Introduction

An authentic example is recorded from a telephone conversation of two native speakers of English. It is possible to analyse the particular conversation in a pragmatic perspective. Pragmatics is based on the analysis of the relationships between language and context. In addition, pragmatics is interested in the meaning of sentences. There are a number of theories and principles for pragmatics analysis. The speech act theory is the most common way to get into the meaning of the sentences. A sentence or a unit of sentences could have more than one or two extreme speech acts associated with the context. Speech act theory offers the view to recognize such sentence(s). Gricean pragmatics are based on two main concepts of language in use. It offers the views on speaker meaning and the cooperative principle. However, the speaker meaning, obviously, is interested in what the speaker mean by what he says. The cooperative principle has four specific maxims, which can recognize the sentences obey or flout the cooperative principle. Grice (1957) also claimed that in some cases, the communication is valid even though a maxim is violated. Moreover, cross-cultural pragmatics may play an important role in communication because communication is built up by utterances, which are made up through background knowledge and cultural conceptualization. Cross-cultural pragmatics is sufficient in communication so that it shall be more useful to introduce the cultural diversity in oral English teaching especially for the particular group of telephone customer service officers who may face the cultural diversity through telephone frequently.

Background theory

Speech Act Theory

Speech act theory is seen as a form of acting. The relationships between forms and functions have had a great influence on speech act theory. Austin (1962) and Searle

(1969) claimed that people do things by words in some circumstances. Put another way, certain actions have been done while the addresser produces the utterances of the actions during speech. Initially, Austin gave a general definition of declarative sentences: the performative sentence is identifiable if it uses first person, present tense, and it can isolate the performative verb by the adverb "hereby" (Austin 1962; Schiffrin 1994). Somehow it does not make sense to know that the speaker is telling a truth or lying by performing such sentences. It makes sense only when the performatives fulfil Austin's typology of conditions-felicity conditions (Austin 1962):

- A (I) There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect
- (\coprod) The circumstance and persons must be appropriate, as specified in the procedure
- B. The procedure must be executed correctly and completely
- C. Often, the persons must have the requisite thoughts, feelings and intentions, as specified in the procedure, and if consequent conduct is specified then the relevant parties must so do.

Therefore, a performative sentence could be felicitous or infelicitous but it is hard to tell whether it is true or not.

Later on, Austin further explands his points of view further on performative verbs. A performative sentence containing a performative verb is called explicit performative. On the other hand, it is called implicit performatives when it does not contain the performative verbs in sentences. In addition, Austin isolated three basic

kinds of acts, which have been performed simultaneously when they have been done by words (Schiffrin 1994):

(I) locutionary acts:

The utterance of a sentence with determinate sense and reference

The making of a statement, offer, promise, etc. in uttering a sentence, by virtue of the conventional force associated with it (or with its explicit performative paraphrase)

(Ⅲ) perlocutionary acts:

The bringing about of effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentences, such effects being special to the circumstances of utterance

In one word, illocutionary acts could be performed by performatives while perlocutionary acts could not be performed by naming the act (Schiffrin 1994). Generally speaking, speech acts refer to illocutionary acts and it is possible to say that an explicit performative is often a direct speech act because the performative verb names the act (Paltridge 2000), while an implicit performative could be a direct speech act in a literal way. Gazdar's LFH (Literal Force Hypothesis) offers a view of direct and indirect speech acts: explicit performatives, and the three major sentence-types in English (imperatives, interrogative, and declaratives) "have the forces associated with them, are direct speech acts; any other usages are indirect speech acts" (Gazdar 1979). Levinson argued that indirect speech acts "often

have syntactic reflexes associated not only with their surface sentence-type but also with their indirect or effective illocutionary force" (Levinson 1983). Indirect speech acts could be performed by single utterances or separate utterances. Searle (1969) argued that there are just five basic kinds of action performed in speaking: representatives (e.g., asserting, concluding), directives (e.g., requesting, questioning), commissives (e.g., promising, threatening, offering), expressives (e.g., apologizing, welcoming, thanking), and declarations (e.g., christing, excommunicating). However, it is hard to say that one independent sentence has only one speech act in various contexts. To define a certain action in a certain sentence depends on the context related to the current circumstances.

