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교육학석사학위논문

Korean Middle School Students'
Use of English Verb-Argument Constructions
and Pause Patterns in L2 Speaking

한국 중학생 학습자들의 제2외국어 말하기에서
나타난 영어 동사논항구조 및 휴지양상

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Korean Middle School Students' Use of
English Verb-Argument Constructions and
Pause Patterns in L2 Speaking

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ABSTRACT

Since L2 speaking has been marked as a central language skill in CLT, the perspectives on L2 oral fluency (henceforth, L2 fluency) remain contentious. In particular, the issue of the consideration of grammatical aspects in measuring L2 fluency has been largely neglected in the theoretical and pedagogical practices. Therefore, the present study aims to examine Korean EFL learners' fluency by analyzing their oral production in terms of verb-argument constructions (VACs), and pause patterns. Consequently, this study supposes that VACs under the framework of Construction Grammar needs to be included in L2 fluency measuring units.

A total of 29 Korean middle school EFL students from Grade 1 to 3 participated in this study. They carried out three role-playing tasks and three topic-based conversation tasks in pair work. Their oral production was recorded and then transcribed by means of the general conventions from Conversation Analysis. The most frequently occurring verbs, argument structure constructions, and the islands inhabiting the core constructions were identified. L2 pause distribution, specifically at predicate (main verb) and argument position, was also analyzed.

Findings from the study revealed that across proficiency levels of the participants, the VACs produced did not differ significantly in range. All levels of participants tended to turn to constrained types of VACs, such as SVC and SVO, mostly employing a narrow range of verbs and the inhabitants of the islands. Such may be attributed to the learners' lack of knowledge in constructions as well as to

the inherent demand of spoken discourse.

Based on the analysis of pause pattern in terms of VACs, it was argued that the pause distribution within the predicate (main verb) and argument can be associated with the extent of participants' knowledge about VACs. Namely, learners with higher proficiency may recognize a predicate and its internal argument as one unit. In particular, while the less proficient learners paused frequently before both a predicate and an argument, more proficient learners tended to pause mostly before a predicate. This study thus posited that learners' ability to construct VACs, which entails learners' recognition of the *combinatory strength* between the predicate and arguments, has an impact on L2 learners' pause distribution.

The study is expected to contribute to a better understanding of L2 fluency by incorporating VACs to L2 fluency measuring units, especially based on the analysis of pause patterns in light of VACs. Suggestions for pedagogy and future research were also identified.

Key Words: L2 fluency, L2 spoken language, verb-argument constructions, pause pattern, construction grammar, grammatical competence, combinatory strength

Student Number: 2010-22877

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The present study aims to examine L2 fluency in terms of verb-argument constructions, and pause patterns demonstrated in Korean middle school EFL learners' spoken language production. The first section of this chapter describes the motivation and the theoretical rationale for the current study. The next section explains the theoretical framework of the study briefly. The last section outlines the organization of the thesis.

1.1. Purpose of the Study

While L2 speaking is a central language skill, as to what factors underlie L2 fluency remains much controversial (Chambers, 1997). Traditionally, oral fluency (henceforth, fluency) was considered as a habit formation, and an automatization of cognitive operations which can be achieved through repeated practices (Wood, 2001). More recently, in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), fluency has been regarded as a construct of learners' proficiency, and the definition of fluency has been narrowed down to the temporal aspects of language production (i.e., flow of speech, absence of hesitation). It is expected

that fluency will be enhanced by practicing ready-made language composites (Chambers, 1997; Chambers & Richards, 1995; Nation, 1989; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Richard, 1986; Wajnryb, 1989; Wood, 1998) and by increasing overall proficiency (Hawkins, 1971; Tavakoli, 2010).

Whilst the current perspective on fluency offers considerable advantages for the study of L2 fluency, pedagogical practices, which are based on this view, are still limited in terms of language production. It may be mainly because the L2 speaking model does not directly involve the underlying linguistic faculty of constructing target language (TL) (i.e., grammatical competence) in the assessment of performance, with its focus restricted to the temporal manifestations of spoken production such as the number and lengths of pauses.

The present study thus tries to integrate learners' grammatical competence into the measurement of L2 fluency. Specifically, a predicate (main verb)-argument construction among the components of grammatical competence, which has been proposed to be a basic and essential language unit in a successful language acquisition, is introduced in this study (Bencini & Goldberg, 2000; Goldberg, Casenhire, & Sethuraman, 2004; Gries & Wulff, 2004).

Thus, by examining Korean middle school English learners' oral production and pause patterns, in light of verb-argument constructions (VACs), the present study is expected to reinforce the importance of incorporation of grammatical aspects into L2 fluency, anticipating a fresh contribution to second/foreign

language learning/teaching.

1.2. Theoretical Framework of the Study

While the previous studies on L2 fluency have offered insights of value for the analysis of oral production, missing from it is the consideration of linguistic (or grammatical) competence. Taking this competence into account, more precisely the ability to formulate VACs, the present study adopts Construction Grammar (henceforth, CxG) as its theoretical framework (Goldberg, 1995, 2006).

CxG, unlike earlier theories of grammar, does not disregard grammatical competence in spoken language interaction, nor does it place more weight on the performance over linguistic competence in speakers' oral production. CxG shares interest in "accounting for the conditions under which a given construction can be used felicitously". The ability to use language properly in a given situation is taken to be "part of speakers' competence, or knowledge of language" (Goldberg, 1995, p. 6). Due to this inherent consideration of the grammatical as well as the social and interactional aspects in language construction, CxG is assumed to be appropriate for the analysis of spoken interactions.

1.3. Organization of the Study

The organization of the study is as follows: in Chapter 2, as a theoretical background to the present study, previous literature on L2 fluency with reference to speaking models and pedagogy is reviewed. The chapter proposes the incorporation of grammatical competence into L2 fluency in EFL contexts. In Chapter 3, the database and methodology adopted in this study are described. Chapter 4 presents the results from the analysis of pause patterns as well as the verb-argument constructions identified in the data. Chapter 5 concludes the study with a summary of the findings, followed by a further discussion, and finally Chapter 6 offers overall implications along with suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, a body of literature associated with the main interest of this study is reviewed. The previous literature on the theoretical conceptualization of fluency in L2 teaching and learning is examined in Section 2.1. A discussion of reconceptualizing L2 fluency in EFL contexts in terms of verb-argument constructions is presented in Section 2.2.

2.1. Conceptualization of L2 Fluency

This section, which comprises three subsections, presents a comprehensive overview of the concept of L2 fluency. The status of L2 oral skill in teaching and learning contexts is examined (2.1.1.). The following subsection (2.1.2.) overviews the previous studies on fluency with reference to its definition, its theoretical backgrounds which have had considerable effects on L2 fluency constructs, and the measuring units (e.g., pause frequency and lengths, mean lengths of unit between pauses), which contributed to the design of pedagogical activities. In the last subsection 2.1.3., the concept of fluency is subjected to critical scrutiny, focusing on its definition and practices in Communicative

Language Teaching (CLT).

2.1.1. Status of L2 speaking in teaching and learning contexts.

Speaking in the context of L2 teaching and learning (and testing) has begun to emerge in its own right only in the last four decades. In particular, study of L2 speaking in the history of language teaching has been somewhat marginalized. Bygate (2001), in his review, provides three main reasons for this peripheral status. First concerns the tradition of L2 teaching and learning itself. In the first half of the 20th century, during which grammar-translation approach and audiolingual learning theory dominated the field of second language (L2) and foreign language (FL) learning, communication skill was seen as no more than a habit formation. As it will be discussed further in the following sections, language production was conceptualized as a set of procedural operations of a cognitive skill, and consequently L2 speaking was thought to require a simple repetition of target features, concentrating principally on the temporal aspects of oral production.

Secondly, L2 pedagogy had placed more emphasis on input than output (Leather & James, 1991). Speaking, therefore, was not valued as an autonomous skill, but rather as a medium for language input (Howatt, 1984).

The third reason concerns technology. Although tape-recorders and language laboratories had existed, it is only after the mid-1970s that tape-recording has been sufficiently affordable and practical in the study of spoken language by researchers along with the use in language classrooms. Supported by the technical development, research in cognitive linguistics and sociolinguistics began to play a significant role in shaping L2 teaching and learning, and the focus of language teaching shifted from how language knowledge can be learned to how language can function as a useful means of *communication* (i.e., social interaction). CLT was then introduced in response to the increasing demands for the consideration of the communicative functions of language. With its ultimate aim of developing communicative competence (CC) for fluent communication, CLT brought about two major changes in the view on L2 learning with specific regards to speaking.

Firstly, the functional aspects of a language within a social context received a renewed attention. A notional-functional approach extended to teaching of interactional notions (e.g., paying attention to factors of formality and functions such as making requests, apologies, invitations, introductions, and politeness, etc). As a result, the interactional aspects of speaking (e.g., familiarity with interlocutor, contents and types of speech act) were recognized as central characteristics of oral production (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Selinker & Douglas, 1985, as cited in Bygate, 2001).

Secondly, the importance of learners' communicative needs was emphasized. Tasks focused on affording learners opportunities to use target language (TL) employing whatever linguistic or nonlinguistic resources they have at their disposal, without heavy reliance on grammatical complexity and/or accuracy (Brumfit, 1984). Such approach was expected to increase *fluency* and has been accepted as a received model by educators not only in ESL contexts but also in EFL settings.

In what follows, previous literature on what has been involved in L2 fluency will be reviewed in more detail.

2.1.2. Previous studies on fluency.

2.1.2.1. Definition of fluency.

Since the term *fluency* is often used interchangeably with *proficiency* in the current literature, it is worth noting what each of these terms refers to. Perhaps the most well voiced conceptualization of proficiency is presented by Thomas (1994): “[...] a person’s overall competence and ability to perform in L2 [...] [and] [...] the ability to produce [...] complex and accurate utterances in the TL” (p. 330). Traditionally, fluency has been considered one of the components of proficiency along with *complexity* and *accuracy*, and it is defined as “the

capacity to use language *in real time* (emphasis added), to emphasize meanings, possibly drawing on more lexicalized systems” (Skehan & Foster, 1999, pp. 96–97)¹. More ‘narrowly’, it concerns the time-related aspects of oral production such as “the number and length of pauses and other hesitations, their distribution, and the temporal rate at which words are produced” (Lennon, 2000, p. 25). For a better understanding of these definitions of fluency, it is necessary to overview the early conceptualization of oral production on which today’s model is built.

2.1.2.2. Theoretical backgrounds of fluency in the L2 speaking model.

L2 production model was established on the assumption that it involved basically the same cognitive procedures as L1 (Bialystok & Sharwood Smith, 1985). The most well-known L1 speaking model on which the current L2 speaking models are based is that of Levelt (1975, 1978). Levelt claimed that a cognitive skill has a hierarchical organization, which becomes automatic with its

¹ Skehan and Foster (1999, pp. 96-97) define *complexity* and *accuracy* as follows:
Complexity: the capacity to use more advanced language, with the possibility that such language may not be controlled so effectively. This may also involve a greater willingness to take risks, and use fewer controlled language subsystems. This area is also taken to correlate with a greater likelihood of restructuring, that is, change and development in the interlanguage system.
Accuracy: the ability to avoid error in performance, possibly reflecting higher levels of control in the language as well as a conservative orientation, that is, avoidance of challenging structures that might provoke error.

repeated use. The model suggests that producing speech is a complex task, which involves many sub-stages, that “consists essentially of automation of low level plans or units of activity” (Levelt, 1978, p. 57). Conceiving speech production as a staged process, Levelt developed a model of speaking in steps with three main components: *Conceptualizer*, *Formulator*, and *Articulator*² (Levelt, 1989). This model has been used in fluency research to explain in part how language units may be automatized and retrieved at the point of its formulation, laying a corner stone for later studies in formulaic languages as language units (e.g., Nattinger & De Carrico, 1992).

In the same vein, L2 speech was perceived as a system consisting of a number of subsystems that operate stepwise to develop automaticity. For example, Anderson (Anderson, 1976, 1983) and more recently, De Bot (2000), who were among the firsts to postulate a bilingual language production model based on Levelt’s, conceptualized bilingual speakers’ speaking ability as an operation of layers of subsystems which are automatized after a repeated use. This concept of layers of (sub)systems operating ‘automatically’ as opposed to

² Each of these stages contains sub-stages. For a more detailed account of each stage, refer to Levelt (1989). Below is a brief description of mechanism involved in each stage.

1. Conceptualizer: this concerns recognition of all the preverbal information. Speaker decides the communicative goal and develops it into sub-goals and then identifies a speech act for each sub-goal. The speaker retrieves the information needed to realize each of the sub-goals.

2. Formulator: this stage contains syntactic building procedure required for grammatical encoding (i.e., internal speech). Here, the speaker establishes language representations of the preverbal information by retrieving lexical items from the speaker’s mental lexicon.

3. Articulator: chunks of internal speech stored in the speaker’s memory are ultimately produced as an overt speech.

‘controlled’ played an essential role in defining what it means to speak fluently and in turn what to teach learners to become fluent speakers (Wood, 2001).

