

An ESP approach to the teaching of “English Conversation” classes : Possibilities, Methods and Outcomes : A Preliminary Report.

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Abstract

Evidence from the conversations between foreigners and English-major students in “English Day” events, in which first-grade students talk with foreigners in small groups, on the campus of this college shows that students jump from topic to topic in a superficial question-and-answer format, with little sense of conversational flow or discourse coherence. The purpose of this research was to assess the benefit to students of teaching the discourse pattern for a sub-genre of English interaction known as “conversational storytelling”. This was predicted to improve students’ contributions to conversations held in English by encouraging them to raise the level of linguistic sophistication in their English conversation. It is argued that providing students with this training allows them to enhance their willingness to communicate (WTC) .Students’ performance was assessed between 2 English Day events held 5 months apart. Guests were requested to fill out a questionnaire on a battery of questions on students’ abilities immediately after talking to them. Students filled out questionnaires on their own performance before and after the 2 English Day events. The results showed that there was a significant statistical change in guests’ impressions of students abilities in the sessions where students intentionally used the conversational storytelling approach taught in classes. But students were less sure of change in their own development in conversational ability.

Introduction

The teaching of English for Special Purposes (ESP) tends to be associated with the teaching of language where a general knowledge of English is not sufficient for people to carry out their professional duties. Nursing or air traffic control are two well-known examples. It seems probable that many students who have received ESP training, and subsequently put their English to practical use, may derive satisfaction from doing this, and increased motivation to use English more.

The aim of this paper is to examine how an “English-conversation” class syllabus could be informed by ESP principles. A concept that I want to explore in this paper is that of how good an impression English learners can make on their interlocutors. It seems likely that learners might derive greater motivation from making a strong, positive impression on a native speaker,

through more sophisticated use of English. Therefore, this research started from the position that it should be possible to raise learners' confidence from teaching a conversation course informed from ESP principles.

The challenge of developing conversational ability

Conversation classes are often a patchwork of different, random activities. Dörnyei(1994:40) comments that conversation classes are not systematic enough. This certainly seems true. Although the chapters of one of the textbooks(Let's Chat, 2007)I used in the 2008 academic year were lively and stimulating, the content does not aim to systematically improve awareness of generic patterns, discourse structure or the social rules of conversation. Richards(1990:76) makes the distinction between the direct and indirect approaches to conversational courses. The indirect approach sees conversational competence as emerging from "engaging learners in conversational interaction". This seems to be the main approach adopted by textbook writers. The indirect approach suffers from the trouble that often what is taught, and practiced in class, simply is not transferable to spontaneous speaking chances outside class. The description of kinds of foods is one example from my experience in 2008. Although one unit of *Let's Chat* deals with the description of Japanese cuisine, I noticed from later recordings of students in English Day interactions(to be described later)that they were completely failing to use the points covered only recently when they described foods in English spontaneously. Their English sounded as if they had never been taught any of the points taught. More generally, the students jump around from topic to topic during the interactions with very little concern for discourse coherence. At moments where native speaker would probably develop the conversation by asking increasingly pertinent or probing questions, or else by offering an anecdote or recount from personal experience, the students almost invariably fail to do this. This is not due to lack of enthusiasm, or even motivation. Many students are clearly delighted to be trying out their English with non-Japanese people. However, their lack of awareness of the discourse structure is striking, and results in a very one-dimensional feel to the interactions. Whether this form of interaction would be insufficient to sustain a friendship with such a non-Japanese is hard to say, but from the evidence of English Day recordings, it would not be a friendship based on empathetic responses or meaningful, relevant exchanges of personal experiences.

On the other hand, the direct approach "involves planning a conversation programme around the specific microskills, strategies, and processes that are involved in fluent conversation." (ibid : 77) The question is what kind of microskills and strategies for fluent conversation might be taught in a general "conversation class"?

