

# Theoretical Framework for Communicative Adjustment in Language Acquisition

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Although much of the work in the study of negotiation of meaning subsequent to Krashen (1982, 1985) support the notion that negotiation of meaning leads to comprehensible input, which in turn results in acquisition, I question the prevailing assumption based on four reasons. Firstly, negotiation studies show a tendency to under-estimate the role of adjustment. Secondly, it is questionable whether the negotiation for comprehensible input plays a crucial role in language acquisition where the input obtained by the learner is merely simplified input, not optimal input. Thirdly, the study of negotiation of meaning focuses upon meaning in the narrow sense of the word. Limiting the study of negotiation to lexical inadequacies does not guarantee an understanding of successful acquisition. I agree with Neustupný that interactive competence is an ingredient for acquisition. This notion embraces three areas of competence: sociocultural, sociolinguistic and linguistic which are inseparable for understanding language acquisition. Lastly, the relationship between negotiation and acquisition needs to be considered in terms of language learning strategies. The above four points indicate that the framework of negotiation for language acquisition needs to be reconstructed through a focus on the adjustment of inadequacies.

## 1. Communication problems in contact situations

This paper aims to establish a theoretical framework of communicative adjustment for language acquisition focusing on contact discourse features between Japanese native speakers and foreign speakers of Japanese. One approach that deals with communication problems in a comprehensive way is the language

management approach (Neustupný 1973, 1978, 1985a, 1985b, 1989; Jernudd & Thuan 1980; Jernudd & Neustupný 1986). This approach divides communication situations into those which only consist of native speaker participants, and those in which both native and foreign speakers are present. The former are known as internal situations and the latter as contact situations (Neustupný 1981, 1985b, 1996). Contact situations can be further sub-classified on the basis of personnel diversity. Fan (1992) developed an approach based on who participates in the situations. She proposes the existence of partner situations in which the native language of one of the participants (or partners) is used, and shared language situations, in which participants share similar, but not identical norms, for example, in contact between American English speaker(s) and Australian English speaker(s). Further, no native speakers participate in third party situations because participants cannot employ their native languages to communicate. Contact between Korean speaker(s) and Japanese speaker(s) employing English as a communicative second/foreign language is an example.

One of the primary constructs of a contact situation is the norm (Neustupný 1985a, 1985b; Marriott 1988). A norm is defined as the common expectations that a member representing the target community will behave in a certain way with regard to his or her behaviour (Coulthard 1985:54–58). It has alternatively been defined as behaviour towards language (Fishman 1971:221).<sup>1</sup> In this regard, Hymes refers to norms of interaction and norms of interpretation in the field of ethnography of speaking (Hymes 1974:104). Within the language management framework proposed by Neustupný, the structure of the adjustment process can be described as consisting of three relatively distinct stages: norm deviation, evaluation marking, and adjustment<sup>2</sup> design. This mechanism of adjustment is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

In stages (1) and (2), norm deviation constitutes the first stage of the adjustment process. Here, a deviation may be noted consciously or unconsciously by a speaker, or it may remain unnoted. Subsequently, in stages (3) and (4), noted deviations can proceed to the evaluation stage. At the stage of evaluation, language behaviour (spoken and written) can be evaluated positively, negatively (as failing to satisfy the norm) or neutrally. A negative evaluation can be expressed through a negative feeling of discontent or frustration, which can either remain unexpressed or be communicated (non-verbally or verbally). As a result of negative evaluation, an inadequacy<sup>3</sup> is established. Finally, in stages (5) and (6), once inadequacies are identified, there may be a search for an appropriate solution (adjustment). As the final step in the adjustment process, implementation of the solution may follow.

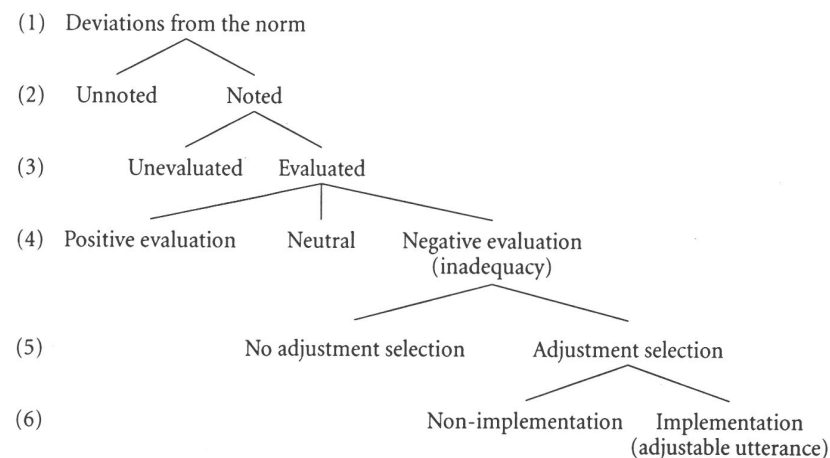


Figure 1. The adjustment process

## 2. Adjustment and negotiation of meaning for language acquisition

Although much of the work in the study of negotiation of meaning (subsequent to Krashen 1982, 1985) support the notion that negotiation of meaning leads to comprehensible input, which in turn results in acquisition, I question the prevailing assumption based on four reasons.

