博士学位論文（東京外国語大学）

Doctoral Thesis (Tokyo University of Foreign Studies)

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学位の種類	博士（学術）
学位記番号	博甲第 214 号
学位授与の日付	2016 年 4 月 27 日
学位授与大学	東京外国語大学
博士学位論文題目	会話ダイアログ暗唱に従事させる外国語指導法がスピーキング時の定型表現の使用と暗記学習に及ぼす影響に関する基礎研究

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Name of Degree	Doctor of Philosophy (Humanities)
Degree Number	Ko-no. 214
Date	April 27, 2016
Grantor	Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, JAPAN
Title of Doctoral Thesis	Research into the Role of Dialog Recitation in the Foreign Language Classroom—Its Effectiveness in Facilitating Memorization and Formulaic Speech Production

Research into the Role of Dialog Recitation

in the Foreign Language Classroom

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会話ダイアログ暗唱に従事させる外国語指導法が
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TAKESHI MATSUZAKI

Acknowledgements

All of what I have learned at each stage of this dissertation writing will serve me, in the rest of my professional and personal life, as an invaluable and enriching resource. The work of the past four years has been the biggest challenge of my life, and I have no doubt that I would never have completed this work without the support of a great many people.

I am especially fortunate to have been able to benefit from the experience and sage advice of the members of my dissertation committee, without whose guidance and support at various levels this project could never have been realized. My supervisor, Professor Hideyuki Takashima, has been an insightful, resourceful, and supportive mentor. I am deeply thankful to him for his guidance. Two other primary committee members, Professors Masashi Negishi and Asako Yoshitomi, were of enormous help in the design of this research. The remaining two members, Professors Keiko Mochizuki and Mark Petersen, have also provided tremendous support in the preparation of this dissertation.

My special thanks also go to three individuals. For the statistical analyses employed in this study, I am hugely indebted to Yutaka Iguchi, Director at the Laboratory of Biology. He taught me so much about statistics, especially with regard to the implementation of non-parametric methods. For polishing the language used in the text, I cannot thank enough Kevin Mark, a senior professor of Meiji University. An expert in helping others to refine and polish their writing, Kev generously devoted a great deal of his personal time to the writing stage of this research. Very special thanks are due to my long-standing colleague and close personal friend, Joseph Heilman. Joe was always there for me, quite literally, when I needed to call on his expertise or psychological support.

I must also thank those in "Team Takashima" who gave me a great deal of sage advice in the preparation of this dissertation. Most notably, Noriko Imai and Naoyuki Kiryu

generously offered me countless suggestions, many of which I followed.

While I do owe all of these people for completing this dissertation, I should emphasize that they do not necessarily endorse the views expressed or claims made in this dissertation, and it goes without saying that any inaccuracies or misunderstandings in it are entirely my responsibility.

Lastly, I should express my greatest thanks to my family for their moral support, patience and love. Although he was not actually a member of my family, I would like to include here Philip Zitowitz, my mentor since my undergraduate days who passed away in the summer of 2014. Phil pushed me hard to embark on this doctoral work, and his never-failing kindness and encouragement could only have been stopped by his untimely death. My parents, Kayoko and Fumio, my sister, Ryoko, and my aunts, Katsuko and Masae, have been a source of my motivation to undertake this project, and I would not have had the courage and determination to complete the work had it not been for my wife, Karin, and my son, Leo. It is to my family that this dissertation is dedicated.

Takeshi Matsuzaki

February 2016

Abstract

There is, in SLA and cognitive psychology, strong evidence that Formulaic Sequences (FSs) are stored in memory as independent units. This study aims to make a contribution to the understanding of FSs in L2 learning and to the potential effectiveness of memorization of FSs as a teaching/learning strategy. It reports on a project in which learners were given the task, over the course of a semester, of memorizing and reciting dialogs which had been written so as to include FSs that are likely to be useful to learners preparing to study abroad.

A formulaic sequence can be defined as a string of linguistic items where the relation of each item to the rest is relatively fixed, and where the substitutability of one constituent of the sequence by another of the same category is relatively constrained (Wray & Perkins, 2000). The phenomenon of FSs has been of interest to applied linguists for some time (e.g., Bolinger, 1976; Fillmore, 1979; Pawley & Syder, 1983; Wray, 2002), and is at the core of corpus linguistics (e.g., Sinclair, 1991) and various pedagogical approaches that can be called "lexical" (Lewis, 1993; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Willis, 1990). One reason why they have attracted so much attention, and also have been difficult to define precisely, is the fact that they abound in language use. Collectively they make up a substantial and vital part of a person's lexicon, and perform an essential role in facilitating the understanding and expression of messages that could otherwise be misinterpreted. It is their pervasiveness in the language that makes them an important target for language pedagogy. Thus the question "How can they usefully be taught?" is of wide and lasting interest in the field of instructed language acquisition and pedagogy.

Chapter 1 discusses the background of the present study, touched on above, and specifies its focus as the investigation of text memorization approaches to the teaching of formulaic sequences in a foreign language (FL) context, specifically that of a Japanese university.

Chapter 2 examines the most important examples, for this study, of the wide range of characteristics of FSs that are found in the literature on formulaic sequences. This is followed by a characterization of the features of formulaic sequences appropriate for the present study. The chapter also looks at constructs of formulaic sequences, and endeavors to offer a more thorough account of how we process and acquire "chunks" of language. In concluding, the chapter establishes connections between formulaic sequences and language learning, especially in an FL environment.

Chapter 3 addresses the ways in which we process and retain linguistic information. The chapter begins by examining the different models for the processing and production of language. The chapter then moves on to discuss awareness and cognition in relation to memory. This is followed by further treatment of language processing in connection to memory, and its related components. Particular emphasis is given to how these issues relate to the experiences of L2 learners in a foreign language learning environment, taking into account the limited opportunities to acquire the language in a 'natural' way based on accumulated experience of authentic interactions in the target language. The chapter concludes by introducing an integrated model for language processing and acquisition in relation to memory, and outlines the features of this model.

Chapter 4 aims to introduce the background to the study conducted for this dissertation, with a discussion of three fundamental questions that were brought up in the review and synthesis offered in the preceding chapters. The three central questions are (1) *Should teaching practitioners focus on formulaic sequences in teaching in a foreign language context with the particular target population being adult learners?*, (2) *If they should, which formulaic sequences should they teach?*, and (3) *How should they teach the targeted items?* The first question is addressed by providing a number of reasons for the teaching of formulaic language to this particular target population. The second and third questions are addressed by drawing on principles and proposals discussed in the preceding chapters. This

chapter then presents a review of studies on text memorization that help to clarify the rationale for the present study.

Chapter 5 poses five research questions. Research Question 1 asks if 'whole-text' and 'partial-text' recitation of a large volume of useful dialogs, prepared in advance of instruction, engages foreign language classroom learners in memorization over the course of one semester, including the further, embedded question of whether there is a significant difference between the two in terms of their facilitative effect. Research Question 2 is to do with whether the 'whole text' and 'partial text' dialog recitation specified in RQ1 facilitates formulaic speech production, and again asks if there is a significant difference between the two in their facilitative effect. Research Question 3 asks if engaging foreign language classroom learners in the 'whole text' and 'partial text' dialog recitation specified in RQ1 facilitates speech fluency as measured by syllables spoken per minute. Again, the question of whether there is a significant difference between the two types of memorization is considered as part of the question. Research Question 4 asks whether these activities favorably affect the attitude of students toward text memorization as a means to develop their oral communication skills, and also compares whole- and partial-text approaches. Finally, the 5th Research Question, as a way of supplementing and enriching the data achieved with the first four Research Questions, seeks to see what variables may have been at play that can explain the differences in the performance of high and low achievers.

Chapter 5 then goes on to set out the rationale for the research study and to describe how it was conducted. A total of 35 university students in Japan, divided into three groups (Treatment Group 1 [TG1]: $n = 12$; Treatment Group 2 [TG2]: $n = 12$; Contrast Group [CG]: $n = 11$), participated in this study. A substantial set of model dialogs (3,182 words in total) was prepared for this study, with the key feature being that each dialog contained many FSs that will be particularly useful when studying abroad. Using this material, TG1 and TG2, taught by the researcher, spent a third or more of each 90-minute class time on 1) the

researcher providing formal instruction on a set number of dialogs, 2) the students memorizing and reviewing a given number of dialogs, and 3) the students checking each other on the dialogs that they had memorized. The key difference in how the two courses were taught was that while the students in TG1 were instructed to memorize the dialogs completely, those in TG2 were only instructed to memorize parts of the dialogs with particular focus on those FSs. At the onset of the semester, the participants took a speaking test containing a few quasi-interview questions and filled out a questionnaire, and at the end of the semester they took another speaking test with quasi-interview questions and another questionnaire. The same tests and questionnaires were also administered to the CG, also taught by the researcher.

Chapter 6 presents the results of the speaking tests and questionnaires in numerical and graphic terms. First, for the memorization of the dialogs by the TGs, both groups were found to have been effectively engaged in the task. Second, for Part 1 of the speaking test ('reading-aloud short sentences'), both TGs demonstrated significantly higher improvements than CG, and TG1 even outperformed TG2. Third, regarding Part 2 of the test ('short translations or directed responses'), while both TGs made significant improvements compared to CG in 'direct application' of the dialogs studied, it was TG1 alone that showed a significant increase in the 'appropriateness' of the responses. Regarding Part 3 of the test ('extensive oral production'), on the other hand, it was CG that was found to have displayed a significant increase in the use of FSs available in the dialog textbook. In terms of fluency of responses (as measured by syllables per minute) in Part 3, however, TG2 was the only group showing a significant advancement. As for the attitudinal items used in both Pre- and Post-Questionnaires, no significant variance was found with any group. Lastly, in regard to the reflective items used in the Post-Questionnaire, several significant differences were found, the most notable one regarding 'favorable change in attitude toward text memorization as a

way to learn a variety of features.' In this case, TG1's score was significantly higher than those of TG2 and CG.

Chapter 7 discusses the findings in detail. With respect to Research Question 1, the results indicate that both types of classroom intervention were effective in engaging the learners in memorization over the course of one semester. The same could be said for RQ 2, but the results on the whole suggest that whole-text memorization facilitates formulaic speech production more than partial-text memorization. While the test results indicate an advantage for partial-text memorization for 'direct application,' whole-text memorization appears more effective except in the case of 'modified application.' The use of an additional n-gram analysis also shows, while limitations should be kept in mind, a significant improvement in 'extensive oral production' made only by TG1. An advantage, although a weak one, was found for TG1 on the level of appropriateness of production. For improvement of pronunciation, the results strongly indicate that whole-text recitation is more effective. With regard to RQ 3, the partial-text memorization group showed a significant increase in the number of syllables spoken per minute. What should be borne in mind, however, is the possibility that the whole-text memorization group may have been unintentionally invited to pay more attention to details at the expense of fluency. As for RQ4, TG1's attitude toward text memorization became more positive, which suggests another advantage of adopting a whole-text memorization approach. Lastly, for RQ 5, an analysis of high and low achievers of the speaking tests with reference to their responses to the quasi-interview questions indicate a number of other variables potentially affecting their performance in the tests and responses to the questionnaire items. Overall the study raised many interesting questions, and implications for teaching and areas for further research are discussed.

Formulaic Sequences（定型的な単語［あるいは形態素］の連続：以降 FSs）は我々の記憶内に独立して保持されている。本研究は、第二言語習得における FSs の役割、および指導・学習ストラテジーとしての FSs 暗記の効果を調査する。具体的には、留学中に役立つことが期待される FSs を含むダイアログ集の暗記と暗唱タスクを一学期間に渡って与えた学習者を研究対象としたプロジェクトを報告する。

FSs とは、一続きの言語情報を指すわけだが、中でも「各構成要素と残りの要素との関係が比較的に固定化されており、かつ、連続体の一部を同一カテゴリーの別のものに置き換える際に比較的に制限のある連続」と定義することできる（Wray & Perkins, 2000）。FSs 現象は、長期におよぶ応用言語学の関心事であり（e.g., Bolinger, 1976; Fillmore, 1979; Pawley & Syder, 1983; Wray, 2002）、コーパス言語学の核であり（e.g., Sinclair, 1991）、そして多様な"レキシカル"指導アプローチの中心である（Lewis, 1993; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Willis, 1990）。FSs が大きな関心を引き寄せる理由（そして、その厳密な定義付けが難しい理由のひとつ）は、FSs が語彙の相当部分を占め、メッセージの理解と発信において最重要な役割を担っていることにある。このため、「FSs をいかにして教えるべきか？」という問いは言語教授法において大きな関心事となっている。

本論文の第 1 章では、論文内で報告する研究の背景を議論する。その際、研究フォーカスが（特に日本の大学という）外国語環境における文章暗記（text memorization）による FSs 指導であることを述べる。

第 2 章では、まず、関連文献で議論されている多様な FSs の特徴を検討する。本章はまた、FSs の概念を検討し、人がいかに言語チャンクを処理し習得するのかについて詳細に述べる。本章の最後では、FSs と言語学習の関係性を説明し、外国語環境での学習におけるその関係性の示唆にも触れる。

第 3 章は、言語情報の処理と保持について議論する。本章はまず、言語理解と発信に関する理論モデルを検討する。次に、認知科学の観点から見た情報処理、学習について議論する。その後、第二言語における FSs の習得を困難にする言語特性、そして、

思春期以降の学習者が外国語環境で学習する際の制約について議論を展開する。本章の最後では、それまでの議論を踏まえた言語処理・習得の統合的モデルを提示し、このモデルの含意を説明する。

　第４章は、次章以降で報告していく本研究の導入として、まず、前章までの議論を踏まえた３つの問題点について議論する。３つの問題とは、すなわち、【１】「特に大人を対象とした外国語環境での指導において FSs にフォーカスした指導をすべきか？」、【２】「フォーカスすべきである場合、どのような FSs を教えるべきか？」、そして【３】「どうやって FSs を教えるべきか？」である。これら３つの問題に対して、前章までに議論してきた様々な理論モデルに鑑みながら、それぞれ、答えを多角的に検討していく。とりわけ問題３については、多様な指導アプローチの効果や注意点を議論していく。本章の最後では、本研究のテーマとなっている文章暗記の指導効果に関する主要な先行研究のレビューを行う。このレビューでは、以下の点を指摘する。まず、FSs 使用はオーラル面において最重要であり FSs の即時的な使用を適切に計測するためにはスピーキングによる能力測定が不可欠と思われるにも関わらず、これまでの実証研究にはスピーキングテストによる効果検証が欠如している。第二に、特定の暗記指導法の認知負荷に差を設定した複数処置群についての有意差研究、そして（一学期間という）比較的長期の暗記指導を施した場合の効果研究も不足している。さらに、特定の暗記指導アプローチを実施することで学習者の暗記への態度がどう変わるかについての検証がなされてきていない。

　第５章では、まず、第４章の最後で述べた文章暗記に関する先行研究の不足点を踏まえ、本研究における研究課題を次のとおり挙げる。【研究課題１】指導開始前に準備しておいたダイアログ集の全文暗唱あるいは部分暗唱を促すことにより、一学期間、暗記作業に従事させることができるか、また両方法の間に有意差は見られるか。【研究課題２】課題１で示した全文暗唱と部分暗唱指導により、FSs を用いたスピーチ産出を促すことができるか、そして両方法の間に有意差は見られるか。【研究課題３】課題１で示した両方法により１分間当たりの産出シラブル数で計測するスピーチ流

暢さを向上させることができるか、そして両方法の間に有意差は見られるか。【研究課題４】両方法により、コミュニケーション力を伸ばすために文章暗記をすることに対する学習者の態度を（より）肯定的に変化させることができるか、また両方法の間に有意差は見られるか。【研究課題５】両方法がどの程度機能するかについて、どういった個人差が影響を及ぼすか。

　第５章では、次に、研究方法の詳細を記述する。まず、研究協力者については、処置群１（TG1）が１２名、処置群２（TG2）も１２名、対照群（CG）が１１名の計３５名が本研究に参加した。本研究で用いる FSs については、事前に、語数合計が 3,182 となるダイアログ集を準備しておいた。この教材を用い、TG1 そして TG2 の指導を研究者が行った。各回の授業は、９０分授業の最低３分の１以上の時間を次の活動に充てた。まず、研究者がダイアログ集から順番にいくつか、文法、語彙、発音等の指導を行った。続いて、各学生には、導入済のダイアログの中からいくつか選択したものをその場で覚えるか、あるいは予習で覚えてきたものの再確認をさせた。次に、学生同士で暗唱をさせた。相手がいない学生には研究者が暗唱パートナーとなった。TG1 と TG2 の指導法における最大の違いは、前者にはダイアログの全文暗唱を課し、後者には特定の FSs 箇所のみ覚えれば済む部分暗唱を課したことである。このため、部分暗唱群は、全文暗唱群と比較して、約３分の１に相当するテキストを暗唱することになった。指導開始時と終了時には、英語のスピーキングテストを実施し、日本語による疑似インタビューと選択肢形式のアンケート回答による調査も行った。CG に対しても、同じテストを実施し、同じインタビュー・アンケートへの回答をさせた。

　第６章は、処置群によるダイアログ暗記、および全群のスピーキングテスト・アンケート回答の統計データを提示する。まず、処置群によるダイアログ暗記については、TG1、TG2 いずれも効果的になされたことがわかった。スピーキングテスト Part 1（短文音読タスク）では、両処置群が CG に対して有意なスコア向上を見せ、TG1 はさらに TG2 に対しても有意な伸びを示した。スピーキングテスト Part 2（短文翻訳・回答タスク）では、学習したダイアログ表現をそのまま再現するプロンプトでは両処置群

が CG に対して有意なスコア向上を見せたのに対して、回答の適切さについては TG1 にのみ有意なスコア向上が見られた。スピーキングテスト Part 3（長文回答タスク）では、ダイアログ集にある FSs の使用について CG のみ有意なスコア向上が見られ、1 分当たりの産出シラブル数で計測する流暢さについては TG2 のみ有意なパフォーマンスの向上が見られた。指導開始時と終了時に設定したアンケート項目については、いずれも有意な変化は見られなかった。最後に、指導終了時にのみ設定したアンケート項目については、「様々な言語項目を学習するためにテキスト暗記学習をすることへの好意的な態度変化」に関する項目において TG1 のスコアが TG2、CG を有意に上回るなど、いくつかの項目において群間の有意なスコア差が見られた。

第 7 章では、各研究課題に関する発見について議論する。まず、課題 1 については、全文暗唱、部分暗唱いずれも一学期間に及んで暗記作業に従事させられることがわかった。課題 2 については、覚えた FSs をそのままスピーキングで用いることについては部分暗唱群の方が全文暗唱群よりも有意な伸びを見せたが、他のテスト結果も含めて総合的に解釈すると、全文暗唱の方が部分暗唱よりもさらに効果的に定型表現によるスピーチ産出を促すと考えられる。追加で実施した n-gram 分析では、解釈における注意点はあるものの、全文暗唱群のみ「長文回答タスク」において有意なスコア向上が見られた。スピーキング回答内容の適切さにおいても、限定的ではあるものの、全文暗唱群にのみ有意なスコア向上が見られた。そして、発音問題のスコアに関しては、両処置群ともに有意な向上が見られたが、全文暗唱は部分暗唱と比べても有意な伸びが見られたのである。課題 3 に関しては、1 分当たりの産出シラブル数で測る流暢さについて部分暗唱群に有意なスコア向上が見られた。ただし、全文暗唱群は、流暢さを犠牲にして産出内容に注力を傾けていた可能性がある。課題 4 については、全文暗唱のみ、アンケート回答において、文章暗記に対する肯定的な意識変化が有意に見られた。このことは、全文暗唱アプローチを採用する動機となりうる。最後に課題 5 については、スピーキングテストの高得点者と低得点者を各群から 3 名ずつ選び、彼らのテスト結果およびアンケート回答と疑似インタビュー回答に言及しながら 1

名ずつ分析を試みたが、様々な個人差がテスト結果、アンケート回答に影響を及ぼしていた可能性がある。例えば、本研究中に授業外で海外から来ている留学生と交流の多かった研究協力者は、顕著にダイアログ集の FSs 使用のテストスコアが伸びていた。別の例としては、コミュニケーションでよく使われる表現が便利であることはわかっていつつも、それらを覚えることに対して様々な理由で抵抗感を感じている学生は、暗唱はしても、事後テストにおける FSs 使用の大きな増加は見られなかった。

　第 7 章の結論部分では、本研究におけるデザイン上の問題をいくつか指摘し、それらを考慮しても、本研究は先行研究で扱われていない研究課題を扱っており、したがって、FSs 指導に関心のある言語教師、そして FSs を研究テーマとしている研究者にとって新たな知見を提示することが期待される旨を述べる。最後に、本研究でも未着手の FSs 研究領域、そして、本研究のデータ分析過程で新たに見つかった FSs 指導の研究領域について指摘して終える。

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

Formulaic language abounds in language use, and a number of studies have shown its pervasiveness. For example, in Foster's investigation (2001), 32.3% of the unplanned native speech analyzed was judged to consist of formulaic language. As another example, Erman and Warren (2000) categorized 58.6% of the spoken and 52.3% of the written English discourse that they examined as formulaic word strings of various kinds. In regard to the percentages, Altenberg (1990) further suggests that if the enormous set of simple lexical collocations, not possible to be elegantly categorized from a formal grammatical point of view, is regarded as part of formulaic language, then, possibly as much as 70% of adult native language may be formulaic. A range of corpus studies (e.g. Altenberg, 1993; Baayen & Lieber, 1991; Barkema, 1993; Kjellmer, 1984) have also demonstrated that most ordinary language production, written or spoken, appears to be composed largely of collocational sets or frameworks, manifesting far less variability than could be possible on the basis of grammar and lexicon alone. Taken together, as Sinclair (1991) puts it, "all the evidence points to an underlying rigidity of phraseology, despite a rich superficial variation" (p. 121).

According to Wray's (2002) thorough search for past observations of formulaic language, the existence of this linguistic phenomenon was recognized as early as the mid-nineteenth century. Narrowing down the scope of her search to the past half century, among the first to discuss the significance of formulaic language are Bolinger (1976), Fillmore (1979), and Pawley and Syder (1983).[1] Their critiques were then followed up by Sinclair (1991; see also Section 2.4.3) with his well-known 'idiom principle,' while the exploration of the relationship between lexical phrases and functional language was

commenced by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992). Wray (2002, p. 9) also offers a list of over fifty terms denoting the phenomenon of formulaic language. The list includes some everyday words used by ordinary people (e.g., *idioms*, *formulae*, *clichés*), terms that we do not see fully addressed in current literature, such as *amalgams*, *fossilized forms*, *frozen phrases*, *gambits*, *gestalt*, *holophrases*, and those that seem to be preferred by present linguistic specialists, which include the following:[2]

chunks / constructions / collocations / conventionalized forms / fixed expressions / formulaic language / lexical phrases / lexicalized sentence stems / multiword items (units) / non-compositional / prefabricated routines and patterns / ready-made expressions / recurring utterances / sentence builders

In many ways, formulaic sequences accomplish the same functions as single words. Many (e.g., collocations: *tie your shoes*, *still waters*; and complex verbs: *run over*, *break it down*) have mainly a referential or ideational purpose and thus operate as content words do. Others (e.g., exclamations: *Are you serious*, *no way*; and idioms: *back to the drawing board*, *far cry from*) are particularly effective for portraying an evaluative stance. Some ensure effortless social interaction (pragmatic formulae such as *Good to see you* and *I'm really happy for you*), while others are similar to function words in that they act, for example, to unify discourse (e.g., *as a side note*, *to offer a different perspective*). Collectively they make up a substantial and vital part of one's lexicon, performing an essential role in facilitating the understanding and expression of messages that could otherwise be misinterpreted.

Pervasive and integral as it is, formulaicity remains an area where L2 learners only very slowly approximate to or will never reach the proficiency of native speakers. Results of a

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[1] For other publications on formulaic language prior to Bolinger, see Wray (2002, pp. 7-8).
[2] Wray (2000) cautions against the assumption that researchers are dealing with very much the same phenomenon with various terms (Wray, 2002). As observed by Wray and Perkins (2000), "it seems that there are genuinely deep-seated and significant differences, which have become obscured by the tolerance of terminological variation on the one hand, and, on the other, the indiscriminate appropriation of certain favoured terms across data types" (p. 3).

number of studies (Altenberg & Granger, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig, 2009; Durrant & Schmitt, 2009; Howarth, 1996; Kaszubski, 2000; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Li & Schmitt, 2010; Nekrasova, 2009; Qi & Ding, 2011; Siyanova & Schmitt, 2007; Siyanova & Schmitt, 2008; Yamashita & Jiang, 2010) reveal that L2 learners even at advanced levels of proficiency are unable to produce formulaic sequences in the L2 that are comparable to those used by native speakers. Pawley and Syder (1983) observe that it is often the failure to utilize nativelike formulaic sequences that ultimately distinguishes the advanced L2 learner as non-native.

Notwithstanding such a disappointing reality, second language teaching specialists have strived for effective approaches to help learners to develop formulaicity, notable examples being Lewis (1993), Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992), and Willis (1990). Such attempts have been made precisely because of the ubiquity and essential centrality of formulaic language. It has also been suggested that deviant use of formulaic sequences by L2 learners is associated with an increased and sustained processing burden by native speakers (Millar, 2010). According to data reported by Stengers et al. (2011), inaccuracies in learners' use of formulaic sequences exert a non-negligible influence on their oral proficiency scores. Since certain sequences are strongly linked to particular language functions or information, our interlocutors anticipate them, and they are the preferred choice; thus, formulaic sequences are not merely useful for proficient language usage, but also vital for appropriate language use (Schmitt & Carter, 2004).

Another example of statistical support for an emphasis on formulaic sequences in teaching comes from recent studies that found significant correlations between L2 learners' knowledge of multiword lexis and their proficiency ratings (e.g., Boers, et al., 2006; Dai & Ding, 2010; Hsu & Chiu, 2008; Keshavarz & Salimi, 2007; Stengers, et al., 2011).[3] While

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[3] Although there seems to be a moderate connection between vocabulary size and formulaic sequence knowledge, Schmitt, Dornyei, Adolphs, and Durow's (2004) study suggests that the relationship between the size of the 'individual word lexicon' and the 'formulaic sequence lexicon' is not straightforward.

correlations are not the same as causal relationships, given all the benefits that knowledge of language patterns and collocations purportedly confers to language users (see Chapter 2 for details), it is, nevertheless, very reasonable for language teachers to be inclined to help learners develop their proficiency by teaching them formulaic language.

When the choice to focus on formulaic sequences is made in teaching adult learners, then, several considerations need to be taken into account for effective teaching (see Chapter 4 for details). First and foremost, processing burdens on language users during realtime communicative tasks seriously interfere with the successful processing required for the learning of formulaic sequences. It will also be suggested in this dissertation that adult learners' existing knowledge about how things work in the world will not only help comprehension and production but also hinder language learning. Additionally, as pointed out later, there are the inherent difficulties of formulaic language. When targeting learners in a foreign language context, where there is paucity of input and the need to use the target language outside the classroom, then, it will be argued that engaging learners in text memorization is one promising course of action to take.

The role of text memorization in L2 learning is controversial (Cook, 1994; Dai & Ding, 2010); as a case in point, Wray and Fitzpatrick (2010) express their general observation that planned memorization in language learning is neither standard practice nor fashionable, and that language teachers who utilize this approach have a tendency to believe that they are out of tune with contemporary methods of language teaching, while often admitting privately that they favor some memorization and find it effective. Cook (2001) also observes that memorization remains widely used and relied on by teachers and learners alike. Good language learner studies such as Ding (2007) and Stevick (1989) lend support to the argument that memorization of linguistic material is a key to high achievement. Nesselhauf (2003) states that although rote learning seems to have lost credit, along with behaviorism, it is critically important that a significant amount of collocations be taught and learnt explicitly.

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SLA literature to date does not offer much analysis of text memorization, and there is an unquestionable scarcity of studies on the effects of text memorization (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2012; Dai & Ding, 2010). The few studies available (e.g., Ding, 2007) are mainly based on qualitative analysis of student work and reflection. Given the controversies over the practice of text memorization, then, as Dai and Ding (2010) argue, studies that can identify the effects of text memorization on L2 learning are called for to address their validity.

1.2 Research aims and the organization of this dissertation

Based on the need for further research into the effects of text memorization in classroom teaching, the study presented in this dissertation investigated the effectiveness of engaging classroom FL adult learners in text memorization. More specifically, it aimed to see the extent to which memorization of lengthy texts over an extended period of time, prepared prior to instruction and consisting of conversational turns, would effectively lead to formulaic learning.

The discussion in this chapter has introduced the background of the present study and specified its focus as the investigation of text memorization approaches to the teaching of formulaic sequences in a foreign language (FL) context. Chapter 2 discusses various definitions in the literature for formulaic sequences, and provides the particular characterization of formulaic sequences appropriate for the present study. It also looks at constructs of formulaic sequences, endeavoring to offer a more thorough account of how we process and acquire "chunks" of language. In concluding, the chapter establishes connections between formulaic sequences and language learning, specifically second language learning in a foreign language environment.

Chapter 3 addresses the ways in which we process and retain linguistic information. The chapter begins by examining the different models concerning the processing and production

of language. The chapter then moves on to discuss awareness and cognition in relation to memory. This is followed by further treatment of language processing in connection to memory, and its related components. The dissertation looks to address issues L2 learners experience in a foreign language learning environment where possibilities to acquire an L2 are rather limited. The chapter concludes by introducing an integrated model for language processing and acquisition in relation to memory, and outlines the features of this model.

Chapter 4 aims to introduce the background to the study conducted for this dissertation, with a discussion of three fundamental questions that were brought up in the review and synthesis offered in the previous chapters. The three central questions are (1) *Should teaching practitioners focus on formulaic sequences in teaching in a foreign language context with the particular target population being adult learners?*, (2) *If they should, which formulaic sequences should they teach?*, and (3) *How should they teach the targeted items?* The first question is addressed by providing a number of reasons for the teaching of formulaic language to this particular target population. The second and third questions are addressed by drawing on principles and proposals discussed in the preceding chapters. This chapter then presents a review of studies on text memorization that help to clarify the rationale for the present study.

Chapter 5 begins with the research questions, showing how they logically follow from the review of the literature given in Chapters 2 through 4. Chapter 5 then provides details of the methodology of the present study. These details include pilot testing, participant characteristics, materials and procedures, as well as the statistical analyses used.

In Chapter 6, study results and preliminary findings are reported.

Chapter 7 revisits the research questions, discusses the results and offers conclusions based on them. The major findings are restated together with pedagogical implications. This chapter then identifies methodological limitations of this study, and finally specifies future

directions for research on the roles of text memorization as a way to develop formulaic, as well as analytic, knowledge. References and appendices appear last.

CHAPTER 2

Characteristics of formulaic sequences

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a consideration of the various definitions given for formulaic sequences (henceforth, FSs), in order to provide a comprehensive characterization of FSs that can inform this research. It also aims to examine the different constructs of formulaic sequences for the purpose of better understanding their functionality in communication. Later sections of the chapter endeavor to further clarify how we process and acquire "chunks" of language. The chapter concludes with an attempt to connect these components to second language acquisition, illuminating in so doing the ways in which FSs further complicate learning, particularly for adult learners in a foreign as opposed to second language environment.

2.2 Defining formulaic sequences

Formulaic language has been studied from diverse perspectives, resulting in a variety not only of criteria or definitions to describe the phenomenon but also of terminology (as introduced at the beginning of Chapter 1) (Schmitt & Carter, 2004). Corpus linguistics is generally concerned with the identification and description of formulaic sequences as they are found in various kinds of corpus data (Schmitt & Carter, 2004). Criteria that are commonly used in this field of inquiry include *institutionalization*, *fixedness*, *non-compositionality* (see Section 2.3 for details), and *frequency of occurrence*.[4]

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[4] The need for caution in using frequency to identify a formulaic sequence has been recognized (Hickey, 1993; Wray & Perkins, 2000). While there is no doubt that there is some sort of connectedness between a sequence being frequent in a corpus and the conventionalized status accorded to it by a given speech community, this connectedness may actually be incidental: "[i]t has yet to be established that commonness of occurrence is more than a circumstantial associate" (Wray & Perkins, 2000, p. 7).

Psycholinguists and language acquisition specialists, in contrast, employ criteria such as whether a word string is used more than once by a participant (suggesting that the use is not so much a single, one-time-only imitation as a manifestation of the participant's proceduralized knowledge) and whether the production is accompanied by an intact intonation contour (indicating that the sequence is stored and retrieved as a whole) (Schmitt & Carter, 2004). Allison Wray, author of the seminal book "Formulaic Language and the Lexicon" (2002), provides the following inclusive, umbrella definition of a formulaic sequence:

> a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated: that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar. (p. 9)

This is a definition that is very extensive in its coverage, applicable to the entire spectrum of different types of word strings. These include, for example, tightly idiomatic and immutable strings (e.g., *by and large*) at one end of the spectrum, and range to transparent and flexible strings with slots for open class items such as *NP be-TENSE sorry to keep-TENSE you waiting* at the other. Wray (2002, p. 10 and Chapters 11 and 13) further argues that even single words and morphemes can be seen as formulaic sequences (e.g., *un-believe-able*; see also Boers & Lindstromberg, 2012; Wray, 2008).[5] Broadly speaking, formulaic sequences can usefully be defined as strings of linguistic items where the relation of each item to the rest is relatively fixed, and where the substitutability of one constituent of the sequence by another of the same category is relatively constrained (Perkins, 1999). An additional, and essential, component of this definition includes "[w]ords and word strings which appear to be processed without recourse to their lowest level of composition" (Wray, 2002, p. 4). Since

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[5] Conceptualizing the boundary of formulaic sequences this way is convenient, though, especially when the language under investigation is an agglutinative one such as Japanese. Wray (2008) introduces the *morpheme equivalent unit* as an alternative to formulaic sequence.

the focus of the present study is on teaching FSs, not defining them, I will employ this most comprehensive definition to date, acknowledging at the same time that, while useful in the sense that it virtually subsumes everything potentially classified as formulaic, the comprehensive wording and fundamental complexity come at the cost of making its comprehensibility and applicability a colossal obstacle for L2 educators trying to work from and build on such a definition.

2.3 Characteristics of formulaic sequences

Because there is so much diversity in the use of formulaic sequences, it is difficult to agree upon absolute criteria to define them. The definition of a formulaic sequence introduced in Section 2.2 is thus deliberately comprehensive, and includes various types of patterned language (Schmitt & Carter, 2004). Taking into account the proposal by Schmitt and Carter (2004) that even though each particular example may not manifest all characteristics, it seems helpful to discuss the typical characteristics of formulaic sequences, the following sub-sections overview their distinctive features from formal, semantic, and functional perspectives.

2.3.1 Formal mutability of formulaic sequences

One of the most obvious formal characteristics of FSs is, perhaps, their varying lengths. Very short sequences can be composed of two words (e.g., *Come on!*) or even one word as introduced in Section 2.2 (e.g., *Unbelievable!*). FSs can be very long too, as in lengthy proverbs (e.g., *The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence*), and theoretically the longest varieties can be of such a length that it could seem implausible to assert that they are formulaic structures at all. The lyrics of popular songs could be taken as one such example.

However, the major formal facet of formulaic manifestations is that they can be dichotomized according to whether the component words are totally invariable or only partially fixed. Starting with frozen, immutable strings of words, one of their syntactic characteristics or irregularities is that some sequences are subject to an inflectional or transformational restriction (Verstraten, 1992). Wray and Perkins (2000) provide examples of this type, cited from other sources. For example, it is not possible to pluralize *beat around the bush* or passivize *face the music* without the strings losing their idiomatic meaning (Flavell & Flavell, 1992, p. 6). Additionally, you *slept a wink last night* or to make someone *fed up* by *feeding them up* are not possible variants (Irujo, 1986, p. 237). Another syntactic irregularity of the fixed FSs is that some do not even follow normal restrictions. Two examples of this kind of irregularity, again cited by Wray and Perkins, are to *come a cropper* and to *go the whole hog* (Flavell & Flavell, 1992, p.7), in each of which case an intransitive verb is followed by a direct object. Another example of Wray and Perkin's is *by and large*, in which non-identical constituents are juxtaposed. With such syntactic oddities, however, fixedness is undoubtedly advantageous to both the speaker and the hearer. An example provided by Schmitt and Carter (2004) is *Watch Out!* Even though a sentence with more contextual information like *Watch out for the car coming behind you!* could also be generated and understood, the speaker is inclined to choose, when milliseconds count, a shorter and more customary warning that does not call for extended online computation by the intended recipient, and the core message of the language so chosen is also likely to be readily conveyed to the hearer, which is also the speaker's intention.

Moving on to flexible formulaic sequences, the constituents of a flexible formulaic sequence are a varied number of prefabricated 'frames' and 'slots' for flexibility of use to be filled by applicable words or strings of words (Nattinger & Decarrico, 1992), although the slots typically have semantic constraints. For example, when we would like to convey the idea that some action or accomplishment is irregular, unbelievable or extraordinary, we are

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able to utilize statements such as *He stood in disbelief as the magician sawed the woman in half* or *They watched in disbelief as the woman dove from the 100 meter cliff into the ocean.* The fundamental composition of these two sentences is the frame '_____ *in disbelief, as* _____ ', and the second slot of the frame offers the possibility of expressing something unexpected in a wide variety of contexts. This scaffold can be an aid to fluent language, because some of the language is already pre-assembled and can be called on in diverse situations. Bear in mind, however, that the second slot must, in normal circumstances, convey the idea of something unusual, unbelievable or unexpected, precisely because that is the reason or purpose for using this formulaic sequence. Thus, a sentence like *She listened in disbelief, as the radio announcer read the advertisements* renders the whole peculiar because the reading of the advertisements by an announcer is common. The fact that it is theoretically possible that the context will make the sentence acceptable to the listener does not detract from the point being made about the core characteristic of this frame. The semantic limitations of such preassembled frames appear to leave them with sufficient flexibility and adaptability within a wide range of contexts as to make them widely used in discourse.[6]

Looking at the formal attributes of formulaic sequences from a bottom-up perspective, it is certainly fair to observe that certain words (especially adjectives and verbs) rather than a string of words are constrained by particular syntactic structures. An example introduced by Schmitt and Carter (2004) is the adjective *rife*. As this is a predicate adjective (with a negative connotation), a typical sentence structure in which this word is embedded is *SOMETHING UNDESIRABLE is/are rife in LOCATION/TIME.* Thus, while from a

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[6] Semantic constraints on slots of formulaic frames can be broadly discussed in terms of 'semantic prosody,' a notion introduced by Sinclair (1991, 2004). According to the idea of semantic prosody, certain seemingly neutral words can be perceived with positive or negative associations through frequent occurrences with particular collocations. A prime example is the phrasal verb *set in*, which has a negative prosody (e.g., *A plague is going to set in*). Another note on flexible FSs is that their semantic constraints are difficult to identify using current concordancing packages. Schmitt and Carter (2004) point out that modern concordancers are good at identifying contiguous sequences in corpora, but convenient software to automatically identify flexible formulaic sequences has yet to be developed.

formulaic sequence perspective, the collocation of the frame (i.e., *is/are rife in*) and the two semantically constrained slots (*SOMETHING UNDESIRABLE* and *LOCATION/TIME*) together constitute one formulaic sequence, it is also possible to point to the structural rules of the single word *rife*. Which way to interpret the phenomenon is dependent on how one observes and analyzes language. Yet, from the language processing perspective, the more holistic approach seems far more beneficial to the language user/learner (see Section 2.4). Regardless of the formal variability of a given formulaic sequence, then, it seems reasonable to teach formulaic sequences in the classroom. However, the point is not so much the form as the meaning and function, and it is to this issue that we now turn.

2.3.2 Semantic transparency of formulaic sequences

Some types of formulaic sequences are semantically distinct. Prime examples are idioms, proverbs, sayings, and phrasal verbs. While consisting of multiple orthographic words, these sequences evidently operate as single units. The fact that these multi-word units express a single meaning makes them stand out. In the case of metaphoric word strings, component words have relinquished their respective semantic meanings (in some cases syntactic rules too) in favor of the collective, holistic meaning assumed in combination with the rest of the string (Moon, 1992; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, chapter 2; Yorio, 1980). In other words, the meaning cannot be derived from the sum of meanings of the component words. These types of word strings are collectively referred to as non-compositional formulaic sequences. It would be impossible for a hearer to understand these for the first time without substantial pragmatic or explanatory context (e.g., *kick the bucket*; *hot potato*), although there are some cases where the metaphorical meaning can be derived with less guessing (e.g., *from the cradle to the grave*; *hit the nail on the head*).

Thus far, characteristics of formulaic sequences have been described in terms of surface form and meaning. However, classifications depending solely on formal and semantic aspects

are sometimes not completely clear. For one thing, most proverbs are semantically incomprehensible, and would be classified as idioms on this basis (e.g., *A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush*), so what is the difference between them? One useful way of differentiating the two is their conditions of use, or pragmatic functions. The next sub-section deals with this functional facet of formulaic language.

2.3.3 Pragmatic functions of formulaic sequences

Formulaic sequences are often tied to particular conditions of use, or pragmatic functions. To answer the question raised in the previous sub-section concerning the difference between formal and semantic aspects of FSs involving idioms and proverbs, idioms are typically used to express a concept (e.g., *play it by ear* = adjust one's actions to fit the situation), while proverbs are usually about some commonly believed truth and thus used as advice (e.g., *Two wrongs don't make a right* = an admonition to not seek revenge). The ways in which recurring situations in the social world require particular language from people are often illustrated in terms of the functions that are fulfilled by that language (Schmitt & Carter, 2004). For example, speech acts such as apologizing, making requests, giving directions, and complaining typically have conventionalized language forms attached to them (e.g., *I'm (very) sorry to hear about _____* to express sympathy and *I'd be happy/glad to _____* to comply with a request) (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, pp. 62-63). Another typical function performed by formulaic sequences is that of organizing the discourse. Logical connectors are abundant in discourse, both spoken and written (e.g., *Having said that, Specifically, On the contrary, Speaking of which, Such being the case*). Yet another common function served by formulaic sequences is maintenance of social interaction. We participate in casual and light conversation just to pass the time of day or for amusement, so engaging in such communication is unlikely to involve serious attempts to exchange information or to manipulate someone into doing something. The content per se is not as important as the

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existence of some communication, superficial though it may be. To handle such a situation, we rely on a set of conventionalized social phrases that are non-threatening in any way and support the flow of the conversation. Examples include comments about the weather (*Beautiful day, isn't it?*), agreeing with the interlocutor (*You're right*), providing backchannels and positive feedback to another speaker (*Uh-huh*; *That's great*). Kecskes (2003) points out that such sequences serve as a social lubrication as well as an active co-constructing device for interpersonal communication. One feature all these examples have in common is that members of a speech community know these expressions, and this makes it possible for them to serve as a quick and reliable vehicle for the desired function.

In relation to this functional facet of formulaic sequences, Wray and Perkins (2000) provide an iconoclastic account of how they serve us in language use (for details, see pp. 13-19). According to Wray and Perkins, there exist two fundamental determiners of a person's preference for a formulaic, holistic expression over an analytic, generative expression (see Section 2.4 for details) at any given moment: these are the socio-interactional priorities and the constraints on our processing capabilities (see Chapter 3, especially Sections 3.3 and 3.4). In relation to this dichotomy, Wray and Perkins propose that the functions of FSs as devices of social interaction are (1) "manipulation of others," (2) "asserting separate identity," and (3) "asserting group identity," and the functions they serve as compensatory devices for memory limitations are (1) "processing shortcuts," (2) "time-buyers," and (3) "manipulation of information." A sage observation offered by Wray and Perkins here is that "these two [seemingly unrelated purposes for formulaic language] are in actual fact two sides of the same coin" (p. 17). They explain:

> On the one hand, the driving force behind the processing short-cuts is ensuring that
> the speaker's production is fluent and that information is available when required:
> formulaic language by-passes, partially or entirely, depending on the form, the
> generative system. The driving force behind the socio-interactional formulas is

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ensuring that the speaker gets what he/she wants and is perceived as an individual within the group. Significantly, formulaic language is better suited to this than novel language is, because a hearer is more likely to understand a message if it is in a form he/she has heard before, and which he/she can process without recourse to full analytic decoding. … Thus, we see that, just as the processing short-cuts are a means of ensuring that the speaker achieves successful production, so the socio-interactional formulae are a means of ensuring that the hearer achieves successful comprehension. This, however, is not some kind of altruism on the speaker's part. The hearer's success is entirely in the interests of the speaker because it is the speaker's way of achieving the socio-interactional functions… In both cases, it is the speaker who benefits from using formulaic sequences. (p. 18)

2.3.4 Summary

This chapter has thus far sought to provide a sketch of the main characteristics of formulaic language. It has demonstrated that formulaic language is a multi-faceted phenomenon entailing complexities at all formal, semantic, and pragmatic levels. Major points are briefly summarized in Table 2.1. Specifically, the pragmatic functional side is significantly complicated, although Wray and Perkins' (2000) model does theoretically offer a useful way to conceptualize the entire phenomenon. This is because the functional side (Wray and Perkins' model included) necessarily involves how people process language. The issue of human language processing is the core topic of the next chapter.

Table 2.1

Characteristics of Formulaic Sequences

Aspect	Dichotomy	Additional notes
Formal	Invariable	Syntactically constrained; some peculiar syntagmatic pairings
	Flexible	Frames with slots (often semantically constrained)
Semantic	Compositional	
	Non-compositional	Metaphorical
Functional	Socio-interactional	Main functions: 1) manipulation of others; 2) assertion of separate identity; 3) assertion of group identity
	Memory compensation	

2.4 Knowledge and processing of language

This section seeks to describe the nature of our language knowledge and how we use it in language processing.

2.4.1 Formulaic nature of our language knowledge

Given the widespread use of formulaic sequences in discourse, a number of scholars have argued that proficient language users must have extensive knowledge and command of these sequences. Pawley and Syder (1983, p. 213), for instance, suggest that the number of "sentence-length expressions familiar to the average, mature English speaker probably amounts, at least, to several hundreds of thousands." In a similar vein, Jackendoff (1995) postulates, based on a small corpus study of spoken language in a TV quiz show, that the significance of formulaic sequences may be equal to, if not greater than, the lexicon of single words. While Schmitt and Carter (2004) point out that these assertions are not supported by enough empirical work, there is some evidence to suggest that formulaic sequences are generally processed as unitary wholes and, as a corollary, stored in memory as such, even if

this is not the case for every instance.[7] For example, Kuiper (1996, 2004) and his colleagues (Kuiper & Haggo, 1984) demonstrate that smooth talkers (auctioneers, sportscasters) rely heavily on formulaic language as a means of fluently conveying large amounts of information under severe time pressure.

2.4.2 Predominant reliance on formulaic language

Before the advent of computerized corpus studies, our great capacity to remember and use prefabricated units was underestimated on the one hand, and the extent to which we (can) process language by complex processes of calculation was overestimated on the other (Lamb, 1998, p.169). Until then, multiword units to enable fast processing were acknowledged but often relegated as a peripheral phenomenon that plays only a minor role in language (Wray, 2002). With more and more such studies, however, corpus linguistics has revealed the pervasiveness of formulaicity, in its widest sense, in corpora (reviewed by Wray, 2002, chapter 2), and now, "[t]he real issue is whether it is, or isn't, possible to account for real language data without invoking prefabrication" (Wray, 2002, p. 12). As a consequence, the Chomskyan view that the language of normal adult native speakers is processed piecemeal in output production and input comprehension has been under severe attack. There is no doubt that we are capable of grammatical processing, but it has been made clear that such processing is not our only, nor even our preferred, way of handling language production and comprehension.[8] On the contrary, much of our input and output is processed holistically,

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[7] Actually, Schmitt and Carter (2004) comment that these claims may not even require empirical studies to substantiate them, as the most obvious evidence lies in semantically-opaque, non-compositional formulaic sequences (see Section 2.3) where their aggregated meaning cannot be derived from knowledge of the component words, because the only way to know the meaning of the idiom is to have learned it as a whole unit.

[8] On our generative capability, Wray (2002, p. 12) also points out that "in most cases 'novelty' is much less a question of doing things with grammar than juxtaposing new ideas in commonplace grammatical frames," and thus "[m]ost of our language … is novel in a rather uninteresting way."

albeit analyzable, and manifests far less variability than could be predicted on the basis of grammar.[9] On the issue of nativelike selection and fluency, Pawley and Syder (1983) claim:

native speakers do not exercise the creative potential of syntactic rules to anything like their full extent, and ... indeed, if they did so they would not be accepted as exhibiting nativelike control of the language. The fact is that only a small proportion of the total set of grammatical sentences are nativelike in form—in the sense of being readily acceptable to native informants as ordinary, natural forms of expression, in contrast to expressions that are grammatical but are judged to be 'unidiomatic', 'odd', or 'foreignisms'. (p. 193)

In summary, words belong with other words not as a product of online computation, but at a more fundamental level.

2.4.3 Dual system and processing model

The corpus linguist John Sinclair was one of the first researchers to introduce the distinction between holistic processing and analytic processing, with his 'idiom principle' and 'open choice principle' (Sinclair, 1991). The idiom principle posits that "a language user has available to him a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analyzable into segments" (Sinclair, 1991, p. 110). This principle brings about the selection of two or more words together, on the basis of previous and frequent co-occurrence. The open choice principle, conversely, states that "syntax is there to specify the slots into which memorised items—normally single words—can be inserted" (Warren, 2005, p. 36). That is, the open choice principle results in

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[9] Wray and Perkins (2000) further chastise the Chomskyan view on two grounds. First, they point out that the Chomskyan view holds that "all sequences of words … which *can* be assembled by rule, *must* be assembled by rule" (p. 10). Such a view is not agreeable to corpus linguists and scholars studying formulaic language. Second, and more problematically, Wray and Perkins criticize the corollary of that view: "all grammatical sequences are equally valid and equally likely to occur" (p. 10).

the selection of single words, and gives interlocutors the same kind of creative freedom as the

Chomskyan account. As for the operation of these principles, Sinclair (1991) proposes:

> the first mode to be applied is the idiom principle, since most of the text will be
>
> interpretable by this principle. Whenever there is good reason, the interpretive process
>
> switches to the open-choice principle, and quickly back again. Lexical choices which are
>
> unexpected in their environment will presumably occasion a switch. (p. 114)

To put it another way, our baseline strategy in normal language processing, whether in

production or comprehension, "relies not on *the potential for the unexpected* in a given

utterance but upon *the statistical likelihood of the expected*" (Wray, 1992, p. 19, original

emphasis). Importantly, the operation of holistic processing (according to the idiom principle)

is not restricted to only, say, those non-compositional multiword strings such as idioms,

which cannot be generated or comprehended with the operation of analytic processing

(according to the open choice principle), but can also deal with linguistic manifestations for

which analytic processing would have rendered exactly the same outcomes (Wray, 1992,

2002)

We can and do create and understand novel language, which has been the thrust of the

Chomskyan tradition for the last 50 years. To acknowledge a central role for formulaic

sequences that are processed holistically and stored as such in the memory system is not to

exclude our capability to handle novelty and creativity, "only to relegate it from the position

of sole strategy" (Wray, 1992, p. 17). As for the analytic processing, then, Sinclair's (1991)

view is that "[analyticity] could be imagined as a ... process which goes on in principle all the

time, but whose results are only intermittently called for" (p. 114). This dual

processing/knowledge model is proposed as one of the most reasonable ways of

accommodating and accounting for both the holistic and analytic features of language.

Henceforth, the two terms *analytic language knowledge* and *holistic language knowledge*

will be used. These terms can be better understood by observing the following

conceptualization by Wray: "The advantage of the creative system [i.e., analytic language knowledge] is the freedom to produce or decode the unexpected. The advantage of the holistic system [i.e., holistic language knowledge] is economy of effort when dealing with the expected" (Wray, 1992, p. 19, square brackets added). As these concepts are important components of this research, they will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 3.

2.5 Acquisition of formulaic sequences

As seen in the previous section, adults' knowledge of L1 is considered to be largely holistic. When it comes to the acquisition of formulaic sequences, however, the amount of research into this phenomenon has been fairly modest (Schmitt & Carter, 2004; Weinert, 1995; Wray, 2002). Nevertheless, it has been suggested that acquisition of each holistic sequence does not appear to take place at a single point in time. Rather, it appears that the mastery of each particular formulaic sequence is realized in a gradual, rather than all-or-nothing, manner. For instance, L1 acquirers seem to construct the phonological mappings of a formulaic sequence starting from the whole sequence and then analyzing it into components, but with some elements still incompletely cognized, particularly in the case of unstressed phonemic constituents; later on the gaps in the initial stages of the rendering of the sequence will be fulfilled (Peters, 1977; Schmitt & Carter, 2004; Wray, 2002, Chapter 6). For another example, transparent sequences such as *my point (here) is that _____* are perhaps even generated online in the first instance through knowledge of the component words and syntactic knowledge, and the newly constructed sequence in this manner is stored as a single multi-word unit in holistic language knowledge. It is proposed that it is in these ways that formulaic sequences are learned over time. While the manner in which formulaic sequences are acquired in the L1 is definitely pertinent to this dissertation, it is not the main focus here, and certainly cannot be detailed within a single section or even chapter. For a comprehensive account of the acquisition of formulaic language in the L1, see Wray (2002).

In the case of L2 learning, navigating the route of acquisition of formulaic sequences is far more complicated, because of the wide diversity of conditions for learning. "There may well be an underlying systematicity to the acquisition and use of L2 formulaic language, but there is simply not enough focused research at present to say very much with conviction" (Schmitt & Carter, 2004, p. 13). One certainty is the incompleteness of the ultimate learning outcome, lexically as well as grammatically (Abrahamsson & Hyltenstam, 2009). A number of studies that have investigated the learning of formulaic sequences by L2 learners (Altenberg & Granger, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig, 2009; Durrant & Schmitt, 2009; Howarth, 1996; Kaszubski, 2000; Laufer & Waldman, 2011; Li & Schmitt, 2010; Nekrasova, 2009; Qi & Ding, 2011; Siyanova & Schmitt, 2007; Siyanova & Schmitt, 2008; Yamashita & Jiang, 2010) have shown that L2 learners even at advanced levels of proficiency are unable to produce formulaic sequences in the L2 that are comparable to those used by native speakers. Such being the case, instead of seeking further to identify and describe the underlying route—if there is one—for formulaic language development in the L2, the focus here is placed on why learning formulaic language in the L2 is so consistently difficult. There is discussion of this issue in Wray (2000) and Wray and Perkins (2000). According to Wray and Perkins, children, as opposed to adults, operate within a "socio-interactional bubble ... both protected from, and largely impervious to, any need to interact with anyone other than its carers" (Wray & Perkins, 2000, p. 22), and "by being protected from the intellectual and emotional stress of interacting in the world beyond the bubble," they "can apply analytical processes to derive grammatical and lexical information from formulaic sequences" (Wray, 2000, p. 481). Adults, in contrast, have to handle the whole variety of socio-interactional demands in communication, and thus, on the basis that children can extract underlying linguistic information from formulaic sequences, "it would be unwise to assume that ... adults can too" (Wray, 2000, p. 481; also compare VanPatten, 1990). In the next chapter, a further explanation for the learning difficulty facing adult L2 learners will be offered, but

with Wray and Perkins' account alone, it is easy to appreciate the magnitude of the challenge for L2 learners.

2.6 Pattern-based language acquisition

One relevant theoretical account on language acquisition to this research is the development of pattern-based models concerning the acquisition of language, which suggest that the human capacity for language learning stems from the ability to isolate structures from a given response, instead of being under the control of instinctive determinants and constraints that supposedly predetermine which aspects of a given language may or may not be acquired at a given moment in the learning process (see N. Ellis, 1996, 2002). This theory proposes that we acquire the character or letter orders that are acceptable in a language (e.g., the consonant cluster *sp* can be word-initial in English, but *hg* cannot) simply by continually viewing *sp* at the beginning of words, but not *hg*. This learning is implicit, and may not be relative to conscious metalinguistic accounts of acquisition. Of course, learners may ultimately reach the point where they can conclude that there exists a 'rule' for this specific consonant clustering; however, the rule is a construct of the pattern-based acquisition, rather than the fundamental source of learning. This pattern-based learning also pertains to more extensive linguistic units, such as how morphemes can combine to make words (e.g., *un-question-able*; *un-reli-able*; *un-fathom-able*). Moving to the word level, we gain insight into which words collocate together and which do not (e.g., *blonde hair, *blonde paint*; *auburn hair* but only for women, not men). Many of these associations essentially stem from pattern recognition, as there is frequently no semantic reasoning that conveys which pairings are acceptable and which are unacceptable (**blonde paint* makes perfect logical sense). Collocations are not likely to be learned explicitly either, since they are not typically taught, and even if they are, only probable instances are exemplified, not inappropriate sequences. Longer formulaic series, which are also based on patterns rather than rules, seem to follow

rather suitably with such sequence-based models of acquisition as well. If the above account holds true, then, its implications are significant. Regardless of what is to be learned, a formulaic sequence or a grammatical rule, a pattern must be extracted. It does not require a great deal of imagination to understand how potentially challenging a task that might be for an L2 learner, especially an adult and especially in an FL context. Such a learner simply does not enjoy sufficient enough encounters with the given language to derive any intrinsic pattern, or even if they did, they lack opportunities to strengthen the knowledge so learned.

