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Modern English Education, Vol. 13, No. 4, Winter 2012

An Analysis of Interlocutors' Role Relationships in Textbook Dialogs*
Woo-hyun Jung Yeungnam University Jung, Woo-hyun. (2012). An analysis of interlocutors' role relationships in textbook dialogs. Modern English Education, 13(4), 1-24. This study aimed to analyze textbook dialogs focusing on the distribution of the interlocutors' role relationships and pragmatic inappropriateness with respect to interlocutors' social power, social distance and gender. A total of 15 middle school English textbooks were analyzed. Results showed that with respect to social power, there was over-presentation of the dialogs between interlocutors of equal status, with little attention to the dialogs between persons of unequal status. A similar trend was evident with respect to social distance since there was heavy reliance on the dialogs between interlocutors whose familiarity was neutral, with the minimal presentation of the dialogs between intimates and between strangers. With respect to the gender variable, a majority of textbook dialogs did not include information about interlocutors' gender. A qualitative analysis yielded various facets of pragmatic inappropriateness. With respect to social power, a speaker's choice of language was found to be inappropriate sometimes to a younger person, sometimes to an equal and sometimes to an older person. Various aspects of pragmatic inappropriateness were also manifested with respect to social distance, showing mismatch between the familiarity between interlocutors and their choice of language. However, there was only one aspect of pragmatic inappropriateness with respect to gender. On the basis of these results, pedagogical implications are discussed, together with helpful suggestions. [textbook analysis/pragmatic inappropriateness/interlocutors' roles/

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I. INTRODUCTION The importance of social factors has been underscored in pragmatic or sociolinguistic approaches to second language acquisition research. For example, recently Tarone (2007) emphasized the impact of social context on speech behaviors, pointing out that social contexts affect linguistic use, choice, and development. According to Tarone, social contexts refer to such social variables as interlocutor, topic, task, etc. Among them, the "interlocutor" is one of the most influential factors in the sense that linguistic use is largely contingent upon whom a speaker is talking to. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990) took a similar position, saying that "The ability to use utterances that are appropriate both for a given speech event and for the participants in that event is an important part of a speaker's pragmatic competence" (p. 468). Indeed, interlocutors' role relationships have taken an important place in the research of cross-cultural or L2 pragmatics, since Brown and Levinson (1987) put forward the politeness theory. According to this theory, the choice of linguistic behavior varies, depending on social power (social status) and social distance (familiarity) between interlocutors. In other words, the choice of pragmatic strategies is largely dependent upon whether the speaker is performing a speech act to a person of higher, equal, or lower status, or to a person the speaker is familiar with or not. Although Brown and Levinson (1987) did not state explicitly, the interlocutors' gender is another factor influencing speech production: whether a speaker is talking to the same or opposite sex (S. Min, 1999). There has been substantial evidence to lend support to the claim that a speaker's language choice is influenced by three kinds of interlocutor variables in cross-cultural or L2 pragmatics: social power (Beebe, Takahashi & Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Olshtain, 1989), social distance (Boxer, 1993; Wolfson, 1988), and gender (Herbert, 1990; Holmes, 1995). While these previous studies focused on the analysis of interlocutors' role relationships in learners' speech behaviors, few studies have explored this issue in textbook dialogs, despite the fact that model dialogs in the textbooks serve as a good basis for grammatically correct and pragmatically appropriate language input learners receive (Richards, 2001). In this line of research, Boxer and Pickering (1995) found from the analysis of ESL textbooks that one of the problems in the presentation of speech acts in ELT materials was that there is neither indication of what the relationship is between interlocutors nor information given on the context of the exchange. Their study, however, was limited to the speech act of complaints in ESL materials. Therefore, this study investigates how interlocutors' role relationships are presented and whether they are presented appropriately in model dialogs in middle school English textbooks widely used in Korean EFL settings. It provides quantitative and qualitative analyses with two specific goals: (a) Quantitative analysis focuses on delving into the frequency distribution of interlocutors' roles in the textbook dialogs with respect to social power, social distance and gender; (b) Qualitative analysis deals with pragmatic inappropriateness with respect to the three social variables mentioned above. Pragmatic inappropriateness refers to the case where interlocutors' choice of language patterns fails to match their social roles in the textbook dialogs. It is of importance to note that, while there are many varieties of English, the present analysis is based on American English.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW In the following, literature is reviewed according to social power, social distance and gender, since they are the main focus of the

study. 1. Social Power Social power has been one of the most influential variables in determining a speaker's linguistic choice. There has been substantial evidence for it from the research of various speech acts. For example, Olshtain (1989) explored the similarities and differences in the realization patterns of apologies cross-linguistically. His findings indicated a significant negative correlation between social status and level of internal intensification. In other words, the lower the status of the apologizer in comparison to the apologizee, the more intensification he/she chose to use. Other evidence was provided by Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz's (1990) study, which examined refusal strategies made by English native speakers and Japanese ESL learners in terms of the order, frequency, and content of semantic formulas. Among many interesting findings, they showed that social status influenced the choice of refusal strategies in the three dimensions. For example, Japanese ESL learners differed from American English speakers in their refusals to requests in terms of the order of semantic formulas: They made an excuse second, not third, with status unequals, whereas they made their apology/regret first, not second, when they were lower status than the requester. As for the refusals to invitations, Japanese subjects reacted differently to higher status versus lower status position. Americans, on the other hand, ordered formulas in virtually the same way with status unequals of both types, but they changed their order of semantic formulas when refusing an equal status friend. The effect of social status on linguistic choice was also evident in the speech act of disagreement. In the analysis of American and Japanese performance on disagreement in English with respect to social status, Beebe and Takahashi (1989) showed many interesting differences between the two groups. For instance, Japanese learners of English criticized the lower status person's plan more than Americans did, and that Americans made a suggestion much more frequently than Japanese ESL learners did. In the lower to higher status interactions, Americans used more positive remarks, more softeners, and fewer explicit criticisms to a higher status interlocutor than Japanese ESL learners did. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990) discussed the notion of status in institutional discourse and identified congruence as a factor in determining the success of native and nonnative interactions in that context. They showed that, while both native and nonnative speakers show variable success in negotiating noncongruent speech acts, nonnative speakers are generally less successful. They attributed the nonnative speakers' lack of success to lack of context-specific pragmatic competence involving the use, kind, and number of status-preserving strategies as well as the content and form appropriate for noncongruent speech acts. On the other hand, the importance of interlocutors' social status in their choice of language was also evidenced in the Korean ESL context. Bell (1998) examined the production of three speech acts (disagreement, requests, and suggestions) by Korean ESL students, and showed that status, in particular age as a component of status, is an important factor in influencing the students' choices regarding the perceived level of appropriate politeness to use. The learners demonstrated increased use of politeness strategies when addressing a person they perceived to be of higher status. In the Korean EFL context, E.-H. Jung and S.-H. Hur (2005a) explored the similarities and differences in the realization patterns of request acts between Korean EFL learners and native English speakers, relative to social status. They revealed that, although the two groups showed similarities, the learners sometimes exhibited a lack of understanding of sociocultural norms with respect to social status. According to them, the learners, as compared with native English speakers, overwhelmingly preferred to use imperatives when

speaking to a lower-status person, which is indicative of an L1 transfer effect. In another study, E.-H. Jung (2003) also showed that, in presenting the speech act of apology, ESL/EFL textbooks are lacking in the consideration of situational factors including the relative status of the interlocutors as well as the social distance of the interlocutors.