2.1.2.3. Measurement of fluency.

The operation of automatic processing and control of language elements provided a conceptual framework for a considerable number of studies on fluency (Anderson, 1983; Levelt, 1989; McLaughlin, Rossman, & McLeod, 1983). This view supposes that L2 fluency enhancement, to a large extent, depended on the control of large number of formulaic language units (Pawley & Syder, 1983). Thus, taking control of broad and highly automatized repertoires of memorized chunks and clusters is central in attaining native-like fluency (Sajavaara, 1987).

In line with this view, most of the studies on fluency tend to have references to the temporal delivery of speech and regard any temporal elements affecting the “smooth, rapid, effortless use of language” (Crystal, 1987, p. 421) as the measuring schemes of (dys)fluent speech³. In addition, it has been pointed out that one of the most reliable predictors in measuring NNS’ (dys)fluency, in comparison with NS’ oral production, was the pause pattern such as the number,

³ See Luoma, 2004, for a variety of assessment scales and analytic descriptions for measuring oral fluency.

duration, location of pauses and the mean lengths of utterance between pauses (Ejzenberg, 2000; Freed, 1995, 2000; Lennon, 1990a, 1990b; Riggensbach, 1991; Towell, Hawkins, & Bazergui, 1996). The next subsection presents a review of studies on pause pattern in fluency research.

2.1.2.4. Pause pattern in fluency.

The earliest models on pause viewed NSs' pause as an indicator of the strength of association between language items. The more familiar a word or a phrase is, the stronger the association is, and therefore the shorter the pause duration is (Rochester, 1973).

It is generally agreed concerning the types of pauses that shorter pauses, especially the ones between the constituent boundaries were strategic (e.g., allowing more processing time for the listener, searching for a lexical item), and longer pauses were regarded as hesitations (e.g., delay in the cognitive process) (Goldman-Eisler, 1962). However, the function of lengths and locations of pauses has still remained controversial. The conditions under which pauses occur were not always reflective of the language elements with which the speaker was cognitively burdened (Barik, 1968; Boomer, 1970; Taylor, 1969)⁴.

⁴ For example, a pause before a preposition does not always indicate that the speaker was struggling with the preposition, but it may be due to a search for necessary language elements following the preposition.

Most recent models regard pauses as signaling cognitive decisions about both immediate and later speeches. For example, Hawkins (1971), in her study of young NS children's verbal recall of narratives, discovered that two thirds of all the pauses and three quarters of the pause-time were found to occur at boundaries between clauses. The pauses occurred most frequently in the order of at *clause boundaries* (initial position of a clause/sentence), before *predicator* (main verb), at *group (constituent) boundaries* and *word boundaries*. Based on the findings, Hawkins posited that NSs' pauses tend to indicate start of a new unit, and this was also the same case with the previous studies with adults NSs (Boomer, 1965). Hawkins attributed the distribution of the pause to that of decision making (e.g., content, syntactic structure, information distribution) but did not associate a particular pause location with a certain type of decision making. At present, the significance of pause pattern in the speaker's formulation of utterances cannot be evaluated fully. It is speculated that the semantic and syntactic elements in speakers' pause pattern may be combined with lexical and structural decisions.

A more recent study involving adult NSs and NNSs from a wide age range, Tavakoli (2010) reported that in their oral narratives, NNSs with lower proficiency produced more pauses than the advanced ones, and that NNSs paused statistically more than the NSs only in a mid-clause (i.e., within-clause) position. The findings imply that the most distinctive marker between NS and

NNS production is the NNSs' pauses in mid-clause positions. Tavakoli, however, did not suggest as to why NNSs paused most frequently in mid-clauses and whether these mid-clause pauses were associated with a certain linguistic/cognitive process. Meanwhile, these NNSs did not pause as much in formulaic sentences. Like many of previous studies (Table 2.1), Tavakoli associates fluency with absence of pause, and encourages teaching formulaic sequences.

TABLE 2.1
Summary of Key Studies on L2 Fluency

Study	Indicator of Fluency	Subjects	Conclusion(s)
Freed (1995)	Pause location	American students of French	Location of pauses had a significant effect on the perceived fluency of some subjects; the location of pauses at clause junctures seems to play a role in perceived fluency.
Lennon (1984)	Ratio of pause time to speech time	German students of English	A higher ratio of pause time to speech time was found in the performance of the L2 speech.
Lennon (1990a)	Changes in the pause time	German students of English	Generally, total unfilled pause time as a percentage of total speech decreased by an average of 25% in three of four subjects as their proficiency increased.

Lennon (1990b)	Mean length of runs between pauses	German students of English	The mean length of runs between pauses increased markedly in three out of four subjects. Over 23 weeks, three subjects increased their mean length of runs by 20- 26%.
Mohle (1984)	Mean length of runs between pauses	French learners of German; German learners of French	L2 speakers produced shorter runs between pauses in L2 speech than in L1 speech.
Riggenbach (1991)	Presence of filled or unfilled pauses and pause location	Chinese learners of English	Unfilled pause frequency was an important discriminator between subjects' rate as highly fluent and those rated as less fluent; location of pauses had a significant effect on the perceived fluency of some subjects; the location of pauses at clause junctures seems to play a role in perceived fluency.
Towell (1987)	Length of runs	a British learner of French	The mean length of runs increased a remarkable 95% over the first three years.

2.1.3. Fluency in CLT

Fluency in CLT is defined in contrast with 'accuracy', which is distinguished from the previous models. The CLT definition diverts our attention to the genuine language use at any level of proficiency in a naturalistic setting to

achieve communicative purposes (Bachman, 1990; Canale & Swain, 1980). While CLT does not exclude the concept of “linguistic knowledge” and “language system” from its definition, the provision of formulaic chunks as a major pedagogical treatment still prevails.

2.1.3.1. Definition of fluency in CLT.

As pointed out in 2.1.1., CLT puts its value in the functional aspects of a language and the importance of learners’ communicative needs. Since CLT emphasizes the learners’ role in “effective language use within the constraints of limited linguistic knowledge” (Chambers, 1997, p. 536), fluency is defined as “the maximally effective operation of the language system so far acquired by the students” (Brumfit, 1984, p. 57). Thus, fluency in CLT is regarded as "natural language use whether or not it results in native-like language comprehension or production" (p. 56). This definition differs from the traditional view of fluency in that the latter is broadly synonymous with language mastery and native-like performance.

2.1.3.2. Pedagogical framework in CLT.

The CLT pedagogy on fluency assumes that fluency can be improved by

practicing or routinizing speaking plans⁵. In spite of many concerns about its limitations⁶, this approach has still been popular in both ESL and EFL contexts. For example, the most representative CLT pedagogical frame consists of stages (in a task) such as *Input stage*, *Automatization stage*, *Practice stage*, and *Production stage*. In *Input stage*, after learners listen to a native speaker in a spontaneous discussion a few times first, the teacher draws their attentions to the formulaic language chunks. *Automatization stage* typically involves shadowing the recording with a transcript. Using dictogloss texts rich in formulaic units, teachers raise students' awareness of the phrases and their function(s) in speech, as a step in the direction towards automatizing them (Wajnryb, 1989). In *Practice* and *Production stage*, after sufficient amount of exposure to the phrase patterns and formulaic language units of a native speaker model, the learners are given a chance to prepare a brief speech of their own (Nation, 1989).

⁵ A typified study based on this can be found in Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992), which makes a strong case for teaching prefabricated units or patterns because they reduce the processing effort. They give examples of "form/function composites" which are easy to acquire, efficient to use and permit a wide variation of lexical content such as "Could you give me..." (i.e., Modal + YOU + VP) (pp. 64-65). Lexical phrases which are non-productive are distinguished because they do not allow substitutions (e.g. *by the way*, *in other words*) from those which allow for some variations like the pattern "a - X - ago", which provides a slot in which a lexical item stating duration can be inserted- *a year ago*, *a minute ago* (pp. 36-37). Nattinger and DeCarrico suggested that these productive lexical or syntactic phrases are of particular value to foreign language learners and can enhance learner fluency by providing a frame to build a sentence as well as approaching the characteristics of native-like speech.

⁶ There is little substantial evidence of these tasks improving speakers' proficiency, and promoting speakers to use the intended target structures or produce beyond what was required by the tasks.

2.2 Reconceptualization of L2 Fluency in EFL

In this section, some issues on the implementation of the current conceptualization of fluency in EFL contexts are examined (2.2.1), and these issues are revisited, especially in view of the grammatical competence (2.2.2). In the last section (2.2.3), taking the previous research as a point of departure, a justification of verb-argument constructions as an L2 fluency measuring unit is provided.

2.2.1. Implementing L2 fluency model in EFL contexts.

It has thus far been discussed that while the current L2 speaking model presupposes grammatical/linguistic competence within its constructs, such competence is not adequately reflected in the *assessment* of fluency. Most studies on measuring fluency focused on mainly temporal variables, such as pause patterns. However, note that these temporal variables are *not the underlying factor or cause* of the learners' dysfluency, but are mere representations of their cognitive, affective, or social interactional struggles.

It thus remains uncertain whether L2 speaking instruction, focusing on temporal variables, will lead to an improvement in fluency. The distribution of pauses is the *manifestation* of what is perceived as a fluent speech (Freed, 1995;

Riggenbach, 1991), not what *underlies* the ability to speak the language fluently per se (i.e., the lack of awkward pauses is *no guarantee* of a competent speaker; there may be less ‘awkward pauses’ *because* the speaker is competent). In EFL settings, where exposure to L2 input and meaningful interactions is severely limited, the absence of grammatical competence in fluency measurement, resulting in the repetition and automatization of memorized chunks as major pedagogical treatments, can have critical consequences for fluency enhancement.

Therefore, the present study suggests *grammatical competence* to be considered directly as a principal component in L2 fluency measurement in order to provide appropriate pedagogical treatments for EFL students’ fluency development.

In what follows, this issue is discussed with reference to the grammatical competence, originating in communicative competence (CC) by Canale and Swain (1980), and communicative language ability (CLA) by Bachman (1990). In particular, grammatical competence is revisited, suggesting an alternative framework for the analysis of L2 fluency.

2.2.2. Grammatical competence in L2 fluency.

Canale and Swain (1980), in their introduction to communicative competence (CC), proposed that the ability to formulate and perform TL be integrated, and at

the same time, they distinguished grammatical competence from performance: “[... CC is] the relationship and interaction between grammatical competence, or knowledge of the rule of grammar, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the rules of language use. [However] CC is to be distinguished from communicative performance [...]” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 6). This distinction led to the dichotomy between grammatical competence and performance in L2 oral assessment since it was convenient “[...] to maintain these basic distinctions for L2 teaching and testing purposes [...]” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 29).

On the other hand, most of the current L2 pedagogies on fluency are based on Bachman’s (1990) model of communicative language ability (CLA). CLA was founded on the premise of CC that “the ability to use language communicatively involves both knowledge and competence in the language, and the capacity for implementing or using this competence” (p. 81). However, in this model, fluency is separately considered from grammatical competence (accuracy and complexity), confined to temporal variables (pause pattern).

In EFL contexts where the increased reliance on grammar instruction as an effective remedy for impoverished target language input is (Ellis, 2003), the consideration of grammatical competence in L2 fluency has a significant implication. Given the importance of grammatical competence in L2 fluency, in the following section, through the examination of the appropriateness of the

current definition of grammatical competence, an alternative framework is presented.

2.2.3. L2 fluency revisited in terms of verb-argument constructions.

When defining and teaching grammar, the need to include meaning, in addition to linguistic forms, has been proposed by a number of researchers and teachers, notably Celce-Mercia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), who conceived of grammar as a form-meaning-use complex.

However, in Bachman's (1990) model, on which most of the current assessment models are based, grammatical competence was defined with the semantic element, namely sentence grammar semantics (SGS) left out⁷. This omission does not accord well with the adjusted concept of grammar embracing form, meaning, and use.

Based on the fact that Canale and Swain's (1980) SGS is associated with assigning meaning to clause-level expressions, SGS is assumed to be in parallel with *argument structure constructions* (ASCs) or verb-argument constructions

⁷ Canale and Swain (1980, p. 29) originally defined grammatical competence as “[...] knowledge of lexical items, and of rules of morphology, syntax, *sentence grammar semantics* (emphasis added), phonology”. However, in Bachman's definition, “grammatical competence includes those competencies involved in language usage. Knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax and phonology/graphology [...]” (1990, p. 81).

(VACs) under the framework of Construction Grammar (CxG; Goldberg, 1995).

In CxG, constructions are the basic and essential units of language acquisition (Bencini & Goldberg, 2000; Ellis & Cadierno, 2009; Goldberg, Casenhire, & Sethuraman, 2004; Gries & Wulff, 2004) and “reflect the most direct embodiment of learners’ communicative intentions” (Goldberg, 1995, p. 111). Different traditional ‘levels’ of grammatical descriptions such as phonology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and discourse, are integrated into a complex of form and meaning, which represents an abstraction about speakers’ grammatical knowledge or *grammatical construction*.

In addition, CxG, unlike earlier theories of grammar, conceives of language performance as a “part of speakers’ competence or knowledge of language”, and puts its value in “the conditions under which a given construction can be used felicitously” (Goldberg, 1995, p.6).

These properties endorse CxG as an appropriate framework for the L2 spoken language analysis. This study thus supposes that VACs based on CxG can be a crucial unit in L2 fluency analysis.

