADK; Emily - HIK; Matthew, LIK; Joseph, HIC; Daisy, LIC]
```
1    Daisy:  It's- It's so:: no:rmal, everyone has [pr:oblem.
2    Emily:                                        [Yeah,
3    Daisy:  It's [normal. °Just don't-°
4    Emily:       [Yeah, +it's right.
     Emily:            +nods
5            (0.2)
6    Daisy:  Just don't take it too serious, +it's- (0.1) it's
     Emily:                                 +nods
7            okay.
8            (0.5)
9    Daisy:  Everything will be fi:ne.
10           (0.3)
11   Emily:  O::h, thank yo:u.
             [.hhh Be- uh- uh actually, two weeks,
12   Daisy:  [(          °°°two months ago?°°°) For me:, it's I-
13           I cannot see my futu:re. Hehhehheh. I
14           spent +TEN years here an::d .hhh no pub- no
     Emily:        +smiles
15—>         pape:rs an:d NOTHING, +it's onl::y- I thought (.)
     Emily:                       +nods
     Joseph:                      +nods
16           maybe I just give u::p (.) o:r.
17           (0.1)
18   Daisy:  .hhh (0.3) Bu:t (0.6) +just to try a little bit
     Emily:                       +smiles
19           (0.3) mo:re. +Just- an::::d +if not, it's okay,
     Emily:              +nods           +nods
20   Daisy:  an::d it's [fi::ne. WORLD is there, +and it's
21   Emily:             [Ye::ah.
     Emily:                                      +nods
22   Daisy:  +still beautiful.
     Emily:  +nods until the end of the turn
```

In response to this, Daisy sets out to encourage her with some comforting words (lines 1-9) and goes on sharing her experience as a current PhD student who could not "see her (my) future" and once thought about giving up until "two months ago" (lines 12-13 and 15-16). The reason for that is she could not have been able to have any "pape:rs" for a period of "TEN years" while being a PhD student here (lines 14-15). To this negative result, she adheres an adjunctive GE "an:d NOTHING" with more stress put onto the generic noun emphasizing that she had not managed to bear even a single academic result, including papers, for the 10-year period. The

underlying information here is that producing academic results like papers as a PhD student is expected by her as is also generally expected by the society. Not being able to do so is, then, contrary to such expectation. The GE adhered to, then, marks it as such.

4.2.3.2. Maximizing a negative extreme value

The second personal function of GEs is their role in maximizing towards negative extreme value, and it only occurs in the use of GEs by Korean learners. A previously presented example when reviewing the category implicative function of GEs is revisited here since the GE used in this example is the only one token identified to have such a role in value maximization.

As noted earlier, the extracted segment in (46) is taken from a basic question-answer sequence where Grace, the only undergraduate, asks a question (an FPP) of what a better career path is between further study or work after undergraduate school to other graduate interlocutors. The presented part this time involves only Grace's question and interlocutors' answers to it.

(46) *Hearts of Various Shapes* (CG3-20220602)
[Grace - ADK; Emily - HIK; Matthew, LIK; Joseph, HIC; Daisy, LIC]

```
                        ...
11   Grace:     [+S:o mm (0.2) so +I just wanted to ask you
12   Emily:     [+Hehhehheh.
     Grace:                      +smiles
13              guys, .hhh (0.4) u::h (0.3) what is better?
14              (0.4)
15   Grace:     To study more? (0.3) [O:::r ju[st
16   Emily:                          [Mm:::
17   Matthew:                                [Nothing better.
18              (0.7)
19   Joseph:    Hehhehheh [+hehhehheh hehhehheh
20   Emily:     Hehhehheh [+hehhehheh hehhehheh
21   Grace:               [+Hehhehheh hehheh .hhh heh [.hhh heh
     Daisy:                +laughs silently
22   Emily:                                           [He's
23              right. (0.1) .hhh Yeah, °he's right°.=
```

```
24    Grace:      =Hehheh[heh.
25    Matthew:          [Wasting you::r YOUTH, (0.2) and you're
26                wasting [you:r (0.7) +tuition FEE,=
      Joseph:                         +laughs silently
      Daisy:                          +laughs silently
27    Emily:            [Ye:::ah. Hehheh.
28    Grace:      =Oh, [no::.
29    Emily:           [Ye::ah.
30                (0.1)
31    Joseph:     Hehheh[hehhehheh.
32    Emily:            [Your time,=
33    Grace:      =A:h, hehhehheh.=
34─>  Emily:      =Yeah, [your °tuition° fee, hehheh [**Everything.**
35    Joseph:           [You are a <u>bad</u> boy.           [Hehhehheh.
36    Emily:      Hehheh.=
37    Grace:      =Ok:[ay.
38    Matthew:        [Remember yo:::u (.) waste your (0.1) not-
39                uh not only your tuition fee, but your (0.1)
40                YOUTH.
41                (0.6)
42    Grace:      +O::[:h, hehheh.
      Joseph:     +mouths 'Oh.' with a shocked face and laughs
                   silently
43    Emily:          [Yeah. Yeah, [youth and °your opportunity?°
44    Joseph:                      [Nonono, don't listen to HIM.
45                He hehheh +he's lying. [He's <u>lying</u>, hehhehheh.
      Daisy:                +laughs silently
46    Emily:                             [Opportunituy.
47    Grace:      Hehhehheh.
```

In response to Grace's question (lines 11-15), Matthew says "Nothing better" (line 17), serving as an answer (a SPP to the question) as well as an assessment (a next FPP), to which Emily agrees (lines 22-23) twice. To back up for their assessment and in a collaborative manner, both of them set out to list the drawbacks of going to a graduate school in the following turns. What is being talked about at the moment is obviously something of negative value, that is, the negative consequences of going to a graduate school. In the process of listing the negative consequences, the GE "<u>Every</u>thing" (line 34) by Emily maximizes the negative value under discussion to its extreme end, implying that one would waste his/her everything if pursuing a master degree. To put it in another way, what is being negatively maximized is the value of wastefulness or uselessness in terms of going to a graduate school.

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4.2.3.3. Marking indifference

Though again not observed in the use of GEs by Chinese learners, the third personal function of GEs as markers of indifference to identifying other possible alternatives when listing is found in that by Korean learners, as illustrated in example (57).

The extracted segment in (57) is sourced from a question-answer sequence where Grace is the addresser and Joseph, a part-time student as well as an in-service plastic surgeon, is the addressee of the question. The presented part involves only Grace's establishing the foundation for asking her question and asking of the question. The question (an FPP) starts in line 10, and the lines before serve as some pre-expansions to the question, in which Grace tells about that she "was always curious of" what she could turn out to be after alterations of all of her features (lines 3-6).

```
(57) Hearts of Various Shapes (CG3-20220602)
[Grace - ADK; Emily - HIK; Joseph, HIC; Daisy, LIC]
                ...
3    Grace:    I was always like curious of- .hhh (0.3) u:h I
4              was always curious what could I be .hhh (.) if
5              heh I could +change every p- (.) part of my
     Joseph:              +nods
     Emily:               +nods
6    Grace:    feature? .hhh [+So like (0.2) maybe I could (.)
7    Daisy:                  [+Hehhehhehhehhehheh
     Emily:                    +nods
8—>  Grace:    make my eyes bigger, .hhh or my noses higher,
9    Grace:    whatever, +.hhh (0.5) yeah. +Can you like
     Daisy:              +nods
     Joseph:             +nods              +nods
10             (0.2)kno:w +(1.1) can you kno:w +(0.3) if someone
11             cha:nged their face or not (0.7) at once you see
12             them?
```

In the midst of her telling, she lists two specific changes that she would like, i.e., "my eyes bigger" or "my nose higher" (line 8), to which the GE "whatever" (line 9)

is called upon, suggesting that there may be many others alternative changes of features, yet retains her lack of concern to the identification of those 'others'.

4.2.4. Textual functions

The GEs used by Korean and/or Chinese learners of English have textual functions in yielding a turn and proffering a new topic.

4.2.4.1. Yielding a turn

Delving into the 22 tokens of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English from a textual aspect, their role in yielding a turn is found to be a rather noticeable one between these two groups of speakers. It is verifiable by looking at their subsequent environment where interlocutors' fast uptake of or nonverbal response to the yielded turn can be observed. What can also be an evidence for the yielded turn by GEs is that speakers of them take it back upon receiving no response from interlocutors. Several examples are presented to illustrate the turn-yielding function of GEs.

Interlocutors' prompt uptake of the turn yielded by GEs is presented in example (54). This is a previously examined segment when probing into the interpersonal functions of GEs. The presented portion below, however, involves only the turn where the GE under investigation occurs and its immediately following turn.

(54) *Hearts of Various Shapes* (CG3-20220602)
[Emily - HIK; Daisy, LIC]
```
                  …
27                (0.3) +It's like [two– two +zero something.
                  …
```

```
30   Daisy:     [+Hehhehhehheh.[Thirteen or +something.=
     Emily:      +nods as smiling
     Joseph:     +laughs with one hand covering his face
31   Emily:     =+Ye:ah. Yeah, you are right. Really.
     Emily:      +nods as smiling
     Daisy:      +laughs
```

Immediate uptake of the yielded turn as signaled by the GE "or something" (line 30) can be seen, and is provided by Emily who indicates her affirmation, a SCT, towards Daisy's sharing of her personal experience, a SPP as noted earlier (line 31). Her fast uptake confirms the turn-yielding functions performed by the GE "or something".

Compared to these verbal responses in the transitional space created by GEs as turn yielders, the much more common one is interlocutors' nonverbal response, especially nod, which frequently occurs right at the end of the utterance of GEs. Example (58) is an illustration of this.

(58) *Life and Study* (CG6-20220607, 32:53-34:11)
[Nora - ADK; April - HIK; Nicole, LIK; Thomas, HIC; Alexis, LIC]
```
1    Thomas:    Something really annoying is that +(0.2) u:h due
     Alexis:                                       +nods as smiling
2               to Covid-19, u:::h, (0.6) i::::n (0.5) weekends
3               or holidays,(0.3) +I never have chance to::: u::h
     Alexis:                       +nods
4               go +to:: canteen,(0.2) in the campus. .hhh (0.1)
     Alexis:        +smiles
5               You know that, right?
                +(0.2)
     Alexis:    +nods as smiling
6    Thomas:    Befo::re Covid-19, +the campu:s' canteen would
     Alexis:                        +nods as smiling
7               still (0.3) be ope:ned. U:h the- (0.4) during the
8               (0.5) weekends and holidays. .hhh (0.2) B:::u (.)
9               t, (0.4) u:::::h (0.4) recently, (0.1) u::h
10              (0.1) the only +option is something like (0.2)
     Alexis:                    +nods
11              bu:rge:rs o:r snack food, (0.2) .hhh (0.2) yeah,
12→             +something like that.
     Alexis:    +nods as smiling
     Nora:      +nods
     April:     +nods
13              +(0.8)
     Alexis:    +nods
     Nicole:    +nods
     Nora:      +nods
14   Thomas:    +I really hate that.
     Alexis:    +nods
     Nicole:    +nods
     Nora:      +nods
```

This extracted segment comes from Thomas' multi-turns where he is making a complaint (an FPP) about the limited options of food on campus during weekends or holidays as the cafeterias are not open due to the Covid-19 pandemic. The options left for him are "bu:rge:rs" and "snack food" (line 11). These are the two items listed prior to the deployment of the GE "something like that" in line 12. Immediately after the GE "something like that", there comes a silence lasting for 0.8 seconds, as in line 13. In the following line after the silence, Thomas, the GE speaker, takes up his turn by self-selection and upgrades his complaint to hatred from annoyance (line 1), by which he emphasizes how much he dislikes eating only "bu:rge:rs o:r snack food". At the start of, during and even after the 0.8-second silence, a highly-interactive room is opened up by the GE with a falling intonation, in which three interlocutors nod at the same time as the SPP to Thomas' multi-turn complaint (lines 13-14). Their nods function like an acknowledgement token saying something like 'Yeah', and thus bear out the turn-yielding function of GEs.

GE speakers' retrieval of the yielded turn upon no uptake from interlocutors can sometimes be observed. Taking back a turn in this way suggests that the turn has been given away. A revisit to example (55) with the focus veered to the subsequent turns after the GE in question would suffice the need for illustrating this phenomenon.