A specific approach to teaching English conversation

Thinking back to her childhood, the American anthropologist Elinor Ochs, recalls the important role played by the local drugstore. It was not merely a place of commerce but also served as a venue where her father and other townsfolk would often gather to talk about local politics and events. This talk would often take the form of personal narrative as they told each other "what they knew, what they believed, what they felt and what they wished to be happening" (Ochs and Capps, 2001:1). Likewise, when Australian linguists, Suzanne Egging and Diana Slade, recorded and analyzed the coffee-break conversations of factory employees, they were struck by the high proportion of anecdotes and personal narratives that came up(Egging and Slade, 1997). On a

moment's reflection, it becomes obvious that short anecdotes account for a significant proportion of our conversation. Certainly, I can recall many occasions when I have sat with family and friends and spontaneous exchanges of stories have occurred.

Ochs and Capps note that "personal narrative is ubiquitous. Whether in a store, along the road, at work, play, home or other community settings, when people are together, they are inclined to talk about events ? those they have read about, those they have experienced directly, and those they imagine"(ibid.) Andrew Wright expressed something similar, "go to any pub or party and you will hear a constant babble of stories. The whole world is full of storytellers" (Wright, 1995, p. 16).

The fact that storytelling occurs so frequently in conversation is one good reason why teachers might be recommended to devote a portion of their teaching time to helping students acquire the necessary skills. Another reason concerns the social advantages that can be gained by those acquiring a reasonable level of competence in this conversational skill. As we shall see later, listeners will often show their appreciation of a story well told and may even add to it with a similar story of their own, thus allowing the storyteller to become a valuable link in a chain of related stories. Finally, it can give students the satisfaction of knowing that they have been able to use their target language to say something true and meaningful about themselves.

The challenge of telling a story fluently in English

It may seem quite natural for us to include stories from our own experience in our daily communication. However, because of certain generic features which characterize this form of interaction, telling a story may make considerable grammatical and lexical demands on the student. If foreign language students are not explicitly trained in these features, their language production may encounter quite serious difficulties.

The following is an example of one studious, motivated student from the Department of British and American Studies. While walking on her way to college with me, we engaged in a conversation about driving. The following interaction occurred. (It is not 100% accurate as it was transcribed from memory shortly after the interaction.)

Student Speech : Example 1

01T : Can you drive?

02S : I can't take a license by this month

03T : How come?

04S : 2 years ago, I rode a bicycle. But came car and ドーン. I was 脳けが

05T : That's absolutely terrible

06S : I 左に曲がったら and I think car don't came but 来た

07T : Was...the driver bad?

T=Teacher ; S= Student

This student tried hard to express her story of being injured in a traffic accident. She can be praised for her communicative intent. But her discourse is marked by a severe inaccuracy and lack of awareness of discourse structure.

The key part of this interaction appears in lines 04 to 07. Where a native speaker would naturally use the past continuous form, "I was riding my bicycle..." the student says, "I rode a

bicycle” at line 04. In line 06, a similar problem occurs but this time rather than struggling with producing the correct English form, she simply uses Japanese to express “*was turning left*”. Further, at the end of both lines 4 and 6, there are more breakdowns. For example, at line 4, she says, “*came car*”. How can it be that one of the best students of our department cannot produce the most basic of English sentences spontaneously : “*A car came*”? Additionally, at line 6, instead of saying, “*I thought a car wouldn’t come*”, she says, “*I think car don’t came*”.

An answer to this problem may lay in the following hypothesis. This kind of breakdown above is common among lower-intermediate Japanese learners, especially during the layered recounting of past experiences. Although there is a corresponding Japanese grammatical form to the English past continuous tense (I was *verb-ing* /私は何々をしていたら), few learners spontaneously use the English form correctly in speech when describing the activity occurring just prior to the main remarkable event (in this case, the student’s accident.) The use of the simple past tense (“*I rode a bicycle*”) is probably a compromise strategy employed by students when they cannot formulate the correct past continuous tense in real time. The student in the above exchange may have been aware that her language was inadequate in line 04, and expended additional attentional resources here rather than on preparing the subsequent explanation of her accident. This could explain why the ensuing syntax “*But came car*…” is so disordered. In line 06, the student simply resorts to Japanese when the same grammatical problem presents itself. The fact that she didn’t simply use the simple past tense form “*I turned left*”, as she did in line 04, indicates that she is indeed aware of the problem.