In the following chapter, the methodological approaches to the current study are introduced. L2 fluency is analyzed in respect to VACs in two parts. Firstly, the VACs used in the Korean middle school English learners’ spoken production will be examined in terms of verbs, and argument structure constructions. Secondly, based on them, the learners’ pause distributions will be accounted for

in light of VACs.

The research questions are as follow:

Research Questions:

1. What types of verbs and argument structure constructions are shown in the learners' speech production?
2. What does the learners' pause distribution reveal about their verb-argument constructions?

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter involves a description of the methodological approach and research design for the current study. The chapter is divided into two parts. The first part describes participants, tasks, and data collection procedures. The second part contains the research design for examining the types of verbs and argument structure constructions, and pause patterns in NNSs' speech production. An explanation of methods of measuring the variables and a justification of the approach are provided.

3.1. Participants

A total of 29 Korean middle school EFL students from grade 1 to 3 (age between 13 to 15), who were enrolled in an After School English Writing Program (ASEWP), participated in this study. They were all from the same middle school but mixed randomly in grades. The participants were academically high achieving students populating the top 50 of their grade. Regardless of their overall school examination scores, the participants took an English writing test designed by a team of ASEWP instructors as a placement test in the first week of

the program. The test consisted of two sets. The first set required the students to describe a picture, select and give a response to a situation from a given list, explain illustrations in a chronological order and describe the next logical illustration, and write an email response to a situation, presenting all of the required information. In the second set, the students were asked to re-write a short Korean folk tale in English (APPENDIX 1). The test was scored by six raters and averaged based on the holistic and analytic descriptions of writing proficiency (Council of Europe, 2001).

According to their writing test scores, the students were grouped into two classes: the highest 15 students were assigned to Class A, and the rest to Class B. Initially, Class A consisted of 10 male, and 5 female students but as one female student withdrew from the program, there were 14 students in total for the remainder of the course. There were 7 male and 8 female students in Class B. None of the students in both classes had overseas experiences except two students in Class A (each student for 1 year; 2 months). In order to minimize the range in the placement test scores, the students in each Class were divided into two subgroups, making 4 groups in total (see APPENDIX 2 for individual student's scores). The proficiency level of each group and the number of students are presented in Table 3.1.

TABLE 3.1**Proficiency Level and Number of Students by Each Group**

Group	A1		A2		B1		B2	
Proficiency	Highest		High		Low		Lowest	
Number of participants	7		7		8		7	
Gender in each group	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	4	3	6	1	4	4	3	4

3.2. Tasks

ASEWP took place once a week for 90 minutes per session. The students were asked to participate in a speaking task each week in pairs, and they were allowed to choose their own speaking partners. The participants were given 10 to 15 minutes for each task, which was carried out during the writing class over the course of 6 weeks. The participants' consent was obtained prior to the experiment. In order to minimize students' stress level and any undue interruption to the main course, the speaking tasks were implemented as a form of an activity between the writing tasks rather than of instruction. There were two types of speaking tasks and each type consisted of three tasks: three role-plays and three topic-based conversations.

3.2.1. Role-play.

In order to provide students with tasks which depicted familiar and natural communicative events within the physical limitation of the classroom environment, the students first watched an episode of a cartoon (which ran average of 5 minutes per episode) and then role-played the characters in the cartoon. Since the cartoon was about the lives of arctic animals, it did not have a human voice over; but an unintelligible animal language and sound effects. Although the characters were animals, the participants could easily relate to the characters' role (i.e., age and social status) and behaviors. The operations and contents of the cartoon are presented in APPENDIX 3.1.

3.2.2. Topic-based conversation.

As it was shown that NSs used limited types of clause patterns in everyday conversation (Altenberg, 1993; Scheibman, 2001), the topic-based conversation tasks were designed to require students to use specific types of VACs, especially the less frequently used constructions such as caused-motion construction (VOL), double-object construction (VOO), and resultative construction (VOR) (APPENDIX 3.1 for the topics and operations covered in each task).

3.3 Procedures

Each pair was given a MP3 recorder and instructed on how to operate it before every session. The students in each pair were assigned a role as Speaker A or Speaker B. The participants were advised to put the recorder on the desk and not to stop it until the session was over.

3.3.1. Role-play.

Before the first task, an introduction to the cartoon including a profile of the characters, their relationships and the general contents was provided. Then, the students were given an exercise sheet designed to help them become familiar with the cartoon (APPENDIX 3.2).

Prior to watching the video, participants were encouraged to imagine what the characters in the cartoon might be saying and what the participants would have said in the same situation (APPENDIX 3.2). After viewing, they were given still-cuts (on average 20-30 cuts per task) from the episode with speech bubbles with either a letter A or B indicating which speaker was assigned to speak where. This was to ensure a well-balanced turn taking so that the flow of conversation would be natural, and a substantial amount of speech would be extracted from

each speaker. Participants were given a few minutes before the task to ask any questions on the task procedures and contents of the episode to reduce the level of interruption during the task performance (APPENDIX 3.3).

The episodes were chosen based on the everyday activities depicted in the students' textbooks (Korean Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 1997), and the role-playing was expected to closely reflect the natural structure of conversation (i.e., its sequential organization and turn-taking rules), and efficiently stimulate students to use language form that is closely related to their genuine discourse situations.

The participants were advised to be as spontaneous as possible. L1 was allowed, to some extent, to minimize interruptions to the flow of the conversation. When the speakers knew what to say but did not know the English equivalents, they were allowed to use L1. In addition, the participants were encouraged to think-aloud (in L1 or L2) whatever they were thinking or feeling during the task in order to better observe their cognitive process although this was not the main part of the research.

3.3.2. Topic-based conversation.

A guide to the topics and procedures for each task was given to the students in L1 (APPENDIX 3.4., 3.5). In preparation, three-to-five minutes were given to

the participants to draw a mind-map or write down keywords, but they were not permitted to look back at them once the task started.

3.4. Authenticity of Tasks

Authenticity is a much argued and challenged aspect of an oral ability assessment (Fulcher, 2003). A discussion on whether authenticity is a concept or a construct is beyond the scope of the current study (for a wider range of perspectives on the topic, see Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Lewkowics, 2000). What the majority of researchers agree is that it is (almost) impossible to capture or simplify ‘reality’ and provide a perfectly natural simulation of it for test/task takers.

In the case of EFL contexts, because the Korean EFL learners *are* using English as a foreign language, the conversational tasks given to these EFL learners are what might be the closest to the most ‘natural environmental language’ (Long, 1988) for them. For that reason, authenticity in this study focuses on the interactional aspects and the NNSs’ communicative needs within the task. Because the interlocutors are engaged in two-way online interaction, they have a tight control of their discourse, and their purpose of communication naturally becomes an ‘immediate’ or an authentic one. A task which “satisfies the learner’s search for knowledge and allows the learner the ability to control

that search” can thus be considered authentic (Rost, 2001, p. 124).

3.5 Data Analyses

The recordings of NNS production were transcribed using Microsoft Word and Microsoft Excel program. The transcription followed the convention used in Conversation Analysis (CA). CA is concerned with understanding the interplay among oral language, social interactions and the actions that people accomplish using language in their everyday lives. Although CA was not originally designed to analyze the nature of language learning and its process, its view on how people interact in socially situated activities can provide many beneficial implications for second language acquisition, and its worth as a systematical analysis tool has been appreciated by applied linguists and L2 researchers (Kasper, 2006).

3.5.1. Investigating NNS spoken language in terms of VACs.

The first part of the data concerns the characteristics of verb-argument constructions in the NNSs’ spontaneous speech production at two levels: global and local. At the global level, the total number of clauses was counted and the

verbs were sorted into semantic categories. At the local level, the VACs exhibited in each group were analyzed, and the two most frequent inhabitants of the islands⁸ constituting the core constructions (VL: verb locative; VOL: verb object locative; VOO: verb double objects; VOR: verb object result) were identified.

3.5.1.1. Counting clause units.

The counting units of spoken language production have always been controversial. In the extensive survey of recent studies in applied linguistics and second language acquisition by Foster, Tonkyn, and Wigglesworth (2000), it was found that the majority of studies did not provide definitions of their counting units, and even when supplied, the definitions varied to a considerable degree in their details. The different units of measurement appear to complement each other but the limitations of such units may be associated with separation of form, meaning, and use from the nature of oral language.

A construction, on the other hand, encompasses form and meaning in use, making it entitled to be an ideal candidate for an analysis unit in a spoken language. Since the focus of the current study concerns NNSs' VACs, a clause

⁸ Examples of *islands* are as follows: subject, verb, preposition, locative, object, etc. Each construction may consist of different islands. For details see Ellis and Ferreira-Junior (2009).

containing a (finite) verb is counted as one independent unit (e.g., *Let's go*, *I received chocolate*). When a phrase can be recovered to a full clause from the context of discourse or situation, it was also counted as a unit (e.g., *What you want?* as in 'What do you want?'; *You needed* as in 'You are needed') (adapted from Foster, et al., 2000).

In particular, conventional expressions such as greetings (e.g., *hi*, *good-bye*, *see you later*) and gratitude (e.g., *thank you*) were counted but excluded in the syntactic analysis. When the clause contained repairs such as self-corrections, false starts, and repetitions, only the final outcomes of those repairs were counted and analyzed syntactically, while all utterances were transcribed.

3.5.1.2. Sorting verb types.

The verbs were categorized into semantic groups based on the Halliday's general taxonomy of verbal processes in English which models three general processes of human experience: being, sensing, and doing (Halliday, 1994). According to Halliday (1994), clauses are representations of language users' impression of experience which "consists of going-on happening, doing, sensing, meaning, and being and becoming" (p.106). In the present study, ten semantic categories based on the Hallidayan general taxonomy were used: seven

Hallidayan categories (*Cognition, Existential, Feeling, Material, Perception, Relational, Verbal*), and three adaptations (*Perception/Relational, Possessive/Relational* (Scheibman, 2001), and *Corporeal* (Dixon, 1991)). Table 3.2 shows the description of each semantic category with examples⁹.

The verbs were classified by tasks and proficiency groups in order to observe any skewness in the usage pattern, and see whether any discernible over/under use of a certain verb category was either a property of the task contents or a proficiency level.

TABLE 3.2
Verb Categories by Semantic Groups

Category	Description	Examples
Cognition	Cognitive activity	<i>know, think, remember, figure out</i>
Corporeal	Bodily gestures, bodily interaction	<i>eat, drink, sleep, live, smoke</i>
Existential	Exist, happen	<i>be, have, sit, stay, happen</i>
Feeling	Emotion, wanting	<i>like, want, feel, need,</i>

⁹ An extra category of *Fixed*, although not included in Table 3.2., is added in the result section (APPENDIX 4.1) to categorize the conventional expressions such as greetings and gratitude.

		<i>bother, enjoy</i>
Material	Concrete and abstract	<i>do, go, take, teach, work, use, play, come</i>
Perception	Perception, attention	<i>look, see, hear, find, notice,</i>
Perception/relational	Perception (subject non sensor)	<i>look, smell, sound</i>
Possessive/relational	Possession (X has A)	<i>have, get</i>
Relational	Processes of being (X is A, X is at A)	<i>be, get, be like</i> (descriptive), <i>become</i>
Verbal	Saying symbolic exchange of meaning	<i>say, talk, mean, tell, ask,</i> <i>go</i> (quotative), <i>be like</i> (quotative)

(based on Halliday (1994), and Dixon (1991), from Scheibman (2001))

3.5.1.3. Syntactic properties of verbs.

The syntactic structures used in each verb were identified. Then, they were compiled according to proficiency groups to find out whether there was any difference in the VACs among the groups.

3.5.1.4. Inhabitants of the islands constituting the core constructions.

As a close examination of the local patterns of each of the core constructions in English, the distribution of the two most frequent inhabitants of the islands constituting the linguistic forms of VL, VOL, VOO, and VOR constructions was analyzed (Ellis & Ferreira-Junior, 2009).

3.5.2. NNS pause distribution.

In the second part of the data analysis, the pause patterns in NNSs' spontaneous spoken interaction were observed. The unfilled (silence) and filled pauses (hesitation markers such as *umm*, and *hmm*, etc) were not distinguished from each other in terms of their discourse functions (Freed, 1995). All pauses were counted in seconds, and indicated in brackets. In this section, all clauses including the conventional expressions of greetings and gratitude which were excluded in the initial analysis of verbs and argument structure constructions (3.5.1.1) were included.

3.5.2.1. Pause distribution.

The observation of NNS pause distribution involved three levels of analysis as follows: firstly, the distribution of number and duration of pauses at each pause location (Table 3.3) in the proficiency groups were accounted. Secondly, the clauses/sentences in each proficiency group were divided into two categories, *Grammatical* and *Ungrammatical* according to their grammatical well-formedness. The pauses in each of these two categories were distinguished between a *long* and a *short* pause. The threshold between a long and a short pause was 0.25 seconds (i.e., any pause under 0.26 seconds was a short pause and any pause length over the threshold of 0.25 seconds was a long pause) (Goldman-Eisler, 1958). Functionally, a long pause is supposed to indicate a point at which speaker is burdened with cognitive decision and a short pause is regarded as speakers' discourse strategy or as a simple breathing point (Barik, 1968; Boomer, 1965, 1970; Goldman-Eisler, 1958, 1962; Hawkins, 1971). The total number and duration of long and short pauses, and their distribution at each location were analyzed. Finally, the pause distribution in the clauses with constructional errors was observed (3.5.2.2).

