ROLE RELATION NEGOTIATION BETWEEN NATIVE SPEAKER AND INDONESIAN EFL-LEARNER IN AN ENGLISH CASUAL CONVERSATION

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Abstract

Dialogue is the means language gives us for expressing interpersonal meanings about roles and attitudes. Being able to take part in dialogue means being able to negotiate the exchange of interpersonal meanings and being able to realize social relations with other language users. This study aims at describing the patterns of role relation negotiation as the realization of interpersonal meaning in an English casual conversation between native speaker (NS) and Indonesian EFL-learner (NNS). The patterns were studied through the choice of speech functions when the interactants act on each other. The results of this study show that NNS plays his role as initiator, while NS as supporter; the conversation is the one of information negotiation rather than goods and services negotiation.

Key words: casual conversation, interpersonal meaning, role relation negotiation, speech function

Introduction

People communicate daily with each other by talking. It is the most basic and widespread lunguistic means of conducting human affairs (McArthur as cited in Pridham (2001:1)). According to Gumperz (1982:1), communication is a social activity requiring the coordinated efforts of two or more individuals. Mere talk to produce sentences, no matter how well formed or elegant the outcome does not itself constitute communication. Only when a move has elicited a response can we say communication is taking place. Dealing with communication, Canale (in Richards and Schmidt, 1984:4) defines it as the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes, and production and comprehension processes. The central principle of communication is intersubjectivity. Intersubjectivity has to do with the sharing of knowledge and

experience and is seen as relevant to communication at the two ends of communicative activity itself: its inception and its completion (Schiffrin, 1994:389).

In communication, people use language to convey information and to lead each other toward an interpretation of meanings and intentions. In other words, language is used as a medium of communication. In relation to language as a medium of communication, Ventola (1979:267) states that language as a means of communication can be used not only for the transmission of informative messages but also for establishing and maintaining contact between people. Establishing and maintaining social relationships with others are very needed. Everyday people express this social function of language when they interact casually with one another. Similarly, Eggins and Slade (1997:6) perceive interaction as language activity. Interacting is not just a mechanical process of taking turns at producing sounds and words. Interacting is a semantic activity, a process of making meaning. As we take turns in any interaction we negotiate meanings about what we think is going on in the world, how we feel about, and how we feel about the people we interact with.

According to Gardner (1994:97), the main way in which people come together and exchange information and maintain social relations is through conversation. Conversation as a speech activity can take place in a formal or informal situation. A conversation that takes place in an informal situation is referred to as casual conversation. Slade and Gardner (1985:105) define casual conversation as informal face to face encounters between two or more participants that take place in informal occasions where there is usually no external pressure on the participants to be self-conscious about what they are saying.

Eggins and Slade (1997: 6) point that the purpose of casual conversation is simply for the sake of talking itself. Motivated by interpersonal needs continually to establish who we are, how we relate to others, and what we think of how the world is, casual conversation is a critical site for the negotiation of such important dimensions of our social identity as gender, generational location, sexuality, social class membership, ethnicity, and subcultural and group affiliations.

In relation to the three strands of meaning in systemic functional linguistics (ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings), Eggins and Slade (1997:49) state that casual conversation can be analyzed from three approaches:

- 1. We can focus on the ideational meanings: this involves looking at what topics get talked about, when, by whom, and how topic transition and closure is achieved, etc.
- 2. We can focus on the interpersonal meanings: this involves looking at what kinds of role relations are established through talk, what attitudes interactants express to and about each other, what kinds of things they find funny, and how they negotiate to take turns, etc.
- 3. We can focus on the textual meanings: this involves looking at different types of cohesion used to tie chunks of the talk together, different patterns of salience and foregrounding, etc.

The analysis of casual conversation in this study focuses only on the interpersonal meanings for the main reason as stated by Eggins and Slade (1997:50) that the primary task of casual conversation is the negotiation of social identity and social relations. Thus casual conversation is driven by interpersonal, rather than ideational or textual meanings based on the following considerations:

- a. The absence of any pragmatic motivation or outcomes to casual talk;
- b. Anything can be a topic of talk in casual conversation which suggests that casual conversation is not focused on ideational meanings;
- c. The apparent triviality of much of the ideational content of casual talk, which suggests that the important work of casual conversation is not in the exploration of ideational meanings.