Although it might be argued that the interaction above was successful since I finally asked a relevant question, it is important to deal pedagogically with such trouble. First, awareness of the language forms commonly used in conversational storytelling can be easily raised, since the grammar involved is not very complex. This will be discussed further below. Second, being able to tell a story which is coherent, effective and entertaining has obvious social benefits for students aiming to converse in an English speaking environment.

The second point mentioned above gives rise to a third point which I feel deserves attention. At the end of the interaction where I said, “*Was…the driver bad?*”, I would normally have asked, “*Was it the driver’s fault?*” However, out of concern for the student’s ease of comprehension, I chose a non-standard form. This raises an important issue. If learners do not achieve a certain minimum level of accurate and fluent production, it is likely that in conversation with native or higher level speakers, they will be responded to with unnatural utterances. If so, this may impair their linguistic development as they will constantly miss out on exposure to and, consequently, opportunities for the acquisition of natural usage. To this extent, the impression that learners make on higher level speakers can be an important part of their language learning endeavors. Below, I will introduce the results of an investigation into the impression native speakers had of students who had studied and practiced conversational storytelling in two on-campus English Day events in which they had a chance to talk to each other.

In sum, the challenge is how to provide the scaffolding and training so that my students will be able to tell stories about themselves that are reasonably accurate, fluent and, moreover, engaging. Before that, in the following sections, I will discuss further the generic features of conversational storytelling. I will also describe how I present a manageable amount of useful language which can be maximized by learners in conversation.

Generic features of conversational storytelling

I have found the pattern introduced by Eggins and Slade (1997) to describe the generic structure of conversational anecdotes an extremely valuable starting point. Eggins and Slade have demonstrated that three essential ingredients can be found in conversational anecdotes. These are :

1. *Abstract*, a short phrase from the teller which serves as an announcement that a story is about to be told. It will often give the listener (s) an indication of the type of story they are about to hear as in *something funny happened the other day*.
2. *Orientation*, essential background information to introduce the story participants and locate it in time and space. We could express this as the *Who, Where, When* and *Under What Circumstances* section of the story.
3. *Remarkable Event*, the central happening around which the story is based.
4. *Reaction*. This section invites the audience to share and understand the reaction of the teller or story participants to the event. It will often include expressions of amusement, surprise, anger or other emotions.
5. *Coda*. This can be used to round off a story by building “a bridge between the storyworld and the moment of telling” (McCarthy 1991, p. 138). The example that McCarthy gives is “and ever since, I’ve never been able to look at a mango without feeling sick” (ibid) .

Eggins and Slade note that the *abstract* and *coda* are optional, but that one can expect to find *orientation*, *remarkable event* and *reaction* in most conversational anecdotes. For this reason, I have chosen to emphasize these three components when presenting conversational storytelling to my students. The three components can be seen operating in the following anecdote, which I have concocted as a simple introduction to the topic of conversational storytelling :

Orientation

The other week I was walking through the park and it was a really beautiful day. You know, the sun was shining, the birds were singing...

Remarkable Event

And, suddenly, I saw a snake on the path in front of me.

Reaction

Well, I just froze. I didn’t know what to do. But just then an eagle swooped down, picked up the snake, and carried it away. Oh, I was so relieved.

Although this is a fictional story, my students have usually found it amusing, especially if accompanied by some exaggerated gestures and a couple of toy animals. I have then followed this by giving students some controlled practice in using past continuous / past simple by “what do you think comes next?” activities such as finishing the sentence in :

I was riding my bike down the street and, all of a sudden...