(55) *Ice-Breaking* (CG1-20220525)
[Daniel - ADK; Sarah - HIK; Henry, LIK]

```
                    ...
27  Daniel:  >Oh my god, oh my god, what do I do +now, what do
    Henry:                                        +smiles
    Sarah:                                        +smiles
28—>         I do. +I have n::o< well umbrella or anything.
    Henry:        +smiles
    Sarah:        +smiles, takes up a bottle of water, and
                   smiles
29           (3.1)
30  Daniel:  [.hhh
```

```
31  Henry:    [Hehheh.
32            (0.4)
33  Daniel:   °Yeah°. An::d that was +(0.6) what happened to
    Sarah:                           +smiles
34            m::e, (0.7) an hour ago.
```

After the GE "or anything" in line 28, there comes a long silence lasting for more than three seconds. Upon receiving no response from interlocutors after sharing what happened to him an hour ago, Daniel attempts to take back his yielded turn, as indicated by his inbreath (line 30) in overlap with Henry's laugh (line 31). As a result of that, he seems to hold back such attempt and waits for another 0.4 seconds before retrieving the yielded turn as in line 33.

4.2.4.2. Proffering a new topic

The second textual function of GEs involves their role in proffering a new topic to interlocutors. Evidence of this can be obtained from their uptake of the topic in the ensuing talks. Example (51), a previously examined one when eyeballing GEs' interpersonal function in marking uncertainty, is revisited with the attention put onto the GE's topic-proffering effect on its subsequent turns. As noted earlier, the segment presented in (51) is based on a confirmation request-response sequence where William requests for confirmation on his assertion made regarding whether graduate students in Law School write papers (lines 5 and 7) and the addressee is Elijah, a graduate student majoring in Law.

```
(51) How to Think Logically (CG2-20220602)
[Chloe - ADK; William - HIK; Elijah, LIK; Michael, HIC; Luke, LIC]
1     William:   [Bu:t, (0.5) do- do yo:::u do re- reser-
2     Luke:      [Uh,
3     William:   research at law school as well?
4                (1.0)
5     William:   Isn't that a graduate school? So: yo[::u write
6     Elijah:                                        [O::h.
7->   William:   a paper or something?
8                (0.2)
```

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```
9    Elijah:    Ye:ah, bu:t (1.2) it's kind of (1.0) that (0.1)
10               part is quite different from other graduate
11               school.
12               +(0.2)
     William:    +mouths 'Oh'
13   Elijah:     Because +(0.6) most graduate schools have to:
     William:            +nods
     Chloe:             +nods
14               (0.1) write paper, +(0.6) to:: (0.4) acquire a
     Michael:                  +nods
15               master degree, +.hhh +but (.) actually, (1.4)
     Luke:                    +nods
     William:                       +nods
     Chloe:                         +nods
     Elijah:                        +nods
16               in law school, there are two tracts, (0.2) two
17               tracks +so:, .hhh (0.6) the one track (0.3) i:s
     Michael:           +nods
     Luke:              +nods
18               >writing paper and getting the master degree
19   Elijah:     about law, +and the other is becoming a
     Chloe:                 +nods
20               (0.5)
21               lawyer.< +So::, .hhh (1.9) so when so in
     William:            +nods
22               becomi- (.) so:, (0.1) there are not that much
23               (.) research (0.8) things or writing things.
24               But it's mostly (1.2)  memorizing and running
25               things, +(0.4) preparing for the test.
     William:           +nods
```

After 0.2 seconds, he first confirms William's assertion, and then he goes on informing that different from other graduate schools, there are two paths students in Law School can choose for graduation: One is writing a paper and acquiring a MA degree in Law, and the other is taking a test and becoming a lawyer (lines 9-25). It can be easily observed that the new topic "writing a paper" (lines 5 and 7) as proffered by the GE "or something" (line 7) continues to occur in Elijah's subsequent responses (lines 18-19), from which that the GE has function in proffering a new topic can be verified.

Example (59) exhibits the similar topic-proffering effect triggered by the GE under discussion. The GE in this segment differs from that in the previous one in that it holds out more than one elements under the same topic, i.e., certificates, from which interlocutors get to make a selection of either all or one that concerns them

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more. The segment presented in (59) is expanded from a basic question-answer

sequence where Sophia launches a question (an FPP) in lines 12-13 asking the

Koreans whether they are planning to get the previously listed certificates, that is,

Certificate of Law, CPA, and CFA (lines 7-10), to which a GE "Things like these" is

adhered (line 12). The GE serves not only as a list completer ending the ongoing list

of three items, but as a proffer of a new topic regarding certificates, under which the

three items fall.

(59) *Oversea Studies* (CG7-20220613)
[Ava - ADK; Benjamin - HIK; Isabella, LIK; Sophia, HIC; Ivy, LIC]
```
1    Sophia:     Mm, I::: heard (0.1) that so:me of my Korean
2                friend, .hhh (.) the:y .hhh u::h paused (0.1)
3                the:: university study, and +try to get
     Ivy:                                       +nods
4                so::me .hhh u:h +certificate.
     Ivy:                        +nods
5                +(0.1)
     Ivy:        +nods
6    Sophia:     +And they stud:ied for the exa:m to .hhh (0.1)
     Ivy:        +nods
7                get so:me (0.3) certificate o:f (0.3) la:ws?
8                (0.2)
9    Sophia:     +O:::r (0.5) so::me othe:r (0.4) uh maybe: C-
     Ivy:        +nods
     Isabella:   +mouths 'Ah'
10   Sophia:     (0.3) CPA? (0.4) +o::r °CFA.°
     Ivy:                         +nods
     Isabella:                    +nods
     Benjamin:                    +nods
11               (0.9)
12—>Sophia:      Things like these. +Are you guys planning to:
     Benjamin:                      +nods
13               (0.6) get these certificate?
14               (2.1)
                    …
21   Benjamin:   Too late [+to::: +hehhehhehhehheh, to do so.
22   Ava:                 [+Hehheh+hehhehheh.
     Sophia:               +nods
     Ivy:                         +smiles
23   Benjamin:   Also, I::::: (0.2) I- I- I have no plan about
24               that.
                    …
38   Isabella:   What jobs did you mentioned?
39               (0.2)
40   Isabella:   Like (0.2) to be a la:wye:r o::r to be a
41               accountant.
42               +(1.4)
     Sophia:     +nods
     Ava:        +nods
```