Interpersonal relationship occurs when we interact with others in daily social activities. Halliday (1994:36) simply defines interpersonal relationship as enacting social relationship. In a more elaborated way, Matthiessen (1995:784) states that interpersonal relationship refers to the relationship between the speaker and listener in realizing interpersonal meaning in an interaction. He defines that interpersonal relationship is the relationship between speaker and listener and their potential for interacting: the cluster of socially meaningful participant relationship, both permanent attributes of the participants and role relationships that are specific to the situation, including the speech roles, those that come into being through the change of verbal meanings.

According to Eggins and Slade (1997:53) there are four main types of linguistic patterns which represent and enact the social identities of participants in casual conversation. These patterns, which operate at different levels or within different linguistic units, are grammatical, discourse, semantic, and generic patterns. Grammatical patterns are ones which operate within turns, and have to do with the mood of the clause interactants use. Semantic patterns are ones

which have to do with the types of evaluative and attitudinal lexis interactants use. Discourse patterns are ones which show how participants choose to act on each other through their choice of speech functions. Generic patterns are the staging patterns which operate to build chunks of talk.

Due to the time constraint and the researcher's lack of ability to do a comprehensive analysis which cover those four linguistic patterns of a casual conversation, this study only focuses on how interactants negotiate their role relationships through the choice of speech functions in a casual conversation.

Speech Functions In Conversation

According to Eggins (1994:149) dialogue is the means language gives us for expressing interpersonal meanings about roles and attitudes. Being able to take part in dialogue, then, means being able to negotiate the exchange of interpersonal meanings, being able to realize social relations with other language users. Whenever we use language to interact, one of the things with is establishing a relationship between us: between the speaker speaking now and the person who will probably speak next. Moreover, Halliday (1984:11) interprets dialogue as a process of exchange involving two variables: (1) the nature of the commodity that is being exchanged: either information or goods-&-services, and (2) the roles that are defined by the exchange process: either giving or demanding. The simultaneous cross-classification of these two variables define the four basic speech functions that can be used to initiate a conversation, as displayed in Table 1.

Speech Role	Commodity Exchanged					
	Information	Goods & Services				
Giving	Statement	Offer				
Demanding	Question	Command				
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Table 1. Speech Roles and Commodities in Conversation

Sources: Halliday (1994:69); Eggins and Slade (1997:181)

Because conversation is an interactive activity, every time a speaker takes on a role, he/she assigns to the listener a role as well. Every time a speaker initiates an interaction, the listener is put into a role of responding if he/she wants to interact. The alternative responses can be broadly differentiated as either supporting or confronting. Supporting responses enact consensus and agreement which tend to close off the exchange, while confronting responses enact disagreement or non-compliance which are often followed by further negotiation. The combination of the initiating speech functions and their possible responding ones can be displayed in Table 2.

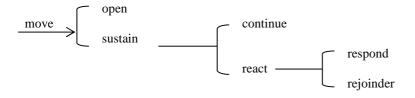
Initiating	Responding Speech Function				
Speech Function	Supporting	Confronting			
Offer	Acceptance	Rejection			
Command	Compliance	Refusal			
Statement	Acknowledgement	Contradiction			
Question	Answer	Disclaimer			

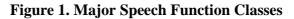
Table 2. Speech Function Pairs

Sources: Halliday (1994:69); Eggins and Slade (1997:183)

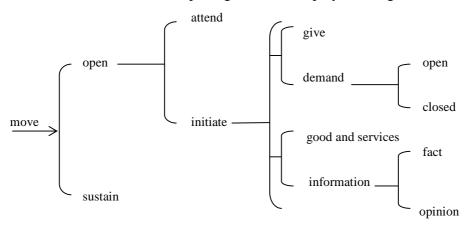
Eggins and Slade (1997:191) extend delicately the speech functions proposed by Halliday (1994) in order to capture the more subtle speech function patterns of casual conversation. They present the comprehensive speech function classes in the form of a network, where categories at the lefthand side are the least delicate (most inclusive). Movement towards the right can be read as subclassification, indicating increasing delicacy in the description.