Firstly, negotiation studies show a tendency to under-estimate the role of adjustment. For example, Long (1983a, 1983b) attempts to connect adjustment and acquisition in his Interaction Hypothesis but he only focuses on the process of comprehensible input. A more systematic approach to the function of adjustment in the negotiation process is thus required. Negotiation is basically a process that adjusts an inadequacy which occurs in the process of acquisition. The inadequacy can be removed through the application of various adjustment acts. In other words, acquisition is a process of the adjustment of inadequacies, not a process relating to comprehensible input. The essence of acquisition is to stimulate the development of the learner's current level, not to gain comprehensible or simplified input. In this regard, there is no logical connection between comprehensible input and acquisition.

Secondly, with regard to the relationship between negotiation and acquisition, it is questionable whether the negotiation for comprehensible input plays a crucial role in language acquisition where the input obtained by the learner is merely simplified input, not optimal input (Hatch 1983; Larsen-Freeman 1983; White 1987). For example, Sakamoto et al. (1989) examine how advanced and

input  
 non-advanced learners feel towards foreigner talk, which is the native speaker's interactional modification to make input for learners comprehensible (Ferguson 1981). They reveal that advanced learners show a less favourable reaction to foreigner talk. Furthermore, Corder (1967) distinguishes input from intake (or, according to Corder's term, taken in). Input refers to what is available to the learner, whereas intake refers to what is actually internalized by the learner. Other researchers also argue that the learner benefits from intake, but not from input (Hatch 1983; Chaudron 1985; Gass 1988). Simplified input received through modified speech does not facilitate acquisition, as in most cases the inadequacy still remains. As White suggests, incomprehensible input is more important to consider with regard to the learner's acquisition because input may trigger the learner's recognition of inadequacies (White 1987: 97–99).

Thirdly, the study of negotiation of meaning focuses upon meaning in the narrow sense of the word. As such, only limited types of inadequacies seem to have been explored in previous studies of negotiation. These inadequacies tend to be mainly lexical inadequacies. Although lexical knowledge may be the most important component for learners, as claimed by Gass and Selinker (1994: 270), limiting the study of negotiation to lexical inadequacies does not guarantee an understanding of successful acquisition. Indeed, lexical knowledge is only part of the learner's overall communicative competence. Neustupný (1989: 36–38) claims that interactive competence is an ingredient for acquisition, and that this notion embraces three areas of competence: sociocultural, sociolinguistic and linguistic. Accordingly, all three areas of competence are inseparable in considering language acquisition.

Lastly, the relationship between negotiation and acquisition needs to be considered in terms of language learning strategies. An early definition advanced by Rubin which is widely accepted states that language learning strategies are the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge (Rubin 1975: 43). The study of learning strategies is also concerned with communication strategies as a subset of direct strategies (Oxford 1989). Rubin explains that communication is the main goal of language learning. She argues that communication involves interpretation, the expression of intentions and the negotiation of meaning (Rubin & Thompson 1982: 27–34). Rubin's claim suggests that sending and receiving messages through negotiation work is important for acquisition in communication. However, there has been few attempts to link negotiation to learning strategies. For a further understanding of negotiation, it is thus necessary to consider how negotiation is linked to learning strategies.

The above four points indicate that the framework of negotiation for language acquisition needs to be reconstructed through a focus on the adjustment of inadequacies. In this study, the term communicative adjustment or simply adjustment is used in order to distinguish it from the term negotiation which is employed by other second language acquisition scholars. I will postulate a new framework for adjustment in which the essential factors which determine the structure of adjustment are embraced.

### 3. A framework for communicative adjustment

This section focuses on construction of a framework of adjustment by considering what essential factors determine the design of adjustment. Such a framework is necessary in order to integrate the phenomenon of adjustment with the purpose of language acquisition. If this can be achieved, we may eventually be able to formulate more precise proposals on the nature of language acquisition.

In order to construct a framework for communicative adjustment, at least three elements that determine adjustment should be taken into consideration. First, adjustment trajectories must be considered in terms of who marks and who achieves the adjustment. The second consideration is what types of markers invite adjustment: in other words, what factors stimulate an adjustment process. Pica says that negotiation of meaning starts when a listener signals to a speaker that the speaker's message is not clear (1991: 200). However, she does not explain how listeners can signal their lack of comprehension to a speaker. Indeed, some occurrence of negotiation may start even without a signal from a speaker or a hearer. The third factor which determines the nature of the adjustment is concerned with how adjustment is designed.

Previous studies have disregarded the questions of who achieves an adjustment, when is adjustment achieved and how it is achieved. Based on these three elements, a framework of communicative adjustment emerges. This framework can be constructed through the application of two main areas of studies: language management, and ethnomethodology, which is concerned with the conversational mechanism based on repair<sup>4</sup> (Sacks et al. 1974; Schegloff et al. 1977; Schegloff 1979, 1987; Jefferson 1987). The latter work has not been directly related to language acquisition, but has significantly contributed to the development of a model of discourse management.