TABLE 3.3
Pause Locations

Pause location	Examples
(a) CB (clause initial place)	(0.8) <i>You are late.</i>
(b) Predicate (main verb)	<i>So Pinga (0.2) stop hiccupping.</i>
(c) Argument (argument following predicator)	<i>And historian is (0.2) useful.</i>

CB indicated the pauses occurring at the sentence/clause initial position (i.e., start of an utterance) including imperatives. The pauses occurring before the conjunctions within a same sentence, and also the subjects following a conjunction within a linked sentence were counted as *CB*. *Predicate* indicated pauses before the main predicator (verb). *Argument* included all the sentential elements following the main verb such as adjective, adverb, noun, determiner, pronoun, and preposition, and so forth. While all pauses were counted, the analysis was principally targeted at the pauses at *Predicate* and *Argument* position.

When the students code-switched to L1 in search for lexical items, as long as the sentential structure preserved the English construction, they were counted as *Grammatical* (Example 1).

Example 1

I want go *cip* [home].¹⁰

For the sentences containing repairs, while all pauses were counted, the sentence was categorized either as *Grammatical* or *Ungrammatical* depending on the final outcome (i.e., if the final outcome after the repair was grammatical, it was categorized as *Grammatical*).

3.5.2.2. *Pause distribution in clauses with constructional error(s).*

Within the *Ungrammatical* category, the sentences containing errors that were not due to the functional categories (e.g., articles, plural markers) but because of a lack of knowledge in English ASCs were analyzed separately. The total number and duration of long and short pauses, and their distribution at each pause location were examined.

¹⁰ Korean is romanized following the Yale system and italicized. English translation is given in [].

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter provides findings of NNS' spontaneous speech production data in relation to the research questions posed in Chapter 2. Section 4.1 presents the types of verbs along with their salient argument structure constructions, and the most frequent islands constituting the VL, VOL, VOO, and VOR constructions. Section 4.2 offers the detailed analysis of the NNS pause pattern in terms of number, duration, and locations.

4.1 Verb-Argument Constructions in NNS Production

The analysis of the types of verbs and their corresponding argument structure constructions represented in Korean middle school EFL students' speech production was carried out at global and local levels. At the global level, the types of verbs, and their semantic categories were examined. At the local level, the VACs containing each of these verbs were analyzed and compiled by the proficiency groups, along with the two most frequent inhabitants of islands constituting the core constructions.

4.1.1. Number of words and clauses.

As a first step, the total number of words and clauses was counted (Table 4.1.1). The most (A1) and the least (B2) proficient group produced more number of words and clauses than the levels between (A2 and B1). However, considering the absence of data from B1 and B2 for Task 6¹¹, quantity levels in oral production may not always be matched with proficiency levels. On the other hand, the lower amount of production in A2 and B1 may be due to inconsistent attendance.

TABLE 4.1.1

Total Number of Words and Clauses by Proficiency Groups

Proficiency group	Number of words	Number of clauses
A1	1841	353
A2	1105	208
B1	926	234

¹¹ For task 6, only six students from Class B were available in that week. However, data was not included due to the students' refusal to partake, as the task was felt to be "too difficult".

B2	1602	369
TOTAL	5474	1164

4.1.2. Frequency of verbs in each semantic category by tasks.

The frequency of verbs belonging to each semantic category in each task was examined (APPENDIX 4.1). The verbs, in almost all tasks, mostly were of the semantic category of *Material*, *Relational* and *Feeling*, across all proficiency groups¹².

4.1.3. Top three most frequent verbs by category in each proficiency group.

As for the types of verbs assigned to each of the semantic categories, the total number and proportion of top three most frequently used verbs¹³ in the NNS

¹² There were a few exceptional cases: for instance, *Cognition* verbs as in *I think* were used more often than the *Feeling* verbs (e.g., *am*, *want*, *need*).

¹³ While these 'frequently' used verbs refer to those used for at least more than once, because there were few categories which were composed only of idiosyncratic items of verbs or only one

corpus were accounted (APPENDIX 4.2). The results indicate that the learners used similar items of verbs, such as *go, make, get, give, do, play (Material); is, am, was, are (Relational); want, like, copular be (Feeling)*.

4.1.4. Most frequently used verbs in the top three semantic categories.

Table 4.1.2 summarizes the top three items of verbs used in the top three semantic categories, *Material, Relational* and *Feeling*, which accounted for the majority of the corpus.

TABLE 4.1.2
Three Most Frequently Used Semantic Categories of Verbs and Their Individual Items

Proficiency Group	Verb Category	Raw Numbers	% in Corpus	Top Three Most Frequent Verbs (raw number/% within the category)		
A1	Material	158	44.8	GO 17/10.7%	MAKE 12/7.6%	GET 10/6.3%
A2		91	43.6	GIVE 13/14.2%	MAKE 9/9.9%	DO 8/8.8%
B1		75	32.1	GO 10/13.3%	GIVE 9/7.5%	DO 8/10.7%

token, such verbs which were used only once were also listed.

B2	139	37.7	GIVE 13/9.3%	GO 11/3.5%	PLAY 5/1.6%
A1	72	20.4	IS 56/77.8%	AM 6/8.3%	WAS 6/8.3%
A2	39	18.8	IS 21/64.1%	AM 4/10.3%	-
B1	65	28	IS 61/93.8%	ARE 4/6.2%	-
B2	96	26	IS 88/91.7%	ARE 5/5.2%	AM 2/2.1%
A1	46	13	WANT 19/41.3%	AM 12/26.1%	LIKE 9/19.6%
A2	36	17.3	WANT 9/25%	LIKE 8/22.2%	IS 5/13.9%
B1	45	19.2	AM 19/42.2%	ARE 5/11.1%	IS 5/11.1%
B2	59	16	WANT 17/28.9%	AM 15/25.4%	ARE 6/10.2%

4.1.5. Syntactic patterns.

As summarized in Figure 1, the three constructions, SVC (*adj.*), SVC (*nom.*), and SVO, were the most frequent, while others (e.g., SVOC, SVOO) were comparatively rare. In the corpus of all proficiency groups, SVC (*adj.*) accounted for the largest proportion (total of 29.7%), which was employed more by the lower level learners (A1: 23.1%; A2: 23.1%; B1: 36%; B2: 35.5%). When the subject complement was a nominal (total of 19.3%), the use patterns across all

groups were more even (A1: 17.3%; A2: 20%; B1: 18.3%; B2: 21.5%). SVO (19.3%) was used over 20% in all three groups (A1: 21.2%; A2: 21.5%; B1: 24.4%) except B2 (12.1%).

The proficiency groups also unveiled some differences. SVOC (*adj.*) and SV+*to*-infinitive, in particular, were employed more by the higher proficiency groups (SVOC (*adj.*)-A1: 2.4%; A2: 6.2%; B1: 0%; B2: 0%; SV+*to*-infinitive-A1: 9.1%; A2: 6.9%; B1: 1.8%; B2: 1.4%) whereas the lower proficiency groups (B1 and B2) made frequent use of SVC (*adj.*) and a formulaic expression, Let's+V (Let's V-A1: 0.5%; A2: 0%; B1: 6.1%; B2: 2.8%).

The VACs identified in the NNS corpus were in part congruous with those of NSs (Altenberg, 1993): the SVC with an adjective complement (45.6%) for the most common constructions along with SVO (28.4%) and SVOA (2.8%). This proportion can be related to spoken genre (Scheibman, 2001).

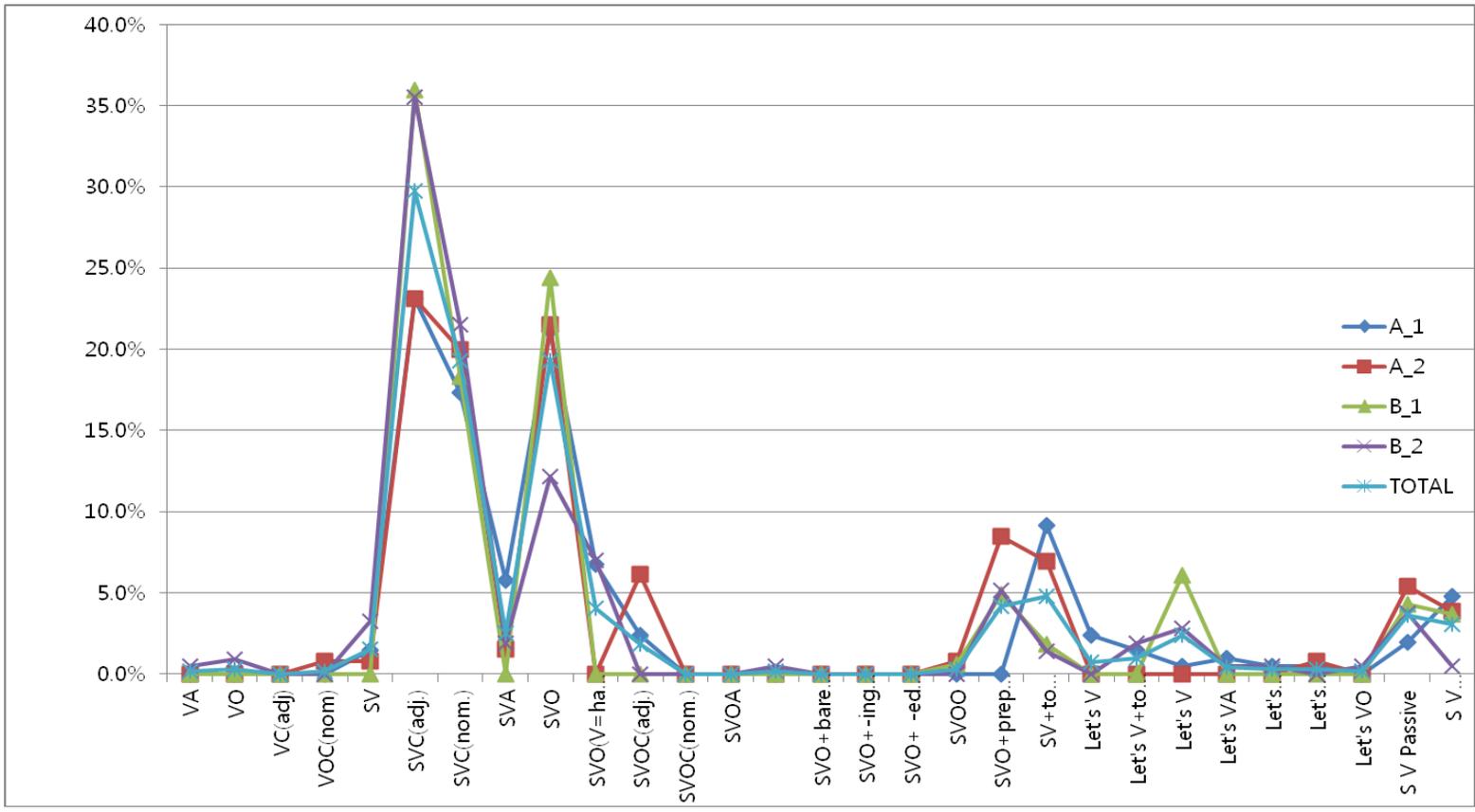


Figure 1.
Summary of Syntactic Patterns Used By Each Proficiency Group (%)

4.1.6. Two most frequent inhabitants of the islands constituting the VL, VOL, VOO, and VOR constructions.

Based on the English core constructions and their islands identified in the previous NSs' corpus (Ellis & Ferreira-Junior, 2010), the islands constituting VL, VOL, VOO, and VOR constructions in the NNSs' corpus were classified (APPENDIX 4.3).

Overall, the participants produced only a few constructions, including the instances of 'ungrammatical' elements (e.g., errors in both functional categories such as articles, and constructional errors such as null arguments)¹⁴. Even for the higher proficiency groups (A1 and A2), apart from the VL and VOL constructions, which accounted for just above 5% of the whole corpus, the participants hardly used complex constructions that require more than one argument. The top two inhabitants of the verb islands in VACs were of restricted kinds in all proficiency groups. Namely, all groups used either *get* or *go* for VL, *give* for VOL and VOO, and *make* for VOR most frequently.

In relation to the use of constructions in each task, the contextual demand may account for limits in number and variety of constructions, and resemblance

¹⁴ As long as what appeared to be 'a structure' for a particular construction was perceived, it was included in the analysis. In A1, for example, a participant constructed a clause, which appeared to be an attempt to produce a VOR construction in a given context: [null subject + *make*+ *Pinga*+ *to hiccup*]. Despite its grammatical incompleteness, it was counted as a VOR construction.

in types of the verbs and the islands.

4.2 Pause Patterns

This section provides the participants' pause pattern. The analysis was particularly focused on the pauses within a verb phrase. In the first part, the total number of pauses (Table 4.2.1), and the total duration and the percentage of pause at each location (Table 4.2.2) are presented. The results showed no significant difference among the proficiency groups. In the second part, the NNSs' corpus was divided into two sentential categories, *Grammatical* and *Ungrammatical*, and the pauses were also classified into two types, depending on the length: a *long* (over 0.25 seconds), and a *short* (under 0.26 seconds) pause (Excerpt 1 shows examples of short and long pauses at each pause location). Further, within each sentential category, the pause types, total duration, and average lengths at each pause location were marked, as shown in Table 4.2.4.