Gricean pragmatics

Gricean pragmatics is not only one type of pragmatics that covers not much the same ground of discourse analysis but also the centre of pragmatics research while pragmatics is the study of the relation of signs to the users. The two main concepts of Gricean pragmatics are elaborated here: speaker meaning(I), the cooperative principle (II).

(I) Speaker meaning is to see the distinction between semantic (natural) and pragmatic (non-natural) meaning as well as the intentions. Grice (1957) separated non-natural meaning from nature meaning according to the perspective that non-natural meaning (pragmatic meaning) inserts in the natural meaning conventionally. However, the intentions offer the precise understanding to encode the speaker meaning, which hides beneath the utterances. Put another way, the intentions reveal the speaker meaning and furthermore the communication has occurred. Strawson (1964) suggested three intentions under the circumstance:

1) S's utterance of x to produce a certain response r in a certain

audience A;

- 2) A to recognize S's intention (1);
- 3) A's recognition of S's intention (1) to function as at least part of A's reason for A's response r.

The three intentions could be viewed as a cycle that the intention of the speaker produces an expectable effect by a certain utterance to affect the hearer to produce a particular response to the intention of the speaker. The three intentions are related to one another and it is only when the three intentions are realized that communication has occurred (Schiffrin 1994).

(II) The cooperative principle (CP) is the principle of communication. An utterance has its logical meaning which is conducted by words. However, it also has its conversational meaning, including logical meaning, to interpret itself. The interpretation of the utterance is much broader than logical meaning because of the cooperative principle so that the purpose or the direction of the talk arises. Grice (1957) proposed four more specific maxims to the cooperative principle: quantity, quality, relation, and manner.

Quantity:

- 1 Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange).
- 2 Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

Quality:

Try to make your contribution one that is true.

- 1 Do not say what you believe to be false.
- 2 Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

Relation:

Be relevant.

Manner:

Be perspicuous.

- 1 Avoid obscurity of expression.
- 2 Avoid ambiguity.
- 3 Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
- 4 Be orderly.

A particular conversational implicature is present when the interlocutors are assumed to know the CP and its maxims, the context, the background knowledge, and the supposed fact where the implicatures could be produced when a maxim is either obeyed straightforward or flouted. If a maxim is flouted, it could be flouted by another maxim or it is because of a conflict between maxims. In other words, a communication relied on the assumption of CP and its maxims and other data which make the speaker meaning arise so that people convey information but not just provide the semantic meaning by their words.

Cross-Cultural Pragmatics

Culture and communication are interactively linked. Culture could influence the communicative behaviours and affect the socialization of the individual through communication directly or indirectly as the individual learner acquires the certain language and utilizes the language in communication. Since each language has its

own features, it is understandable to consider the similarities and differences between languages, especially for EFL teachers. Many Chinese teachers of English sensed a major obstacle in language teaching and a lack of confidence because they do not possess enough knowledge of the culture of English-speaking countries (Burnaby and Sun. 1989; Campbell and Y 1993). Such matter has been recently brought up in non-English-speaking countries and a way commonly suggested to deliver good language sense is to depend on well-trained language teachers and insert real-world events in a language classroom. In a way pertinent to theories of speech acts is to immerse individual language learners in the actual language use. Sherzer (1974) claimed that one of the two major ways that deal with the details of actual language use is the ethnography of speaking. Sherzer revealed that ethnography of speaking has been discussed in cross-cultural studies of language use, where the central notion is the speech event (or language-games), while Breez (1972) seemed to agree on practicing cultural speech events (e.g. participating in a church service) in a language classroom. It is suggested that utilizing the cultural features of the language (e.g., the ways of requesting in different cultural background countries) into language teaching or classroom practice by authentic examples is useful.