```
        Ivy:        +nods
43   Isabella:    +With C (0.1) PA?
        Sophia:     +nods
        Ava:        +nods
        Ivy:        +nods
44                  +(0.7)
        Benjamin:   +nods
45   Sophia:      +M:[::m.
        Ivy:        +nods
46   Isabella:       [It's the most competitive +(0.1) job now.
```

Upon receiving this question, Benjamin first takes up the turn after 2.1 seconds and responds, a SPP, by saying that he does not have any plan on getting them because it is already his last semester at school (lines 15-24). After Benjamin, Isabella goes on to confirm (an insert-expansion) the types of job that Sophia refers to by listing the three certificates that belong to two distinct kinds, i.e., law and accounting, before providing her answer (lines 38-41, i.e., the other SPP to Sophia's question). However, her confirmation check receives no response from Sophia (line 42). As a result, she takes back the turn and picks up one item from the three herself, i.e., CFA (line 43), before furthering her answer in relation to it as shown in her subsequent turns (lines 46 and on). Isabella's response that centers on one of the aforementioned certificates confirms that the GE "Things like these" has function in proffering the preceding as a new topic which drops the anchor for subsequent talks of relevance.

4.3. Multifunctionality of GEs

The results of this study examining the functions of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English accord with those in the previous works that looked into the functions of GEs from four distinct planes, that is, referential, interpersonal, personal, and textual, affirming the multifunctional trait of GEs. This section summarizes the attained results from the functional analysis of GEs by reporting the

overall frequency of each function and highlighting their similarities to and differences from those identified in the literature.

Referentially, the GEs employed by these two groups of learners exert their functions in implicating a category and completing a list. Regarding the frequency of employment of these two referential functions of GEs, only one out of the 22 identified tokens of GEs is identified to have function in implicating some category. The remaining are found to simply suggest the potential existence of additional or alternative instances. In playing a role in list construction, 15 tokens out of them are used to complete a list, as illustrated in Table 18.

Table 18. Referential Functions of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English

L1	Category implication	List completion
Korean	1	6
Chinese	0	9

The current study substantiates the findings in the literature regarding the referential functions of GEs in two regards: First, GEs have function in implicating categories, which can indeed be, and should so be, evidenced by speakers' further exemplification in the subsequent turns. This is because continuous exemplification after the utterance of GEs indicates that the GE speakers have additional or alternative instances of some category in mind at the moment of calling upon the GEs. Cases like this are truly rare with only one case in evidence where category implication is arguably and thus possibly at work. Second, GEs, in the structure of [2 or 3 item + GE], have a role in list completion (n=9, 4 from Korean and 5 from Chinese learners), but such use of GEs in a three/four-part structure is less frequent, compared to the broader use of them in [1 item + GE] (n=13, 7 from Korean and 6

from Chinese learners). Regarding the proportions of GEs used in the structure of [2 item + GE], the figures are 36% for both Korean and Chinese learners (See Figure 3). They are comparatively larger than the one by native speakers, which is 20%, as reported by Overstreet (1999), or even a smaller one, 18%, as reported by Aijmer (2002).

Figure 3. The distribution of GEs in the structure of [1, 2, or 3 item + GE]

Among the 13 tokens of GEs in [1 item + GE], there are 6 of them (2 from Korean and 4 from Chinese learners) identified to be used to complete lists as well, as illustrated in Figure 3. Speakers' veer from searching for a second exemplar to resorting to GEs provide evidence for their attempted listing, which further confirms the ongoing work of listing. This finding that GEs, in the structure of [1 item + GE], function as well to complete lists, however, is an unexpected one as not proposed in the literature where the focus has been on disapproving Jefferson (1990)'s three-partedness as in [2 item + GE] with the absolute dominance of the use of GEs occurred in the structure of [1 item + GE]. This may account for the absence of documenting GEs, in the structure of [1 item + GE], as completers of some list that requires at least three items, according to Jefferson (1990), to be considered as a proper one. However, the interpretation of whether GEs are used as list completers

should not be constrained to such a structural analysis. This is because if speakers are indeed in an attempt of listing a second item, albeit failing to do so and veering to the deployment of GEs, the GEs being called upon are, nonetheless, completers of some attempted list.

Interpersonally, GEs have functions in marking uncertainty and entertainment. With respect to the frequency of each interpersonal function of GEs used by Korean and Chinese learners of English, out of the 22 tokens, 7 are called upon to mark uncertainty and 1 to mark entertainment of others, as in Table 19.

Table 19. Interpersonal Functions of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English

L1	Uncertainty marking	Entertainment marking
Korean	4	0
Chinese	3	1

The findings observed in this study mirror those of the previous studies examining the interpersonal functions of GEs in three aspects: First, GEs, typically the disjunctive ones, are called upon to mark the preceding utterance as something uncertain, by which they express non-commitment to GE-attached element(s) while suggesting a vague set of alternatives, including more accurate ones, along the lines of the first. Second, the disjunctive form *or something*, as a marker of entertainment, is used to create a humorous effect among conversants.

Personally, GEs mark the preceding as either a minimum expectation or contrary to one's expectation, maximize negative extreme value, and signal indifference. Concerning to the frequency of each personal function of GEs used by Korean and Chinese learners of English, out of the 22 tokens under examination, 3 mark the just uttered 'whatever' as something either minimally expected or contrary

to expectation, 1 maximizes the negative value under consideration to its extreme end, and 1 signals the speaker's sense of indifference to identifying other possible alternatives. Their distribution into learners of different L1s is further presented in Table 20.

Table 20. Personal Functions of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English

L1	Expectation marking (minimum and contrary to)	Extreme value maximizing (negative)	Indifference marking
Korean	2	1	1
Chinese	1	0	0

This current study validates the previous findings with respects to the personal functions that GEs perform in three major perspectives: First, speakers deploy disjunctive forms of GEs, especially *or anything*, to indicate the aforementioned something is out of their minimum expectation while suggesting that there may be other alternatives. In terms of marking expectation, a Chinese speaker calls upon an adjunctive GE, *and nothing*, to mark the aforementioned 'whatever' as something contrary to expectation. What are typical forms used to perform this personal function, as noted earlier in the literature, are adjunctive forms *and everything* and *and all* (*that*), however. Second, speakers mobilize the extending and maximizing force driven by the GE form, *and everything*, to mark the accompanying information as remarkably negative. It is also worth mentioning here that the one used to carry out this function is one with the connector *and* omitted, that is, *everything*. Third, speakers use the GE form *or whatever* but with the *or* dropped, to mark their lack of concern or indifference to the identification of other alternatives.

Textually, GEs play roles in yielding a turn and proffering a new topic. With respect to the frequency of the employment of GEs that exert their textual functions, out of the 22 tokens under investigation, 6 tokens are observed functioning as yielders of a turn and 7 tokens as proffers of a new topic. Table 21 presents the frequency of each textual function of GEs identified.

Table 21. Textual Functions of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English

L1	Turn yielding	New topic proffering
Korean	3	3
Chinese	3	4

These results regarding the textual functions GEs perform appear consistent with one of those figured in the literature. The consistency is that GEs have function in yielding a turn. After the the turn is yielded by GEs, two different occasions can be seen: One is interlocutors' uptake of it, and the other is the GE speakers' retrieval of it when the yielded turn receives no response from the interlocutors. In addition, GEs also play a role in proffering a new topic to interlocutors. It is a newly identified textual function, and can be confirmed through not only interlocutors' reference to and discussion about the newly proffered topic in their responses, but the overall relevancy of their responses concerning it.

The functions of GEs captured from these four domains in this study may as well occur concurrently with a single GE in question, —e.g., example (55) where the GE under discussion has functions in marking minimum expectation and yielding a turn, —which serves to corroborate the multifunctional trait of GEs whose multiple functions may operate simultaneously.

Chapter 5. Discussion and Conclusion

The concluding chapter first summarizes and discusses the key findings of the current study along with some remarks on its contributions to the field of studying the use of English GEs in natural conversation and pedagogical implications to English education. Then, limitations of the current study are discussed with some directions for future research.

The current conversation analytic study has examined the use of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English in naturally occurring conversation, specifically in terms of 1) their distribution according to forms and proficiency levels, and 2) their functions with regards to four different domains, i.e., referential, interpersonal, personal, and textual.

The distributional analysis in this study reveals that a) both Korean and Chinese learners at low-intermediate level are found to use the least GEs; b) Korean learners at high intermediate level use slightly more GEs than those at advanced level; c) Korean learners, on the whole, use more disjunctive GEs, whereas Chinese learners use adjunctive and disjunctive GEs in a similar frequency[25]. With respect to the frequency of GEs by learners at different levels, the more intuitive idea would be that the higher learners' levels are, the more GEs are used. In this study, Korean learners at advanced level, however, are found to use slightly less GEs than those at high-intermediate level. An inquiry into the forms used by these two respective groups reveals that advanced Korean learners use more accurate forms of GEs than

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[25] However, it would be, admittedly, too incautious to reach directly to a final or generalized conclusion regarding how Korean and Chinese learners use GEs based on these findings that were derived from the rather small size of the conversation data by these two groups of learners.