CHAPTER 3

Language processing and learning

3.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the question of how we process and retain linguistic information. Initially, the discussion delves into the varying models that examine the processing and production of language. The chapter then moves on to awareness of language and the role it plays in acquisition. Cognition in relation to memory receives some attention, but is only briefly mentioned, as the research to date is lacking if we look at this from a linguist's perspective. There will be further discussion below of the processing of language in connection to memory and the connected components. Additionally, there is a discussion of the difficulty in cognitive processing experienced by L2 learners. In particular, this dissertation looks to deal with the issues L2 learners experience in an FL environment where exposure to the language is rather limited. The chapter concludes with the introduction of an integrated model for language processing and acquisition in relation to memory, and the features it embodies.

3.2 Three knowledge sources for language comprehension and production

According to Anderson and Lynch (1988) and Skehan (1998), our language processing draws on three main knowledge sources of *systemic knowledge*, *schematic knowledge*, and *contextual knowledge*. Systemic knowledge, according to Anderson and Lynch, is comprised of syntactic, semantic, and morphological knowledge, and in this dissertation it is interpreted as consisting of the dual systems of analytic language knowledge and holistic language knowledge discussed in Section 2.4. Schematic knowledge, on the other hand, refers to a person's background knowledge, both factual and socio-cultural, and his or her procedural knowledge of how language is used in discourse, whereas contextual knowledge is that

person's knowledge of situation (physical setting, participants, etc.) and of context (what has been and will be said).

For comprehension, Anderson and Lynch propose that these three knowledge sources are drawn on, interactively, to understand the meaning (see also Schwanenflugel, Harnishfeger, & Stowe, 1988), which suggests that linguistic information (i.e., systemic knowledge in Anderson and Lynch's framework) is not the exclusive source we depend on to extract the message. That is, during oral communication, we relate what is being said to previous knowledge that we have (i.e. schematic knowledge), which enables us to make very effective inferences about the message in question. Likewise, we refer the message to the array of utterances that are likely to be conveyed given the nature of the situational context or to what has been said previously (i.e., contextual knowledge), by which we narrow down the range of probable meanings that we may encounter and maximize the chance of our deductions about meaning working. Skehan (1998) then extends the application of Anderson and Lynch's model to output production as well. That is, in speech production, too, we depend on the three knowledge sources in order to arrive at the linguistic material for the conveyance of the message. What is of importance here is that the speaker frames what is to be said bearing in mind the comprehension capacity of the listener.

As will be discussed in Section 3.8, there are negative influences stemming from schematic and contextual knowledge on the growth of the dual language systems in adult L2 learners. Unlike children, adult L2 learners have to learn a new language utilizing, whether or not by choice, their existing schematic and contextual knowledge. While these two knowledge sources do help learners with comprehension and production in the L2, their usefulness can easily impinge on the need for the development of the dual systems. This is also an issue because their interlocutors (especially native speakers) are adept at extracting the intended meaning of erroneous learner speech with their schematic and contextual as well as systemic knowledge. Having derived the appropriate meaning, native speakers will not

feel the need to provide the learners with negative feedback on the language, which would instigate analysis on the learners' part.

3.3 Noticing, attention, and awareness

According to the Noticing Hypothesis proposed by Richard Schmidt (1990, 1994, 1995; Schmidt & Frota, 1986), there is no learning without *noticing*, and *attention* is necessary for noticing to occur. In order to fully understand Schmidt's concept, however, two key words need elucidation: namely, noticing and attention. First, as for attention, Tomlin and Villa (1994) see it as consisting of three separate but interrelated networks of *alertness/readiness* (i.e., attentional resources that are not depleted), *orientation* (i.e., allocation of attentional resources), and *detection* (i.e., recognition of input). Tomlin and Villa propose that (1) the cognitive process of detection is a necessary condition for any type of learning to take place, (2) alertness/readiness may promote orientation and detection, (3) orientation may facilitate or inhibit detection, and (4) awareness (in the sense of memory or understanding of something) also may enhance detection, because it may enhance the operation of alertness and orientation.

If we deconstruct the notion of attention in this way, then, the concept of noticing in L2 learning can be understood as involving some deeper cognitive process than mere detection. For example, when someone has noticed something, he or she may have (1) recognized a detected form as non-existent in his or her current L2 knowledge system (a phenomenon Doughty and Williams (1998) call *noticing a form*); (2) formed a hypothesis about a detected form; (3) realized that a particular part of what he or she said or wrote in the L2 was different from how a native speaker of the L2 would express it (referred to as *noticing a gap* by Schmidt and Frota (1986) and Swain (1995)); (4) rejected an interim rule in his or her L2 representational system (a further process of noticing a gap); (5) modified a hypothesis that was contradicted (a yet further process of noticing a gap); or (6) identified that a hypothesis

was confirmed (a rule-strengthening or exemplar-generation effect suggested by Skehan (1998)). Another attempt to characterize noticing has been made by Robinson (2003). According to Robinson, noticing is defined as detection plus awareness through either of two types of *rehearsal* in working memory: maintenance rehearsal (data-driven, instance-based processing) and elaborative rehearsal (conceptually driven, schema-based processing).

3.4 Working memory

In order to properly grasp Robinson's definition, then, the notion of working memory is in need of clarification. Models of working memory have been developed by cognitive psychologists since the beginning of the 1960s. According to Baddeley's (2000, 2007; Baddeley, et al., 1974) multicomponent model, working memory consists of four components: the phonological loop, the visuospatial sketchpad, the episodic buffer, and the central executive. Baddeley's model primarily postulates that different types of information are stored and manipulated in different working-memory workspaces (namely, the first three components), which are orchestrated and linked to long-term memory by the last component, the central executive.

Cowan's (1988, 1995, 2005) embedded-processes model, on the other hand, emphasizes the potentially infinite power of long-term memory that expedites the operation of working memory. According to Cowan's model, the performance of working memory can be highly restricted because attentional focus is only able to handle a small number of chunks at a time, three to five chunks in normal adults (Cowan, 2001).[10] What allows working memory to operate (potentially far) beyond its attentional limitations is a summoned subset of long-term memory, which is in the state of high activation in working memory. It is postulated that

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[10] The issue of the attentional capacity in working memory was first discussed by Miller (1956). Using the famous phrase *magical number seven*, Miller proposed that the maximum number of pieces of information that a young adult can sustain at a time in working memory is seven plus or minus two. The number proposed by Cowan is, then, about half of Miller's original proposal.

there is no limit to activation of representations in long-term memory. Thus, at any given moment, the more activation from long-term memory, the more that can be handled by working memory.

The last model of working memory reviewed in this section is the one proposed by Ericsson and Kintsch (1995). Exploring further the linkage between working memory and long-term memory, Ericsson and Kintsch argue that humans use skilled memory, termed *long-term working memory*, in most everyday tasks such as reading. When we comprehend the complex relations between thoughts expressed in a long novel or a scientific text, for instance, we must be able to manage a lot more than three or four or even seven chunks in working memory. According to Ericsson and Kintsch, we are capable of accomplishing such a cognitively demanding task because we can store most of the information needed to successfully carry out the task in long-term memory by means of linking that information to *retrieval structures*, which can be understood as readily retrievable constructions in long-term memory. By relying on retrieval structures, we only need to hold a minimal number of concepts in working memory serving as cues that are sufficient to retrieve everything connected to them by the retrieval structures. Ericsson and Kintsch refer to the quickly accessible information by way of retrieval structures that technically nullify the limit of attentional focus as long-term working memory.[11]

The study of working memory has produced different models, but these have been developed by specialists in cognitive psychology, not by language acquisition researchers. Thus, any attempt to make a connection between those models of working memory and the accounts of SLA proposed by language acquisition scholars has to be made carefully. In this dissertation, those assumptions in the model proposed by Ericsson and Kintsch are tentatively

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[11] See also Guida, Gobet, Tardieu and Nicolas (2012), Guida and Tardieu (2005), and Guida, Tardieu, and Nicolas (2009) for their proposal of the "personalisation method" as a way to operationalize the long-term working memory.

adopted.[12] The postulated long-term working memory by way of retrieval structures, then, can be interpreted as a potentially unlimited amount of operational information in working memory (either input from outside or self-generated output) that is attention-free and networked with the three sources of knowledge in long-term memory (see Section 3.2).

3.5 Transfer-appropriate processing

This dissertation has thus far given an overview of the processes by which formulaic sequences are acquired, and examined general cognitive accounts of learning with respect to working memory. In relation to the focus of this dissertation, namely the teaching of formulaic sequences, one other cognitive account of learning needs to be introduced: *transfer-appropriate processing*. Segalowitz and Lightbown (1999) argue that memory performance is largely regulated by the relationship between how information is initially encoded and how it is later retrieved. The idea is that when a person acquires new information, that information is encoded in a prompt-dependent or context-sensitive fashion; therefore, that person's successful retrieval of information previously learned is facilitated or lessened according to the extent to which the cognitive operations exerted at the time of recollection corresponds with those previously engaged in at the time of acquisition or learning. Segalowitz and Lightbown explain that this effect occurs because the internal cognitive state of the individual affords him or her clues to assist with recollection; if the retrieval cues triggered at the time of recollection match the cues encoded during learning of the information in question, then retrieval will be readily invoked (for empirical evidence see Blaxton, 1989; Roediger & Guynn 1996). As recently summarized by Segalowitz (2010):

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[12] For more extensive systematic reviews and comparison of theories of working memory, see the volumes edited by Miyake and Shah (1999) and Conway, Jarrold, Kane, Miyake, and Towse (2008).

the ease of retrieval (and hence the fluency of action dependent on that retrieval) will depend in large measure on the degree to which brain region activation patterns at the time of retrieval overlap the patterns that were active at the time of study. (p. 65)

The reason for introducing here the idea of transfer-appropriate processing is that it is closely related to the framework of the three knowledge sources reviewed in Section 3.2. That is, successful learning (and teaching) of a linguistic item, whether formulaic or grammatical, is expected to take place when its encoding coincides with simultaneous encoding in memory or activation of the schematic and/or contextual knowledge that will subsequently be called up in situations where the language item is being used. This thinking will be revisited when a synthesis of all the key ideas described so far is presented in Section 3.8.

3.6 Inherent difficulties of a linguistic feature

This section can be seen as supplementing the descriptions of the characteristics of formulaic language offered in Chapter 2, but here the focus is on identifying those features of FSs that make them difficult to learn, some of which especially pertain to adult L2 learners. In so doing, it applies the framework used in Matsuzaki (2011), which focuses on the article system and the difficulties it is notorious for presenting to Japanese EFL learners. The inherent difficulties of a linguistic item, whether formulaic or grammatical, can be measured from a number of perspectives, each of which is discussed here. What follows in this section are, therefore, the aspects of any linguistic feature that influence the relative ease or difficulty for cognitive operations reviewed in Sections 3.3 and 3.4.

3.6.1 Frequency

One category for assessing inherent FS difficulty has to do with the frequency of input that the learner receives. An item that occurs frequently in input, whether lexical or

grammatical in nature, has a better chance of being learned than one that is infrequent. For instance, there is little doubt that the sequence *not often* is learned before its less frequent equivalent *once in a blue moon*. A simple question then is whether to choose to teach less frequent items as they have less opportunities of being noticed by the learner, or whether to prioritize more frequent ones as infrequent ones are likely to be less useful.

3.6.2 Perceptual saliency

Another aspect that contributes to learning difficulty is perceptual saliency in input. For example, in oral communication, the definite *the* in most cases is unstressed and thus imperceptible, which makes the perceptual difference in meaning between *Do you have <u>time</u>?* vs. *Do you have <u>the time</u>?* nearly impenetrable for L2 learners. Given the pervasiveness of such articles in the case of English, then, relying solely on natural input seems fundamentally insufficient for learners to notice and eventually acquire formulaic sequences containing such perceptually non-salient features.

3.6.3 Communicative load

Another factor that can increase learning difficulty for an item, or part of a multiword string, is when it carries little communicative load. For example, as awkward as the utterance *If I am you, I will…* might sound to the ears of native English speakers, a non-native speaker would be able to deliver her or his intended message with the sentence in spite of the erroneous word usage. Since it is impossible for someone to be someone else, the communicative load of the use of past tense in a counterfactual sentence is low. There is nothing difficult for the hearer to understand in *If I am you, I will…* Even without the erroneous modal *will* there would be no diminishment of intelligibility. Compounding this difficulty for learners is the tendency in normal communication for native speakers to not bother to correct the error (except when they are indeed unsure of the message), as to do so

would cause unnecessary interruptions and impede the flow of communication. The tendency for such leniency on the part of native speakers is likely to be stronger in a foreign language context where they are accustomed to speech that is not nativelike.

3.6.4 Form-meaning-function complexity

An additional aspect of FSs that further explains their difficulty is the notorious complexity of the relationships between their form, surface meaning, and functions. A single example is offered here, but one which illustrates the point well. There are a great many examples that clearly show the functional complexity of formulaic sequences and the difficulties they cause L2 learners. The one offered here shows how there can be multiple layers of complexity even within a single FS.

Japanese learners overuse *will,* for example, in some situations and underuse it in others. So, where a native speaker might ask *Are you going out tonight?*, a Japanese learner will typically use *will.* Conversely, Japanese learners will not typically use the shortened form of *will* to make an offer, as in *I'll do it.* Nor indeed do advanced Japanese learners tend to use *will* as it has just been used twice here with *typically* and once more below in this paragraph with the same function but without *typically.* In addition to the form-function complexity of *will,* the statement *I will be going out* contains a potential form-function difficulty for learners in the *out/outside* distinction. Japanese learners often have difficulty grasping the semantic distinction between *out* and *outside.* Since *out* is used in so many ways that make the usage of the word very unclear to them, the word is not easy to use, and thus they will often say *go outside.*

3.6.5 Grammatical reliability

Adding to the form-function complexity are a huge number of idiomatic statements that do not follow syntactic conventions. For example, in the case of Japanese learners of English,

who often learn (basic) syntactic rules with common examples explicitly stated, fixed FSs that do not follow normal restrictions introduced in Section 2.3.1 (e.g., *on the go*, *That being said...*) can be opaque and therefore hard to learn (although the latter example can be deconstructed on the basis of the structural rules that Japanese learners are taught on those rare cases of the absolute participial construction). The English language has a great number of such grammatically irregular sequences. The fact that there is a large number of such special or exceptional cases contributes to a diminishment on the part of learners, and of their sense that there is a learnable systematicity underlying the language, thereby rendering the task of learning the language more daunting.

3.6.6 Complexity on the level of individual words

An additional complexity of FSs is whether a component word in a given formulaic sequence has multiple meanings and uses. This was touched on in the discussion of form-meaning-function complexity above (i.e., the *out/outside* distinction). On the face of it, the FSs *Nice to see you* and *Nice to meet you* are very simple, but there are subtle differences in their usage, with the latter being the more usual choice when meeting someone for the first time. One can imagine, however, saying *Nice to see you here* in the sense of welcoming someone to a group or club and also meeting someone for the first time.

The complexity of the phenomenon can be well understood if one looks at the many classifications in dictionaries for each of these words *see* and *meet*. Consider the range of semantic complexity in the word *see* alone, as evidenced in these examples:

> *I saw a plane in the sky. / You need to see a doctor. / Please see our website for more information. / Do you see what I mean? / Could you go and see what the problem is? / I don't see this as a problem. / Where do you see yourself in ten years? / The 21st century is going to see many more economic crises. / She is seeing someone* (as in dating).

Each one of the above uses of *see* can be associated with a particular FS. For example, the FS

I'll see what I can do is associated with the meaning of *see* as *investigate*, expressed by the above example *Could you go and see what the problem is?* Nonetheless, it is charged with the additional meaning (and therefore embodies another layer of complexity) of being willing to *try* something, and could also, in particular situations, carry the meaning of *wanting to help* someone.

This is not to mention all the further meanings and complexities associated with *see* as a phrasal verb. *I'll see you off at the airport* is no doubt metaphorically related to *We are going to see off the competition* but quite different in its usage.

3.7 The foreign language context

When evaluating the effectiveness of a particular L2 teaching method and the findings of intervention studies (see Chapter 4), two broad dichotomies that need to be clear for legitimate appraisal are (1) whether the learning context is that of a second or foreign language, and (2) whether the target population are adult (or adolescent or post-puberty) or child learners. In a foreign language context, there is a fundamental lack of input and opportunity to interact in the target language. There is no need for proficiency in the target language in everyday life. Quite predictably, then, the kind of pattern-based learning introduced in Section 2.6 will not take place even to a minimal degree in a foreign language context. Evaluation of the effectiveness of any teaching method in a foreign language context must take this problem of paucity of input into consideration. This dissertation deals with a foreign language context, that of English learners in Japan. Serious study of English normally starts in Japan after puberty, and thus the target population here is at least post-puberty or later learners of English. As touched on earlier (Sections 3.2 and 2.5), a target population of adult learners implies at least two things. First, they are already equipped with a broad range of schematic and contextual knowledge. While these two sources of knowledge aid comprehension and production, they can significantly hamper learning of linguistic items.

Second, when thrown into communicative tasks, they are under socio-interactional pressures (see Section 2.5), which divert their attention from analysis (compare VanPatten, 1990, 1993).

3.8 Language knowledge, processing and learning: an integrated model

All the accounts of language knowledge, processing and learning that have been introduced in this chapter and in Chapter 2 can be integrated into a unified model (Figure 3.1). What follows in this section is a description of this model as a means of summarizing its implications.
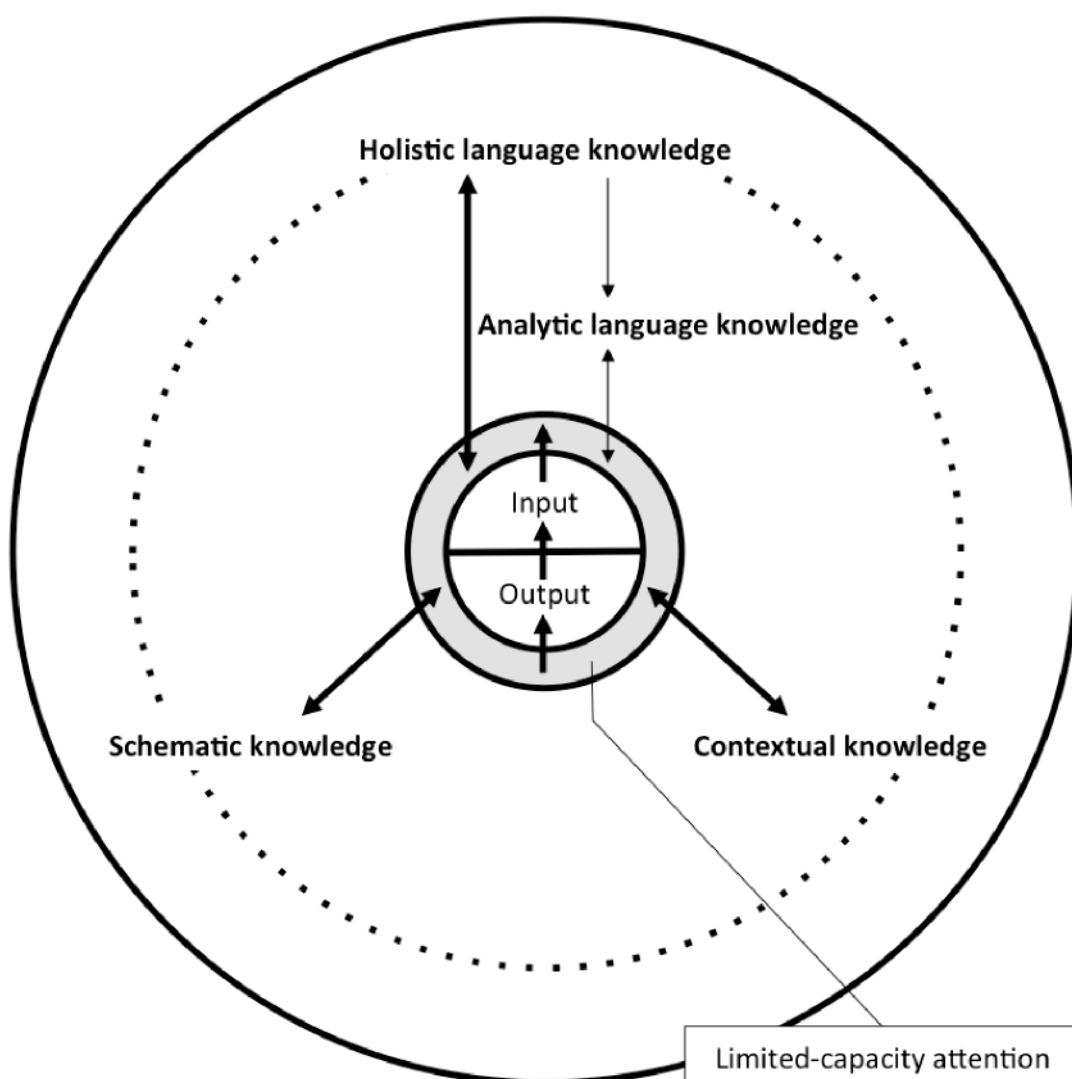
Figure 3.1. A unified model of language knowledge, processing, and learning.

The surrounding circle is intended to capture the entire memory system. The dotted line just inside the surrounding circle links the three major memory components in long-term memory (i.e., holistic language knowledge, schematic knowledge, and contextual knowledge [see Section 3.2]), indicating that these three are connected with and presumably inseparable from each other, although how any given piece of memory is stored in the network depends on the way in which the encoding has taken place (as indicated by the three arrows from limited-capacity attention, or more broadly speaking, working memory, [i.e., the gray-layered area inside of the dotted circle] toward these three knowledge sources). Following the concept of transfer-appropriate processing (see Section 3.5), memory retrieval depends largely upon the extent to which the cognitive operations, with the memory activated from these three knowledge sources that are required for later retrieval, resemble those operations engaged during the encoding phase. When limited-capacity attention (see Section 3.4) processes information, whether incoming data (placed at the upper half of the circle inside limited-capacity attention just for the sake of convenience) or language production (placed at the lower compartment), knowledge in those sources is invoked (as indicated by the three arrows from the knowledge sources toward limited-capacity attention). The arrow from output to input suggests that the quality of input from the interlocutor is determined by his or her interpretation of the response given. For instance, if the interlocutor feels that the comprehender is having difficulty understanding the input based on the output produced by the comprehender, he or she may adjust what follows in the communication in such a way as to facilitate comprehension.

More specifically, when working memory tackles the task of comprehending some incoming language, the chance of it being successfully understood first depends on its linguistic qualities (see Section 3.6). Schematic and contextual knowledge, then, support comprehension with holistic language knowledge. If there is some novelty that is not

susceptible to processing by holistic language available in the information processor's long-term memory, then, available analytic language may be called up in order to compensate for the inability of the holistic language memory. However, the qualities of the incoming linguistic data, which, in the case of conversation, can be manipulated to suit the processor's linguistic ability, and the readily retrievable long-term memory, are not the sole determiners affecting how successfully the data is processed in working memory. Processing demands, or more precisely, how the processor interprets the socio-interactional demands placed on him or her, can easily weaken the processing by draining limited-capacity attention, or at least direct attention away from analysis. In normal interactions between adults, the socio-interactional demands can easily reach a sufficiently high level to preoccupy working memory, with the result being that the limited attentional capacity is unable to make use of the potentially powerful but slow operation of analytic language memory.

Moving on to production, which is also architected in working memory, attention exerts the same cognitive operations as input comprehension. Thus, the default mode of processing is the use of information pooled in the three general knowledge bases, with analytic language knowledge bypassed. Analysis can be set in motion, but its operation is dependent, again, upon the weight of the processing demands perceived by the processor, which can be such that analysis is easily bypassed. Furthermore, incomplete output produced still has a chance of its message getting across, because the interlocutor also summons all resources available to him or her, and therefore, the processor is unlikely to engage in further analysis when his or her non-nativelike output, in the case of L2 learning, fulfills its intended function.[13]

What is processed in working memory, whether for comprehension or production, has a chance of being noticed for learning (see Section 3.3). When some learning does take place, the newly learned knowledge will enter into long-term memory (as indicated by the three thick arrows from attention), although the extent to which the new knowledge will stay in

memory, or be usable for later retrieval, rests on how it is connected with available memory, linguistically, contextually, and schematically, by means of 'transfer-appropriate' encoding. With regard to the development of analytic language knowledge, the pattern-based acquisition account (see Section 2.6) states that analytic knowledge in the sense of 'implicit knowledge' (see Section 4.4.4) is constructed and retrieved probabilistically (as indicated by the thin arrow from holistic language knowledge), particularly in the case of L1 acquisition. In the case of L2 learning, especially adults learning in an FL context, conversely, construction of grammatical knowledge based on pattern-based learning is unlikely to occur due to the paucity of input (see Section 3.7), and another type of analytic knowledge often referred to as 'explicit knowledge' (see Section 4.4.4), although presumably fundamentally different in shape and convenience, can be consciously learned in working memory and enter directly into analytic language knowledge base (as indicated by the thin arrow from attention). Finally, regardless of the type of noticing, the socio-interactional processing demands can easily prevent it from occurring, and specifically for adult L2 learning, available schematic and contextual knowledge can also easily interfere while at the same time aiding comprehension and production.

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[13] See also Skehan (1998) for the 'elliptical' nature of speech production.

CHAPTER 4

Teaching of formulaic sequences

4.1 Introduction

The current chapter aims to introduce the background to the study conducted for this dissertation first with a consideration of three fundamental questions that were raised in the review and synthesis offered in the previous chapters, then with a review of studies on text memorization that help to clarify the rationale for the present study.

The three central questions that have emerged in discussion so far are (1) *Should teaching practitioners focus on formulaic sequences in a foreign language context with the particular target population being adult learners?*, (2) *If they should, which formulaic sequences should they teach?*, and (3) *How should they teach the targeted items?* To answer the first question, a number of reasons for the teaching of formulaic language to this particular target population are put forward. Addressing the second and third questions, principles and proposals drawn from the ideas in the previous chapters are offered.

4.2 Rationale for focusing on FSs in teaching

The set of reasons for choosing to focus on formulaic sequences in teaching are outlined here. The primary motivation should be evident by now, however: the more readily available formulaic language is to a language user, the better prepared he or she is to stay in control within the chaos of authentic communication. Put another way, the more analytic processing a user has to exert, the less he or she can handle comprehension or production. Formulaic language makes it more likely for a person to accomplish the three types of socio-interactional goals (or functions) introduced in Section 2.3. Equally—or in the case of the adult FL learner more importantly—reliable formulaic language knowledge enables the language user to free up his or her attentional resources at a given moment, and the set-aside

attentional capacity can be directed toward a number of cognitive processes, including noticing (a necessary condition for any learning). Although formulaic sequences are, by their own nature, restrictive with regard to flexibility and novelty of expression, and can be construed as a 'straitjacket' for the language user (Wray & Fitzpatrick, 2010), flexibility in processing can ensue from opportunities for variation within formulaic word strings, and entirely new combinations can be generated at any point by switching to the analytic processing for the selection of smaller lexical units (Wray, 2002). All these claims strongly point to the recommendation that adult FL learners be supported in obtaining formulaic knowledge. Even though it is simply impossible for FL learners to be given encounters in the classroom that are sufficient to enable the ideal kind of underlying pattern extraction produced by native speakers, even a small amount of formulaic knowledge should be helpful in their overall L2 learning, giving them more than just holistic language knowledge, especially when they process the language outside of realtime communication. For example, it is easy to imagine a situation where a learner is explicitly studying a grammar rule and the metalinguistic knowledge is strengthened if exemplars in which the rule is embedded are already part of the learner's formulaic knowledge.[14]

4.3 What formulaic sequences should be taught?

The choice of which formulaic sequences to teach is rather difficult. Since class time is limited, practitioners need to make careful choices as to which ones to focus on in their classes. Although criteria are hard to agree on, 'serviceable' sequences are probably the best candidates. In determining which are serviceable, however, it is important that practitioners do not blindly rely upon corpus frequency data, but rather continually assess their students' needs and wants in order to be able to make on-demand selections.

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[14] The converse of this would be the case when FL learners are first equipped with metalinguistic rules, then later encounter exemplars containing those rules and are able to recognize the exemplars as manifestations of some underlying rules that they have previously studied (see Section 4.4.4).

While it may be difficult to determine what messages a given group of students will find beneficial for their current and future language use, there seem to be at least a few non-controversial recommendations that can inform the selection of items. One is to focus on flexible formulaic sequences (see Section 2.3.1). The versatility or flexibility of formulaic sequences that are made up of frames with slots makes them good candidates. Nekrasova (2009) found that L2 learners rely more on fixed multiword units than on flexible ones, and points to the possibility that the composition (and potential versatility) of a flexible sequence is difficult for learners to grasp in the first place. Therefore, although learning just one or two example possibilities out of a flexible sequence is unlikely to be enough to gain procedural knowledge of the versatility of that sequence, there is good reason to expect, as discussed in the previous section, that the knowledge can facilitate deeper learning of the sequence in future encounters. Another recommendation would be to teach figurative multiword strings (see Section 2.3.2). If the learners' objective is to approximate to a nativelike level, figurative sequences can be the biggest challenge. Even if the goal is not that high, a carefully selected set of such items should be introduced to learners of all levels because, like it or not, native speakers will use those items as their natural choice. At least for the sake of comprehension, in this case, the most frequently used figurative FSs should be taught. The last recommendation here has to do with the teaching of formulaic sequences consisting entirely of words that are familiar to learners. In the study by Peters (2012), an additional review of which will be given in the next section, her participants were asked to copy words and phrases from a text that they felt merited attention, and even though the students were briefed about the importance of formulaic language, they tended to write down unfamiliar single words rather than the complete formulaic sequence in which these words appeared. This finding, then, points to the possibility that formulaic sequences consisting entirely of known words for learners may not attract their attention.

4.4 How should formulaic sequences be taught?

For teaching in any situation to be successful, the question of 'how' to teach is likely to be as important as that of 'what' to teach, and probably more important in most cases. Accordingly, this section is going to consider the potential effectiveness of a number of different ways to teach formulaic sequences.

4.4.1 Input enhancement

Unobtrusive instructional means, collectively referred to as 'input enhancement' techniques (Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993), might be a candidate to effectively teach formulaic sequences. In a recent study, Peters (2012) investigated the effect of typographic enhancement and of glossing, a form of input enhancement, on retention. Peters found that the participants in the treatment group, who worked on texts with typographic enhancement (underlining and bold font), were better able to recollect glossed formulaic sequences from reading with the enhancement. One methodological issue with her study, however, is that the students had been informed that a vocabulary posttest would follow, and therefore, they may have made more of an effort to remember the highlighted items in the text than those that were not highlighted. For another more recent example, Webb, Newton, and Chang (2013) explored the effects of input flooding, another well-known technique of input manipulation, on facilitating learning of formulaic sequences. Webb, Newton, and Chang incorporated 18 verb-noun sets (e.g., *buy time*; *cut corners*; *lose touch*) in a graded reader and prepared four versions, differing in the number of times each of those collocations appeared: only once, five times, 10 times, and 15 times. The intermediate-level EFL learner participants, who were randomly assigned to four groups working on one version different from the other three, read the story while listening to a recording of it, and their retention of the target collocations was measured by unannounced immediate posttests. Not surprisingly, the more often a collocation was repeated, the higher the recall of the given collocations in the posttests, with tests on

receptive knowledge showing better scores than tests on productive knowledge. However, as many as 15 encounters in such a short amount of time was still far from a guarantee for full scores on any of the posttests. For instance, even after 15 encounters, collocations were correctly recalled only half of the time in the L1-cued productive knowledge test. Those who encountered the collocations only once in the text did not gain better posttest scores than the control participants who had not even read the text. The results of this study, therefore, suggest that if the goal of teaching formulaic sequences is to bring about productive knowledge, input enhancement may not be an optimal way.

4.4.2 Chunking in text comprehension

A little less unobtrusive intervention on input processing than input enhancement may be text chunking. As an example, Boers, Eyckmans, Kappel, Stengers, and Demecheleer (2006) investigated the effect of awareness raising through text chunking. The treatment group in their study, a group of advanced EFL learners, worked on text chunking as a regular activity in the course of a school year, while the contrast group engaged in other activities using the same texts. During the course-end interview, the students in both groups were asked to orally retell the content of a new English text. Boers et al. report that significantly more formulaic sequences were found in the narratives produced by the students in the treatment group. However, Boers and Lindstromberg (2012) point out that this was because those students recycled more word strings verbatim from the new text, while the comparison group tended to incorporate just single words from the text into their retelling. Stengers, Boers, Housen, and Eyckmans (2010) replicated the study by Boers et al. with a slight methodological change. In Stengers et al., with a view to avoiding the possibility of recycling language verbatim from the input text for the L2 retell task, they used an input text in the L1 of their participants (new cohorts of language majors). Pretest-posttest comparisons showed no significant difference in the uptake of formulaic sequences between the participants that

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had regularly engaged in text chunking and those that had not. The results of these two studies suggest that simply directing learner attention to multiword segmentations is insufficient to leave durable memory traces, although it may potentially push learners' mode of processing toward being more holistic, a possibility speculated on by Boers and Lindstromberg (2012).

4.4.3 Exercise of schematic and contextual knowledge

If the assumption that three inter-related sources of schematic, contextual, and language knowledge (see Section 3.2) are stored in our memory is accurate, then there is an attractive proposal for the teaching of formulaic sequences that follows logically, and which also resonates, in a way, with transfer-appropriate processing (see Section 3.5). This proposal is to invoke and engage learners' schematic and contextual knowledge in the encoding of formulaic sequences. The fundamental principle of this idea seems to be closely related to the dual coding hypothesis proposed by Paivio (1986) and Sadoski (2005). This dual coding hypothesis assumes that cognition occurs in two independent but connected codes, that is, a verbal code for language and a nonverbal code for mental imagery, and it holds that concrete vocabulary is easier to remember than abstract vocabulary. Concreteness is strongly associated with imageability (Hamilton & Rajaram, 2001)[15], and the imageability of something presumably depends largely on the extent to which one's schematic and contextual knowledge is applicable to the creation of its image. For an example of the imageability effects of certain types of formulaic sequences (most notably figurative idioms), Steinel, Hulstijn, and Steinel (2007) showed that idioms that evoke a mental picture relatively often (e.g., *stick to your guns*) were better retained in an L1—L2 paired associates learning experiment than idioms which less readily call up an image (e.g., *hang fire*). This line of

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[15] The use of mental imagery is at the core of teaching approaches to idioms inspired by ideas from cognitive semantics (e.g., Boers & Lindstromberg, 2005; Lakoff, 1987).

thinking is also applicable to the learning of formulaic sequences comprised of familiar and unfamiliar words. Hsu (2010) and Kasahara (2010, 2011), for instance, show that collocation learning fosters recall of a new word contained in the collocation at least as well as learning the new word as a single item. In fact, once the collocation is learned, the word which was already familiar (e.g., *business*) can serve as a cue for the recall of its newly learned syntagmatic partner (e.g., *acumen*). Their studies indicate the power of syntagmatic learning of familiar plus unfamiliar word strings.

4.4.4 Teaching grammar to facilitate formulaic learning

The claim for teaching grammar in order to foster the learning of formulaic sequences might at first sound contradictory. Given the arguments laid out thus far, however, the claim should not come as a surprise. The generative potential of a multiword string consisting of fixed frames with open (though in many cases semantically constrained) slots can be harnessed at a maximum level only if the language user is familiar with the underlying blueprint. However, the adult L2 learner has tremendous difficulty extracting the pattern just through normal communicative engagement in the language. Therefore, instruction for familiarizing learners with explicit grammar rules, that is, getting them to gain explicit knowledge about the language (e.g., N. Ellis, 2005; Krashen, 1981; Takashima, 2011), is doubtlessly beneficial for them. Explicit knowledge is not as serviceable as implicit knowledge of the language in realtime language processing. Nevertheless, given that adults learning in a foreign language context seriously lack input from which to implicitly extract underlying patterns (see Section 2.6 for pattern-based language acquisition) on the one hand, and do not enjoy the socio-interactional protection of the bubble while having reliable resources of schematic and contextual knowledge on the other, reliance on explicit grammar knowledge, albeit not derived from implicit knowledge and thus not as convenient, seems the only viable option left for them if they are striving to approximate to nativelike proficiency.

The more explicit knowledge they have, the more successfully they can engage in analysis, both within and outside of communicative engagement.

4.4.5 Use of interactionally non-demanding tasks

When teaching learners to develop their communication skills, the success of which, it should be clear by now, depends largely upon the use of formulaic language, there is no question about the fundamental importance of engaging them in actual communication (because that is ultimately the only place where transfer-appropriate processing for authentic communication can take place). The case also has been established, however, that in normal communication, they predominantly rely on their existing formulaic language knowledge with little chance of learning sequences that are deemed 'difficult' for them because of a combination of factors contributing to their inherent learning difficulty covered in Section 3.6. This is so because their limited attention capacity is exhausted in managing the socio-interactional demands that are placed on them or that they perceive to be so, and when the language knowledge readily available to them is not helpful enough, their schematic and contextual knowledge is called up, allowing them to bypass time-consuming and attentionally-draining "online" analytical computation. Even if there is a residue of attentional resources available at a given time, it is hypothesized that this is not directed, unless ingeniously directed otherwise, toward linguistic analysis (VanPatten, 1990, 1993). Grammatical analysis of formulaic sequences, even known ones, is far less likely because morpho-syntactic features carry, in most cases, less communicative load (or significance for comprehension or message conveyance). Guiding them to process language without recourse to their schematic and contextual knowledge is a tall order in the first place, and also inadvisable in the light of the discussion above (Section 4.4.3). The crucial stumbling block, then, is the non-existence of the social 'bubble' (see Section 2.5). Wray (2000) commented that "[a]rguably, the classroom offers such a bubble" (p. 481). She seems to suggest this in

regard to classroom communicative activities—I draw this conclusion based on the context of the discussion in that paper. I am compelled to add that it really depends, especially when teaching mono-demographic adult learners in a foreign language context. To start with, the teacher needs to be proficient enough to create and keep such a bubble in the target language. Second, the extent to which he or she is successfully able to do so depends heavily on the complex combinations of the class size, level (or differing levels) of the students, their motivation, and other factors that affect language learning within a classroom. Last, but equally non-negligible, the effects of the socio-interactional norms in their L1, which are, at least in the case of Japanese students learning English in Japan, quite different from those normally expected in the L2, are in most cases inevitable in communicating with other students having the same cultural background, thereby putting extra pressure on communication, even if it is in the L2. As Wray added in the same paper, "the best analytic learning will occur in a context in which there are no interactional challenges or surprises" (p. 482). In summary, while the requirement for communicative tasks for the development of communication is never negated, it appears to me that there also has to be some teaching place, not authentically communicative in nature, where students feel non-threatened to be communicatively operational, and therefore able to devote their attention toward analysis of language whether lexical in nature or grammatical.

4.4.6 Text memorization

Text memorization, a form of interactionally unchallenging learning, can be one useful way to help students to learn formulaic sequences. Clearly, there has been general reservation in the language teaching profession about employing a repeat-and-memorize approach in class although, as touched on in Chapter 1, there are teachers who have a favorable view toward the effectiveness of memorization. This reservation is largely "due to long-rehearsed criticisms of audiolingual-type approaches and justifiable skepticism about the value of any

kind of 'parrot learning' which too readily tries to instill grammatical accuracy in the absence of communicative motivation" (Wray & Fitzpatrick, 2010, p. 3). There is no objection to the skepticism, but the primary objective of text memorization as it is presented here is not the (immediate) development of grammatical accuracy, but rather the nurturing of holistic language sensitivity, awareness, and knowledge. The word strings in what is memorized are expected to help the learner fulfill the three socio-interactional functions as well as save attentional capacity for other cognitive processes.

If text memorization is to be employed in the classroom, there are at least three ways to increase its efficacy. The first one is the simplest: Have the students memorize as many formulaic sequences as possible under the teaching circumstances. The benefits of holistic language knowledge have been claimed over and over again in this dissertation. The benefits outweigh any potential disadvantages. The second approach is slightly contentious: Have the students memorize lengthy texts.[16] One of the studies to be reviewed in the next section (Wray, 2004) is one such attempt and, as will be reviewed, this approach seems promising. Although the question of how readily the large quantity of material temporarily stored in working memory will be available for later retrieval is a different matter, this is an area for further investigation. The last proposal of text memorization, especially when the main goal of instruction is to develop the students' communication ability, is this: Have the students memorize conversational turns. One such attempt was made in another study reviewed in the next section (Fitzpatrick & Wray, 2006; Wray & Fitzpatrick, 2008, 2010). As will be discussed, this approach also seems promising.

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[16] Miller (1956), Bower (1969) and Simon (1974) have shown how chunking information into single complex units enlarges the total quantity of material that can be stored in working memory.

4.4.7 Final comments on how to teach formulaic sequences

The above is certainly not a comprehensive list of how instructors can assist their students in learning formulaic sequences, yet it covers for the most part what is pertinent to this dissertation. This section will close with three important notes concerning this how-to-teach issue. First, not only are there many instructional techniques for teachers, a choice for any given class or lesson does not have to incorporate a single technique. There is no reason not to combine multiple techniques for a class or lesson. For example, Jones and Haywood (2004) employed a wider range of techniques to raise their students' awareness of formulaic language in an English for academic purposes (EAP) course. In their study of over 10 weeks, the treatment group participants were instructed to (1) highlight sequences in texts, (2) discuss in groups the usefulness of those sequences for EAP writing, using concordance lines to investigate their usage patterns, and (3) recycle the encountered sequences in writing tasks. At the end of the treatment, those students showed a significantly greater formulaic awareness than the contrast group.

Second, though a controversial argument, the ultimate goal in teaching formulaic sequences, especially in an FL context, should not be the pursuit of nativelike performance. To begin with, this is a virtually impossible goal, except for exceptional language learners. Much of the literature regarding the learning and teaching of formulaic sequences seems to be too oriented toward nativelike proficiency, although it is understandable given the battle with the Chomskyan account of language. Of course, it would be an ideal outcome, but again, research to date strongly suggests it to be highly unlikely. What needs to be remembered is that all the three socio-interactional functions fulfilled by nativelike formulaic language can be accomplished by language which is not nativelike, or by other non-linguistic means, because the desired functions are socio-interactional. The main goal of teaching formulaic sequences, thus, should be the provision of what Dechert (1985) calls 'islands of reliability'

in online language processing, which not only help learners handle realtime communication but also can save attentional resources for further language learning.

Lastly, is there an overarching goal of classroom language instruction, and if so, what is it? While the answer may differ from teacher to teacher, few teachers would deny that it is important to have a positive impact on students, to influence them in such a way that they feel positive about further study, even after they leave the class. Earlier I pointed out that class time is limited, and we cannot possibly teach all the important formulaic sequences. If a teacher believes whatever technique(s) he or she is employing in a class to be effective, I believe it is also part of their job to get the students to have the same level of appreciation and trust about the efficacy of the given technique(s). No doubt there is a variety of preferences. However, a teacher would not employ a technique or a combination of techniques that he or she does not really believe will work for at least the majority of the students in a given class. Successful classroom teaching, then, would not only bring about some learning outcomes, whether immediate or delayed ones, but also favorably influence the attitude of a majority of the students toward the approach adopted for them.

4.5 Review of studies on text memorization

As briefly noted in Chapter 1, there is a substantial inadequacy of adult L2 studies on the effects of text memorization (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2012; Dai & Ding, 2010). Of those scarce studies, this section reviews four recent noteworthy investigations into such effects. The first two studies reviewed are qualitative in nature, whereas the other two are quantitative experiments. These studies on the whole indicate that text memorization or recitation leads to the learning of formulaic language, and the particularities of each study have also spawned various insights into ideas for future research on teaching L2 formulaic sequences.

4.5.1 Wray's (2004) study

Wray (2004) examined the performance of an adult learner taking part in the British television program "Welsh in a Week." A novice learner of Welsh studied a considerable amount of formulaic sequences in order to become sufficiently fluent with a limited amount of Welsh for meeting the challenge of a public presentation. After four days of instruction, the learner successfully performed a cooking demonstration in her L2. The findings of Wray's study suggest that verbatim memorization of lengthy stretches of text may support oral performance of learners, or at least of lower-level learners (given that the learner in her study was a beginner). Wray also found, however, that although the learner knew that she would be most successful if she simply memorized the material given to her, five months after her performance she had committed typical learner errors in what she remembered of the original text, indicating that adult learners are inclined to process linguistic material through their distinctive analytic filter, and therefore the teaching of formulaic material to them may be a tremendous challenge. While this study clearly shows that having a learner memorize a long text can increase the quality of speech production, it is not clear whether a learner can keep engaging in such a mentally challenging task with different texts for a much longer duration of time, such as an academic semester, and still display high-quality performance. Nor is it clear whether bits and pieces of word strings in the memorized text can be retrieved during rather impromptu speech production tasks.

4.5.2 Wray and Fitzpatrick's (2008, 2010; Fitzpatrick & Wray, 2006) study

Wray and Fitzpatrick (2008, 2010; Fitzpatrick & Wray, 2006) published a study in which adult ESL learners were required to memorize nativelike conversational turns for future interactions. Their study devised discrete cycles of preparation, practice, and conversations with native speakers. First, the participants each worked with a native speaker of English to identify conversations or transactions, related to their own real-life needs that

they would have in the near future with native speakers. Next, the participants explained to the native speaker what they would expect to say during the targeted encounters, and together they prepared sets of appropriate nativelike utterances. The learners then learned these models by heart through rehearsal, after which they engaged in the targeted authentic conversations with native speakers. The findings of Wray and Fitzpatrick' study suggest that even entirely fixed phrases can be highly beneficial in conversation, while extreme circumstances, as in where unexpected turns show up in the conversation, also reveal tenacious weaknesses that are intrinsic to a predominant reliance on formulaic material. Wray and Fitzpatrick also found that not all participants regarded this model of utterance storage and retrieval as useful, thus indicating the existence of individual differences in preferred learning strategies (see also Fitzpatrick & Wray, 2006; Wray & Fitzpatrick, 2008). Their study invites the question of the extent to which memorization of texts that are prepared prior to instruction can promote learning of the formulaic sequences therein.

4.5.3 Yu's (2009) study

Yu (2009) conducted an experimental study investigating whether two different means of learning the word sequence *despite the fact (that)* result in differential outcomes of the learning of the syntactic rules embedded in the word string, which according to Yu, are problematic for Chinese learners of English owing to L1 transfer. While the contrast group of the study was given direct instruction on the grammatical aspect of the word string *despite the fact (that)*, the treatment group was instructed to commit to memory the word string through recitation without being given any explicit information about the rules. It was found that the recitation group significantly outperformed the grammar instruction group in the L1-to-L2 translation test. Yu claims that the result lends support to the facilitative roles that rote memorization can play in fostering the learning of formulaic sequences. One unique quality of Yu's study is that not only were the students in the recitation group directed to

memorize the target item, but they also passed the recitation test given to them before the post-test. This suggests that the better result from the treatment group in Yu's study may have been because the students in that group actually recited the text, rather than were just told to memorize it on their own. In-class recitation activities, therefore, have the potential to promote the learning of formulaic sequences. One question and two cautions are in order, however. First, Yu's study focused only on *despite the fact (that)*, so what would have happened if multiple or even a large number of formulaic sequences had been targeted? Will the same result as Yu's be observed if many items are taught at a time or over the course of, say, one academic semester? Second, the translation test used in Yu's study was in a written format. Would those students in the treatment group have been able to outperform the contrast group if there had been a speaking test? Last, although *despite the fact (that)* was the sole target item, the translation test gave the students *'despite'* as part of the prompt. Thus, the results should be interpreted with caution.

4.5.4 Dai and Ding's (2010) study

Dai and Ding (2010) engaged one group of EFL students in text memorization involving verbatim recitation, during daily independent study time in the course of a school term. Another group, in contrast, was given discretion as to how to use their allotted study time to work with the English texts. In the writing assignments at the end of the term, the text memorization group was found to use more varied and more accurate formulaic sequences than the other group. The findings of Dai and Ding's study indicate that text memorization can be an effective second language learning strategy. The contrasting performance of the two groups at least shows that this strategy is more cost-effective than other strategies tried out by the non-memorization group, because the total amount of time spent in learning on their own was controlled so as to be equal. Another major finding from the Dai and Ding study, revealed by a comparison of high and low achievers, is that low achievers overall

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benefited more from the text memorization than high achievers, indicating that the method produces more positive effects on formulaic learning when targeting lower-level learners. Their findings on the whole suggest that teachers should be encouraged to employ such practice and engage students in imitating and memorizing the collocations and sequences in the input in order to improve the quality of their output. One limitation of their study, however, is that they measured the participants' improvement only through writing. There are thus two cautions in interpreting their findings. First, since the measurement was done through composition writing, the students were free from the kind of socio-interactional pressure reviewed earlier, and as such, they might have been able to attend to the formal aspect of their production more than in speaking. Second, because they were given 40 minutes to compose their writing, the students were also not under the same level of timed pressure as normal oral communication would impose.

CHAPTER 5

Methodology

5.1 Introduction

Chapters 2 through 4 reviewed relevant research offering theoretical accounts of the nature of formulaic sequences, and on processing, use, and learning of such sequences, specifically by adult language learners in foreign language contexts. Chapter 4 also reviewed past studies that investigated the effects of instructional interventions in teaching formulaic sequences to L2 learners. In the course of this literature review, it was suggested that the following four perspectives were lacking in the research currently available. First, little is known regarding the extent to which, over an extended period of time, memorization can occur by directing learners to memorize a large volume of language material prepared beforehand that contain FSs. Forgetting is no doubt inevitable; however, we acquire knowledge and skills through repeated encounters of the same material. There is a first time for everything. Thus, it does matter how much language a particular type of instruction gets the students to actually memorize, even if some or most of it gets forgotten over time. Second and more specifically, as far as the literature review is concerned, no study to date has tested the differential effects of having learners engage in memorizing the same set of material with different cognitive loads. With respect to the present study, can it be said that engaging learners in memorizing only select targeted parts of a text results in the same level of learning as engaging them in memorizing the entire text? If lowered cognitive processes can bring about similar or even better outcomes, then they are more time-efficient. Third, it was also shown that little or no research has been conducted on the extent to which different techniques designed and implemented to have learners memorize a lengthy text for an extended period of time will result in differential effects on the learners' attitude toward memorization as a way to develop their oral proficiency. Lastly, rather surprisingly, few

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researchers have used measures of time-pressed speech production that would allow them to directly investigate the ability of their subjects to readily use the target FSs that they had studied under specific instructional designs.

5.2 Research questions

Based on the need for research into these areas, this dissertation aimed to investigate the effects of engaging EFL university students in two types of recitation, over an extended period of time, of a large volume of dialogs prepared prior to instruction as a way to encourage them to memorize linguistic material containing useful FSs, to use those FSs in speech production, and to continue memorization of such useful language chunks on their own, even after instruction. The following five research questions were thus set.

- Research Question 1: Do 'whole text' and 'partial text' recitation of a large volume of useful dialogs, prepared in advance of instruction, engage foreign language classroom learners in memorization over the course of one semester, and is there a significant difference between the two in their facilitative effect?

- Research Question 2: Does engaging foreign language classroom learners in the 'whole text' and 'partial text' dialog recitation specified in RQ1 facilitate formulaic speech production, and is there a significant difference between the two in their facilitative effect?

- Research Question 3: Does engaging foreign language classroom learners in the 'whole text' and 'partial text' dialog recitation specified in RQ1 facilitate speech fluency as measured by syllables per minute, and is there a significant difference between the two in their facilitative effect?

- Research Question 4: Does engaging foreign language classroom learners in the 'whole text' and 'partial text' dialog recitation specified in RQ1 favorably affect their

attitude toward text memorization as a means to develop their oral communication skills, and is there a significant difference between the two in their effect?

- Research Question 5: What variables may have been at play that can explain the differences in performance of high and low achievers?

5.3 Pilot testing

Draft items for the tests to measure use of formulaic sequences in speech production and the questionnaires to define learners' attitudes and beliefs in relation to various aspects of the learning of their target language (English), as well as their reflections on their study for the class in question (see Sections 5.4.2.3.1 and 5.4.2.3.2), were piloted on 31 Japanese university students attending an English course taught by the researcher in the spring semester of 2012. These students were comparable to the eventual participants in the treatment groups of the main study, because those in the treatment groups were given the finalized speaking tests and questionnaires while taking the same course. Even though the instruments were overall found to be informative and to have acceptable test characteristics, some minor issues were spotted when the researcher was observing the pilot students taking the tests and the surveys and when he was analyzing the data. Thus, the parts involving those issues were revised. For instance, a few prompts in the speech production tasks contained some English phrases that were re-used in some pilot participants' responses, so such instruction was taken out. Another significant change was also made to the number of items in the surveys. The number of items in the pilot study appeared to be too large for the participants to manage. The questionnaire was designed to follow the guidelines set for questionnaire research by Brown, Dörnyei, and Oppenheim (Brown, 2001; Dörnyei, 2010; Oppenheim, 1992); namely, the use of multi-item (summative) scales to assess mental variables not readily observable by direct means (e.g., attitudes, beliefs, opinions, interests, values, aspirations, expectations, and other personal variables). However, the decision was

made to radically reduce the total number of items, while still retaining each one of the multi items addressing one factor. As a consequence, the reliability of the results was lowered. This possible or likely trade-off was adopted in this study on the grounds that 1) load on students should not be too heavy; 2) results of the pilot study showed consistent responses to differently worded items asking about the same point; and 3) the language used to complete this survey was their native language.

5.4 The main study

This section provides details of the main study, conducted after the pilot testing period. The participant characteristics, instruments used, and procedures followed are explained in detail. The dialog materials developed for the study and the different kinds of instruction provided to the participants are listed, and are then followed by descriptions of the measurement tools utilized in the study, that is, the speaking tests, questionnaires, and quasi-interviews. Following this section, a brief summary is given of the statistical analyses employed in this study.

5.4.1 Participant characteristics

Three groups of political science and economics majors in Meiji University, a leading private university in Japan, participated in this study. Two of the three groups were treatment groups, and the third one was set up as a contrast group. Treatment Group 1 (TG1) consisted of 12 students (male: 9, female: 3) who were in either one of two English classes focusing on study-abroad preparation taught by the researcher in the spring semester of 2013. The two classes followed the same course syllabus. The only difference was that one of them accommodated freshmen and sophomores while the other one was for juniors and seniors.

Treatment Group 2 (TG2) consisted of another 12 students (male: 8, female: 4) who were again in either one of two English classes taught by the researcher in the spring

semester of 2014. These two classes followed the same course syllabus of the classes the TG1 students were taking. As will be described in detail below, while the participants in TG1 were encouraged to memorize all of the dialogs that were specially prepared for this study, those in TG2 were only required to commit to memory particular parts of those dialogs that contained the formulaic sequences of the focus of this study.

The last group, the Contrast Group (CG), was comprised of 11 students (male: 8, female: 3) who were in either one of yet another two English classes taught by the researcher in the spring of 2014. The contents and target populations of these two classes differed: one was a TOEFL iBT preparation class for first and second year students, and the other an oral communication-oriented class for third and fourth year students. Thus, a total of 35 university students participated in this study. Importantly, this small sample size clearly presented a statistical problem: Could the results obtained from such a small sample be generalizable to the target population? Ultimately, the case for this study needs to be verified by more substantial follow-up studies with far more participants. However, the present study did address some primary issues that have not been explored in relevant past research, and it is therefore hoped that this study will serve as a starting point for further related studies.[17]

5.4.2 Instruments and procedures

This subsection first offers an overview of the dialog materials developed for this study and the different instructional interventions given to the participants. This overview is then followed by a sub-subsection in which the speaking tests administered, the questionnaires conducted, and the quasi-interviews given are explained in turn.

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[17] Last, but not least in importance, this study could have obtained additional data from at least 13 other students. Discussion of those students will be given in Chapter 7 (Section 7.8).

5.4.2.1 Dialog materials

Before conducting the pilot study (see Section 5.3), the researcher developed 66 model

English dialogs (3,182 words in total) that would be the language material worked on by the

participants in TG1 and TG2. Bearing in mind the variety of communicative situations that

the students may encounter when studying abroad, the researcher designed these dialogs

based on his own study-abroad experience and with the help of two native speakers. Attempts

were made to design the content to be motivating enough for students in TG1 and TG2, who

were all either planning to study or considering studying abroad in the near future. The

dialogs prepared can be roughly categorized in terms of the following three sets of scenes.

The first set contained particular scenes that students will experience when traveling abroad:

e.g., going through immigration at the airport, making complaints about a hotel room at the

front desk, making orders at a restaurant or fast food shop, asking for directions to the nearby

post office, asking for a discount in shopping. The second set was about possible exchanges

between a student and a university professor: asking a question in class, asking for an

extension of submitting an essay, thanking the professor for writing a recommendation letter,

and so forth. The last set included a variety of potential campus conversations: meeting for

the first time, talking about family, asking for help, asking for advice, talking about last

weekend, talking about plans during a long vacation, an invitation to an evening gathering,

bumping into each other near the campus, gossiping about a classmate, saying good-bye

when finishing school, and so on.[18] The scripts, along with their Japanese translations, were

packaged in a booklet (see Appendix A), a copy of which was given to each participant in

Treatment Groups 1 and 2. Sample dialogs are provided below.[19]

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[18] There was another set of dialogs designed for exchanges between a Japanese student and an overseas student. Those dialogs were meant for Japanese students who would meet a foreign friend again overseas or back in Japan.