After this I invite students to tell their own stories. Sometimes this has been met with reluctance as it appears too difficult. However, I have often found that an interesting phenomenon occurs when I write Eggins and Slade's three main components on the board in the following way :

ORIENTATION : who where when?
 REMARKABLE EVENT : what happened?
 REACTION : how did you feel?

I have often observed that the notions of *who, where, when? / what happened? / how did you feel?* are easily accessible to the students and they are able to produce the essential elements of the story with some degree of fluency. It is as if the presentation of the generic form serves as an organizing template facilitating the production of language. Moreover, grammatical errors on such common features as, “I was walking in the park...” noticeably reduce. As we saw above with the traffic-accident account, students usually have trouble in spontaneously producing such forms. It would seem that the understanding of macro-level organization of discourse beyond grammar helps to free up learners’ attentional resources.

Teaching a conversational storytelling course in a Japanese college : Methods

I have found that teaching students how to describe their favorite movies is an ideal way to start teaching students about the structure of conversational stories. Most movies can be described using the standard generic pattern described by Eggins and Slade. The example below is from a well-known adventure movie *Home Alone*. High frequency phrases include, “It is about a [person] who...+[where] + [when]”.

Table1. Generic pattern, and accompanying sample phrases

Orientation	Who Where When	This is about a boy who lives in America in the1980s.
Remarkable Event	What happens	His parents leave him alone in the house at Christmas. Thieves enter the house
Reaction	How does it end? How does the actor feel?	The boy fights with the thieves and win. He is not scared but he is delighted when his family comes home.

Using this template, students can easily make descriptions of their own favorite movies. These are very enjoyable to share and form the basis of various pair-work activities. The more important point is that this training can lay the foundation for the recounting of personal happenings as well. In subsequent lessons of my syllabus, I ask students to prepare their personal stories, or those of people they know, using the generic pattern. Before class, they write stories on topics such as personal success stories, small accidents, disappointments, unlucky days, stories from their childhood and so on.

I developed a syllabus with a colleague that was subsequently published as a textbook (Jones & Coulson, 2008). Each unit of the textbook focused on a new type of conversational story. New typical vocabulary and phrases are introduced but the generic pattern throughout always stays

the same as the one introduced above : Who, Where, When, What Happens, How does it End. The table of contents for the book is shown below :

Table 2 : Table of Contents for Conversational Storytelling Syllabus

	Unit	Topic	Language Focus
1	Talking about movies	Telling the outline of a movie (Who, Where, When, What, How it ends)	<i>It's about a woman who...</i> <i>It takes place in... in the end.</i>
2	My little accident	Talking about bad luck and minor accidents	<i>I was shopping in the supermarket and suddenly</i> <i>I dropped a bottle.</i>
3	I was so embarrassed	Describing our feelings about things that have happened	<i>I was so embarrassed. / It was so embarrassing.</i>
4	It made me feel so good	Talking about happy events and achievements	<i>I was very happy. / I was absolutely delighted.</i>
5	That must have been disappointing	Showing interest and responding to other people's stories	<i>I bet that was. / That must've been.</i>
6	I know what you mean	Making comments while listening/ adding a story of your own	<i>Oh that's too bad. / That reminds me of the time.</i>
7	The day everything went wrong	Talking about a time when one bad thing happened after another	<i>First. Then... Just to make matters worse</i>
8	We used to have so much fun	Talking about your childhood	<i>We used to have lots of parties. We'd eat ice</i> <i>cream and play some games</i>
9	She's a brave girl, isn't she?	Telling interesting stories about people we know	<i>Apparently.. / It seems.. / She's brave, isn't she?</i>
10	Oh, talking about...	Adding interesting stories to conversation	<i>One of those. / You use it to. / Oh, talking about.</i>