high-intermediate ones. With that being said, Korean learners at advanced level use GEs in a more native-like way, though they use less. Korean and Chinese learners, on the whole, substantially underuse GEs, both adjunctive and disjunctive, with less than one token per 1,000 words, and use noticeably fewer variants. Among those used, their misuse of certain forms and use of forms which are dependent on speakers' L1 are tangible. Additionally, they use more SEs. Both their lack of knowledge about GEs and the inevitability of calling upon an extender to make their speech efficiency and informative might serve to account for their more frequent use of SEs. A second possible explanation for more frequent use of SEs by learners, — who may be aware of yet choose to avoid GEs—, may be related to a negative perception that the use of vague language is indicative of vague thinking that is frown upon as being unsuitable for educated people or speech. Consequently, this underlying negative perception may then lead to an avoidance, conscious or not, of this kind of so-called "sloppy" language use. Learners recruited in this study are all students studying in an educational setting where they may carry with them such value system and thus develop a preference for more precise language use. It follows, then, that GEs or vague expressions, in general, would be predictably scarce in or even missing from the speech of these learners. A third possible explanation would be the low degree of closeness and social similarity among them as strangers to each other and nationals from two different countries. This, more or less, puts a constraint on their deployment of non-specificity in talking about their shared interests and knowledge.

All of these are indications of learners' traces[26] that suggest their lack of knowledge about, if not complete unawareness of, GEs in English, which in turn may account for the low frequency of this specific set of pragmatic expressions. Another possible explanation for the low frequency of GEs would be that learners of English, in general, may see no need to acquire or use expressions of this kind when using English as a lingua franca, that is, a medium of interaction by speakers of two different languages. Encounters like this are generally treated as "transactional", rather than truly "interactional" by participants involved. The former focuses on the transfer of "factual or propositional information", whereas the latter the development and maintenance of relationships, be it personal or professional (Brown and Yule, 1983, p. 2). In such case, it would not be surprising that learners are less concerned about the interpersonal or personal contributions that pragmatic expressions, like GEs, could potentially make to the social aspects of language use.

Most of the aforementioned traces of learner language tie well with previous studies concerning the use of GEs by learners. Nevertheless, there are some differences to note. A common finding reported in the literature is learners' fondness of 'formal' GEs, i.e., *and so on* and *etcetera*, used in informal setting to signal the desire to give up their turn. Such fondness is not found in this study, which is probably due to the absence of learners below low-intermediate or at novice level and the emphasized informal setting, i.e., natural conversation, where the data was garnered. Another common finding in learner language is that learners use more disjunctive GEs than adjunctive ones. The use of GEs by Korean learners in this

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[26] These results, however, should be interpreted with caution due to 1) the small number of conversants from whom the rather limited size of the conversation data was collected and 2) the previously discussed incomparability of the data with those in native discourse.

study conforms to this, whereas that by Chinese is in a different situation where they rely almost equally on both[27]. It is worth, however, noting that both Korean and Chinese learners do not call upon disjunctive GEs, particularly *or something,* to deal with production problems typically like learners of other L1s reported in the literature, but to mark uncertainty towards the contents in question rather than words. Thus, the more frequent use of disjunctive GEs over adjunctive ones for Korean learners and the most frequent use of the disjunctive form *or something* for both, do not serve to suggest their language deficiency which is linked to the difficulty of production. This is a third observed difference from the common finding in learner language that learners deploy more disjunctive GEs, especially *or something (like that)*, to cope with their production problem at the moment.

The functional analysis of the use of GEs by these two groups of learners has substantiated that GEs, indeed, have functions in the proposed four different domains. To be specific, in the referential domain, GEs have, though rather rare, an implicative function as category implicators, as confirmed by the speakers' continuous exemplification. Their extending function in simply indicating additional or alternative information is much more frequent, however. Also, they have a list-completing function as list completers in the structure of [2 item + GE] or [3 item +

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[27] A possible explanation for the discrepancy found among Chinese learners might be their reliance on word-for-word translations on-line from their L1 resources. In Mandarin Chinese, the common adjunctive GEs are *shenmede*, *zhileide*, and *deng(deng)*. According to a corpus study on *shenmede* by Tranchina (2014), she found that *shenmede* is barely preceded by *he* (和) and *yu* (与), two adjunctive conjunctives in Chinese, when being used as an adjunctive GE. She then further argued that it itself "bears this role" (p. 15). As for the other two, it would be ungrammatical to have any conjunctives prefacing them. Therefore, it seems to be the case that Chinese adjunctive GEs are not usually introduced and realized by adjunctive conjunctives *he* and *yu* that correspond to English *and*. With that being said, L1 conventions in realizing Chinese adjunctive GEs do not seem to be accountable for Chinese learners' more frequent use of adjunctive GEs in English. This leads to an intuitive expectation that Chinese learners would use more English adjunctive GEs with their adjunctive conjunctive *and* omitted due to the norms in Chinese. This is, however, not the case for the Chinese learners in this study because all the GEs used by them are *and*-prefaced. Such discrepancy is a rather interesting phenomenon and further research with larger data size is clearly warranted to partial out the potential effect caused by the limited data size of this study.

GE]. Indeed, the former occasion is less frequent and the latter is rather rare (with only one occurrence), as more than half of GEs are of two parts, that is, [1 item + GE]. In the interpersonal domain, they function to mark uncertainty of what is just said and mark entertainment of others. In the personal domain, they have roles in marking something as minimally expected or contrary to one's expectation, maximizing a negative value in question to its extreme, and signaling the lack of concern for identifying or naming more at the moment. In the textual domain, they can yield an ongoing turn and proffer a new topic to interlocutors. Furthermore, the functions from these four domains can, in truth, cooccur with each other, serving to constrain generalizing about functions or prioritizing one over the other, and instead, to assign the priority to the fact that they are multifunctional and these functions cooccur.

These functions performed by the GEs in Korean and Chinese learners' English bear striking similarities to those affirmed in the literature. Some differences, however, are also apparent and can be summarized in the following four regards. Firstly, Korean and Chinese learners use (nearly) twice as many GEs in three-part structure, i.e., [2 item + GE], as native speakers. Secondly, they not only use such structure of three parts to complete lists, but that of two parts, i.e., [1 item + GE], which indicates the difficulty for learners to even list a second item. Thirdly, the adjunctive GE used to mark the just uttered 'whatever' as contrary to one's expectation is *and nothing*, rather than the ones reported to be typical to this personal function, i.e., *and everything* or *and all (that)*. Last but not least, GEs have a role in proffering a new topic. This is a newly identified textual function. Among these four noted differences, learners' use of GEs in the structure of [1 item + GE]

may suggest some learners' traces typical to them but different from the use of GEs by native speakers; in particular, having a difficulty of listing a second item seems to be typical to learners, whereas that of listing a third is common between learners and native speakers (cf. Jefferson, 1990).

Learners' traces in using GEs are also tangible in the forms they misuse, though performing functions identical to those affirmed in the literature. They can be revealed in learners' misuse of certain forms and forms that suggest traces of L1 influence. They, which have first been discussed in Section 4.1 Distribution of GEs, and mentioned briefly earlier in this chapter, are reconsidered to draw attention to the functions these forms carry out and to recapitulate the observed learners' traces. Regarding misuse, Korean learners misuse some frequently-used forms of GEs, i.e., *and everything*, *or whatever*, and *or something*, by omitting their connectors as in *everything*, *whatever*, and *something*. These forms are observed to be typical to some roles, i.e., maximizing negative value, marking indifference, and marking uncertainty, respectively. Korean learners, in this regard, use them to perform identical functions but with their respective connectors dropped. Evidence of omitted connectors *and* and *or* from *and everything* and *or whatever* is available from the list construction works being conducted by their respective speakers at the moment: One is adding items to a list, and the other is creating a list of alternatives. Unlikely, a Chinese learner produces a hybrid form *and something**, —introduced by adjunctive connector *and* and ended with a generic noun typical to disjunctive GEs, i.e., *or something (like that)*—, as a marker of uncertainty. Another misuse found in the use of GE forms is the pluralization of plural noun as in *or other relating stuffs**. Together with most of the adjunctive GEs, i.e., *and (the) other*

things, *and such a thing**, and *and something*,* used by Chinese learners, they suggest word-for-word translations based on L1 resources, which may be *he/yuqita/ biededongxi* (和/与其它/别的东西), *he/yuzheyangdedongxi* (和/与这样的东西), *(he/yu)shenmede*[28] ((和/与)什么的), and *huoqitaxiangguandedongxi* (或其它相关 的东西). Such forms are not typical in everyday uses of English, and thus can be argued as unique usages to Chinese learners' English. Though misusing forms and adopting forms through translating L1 resources in an ad hoc manner do not seem to impede them from performing typical functions of GEs, the deployment of misused forms and forms specific to a particular language do not facilitate cross-cultural communication where English is usually the bridge.

Regarding whether Korean and Chinese learners at different proficiency levels use GEs differently, there may be some link between certain functions of GEs and learners' language proficiency. Table 22 summarizes the ascertained functions according to learners' proficiency levels, i.e., advanced (AD), high-intermediate (HI), and low-intermediate (LI).

Table 22. Functions of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners of English

	L1	Implicating a category			Completing a list		
		AD	HI	LI	AD	HI	LI
Referential	Korean	0	1	0	2	2	2
	Chinese	-	0	0	-	7	2

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[28] Though rather rare, *he/yushenmede* (和/与什么的) is still a possible form in Chinese as mentioned earlier. This may account for the production of the hybrid form *and something** in English.

Table 22. Continued

Interpersonal L1	Marking solidarity			Mitigating imposition			Marking uncertainty			Marking entertainment		
	AD	HI	LI	AD	HI	LI	AD	HI	LI	AD	HI	LI
Korean	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0
Chinese	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	2	1	-	0	1

Personal L1	Marking evaluation			Marking expectation (beyond)			Marking expectation (minimum/ contrary to)			Maximizing negative extreme value			Marking indifference		
	AD	HI	LI	AD	HI	LI	AD	HI	LI	AD	HI	LI	AD	HI	LI
Korean	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
Chinese	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	1	-	0	0	-	0	0

Textual L1	Discourse punctuating			Yielding a turn			Proffering a new topic		
	AD	HI	LI	AD	HI	LI	AD	HI	LI
Korean	0	0	0	3	0	0	2	1	0
Chinese	-	0	0	-	1	2	-	4	0