The major speech function classes which constitute conversational moves to begin sequences of talk, or open up new exchanges, and moves which sustain exchanges, as presented in Figure 1.





Opening moves function to initiate talk around a proposition, while sustaining moves keep negotiating the same proposition. Sustaining moves may be achieved either by the speaker who has just been talking (continuing speech function), or by other speakers taking a turn (reacting speech functions). Further, reacting moves can be achieved either by responding speech functions or rejoindering speech functions. Responding moves are reactions which move towards completion, while rejoindering moves are reactions which in some way prolong the exchange.

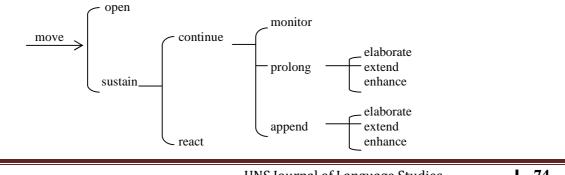


The sub-classification of opening moves is displayed in Figure 2.

3 Figure 2. Opening Speech Functions

Figure 2. captures two speech functions in opening moves, i.e. attending and initiating speech functions. Attending moves are those which merely set the scene for interaction, while initiating moves are those which actually get the interaction underway. Further subclassification of initiating moves is made to capture the distinction between fact and opinion information for both statements and questions which fall into open and closed questions.

Sustaining moves can be achieved either by the speaker who has just been talking (continuing speech functions) or by other speakers taking a turn (reacting speech functions). There are three options available to continue a move: by monitoring, prolonging, or appending. Monitoring moves are produced when the speaker focus on the state of the interactive situation, for example by checking that the audience is following, or by inviting another speaker to take turn, in which case the invited response is set up as supporting response. Continuing moves can also be achieved by prolonging or appending, each of which can be either elaboration, extension, or enhancement. The subclassification of continuing moves can be displayed in Figure 3.



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4 Figure 3. Continuing Speech Functions

Reacting moves i.e. when one speaker reacts to a move produced by a different speaker, can be by responding and rejoindering speech functions. Responding speech functions are reactions which move the exchange towards completion, while rejoindering speech functions are ones which in some way prolong the exchange. Responding moves can be achieved either by supporting or confronting. Supporting moves are the preferred responses, while confronting moves are dispreferred or discretionary alternatives. Supporting moves have four categories: developing, engaging, registering, and replying. Confronting responses range from either disengaging (refusing to participate in the exchange, for example, by responding with silence), or by offering confronting replies which can be paired with typical initiations. The subclassification of responding moves can be displayed in Figure 4.

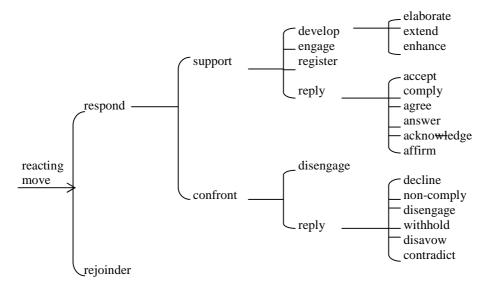
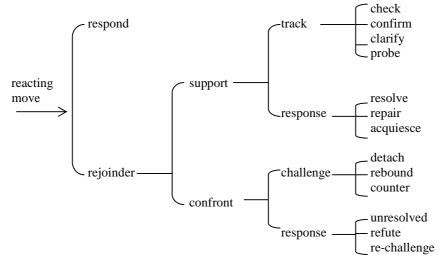


Figure 4. Responding Speech Functions

There are two main subclasses of rejoindering moves: tracking moves and challenging moves. These subclasses correspond to the supporting and confronting alternatives available in the responding move classes, with tracking moves supporting negotiation, while challenging moves confront a prior move. Tracking moves are moves which check, confirm, clarify or probe the content of prior moves. Challenging moves confront prior talk by detaching, rebounding, and

countering moves. The subclassification of rejoindering speech functions can be displayed in Figure 5.