2. Social Distance The variable of social distance has been often accounted for in terms of Bulge theory (Wolfson, 1988). In this theory, Wolfson viewed social distance as a continuum in which strangers are at the one extreme (least familiar) and intimates at the other end (most familiar), with friends and acquaintances nearer to the middle. The main idea of this theory is that the two extremes of social distance (intimates and strangers) seem to call forth very similar behavior, while relationships which are more toward the center (acquaintances) show marked differences (Wolfson, 1988). This theory has been evidenced by Wolfson's studies. For example, Wolfson (1988) showed that, although compliments occurred in interactions between intimates and between strangers, the great majority occurred in interactions between speakers who are neither (e.g., acquaintances). This finding is in line with the Bulge theory that the minimum and maximum degrees of social distance share similar patterns, contrary to the middle section of social distance (Wolfson, 1988). However, Boxer (1993) challenged the validity of Bulge theory. In the discussion of complaints with respect to the effect of social distance on its distribution, she provided counter-evidence to the Bulge theory, arguing that there are more commonalities between the speech behavior of acquaintances and strangers than between intimates and strangers. In another study, Boxer (1996) illustrated the benefits of the ethnographic interview in uncovering both tacit and explicit knowledge on community norms regarding speech behavior of indirect complaints. The analysis of the spontaneous speech data also yielded some important findings with respect to social distance: With strangers, agreement or commiseration was the preferred response, but the incidence of contradiction responses was more frequent to intimates than to strangers. His findings suggest that a speaker behaves differently, depending upon whether he/she talks to a stranger or an intimate. On the other hand, in the Korean EFL setting, E.-H. Jung and S.-H. Hur (2005b) explored the request speech act performances of Korean EFL learners and those of native English speakers with respect to social distance. They revealed that, while the social distance variable affected the request strategies adopted by the native English speakers, it did not affect the use of request strategies by the Korean EFL learners. In contrast to the request behaviors of the latter group, the former group showed a clear strategy difference depending on the familiarity relationship between the interlocutors. On the basis of their findings, E.-H. Jung and S.-H. Hur (2005b) argued that the native English speakers were more sensitive to the social distance variable than the Korean EFL learners in performing request speech acts. To the latter group, social status seems to be a more influential variable than social distance since it was reported in E.-H. Jung and S.-H. Hur's another study (2005a) that social status or age affected the learners' choice of request strategies in the Korean EFL context.

3. Gender A bulk of studies have documented gender influences on speech behavior either in English pragmatics or cross-cultural pragmatics. In an investigation of gender differences in the distribution of apologies in New Zealand English, Holmes (1989) yielded many interesting findings ranging from the finding that women used significantly more apologies than men to the finding that, though the most frequent response for both sexes was to accept apologies, men rejected apologies more than women did and women accepted them more than men

did. Later, Holmes (1995) explored gender differences in another speech act, compliment speech behavior, in New Zealand English and found that women gave and received significantly more compliments than men did. In addition, this speech behavior was found to reveal different functions between men and women, since a compliment was perceived by men as a face-threatening act but by women as positively affective speech acts and expressions of solidarity. Herbert (1990) also examined sex-based differences in the form of English compliments and in the frequencies of various compliment response types. His study showed several important differences between women and men. For example, compliments from men were generally accepted, especially by female recipients, whereas compliments from women were met with a response type other than acceptance. Gender differences in speech behaviors were also evident in Boxer's (1996) study of the speech act of complaints. Among many interesting findings, she showed that women participated more in troubles-talks than men and were recipients of more indirect complaints since they were seen as more supportive in general than men. Another major research question concerning the gender issue was whether men and women speak differently to the same sex and to the opposite sex. S. Min (1999) provided an interesting finding in this line of research: Both men and women tend to be more deferent to the opposite sex. This suggests that a man or woman tends to speak differently to the same sex and to the opposite sex. An utterance which is acceptable to the same sex may be sometimes impolite to the opposite sex. The discussion so far clearly suggests that speech behaviors vary depending on the interlocutors' social power, social distance and gender. However, as pointed out earlier, little has been known about how speech is performed with respect to the interlocutor variables in textbook dialogs. This motivated the present study to examine how textbook dialogs were designed with respect to the three interlocutor variables.

III. METHOD

1. Materials This study focused on the analysis of textbooks with no consideration of activity books. Textbooks selected for the analysis were middle school English textbooks newly published under the 2007 Revised National Curriculum. A total of 15 textbooks were analyzed, which were widely used in middle school classrooms across Korea at the time of the analysis. An equal number of textbooks were analyzed for each grade: 5 textbooks for first graders; 5 for second graders and the remaining 5 for third graders. They were five different series published by five different publishers across the three levels, which means that the textbooks were published by the same publishers for each series. The five publishers were randomly given an alphabet (A, B, C, D, or E) for the convenience of analysis. Out of 15 textbooks, five included an English native speaker author and other five books included a bilingual author. The analysis focused on the model dialogs presented in the following specific sections of the textbooks:

Textbook series A: Speaking (Real-life Scene), Points, Communication Spotlight
Textbook series B: Listen & Speak 1 & 2, Conversation
Textbook series C: Listen & Talk 1 & 2, Real Life Activity, Read and Do
Textbook series D: Talk Together
Textbook series E: Speaking Activities, Function File

The analysis also covered dialogs, if any, presented in the main text of each chapter in all 15 textbooks. However, it did not consider all monologs and dialogs with blanks designed for particular learning tasks, and those which did not occur between real persons, for example, a dialog between animals (e.g. a dialog between Hare and Wolf in textbook series 1-A1, p. 52).