It appears that Korean and Chinese learners at low-intermediate level tend not to use certain functions at all, i.e., implicating a category, maximizing negative extreme value, marking indifference, and proffering a new topic[29]. In addition, Korean and Chinese learners, on the whole, are not found to use certain functions shown in native speakers' use, such as marking solidarity and mitigating imposition that involve interlocutors more or marking something as beyond one's expectation when expressing oneself, etc.

The contributions of the current study to the field of studying the use of English GEs in conversation are as follows. For one, this study has taken the initial

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[29] These results, however, need to be interpreted with caution as well, largely due to the qualitative nature of this conversation analytic study that has not intended to generalize results of any kinds with limited number of participants recruited for each designated proficiency level.

step of inquiring into how Korean and Chinese learners use GEs in naturally occurring conversation, which adds to the increasing studies on learners' use of GEs. Second, concerning the kind of responses in the wake of the utterance of GEs from any other(s) participating in the interaction, Overstreet & Yule (2021) pointed out the insufficient attention on the subsequent turns after GEs. This study, as a result, has made an effort to capture and document the interactive room created by GEs, by which functions like entertainment marking, turn yielding, and new topic proffering are substantiated from interlocutors' responses. Not only that, this study has also made the first move in documenting interlocutors' nonverbal responses or reactions[30], such as nodding, surrounding the utterance of GEs. Last but not least, the conversation data garnered in this study has fed into the data pool of intercultural interactions conducted, fully in English, by South Korean and Mainland Chinese learners of English.

The findings of the current study provide some pedagogical implications. Korean and Chinese learners substantially underuse GEs in general, use fewer variants, misuse certain forms, and use forms dependent on their L1, which all suggest their lack of knowledge about GEs. This leads to the implication that this set of pragmatic expressions, especially their common forms, should first and foremost be made available to learners before further instruction on how to pragmatically mobilize GEs to deal with specific local interactional needs in a more native-like way. As a result, having this addressed and raising learners' awareness of the pragmalinguistic features and functions of GEs are pedagogically meaningful. There should be, however, a systematic progression in teaching GEs that have functions in

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[30] This aspect is a rarely reported one when looking into the functions of GEs throughout the literature.

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diverse domains so as not to confuse and burden learners, especially for those at lower levels whose learning objectives should remain in knowing the various forms of GEs, especially most frequently-used ones, and probably their semantic meanings and referential functions that are inherent. As their proficiency increases, learners may be diverted to other diverse functions of GEs that concern interlocutors more, i.e., interpersonal functions such as inviting solidarity and creating rapport, or involve more self-expressions, i.e., personal functions such as maximizing a value. Beyond their diverse discourse functions, GEs are also linked to aspects of fluency. Under the pressure imposed by having to think of what to say, finding the right words, and expressing themselves clearly while simultaneously producing speech on-line, learners should be encouraged to use GEs to buy some extra planning time, rather than having excessive pauses, long silence, and fillers that usually mark speech disfluency. Realistically, none of these would happen unless textbooks provide pragmalinguistic input and practice materials on GEs. In this connection, practitioners as well as curriculum developers in the field of English education may then explore how GEs can be progressively taught to learners and incorporated into textbooks[31].

Limitations come along with the contributions and pedagogical implications of the current study. Firstly, the study has only looked into the use of GEs in conversation by a small group of Korean and Chinese learners mainly with intermediate level of English proficiency, missing not only advanced-level group for Chinese learners, but the novice group overall. Besides, these recruited learners of

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[31] The typical uses of most frequent adjunctive and disjunctive GEs, —summarized by Overstreet and Yule (2021) for the purpose of fostering learners' "direct attention and noticing" on the contexts in which different GEs are typically and naturally used—, can serve as raw materials for incorporating GEs into textbooks and classroom teachings (p. 194-195).

English are all university students, leaving out learners at secondary school level. Therefore, they cannot be representative of collective Korean and Chinese learners of English, and the same goes for their use of GEs. Put another way, any generalization of the findings may be an issue, and thus should be avoided. A second limitation that needs to be acknowledged is the exclusion of talks among familiars[32] or strangers whose social distance, relative power difference, and degree of imposition to each other are greater than that among university students. Consequently, the findings might not be transferable to other speech conditions, such as talks among classmates and at work as different situational contexts may have a decisive effect on learner outputs, including the use of GEs. A third limitation is that the study has not recruited native speakers of English to carry out a conversation under an identical setting, from which comparable data could be obtained. For this reason, comparisons with native speakers, whose use of GEs can serve as a benchmark, have been considerably constrained.

To shed greater light onto the use of GEs by Korean and Chinese learners at different levels and to better facilitate the inclusion and instruction of them in textbooks and classroom, further studies may cast a wider net to explore that by learners who possess different proficiencies and education levels, such as novices and learners at secondary school, or learners who have a longer length of stay in English speaking countries where the chance for the exposure to the native use of GEs might be higher. It would also be pedagogically meaningful to study the use of

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[32] In one of her earliest studies on GEs, Overstreet (1999) first reasoned that the occasion where GEs are used to mark solidarity among interlocutors is more likely to occur in talks among close friends, as they are close enough to have sufficient familiarity of each other, by which they "are more likely to say less and assume more" (p. 125). The use of GEs to invite solidarity have not been observed in this study. That conversants recruited in this study are non-familiars to each other may account for the absence of this interpersonal function.

them by these two groups of learners in different contexts, which may help with content making or task designs when incorporating GEs into language classroom. Along with the expanding examination on the use of GEs by various Korean and Chinese learners in different contexts, contrastive interlanguage studies from a corpus-based approach would be encouraged. It should, however, be borne in mind that the results need to be compared with those by native speakers in corresponding contexts so as to draw reliable comparisons whose outcomes are based on equally-sourced data. Another possible area of future studies would be to further investigate the effects of L1 transfer by conducting cross-linguistic analyses between English and Chinese and English and Korean. The knowledge and introduction of possible equivalents of English GEs in Chinese and Korean and their uses may forward the process of learning English GEs with learners' metalinguistic and metapragmatic awareness of GEs in their respective L1s raised. On the strength of unveiled structural regularities in conversations, that is, the four fundamental constructs of CA, this study has observed the presence of GEs' resonation with some of them[33]. For researchers or conversation analysts who may be interested in probing into GEs' resonation with interactional regularities, it would be interesting to continuously scrutinize the little but rather interactive space created by GEs, —that are used to mean more than what is actually said—, in which solidarity is sought, elicited, and thus marked. Negotiating meaning, in this space, appears to be unwanted as

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[33] With respect to turn-taking organization, GEs are found to signal a TRP where speaker's change, be it floor-competitive or not, occurs frequently. Non-floor-taking turn at this position are commonly found to be individual or collective display(s) of understanding from interlocutors, be it verbal or nonverbal. As for the organization of repair, disjunctive GEs used to mark speakers' uncertainty of the just mentioned appear to suggest some part they play in repair. CA has also shed some light into determining the kinds of sequences where GEs appear, such as confirmation request-response sequence, multi-turns of storytelling, pre-expansions or preliminaries before FPP, etc. This is important in that delving into the sequences makes clear the certain actions GEs have functions on, by which their performed functions are confirmed from a bottom-up manner.

understanding them is assumed, or at least shown, to be effortless within the range of shared knowledge. Deviation from the assumption of shared knowledge would then put a temporary halt on the progressivity of the ongoing action with a predictable sequence of meaning negotiation inserted, i.e., an OISR, marking the restricted or insufficient manoeuvring space for interlocutors to interpret the reference of GEs. The use of meaning in either case, is collaborative, and such uncodified, collaborative use of meaning with GEs in human language is worth further studies.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Conversation Topics

Dear Participants,

Thank you again for your participation in this research. As mentioned briefly in the Participant Information Sheet, some general topics that might come in handy during your conversation would be provided to you. Below is the list of these general topics. Once again, you are not limited to them. Instead, you are welcome to talk about any other topics if you wish.

Hobby or Interest	Future career	Major
Foreign Language Learning	Travel	A Course that Impressed You a Lot
Cultural Differences/ Culture Shock	Life and Study during Covid-19	Living or Studying Experience in a Foreign Country

Enjoy your conversation! ^^

Regards,
Junjie Chen

Appendix 2. Transcription Conventions

Preliminaries

`font`   Courier or Courier New

`[    ]`   Data source/description is given within double square brackets above the transcript

`123`   Line numbers are indicated for each line (not each turn) down the left-hand side of the transcript for reference purposes.

`John`   Speakers' names are pseudonymous.

`—>`   Arrows beside speaker names indicate lines of analytic focus.

In relation to temporal and sequential relationships

`[`   A left bracket bridging two lines indicates a point of overlap onset, whether at the start of an utterance or later.

`=`   Equals signs ordinarily come in pairs – one at the end of a line and another at the start of the next line or one shortly thereafter. They are used are used to indicate two things:

> 1) If the two lines connected by the equal signs are by the same speaker, then there was a single, continuous utterance with no break or pause, which was broken up in order to accommodate the placement of overlapping talk;
>
> 2) If the lines connected by two equal signs are by different speakers, then the second followed the first with no discernible silence between them, or was "latched" to it.