[19] Half of the dialogs were video-recorded and the other half audio-recorded, and all video and audio data were made available on YouTube. Additionally, approximately half of each set were designed to be relatively short dialogs compared to the length of the other half of the same set. These differences and use of YouTube were deliberate, and this study addressed issues surrounding these. These are,

Dialog 60: Problem/Request@hotel

		English	Japanese
Guest	1	Hi. Morning.	お早うございます。
Clerk	2	Good morning, sir. Did we sleep well last night?	お早うございます。昨夜はよく眠れましたか？
Guest	3	Yes. Well, ...	はい・・・
Clerk	4	How can I help you?	いかがされましたか？
Guest	5	Well, uh, my room's air-conditioner, it doesn't seem to be working properly. Could you send someone to fix it?	えーとですねぇ、部屋のエアコンなんですけど、ちゃんと動いていないようなんです。誰かに直しに来てもらえませんか？
Clerk	6	Ah, sorry, sorry. I'll get on it right away, sir.	誠に申し訳ございませんでした。ただちに。
Guest	7	And, uh, can I use a safety deposit box?	あと、セーフティ・ボックス使えますか？
Clerk	8	Sure. Uh, please fill in this form.	もちろんです。こちらのシートにご記入ください。
Guest	9	All right.	わかりました。

Type 2: Talks between a student and a university professor

Dialog 08: What's going to happen next?

		English	Japanese
Prof. Z.	1	OK, finally, do we have any questions? Yes.	さて、最後に、質問はありますか？はい。
Takeshi	2	What's going to happen next to the Japanese economy?	日本経済は、次にどうなりますか？
Prof. Z.	3	Hmm, I thought you were gonna ask that. The Japanese economy. Well, the Japanese economy, I'm afraid, is not looking so good. Mm. And unless the government does something about it, and even if they do something about it, I'm not really sure.	ふーむ、そのことを聞かれると思いました。日本経済ですね。えー、日本経済は、残念ながら、あまり展望は良くありません。そして、政府が何かしなければ、また、仮に彼らが何かをしたとしても、私にはよくわかりません。
Takeshi	4	Oh, it's bad.	良くないですね。
Prof. Z.	5	It's bad. Study hard.	良くないです。勉強、頑張ってください。
Takeshi	6	Hm, OK, I will.	はい、頑張ります。

however, outside the focus of this dissertation and to be discussed in forthcoming papers.

Type 3: Conversations between university students

Dialog 06: Brothers/sisters

		English	Japanese
Joe	1	Do you have any brothers or sisters?	兄弟（姉妹）いる？
Takeshi	2	What do you think?	どうだと思う？
Joe	3	OK, let me guess. You have a younger sister, don't you?	じゃ、当ててみるよ。妹がいるんじゃない？
Takeshi	4	What makes you think that?	何でそう思うわけ？
Joe	5	I don't know. Just a hunch.	わかんない。カンだよ。
Takeshi	6	Well, I'm an only child. How about you?	一人っ子だよ。君は？
Joe	7	I have one younger brother and one older sister.	弟一人と姉一人いるよ。
Takeshi	8	Wow, I wish I could've had a brother or a sister.	いいなぁ、僕も兄弟（姉妹）欲しかったなぁ。
Joe	9	You know what? You could come over sometime and meet them.	そうだ、いつか家に会いに来なよ。
Takeshi	10	That would be great. Thanks.	いいね。ありがと。

There were a number of reasons why the material developed for this study took a dialog format. First and foremost, the dialog style was expected to raise the likelihood that the students would see the usefulness of the formulaic sequences therein when they actually encounter the same or similar exchanges. The intention of this approach is similar to that of Wray and Fitzpatrick's (2010) study, where the participants in that study were provided with conversational expressions for the situations that they expected to encounter in the near future (see Section 4.5.2). The major difference between the material in this study and that in their study is that the former was developed prior to instruction while the latter was constructed through collaboration with the participants. A collaborative approach to materials development in Wray and Fitzpatrick's study might well have made the materials seem more relevant to the participants in the study. In contrast to this, the present study was intended to investigate the extent to which material designed in advance for a particular group of students

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(i.e., students wishing to study abroad) could be effectively utilized in the foreign language classroom. The second major reason why the target formulaic sequences were embedded in dialogs was that many of those sequences are interactional: that is, they are used when people talk to each other. In order for the meanings and pragmatic functions of these FSs to be clearly demonstrated to the students, the dialog format seemed the most appropriate. Another significant reason why this format was adopted for the present study was that dialog texts can be conveniently utilized when engaging classroom learners in pair-work, which will lead to interactional transactions between them that might approximate to transfer-appropriate processing that will support future authentic communication (see Section 3.5). Last but not least in importance, this material was prepared because no equivalent material was found in the textbook market (see also the second footnote under Section 5.4.2.1).

5.4.2.2 Instructional interventions

Detailed descriptions of the different kinds of instruction given to the three groups are provided below. All clear differences and similarities specified here will be helpful when interpreting and analyzing the statistical data in the discussion (Chapter 7).

Treatment Group 1

At the beginning of the semester, the students were informed that the recitation of all the dialogs (3,182 words) would be 30% of their final grade. During each class, linguistic (e.g., syntactic, phonological, pragmatic) explanations relating to a number of dialogs (roughly 6 on average) were given by the researcher. Every week, for a third or more of the 90-minute class time, students reviewed selected dialogs in pairs and when ready acted them out, again in pairs, to another student or the researcher, with the booklet closed. For each dialog that was successfully performed (i.e., without too much hesitation or many mistakes), the "Checker" signed on the "Check Sheet" for each reciter. When the researcher was the

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Checker, he also provided brief corrective feedback to the students being checked. When the students were working on the Check, they were encouraged to recite each dialog twice, desirably putting at least one-week interval. Thus, for each dialog, there was a 1st Check and a 2nd Check. A copy of the Check Sheet is available in Appendix B. While the students were working on the Check, the researcher walked around the classroom and occasionally gave brief corrective feedback to individual students or to the entire class as well. At the end of the semester, the researcher provided an evaluation for the dialog recitation to each student, referring to their Check Sheet.[20]

Treatment Group 2

As with TG1, the students in TG2 were informed at the beginning of the semester that 30% of their final grade would be on the acting-out of all the dialogs. However, the TG2 participants were only required to memorize the blanks in the dialog booklet (1,047 words in total, 33% of the entire text). During each class, also similar to TG1, linguistic explanations on approximately 6 dialogs were given by the researcher. Every week, for a third or more of the class time, students reviewed selected dialogs in pairs and when ready read aloud those to each other, to another student, or to the researcher while looking at the textbook with the Japanese translation covered. The manner in which the students in TG2 performed the dialogs was therefore very different from the manner in which the TG1 students completed it, a point further described below and considered in depth in Chapter 7. For each dialog successfully read aloud, the Checker signed on the Check Sheet for each reader. Again, when the researcher was the Checker, he also provided brief corrective feedback to the student

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[20] As will be seen in Chapter 6 (Table 6.1, Figure 6.6.1), the progress made by TG1 on 1st Check was very high ($M = 98.67\%$), even though TG1 worked on three times as large a size of the text as TG2 did (see the descriptions of TG2). The boxplot for 1st Check in Figure 6.6.1 illustrates that the TG1 students cluster at a very high score range. Actually, there were two other students taking the same course as these students. However, these two students' data were left out of the following analyses on the basis of their 1st Check achievement percentages (35% and 59% respectively) being specified as 'outliers' in another boxplot that contained these two students' data.

being checked on. As in the case with TG1, the students in TG2 were also encouraged to do both 1st Check and 2nd Check for all dialogs. The remainder is exactly the same as what was done with TG1. The researcher walked around the classroom and, when he saw fit, gave brief corrective feedback to individual students or to the entire class; and at the end of the semester, each student's dialog memorization was evaluated according to their Check Sheet. Sample dialogs with the blanks for TG2 are shown below using the same samples introduced in Section 5.4.2.1.

Type 1: Travel abroad situations

Dialog 60: Problem/Request@hotel

		TG1	TG2
Guest	1	Hi. Morning.	Hi. Morning.
Clerk	2	Good morning, sir. Did we sleep well last night?	Good morning, sir. Did we sleep well last night?
Guest	3	Yes. Well, ...	Yes. Well, ...
Clerk	4	How can I help you?	( ) can I ( ) you?
Guest	5	Well, uh, my room's air-conditioner, it doesn't seem to be working properly. Could you send someone to fix it?	Well, uh, my room's ( ), it [ ] [ ] to be ( ) ( ). Could you [ ] someone to ( ) it?
Clerk	6	Ah, sorry, sorry. I'll get on it right away, sir.	Ah, sorry, sorry. I'll get ( ) it right [ ], sir.
Guest	7	And, uh, can I use a safety deposit box?	And, uh, can I ( ) a [ ] [ ] [ ]?
Clerk	8	Sure. Uh, please fill in this form.	Sure. Uh, please ( ) ( ) this form.
Guest	9	All right.	All right.

Type 2: Talks between a student and a university professor

Dialog 08: What's going to happen next?

		TG1	TG2
Prof. Z.	1	OK, finally, do we have any questions? Yes.	OK, finally, do we have any questions? Yes.
Takeshi	2	What's going to happen next to the Japanese economy?	What's going to ( ) ( ) ( ) the Japanese economy?

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		TG1	TG2
Prof. Z.	3	Hmm, I thought you were gonna ask that. The Japanese economy. Well, the Japanese economy, I'm afraid, is not looking so good. Mm. And unless the government does something about it, and even if they do something about it, I'm not really sure.	Hmm, I thought you were ( ) ask that. The Japanese economy. Well, the Japanese economy, [ ] [ ], is not ( ) so ( ). Mm. And [ ] the government ( ) ( ) ( ) it, [ ] ( ) ( ) they [ ] [ ] about it, I'm ( ) ( ) ( ).
Takeshi	4	Oh, it's bad.	Oh, it's bad.
Prof. Z.	5	It's bad. Study hard.	It's bad. Study hard.
Takeshi	6	Hm, OK, I will.	Hm, OK, I will.

Type 3: Conversations between university students

Dialog 06: Brothers/sisters

		TG1	TG2
Joe	1	Do you have any brothers or sisters?	Do you ( ) ( ) brothers ( ) sisters?
Takeshi	2	What do you think?	( ) do you ( )?
Joe	3	OK, let me guess. You have a younger sister, don't you?	OK, ( ) ( ) ( ). You have a [ ] sister, ( ) ( )?
Takeshi	4	What makes you think that?	( ) ( ) you think that?
Joe	5	I don't know. Just a hunch.	I don't know. Just a ( ).
Takeshi	6	Well, I'm an only child. How about you?	Well, I'm an ( ) child. [ ] [ ] you?
Joe	7	I have one younger brother and one older sister.	I have one younger brother and one ( ) sister.
Takeshi	8	Wow, I wish I could've had a brother or a sister.	Wow, I ( ) I could've had a brother or a sister.
Joe	9	You know what? You could come over sometime and meet them.	You ( ) ( )? You could [ ] [ ] ( ) and meet them.
Takeshi	10	That would be great. Thanks.	That ( ) be great. Thanks.

Key differences between the TGs

The key instructional differences between TG1 and TG2 were thus twofold. First, the materials in which the two groups engaged were the same in terms of content but different in surface form. That is, the dialogs worked on by TG2 had a significant number of blanks, and unlike the students in TG1, who were required to commit to memory the entirety of each

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dialog, the students in TG2 were only expected to memorize the words (formulaic sequences of the study's focus) in those blanks. The second difference was a consequence of having TG2 students work on the material with a multitude of blanks. Unlike TG1's case, where students acted out the dialogs with a partner, participants in TG2 were, when performing the dialogs, directed to do so alone. Acting out with a partner would have made the recitation task for TG2 students a little too simple. Additionally, being required only to fill in the blanks while acting out the dialogs necessitated focus on the script.

Contrast Group

Reviewing the characteristics of CG depicted in Section 5.4.1, the participants in CG were in two different classes. One class was a TOEFL iBT test preparation course with freshmen and sophomores, and the other a communication-oriented English course with a focus on use of movies and TV dramas in English, with juniors and seniors. In terms of the focus of this study, these two classes had two features in common. First, since they were meant to be the CG collectively, they did not deal with the dialog materials for TG1 and TG2. Another characteristic they both had in relation to the focus of this study was that there was in fact extensive memorization involved. For the students in the TOFL iBT class were given the assignment of memorizing a large volume of sample responses to the speaking and writing sections of the test. The students in the communication-oriented class, conversely, were assigned to pick out a scene from a movie or TV drama of their choice and recite the scene to a partner every week. Thus, the students in CG were similar to TG1 and TG2 in that they had a significant amount of memorization to complete (although the materials were different). One rather important difference between CG and TGs was that even though all classes were elective courses, the final grades for the TGs classes were not counted as part of the students' GPA, a potentially influential factor affecting the results and a point returned to in Chapter 7.

5.4.2.3 Measures

This sub-subsection provides an overview of the speaking tests administered, the questionnaires conducted, and the quasi-interviews given.

5.4.2.3.1 Speaking tests

Two speaking tests, which were developed using Microsoft PowerPoint and were revised versions of those used in the pilot study, were administered to all participants. Each test consisted of three parts, described in detail below.[21] As a total of 6 individual classes were involved in this study (i.e., two classes for TG1, two for TG2, and two for CG), and two tests were conducted per class (i.e., one in the beginning and the other at the end of the semester), there were 12 test sessions in total. Each test session was given in a computer-equipped classroom. The students in each class took their tests at the same time. During a test, each student sat at a computer and gave their spoken responses to the prompts, appearing one by one on screen, to a microphone following the directions on screen and instructions given by the researcher before each part started. The first test, the Pre-Test, was given to all classes between April 10th and 16th. After the exact interval of 98 days for all classes, the second test, the Post-Test, was administered between July 17th and 23rd. Detailed schedules for all three groups are shown in Figure 5.1. This schedule includes all test and questionnaire dates (for details of questionnaires, see Section 5.4.2.3.2), including when instruction on specific dialogs was given for TG1 and TG2. One caveat in analyzing this figure is that while TG2 on average had one week less than TG1 in the semester (TG1: 14.5 class meetings; TG2: 13.5 class meetings), TG2 on average started working with the dialogs one week sooner than TG1 (with TG1 starting halfway through the third class, TG2 halfway

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[21] There was actually one more part in the speaking test. It was designed to measure the participants' oral fluency in their L1, Japanese. As this issue is not part of the present study's investigation, this

through the second). Detailed descriptions of each part of the speaking test are as follows (for

the actual Microsoft PowerPoint slides that were shown to the participants during the tests,

see Appendices C and D).

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part will not be touched on any further in this dissertation.
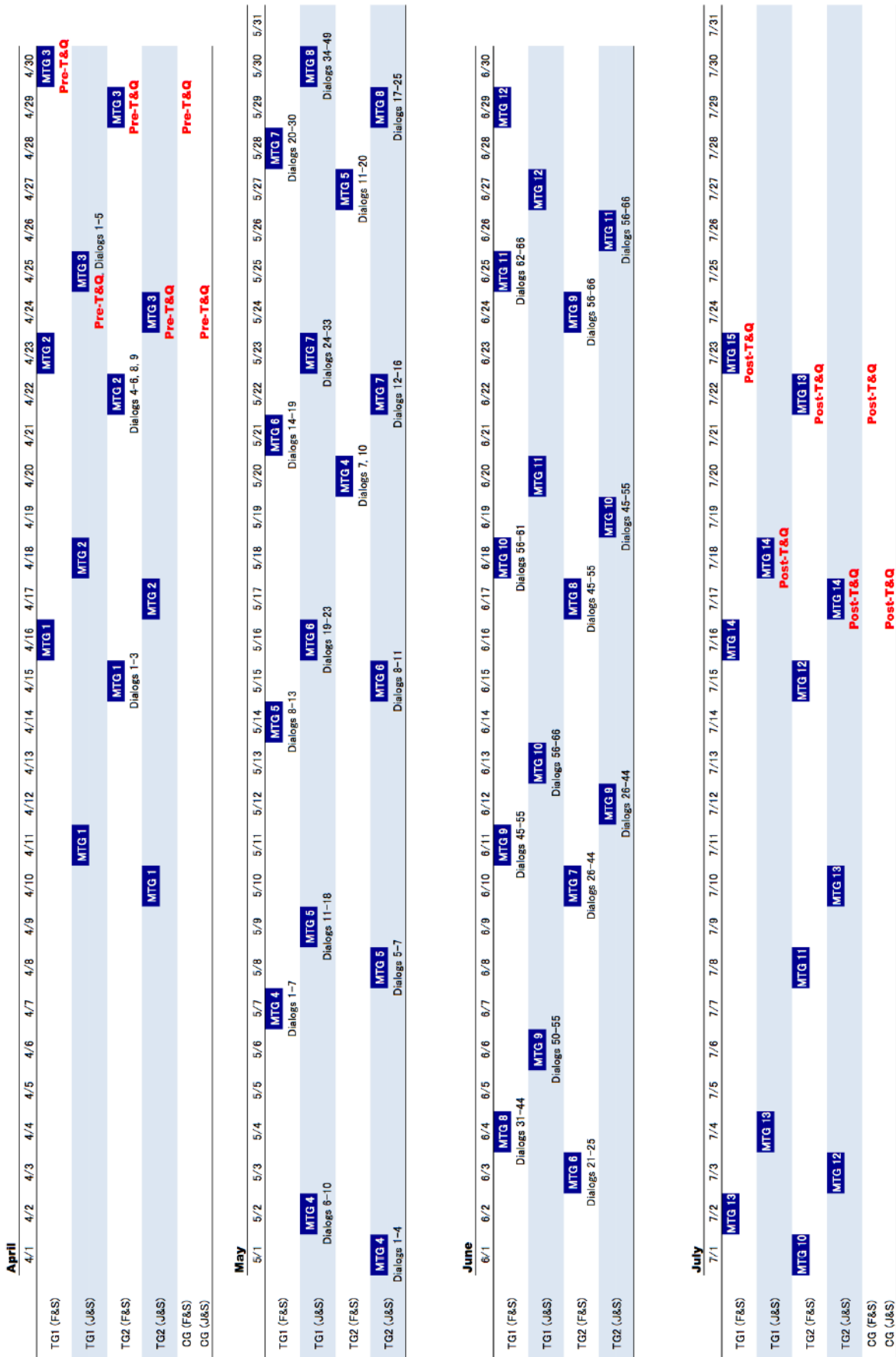
Figure 5.1. Detailed schedules for all three groups.

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Part 1: Reading-aloud short sentences

Part 1 of the speaking test was designed to measure the improvement in the participants' ability to properly articulate multi-word strings, sentences of different semantic structures (e.g., a tag question, a question beginning with a WH-word), and words from the dialog textbook. The words selected from the textbook were those commonly identified as troublesome for Japanese learners of English. Although pronunciation was not a primary focus of this study, this read-aloud task was given on the grounds that formulaic language is a multifaceted phenomenon involving a variety of linguistic features that obviously include aspects of pronunciation, along with non-verbal elements such as facial expressions and gestures. Whereas non-verbal features were outside the scope of this dissertation, this pronunciation component was therefore included as part of the test. Another note about this part of the test, which was much less cognitively demanding than the remainder of the test, is that giving this component at the beginning was intended to tease out the tension in those participants who might feel intimidated by having other test-takers hear their possibly erroneous responses.

The procedure and scoring of this part of the test (both in Pre-Test and Post-Test) is as follows. During each test, the participants were instructed to read aloud 10 short English sentences, each consisting of one specific pronunciation feature. Each prompt started with a Japanese sentence, which was followed by an English translation of the prompt. Some prompts also included particular instruction for reading aloud the English. It should be noted that although the prompts in Pre-Test and those in Post-Test were designed to measure the same pronunciation features, the wording for each specific prompt was deliberately changed in the Post-Test. This modification was made in order to circumvent aid from any memory traces from the Pre-Test, even though such traces were presumably unlikely, given the long interval between the Pre-Test and the Post-Test (i.e., 98 days). An additional note about the

wording of the prompts is that English sentences to be read aloud in the Pre-Test were taken directly from the dialog textbook, because the participants had yet to work on the English sentences used in the Pre-Test before taking that test; thus, there was no need to word the prompts differently from the dialog textbook. As for the duration of this part of the test, the participants were given either 10 or 15 seconds per prompt to comprehend the prompt and read aloud the English sentence. The seconds given to the participants depended on the overall density of a prompt. Two prompts in each test were 15-second ones. Finally, the scoring of a response was either 0 or 1 (0 as 'fail' and 1 as 'pass') in accordance with the particular pronunciation feature in focus. The full score in this part was 10. Scoring was done by the researcher three times, with at least a two-week interval between scoring sessions, and for each item a majority score was adopted. Below are examples of the prompts and notes covering the explanations laid out above. A summary of all prompts and notes are available in Appendix E.

Prompt type 1 in Part 1: Multi-word sequence

Pre-Test: You seem to have had a good weekend.

（よい週末を過ごされたようですね）

Post-Test: You seem to have had a bad holiday.

（よくない祝日を過ごされたようですね）

Instruction: Pronounce "to have" colloquially.

Time given: 15 seconds

Scoring point: contraction of "to have"

Original script: *You seem <u>to have</u> had a good weekend. (Dialog 16)*

In this example, participants were expected to be able to say *to've* as the contracted colloquial form of *to have*, a multi-word sequence. If a participant read aloud the whole sentence with

this contraction, he or she gained one point; otherwise, zero.

Prompt type 2 in Part 1: Sentence

   Pre-Test: He's an idiot, isn't he? (彼って、バカだよね)

   Post-Test: He's smart, isn't he? (彼って、頭いいよね)

   Instruction: Assume that the person you are talking to will agree with you.

   Time given: 10 seconds

   Scoring point: falling intonation of a tag question

   Original script: *He's an idiot, <u>isn't he?</u> (Dialog 41)*

In this case, participants were to process the sentence to read aloud as a whole, although *isn't he?* was the specific focus. Following the instruction that the interlocutor would concur, participants were led to read aloud this sentence with a falling intonation rather than a rising one. Thus, if they did so, they obtained one point here.

Prompt type 3 in Part 1: Word

   Pre-Test: I hate McDonald's. (マクドナルド大嫌い)

   Post-Test: I love McDonald's. (マクドナルド大好き)

   Instruction: NONE

   Time given: 10 seconds

   Scoring point: pronunciation of the triple consonant in "McDonald's"

   Original script: *Then walk for three blocks, and it's on the left side right*

      next to <u>McDonald's.</u> (Dialog 65)

This last case here has to do with a gray area of formulaic language. Following Wray's rather inclusive view about the minimum requirement of a formulaic sequence (see Section 2.2),

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according to which even an individual word can be regarded as a formulaic sequence, the focus of this prompt is a sequence involving the pronunciation of three consonants (*McDonald's*). This particular prompt was prepared as learners whose L1 is Japanese, a syllabic language, often have difficulty pronouncing three successive consonant sounds in English without inserting vowels between them (e.g., *strong*, *scratch*), even when they are able to properly pronounce a double consonant string (e.g., *trip*, *clock*). Participants were given one point if they read aloud *McDonald's* without putting /a/ between *Mc* and /u/ between *cD*.

Part 2: Short translations or directed responses

This part of the speaking test was designed to see if the participants in TG1 and TG2 made significant improvement compared to the CG participants in making use of the FSs in the dialog textbook in a time-constrained manner over the course of one-semester instruction. Only a select few FSs were targeted in this part, as the dialog material contained a plethora of FSs yet the testing time was limited. Participants were therefore given 16 prompts in Japanese in this segment (both Pre-Test and Post-Test). Their task was to respond to those prompts in English from the computer as if they were speaking to someone. Each prompt required them to either translate part of the Japanese prompt into English or supply and utter something in English that would be a reasonable reaction to the particular situational cues given. Each prompt was meant to tap into the participants' knowledge of the dialogs—or more specifically the FSs therein—that they worked on in the class, and was also designed in such a way that they would be easily able to respond to it appropriately if they used some particular FSs from the dialog textbook. Moreover, not only did this part attempt to measure memory trace of those FSs in the participants' long-term memory, it also served as a means to assess accessibility, in the sense of access speed, to those sequences stored in memory because the time given to understand and respond to each prompt was only 18 seconds.

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As for the contents of the prompts, half of all 16 prompts in each test were the same ones, designated 'repeated' prompts, while the remaining 8 prompts in the two tests were different from each other, designated 'non-repeated' prompts. More specifically, half of the 'repeated' prompts and another half of the 'non-repeated' prompts (i.e., 4 x 4 = 8 items) were constructed in such a way that a 'direct' application of some FSs from the dialog textbook would suffice as appropriate responses. In contrast, successful completion of the remaining prompts (i.e., 4 items from the repeated prompts and another 4 from the non-repeated prompts, 8 items in total) would not be accomplished by such plain re-use. Rather, if participants wanted to successfully respond to these prompts using some FSs from the textbook, they would have to 'modify' those to fit in the cued situation. Lastly, each response was given two scores. One was the number of the FSs available in the dialog textbook that were used in the response. Accurate use of a FS was not evaluated in a strict manner, because accurate and fluent speech production was beyond the capability of the participants in this study. This was a deliberate choice, and the reason for it is that this study's principal concerns were remnant of memory and accessibility. This is a theoretically-founded choice, as there is a purported tension between fluency in the sense of fast and smooth production and accuracy, especially under time-constrained circumstances (Skehan, 1998). The other score given to each response was the degree of its appropriateness as a response to the prompt in question. The full score for each prompt was set as 3 points. All responses were meticulously examined by the researcher and a set of scoring criteria was created for each prompt. Counting of the FSs used and scoring for appropriateness were both done by the researcher three times, with at least a two-week interval between scoring sessions, and for each item a majority score was adopted. Unlike Part 1, this part required transcribing, which was first outsourced to a transcribing company and then all transcribed data was carefully reviewed by the researcher. Examples of the prompts in this part together with the scoring criteria are provided below, and all prompts and scoring criteria (not including some irregular

criteria) are summarized in Appendix F.

Prompt type 1 in Part 2: Repeated & direct application

    Target sentence(s): *I was wondering if you could give me an extension for handing in my essay. (Dialog 11)*

    FSs counted: 1) *I was wondering if...*; 2) *you could*; 3) *give me*; 4) *an extension for*; 5) *handing in*

    Scoring criteria for appropriateness: 1) submission; 2) extension; 3) asking if something is possible in a remote, roundabout way // Additional scoring criteria: a) no. 1 (submission) can be left out without a deduction; b) however, if either no. 2 (extension) or no. 3 (asking if…) is missing, the response is not interpretable properly, and thus 0 is given; c) if something is wrong due to erroneous vocabulary use and yet a proper guess on the part of the listener is likely, then give just 1 point

Prompt type 2 in Part 2: Repeated & modified application

    Target sentence(s): *Uh, what do you think of Japan becoming the third world, uh, third biggest world economy after China? (Dialog 7)*

    Sample modified expression: *What do you think of China becoming the second biggest world economy after the US?*

    FSs counted: 1) *What do you think*; 2) *think of*; 3) Prep. + Noun + Gerund; 4) *second* + Superlative; 5) *after…*

    Scoring criteria for appropriateness: 1) China as no. 2; 2) economy; 3) after the U.S.

Prompt type 3 in Part 2: Non-repeated & direct application

Target sentence(s): *See? I told you. (Dialog 53)*

FSs counted: 1) *See?*; 2) *told you*

Scoring criteria for appropriateness: 1) I told you // Additional scoring criteria: a) if *said* is used rather than *told*, then give just 1 point; b) the use of *told* is given only 1 point unless it is used as in *I told you*; c) *say* (instead of its past tense form) is given 0; d) however, if *did say* is used, give 2 points out of 3

Prompt type 4 in Part 2: Non-repeated & modified application

Target sentence(s): *I'm running out of ideas here! (Dialog 23)*

Sample modified expression: *I'm running out of cash!*

FSs counted: 1) Present Progressive; 2) *run out of...*

Scoring criteria for appropriateness: 1) present progressive tense; 2) run out of; 3) cash // Additional scoring criteria: *money* instead of *cash* is also acceptable

Part 3: Extensive oral production in English

While Part 2 of the speaking test tried to elicit particular FSs from the participants in a rather deliberate manner (it was even obvious to those students in TGs), Part 3 was intended to be a far more general measure of oral proficiency. That is, not only were the responses to the prompts in this part analyzed with respect to the number of FSs used from the dialog textbook, but this part also sought to gauge the participants' oral fluency, measured by pruned syllables (i.e., excluding fillers and self-corrections) spoken per minute. During this part participants spoke about four different topics. For each topic, they were first given 30 seconds to understand the prompt and prepare a response. After the preparation time, they

were then to respond to the topic at hand in 60 seconds. Since the number of syllables spoken per minute was one of the two scoring criteria for this part, participants were encouraged to continue speaking until the time expired. Since this part was to measure the participants' general oral fluency, different prompts were given to them in the two tests. The first prompt in each asked the participants to describe what is happening in a photo. The photos used in the tests are shown in Figure 5.2.

Photo shown in Pre-Test   Photo shown in Post-Test

Figure 5.2. Photos used in Part 3 of the speaking tests.

Secondly, the participants were prompted to speak about a past experience. The topic in Pre-Test was some impressive event or episode in their life thus far. In Post-Test, they spoke about something impressive that happened to them during the semester. Next, they were asked to explain some Japanese document from their university to some imaginary overseas student who did not speak Japanese. In the Pre-Test, their task was to explain the information in a document about a TOEFL ITP test administered in the school and how to apply to take the test. In the Post-Test, they were to explain a document detailing the requirements for graduation from the school. The final prompt asked the participants to speak about some imaginary situation. The hypothetical situation in the Pre-Test was a situation in which they were to imagine that they had one million yen in hand. They were to speak about how they

would spend the money. The one given in the Post-Test was a situation where they were to take a leave of absence from school and do anything they wanted for one year. As shown, the four prompts in each test sought to see the participants' overall oral proficiency. This part required transcribing similar to the process of Part 2: it was first outsourced to a transcribing company and then all transcribed data was carefully reviewed by the researcher. Total numbers of pruned syllables were calculated for each participant's responses, which became their fluency score for this portion of the assessment. FSs used in their responses that were also available in the dialog textbook were counted too, which constituted their other score for this part of the test. The scoring was carefully carried out by the researcher.

5.4.2.3.2 Questionnaires

Based on the guidelines for questionnaire research by Brown, Dörnyei, and Oppenheim (Brown, 2001; Dörnyei, 2010; Oppenheim, 1992), two survey forms were prepared for this study, although the total number of items was restricted considerably, as was explained in the description of the pilot study (see Section 5.3 for detail). The Pre-Questionnaire, administered in the beginning of the semester, contained 29 survey items, asking the participants about their attitudes and beliefs regarding various aspects of English learning, including the learning of formulaic language. However, as seen below, this dissertation used the data of only three of the 29 items. The reason for this is that this survey was investigating certain research questions that were not relevant to this dissertation. The themes of those non-essential research questions include use of video material, learning of non-verbal language as part of verbal and formulaic language, and motivational effects of the imminence of study abroad experience. The Pre-Questionnaire also included 8 factual survey items. The Post-Questionnaire, conducted at the end of the semester, contained a total of 43 items in the case of the TGs and 29 items for the CG, some of which were the same items as those used in the Pre-Questionnaire, and the rest of which asked the participants to reflect on their

memorization study for the class. For the same reason mentioned above concerning the Pre-Questionnaire, the participants' responses to only 19 out of those items were examined in this dissertation. This second survey form again contained some factual survey items: 6 items for the TGs and 4 for the CG. Both surveys were administered in the participants' L1, Japanese. All items with the exception of the factual ones in the surveys were based on a six-point Likert scale ("1" referring to "disagree" and "6" to "strongly agree"). Wherever possible, double-barreled items were avoided. Each time a questionnaire was administered in a class, the students were informed that confidentiality of data identifying individuals was guaranteed, and that their candidness would be greatly appreciated. Entering the responses on the paper-based questionnaires into the computer was then done by one non-specialist and double-checked by the researcher. The original Japanese questionnaire forms and a comprehensive summary of the items used in this dissertation, along with their English translation, can be found in Appendices G, H, I, and J. Each one of the items actually used carries its own significance, and thus a brief explanation of each is provided below under particular categories. While original items were created in plain Japanese, their English translation contains a number of technical terms for the sake of succinctness.

The three questionnaire items listed in Table 5.1 were those used in both the Pre-Questionnaire and the Post-Questionnaire. The first asked the participants about their attitude toward emulating adept pronunciation, that is, the extent to which they considered emulating the pronunciation of native speakers and advanced learners as important. The second was on memorization of formulaic sequences (or in the actual questionnaires, more specifically on committing to memory conversational expressions such as *It's up to you*, asking the participants how important they considered such memorization). The third item, conversely, was to see how hard they would work on such memorization if they perceived it as likely to result in receiving a good grade, or how difficult it would be if they were left to do so on their own. These three items, highly relevant to the central issues investigated in this

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study, were given in both questionnaires in order to see any significant attitudinal changes toward these over the course of the instruction that the participants received.

Table 5.1

Attitudinal Items Used in Both Pre-Questionnaire and Post-Questionnaire

Focus of the item	Item (shortened version)
Importance of emulating proficient pronunciation	Emulating proficient pronunciation is important.
Importance of memorizing FSs	Memorizing FSs is important.
A grade incentive to memorization	A grade incentive will help me engage in dialog memorization.

Table 5.2 encompasses those Post-Questionnaire items that asked the participants in TG1 and TG2 to reflect on their dialog study. The item on motivational effects of in-class recitation inquired into the extent to which time reserved in class for checking dialog memorization motivated them to commit the dialogs to memory. The item on motivational effects of in-class memorization time, in contrast, sought to find out the extent to which having time in class for memorizing dialogs motivated them to engage in memorization. The remaining two items in this list then attempted to see how much effort they actually put into memorization of the dialogs, even beyond just memorizing them. While the first one asked whether the students practiced each dialog until becoming able to act it out at a natural speed, the second one inquired into whether they practiced until they were able to perform it with proper pronunciation, intonation, stress, pauses, linking, and drops (i.e., non-pronounced plosives /p/ /b/ /t/ /d/ /k/ /g/ at the word end not immediately followed by a vowel sound).

Table 5.2

Reflective Items on Memorization Given Only to TGs

Focus of the item	Item (shortened version)
Motivational effects of in-class recitation	I worked hard on dialog memorization thanks to "Check."
Motivational effects of in-class memorization time	I engaged in dialog memorization thanks to the in-class time given to it.
Practicing until fast	I practiced until I was able to act out the dialogs fast.
Practicing until attaining proper articulation	I practiced until I was able to properly articulate the dialogs.

The questionnaire items grouped in Table 5.3 called on all participants to reflect on the improvement that they felt they had made in a few areas of output production, with the exception of aspects of pronunciation, which were covered in other items grouped in the next table. The first one had to do with speech production only, asking the participants whether they had come to use fillers (e.g., *well*, *uh*, *you know*) when what they wanted to say was not coming to mind at the moment. The second and third items, conversely, were concerned with learning of grammar, especially in terms of syntax and morphology. The item on learning of new sentence structures asked if they came to use syntactic structures that they had not used before such as hypotheticals and tag questions; and the other item, on learning of vocabulary with control of morphological and syntactic features, was to determine whether they were better able to use words in the grammatically correct form and order than previously. Finally, the item on learning of formulaic sequences sought to see if there had been an increase in the number of FSs that the students could use in their output production.

Table 5.3

Reflective Items on Improvement in Output Production (Except for Articulatory Aspects)

Focus of the item	Item (shortened version)
Learning of fillers	I have come to use fillers when lost for words.
Learning of new sentence structures	I have come to use sentence structures that I did not use before.
Learning of vocabulary with control of morphological and syntactic features	My word use has improved morphologically and syntactically.
Learning of FSs	There has been an increase in the number of FSs that I can use.

The items categorized under Table 5.4 targeted the improvement in the participants' articulation. The first item in the list, on learning of pronunciation, inquired about general aspects of pronouncing individual words in English, asking the students whether they became better able to pronounce individual words (e.g., words with *l* at the end, *sh* and *s*, *l* and *r*, plosives [i.e., *p*, *b*, *t*, *d*, *k*, and *g*]). By contrast, the second and third items looked into supra-segmental facets of articulation. The second item was on learning of liaison, that is, on progress made in linking a word ending with a consonant and the next word beginning with a vowel sound. The third item addressed the extent to which the participants became better at pronouncing words with appropriate intonation and stress.

Table 5.4

Reflective Items on Improvement in Articulation

Focus of the item	Item (shortened version)
Learning of pronunciation	I can now pronounce individual words.
Learning of liaison	I can now link words when pronouncing them.
Learning of intonation and stress	I can now pronounce words with appropriate intonation and stress.

The two items put together in Table 5.5 were specifically meant to see how adept the participants became at language processing. The first item here was concerned with the students' realtime processing ability to hold incoming sounds in short-term memory as word chunks rather than individual words, and to repeat them with the same articulatory contour with respect to pronunciation, intonation, stress, and other factors related to articulation. It inquired about whether the students felt improvement in this. The second one, on the other hand, was a more direct inquiry in regards to the focus of this study, asking whether they felt that they had improved their ability to memorize phrases and dialogs.

Table 5.5

Reflective Items on Improvement in Language Processing

Focus of the item	Item (shortened version)
Improvement in emulating articulation	I have become better at holding incoming sounds as chunks and repeating them with the same articulatory contour.
Improvement in chunk memorization	I have become better at memorizing phrases and dialogs.

The last set of reflective questionnaire items remaining (Table 5.6) were those trying to learn the extent to which the three types of instructional interventions provided to the participants differentially affected their attitude toward memorization, especially of formulaic

language. The first item was a simple inquiry about the enjoyment of committing formulaic strings to memory. The second one was more concrete with respect to memorization as a way to develop their oral communication skills. It attempted to see whether they came to view committing to memory phrases and dialogs favorably to the point of being able to readily recite them, one step farther than mere memorization. Finally, the third item was concerned with adopting text memorization as a means to develop their overall knowledge of the L2. That is, it sought to find out whether they came to have a favorable attitude toward doing so as a way to learn or reinforce their knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and other points concerned with acquiring their L2.

Table 5.6

Reflective Items on Changes in Attitude Toward Memorization (Esp. of FSs)

Focus of the item	Item (shortened version)
Favorable change in attitude toward text memorization	I have come to enjoy memorizing phrases and dialogs.
Favorable change in attitude toward readily recitable memorization	I have come to have a favorable attitude toward memorizing phrases and dialogs to the point of being able to readily recite them.
Favorable change in attitude toward text memorization as a way to learn a variety of features	Through dialog memorization, I have come to have a favorable attitude toward doing so as a way to learn grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation,and other aspects of my English learning.

5.4.2.3.3 Reliability of the quantitative measures

This study investigated the effectiveness of engaging learners in text memorization from a variety of perspectives utilizing a specific set of dialogs prepared in advance for the target population in the study-abroad preparation course that TG1 and TG2 would eventually take. Accordingly, the reliability of the quantitative measures for this study was compromised. First, regarding the questionnaires, as mentioned in Section 5.3 on pilot testing, this study

deliberately did not employ multi-items scales to assess a mental variable, and thus the statistical reliability of each questionnaire item in this study was not substantiated. Second, although this study sought to investigate the effectiveness of dialog text memorization as a way to develop one's formulaic language knowledge in a general sense, the text from which to derive test measures was restricted to the dialog material developed for the study-abroad preparation course, which was why the reliability of the test items was not statistically substantiated in pilot testing. Such being the case, for the evaluation of the statistical results presented in the next chapter, Table 5.7 summarizes the reliability estimates of the Pre- and Post-Test scores obtained from the participants in the main study. As can be seen, the estimates for some components were low, and thus the statistical analyses henceforth have to be made with this limitation in mind.

Table 5.7

Reliability Estimates for the Speaking Test Components (Cronbach Alpha)

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Pronunciation in Part 1	.464	.581
FS use in Part 2	.492	.729
Appropriateness in Part 2	.651	.745
FS use in Part 3	.197	.561
Syllables per minute in Part 3	.926	.898

5.4.2.3.4 Quasi-interviews

Upon the completion of the speaking test each time, the participants were then given a few questions in Japanese on their monitor, and they offered their answers in Japanese to each question one by one in the same manner in which they responded to the prompts for the speaking tests. For each question, they were given 90 seconds to answer, although the interviews did not move on to the next question until all participants in the same session finished their answers. The main purpose of these quasi-interviews was to look into

individual differences that might affect the effectiveness of each instructional intervention under investigation of this study. During the Pre-Interview, students were asked about their prior experience of memorization for their English learning, specifically about what materials they committed to memory and how they memorized them. They were also asked whether they considered themselves as cut out for foreign language learning and the reasons for their view of themselves. In the Post-Interview, they were asked to reflect on their English study over the course of the semester. In particular, they were asked about the following three things: (1) how they committed to memory the materials to be memorized; (2) how the memorization work in which they engaged for this research over the course of the semester influenced and changed their view toward memorizing a large volume of formulaic sequences as a way to improve their English; and (3) what opportunities to communicate with others in English they had except for the class they were taking for this research. The actual Microsoft PowerPoint slides that were shown to the participants during the quasi-interviews can be found in Appendices K and L. The interview data were first transcribed by an English education major in university, and then double-checked by the researcher.

5.5 Statistical analyses

Due to the small sample size (i.e., TG1 and TG2 each consisting of 12 participants with CG being comprised of 11), a normal distribution was not assumed for the present study. Therefore, all statistical analyses were conducted by means of non-parametric methods. As implied in previous parts of this chapter where the speaking tests and questionnaires administered for this study were described (see Section 5.4.2.3), there were in this study three types of quantitative data that were amenable to statistical analysis. Categorized under 'Type A' were all the scores obtained twice during the study, that is, all the speaking test scores and the scores for a subset of the questionnaire items that were given to the participants twice (see Table 5.1). Classified under 'Type B' were the scores for a majority of the questionnaire

items obtained only once at the end of the semester (see Tables 5.3 through 5.6). The third sets of data, grouped under 'Type C,' consisted of the scores for the remaining questionnaire items obtained, again, just once at the end of the instructional intervention and only from the two treatment groups (see Table 5.2), and the percentage data of these two groups' achievement for the Check (see Section 5.4.2.2). For each of these data types, a set of statistical procedures was followed.

For each score set categorized under Type A, the following steps were taken. First, in order to confirm that there was no initial significant difference in the score in question among the three participant groups, a Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance (the non-parametric equivalent of the one-way factorial ANOVA; henceforth Kruskal-Wallis test), was conducted on the scores collected from the Pre-Test/Questionnaire. As will be shown, no significant difference among the three groups at the beginning of the study was found in any score set, and thus these groups were considered equivalent, at the onset of the study, with respect to all the abilities and attitudes in question, and statistically comparable at the end. The next step was to see if each participant group demonstrated a significant difference in their scores between the Pre- and Post-Tests/Questionnaires. In order to determine this, a Wilcoxon signed-rank test (the non-parametric equivalent of the paired t-test; hereafter Wilcoxon test) was carried out on each group's scores. When the Wilcoxon test showed a significant difference for two groups (there was no case where all three groups showed a significant difference in this test), a Mann-Whitney U test (the non-parametric alternative to the independent t-test; henceforth Mann-Whitney test) was further run on the two groups' score increases from the Pre- to Post-Test/Questionnaire. At times where z-scores rather than raw scores were adopted (e.g., the raw scores for the responses to non-repeated prompts in Part 2 of the speaking tests [see Section 5.4.2.3] were standardized into z-scores as the scores in Pre-Test were not directly comparable to those in Post-Test), and when there seemed a significant difference between two groups at the end of the study, a Kruskal-Wallis test was

run again on the scores collected to see if there was indeed a significant difference. If there was a significant difference, then multiple comparisons using the Mann-Whitney test were also performed to find out which pairing(s) had a significant difference.

Moving next to each score set classified under Type B, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted in order to find out whether there was a significant difference among the three participant groups, and when such a difference was observed, the results of the multiple comparison were consulted using the Mann-Whitney test to see which particular pairings had a significant difference. Finally, each data set grouped under Type C went through a Mann-Whitney test to determine whether there was a significant difference between the two treatment groups.

All statistical tests were run with IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, Version 22).

CHAPTER 6

Results

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the statistical results of the engagement in dialog recitation by the two treatment groups, the speaking tests, and questionnaires. These results will be revisited and further analyzed in the next chapter with a view to answering Research Questions 1-4, which were set at the beginning of Chapter 5. Research Question 5, which has to do with individual difference variables, will be addressed in Chapter 7, with reference to the data from the quasi-interviews.

In the following sections, each data set will be presented in three ways: 1) in a table with mean scores, standard deviation values, probabilities, and effect sizes; 2) in a line or bar chart showing mean scores graphically; and 3) in a boxplot form displaying variation of scores with the specifications of medians, data points, upper and lower quartiles, whiskers, upper and lower extremes, and outliers. Tables in this chapter will use the following elision marks: M = mean score, SD = standard deviation, p = probability, r = effect size. The significance level (α) was set at .05, and henceforth, $.01 < p < .05$ will be indicated by the addition of *, whereas $p < .01$ will be signified by ** instead of one superscript asterisk. The effect size will be indicated as 'almost no' ($r < .10$), 'small' ($.10 < r < .30$), 'medium' ($.30 < r < .50$), or 'large' ($.50 < r$).

6.2 Check achievement

Table 6.1 and Figures 6.1.1-2 show the achievements on '1st Check' and '2nd Check' by the two treatment groups (see Section 5.4.2.2 for details of Check). For the 1st Check, the very high mean percentages clearly show that both types of recitation tasks (i.e., whole-text and partial-text) effectively engaged the students in memorizing the dialogs. Curiously, even

though the whole-text memorization must have been far more demanding for TG1 than the partial-text memorization was for TG2, a Mann-Whitney test shows that the achievement percentage of TG1 was significantly higher than that of TG2 ($U = -2.286$, $p = .033^*$, $r = -.47$ [medium effect]). Conversely, regarding the 2nd Check, while little progress was made by both groups, TG2 engaged in the 2nd Check with greater effort, although non-significantly more effort, than TG1 did ($U = 1.218$, $p = .242$, $r = .25$ [small effect]), again an interesting result. These results will be analyzed in detail in Chapter 7.

Table 6.1

'Check' Achievement of Dialogs by TGs

Time	Group	*M*	*(SD)*	*p*	*r*
1st Check	TG1	98.67	(2.31)	.033*	medium (-.47)
	TG2	80.92	(23.11)		
2nd Check	TG1	9.42	(8.54)	.242	small (.25)
	TG2	23.50	(22.40)		

Note. TG1: $n = 12$, TG2: $n = 12$
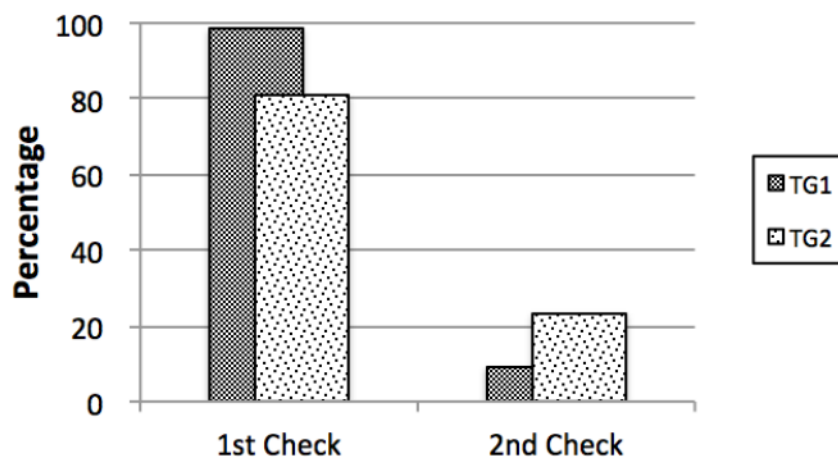
Figure 6.1.1. Mean distribution of percentages of 'Check' achievement by TGs.

1st Check achievement   **2nd Check achievement**
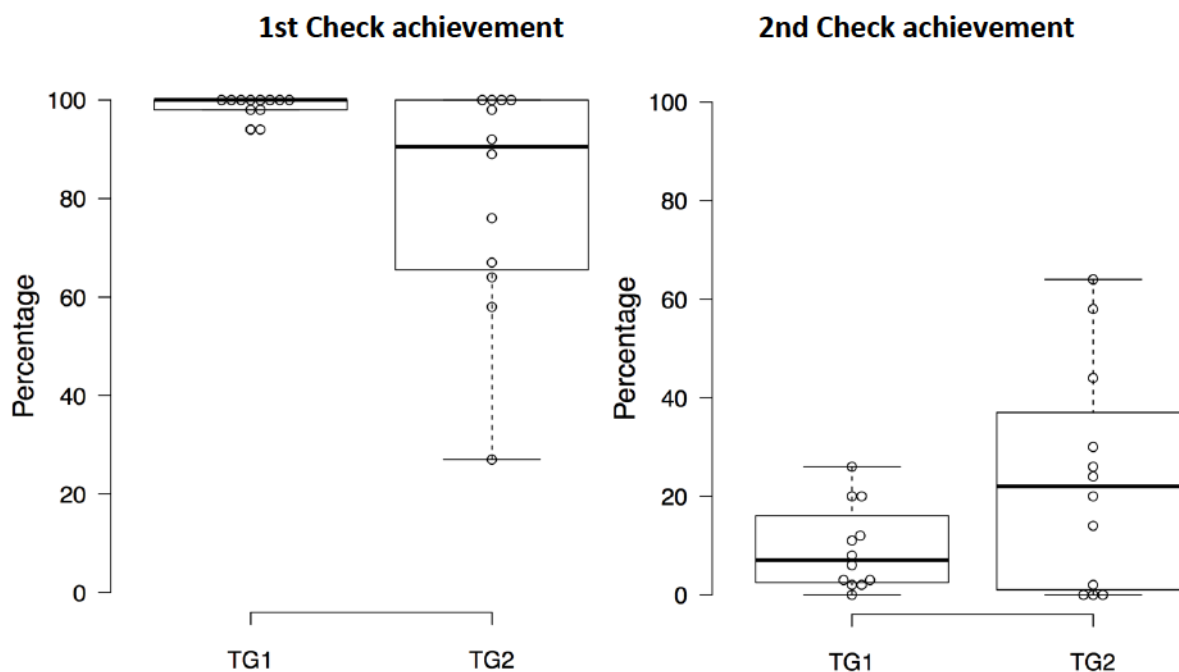
Figure 6.1.2. Boxplots showing variations of 'Check' achievement by TGs.

6.3 Part 1 of the speaking test

Table 6.2 and Figures 6.2.1-2 illustrate the changes in all three groups' scores for Part 1 of the speaking test (*reading-aloud short sentences*; see Section 5.4.2.3.1 for details). A Kruskal-Wallis test was run on the Pre-Test scores, which confirmed that no significant difference existed among the three groups on this part of the test at the onset of the study (H (2) = 2.660, p = .264). Wilcoxon tests found a significant improvement by TG1 and TG2 but not by CG (TG1: z = 3.084, p = .002[**], r = .63 [large effect]; TG2: z = 2.223, p = .026[*], r = .45 [medium effect]; CG: z = 1.294, p = .196, r = .28 [small effect]), and thus a Mann-Whitney test was further run on the score increases made by these two groups, which found that TG1's improvement was even significantly larger than TG2's (U = -3.324, p < .000[**], r = -.68 [large effect]). These results show that both types of recitation tasks instigated learning on articulatory aspects of the formulaic sequences covered in the dialog material, and that whole-text memorization had even greater effect on this particular aspect than partial-text memorization.

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Table 6.2

Improvement in Articulatory Appropriateness in Part 1 (Reading-Aloud Short Sentences) of

Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		*p*	*r*
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	3.25	(1.55)	7.42	(1.00)	.002**	large (.63)
TG2	3.83	(1.75)	5.17	(2.66)	.026*	medium (.45)
CG	4.55	(1.92)	5.36	(1.57)	.196	small (.28)

Note. TG1: *n* = 12, TG2: *n* = 12, CG: *n* = 11
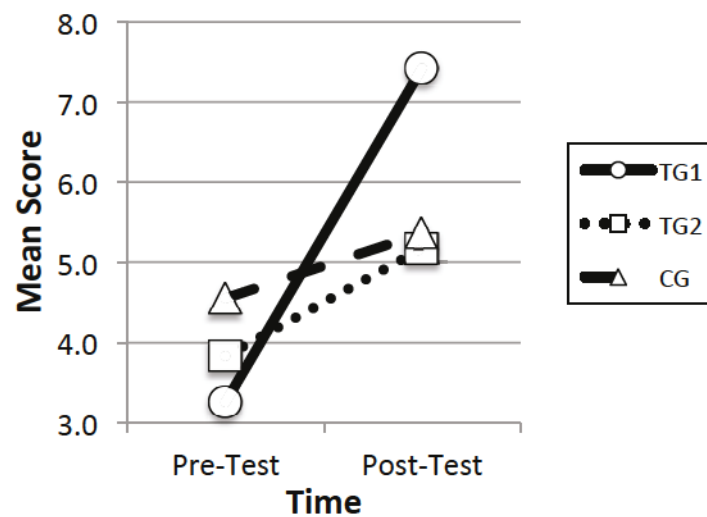
Figure 6.2.1. Mean distribution of scores for articulatory appropriateness in Part 1

(reading-aloud short sentences) of speaking test.
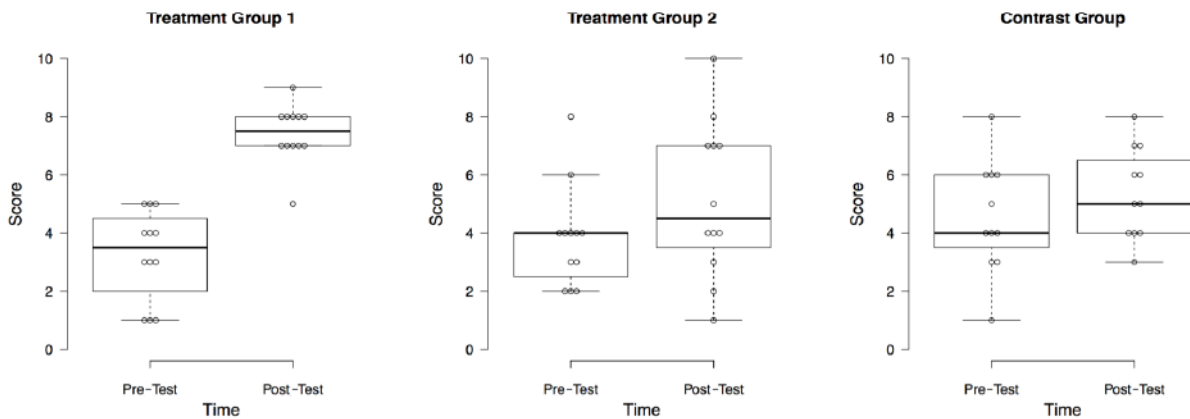
Figure 6.2.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in articulatory appropriateness in Part 1 (reading-aloud short sentences) of speaking test.

6.4 Use of formulaic sequences in Part 2 of the speaking test

Table 6.3 and Figures 6.3.1-2 compare the increases in the number of formulaic sequences from the dialog material used by the three groups for the 'repeated & direct application' prompts in Part 2 of the speaking test (*short translation or directed responses*; see Section 5.4.2.3.1 for details). No significant difference among the three groups on this particular set of the prompts at the onset of the study was confirmed by the Kruskal-Wallis test run on the Pre-Test scores ($H(2) = 2.028$, $p = .363$). A significant improvement was detected only from TG2 this time (TG1: $z = 1.901$, $p = .057$, $r = .39$ [medium effect]; TG2: $z = 2.844$, $p = .004^{**}$, $r = .58$ [large effect]; CG: $z = .647$, $p = .518$, $r = .14$ [small effect]). The results here will be revisited shortly when the results for the 'non-repeated & direct application' prompts are demonstrated with Table 6.5.

Table 6.3

Improvement in Number of Formulaic Sequences Used from Dialogs for 'Repeated & Direct Application' Prompts in Part 2 (Short Translations or Directed Responses) of Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		p	r
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	1.17	(.94)	2.75	(2.38)	.057	medium (.39)
TG2	.83	(.39)	2.50	(1.51)	.004**	large (.58)
CG	1.27	(.79)	1.55	(1.21)	.518	small (.14)
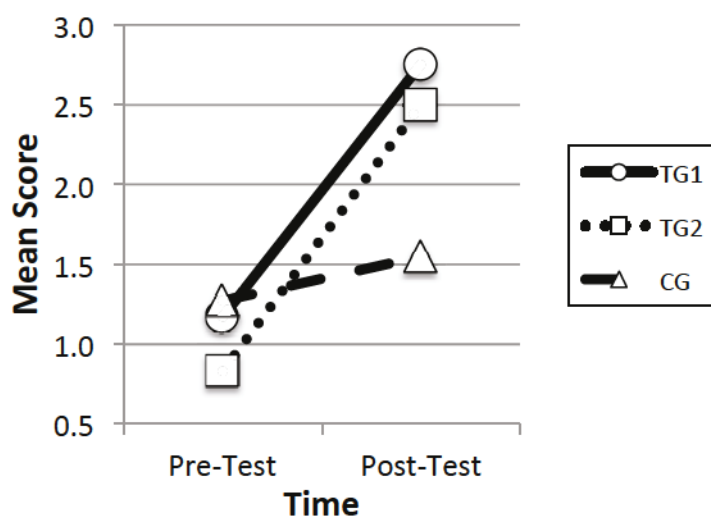
Figure 6.3.1. Mean distribution of number of formulaic sequences used from dialogs for 'repeated & direct application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.
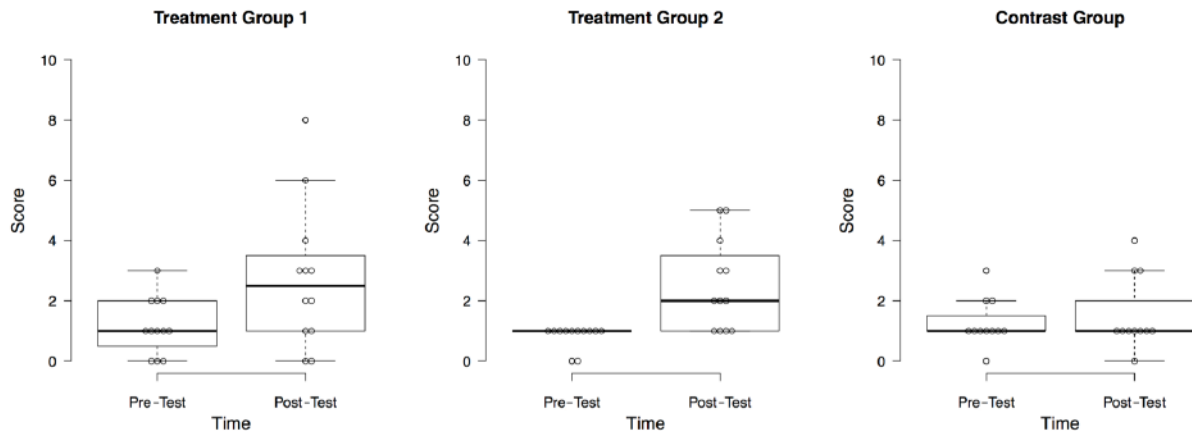
Figure 6.3.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in number of formulaic sequences used from dialogs for 'repeated & direct application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.