### 3.1 An adjustment trajectory

Figure 1 above showed that the adjustment process consists of a number of distinct stages. However, this figure only refers to how the process flows. It does not address how adjustment is sequentially arranged and no mention is made of who is engaged at each stage. It is presupposed that more than one participant may be involved in the process of adjustment. When the hearer marks an inadequacy, the speaker may design an adjustment or *vice a versa*. This fact helps explain how participants cooperate during the adjustment process to remove an inadequacy. Schegloff and his associates illustrated the mechanisms involved in the organisation of adjustment (1977:362–368). They presented four possible movements from inadequacy marking to the completion of an adjustment. These movements are known as adjustment trajectories (cf. McHoul 1990:351). The categories originate from the combination of four factors: self-speaker, other-speaker, initiation (or marking) and completion (adjustment).

According to the adjustment trajectories proposed by Sacks et al., two types of self-adjustment can be distinguished: other-marked *self-adjustment* in which the hearer marks an inadequacy such as misunderstanding and his/her interlocutor designs an adjustment for problem-solving, while in self-marked self-adjustment, only the original speaker is involved in the whole adjustment process. The former is an adjustment with reference to *comprehension adjustment* and the self-adjustment in this trajectory is accomplished in the third turn from the trigger (McHoul 1990:352). On the other hand, the latter contains two features distinguished by Schegloff et al. (1977): (1) achievement in the same turn, and (2) achievement in the turn's transition space. More importantly, the latter is an adjustment which is achieved in the process of *production adjustment* because no comprehension act is involved.<sup>5</sup> The notion of an adjustment trajectory is thus a prerequisite for considering who marks and adjusts an inadequacy (cf. Kasper 1985).

Adjustment type (1) self-initiated and self-completed repair can be interpreted as a two-step process: the process of the speaker's inadequacy marking and the process of adjustment design and implementation by them. Type (2) other-initiated and self-completed repair is similar to (1) as the speaker still completes the adjustment, however the hearer marks the adjustment.<sup>6</sup> In type (3) self-initiated and other-completed repair the speaker marks the inadequacy but the hearer designs and implements the adjustment. Finally, in type (4) other-initiated and other-completed repair, the whole adjustment process

(*initiation and completion*) is carried out by the other person. In this case, the first speaker does not partake in the process of adjustment at all. Thus, according to Schegloff and his associates' illustration of the adjustment process, there are two types of self-adjustments and two types of other-adjustments.

The notions of adjustment trajectory and turn-taking are inseparable because adjustment is achieved by taking conversational turns. McHoul (1990) has examined the features of turn-taking in self-adjustment and other-adjustment in terms of the content of sequence and adjustment trajectories. According to McHoul, the content of the sequence includes not only the inadequacy,<sup>7</sup> marking and adjustment, but also the participants who accomplish the adjustment act.

Table 1. Turn-taking and self-/other-adjustment

	Turn	Content	Participants
1	Single turn	Trouble source + initiation + correction	Self
2	Single turn Turn transition	Trouble source Initiation/correction	Self
3	First turn Next turn Third turn	Trouble source ( ) Initiation/correction	Self Other Self
4a	First turn Next turn	Trouble source Initiation/correction	Self Other
4b	First turn Next turn Third turn	Trouble source Initiation Correction	Self Other Self

Source: (McHoul 1990:352)

The first two turn-taking patterns are classified as self-marked self-adjustment above.<sup>8</sup> The third pattern is adjustment in which the problem is not noticed by the other-speaker in the next turn, and the self-speaker marks the problem and achieves an adjustment. On the other hand, 4a is other-marked other-adjustment because the other marked the inadequacy, and then designed and implemented the adjustment. In this case, other-marking yields other-adjustment. However, 4b is an other-marked self-adjustment pattern because other-marking yields self-adjustment. McHoul gives the example of a teacher's direct adjustment in the classroom as an example of 4a and a learner's self-adjustment as marked by the teacher, as an example of 4b.



### 3.2 Adjustment markers

Adjustment markers refer to the stimulus which invites adjustment from the interlocutor. The term markers is thus used with reference to a speech act which switches on an adjustment. It is hypothesised that three types of markers invite adjustment: adjustment request markers, inadequacy markers and support markers.

#### 3.2.1 *Adjustment request markers*

Inadequacies are divided into two types according to their nature: comprehension inadequacies and production inadequacies. Comprehension adjustment is employed to remove the inadequacy marked in the comprehension process, while production adjustment is used to adjust production inadequacies which were marked in the process of production.

Comprehension adjustment is marked through an adjustment request marker, Request for Clarification (RC), which elicits a speaker's self-adjustment (Bialystok 1978; Rumelhart 1983; Ozaki 1989). Ozaki (1989), for instance, examined the comprehension process in Japanese conversational discourse and constructed a theoretical framework for RC. RC sequences consist of two interchanges which emerge in the adjustment process as illustrated:

1. Speaker X: Comprehension-problem-likely utterance
2. Speaker Y: RC (other-marked)
3. Speaker X: Adjustment (self-adjustment)

An RC comprehension adjustment trajectory is thus other-marked self-adjustment. This comprehension adjustment process is designed according to a single unit of adjustment, where comprehension is achieved after only one adjustment. This pattern of turn-taking corresponds to 4b in McHoul's classification in Table 1.