Excerpt 1

CB: (1.2) It seems delicious. (Long pause)

Predicate: I (0.5) played with them a lot. (Long pause)

Argument: She was my (0.5) home stay mom (0.2) in America.

(Long pause; Short pause)

4.2.1. Number of pauses at each pause location.

TABLE 4.2.1

Number of Pauses at Each Pause Location by Proficiency Groups

	CB	Predicate	Argument	TOTAL
A1	128	30	54	235
A2	61	26	55	178
B1	95	21	49	180
B2	110	37	56	233

Most pauses appearing at the initial position of sentence (CB) accord with the previous studies (Hawkins, 1971; Tavaloki, 2011). The participants paused more often at *Argument* than *Predicate*, which indicates a distinctive marker of NNS pause pattern. At *Argument* position, most pauses were before a noun (e.g., a noun in a noun phrase preceded by a predicate) by 48.1% in A1, 41.8% in A2,

59.2% in B1, and 69.6% in B2¹⁵. The duration of pauses at each location also mirrors the same distribution pattern (Table 4.2.2).

4.2.2. Lengths of pauses at each pause location by proficiency groups.

TABLE 4.2.2

Total Lengths of Pauses at Each Pause Location by Proficiency Groups

Group		CB	Predicate	Argument	Total (sec)
A1	Length (sec)	266.4	41.1	52.7	382.4
	% in Corpus	69.6%	10.47%	13.78%	
A2	Length (sec)	135.2	26.8	50.8	247.9
	% in Corpus	54.53%	10.88%	20.49%	
B1	Length (sec)	184	28.3	56.2	279.6
	% in Corpus	65.80%	10.12%	18.81%	

¹⁵ The use of this pattern may be predictable from the fact that most of the clause patterns were that of SVC and SVO.

	Length (sec)	363.3	40.5	52.5	
B2					472.7
	% in Corpus	76.85%	8.56%	11.10%	

The participants in all groups paused the longest at *CB* position, followed by *Argument* and *Predicate*. This is the same phenomenon found in the previous studies: both NS and NNS speakers paused most frequently and the longest at the sentence initial position. The major difference between the NSs and NNSs was that the NNSs paused significantly more at *Argument* position than the NSs (Tavakoli, 2010).

There appears to be no marked difference across the proficiency groups, and the participants paused where NNSs are typically known to do. However, as will be considered in the following section, when the NNSs' production is examined in terms of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences, their production pattern shows differences.

4.2.3. Division of NNSs' interlanguage by proficiency groups.

TABLE 4.2.3

Total Number of Grammatical and Ungrammatical Clauses

by Proficiency Groups

Group		Grammatical	Ungrammatical
A1	Number	322	39
	% in Corpus	84.73%	10.26%
A2	Number	155	65
	% in Corpus	64.31%	26.97%
B1	Number	189	60
	% in Corpus	67.02%	21.27%
B2	Number	204	113
	% in Corpus	58.78%	32.56%

As shown in the table above, the higher the proficiency level was, the more grammatically accurate the learners' production was. The pause pattern itself nonetheless did not reflect this to the full. Actually, independently of their proficiency levels, they all tended to pause mostly at *CB*, followed by at *Argument* and lastly, at *Predicate*. When the pause patterns were separately analyzed by sentential groups, based on grammaticality, however, differences in the pause distribution relative to VACs between the most proficient (A1) and the rest of the groups were distinctive, as shown in Table 4.2.4.

4.2.4. Pause lengths and locations by interlanguage grammaticality.

In the grammatical sentences (*Grammatical*), all groups made long pauses most frequently before *Argument*, and paused longer on average before *Predicate*. Short pauses also occurred most often at *Argument*. The differences in the pause pattern between the proficiency groups were more distinctive in the ungrammatical sentences (*Ungrammatical*): A1 paused most frequently and the longest on average before *Predicate*, whereas A2 paused most often and longest on average before *Argument*. B1 and B2 paused most often before *Argument* but longest on average before *Predicate*. For short pauses, A1 paused most frequently before *Predicate* while the other groups paused most often before *Argument*.

TABLE 4.2.4

Pause Lengths and Locations by Sentence Grammaticality

Grammatical-Long pause

A1 Grammatical Sentences Long pause				A2 Grammatical Sentences Long pause				B1 Grammatical Sentences Long pause				B2 Grammatical Sentences Long pause			
Location	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average (sec)												
CB	86	212.4	2.5	CB	36	85	2.7	CB	63	103.5	1.6	CB	59	124.9	2.1
Predicate	12	16.9	1.4	Predicate	12	15.7	2.0	Predicate	3	7.2	2.4	Predicate	6	16.3	2.7
Argument	39	40.4	1.0	Argument	36	16.5	0.8	Argument	14	21.8	1.6	Argument	27	27.7	1.0
Total	137	269.7		Total	84	117.2		Total	80	132.5		Total	92	168.9	

Grammatical-Short pause

A1 Grammatical Sentences Short pause				A2 Grammatical Sentences Short pause				B1 Grammatical Sentences Short pause				B2 Grammatical Sentences Short pause			
Location	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average (sec)												
CB	15	3	0.2	CB	4	0.8	0.2	CB	7	1.4	0.2	CB	10	2	0.2
Predicate	9	1.8	0.2	Predicate	4	0.8	0.2	Predicate	2	0.4	0.3	Predicate	3	0.6	0.2
Argument	21	4.2	0.2	Argument	14	2.8	0.2	Argument	13	2.6	0.4	Argument	12	2.4	0.2
Total	45	9		Total	22	4.4		Total	22	4.4		Total	25	5	

Ungrammatical-Long pause

A1 Ungrammatical Sentences Long pause				A2 Ungrammatical Sentences Long pause				B1 Ungrammatical Sentences Long pause				B2 Ungrammatical Sentences Long pause			
Location	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average (sec)												
CB	12	23.1	2.0	CB	20	44.2	2.2	CB	18	46.7	2.6	CB	31	82.8	2.7
Predicate	9	9.4	1.4	Predicate	7	5.4	0.8	Predicate	7	14.1	2.0	Predicate	12	18.5	1.5
Argument	7	5.4	0.8	Argument	34	53.9	1.6	Argument	19	35.6	1.9	Argument	26	24.7	1.0
Total	28	37.9		Total	61	103.5		Total	44	96.4		Total	69	126	

Ungrammatical-Short pause

A1 Ungrammatical Sentences Short pause				A2 Ungrammatical Sentences Short pause				B1 Ungrammatical Sentences Short pause				B2 Ungrammatical Sentences Short pause			
Location	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average (sec)												
CB	2	0.4	0.2	CB	0	0	0	CB	1	0.2	0.2	CB	7	1.4	0.2
Predicate	5	1	0.2	Predicate	2	0.4	0.2	Predicate	4	0.8	0.2	Predicate	4	0.8	0.2
Argument	4	0.8	0.2	Argument	13	2.6	0.2	Argument	9	1.8	0.2	Argument	10	2	0.2
Total	11	2.2		Total	15	3		Total	14	2.8		Total	21	4.2	

In short, the result demonstrates that for the grammatical sentences, all groups paused more frequently at *Argument* position and longer on average before *Predicate*. Since the ungrammatical sentences analyzed in Table 4.2.4 included all sorts of errors (i.e., errors of functional categories), only the constructional errors were separately extracted for further pause pattern analysis, which will be presented in the following section 4.2.5.

4.2.5. Pause pattern in the interlanguage containing constructional error(s).

The result in Table 4.2.5 exhibits that A1 paused most frequently only before *Predicate* while the rest paused more before an argument than a predicate. This reinforces the results presented in Table 4.2.4. That is, when A1 was challenged by construction formation, it can be assumed that they were burdened with the processing mostly at a predicate level. The pause patterns found in other groups than A1, in contrast, disclose that they struggled at almost every constituent, especially within the verb phrases. In fact, this result may imply that pausing within clause, which in many earlier studies has been viewed as a distinctive marker of NNSs' dysfluency, can be further specified with regard to L2 learners' linguistic faculty, notably the ability to generate VACs.

TABLE 4.2.5

Pause Pattern in Sentences with Constructional Error(s)

A1

Type/Location		CB		Predicate		Argument			
Long	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)
	2	4.7	2.35	4	4.6	1.15		N/A	

Type/Location		CB		Predicate		Argument			
Short	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)
	1	0.2	0.2	2	0.4	0.2		N/A	

TOTAL	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus
	3	4.9	33.30%	6	5	66.70%		N/A	

A2

Type/Location		CB		Predicate		Argument			
Long	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)
	8	20	2.5	3	1.8	0.6	3	7.4	2.46

Type/Location		CB		Predicate		Argument			
Short	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)
		N/A		1	0.2	0.2	3	0.6	0.2

TOTAL	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus
	8	20	44.40%	4	2	22.20%	6	8	33.30%

B1

Type/Location		CB		Predicate		Argument			
Long	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)
	7	12.4	1.8	3	9.2	3.1	9	17.9	2

Type/Location		CB		Predicate		Argument			
Short	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)
		N/A		4	0.8	0.2	6	1.2	0.2

TOTAL	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus
	7	12.4	24.10%	7	10	24.10%	15	19.1	51.70%

B2

Type/Location		CB		Predicate			Argument		
Long	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)
	10	26.3	2.63	4	4.6	1.15	9	12.6	1.4
Type/Location		CB		Predicate			Argument		
Short	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)	No.	Total Duration (sec)	Average Duration (sec)
	3	0.6	0.2	1	0.2	0.2	2	0.4	0.2
TOTAL	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus	No.	Total Duration (sec)	% in Corpus
	13	26.9	44.8	5	4.8	17%	11	13	37.90%

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND FURTHER DISCUSSION

This study examined L2 fluency by analyzing Korean middle school English learners' spoken production, and pause pattern in light of VACs. This chapter summarizes and further discusses the research findings.

5.1. Summary of Findings (1)

5.1.1. Verb-argument constructions.

The first research question concerned the types of VACs. The most frequently occurring verbs belonged to a restricted set of categories such as *Material*, *Relational*, and *Feeling* in all six tasks, irrespective of the learners' proficiency level. All levels of learners, in addition, employed only a few core constructions, like SVC (*adj.*, *nom.*) and SVO, along with a narrow range of verbs and the inhabitants of the islands.

5.1.2. Further discussion.

The production outcomes across proficiency levels did not show much difference in the range of VACs. Even in the tasks, which were specially designed to elicitate complex constructions (e.g., VOL, VOO, VOR), participants scarcely used these constructions. This may be due to their lack of knowledge in complex constructions as well as the inherent demand of spoken discourse. This limited use of constructions appears to be consistent with the previous reports on the use of constructions by adult NSs in everyday contexts (Altenberg, 1993; Scheibman, 2001). However, there can be a fundamental difference in language use between EFL learners and NS adults. The EFL learners' use patterns may be mainly derived from their lack of constructional knowledge, in contrast to those of NS adults whose choice of constructions is likely intentional.

The following section presents a summary of results from the analysis of NNSs' pause pattern with further discussion.

5.2. Summary of Findings (2)

5.2.1. Pause pattern.

The second research question addressed what the pause pattern in the learners' production discloses, especially relative to VACs. The analysis was principally targeted at the pauses at *Predicate* and *Argument* positions within a

verb phrase. When the sentences and the pauses were analyzed in regard to two categories each, by grammaticality (*Grammatical* and *Ungrammatical*), and by length (*Long* and *Short*) respectively, disparate patterns emerged across the proficiency groups. The following is a summary of the results of the study:

<Pause lengths and locations by interlanguage grammaticality>

1. *Grammatical sentences-Long pauses*

- All groups paused more often before an argument
- All groups paused longest on average before a predicate

2. *Grammatical sentences-Short pauses*

- All groups paused more often before an argument

3. *Ungrammatical sentences-Long pauses*

- A1: paused most often and longest on average before a predicate
- A2: paused most often and longest on average before an argument
- B1: paused most often before an argument; longest on average before a predicate
- B2: paused most often before an argument; longest on average before a predicate

4. Ungrammatical sentences-Short pauses

-A1: paused most often before a predicate

-A2, B1, B2: paused most often before an argument

The differences in the pause distributions among the proficiency groups were more distinctive in the clauses containing constructional errors.

<Pause pattern in the interlanguage containing constructional errors>

A1

1. Long pauses

-Paused before a predicate only

2. Short pauses

-Paused before a predicate only

A2

1. Long pauses

-Paused the same number before *Predicate* and *Argument*

- Paused longer on average before an argument

2. Short pauses

-Paused more often and longer on average before an argument

B1

1. Long pauses

-Paused more often and longer on average before an argument.

2. Short pauses

-Paused more often and longer on average before an argument.

B2

1. Long pauses

-Paused more often and longer on average before an argument.

2. Short pauses

-Paused more often and longer on average before an argument.

5.2.2. Further discussion.

Previous studies on L2 pause patterns have indicated that it is pausing at the within-clause position that identifies with NNSs' dysfluency. As a major remedy for this dysfluency, NNSs have been encouraged to memorize and practice ready-made language chunks (Chambers, 1997; Chambers & Richards, 1995; Nation, 1989; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Richard, 1986; Wajnryb, 1989; Wood, 1998). While admitting that the relationship between the lengths, locations, and functions of pause is still somewhat in doubt, the current study

sought to demonstrate that the tendency shown in NNSs' pause distribution can be reinterpreted in terms of VACs.