5 Figure 5. Rejoindering Speech Functions

Method of the Study

This study is a discourse analysis by using systemic functional approach to casual conversation. The choice of systemic functional approach from the other relevant approaches to casual conversation considers the two major benefits offered by this approach, as pointed by Eggins and Slade (1997:47):

- 1. It offers an integrated, comprehensive and systematic model of language which enables conversational patterns to be described and quantified at different levels and in different degrees of detail.
- 2. It theorizes the links between language and social life so that conversation can be approached as a way of doing social life. More specifically, casual conversation can be analyzed as involving different linguistic patterns which both enact and construct dimensions of social identity and interpersonal relations.

The corpus of data of this study was a stretch of approximately fifty-five-minute taped-English-conversation between a native speaker and a non-native speaker. The data was a natural and casual conversation. It was natural because the conversation took place without any particular conditions to control the process of the conversation. Meanwhile, it was also casual because the speakers had the conversation just for the sake of conversing, without any certain pragmatic purpose.

The subjects of the conversation under study were a native speaker and a non-native speaker. The names of the subjects remained confidential and for referring to them in this study the initials were used respectively as NS and NNS.

The NS was an adult American female who has been living in some cities in Indonesia for about ten years teaching and being a counselor at a theological college in Semarang when this

conversation was carried out, while the NNS was a twenty-two-year-old Indonesian male student who has been studying English for seven semesters at an English department of a university in Semarang. This conversation was their first interaction. The NS happened to be the mother of the NNS's friend of his age. It was through her son that the intention to have a casual conversation with her at her most convenient chance was proposed. And she discretionarily admitted this proposal and welcomed to have a casual conversation with the NNS.

To represent the recorded conversation in written form, it was then transcribed in a way that is faithful to the spontaneity and informality of the conversation. For the accuracy of the transcription and to guarantee that the transcription really transcribed what were spoken by the interactants, it was rechecked many times by another English native speaker prior to the data analysis. The transcription was done by referring to the transcription symbols used by Eggins and Slade (1997).

To know the role relation negotiaion patterns of the casual conversation under study, speech function analysis was carried out by dividing all clauses produced in the casual conversation into moves. These moves were labeled speech functions which were then summarized in a tabulation of quantitative selection of speech functions for both speakers. The interpretation of role relationship patterns between NNS and NS was conducted from the quantification of overall speech function choices per speaker, and by tracing dynamically the conversational exchanges as the conversation unfolded.

Findings and Discussion

The overall speech function choices made by NNS and NS in the conversation can be summarized Table 3.

Speech Function	NNS	%	NS	%
Number of turns	228	50.1%	227	49.9%
Number of moves	514	53.7%	443	46.3%
Number of clauses	745	57.4%	552	42.6%
Open				
question:fact	17	54.8%	14	45.2%
question:opinion	11	64.7%	6	35.3%
statement:fact	13	36.1%	23	63.9%
statement:opinion	14	82.4%	3	17.6%
total	55	54.5%	46	45.5%
Continue				

Table 3. The Summary of Speech Function Choices of NNS and NS

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3 111 92 53 9 3 5 276	20.0% 56.1% 59.0% 49.5% 25.7% 17.6% 38.5% 51.0%	12 87 64 54 26 14 8	80.0% 43.9% 41.0% 50.5% 74.3%
92 53 9 3 5	59.0% 49.5% 25.7% 17.6% 38.5%	64 54 26 14	41.0% 50.5%
53 9 3 5	49.5% 25.7% 17.6% 38.5%	54 26 14	50.5%
9 3 5	25.7% 17.6% 38.5%	26 14	
3 5	17.6% 38.5%	14	74.3%
5	38.5%		
		8	82.4%
276	51.0%	0	61.5%
	51.070	265	49.0%
21	65.6%	11	34.4%
2	20.0%	8	80.0%
5	45.5%	6	54.5%
49	67.1%	24	32.9%
1	20.0%	4	80.0%
50	69.4%	22	30.6%
17	60.7%	11	39.3%
3	23.1%	10	76.9%
10	66.7%	5	33.3%
0	0%	9	100%
1	100%	0	0%
1	100%	0	0%
160	59%	110	41%
10	52.6%	9	47.4%
0	0%	2	100%
5	55.6%	4	44.4%
8	57.1%	6	42.9%
U		0	+4.770
0	0%	1	42.9%
	17 3 10 0 1 1 1 160 10 0	17 60.7% 3 23.1% 10 66.7% 0 0% 1 100% 1 100% 1 100% 10 59% 10 52.6% 0 0% 5 55.6%	17 60.7% 11 3 23.1% 10 10 66.7% 5 0 0% 9 1 100% 0 1 100% 0 1 100% 0 1 59% 110 10 52.6% 9 0 0% 2 5 55.6% 4