Experiment

The experiment described below centered on the performance of first-year university students (mainly 18-years old), and guests' evaluation of them, during 2 on-campus communication festivals called English Day, hereafter "ED". The guests included native and non-native speakers of English from various countries, and they were mainly in their 20s. The native speakers were mostly language teachers and the non-native speakers were graduate students. 8 of these 16 guests participated in both events, but spoke to different students each time. The 2 ED events were held five months apart. One event was held before instruction in conversational storytelling and one was held after. In both cases, the structure of the day was similar. In the morning session, there were themed discussions with English-speaking guests in which groups of 3 students would try to take the initiative in conversation by talking about their experiences of travel in Japan. This was thought to be a good topic for them to focus on because many of the guests had not had a chance to visit Japan extensively. For the first English Day, students were given no linguistic instruction as to how to tell their travel story. However, for the second English Day, students were advised to tell an anecdote of one memorable happening during their travels, using the generic pattern common in conversational storytelling. Students were not compelled to do this although they were required to prepare such a story in advance of English Day. Students were able to do this since from September to November, students received around 8 lessons of instruction in the author's textbook focusing on this skill.

In the afternoon sessions of both the June and November events, there were "free

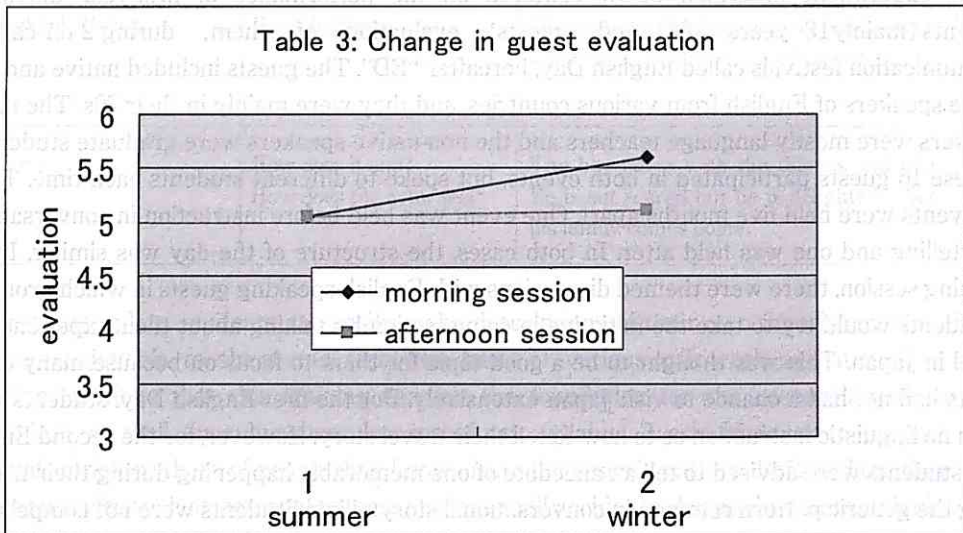
conversation” sessions. Students were given no explicit instructions on how to conduct the conversations. In all instances, conversations with guests were usually carried out in groups of 3 students to 1 guests which lasted about 30 minutes.

To assess what impact the ESP syllabus would have on learners’ communicative skill, and the impressions, they made on native speakers, I wrote a pair of simple questionnaires. These were dispensed during and after the English Day events in June 2008 and November 2008. One kind of questionnaire (appendix 1) was given to the guests who answered the questions immediately after the sessions with students in English Day ended. This only comprised 4 questions, as it had to be completed in a very short amount of time by guests during English Day. It aimed to assess the guests’ impressions of how well the students had conversed with them. The other kind of questionnaire (appendix 2) was given to learners before the first English Day of the 2008, and after the second English Day. They were separated by 5 months. The questionnaire was based on that of Yashima (2002). It included 12 questions which aimed to assess Orientation to non-Japanese (questions 1-4); motivation to use English (questions 5-8); attitudes to using the English for communication (questions 9-12). Both questionnaires used a 6-point scale, with 6 points as the maximum evaluation.