Request for adjustment (RA) is another adjustment request marker. It refers to a signal which initiates a process of production adjustment. This marker functions for solving problems in the planning phase due to insufficient linguistic resources (Faerch & Kasper 1983:46). The speaker may also seek adjustable assistance from the hearer in order to remove his/her own inadequacy in the process of production because individual inability to correct inadequacies may cause the speaker to seek help from other members of the speech community or cause intervention by a hearer (Jernudd & Thuan 1983:78). RA is a different quality of request marker, which functions to elicit an other-

adjustment from the hearer. These strategies are a form of appeal (Tarone, Cohen & Drumas 1983; Corder 1983). This appeal for assistance in transfer type communication strategies is identified as RA.

Suppose that a speaker (speaker X) issues an inappropriate utterance, evaluates it negatively and designs an adjustment. The RA sequence begins when speaker X uses an RA (self-marked) towards to the hearer (speaker Y). This self-marking is often characterised as self-interruption in the process of a speaker's utterance. As Goodwin (1987) points out, self-interruptions invite other-correction giving them interactional significance. The sequence is completed with the speaker Y's other-adjustment. Unlike the RC adjustment trajectory, the RA production adjustment trajectory is self-marked other-adjustment. The basic flow of single unit of production adjustment is thus as follows:

1. Speaker X: Production-problem-likely utterance  
Inadequacy marked (self-marked)  
Design of adjustment (RA)
2. Speaker Y: Adjustment

In the above adjustment process, speaker X fulfils the dual role of inadequacy marker and adjustment solicitor who requests an adjustment from speaker Y. However, speaker Y in an RC adjustment only fulfils the function of an adjustment solicitor.

#### 3.2.2 *The flag*

As Faerch & Kasper (1983) indicate, the appeal function in an RA may be direct or indirect. A direct appeal with an assistance-seeking function is categorised as an RA. However, an indirect appeal function which is employed when the speaker experiences negative feelings of discontent or frustration is labelled as a 'Flag'. Although a Flag is an overt marker which signals a certain stage of adjustment (for example, noting, evaluation or adjustment design or a combination of these), no soliciting adjustment act is verbally achieved. The Flag may consist of linguistic and/or non-linguistic elements. Possible utterances which may function as a Flag include incomplete utterances, interjections, repetition of the trouble spot utterance, a pause or a combination of these. The sequence of Flag type adjustment can be structured as follows:

1. Speaker X: Production-problem-likely utterance  
self-interruption (Flag)
2. Speaker Y: Adjustment

This adjustment has the same turn-allocation (self-marked other-adjustment) as RA, but, there is no verbal act which solicits an adjustment. Flag-type inadequacy markers need to be examined in terms of how the next speaker adjusts by means of the provision of corrective feedback<sup>9</sup> (Day et al. 1984; Gass and Varonis 1985; Varonis and Gass 1985a). The effectiveness of a Flag, like an RA, depends on the next speaker. The next speaker must notice this type of request and cooperatively search for a solution of the original speaker's production problem to facilitate successful comprehension.<sup>10</sup> Failure to identify the indirect speech acts leads to an unsuccessful adjustment. Thus a Flag does not function effectively without the next speaker's supportive adjustment. The adjustment initiated by adjustment request markers are seen as an adjustment operated by external stimulus because the hearer marks the inadequacy, while the adjustment initiated by Flag markers represents an adjustment caused by an internal (or speaker's own) stimulus.

### 3.2.3 Support markers

Faerch & Kasper's claim that 'the native interlocutor's behaviour is governed by the principle that if the learner signals that he has problems formulating (an utterance by) himself, help out' (1983:229). However, sometimes no adjustment request markers are selected. The process of this adjustment in which an RC is skipped is an adjustment in which no adjustment solicitor exists. In this case, speaker Y may understand speaker X's utterance well enough to adjust it without clarifying the request. In fact, speaker Y may prefer to do this in order not to discontinue the flow of the conversation. In other words, speaker Y avoids using a side-sequence and manages to sustain the main sequence. I shall call this a Non-RC-type comprehension adjustment. This type of marker is a support marker because it functions to help sustain the on-going conversation with minimum interference from a side-sequence. The adjustment trajectory of this type can be described as other-marked other-adjustment and the turn-allocation corresponds to 4a in Mchoul's classification of adjustment in Table 1 above.

Non-RC adjustment facilitates the main flow of a sequence and helps to sustain the on-going conversation. Speaker X's turn-taking for self-adjustment is suspended in the Non-RC adjustment process. This adjustment is categorised as other (Speaker Y) — marked other (Speaker Y) — adjustment. In association with the adjustment process in Figure 1 above, this adjustment process can be illustrated as follows:

1. Speaker X: Comprehension-problem-likely utterance
2. Speaker Y: Adjustment (other-marked other-adjustment)

Speaker Y in the above contact discourse avoids an adjustment exchange such as seeking a self-adjustment from Speaker X. It is proposed that Speaker Y clearly recognised the nature of the inadequacy and desires more substantial information exchange by maintaining the main sequence. Despite the fact that the adjustment seeking act forms a major portion of the conversation and requires a considerable effort, the act is not always successful.