In the case that the sentences produced were *grammatical*, the speakers across proficiency groups tended to make a *long* pause before a *predicate* longer on average, and make a more frequent pause before an *argument* for both *long* and *short* pauses. In *ungrammatical* sentences, A2¹⁶, B1, and B2 paused most frequently before an *argument* for both *long* and *short* pauses, while A1 paused most often and longer on average before a *predicate*. Overall, this tendency was, in this study, assumed to be related to the *combinatory strength* between the predicate and arguments. Specifically, the frequent and longer pause before *Predicate* may indicate that sentence production was pivoted by a 'predicate unit', with intense combinatory strength implied. In turn, the frequent pause occurrence before an *argument* was probably related to the learners' more attention to a 'noun unit' rather than a 'predicate unit'.

In the same vein, in the sentences involving *constructional errors*, the pause distribution within the verb phrase appears to be associated with the learners' knowledge on constructions together with the recognition of *combinatory strength*. It can be inferred from this apparent propensity to pause occurrences that learners' pause distributions can be moderated by the competence to

¹⁶ It remains, however, uncertain as to why A2 paused longer on average before an *argument* instead of a *predicate* despite the relatively higher proficiency than B1 and B2.

construct VACs.

Given that both types of pauses were recurrently spotted at the identical pause locations, the existing distinction of pause functions by lengths (Barik, 1968; Boomer, 1965, 1970; Goldman-Eisler, 1958, 1962; Hawkins, 1971) may not be appropriate for L2 pause pattern analysis. It is, thus, suggested in this study that the L2 pause distribution is more relevant to the *location* than the length.

CHAPTER 6

IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1 Overall Implications

The present study addresses two major issues that need to be reconsidered in terms of the L2 fluency measurement, and the pedagogical practices: the former is associated with a reflection of the ability to form VACs in the current measuring unit of L2 fluency. The latter is with the impact of the traditional pedagogical prescriptions (e.g., repetition of a target expression, memorization of ready-made language composites) on fluency enhancement (i.e., pause reduction).

The measurement issue was that the existing measuring units (i.e., temporal units) were related to mere manifestations of the L2 production rather than the reflection of the L2 learners' underlying linguistic competence. Through the analysis of the NNSs' pause pattern in the present study, the learners' ability to construct VACs and recognize *the combinatory strength* between the predicate and arguments was found to be considerably related to their L2 fluency. Thus

this study suggests the need to incorporate VACs into a measuring unit for the analysis of learners' pause distribution.

In reaction to the limitations in the traditional pedagogy, the VACs-based approach is, in this study, advocated as an alternative pedagogical recommendation. When VACs, which is a form-meaning assembly, is provided as a major source of input, L2 learners will easily perceive a verb and its argument as a pair. This recognition will result in effective decreases in within-clause pauses.

These perspectives implied that L2 speaking instruction needs to focus on the 'combinatory consolidation' between a predicate and its arguments. As an aid to reinforcing this connection, 'a prosodic unit' constituting a verb and its object *pronoun* is suggested to be employed. The use of pronoun in this unit may ease L2 learners of additional cognitive burden in searching for a specific noun (phrase), helping learners to pay more attention to the relationship between a predicate and its argument.

Furthermore, considering that everyday conversation does not always compel language users to take such complex constructions as VOL, VOO, and VOR (Altenberg, 1993; Scheibman, 2001), additional instructions on these constructions in classroom communicative situations are required.

6.2. Suggestions for Future Research

The size of database and the inherent nature of NNSs' interlanguage may provide further suggestions for future research in terms of statistics and pause-related issues.

6.2.1. Statistics.

While the descriptive statistics on the average duration and percentage of pause at each location may provide meaningful figure, future studies are recommended to employ a larger size of data samples in order to further explore the relationship between learners' proficiency level and the pause distributions, and investigate how and to what extent the frequency, lengths, and locations of pause interact with each other.

6.2.2. Lengths, locations, and functions of pause in interlanguage.

As illustrated in the following excerpts, it is not usually easy to determine the relationship between the lengths, locations, and functions of pause in spoken interlanguage.

Excerpt 2

Example 1 (0.5) can I help you?

Example 2 I like this (0.2) stick candle.

In a traditional analysis, the pause in Example 1 of Excerpt 2, which is a *long* pause at *CB*, is assumed to be for planning at a whole sentence level, and the one in Example 2, a *short* pause before a noun, for a strategic decision (i.e., a search for a lexical item), or a breathing point. However, regarding the sentences including ‘ungrammatical’ elements, it is, as shown in Excerpt 3, not always straightforward for what reasons learners pause at *CB* or *Predicate* or *Argument* position.

Excerpt 3

Example 1 You (0.7) ride first.

Example 2 Pinga laugh. Pinga laugh.

Example 3 (2.0) Mom where is my skateboard?

Example 4 (4.2) why don't you (3.8) Pingu (1.2) *nollaykhita mwenya* [what's surprise in English?] surprised surprise.

The Examples 1 through 4 are produced by the same participant in B1. The long pause in Example 1 conventionally indicates a syntactic planning (i.e., verb

phrase). However, this is not likely to apply for the rest of the examples. Example 2, for instance, may imply the participant's unawareness of the violation of the subject-verb agreement rule¹⁷. In Example 1 and 2, it is assumed that the participant applied an incomplete tense rule consistently, implying that the long pause in Example 1 may be for planning at a lexical level.

By the same token, the pause at *CB* in Example 3 may be planning for proposition of the whole sentence as the final outcome following the pause is 'grammatical'. The Example 4 is a more complicated case. The sentence is ill-formed, containing three long pauses. As the participant seems to be struggling with word order, these pauses may be syntactic ones. However, the think-aloud in L1 shows that the pause before the predicate *surprise* is more likely to be a lexical one. It is, at present, difficult to make a conclusive decision about whether the lengths and locations of pause in NNSs' interlanguage reveal any definite relationship between the pause distribution and a certain level of learners' cognitive decision.

In future research, it would be worth expanding the current research on NNSs' pause pattern with specific reference to pause lengths, locations, and functions. Pedagogical recommendations presented in this study, furthermore, need to be empirically supported by ensuing studies.

¹⁷ Otherwise, she should have paused before *laugh* and perhaps fixed her error (i.e., *laughs*) after a pause or a repair.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Placement test questions

APPENDIX 2. Individual placement test scores

APPENDIX 3.

- 3.1. Topics and contents for speaking tasks
- 3.2. Introduction to role-play
- 3.3. Sample student worksheet for a role-play task
- 3.4. Sample student worksheet for a topic-based conversation
- 3.5. Sample instruction for a topic-based conversation

APPENDIX 4.

- 4.1. Number of verbs in each semantic category by tasks
- 4.2. Top three most frequent verbs by each semantic category
- 4.3. Two most frequent inhabitants of the islands constituting the VL, VOL, VOO and VOR constructions

APPENDIX 1.

Placement test questions

_____학년 _____반 _____번 이름 _____

1. (5 minutes)

Your classmate asks if you have made any plans for a summer vacation. Select one of the illustrations and write your response using the given words accompanying it. Your response should be about 20 words long and include two to four sentence.

(A)



go swimming
/ lose weight

(B)



read a newspaper
/ widen knowledge

(C)



go traveling / have
many experiences

2. (5 minutes)

Look at the picture below and fill in the four blanks to describe what is happening in the picture. Use 20 to 30 words.



Yesterday, I went to S-mart near my house. The place was crowded with people shopping and looking around. At a cashier, there were two students working part time.

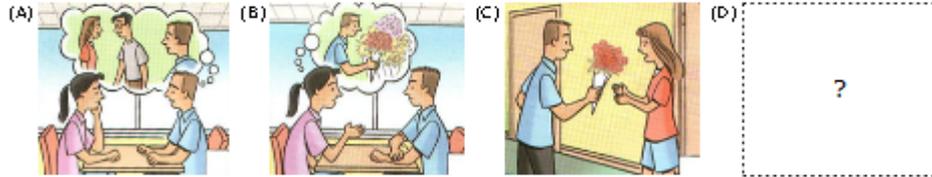
Mary _____, and Tim _____

_____, Jessica _____

_____ Sam _____.

3. (10 minutes)

Write about the first two illustrations and describe the next logical illustration. Use 30 to 50 words.



(A) _____

(B) _____

(C) _____

(D) _____

4. (15 minutes)

You bought a PC a few weeks ago. It didn't work well, so you inquired about getting some help from the customer service center. You've just received the email below. Write an email in response, providing all of the information that is requested. Use 40 to 50 words.

Dear Youngsun

We are very sorry that you are not satisfied with our product. If you could provide us with some additional information, we will be able to determine the best way to help you. Please let us know when and where you purchased your PC, and what exactly is wrong with it. We look forward to hearing from you soon.

SNU Electronics.

APPENDIX 2.

Individual placement test scores

Score Description

	1. Novice	2. Low- intermediate	3. Mid- intermediate	4. High-intermediate	5. Advanced			
Student	Rater A	Rater B	Rater C	Rater D	Rater E	Rater F	Average Score (S)	Group Assigned
1	5	5	5	5	5	4	4.83	A1
2	5	5	5	5	5	4	4.83	A1
3	5	4.5	5	5	4	4	4.58	A1
4	4	4.5	5	5	5	4	4.58	A1
5	5	4	5	5	4	4	4.5	A1
6	4.5	4.5	5	4	4	3	4.17	A1
7	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	A1
8	4	3.5	5	4	3	3	3.75	A2
9	4	4	4.5	4	3	3	3.75	A2
10	4	4	4	4	3	3	3.67	A2
11	4	4	3	4	3.5	4	3.75	A2
12	3.5	3.5	4	4	2.5	3	3.4	A2
13	4	4	4	4	2.5	3	3.5	A2
14	3	4	3	3	4	4	3.5	A2
15	3.5	3.5	4	3	2	3	3.17	B1
16	3.5	4	3.5	3	2	3	3.17	B1
17	3	4	3.5	3	2	3	3.08	B1
18	3	3.5	3.5	3	3	2	3	B1
19	4	3.5	2.5	3	2	3	3	B1
20	3	3.5	3	3	2.5	3	2.92	B1
21	3.5	3.5	2.5	3	2	3	2.92	B1
22	3	3.5	3	3	2.5	3	2.92	B1
23	3	3	3.5	3	2	2	2.75	B2
24	2	3.5	2.5	3	2	3	2.67	B2

25	3	3.5	2	2	2	2	2.42	B2
26	2	3	2.5	2	2	2	2.25	B2
27	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	B2
28	2	3	1.5	2	1	1	1.92	B2
29	1	3	2	2	1	1	1.67	B2

APPENDIX 3.1.

Topics and Contents for Speaking Tasks

Role-Plays		
Topic	Operations	Synopsis
1. Pingu Goes Snowboarding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Expressing: greeting, inviting, asking for permission, asking questions ▪ Describing: actions, objects, places, processes 	Pingu's seal friend Robby comes over to Pingu's house and invites Pingu to snowboard with him. Robby makes fun of Pingu who is at a beginners' level. They bump into Dolly who is a girl penguin while snowboarding. Dolly teaches Pingu how to snowboard and the two become friends. Robby who has been mocking Pingu all day, falls over and ends up wearing a protection-pad.
2. Pinga Hiccups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Expressing: feelings, want/need, apology ▪ Directing: ordering, instructing ▪ Describing: actions, events ▪ Reporting: description, comment, decisions ▪ Narration: sequence of events 	Pingu's younger brother Pinga starts hiccupping after drinking some juice. In order to make Pinga stop hiccupping, Pingu takes him to their dad. Dad tries to help Pinga but he is unsuccessful. Pingu then takes Pinga to his friend Robby. At Robby's place, Pingu and Robby make a plan to scare Pinga by putting a disguise.
3. Pingu at the Funfair	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Expressing: greeting, comment, feelings, want/need, attitude, complaints ▪ Directing: warning ▪ Describing: actions, events, places ▪ Eliciting: information, answers, permission ▪ Narration: sequence of events ▪ Reporting: description, comment 	Pingu's family goes to a funfair. They participate in a variety of activities such as purchasing goods and going on the rides. Pingu later goes on a wild ride, which eventually makes him sick. The family enjoys a happy weekend.
Topic-Based Conversations		
Topic	Operations	Synopsis
4. Interview	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Expressing: comment, feelings, want/need, information, opinions, attitude ▪ Describing: actions, events, objects, people, places, plans, preferences, ideas, concepts ▪ Eliciting: information, directions, clarification, 	Each student takes a role of both an interviewer and interviewee. They ask and answer about the occasions in which s/he has done something for others, and an occasion in which s/he has benefited from others. The participants were asked to include in their question and answer: the

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Reporting: description, comment, decisions 	<p>answers</p> <p>description of the action and/or object; identify the giver/recipient; elaboration on the feelings and/or the benefit of the action begin given or taken.</p>
5. Expressing opinions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Expressing: requirements, comment, feelings, want/need, information, opinions, attitude, confirmation ▪ Describing: actions, events, objects, people, places, plans, preferences, ideas, concepts ▪ Eliciting: information, directions, clarification, answers 	<p>Students decide who will survive in a shipwreck and go to the desert island to live. They describe each character: what they are, what they do and how the selection will be beneficial for the whole group.</p>
6. Debate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Expressing: requirements, comment, feelings, want/need, information, opinions, attitude, confirmation ▪ Describing: actions, events, objects, people, places, plans, preferences, ideas, concepts ▪ Eliciting: information, directions, clarification, answers ▪ Narration: sequence of events ▪ Reporting: description, comment, decisions 	<p>Students are assigned a role of a character from Task 5. One needs to understand the character and explain from the character's point of view as to why s/he is a better candidate to survive more than the other members of the group.</p>

APPENDIX 3.2.