2. Data Analysis Data analysis is discussed in two sections according to the two research purposes: (a) the frequency distribution of interlocutors' roles; (b) pragmatic inappropriateness regarding interlocutors' role relationships.

Data Analysis for Frequency Distribution Interlocutors' roles in the textbook dialogs were counted in terms of social power, social distance, and gender. Social power has been traditionally divided into three categories: whether a speaker is higher than, equal to or lower than the hearer (Brown & Levinson, 1987). However, in this study it was hard to capture who was a speaker or hearer in the textbook dialogs and thus only two categories were considered: whether the speaker is equal or unequal to the hearer. With respect to social distance, which involves the familiarity between interlocutors, this study adopted Wolfson's (1988) three categories: (a) intimates which mark the minimum degrees of social distance (most familiar); (b) strangers which indicate the maximum degrees of social distance (least familiar); and (c) friends and acquaintances which are in between. Intimates subsume members of long-standing familiar relationship (e.g., family members), whereas strangers involve those who are not acquainted at all (e.g., a clerk and a customer in service encounters). Friends and acquaintances refer to those who know each other but whose relationship is not very familiar with each other (e.g., classmates, teachers, co-workers, neighbors, and colleagues) (cf. Boxer, 1993). The last variable, gender, on the other hand, involves whether a speaker is talking to the same or opposite sex. The former case was categorized as "Same", while the latter, as "Opposite". Each of the three social variables (social power, social distance and gender) was also divided into Explicit and Implicit categories. The former category refers to the case where the interlocutors' roles were explicitly indicated, whereas the latter category refers to the case where the interlocutors' roles were inferred from linguistic or nonlinguistic (e.g., pictures) contexts. If the interlocutors' roles were not identifiable either explicitly or implicitly, it was counted as the Unknown category. In order to clarify such categorization, some examples are given below. (1) Teacher: When did you start making money? Jeannie: I started when I was nine years old. (1-D, p. 153) In this dialog, the interlocutors' roles were explicitly stated: unequal status between a teacher and a student in terms of social power and acquaintances in terms of familiarity. However, gender is unknown because the teacher's gender is not identifiable. Consider another example: (2) Junho: Excuse me. Do you go to Hanguk Middle School? Yumi: Yes, I do. I'm in the first year. Junho: Oh, really? I'm in Class 3 How about you? Yumi: I'm in Class 3, too! Nice to meet you. (1-A, p. 14) This is considered as the Implicit category with respect to social status and distance since it is simply inferred from the discourse context that they are classmates, which means that they are equal in status, but they are far from familiar with each other because they met for the first time. The indication of names (Junho and Yumi) is counted as gender explicitly identifiable and shows that this is a mixed-gender dialog. Consider one more example: (3) What do you want to buy? Do a role-play with your partner. A: How may I help you? B: I'm looking for a bag for my friend. A: How about this? (3-C, p. 165) In this example, the direction shows that this dialog occurs between classmates, but the discourse context leads us to infer that this is a dialog between a clerk and a customer. In such a case, the context took priority over the direction, which means that the interlocutors' roles were determined based on the context. If the context, however, did not provide any information concerning the identity of the interlocutors, interlocutors' roles were then determined based on the direction. Since it can be inferred that a clerk is talking to a customer, the interlocutors are unequal in status and distant in familiarity, with their gender unknown. 2) Data Analysis for Pragmatic Inappropriateness In order to

examine whether there were any dialogs where the interlocutors' language choice mismatched their roles, three steps were taken. First, the researcher extracted all the dialog samples from the textbooks, which he thought were unnatural, considering the interlocutors' role relationships. He then had discussion with three undergraduate and one graduate American students in Indiana, all of whom participated in rating the naturalness of language expressions used in the model dialogs. The raters' demographic data are provided in detail: (a) Emma, a female junior, English major, originally from Indiana; (b) Chris, a male junior, criminal justice major, originally from Michigan; (c) Aimee, a female senior, education major, originally from Illinois; and (d) Emily, a female graduate assistant, speech pathology major, originally from Indiana. At the final stage, on the basis of the four American raters' opinions, the researcher had in-depth discussion with a professor in the field of applied linguistics in a university in Indiana. The professor was female in her sixties originally from New York. The raters' different demographic background shows that the analysis reflected a variety of opinions across generations, gender and regions. Only items which showed 100% interrater reliability across all the raters were included in the evaluation results (H. Lee & K. Park, 2008).

IV. RESULTS

1. Frequency Distribution of Interlocutors' Roles As pointed out earlier, the frequency of the dialogs was counted in terms of social power, social distance, and gender. The distribution of the dialogs with respect to social power is presented in Table 1. The frequency of the five categories, when textbook levels were not considered, shows that the Explicit Equal category occurred most frequently (44.4%), with the dialogs between persons of unequal status minimal either in the Explicit (6.1%) or Implicit (6.6%) category. The finding that almost half of the total number of the dialogs fell into one single category is a strong indicator of over-presentation of the dialogs between persons of equal social status, whose relationship was explicitly indicated.

TABLE 1 Distribution of Dialogs with Respect to Social Power Category

Level	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Total
Explicit Unequal	21 (10.8)	10 (5.3)	4 (2.1)	35 (6.1)
Implicit Unequal	11 (5.2)	11 (5.8)	11 (5.9)	33 (6.4)
Explicit Equal	112 (58.9)	112 (59.6)	254 (136.1)	478 (94.6)
Implicit Equal	18 (9.3)	8 (4.2)	70 (36.1)	96 (19.2)
Unknown	5 (2.5)	5 (2.6)	5 (2.5)	15 (3.0)
Total	194	190	188	572

***: significant at the level of .001 In order to test whether there were any differences among the three textbook levels, chi-square test was calculated. The results showed that there existed statistically significant differences among the three textbook levels ($\chi^2 = 126.22$; $df = 8$; $p = .000$) at the significance level of .001. However, caution should be used when interpreting the chi-square results because the frequency in one cell (the Explicit Unequal category in level 3) is less than five. Textbook level 1 included the Implicit Equal category most frequently (36.1%) and the Unknown category next (28.4%). This

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indicates that in a large proportion of the dialogs, the interlocutors' roles were neither made explicit nor specified. On the other hand, the dialogs in textbook levels 2 and 3 shared a very similar trend with respect to social power, because the highest frequency was marked by the Explicit Equal category (58.9% in level 2; 59.6% in level 3) and the second highest frequency, by the Unknown category (24.7% in level 2; 20.7% in level 3). The frequency of the Unequal category, however, was substantially lower either in the Explicit or Implicit category. Table 2 presents the distribution of the dialogs with respect to social distance. The frequency distribution of the seven categories, when textbook levels were not considered, reveals that a largest proportion (45.8%) of the dialogs accounted for the Explicit Acquaintances category, that is, the interaction between interlocutors who are neither socially distant nor close to each other, while the second most frequent category fell into the Unknown category (23.4%) where the familiarity between interlocutors was not identifiable. These results provide some important points. First, there was heavy reliance on one single category, that is, the exchange between classmates who are neutral in familiarity. Second, there were still many dialogs where the familiarity between interlocutors was not indicated. Third, little attention was paid to the interaction between interlocutors who are socially distant or close to each other.