To summarise, there are two types of adjustment request markers used in comprehension adjustment: RC type (other-marked self-adjustment) and Non-RC (other-marked other-adjustment) type. On the other hand, production adjustment is facilitated by three different markers. These are: adjustment request marker RA (self-marked other-adjustment); inadequacy marker Flag (self-marked other-adjustment); and, support markers (self-marked self-adjustment) which are used in the other-marked other-adjustment trajectory. Adjustment request markers can be seen as explicit markers because the function of the markers are definite, while flags and support markers may be seen as implicit markers which are somewhat obscure in terms of the implied request.

Comprehension and production adjustment trajectories which are initiated by these three different types of markers are illustrated in Figures 2 and 3 below.

## 3.3 Adjustment design

This element of my adjustment framework is concerned with how adjustment is designed. Two essential factors, frames and networks which originate from Neustupný's (1987) message (frame) form rules and participant rules respectively, interact to determine the design of an adjustment. Frames and networks may be combined in various ways in the process of adjustment. The major concern of discourse analysis in previous studies of negotiation has been limited to dyadic conversation focusing on dichotomous variables, known as two-party adjustment and single adjustment. However, examination of these limited variables only provides us with a partial view of the adjustment process in contact discourse. Not surprisingly, as language acquisition progresses, contact situations become more complex in terms of frames and networks. This section thus places an emphasis on the significance of sequential adjustment discourse and personnel diversity in adjustment.

### 3.3.1 Frame design

Frame design is related to the actual process of adjustment and how it is sequentially designed. Sometimes an inadequacy cannot be successfully

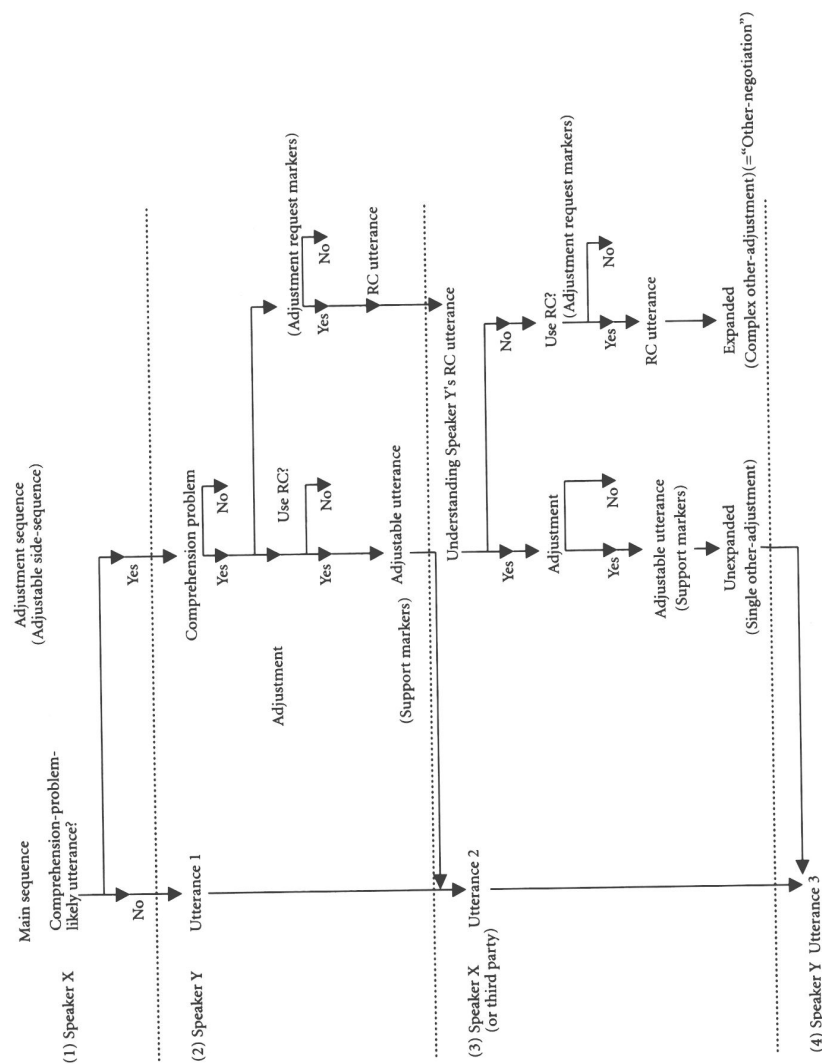


Figure 2. Comprehension sequences (other-marked self-adjustment, other-marked other-adjustment)