`(0.5)` Numbers in parentheses indicate silence, represented in tenths of a

second; what is given here in the left margin indicates 0.5 second of

silence. Silences may be marked either within an utterance or between

`(.)` A dot in parentheses indicates a "micro-pause," hearable but not readily

measurable; ordinarily less than 0.2 second.

In relation to speech delivery

`.` The punctuation marks are *not* used grammatically, but to indicate

intonation. The period indicates a falling, or final, intonation contour, not

necessarily the end of a sentence.

`?` A question mark indicates rising intonation, not necessarily a question.

`,` A comma indicates continuing intonation, not necessarily a clause

`::` Colons are used to indicate the prolongation or stretching of the sound

just preceding them. The more colons, the longer the stretching.

<u>word</u> Underlining is used to indicate some form of stress or emphasis, either by

increased loudness or higher pitch. The more underlining, the greater the

emphasis.

WORD Upper case indicates especially loud sounds relative to the surrounding

° The degree sign indicates that the talk following it was markedly quiet or

soft.

°° When there are two degree signs, the talk between them is markedly

softer than the talk around it.

–   A hyphen after a word or part of a word indicates a cut-off or self-

         interruption.

> <   The combination of "more than" and "less than" symbols indicates that

         the talk between them is compressed or rushed.

hhh   Hearable breathing is shown where it occurs in the talk by the letter "h" –

         the more "hs," the more outbreaths.

heh   Hearable laughter is shown where it occurs in the talk by "heh" – the

         more "hehs," the longer the laugh.

.hhh   If the aspiration is an inhalation or inbreath, it is shown with a dot before

.t   A period and a letter "t" indicates a short sharp sound, i.e., a click

Other markings

(( )) Double parentheses are used to mark transcriber's descriptions of events,

         rather than representations of them. Thus ((cough)), ((sniff)), ((telephone

         rings)), ((footsteps)),((whispered)), ((pause)), etc.

( )   When all or part of an utterance is in parentheses, or the speaker

         identification is, this indicates uncertainty on the transcriber's part, but

         represents a likely possibility. Empty parentheses indicate that something

         is being said, but no hearing.

In relation to embodied actions

+   Following the 'plus' sign is where action begins and where it is described.

Appendix 3. Recruitment Document English, Korean, and Chinese

Research Title: A Conversation Analytic Study on Naturally Occurring English Conversation by Chinese and Korean Learners of English

Investigator/Researcher: Junjie Chen

Department of English Language and Literature
College of Humanities
Seoul National University

PARTICIPANT
RECRUITMENT

The purpose of this research is to study and compare how Chinese and Korean learners of English of different proficiency levels carry out a naturally occurring conversation together in English.

RESEARCH PURPOSE

❏ **16** Chinese whose first language is Mandarin

❏ **24** Korean whose first language is Korean

❏ Current **(under)graduate students** of SNU

❏ **All majors** (other than English Language and Literature and English Education)

❏ Length of stay in an English-Speaking Country: no more than **3 months**

❏ Requirement of **English proficiency**:

연구참여자 수	TEPS	NEW TEPS	토플	아이엘츠
16 명	501~600	268 ~ 326	80 ~ 96	6.5 ~ 7.0
16 명	701~800	387~452	107~112	7.5
8 명	801~900	453 ~ 525	113 ~ 117	8.0 ~ 8.5

Note that the date of your test result must be within 2 years, and you need to meet all the six requirements above to be an eligible participant.

DESIRED PARTICIPANTS

Carry out an **English** conversation with **4 other participants** in a group with certain topics given but not constrained to (Note that the conversation will be both **audio-** and **video-**recorded.)

TASK TO DO

At least **30** minutes on **Zoom**

TIME & LOCATION

20,000 won per participant

INCENTIVE

By Email (Junjie Chen):

By **WeChat** / **KakaoTalk** QR Code: Personal Information Deleted
陳俊傑 첸쭌찌에

HOW TO APPLY

Thank you in advance for your time and interest in participating in this research related to English conversation. The investigator/ researcher, Junjie Chen, can be contacted if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

Ver 1.3(2022.05.19.)

연구 과제명:
자연스럽게 발생하는 영어 대화에서 중국인과 한국인 영어학습자의 대화 수행에 관한 대화분석 연구

조사원/연구 책임자: 쳰쮼찌에 (Junjie Chen)
서울대학교 영어영문학과

연구참여자 모집

이 연구의 목적은 자연발생 대화에서 다른 영어언어능력을 가진 중국인과 한국인 영어학습자들이 함께 영어로 어떻게 대화하는지 연구하며 비교하기 위함입니다.

연구 목적

☐ **16** 명 중국어를 모국어로 사용하는 중국인
☐ **24** 명 한국어를 모국어로 사용하는 한국인
☐ 현 서울대학교 **학부생 또는 대학원생**
☐ **전공 무관** (영어영문학과와 영어교육 전공 제외)
☐ 영어권 국가에서 **0~3개월** 공부하거나 거주한 경험
☐ **영어능력** 요구 :

참여자 선정 조건

연구참여자 수	TEPS	NEW TEPS	토플	아이엘츠
16 명	501~600	268 ~ 326	80 ~ 96	6.5 ~ 7.0
16 명	701~800	387~452	107~112	7.5
8 명	801~900	453 ~ 525	113 ~ 117	8.0 ~ 8.5

*시험 기간은 최근 **2**년 이내여야 합니다; 위의 **6**가지 조건이 모두 충족되어야 합니다.

주어진 주제로 (그러나 이에 국한되지 않음), 다른 **4명의 연구참여자** 들과 함께 **영어로** 대화합니다. 대화는 **오디오** 및 **비디오**로 녹화됩니다.

참여 내용

대화는 **30** 분 이상이어야 하며 **Zoom** 으로 진행합니다.

시간 및 장소

참가자당 **20,000원**

참여 시 사례

이메일/위챗/카카오톡으로 신청 :
이메일 주소 (쳰쮼찌에):
위챗 (陳俊傑) 및 카카오톡 (쳰쮼찌에) QR 코드: 개인정보 삭제된

신청 방법

이 연구에 관심을 가지고 시간을 내어 주셔서 감사합니다. 불명확한 사항이 있으시거나 더 자세한 정보를 원하시면 조사원/연구 책임자 쳰쮼찌에에게 편하게 연락하시면 됩니다.

Ver 1.3(2022.05.19.)

研究课题题目: 对中韩两国英语学习者在自然发生英语谈话中的对话执行进行会话分析研究

调查员/研究员: 陳俊傑 (Junjie Chen)
英语语言与文学专业
首尔国立大学 · 人文学院

研究对象招募

研究目的

本研究的目的是探索和比较具有不同英语语言能力的中国和韩国英语学习者如何一起用英语进行自然发生的对话。

研究对象要求

- ❑ **16** 名中国人 (汉语普通话为母语)
- ❑ **24** 名韩国人 (韩国语为母语)
- ❑ 现首尔国立大学
- ❑ **所有专业** (英语语言与文学及英语教育专业除外)
- ❑ 在英语国家学习或者生活的时间不得超过 **3个月**
- ❑ **英语语言能力** 要求:

研究参与人数	TEPS	新 TEPS	托福	雅思
16名	501~600	268 ~ 326	80 ~ 96	6.5 ~ 7.0
16名	701~800	387~452	107~112	7.5
8名	801~900	453 ~ 525	113 ~ 117	8.0 ~ 8.5

*考试时间必须在近两年之内; 以上**6**个条件需全部满足;

参与内容

围绕 (但不限制于) 所给话题, 与另外 **四位研究参与者** 展开 **英语** 对话。对话 **音频** 以及 **视频** 都将会被录制。

时间与地点

至少 **30** 分钟 （对话在 **Zoom** 上进行）

酬谢金

每位参加者 **20,000 韩币**

申请方法

通过邮箱/微信/卡考说说申请:

邮箱地址 (Junjie Chen):

微信(陳俊傑)/KakaoTalk(첸쥰찌에)二维码 个人信息已删除

预先感谢您抽出时间参与这项与英语会话相关的研究以及您的参与兴趣。如果您有任何不清楚的地方或者您想了解更多信息, 可以联系调查员/研究员陈俊杰。

Ver 1.3(2022.05.19.)

Appendix 4. Information Sheet English, Korean, and Chinese

Participant Information Sheet, Consent Form and Questionnaire

Title of the Research: A Conversation Analytic Study on Naturally Occurring English Conversation by Chinese and Korean Learners of English[1]

Investigator/Researcher: Junjie Chen (Graduate Student, Department of English Language and Literature)

This research is about looking into how Chinese and Korean learners of English of different proficiency levels carry out their conversation together in English with general topics provided but not constrained to. You are being invited to participate in the research because you are considered an eligible meeting the requirements for participants with desired nationalities, i.e., a Chinese or a Korean, English proficiency level, and more. The investigator, that is, the researcher per se at Seoul National University, Junjie Chen, will explain the research to you in detail. The research will be conducted only with the voluntary consent of the participants, so before your decision is made, it is important to understand the content and purpose of the research. Please read the content below carefully and thoroughly, and please let the investigator/researcher know if you consent to be involved. The investigator/researcher can be contacted if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you agree to take part and discuss it with others if you wish, and if you do, please sign the consent form and fill in the questionnaire.

1. Why is this research being conducted?

The purpose of this research is to study and compare how Chinese and Korean learners of English of different proficiency levels carry out a naturally occurring conversation together in English. Inquiring into the ways of conversing and how differently they are used by learners of different levels and in comparison with that by the native speakers, the investigator/researcher aims to help non-native speakers of English facilitate communication in cross-cultural interactions.

2. How many people will participate in the research?

40 current undergraduate or graduate students (16 Chinese and 24 Korean) of Seoul National University, studying in all majors other than English Language and Literature and English Education, meeting the requirement for English proficiency level, and with less than 3 months of overseas studying and/or living experience, will participate.

3. How will the research proceed?

If you indicate your intention to participate, the following will take place during your participation.
  1) Before the conversation, the investigator/researcher will join the scheduled Zoom meeting to give guidelines, including some general topics[2] that might come in handy, for the conversation and point out some matters that need attention when conversing. This will be conducted in English and will last for about 5 minutes. After this, the investigator/researcher will leave the Zoom call and will not participate in the conversation.
   2) You will then be required to carry out a conversation in English for at least 30 minutes with four other participants on Zoom. Please have your camera on and your mics unmuted

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[1] Note that this is a rather general research title. A detailed description will be provided to you through email after your conversation. This decision has been made to prevent purposeful uses and/or non-uses of any expressions in English when conversing, including those under investigation. This description to be sent is called "Debriefing" that will as well require your signature.

[2] Note that you are not required to strictly follow the topics given to you. Instead, you are welcome to talk about any topics other than the provided. Some general topics compiled in a PDF file, will be sent to you during the 5-minute briefing time through the chatting room in Zoom.

throughout the whole conversation (having them on and off is not allowed) as it will be audio- and video-recorded[3].

3) After the conversation runs for 30 minutes, you are free to leave the Zoom call at any time. The call will automatically be ended after 60 minutes.

4. What is the duration of participation in the research?

It will take about 30~60 minutes depending on how long participants carry out their conversation.

5. Once participation in the research has begun, is it possible to stop participating?

Yes. You can stop participating in the research whenever you want with no disadvantage. At any point you wish to withdraw, please feel free to tell the investigator/researcher immediately. You can let the investigator/researcher either use the information collected up to the point or discard the information completely.

6. Are there any side effects or risks involved in participation in this research?

No. There are no side effects nor are there any risks anticipated as all you will be doing in this research is conversing in English with the other participants and the conversation will be conducted online.

7. Are there any advantages to participating in the research?

You will not receive any direct advantage. However, the information you provide will be helpful to promoting the understanding of how Chinese or Korean learners of English conduct a conversation together in English.

8. Are there any disadvantages to participating in the research?

You are free to agree or decline to participate in the research. There will be no disadvantage if you decide not to participate.

9. Is the information gathered during the participation secure?

The person in charge of managing the personal information collected for this research is Junjie Chen (email address: [Personal Information Deleted]) at Seoul National University. The personal information collected in this study is participant's name, major, age, gender, type of the language test taken, date of test, test score or score range, number of month(s) staying in an English environment, phone number, email address, bank name, account number, account holder name, and the audio- and video-recordings of the conversation. Among them, personal information that will be discarded after one week of the participation is the participant's name, major, age, gender, date of test, phone number, email address, bank name, account number, and account holder name. The reason for collecting such personal information is to recruit and communicate with desired participants, and transfer the incentive to them. Other information (type of the language test taken, test score or score range, and number of month(s) staying in English