Table 6.4 and Figures 6.4.1-2, in contrast, display the increases in the number of formulaic sequences from the dialog material used for the 'repeated & modified application' prompts in Part 2. Once more, no significant distinction among the three groups on this particular set of prompts at the onset of the study was found ($H(2) = .210$, $p = .900$). Dissimilar to the case of the 'repeated & direct application' prompts, no significant improvement was confirmed from any group (TG1: $z = 1.671$, $p = .095$, $r = .34$ [medium effect]; TG2: $z = .289$, $p = .773$, $r = .06$ [almost no effect]; CG: $z = -.905$, $p = .366$, $r = -.19$ [small effect]). These results will be reviewed when the results for the 'non-repeated & modified application' prompts are provided with Table 6.6.

Table 6.4

*Improvement in Number of Formulaic Sequences Used from Dialogs for 'Repeated &
Modified Application' Prompts in Part 2 (Short Translations or Directed Responses) of
Speaking Test*

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		*p*	*r*
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	2.58	(1.00)	4.33	(2.84)	.095	medium (.34)
TG2	2.67	(1.37)	2.75	(1.60)	.773	almost no (.06)
CG	2.45	(.93)	2.09	(.94)	.366	small (-.19)
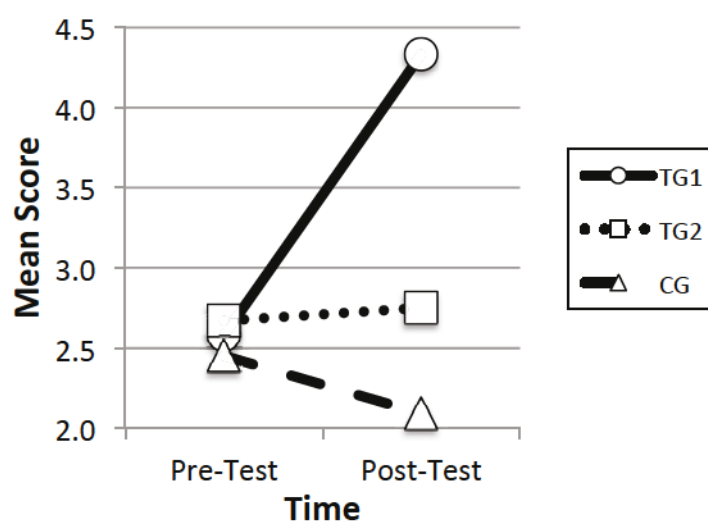
Figure 6.4.1. Mean distribution of number of formulaic sequences used from dialogs for
'repeated & modified application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses)
of speaking test.
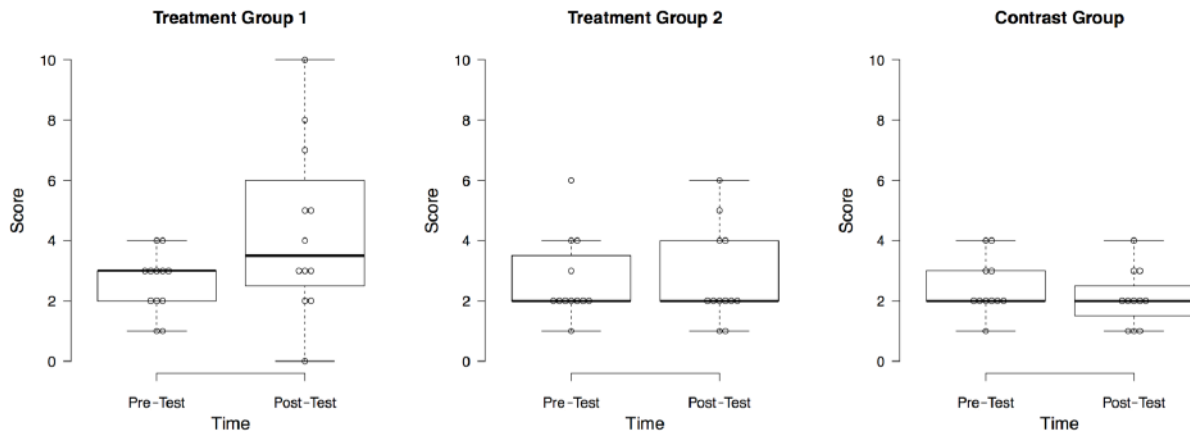
Figure 6.4.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in number of formulaic sequences used from dialogs for 'repeated & modified application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.

Table 6.5 and Figures 6.5.1-2 compare the increases in the number of formulaic sequences from the dialogs used by the three groups for the 'non-repeated & direct application' prompts. Since the raw scores for these prompts between the Pre and Post tests were not directly comparable, the scores were standardized into z-scores. No significant distinction among the three groups on this set of prompts at the beginning of the study was discovered ($H(2) = 1.856$, $p = .395$). While no significant improvement was found from the TGs using the Wilcoxon test (TG1: $z = 1.497$, $p = .134$, $r = .31$ [medium effect]; TG2: $z = 1.426$, $p = .154$, $r = .29$ [small effect]), a significant decrease was found from CG ($z = -2.173$, $p = .030^*$, $r = -.46$ [medium effect]). This in turn indicates that the TGs indeed made significant improvements compared to CG, which was confirmed by a Kruskal-Wallis test run on the Post-Test scores ($H(2) = 7.600$, $p = .022^*$) and the multiple comparisons (CG vs. TG1: $U = 2.400$, $p = .049^*$, $r = .50$ [large effect]; CG vs. TG2: $U = 2.410$, $p = .048^*$, $r = .50$ [large effect]; TG1 vs. TG2: $U = -.011$, $p = 1.000$, $r = .00$ [almost no effect]). When the results for the 'repeated & direct application' prompts were laid out (see Table 6.3), it was shown that the TG2 alone made a significant increase in performance on direct application

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prompts; however, the results in Table 6.5 illustrate that TG1 also made a significant improvement, although only on the non-repeated prompts. This can be interpreted in two ways. First, since there were technically three prompt sets (i.e., one for the repeated part, another for the non-repeated part in the Pre-Test, and the other for the non-repeated part in the Post-Test), it was most likely that the internal difficulties of the prompts in these three sets were different and/or the participants' prior knowledge of the formulaic sequences in those prompts varied. Second, the fact that TG2, nevertheless, showed significant advancements for both repeated and non-repeated prompts suggests that partial recitation works at least slightly more effectively on direct application prompts, a point returned to in Chapter 7.

Table 6.5

Improvement in Z-Score for Formulaic Sequences Used from Dialogs for 'Non-Repeated &
Direct Application' Prompts in Part 2 (Short Translations or Directed Responses) of
Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		p	r
	M	(SD)	M	(SD)		
TG1	-.18	(.78)	.34	(1.20)	.134	medium (.31)
TG2	-.18	(.78)	.21	(.82)	.154	small (.29)
CG	.40	(1.38)	-.60	(.77)	.030*	medium (-.46)
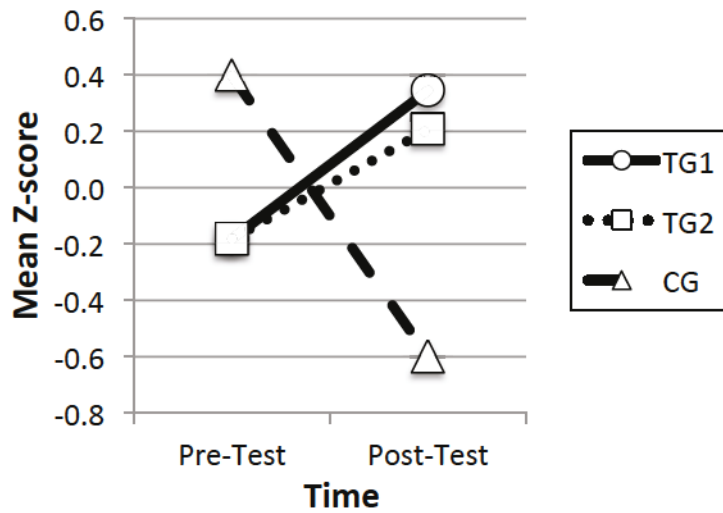
Figure 6.5.1. Mean distribution of z-score for formulaic sequences used from dialogs for 'non-repeated & direct application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.
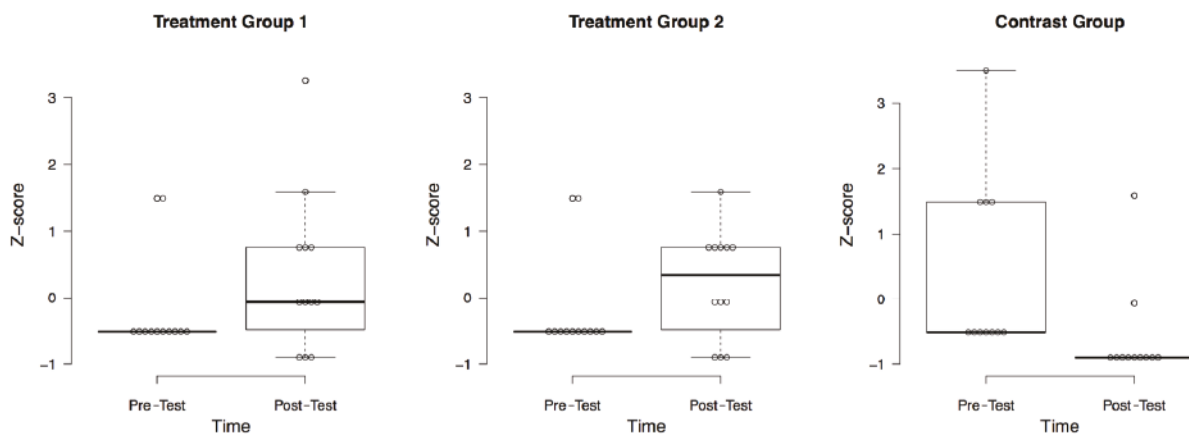
Figure 6.5.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in z-score for formulaic sequences used from dialogs for 'non-repeated & direct application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.

Table 6.6 and Figures 6.6.1-2 illustrate the increases in the number of formulaic sequences from the dialogs used by the three groups for the 'non-repeated & modified

application' prompts. As with the case of the 'non-repeated & direct application' prompts, the raw scores for these between the Pre and Post tests were converted into z-scores. No significant variance among the three groups on this set of prompts at the beginning of the study was observed ($H(2) = 1.646, p = .439$). As seen with the 'repeated' & modified application prompts, no significant enhancement was confirmed from any group (TG1: $z = .157, p = .875, r = .03$ [almost no effect]; TG2: $z = -.157, p = .875, r = -.03$ [almost no effect]; CG: $z = -1.246, p = .213, r = -.27$ [small effect]). To be certain that there was no significant difference among the three groups, a Kruskal-Wallis test was also performed on the Post-Test, and indeed no significant difference was found ($H(2) = 4.507, p = .105$). The results described thus far with respect to the use of formulaic sequences from the dialog textbook during Part 2 of the speaking test (*short translation or directed responses*) suggest that both types of recitation tasks help the learners become able to use them in their original forms, but neither is of itself sufficient to help them apply those sequences in modified forms. Presumably, such applications require additional encounters in authentic texts and communication. This issue will be further discussed in Chapter 7.

Table 6.6

Improvement in Z-Score for Formulaic Sequences Used from Dialogs for 'Non-Repeated & Modified Application' Prompts in Part 2 (Short Translations or Directed Responses) of Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		*p*	*r*
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	-.01	(1.17)	.29	(1.29)	.875	almost no (.03)
TG2	.29	(.92)	.21	(.86)	.875	almost no (-.03)
CG	-.31	(.93)	-.54	(.60)	.213	small (-.27)
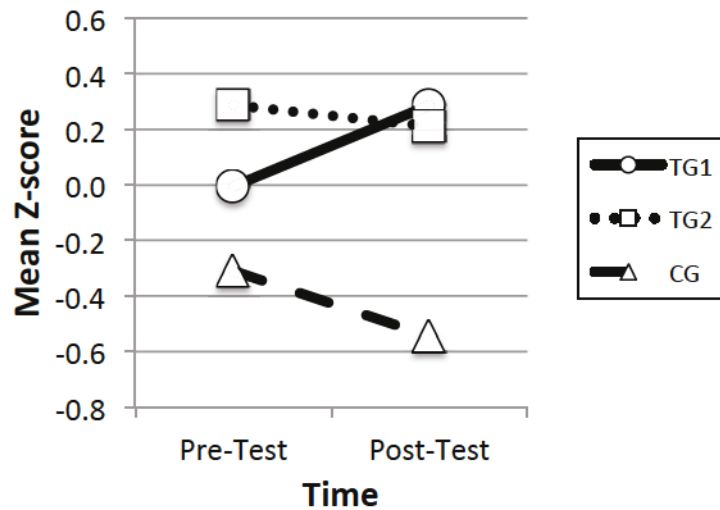
Figure 6.6.1. Mean distribution of z-score for formulaic sequences used from dialogs for 'non-repeated & modified application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.
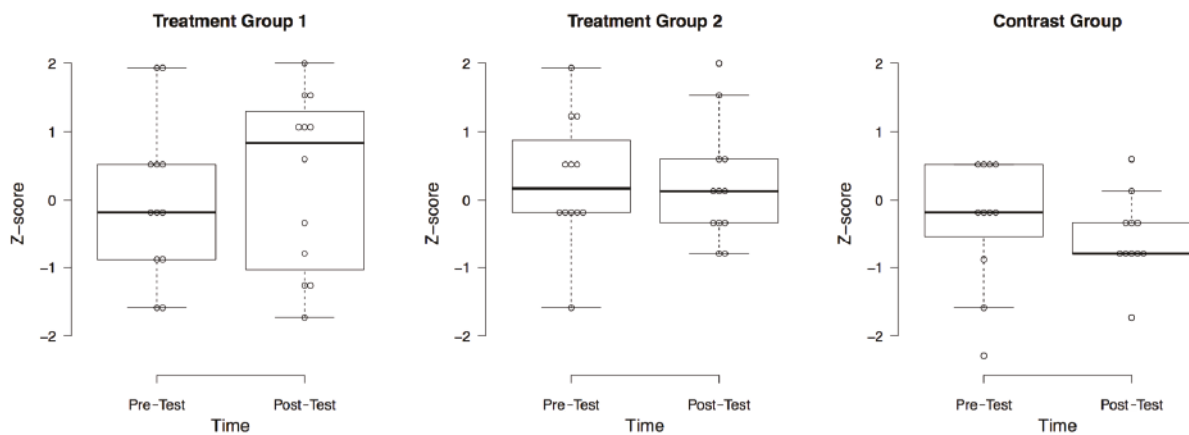
Figure 6.6.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in z-score for formulaic sequences used from dialogs for 'non-repeated & modified application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.

The data gained for the use of formulaic sequences from the dialogs for all prompts in Part 2 of the speaking test are summarized in Table 6.7 and Figures 6.7.1-2. The raw scores

used for the analyses of the responses to the repeated prompts were standardized into z-scores in order to make comparisons in an integrative way. No significant distinction among the three groups at the beginning of the study was confirmed ($H(2) = .214, p = .898$). Using the Wilcoxon test, the significant difference between the Pre- and Post-Tests was discovered only from the CG (TG1: $z = .863, p = .388, r = .18$ [small effect]; TG2: $z = 1.255, p = .209, r = .26$ [small effect]; CG: $z = -2.312, p = .021^{*}, r = -.49$ [medium effect]). This analysis was substantiated by a Kruskal-Wallis test on the Post-Test scores ($H(2) = 10.232, p = .006^{**}$), and in order to pinpoint the pairings with a significant difference, multiple comparisons with the Mann-Whitney test were made, with the results being that both TGs' scores were significantly higher than CG's (CG vs. TG1: $U = 2.770, p = .017^{*}, r = .58$ [large effect]; CG vs. TG2: $U = 2.809, p = .015^{*}, r = .59$ [large effect]; TG1 vs. TG2: $U = -.040, p = 1.000, r = -.01$ [almost no effect]). This combined analysis thus suggests that both types of recitation tasks resulted in increased use of the formulaic sequences covered in the dialog material, albeit in a limited (that is, more direct than modified) manner. Once again, further discussion will be given in Chapter 7.

Table 6.7

Improvement in Z-Score for All Formulaic Sequences Used from Dialogs for Part 2 (Short Translations or Directed Responses) of Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		*p*	*r*
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	-.06	(2.99)	1.48	(3.92)	.388	small (.18)
TG2	-.15	(2.28)	.38	(1.31)	.209	small (.26)
CG	.23	(2.94)	-2.03	(1.43)	.021*	medium (-.49)
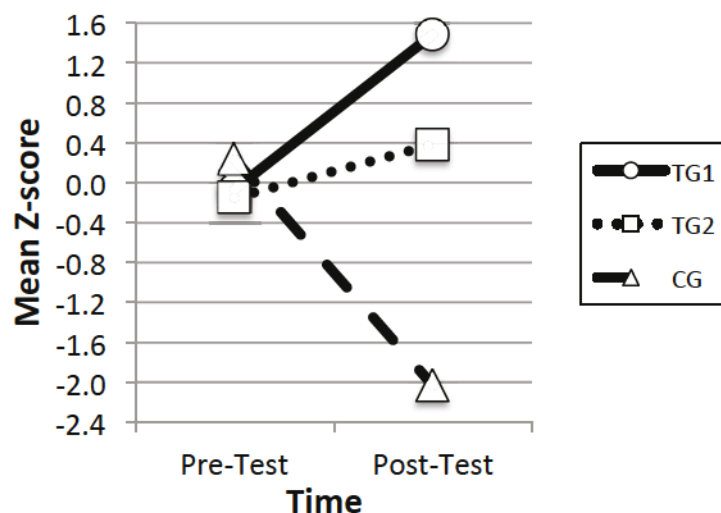
Figure 6.7.1. Mean distribution of z-score for all formulaic sequences used from dialogs for Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.
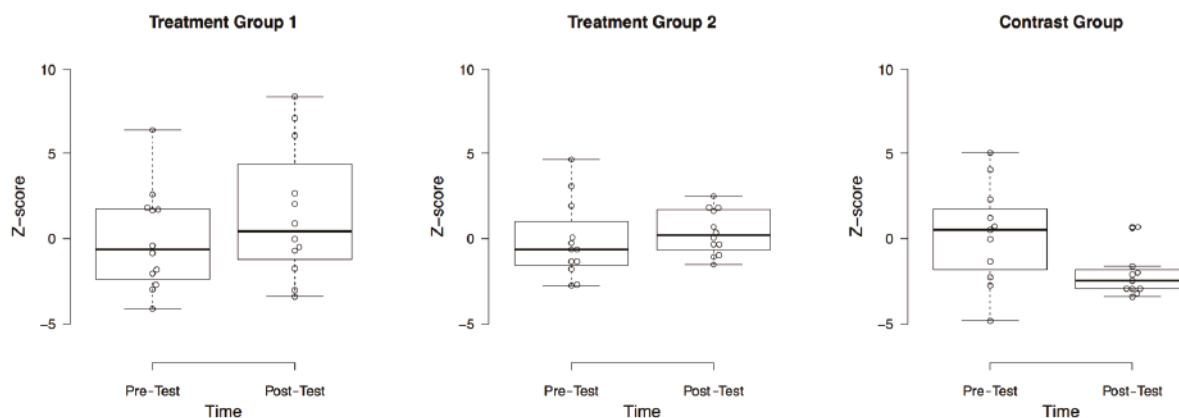
Figure 6.7.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in z-score for all formulaic sequences used from dialogs for Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.

6.5 Appropriateness of responses in Part 2 of the speaking test

Table 6.8 and Figures 6.8.1-2 show the improvements in the appropriateness of the responses to the 'repeated & direct application' prompts in Part 2 of the speaking test (for the scoring criteria for 'appropriateness,' see Section 5.4.2.3.1 and Appendix F). No significant

difference among the three groups on this particular set of prompts at the onset of the study was confirmed by the Kruskal-Wallis test administered on the Pre-Test scores ($H(2) = 1.357$, $p = .507$). A significant increase was observed only from TG1 (TG1: $z = 2.673$, $p = .008^{**}$, $r = .55$ [large effect]; TG2: $z = 1.449$, $p = .147$, $r = .30$ [medium effect]; CG: $z = 1.435$, $p = .151$, $r = .31$ [medium effect]). This result is interesting because the analysis of the same set of prompts regarding the use of formulaic sequences from the dialog textbook identified a significant improvement only from TG2 (see Table 6.3). This is yet another facet of the results to be discussed in Chapter 7.

Table 6.8

Improvement in Appropriateness of Responses to 'Repeated & Direct Application' Prompts in Part 2 (Short Translations or Directed Responses) of Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		p	r
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	6.17	(2.25)	8.00	(2.66)	.008**	large (.55)
TG2	7.08	(2.15)	8.00	(1.95)	.147	medium (.30)
CG	6.73	(2.49)	7.91	(2.26)	.151	medium (.31)
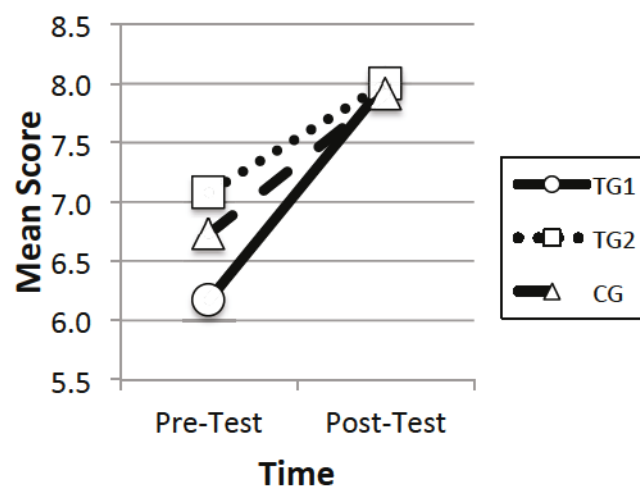
Figure 6.8.1. Mean distribution of score for appropriateness of responses to 'repeated & direct application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.
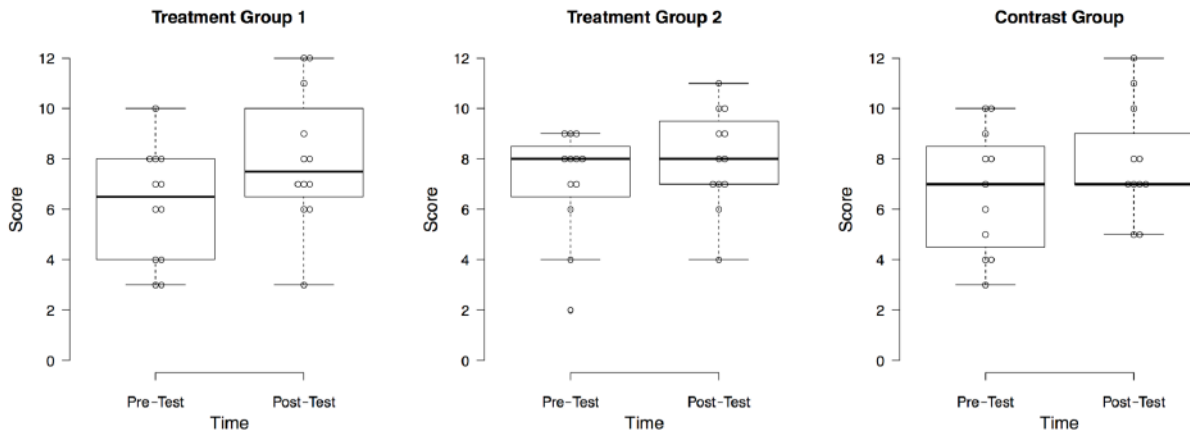
Figure 6.8.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in score for appropriateness of responses to 'repeated & direct application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.

Tables 6.9-11 and Figures 6.9.1-6.11.2 show the results of the remaining three sets (i.e., repeated & modified application, non-repeated & direct application, and non-repeated & modified application) in regard to the appropriateness of the responses in Part 2 of the speaking test. No significant variance among the three groups was found at the beginning for the repeated & modified application prompts ($H(2) = .618$, $p = .734$), the non-repeated & direct application prompts ($H(2) = 2.329$, $p = .312$), or the non-repeated & modified application prompts ($H(2) = 4.717$, $p = .095$). Nor was there any significant improvement observed at the end of instruction for the repeated & modified application prompts (TG1: $z = 1.556$, $p = .120$, $r = .32$ [medium effect]; TG2: $z = .923$, $p = .356$, $r = .19$ [small effect]; CG: $z = .000$, $p = 1.000$, $r = .00$ [almost no effect]), the non-repeated & direct application prompts (TG1: $z = -.941$, $p = .347$, $r = -.19$ [small effect]; TG2: $z = 1.412$, $p = .158$, $r = .29$ [small effect]; CG: $z = -1.159$, $p = .247$, $r = -.25$ [small effect]; $H(2) = 3.917$, $p = .141$), or the

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non-repeated & modified application prompts (TG1: $z = -.235$, $p = .814$, $r = -.05$ [almost no effect]; TG2: $z = -.314$, $p = .754$, $r = -.07$ [almost no effect]; CG: $z = .267$, $p = .790$, $r = .06$ [almost no effect]; $H(2) = 3.087$, $p = .214$).

Table 6.9

Improvement in Appropriateness of Responses to 'Repeated & Modified Application'

Prompts in Part 2 (Short Translations or Directed Responses) of Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		*p*	*r*
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	4.67	(2.43)	5.50	(2.54)	.120	medium (.32)
TG2	4.08	(1.68)	4.50	(2.02)	.356	small (.19)
CG	4.09	(2.43)	4.09	(2.17)	1.000	almost no (.00)
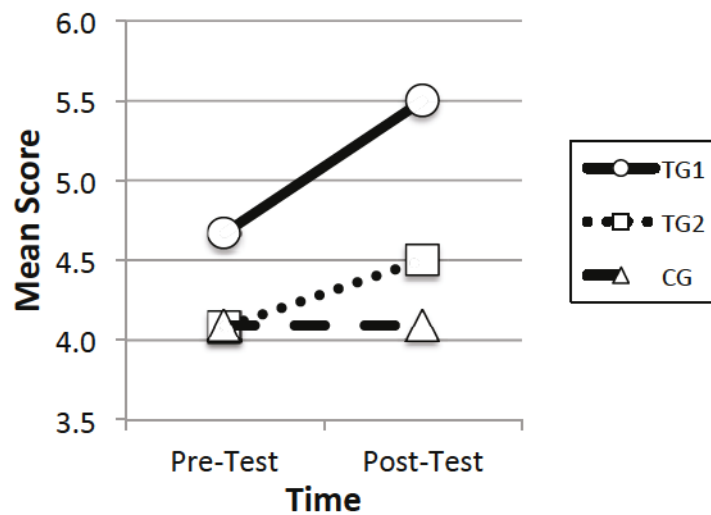
Figure 6.9.1. Mean distribution of score for appropriateness of responses to 'repeated & modified application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.
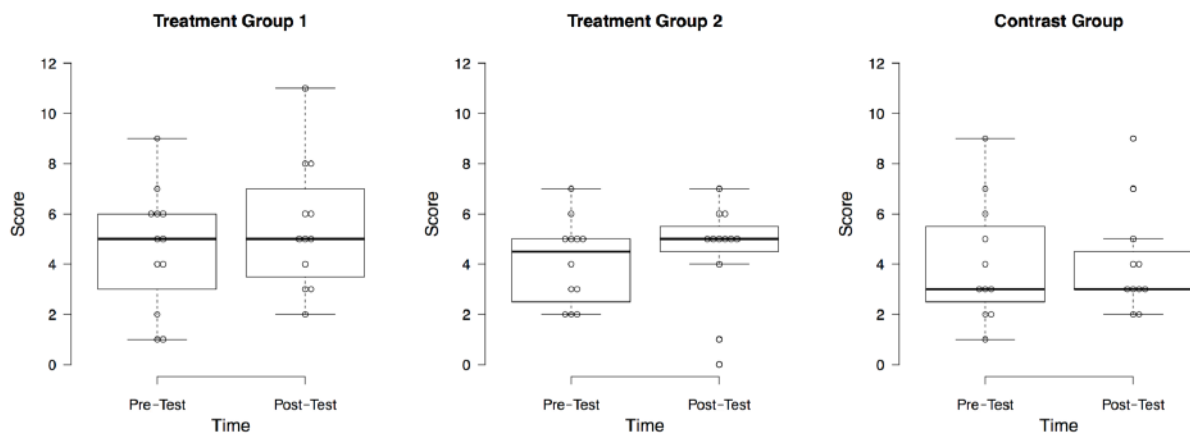
Figure 6.9.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in score for appropriateness of responses to 'repeated & modified application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.

Table 6.10

Improvement in Z-Score for Appropriateness of Responses to 'Non-Repeated & Direct Application' Prompts in Part 2 (Short Translations or Directed Responses) of Speaking Test

| Group | Pre-test | | Post-test | | p | r |
	M	(SD)	M	(SD)		
TG1	.37	(.66)	.11	(1.16)	.347	small (-.19)
TG2	-.17	(1.15)	.36	(.68)	.158	small (.29)
CG	-.22	(1.15)	-.52	(1.02)	.247	small (-.25)
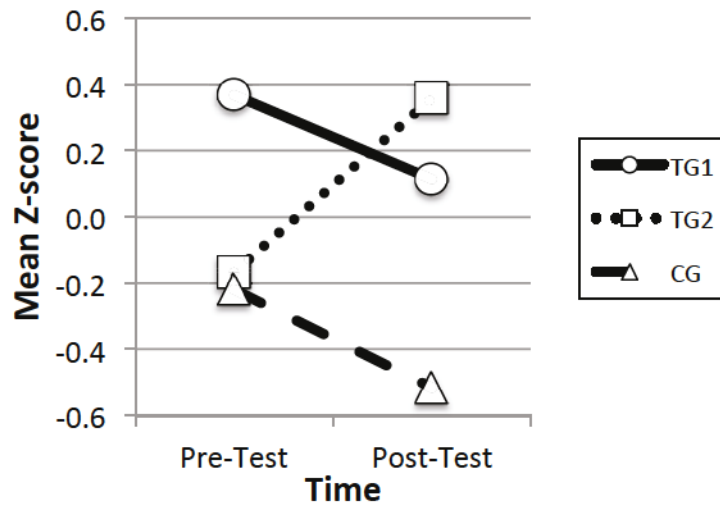
Figure 6.10.1. Mean distribution of z-score for appropriateness of responses to 'non-repeated & direct application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.
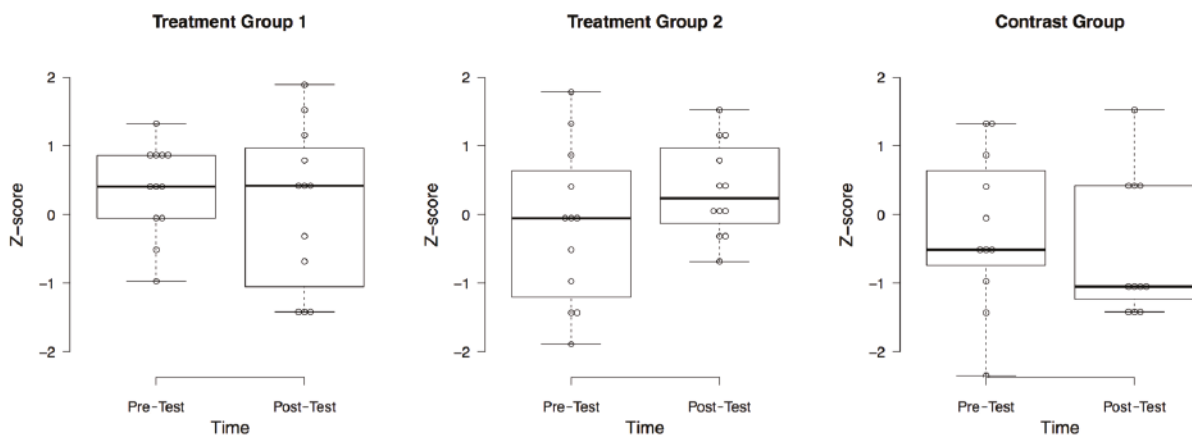
Figure 6.10.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in z-score for appropriateness of responses to 'non-repeated & direct application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.

Table 6.11

Improvement in Z-Score for Appropriateness of Responses to 'Non-Repeated & Modified Application' Prompts in Part 2 (Short Translations or Directed Responses) of Speaking Test

| Group	Pre-test		Post-test		p	r
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	.16	(1.05)	.24	(1.16)	.814	almost no (-.05)
TG2	.34	(1.11)	.21	(.74)	.754	almost no (-.07)
CG	-.54	(.66)	-.49	(1.02)	.790	almost no (.06)
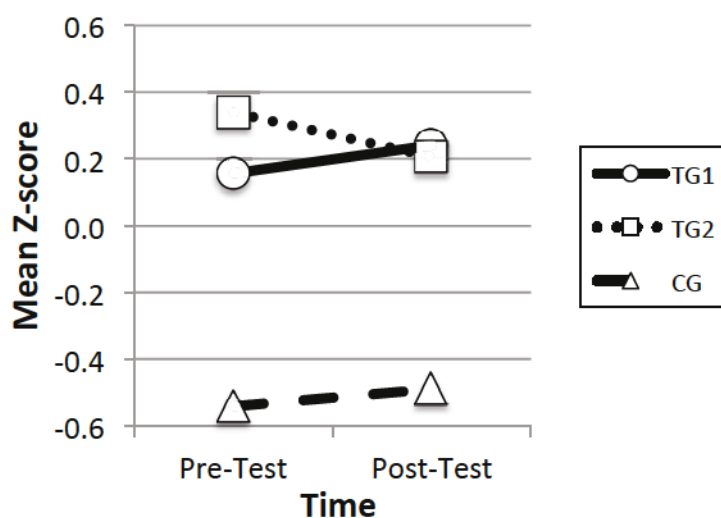
Figure 6.11.1. Mean distribution of z-score for appropriateness of responses to 'non-repeated & modified application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.
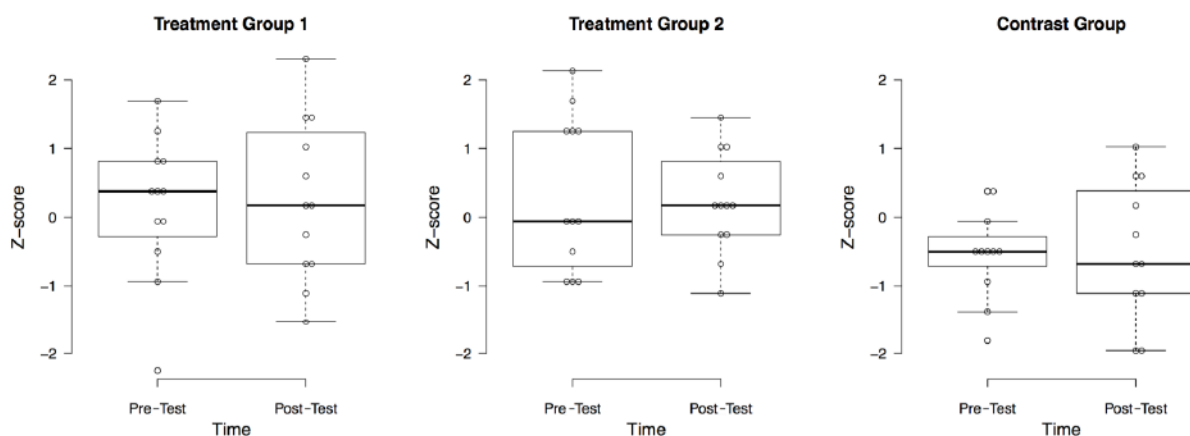
Figure 6.11.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in z-score for appropriateness of responses to 'non-repeated & modified application' prompts in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.

The data acquired for the appropriateness of the responses in Part 2 of the speaking test are summarized in Table 6.12 and Figures 6.12.1-2. The raw scores used for the analyses of the responses to the repeated prompts were standardized into z-scores in order to make comparisons in an integrative way. No significant difference among the three groups at the beginning of the study was confirmed ($H(2) = 1.661$, $p = .436$), nor were there any significant increases found at the end (TG1: $z = .157$, $p = .875$, $r = .03$ [almost no effect]; TG2: $z = .314$, $p = .754$, $r = .07$ [almost no effect]; CG: $z = -.711$, $p = .477$, $r = -.15$ [small effect]; $H(2) = 2.911$, $p = .233$). Overall, unlike the case of the use of formulaic sequences, no obvious advantage of TGs over CG was found when it comes to the appropriateness of the responses, although a slight advantage of TG1 was observed for the repeated & direct application prompts. An interpretation of this disappointing result will be provided with other considerations in Chapter 7.

Table 6.12

Improvement in Z-Score for Overall Appropriateness of Responses in Part 2 (Short Translations or Directed Responses) of Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		p	r
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	.49	(3.18)	.72	(4.20)	.875	almost no (.03)
TG2	.27	(2.15)	.48	(1.27)	.754	almost no (.07)
CG	-.82	(3.07)	-1.31	(2.88)	.477	small (-.15)
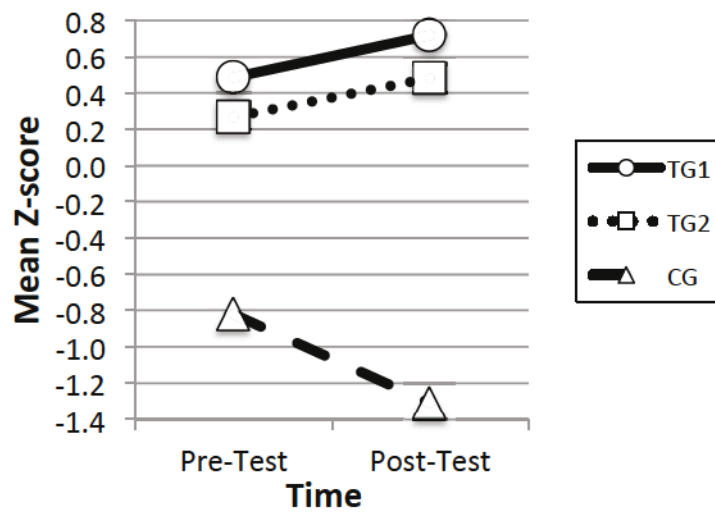
Figure 6.12.1. Mean distribution of z-score for overall appropriateness of responses in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.
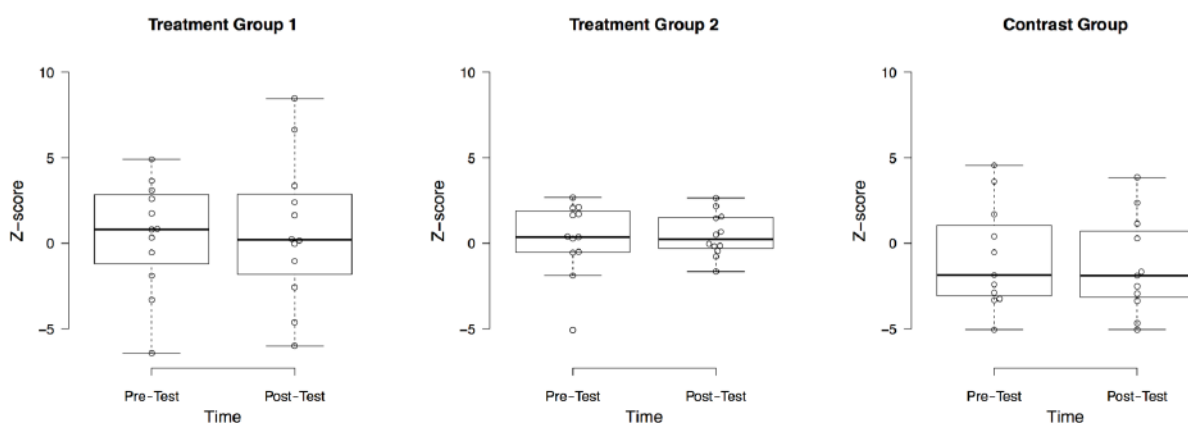
Figure 6.12.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in z-score for overall appropriateness of responses in Part 2 (short translations or directed responses) of speaking test.

6.6 Part 3 of the speaking test

Tables 6.13-14 and Figures 6.13.1-6.14.2 illustrate the results of the three groups' performance in the extensive oral production part of the speaking test (Part 3; see Section 5.4.2.3.1 for details) with respect to the participants' use of formulaic sequences from the dialog textbook and their oral fluency measured by pruned syllables per minute. In either case, no significant variance among the three groups at the beginning of the study was found (use of formulaic sequences: $H(2) = 2.697$, $p = .260$; syllables per minute: $H(2) = .108$, $p = .947$).

First, with regard to the use of formulaic sequences that were also contained in the dialog textbook, only CG showed a significant improvement (TG1: $z = .894$, $p = .371$, $r = .18$ [small effect]; TG2: $z = .180$, $p = .857$, $r = .04$ [almost no effect]; CG: $z = 2.532$, $p = .011^{*}$, $r = .54$ [large effect]). At first sight, this result was contrary to expectations, as neither treatment group showed significant development, even though they must have committed to memory a large number of formulaic sequences, many of which are of general use. Perhaps, those generally applicable sequences had attracted CG's attention more than the TGs

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precisely because of their serviceable nature. This result will be discussed further in Chapter 7, in which an additional corpus-based statistical analysis is given.

Second, with regard to their fluent production measured by pruned syllables per minute, TG2 was the only group showing a significant advancement in their production (TG1: z = .275, p = .784, r = .06 [almost no effect]; TG2: z = 2.118, p = .034[*], r = .43 [medium effect]; CG: z = 1.957, p = .050, r = .42 [medium effect]). A few questions arise from this result. First, since this part of the speaking test must have measured the participants' general proficiency in oral production due to the wide range of topics chosen for the prompts, CG could have gained a significant rise here as they did in the use of formulaic sequences. Second, what factor(s) contributed to the different results between TG1 and TG2 here? These issues will also be considered in Chapter 7.

Table 6.13

Improvement in Number of Formulaic Sequences Used from Dialogs for Part 3 (Extensive Oral Production in English) of Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		p	r
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	5.42	(3.03)	6.42	(3.90)	.371	small (.18)
TG2	3.42	(1.31)	4.58	(3.37)	.857	almost no (.04)
CG	3.45	(2.16)	6.45	(3.93)	.011[*]	large (.54)
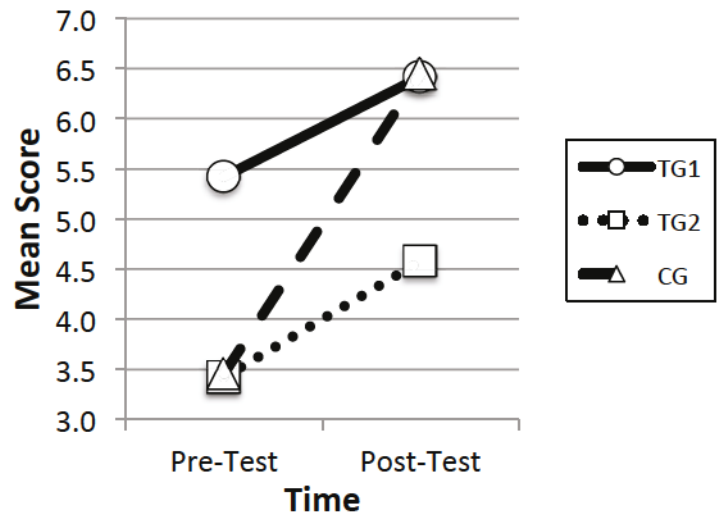
Figure 6.13.1. Mean distribution of number of formulaic sequences used from dialogs for

Part 3 (extensive oral production in English) of speaking test.
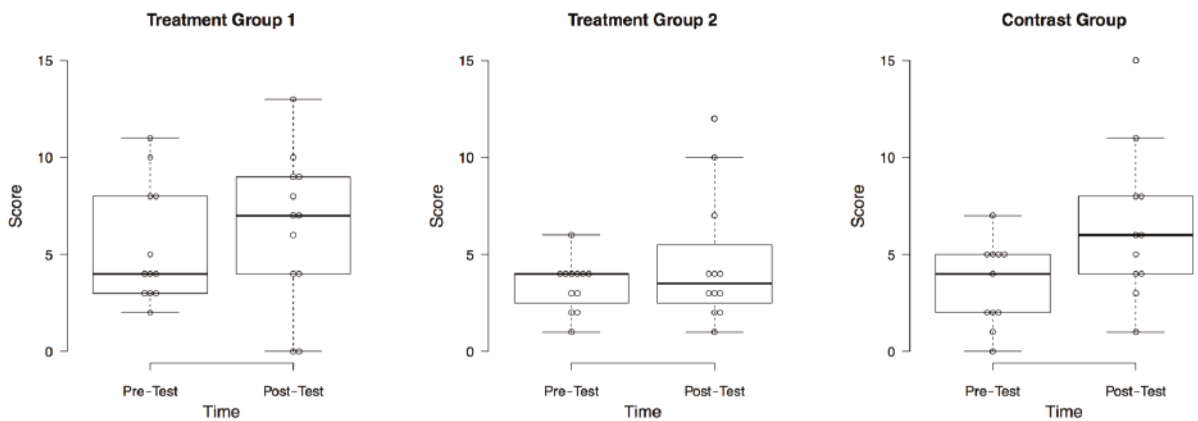
Figure 6.13.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in number of formulaic

sequences used from dialogs for Part 3 (extensive oral production in English) of speaking test.

Table 6.14

Improvement in Number of Syllables Spoken per Minute for Part 3 (Extensive Oral Production in English) of Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		*p*	*r*
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	55.92	(18.72)	57.75	(23.80)	.784	almost no (.06)
TG2	55.44	(17.05)	61.73	(20.15)	.034[*]	medium (.43)
CG	53.89	(17.32)	59.80	(18.72)	.050	medium (.42)
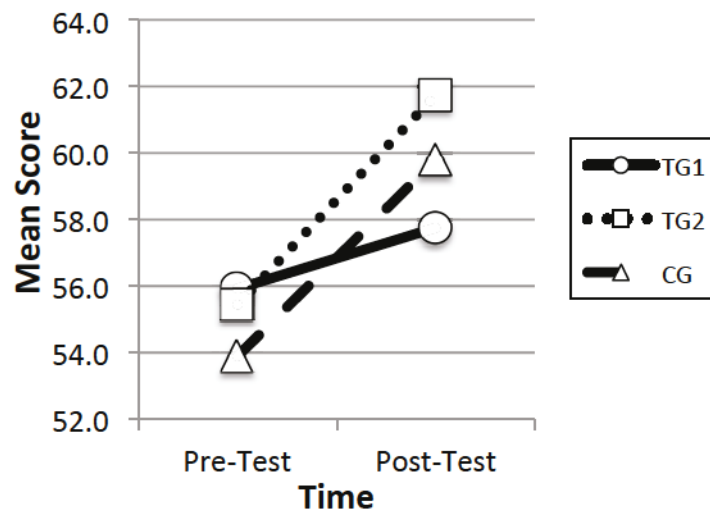
Figure 6.14.1. Mean distribution of number of syllables spoken per minute for Part 3 (extensive oral production in English) of speaking test.

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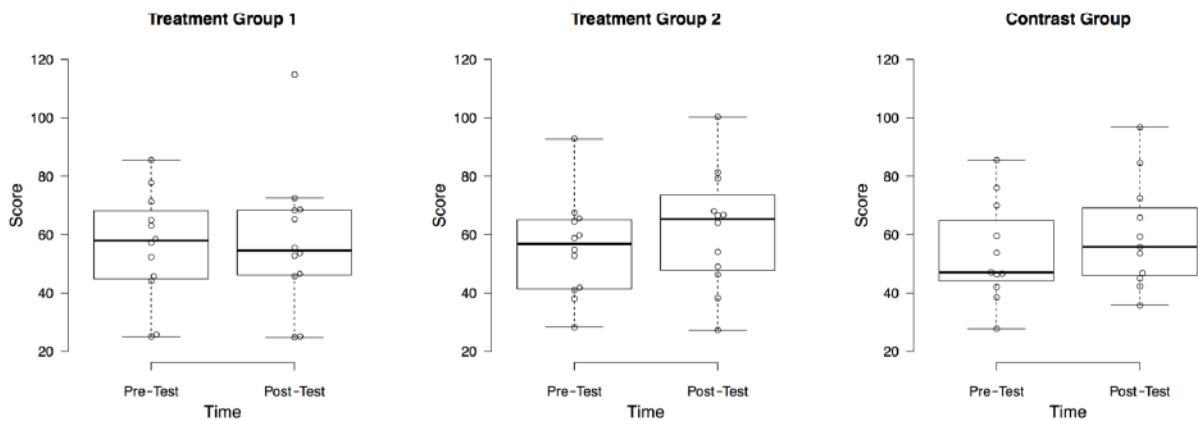
Figure 6.14.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in number of syllables spoken per minute for Part 3 (extensive oral production in English) of speaking test.

6.7 Attitudinal items used in both Pre- and Post-Questionnaires

Table 6.15 and Figures 6.15.1-2 summarize the results of the questionnaire items asked to all three groups twice during the study (see Section 5.4.2.3.2 and Table 5.1 for details). No significant distinction among the three groups was found at the beginning of the study for 'importance of emulating proficient pronunciation' ($H(2) = .711, p = .701$), 'importance of memorizing FSs' ($H(2) = .037, p = .982$), or 'a grade incentive to memorization' ($H(2) = 4.263, p = .119$). Nor was there any significant change observed at the end of instruction for importance of emulating proficient pronunciation (TG1: $z = .106, p = .915, r = .02$ [almost no effect]; TG2: $z = .707, p = .480, r = .15$ [small effect]; CG: $z = .000, p = 1.000, r = .00$ [almost no effect]), importance of memorizing FSs (TG1: $z = 1.406, p = .160, r = .29$ [small effect]; TG2: $z = .816, p = .414, r = .17$ [small effect]; CG: $z = -.264, p = .792, r = -.06$ [almost no effect]), or a grade incentive to memorization (TG1: $z = 1.190, p = .234, r = .24$ [small effect]; TG2: $z = 1.807, p = .071, r = .37$ [medium effect]; CG: $z = -.846, p = .397, r = -.18$ [small effect]). Since there was another set of attitudinal survey items, given only at the end of the study, interpretation of the results here will be given when summarizing the results. (see Table 6.20 and Figures 6.20.1-2).

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Table 6.15

Likert-Scale Score Changes in Attitudinal Survey Items

Focus of the item	Group	Pre-questionnaire		Post-questionnaire		*p*	*r*
		M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
Importance of emulating proficient pronunciation	TG1	5.08	(.67)	5.08	(.90)	.915	almost no (.02)
	TG2	4.67	(1.07)	5.00	(.85)	.480	small (.15)
	CG	4.64	(1.43)	4.64	(.92)	1.000	almost no (.00)
Importance of memorizing FSs	TG1	5.17	(.94)	5.58	(.52)	.160	small (.29)
	TG2	5.17	(.94)	5.33	(.78)	.414	small (.17)
	CG	5.27	(.79)	5.18	(.75)	.792	almost no (-.06)
A grade incentive to memorization	TG1	4.17	(.94)	4.50	(1.00)	.234	small (.24)
	TG2	3.25	(1.36)	3.92	(1.44)	.071	medium (.37)
	CG	4.27	(.91)	3.73	(1.74)	.397	small (-.18)
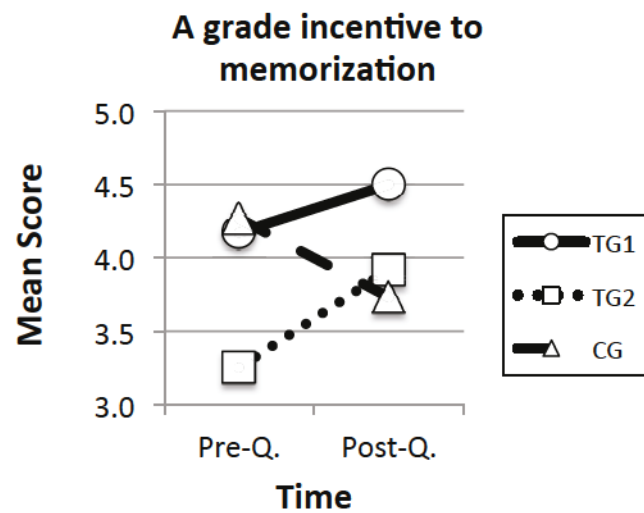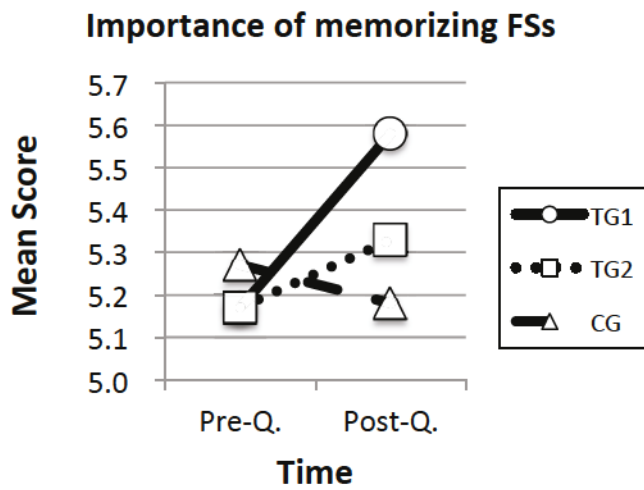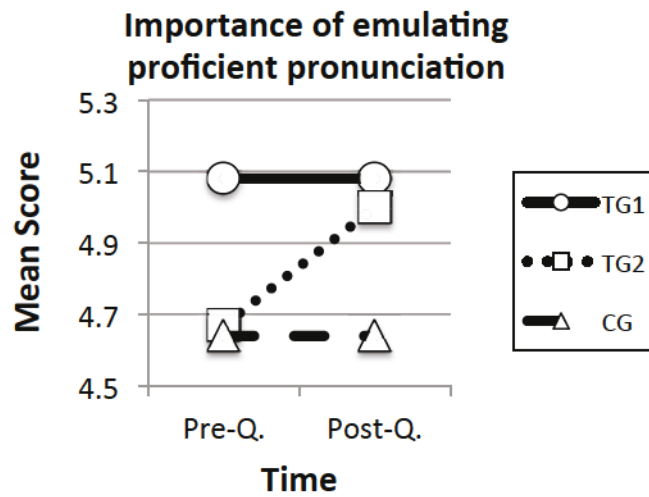
Figure 6.15.1. Item-by-item mean distribution of Likert-scale scores for questionnaire items regarding attitudes that were surveyed in both Pre-Questionnaire and Post-Questionnaire.