TABLE 2 Distribution of Dialogs with Respect to Social Distance Category

Category	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Total	%
Explicit	7	36	4	47	3.6
Intimates	1	2	0	3	2.1
Acquaintances	1	11	10	22	16.5
Strangers	1	14	3	18	13.5
Unknown	19	40	40	99	73.4
Total	194	190	188	572	100

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(5 9 . 6) • 2 6 2 (4 5 . 8) • • • • S t r a n g e r s • 1 4 (7 . 2) • 3 (1 . 6) • 3 (1 . 6) • 2 0 (3 . 5) • • • I m p l i c i t • I n t i m a t e s • 1 (0 . 5) • 2 (1 . 1) • 0 (0 . 0) • 3 (0 . 5) • • • • A c q u a i n t a n c e s • 6 7 (3 4 . 5) • 1 2 (6 . 3) • 2 2 (1 1 . 7) • 1 0 1 (1 7 . 6) • • • • S t r a n g e r s • 2 0 (1 0 . 3) • 9 (4 . 7) • 1 1 (5 . 9) • 4 0 (7 . 0) • • • • U n k n o w n • • 5 0 (2 5 . 8) • 4 5 (2 3 . 7) • 3 9 (2 0 . 7) • 1 3 4 (2 3 . 4) • • • • T o t a l • • 1 9 4 (1 0 0) • 1 9 0 (1 0 0) • 1 8 8 (1 0 0) • 5 7 2 (1 0 0) • • • • * * * : significant at the level of .001 In order to test whether there were any differences in the use of the seven categories among the three textbook levels, chi-square test was performed. The results showed that statistically significant differences were found among the three textbook levels ($\chi^2 = 122.08$; $df = 12$; $p = .000$). However, here again, caution should be exercised when interpreting the chi-square results because the frequency in several cells is less than five. Textbook level 1 showed that the Implicit Acquaintances category exhibited the highest frequency (34.5%), which means that the dialogs between classmates whose familiarity was inferred implicitly occurred most frequently. The next highest frequency fell into the Unknown category (25.8%), whereas the Intimates and the Strangers categories were minimal either in the Explicit or Implicit category. However, textbook levels 2 and 3 revealed a little different trend from level 1 since the Explicit

Acquaintances category by far exceeded any other categories in the two textbook levels (60.5% in level 2; 59.6% in level 3), with the next frequent category being the Unknown category (23.7% in level 2; 20.7% in level 3). The Intimates and the Strangers categories in levels 2 and 3, however, manifested a similar trend to those shown in level 1 since the dialogs between intimates were minimally presented, and so were the dialogs between strangers. Another research issue involved the distribution of interlocutors' gender in the textbook dialogs: whether a speaker is talking to the same or opposite sex. The results are presented in Table 3. Noticeable with respect to the overall distribution with no consideration of textbook levels was that the Unknown category was predominant (52.3%), since in over fifty percent of the total number of dialogs the interlocutors' gender was not identifiable. The next highest frequency fell into the mixed-gender dialogs which were identified implicitly (32.2%). This strongly suggests that gender was neither indicated nor made explicit in a majority of the dialogs.

TABLE

3 Distribution of Dialogs with Respect to Gender Category • Level

Level	Total	Explicit	Same	Opposite	Implicit	Unknown
Level 1	194	184 (32.2%)	5 (1.0%)	6 (1.0%)	8 (3.7%)	72 (37.1%)
Level 2	190	105 (55.3%)	1 (0.5%)	14 (7.4%)	2 (1.1%)	72 (37.1%)
Level 3	188	122 (64.9%)	0 (0.0%)	18 (9.5%)	2 (1.1%)	72 (37.1%)
Total	572	311 (54.4%)	6 (1.0%)	38 (6.6%)	12 (2.1%)	213 (37.1%)

• $\chi^2 = 39.06$ df = 8 p = .000 ***: significant at the level of .001 Chi-square test was also performed in order to test whether there were any differences in the use of the five categories among the three textbook levels ($\chi^2 = 39.06$; df = 8; p = .000). However, the frequency in several cells was less than five, as was the case with the frequency of dialogs with respect to social distance, which implies that the chi-square results should be interpreted with caution. In textbook level 1, the Implicit Opposite category and the Unknown category were most frequent, though the former (38.7%) was slightly more frequent than the latter (37.1%). In textbook levels 2 and 3, however, the Unknown category far outnumbered the remaining categories. Interestingly, the frequency of the Unknown category increased as the textbook levels were getting higher (37.1% in level 1 < 55.3% in level 2 < 64.9% in level 3). This demonstrates that the higher the textbook levels were, the more gender roles were not specified in the textbook dialogs. The next highest frequency in textbook levels 2 and 3 fell into the mixed-gender dialogs, where gender was identified in the implicit way. However, only a small proportion accounted for the same-gender dialogs.

2. Pragmatic Inappropriateness As stated earlier, this section analyzes some excerpts of textbook dialogs where interlocutors' linguistic choice was made inappropriately considering their social roles in the given situations. This is discussed in terms of social power, social distance, and gender. 1) Pragmatic Inappropriateness with Respect to Social Power Pragmatic inappropriateness with respect to social power occurred when interlocutors' language choice failed to match their social status or age in the textbook dialogs. There were many different facets of pragmatic inappropriateness. One of them involved the case where an utterance which is usually used between close friends in American English was chosen by a student to his teacher in the textbook dialogs.