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[3] Your conversation will serve as data to be transcribed and analyzed for the researcher's MA thesis as well as future research. The transcribed data, including both audio and video, from the conversation may as well be used anonymously and unidentifiably as examples and materials for educational purposes in the future.

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environment) is necessary for the research. Thus, they will be put in an encrypted file and when presented, they will be totally anonymous, without any means of identifying the individuals involved. As for the recorded video, participants' faces will be blurred out. Both the recorded audio and video, as it may be used for future research and educational purposes, will not be destroyed. The aforementioned personal information that will be kept from being discarded as well as the audio- and video-recordings of the conversation are only allowed to be accessed by the investigator's/researcher 's academic advisor, Prof. Yong-Yae Park, and the investigator/researcher, Junjie Chen, per se, and will be stored in a completely confidential manner. The consent form will be stored for three years in accordance with the relevant laws and then discarded. The research data will be kept as permanent as possible (at least five years) by the Seoul National University Research Ethics Guidelines. All possible measures will be taken to secure and protect all personal information gathered while proceeding with this research. When the research is reported in an academic journal or presented at a conference, your name and other personal information will not be presented. However, if required by law, your personal information may be provided. In addition, the Seoul National University Institutional Review Board may directly access the research results within the scope of the relevant regulations to inspect whether the research has been conducted without the participant's personal information security and verify the reliability of the research data. By signing this consent form, you acknowledge that you have been informed of all necessary information related to the research in advance and will be deemed to have consented to it.

10. How much will participants be paid for participation?
You will be paid 20,000 won.

11. If I have any questions about the research, who can I contact?
If you have any questions related to the research, or if there are any problems or concerns related to the research, please contact the investigator/researcher below.

Name: _____Junjie Chen_____　　　　Contact: ⌐Personal Information Deleted⌐

If you have any questions related to your rights as a research participant, please contact Seoul National University Institutional Review Board as shown below.

Seoul National University Institutional Review Board (SNUIRB)
Phone: 02-880-5153
E-mail: irb@snu.ac.kr

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설 명 문 (연 구 참 여 자 용)

연구 과제명: 자연스럽게 발생하는 영어 대화에서 중국인과 한국인 영어학습자의 대화 수행에 관한 대화 분석 연구[1]
연구 책임자명: 첸쭌찌에 (서울대학과 영어영문학과 어학 석사 수료생)

이 연구는 자연발생 대화에서 다른 영어언어능력을 가진 중국인과 한국인 영어학습자들이 제공된 일반 적인 주제(그러나 이에 국한되지 않음)를 가지고 함께 어떻게 영어로 대화를 수행하는지에 탐구하고자 하는 연구입니다. 귀하는 연구참여자 선정조건을 (국적, 모국어, 영어언어능력 등) 충족하는 적격자로 간주되어 있기 때문에 이 연구에 참여하도록 권유 받았습니다. 이 연구를 수행하는 서울대학교 소속의 연구원(첸쭌찌에)이 귀하에게 이 연구에 대해 설명해 줄 것입니다. 이 연구는 자발적으로 참여 의사를 밝 히신 분에 한하여 수행 될 것이며, 귀하께서는 참여 의사를 결정하기 전에 본 연구가 왜 수행되는지 그 리고 연구의 내용이 무엇과 관련이 있는지 이해하는 것이 중요합니다. 아래 내용을 꼼꼼히 읽어보시고 참 여 동의 여부를 연구자에게 알려주시기 바랍니다. 만일 어떠한 질문이 있다면 담당 연구원이 자세하게 설명해 줄 것입니다. 다음 내용을 신중히 읽어보신 후 참여 의사를 밝혀 주시길 바라며, 필요하다면 가족 이나 친구들과 의논해 보십시오. 참여하신다면 동의서에 서명하고 설문지를 작성해 주십시오.

1. 이 연구는 왜 실시합니까?

이 연구의 목적은 자연발생 대화에서 다른 영어언어능력을 가진 중국인과 한국인 영어학습자들이 함께 영어로 어떻게 대화하는지 연구하며 비교하기 위함입니다. 그리고 연구원은 언어수준이 서로 다른 학습 자 간 또는 영어 원어민과의 차이점을 비교해서 서로의 대화 방식이 얼마나 다른지 연구합니다. 이를 통 해 연구원은 영어가 모국어가 아닌 사용자들이 다문화 상호작용에서 의사 소통을 원활하게 할 수 있도록 돕는 것을 목표로 합니다.

2. 얼마나 많은 사람이 참여합니까?

이 연구에 영어권 국가에서 공부하거나 거주한 시간이 3개월을 초과하지 않으며 영어언어능력에 대한 요구 를 충족하는 40명의 서울대학교 학부 또는 대학원 재학생이 (영어영문학과와 영어교육학과 제외) 참여할 것입니다. 그중에 모국어가 중국어인 중국학생은 16명이 있으면 한국어인 한국학생은 24명이 있을 것입 니다.

3. 만일 연구에 참여하면 어떤 과정이 진행됩니까?

만일 귀하가 참여의사를 밝혀 주시면 다음과 같은 과정이 진행될 것입니다.
1) 대화 시작 전에 조사원/연구원이 지정된 Zoom 회의실에서 귀하에게 대화의 지침(유용할 수 있 는 몇 가지 일반적인 주제[2]를 포함)를 제공하고 대화 시 주의해야 할 사항을 제시할 예정입니다. 이 부분은 영어로 진행하며 5분 정도 걸릴 것입니다. 이후에 조사원/연구원은 회의실에서 나가 며 대화에 참여하지 않을 것입니다.
2) 이어서 귀하는 Zoom에서 다른 참여자 4명과 최소 30분 동안 영어로 대화할 것입니다. 대화 과 정은 오디오 및 비디오로 녹음되어야 하기 때문에 전체 대화가 끝나기 전에 카메라와 마이크를 (중

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[1] 이 제목에 본 연구에서 조사할 표현을 제시하지 않습니다. 자세한 설명은 연구 참여 후 이메일로 안내해 드릴 예정입니다. 이 결정 은 조사할 표현을 포함하여 대화할 때 영어 표현을 의도적으로 사용하거나 사용하지 않을 것을 방지하기 위한 것입니다. 이 설명문 이 "사후설명서(연구참여자용)"이라고 하며 귀하의 서명도 다시 필요합니다.

[2] 주어진 주제를 그대로 따를 필요가 없으며 그외의 다른 주제에 대해서도 이야기할 수 있습니다. PDF 파일로 편집된 몇 가지 일반 적인 주제를 Zoom 채팅방으로 귀하에게 브리핑 시간에 전송할 것입니다.

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간에 끄지 마시고) 계속 켜 주셔야 합니다3.

   3) 귀하는 30분 동안의 대화를 나눈 후에 언제든지 Zoom회의실에서 나갈 수 있습니다. 회의는 1 시간 후에 자동으로 종료될 것입니다.

4. 연구 참여 기간은 얼마나 됩니까?

참여자들의 대화 시간에 따라 총 소요시간이 30분에서 1시간까지 걸릴 것입니다.

5. 참여 도중 그만두어도 됩니까?

예, 귀하는 언제든지 어떠한 불이익 없이 참여 도중에 그만 둘 수 있습니다. 만일 귀하가 연구에 참여하는 것을 그만두고 싶다면 담당 연구원에게 즉시 말씀해 주시기를 바랍니다. 중도 탈락 시 수집된 자료의 폐기를 원하시면 즉시 폐기됩니다. 그러나 폐기를 원하지 않는다면 중도 탈락 이전 자료는 연구 자료로 사용됩니다.

6. 부작용이나 위험요소는 있습니까?

아니요, 귀하는 이 연구에서 하실 것은 다른 참여자들과 영어로 대화하는 것 뿐이며 그 대화도 온라인으로 진행하게 될 것이기 때문에 예상되는 부작용도 위험도 없습니다.

7. 이 연구에 참여 시 참여자에게 이득이 있습니까?

직접적인 이익을 얻지 못할 것입니다. 그러나 귀하가 제공하시는 정보 및 대화는 중국인 또는 한국인 영어학습자가 영어로 대화하는 특성이나 패턴을 이해하는 데에 도움이 될 것입니다.

8. 만일 이 연구에 참여하지 않는다면 불이익이 있습니까?

귀하는 본 연구에 참여하지 않을 자유가 있습니다. 또한, 귀하가 본 연구에 참여하지 않아도 귀하에게는 어떠한 불이익도 없습니다.

9. 연구에서 얻은 모든 개인 정보의 비밀은 보장됩니까?

개인정보관리책임자는 서울대학교의 첸쥔찌에(이메일 주소: 　개인정보 삭제됨　)입니다. 본 연구에서 수집되는 개인정보는 참여자 이름, 전공, 나이, 성별, 영어언어시험 유형, 시험 응시 날짜, 시험 점수 또는 점수 범위, 영어 환경에서 체류 기간, 전화 번호, 이메일 주소, 은행 이름, 계좌 번호, 계좌 소유자 이름, 대화의 오디오 및 비디오 녹화 자료입니다. 이중에 연구 참여 1주일 후 폐기될 개인정보는 참여자의 이름, 전공, 나이, 성별, 시험 응시 날짜, 전화 번호, 이메일 주소, 은행 이름, 계좌 번호, 계좌 소유자 이름입니다. 이러한 개인정보를 수집하는 이유는 연구 참여자 선정과 사례비 때문입니다. 다른 정보(영어언어시험 유형, 시험 점수 또는 점수 범위, 영어 환경에서 체류 기간)는 연구에 필요한 정보라서 암호화된 파일에 저장되

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3 귀하의 대화는 연구자의 석사 논문과 향후 연구를 위해 전사 및 분석할 데이터로 사용됩니다. 대화에서 녹음된 오디오 및 녹화된 비디오 그리고 전사된 데이터는 미래에 교육 목적의 예와 자료로 사용될 수도 있습니다. 모든 데이터는 익명 및 모자이크 처리 등 방식으로 귀하의 개인 정보가 노출되지 않도록 약속드리겠습니다.

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며 관련된 개인을 식별할 수 없이 완전히 익명으로 처리될 것입니다. 녹화된 영상은 모자이크 처리로 참가자의 얼굴이 흐려지게 처리할 것입니다. 향후 연구와 교육 목적으로 이용될 수 있기 때문에 녹음된 오디오와 비디오를 폐기하지 않을 것입니다. 이러한 연구에서 이용할 개인정보 및 대화의 오디오 녹화 및 비디오 녹음은 본 연구의 지도교수인 박용예 교수와 연구자인 첸쭌찌에에게만 접근이 허락되며, 완전히 기밀한 방법으로 보관이 될 것입니다. 동의서는 관련 법령에 따라 3년을 보관한 후 폐기할 예정이며, 연구자료의 경우는 서울대학교 연구윤리 지침에 따라 가능한 한 영구 (최소한 5년) 보관할 예정입니다. 저희는 이 연구를 통해 얻은 모든 개인 정보의 비밀 보장을 위해 최선을 다할 것입니다. 이 연구에서 얻어진 개인 정보가 학회지나 학회에 공개 될 때 귀하의 이름 및 기타 개인 정보는 사용되지 않을 것입니다. 그러나 만일 법이 요구하면 귀하의 개인정보는 제공될 수도 있습니다. 또한 모니터 요원, 점검 요원, 생명윤리위원회는 연구참여자의 개인 정보에 대한 비밀 보장을 침해하지 않고 관련규정이 정하는 범위 안에서 본 연구의 실시 절차와 자료의 신뢰성을 검증하기 위해 연 구 결과를 직접 열람할 수 있습니다. 귀하가 본 동의서에 서명하는 것은, 이러한 사항에 대하여 사전에 알고 있었으며 이를 허용한다는 동의로 간주될 것입니다.

10. 이 연구에 참가하면 사례가 지급됩니까?
귀하가 이 연구에 참여 시 귀하에게 20,000원이 지급될 것입니다.

11. 연구에 대한 문의는 어떻게 해야 됩니까?
본 연구에 대해 질문이 있거나 연구 중간에 문제 발생 시 다음 연구 담당자에게 연락하십시오.

이름: _____첸쭌찌에_____
전화번호 및 이메일: ┌─────────────┐ 개인정보 삭제된 └─────────────┘

만일 어느 때라도 연구참여자로서 귀하의 권리에 대한 질문이 있다면 다음의 서울대학교 생명윤리위원회에 연락하십시오.

서울대학교 생명윤리위원회 (SNUIRB)
전화번호: 02-880-5153
이메일: irb@snu.ac.kr

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说 明 书 (研 究 参 与 者)

研究项目名称： 对中韩两国英语学习者在自然发生英语谈话中的对话执行进行会话分析研究[1]
研究员： 陈俊杰 (Chen Junjie, 首尔国立大学 英语语言与文学 硕士研究生)

这项研究旨在调查不同英语语言能力的中国和韩国英语学习者如何在提供话题（但不局限于）的情况下用英语一起进行自然发生的对话。因为您满足研究参与者的各项选择标准，如国籍、母语、英语语言能力等，您现被邀请参加此项研究。进行这项研究的首尔国立大学研究员（陈俊杰，Chen Junjie）将为您详细解释这项研究。本研究仅针对自愿表达参与意向的人员进行。因此在您决定参与此项研究之前，了解本研究进行的原因及其相关内容是非常重要的。请仔细通读以下内容，如果您同意参与，请告知研究员。如果您有任何问题，研究员都将会为您进行详细地解释。请在决定参加之前仔细阅读以下内容，如有必要，请与您的家人和朋友讨论。如果您希望参与，请签署研究参与同意书以及填写问卷。

1. 为什么要进行此项研究?

本研究的目的是探索和比较具有不同英语语言能力的中国和韩国英语学习者如何一起用英语进行自然发生的对话。此外，通过深入了解 1）不同语言水平的英语学习者的对话方式的差异以及 2）他们与母语者的对话方式的不同，研究员旨在帮助母语为非英语的人士实现更有效及多元文化的交流。

2. 有多少人参加此项研究?

在英语国家学习或居住不超过3个月且符合英语语言能力要求的40名首尔国立大学本科生或研究生（不包括英语语言文学系和英语教育系）将参加本次研究。其中，以汉语为母语的中国学生有16名。以韩语为母语的韩国学生有24名。

3. 如果我参与此项研究，将需要做什么?

如果您表明参与此项研究的意向，以下将是您参与期间的活动流程：

1) 在对话开始之前，研究员将在预先安排好的Zoom会议上，为您介绍对话的相关事宜(其中包括一些可能会派上用场的一般性话题[2])以及在对话期间需要注意的事项。这部分将会用英语进行，并将需要 5 分钟左右的时间。在这之后，调查员/研究员将退出会议室并不会参与对话。2) 然后，您将在Zoom上与其他 4 名参与者进行至少 30 分钟的英语对话。因为此次对话的音频和视频将被全程录制[3]，所以在整个对话过程中，您需要始终保持麦克风和摄像头的开启（中途不

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[1] 请注意这是一个较为笼统的研究项目名称。研究参与后，研究员将通过电子邮件的方式向您就研究主题和目的提供进一步的详细说明。此决定是为了防止参与者在对话时有意识地使用和/或不使用任何英语表达（包括次研究将着重调查的某一系列英语表达）。这更为详细的说明文件也被称为"事后情况说明书"。此说明书也将需要您的签名。

[2] 请注意，您不需要严格按照提供给您的主题进行对话。对话期间，任何其他主题都是被允许并且受欢迎的。在简单介绍时间内，研究员将通过 Zoom 的聊天室把这些一般性话题发送给您。

[3] 您的对话将作为我的硕士论文以及未来研究的转录和分析数据。转录的数据，包括对话中的录制的音频和视频，也将可能会被用作教育的例子和材料。在所有的数据被使用之前，研究员都将将其以他人无法识别的方式进行匿名处理。

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可关闭）。

   3）在对话持续 30 分钟后，您可以随时离开Zoom会议室。会议将在 1 小时后自动结束。

4. 此研究参与时间是多久?

根据参与者进行对话的时间长短，总时长从 30 分钟到 1 个小时不等。

5. 一旦开始参与研究，是否可以停止参与?

可以的。您可以随时停止参与，而不会受到任何不利影响。如果您想停止参与此研究，请立即通知研究员。在您中途停止参与的情况下，如果您希望研究员弃置所收集的数据，那么它将立即被销毁。但是，如果您不希望弃置在您停止之前所收集到的数据，那么它将会继续被用作为研究员的研究数据。

6. 参与这项研究是否有任何副作用或风险?

没有。此项活动并没有任何预期的副作用或风险，因为您在这项研究中所做的只是与其他参与者用英语对话，并且对话将在线进行。

7. 参加这项研究对参与者有什么好处吗?

不会得到任何直接的好处。但是，您提供的信息和对话将有助于了解中国和韩国英语学习者的英语对话的特征或模式。

8. 如果我不参加这项研究，对我会有什么不利的地方吗?

您有不参加这项研究的权利。此外，如果您不参加本研究，也不会对您造成任何的不利影响。

9. 从研究中获得的所有个人信息的机密性是否得到保证?

本研究所收集的个人信息的管理负责人是首尔国立大学的陈俊杰（Chen Junjie，电子邮箱：[个人信息已删除]）。本研究收集的个人信息包括参与者姓名、专业、年龄、性别、英语语言考试类型、考试日期、考试成绩或分数范围、在英语语言环境中居住/学习的时长、手机号码、邮箱地址、银行名称、帐号、账户持有人姓名、会话音频和视频记录。其中，参与者姓名、专业、年龄、性别、考试日期、手机号码、邮箱地址、银行名称、账号、账户持有人姓名等个人身份信息将在研究参与一周后被销毁。收集此类个人信息的原因是为了招募符合研究参与条件的参与者并为其转账酬谢金。其他信息（英语语言测试类型、测试分数或分数范围、以及在英语语言环境中居住/学习的时长）则是研究所必需的。他们将被存储在加密文件中。研究员在使用任何信息之前，将会对其进行完全匿名处理

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以至于他人没有任何方法可以识别所涉及的研究参与者。对于所录制的视频，参与者的面部将被马赛克模糊处理。录制的音频和视频将不会被销毁，因为它们可能也将会被用于未来的研究与教育。只有本研究的学术顾问 Yong-Yae Park 教授和研究员陈俊杰(Chen Junjie)允许访问此类以完全保密的方式储存的研究所必需的个人信息以及对话的音频和视频记录。同意书将根据相关法律保存3年，然后删除。根据首尔国立大学的研究伦理准则，研究数据将尽可能永久保存(至少5年)。我们将尽最大努力确保通过本研究获得的任何个人信息的机密性。当该研究在学术期刊或会议上发表时，您的姓名和其他个人信息将不会出现。但是，如果法律要求，我们可能会提供您的个人信息。此外，监察员、检查员和生命伦理委员会不得侵犯研究参与者个人信息的保密性。为验证本研究程序和数据的可靠性，可在相关法规规定的范围内直接查看研究结果。通过签署本同意书，您承认您已提前获悉与研究相关的所有必要信息，并将被视为已同意。

10.如果我参加这项研究，我会获得报酬吗?

参加本研究将获得 20,000 韩元的报酬。

11. 如果我对研究有任何疑问，我可以联系谁?

如果您对研究有任何疑问，或者有任何与研究相关的问题或疑虑，请联系下面的研究员。

姓名: _____陈俊杰 (Chen Junjie)_____

手机号码/邮箱地址: 个人信息已删除

如果您对作为研究参与者的权利有任何疑问，请随时联系首尔国立大学生命伦理委员会。

首尔国立大学 生命伦理委员会 (SNUIRB)
电话号码: 02-880-5153
邮箱地址: irb@snu.ac.kr

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Appendix 5. Consent Form English, Korean, and Chinese

Consent Form (for Participants)

Title of the Research: Interactional Use of a Specific Set of Expressions in English Conversation by Chinese and Korean Learners of English

Principal Investigator/Researcher: Junjie Chen (Graduate Student, Department of English Language and Literature)

1. I have read the instructions above thoroughly and discussed them with the investigator/researcher.
2. I have been made aware of the potential risks and benefits of participating in the research, and I have received satisfactory answers to all my queries.
3. I voluntarily agree to participate in the research.
4. I agree to the collection and processing of any personal information gathered during the research within the bounds of the existing legislation and regulations of the Institutional Review Board.
5. I agree for my personal information, which will be otherwise kept secured by the investigator/researcher, to be accessed by government institutions prescribed by laws and regulations and the SNU Institutional Review Board for auditing purposes.
6. I understand that I can withdraw from the participation in the research whenever I want without any risk to me.
7. After agreement to the above, I will receive the copy of the consent form, and I promise to keep the copy until the end of the research.
8. I agree to being audio- and video-recorded while participating in the research.

    agree ☐ disagree ☐