Importance of emulating proficient pronunciation
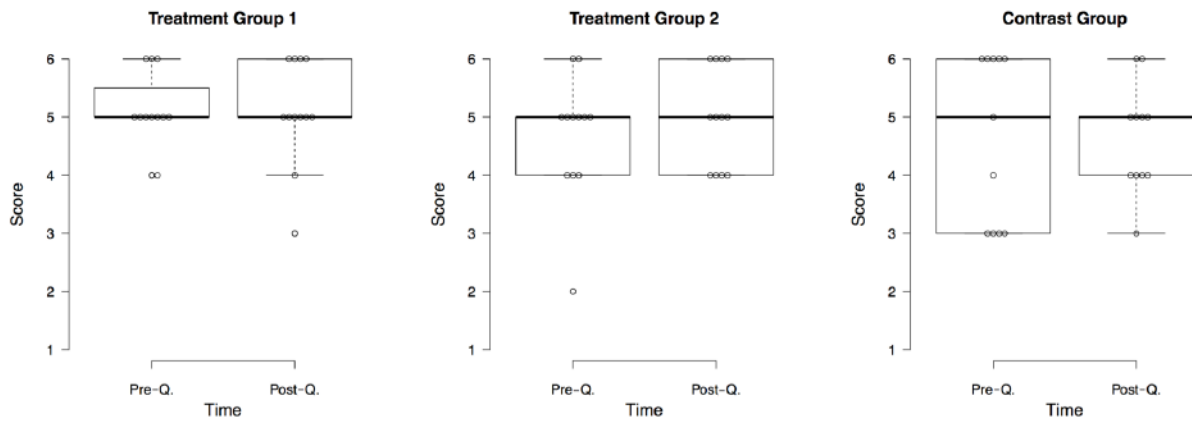
Importance of memorizing FSs
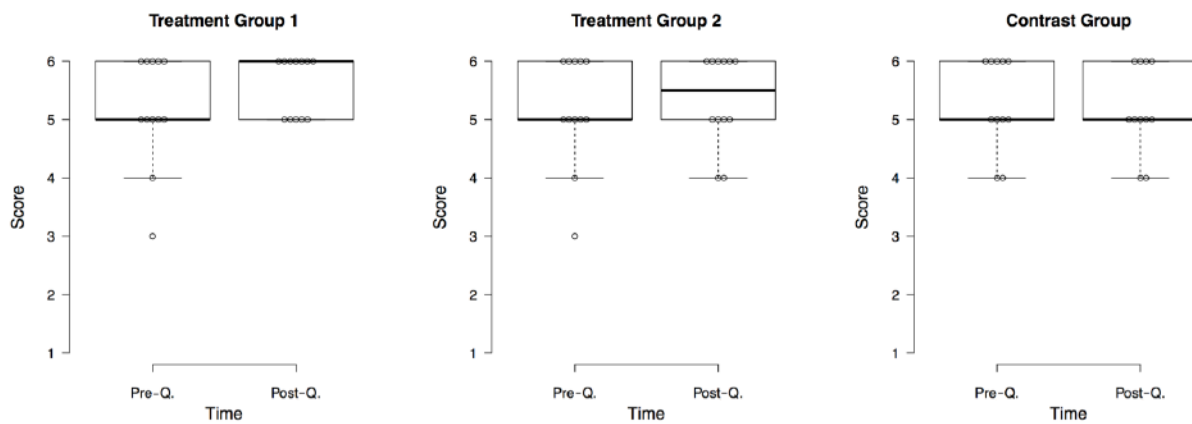
A grade incentive to memorization
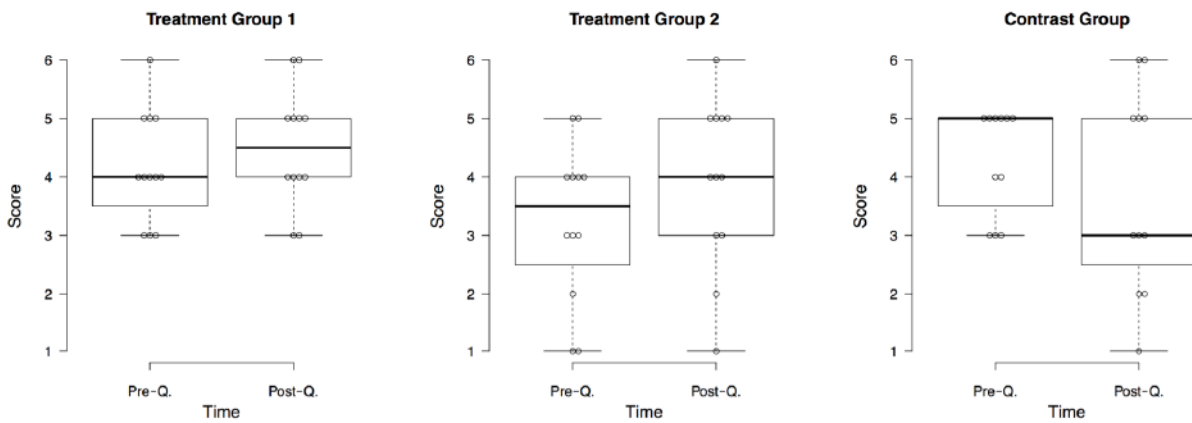
Figure 6.15.2. Item-by-item boxplots showing Likert-scale scores for questionnaire items regarding attitudes that were surveyed in both Pre-Questionnaire and Post-Questionnaire.

6.8 Reflective items on engagement in memorization given only to TGs

The results of those survey items given only to the TGs at the end of instruction regarding their engagement in memorization are demonstrated in Table 6.16 and Figures 6.16.1-2. A significant difference between the two treatment groups was found for 'motivational effects of in-class recitation' (U = -2.097, p = .045[*], r = -.43 [medium effect]), but not for the other three items ('motivational effects of in-class memorization time': U = -1.130, p = .319, r = -.23 [small effect]; 'practicing until fast': U = -.926, p = .378, r = -.19 [small effect]; 'practicing until attaining proper articulation': U = .301, p = .799, r = .06 [almost no effect]). There are two interesting observations to be made about these results. First, the results here suggest that in-class recitation tasks can strongly motivate students to memorize a large volume of text; otherwise, there would not have been the significant variance between TG1 and TG2 on motivational effects of in-class recitation. Second, it is noteworthy that there was no significant difference for practicing until attaining proper articulation, because TG1 significantly outperformed TG2 in the articulation part of the speaking test (Part 1; see Table 6.2 and Figures 6.2.1-2), suggesting that whole-text recitation can affect learning of pronunciation aspects in an implicit manner. These two observations will be returned to in Chapter 7.

Table 6.16

Reflections on Engagement in Memorization (Asked to TGs Only)

Focus of the item	Group	*M*	*(SD)*	*p*	*r*
Motivational effects of in-class recitation	TG1	5.42	(.79)	.045*	medium (-.43)
	TG2	4.50	(1.17)		
Motivational effects of in-class memorization time	TG1	5.17	(.84)	.319	small (-.23)
	TG2	4.83	(.58)		
Practicing until fast	TG1	4.00	(1.21)	.378	small (-.19)
	TG2	3.58	(1.24)		
Practicing until attaining proper articulation	TG1	3.67	(1.23)	.799	almost no (.06)
	TG2	3.67	(1.07)		
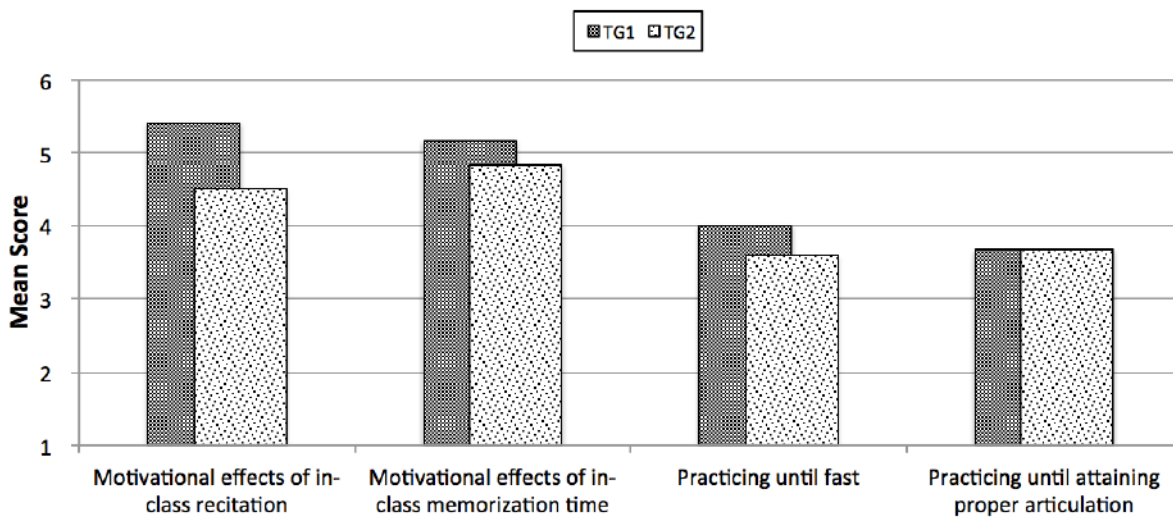
Figure 6.16.1. Mean distribution of Likert-scale score for questionnaire items regarding engagement in memorization.
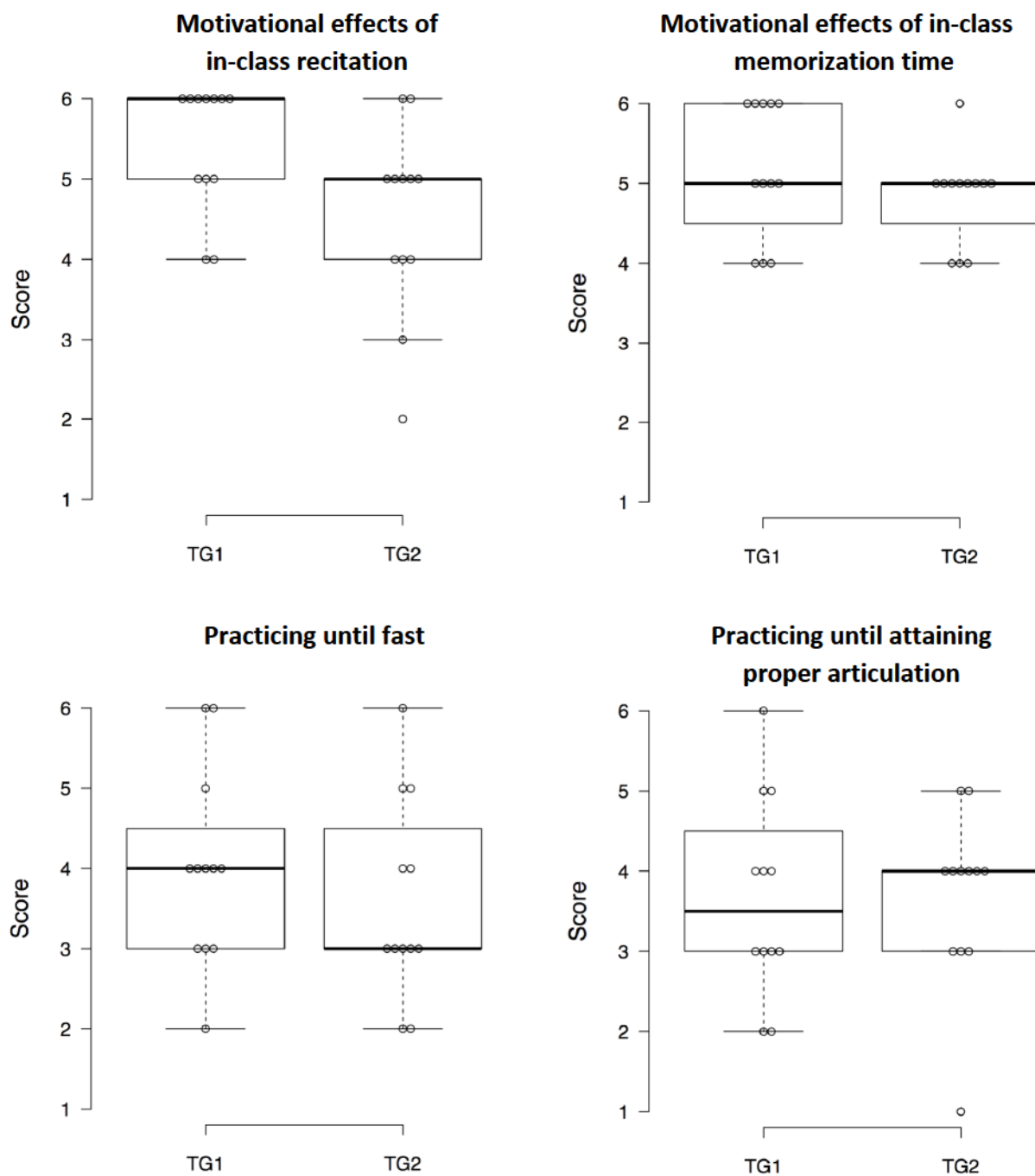
Figure 6.16.2. Item-by-item boxplots showing Likert-scale score for questionnaire items regarding engagement in memorization.

6.9 Reflective items on improvement in output production (except for articulatory aspects)

Table 6.17 and Figures 6.17.1-2 outline the results of those reflective questionnaire items on the improvement in non-articulatory aspects of output. A significant difference

among the three groups was found for 'formulaic sequences' ($H(2) = 6.224$, $p = .045^*$), and the multiple comparisons revealed that the exact significant variance was between CG and TG1 (CG vs. TG1: $U = 2.488$, $p = .039^*$, $r = .52$ [large effect]; CG vs. TG2: $U = 1.458$, $p = .435$, $r = .31$ [medium effect]; TG2 vs. TG1: $U = 1.053$, $p = .877$, $r = .22$ [small effect]). No significant difference was observed for 'fillers' ($H(2) = 3.665$, $p = .160$), 'new sentence structures' ($H(2) = 2.265$, $p = .322$), or 'morphological and syntactic control' ($H(2) = 2.719$, $p = .257$). Two observations are in order. First, the results of the two items relating to grammar (i.e., 'new sentence structures' and 'morphological and syntactic control') are consistent with those non-significant improvements found in the case of the 'modified application' prompts in Part 2 of the speaking test (see Tables 6.4, 6.6, 6.9, and 6.11). Taken together, the implication is that merely engaging learners in text memorization, whether with a whole-text or partial-text approach, is insufficient to drive the kinds of analysis at the time of encoding that will make the formulaic sequences therein flexibly applicable in future language use. Another noteworthy result is the significant discrepancy found between TG1 and CG on improvement in the use of formulaic sequences, not between TG2 and CG, because, as seen in Tables 6.3, 6.5, and 6.7, TG2's overall development in the use of formulaic sequences in Part 2 of the speaking test was considered higher, to some extent but not significantly, than TG1's. This is yet another point further discussed in Chapter 7.

Table 6.17

Reflections on Improvement in Output Production (Except for Articulatory Aspects)

Focus of the item	Group	M	(SD)	p
Fillers	TG1	4.08	(1.17)	.160
	TG2	3.83	(.94)	
	CG	3.18	(1.17)	
New sentence structures	TG1	4.25	(.97)	.322
	TG2	3.67	(1.16)	
	CG	3.91	(.83)	
Morphological and syntactic control	TG1	3.67	(.78)	.257
	TG2	4.00	(.74)	
	CG	3.45	(.82)	
Formulaic sequences	TG1	5.08	(.67)	.045*
	TG2	4.75	(.62)	
	CG	4.18	(.98)	
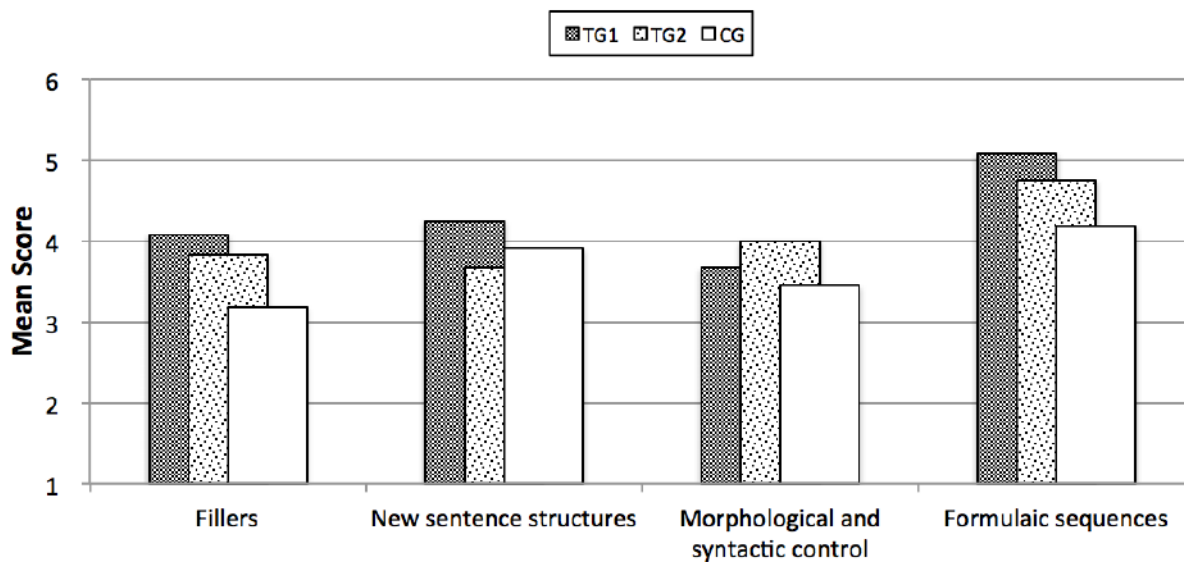
Figure 6.17.1. Mean distribution of Likert-scale score for questionnaire items regarding improvement in output production (except for articulatory aspects).
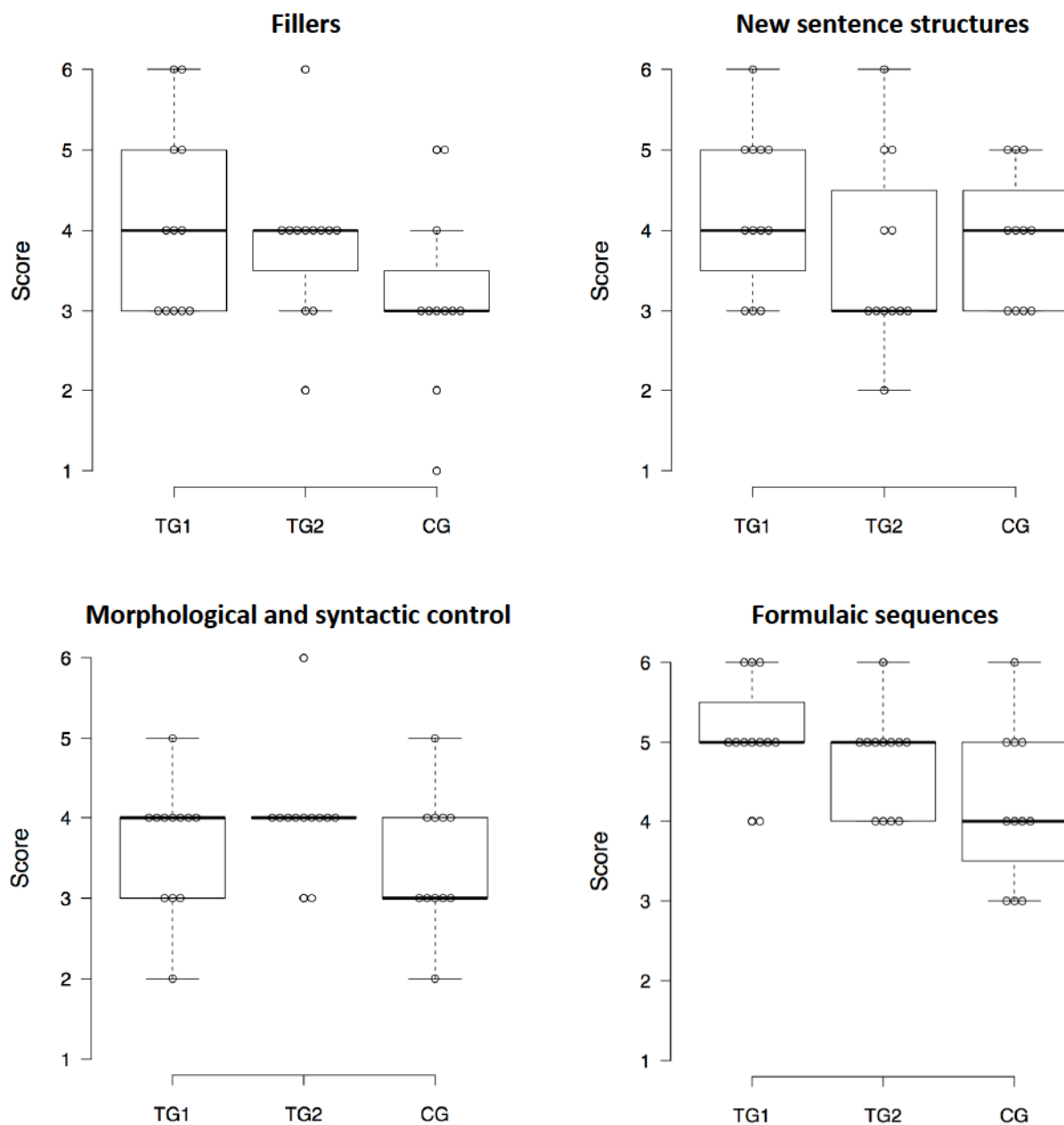
Figure 6.17.2. Item-by-item boxplots showing Likert-scale score for questionnaire items regarding improvement in output production (except for articulatory aspects).

6.10 Reflective items on improvement in articulation

Table 6.18 and Figures 6.18.1-2, on the other hand, summarize the results of those reflective questionnaire items on the improvement in a number of articulatory aspects of output. First, a significant difference was found for 'pronunciation of individual words' (*H*

(2) = 11.650, p = .003**), and by the multiple comparisons, a significant variance was found

between TG1 and CG (CG vs. TG1: U = 3.385, p = .002**, r = .71 [large effect]; CG vs. TG2:

U = 2.139, p = .097, r = .45 [medium effect]; TG2 vs. TG1: U = 1.274, p = .608, r = .26

[small effect]). Another significant distinction was identified for 'liaison' (H (2) = 12.288, p

= .002**), and through multiple comparisons a significant difference was found, again,

between TG1 and CG (CG vs. TG1: U = 3.505, p = .001**, r = .73 [large effect]; CG vs. TG2:

U = 1.891, p = .176, r = .40 [medium effect]; TG2 vs. TG1: U = 1.649, p = .297, r = .34

[medium effect]). These results lend further support to the results found in Part 1 of the

speaking test (*reading-aloud short sentences*; see Table 6.2). However, there was no

significant discrepancy among the three groups for 'intonation and stress' (H (2) = .930, p

= .628), with the implication being that intonation and stress are both much more difficult for

learners to assess than pronunciation of individual words or liaison and thus more difficult to

evaluate progress on their own.

Table 6.18

Reflections on Improvement in Articulation

Focus of the item	Group	*M*	*(SD)*	*p*
Pronunciation of individual words	TG1	4.42	(1.00)	
	TG2	3.83	(.94)	.003**
	CG	3.00	(1.10)	
Liaison	TG1	5.00	(.85)	
	TG2	4.33	(.78)	.002**
	CG	3.55	(.82)	
Intonation and stress	TG1	4.25	(1.14)	
	TG2	3.92	(1.17)	.628
	CG	3.82	(.98)	
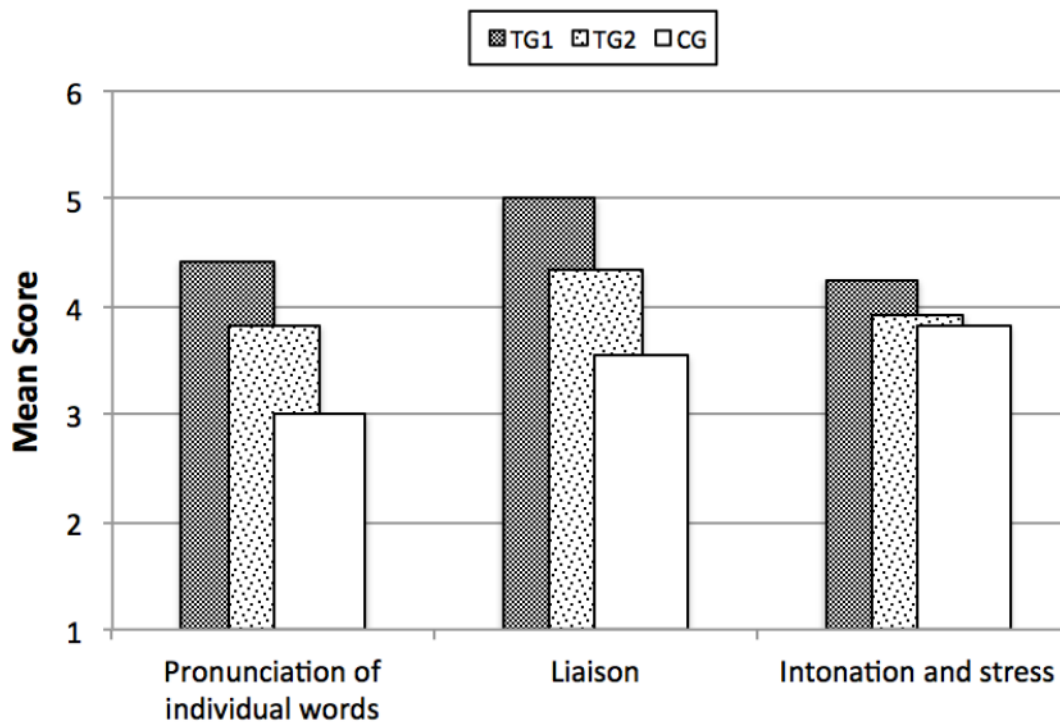
Figure 6.18.1. Mean distribution of Likert-scale score for questionnaire items regarding improvement in articulation.
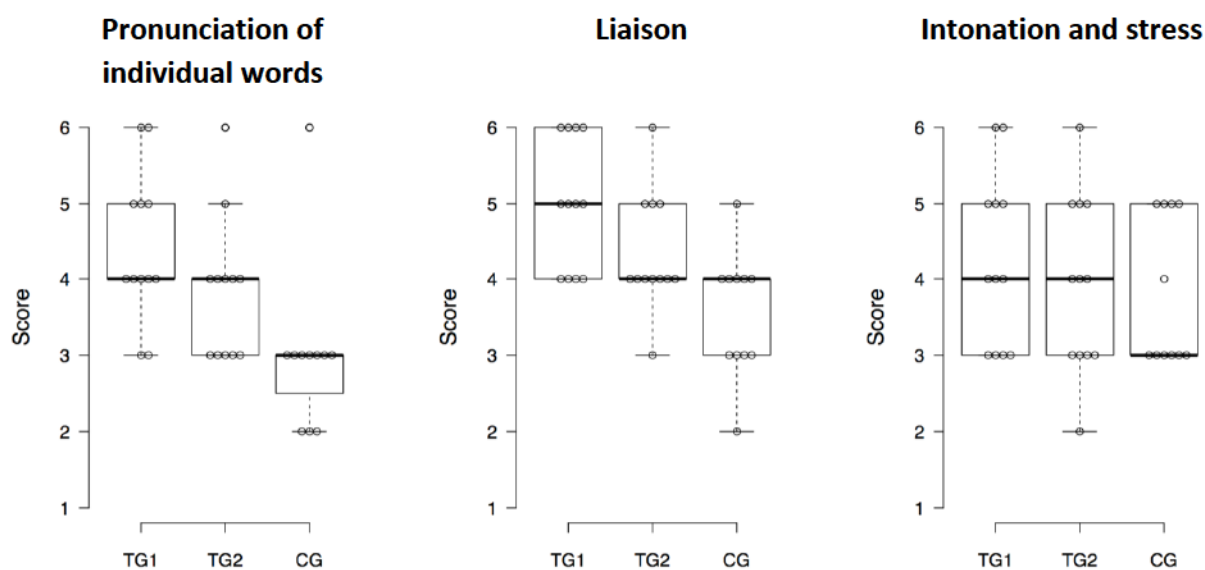
Figure 6.18.2. Item-by-item boxplots showing Likert-scale score for questionnaire items regarding improvement in articulation.

6.11 Reflective items on improvement in language processing

Table 6.19 and Figures 6.19.1-2 deal with the last set of reflective survey items on the progress that the participants felt they had made, that is, the items on language processing. As Table 6.19 shows, neither treatment group felt that they had improved their skill in emulating articulation or chunk memorization significantly more than CG (emulating articulation: $H(2) = 1.155, p = .561$; chunk memorization: $H(2) = 2.972, p = .226$). An interpretation of these results is that these two types of processing have more to do with learners' holistic language knowledge, as well as their analytic (particularly implicit in nature) language knowledge (see Chapters 2 and 3), with the implication being that, fundamentally, adeptness in articulatory emulation and chunk encoding depends on the extent to which language knowledge, presumably more holistic than analytic, is already established in long-term memory. The language knowledge base of the participants in this study was not substantially established yet, even at the end of the study.

Table 6.19

Reflections on Improvement in Language Processing

Focus of the item	Group	*M*	*(SD)*	*p*
	TG1	3.92	(1.00)	
Emulating articulation	TG2	3.58	(1.00)	.561
	CG	3.55	(.82)	
	TG1	4.50	(1.09)	
Chunk memorization	TG2	3.92	(.90)	.226
	CG	3.82	(.87)	
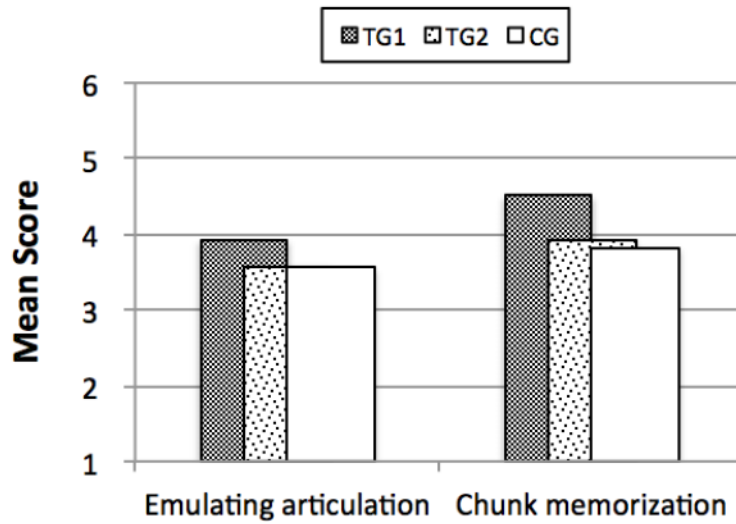
Figure 6.19.1. Mean distribution of Likert-scale score for questionnaire items regarding improvement in language processing.
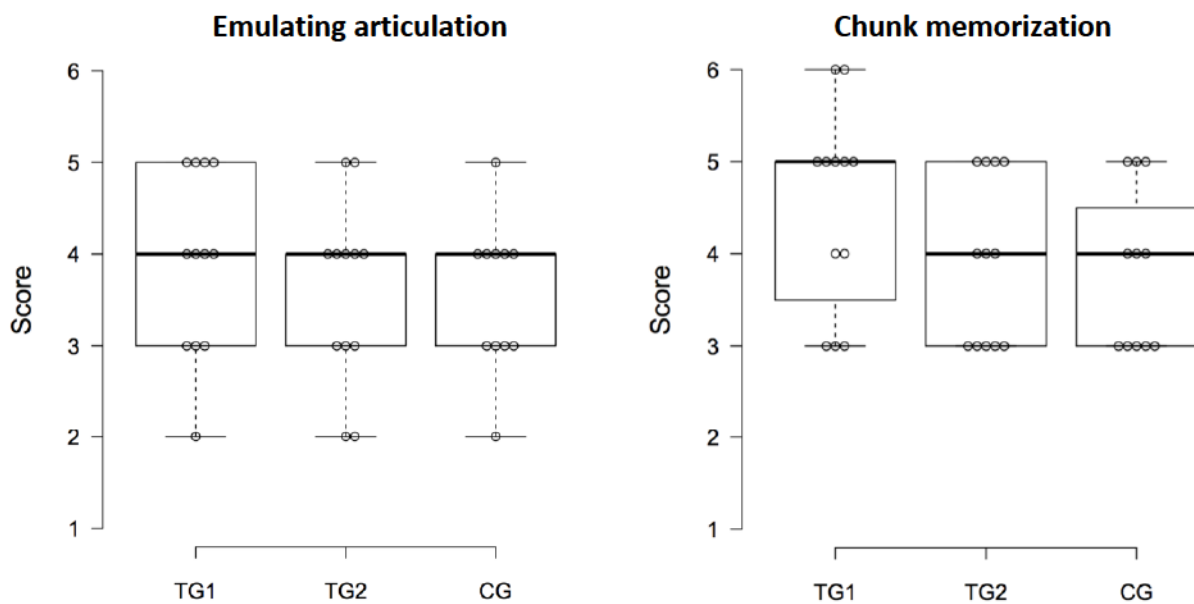
Figure 6.19.2. Item-by-item boxplots showing Likert-scale score for questionnaire items regarding improvement in language processing.

6.12 Reflective items on changes in attitude toward memorization, especially of FSs

The final set of the questionnaire results concern those items that asked the participants to reflect on the extent to which their attitude toward text memorization favorably changed.

As illustrated in Table 6.20 and Figures 6.20.1-2, while there was no significant difference observed among the three groups regarding the first two survey items ('toward text memorization': $H(2) = 5.420$, $p = .067$; 'toward readily recitable memorization': $H(2) = 4.764$, $p = .092$), on the last item 'toward text memorization as a way to learn a variety of features,' TG1 came to have a significantly more favorable attitude toward it than the CG (H $(2) = 9.984$, $p = .007^{**}$; CG vs. TG1: $U = 3.134$, $p = .005^{**}$, $r = .65$ [large effect]; CG vs. TG2: $U = 1.288$, $p = .594$, $r = .27$ [small effect]; TG2 vs. TG1: $U = 1.887$, $p = .177$, $r = .39$ [medium effect]). The results here, together with the those introduced in Table 6.15, indicate that a whole-text memorization approach may be able to leave a more instructional effect on the students' willingness to further work on text memorization on their own than a partial-text memorization approach.

Table 6.20

Reflections on Favorable Changes in Attitude Toward Memorization

Focus of the item	Group	*M*	*(SD)*	*p*
Toward text memorization	TG1	4.92	(.79)	.067
	TG2	4.33	(.89)	
	CG	4.09	(.70)	
Toward readily recitable memorization	TG1	5.08	(.67)	.092
	TG2	4.42	(1.00)	
	CG	4.45	(.69)	
Toward text memorization as a way to learn a variety of features	TG1	5.08	(.67)	.007**
	TG2	4.42	(.90)	
	CG	4.00	(.63)	
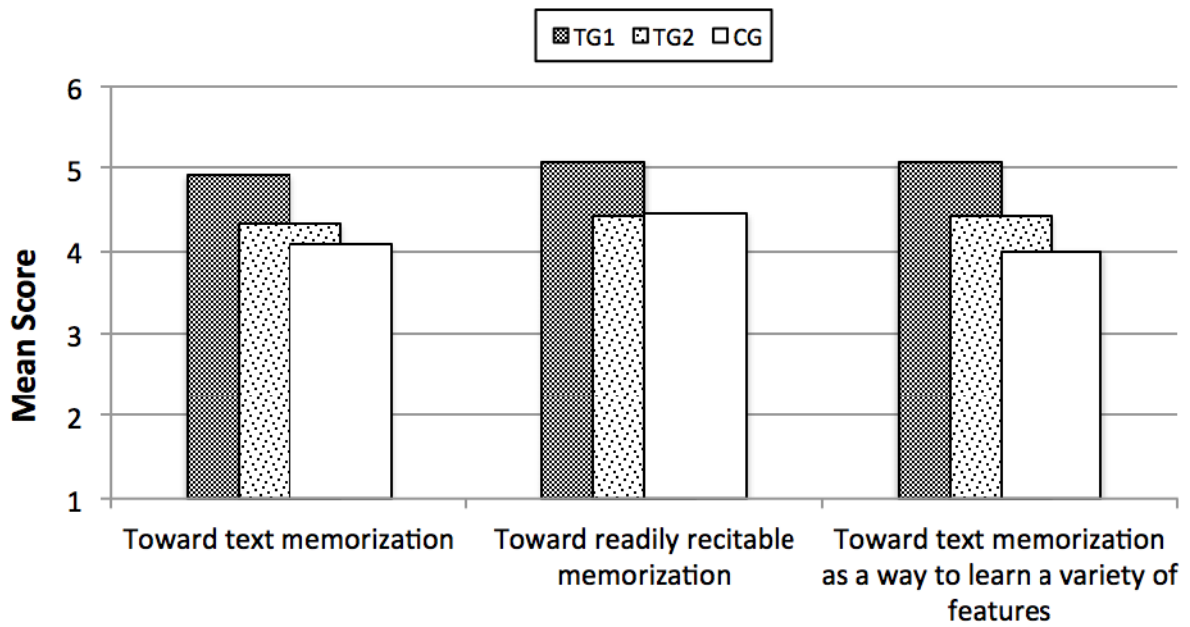
Figure 6.20.1. Mean distribution of Likert-scale score for questionnaire items regarding favorable changes in attitude toward memorization.
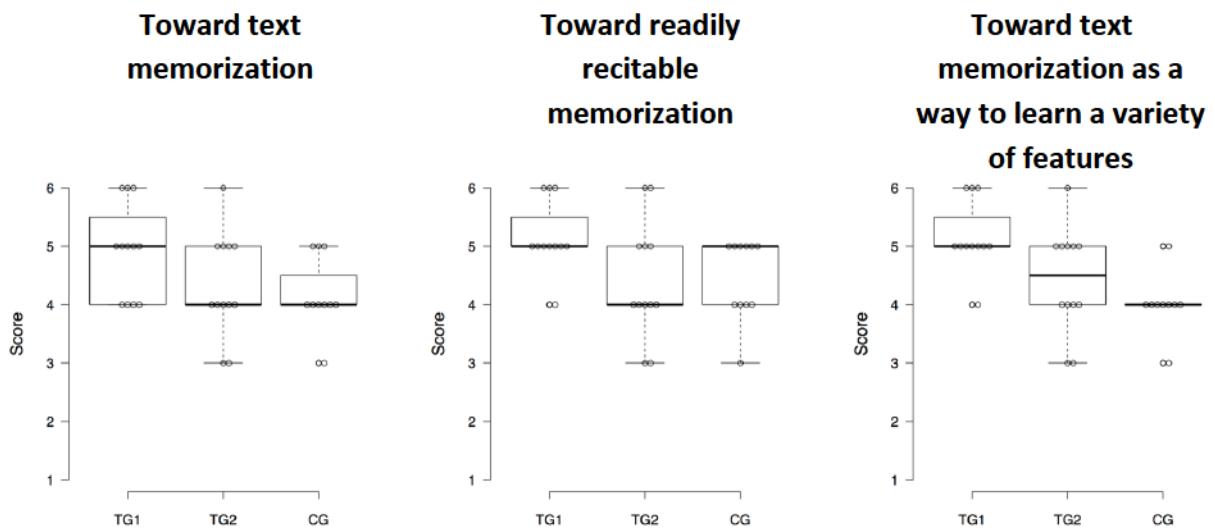
Figure 6.20.2. Item-by-item boxplots showing Likert-scale score for questionnaire items regarding favorable changes in attitude toward memorization.

CHAPTER 7

Discussion and conclusions

7.1 Introduction

While Chapter 6 presented the quantitative results of the study in graphic and numerical terms, with little interpretative comment, this chapter first aims to offer a more detailed discussion of insights, reflections and questions that arise from the same data. The discussion follows the order of the five research questions that were presented in Chapter 5, with each question discussed here in separate sections. When addressing RQ5, pertinent quasi-interview data (see Section 5.4.2.3.4 for details) will also be referred to. Following this discussion, a summary of the major findings of this study will be offered, with pedagogical implications, which will then be followed by the methodological limitations of this study. Finally, there will be concluding remarks and future directions for research.

7.2 Differential effects of whole-text and partial-text recitation on engagement in memorization

This section addresses the first research question set in Chapter 5: *Do 'whole-text' and 'partial-text' recitation of a large volume of useful dialogs, prepared in advance of instruction, engage foreign language classroom learners in memorization over the course of one semester, and is there a significant difference between the two in their facilitative effect?* The progress made on 1st Check and 2nd Check of dialog recitation by both TGs (see Section 5.4.2.2 for details) is first discussed, and is followed by discussion of the results of the questionnaire items pertinent to this research question.

7.2.1 First Check of dialog recitation

The results show high mean percentages at the point of the 1st check: 98.67% for TG1 and 80.92% for TG2. This seems to suggest that the whole-text and partial-text recitation of a large number of dialogs over the course of a semester did indeed engage the students in memorization.

In view of the large volume of material that students were to learn by heart and be able to recite, these are remarkably high figures. In total, the dialogs consisted of 3,182 words in the case of TG1, and 1,045 words in the case of TG2. The results seem all the more remarkable if we take into account the fact that students had to sustain their focus on the task for an entire semester, and this in a class for which there would be no grade counting for GPA or graduation. It seems that the students were genuinely committed to this memorization work.

Why would they show such commitment? This was probably because the materials, which were designed to be helpful to the students in their prospective period of study abroad, were perceived by the students themselves to actually be helpful in this way. Since this is precisely the reason for developing the set of model dialogs in the first place, the result can be seen as a vindication of the rationale for the course. More generally, it also underlies the importance for teachers to use materials that will be perceived as useful by their students, a point that is returned to below in Section 7.7.4. A further point that needs to be borne in mind, and one that can only be briefly mentioned in this research, is that there was probably a "rub-off" of the teacher's genuine enthusiasm for, commitment to and belief in the project.

Let us now turn to the second half of RQ1, and consider whether there is a difference between the extent to which whole-text and partial-text recitation facilitated engagement in memorization. The results suggest that there is such a difference because, as shown in Section 6.2, the achievement percentage of TG1 for the 1st Check was significantly higher than that of TG2. In a sense, this result must come as a surprise, because whole-text

memorization can be assumed to be far more demanding than partial-text memorization (see also Section 7.2.3.3). Figure 7.1 depicts the varying achievement results for each dialog group by group. As mentioned in Section 5.4.2.3.1, one caveat in analyzing this figure is that while TG2 on average had one week less than TG1 in the semester (TG1: 14.5 class meetings; TG2: 13.5 class meetings), TG2 on average started working with the dialogs one week sooner than TG1 (with TG1 starting halfway through the third class, TG2 halfway through the second).

7.2.2 Second Check of dialog recitation

The data from the 2nd check offer us a more attenuated and less affirmative answer to RQ1. While both groups made little progress beyond what they had achieved for the 1st Check, TG2 made more progress on the 2nd Check than TG1, but the difference was non-significant. Taking a closer look at the 2nd Check accomplishment data, while the top three achievers in TG1 constituted 59.46% of all 2nd Check achievement by that group, the top three in TG2 constituted 59.29%—almost the same percentage as TG1's top three achievers—of all 2nd Check achievement made by their group. All of these 2nd Check top three achievers in each group had attained 100% on their 1st Check. On the other hand, TG1's top three achievers on the 2nd Check completed 22% on average, whereas TG2's top three completed 55.33% on average. Assuming that these six students were among the most motivated in the two groups, the data indicate that the highly motivated learners were able to do more than half of their 2nd Check allocation when assigned to do partial-text recitation, while if assigned to do whole-text recitation, it became hard for them to reach even one quarter of their target. This reinforces the point made above that whole-text recitation can be considered to be more demanding than partial-text recitation.

Once again, the whole-text recitation group had to commit to memory much more than the partial-text recitation group (3,182 words compared to 1,045 words, which is 304%, or

three times as much). It is not, then, a question of which highly motivated group performed better, but rather of what pedagogical implication there is here. It seems to be this: for highly motivated students, partial-text recitation assessed twice may work better than whole-text recitation that is assessed only once, assuming that work towards being assessed twice creates a better chance of resulting in memory trace.

TG1 1st Check achievement

Legend: Mean Percentage, Mean Class Time

Dialog No. & Title:
66. asking for a discount
65. asking for the direction
64. money exchange
63. @McDonald's
62. @restaurant
61. I haven't seen you in ages.
60. problem&request@hotel
59. immigration
58. We'll be in touch.
57. Watch out!
56. Do you have the time?
55. What a coincidence!
54. cheating & suspension
53. See? I told you.
52. It's a nice compliment.
51. You earned it.
50. I'm jealous.
49. nightmare
48. I'm supposed to ...
47. come in
46. It doesn't make sense.
45. It's your fault.
44. I'll be right with you.
43. I couldn't help it.
42. It's a waste of time.
41. judge a book by its cover
40. I'm sick of ...
39. What for?
38. instead of ...
37. get ahold of ...
36. You can count on it.
35. I'll leave it to you.
34. wait in line
33. kill time
32. astrology reading
31. Count me in.
30. Ouch!
29. It's a big loss.
28. I'll pass.
27. Thanks, but no thanks.
26. get cold feet
25. Guess what?
24. catching a cold
23. running out of time/ideas
22. Don't you hate it when that
21. Whatever.
20. There's no way I can tell you.
19. What would you do if you won
18. You mean you don't have any
17. That's the way it goes.
16. last weekend
15. How should I say this in English?
14. favorite actor
13. glad to help anytime
12. almost there
11. extension & exception
10. You will make it.
9. desperately
8. What's going to happen next
7. What do you think of ...?
6. brothers/sisters
5. get carried away
4. call it a day
3. split the bill
2. year in school
1. meeting for the first time

TG2 1st Check achievement

Legend: Mean Percentage, Mean Class Time

Dialog No. (66 down to 1)

Figure 7.1. The varying achievement results for each dialog group by group.

7.2.3 Questionnaire items pertinent to RQ1

To some extent at least, the questionnaire results are also pertinent to RQ1 and need to be noted here. In this sub-section, the results for the item 'A grade incentive will help me engage in dialog memorization' will be reviewed, followed by discussion of the first three reflective items on engagement in memorization, given only to the TGs (Section 6.8, Table 6.16). Discussion of the last reflective item (i.e., 'practicing until attaining proper articulation') will be addressed separately under Section 7.3.3, where the improvements in pronunciation will be discussed.

7.2.3.1 A grade incentive

The non-significant variance in the changes on the item 'A grade incentive will help me engage in dialog memorization' (see Table 6.15) suggests that even if a task requires hard work, the fact that it is perceived as useful by students is sufficient to drive their engagement in memorization. However, the results for this item might have been different if grades contributing to GPA had been involved, so further research needs to be done to understand the impact of this variable.

7.2.3.2 Motivational effects of in-class recitation

As pointed out in Section 6.8, TG1 showed a significantly higher score for the item 'I worked hard on dialog memorization thanks to the Check' than TG2, but no other significant variance between the two groups was found for the other three items in this category: 'motivational effects of in-class memorization time,' 'practicing until fast,' and 'practicing until attaining proper articulation.' The results suggest that in-class recitation tasks can strongly motivate students to memorize a large volume of text; otherwise, TG1 would not have had the significantly higher score than TG2 on motivational effects of in-class recitation.

It is possible to also interpret these results as indicating that students would not work on lengthy text memorization for an extended period of time on their own, *even if* they felt that it would help them learn material better, and so a class in which students are indeed expected to do a substantial amount of recitation (and therefore necessarily, memorization) can be helpful to those who would be likely to benefit from such memorization-oriented learning. The question of which students can be considered likely to so benefit represents an important potential area for further investigation and clarification that is suggested by the present study.

7.2.3.3 Motivational effects of in-class memorization time

This refers to the item 'I engaged in dialog memorization thanks to the in-class time given to it.' While TG2 only needed to memorize about a third of the amount of text tackled by TG1, the students in TG2 appreciated the in-class memorization time almost as highly as those in TG1. This may indicate that when the degree of challenge presented by the memorization task is unnecessarily low, students may not put in as much effort as they would otherwise do. If this is the case, it seems to suggest that there is a need to seek an optimal level of challenge that will maximize their engagement.

7.2.3.4 Practicing until fast

The item 'I practiced until I was able to act out the dialogs fast,' was based on the assumption of the clear desirability for encoding to reach a point where the material can be readily retrieved from memory. Otherwise it will be less likely to be useful in realtime language use. In this respect, the mediocre mean scores for this questionnaire item indicate that neither of the two instructional approaches taken were sufficient. Perhaps, since partial-text memorization requires far less time than whole-text memorization, it may be possible to push students engaged in it to practice the material until they are able to retrieve it at the speed of native speaker production. Setting a specific recitation time limit on each

dialog might have had a stronger motivational effect. This might have been particularly true in the case of TG1, where students worked in pairs when acting out the dialogs; in other words, a time trial approach would not work so effectively in pair work, because both students in a pair have to be able to act out their part at the specified speed, and it is easy to imagine a situation where one partner can achieve this but is dragged down by his or her partner, thereby taking away the socio-interactional 'bubble' that this task was meant to create. This is an obvious area for further research.

7.2.4 Conclusions for RQ 1

The following conclusions can be drawn, then, from the results of RQ1. First, it can be concluded that both types of classroom intervention were effective in engaging foreign language classroom learners in memorization over the course of one semester. Regardless of grade incentive, students can be effectively instructed to memorize a large volume of text over the course of a semester, providing the content is perceived as relevant. However, the question of perceived relevance is itself an area for further research, and this insight should therefore be seen as tentative. For highly motivated students, both whole-text and partial-text approaches seem to work well. For partial-text recitation, a time trial approach may generate more learning.

7.3 Differential effects of whole-text and partial-text recitation on holistic processing

This section addresses the second research question set in Chapter 5: *Does engaging foreign language classroom learners in the whole-text and partial-text dialog recitation specified in Research Question 1 facilitate formulaic speech production, and is there a significant difference between the two in terms of their facilitative effect?* The results for RQ 2 are analyzed in terms of the following four categories: (1) the use by students of formulaic sequences (Section 6.4, Tables 6.3-7; Section 6.6, Table 6.13; Section 6.9, Table 6.17); (2)

the appropriateness of responses to time-pressed cued prompts in Part 2 of the speaking test (Section 6.5, Tables 6.8-12); (3) pronunciation, based on Part 1 of the speaking test (Section 6.3, Table 6.2; Section 6.8, Table 6.16; Section 6.10, Table 6.18); and (4) the ability to process language data (Section 6.11, Table 19).

7.3.1 Use by students of formulaic sequences

In this sub-section, the results for the use of FSs in Part 2 of the speaking test (for time-pressed cued prompts; Section 6.4, Tables 6.3-7) are discussed. This needs to be approached from the points of view of 'direct application' and 'modified application.' This will be followed by a review of the results for the use of FSs in Part 3 of the test (extensive oral production; Section 6.6, Table 6.13). Finally, the results for the questionnaire items pertinent to the learning of FSs will be analyzed.

7.3.1.1 Direct application

What needs to be noted here is that for the 'repeated' category, a significant improvement was detected *only* in the case of TG2, but in the case of 'non-repeated' *both* TGs significantly outperformed the CG. There is thus a need to explain the discrepancy in the comparative results for 'repeated & direct' and 'non-repeated & direct' application prompts. Since there were technically three prompt sets, it seems most likely that the internal difficulties of the prompts in these three sets were different and/or the participants' prior knowledge about the formulaic sequences in those prompts varied. This needs to be acknowledged as a methodological weakness of this research. Nevertheless, the fact that TG2 showed significant advancements for both repeated and non-repeated prompts suggests that partial recitation may work at least slightly more effectively with direct application prompts.

There is, however, an important argument for the TG1 instruction having worked even better than the TG2 instruction, an argument that finds support in a study by Peters (2012).

Investigating the effect on retention of typographic enhancement and of glossing, a form of input enhancement, Peters found that the participants in the treatment group, who worked on texts with typographic enhancement (underlining and bold font) were better able to recollect glossed formulaic sequences from reading with the enhancement. One methodological issue with her study was that the students had been informed that a vocabulary post-test would follow, which means that they may have made more of an effort to remember the highlighted items in the text than those which were not highlighted. In the study presented in this dissertation, too, the administration of the Post-Test was announced beforehand (see below also). It is conceivable that some students in both groups made an extra effort to remember the material, although they had been informed that the score for this would not be counted as part of their final grade for the course (and again, the final grade would not be counted as part of their GPA either). Assuming that they did make an extra effort to remember the material as a preparation for taking the Post-Test, then, TG2 had a better chance of obtaining good scores, because they would have thought that the focus of the test would be those parenthesized words that they had committed to memory, whereas TG1 students would have had to determine for themselves where the focus of the test was going to be, because they were expected to memorize everything. Thus, although TG2 performed slightly better than TG1 on this part of the test, the learning outcome of TG1 should perhaps be considered to be greater.

7.3.1.2 Modified application

In contrast with the case of the 'repeated & direct application' prompts, no significant improvement was confirmed from any group for 'repeated & modified application' prompts. When it comes to 'non-repeated' here, as seen with the 'repeated' & modified application prompts, no significant enhancement was confirmed from either group. The results taken together suggest that both types of recitation tasks help the learners to become able to use them in their original forms, but neither is of itself sufficient to help them apply these

sequences in modified forms. Presumably, such an application would require additional encounters in authentic texts and communication.[22] The non-significant results of the two survey items on grammar (Section 6.9, Table 6.17: 'new sentence structures' (i.e., 'I have come to use sentence structures that I did not use before.'), and 'morphological and syntactic control' (i.e., 'My word use has improved morphologically and syntactically.') are consistent with those non-significant improvements found in the case of the 'modified application' prompts. Taken together, the implication drawn thus far is that merely engaging learners in text memorization, whether with a whole-text or partial-text approach, is insufficient to drive the kinds of analysis at the time of encoding that will make the formulaic sequences therein available for flexible language use in the future (compare this with the discussion in the next sub-section, however).

In concluding these two sub-sections of direct and modified application prompts, a comparison of the aggregated scores (i.e., the use of FSs from the dialogs for *all* prompts in Part 2) showed that *both* TGs' scores were significantly higher than those of the CG. This fact suggests that both types of recitation task resulted in more use of the formulaic sequences covered in the dialog material, albeit in a limited (that is, more direct than modified) manner.

7.3.1.3 Use of FSs in non-restrictive conditions

Turning to Part 3 of the speaking test (i.e., extensive oral production; Section 6.6, Table 6.13), we saw that *only* the CG showed a significant improvement in their use of FSs from the dialog textbook, a result that at first sight appears contrary to expectations, as neither treatment group showed significant development while having committed to memory a large amount of formulaic sequences, many of which are of general use. One possible explanation considered was that perhaps those generally applicable sequences had attracted

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[22] The overall non-significant results for 'modified' application prompts can be usefully compared with Nekrasova's study (2009), which indicates that 'fixed' FSs tend to be used by L2 learners more than 'non-fixed' ones. The current study's results coincide with Nekrasova's finding.

the CG's attention more than in the case of the TGs, precisely because of their serviceable nature. One of the two classes comprising the CG was, as indicated in Chapter 5, a communication-oriented class, and thus, there were perhaps more opportunities for the students in this class to perceive as serviceable and therefore naturally use some of the FSs that were also available in the dialog textbook.

In order to further explore the nature of the participants' formulaic speech production in this rather non-restrictive part of the speaking test, another inquiry, an n-gram statistical analysis, was carried out. Given the relative freedom of the task, an n-gram analysis seemed more appropriate for investigating the participants' formulaic speech production in this part of the test, as this kind of analysis is a neutral measurement for formulaic language use. An additional reason for conducting this corpus analysis was that, unlike in the case of Part 2 of the speaking test, where the identification of the FSs from the dialog textbook was not difficult, the speaking data gathered from Part 3 were much harder to interpret in terms of whether each potentially formulaic sequence was also available in the dialog textbook.

N-gram statistical analyses in corpus linguistics to date have tended to focus on trigrams (i.e., n = 3) (Tono, Kaneko, Sugiura, & Izumi, 2013), and the present study also investigates trigrams in the participants' speech production in Part 3. The procedures taken for this additional analysis are as follows. First, the concordancing software AntConc was used to identify those trigrams which could be most useful for informing this study. In order not to be overwhelmed by too many trigrams, those trigrams which were produced by at least four participants in any one of the three groups during the Post-Test were selected. The number of participants was determined as four because a lower number would have resulted in too many examples. With three participants, for example, the number of trigrams would have been doubled. Even with this limitation, 29 trigrams were identified. Out of these 29 candidate trigrams, those trigrams that did not appear at all across the three groups in the Pre-Test were then excluded from further analysis, on the assumption that they (e.g., *hundred*

twenty four) had more to do with the particular prompts in the Post-Test. Through this screening process, 15 out of the 29 candidates were taken out and 14 trigrams remained for this corpus analysis. Next, for the Pre-Test and Post-Test respectively, the total number of the times that those 14 trigrams were used was calculated for each participant. A series of statistical analyses using SPSS, as specified in Section 5.5, was then conducted in order to find out whether there was significant improvement in any of the three groups. Tables 7.1-4 and Figures 7.2.1 and 7.2.2 illustrate the results of the three groups' performance in Part 3 of the speaking test with respect to the participants' production of trigrams.

Table 7.1

Trigrams that Were Produced by Four or More Participants in Any Group during Post-Test and Also Occurred More Than Once during Pre-Test

Post-test									Trigram	Pre-test								
TG1			TG2			CG				TG1			TG2			CG		
Rank	Freq.	Range	Rank	Freq.	Range	Rank	Freq.	Range		Rank	Freq.	Range	Rank	Freq.	Range	Rank	Freq.	Range
1	32	11	1	35	10	1	26	9	I want to	1	21	8	1	34	11	1	21	9
3	11	9	4	13	7	5	10	6	want to go	2	7	4	2	13	6	14	3	2
2	12	7	5	11	7	2	16	6	you have to	19	3	2	—	0	0	9	4	3
5	10	6	5	11	5	7	6	5	and I want	52	2	2	10	4	3	31	2	2
8	7	7	16	4	3	21	3	3	to go to	52	2	2	150	1	1	31	2	1
8	7	4	16	4	4	13	4	4	so I want	19	3	3	5	6	3	2	10	6
11	5	4	54	2	2	36	2	2	and some people	—	0	0	—	0	0	126	1	1
48	2	2	54	2	2	9	5	4	I don t	5	5	4	10	4	4	4	6	5
19	4	4	159	1	1	21	3	3	in the sea	—	0	0	—	0	0	126	1	1
—	0	0	8	8	5	36	2	2	there is a	52	2	2	—	0	0	31	2	2
19	4	4	—	0	0	36	2	2	in this semester	174	1	1	—	0	0	—	0	0
126	1	1	16	4	4	—	0	0	if you want	9	4	4	47	2	2	14	3	3
48	2	1	12	5	4	—	0	0	it s a	—	0	0	47	2	1	31	2	2
126	1	1	16	4	4	—	0	0	you want to	9	4	4	47	2	2	14	3	2

Note. Contracted negation forms (e.g., don't) are counted as two words (do not; don t on AntConc).