(4) Close your book and listen carefully. '! Minjun: Would you mind reading my writing? Ms. Brown: No problem. Let me see. Minjun: What do you think? Ms. Brown: Well, it has a very interesting beginning, but. . . '! Minjun: Yes, go on please. Ms. Brown: Well, your main point isn't clear. (3-B, p. 72) "Would you mind. . .?"

sounds polite when used between people of more or less equal status, or by a boss who is asking something extra of a subordinate and showing respect for that person's time/usual job description, or between people who are close to each other since it shows consideration for the other person's feelings (personal communication, E. Riddle, May 22, 2012). However, this pattern is not appropriate when used by a student to his teacher, or for asking for a big favor, i.e. something that takes more than a few moments, as in the above example. It is not humble enough when uttered to a teacher. In such a context, it is appropriate to say "Could you read my story?" Minjun's linguistic choice gets more serious when he uttered "go on please." in his last turn. This is considered rude when uttered to a higher-status person since it has an authoritative meaning which sounds like a command, even with a polite marker "please". Another common pattern of pragmatic inappropriateness with regard to social power occurred when a polite expression which is usually used to an old person in American English was employed to an equal in the textbook dialogs, as shown in the following excerpts: (5) Make groups of three. Practice asking for help and answering the requests. A: Our soccer team is short of players. Could you join our team?

'! B: I'm afraid I can't. I'm not good at soccer. (3-D, p. 121) (6) Why don't you listen to this music? '! B: Sorry, I don't like it.

(3-A, p. 13) These two dialogs seem to occur between classmates, judging from the given directions. In example (5), the pattern of "I'm afraid. . ." sounds unnatural because it is usually used to an old person or a higher-status person. This pattern is too formal to a classmate. In such a context, a native speaker teen might have said something like "Sorry, I'm not good at soccer." or with some other reasons. The utterance of "Sorry" is, however, not appropriate in the different context. In example (6), "Sorry" serving as a refusal to a suggestion is not natural when addressed to an equal-status person since it marks too much politeness to a classmate, as if the

speaker were expressing an apology to an old person for refusing what he/she should do right away. Since speaker A simply made a suggestion in the above example, the apologizing strategy is not necessary. The examples above show that there is a certain linguistic pattern which is not appropriate to an equal and that a single utterance can or cannot be appropriate, depending on the contexts where it occurs. Contrary to the above case, there was a case where a linguistic pattern sounds unnatural when used by an adult to a kid. Consider the following excerpt: (7) Mom: . . . Don't you think playing so many computer games is a waste of time? Junho: . . . (Junho's phone vibrates again and he checks the message without looking at his mom.) Mom: Are you listening to me, Junho? Junho: I'm sorry, mom. What did you say? (Junho's phone vibrates again.)

'! Mom: I said playing so many computer games is a waste of time. If I were you, I'd rather go out and play sports with friends. (3-A, p. 38) The pattern of If I were you, I'd . . . , which was chosen by mom in her last turn is not normally used by an old person to a kid but it is instead popular between friends in American English. When it is used by mom to her kid, it sounds like too soft, especially when she is angry, as in the above example. An American mom's common approach in this situation would have been to choose modal "should", as in the following: "You should go out and play sports with friends." Pragmatic inappropriateness with respect to social power gets more complex in the following case where an utterance has different meanings, depending on whether the speaker is talking to an equal or a young person: (8) Brian: Hi, Mrs. Kim. How are you? '! Mrs. Kim: Hi, Brian. What's up? Brian: Can you do me a favor? Mrs. Kim: Sure. What is it? Brian: Can you sponsor me for the read-a-thon? (1-B, p. 146) (9) HÅC½ ;»0@ '! A: What's up? B: I'm worried about my math test. (2-E, p. 45)

In both examples, the focus is on the use of What's up? This utterance is very popular as a greeting pattern between young persons, especially between university students in American culture. However, when it is uttered by an adult to a young person, as in example (8), it has a different meaning: "What can I do for you?" or "What can I help you with?" This utterance, however, is problematic in example (9) since the interlocutors' roles were not specified in the textbook. If speaker A is a student and speaker B is a teacher, "What's up?" uttered to the higher-status person sounds unnatural as a greeting pattern. This problem stems from the unidentified role relationships of the interlocutors in the textbook. On occasion, an utterance which is normally used to little kids in American English was made to middle school teens in the textbook dialogs, as in the following example: (10) ø-¼¹DÇ

Q: What do you want to be when you grow up? B: I want to be an animal trainer. A: An animal trainer? Sounds interesting.

(1-B, p. 156) Judging from the given direction, it can be inferred that this dialog is taking place between middle school classmates. Speaker A's utterance of "when you grow up" in his/her first turn is condescending to a middle school student since it is usually used to a little kid like a seven or eight year-old kid in American English. In other words, this utterance might make a middle school teen feel that he/she is being treated too young. In such a context, it would be more appropriate to say "when you get older." Another aspect of pragmatic inappropriateness occurred when language patterns which are normally used by a particular social group were produced by another social group. For example, a language pattern which is usually used by adults in American English was found to be chosen by middle school teens in the textbook dialogs, as shown in the following examples: (11) Make groups of three and act it out. A: Thanks for taking me to the baseball game.

! B: My pleasure, Cathy. It will be nice to watch the game with you. C: Is baseball really popular in your country? A: Sure, people really love it. (3-D, p. 47)

(12) Say thanks to your partner for the gift. A: Happy birthday! This is for you. ! B: What a wonderful gift! Thank you. (2-D, p. 148)

Both dialogs seem to occur between middle school classmates considering the given directions. In example (11), speaker B expressed My pleasure as a response to speaker A's act of thanking. However, this response is not so much used by middle school teens as used by an old person in the American context. Speaker B's choice of language sounds like it is old persons' talking, despite the fact that he/she is a middle school teen. In such a context, American teens usually choose other response patterns like "You're welcome." The discrepancy between the interlocutors' linguistic choice and their social roles also seems apparent in example (12) where speaker B produced "What a wonderful gift!". Neither "What a. . ." nor "wonderful" in this expression is children's language but old-fashioned language, used only by very old people. In such a context, middle school teens might probably have uttered something like "That's awesome.", where "awesome" is very popular with young kids. In other words, in general, "wonderful" is adult language, whereas "awesome" is children's language. This strongly indicates that there are generational variations in the choice of an adjective. Such generational variations are shown to be overlooked in the textbooks analyzed. 2) Pragmatic Inappropriateness with Respect to Social Distance Pragmatic inappropriateness with respect to social distance occurred when interlocutors' language choice failed to match the degree of familiarity between them. Many examples involved the case where a language pattern which is

popular in the formal business situation in American English was produced in the informal situation in the textbook dialogs. Consider the following excerpt: (13) A: Sorry, I'm late for the play. B: No problem. I'd like you to meet my friend, Kevin. A: I'm glad to meet you. C: I'm glad to meet you, too. (1-E, p. 39)