9. I agree for the audio- and video-recordings of the conversation to be used, in an anonymously and unidentifiably manner, for the investigator's/researcher's MA thesis, further research and potential educational purposes if any, in the future.

    agree ☐ disagree ☐

_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	Signature	Date (year/month/day)

_____	_____	_____
Name of Investigator (consent received)	Signature	Date (year/month/day)

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동 의 서 (연 구 참 여 자 보 관 용)

연구 과제명: 자연스럽게 발생하는 영어 대화에서 중국인과 한국인 영어학습자의 대화 수행에 관한 대화 분석 연구

연구 책임자명: 첸쭌찌에 (서울대학과 영어영문학과 어학 석사 수료생)

1. 나는 이 설명서를 읽었으며 담당 연구원과 이에 대하여 의논하였습니다.
2. 나는 위험과 이득에 관하여 들었으며 나의 질문에 만족할 만한 답변을 얻었습니다.
3. 나는 이 연구에 참여하는 것에 대하여 자발적으로 동의합니다.
4. 나는 이 연구에서 얻어진 나에 대한 정보를 현행 법률과 생명윤리위원회 규정이 허용하는 범위 내에서 연구자가 수집하고 처리하는 데 동의합니다.
5. 나는 담당 연구자나 위임 받은 대리인이 연구를 진행하거나 결과 관리를 하는 경우와 법률이 규정한 국가 기관 및 서울대학교 생명윤리위원회가 실태 조사를 하는 경우에는 비밀로 유지되는 나의 개인 신상 정보를 확인하는 것에 동의합니다.
6. 나는 언제라도 이 연구의 참여를 철회할 수 있고 이러한 결정이 나에게 어떠한 해도 되지 않을 것이라는 것을 압니다.
7. 위 내용에 동의한 후 동의서 사본을 받게 되며, 연구 종료 시까지 사본을 보관할 것을 약속합니다.
8. 나는 연구를 수행하는 중에 녹음과 녹화가 진행되는 것에 동의 합니다.

    동의함 □   동의하지 않음 □

9. 나는 수집되는 녹음과 녹화 자료가 본 연구 이외에 연구책임자의 향후 연구의와 잠재적인 교육의 목적으로 사용되는 것에 동의합니다.

    동의함 □   동의하지 않음 □

_____   _____   _____
연구참여자 성명   서명   날짜 (년/월/일)

_____   _____   _____
연구원 성명   서명   날짜 (년/월/일)
(동의 받는)

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SNUIRB

同 意 书 (研 究 参 与 者 保 管 用)

研究项目名称: 对中韩两国英语学习者在自然发生英语谈话中的对话执行进行会话分析研究

研究员: 陈俊杰 (Chen Junjie, 首尔国立大学 英语语言与文学 硕士研究生)

1. 我已仔细阅读上述说明并与研究员讨论过。
2. 我已经意识到参与研究的潜在风险和好处，并且我的所有问题都得到了满意的答复。
3. 我自愿同意参与研究。
4. 在现行法律法规和生命伦理委员允许的范围内，我同意研究员收集和处理本研究中获得的关于我的信息。
5. 在负责研究员或授权代表进行研究或管理结果时以及在法律规定的国家机构和首尔国立大学生命伦理委员会进行调查时，我同意以上相关人员和机关查看和验证已被匿名处理的个人身份信息。
6. 我了解我可以随时退出这项研究，并且我明白这个决定不会对我造成任何伤害。
7. 同意上述内容后，本人将收到同意书副本，并承诺将副本保存至研究结束。
8. 我同意在参与研究时进行音频和视频录制。

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　同意　□　　　　不同意　□

9. 我同意对话的音频和视频录制数据将以匿名和无法识别的方式被用于研究员的硕士论文以及未来的研究与教育。

　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　同意　□　　　　不同意　□

————————————　　————————　　————————————
　研究参与者姓名　　　　　　签名　　　　　　日期(年/月/日)

————————————　　————————　　————————————
　研究员姓名　　　　　　　　签名　　　　　　日期(年/月/日)
　(接收同意书的)

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Appendix 6. Questionnaire English, Korean, and Chinese

Questionnaire (for participants)

This questionnaire is administered for the purpose of understanding your linguistic background, i.e., experience and proficiency. Please respond to it according to your own situation. Again, the information you provide through this questionnaire, i.e., type of the language test taken, test score or score range, number of month(s) staying in English environment, will be used anonymously as important data for this research. Personal information, with which individual involved in this research might be identified, will be kept confidential, and all such information will be discarded after your participation in the research.

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name: [   ]   Gender: [   ]

Age: [   ]   Major: [   ]

LANGUGE PROFICIENCY

Language test (circle one): TEPS including Old and New TEPS | TOEFL | IELTS

Tested date: [   ]   Test score (optional): [   ]

(Please circle the score range in which your test score falls in.)

TEPS: [501~600] / [701~800] / [801~900]   TOEFL: [80~96] / [107~112] / [113~117]

NEW TEPS: [268~326] / [387~452] / [453~525]   IELTS: Band 6.5~7.0 / 7.5 / 8.0~8.5

NUMBER OF MONTHS IN AN ENGLISH ENVIRONMENT

English Speaking Country(ies): [   ]   Month(s): [   ]

DISCLOSURE OF THE ANALYSIS RESULTS

The researcher would like to share the results of the analysis after the completion of the thesis. Would you like to receive them?: [Yes / No]

BANK INFORMATION

Bank name: [   ]   Account holder name: [   ]

Account number: [   ]

CONTACT INFORMATION

Phone number: [   ]   Email address: [   ]

Thank you so much for your time! ^^

Best regards,
Junjie Chen

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설 문 지 (연 구 참 여 자 용)

이 설문지는 귀하의 언어적 배경, 즉 경험 및 능력을 이해하기 위해 실시됩니다. 본인의 상황에 맞게 답변 부탁드립니다. 다시 말하지만, 귀하가 이 설문지를 통해 제공하시는 정보(즉 영어언어시험 유형, 시험 점수 또는 점수 범위, 영어 환경에서 체류 기간)는 본 연구의 중요한 데이터로 익명으로 사용될 것입니다. 개인신분식별될 수 있는 정보를 기밀로 유지할 것이고 연구참여 후 이를 모두 파기할 것입니다.

개인신상정보:

이름: _____   성별: _____

나이: _____   전공: _____

언어능력:

시험 유형 (하나만 선택): TEPS | New TEPS | 토플 | 아이엘츠

응시 날짜: _____   시험 점수 (선택기재): _____

(정확한 시험 점수를 제공하지 않으시면 귀하의 시험 점수가 해당하는 점수 범위에 동그라미를 치십시오.)

TEPS: [501~600] / [701~800] / [801~900]   토플: [80~96] / [107~112] / [113~117]

NEW TEPS:[268~326] / [387~452] / [453~525]   아이엘츠: Band 6.5~7.0 / 7.5 / 8.0~8.5

영어 환경에서 체류 기간:

영어권 국가: _____   개월: _____

분석 결과 공개:

연구자는 논문이 완성된 후 분석 결과를 공유하고자 합니다.
받아 보시겠습니까?: [예. / 아니요.]

은행 정보

은행 이름: _____   예금주명: _____

계좌번호: _____

연락처

휴대폰 번호: _____   이메일 주소: _____

시간 내주셔서 다시 감사합니다! ^^

항상 건강하십시오!
첸쭌찌에 드림

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问 卷 调 查 (研 究 参 与 者 用)

本问卷旨在了解您的语言背景，即相关使用经历和语言能力水平。请根据自己的情况来回答。您在此问卷中提供的部分信息，即英语语言测试类型、测试分数或分数范围以及在英语语言环境中居住/学习的月数，将被匿名处理并用作为本研究的重要数据。可能会识别到本研究参与者的个人信息都将被保密处理。同时，此类信息将在您参与研究后被废弃。

个人信息

姓名: _____ 性别: _____

年龄: _____ 专业: _____

语言能力

语言考试类型 (选一):　TEPS including Old and New TEPS　|　托福　|　雅思

考试时间: _____ 考试分数(选填): _____

(请圈出您的考试成绩所在的分数范围。)

TEPS:　　　[501~600] / [701~800] / [801~900]　　托福:　　　[80~96] / [107~112] / [113~117]

NEW TEPS:　[268~326] / [387~452] / [453~525]　　雅思:　　　Band 6.5~7.0 / 7.5 / 8.0~8.5

在英语语言环境的时长

英语国家: _____ 月数: _____

研究结果的公布

研究人员希望在论文完成后分享分析结果。 你想收到吗？：[是的 / 不是的]

银行信息

银行名字: _____ 账户持有人姓名: _____

账号: _____

联系方式

手机号码: _____ 邮箱地址: _____

非常感谢您的参与！ ^^

祝好，
陈俊杰 （Junjie Chen）

— 1 —

Ver 1.3(2022.05.19.)

Appendix 7. Debriefing Letter ^{English, Korean, and Chinese}

IRB No.　　　　　　　　Expiration Date:

Debriefing (for research participants)

Title of the research:
A Study on the Functions of General Extenders by English Learners in Conversation: Focusing on the Conversation by Korean and Chinese Speakers

Researcher: Junjie Chen

Hello, thank you very much for participating in the study.

The purpose of this research is to study and compare how many (in terms of frequency of use) and how (with what interactional functions) general extenders are used when Chinese and Korean English learners, with different English language proficiency levels, carry out a naturally occurring conversation in English together. In addition, functionally speaking, this research also aims to examine the differences and similarities with respect to the use of general extenders between native and nonnative speakers. By their types, general extenders in English are listed below.

Three different types of general extenders

Adjunctive general extenders	Disjunctive general extenders	General extenders without and/or
and stuff	*or so*	*stuff like that*
and so on	*or anything*	*whatever*
and everything	*or whatever*	
and blah blah blah	*or something*	
and things like that	*or something like that*	
and things	*or what*	
and all that kind/type/sort of thing		

Note that these are only a few examples and thus, it is not an exhaustive list for each of their types.

Regarding how general extenders are used by Korean and Chinese learners of English during their natural conversation in English, more would be learned about thanks to you and your time. Thus, thank you again for your participation.

Your conversation will be transcribed and used in this research, focusing on the use of general extenders that occur in the conversation. Attaining naturally occurring conversational data from you was of great importance to this research. As a result of that, I did not tell you in advance that this specific set of expressions would be under investigation. The reason is to prevent you from intentionally using or not using them when having the conversation. If you do not wish the collected information that is necessary for the research (i.e., type of the language test taken, test score or score range, number of month(s) of stay in English environment) and the audio- and video-recordings of your conversation, to be used now, please do not hesitate to inform the researcher (Junjie Chen). Upon receiving the notification, the researcher will delete them immediately. Once again, thank you for your sincere participation in this study.

* If you would like to continue to participate in this research, please sign below.

_____　　_____　　_____
　　Name of Participant　　　　　Signature　　　　Date (year/month/day)

_____　　_____　　_____
　　Name of Investigator　　　　　Signature　　　　Date (year/month/day)
　　(consent received)

사 후 설 명 문 (연구참여자용)

연구과제명:
[구제적인 연구 과제명]
영어 학습자 대화에 사용된 일반확장어 기능 연구: 한국인과 중국인 화자 대화를 중심으로

연구 책임자명: 첸쭌찌에

안녕하십니까? 연구에 참여해 주셔서 대단히 감사합니다.

본 연구의 목적은 다른 영어언어능력을 가진 중국인과 한국인 영어학습자들이 함께 영어로 자연스럽게 대화할 때 일반확장어를 얼마나 사용하는지(사용 빈도)와 사용하면 어떻게 사용하고 있는지(어떤 상호작용적 기능으로) 연구하며 비교하기 위함입니다. 게다가 기능적으로 보면 화자들은 비원어민으로서 사용하는 일반확장어가 원어민의 그의 사용에 비해 비슷한 점과 다른 점이 각 무엇인지 살펴보기도 합니다. 영어에 있는 일반확장어는 아래와 같이 종류별로 나열되어 있습니다.

일반확장어의 3가지 종류

부가사인 일반확장어	이접사인 일반확장어	접속사(*and/or*)가 없는 일반확장어
and stuff	*or so*	*stuff like that*
and so on	*or anything*	*whatever*
and everything	*or whatever*	
and blah blah blah	*or something*	
and things like that	*or something like that*	
and things	*or what*	
and all that kind/type/sort of thing		

*위의 목록은 모든 제시어가 아니며 예들들어 설명하기 위한 부분 목록입니다.

여러분이 귀중한 시간을 내어주신 덕분에 비원어민 상호작용에 나타난 일반확장어의 사용에 대해서 더 많이 알 수 있게 될 것입니다. 참여에 진심으로 감사드립니다.

여러분의 대화를 전사해서 본 연구에 활용하며 대화에서 나타난 일반확장어를 중심으로 연구할 예정입니다. 여러분의 대화 데이터를 자연발생대화에서 얻는 것은 이 연구에 가장 중요한 점입니다. 그래서 사전에 여러분에게 이런 표현을 조사할 것을 알려 주지 않았습니다. 그 이유는 여러분이 대화할 때 이런 표현을 의도적으로 사용하거나 사용하지 않을 것을 방지하기 때문입니다. 본 연구에서 얻은 연구에 필요한 정보(영어언어시험 유형, 시험 점수 또는 점수 범위, 영어 환경에서의 체류 기간)와 녹취한 대화의 오디오 및 비디오를 연구에 활용하는 것을 원하지 않으신다면 언제든 연구자 (첸쭌찌에)에게 알려주십시오. 알려주시면 즉시 삭제 처리하도록 하겠습니다. 본 연구에 참여해 주셔서 다시 한번 감사드립니다.

*본 연구에 참여를 지속적으로 원하시면 아래에 서명을 해 주시기 바랍니다.

_____   _____   _____
연구참여자 성명   서명   날짜 (년/월/일)

_____   _____   _____
연구원 성명   서명   날짜 (년/월/일)
(동의 받는)

IRB No. 有效日期:

事 后 说 明 书 (研究参与者用)

研究项目名称: 对话中英语学习者所使用的一般扩展语的机能研究: 基于中国与韩国话者的对话

研究员: 陈俊杰 （Chen Junjie）

您好，非常感谢您参与此次的研究。

本研究的目的是探究和比较在进行自然发生的英语对话时具有不同英语语言水平的中韩英语学习者使用了多少一般扩展语（即其频率），以及它们是如何被说话者所使用的（即其实现的交流功能）。此外，从功能上出发，本研究还旨在调查母语和非母语者使用一般扩展语的差异和相似之处。根据其类型，下面为大家列出了一些常见的英语一般扩展语。

三种不同类型的一般扩展语

附加型一般扩展语	选择型一般扩展语	无连接词and/or的一般扩展语
and stuff	*or so*	*stuff like that*
and so on	*or anything*	*whatever*
and everything	*or whatever*	
and blah blah blah	*or something*	
and things like that	*or something like that*	
and things	*or what*	
and all that kind/type/sort of thing		

*以上这些只是部分一般扩展语的示例，所以并不是详尽列表。

因为您与您对此次研究的参与，我们将会了解并学习到更多关于韩中英语学习者在进行英语谈话时是如何使用一般扩展语的。为此，再次向您表达真诚的感谢。

您的对话将会被转录成文字并在本研究中使用。研究的侧重点将是对话中出现的一般扩展词及其使用。从您那里获得的在自然情况下发生的对话数据对这项研究来说非常重要。因此，研究员并没有事先告诉您这系列的英语表达将会被调查研究。原因是防止您在对话时有意识地使用或不使用它们。在任何时间下，如果您不希望对此研究所必需的信息(即所参加的语言考试类型、考试成绩或分数范围、在英语环境中停留的月数)以及您的对话录音和视频被用于研究中，请及时告知研究员陈俊杰。收到通知后，研究员将立即对其进行删除。 最后，再次感谢您对本次研究的真诚参与。

*如果您希望继续参与本研究，请在下方签名。

_____	_____	_____
研究参与者姓名	签名	日期(年/月/日)

_____	_____	_____
研究员姓名 (接收同意书的)	签名	日期(年/月/日)

Ver 1.1(2022.04.18.)

국문초록

영어 학습자 대화에 사용된 일반확장어 연구: 한국인과 중국인 화자 대화를 중심으로

본 연구는 한국인 영어 학습자와 중국인 영어 학습자 사이에서 행해진 5시간 가량의 대화자료를 바탕으로 영어의 일반확장어(general extenders: *(and) stuff (like that)*, *(or) something (like that)*, and *and so on* 등과 같은 표현) 사용을 분석한 것이다. 이를 위해 먼저 영어 수준이 상이한 각 집단 내 학습자들의 일반확장어 사용 빈도를 살펴보고 두 집단 간의 결과를 비교한 후 대화분석(conversation analysis)을 사용하여 두 집단이 사용하는 일반확장어의 기능을 분석하였다.

숙련도의 측면에서 살펴보면, 두 집단의 중하급(low-intermediate) 수준에 해당하는 학습자들이 일반확장어를 가장 적게 사용하는 것으로 나타났다. 한국인 학습자들은 영어 수준과 무관하게 순접(adjunctive) 일반확장어보다 역접(disjunctive) 일반확장어를 더욱 사용하는 경향이 있는 반면, 중국인 학습자들은 두 가지 형식을 비슷한 빈도로 사용했다. 대체로 학습자들은 일반확장어의 사용에서 원어민과 다른 방식을 보였는데, 일반확장어를 상당히 적게 사용하고 제한된 형식만을 사용했다. 또한 학습자가 사용하는 일반확장어에는 잘못 쓰인 것과 함께 학습자의 모국어 간섭을 받은 듯한 형식도 발견되었다. 뿐만 아니라 학습자들은 특정확장어(specific extenders)에 의지하는 경향을 보였는데 이는 영어의 일반확장어에 대한 학습자의 지식 부족을 드러낸다고 볼 수 있다. 반면, 학습자들이 사용하는 일반확장어의 기능은 제한적이지만 선행 연구에서 논의된 것과 상응하게 네 가지 대화적 기능을 가지는 것으로 나타났다. 지시적으로 (i) 카테고리

를 시사하고 (ii) 리스트를 끝내는 기능이 있으며 대인적으로 (i) 불확실함과 (ii) 엔터테인먼트를 표시하는 기능이 있다. 개인적인 기능으로는 (i) 최소한의 기대나 상대의 예상과 반대되는 것을 표시하고 (ii) 부정적인 평가를 최대화하고 (iii) 무관심을 표시하는 기능을 사용했다. 텍스트적으로는 (i) 대화의 말차례를 넘겨주고 (ii) 새로운 주제를 제안하는 기능을 가진다.

잘못 쓰인 형식과 학습자들이 의존하는 형식들이 일반확장어가 전형적인 기능으로 수행하는 것을 방해하지 않는 듯하지만 영어 의사소통에는 큰 도움이 되지 않는 것으로 보인다. 일반확장어의 형식에는 다양한 것들이 존재하지만 특정한 형식은 언어 사용의 사회적 측면과 관련하여 특정 기능만을 수행하기 때문이다. 학습자들은 사회적 및 대인적 맥락에서 효율적인 의사소통을 위해 영어를 사용할 때에 이를 인식하고 활용할 수 있어야 한다. 그러므로 학습자들은 어떤 형식의 일반확장어가 존재하고 이들이 어떤 기능을 가지는지, 그리고 서로 다른 형식들이 원어민에게서 어떻게 사용되는지를 학습해야 한다. 더불어 일반확장어의 사용은 유창성과 연결되는데 학습자로 하여금 발화를 생산하는 동시에 다음 발화에 대한 계획을 가능하게 하여 학습자의 부담을 줄여준다. 이는 일반확장어라는 화용적 표현의 학습과 교수가 EFL 교육 및 교육과정을 계획하는 데 반영되어야 할 필요성을 나타낸다고 볼 수 있다.

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