Table 7.2

Trigrams that Were Produced by Four or More Participants in Any Group during Post-Test but did Not Appear during Pre-Test

Post-test									Trigram	Pre-test								
TG1			TG2			CG				TG1			TG2			CG		
Rank	Freq.	Range	Rank	Freq.	Range	Rank	Freq.	Range		Rank	Freq.	Range	Rank	Freq.	Range	Rank	Freq.	Range
5	10	9	2	14	12	3	11	11	hundred twenty four	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
3	11	9	2	14	12	5	10	10	one hundred twenty	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
7	8	5	7	9	5	7	6	4	have to get	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
19	4	4	27	3	3	13	4	4	are going to	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
11	5	3	12	5	5	9	5	3	on the boat	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
19	4	4	16	4	3	13	4	3	and they are	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
11	5	4	12	5	5	150	1	1	get one hundred	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
26	3	3	27	3	3	13	4	4	they are going	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
26	3	2	159	1	1	3	11	6	have to take	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
10	6	4	27	3	3	36	2	2	the boat and	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
26	3	3	16	4	4	--	0	0	and foreign language	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
11	5	4	27	3	3	--	0	0	they will go	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
11	5	4	54	2	2	150	1	1	to get one	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
19	4	4	159	1	1	150	1	1	and P E	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0
--	0	0	16	4	4	--	0	0	want to graduate	--	0	0	--	0	0	--	0	0

Table 7.3

Total Number of Trigram Types and Tokens in Part 3 (Extensive Oral Production in English) of Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Types	Tokens	Types	Tokens
TG1	1,954	2,225	1,883	2,162
TG2	1,890	2,155	2,059	2,391
CG	1,688	1,889	1,761	2,033

Table 7.4

Improvement in Number of Targeted Trigrams for Part 3 (Extensive Oral Production in English) of Speaking Test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test		p	r
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*		
TG1	4.50	(3.56)	8.17	(4.02)	.026*	medium (.46)
TG2	5.58	(5.20)	8.67	(6.69)	.091	medium (.35)
CG	5.45	(2.84)	7.18	(3.03)	.064	medium (.40)

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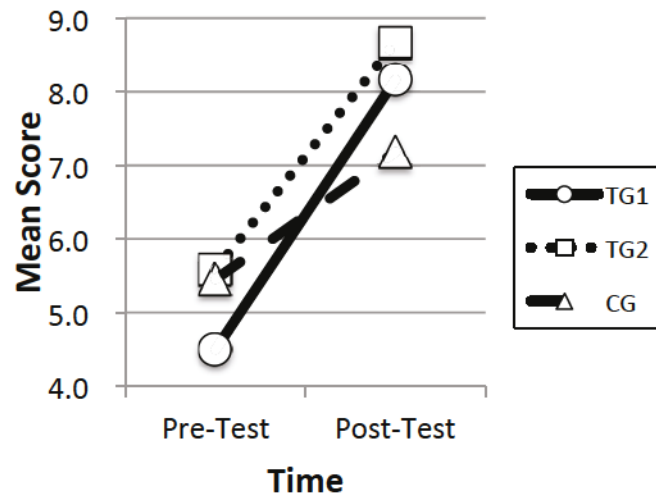
Figure 7.2.1. Mean distribution of number of targeted trigrams for Part 3 (extensive oral production in English) of speaking test.
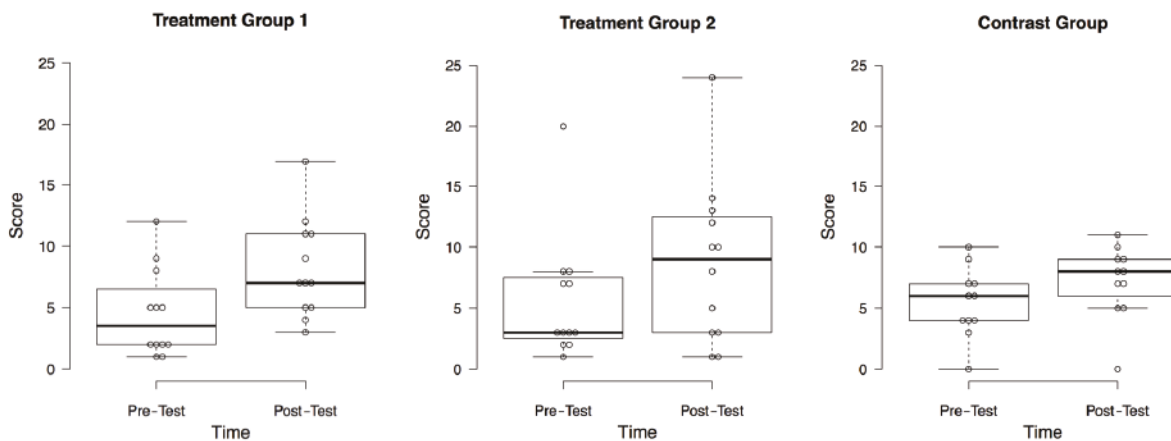
Figure 7.2.2. Group-by-group boxplots showing improvement in number of targeted trigrams for Part 3 (extensive oral production in English) of speaking test.

Similarly to the other statistical results reported in Chapter 6, there was no significant variance among the three groups at the beginning of the study: $H(2) = 1.188$, $p = .552$, $r = .20$ (small effect). However, some puzzling and potentially interesting results were found here. That is, contrary to the results found for the participants' use of FSs from the dialog textbook, where CG was the only group demonstrating a significant improvement, it was only

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TG1 in this further analysis that showed a significant improvement (TG1: $z = 2.228$, p = .026*, r = .46 [medium effect]; TG2: $z = 1.691$, p = .091, r = .35 [medium effect]; CG: z = 1.849, p = .064, r = .40 [medium effect]). Clearly, these mixed findings about the participants' formulaic language production in Part 3 make it difficult to draw any decisive conclusion. However, some interpretations are in order. The dialog textbook contains all or at least some of the component words of each trigram being analyzed here. Therefore, the significantly higher occurrences of those particular trigrams in the speech production made by TG1 can be explained either as a demonstration of application of their analytical knowledge about those component words or as a manifestation of their holistic knowledge of those trigrams that had come about through their extensive dialog recitation work.

To conclude this sub-section, the results of the FS use by the participants in Part 3 of the speaking test indicate two things that can inform future investigations into L2 learners' FS speech production. First, elicitation methods and tools need to be carefully designed and prepared. This study was not able to gather interactive conversational speech data, and given the content of the material that the TGs worked on (i.e., dialogs, not monologues), this particular part of the test appears insufficient to tap into the learners' knowledge of the FSs they had studied. Second, reservations owing to particular data analyses employed should be kept in mind when interpreting the statistical results. In the case of the present study, the n-gram analysis carried out dealt only with selected data. Although an expansion of the range of data to be analyzed would have been a formidable and indeed impractical challenge, the fact remains that while the search of the participants' use of FSs from the dialog textbook was run on the entire speech data, the n-gram analysis only covered the trigrams used by the participants (and only part of them). Therefore, only limited interpretations of the results of the n-gram analysis are possible in the present study. With these two caveats in mind, however, the significant improvements made by the TGs in Part 2 of the speaking test over the CG (see the preceding two sub-section) do suggest that it is reasonable to conclude that

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the holistic language knowledge gained by the TG students over the course of the semester became a resource available for future analytic processing in actual language use.

7.3.1.4 Questionnaire items pertinent to the learning of FSs

Turning to the reflective survey items on improvement in output production other than pronunciation (Section 6.9, Table 6.17), we see that there is a difference between the three groups for 'formulaic sequences' (i.e., 'There has been an increase in the number of FSs that I can use.'). The exact significant variance between the CG and TG1 is interesting because TG2's overall development in the use of formulaic sequences in Part 2 of the speaking test was considered to some extent higher, though not significantly, than that of TG1. The prompts in Part 2 were to do with a few selected FSs from the dialog material. A great majority of the FSs that TG1 students had memorized were not in the Post-Test. It is possible, thus, that TG1 had indeed learned more FSs than TG2, although such an interpretation is not possible solely on the basis of the results found in Part 2 of the speaking test. Another possible explanation for this variance, then, has to do with the additional trigram analysis made in the previous sub-section. That is, TG1 students probably felt, more than the other students, that there had been an increase in the number of FSs they could use since they did indeed make a significant improvement in the use of those particular trigrams.

7.3.2 Appropriateness of responses to time-pressed cued prompts

Moving to the discussion of the appropriateness of responses to time-pressed cued prompts in part 2 of the speaking test (Section 6.5, Tables 6.8-12), in the case of repeated & direct application we see a significant increase *only* in the case of TG1. This is an interesting result, because the analysis of the same set of prompts regarding the use of formulaic sequences from the dialog textbook identified a significant improvement *only* in TG2. With the remaining three sets (i.e., repeated & modified, non-repeated & direct, and non-repeated

& modified) there was no significant improvement observed at the end of instruction. To summarize all four sets of this data, we can say that no significant increases were found at the end. Overall, in contrast with the case of the actual use of formulaic sequences, no obvious advantage of TGs over the CG was found when it comes to the appropriateness of the responses. However, once again, a slight advantage of TG1 was observed in the repeated & direct application prompts. It seems likely that whole-text memorization/recitation promotes more analysis on the part of the learners than is the case with partial-text memorization/recitation does, and that this is because learners engaged in whole-text memorization are more likely to activate their analytic knowledge for successful fulfillment of the task. Otherwise, the task of committing everything to memory and repeating it as a single unit would be an intolerable burden. Very importantly, the analysis employed in this process might lead to a larger store of analytic knowledge in memory, which in turn might allow the learners in the future to analyze language data and add to their holistic language knowledge more successfully. This cycle may have been precisely what happened to TG1 students, which would explain why TG1 showed a significant increase in producing those particular trigrams.

7.3.3 Pronunciation

The analysis here relates to Part 1 of the Speaking Test (Section 6.3, Table 6.2) and the questionnaire items pertinent to articulation (Section 6.8, Table 6.16; Section 6.10, Table 6.18). Regarding the Speaking Test, there was a significant improvement on the part of TG1 and TG2 but not in the case of the CG. TG1's improvement was significantly larger than that of TG2. These results show that both types of recitation tasks instigated learning of articulatory aspects of the formulaic sequences covered in the dialog material, and also show that whole-text memorization had an even greater effect on this particular aspect than partial-text memorization. TG1's improvement is all the more notable, because, as mentioned

in Section 6.8 (see Table 6.16), there was no significant difference for practicing until attaining proper articulation. The test and survey results suggest that whole-text recitation can also bring about implicit learning of aspects of pronunciation.

Turning to the reflective survey items on improvement in articulation (Section 6.10, Table 6.18), a significant difference was found for 'pronunciation of individual words' and significant variance was also found between TG1 and the CG. Another significant distinction was identified for 'liaison,' and the significant difference was, again, between TG1 and the CG. These results lend further support to those found for Part 1 of the Speaking Test. However, there was no significant discrepancy among the three groups on 'intonation and stress,' with the implication being that intonation and stress are both much more difficult for learners to assess than pronunciation of individual words or liaison, and it is thus more difficult for them to evaluate their progress on their own.

7.3.4 Ability to process language data

Lastly, on the ability to process language data (see Section 6.11, Table 6.19), neither treatment group felt that they had improved in their skill for emulating articulation or chunk memorization significantly more than the CG. A possible interpretation of these results is that these two types of processing have to do with learners' holistic language knowledge (see Chapters 2 through 4). If this is a valid interpretation, the implication would be that, fundamentally, adeptness in articulatory emulation and chunk encoding depends on the extent to which language knowledge, presumably more holistic than analytic, is already established in long-term memory. The language knowledge base acquired by the participants in this study was probably not yet substantially established, even at the end of the study.

7.3.5 Conclusions for RQ 2

The conclusions drawn from the data relating to RQ 2 are summarized as follows. First,

looking at the data as a whole, it can be concluded that whole- and partial-text recitation tasks did bring about more formulaic speech production. It can also be said that there is a significant variance in facilitative effects between the two types of task. If we look at the 'direct application' prompts for Part 2 alone, the test results indicate an advantage for partial-text memorization, although it can be argued that whole-text memorization might actually have been more effective (see Section 7.3.1.1). In the case of the 'modified application' prompts in Part 2, neither TG showed more effective results than the CG. The same can be said for the results for 'extensive oral production'; however, an alternative n-gram analysis suggests the effectiveness of a whole-text memorization approach, with the implication being that research methodologies for the investigation of learners' FS use in speech production need to be carefully designed. For appropriateness, a weak advantage was found for TG1. A possible reason is that students in TG1 may have engaged in more analysis during the encoding of the text. In terms of pronunciation, the speaking test results, together with the pertinent survey results, strongly suggest that whole-text recitation is more conducive to learning than partial-text recitation. The results are inconclusive with regard to the ability to process language data. Looked at as a whole, whether taking into account the mixed results for the participants' FS production in Part 3 or excluding them altogether when drawing conclusions for RQ2 precisely due to their mixed nature, the results do indicate that a whole-text memorization approach brings forward more formulaic speech production than a partial-text memorization approach.

7.4 Differential effects of whole-text and partial-text recitation on fluent speech production

This section addresses the third research question set in Chapter 5: *Does engaging foreign language classroom learners in the whole-text and partial-text dialog recitation specified in RQ1 facilitate speech fluency as measured by syllables per minute, and is there a*

significant difference between the two in their facilitative effect? The data here relate to Part 3, and are to do with fluent production measured by pruned syllables per minute (Section 6.6, Table 6.14). Here we see a significant advancement only in the case of TG2, a fact which calls for the following comments.

What factor(s) contributed to the different results between TG1 and TG2 here? In the discussion of RQ2, it was indicated that there was the possibility that TG1 engaged in more analysis (which may be a major reason why they performed significantly, albeit slightly, better with respect to appropriateness in Part 2). TG1 may have thus become more attentive to grammar or form, presumably because such attention helped them to memorize the whole text correctly. There is a trade-off in language processing between being analytical and form-focused on the one hand, and speed or fluency in speech production on the other (Skehan, 1998). TG2's significantly improved performance on the number of syllables per minute in Part 3 can be accounted for in this way. Perhaps, TG2 had gained confidence, thinking that they had learned, without the kind of deep analysis purportedly engaged by TG1, a lot of phrases that they thought were helpful in speech production. Clearly, TG1 must have gained that kind of confidence. It appears that in this situation the analytic, or careful, approach to the language has been at the expense of confidence. This is not of course to say that learners do not need to be able to analyze the language, and the limited conclusion we can draw here, for the time being, is that TG2 outperformed TG1 and CG in terms of fluency as measured by syllables spoken per minute. What needs to be borne in mind is that this does not guarantee good quality in terms of what was actually being said by TG2 participants.

Another aspect worth referring to here is how come CG did not show a significant increase here. It was pointed out in the previous section that one of the two classes comprising the CG, a communication-oriented class, may have offered more opportunities for the students in that class to naturally use some of the most serviceable FSs for those students which were also included in the dialog textbook, and this may have been the reason that CG

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exhibited a significant increase in the use of FSs from the dialog textbook. In the case of the other class forming the CG, a TOEFL iBT class, the students in the class were instructed to memorize a number of 45-second to 1-minute responses to the speaking section of the TOEFL test, and thus they may have become more skilled at speaking to some imaginary listener for such a long duration of time without conversational turns, and yet it did not contribute to significantly increasing CG's fluency in Part 3. This is only speculative but perhaps it had to do with the degree to which the language tasks in which the two classes respectively engaged were perceived by them as fun: communication tasks engaged by the former group were fun enough to cause learning of serviceable FSs, whereas TOEFL speaking tasks engaged by the latter group were not enjoyable enough to help them develop their fluency of speech production.

7.5 Differential effects of whole-text and partial-text recitation on attitudinal change toward text memorization

This section addresses the fourth research question set in Chapter 5: *Does engaging foreign language classroom learners in the whole-text and partial-text dialog recitation specified in RQ1 favorably affect their attitude toward text memorization as a means to develop their oral communication skills, and is there a significant difference between the two in their effect?* The analysis here first refers to the attitudinal items used in both Pre- and Post-Questionnaires (Section 6.7, Table 6.15). We can see no significant change at the end of instruction for 'importance of emulating proficient pronunciation' or for 'importance of memorizing FS.' Next, examining the reflective items on changes in attitude toward memorization, especially of FSs (Section 6.12, Table 6.20), we can note that while there was no significant difference observed among the three groups regarding the first two survey items ('toward text memorization'; 'toward readily recitable memorization'), in the case of

the last item 'toward text memorization as a way to learn a variety of features,' TG1 came to have a significantly more favorable attitude toward it than the CG. The results, taken together, indicate that the whole-text memorization approach appears to have left a more positive effect on the students' willingness to further work on text memorization on their own than a partial-text memorization approach. The results suggest that in this study, *only* whole-text memorization has had a favorable influence on the learners' attitude toward text memorization. This is certainly an area for further research.

7.6 Analysis of high and low achievers

In this section, as an attempt to address the fifth research question set in Chapter 5 (i.e., *What variables may have been at play that can explain the differences in performance of high and low achievers?*), the top three and worst three achievers in each group (henceforth, 'high achievers' and 'low achievers') will be analyzed based on their representative speaking test scores and with reference to their factual data, quasi-interview data (see Section 5.4.2.3.4 for details), and noteworthy questionnaire responses.

A word of explanation about how their overall rankings were derived is needed here. First, all raw test scores in each part were standardized into z-scores so that they would be comparable. Second, for Pre-Test and Post-Test respectively, each participant's total z-score was calculated by summing up the (1) 'FSs used' (z-score of the FSs counted in Part 2), (2) 'appropriateness' (z-score of the appropriateness score in Part 2), (3) 'syllables per minute' (z-score of the syllables spoken per minute in Part 3), and (4) 'pronunciation' (z-score of the pronunciation score in Part 1).[23] The sum of these four z-scores was operationalized as the student's overall oral proficiency in English at the timing of each test. Next, the rankings for the four representative z-scores and the total z-scores were calculated. Then another set of

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[23] Due to the mixed results identified, a choice was made to exclude scores for formulaic speech production in Part 3.

rankings, called 'pre-post difference' rankings, was derived using each student's z-score change in each category, derived from his or her corresponding Post-Test z-score minus the Pre-Test z-score. Finally, the overall ranking in each group was derived based on the within-group participants' pre-post difference rankings for the total scores. Table 7.5 summarizes the three highest and three lowest achievers based on their within-group pre-post z-score difference rankings.

Table 7.5

The Three Highest and Three Lowest Achievers Based on Their Within-Group Pre-Post

Z-Score Difference Rankings

TG1 high achievers

Pseudonym	Pre-test (Rank)	Post-test (Rank)	Pre-post difference (Rank)
1. KM			
Total score	**2.31 (31)**	**9.19 (1)**	**6.88 (1)**
—FSs used	-0.84 (26)	3.23 (1)	4.07 (1)
—Appropriateness	1.28 (3)	2.76 (1)	1.48 (2)
—Syllables per minute	1.79 (2)	2.72 (1)	0.93 (1)
—Pronunciation	0.08 (11)	0.48 (10)	0.40 (13)
2. YW			
Total score	**-3.56 (30)**	**-0.83 (20)**	**2.74 (3)**
—FSs used	-1.23 (31)	-0.80 (26)	0.43 (10)
—Appropriateness	-1.18 (30)	-0.30 (24)	0.89 (3)
—Syllables per minute	-0.66 (26)	-0.69 (28)	-0.04 (18)
—Pronunciation	-0.49 (22)	0.97 (3)	1.46 (3)
3. YS			
Total score	**3.90 (3)**	**6.34 (2)**	**2.44 (4)**
—FSs used	0.71 (8)	2.27 (2)	1.56 (4)
—Appropriateness	1.78 (2)	2.20 (2)	0.43 (8)
—Syllables per minute	1.33 (4)	0.42 (10)	-0.91 (35)
—Pronunciation	0.08 (11)	1.45 (2)	1.37 (6)

TG1 low achievers

Pseudonym	Pre-test (Rank)	Post-test (Rank)	Pre-post difference (Rank)
10. TM			
Total score	**-3.75 (31)**	**-3.49 (31)**	**0.27 (17)**
—FSs used	-0.84 (26)	-1.18 (33)	-0.34 (20)
—Appropriateness	-0.69 (25)	-1.55 (32)	-0.86 (32)
—Syllables per minute	-1.73 (34)	-1.72 (34)	0.01 (16)
—Pronunciation	-0.49 (22)	0.97 (3)	1.46 (3)
11. AS			
Total score	**2.63 (8)**	**1.35 (11)**	**-1.28 (24)**
—FSs used	1.10 (5)	-0.03 (15)	-1.13 (28)
—Appropriateness	0.30 (14)	-0.02 (16)	-0.32 (23)
—Syllables per minute	0.58 (10)	0.43 (9)	-0.15 (19)
—Pronunciation	0.66 (7)	0.97 (3)	0.31 (16)
12. TT			
Total score	**2.91 (5)**	**1.18 (14)**	**-1.73 (28)**
—FSs used	2.26 (1)	0.93 (4)	-1.33 (31)
—Appropriateness	1.12 (5)	0.12 (14)	-1.00 (34)
—Syllables per minute	-0.55 (25)	-0.35 (23)	0.21 (12)
—Pronunciation	0.08 (11)	0.48 (10)	0.40 (13)

TG2 high achievers

Pseudonym	Pre-test (Rank)	Post-test (Rank)	Pre-post difference (Rank)
1. NK			
Total score	**1.98 (11)**	**3.28 (4)**	**1.30 (10)**
—FSs used	-0.45 (20)	-0.22 (18)	0.23 (12)
—Appropriateness	0.13 (16)	0.54 (9)	0.40 (9)
—Syllables per minute	2.22 (1)	2.00 (2)	-0.21 (22)
—Pronunciation	0.08 (11)	0.97 (3)	0.88 (9)
2. GF			
Total score	**0.62 (17)**	**1.58 (8)**	**0.96 (11)**
—FSs used	-0.45 (20)	0.35 (9)	0.80 (7)
—Appropriateness	0.95 (6)	0.54 (9)	-0.42 (26)
—Syllables per minute	0.61 (9)	0.21 (16)	-0.40 (30)
—Pronunciation	-0.49 (22)	0.48 (10)	0.97 (8)
3. TK			
Total score	**-1.98 (28)**	**-1.22 (24)**	**0.76 (12)**
—FSs used	-0.45 (20)	-0.22 (18)	0.23 (12)
—Appropriateness	-0.20 (21)	0.26 (13)	0.46 (7)
—Syllables per minute	-0.83 (29)	-0.28 (20)	0.55 (5)
—Pronunciation	-0.49 (22)	-0.97 (26)	-0.47 (21)

TG2 low achievers

Pseudonym	Pre-test (Rank)	Post-test (Rank)	Pre-post difference (Rank)
10. TS			
Total score	**2.70 (7)**	**1.22 (13)**	**-1.48 (26)**
—FSs used	1.10 (5)	0.93 (4)	-0.17 (19)
—Appropriateness	0.79 (8)	0.68 (8)	-0.11 (20)
—Syllables per minute	0.73 (8)	1.06 (5)	0.33 (9)
—Pronunciation	0.08 (11)	-1.45 (32)	-1.53 (32)
11. SS			
Total score	**1.23 (14)**	**-0.82 (19)**	**-2.05 (30)**
—FSs used	1.48 (3)	0.35 (9)	-1.13 (29)
—Appropriateness	-0.20 (21)	-0.02 (16)	0.18 (14)
—Syllables per minute	-0.14 (20)	-0.67 (27)	-0.53 (33)
—Pronunciation	0.08 (11)	-0.48 (22)	-0.57 (22)
12. TI			
Total score	**1.57 (13)**	**-0.49 (18)**	**-2.06 (31)**
—FSs used	1.87 (2)	-0.42 (20)	-2.29 (35)
—Appropriateness	0.63 (10)	-0.02 (16)	-0.64 (28)
—Syllables per minute	-1.01 (31)	-0.53 (24)	0.48 (6)
—Pronunciation	0.08 (11)	0.48 (10)	0.40 (13)

CG high achievers

Pseudonym	Pre-test (Rank)	Post-test (Rank)	Pre-post difference (Rank)
1. AI			
Total score	**-4.09 (32)**	**-0.95 (22)**	**3.14 (2)**
—FSs used	-2.00 (35)	-0.61 (25)	1.40 (5)
—Appropriateness	-1.18 (30)	-0.58 (26)	0.61 (6)
—Syllables per minute	-0.98 (30)	-0.73 (29)	0.25 (11)
—Pronunciation	0.08 (11)	0.97 (3)	0.88 (9)
2. TN			
Total score	**-1.88 (27)**	**-2.04 (27)**	**-0.17 (20)**
—FSs used	0.32 (12)	-0.99 (29)	-1.31 (30)
—Appropriateness	-1.18 (30)	-0.85 (28)	0.33 (11)
—Syllables per minute	-0.52 (24)	-0.20 (18)	0.32 (10)
—Pronunciation	-0.49 (22)	0.00 (20)	0.49 (12)
3. YT			
Total score	**-4.60 (34)**	**-4.89 (34)**	**-0.29 (21)**
—FSs used	-1.23 (31)	-1.18 (33)	0.05 (15)
—Appropriateness	-1.84 (33)	-1.55 (32)	0.29 (12)
—Syllables per minute	-1.61 (33)	-1.19 (32)	0.42 (7)
—Pronunciation	0.08 (11)	-0.97 (26)	-1.05 (28)

CG low achievers

Pseudonym	Pre-test (Rank)	Post-test (Rank)	Pre-post difference (Rank)
9. KY			
Total score	**1.99 (10)**	**-0.84 (21)**	**-2.83 (33)**
—FSs used	0.32 (12)	-0.42 (20)	-0.74 (26)
—Appropriateness	1.28 (3)	0.40 (12)	-0.89 (33)
—Syllables per minute	0.88 (8)	0.63 (7)	-0.25 (24)
—Pronunciation	-0.49 (22)	-1.45 (32)	-0.96 (27)
10. SK			
Total score	**5.78 (1)**	**2.49 (7)**	**-3.29 (34)**
—FSs used	1.48 (3)	-0.03 (15)	-1.52 (33)
—Appropriateness	0.13 (16)	0.81 (5)	0.68 (4)
—Syllables per minute	1.79 (2)	1.22 (4)	-0.57 (34)
—Pronunciation	2.38 (1)	0.48 (10)	-1.89 (35)
11. NS			
Total score	**1.66 (12)**	**-2.08 (28)**	**-3.74 (35)**
—FSs used	-0.45 (20)	-0.99 (29)	-0.54 (24)
—Appropriateness	0.63 (10)	-0.58 (26)	-1.20 (35)
—Syllables per minute	0.26 (14)	-0.03 (17)	-0.28 (26)
—Pronunciation	1.23 (3)	-0.48 (22)	-1.71 (34)

In the remaining part of this section the data from this table will be analyzed, looking at each student one by one with reference to the data specified at the beginning of this section. When their interview responses are quoted, English translations are provided. When referring to their responses to those questionnaire items based on a six-point Likert scale, only the items for which their z-scores, each derived from all participants' responses, were either above 1.5 or below -1.5 will be referred to.

7.6.1 Three high achievers in each group

KM (ranked 1st in TG1)

KM was one of the students who had hated rote memorization before joining his TG1 class, but through the engagement in memorization and recitation in the class, came to have a favorable attitude toward text memorization. Therefore KM was doubtful about this approach at first, but over time changed his view. He also had many opportunities to interact with foreign English speakers outside this class. He was taking a sociology class taught in English by a native speaker, and had chances to speak in English with foreigners in his part-time work. Apparently he came to realize the usefulness of readily accessible formulaic chunks in dealing with those authentic communicative situations. He commented:

> To be honest, I didn't think it was so useful to memorize conversational phrases through dialogs at first, but as I was working on it, I gradually came to think that those phrases were indeed useful in actual conversations, and so my attitude toward memorization changed rather favorably actually.

This comment explains why KM's use of FSs in the speaking test dramatically jumped up (from 26th to 1st). Taken together, it does look like KM came to appreciate the usefulness of formulaic language. This coincided with his very hard work on the Checks. He was among

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the top three '2nd Check' achievers in TG1 (see Section 6.2). He also made use of the YouTube materials outside of the class to help him memorize the dialogs.

Interestingly, although his progress on pronunciation was not as great as in the other areas, his survey z-scores for 'I can now pronounce individual words' and 'I can now link words when pronouncing' were both above 1.5. He was a very confident learner, which can be most evidently understandable from his high z-scores for syllables per minute. Lastly, another major reason why he made the most progress among all participants seems to be the fact that that he was about to study abroad for about a year as an exchange student.

YW (ranked 2nd in TG1)

Most notable about YW is that she had thought that it was important to memorize phrases and dialogs but had never had a chance to focus on such a study. She commented "It was good that this class gave me the opportunity to memorize phrases and dialogs." She indeed seemed to make use of this course, as she also commented "I wanted to memorize the dialogs in my free time but could not really work on it, so I memorized them in class when we were given time to memorize them."

Even though YW's scores at the end of the semester were overall rather low (with the exception of the score for pronunciation), this class was very effective for her. This assessment can be made not only because her total score for the pre-post difference was ranked 3rd of all participants, but also because of her remarkably high z-scores (i.e., above 1.5 each) for 'I have come to have a favorable attitude toward memorizing phrases and dialogs to the point of being able to readily recite them' and 'Through dialog memorization, I have come to have a favorable attitude toward doing so as a way to learn grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and other aspects of my English language learning.' As for the biggest improvement she made (i.e., on pronunciation—rank: 22 → 3), she also felt that her pronunciation improved a great deal: her z-scores for 'I can now link words when

pronouncing them' and 'I can now pronounce words with appropriate intonation and stress' were both above 1.5. YW's test score improvements and favorable attitudinal changes toward memorization are all the more noteworthy, because, unlike KM (reviewed above), she neither had an opportunity to communicate in English outside this class nor had any concrete study-abroad plan. Nevertheless she worked very hard for this course.

YS (ranked 3rd in TG1)

YS was yet another high achiever in TG1. His scores at the beginning of the semester were already overall high, and yet he studied hard for this course and his pre-post difference rank was 4th. One major reason why YS studied hard for this class was probably that he was going to join a one-month study-abroad program in the summer. It is worthy of mention that YS was a student who knew it would take a lot of work to improve but found it difficult to do so on his own. He commented "I have a hard time managing my motivation for studying, so I study by putting myself in classes that force me to study." When memorizing the dialogs, YS made use of the YouTube material, feeling probably (like KM) that this was necessary in order to successfully complete the course.

YS was an analytic language learner when joining the class, although already fluent in English (pre-test rank for syllables per minute: 4th). Before taking the class, he had thought grammar was the most important element in language learning. That changed through taking this class. He said: "I used to think that grammar was the most important element, but now I feel that if I construct my message according to grammar, my speaking becomes very slow" and "I have come to think that it is important to memorize language data in chunks."
One of the reasons YS's view changed this way was probably that he had ample opportunity to communicate in English away from this course, like KM. He commented "I was really happy when I was able to communicate in English using the phrases I had memorized." YS's interview data also suggest that he was building confidence by feeling able to say

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multiple words off the cuff. Interestingly, he still seemed to be very analytic in orientation at the end of the semester, as his pre-post difference rank for syllables per minute was the lowest of all participants. It can be interpreted that he became even more analytic with the new exemplar knowledge provided by the dialogs, and that he expected that by creating new chunks on his own and using them in a variety of situations, he would over time have a better control of the formulaic language (and its underlying constructions) that had been newly added to his language knowledge.

NK (ranked 1st in TG2)

NK was an exceptionally open and friendly student. She was not afraid to talk to people at all, whether in Japanese or in English (even though her English oral proficiency at that time was still considered intermediate). She said "I can make friends with anybody, a foreigner, a handicapped, a child, an elderly, whoever." NK was thus very confident in her communication ability, and this seems to explain why her use of FSs from the dialog textbook was rather poor, even at the end of the semester (rank: 18) compared to her other relatively high scores. The low score matches her low evaluation for 'memorizing FSs is important' (z-score: below -2.0).

Like KM and YS, NK had ample opportunity to communicate with students from overseas outside of the class, during the semester. Unlike the cases of KM and YS, she still had not come to consider holistic memorization of FSs as important by the end of the semester. It seems possible that learners like NK who are overall good at communication irrespective of the language may tend not to appreciate the usefulness of formulaic language in foreign language learning. This would be because of their fundamental socio-interactional ability gained from their past experiences, and they already feel they can fulfill those socio-interactional functions served by FSs (see Chapter 2) without recourse to nativelike FSs in the target language. For such learners, it appears that other teaching approaches may work

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more effectively. Nevertheless, NK was among the most hardworking students in TGs, presumably because she was also going to join a one-month study-abroad program in the summer, and whether she liked it or not, she was committed to doing what she was told to do for the class, as it was a study-abroad preparation class.

GF (ranked 2nd in TG2)

GF was yet another student who was going to join a one-month study-abroad program in the summer. Similar to the three high achievers in TG1, GF seemed to appreciate this class a great deal. He was among the top three '2nd Check' achievers in TG2 (see Section 6.2). He also made use of the YouTube material, learning not only the words being used but also how they were articulated, and with what kind of emotion. It is most likely that one reason for GF being highly motivated to study the dialog material was that he was about to study abroad. However, like KM and YS, he also had ample opportunity to put into practice the FSs he studied in the class, communicating with native English-speaking students from overseas during the semester. He commented "It was fun using the phrases I memorized in this course with those foreign students." Probably due to this positive experience using the FSs he had learned in class, his z-score for 'I have come to have a favorable attitude toward memorizing phrases and dialogs to the point of being able to readily recite them' was above 1.5. One last note about GF is that he seems similar to YS in TG1 in that their pre-post difference score ranks for syllables per minute were both comparatively low. Given that GH was a very hardworking student, it is possible to speculate that he also became more analytic, stimulated in the way that YS was by the new knowledge.

TK (ranked 3rd in TG2)

TK was a complex student. He said all the time that he did not like English, and yet had chosen to take part in a one-month study-abroad program in the summer, had chosen this

class and attended regularly. Apparently he at least had some kind of high motivation to study English for his future. Although TK was not confident in his English at all, saying "I can't speak English at all," he did make noteworthy improvement on 'appropriateness' (pre-post difference rank: 7th) and 'syllables per minute' (rank: 5th). However, he did not make as much improvement on 'FSs used' (rank: 12th). He said "My memorization is very poor" and this may explain why he did not make as much improvement on the use of FSs. His z-score on the questionnaire item 'I have come to enjoy memorizing phrases and dialogs' was below -1.5, too. Most of his work on memorizing the dialogs was done in class time, and he commented "I tried my best to memorize everything I was supposed to memorize in class." This seems to reflect his deep-seated negativity toward the act of memorization.

Overall, memorization of the dialogs in this class was far from motivating for him, something that did not change over the course of the semester. The only positive comment made by him on this class was "At first I was very resistant to English, but by memorizing and reciting the dialogs, my resistance to English became a little weaker." It seems that for students like TK, provision of useful material and class time for working on it is not enough. It may be that there are some students who need explicit instruction on effective ways to commit material to memory.

AI (ranked 1st in the CG)

AI was in the TOEFL iBT preparation class of the CG, although she did not yet have, by the end of the semester, a concrete plan to study abroad. AI did not answer if she had any chance of communicating in English away from this class. She did not seem to have such chances. AI was a very hardworking student. She never missed class, and she was among the few students in that class who did all of the highly demanding homework assignments. That is most likely why, even though her scores at the end of the semester were overall still low among all the participants (with the exception of pronunciation), she had made a great deal of

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progress and became the 2nd-ranked of all participants in pre-post differences. One notable point about AI is the progress she made on pronunciation. This may have been because she worked intensely on memorization of response samples for the speaking part of the test, which was part of the assignments given to the students in the class. This is an interesting result, as it suggests that whole-text memorization, as a means to develop learners' pronunciation, may not have to take the form of a dialog. Some of the material to be memorized could be in the form of monologs containing many useful FSs.

TN (ranked 2nd in the CG)

TN was also in the TOEFL iBT preparation class of the CG. First, even though TN was ranked the 2nd in the CG, his overall pre-post difference ranking was 20th, below the mid-level of all 35 participants. He did not have any plan for studying-abroad at the end of the semester, and according to TN's answers in Post-Interview, he did not seem to have any outside opportunities to communicate in English during the semester. TN was a difficult student to evaluate, as he was always quiet. TN did not think he had language learning aptitude, and particularly lacked confidence in his speaking ability, even in Japanese, commenting "I don't think I'm cut out for foreign language learning, especially speaking. I'm poor at speaking Japanese too, and I sometimes wonder why I'm so poor at speaking (in Japanese)."

It is a major argument of this dissertation that FSs powerfully help language users in realtime communication, whether in the L2 or L1, and TN might have benefited a great deal if he had been in either TG1 or TG2 rather than the CG, although his z-score for 'I have come to enjoy memorizing phrases and dialogs' was below -1.5. One interesting note to add about TN is that his z-score for 'I have come to use fillers when lost for words' was below -1.5. The speaking scripts that he memorized in the TOELF iBT class contained no fillers. In this regard, too, he might have benefited from joining either TG1 or TG2, as the dialogs

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contained many fillers, which serve as a time-buying device in realtime communication.

YT (ranked 3rd in the CG)

Whereas AI and TN were in the TOEFL iBT class of the CG, YT was in the communication-oriented class of the contrast group, in which she was expected to express herself far more than those CG participants in the TOEFL class. However, YT was not a talkative student, like TN, who was ranked 2nd in CG. She almost never spoke up on her own, and her interview responses were minimal, too. Given the small amount of data to analyze, therefore, there is little room for speculation.

Given her reluctance to talk, YT might have also benefited, like TN, from taking either the TG1 or TG2 class. Her reluctance to speak up was attributable to her lack of FSs to depend on in realtime situations. It was unlikely that she disliked the researcher and did not want to communicate with him, because actually, one year before the data from TG1 were collected, she took the same course as TG1. Although she had stopped coming early in the semester of that year, if she had had a negative attitude toward the researcher the first time around, she would not have chosen to take another class of his the second time, considering this communication-oriented class was not a mandatory one for her.

Nevertheless, the fact that YT had left a course that was basically the same as that of the TGs is intriguing. There are any number of possible reasons why she left it, as YT had low z-scores (i.e., below -1.5) for the questionnaire items 'I have come to enjoy memorizing phrases and dialogs'—as mentioned in Section 5.4.2.2, the CG participants in the communication-oriented class also had to memorize a volume of oral texts—and 'There has been an increase in the number of FSs that I can use.' Perhaps, for students like YT and maybe TN too, provision of useful material and class time for working on it is not enough, as speculated when reviewing TK (ranked 3rd in TG2) from another perspective. Overall, YT was probably struggling to find a good way to develop her English. Perhaps it is

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for this reason that she was joining a one-month study-abroad program the following summer.

7.6.2 Three low achievers in each group

TM (ranked 10th in TG1)

TM seemed to be struggling between the reality he perceived himself to be in and his aspirations. While he commented "I do want to express myself in my own way, but also realize that nothing comes from zero, so I do think that my communication skills will improve by memorizing conversational phrases and dialogs," his use of FSs was close to the worst in Post-Test (rank: 33rd). In this respect alone, the whole-text memorization may not have worked so well for TM. However, very notably, his pronunciation improved dramatically (from 22nd to 3rd). This is remarkable given the other low ranks. What is more noteworthy is that the survey item 'Emulating proficient pronunciation is important' is the only one for which he scored below -1.5. This can be interpreted as further support for the claim on pronunciation that whole-text memorization and recitation implicitly instigate the learning of pronunciation (see Section 7.3.3).

One last point to add about TM is that he was also going to join a one-month study-abroad program in the summer. In addition to YW (ranked 2nd in TG1), there was one other student in TG1 who did not have any concrete plan to study abroad at the end of the semester. Yet TM did not make as much progress in TG1as these two. It can be speculated from this that the fact that a student was about to study abroad did not appear to be the only determining factor for the memorization of dialogs to be effective for him or her.

AS (ranked 11th in TG1)

AS, another student about to participate in a one-month study-abroad program in the

summer, was open to interaction with people, even in English, but was not as extroverted and communicatively competent as NK (ranked 1st in TG2). In the analyses above of the six high achievers in TG1 and TG2, five of whom were about to study abroad, it is pointed out that the imminence of studying abroad probably would not have been the sole or main motivation for them to work hard in the class and improve. It was suggested that the presence or absence of opportunities to communicate in English away from the class was likely to be another major factor, although NK was an exception to this hypothesis considering her already high communicative competence.

AS also had opportunities to communicate in English away from the class, but her pre-post total score difference rank was 24th and her use of FSs dropped noticeably from Pre- to Post-Test (5th → 15th). She thus might be considered to be like NK. However, unlike NK, she seemed to be very much enjoying the memorization and recitation of the dialogs, as she scored above 1.5 for 'I practiced until I was able to act out the dialogs fast' and 'I have come to enjoy memorizing phrases and dialogs.' AS also worked very hard for the Checks, as she became one of the top three '2nd Check' achievers in TG1 (see Section 6.2).

It seems then that what matters is 'transfer-appropriate processing' (see Section 3.5). Presumably, in-class recitation was not enough to enable the content memorized to be serviceable, while it could be very useful in realtime communication. Rather, the knowledge gained through the work needs to be strengthened, through transfer-appropriate encoding, to the point of becoming serviceable in realtime communication. The model dialogs were in the main intended to be serviceable for campus communications between a student and a university professor or another university student. In the case of KM (ranked 1st in TG1), he was taking a lecture taught by a native English-speaking professor, and in the case of YS (ranked 3rd in TG1) and GF (ranked 2nd in TG2), their interactions in English were with university students visiting from overseas. AS, on the other hand, did not mention having any communication with overseas university students, nor with a university professor. Therefore,

the knowledge that AS gained from the study of the dialog was presumably not strengthened enough by sufficient subsequent transfer-appropriate processing, and thus her score for use of FSs did not improve as much as KM, YS, or GF.

AS was nevertheless very positive about the improvements she had made over the semester. Her z-scores were above 1.5 for the following survey items: 'I can now link words when pronouncing them'; 'I can now pronounce words with appropriate intonation and stress'; 'I have come to use sentence structures that I did not use before'; 'I have become better at holding incoming sounds as chunks and repeating them with the same articulatory contour'; and 'There has been an increase in the number of FSs that I can use.' Indeed, particularly for pronunciation, she seems to have made some progress (Pre-Test rank: 7th; Post-Test rank: 3rd).

To sum up, although her test results were not exactly consistent with her high survey scores, the very fact that she was positive about having made so much improvement is noteworthy. She was very eager to learn English, commenting "These days I have been keeping a diary in English," and it is conceivable that AS would keep working on this kind of memorization on her own even after the instruction.

TT (ranked 12th in TG1)

TT is the last student analyzed from TG1, who was also going to study abroad for about two weeks in the summer. Although TT's pre-post difference in the use of FSs was very low (rank: 31), he was still ranked at 4th in Post-Test. He commented:

At the beginning of the semester, I was not really sure how useful it would be to memorize a large volume of conversational phrases and dialogs, and so was reluctant, but now that I committed to memory so many dialogs, even though it required very hard work, I do now feel the usefulness of having the memory of those dialogs, albeit partially, when at a loss for words. I have come to think that quantity, not just quality, is

important.

At the end of the semester, he felt that he made progress on pronunciation (z-scored above 1.5 for 'learning of pronunciation' and 'learning of liaison') and fillers (z-scored above 1.5 for 'learning of fillers'), and most importantly, came to view more favorably toward learning language chunks (z-scored above 1.5 for 'favorable change in attitude toward text memorization'). Thus, even though his total pre-post difference z-score rank in TG1 was the bottom (also 28th of all participants), it can be argued that whole text memorization worked effectively on him.

TS (ranked 10th in TG2)

TS was among the most dedicated students in TG2, as indicated by the fact that he was the top '2nd Check' achiever of TG2 (64%). The main reason why TS's pre-post difference score rank was so low (rank: 26th) was that his pronunciation score was extremely low (rank: 32nd) considering his other high scores in Post-Test. He was probably (still) analytic in language processing at the end of the semester, even though he was already able to produce oral output rather smoothly among the participants (pre-test rank for syllables per minute: 8th; post-test rank: 5th). He commented "In conversation, I tend to think first before speaking, that is, I am not at the point where words come out of my mouth smoothly." Being analytic means he was still more or less processing words piecemeal. This analytic mode could have caused him to read aloud the prompts in the pronunciation part of the test rather unnaturally, or at least not as naturally as other participants, especially TG1 students.

It would be interesting then to know how his score for pronunciation in Post-Test would have been if he had been in TG1 instead of TG2, as students in TG1 overall improved significantly on pronunciation.

SS (ranked 11th in TG2)

SS was one of those students in TG2 who did not seem to appreciate the effectiveness of dialog memorization and recitation. SS's 1st Check achievement was relatively low (64%), and his z-score for 'I engaged in dialog memorization thanks to the in-class time given to it' was lower than -2.5. It is thus clear that he was not committed to the memorization and recitation task for this group. Given SS's score drop for the use of FSs (pre-post difference rank: 29th), he indeed did not make much progress on formulaic learning in this class, either. He commented:

> I was at first skeptical about the effectiveness of the approach taken in this class, and now, if I am to say which, I am still skeptical. On the whole, I am neither enthusiastic nor negative toward it. I don't quite have an opinion about it.

Although SS was taking another English class being taught by a native speaker and in that class he seemed to be having an opportunity to communicate in English, he may not have tested some phrases he had learned in this class in the other class. He did not elaborate on this point, and thus unfortunately there is no way of knowing. SS did also say, however, "There are occasions where I was feeling like I was learning something about how to say things in English, and examples in the YouTube videos were helpful." Thus, this class was not totally a waste for him; otherwise, he would have just stopped coming.

SS was not going to study abroad after the semester was over, and this may have been the major reason why he did not work so hard on memorization; he may not have seen the potential usefulness of the FSs in the dialog textbook as well as those in TGs who were about to study abroad. This then indicates that the content of the material to be worked on needs to be evaluated as relevant and useful by the students, a challenge for materials developers and teachers considering the wide variety of wants and needs that students bring to the classroom.

TI (ranked 12th in TG2)

TI's 1st Check achievement was the lowest of all TG participants (27%). This

percentage is extremely low considering the mean score of TG2 for 1st Check, that is, 80.92%, although still he was not an outlier and thus not excluded from the statistical analyses. This must have been the reason why his pre-post difference rank for the use of FSs was the bottom (35th). However, unlike SS (ranked 11th in TG2), whose 1st Check achievement was also low but not this low, TI seemed to regard memorization of conversational phrases as helpful and important:

> If I think about it, when we talk in Japanese, we use prefabricated chunks all the time, and so I think it is very effective to memorize conversational phrases and dialogs to the extent that they will come out of my mouth. When we express ourselves, except for when we use some technical terms or engage in some discussion, I think we say what we say without thinking so much. I think the same thing is the case with English too, so this memorization approach is a very good way.

Furthermore, unlike the case of SS, TI made improvement on syllables per minute (pre-post difference: 6th). What does this tell us? It seems to lend support to the above indication about the relevance and utility of the material felt by the students. That is to say, unlike SS, TI at least had a positive attitude toward memorizing the kinds of text that he considered useful. It may have been that TI did not see the potential usefulness of the dialogs as much as most of the other TGs participants did, and thus did not put as much effort into the Checks, while in some other aspects of English learning he did memorize some phrases or sentences that he regarded as useful for him. This may have been the reason why he made the improvement on syllables per minute.

Thus, it can be argued that TI might have worked much harder for the Checks and accordingly made more progress on the use of FSs if he had had opportunities to interact with other students coming from overseas, like YS and GF, thereby being able to see much more value in the dialogs.

KY (ranked 9th in the CG)

KY was conscious of and sensitive to other people and a very humble student. Although he commented "I am not good at talking with people," his z-score ranks for syllables per minutes (pre-test: 7th; post-test: 7th) reveal that he was a relatively good speaker already. One question, then, is "How would the results have been if this extensive speech production test had taken a more interactional style?" "Would KY have been placed at the same rank?" "Conversely, would the students in TGs have gained better scores if it indeed had been a conversational style, as they were likely to have learned ways to handle such transactions through the dialog study?" KY's scores were particularly low for pronunciation, which coincides with his comments: "I memorize by writing. … When I was to memorize the response samples for the speaking section of the TOEFL iBT test, I listened to the CD and rehearsed it in my head." At least for pronunciation, he probably would have benefited from taking the TG1 course.

SK (ranked 10th in the CG)

SK was a returnee student in the communication-oriented class. His scores in Pre- and Post-Tests were thus basically high, although his z-scores for the use of FSs and for pronunciation dropped considerably (primarily because the students in TG1 and TG2 either caught up with or even overtook him). Considering that SK's appropriateness improved (pre-test: 16th; post-test: 5th), he did at least seem to have learned how to express himself better in this class. SK commented that he did not improve as much as he had wished by living overseas, something that he seemed embarrassed about. He even commented that from time to time he hated English. Nevertheless, he considered English as important for his future. It appears that SK's problem with English was not so much about the language as his non-linguistic communication skills. He might have learned some interactional tips if he had joined either TG1 or TG2 and worked on the dialogs, to give analytic attention to the

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interactional language therein.

NS (ranked 11th in the CG)

NS, another student in the TOEFL iBT preparation class, was one of the least successful students among the participants, although he kept coming to the class and completed the course. NS did not reveal himself much in class, nor in the interview. Thus, it is not easy to interpret how and what NS was doing throughout the classes. However, he did reveal himself momentarily during the interview: "I don't think I'm cut out for foreign language learning because I wonder how convenient it would be if I could get by just with Japanese. If I could, then I would not have to bother to learn foreign languages." Students like NS would be a challenge in any class or for any teacher. How could they be motivated to learn the foreign language? Or why should they be motivated to do so in the first place?

7.7 Summary of major findings and pedagogical implications

This section provides a summary of major findings and pedagogical implications of this study.

7.7.1 Significant effects and pedagogical implications of whole-text memorization and recitation

1. The progress made by the whole-text recitation group on pronunciation was significant. This was the case even with TM, who did not consider emulating proficient pronunciation as important. There is evidence here that strongly suggests that whole-text recitation offers an effective approach to the teaching of pronunciation. The example of AI further suggests that the memorized test does not even have to be in dialog form. A member of the contrast group, AI made considerable improvement on her pronunciation by working on monolog-style speaking scripts.

2. The whole-text recitation group engaged in their memorization task significantly more intensively than the partial-text recitation group. This conclusion was drawn not only because the former group's achievement percentage on the 1st Check was significantly larger than in the case of the latter group, but also because the amount of the text for the former group to commit to memory was three times as large as the latter group's.

3. The whole-text memorization group favorably changed their attitude toward text memorization. There may have been some individual differences at play, however.

4. As for appropriateness in speech production, the performance of the whole-text recitation group was slightly better than that of the other participants. For some students, as speculated on YS and GF, text memorization and recitation may attract attention to the underlying, generative structures, not just to the surface manifestations. (Note that in this case, the memorization/recitation type is not specified, as GF was in the partial-text memorization group and yet seemed to have overall had the same tendency in his test scores as YS.)

5. The whole-text memorization group may be claimed to have demonstrated the largest improvement in formulaic speech production overall, in that this group showed significant increases in formulaic production for all parts of the speaking test (see Section 7.3, however).

6. One plausible explanation for the whole-text recitation having worked so well may be that the students acted out the dialogs in pairs, an interactive practice condition that was hard to realize for the partial-recitation group. In this sense, the dialog style was a crucial component to make things work. On the other hand, use of pair work comes with practical difficulties as well, such as when the number of the students showing up is an odd number, when some students are late for class, when there are non-communicative students, and when certain students always choose to work together.

7.7.2 Significant effects and pedagogical implications of partial-text memorization and recitation

1. The whole-text and partial-text recitation were both almost equally effective in proceduralizing the learned material in somewhat time-constraining conditions, albeit in a fixed manner. Thus, when the objective of teaching certain formulaic sequences is to achieve that limited level of performance, although still of itself serviceable in realtime communication, the partial-text recitation approach, being more time-efficient, seems most practicable.

2. On the same subject of time-efficiency, the results suggest that the imposition of a time constraint on the recitation task can enhance recall from memory of the memorized FSs. However, successful completion of memorization by this means will undoubtedly require more time. This in turn suggests the need for the teacher to adjust the cognitive load in accordance with the needs and level of the students.

3. When the degree of challenge presented by the memorization task is lower than it needs to be, it is possible that students will be less inclined to put in effort than would otherwise be the case. If this is indeed true, then there is a need to find an optimal level for maximizing engagement.

4. The partial-text memorization group showed a significant increase in the number of syllables spoken per minute. It was, then, suggested that while the whole-text recitation group may have been invited to pay more attention to details with the help of their analytic knowledge, the partial-text memorization group may have developed more confidence from memorizing the supposedly useful chunks of English. Given the purported trade-off between analysis and fluency (Skehan, 1998), when the emphasis of teaching is more on fluency than on analysis, then the partial-text recitation approach may well be more appropriate.

7.7.3 Common effects of whole-text and partial-text memorization and recitation

1. Both types of classroom intervention effectively engaged the participants in text memorization and recitation over the course of one semester.

2. The above effect was achieved regardless of the presence of a grade incentive.

3. Highly motivated students committed to memory a much larger volume of text than other students.

4. Text memorization and recitation alone was not sufficient for the students in either treatment group to become able to obtain a generative command of the sequences committed to memory. Apparently, such advanced applications of the material learned will require further practice, although a whole-text memorization approach may lead to advancement in formulaic production of the component words of the text to be memorized (as observed in the n-gram analysis).

5. Similarly, text memorization and recitation alone seem unlikely to bring about an improvement in the processing of language data, at least regarding this study's target population.

7.7.4 Other variables that may affect the effectiveness of the text memorization approach

1. *Imminence of study abroad experience*: It was suggested that students may be highly motivated to engage in the tasks given to them when they are very soon going to study abroad. It was also pointed out, however, that this fact alone will probably not determine the commitment level of students (e.g., YW, TM, AS, and TT).

2. *Outside-class opportunity for communication in the target language*: It was observed that students who reported that they had had opportunities to communicate in English outside the class, such as KM, YS, and GF, seemed to have better appreciated the usefulness of the dialog material and thus worked in more depth on it than those who did

not report such an experience during the semester. However, it was also mentioned that such an experience in itself was not a sufficient condition for effective learning (e.g., AS). It was suggested that outside-class communication will effectively increase the chance of the new knowledge to be readily available, to the extent that the authentic practice outside the class approximates to or resembles the (possible) conversational turns available in the textbook (see Section 3.5 on transfer-appropriate processing).

3. *Content of the material to be worked on*: Another contributing factor to the relative effectiveness of a particular teaching approach, strongly related to the two points above, is the extent to which the content of the material used for the students is, or more precisely perceived as, relevant to their needs and wants at the time. It was mentioned that a possible reason why SS and TI, two low achievers in the partial-text recitation group, did not work as hard on the recitation task as the rest of the participants in the group, was that the material was not appealing to them, even though the fact that they took the class suggests that they were at least thinking about studying abroad. Thus the dialog material, prepared in advance for this specific target learner population, was not effective for them, at least (cf. Wray & Fitzpatrick, 2008).

4. *Universally applicable communicative competence*: As also observed by Wray and Fitzpatrick (2010), not all learners choose to memorize (and use) model utterances presented to them. In the present study's case, NK was probably one such student. In analyzing her case, it was noted that an important factor was the fact that she was already very effective in fulfilling the socio-interactional functions with her intermediate-level English and high communicative competence.

5. *Low memorization ability*: It is easy to imagine that learners who consider themselves to be poor memorizers will not appreciate or work hard on text memorization. Although TK was among the high achievers in the partial-text recitation group, and did seem to have made progress on the learning of FSs, he still had not come to view text

memorization in a favorable way by the end of the instruction. Perhaps students like TK may be able to see it differently if they at the same time were able to experience the kind of outside-class communication engaged in by KM, YS, and GF.

6. *Prior experience with memorizing conversational turns*: Japanese learners of English typically go through arduous text memorization in school. YW was not an exception. However, she had never engaged in memorizing conversational turns for oral communication before coming to the class. The lack of such an experience, in her case, was a major motivator pushing her to engage in the dialog memorization.

7.8 Limitations of this study

While this study addressed some important issues on the teaching of formulaic language by means of text memorization for which research is most needed (see Chapters 1 and 4), a number of methodological limitations are apparent. Aside from the problem with the reliability of the speaking tests and questionnaires used for the statistical analyses in this study, one fundamental limitation was the small sample size. In TG1, there were actually seven other students who had participated in this study almost until the end but did not come to the final meeting or take Post-Test and Post-Questionnaire. These students were thus left out of the group and the statistical analyses, and their data must be interpreted differently from the data of those who stopped coming to class long before the end of the semester, presumably because they did not consider this course to be beneficial enough for them.

The mean percentage of these seven final- absentees' 1st Check achievement was 79% (*max.* = 100%, *min.* = 61%), which is almost as high as that of TG2's 1st Check achievement (81%), although a little lower than that of those students measured in TG1 (i.e., 91%). By contrast, the mean percentages of those students who stopped coming to class long before the end of the semester were as follows: in the case of TG1, 9 dropouts, $M = 25\%$, *max.* = 70%, *min.* = 2%; in the case of TG2, 8 dropouts, $M = 7\%$, *max.* = 21%, *min.* 0%). Had those

final-class absentees taken Post-Test (and thus been included in the statistics), the results would have been different, given their much higher scores than the dropouts. Most likely the results would have been more in favor of TG1. Several possible reasons why they missed the final meeting can be imagined. This was the exam period, and they may have had to attend a final exam for a required course on the day of the Post-Test, or simply been preoccupied with exam preparation in general, and felt that since they had already almost completed their 1st Check they had done enough for this class. Some of them might simply have thought that even if they did not show up for Post-Test, there still would be many others who would take the test, thus not causing much trouble to the researcher. In any case, this is where the fact that the final grade for this course would not be counted toward their GPA had an impact.