One of the ways to integrate the suggestion into classroom practice is to use the functional-notional approach. Regarding of the variety of speaking performances, Brown (2001) suggested to "encourage the use of authentic language in meaningful contexts" in teaching oral English. In addition, some researchers mentioned that the functional-notional approach stresses conceptual meanings (e.g. time, space) and communicative purposes (e.g. requests) (Rodgers 1989; Richards 1990; Jordan 1997). Based on the understanding of speech acts, it is also strongly suggested to drill language learners' speaking skills according to the pragmatic use of the target language, especially for a specific purpose such as making an emergency phone call.

Speech Act Assumptions

Context for "utterance" based approaches

Take (46) and (62) as examples. Firstly, (46) is an example of felicitous explicit direct suggesting. The sentence fulfils Austin's felicity conditions: the effect is conventional by conventional procedure; the speaker is appropriate to say such sentences where the phone call made and the circumstance allows her to do the action of suggestion; what the speaker suggests to the hearer is appropriate and correct because the uncertain situation might be fatal so that the caller has to calm down and follow what the professional nurse suggests on the phone, thereby the procedure is executed correctly and completely; due to the reasons the speaker has explained before making the suggestion, it is clear that the speaker has the requisite thoughts, feelings, and intentions to do the suggestion. Thus, Austin's felicity condition is required. It is an explicit performative as well as direct suggesting because the performative verb "suggest" is the force of the sentence and the speaker named it in the sentence.

Secondly, "I want you to do this" in (62) is a felicitous performative due to the appropriate speaker giving appropriate requesting in conventional procedure to have a conventional effect by the sentence. Thus it fulfils the felicitous conditions. It is an implicit performative because it does not contain a performative verb. However, it is a direct speech act according to Levinson and Gazdar's points of view mentioned above (Gazdar 1979; Levinson 1983) but it is identified as an indirect requesting according to Searle's examples (see (Searle 1975)).

Additionally, (97) is a good example to illustrate multi-types of speech acts. (97), it is a question type as well as a request type of speech act. It is the provision of information that is the future act of hearer. In addition, it is also an offer of speech act. Schiffrin (1994) claimed that to question and to request for the information is the underlying concept before providing an offer. Therefore, it can be said that (97)

is a multifunctional speech act in this context.

Context for "utterances" based approaches

The utterances between (28) and (37) could be viewed as one type of speech act because the intention of the speaker could be a question according to (37). Similarly, (92) could be viewed as a statement type of speech act. Schiffrin (1994) argued that context is as situation and knowledge in terms of speech act theory. Put another way, a relevance context, which is composed of more than one utterance, could perform a single type of speech act.

Pragmatic process

Speaker meaning

Firstly, take (89) and (90) as an example to analyse speaker meaning. The speaker T tends to confirm if the tube is working well after she and the hearer P cooperate for a while, so she utters a question to show her intention and it produces a response by answering the certain question by the hearer. It meets the first intention of Strawson's ideas. The hearer P receives the question and she recognizes that the speaker T wants to know whether or not the tube is working well so she provides the information that the speaker T expects. It meets the second intention of Strawson's ideas. The reason why the hearer provides the information that the speaker T wants is because she recognizes the intention of the speaker T. It meets the third intention of Strawson's ideas. Therefore, the speaker meaning is present in this context. Contrast to the case, there are also some contexts where the speaker meanings are not present because the three intentions are not realized completely. Secondly, take (72) and (73)(74) as an example. The speaker T asks a question to confirm if the tube is staying in the stomach safely and the hearer P gives a certain response to the question. The first intention is required. The hearer P recognizes that the speaker T's intention is to know if the tube is staying in the stomach safely. The second intention is required. Although the hearer P knows the intention of the speaker T, she doesn't function it as the certain response. Instead, the certain response the hearer P provides is to comfort the speaker T's anxiety, which is not the intention of the speaker T. The third intention is not required. Thus the speaker's meaning is not appealed in this context.