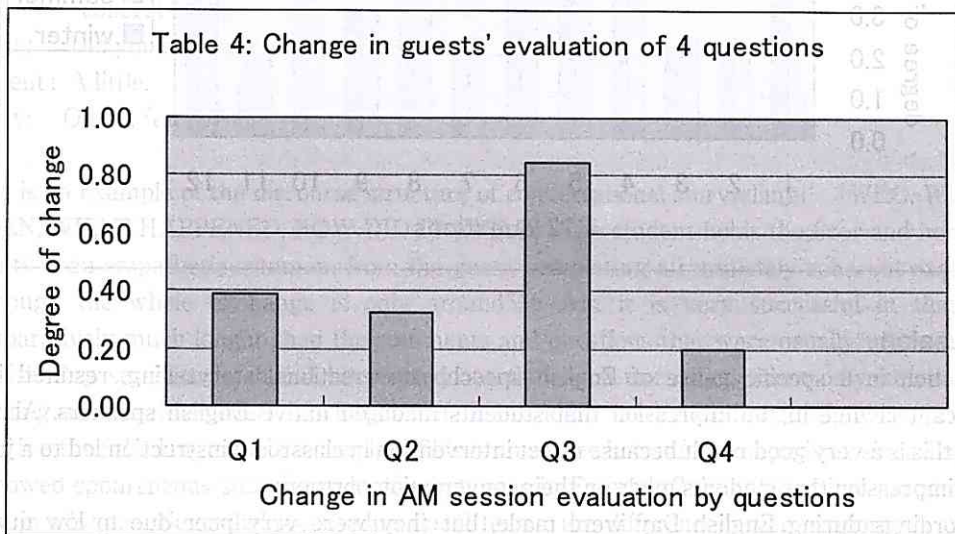
Results

The results from the first questionnaire revealed an important difference from summer to winter. The mean evaluation of guests in the afternoon sessions in both summer and winter was exactly the same. This indicates the students made no better impression on their guests in free conversation across the 2 events. However, in the morning sessions (in which students made use of a conversational storytelling approach), there was a significant change ($t=4.54, p<0.0001$) from summer to winter in guests’ views of students’ abilities

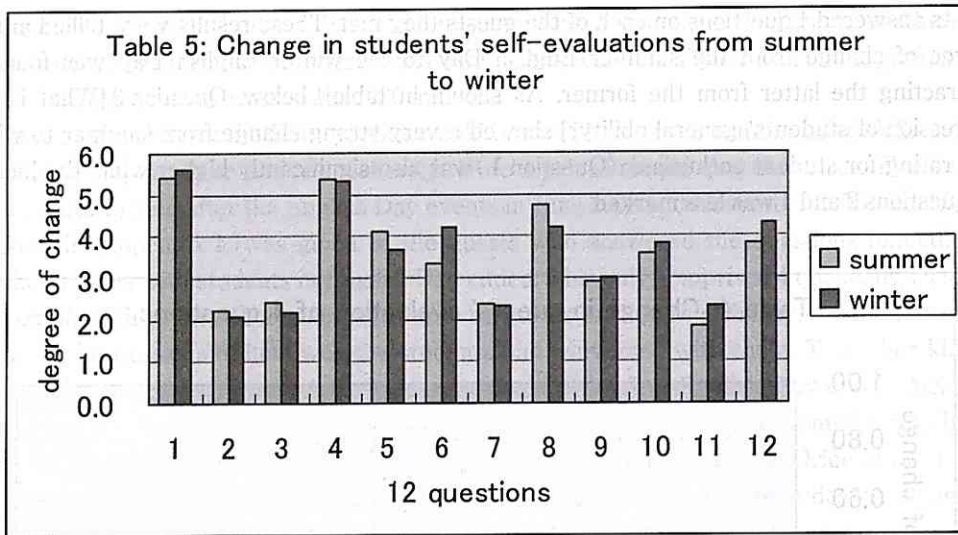
Table 3: Change in guest evaluation



Guests answered 4 questions on each of the guests they met. These results were tallied and the degree of change from the summer English Day to the winter English Day was found by subtracting the latter from the former. As shown in table 4 below, Question 3 [What is your impression of students' general ability?] showed a very strong change from summer to winter. The rating for student enthusiasm (Question 1) was also significantly higher while the increase for questions 2 and 4 was less marked.