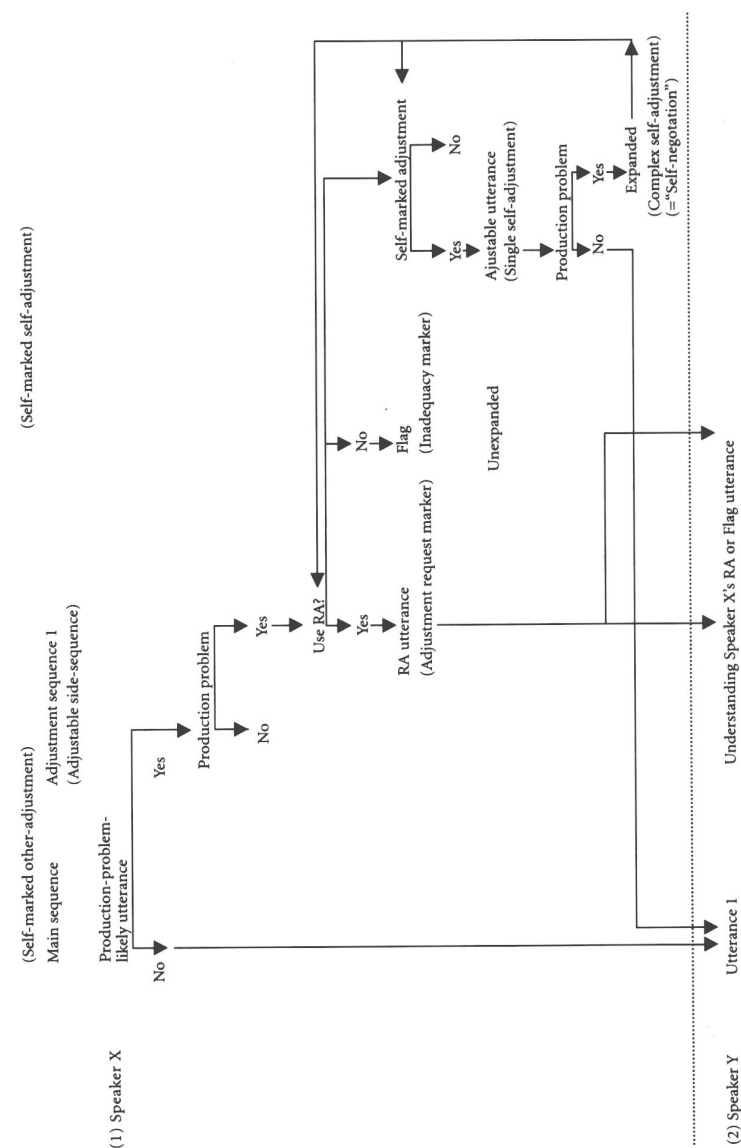


Figure 3. Production adjustments sequences (self-marked other-adjustment, self-marked self-adjustment)

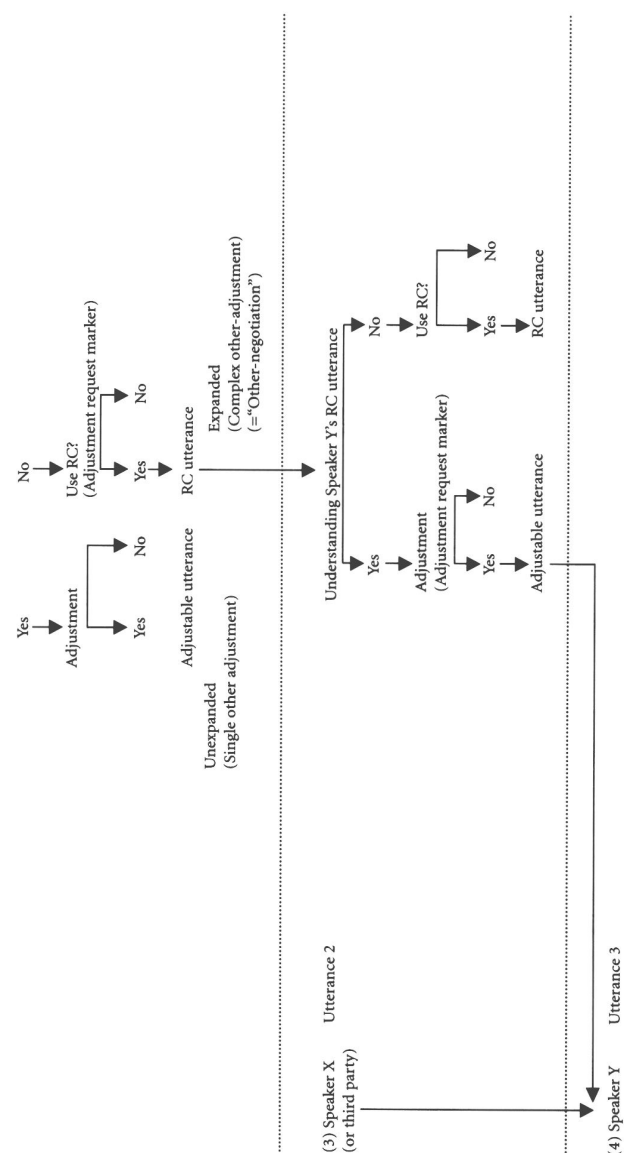


Figure 3. (cont.)