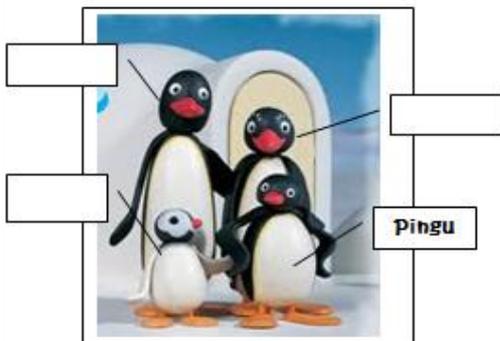
Introduction to role-play



Task: Read about Pingu and match his family and friends.



Pingu is a cute little penguin from the South Pole. He lives with his dad, mom and his younger brother, Pinga.



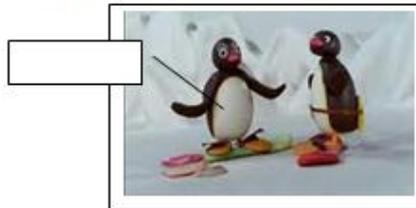
<Pingu's Family>

Pingu's dad is a postman and he works very hard. Pingu's mom is busy taking care of Pinga because he is still very young. Pingu also has a grandfather who lives in the same village. He loves Pingu and Pinga.

Pingu has many friends. His best friend is Robby the seal. Pingu also has a girl friend. Her name is Dolly. Pingu goes to school during the week. On weekends, he loves to play with his friends.



<Pingu and Robby>



<Pingu and Dolly>

<Speaking Activity>

조별활동(2인): Student A, Student B

1) 비디오 클립

- 한 번만 시청하기 때문에 어떤 상황인지 주의 깊게 관찰해야 합니다.
- '내가 무슨 말을 하면 어떤 대목에서 어떤 말을 할지 생각해 보면서 Pingu 영상을 감상합니다.'

2) Worksheet

- Worksheet에는 비디오 클립에서 본 캐릭터들에게 말풍선 달려 있습니다.
- 각 각 A나 B 역할을 맡아 캐릭터의 말풍선에 들어갈 알맞은 대화를 합니다.
- 너무 오랫동안 숙으로 생각하거나 자꾸 말을 고치지 말고 내가 실제로 캐릭터가 된 것처럼 자연스럽게 대화 해 보도록 노력합니다.

Example)



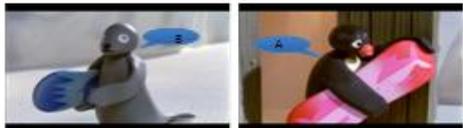
A: Dolly! Look at me! Don't you think I am much better than before?
B: Yes! Way to go Pingu!

APPENDIX 3.3.

Sample student worksheet for a role-play task

Pingu goes snowboarding

Name A: _____
Name B: _____



Pinga starts to hiccup.



Questions before your activity

1) Question for Student A
(A 학생이 대답하세요)

Q: What made Pingu hiccup?
Hint: liquid

2) Question for Student B
(B 학생이 대답하세요)

Q: Where did Pingu take Pingu to?
Hint: two places

APPENDIX 3.4.

Sample student worksheet for a topic-based conversation

[TASK 4]

Student A
서로에 대해 알아가기



1) 끝론하가 친구에 대해 좀 더 알아봅시다.

인터뷰 질문들을 잘 읽고 친구에게 **옆어**로 물어보세요.
모든 내용에 친구가 답해 줄 수 있도록 물어봅니다.

다음 예시는 참고 하되, 본인이 편한 방법으로 자유롭게 이야기 할 수 있습니다

[예시]

Q:너가 방문하거나 살고 있는 장소 중에 인상에 남는 곳에 대해 물어봐.
A:~~인데 ~~에 있어.
Q:아~그래? 거기 어떻게 가야해?
A:~~타고 ~~분 가면 되. 여기서 가까워.
Q:밖에서 보면 어떻게 보이니? 거기 가면 뭐 하는데?
A:근처에 다른 시설은 없고 일단 밖에서 보면 크기가 큰 편이야
밤 먹을 수도 있고, 차 마실 수도 있고...나가고 싶으면 잔디밭에서 쉬 수도 있어
Q:너는 거기가 왜 기억에 남니?
A:조용해서 좋고 또 거기있으면 마음이 편안해지더라고

다음을 잘 읽고 친구에게 **옆어**로 물어보세요.

[인터뷰 질문 1]

친구가 조/부모님/친척으로 부터 받은 선물/편지/기타 등 중에 기억에 남는 것

- 누구가 주었을까?
- 그것은 어떻게 생겼나요? (모양, 색깔, 냄새)
- 왜 기억에 남나요? (행복하게/편하게/기쁘게/슬프게 하나요?)
- 이 외에도 알고 싶은 것이 있다면 물어보세요!

2) 대답하가 여러분의 친구가 나 자신에 대해 좀 더 알 수 있도록 상대방의 질문을 잘 듣고 **옆어**로 답해보세요. 친구의 질문에 모두 답해주도록 합니다.
질문받은 것 외에도 말해주고 싶은 게 있다면 더 좋겠지요!



친구의 질문을 잘 듣고 **옆어**로 대답해보세요.

[대답할 내용 2]

내가 조/부모님/친척/친구에게 해준 좋은 일/선물

- 주었? 누구?
- 그것을 받은 사람은 어땠나요?
(다른 사람을 행복하게/슬프게/기쁘게/화나게 했나요?)
- 이 외에도 말해주고 싶은 것이 있다면 말해주세요!

Student B 서로에 대해 알아가기

1) 대답자가 여러분의 친구가 나 자신에 대해 좀 더 알 수 있도록 상대방의 질문을 잘 듣고 **영어**로 답해보세요. 친구의 질문에 모두 답해주도록 합니다. 질문받은 것 외에도 말해주고 싶은 게 있다면 더 좋겠지요!

다음 예시는 참고 하되, 본인이 편한 방법으로 자유롭게 이야기 할 수 있습니다

[예시]

Q:너가 방문하거나 살고 있는 장소 중에 인상에 남는 곳에 대해 물어볼께.

A:~~인테 ~~에 있어.

Q:아~그래? 거기 어떻게 가야해?

A:~~타고 ~~분 가면 되. 여기서 가까워.

Q:밖에서 보면 어떻게 보이니? 거기 가면 뭐 하는데?

A:근처에 다른 시설은 없고 일단 밖에서 보면 크기가 큰 편이야.

밥 먹을 수도 있고, 자 마실 수도 있고...나가고 싶으면 잔디밭에서 쉬 수도 있어

Q:너는 거기가 왜 기억에남니?

A:조용해서 좋고 또 거기있으면 마음이 편안해지더라고



친구의 질문을 잘 듣고 **영어**로 대답해보세요.

[대답할 내용 1]

내가 조/부모님/친척으로 부터 받은 선물/편지/기타등 중에 기억에 남는 것

- 누가? 무엇을?
- 그것은 어떻게 생겼나요? (모양, 색깔, 냄새)
- 왜 기억에 남나요? (행복하게/편하게/기쁘게/슬프게 하나요?)
- 이 외에도 말해주고 싶은 것이 있다면 말해주세요!

다음을 잘 읽고 친구에게 **영어**로 물어보세요.

2) **질문자가** 친구에 대해 좀 더 알아봅시다.

인터뷰 질문들을 잘 읽고 친구에게 **영어**로 물어보세요. 모든 내용에 친구가 답해 줄 수 있도록 물어봅니다.

[인터뷰 질문 2]

친구가 조/부모님/친척/다른 친구에게 해준 좋은 일/선물

- 최근 다른 사람에게 해준 일/ 선물한 물건 중에 기억에 남는 것이 있나요?
- 무엇? 누구?
- 그것을 받은 사람은 어땠나요 (다른 사람을 행복하게/슬프게/기쁘게/화나게 했나요?)
- 이 외에도 알고 싶은 것이 있다면 물어보세요!



APPENDIX 3.5.

Sample instruction for a topic-based conversation

Tongue Twisters~

Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.
A peck of pickled peppers Peter Piper picked.
If Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers,
Where's the peck of pickled peppers
Peter Piper picked?



This Week's Speaking Activity



Getting to know your friend
서로에 대해 알아가기

Asking Questions

- **질문하기:** 친구에 대해 좀 더 알아보시다.
인터뷰 질문들을 잘 읽고 친구에게 **영어**로 물어보세요.



Answering Questions

- **대답하기:** 여러분의 친구가나 자신에 대해 좀 더 알 수 있도록 상대방의 질문을 잘 듣고 **영어**로 답해보세요.



Example

- Q:너가 방문하거나 살고 있는 장소 중에 인상에 남는 곳에 대해 물어볼래.
- A:~인데 ~이 있어.
- Q:아~그래? 거기 어떻게 가야해?
- A:~타고 ~번 가면 돼. 여기서 가까워
- Q:밖에서 보면 어떻게 보이니? 거기 가면 뭐 하는데?
- A:근처에 다른 시설을 없고 일단 밖에서 보면 크기가 큰 편이야. 발 막을 수도 있고, 작 마실 수도 있고...나가고 싶으면 잔디밭에서 일 수도 있어
- Q:너는 거기가 왜 기억에 남니?
- A:조용해서 좋고 또 거기있으면 마음이 편안해지더라고...



Remember!

1. Worksheet의 질문을 잘 살펴봐라.
2. 준비가 되면 녹음기를 켭니다.

(왼쪽 측면의 전원버튼→Folder 화면이 올 때까지 ■버튼
→ 00:00이 보이면 @녹음 버튼)

녹음기는 **책상 위에** 놓습니다.

3누가 A 인지 누가 B인지 이야기하고 **시작합니다.**

4. 활동이 끝나면 녹음기를 끕니다(■버튼).

APPENDIX 4.1.
Number of Verbs in Each Semantic Category by Tasks

A1

Verb Category/Task	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	Total number of verbs
Material	51	12	24	37	13	21	158
Relational	28	21	13	1	6	3	72
Possessive/Relational	3	4	7	0	1	1	16
Feeling	9	22	8	2	1	4	46
Corporeal	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
Cognition	2	4	4	0	6	3	19
Perception	2	4	1	1	0	1	9
Verbal	0	1	4	0	0	1	6
Existential	4	3	1	0	2	1	8
Fixed	5	8	0	0	1	0	14
Total no. of clauses	104	79	63	42	30	35	353
Total no. of words	387	357	417	199	203	278	1841

A2

Verb Category/Task	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	Total number of verbs
Material	8	8	26	38	5	6	91
Relational	8	9	11	4	3	4	39
Possessive/Relational	0	1	3	0	1	1	6
Feeling	8	12	11	3	0	2	36
Corporeal	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Cognition	1	1	7	1	2	2	14
Perception	2	3	7	0	0	0	12
Verbal	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Existential	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Fixed	1	5	0	1	0	0	7
Total no. of clauses	28	40	67	47	11	15	208
Total no. of words	166	180	387	199	81	92	1105

B1

Verb Category/Task	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	Total number of verbs
Material	30	7	15	18	5	0	75
Relational	37	14	10	1	3	0	65
Possessive/Relational	7	1	0	0	1	0	9
Feeling	19	15	8	3	0	0	45
Corporeal	0	1	1	0	0	0	2
Cognition	3	0	6	0	2	0	11
Perception	1	2	2	0	0	0	5
Verbal	2	0	2	0	1	0	5
Existential	4	1	0	0	0	0	5
Fixed	3	7	0	2	0	0	12
Total no. of clauses	106	48	44	24	12	0	234
Total no. of words	404	109	249	108	56	0	926

B2

Verb Category/Task	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	Total number of verbs
Material	37	19	24	33	26	0	139
Relational	35	23	19	4	15	0	96
Possessive/Relational	3	1	6	1	4	0	15
Feeling	20	24	8	4	3	0	59
Corporeal	0	0	1	2	0	0	3
Cognition	4	3	11	1	3	0	22
Perception	3	4	3	3	0	0	13
Verbal	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Existential	0	3	0	0	1	0	4
Fixed	6	9	0	2	0	0	17
Total no. of clauses	108	86	73	50	52	0	369
Total no. of words	347	407	372	209	267	0	1602