The Cooperative principle

There are some examples from the particular text to illustrate how the cooperative principle is obeyed or flouted. First, take (14) and (15) as an example. (15) provides the information exactly-quantity; the information provider of (15) has evidence to believe herself that (15) is true-quality; the name "John Robert" refers to the word "he" in (14)-relation; the information of (14) is brief-manner. Obviously, the four maxims are obeyed in the context and the implicature is created simultaneously. Thus, the cooperative principle can be obeyed straightforward. Secondly, take (72) and (73)(74) as another example. Either (73) or (74) does not give the information (72) requested, hence the Quantity maxim is flouted; the Quality maxim is obeyed because the speaker P does not say anything without evidence. Apparently, Quantity maxim is violated because of the conflict with Quality maxim. In cases where "the speaker can not honour one maxim without ignoring the requirements of another, the hearer may be misled into thinking that the speaker is being cooperative in every way (Green 1989). Thirdly, (27) and (28) to(37) is a typical example to explain how a maxim can be flouted. The speaker T provides too much information, which is not relevant to (27), as is from (29) to (37). It is because what the speaker P wants is to know the situation of the patient, Mr. Robert. The speaker T seems to provide sufficient information to the speaker P but the information is not only about the patient, and the hospital but also about some other irrelevant events. Making the contribution more informative than required flouts the Quality maxim.

Classroom Practice

The Functional-Notional Approach

Syllabus design is more like a decision making process. If the course designer seriously carries out needs analysis, it is possible for the learners to achieve the goals set by the course designer in a specific way. Instead of a formal syllabus, the functional-notional syllabus is more appropriate for a category-based course since the speech events could be frequently practiced in a language classroom with a variety of sociolinguistic functions from everyday life. The functional syllabus helps learners perform main types of language purposes and achieve the knowledge of speech acts with a range of language functions (Breen 1987). Breen also claimed that a functional syllabus includes a functional-notional syllabus in terms of its wide range of covering selected notions, topics, or social events. Task-based syllabus and process syllabus are not suggested in communication performance due to the different knowledge focuses. A task-based syllabus tends to focus on the system of linguistic forms and interpersonal conventions, while a process syllabus tend to be too narrow at times to identify immediate and long terms needs of the particular population (Breen 2001). A situational syllabus and topic syllabus which list the situations or contexts are appropriate for special studies such as ESP (English for Specific Purposes) courses. Thus, the functional-notional approach is recommended for the knowledge of speech acts development.

Making Requests-Close the Window

Selecting one or more than one function in a course, depending on the course duration, is feasible for the purpose of such program. The course planner, for example, could introduce request type of speech act and insert as many as authentic examples as possible in a two-hour long class. Specifically, the teacher could have the learners brainstorm the ways of requesting at the beginning of the course. Then the learners could be encouraged to offer their ideas from situations within their

own experiences in class. Meanwhile the teacher could use tapes or transcripts to compare the ways of requesting (e.g., "Can you...", "I want you to...") between an English-speaking country and the learner's own country in a pragmatic way. For example, the teacher could have students brainstorm the ways of performing the action of "close the window". And then the teacher could compile a long list of ways to express that request to students:

- a. I want you to close the window.
- b. Please close the window.
- c. Can you close the window.
- d. Would you close the window?
- e. Are you able to close the window?
- f. May I ask you to close the window?
- g. I'd be obliged if you'd close the window.
- h. Do you mind closing the window?
- i. Would you mind closing the window?
- j. Won't you close the window?
- k. Did you forget to close the window?
- 1. What do people do when they feel windy inside?

At the time the teacher writes the long list to the students, the students are allowed to give feedback from the brainstorming activity. When the students are familiar with the requesting performance, the teacher could substitute anther performative verb and observe students' functional language development. Moreover, the teacher could have the students provide self-experiences to the same request type of speech act in their own language. In addition, the teacher could try to pinpoint the different

usages between these two different languages if the teacher is the native speaker of their own language.