removed with only a single attempt at adjustment. A second adjustment may be selected where a first adjustment was unsuccessful and the inadequacy may remain unsolved. This process is likely to continue until the inadequacy is completely removed. Negotiation studies on adjustment have mainly investigated single adjustments, and fail to recognise the importance of the design of adjustment in terms of a sequence. However, the sequence is an important determining factor in adjustment discourse. Jefferson & Schenkein argue that two types of adjustment sequences must be considered: an unexpanded adjustment sequence in which adjustment is achieved in only one adjustment process; and an expanded adjustment sequence in which adjustment acts are consecutively carried out (Jefferson & Schenkein 1977:93–95). In the present study, the former is referred to as a single adjustment in which adjustment is not arranged sequentially, while the latter is referred to as a complex adjustment in which single adjustments are chained, or alternatively, negotiation in which adjustments are sequentially expanded takes place.

In relation to the term sequence, Jefferson (1972) first proposed the term side-sequence, which refers to the act of breaking from the main flow of a conversation. She explains the flow of a conversational sequence as follows:

- (1) On-going sequence
- ↓
- (2) Side-sequence (break from the main sequence)
- ↓
- (3) Return to on-going sequence.

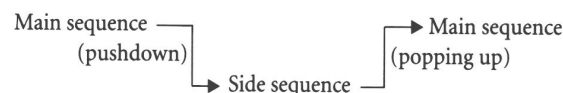
This side-sequence is part of the process of turn-taking which forms the basis of organising conversation (Sacks et al. 1974). Single adjustment is characterised by an ABA (for example, A: Speaker X's excerpt, B: Speaker Y's excerpt) turn-allocation sequence. An ABAB sequence consists of three types of segments: (1) the main sequence (problem-likely utterance); (2) corrective adjustment sequence; and, (3) return to the main sequence. Part (2) thus forms a side-sequence.

The notion of side-sequence has been applied in some studies of second language acquisition. For example, Varonis & Gass (1985a, 1985b) argue that by using an adjustment in contact discourse, conversational participants can successfully maintain the flow of discourse. Day et al. (1984) note that an adjustment sequence can be seen as two combined sequences: the main sequence and an adjustment sequence. The following is an example of how an adjustment process sequence may flow:

Main sequence	Adjustment sequence (side-sequence)
1. A: Problem likely utterance	
2. B: ↓	Adjustment seeking utterance
3. A: ↓	Adjustable utterance
4. B: Return to main sequence	

Second language acquisition researchers view these two types of sequences in different ways in terms of the flow of conversation. Varonis & Gass (1985b) and Day et al. (1984) apply the term side-sequence differently, as illustrated in Figure 4. Varonis & Gass interpret side-sequence as a vertical 'pushdown' from the horizontal flow of the conversation, with participants 'popping up' to the conversation when the problem has been resolved (1985b:328). Thus a side-sequence is a somewhat 'jerky' act which does not enhance the flow of the discourse. On the other hand, Day et al. (1984) believe that side-sequences help to maintain the flow of the discourse by clearing up inadequacies and improving the linear progression of discourse.

(1) Vertical-horizontal flow type (Varonis & Gass 1985b)



(2) Linear flow type (Day et al. 1984)



Figure 4. Two flows of side-sequences

Although these two types of schematic relationships reveal recognition of the role of side-sequences, the notion of side-sequences is suggestive in considering how an inadequacy is attended to in the process of an adjustment.

### 3.3.2 Network design

The nature of an adjustment depends upon the composition of the conversational network. Network relates to personnel selection, and is determined by who is involved in the process of adjustment (Neustupný 1989a). On the basis of networks, adjustment can be divided into two main types: self and other adjustments.

Self and other adjustments can also be categorised according to the number of turns taken. Employing an ethnomethodological approach, Sacks et al. (1974:716–20) examine conversational organisation by observing turn-taking. They indicate that the following two turn-allocation techniques (speech exchange systems) occur in other-adjustment:

- (1) current speaker selects next technique; and,
- (2) self-selection (first starter goes) technique.

These techniques refer to the fact that a current speaker can control the next turn to varying degrees, depending on the technique used. Type (1) allows the current speaker to select which participant will speak next at a transition-relevance place while type (2) does not require the selection of the next participant, leaving it to one of the other participants to continue the conversation by selecting him/herself.

Multi-party adjustment as a subset of other-adjustment may be frequently observed in many contact situations, and is particularly predominant in domains such as education, (for example, the language classroom), work, and in daily life. In spite of its significance, there is little research that examines adjustment from the point of view of personnel selection (that is, networks), including multi-party adjustment. Yet this variable demonstrates how each participant is involved in the process of adjustment. In particular, the phenomenon of non-determinative turn-taking system and the role of the third-party who does not emerge in the dyadic discourse cannot be examined comprehensively unless this subset of other-adjustment is included as one type of network.