APPENDIX 4.2.
Top Three Most Frequent Verbs by Semantic Category

A1

Verb Category	Number of Verbs	% in Corpus	Top Three Most Frequent Verbs (raw number/% within the category)		
Material	158	44.8	GO 17/10.7%	MAKE 12/7.6%	GET 10/6.3%
Relational	72	20.4	IS 56/ 77.8	AM 6/8.3%	WAS 6/8.3%
Possessive/Relational	16	4.5	HAVE 14/87.5%	GET 2/12.5%	-
Feeling	46	13	WANT 19/41.3%	Copular BE 12/26.1%	LIKE 9/19.6%
Corporeal	2	0.6	EAT 2/100%	-	-
Cognition	19	5.4	KNOW 9/47.4%	THINK 9/47.4%	REMIND 1/5.2%
Perception	9	2.5	LOOK 9/100%	-	-
Verbal	6	1.7	SAID 3/50%	ASK/AGREE/HEARD 3/50%	-
Existential	11	3.2	IS/here 5/45.5%	IS/There 4/36.4%	-
Fixed	14	4	-	-	-
TOTAL	353				

A2

Verb Category	Number of Verbs	% in Corpus	Top Three Most Frequent Verbs (raw number/% within the category)		
Material	91	43.6	GIVE 13/14.2%	MAKE 9/9.9%	DO 8/8.8%
Relational	39	18.8	IS 25/64.1%	AM 4/10.3%	-
Possessive/Relational	6	2.9	HAVE 4/66.7%	GET 2/33.3%	-
Feeling	36	17.3	WANT 9/25%	LIKE 8/22.2%	IS 5/13.9%
Corporeal	1	0.5	EAT 1/100%	-	-
Cognition	14	6.7	THINK 5/35.7%	REMEMBER 3/21.4%	KNOW 2/14.3%
Perception	12	5.8	LOOK like 6/50%	LOOK 6/50%	-
Verbal	1	0.5	SAY 1/100%	-	-
Existential	1	0.5	IS/here 1/100%	-	-
Fixed	7	3.4	-	-	-
TOTAL	208				

B1

Verb Category	Number of Verbs	% in Corpus	Top Three Most Frequent Verbs (raw number/% within the category)		
Material	75	32.1	GO 10/13.3 %	GIVE 9/75%	DO 8/10.7 %
Relational	65	28	IS 61/93.8%	ARE 4/6.2%	-
Possessive/Relational	9	3.8	HAVE 6/66.7%	NEED 3/33.3%	-
Feeling	45	19.2	AM 19/42.2%	ARE 5/11.1%	IS 5/11.1%
Corporeal	2	0.9	DRINK 2/100%	-	-
Cognition	11	4.7	REMEMBER 6/54.5%	THINK 3/27.3%	KNOW 2/18.2%
Perception	5	2.1	LOOK 3/60%	-	-
Verbal	5	2.1	SAY 3/60%	-	-
Existential	5	2.1	IS/here 2/40%	IS/Where 1/20%	-
Fixed	12	5	-	-	-
TOTAL	234				

B2

Verb Category	Number of Verbs	% in Corpus	Top Three Most Frequent Verbs (raw number/% within the category)		
Material	139	37.7	GIVE 13/9.3%	GO 11/3.5%	PLAY 5/1.6%
Relational	96	26	IS 88/91.7	ARE 5/5.2%	AM 2/2.1%
Possessive/Relational	15	4.1	HAVE 15/100%	-	-
Feeling	59	16	WANT 17/28.9%	AM 15/25.4%	ARE 6/10.2%
Corporeal	3	0.8	DRINK 2/66.7%	EAT 1/33.3%	-
Cognition	22	6	REMEMBER 9/44%	THINK 8/38.4%	KNOW 3/15.6%
Perception	13	3.5	LOOK 3/23.1%	LOOK like 6/46.2%	SEE 4/30.1%
Verbal	1	0.4	SAY 1/100%	-	-
Existential	4	1.1	IS/here 4/100%	-	-
Fixed	17	4.6	-	-	-
TOTAL	369				

APPENDIX 4.3.

Two Most Frequent Inhabitants of the Islands Constituting the VL, VOL, VOO, and VOR Constructions

A1

VL	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Preposition	No/%	Locative	No/%	-	-
Total 19	I	7/37%	get	7/37%	on	10/52.6%	the TRANSPORTATION	8/42.1%	-	-
	PRONOUN	4/21%	go	4/21/1%	to	4/21%	the PLACE	6/31.6%	-	-
<hr/>										
VOL	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object	No/%	Preposition	No/%	Locative	No/%
Total 12	who	3/27.3%	give	6/50%	Pinga	3/37.5%	null	3/27.3%	null	3/33.3%
	Pingu	3/27.3%	take	3/25%	some/any thing	2/12.5%	to	7/63.6%	the LOCATION	3/33%
<hr/>										
VOO	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object 1	No/%	Object 2	No/%	-	-
Total 1	null	1/100%	give	1/100%	Me	1/100%	some	1/100%	-	-

VOR	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object	No/%	RP	No/%	-	-
Total 6	null	2/33.3%	make	6/100%	Pinga	4/66.7%	to-verbal INF.	4/57/1%	-	-
	it	2/33.3%			me	2/33.3%	bare verbal INF.	1/16.7%	-	-

A2

VL	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Preposition	No/%	Locative	No/%	-	-
Total 7	I	3/43%	get	3/43%	on	4/57.1%	the TRANSPORTATION	4/57.1%	-	-
	PROPER NOUN	1/14.3%	go	2/29%	to	2/29%	the LOCATION	2/29%	-	-

VOL	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object	No/%	Preposition	No/%	Locative	No/%
Total 11	you	8/72.7%	give	10/91%	the OBJECT	5/45.5%	to	3/27.3%	null	4/36.4%

	I	2/18.2%	put	1/9%	something	2/18.2%	null	5/45.5%	anyone	2/18.2%
VOO	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object 1	No/%	Object 2	No/%	-	-
Total 1	they	1/100%	give	1/100%	you	1/100%	what	1/100%	-	-
VOR	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object	No/%	RP	No/%	-	-
Total 9	PROPER NOUN	4/44.4%	make	9/100%	Pinga	7/77.8%	stop	5/55.6%	-	-
	it/they/let's/smiling/null	1/11.1%			him/you	1/11.1%	hiccup	2/22.2%	-	-

B1

VL	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Preposition	No/%	Locative	No/%	-	-
Total 3	Pinga	1/33.3%	go	2/66.7%	to	3/100%	LOCATION	2/66.7%	-	-
	PROPER NOUN	1/33.3%	fly	1/33.3%			the LOCATION	1/33.3%	-	-
VOL	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object	No/%	Preposition	No/%	Locative	No/%
Total 8	I	3/37.5%	give	8/100%	what	4/50%	to	6/75%	who	2/25%
	you	3/37.5%			OBJECT	4/50%	null	2/25%	PROPER NOUN	2/25%
VOO	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object 1	No/%	Object 2	No/%	-	-

Total 1	PROPER NOUN	1/100%	give	1/100%	uss	1/100%	null	1/100%	-	-
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VOR	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object	No/%	RP	No/%	-	-
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Total 0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
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B2

VL	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Preposition	No/%	Locative	No/%	-	-
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Total 3	you	1/33.3%	go	2/66.7%	to	2/66.7%	you	1/33.3%	-	-
	I	1/33.3%	get	1/33.3%	null	1/33.3%	there	1/33.3%	-	-

VOL	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object	No/%	Preposition	No/%	Locative	No/%
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Total 10	I	5/50%	give	10/100%	present(gift)	3/30%	for	3/30%	PROPER NOUN	2/20%
	you	3/30%			what	2/20%	to	2/20%	who/you/me	3/30%
VOO	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object 1	No/%	Object 2	No/%	-	-
Total 2	null	2/100%	give	2/100%	me	2/100%	null	2/100%	-	-
VOR	Subject	No/%	Verb	No/%	Object	No/%	RP	No/%	-	-
Total 3	we/you/orange juice	3/100%	make	3/100%	him	3/100%	scared/hiccup/happy	3/100%	-	-

국 문 초 록

제 2언어 말하기는 CLT에서 중요한 언어능력으로 자리매김을 해왔으나 제2언어 유창성에 대한 학자들간의 견해는 여전히 분분하다. 특히, 제2언어 유창성 측정에 있어서 문법적 측면에 대한 고려가 이론적 및 교육적 차원에서 배제되었다. 본 연구는 이 부분에 초점을 두어, 영어를 외국어로 학습하는 한국인 중학생들의 유창성을 그들의 발화양태에서 드러난 동사와 논항구조 그리고 휴지양상을 중심으로 살펴보고, 구문문법 (Construction Grammar) 틀 내의 논항구조구문이 제2언어 유창성의 측정단위에 포함될 필요가 있음을 제안한다.

중학교 1-3학년 29명을 대상으로 실시 된 본 연구에서, 학습자들은 짝을 지어 세 개의 역할극과 세 개의 주제중심대화 과업에 참여하였다. 학습자들의 녹음 된 대화는 대화분석기법을 사용하여 분석되었다. 학습자들이 가장 빈번하게 사용한 동사, 논항구조 그리고 핵심구문의 문장요소들이 확인되었으며 학습자 발화에서 나타난 휴지양상을 특히 동사와 논항의 위치를 중심으로 살펴보았다.

분석결과 학습자들은 영어능숙도와는 상관없이 한정된 종류의 동사와 논항구조구문(예, SVC, SVO)을 사용했으며 핵심구문의 문장요소들 역시 제한적이었다. 이러한 결과는 구문에 대한 학습자들의 지식의 부재와 담화맥락상의 제약에서 기인하는 것으로 분석된다.

논항구조구문의 관점에서 분석 된 휴지양상에 관해서는, 학습자들의 휴지분포가 논항구조구문에 관한 지식과 관련된 것으로 논의되었다. 즉, 하위 학습자들은 술어(본동사)와 논항 사이에서 빈번하게 휴지하는 반면 상위 학습자들은 술어(본동사) 앞에서 휴지하는 경향을 보였다. 이것은 영어 능숙도가 높은 학습자일수록, 술어(본동사)와 내재적

논항을 하나의 단위로 인식하는 것으로 보인다. 따라서 본 연구는 학습자의 술어(분동사)와 논항과의 결합강도(*Combinatory Strength*)에 대한 인식이 학습자의 휴지패턴에서 핵심적인 역할을 하며, 이 결합강도는 논항구조구문 생성능력에 의해 상당부분 조정될 가능성이 있음을 제안한다.

본 연구는 논항구조구문 관점의 휴지양상 분석결과를 바탕으로 논항구조구문이 제2언어 유창성 측정단위로 통합 될 필요성을 제안함으로써, 제2언어 유창성에 대한 이해를 넓히고 나아가 향후 연구와 교수에 대한 시사점을 제공할 것으로 기대된다.

주요어: 제2언어 유창성, 제2언어 말하기, 구문문법, 논항구조구문, 동사와 논항구문, 휴지양상, 문법능력, 결합강도

학 번: 2010-22877

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이 논문이 완성되기까지 도와주신 많은 분들께 감사 드립니다.

먼저, 부족한 저를 제자로 받아주시고 지도해주신 양현권 선생님께 감사 드립니다. 선생님께서 저의 가능성을 믿어주시고, 목표를 향해 나아갈 수 있도록 독려해주셨기에 제가 오늘 이 자리에 있을 수 있습니다. 선생님의 열정적인 강의와 소통을 통해 많은 가르침을 받았습니다. 감사한 마음을 가지고 세상에 보탬이 되는 사람이 될 수 있도록 노력하며 살아가겠습니다. 그리고 바쁘신 와중에서도 따뜻한 조언과 정성 어린 지도를 아끼지 않으신 안현기 선생님, 보다 나은 논문이 될 수 있도록 부족한 저의 글을 꼼꼼히 살펴주시고 용기를 북돋아 주신 이진화 선생님께 감사 드립니다.

개인적으로 사랑과 격려를 아끼지 않으신 권오량 선생님, 즐거운 마음으로 연구할 수 있도록 해주신 김진완 선생님, 다양한 시각에서 생각할 수 있도록 도와주신 이병민 선생님, 학문에 흥미를 갖게 도와주시고 자신감을 심어주신 오선영 선생님께도 감사를 드립니다. 선생님들께 받은 은혜는 잊지 못할 것입니다.

함께 공부한 영어교육과 대학원 선후배들께도 감사 드립니다. 많은 분들의 조언과 도움이 있었지만, 특히 본인의 시간과 노력을 들여서 인내심 가지고 도와주신 나양온 선생님에게 감사합니다. 그리고 함께 다양한 의견과 생각들을 나눈 우리 YG FAMILY 구성원들에게도 감사의 말을 전합니다.

한국에 계신 가족 분들, 친구들- 특히, 유학 생활하는 저를 위해 여러모로 고생하신 정인숙 이모님, 조미경 여사님, 박지경 선생님, 그리고 김연옥 여사님께 감사의 말씀을 전합니다. 저는 참으로 행복한 사람입니다.

딸이 꿈을 이룰 수 있도록 멀리 뉴질랜드에서 지원을 아끼지 않으시는 부모님-제 편으로 든든하게 계셔주신 아버지 이규승님과 자애로운 어머니 정인화님, 진심으로 존경하고 사랑합니다. 두 분의 딸인 것이 자랑스럽고 감사합니다. 그리고 University of Otago에서 오랫동안 격려해주신 Prof. Jae Jung Song 과 Prof. Moyra Sweetnam Evans께 감사 드립니다.

그리고 나의 멘토- 한결 같은 당신의 응원에 감사합니다.

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관악산에서