Table 3 shows that both NNS and NS use various categories of speech function. The discussion of the speech function patterns of both NNS and NS can be described as follows.

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Number of Turns

By referring to Table 3, particularly on the number of turns, there is a remarkably close similarity in the number of turns for NNS and NS, with NNS gets 228 turns and NS 227. This suggests that the interactants are competing for turns, and shows that they have right to equal turns at talk.

Number of Moves and Clauses

There is a striking difference in the amount of moves produced by NNS and NS. NNS produces more with 514 moves or 53.7 % of the whole moves of the conversation, while NS produces slightly less with 443 moves or 46.3 %. Although both interactants get similar turns at talk, NNS makes more moves in his turns. This is an indication that in this interaction NNS plays the dominant interactant. NNS's dominance of the interaction can also be seen from his higher production of clauses with 745 or 57.6 % compared to NS who makes 552 clauses or 42.6 %.

Opening Speech Function

Comparison of the number of opening moves made by NNS and NS shows that NNS dominates the openings. He makes more openings with 56, while NS makes slightly less with 46. NNS initiates the exchanges more often rather than NS. This is an indication that NNS plays the role of initiator, while NS as supporter.

In initiating exchanges, both NNS and NS use statement and question of both fact and opinion. NNS initiates the exchanges more frequently by question rather than statement. On the other hand, NS's initiations are encoded in statement. This fact also indicates different roles played by NNS and NS. NNS plays his role as the demander, while NS plays as the giver.

There is also significantly different type of information exchanged by NNS and NS in their initiations of question and statement. NNS favors giving and demanding of opinion information that risks himself for a further debate. In contrast, NS prefers giving and demanding of fact information suggesting that she does not risk presenting her own opinion for debate.

The following excerpts are the examples of the opening speech functions made by NNS.

	D:I:question: 1 Fact	NNS	(i) When you were in the Philippines almost two years, (ii) what are you doing there?
5.1.2 O:I:que	stion:opinion 429/m	NNS	(xviii) So, do you think (xix) it's a difficult to have a conversation with somebody (xx) you never meet before (xxi) or you scare to meet? (xxii) Something like that.
O:I:statement:op	inion 113/c	NNS	(iv) To be honest (v) when the first time I phoned you last Sunday, (vi) I just feel a little bit afraid.
O:I:statement:fac	et 127/b	NNS	(ii) I remember (iii) when the first time I have to give my testimony in Baptist church in Candi, an international church.

In move 1 NNS initiates an exchange by demanding factual information from NS on her past experience when he was in the Philippines, while in move 429/m he demands on NS's opinion about the first conversation with a total stranger. He also initiates an exchange by giving opinion statement as in move 113/c telling what he feels before calling NNS for an appointment to have a

casual conversation. Move 127/b is an initiation of exchange done by NNS by telling experience about his first testimony in an international Baptist church somewhere in Candi.

The use of opening speech functions in initiating exchanges by NS can be exemplified in the following excerpt:

O:I:question:opinion	234	Ν	(i) What what did you see through in everything in high school?
O:I:question:fact	256/a	Ν	(i) Is your family part of your church too?
O:I:statement:opinion	112	Ν	(i) That's what I like to do.
O:I:statement:fact	110/e	Ν	(v) This morning somebody had a car accident.