In the situation of introducing a friend, speaker B produced "I'd like you to meet my friend, Kevin." No middle school kids, however, would use this expression when introducing a friend because it is usually used in the formal business situation where the interlocutors are in the distant relationship. In the informal situation, a middle school teen would have simply said, "This is my friend, Kevin." Another case which sounds like a business situation occurred in the leave-taking exchange between friends, as shown in the following example: (14) A: I'm going back to my country next week. B: Really? Oh, I'll miss you. A: I'll miss you, too. You were a very good friend to me. B: You, too. Let's keep in touch. A: Sure. I wish you all the best. (1-A, p. 156)

Speaker A is saying good-bye to his/her friend since he/she is going back to his/her country. In the exchange between friends, speaker B's last utterance "I wish you all the best." is not appropriate because it does not sound like children's language but formal business language. In such a context, it would be more appropriate if speaker B said "Good luck!" or "Have a safe trip!" to speaker A, who is going back to his/her country. On occasion, a linguistic expression which is usually used between persons who are familiar with each other in American English was chosen by a person whose familiarity with the addressee was unknown, as shown in the following example: (15) Minjun: It's so hot today. Jenny: You're telling me. I can't believe it's September. Minjun: Each year it gets hotter and hotter. Jenny: Yeah. Global warming is a big problem. (2-B, p. 102)

The above conversation is taking place between Minjun and Jenny, but neither their social status nor their familiarity was known. If they are familiar with each other, Jenny's utterance of "You're telling me." is acceptable, but if they are not, this utterance is somewhat unnatural because it is normally not used to someone whom the speaker does not know well but to a person whom he/she feels comfortable with. At times, a speaker's language was too distant when uttered to a person he/she was familiar with. This is particularly true in the dialog between a mother and her son who are very familiar with each other, as shown in the following example:

(16) Edison: What do you want to make? B: Many

things, but I want to make a music box first. A: Great! Do you want to be a scientist? B: Yes, I do. '! A: I hope your dreams come true.

(1 - D, p. 65) In American culture, no mom is likely to say "I hope your dreams come true." because it is too formulaic, impersonal, and distant when uttered to her son. In such a context, an American mom might have phrased like this: "That sounds like a great goal." This example clearly shows that an utterance chosen by the speaker does not match her familiarity with the addressee. 3) Pragmatic Inappropriateness with Respect to Gender Pragmatic inappropriateness with respect to gender refers to a case where a man or woman chose language inappropriately to the opposite sex in American culture. Only one such example was found in the textbooks analyzed. (17) Match each problem with the right advice. Then practice the dialog with your partner. A: You look upset. What's the problem?

'! B: I can't lose weight. What should I do? A: Why don't you exercise and keep away from snacks. B: Thanks for the advice.

(3 - C, p. 31) A problem in this example is that the interlocutors' gender is not identifiable. Speaker B's utterance "I can't lose weight." in his/her first turn is likely to occur if he/she is talking to the same sex. However, if speaker B is a female and speaker A is a male, she is highly unlikely to talk about her weight to him, and she is reluctant to get advice from him about how to lose weight, unless they are extremely close. As Banerjee and Carrell (1988) implicitly stated, each person has a certain right to privacy and thus he/she is reluctant to talk about bad traits or privacy such as age, weight, etc. in American culture, especially to the opposite sex. V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION The quantitative analysis of interlocutors' roles in the textbook dialogs has yielded some important findings. With respect to social power, there was over-presentation of the dialogs between persons of equal status or age whose relationship was explicitly indicated, with little attention to the dialogs between persons of unequal status or age, especially in textbook levels 2 and 3. This resulted from the textbook writers' heavy reliance on the interaction between classmates. The emphasis on the exchange between classmates is, in a sense, understandable since the target learners are middle school students and since they are likely to have many interactions with their classmates. However, they may have insufficient opportunities to be exposed to the interactions between persons of unequal status or different age. This in turn suggests that they also miss the opportunities to have sensitivity to politeness: how to be polite to a higher-status or old person. The unequal role relationship between interlocutors seems more important than equal roles in the politeness theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987) since a speaker is more likely to be sensitive to politeness when speaking to a higher-status or old person than to a social equal (R. Kim, 1996). In this respect, dialogs between persons of unequal status or different age should be included more in the middle school textbooks. In addition, the Implicit category, especially popular in textbook level 1, should be made explicit because the

explicitly indicated identity of the interlocutors will help the learners better capture who utters what language to whom. A more serious problem was that the second most frequent category fell into the Unknown category, which means that there were relatively many dialogs where interlocutors' roles were unidentifiable. These dialogs should be redesigned with the specification of the interlocutors' social status or age so that the learners can grasp in what social context a given language is appropriate. As for social distance, the finding that the dialogs between interlocutors whose familiarity was neutral were prevalent is largely due to the fact that the textbook writers focused too much on the interaction between classmates whose familiarity was neither close nor distant, according to Wolfson (1988). This will provide middle school students with many opportunities to actively participate in the interactions with their classmates, but too much focus on them may prevent the learners from practicing the dialogs between interlocutors who are either very close to or little acquainted with each other. The degree of familiarity between interlocutors should be diversified, ranging from the interactions between total strangers to those between relatives or between siblings. As was the case with social power, the analysis of social distance revealed that the Unknown category was the second most frequent category across textbook levels. This suggests that the degree of familiarity between interlocutors should be specified in the case of the Unknown category since without knowing it, the learners are not able to capture appropriate linguistic choice according to interlocutors' social distance. The Unknown category was most serious with respect to interlocutors' gender in that it was predominant, especially in textbook levels 2 and 3. In addition, there were many dialogs where interlocutors' gender was inferable only from contexts. These are due to the textbook writers' little sensitivity to interlocutors' gender roles in the dialogs. Given the fact that men and women often choose different language patterns and that they behave differently especially when talking to the opposite sex (S. Min, 1999), it is important for textbook writers to explicitly indicate the interlocutors' gender relationships so that the learners can capture appropriate language input according to gender differences in the speech acts. The results also showed that many dialogs consisted of mixed-gender dyads, with disregard to same-gender dialogs. This indicates a need for including more same-sex dialogs in the textbooks. The qualitative analysis exhibited various facets of pragmatic inappropriateness with respect to social power: (a) An utterance which is usually used between friends was chosen by a student to his/her teacher; (b) A polite expression which is usually used to an older person was produced to a person of equal age; (c) An utterance which is usually made between equal friends was made by an adult to a kid; (d) The interlocutors' social roles were unidentifiable in the situation where an utterance has different meanings, depending on whether the speaker is talking to an equal or an older person; (e) An utterance which is normally used to little kids was made to middle school teens; and (f) adult language was produced by young teens. These cases taken together show that the interlocutors' linguistic choice failed to match their social status or age or that the naturalness of the given linguistic pattern was often hard to determine since the interlocutors' roles were not indicated in the textbook dialogs. Therefore, the textbook writers should modify language patterns in the textbook dialogs in accordance with interlocutors' age or social status in the former case and specify the unknown roles of the interlocutors in the latter. When it comes to social distance, the analysis also yielded different aspects of inappropriateness: (a) A language pattern which is common in the formal business