As for students' self-evaluations, only 2 of the 12 questions produced a significant change from summer to winter. These were: question 6 [I wouldn't mind helping a foreigner having trouble in a station or restaurant] $t=2.33$ $p<0.01$, and question 11 [I think I am able to make foreigners laugh using English] $t=1.5$, $p<0.05$. The overall results are shown in table 5.



Discussion

Instruction in a specific genre of English speech, conversational storytelling, resulted in a significant change in the impression that students made on native English speakers. At face value, this is a very good result because direct intervention in classroom instruction led to a jump in the impression that students made on their conversation partners.

Recordings during English Day were made, but they were very poor due to low quality microphones, and general background noise. This made transcription very difficult, and for this reason the patchy data is not included in this report. However, what was available showed that students did not make use of conversational storytelling throughout the 30-minute interactions where they had not been instructed to. These exchanges often followed a superficial question-and-answer format. For example, one group asked their guest "Can you cook?" His answer to this was, "I can make scones. Not many people can make scones." This invited a related follow-up question or related comment. However, his response was immediately followed by a new question, "What is the most popular food in Canada?" Although it could be argued that this response was not completely irrelevant to the topic, we felt that the students had missed an opportunity to make use of a more relevant follow-up comment or question such as "I love scones" or "Where did you learn?" Indeed, my general impression of students' English over the 30-minute sessions is that they were not listening carefully to what their interlocutors were saying, did not confirm meanings, and specifically never extended the topic in hand to relevant personal stories. Instead the conversations are marked by a cheerful disjointedness. Despite this, the evaluations of the guests were surprisingly high. As shown in table 3, the average score given by the 16 guests was 5.05 of a maximum 6. One possible reason for this high evaluation is that the expectations of the guests, many of whom are Assistant Language Teachers, of my students' abilities were surpassed by their cheerful interaction. Since a common complaint of ALTs is that students in junior or senior high schools won't talk in communication classes, they must have been impressed by the willingness to communicate of my students.

However, some of the students on the recordings did tell stories about specific memories during their travel experiences. When these stories were related, there was a sudden shift in the

balance of the conversation from the superficial question-and-answer format. One example was the following, approximately transcribed :

Student Speech : Example 2

Student : I will tell you an unlucky story about a concert in Yokohama. It was sunny in the morning, but when the concert started, it started to rain. About 20 minutes later, I was soaked. The concert stage was dry. (*general laughter*). So it rained only for the concert goers.

Guest : Did you catch a cold?

Student : A little.

Guest : Oh no, (*exaggerated*)

Here is an example of the discourse structure of conversational storytelling. (WHO, WHERE, WHEN, WHAT HAPPENED, HOW DID IT END ?) The student holds the floor and her story results in an empathetic comment from the guest, completing a completely coherent exchange. Although the whole exchange is only around 55 words, it is very successful in that it is comparatively much longer than the comments and questions that were usually uttered in the English Day sessions. It should be pointed out that such exchanges were only noted in the morning session. Moreover, the English of this student in the exchange above is far more effective than the language in example 1. This is a somewhat unfair comparison, since Example 1 showed spontaneous speech production, whereas in Example 2 the student had prepared the topic in advance. Nevertheless, in educational terms, the difference is very important. A good strategy for English communication is to get into the habit of mental rehearsal of topics you want to say. Without a solid grounding in the generic pattern, however, students may lack the necessary template to prepare such topics. Additionally, “sheltered” communicative environments are essential for Japanese students, whose L1 is so different from English, to begin to speak on a more equal basis with native English speakers. These environments, such as English Day, allow the students, under instruction, to experiment with interacting with their interlocutors to use English to really express themselves, rather than just going through the motions of communication-like interaction.