Equally important as the case of these final-class absentees is the fact that there were a few other students in the TG1 and TG2 classes who missed the class meeting at the beginning of the semester when Pre-Test was administered. There were two such students in the case of TG1 and one in TG2. Their 1st Check achievement was very high (100%, 98%, 100% respectively, and thus non-negligible. The above all points to the difficulty this study was facing in gathering data from a sufficient number of participants.

One more important point worth mentioning with regard to these dropouts is their respective percentage. TG1's dropout rate was 28%, TG2's 38%, and CG's 13%. These figures suggest that one major reason why the dropouts decided not to continue coming to class was most likely that the final grade for the classes with TG1 and TG2 students would not contribute to their GPA, a point mentioned above. Of course we cannot rule out the other possibility that there may have been other non-GPA classes the CG students were taking that were interesting enough for them to stay for the whole course. What explanation is there for the significant difference in the dropout rate between TG1 and TG2? This brings us to the second implication or suggestion concerning the data for the dropouts. Perhaps, as explored in Section 7.2.3.3, the fill-in-the-gaps memorization was not challenging enough, and/or

acting out the dialogs with the script without a partner was not fun enough. Other class dynamics may also have been at play and this issue requires further investigation in future research.

Another arguable limitation of this study is the validity of the speaking tests employed. While this study adds to the very small number of studies that utilize speaking tests to measure the participants' knowledge of particular formulaic sequences (in the case of this study, those contained in the dialogs), the specific designs of the tests that were meant to measure certain aspects of the participants' knowledge of FSs could no doubt be improved. For example, the prompts in Part 3 (extensive oral production) were probably unable to elicit FSs from the dialogs to a satisfactory degree. As indicated previously in the discussion (Section 7.3.1.3), successful elicitation of those FSs would have probably required interactional-style speaking tests, as many of the FSs learned were learned in the course of conversational turns.

7.9 Conclusion and future directions

The opening chapter of this dissertation pointed to the serious lack of research into the extent to which classroom teaching can promote formulaic learning by means of text memorization. Chapter 4's literature review of text memorization as a way of nurturing the registration of formulaic language in memory and fluent language use showed that the adoption of speaking measures in the pertinent studies has been even more scarce. This lack was one major motivation for the study reported in this dissertation, and all methodological limitations taken into consideration, it is hoped that the findings and implications presented here can provide insights to teaching practitioners seeking optimal ways to deal with formulaic language in the classroom. If it is successful in doing so, it is a contribution to the research into the effectiveness of utilizing text memorization (a still controversial area) to facilitate the acquisition of holistic language knowledge introduced in Chapter 2.

Future research projects investigating text memorization will be useful to interested researchers and classroom practitioners if they include speaking measures as measurement tools, especially if the tools are informed by transfer-appropriate processing, introduced in Chapter 3. In other words, it is advisable for them to be designed in such a way as to approximate to situations in which the application of the targeted FSs, in both 'direct' and 'modified' manners, will most effectively lead to successful task completion.

The discussion of the results has also indicated that selective effects of whole-text vs. partial-text memorization should be further explored. In this particular line of enquiry, the addition of time constraints on the recitation task was also suggested as another variable affecting the efficacy of utilizing text memorization.

Finally, as introduced in Chapter 2, the mastery of each particular formulaic sequence is realized in a gradual manner, and as such it will be invaluable to have data collected and analyzed longitudinally, for an even more extended period of time than the current study, as cross-sectional data are insufficient to inform the extent to which text memorization is a viable approach to formulaic learning.

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Model Dialogues

for Undergraduate Japanese Learners of English Seeking to Study Abroad

Transcript & Japanese Translation

松崎 武志 (Takeshi Matsuzaki)【プロデュース・監督・脚本・出演】

フィリップ・ジトウィッツ (Philip Zitowitz)【脚本および出演協力】

ジョセフ・ハイリマン (Joseph Heilman)【脚本および出演協力】

ホアン・グッ・タイン (Hoang Duc Thanh)【撮影および編集】

2011.04

CONTENTS

Dialogue 01: Meeting for the first time

Takeshi	1	Hi, I'm Takeshi. How're you doing?
Joe	2	Hi. I'm Joe. Nice to meet you.
Takeshi	3	So, uh, how do you like Japan so far, Joe?
Joe	4	It's only been a few days, but I already love it here.
Takeshi	5	Good to hear that. Let me know if you have any problems. OK?
Joe	6	You're very kind. Thanks, Takeshi.
Takeshi	7	So, uh, what kinds of things do you like to do, Joe? You know, I wanna take you to some places. Do you like, uh, karaoke?
Joe	8	We don't really do karaoke in the U.S., but I've wanted to go for a long time.
Takeshi	9	Good. Let's go to a karaoke bar tonight!
Joe	10	That would be wonderful!

1	こんにちは、タケシです。初めまして。
2	こんにちは、ジョーです。初めまして。
3	それで、ジョー、ここまで日本はどう？
4	まだ数日しか経ってないけど、もう大好きです。
5	よかった。何か困ったことがあったら教えてね。
6	ご親切、どうもありがとう、タケシ。
7	ところで、ジョーは何するのが好き？どこか連れてってあげたいからさ。カラオケとか好き？
8	アメリカではカラオケはあんまり行かないんだけど、ずっと行きたいとは思ってました。
9	よし。じゃ、今夜はカラオケに行こう！
10	いいね！

EXPRESSIONS: (3) So, ... / uh / so far (7) You know, ...

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) Hello. (2) I'm very honored to meet you. (7) It won't get you anywhere. (9) Let's party. (10) That would be great. / Nice talking to you.

Dialogue 02: Year in school

Joe	1	I'm in my junior year now. What year are you in, Takeshi?
Takeshi	2	I'm a sophomore.

1	僕は今 3 年だよ。タケシは何年生？
2	2 年生です。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) junior (2) sophomore

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) freshman / senior

1

2

Dialogue 03: Split the bill

Joe	1	It's on me.
Takeshi	2	No, no. Let me pay.
Joe	3	OK, then, let's split the bill.

1	僕が払うよ。
2	いや、いや。僕に払わせてよ。
3	わかった、じゃぁ、割り勘にしよう。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) It's on me. (3) split the bill

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (3) Let's go Dutch.

Dialogue 04: Call it a day

Joe	1	We've done more than enough for today. Let's call it a day.
Takeshi	2	I was going to say the same thing.

1	今日はもう十二分だね。ここまでにしよう。
2	僕も同じことを言うところだったよ。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) call it a day

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) exactly the same thing

Dialogue 05: Get carried away

Takeshi	1	You really got carried away last night, didn't you?
Joe	2	Yeah. Did I really yell and throw up on the street? I'm so embarrassed.

1	昨夜はじけ過ぎたみたいだね？
2	僕、本当に路上で叫んで吐いちゃった？みっともないなぁ・・・

EXPRESSIONS: (1) get carried away (2) throw up

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) ashamed

3

4

Dialogue 06: Brothers/sisters

Joe	1	Do you have any brothers or sisters?
Takeshi	2	What do you think?
Joe	3	OK, let me guess. You have a younger sister, don't you?
Takeshi	4	What makes you think that?
Joe	5	I don't know. Just a hunch.
Takeshi	6	Well, I'm an only child. How about you?
Joe	7	I have one younger brother and one older sister.
Takeshi	8	Wow, I wish I could've had a brother or a sister.
Joe	9	You know what? You could come over sometime and meet them.
Takeshi	10	That would be great. Thanks.

1	兄弟（姉妹）いる？
2	どうだと思う？
3	じゃ、当ててみるよ。妹がいるんじゃない？
4	何でそう思うわけ？
5	わかんない。カンだよ。
6	一人っ子だよ。君は？
7	弟一人と姉一人いるよ。
8	いいなぁ、僕も兄弟（姉妹）欲しかったなぁ。
9	そうだ、いつか家に会いに来なよ。
10	いいね。ありがと。

EXPRESSIONS: (4) What makes you <do>? (5) Just a hunch. (8) I wish I could … (9) You know what? / come over

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (8) You have a big family.

5

6

Dialogue 07: What do you think of …?

Prof. Z.	1	Is everything clear so far, or are there any questions, comments, feedback? Please don't hesitate. Yes, sir.
Takeshi	2	Uh, first of all, thank you for, uh, sharing your thorough analysis on the subject.
Prof. Z.	3	Mm, my pleasure.
Takeshi	4	Uh, I think I understood the gist of it…
Prof. Z.	5	Mm-hm.
Takeshi	6	…but I do have one question.
Prof. Z.	7	OK, go ahead. I hope it's not too difficult.
Takeshi	8	Uh, OK, uh, is it correct to say that the world economy is actually improving?
Prof. Z.	9	Mm-hm. OK, on the one level, you must understand that the world banking system came to the brink of bankruptcy. And we've now gotten past that. However, on the other hand, we do have problems with inflation, food prices going up, especially in the emerging countries. We've got huge debt problems in Europe. So, depending upon how efficiently and effectively we solve these problems, we can then have effective continuation of world, the world economy.
Takeshi	10	I see. Thanks. Ah, just one more question.
Prof. Z.	11	Yes.
Takeshi	12	Uh, what do you think of Japan becoming the third world, uh, third biggest world economy after China?
Prof. Z.	13	Hmm. OK, going from no. 2 to no. 3 is a … It's a, it's a major change in Japan's status. But let me turn this around for a moment. What do you think?
Takeshi	14	OK, hmm.

1	ここまで全てクリアですか？何か質問、コメント、フィードバック、ありますか？ためらわずに。はい、あなた。
2	まず、このテーマへの細かい分析をしてくださり、有難うございました。
3	どういたしまして。
4	要点はわかったと思います・・・
5	はい。
6	ですが、質問が1つあります。
7	オーケー、どうぞ。難し過ぎないとよいですが。
8	えー、世界経済は実際のところ良くなってきていると言えますか？
9	そうですねぇ、まず、一側面において、世界の金融システムが破綻の危機に陥ったことを理解しなければなりません。現在、我々は、その危機は乗り越えました。しかし、他方で、我々は、インフレの問題、特に新興国に見られる食料価格上昇の問題を抱えています。ヨーロッパにおいては莫大な負債の問題も抱えています。ですから、これらの問題をいかに効率的かつ効果的に解決していくか次第で、我々は、世界経済の効果的な継続を保つことができるでしょう。
10	わかりました。有難うございます。あ、もう一つ。
11	どうぞ。
12	日本経済が中国に次いで世界第3位になったことは、どう思われますか？
13	んー、2番から3番になること、これは日本のステータス面での大きな変化になりますね。いったん、質問を返させてください。君はどう思いますか？
14	そうですねぇ・・・

EXPRESSIONS: (1) Don't hesitate. (3) mm (4) the gist of … (5) mm-hm (6) do (7) Go ahead. (8) Is it correct to say that …? (9) on the one level / come to the brink of … / get past … / on the other hand / do / depending upon … / then (10) ah (12) What do you think of …? / after … (13) hmm / turn …around / for a moment

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (3) You're welcome. (9) Yes and no. / You could say that. (11) Sure.

7

8

Dialogue 08: What's going to happen next?

Prof. Z.	1	OK, finally, do we have any questions? Yes.
Takeshi	2	What's going to happen next to the Japanese economy?
Prof. Z.	3	Hmm, I thought you were gonna ask that. The Japanese economy. Well, the Japanese economy, I'm afraid, is not looking so good. Mm. And unless the government does something about it, and even if they do something about it, I'm not really sure.
Takeshi	4	Oh, it's bad.
Prof. Z.	5	It's bad. Study hard.
Takeshi	6	Hm, OK, I will.

EXPRESSIONS: (3) I'm afraid ... / <be> looking good / unless ... / do something about ... (4) oh

1	さて、最後に、質問はありますか？はい。
2	日本経済は、次にどうなりますか？
3	ふーむ、そのことを聞かれると思いました。日本経済ですね。えー、日本経済は、残念ながら、あまり展望は良くありません。そして、政府が何かしなければ、また、仮に彼らが何かをしたとしても、私にはよくわかりません。
4	良くないですね。
5	良くないです。勉強、頑張ってください。
6	はい、頑張ります。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (3) What I know is ... / Who knows?

9

10

Dialogue 09: Desperately

Takeshi	1	Professor Zitowitz?
Prof. Z.	2	Yes.
Takeshi	3	Would you excuse me? I desperately need to go to the bathroom.
Prof. Z.	4	Desperately?
Takeshi	5	Desperately.
Prof. Z.	6	OK, OK. Go ahead.
Takeshi	7	OK.
Prof. Z.	8	But listen, listen, don't go home, OK?
Takeshi	9	I, I know.
Prof. Z.	10	Come right back.
Takeshi	11	I, I will.
Prof. Z.	12	I'm waiting for you.
Takeshi	13	OK.
Prof. Z.	14	OK.
Takeshi	15	Be right back.
Prof. Z.	16	All right.
Takeshi	17	Thanks.

EXPRESSIONS: (3) Would you excuse me? / desperately (8) Listen. (9) I know. (10) right (15) (I will) be right back.

1	ジトウィッツ先生？
2	はい。
3	ちょっといいですか？トイレ、我慢できないんです。
4	我慢できない？
5	我慢できません。
6	わかりました。じゃ、行って来て。
7	はい。
8	だけど、いいですか、家に帰らないように。
9	わかってます。
10	すぐ戻ってくるように。
11	戻ります。
12	待ってるからね。
13	はい。
14	オーケー。
15	すぐ戻ります。
16	はい。
17	ありがとうございます。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (8) Look.

11

12

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Dialogue 10: You will make it.

Prof. Z.	1	OK, why such a long face? Give it to me.
Takeshi	2	Well, I didn't get the research assistant position.
Prof. Z.	3	Really? It's horrible.
Takeshi	4	Yeah. I don't know...
Prof. Z.	5	You know, for some reason, they just don't seem to understand how really talented you are.
Takeshi	6	Well, it's nice of you...
Prof. Z.	7	Yeah, it's true.
Takeshi	8	Well, hopefully, I'll make it next time.
Prof. Z.	9	You will make it. Don't give up.
Takeshi	10	OK.
Prof. Z.	11	You'll get it next time.
Takeshi	12	Well, thanks for your encouragement.
Prof. Z.	13	Mm, you always have it.

1	浮かない顔して、どうしたんですか？話してみて。
2	リサーチ・アシスタントのポジションなんですが、もらえませんでした。
3	本当に？残念ですね・・・
4	はい・・・（どうしたらよいのか）わかりません。
5	どういうわけだか、彼らは、君がいかに有能なのか、わかっていないですね。
6	（そう言って頂けて）有難うございます。
7	事実だから。
8	できれば、次はうまくいって欲しいです。
9	うまくいくから。諦めないで。
10	わかりました。
11	次は（ポジションを）もらえますよ。
12	励まして頂き、有難うございます。
13	いつも応援していますよ。〈君には私の励ましが常にありますよ〉

EXPRESSIONS: (1) a long face / Give it to me. (5) just (6) It's nice of you to <do> (8) hopefully / make it / next time

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

13

14

Dialogue 11: Extension & Exception

Takeshi	1	Listen, could I speak to you for a moment?
Prof. Z.	2	Mm, go ahead.
Takeshi	3	Well, I was wondering if you could give me an extension for, er, you know, handing in my essay.
Prof. Z.	4	Ummm, I would like to, ...
Takeshi	5	Mm-hm.
Prof. Z.	6	... but you know what I'm gonna say. I can't.
Takeshi	7	Can I ask you why?
Prof. Z.	8	Sure. If I make an exception of you, I've gotta make an exception of everybody. And I like you a lot, but you gotta get the work done. You can do it.
Takeshi	9	OK.
Prof. Z.	10	OK?
Takeshi	11	OK.
Prof. Z.	12	Thanks.

1	あの・・・少しお話しさせて頂けますか？
2	はい、どうぞ。
3	あの・・・小論文の提出ですが、期限を延長していただけないでしょうか？
4	んー、できればそうしてあげたいです・・・
5	はい・・・
6	が、返事はわかりますね。それはできません。
7	どうしてか伺ってもよいですか？
8	はい。君に例外対応してしまったら、全員に対して例外対応しなければなりません。君のことは気にかけていますが、課題はやらないと。君ならできますよ。
9	はい。
10	わかりましたか？
11	わかりました。
12	どうも。

EXPRESSIONS: (3) I was wondering if you could ... / extension / er / hand in ... (4) ummm (8) make an exception of ... / I('ve) gotta <do> / get ...<p.p.>

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (4) Unfortunately, ...

15

16

Dialogue 12: Almost there

Prof. Z.	1	Keep it up. You're almost there.
Takeshi	2	Am I? I don't know. I think I'm still less than half way through.
Prof. Z.	3	C'mon. You can do it. You know you can do it.

1	その調子で頑張って。あともう一歩です。
2	そうですか？どうでしょうか。まだ半分も終わっていない気がします。
3	頑張って。君ならできる。わかってるでしょ、できるって。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) Keep it up. / almost there (2) less than … / half way through (3) C'mon.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) Hang in there. / Keep at it.

Dialogue 13: Glad to help anytime

Takeshi	1	Thank you so much for sharing your time, Professor Zitowitz.
Prof. Z.	2	Hm, anytime, Takeshi. You know, anytime you have a problem, come to me. I'm glad to help.
Takeshi	3	Thank you.
Prof. Z.	4	You're welcome.

1	お時間くださり、誠に有難うございました、ジトウィッツ先生。
2	いつでもよいですよ、タケシ。いいですか、いつでも困ったことがあれば来なさい。喜んで手助けしますよ。
3	有難うございます。
4	どういたしまして。

EXPRESSIONS:

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) Thank you for taking your time. (2) I'm glad to be of help.

17

18

Dialogue 14: Favorite actor

Takeshi	1	So, who's your favorite actor?
Joe	2	Ummm, I like DeCaprio. I like his acting.
Takeshi	3	You gotta be kidding me. I can't stand him.
Joe	4	Why don't you like him?
Takeshi	5	He's stuck-up.
Joe	6	Hm, I don't think so. Who do you like then?
Takeshi	7	I like Angelina Jolie. Her acting is something. Besides, she's beautiful.
Joe	8	Yeah, but she's getting old, isn't she?
Takeshi	9	So what? 'n she still looks young, don't you think?
Joe	10	Ummm, yeah, I agree.

1	ところで、お気に入りの俳優は誰？
2	そうだなぁ、デカプリオは好きだよ。彼の演技はいいね。
3	冗談でしょ？僕は大嫌い。
4	どうしてよ？
5	偉そうにしてるじゃん。
6	んー、そうは思わないけど。じゃあ、君は誰が好き？
7	アンジェリーナ・ジョリー。彼女の演技はすごい。プラス、美人。
8	そうだね。でも、彼女、年とってきてない？
9	だから何？それに、彼女、若く見えない？
10	んー、そうだね。

EXPRESSIONS: (3) You gotta be kidding me. / can't stand … (5) stuck-up (6) then (7) something / Besides, … (9) So what? / 'n (10) I agree.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (3) Are you kidding me? / You must be joking. (5) rude / mean (7) beside … (9) So what? / You must be joking. (5) rude / mean (7) beside …

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Dialogue 15: How should I say this in English?

Joe	1	Could you teach me something about Japanese culture?
Takeshi	2	Sure. What do you want to know?
Joe	3	I'm not sure. I don't know much about Japan.
Takeshi	4	Would you like to know about, uh, traditional culture?
Joe	5	I'm not sure.
Takeshi	6	Do you know about "omotenashi no seishin"?
Joe	7	No idea. What's that?
Takeshi	8	How should I say this in English? Uh, the spirit of hospitality? It's a very important part of Japanese culture.
Joe	9	Sounds interesting. Please tell me more about that.

1	日本の文化について何か教えてもらえない？
2	いいよ。何が知りたいの？
3	よくわからないなぁ。日本についてよく知らなくってさ。
4	伝統文化について知りたい？
5	わかんないなぁ。
6	「おもてなしの精神」は知ってる？
7	まったく。何それ？
8	英語でどう言えばいいかなぁ？えー、スピリット・オブ・ホスピタリティ？日本文化のすごく重要な部分だよ。
9	面白そうだね。もっと教えて。

EXPRESSIONS: (7) (I have) no idea. (9) (That) sounds …

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

21

22

Dialogue 16: Last weekend

Joe	1	What did you do last weekend?
Takeshi	2	Last weekend? Hmm, nothing special, except for doing homework. And you?
Joe	3	I went shopping for souvenirs for my family.
Takeshi	4	What did you get for them?
Joe	5	I bought some T-shirts, postcards, key chains, and stuff like that.
Takeshi	6	That's nice. You seem to have had a good weekend.
Joe	7	Yes, I did. It was fun.
Takeshi	8	Good for you.
Joe	9	Thanks.

1	先週末は何したの？
2	先週末？んー、特には何もしてないけど。宿題やる以外にはね。君は？
3	家族へのお土産を買いに行ったよ。
4	ご家族には何を買ったの？
5	Tシャツ、ポストカード、キーホルダー、などなど。
6	いいね。いい週末を過ごせたみたいだね。
7	そうだね。楽しかったよ。
8	よかったね。
9	どうも。

EXPRESSIONS: (2) except for … / And you? (5) some … / and stuff like that (6) seem to have <p.p.> (8) Good for you.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

Dialogue 17: That's the way it goes.

Joe	1	It's a shame. I wanted him to stay on the team. I thought he loved this team.
Takeshi	2	That's the way it goes. Professionals go where the money is.
Joe	3	I'm not gonna root for him anymore.

1	残念だ。彼にはチームに残ってもらいたかったよ。このチームのことを愛してくれてると思ってたのに。
2	そんなもんさ。プロは金のある所に行くんだよ。
3	もう彼のことは応援しない。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) It's a shame. (2) That's the way it goes. (3) root for …

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) That's life. / That's how things work.

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Dialogue 18: You mean ...?

Joe	1	This is so embarrassing.	あぁどうしよう・・・
Takeshi	2	What's the matter?	どうしたの？
Joe	3	I forgot my wallet at home.	家に財布を忘れてきちゃった・・・
Takeshi	4	So, you mean you don't have any money?	つまり、金がないってこと？
Joe	5	No, not at all.	うん、全然。
Takeshi	6	It's, it's OK. I'll pay for lunch.	大丈夫、僕がランチ代払うよ。
Joe	7	No, I, I'm fine.	いや、いいよ。
Takeshi	8	I, I will. You're my best friend.	いいから。君は僕の親友だから。
Joe	9	Really? You're such a great guy.	本当？君はいいヤツだ。
Takeshi	10	Yeah, but next time you're buying.	ああ、でも次は君が払ってね。

EXPRESSIONS: (2) What's the matter? (3) forget ...at home (4) You mean ...? (9) such a ...

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) What's wrong? (4) Which means? / In other words, ... / Are you saying that ...? (5) Something like that. (7) You don't have to do that. (9) I'll make it up. / I owe you one. (10) It's not a big deal. / No biggie.

Dialogue 19: What would you do if ...?

Takeshi	1	What would you do if you won the lottery?	宝くじ当たったらどうする？
Joe	2	I don't know. Maybe I would save it.	分かんないなぁ。貯金、かなぁ。
Takeshi	3	You would really do that?	本当にそうするの？
Joe	4	Why not? How about you?	ダメ？君は？
Takeshi	5	I would buy an apartment.	マンション買うね。
Joe	6	That would be a good choice. You wouldn't have to worry about paying your rent then.	よい選択だね。そしたら家賃払う心配がなくなるね。
Takeshi	7	Besides, it would be a good investment.	それに、よい投資にもなるよ。
Joe	8	That's smart. You know what? I would do the same.	賢いね。うん、僕もそうするよ。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) What would you do if you <過去形>? (2) I would ...

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (8) On second thought, ...

25

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Dialogue 20: There's no way I can ...

Takeshi	1	So, what was the most embarrassing experience of your life?	ところで、人生で最も恥ずかしかったことは？
Joe	2	Oh no, It's too embarrassing. There's no way I can tell you.	ダメダメ、恥ずかしすぎて言えないよ。
Takeshi	3	Come on. Let me hear it.	いいじゃん、教えてよ。
Joe	4	Alright, but it's just between us, OK?	わかったよ、だけど二人だけの秘密だからね。
Takeshi	5	I promise I won't tell anyone. You have my word.	約束するよ、誰にも言わないって。誓うから。
Joe	6	OK, here we go. Ummm, I can't tell you. It's just too personal.	わかったよ。えーとねぇ・・・んー、やっぱり言えない。プライベート過ぎるから。
Takeshi	7	Oh, c'mon! You can't do that to me, man!	そりゃないよ。

EXPRESSIONS: (2) There's no way ... (4) It's between us. (5) You have my word. (6) Here we go. (7) You can't do that to me. / man

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (3) Let me have it.

Dialogue 21: Whatever.

Joe	1	This conversation is over!	この話はもう終わり！
Takeshi	2	Whatever.	あーそうですか。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) over (2) Whatever.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) If you say so.

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Dialogue 22: Don't you hate it when that happens?

Takeshi	1	Do you remember the Japanese professor who won the Nobel Prize last year?
Joe	2	Sure. What was his name?
Takeshi	3	It's, er... Ugh, I've forgotten it.
Joe	4	It's on the tip of my tongue, but I can't seem to remember it either.
Takeshi	5	Don't you hate it when that happens?
Joe	6	Ugh, it's driving me crazy!
Takeshi	7	Take it easy. It's not that important.
Joe	8	You're right. It'll come to us when we are not expecting it.

1	去年ノーベル賞を受賞した日本人教授、覚えてる？
2	もちろん。名前何だったっけ？
3	それは、あぁ、忘れちゃったよ。
4	のどまで出かかってるんだけど、僕も思い出せないや。
5	それってすごくイヤだよね。
6	あぁ、イライラする！
7	まぁまぁ。そんな大したことじゃないから。
8	そうだね。そのうちふと思い出すよね。

EXPRESSIONS: (3) ugh (4) on the tip of one's tongue (6) drive ...crazy (7) Take it easy.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (7) Don't get upset.

Dialogue 23: Running out of time/ideas

Joe	1	We're running out of time! We've gotta think of some solution really fast!
Takeshi	2	I know, I know, but I'm running out of ideas here!

1	時間がもうないよ！何か策を早く考えないと！
2	わかってる、わかってる、だけど、アイディア切れだよ！

EXPRESSIONS: (1) <be> running out of ...

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) have run out of ...

Dialogue 24: Catching a cold

Prof. Z.	1	What's wrong, Takeshi? You don't look so good.
Takeshi	2	Uh, I might be catching a cold. I, uh, sort of have a fever.
Prof. Z.	3	Really? That's not good. Um, maybe you should be taking some medicine, and get some rest.
Takeshi	4	Yeah, that's good advice. I think I'll do that. Thank you.
Prof. Z.	5	Listen, um, take care of yourself, all right?
Takeshi	6	Yes, thank you.

1	どうしましたか、タケシ？なんか元気ないようですね。
2	風邪を引きかけてるっぽいんです。熱ある感じで。
3	本当ですか？ 良くないですね。薬を飲んだ方が良いと思いますよ。それと、休んでください。
4	その通りですね。そうしようと思います。有難うございます。
5	お大事に。
6	はい、有難うございます。

EXPRESSIONS: (2) <be> catching a cold / sort of ... (5) Take care of yourself.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) I'm nauseous. / I have a sore throat. / I have an upset stomach. / I have no appetite. / kind of ...

Dialogue 25: Guess what?

Takeshi	1	Guess what?
Joe	2	What's up?
Takeshi	3	Dan is dating Michelle.
Joe	4	No way! I didn't think she was his type.
Takeshi	5	I know. I couldn't believe it either.
Joe	6	How long have they been going out together?
Takeshi	7	Since the party last Friday.
Joe	8	Wow! Let's go and ask him how he asked her out.

1	あのさぁ。
2	何？
3	ダン、ミシェルと付き合ってるんだよ。
4	うそ！彼女が彼のタイプだとは思わなかったなぁ。
5	だよね。僕も信じられなかったよ。
6	どのくらい付き合ってるの？
7	先週金曜のパーティからだってさ。
8	ワォ！ どうやって彼女を誘ったのか聞きにいこう。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) Guess what? (2) What's up? (4) No way! (6) go out together (8) ask ...out

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (3) Believe it or not, ... / seeing ... (4) There's no accounting for tastes. / I don't get it. (6) <be> seeing ... / <be> a couple / ex- (7) hit it off

Dialogue 26: Get cold feet

Joe	1	So, how did it go?	1	で、どうだった？
Takeshi	2	What?	2	何が？
Joe	3	You asked Rachel out on a date, didn't you?	3	レイチェルをデートに誘ったんでしょ？
Takeshi	4	No. I got cold feet at the last minute.	4	いや、いよいよというときに怖気づいちゃったよ。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) How did it go? (3) ask ...out on a date (4) get cold feet / at the last minute

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

Dialogue 27: Thanks, but no thanks.

Takeshi	1	Want some gum?	1	ガムいる？
Joe	2	Uh, thanks, but no thanks.	2	ありがと、でもいいや。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) (Do you) want some ...? (2) Thanks, but no thanks.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) No, thank you.

Dialogue 28: I'll pass.

Joe	1	I'm starving, man. Let's go out 'n get something to eat.	1	腹ペコだよ。何か食べに行こうよ。
Takeshi	2	Ummm, I'll pass. I'm on a diet.	2	んー、やめとくよ。ダイエット中だから。

EXPRESSIONS: (2) pass / <be> on a diet

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) I'll take a rain check. / Maybe some other time.

33

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Dialogue 29: It's a big loss.

Prof. Z.	1	What's up?	1	どうしたんですか？
Takeshi	2	You know, my dog, my adorable dog, he got hit by a car.	2	僕が溺愛していた犬が車にひかれちゃったんです。
Prof. Z.	3	You're kidding.	3	まさか。
Takeshi	4	Well, I'm not.	4	本当なんです。
Prof. Z.	5	It's horrible.	5	それはひどい・・・
Takeshi	6	Yeah.	6	はい・・・
Prof. Z.	7	We're really, really sorry to hear that.	7	とてもお気の毒です・・・
Takeshi	8	Hm.	8	・・・
Prof. Z.	9	The dog is like a member of the family.	9	犬は家族の一員のようなものですからね。
Takeshi	10	Yeah, it's a big loss.	10	はい、喪失感が大きいです。
Prof. Z.	11	Sorry.	11	ご愁傷様・・・

EXPRESSIONS: (2) get hit by a car (10) loss

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (11) My condolences.

Dialogue 30: Ouch!

Takeshi	1	Ouch!	1	痛っ！
Joe	2	Static electricity, huh?	2	静電気だね？

EXPRESSIONS: (1) Ouch! (2) ..., huh?

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

35

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Dialogue 31: Count me in.

Joe	1	Takeshi, are you free tonight?
Takeshi	2	It depends. I do have some homework to do. Why?
Joe	3	I'm gonna see that new movie directed by J.J. Abrams. Why don't you join me? There will be some others going with us.
Takeshi	4	Abrams? Are you serious? He's, uh, my favorite director, and, uh, it's been a while since I last saw his movie at the theater.
Joe	5	So, are you coming?
Takeshi	6	Yeah, please count me in.
Joe	7	Great. Let's meet at the dorm at 7. We'll take the train to the theater.
Takeshi	8	Got it. Thanks for asking me.
Joe	9	The more, the merrier. See you then.

EXPRESSIONS: (2) It depends. (4) Are you serious? / It's been a while since I last … (6) Count me in. (8) got it. (9) The more, the merrier. / See you then.

1	タケシ、今夜空いてる？
2	ことによるけど。ちょっと課題があるんだよね。なんで？
3	JJ エイブラムズの新作映画観に行くんだよね。一緒にどう？他にも何人か一緒に行くよ。
4	エイブラムズ？本当に？大好きな監督なんだよね。最後に彼の映画を映画館で観てからずいぶん経つよ。
5	で、来る？
6	うん、頭数に入れといて。
7	よし。7 時に寮で会おう。電車で映画館まで行くから。
8	了解。誘ってくれてありがと。
9	多いほど楽しいじゃん。じゃ、後でね。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) I'm not in the mood. / I have a prior [previous] engagement [commitment]. (6) count …out (7) dormitory

Dialogue 32: Astrology reading

| Takeshi | 1 | What, what do you mean you've decided not to go? |
| Joe | 2 | According to my astrology reading, I may have some bad luck today. I'm afraid of something terribly bad happening to me if I go out. |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) What do you mean …? (2) according to …

1	行くのやめたって、どういうことよ？
2	星占いによると、今日は何か良くないことが起こるかもなんだよね。外出したら何かとても悪い目に遭うんじゃないか、こわくって。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) I'm out of luck.

Dialogue 33: kill time

| Takeshi | 1 | I'm so sorry to have kept you waiting. |
| Joe | 2 | That's OK. I was killing time on my cellphone. |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) keep …waiting (2) kill time

1	待たせちゃって本当ゴメン。
2	大丈夫。携帯で時間つぶしてたから。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) Something came up. / A family situation came up. / I had an emergency. (2) I got stood up.

Dialogue 34: Wait in line

| Joe | 1 | Can you get us something to drink? I will wait in line. |
| Takeshi | 2 | OK. I'll be right back. |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) wait in line

1	飲み物買って来てくれる？僕は列で並んでるから。
2	わかった。すぐ戻るよ。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

Dialogue 35: I'll leave it to you.

| Takeshi | 1 | Which movie do you want to see tonight? |
| Joe | 2 | I don't know which movies are showing now. I'll leave it to you. |

EXPRESSIONS: (2) I'll leave it to you.

1	今晩は、どの映画観たい？
2	何が公開されてるか知らないんだよね。君に任せるよ。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

Dialogue 36: You can count on it.

| Takeshi | 1 | Do you think he will come on time? |
| Joe | 2 | He's punctual. You can count on it. |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) on time (2) punctual

1	彼、時間通りに来ると思う？
2	彼は時間厳守だから。当てにして大丈夫だよ。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) You can bet on it. / tardy

Dialogue 37: Get ahold of …

| Takeshi | 1 | Hello? Joe? Where are you? I wanted to get ahold of you. |
| Joe | 2 | Sorry. The connection was bad on my phone. Don't worry. I'll be right over. Just give me ten minutes. |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) Hello? / get ahold of …

1	もしもし？ジョー？どこにいるの？連絡取りたかったんだよ。
2	ごめん。携帯のつながりが悪くって。心配なし。すぐ行くから。10 分だけちょうだい。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) get in touch with … (2) reception / I'm coming. / I'm on my way.

Dialogue 38: Instead of …

| Joe | 1 | Instead of eating out, how about ordering pizzas? |
| Takeshi | 2 | Good idea. Let's do that. |

| 1 | 外食の代わりに、ピザ注文しない？ |
| 2 | いいね。そうしよう。 |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) instead of … / eat out

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

Dialogue 39: What for?

| Joe | 1 | What's the umbrella for? It's not gonna rain today, you know. |
| Takeshi | 2 | Better safe than sorry. |

| 1 | その傘、何のため？今日は雨降らないでしょ。 |
| 2 | 用心に越したことないでしょ。(転ばぬ先の杖) |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) What's …for? (2) Better safe than sorry.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

Dialogue 40: I'm sick of …

| Takeshi | 1 | I am sick of Pete! |
| Joe | 2 | Oh, me too! He repeats his bullshit again and again! |

| 1 | ピートにはうんざりだ！ |
| 2 | 僕も！あいつ、たわごとを何度も何度も繰り返すんだよね。 |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) sick of … (2) bullshit

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) tired of … (2) nonsense / repeatedly / over and over again

Dialogue 41: Judge a book by its cover

| Takeshi | 1 | He's an idiot, isn't he? |
| Joe | 2 | Don't judge a book by its cover. He looks dumb but actually he is really smart. |

| 1 | 彼、バカじゃない？ |
| 2 | 外見で中身を判断しちゃダメだよ。彼、バカっぽく見えるけど、実はとても賢いんだから。 |

EXPRESSIONS: (2) judge a book by its cover / dumb

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) asshole / moron / fool / jerk / pathetic / hopeless

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Dialogue 42: It's a waste of time.

| Takeshi | 1 | I'm still pissed off with that son-of-a-bitch! |
| Joe | 2 | Let it go. Be cool, man. Don't let him bother you. It's a waste of time. |

| 1 | あん畜生め、まだ腹つよ！ |
| 2 | 気にしない。冷静に。あんなヤツのこと気にしちゃダメだって。時間の無駄だから。 |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) pissed off / son-of-a-bitch (2) Let it go. / It's a waste of time.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) bitch / Son of a bitch!

Dialogue 43: I couldn't help it.

| Takeshi | 1 | Why the hell did you leave in the middle of the party? |
| Joe | 2 | I couldn't help it. I couldn't stand their bad-mouthing. |

| 1 | 一体どうしてパーティの途中で帰っちゃったの？ |
| 2 | 我慢できなかったんだよ。彼らの悪口が耐えられなくって。 |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) the hell (2) I couldn't help it. / bad-mouthing

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) the fuck

Dialogue 44: I'll be right with you.

Takeshi	1	Do you have a minute?
Joe	2	Yeah, I'll be right with you. Just give me a moment to finish this.
Takeshi	3	OK. Let me know when you are ready.
Joe	4	Absolutely.

1	ちょっといい？
2	いいけど、これ終わらせるから、ちょっとだけ待って。
3	わかった。準備できたら教えてね。
4	もちろん。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) Do you have a minute? / (I'll) be right with you.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) (Do) you have a sec? (2) Give me two seconds. (4) Definitely.

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Dialogue 45: It's your fault.

Joe	1	Why the long face?
Takeshi	2	Lisa dumped me.
Joe	3	What? How come?
Takeshi	4	I was walking home with Helena and she suddenly kissed me. And, uh, Lisa came out of nowhere and caught me red-handed.
Joe	5	Don't get me wrong, but what the hell were you thinking?
Takeshi	6	I know, I know. I shouldn't have been walking with her in the first place. But I didn't think she would kiss me, you know.
Joe	7	Well, I can't feel sorry for you. It's your fault.
Takeshi	8	Well, I am fully aware of it, but I'm, I'm still crazy about Lisa. What, What should I do?
Joe	9	OK, cheer up and be positive. Everyone makes mistakes. I'm sure you'll come up with some way to make it up to her.
Takeshi	10	I'm, I'm not sure if I can figure out what to do.

	1	どうしたの、浮かない顔して？
	2	リサに振られちゃったよ・・・
	3	何だって？どうしてまた？
	4	ヘレナと一緒に帰ってたら突然キスされちゃって。で、リサがどこからともなく現れて、見られちゃったんだよ。
	5	悪くとらないでね、だけど、一体何を考えてたの？
	6	わかってるって。そもそも一緒に帰るべきじゃなかった。だけど、キスされるとは思わなかったんだよ。
	7	んー、同情できないね。自業自得だよ。
	8	よーくわかってる。だけど、まだリサのこと大好きなんだよ。どうしたらいいんだろう？
	9	わかった、元気出して前向きに行こう。誰でも間違いは犯す。埋め合わせる方法を思いつくって。
	10	何か思いつくか、自信ないよ。

EXPRESSIONS: (2) dump … (3) How come? (4) come out of nowhere / catch …red-handed (5) Don't get me wrong, but … (6) I shouldn't have <p.p.> / in the first place (7) It's your (own) fault. (8) I'm aware of … / I'm crazy about … (9) Cheer up. / come up with … / some way to make it up to … (10) figure out … / what to do

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) She told me she was done with me. (5) Were you (fucking) out of your mind? / If I were you, … (7) You asked for it. / You had it coming.

Dialogue 46: It doesn't make sense.

Takeshi	1	That's why you shouldn't be doing that. And…
Joe	2	Wait a sec. You gotta be mistaken. It doesn't make sense.
Takeshi	3	Well, it does. And look, … Oh, where was I?

	1	だから、それをしてちゃダメなんだって。それと・・・
	2	ちょっと待ってよ。間違ってる。おかしいよ。
	3	おかしくないって。それと、あれ、何だったっけ・・・

EXPRESSIONS: (1) That's why … (2) mistaken / It doesn't make sense. (3) Where was I?

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) Wait a minute. / That's nonsense. / (That) makes sense.

Dialogue 47: Come in

Takeshi	1	Knock, knock. Can I come in?
Joe	2	Hey, Takeshi. Please. Come on in.
Takeshi	3	Hey, Joe. How're you doing?
Joe	4	Great. And you?
Takeshi	5	Good.
Joe	6	So, what brings you?
Takeshi	7	Uh, well, …

	1	コンコン、入ってもいい？
	2	やぁ、タケシ。どうぞ、入って。
	3	やぁ、ジョー。元気？
	4	最高だよ。君は？
	5	いい感じだよ。
	6	で、どうしたの？
	7	えっとさぁ・・・

EXPRESSIONS: (1) come in (2) Come on in. (6) What brings you (here)?

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

Dialogue 48: I'm supposed to ...

Joe	1	Takeshi, is your laptop connected to the Internet?
Takeshi	2	Yes. Do you want to use it?
Joe	3	May I? I'm supposed to be receiving an important email.
Takeshi	4	All right. I've gotta finish up this report on my computer by noon, but if it's urgent, go ahead.
Joe	5	Thanks a lot. It won't take more than a few minutes.
Takeshi	6	I'm not in such a hurry, Joe, so take your time.
Joe	7	I appreciate it, Takeshi. I will buy you a coffee later.
Takeshi	8	Uh, never mind. What are friends for?

EXPRESSIONS: (3) <be> supposed to <do> (4) urgent (6) in a hurry / Take your time. (7) I appreciate it. (8) Never mind. / What are friends for?

1	タケシ、君のノートパソコン、ネット繋がってる？
2	うん。使いたいの？
3	いい？大事なメールを受け取ることになっててさ。
4	いいよ。昼までにこのパソコンでレポート仕上げなきゃだけど、急ぎだったら、お先にどうぞ。
5	ありがとう。何分もかからないから。
6	そんなに急いでないから、ジョー。ごゆっくりどうぞ。
7	ありがとう、タケシ。後でコーヒーおごるよ。
8	いいって。友達じゃん。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (3) Do you mind if I ...? / Is it OK if I ...? (4) That can wait. (6) I'm not that rushed.

Dialogue 49: Nightmare

Joe	1	I had a nightmare last night. Zombies were chasing after me.
Takeshi	2	How scary. You should stop watching those horror movies.

EXPRESSIONS: (1) nightmare (2) How scary.

1	昨夜、悪い夢見ちゃったよ。ゾンビたちに追いかけられちゃって。
2	こわっ。ホラー映画見るのやめた方がいいよ。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) refrain from <doing>

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Dialogue 50: I'm jealous.

Prof. Z.	1	So, do you have any plans for the summer?
Takeshi	2	I do.
Prof. Z.	3	OK, tell me.
Takeshi	4	Well, I'm, uh, thinking of, uh, visiting Italy.
Prof. Z.	5	You're kidding. Italy?
Takeshi	6	Mm-hmm.
Prof. Z.	7	I love Italy. I'm jealous.
Takeshi	8	Yeah, I'm really, really looking forward to it.
Prof. Z.	9	OK, where do you plan on visiting in Italy?
Takeshi	10	I plan to visit, er, er, Venice, ...
Prof. Z.	11	OK.
Takeshi	12	Florence, ...
Prof. Z.	13	Good.
Takeshi	14	Rome, ...
Prof. Z.	15	Oh, wonderful.
Takeshi	16	...and the Vatican, of course.
Prof. Z.	17	Ooh, it's great. Perfect. Just one thing if you get a chance. If you could go down just the kind of lower coast of Italy called Amalfi, it is absolutely fantastic. Beautiful scenery.
Takeshi	18	A...Amalfi?
Prof. Z.	19	Yeah.
Takeshi	20	I'm all ears. Please tell me more about it.
Prof. Z.	21	OK, here we go.

EXPRESSIONS: (4) <be> thinking of <doing> (7) I'm jealous. (20) I'm all ears.

1	で、何か夏の計画はあるんですか？
2	はい。
3	オーケー、教えてくれる？
4	イタリアに行こうと思ってます。
5	本当？イタリア？
6	はい。
7	イタリア大好きです。うらやましい。
8	とっても楽しみです。
9	で、イタリアのどの辺りに行くんですか？
10	えーと、ヴェネチア、
11	オーケー、
12	フィレンツェ、
13	いいですねぇ、
14	ローマ、
15	おぉ、素晴らしい。
16	そして、もちろんヴァチカンも。
17	すごい。完璧。ただ機会があればひとつだけ。もし南岸のアマルフィという所に下っていくことができれば、もう最高です。絶景ですよ。
18	アマルフィ、ですか？
19	そう。
20	とても興味あります。もっと教えてください。
21	オッケー。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (7) I envy you. (17) awesome

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Dialogue 51: You earned it.

Prof. Z.	1	You look happy. You got some good news, right?
Takeshi	2	You're right.
Prof. Z.	3	Tell me.
Takeshi	4	I got the scholarship.
Prof. Z.	5	You got the scholarship?
Takeshi	6	Yeah.
Prof. Z.	7	Really?
Takeshi	8	Well, thank you, Professor Zitowitz, for writing a recommendation letter.
Prof. Z.	9	Well, first of all, congratulations. And to be honest with you, I mean, I didn't do anything. You earned it, and I'm proud of you. Good work.
Takeshi	10	Well, thank you so much.
Prof. Z.	11	Thank you.

EXPRESSIONS: (1) ..., right? (9) Congratulations! / To be honest, ... / You earned it. / I'm proud of you. / Good work.

1 うれしそうですね。何か良い知らせがあるんですね？
2 はいそうです。
3 教えてください。
4 奨学金もらえました。
5 奨学金をもらえたって？
6 はい。
7 本当に？
8 有難うございました、ジトウィッツ先生、推薦状を書いてくださって。
9 まず、おめでとう。そして、正直、僕は何もしていないから。君が勝ち取ったんです。誇りに思います。よくやりましたね。
10 本当に有難うございました。
11 こちらこそ。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (9) Good job.

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Dialogue 52: It's a nice compliment.

Takeshi	1	Ooh, thank you for reading my essay.
Prof. Z.	2	It's a lot of work, but it was my pleasure.
Takeshi	3	You are the nicest person I've ever met.
Prof. Z.	4	Thank you. It's a nice compliment. But if I have to be honest, you know, you're a nice guy also.
Takeshi	5	Oh, thank you.
Prof. Z.	6	You're welcome.

EXPRESSIONS: (3) <be> the –est <名詞> I've ever <p.p.> (4) compliment

1 小論文を読んでくださり、有難うございました。
2 まぁ時間はかかりましたが、どういたしまして。
3 先生は最高に素晴らしい方です。
4 褒め言葉をどうもありがとう。でも、正直、君も素晴らしいですよ。
5 ありがとうございます。
6 どういたしまして。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (4) What a nice compliment!

Dialogue 53: See? I told you.

Joe	1	Oh man, I got a D in the economics course.
Takeshi	2	See? I told you.
Joe	3	I know. I should have attended class more.

EXPRESSIONS: (2) See? I told you.

1 あぁ、経済学、D 取っちゃったよ。
2 ほら見たことか。
3 わかってるって。もっと出席しておくべきだったよ。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) A+ / A– / F

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Dialogue 54: Cheating & Suspension

Takeshi 1 Stephen cheated and got suspended.

Joe 2 What was he thinking? That he could get away with it?

| 1 スティーブン、カンニングして停学になったよ。 |
| 2 何考えてたんだろ。うまくやってのけられるとでも思ってたのかね。 |

EXPRESSIONS: (1) cheat / get suspended (2) get away with …

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) cheat on … / get expelled

Dialogue 55: What a coincidence!

Takeshi 1 Hi!

Prof. Z. 2 What a coincidence!

Takeshi 3 Hey!

Prof. Z. 4 I didn't expect to bump into you here.

Takeshi 5 Me neither.

Prof. Z. 6 How're you doing?

Takeshi 7 Good. How are you?

Prof. Z. 8 Good. You look good.

Takeshi 9 Well, thank you.

Prof. Z. 10 Take care.

Takeshi 11 Yeah. You too.

Prof. Z. 12 OK, bye-bye.

Takeshi 13 OK, bye.

1 こんにちは！
2 いやぁ偶然ですね！
3 どうもです。
4 こんなところでばったり会うとは思ってませんでしたよ。
5 僕もです。
6 調子はどうですか？
7 良いです。先生は？
8 良いです。元気そうですね。
9 有難うございます。
10 じゃぁまた。
11 はい。また今度。
12 さようなら。
13 さようなら。

EXPRESSIONS: (2) What a coincidence! (4) I didn't expect to <do> / bump into … (5) Me neither.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (4) I wasn't expecting to <do> (5) Me too. (6) How's the family? (10) Say hi to everybody. / I'm running, but good to see you.

Dialogue 56: Do you have the time?

Prof. Z. 1 Listen. Do you have the time?

Takeshi 2 Uh, yeah. Uh, it's quarter to four.

Prof. Z. 3 Quarter to four!?

Takeshi 4 Yeah.

Prof. Z. 5 Gotta go. See you later.

Takeshi 6 Yeah, see you later.

Prof. Z. 7 Bye-bye.

1 ちょっと・・・何時かわかりますか？
2 はい、えーと、4時15分前ですね。
3 4時15分前！？
4 はい。
5 行かないと。また後で。
6 はい、また後で。
7 サヨナラ。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) Do you have the time?

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) What time do you have? / Do you have time? (2) ten to four / ten past four

Dialogue 57: Watch out!

Takeshi 1 Watch out! You could've stepped on that shit.

Prof. Z. 2 That was close. You, you saved my life.

Takeshi 3 Yeah. Next time you'll save mine.

Prof. Z. 4 You got it.

1 危ない！フンを踏むところでしたよ。
2 危なかったです。助かりました。
3 今度は僕のことを助けてくださいね。
4 了解。

EXPRESSIONS: (1) Watch out! / You could've <p.p.> (2) That was close. / You saved my life. (4) You got it.

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) Watch it!

Dialogue 58: We'll be in touch.

Joe	1	Well, I should be leaving now.
Takeshi	2	Oh, OK. Uh, Joe, this is a little something for you.
Joe	3	Wow, how nice of you! Thanks so much for your hospitality. I will never forget this for the rest of my life.
Takeshi	4	Well, it was my pleasure. Uh, have a safe flight home, and, uh, please say hello to your family.
Joe	5	Thanks. We'll be in touch.
Takeshi	6	We will. I'll miss you.
Joe	7	I'll miss you too. This is not a good-bye. See you later, buddy!
Takeshi	8	See you!

	1	もう行かないと。
	2	あぁ、そうだね。ジョー、これ、たいしたものじゃないけど。
	3	ありがとう！温かいもてなしを本当にありがとう。一生忘れないよ。
	4	どういたしまして。帰りのフライト、無事にね。あと、ご家族によろしく。
	5	ありがと。連絡取り合おう。
	6	もちろん。寂しくなるよ。
	7	僕も。これはサヨナラじゃないから。またね！
	8	あぁ、またね！

EXPRESSIONS: (2) a little something for ... (3) for the rest of my life (4) say hello to ... (5) We'll be in touch. (6) I'll miss you. (7) buddy

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) Please accept this as a token of my appreciation. (3) I can't thank you enough. (4) I was nice meeting you. / Have a safe trip home. / Give my best regards to ... (6) You'll be missed. / I miss you. / I missed you. (7) man / girl / Oh, man!

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Dialogue 59: Immigration

Officer	1	Is this your first time to the U.S.?
Passenger	2	Yes. I've, er, never been here before.
Officer	3	How long are you planning to stay?
Passenger	4	I'll be staying for about a month.
Officer	5	What's the purpose of your visit?
Passenger	6	Studying.
Officer	7	Mm-hmm. Where will you be staying?
Passenger	8	In Boston for the first three weeks, then in New York for about a week, and lastly, er, in D.C. for the, er, remaining couple of days.
Officer	9	OK, OK, that's all. Enjoy your stay.
Passenger	10	Thanks. Have a nice day.

	1	アメリカに来たのは今回が初めてですか？
	2	はい。以前来たことはありません。
	3	どのくらい滞在する予定ですか？
	4	約1ヶ月間の滞在予定です。
	5	入国目的は何ですか？
	6	勉学です。
	7	そうですか。滞在先はどちらですか？
	8	最初の3週間はボストン、その後約1週間はニューヨーク、最後の数日はワシントンD.C.です。
	9	はい、以上です。楽しんでください。
	10	有難うございます。良い一日を。

EXPRESSIONS:

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (6) Sightseeing. / Business.

Dialogue 60: Problem/Request@hotel

Guest	1	Hi. Morning.
Clerk	2	Good morning, sir. Did we sleep well last night?
Guest	3	Yes. Well, ...
Clerk	4	How can I help you?
Guest	5	Well, uh, my room's air-conditioner, it doesn't seem to be working properly. Could you send someone to fix it?
Clerk	6	Ah, sorry, sorry. I'll get on it right away, sir.
Guest	7	And, uh, can I use a safety deposit box?
Clerk	8	Sure. Uh, please fill in this form.
Guest	9	All right.

	1	お早うございます。
	2	お早うございます。昨夜はよく眠れましたか？
	3	はい・・・
	4	いかがされましたか？
	5	えーとですねぇ、部屋のエアコンなんですけど、ちゃんと動いていないようなんです。誰かに直しに来てもらえませんか？
	6	誠に申し訳ございませんでした。ただちに。
	7	あと、セーフティ・ボックス使えますか？
	8	もちろんです。こちらのシートにご記入ください。
	9	わかりました。

EXPRESSIONS: (4) How can I help you? (6) I'll get on it right away. (8) fill in ...

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (5) The toilet doesn't flush. / Hot water doesn't come out. (6) I'm on it. / work on ... (7) Can I take out my stuff from the safety deposit box? / Can I make a call here to someone staying in this hotel?

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Dialogue 61: I haven't seen you in ages.

Takeshi	1	Hey, Joe, long time no see!
Joe	2	Hey, Takeshi, I haven't seen you in ages.
Takeshi	3	How've you been?
Joe	4	Pretty good, pretty good. You?
Takeshi	5	Couldn't be better!
Joe	6	Well, you look fabulous.
Takeshi	7	Oh, thank you. You do, too. It's so great to see you again.
Joe	8	Ditto, man. We gotta go out soon.
Takeshi	9	Absolutely! Can hardly wait!

EXPRESSIONS: (1) Long time no see. (2) I haven't seen you in ages. (5) Couldn't be better. (8) Ditto. (9) Can hardly wait.

1	やぁ、ジョー、久しぶり！
2	やぁ、タケシ！久しぶりだね。
3	元気だった？
4	とっても。君は？
5	最高だよ！
6	そのようだね。
7	ありがと。君もね。また会えて嬉しいよ。
8	同じく。すぐ遊びに行こう。
9	もちろん！待ちきれないよ。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) At last. (5) Terrific. (6) Look at you. (8) I'll see you around. / Let's get together sometime soon. / Let's grab a bite. (9) It was nice to see you again.

Dialogue 62: @Restaurant

Server	1	Are you ready to order?
Customer	2	Yes, uh, could I have the, uh, lunch special?
Server	3	Hmm, sure. Uh, what would you like to drink with your meal?
Customer	4	Just a glass of water, please.
Server	5	OK. And can I interest you in a desert?
Customer	6	Uh, maybe not. I'll think about it while I eat.
Server	7	Sure. Anything else?
Customer	8	No. That'll be all.
Server	9	OK. All right. I'll be back shortly with your order.

EXPRESSIONS:

1	ご注文よろしいでしょうか？
2	はい、ランチスペシャルを頂けますか？
3	かしこまりました。お飲物はどうされますか？
4	水をください。
5	はい。デザートはお召し上がりになりますか？
6	んー、結構です。食べながら考えます。
7	わかりました。他には何かございますか？
8	いえ。以上です。
9	かしこまりました。ご注文のお品、すぐにお持ちいたします。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) Just a minute. I'll be right with you. (9) Yummy. / Yuck.

Dialogue 63: @McDonald's

Server	1	Is it for here or to go?
Customer	2	Uh, to go, please.

EXPRESSIONS: (Is it) for here or to go?

1	店内でお召し上がりですか、それともお持ち帰りですか？
2	えっと、持ち帰りでお願いします。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

Dialogue 64: Money exchange

Clerk	1	How may I help you?
Customer	2	I'd like to change some yen into dollars.
Clerk	3	Hmm, certainly, 'n how much would you like to change?
Customer	4	20,000 yen.
Clerk	5	OK, the exchange rate today is 83 yen to one dollar. How would you like that?
Customer	6	OK, then, uh, could I have a hundred dollars in twenties, another hundred in tens, and the rest in ones?
Clerk	7	OK. No problem.

EXPRESSIONS: (3) Certainly. (6) twenties / tens / ones / the rest

1	いらっしゃいませ。
2	円をドルに両替したいんですけど。
3	かしこまりました。幾ら、両替をご希望ですか？
4	2万円、お願いします。
5	今日の為替レートは1ドル83円になります。両替はどのようにいたしましょうか？
6	じゃぁ、100ドルを20ドル札で、もう100ドルを10ドル札で、残りを1ドル紙幣で頂けますか？
7	わかりました。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS:

Dialogue 65: Asking for directions

Stranger	1	Excuse me. Could you tell me the way to the nearest post office?
Local	2	Ummm, let me see... First, go straight to the second light, and turn right.
Stranger	3	OK, turn right at the second light, right?
Local	4	That's right. Then walk for three blocks, and it's on the left side right next to McDonald's.
Stranger	5	Let me confirm. Three blocks from the light, and it's on the left side next to McDonald's. I see. I think I got it. Thanks so much.
Local	6	You're welcome.

EXPRESSIONS: (2) Let me see ... (4) That's right. (5) Let me confirm.