situations was produced in the informal situations; (b) A linguistic expression which is usually used between persons who are familiar with each other was chosen by a person whose familiarity with the addressee was unknown; and (c) A speaker's language was too distant when used to a person he/she is familiar with. These cases involved the failure to choose an appropriate language according to the familiarity between interlocutors. Indeed, the native speaker raters all agreed that language patterns in the textbook dialogs were generally too formal for middle school teens. Such mismatch between the familiarity between interlocutors and their linguistic choice should be readjusted so that the learners can capture what language is appropriate to an addressee who is close or distant to the speaker. Compared with social power and social distance, the gender variable did not involve many cases of unnatural dialogs, but one case found was that the interlocutors' gender was not identifiable in the situation where a linguistic pattern is highly unlikely be used by a female to a male. Here again, the interlocutors' gender relationship should be clearly indicated in the textbook dialogs. Moreover, the textbook writers should also be sensitized to what topics a woman is reluctant to talk about to the opposite sex in American culture. In this respect, R. Kim's (1996) point is of great help: In an English speaking community it is not polite to ask personal questions regarding age, weight, salary, marital status, politics, religion, race, why someone does not have children, and how much money someone spends on housing, rent, etc. To conclude, the Korean EFL textbooks manifested insufficient or erroneous information about interlocutors' roles in the dialogs, as was the case with ESL textbooks, which was shown in Boxer and Pickering's (1995) study. The textbook writers should be aware of the widely held claim that a speaker tends to choose different language patterns, depending on social variables: Whether the speaker

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1h1_ ᄁh+-r @^pÿB*ᄁKH OJ PJ^L QJ aJᄁ ph 01h1_ ᄁh+-r @^pÿB*ᄁKH OJ PJ^L QJ
\▣▣ aJᄁ ph *ᄁh9A @^pÿB*ᄁKH OJ PJ^L QJ \▣▣ aJᄁ ph 11h9A
ᄁh+-r @^pÿB*ᄁCJT KH OJ1 PJ^L QJ1 ^J1 ph ◀.O /O \O]O üt >W ?W mW ¶W
·W ÓX ÔX Y 5Y FY °Y ð ð ð ð ð ð
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ð È œ ‡ ‡ † ◀
„úᄁᄁᄁ 1\$ᄁ4\$ᄁ7\$ᄁ8\$ᄁᄁ WDò `„úᄁᄁᄁ← † ◀„íᄁᄁᄁ 1\$ᄁ4\$ᄁ7\$ᄁ8\$ᄁᄁ WDè `„íᄁᄁᄁ←
† ◀„êᄁᄁᄁ 1\$ᄁ4\$ᄁ7\$ᄁ8\$ᄁᄁ WDú `„êᄁᄁᄁ(◀ † ◀„Ä ᄁᄁᄁ 1\$ᄁ4\$ᄁ7\$ᄁ8\$ᄁᄁ WDD `„Ä ᄁᄁ
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üt AU `U aU mU nU pV V =W >W ?W lW mW šW ŠW µW ¶W ·W ÒX ÓX
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Y Y 4Y 5Y eY fY "Y £Y ¯Y °Y èï¹ç¹çïËïèñïèï_ïèñïèñïèïèïèï_ïè
 -ᄀh³"î @^pÿB*ᄀKH OJ PJ^L QJ \▣▣aJᄀ ph *ᄀh9A
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 mš @^pÿB*ᄀKH OJ PJ^L QJ \▣▣aJᄀ ph -
 ᄀh-RE @^pÿB*ᄀKH OJ PJ^L QJ \▣▣aJᄀ o(ᄀph *ᄀh-RE @^pÿB*ᄀKH OJ PJ^L QJ \▣▣aJ
 ᄀ ph 0^hᄀ_ ᄀh+-r @^pÿB*ᄀKH OJ PJ^L QJ \▣▣aJᄀ ph -
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 ᄁ ph *T+h:¹T @^pÿB*ᄁKH OJ PJ^L QJ \□□ aJᄁ ph -
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 ᄁ ph 0¹h¹_ T+h+-r @^pÿB*ᄁKH OJ PJ^L QJ \□□ aJᄁ ph 1¹h:¹T T+h+-r @^pÿB*ᄁC
 Jᄁ KH OJ PJ^L QJ ^Jᄁ ph 4¹h:¹T T+h+-r @^pÿB*ᄁCJᄁ KH OJ PJ^L QJ \□□ ^Jᄁ ph
 *T+h:¹T @^pÿB*ᄁKH OJ PJ^L QJ \□□ aJᄁ ph 8¹h:¹T T+h+-r 5□□ @^pÿB*ᄁCJ¹ KH OJ
 ᄁ PJ^L QJ ^Jᄁ aJ¹ ph ;¹h:¹T T+h+-r 5□□ @^pÿB*ᄁCJ¹ KH OJ PJ^L QJ \□□ ^Jᄁ aJ¹ p
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 } } } } }
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-`,,^π
gdZLé ⊥ ◀,,Ä ↓ dᄋp 1\$ᄋ4\$ᄋ7\$ᄋ8\$ᄋG\$ WDd `,,Ä gd→=Ž ᄋ ↓ dᄋp 1\$ᄋ4\$ᄋ7\$ᄋ8\$ᄋG\$ gd→=Ž

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1^hóLY τh+-r @^pÿB*_rCJ↑ KH OJ PJ^L QJ aJ↑ ph -

1^hëon τh:1_T @^pÿB*_rKH OJ PJ^L QJ aJ[¶] ph 0^hëon τh:1_T @^pÿB*_rKH OJ PJ^L QJ
\□[¶]aJ[¶] ph -

τhëon 5□[¶]@^pÿB*_rKH OJ PJ^L QJ \□[¶]aJ[¶] ph *τh:1_T @^pÿB*_rKH OJ PJ^L QJ \□[¶]aJ[¶]
¶ ph *τh+-r @^pÿB*_rKH OJ PJ^L QJ \□[¶]aJ[¶] ph 0^h↑_ τh+-r @^pÿB*_rKH OJ
PJ^L QJ \□[¶]aJ[¶] ph -