MacIntyre (2007) raises a very important point in his discussion on willingness to communicate (WTC). Often learners who have high motivation are not so willing, or even anxious, to communicate. The concepts of motivation and willingness are clearly not the same, so it is important to ask under what conditions students are willing to speak up. This concern is equivalent to the aims of my syllabus in providing sheltered, non-threatening environments to students, and preparing them for the specific skills they need to impress speakers they meet. MacIntyre advises that the major motivation to learn another language is to develop a *communicative* relationship with people from another cultural group (p. 566) (my emphasis)

One outstanding question concerns why the students didn't use the conversational storytelling technique in the afternoon sessions of ED2, having done this so successfully in the morning. It is axiomatic that language acquisition is a slow process and what students are taught may not automatically appear in their *spontaneous* production (DeKeyser 2002). Part of this may be an issue of personal confidence. Despite the significant change in the guests' view of the students' abilities between the English Day morning sessions, the more extensive questionnaire students

filled out about their performance revealed much less impressive changes (see Appendix 6). This suggests that the benefits from beginning to converse in a more sophisticated and balanced manner with native, or other proficient, speakers are not immediate. Nevertheless, when the students were specifically encouraged to tell their travel stories in the morning sessions, they were generally able to weave these stories into the conversation. This is indicative of the potential of teaching a syllabus such as the one described in this paper. Teachers should be aware, however, that it does take time before students are fully able to automatize these skills, and become confident in using them, in free conversation.

Conclusion

The success of the kind of interaction in example 2, especially in terms of how impressed native speakers are, should be appreciated. Such stretches of language (absent in the summer morning sessions but present in to some degree in winter morning sessions) are what must have made the significant difference in guests' evaluation of students' abilities, resulting in the value of 5.6, as shown in table 3. The maximum number of such interactions was probably no more than 3 (1 per person) in the morning sessions. Over 30 minutes this is only a fraction of the entire interaction, yet it was enough to significantly change guests' evaluations. As shown in table 4, in comparison to the summer event, the guests were neither strongly impressed by the students' enthusiasm (question 1), responses to their questions (question 2), or the degree of balance (question 4). However, question 3 which asked about their general ability showed a very marked change in the winter evaluations. This can only have been due to the well-structured stories the students told.

This is a very important outcome, since it shows that students were able to impress native English speakers to a significantly stronger degree than is normal by teaching them a genre of English from an ESP set of principles.

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Appendix 1 Questions Guests Answered to Evaluate Students' Abilities

- 1 Did you find the students enthusiastic in talking to you? No 1-2-3-4-5-6 Yes
- 2 Did they respond well to your questions?
- 3 What is your impression of students' general ability?
- 4 Did you find the interaction between you and the students balanced?

Appendix 2 Questions students answered about their English ability (original written in Japanese)

- 1 I would like to talk to overseas students if they came to our college No 1-2-3-4-5-6 Yes
- 2 I usually avoid talking with foreigners
- 3 I would be a little nervous if foreigners moved in next door
- 4 I want to make friends with overseas students studying in Japan
- 5 I don't have much confidence in talking with foreigners in English
- 6 I wouldn't mind helping a foreigner having trouble in a station or restaurant
- 7 I wouldn't like to study overseas for long since I would have trouble with English
- 8 Rather than actively talking, I listen and chime in with phrases when I talk with foreigners
- 9 I think foreigners can understand my English pronunciation
- 10 I know the necessary phrases and words to enjoy simple English conversation
- 11 I think I am able to make foreigners laugh using English
- 12 I think I can express my meaning even if I make English grammar mistakes