In the next hour, the teacher could appoint a particular situation related to requesting to each pair of learners and have them create real-world events. Thus, the participants would not only practice how to make a request to meet their needs but also know how to reply to a request appropriately. In the meantime, the fluency and accuracy of language is as important as the language functions learning. It's because language as a means for getting things done is given priority over linguistic knowledge in and of itself in order to achieve things in an interpersonal or social way (Breen 1987). In the following, the teacher could bring in one or more authentic material like a real conversation recorded between a boss and a secretary in which the boss requests the secretary to prepare adequate copies of the agenda for the afternoon meeting. However, it is not possible to say that there is a unique expression to make the same type of request regarding the relationships between people involved in the situation.

Finally, the teacher could have learners do a role-play activity in class based on the authentic materials inserted into the class and discuss the suitability of each situation with the class.

Making Requests-the usage of the auxiliary "Can"

Select one or more notions organized around conceptual categories, such as duration, quantity, and location. The instructor could divide students into small groups (groups of three or four). Then have each group brainstorm the possible conversations in a fast food restaurant and share their answers with each other. Afterwards, point out the sentences starting with the word "Can" (possible answer: Can I help you?) if there is one. If there are no sentences starting with the word "Can I", then the instructor makes one and writes it down for the students. Here, the utterance is an offer of service, not a question about ability.

The instructor could ask students from each group to make more sentences starting from the auxiliary "Can" to use in different situations but they refer to something other than ability or permission (possible answers: Can I have a cup of coffee? (making a request to a steward), Can you take out the garbage?(making a request to the son), Can you tell me where the post office is?(making a request to a police officer). In the meanwhile, the instructor should walk around the classroom and encourage students to create more suitable sentences starting from the word "Can" and lead them to the proper situations when they bring up these sentences.

After group discussion time, on a white board the instructor could make a list of the sentences which are highly discussed by students. Next to the list, the instructor could write down a related response to each request. In doing so, students could learn how to give a proper response to each request when they have learned how to make requests in different situations. Additionally, have students do a role-play activity for each request sentence in order to experience the situations and use the sentences in real contexts. Alternatively, the instructor could set up a real life communication environment, such as a skype webcam talk with a foreigner if possible. This would be more active for students to learn English.

Last but not least, it is not impossible to use other approaches, such as a task-based approach, in such classrooms, but a functional-notional approach is more suitable for the particular group in terms of the communicative purposes (Feez 1998).

Conclusion

In sumary, a speech act could be performed by various grammatical structures but they all refer to the same action or a unit of utterance(s) to represent different types of speech acts. To understand speech acts is the way to know what people mean by what they say. Sometimes it is more about cross-cultural understandings and/or social interactions rather than linguistic knowledge of language that causes people to mistake the initial intention of speakers or respond inappropriately. Collecting as

many various authentic examples as possible in classroom practice is strongly suggested for oral English teaching. The rules of language use proposed by researchers, somehow, rely on the observations of authentic examples. By being aware of the features within the relevant authentic examples, the misunderstandings made by language users could be reduced and communication relationships could be built up effectively.

Further Suggestions

Technology equipment has had a great influence on people's lives, especially in the 21st century, since the first calculator was invented by the French mathematician, Blaise Pascal, around 1964. To make the classroom practice more efficient, the teacher could provide intrinsically motivating techniques and encourage the use of authentic language in meaningful contexts. The young generation, for example, frequently use interactive techniques such as MSN messenger and the webcam function to communicate with each other. Under this circumstance, it is possible to suggest that the teacher could arrange a native speaker located in an English-speaking country to have a face-to-face talk to the class through the webcam on MSN messenger. In doing so, it is easier to draw the class's attention to the natural link between the learners and the native speaker. The main purpose of doing so is to stimulate the learners intrinsic motivation in order to develop their self-study abilities in English language learning regarding the research "that one type of extrinsic reward can indeed have an effect on intrinsic motivation" (Brown 2001:77).