Continuing Speech Function

Table 3 shows that continuing speech functions dominate the speech function production in the conversation either by NNS or NS. NNS produces 276 continuing speech functions or 54 % of his own speech functions, while NS makes 265 or 50 % of her own speech functions. This indicates that both NNS and NS favor sustain the negotiations by keeping continuing the same propositions in his or her previous moves. In sustaining the exchanges, NNS continues more often by making 275 continuing moves compared to NS who does the same moves with 265. Both NNS and NS continue their negotiations by monitoring, prolonging, and appending.

From these continuing moves, prolonging moves are most frequently used by either NNS or NS. NNS and NS prolong 255 and 205 times respectively. This means that they are not straightforward in their negotiations: i.e. they do not say all they want to say in one single move. In prolonging moves, they use elaboration by clarifying an immediately prior move, extension by adding to the information in an immediately prior move, and enhancement by modifying the information in an immediately prior move. Both NNS and NS favour prolonging their moves by elaboration. This means that they say the same thing in a different way: i.e. they do less to broaden subsequent discussion. The examples of prolonging moves made by NNS and NS are among other as follows:

62/a	NS	(i) So he loved to have a language
62/b		(ii) but Jenny speaks too.
62/c		(iii) Jenny speaks better Javanese than John.
63	NNS	(i) Yeah.
64	NS	(i) But Jennifer is afraid.
65	NNS	(i) Why?
66/a	NS	(i) She is afraid better than the others.
66/b		(ii) Jennifer is more of a perfectionist.
67/a	NNS	(i) Yeah.
	62/b 62/c 63 64 65 66/a 66/b	62/b 62/c 63 NNS 64 NS 65 NNS 66/a NS 66/b

C:prolong:elaborate 67/b (ii) I can see it.

NS dominates in continuing moves by monitoring. She uses 12 times much more than NNS who makes only 3. This correlates with her role as the giver of factual information. In doing so, she focuses on the state of the interactive situation by checking that her addressee is following or understanding her negotiation. For example:

C:prolong:elaborate	22/a	NS	(i) The cities speak English
C:prolong:extend	22/b		(ii) and the dessert speak whatever language (iii) they speak,
C:prolong:enhance	22/c		(iv) same like here.
C:monitor	22/d		(v) You know the dessert?
C:prolong:elaborate	22/e		(vi) They speak Javanese.
R:resp:sup:reply:agree	23	NNS	(i) Yes.

Besides using prolonging speech functions, both NNS and NS also make appending speech functions. This happens when they make one move, lose the turn, but then as soon as they regain the turn they produce a move which represents a logical expansion of their immediate prior move. Like prolonging moves, appending moves can also be done by elaboration, extension, or enhancement. For example:

O:I:statement:fact	8/a	NS	(i) So Greg was in the end in a language position.
C:prolong:enhance	8/b		(ii) So we went to Mindanao
R:resp:sup:register	9	NNS	(i) Oh, Mindanao.
C:app:elaborate	10/a	NS	(i) Which spoke Samoano.
C:prolong:elaborate	10/b		(ii) In that area we lived, (iii) they spoke Samoano.

NNS's interruption "*Oh, Mindanao*" in turn 9 makes NS lose her turn. But then she gets her turn again in turn 10, and she makes an elaboration to the information in move 8/b which is interrupted by NNS.

Reacting-Responding Speech Function

In responding reactions NNS is more dominant than NS. He produces 160 moves and she makes less with 110 moves. Most of the responses are supporting moves. From NNS's 160 responding moves, 158 are supporting moves and only 2 are confronting moves. Similarly, of NS's 110 responding moves, 101 are supporting moves and 9 are confronting moves. The high number of supporting moves made by both NNS and NS indicates that they accept each other to negotiate

the other's proposition by giving predicted response: a response which is preferred by the proposition giver.