The study of self-adjustment discourse among language learners has been a core research issue in second language acquisition literature. However, whether analysis of this type of phenomenon is essential in order to understand how the learner self-marks and self-adjusts is unclear. Nevertheless, the difficulty of identifying self-adjustment has posed an obstacle to the progress of research in this area. Schwartz notes that self-adjustment is difficult to perceive because the speaker does not overtly confer with the auditor (Schwartz 1980: 141). Green & Hecht (1993: 152) introduce two types of adjustment at two articulatory levels (pre-articulatory and post-articulatory): covert self-adjustment at the pre-articulatory level and overt self-adjustment at the post-articulatory level. Similarly, Neustupný (1973, 1978) advocates three types of adjustment: pre-, in- and post-adjustment. Pre-adjustment, such as reinforcing control, is an adjustment which is employed before a norm deviation occurs, whereas in-adjustment appears in the process of evaluation (or finding problems) and post-adjustment



is employed at the stage of implementing solutions for inadequacies. Pre-adjustment and in-adjustment can possibly be categorised as pre-articulatory because they do not overtly emerge in the process of adjustment and are not apparently perceived.

To summarise, the process of adjustment which can be classified by combining frame and network factors, is presented below:

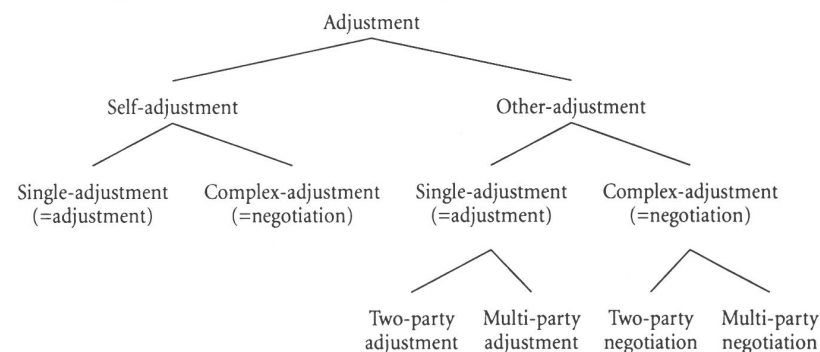


Figure 5. Frames and networks selection in adjustment

#### 4. Summary and conclusion

This paper discussed the significance of communicative adjustment in contact situations. Three acquisition hypotheses (i.e., input hypothesis, interaction hypothesis and output hypothesis) in the study of second language acquisition were reviewed and a theoretical framework for communicative adjustment was advocated. An adjustment trajectory originating from the combination of four factors: self-speaker, other-speaker, initiation (or marking) and completion (adjustment) was presented. The trajectory is dichotomously categorised as comprehension adjustment (other-marked self-adjustment, other-marked other-adjustment) and production adjustment (self-marked other-adjustment, self-marked self-adjustment). It is hypothesised that these adjustments are facilitated by factors referred to as adjustment markers.

Adjustment markers are placed into three categories; adjustment request markers, inadequacy markers (i.e., flags) and support markers. Comprehension adjustment is invited by the RC (other-marked self-adjustment) and Non-RC (other-marked other adjustment) type adjustments. On the other hand, production adjustment is facilitated by RA adjustment request markers (self-marked

other-adjustment), inadequacy marker flags (self-marked other-adjustment), and support markers (other-marked other-adjustment).

Adjustment is further designed by two essential factors: frames, which are related to how it is sequentially designed; and networks, which relate to personnel selection. Frames can be of single adjustment and complex adjustment design. On the other hand, networks are dichotomised as self-adjustment, two-party adjustment and multi-party adjustment.

#### Notes

1. Jernudd and Thuan comment on the significance of norms: Partners in communication need to find out what norms of implementation the other person has, need to express each his own norms, and between them need to find a way to agree on what norms shall be used for a particular act of speaking (1983:72).
2. Since 1988, Neustupný has adopted the term adjustment in his writings in place of correction (1988). Larsen-Freeman & Long also employ the term conversational adjustment (1991). This study thus applies the term adjustment instead of correction.
3. Neustupný defines an inadequacy as the act of evaluation in a speech act, not to any assumed or real inherent insufficiencies of language (1985a:62).
4. Schegloff et al. (1977:363) refer to adjustment as to the replacement of an 'error' or 'mistake' by what is 'correct'. Furthermore, Sacks et al. remark that repair mechanisms exist for dealing with turn-taking errors and violations (1974:723).
5. Schiffrin argues that self-initiation and completion show speakers' sensitivity to their own production of discourse: by locating and replacing an item from an outgoing utterance, speakers display their productive efforts (1987:78).
6. Hearers and speakers are here treated as mutually exclusive categories, although strictly speaking, a speaker can be seen as a hearer of his/her own utterances.
7. Trouble source, initiation and correction are the terms used by McHoul.
8. McHoul's terms are initiation and correction respectively.
9. Corrective feedback refers to one interlocutor's ability to respond appropriately to another interlocutor's last utterance (Gass & Varonis 1985b: 151). Corrective feedback is also known as equal footing (Varonis & Gass 1985a).
10. Bublitz (1988:247) describes seven patterns as recipient action to support the primary speaker in cooperative conversation: 1. Supporting by readopting; 2. Supporting by repeating; 3. Supporting by evaluating; 4. Supporting by declaring one's attitude; 5. Supporting by completing; 6. Supporting by supplementing; and, 7. Supporting by paraphrasing.

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