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Appendix: Transcription

P refers to the nurse who was serving in nurse station of hospital

T refers to the hysterical caller, Madam Tan (The care giver of Robert, who was recently stroked up. Madam was taught and reinforced how to perform tube feeding before Robert was discharged)

P: Good afternoon, Staff Nurse PC speaking. (1) How can I help you? (2) T:(3) Hello? (4) Are you a nurse? Can you help me? (crying) (5) P: (6) Ok. (7) Who's calling? (8) Tell me what's the problem and I will see how I can help, okay? ((pause)) (9) But first of all, you have to calm down and stop crying. (10)If not, I can't understand exactly what you are saying, [okay? T:(11)ſOk. P: (12)Good. T:(13)Do you remember Mr Robert? = P: (14)Can you give me his full name? T: John Robert. (15)(16)=He was discharged from your ward...[few days ago. P: [Yes, I remember him. (17)T: (18)He was in room 5. I am his wife. P: (19)I know Mr. Robert. (20)You are Madam Tan. T:Right. My husband, [he /?/=(21)P: (22)[What's wrong with Mr. Robert? How is he? T: =I was trying to feed him the Ensure¹, but the milk cou:ldn't go in. (23)(24)It seems to be some troubles with the tube. The tube seems blocked. (trembling voice) (25)(26)How...how...how could it happen like that? (crying) P: Easy ma'am. Tell me [what-(27)T:(28)[Last night the feeding was extremely slow, but I thought that maybe his stomach was bloated with air,

	(20)	that's why the milk was going in slowly.
(20)	(29)	But just now, the milk couldn't go in at all!
<u>(</u> 30)		7 could it happen? Then I called the Numer Foundation? for help before this call, but
	(31)	Then I called the Nurse Foundation ² for help before this call, but no one answered the call.
	(32)	I think the office was closed.
	(33)	What should I do now?
	(34)	Please tell me how should I do.
	(35)	He can::not go without milk for long.
	(36)	He is so thin and so weak now.
	(37)	Shall I send him to emergency department to insert another tube
		for him? =
P:	(38)	[Ma'am=
T:	(39)	[=I am so scared.
	(40)	Please help him out, PC. (weak voice)
P:	(41)	=Ok, ma'am, listen to me first. =
T:	(42)	Hmm
P:	(43)	=It is not wise to send Robert to emergency department because he
		is not an emergency case at all.
	(44)	What you will get is long-term waiting at the noisy, crowded department.
	(45)	It's wasting your time and the social resource.
	(46)	It's also too tiring for you and the patience.
	(47)	Let's see what we can do here, okay?
T:	(48)	Okay okay, I will listen to you.
P:	(49)	First of all, can you check the tube [for me?=
T:	(50)	[Yep-
P:	(51)	= go check and make sure if the tube is still in the stomach*.
	(52)	I will be waiting here for you.
	(53)	You must calm yourself down before you do this or you can't
		judge properly.
T:	(54)	Hmm
	(Backgrou	und sound started being noisy; she was dropping things.)
	((pause))	
T:	(55)	Hello? PC? [I] can hear something but not very loud.=
P:	(56)	[Yes?]
T:	(57)	=I tried many times and the air I pumped could go in about half.
P :	(58)	This may indicate that the tube is partially but at least not totally
		- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