In supporting the other's propositions NNS and NS use developing, registering, and replying moves. The developing-supporting moves are expressed by using elaboration, extension, or enhancement. The developing-supporting moves made by NNS and NS are dominated by elaboration. This pattern of elaboration continues the similar elaboration in continuing moves. This means that they tend to re-say what someone else has already said. For example:

C:prolong:enhance	36/a	NS	(i) Because actually in Bandung is the same as Indonesia,
C:prolong:elaborate	36/b		(ii) has more Sundanese.
R:resp:sup:devel:elaborate	37	NNS	(i) Sundanese, dialect.
R:sup:reply:agree	38/a	NS	(i) Yes.
C:prolong:extend	429/s	NNS	(xxxiv) And my mother is teaching at a kindergarten.
C:prolong:elaborate	429/t		(xxxv) She is the headmaster of the kindergarten.(xxxvi) And she took the study again,
C:prolong:enhance	429/u		(xxxvii) so she has no time for == her family.
R:resp:sup:devel:elaborate	430	NS	= = (i) Very very busy.

In move 37 NNS makes a clarifying elaboration of NNS's earlier move "*has more Sundanese*" by saying "*Sundanese, dialect*" to clarify that what is meant by *Sundanese* is a dialect. Similarly, in move 430 NS supports NNS's proposition about his mother who has many works to do by expressing elliptical declarative "(*She is*) very very busy".

Another way of supporting the other's proposition in this conversation is by registering. Such moves provide supportive encouragement for the other speaker to take another turn without introducing any new material for negotiation. Registering moves made by NNS and NS in this conversation are expressed with back channeling clues and evaluative reactions. For example:

C:prolong:enhance	104	NS	(i) Because when I lived in America, (ii) I feel (iii) that God called me (iv) and told me (v) to come to Indonesia (vi) to just be myself
R:resp:sup:register	105	NNS	(i) Just to be yourself.
C:app:elaborate	106	NS	(i) In Indonesia.
R:resp:sup:register	107	NNS	(i) He hem.
O:I:question:fact	144/b	NS	(ii) So you gonna have a television
R:resp:sup:reply:agree	145	NNS	(i) Yeah.
C:app:elaborate	146	NS	(i) Station at your church.
R:resp:sup:reply:agree	147	NNS	(i) Yeah.
R:resp:sup:register	148	NS	(i) Wow!

In move 107 NNS gives feedback "*he hem*" to indicate that he has understood what NS has said in the previous move and he encourages NS to take the next turn. The similar registering also happens in move 148 when NS gives evaluative reaction "*Wow!*" on the information given by NNS in the previous moves about his church's plan to build a television station. This registering move expresses sympathetic surprise that does not implicate a confrontation or further resolution by the next speaker.

Compared to the other two categories of supporting speech functions, replying speech functions are mostly used by NNS and NS. The replies include accepting, agreeing, answering, acknowledging, and affirming. These categories of replies are dominated by agreeing replies. NNS agrees 50 times and NS does 22 times mush more than the frequencies of the other categories of supporting replies. This is an indication that to maintain the interpersonal relationships in the conversation both NNS and NS support each other by agreement replies toward their propositions. The uses of replying moves can be exemplified as follows:

O:I:statement:fact	62/a	NS	(i) So he loved to have a language
C:prolong:extend	62/b		(ii) but Jenny speaks too.
C:prolong:elaborate	62/c		(iii) Jenny speaks better Javanese than John.
R:resp:sup:reply:agree	63	NNS	(i) Yeah.
C:prolong:extend	64	NS	(i) But Jennifer is afraid.
Rej:sup:track:probe	65	NNS	(i) Why?
Rej:sup:resp:resolve	66/a	NS	(i) She is afraid better than the others.
C:prolong:elaborate	66/b		(ii) Jennifer is more of a perfectionist.
R:resp:sup:reply:agree	67/a	NNS	(i) Yeah.
C:prolong:elaborate	67/b		(ii) I can see it.

The agreement replies made by NNS in moves 63 and 67/a show that he agrees to accept the propositions that he express in the prior moves.

It is also interesting to note that the responses of the other's propositions and proposals are not only done by supporting moves but also by confronting ones although their frequencies are not as many as supporting moves. NNS confronts less with 1 by withholding and the other 1 by contradicting. On the other hand, NS confronts more with 9 moves, and all are disagreeing. Those confronting replies made by NNS are responses to closed polarity questions in the initiating moves by responding with negative polarity to positive questions. But the disagreements made by NS in the conversation are intended to encourage NNS to have and continue the conversation. For example:

O:I:question:opinion	101/b	NNS	(ii) Do you feel, what is it, <i>keberatan</i> ? (iii) Do you mind about this?
R:resp:confront:reply:disagree	102/a	NS	(i) No. (ii) No.
O:I:question:opinion	161/b	NNS	(ii) Do you mind (iii) if I share something?