τh4\2 @^pÿB*_rKH OJ PJ^L QJ \□[¶]aJ[¶] o(τph *τh4\2 @^pÿB*_rKH OJ PJ^L QJ \□[¶]aJ[¶]
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1h^Lv₂ 1hóLY 1hóLY 1h+-r @^pÿB*_rCJ↑ KH OJ PJ^L QJ aJ↑ ph

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WD2 `„X gdZLé ± L\$ ÿd8y τ\$τ1\$τ4\$τ7\$τ8\$τG\$ If
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à kdÄ- τ\$τ|τIfr τ-ö L4r|Öÿrr rrr rrr rrr •"8 □Öž • 'Lú-#
6öu!!à|è-eFpLJ r r yyyJ r r yyyeF□LJ r r yyyJ r r yyyeFáLJ r r yyyJ r r yyyeFêLJ r r yyy
J r r yyyeFLJ r r yyyJ r r yyyeF<LJ r r yyyJ r r yyy B r r yyyJ r r yyy

t J!!Ö0 r r r r r y y flör ±6r|öL →Ö
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 ¯h«jü 5□ @^pÿB*ΓKH OJ PJ^L QJ \□ aJ¶ ph *¯h/nk @^pÿB*ΓKH OJ PJ^L QJ \□ aJ
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1h^lv₂ τh+-r (1h^l₋ τh+-r @[^]pÿCJ- KH OJ PJ^l QJ aJ^l 1^lh^l₋ τh+-r @[^]pÿB*_rCJ^l K
H OJ PJ^l QJ aJ^l ph -
1^lh^l₋ τh+-r @[^]pÿB*_rKH OJ PJ^l QJ aJ^l ph Fÿt ÿt Ðt ê -
ÿ kde τ\$_rl\$_rI_f_r r-
\$ |Ö^lr_rr_r r_rr_r r_rr_r r_rr_r •"8 □Ö[^] - ç□<

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yyeFÊJ-L r yyyyl r r yyyeFYJ-L r yyyyl r r yyyyl

t J!!Ö0 r r r r r y y ¶ör ±6r|öL →Ö†
+Ö† yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy Ö† Ö† yyy yyy yyy
yy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy yyy 2Ö- -åL 4Ö- råLå BÖL -raöL yt² .. ± L\$ 1d8y τ\$ r1\$ r4\$ r7\$ r8\$ rI
fr a\$ gd/nk rÐt Ût ät ìt òt pt □u ¶v
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\$ r1\$ r4\$ r7\$ r8\$ rG\$ Ifr Wdd `„° gd/nk !! 1d8y τ\$ r1\$ r4\$ r7\$ r8\$ rG\$ Ifr gd/nk
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t ^J!!Ö0 r r r r r r y y ¶ör †6r|ö^L →ö
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\$r8\$rIfr a\$ gd/nk •~v @v -
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†\$r†\$rIfr r-ġ ^L4r|Ö† r r r r r r •"8 □Öž • ç^Lç□<

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à kd◀◀ τ\$τ|τIfτ τ-
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Ht|¶ê|è-εFp^L r r yyy r r yyyεFĀ^L r r yyy r r yyyεFo^L r r yyy r r yyyεF'^L r r yyy
r r yyyεF'^L r r yyy r r yyyεFĒ^L r r yyy r r yyy B r r yyy r r yyy

t ^L!!Ö0 r r r r r y y ¶ör ±6r|ö^L →ö
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β kdÅ!! τ\$ r| \$ rIf r r -
ö |ö† r r r r r r r r •"8 □öž • ϕ^L□◁

H+|¶ê|è-eFp^L r r yyy^J r r yyyeFĀ^J r r yyy^J r r yyyeFo^J r r yyy^J r r yyyeF'^J r r yyy^J
J r r yyyeF'^J r r yyy^J r r yyyeFĒ^J r r yyy^J r r yyyeFY^J r r yyy^J r r yyy^J

t J!!Ö0 r r r r r r y y ¶ör ±6r|ö^L →ö
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↓d8ÿ 1\$ᄇ4\$ᄇ7\$ᄇ8\$ᄇG\$ a\$ gdpᄇ Û

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à kdÿl T\$rl\$rlfgr r-
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t J!!Ö0 rrr rrr rrr rrr y y flör l6r|öl -ö
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\$rl8\$rlfgr a\$ gdZq- •D,, E,, -

à kdæT T\$rl\$rlfgr r- x L4r|Ölrrr rrr rrr rrr rrr •"8 Öž • ìL_b
fXa!!A|è-efpLJ yyyyyyyJ rrr yyyeyfELJ yyyyyyyJ rrr yyyeyfoJ yyyyyyyJ rrr yyyeyf'JJ yyyyyyy
J rrr yyyeyf'JJ yyyyyyyJ rrr yyyeyf'JJ yyyyyyyJ rrr yyyy B rrr yyyyr rrr yyyy

t J!!Ö0 rrr rrr rrr rrr y y flör l6r|öl -ö yyyyyyy
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à kd- T\$rl\$rlfgr r- x L4r|Ölrrr rrr rrr rrr rrr •"8 Öž • ìL_b
fXa!!A|è-efpLJ rrr yyyJ rrr yyyeyfELJ rrr yyyJ rrr yyyeyfoJ rrr yyyJ rrr yyyeyf'JJ rrr yyy
J rrr yyyeyf'JJ rrr yyyJ rrr yyyeyf'JJ rrr yyyJ rrr yyyy B rrr yyyyr rrr yyyy

t J!!Ö0 rrr rrr rrr rrr y y flör l6r|öl -ö
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t J!!Ö0 rrr rrr rrr rrr y y flör l6r|öl -ö
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k @^pÿB*гKH OJ PJ^L QJ \▣▣ aJ¶ ph *TҺy↑% @^pÿB*гKH OJ PJ^L QJ \▣▣ aJ¶ ph
*TҺ+X~ @^pÿB*гKH OJ PJ^L QJ \▣ aJ¶ ph -
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 to or younger than the addressee, whether or not he/she is familiar with him/her,
 or whether he/she is talking to the same or opposite sex, all constrain to some
 degree the kind of verbal exchange that takes place (Boxer & Pickering,
 1995). The findings of this study discussed so far will help the textbook
 writers figure out what social roles of interlocutors should be included more or
 less in the textbook dialogs and modify the model dialogs which manifested
 mismatch between interlocutors' social roles and their choice of language.
 Further research using more textbooks will yield fruitful results in this line
 of research, helping to confirm the findings of the present
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!! PAGE * MERGEFORMAT ¶24¹ Woo-hyun Jung
An Analysis of Interlocutors' Role Relationships in Textbook Dialogs
!! PAGE * MERGEFORMAT ¶23¹

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