	blocked.				
	(59)	Well, that's good news!			
T:	(60)	Hmmm sounds good!			
	(61)	Then what's the next step?			
P :	(62)	Ok, now I want you to do this.			
	((pause))				
	(63)	You slow::ly withdraw the tube from the nose, about 5cm out.			
	(64)	Remember, do it slow:::ly, very slow:::ly, don't withdraw too			
		much, [okay? =			
T:	(65)	[Hmm, I know how to=			
P :	(66)	=Mr. Robert may feel some ticklish sensation, but just tell him			
		everything is fine.			
T:	(67)	=withdraw. Hmm,sl:owly.			
P :	(68)	I will be waiting here, ma'am.			
T:	(69)	Hmm.			
(Bac	ekground sou	and: she kept talking to Robert and wanted him to be relaxed while			
she	was doing wl	hat the nurse said.)			
((pause))					
T:	(70)	Hello? PC?			
	(71)	I took out 5cm of the tube already.			
	(72)	Will the tube still be staying in the stomach if 5cm withdrawn?			
		(anxious voice)			
P :	(73)	Ok, you are doing well.			
	(74)	Don't worry about that tube.			
	(75)	Let's repeat the step, go and pump in the air again like what you			
		have been taught in hospital.			
	(76)	I will be waiting here for you, ma'am.			
T:	(77)	Ok, hold on please.			
(Background sound: She dropped things again and it sounds like a metal tray)					
((pause))					
T:	(78)	Hello? PC, I can hear the bubbling!!! (excited voice)			
	(79)	The sound was very loud this time and the air I pumped went			

		in all!
P :	(80)	Well done, ma'am!
	(81)	Everything should be fine, okay?
T:	(82)	Okay.
P:	(83)	This time, I want you to fill the 20cc syringe with Ensure, and
		see if it flows smoothly like before.
	(84)	I will be waiting here.
T:	(85)	Okay okay. Hold on.
((pai	ise))	
T:	(86)	It worked! (excited voice)
	(87)	The milk went in smoothly!!!
P:	(88)	Excellent!!!!
T:	(89)	Does that mean the tube is working well now?
P:	(90)	The tube seems to be back again.
T:	(91)	Great!
((pau	ise))	
P:	(92)	Ok, this time round, you have to secure the tube firmly to the nose with the plaster.
		The tube could have been moved while you were sponging or turning him.
		Feed the milk slow:ly and according to the next scheduled time.
		Do NOT feed him more ju:st because he missed his pervious
		feed.
		His stomach will not be able to take it, okay?
T:	(93)	Yep. I will be very careful from now on.
P :	(94)	Anything else I can do for you?
T:	(95)	No.
P:	(96)	If you have any more problems or further enquiries, you can
	` /	call back to the ward and look for me.
	(97)	I am PC [and=
T:	(98)	[Thank you so much PC.=

P: (99) =I will be around till 9.30pm today, okay?

T: (100) = You helped a lot.

(101) I appreciate.

P: (102) My pleasure, ma'am.

(103) Bye bye.

T: (104) Bye

1Ensure milk is nutritious milk with multi-vitamin and various minerals, for tube feeding patients.

2Nurse foundation are group of nurses who work in the community, they are office hours

*One of the ways to confirm the placing of the tube is by putting the statoscope on patient's stomach, then connect a 20cc syringe to the front part of the nasal tube (which should be hanging 20cm from the nostril), and give a fast pump of air into the stomach. If the tube is confirmed resting in the stomach, then you should hear a clear bubbling sound from the statoscope (which indicates safe for feeding).

Transcription conventions

From Schiffrin (1987a)

underlying indicates the emphasis of words or phrases
right-hand bracket indicates the starting point of speech overlap
left-hand bracket indicates the ending point of speech overlap
When lack of space prevents continuous speech from A on a single line of text,
then "=" at the end of A1 and at the beginning of A2 indicate the continuity.

When speech from B occurs during a brief silence from A, then B's speech is under

A's silence.

From Tannen (1989a)

.. three dots in transcripts indicate pause of 1/2 second or more

CAPS capital letters indicate emphatic stress

: colon indicates the extension of the sound or syllables

:: extra colon indicates the longer elongation

- hyphen indicates self-interruption

/?/ indicates inaudible utterance

((pause)) indicates the conversation is paused by interlocutors

References

Schiffrin, D. (1987a). <u>Discourse Markers</u>. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Tannen, D. (1989a). <u>Talking voices: Repetition, dialogue, and imagery in conversational discourse</u>. Cambridge, Cambridge University Presss.