R:resp:confront:disagree	162/a	NS	(i) No that's great.
Rej:sup:track:probe	181	NNS	(i) Do you think it's so straight?(i) No.
R:resp:confront:reply:disagree	182/a	NS	
O:I:question:fact	225/c	NNS	(iii) So Puri always come here?(i) Not all the time.
R:resp:confront:reply:disagree	226/a	NS	
O:I:question:fact	287	NNS	(i) You yourself cook it?(i) No, no, I don't.
R:resp:confr:disagree	288/a	NS	

Reacting-Rejoinder Speech Function

Rejoinder speech functions set underway sequences of talk that interrupt, postpone, abort or suspend the initial speech function sequence. Thus with respect to what is already negotiated on the table, rejoinders query it (demanding further details) or reject it (offering alternative explanations). In this conversation, NNS and NS make nearly equal number of rejoinders. They make 23 and 22 rejoinders respectively. This indicates that all of the interactants contribute to the maintenance and open-endedness of the conversation. The rejoinder speech functions of NNS and NS are dominated by tracking moves of confirmation which indicate that try to promote sustained talk by seeking verification of what he or she has heard. The rejoinder speech functions made by NNS and NS in this conversation can be exemplified in the following excerpts:

C:app:extend	54	NS	(i) And all of his friends are Javanese.
Rej:sup:track:confirm	55	NNS	(i) Javanese?

In move 55 NNS indicates that he has heard NS's claim about her son's total Javanese friends and wants it confirmed.

The following is an example of tracking-clarifying move made by NS in seeking for additional information in order to understand the prior move: i.e. about NNS's grandmother.

O:I:statement:opinion	413/a	NNS	(i) Yeah I think that's I just feel pity for the people (ii) who doesn't know the Lord.
C:prolong:elaborate	413/b		(iii) I can't imagine (iv) how can they use with the conditions.
C:prolong:enhance	413/c		(v) Since my grandmother is not a Christian yet.
C:prolong:elaborate	413/d		(vi) She is coming from another religion.
Rej:sup:track:clarify	414	NS	(i) On your dad's side or mother's?
R:resp:sup:reply:answer	415	NNS	(i) My mother's side.

The move of tracking-probing which offers further details or proposes implication for confirmation by the initial speaker, and the move of tracking-resolving to provide clarification by the initial speaker can be exemplified in the following excerpt:

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O:I:statement:fact	30/b	NS	(ii) The language is different
C:prolong:enhance	30/c		(iii) cause we went to a language school in Bandung.
Rej:sup:track:confirm	31	NNS	(i) So you were learning <i>Bahasa Indonesia</i> in Bandung?
Rej:sup:response:resolve	32	NS	(i) Yeah.
Rej:sup:track:probe	33	NNS	(i) Do you find it so difficult to learn?
Rej:sup:response:resolve	34	NS	(i) Very much.
R:resp:sup:register	35	NNS	(i) Very much.

Conclusion

The patterns of role relation negotiation as the realization of the interpersonal meanings between non-native speaker (NNS) and native speaker (NS) in the casual conversation under study can be inferred as the following.

- a. In terms of opening speech functions, NNS plays his role as the initiator of interaction by choosing more questions while NS as the supporter with more statements.
- b. In continuing the talk, both NNS and NS use prolonging, appending, and monitoring speech functions. They favour prolong their own moves by elaboration: i.e. saying the same thing in different way.
- c. In responding, both NNS and NS choose mostly the supporting speech functions by replying (indicating a willingness to accept the propositions of the other interactant), registering (providing supportive encouragement), and developing (expanding the propositions experientially). Only minimal confronting responses are produced.
- d. In rejoinder, both NNS and NS choose supporting moves; most are tracking the prior moves. NS enacts more various ways in tracking by confirming, clarifying, probing, resolving, and countering.

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