1　すみません。最寄りの郵便局までの道を教えて頂けますか？
2　ええっと、まず、二つ目の信号まで真っ直ぐ行って、右に曲がって下さい。
3　はい、二つ目の信号を右、ですね？
4　そう。それから 3 ブロック歩いて。郵便局は左手のマクドナルドのすぐ隣りです。
5　確認させてください。信号から 3 ブロック行って、左手、マックの隣りですね。なるほど。わ・・かりました。ありがとうございます。
6　どういたしまして。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (1) How far is it from here? (5) Let me repeat that.

Dialogue 66: Asking for a discount

Customer	1	Excuse me. Uh, how much is this painting?
Salesperson	2	Ah, this masterpiece over here?
Customer	3	Yes.
Salesperson	4	It's only, especially for you, 1,000 dollars.
Customer	5	A thousand dollars? Including tax?
Salesperson	6	Hm, no, without it.
Customer	7	Well, isn't the price a bit outrageous? Couldn't you come down a little?
Salesperson	8	Huh, for a painting like that, uh, it's, it's a little bit difficult for me, but, uh, I'll see what I can do. OK, what about 950 including the tax?
Customer	9	How about 900?
Salesperson	10	900!? OK, 900, but that's as low as I'll go.
Customer	11	You've got a deal.

EXPRESSIONS: (2) over here (7) a bit / Couldn't you come down a little? (8) I'll see what I can do. (11) You've got a deal.

1　すみません。この絵はいくら？
2　こちらの傑作ですか？
3　はい。
4　たったの、特にあなたのために、1,000 ドルです。
5　1,000 ドルですか？税込ですか？
6　いえ、税抜です。
7　ちょっと高過ぎじゃないですか？少し安くならないですか？
8　このような作品の場合、少し難しいのですが、わかりました。では、950 でどうですか？税込で。
9　900 でどうですか？
10　900 ですか！？900、でも、そこまでしか安くできませんよ。
11　それで手を打ちましょう。

RELATED EXPRESSIONS: (2) over there (4) bucks (5) excluding tax (7) a rip-off (10) Deal? (11) Deal.

69

70

Appendix B

Check Sheet

No.	Dialog Title	1st Check		2nd Check	
		Checker's Sign	Checked Date	Checker's Sign	Checked Date
1	meeting for the first time				
2	year in school				
3	split the bill				
4	call it a day				
5	get carried away				
6	brothers/sisters				
7	What do you think of ...?				
8	What's going to happen next to ...?				
9	desperately				
10	You will make it.				
11	extension & exception				
12	almost there				
13	glad to help anytime				
14	favorite actor				
15	How should I say this in English?				
16	last weekend				
17	That's the way it goes.				
18	You mean you don't have any money?				
19	What would you do if you won the lottery?				
20	There's no way I can tell you.				
21	Whatever.				
22	Don't you hate it when that happens?				
23	running out of time/ideas				
24	catching a cold				
25	Guess what?				
26	get cold feet				
27	Thanks, but no thanks.				
28	I'll pass.				
29	It's a big loss.				
30	Ouch!				
31	Count me in.				
32	astrology reading				
33	kill time				

215

216

No.	Title	1st Check		2nd Check	
		Checker's Sign	Checked Date	Checker's Sign	Checked Date
34	wait in line				
35	I'll leave it to you.				
36	You can count on it.				
37	get ahold of ...				
38	instead of ...				
39	What for?				
40	I'm sick of ...				
41	judge a book by its cover				
42	It's a waste of time.				
43	I couldn't help it.				
44	I'll be right with you.				
45	It's your fault.				
46	It doesn't make sense.				
47	come in				
48	I'm supposed to ...				
49	nightmare				
50	I'm jealous.				
51	You earned it.				
52	It's a nice compliment.				
53	See? I told you.				
54	cheating & suspension				
55	What a coincidence!				
56	Do you have the time?				
57	Watch out!				
58	We'll be in touch.				
59	immigration				
60	problem&request@hotel				
61	I haven't seen you in ages.				
62	@restaurant				
63	@McDonald's				
64	money exchange				
65	asking for the direction				
66	asking for a discount				

The original speaking Pre-Test

これよりスピーキングのテストを
行います。

【注意点】
1. テスト結果は成績には一切反映されません。
2. 画面とマイクに向かって話していただきますが、出来る限りでよいので、実際に人に向かって話すように話してください。
3. 声を上げる必要はありません。周りが騒がしくても、マイクがきちんとあなたの声を拾ってくれます。

Part 1:
短文読み上げ
（10題）

これより、短い日本語文を英訳したものを
音読していただきます。
それぞれ、10（または15）秒以内で内容を理解し、
赤字の英文箇所のみ音読してください。
また、青字で書かれているポイントにも
注意しながら発音をしてください。

例

ここに問題番号
（1～10）が表示
されます。

No. X

2秒程度でスクリプト
に切り替わります。

「英語大好き！」

I love English!
★感情豊かに読んでください。

特に青字のポイ
ントに気をつけて
読んでください。

10秒以内に上のボックス
内の内容を理解し、赤字
箇所のみ音読してください。
※長い場合には制限時間
を15秒としてあります。

10　　　5

それでは開始します。

No. 1

「彼女と午後6時に会うことになっている」

I'm supposed to meet her at 6 p.m.

残り時間（秒）

10　　5

No. 2

★静電気でビビっときたあなたへ話し相手の一言
「静電気だね」

Static electricity, huh?

残り時間（秒）

10　　5

No. 3

「よい週末を過ごされたようですね」

You seem to have had a good weekend.
　　　　　⬆特にこの箇所は口語の発音形式で
　　　　　発音してください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　10　　5

No. 4

「僕（私）、本当に道端で叫んで吐いちゃった？」

Did I really yell and throw up on the street?

残り時間（秒）

10   5

No. 5

「（僕がどう考えているかは置いておいて）
　君はどう考えてるの？」

What do you think?

残り時間（秒）

10   5

No. 6

「もう、ほんっっっとに最っ高！」

It is absolutely fantastic!

残り時間（秒）

10   5

No. 7

「マクドナルド大嫌い」

I hate McDonald's.

残り時間（秒）

10　　　5

No. 8

「彼って、バカだよね」

He's an idiot, isn't he?
★話し相手が同意すると決めつけて読んでください。

残り時間（秒）

10　　　5

No. 9

★道順を尋ねている相手への確認の台詞です。
「わかりました、2つ目の信号を右、ですね？」

OK, turn right at the second light, right?

残り時間（秒）
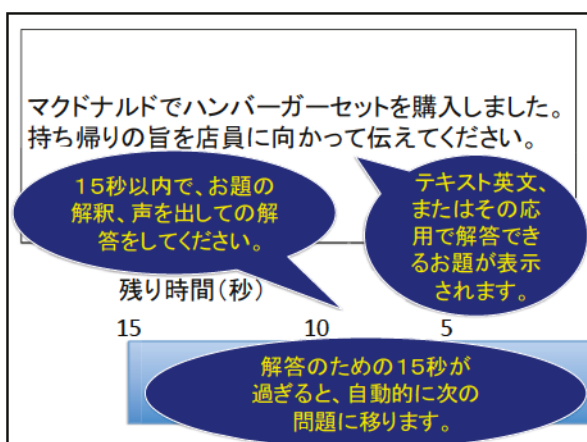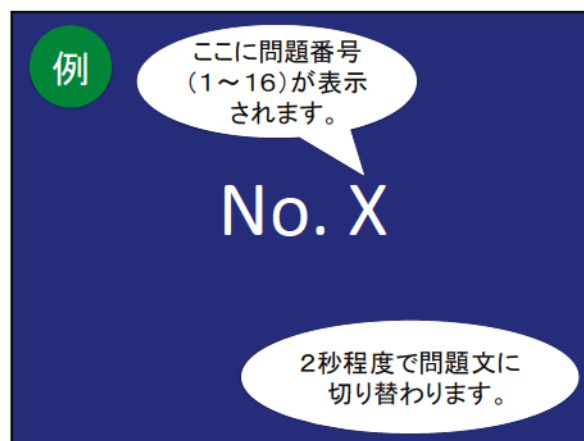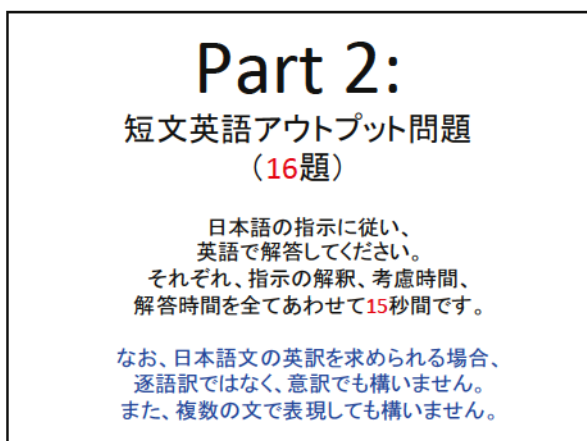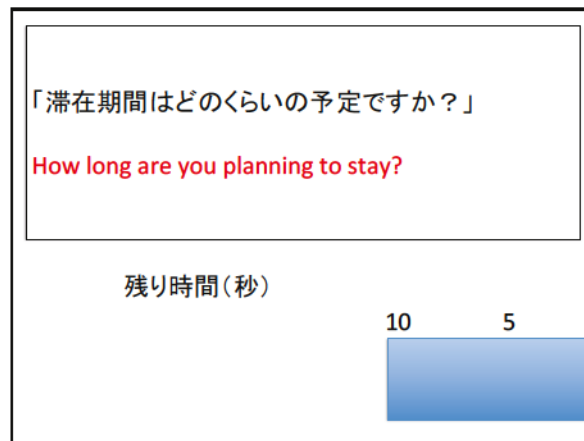
15　　　10　　　5

No. 10

「滞在期間はどのくらいの予定ですか？」

How long are you planning to stay?

残り時間（秒）

10　　　5

Part 2:
短文英語アウトプット問題
（16題）

日本語の指示に従い、
英語で解答してください。
それぞれ、指示の解釈、考慮時間、
解答時間を全てあわせて15秒間です。

なお、日本語文の英訳を求められる場合、
逐語訳ではなく、意訳でも構いません。
また、複数の文で表現しても構いません。

例

ここに問題番号
（1〜16）が表示
されます。

No. X

2秒程度で問題文に
切り替わります。

マクドナルドでハンバーガーセットを購入しました。
持ち帰りの旨を店員に向かって伝えてください。

15秒以内で、お題の
解釈、声を出しての解
答をしてください。

テキスト英文、
またはその応
用で解答でき
るお題が表示
されます。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　10　　　5

解答のための15秒が
過ぎると、自動的に次の
問題に移ります。

それでは開始します。

No. 1

> ある教員に対して、（あなたの）小論文の提出の期限延長が可能かどうか探りを入れてみてください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　10　　　　5

No. 2

> 「人の悪口は我慢出来ない」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　10　　　　5

No. 3

> あなたは友人からある誘いを受けました。遠慮する旨、回答してください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　10　　　　5

No. 4

友人に向かって、「（自分は、）映画館で最後に映画を観てからずいぶん経ちます」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　　5

No. 5

友人に向かって、「（あなたに）同情できません。（あなたの）自業自得です」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　　5

No. 6

友人に向かって「頼りにしているよ」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　　5

No. 7

「念には念を（用心に越したことはない・転ばぬ先の杖）」の意を表現してください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 8

あなたの家庭は裕福ではありません。「うちがもし裕福だったら学費を払う心配をしなくて済むのになぁ」と表現してください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 9

「世の中そんなものだ」と、ある意味、諦めまじりの気持ちを表現してください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 10

教員（＝松崎）に対して、結婚期間（結婚してどれくらい経つのか）を尋ねてください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 11

友人に向かって「昼までにこの（自分の）PCで（この）レポートを仕上げないといけないんだよね」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 12

「彼女にはうんざりだ」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 13

友人とふたりで何かを決断しなければなりません。「君に任せるよ」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　10　　5

No. 14

「中国がアメリカに次いで世界第2位の経済（大国）になったことをどう思う？」と友人に尋ねてください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　10　　5

No. 15

あなたは友人から、ある実現の難しい頼みごとをされました。「（実際には何もできないかもしれないが）何とか手を打つようにします」と回答してください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　10　　5

No. 16

あなたは、友人が見たいと言った映画をDVDレンタルしてきました。しかし友人は見たくないと言います。その友人に向かって、「見たくないってどういうことよ？見たいって言ったじゃん！」と文句を言ってください。

残り時間（秒）

15 　　　　 10 　　　　 5

Part 3:
英語での長文解答問題
（4題）

日本語で提示されるトピックについて、
英語で解答してください。
それぞれ、トピックの解釈と考慮の時間が計30秒、
解答時間は60秒間です。

例

ここに問題番号
（1～4）が表示
されます。

No. X

2秒程度でスクリプト
に切り替わります。

あなたの親友について話してください。具体的なエピソードを含むようにしてください。

STARTの合図で、
60秒間、声を出し
ての解答を始めてく
ださい。

30秒で、お題の解釈、
解答の準備を
してください。

考慮時間30秒

START

解答時間60秒

解答のための60秒が
過ぎると、自動的に次の
問題に移ります。

それでは開始します。

No. 1	下の写真の内容を説明してください。 出来る限り詳しく説明してください。 「正解」はありません。勝手に話を作ってしまって構いません。 ★時間切れになるまで 話し続けてください。 考慮時間30秒 解答時間60秒
No. 2	さっき日本語で話した、「あなたのこれまでの人生の中で特に印象的だった出来事・エピソード」について、今度は英語で説明をしてください。 ★時間切れになるまで話し続けてください。 考慮時間30秒 解答時間60秒
No. 3	さきほど日本語で説明した日本語資料（TOEFLITP申込について）の内容を、今度は、政経学部生の留学生（※なぜか日本語が通じません）に説明するつもりになって、説明をしてみてください。 時間の許す限り、詳細を説明してください。 考慮時間30秒 解答時間60秒

No. 4

いま、仮の話として、手元に100万円あったとしたら、何に遣いますか？「貯金」や「寄付」をしても構いませんが、貯金であればその目的、寄付であればその対象についても話してください。

考慮時間30秒

解答時間60秒

The original speaking Post-Test

これよりスピーキングのテストを
行います。

【注意点】
1. テスト結果は成績には一切反映されません。
2. 画面とマイクに向かって話していただきますが、出来る限りでよいので、実際に人に向かって話すように話してください。
3. 声を上げる必要はありません。周りが騒がしくても、マイクがきちんとあなたの声を拾ってくれます。

Part 1:
短文読み上げ
（10題）

これより、短い日本語文を英訳したものを
音読していただきます。
それぞれ、10（または15）秒以内で内容を理解し、
赤字の英文箇所のみ音読してください。
また、青字で書かれているポイントにも
注意しながら発音をしてください。

例

ここに問題番号
（1～10）が表示
されます。

No. X

2秒程度でスクリプト
に切り替わります。

「英語大好き！」

I love English!
★感情豊かに読んでください。

特に青字のポイントに気をつけて読んでください。

10秒以内に上のボックス内の内容を理解し、赤字箇所のみ音読してください。
※長い場合には制限時間を15秒としてあります。

10　　　5

それでは開始します。

No. 1

「そんなことしちゃダメですよ」

You're not supposed to do that.

残り時間（秒）

10　　　5

No. 2

「（君は）それをしたいんだよね」

You wanna do it, huh?

残り時間（秒）

10　　　5

No. 3

「よくない祝日を過ごされたようですね」

You seem to have had a bad holiday.
　　　⬆特にこの箇所は口語の発音形式で
　　　発音してください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　10　　5

No. 4	「彼は、道端で叫んで吐いた」 He yelled and threw up on the street. 残り時間（秒） 10　　　5
No. 5	「（君がどう考えているかは置いておいて） 　彼はどう考えてるの？」 What does he think? 残り時間（秒） 10　　　5
No. 6	「もう、信っじらないくらい最っ低！」 It is unbelievably bad! 残り時間（秒） 10　　　5

No. 7

「マクドナルド大好き」

I love McDonald's.

残り時間（秒）

10　　　5

No. 8

「彼って、頭いいよね」

He's smart, isn't he?
★話し相手が同意すると決めつけて読んでください。

残り時間（秒）

10　　　5

No. 9

★道順を尋ねている相手への確認の台詞です。
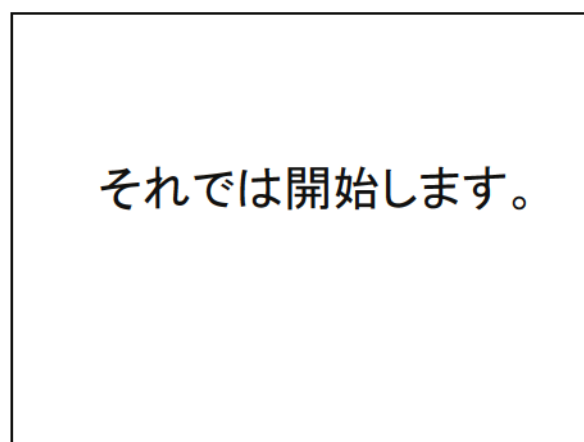「わかりました、1つ目の信号を右、ですね？」

OK, turn right at the first light, right?

残り時間（秒）

15　　10　　　5

No. 10

「そこでどのくらいの期間、勉強する予定ですか？」

How long are you going to study there?

残り時間（秒）

10　　5

Part 2:
短文英語アウトプット問題
（16題）

日本語の指示に従い、
英語で解答してください。
それぞれ、指示の解釈、考慮時間、
解答時間を全てあわせて15秒間です。

なお、日本語文の英訳を求められる場合、
逐語訳ではなく、意訳でも構いません。
また、複数の文で表現しても構いません。

例

ここに問題番号
（1～16）が表示
されます。

No. X

2秒程度で問題文に
切り替わります。

マクドナルドでハンバーガーセットを購入しました。
持ち帰りの旨を店員に向かって伝えてください。

15秒以内で、お題の
解釈、声を出しての解
答をしてください。

テキスト英文、
またはその応
用で解答でき
るお題が表示
されます。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　10　　　　5

解答のための15秒が
過ぎると、自動的に次の
問題に移ります。

それでは開始します。

No. 1

ある教員に対して、（あなたの）小論文の提出の期限延長が可能かどうか探りを入れてみてください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　10　　　　5

No. 2

知人とレストランで夕食を済ませた支払いの場面です。相手に向かって、「割り勘はまた今度で。今日は僕（私）に払わせてください」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　10　　　　5

No. 3

あなたは友人からある誘いを受けました。遠慮する旨、回答してください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　10　　　　5

No. 4

通りを歩いていたら見知らぬ人から最寄りのATMがどこにあるか尋ねられました。「（この通りを）3ブロック下り、右に曲がり、その左手にあるコンビニの中にある」と回答してください。

残り時間（秒）

15   10   5

No. 5

ある目上の人に、少し話させてもらえないか尋ねてください。

残り時間（秒）

15   10   5

No. 6

友人に向かって「頼りにしているよ」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）

15   10   5

No. 7

あなたの忠告を聞かなかった友人が、そのために失敗をしました。その友人に向かって、「ほら、だから言ったでしょ」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 8

あなたの家庭は裕福ではありません。「うちがもし裕福だったら学費を払う心配をしなくて済むのになぁ」と表現してください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 9

「世の中そんなものだ」と、ある意味、諦めまじりの気持ちを表現してください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 10

あなたと友人が話しています。そこに知り合いの女性がやってきました。「（彼女）とても幸せそう（嬉しそう）ですね。何か良いこと（知らせ）があったんでしょうね」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 11

友人に向かって「昼までにこの（自分の）PCで（この）レポートを仕上げないといけないんだよね」と言ってください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 12

旅先でのことです。あなたの所持金が切れそうで焦っている感じを表現してください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 13

「それはおかしい（理にかなっていない）」と言って
ください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 14

「中国がアメリカに次いで世界第2位の経済（大
国）になったことをどう思う？」と友人に尋ねてくだ
さい。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 15

あなたは自宅でパーティを開きます。ある友人が、
来てもよいかどうか迷っています。その人に、「人
数は多い方が楽しくなるから」と後押ししてください。

残り時間（秒）

15　　　　　　　10　　　　　5

No. 16

あなたは、友人が見たいと言った映画をDVDレンタルしてきました。しかし友人は見たくないと言います。その友人に向かって、「見たくないってどういうことよ？見たいって言ったじゃん！」と文句を言ってください。

残り時間（秒）
15　　　　　10　　　　5

Part 3:
英語での長文解答問題
（4題）

日本語で提示されるトピックについて、
英語で解答してください。
それぞれ、トピックの解釈と考慮の時間が計30秒、
解答時間は60秒間です。

例

ここに問題番号
（1〜4）が表示
されます。

No. X

2秒程度でスクリプト
に切り替わります。

あなたの親友について話してください。具体的なエピソードを含むようにしてください。

STARTの合図で、
60秒間、声を出し
ての解答を始めてく
ださい。

30秒で、お題の解釈、
解答の準備を
してください。

考慮時間30秒

START

解答時間60秒

解答のための60秒が
過ぎると、自動的に次の
問題に移ります。

それでは開始します。

No. 1

下の写真の内容を説明してください。
出来る限り詳しく説明してください。
「正解」はありません。勝手に話を作ってしまって構いません。

★時間切れになるまで
話し続けてください。

考慮時間30秒

解答時間60秒

No. 2

今学期中に経験したことの中で印象的だったことを1つ選び、英語で説明をしてください。

★時間切れになるまで話し続けてください。

考慮時間30秒

解答時間60秒

No. 3

今、あなたの目の前に、政経学部への入学を検討している留学生（※なぜか日本語が通じません）がいます。この学生に対して、さきほど日本語で説明した資料（政経学部の卒業単位要件）の内容を説明してください。
時間の許す限り、詳細を説明してください。

考慮時間30秒

解答時間60秒

No. 4

仮の話として、これから1年間、休学をして好きなことができるとしたら、どのようにその時間を費やしますか？

考慮時間30秒

解答時間60秒

Appendix E

A summary of all prompts in Part 1 of the speaking tests and notes

Prompt No.	Seconds given	Prompt in Pre-Test			Prompt in Post-Test			Notes		
		Japanese	English	Translation of instruction given in Japanese (when provided)	Japanese	English	Translation of instruction given in Japanese (when provided)	Original script (from the dialog textbook)	Scoring point	Type
1	10	彼女と午後6時に会うことになっている	I'm supposed to meet her at 6 p.m.		そんなことしちゃダメですよ	You're not supposed to do that.		*I'm supposed to be receiving an important email.* (Dialog 48)	"supposed to"	multi-word sequence
2	10	静電気だね	Static electricity, huh?	Speaking to someone who was just struck by static electricity.	(君は)それをしたいんだよね	You wanna do it, huh?		*Static electricity, huh?* (Dialog 30)	intonation of "huh?"	sentence
3	15	よい週末を過ごされたようですね	You seem to have had a good weekend.	Pronounce "to have" colloquially.	よくない祝日を過ごされたようですね	You seem to have had a bad holiday.	Pronounce "to have" colloquially.	*You seem to have had a good weekend.* (Dialog 16)	contraction of "to have"	multi-word sequence
4	10	僕(私)、本当に道端で叫んで吐いちゃった?	Did I really yell and throw up on the street?		彼は、道端で叫んで吐いた	He yelled and threw up on the street.		*Did I really yell and throw up on the street?* (Dialog 5)	pronunciation of "y" in "yell/yelled"	word
5	10	君はどう考えてるの?	What do you think?	"Putting aside what I think,"	彼はどう考えてるの?	What does he think?	"Putting aside what you think,"	*What do you think?* (Dialog 7)	stress on the pronoun ("you/he")	sentence
6	10	もう、ほんっっっとに最っ高!	It is absolutely fantastic.	Emphasize "absolutely" and "fantastic."	もう、信っじられないくらい最っ低!	It is unbelievably bad!	Emphasize "unbelievably" and "bad."	*It is absolutely fantastic.* (Dialog 50)	Additional stress on and/or slower pronunciation of the emphasized words	sentence
7	10	マクドナルド大嫌い	I hate McDonald's.		マクドナルド大好き	I love McDonald's.		*Then walk for three blocks, and it's on the left side right next to McDonald's.* (Dialog 65)	pronunciation of the triple consonant in "McDonald's"	word
8	10	彼って、バカだよね	He's an idiot, isn't he?	Assume that the person you are talking to will agree with you.	彼って、頭いいよね	He's smart, isn't he?	Assume that the person you are talking to will agree with you.	*He's an idiot, isn't he?* (Dialog 41)	falling intonation of a tag question	sentence
9	15	わかりました、2つ目の信号を右、ですね?	OK, turn right at the second light, right?	Say this as a confirmation request to the person giving you directions.	わかりました、1つ目の信号を右、ですね?	OK, turn right at the first light, right?	Say this as a confirmation request to the person giving you directions.	*OK, turn right at the second light, right?* (Dialog 65)	differentiation of "r" and "l"	word
10	10	滞在期間はどのくらいの予定ですか?	How long are you planning to stay?		そこでどのくらいの期間、勉強する予定ですか?	How long are you going to study there?		*How long are you planning to stay?* (Dialog 59)	falling intonation of the final word in a wh/how question	sentence

Appendix F

A summary of the prompts in Part 2 of the speaking tests and scoring criteria

	Original prompt	Target sentence(s) in the dialog textbook	Sample modified expression using FSs from the dialog textbook	FSs counted for scoring	Scoring criteria for appropriateness
Direct-application prompts	ある教員に対して、（あなたの）小論文の提出の期限延長が可能かどうかが探りを入れてみてください。	I was wondering if you could give me an extension for handing in my essay. (Dialog 11)	(no need for modification)	1) I was wondering if...; 2) you could; 3) give me; 4) an extension for; 5) handing in	1) submission; 2) extension; 3) asking if something is possible in a remote, roundabout way. Additional scoring criteria: a) no. 1 (submission) can be left out without a deduction; b) however, if either no. 2 (extension) or no. 3 (asking if...) is missing, the response is not interpretable properly, and thus 0 is given; c) if something is wrong due to erroneous vocabulary use and yet a proper guessing on the part of the listener is likely, then give just 1 point
	「世の中そんなものだ」と、ある意味、諦めがまじりの気持ちを表現してください。	That's the way it goes. (Dialog 17)	(no need for modification)	That's the way it goes.	1) "That's the way it goes" or some equivalent expression. Additional scoring criteria: a) if the response is "The world is like that" or "The world is such a thing," give 2 points, because they are both properly interpretable; b) if the response is something else that is still properly interpretable but is likely to take more interpretation time, then give 1 point
	あなたは友人からある誘いを受けました。遠慮する旨、回答してください。	I'll pass. (Dialog 28)	(no need for modification)	I'll pass	1) "I'll pass" or some equivalent expression. Additional scoring criteria: a) if all there is "sorry," then give only 2 points; if the response sounds noticeably rude, then deduct 1 point
	友人に向かって「昼までにこの（自分の）PCで（この）レポートを仕上げないといけないんだよ」と言ってください。	I've gotta finish up this report on my computer by noon. (Dialog 48)	(no need for modification)	1) (have) gotta; 2) finish UP; 3) on...; 4) by...	1) have to finish the report; 2) on this PC; 3) by noon. Additional scoring criteria: a) even if "before" or even "until" is used rather than "by," deduct no point; b) as for the agent who has to finish the report, either one of "I," "you," or "we" is acceptable
Modified-application prompts	「中国がアメリカに次いで世界第2位の経済（大国）になったことをどう思う?」と友人に尋ねてください。	Uh, what do you think of Japan becoming the third world, uh, third biggest world economy after China? (Dialog 7)	What do you think of China becoming the second biggest world economy after the US?	1) What do you think; 2) think of; 3) Prep. + Noun + Gerund; 4) second + Superlative; 5) after...	1) China as no. 2; 2) economy; 3) after the U.S.
	あなたの家庭は裕福ではありません。「うちがもし裕福だったら学費を払うのに配慮をしなくて済むのになあ」と表現してください。	What would you do if you won the lottery? / You wouldn't have to worry about paying your rent then. (Dialog 19)	If our family was wealthy, I would not have to worry about paying the tuition to the school.	1) Subjunctive; 2) wouldn't have to; 3) I wish (cf. from another dialog)	1) if my family was wealthy; 2) I wouldn't have to worry; 3) paying the tuition. Additional scoring criteria: a) if either clause is constructed with the indicative mood, deduct 1 point; b) if all there is "if my family was wealthy," then give 0; c) if the interpretation "I wouldn't HAVE TO PAY the tuition" is possible, deduct 2 points
	あなたは、友人が見たいと言った映画をDVDレンタルしてきました。しかし友人は見たくないと言います。その友人に向かって、「見たくないって?見たいって言ったじゃん!」と文句を言ってください。	What, what do you mean you've decided not to go? (Dialog 32)	What do you mean you don't wanna see this movie. You said you wanted to see it.	1) What do you mean; 2) What do you mean "..."?; 3) Sequence of tenses (cf. from another dialog)	1) What do you mean; 2) You said you wanted to see; 3) sequence of tenses
	友人に向かって「頼りにしているよ」と言ってください。	You can count on it. (Dialog 36)	I'm counting on you.	1) count on	1) I'm counting on you. Additional scoring criteria: a) if all there is "I trust you," then give just 1 point; b) "rely" or "depend" is acceptable; c) simple present tense is acceptable

	Original prompt	Target sentence(s) in the dialog textbook	Sample modified expression using FSs from the dialog textbook	FSs counted for scoring	Scoring criteria for appropriateness
Pre-Test	友人とふたりで何かを決断しなければなりません。「君に任せるよ」と言ってください。	I'll leave it to you. (Dialog 35)	(no need for modification)	I'll leave it to you	1) "I'll leave it to you" or some equivalent expression. Additional scoring criteria: a) if "up to you" is used, deduct 1 point; b) if "please" is used, deduct 1 point; c) if "depend/count on" is used, deduct 1 point; d) if there is no mentioning of "it," then deduct 1 point
	「念には念を(用心に越したことはない、転ばぬ先の杖)」の意を表現してください。	Better safe than sorry. (Dialog 39)	(no need for modification)	better safe than sorry	1) "to be safe" or some equivalent expression; 2) "preparation," "carefulness" or some equivalent expression. Additional scoring criteria: a) give 2 points to no. 2
	友人に向かって、「(あなたに)同情できません。(あなたの)自業自得です」と言ってください。	I can't feel sorry for you. It's your fault. (Dialog 45)	(no need for modification)	1) can't feel sorry for you; 2) it's your fault	1) "can't feel sorry" or some equivalent expression; 2) "it's your fault" or some equivalent expression. Additional scoring criteria: a) give 2 points to no. 2 (it's your fault); b) give 0 to "I can't agree with you"
	あなたは友人から、ある実現の難しい頼みごとをされました。「(実際に)何ともできないかもしれないが」何とか手を打つようにします」と回答してください。	I'll see what I can do. (Dialog 66)	(no need for modification)	1) I'll see; 2) what I can do	1) "I'll see what I can do" or some equivalent expression. Additional scoring criteria: a) if "promise" is meant, then give 0 to the response
Post-Test	ある目上の人に、少し話させてもらえないか尋ねてください。	Could I speak to you for a moment? (Dialog 11)	(no need for modification)	1) Could I; 2) for a moment; 3) a little (cf. from dialog)	1) some politeness marker toward higher ranking people; 2) (want to) speak; 3) "for a moment" or some equivalent expression
	あなたは自宅でパーティを開きます。ある友人が、来てもいいかどうか迷っています。その人に、「人数は多い方が楽しくなるから」と後押ししてください。	The more, the merrier. (Dialog 31)	(no need for modification)	The + Comparative ..., the + Comparative....	1) The more, the merrier. Additional scoring criteria: a) use of "the..., the..." is not necessary; b) however, if no other alternative means is in the response, then deduct 1 point
	「それはおかしい(理にかなっていない)」と言ってください。	It doesn't make sense. (Dialog 46)	(no need for modification)	make sense	1) "doesn't make sense" or some equivalent expression
	あなたの忠告を聞かなかった友人が、そのために失敗をしました。その友人に向かって、「ほら、だから言ったでしょ」と言ってください。	See? I told you. (Dialog 53)	(no need for modification)	1) See?; 2) told you	1) I told you. Additional scoring criteria: a) if "said" is used rather than "told," then give just 1 point; b) the use of "told" is given only 1 point unless it is used as in "I told you"; c) "say" (instead of its past tense form) is given 0. d) however, if "did say" is used, give 2 points out of 3

	Original prompt	Target sentence(s) in the dialog textbook	Sample modified expression using FSs from the dialog textbook	FSs counted for scoring	Scoring criteria for appropriateness
Pre-Test	松崎に対して、結婚期間(結婚してどれくらい経つのか)を尋ねてください。	How long have they been going out together? (Dialog 25)	How long have you been married?	1) how long; 2) have you; 3) been …	1) how long; 2) present perfect tense; 3) been married. Additional scoring criteria: a) if "been" is missing, deduct 1 point; b) if there are multiple grammatical errors (besides the omission of "been"), then deduct 1 point
	友人に向かって、(自分は、)映画館で最後に映画を観てからずいぶん経ちますと言ってください。	…and, uh, it's been a while since I last saw his movie at the theater. (Dialog 31)	It's been a while since I last saw a movie at the theater.	1) It's been a while; 2) since I last; 3) at the theater	1) It's been a while; 2) since I last…; 3) see a movie in the theater
	「彼女にはうんざりだ」と言ってください。	I am sick of Pete! (Dialog 40)	I'm sick of her.	1) sick of; 2) can't stand (cf. from another dialog)	1) "I'm sick of her" or some equivalent expression. Additional scoring criteria: a) if "can't stand," "hate," or "dislike" is used, give only 1 point; b) however, if "can't stand" is followed by "any more," then give 2 points
	「人の悪口は我慢出来ない」と言ってください。	I couldn't stand their bad-mouthing. (Dialog 43)	I can't stand badmouthing.	1) can't stand; 2) badmouthing	1) can't stand; 2) badmouthing; 3) about others. Additional scoring criteria: a) if "can't stand PEOPLE," then deduct 1 point
Post-Test	知人とレストランで夕食を済ませました。払いの場面です。相手に向かって、「割り勘は嫌だ。今日は僕(私)に払わせてください」と言ってください。	It's on me. / Let me pay. / OK, then, let's split the bill. (Dialog 3)	We'll split the bill next time. For today, let me pay.	1) on me; 2) let me pay; 3) split the bill; 4) I'll pay (cf. from another dialog)	1) "I'll pay" or some equivalent expression; 2) "split the bill next time" or some equivalent expression. Additional scoring criteria: a) if both no. 1 and no. 2 are in the response, then give 3 points; b) if there is a global error, then give just 1 point (e.g., if the response is like "I pay today, but next time you will pay," then give 1 point)
	旅先でのことです。あなたの所持金が切れそうで焦っている感じを表現してください。	…I'm running out of ideas here! (Dialog 23)	I'm running out of cash!	1) Present Progressive; 2) run out of…	1) present progressive tense; 2) run out of; 3) cash. Additional scoring criteria: "money" instead of "cash" is also acceptable
	あなたと友人が話しています。そこに知り合いの女性がやってきました。「(彼女)とても幸せそう(嬉しそう)ですね。何か良いこと(知らせ)があったんでしょうね」と言ってください。	You look happy. You got some good news, right? (Dialog 51)	She looks so happy. She must've got some good news.	1) look…; 2) get/have good news; 3) some (news); 4) something… happen (cf. from another dialog)	1) look happy; 2) there was some good news; 3) "must" or some other assertive expression
	通りを歩いていたら見知らぬ人から最寄りのATMがどこにあるか尋ねられました。「(この通りを)3ブロック下り、右に曲がり、その左手にあるコンビニの中にあると回答してください。	First, go straight to the second light, and turn right. / Then walk for three blocks, and it's on the left side right next to McDonald's. (Dialog 65)	Go down this street / for three blocks, turn right, and the ATM is in the convenience store on the left.	1) go (straight/down); 2) for (three blocks); 3) turn right; 4) on the left	1) go (down) three blocks; 2) on the left (side); 3) in the convenience store. Additional scoring criteria: a) almost every response included "turn right," and thus give no point for this; b) however, if "turn right" is in fact missing in the response, then deduct 1 point

The original Pre-Questionnaire to all groups

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| 表 |

20　年　　　月　　　日

学籍番号＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿　　名前（漢字）＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

英語オーラル・コミュニケーション・スキルの向上に関するアンケート

このアンケート調査は明治大学政治経済学部にて行われるもので、4 つのパートで構成されています。それぞれの指示に従って回答を記入してください。回答はボールペンでお願いいたします。

これは、アンケートであり、テストではありません。つまり、「正解」や「不正解」のあるものではありません。回答内容は、最終成績に一切、反映されません。また、この調査の結果は、研究目的のためのみに使用されます。個人が特定されるデータは守秘することをお約束します。

> 最後に、とても大切なお願いになりますが、正直にご回答ください。教員（＝松崎）が期待する回答を推測してそれに沿うように答えることは、一切しないでください。また、「かくあるべき自分」をイメージして回答することも、一切しないでください。あくまでも、今のあなたそのままを回答に反映させてください。よろしくお願いいたします。

パート1

パート 1 は、日本人英語学習者（あるいは日本育ちの外国籍学習者）であるあなたが、英語での対人オーラル・コミュニケーション・スキルを身に付けていく上で重視していることについてのアンケートです。このパートでは、あなたが以下の項目にどの程度同意するかを、1 から 6 の番号の中からひとつずつ選び、丸（○）で囲んで下さい。記入漏れのないようにお願いいたします。

全く そう思わない	そう思わない	あまり そう思わない	やや そう思う	そう思う	非常に そう思う
1	2	3	4	5	6

（例）もしあなたの考えが次の内容に非常に共感できる場合、次のように記入します。	
映画を観るのは好きだ。	1 2 3 4 5 6

1.	文法学習は大切だ。（例：形容詞、接続詞、現在完了進行形といった文法用語や文を作る上での規則に精通すること。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
2.	発音ルールの学習は大切だ。（例：音の連結、子音、語尾の 'l'や'p'の発音の仕方などに精通すること。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
3.	同じ題材を用いてリスニングを繰り返すことは重要だ。（例：特定の英語学習音声教材を何度も聞くこと。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
4.	会話表現を覚えること・暗記することは大切だ。（例："It's up to you."等の頻出フレーズを固まりとして覚えてしまうこと。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
5.	自分の英語表現力不足を補うためのストラテジー（方略）を学ぶことは大事だ。（例：身振り手振り、顔の表情、"You know"などの間を埋める手段を学ぶこと。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
6.	英語ネイティブや上級学習者の身振り手振り、顔の表情の表現を模倣することは重要だ。	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.	英語ネイティブや上級学習者の発音や間の取り方を模倣することは大切だ。	1 2 3 4 5 6

右上に進んで下さい。

Appendix G (continued)

パート2

パート 2 は、あなたの英語学習の経験、学習の仕方の好みと向き不向きについてのアンケートです。この
パートもパート1と同じ方法で回答してください。

全く そう思わない	そう思わない	あまり そう思わない	やや そう思う	そう思う	非常に そう思う
1	2	3	4	5	6

8.	英文法ルールを理解するのが得意だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
9.	英語読解をする際、文法事項によく気がつく(あるいは、文法が気になってしまう)。	1　2　3　4　5　6
10.	英語でリスニングをした音を、単語レベルではなくフレーズレベルで、固まりとして短期記憶にとどめ、発音、イントネーション、音の強弱などを真似して口頭で繰返すことが、得意だと自覚している。	1　2　3　4　5　6
11.	これまで、英語を学習する際、大量の暗記学習をしてきた。	1　2　3　4　5　6
12.	英語の暗記学習が好きだ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
13.	英単語と、その大体の意味を記憶するのが得意だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
14.	英熟語(例："catch up with")やフレーズ、そして、その大体の意味を記憶するのが得意だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
15.	英語で話す際、覚えたことのある単語を思い出して使うことが得意だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
16.	英語で話す際、覚えたことのあるイディオムやフレーズを思い出して使うことが得意だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
17.	英語で話す際、覚えたことのある文法を思い出して使うことが得意だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
18.	英語で覚えたことのある音(の固まり)を思い出してアウトプットすることが得意だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6

パート3

パート3は、その他、本研究に関連のある項目についてのアンケートです。このパートもパート1・2と同
じ方法で回答してください。

全く そう思わない	そう思わない	あまり そう思わない	やや そう思う	そう思う	非常に そう思う
1	2	3	4	5	6

19.	英語で話しをするとき、不安を感じる。	1　2　3　4　5　6
20.	誰かとコミュニケーションを取らなければならない場面に遭遇すると、日本語であっても、不安になる。	1　2　3　4　5　6
21.	日本語での会話に自信がある。	1　2　3　4　5　6
22.	日本語の語彙の豊富さに自信がある。	1　2　3　4　5　6
23.	日本語の細かな音の音程の違い、強弱レベルの違い、調子の違いなどに敏感だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
24.	日本語で話す際、複雑な内容を相手に伝わりやすいように表現することが得意だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
25.	英会話ダイアログの暗記学習は、成績評価というインセンティブがあると促される。(英会話ダイアログの暗記は、自分任せにされてしまうと、継続学習が難しい。)	1　2　3　4　5　6
26.	英会話例文集の学習題材には、動画が含まれるべきだ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
27.	英会話例文集にあるダイアログは、短いものより長いものの方が良い。	1　2　3　4　5　6
28.	音声や動画といった英会話学習題材は、自分が普段使用している携帯機器で簡単に再生できれば活用する。(CD・DVD からのデータ読み込み・取り込みが必要な英会話学習題材は、手間がかかるので、手を付けないままになってしまう。)	1　2　3　4　5　6
29.	このまま勉強を続けていけば英語でのコミュニケーションは問題なくできるようになると思う。	1　2　3　4　5　6

裏に進んで下さい。

Appendix G (continued)

裏

パート 4

次の各項目の選択肢の中から自分に該当する□にチェック（✔）を入れてください。「その他」に該当する場合には、空欄に回答を記入してください。

年齢：　　　　　　□18　□19　□20　□21　□22　□23　□24　□その他：＿＿＿

英語授業：　　　これまでに英語での授業を受けたことがありますか？
　　　　　　　　　□ない　□半年〜1 年程度ある　□1 年半〜2 年程度ある　□その他：＿＿年程度

海外経験：　　　旅行や留学、ご家族の海外赴任などで英語圏に滞在したことはありますか？
　　　　　　　　　□ない　□計 1〜3 ヶ月程度ある　□計半年〜1 年程度ある　□その他：計＿＿年程度

携帯電話：　　　あなたが現在使用している携帯電話の種類は何ですか？
　　　　　　　　　（※次の両方を使用している場合、両方にチェックを入れてください）
　　　　　　　　　□スマートフォン　□ガラケー（スマフォ以外の携帯電話）

携帯ネット接続：　あなたの携帯電話の月額使用料の契約形態は、インターネット接続がパケット無制限で
　　　　　　　　　使用できる月額固定の契約形態ですか？
　　　　　　　　　□はい　□いいえ

自宅ネット接続：　ご自宅に無線インターネット接続環境は整っていますか？
　　　　　　　　　□はい　□いいえ

その他携帯端末：　携帯電話以外に、音声＆動画ファイルの再生が可能で、かつインターネット接続が可能
　　　　　　　　　な携帯機器を使用していますか？
　　　　　　　　　□はい（端末名：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿）　　□いいえ

大学ネット接続：　大学の無線 LAN サービスを使ってあなたの携帯電話（あるいはその他の携帯機器）を
　　　　　　　　　インターネットに接続させていますか？
　　　　　　　　　□はい　□いいえ

以上でアンケートは終了です。ご協力を誠にありがとうございました！

Appendix H

The original Post-Questionnaire to TGs

松崎武志　平成 24 年度科学研究費助成事業　課題番号 24720271

| 表 |

20　年　　月　　日

学籍番号＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿　名前（漢字）＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

留学準備講座でのダイアログ学習に関するアンケート

このアンケート調査は明治大学政治経済学部にて行われるもので、7つのパートで構成されています。それぞれの指示に従って回答を記入してください。回答はボールペンでお願いいたします。

これは、アンケートであり、テストではありません。つまり、「正解」や「不正解」のあるものではありません。回答内容は、最終成績に一切、反映されません。また、この調査の結果は、研究目的のためのみに使用されます。個人が特定されるデータは守秘することをお約束します。

> **最後に、とても大切なお願いになりますが、正直にご回答ください。教員（＝松崎）が期待する回答を推測してそれに沿うように答えることは、一切しないでください。また、「かくあるべき自分」をイメージして回答することも、一切しないでください。あくまでも、今のあなたそのままを回答に反映させてください。よろしくお願いいたします。**

パート1

パート1は、日本人英語学習者（あるいは日本育ちの外国籍学習者）であるあなたが、英語での対人オーラル・コミュニケーション・スキルを身に付けていく上で重視していることについてのアンケートです。このパートのアンケート項目は前期開始時にも伺った内容ですが、現時点での考えを回答してください。このパートでは、あなたが以下の項目にどの程度同意するかを、1から6の番号の中からひとつずつ選び、丸（○）で囲んで下さい。記入漏れのないようにお願いいたします。

全く そう思わない	そう思わない	あまり そう思わない	やや そう思う	そう思う	非常に そう思う
1	2	3	4	5	6

（例）もしあなたの考えが次の内容に非常に共感できる場合、次のように記入します。	
映画を観るのは好きだ。	1 2 3 4 5 6

1. 文法学習は大切だ。（例：形容詞、接続詞、現在完了進行形といった文法用語や文を作る上での規則に精通すること。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
2. 発音ルールの学習は大切だ。（例：音の連結、子音、語尾の 'l'や'p'の発音の仕方などに精通すること。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
3. 同じ題材を用いてリスニングを繰り返すことは重要だ。（例：特定の英語学習音声教材を何度も聞くこと。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
4. 会話表現を覚えること・暗記することは大切だ。（例："It's up to you."等の頻出フレーズを固まりとして覚えてしまうこと。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
5. 自分の英語表現力不足を補うためのストラテジー（方略）を学ぶことは大事だ。（例：身振り手振り、顔の表情、"You know"などの間を埋める手段を学ぶこと。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
6. 英語ネイティブや上級学習者の身振り手振り、顔の表情の表現を模倣することは重要だ。	1 2 3 4 5 6
7. 英語ネイティブや上級学習者の発音や間の取り方を模倣することは大切だ。	1 2 3 4 5 6

右上に進んで下さい。

1

パート2

このパートは、**留学準備講座でのダイアログ学習・暗記を通じて**、あなたの英語力、学習能力、そして英語学習についての考え方が、**前期開始時と比較して**向上したかどうか、あるいは変化したかどうかについての自己評価アンケートです。このパートもパート1と同じ方法で回答してください。
※太字・下線箇所内容を忘れずに回答をしてください。

全く そう思わない	そう思わない	あまり そう思わない	やや そう思う	そう思う	非常に そう思う
1	2	3	4	5	6

8.　単語を文法的に正しい形で、そして正しい語順でアウトプットできるようになった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
9.　以前は使うことのなかった文構造を使うようになった（例えば、仮定法、付加疑問文など）。	1 2 3 4 5 6
10.　個々の単語をうまく発音できるようになった（例えば、語尾が 'l'（エル）で終わる単語、「sh と s」や「l と r」の発音の違い、破裂音（p/b/t/d/k/g）の発音）。	1 2 3 4 5 6
11.　単語を連結させて発音できるようになった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
12.　イントネーション・強弱を付けて発音できるようになった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
13.　ひとつの意味のかたまりとしてアウトプットできるフレーズが増えた。	1 2 3 4 5 6
14.　リスニングの力が、総じて、伸びた。	1 2 3 4 5 6
15.　身振り手振りや顔の表情を活用するようになった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
16.　言いたいことが即座に出てこないときの口頭手段（例：“Well”や“Uh”や“You know”など）を使うようになった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
17.　フレーズやダイアログ等の英語の意味の固まりを覚えるという学習行為を、より楽しく思うようになった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
18.　フレーズやダイアログ等の英語の意味の固まりを覚えるという学習行為が、うまくなったという自覚がある。	1 2 3 4 5 6
19.　英語でリスニングをした音を、単語レベルではなくフレーズレベルで、固まりとして短期記憶にとどめ、発音、イントネーション、音の強弱などを真似して口に出して繰返すことが、うまくなったという自覚がある。	1 2 3 4 5 6
20.　英語口頭コミュニケーションスキルを伸ばす上で、「フレーズやダイアログをひと固まりで即座にアウトプットできるようになるまで覚え込む」という学習法に対して、より肯定的に考えるようになった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
21.　「フレーズやダイアログをひと固まりで即座にアウトプットできるようになるまで覚え込むことを通じて、その中に出てくる文法、語彙、発音等について新たに学んだり、あるいは既習知識の一層の記憶定着化を図ったりする」という学習方法について、より肯定的に考えるようになった。	1 2 3 4 5 6

> 以上、パート2については、「**留学準備講座でのダイアログ学習・暗記を通じて**」「**前期開始時と比較して**」という観点から回答いただけましたでしょうか？

パート3

このパートは、前期中に覚えることができたテキスト中のダイアログの量についての自己評価アンケートです。次の各項目の選択肢の中から自分に該当する□にチェック（✔）を入れてください。

22.　前期中に**最低 1 度**は覚えることができたダイアログの量を教えて下さい。

　　　　□約 10%　□約 20%　□約 30%　□約 40%　□約 50%
　　　　□約 60%　□約 70%　□約 80%　□約 90%　□約 100%

23.　前期中に**2 回かそれ以上の回数**覚えることができたダイアログの量を教えて下さい。

　　　　□約 10%　□約 20%　□約 30%　□約 40%　□約 50%
　　　　□約 60%　□約 70%　□約 80%　□約 90%　□約 100%

裏に進んで下さい。

2

裏

パート4

このパートは、この授業のダイアログ教材についてのアンケートです。パート１と同じ方法で回答してください。

全く そう思わない	そう思わない	あまり そう思わない	やや そう思う	そう思う	非常に そう思う
1	2	3	4	5	6

24. 実写ファイルが有ったダイアログは音声のみのダイアログよりも学習しやすかった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
25. ダイアログの実写は、身振り手振りや顔の表情の学習に役立った。	1 2 3 4 5 6
26. 長いダイアログに含まれていた英語表現は、短いダイアログに含まれていた表現よりも記憶に残っている。	1 2 3 4 5 6
27. 長いダイアログに含まれていた英語表現は、短いダイアログに含まれていた表現よりも、実際の英会話で耳にする機会、使う機会が多い。	1 2 3 4 5 6
28. ウェブ（YouTube）にアップされていた動画・音声ファイルは、ストリーミング（＝インターネット上での再生）をしてダイアログ学習に活用した。	1 2 3 4 5 6
29. ウェブ（YouTube）にアップされていた動画・音声ファイルは、携帯端末にダウンロード・コピーをして、ダイアログ学習に活用した。	1 2 3 4 5 6
30. ダイアログを覚える際、音声教材を模倣するようにした、あるいは、参考にした。	1 2 3 4 5 6
31. ダイアログを覚える際、動画の教材にある表情や身振り手振りを、模倣するようにした、あるいは、参考にした。	1 2 3 4 5 6
32. ダイアログを覚える際、自然な速さで言えるようになるまで練習をした。	1 2 3 4 5 6
33. ダイアログを覚える際、適切な発音、イントネーション、強弱の付け方、間の持たせ方、そして音の連結や脱落のさせ方で言えるようになるまで練習をした。	1 2 3 4 5 6

パート5

このパートは、ダイアログの授業内での扱いについてのアンケートです。パート１と同じ方法で回答してください。

全く そう思わない	そう思わない	あまり そう思わない	やや そう思う	そう思う	非常に そう思う
1	2	3	4	5	6

34. 毎回の授業でダイアログ暗記チェックがあったことは、ダイアログを暗記するうえでモティベーションとなった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
35. 毎回の授業でダイアログを暗記する時間が設けられていたことは、ダイアログを暗記するうえでモティベーションとなった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
36. ダイアログについての教員からの指導は、ためになった。	1 2 3 4 5 6
37. ダイアログについての教員からの指導量は、十分だった。	1 2 3 4 5 6

3

Appendix H (continued)

パート6

このパートは、その他、本研究に関連のある項目についてのアンケートです。このパートのアンケート項目は、パート1同様、前期開始時にも伺った内容ですが、やはり現時点での考えを回答してください。このパートもパート1と同じ方法で回答してください。

全く そう思わない	そう思わない	あまり そう思わない	やや そう思う	そう思う	非常に そう思う
1	2	3	4	5	6

38. 英語で話しをするとき、不安を感じる。	1 2 3 4 5 6
39. 誰かとコミュニケーションを取らなければならない場面に遭遇すると、日本語であっても、不安になる。	1 2 3 4 5 6
40. 日本語での会話に自信がある。	1 2 3 4 5 6
41. 英会話ダイアログの暗記学習は、成績評価というインセンティブがあると促される。（英会話ダイアログの暗記は、自分任せにされてしまうと、継続学習が難しい。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
42. 英会話例文集の学習題材には、動画が含まれるべきだ。	1 2 3 4 5 6
43. 英会話例文集にあるダイアログは、短いものより長いものの方が良い。	1 2 3 4 5 6
44. 音声や動画といった英会話学習題材は、自分が普段使用している携帯機器で簡単に再生できれば活用する。（CD・DVD からのデータ読み込み・取り込みが必要な英会話学習題材は、手間がかかるので、手を付けないままになってしまう。）	1 2 3 4 5 6
45. このまま勉強を続けていけば英語でのコミュニケーションは問題なくできるようになると思う。	1 2 3 4 5 6

パート7

このパートは、**今年の夏かそれ以降に短期または長期の留学をすることが確定している方のみ**回答してください。

46. どちらへの留学ですか？　（国名：　　　　　　　　　　）

47. 留学期間は何ヶ月ですか？（　　　　　　　　ヶ月間）

48. 留学の形態は？　※該当する□にチェック（✔）を入れてください。

　　□明治大学経由の語学留学　　　□その他の語学留学　　　□協定校留学

　　□認定校留学　　　　　　　　　□その他（形態：　　　　　　　　　　）

49. 留学先の学校名は？　（名称：　　　　　　　　　　　　　　）

以上でアンケートは終了です。ご協力を誠にありがとうございました！

Appendix I

The original Post-Questionnaire to CG

表	20　年　　月　　日
	学籍番号＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿　　名前（漢字）＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

【学期末】英語オーラル・コミュニケーション・スキルの向上に関するアンケート（※「留学準備講座」以外の授業を履修している学生向け）

このアンケート調査は明治大学政治経済学部にて行われるもので、4 つのパートで構成されています。それぞれの指示に従って回答を記入してください。回答はボールペンでお願いいたします。

これは、アンケートであり、テストではありません。つまり、「正解」や「不正解」のあるものではありません。回答内容は、最終成績に一切、反映されません。また、この調査の結果は、研究目的のためのみに使用されます。個人が特定されるデータは守秘することをお約束します。

> 最後に、とても大切なお願いになりますが、正直にご回答ください。教員（＝松崎）が期待する回答を推測してそれに沿うように答えることは、一切しないでください。また、「かくあるべき自分」をイメージして回答することも、一切しないでください。あくまでも、今のあなたそのままを回答に反映させてください。よろしくお願いいたします。

パート1

パート１は、日本人英語学習者（あるいは日本育ちの外国籍学習者）であるあなたが、英語での対人オーラル・コミュニケーション・スキルを身に付けていく上で重視していることについてのアンケートです。このパートのアンケート項目は前期開始時にも伺った内容ですが、現時点での考えを回答してください。このパートでは、あなたが以下の項目にどの程度同意するかを、1 から 6 の番号の中からひとつずつ選び、丸（○）で囲んで下さい。記入漏れのないようにお願いいたします。

全く そう思わない	そう思わない	あまり そう思わない	やや そう思う	そう思う	非常に そう思う
1	2	3	4	5	6

（例）もしあなたの考えが次の内容に非常に共感できる場合、次のように記入します。	
映画を観るのは好きだ。	1　2　3　4　5　6

1.	文法学習は大切だ。（例：形容詞、接続詞、現在完了進行形といった文法用語や文を作る上での規則に精通すること。）	1　2　3　4　5　6
2.	発音ルールの学習は大切だ。（例：音の連結、子音、語尾の 'l' や 'p' の発音の仕方などに精通すること。）	1　2　3　4　5　6
3.	同じ題材を用いてリスニングを繰り返すことは重要だ。（例：特定の英語学習音声教材を何度も聞くこと。）	1　2　3　4　5　6
4.	会話表現を覚えること・暗記することは大切だ。（例："It's up to you." 等の頻出フレーズを固まりとして覚えてしまうこと。）	1　2　3　4　5　6
5.	自分の英語表現力不足を補うためのストラテジー（方略）を学ぶことは大事だ。（例：身振り手振り、顔の表情、"You know" などの間を埋める手段を学ぶこと。）	1　2　3　4　5　6
6.	英語ネイティブや上級学習者の身振り手振り、顔の表情の表現を模倣することは重要だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
7.	英語ネイティブや上級学習者の発音や間の取り方を模倣することは大切だ。	1　2　3　4　5　6

右上に進んで下さい。

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Appendix I (continued)

パート2

このパートは、**この授業での学習を通じて**、あなたの英語力、学習能力、そして英語学習についての考え方が、**前期開始時と比較して**向上したかどうか、あるいは変化したかどうかについての自己評価アンケートです。
このパートもパート1と同じ方法で回答してください。
<u>※太字・下線箇所内容を忘れずに回答をしてください。</u>

全く そう思わない 1	そう思わない 2	あまり そう思わない 3	やや そう思う 4	そう思う 5	非常に そう思う 6

8.	単語を文法的に正しい形で、そして正しい語順でアウトプットできるようになった。	1　2　3　4　5　6
9.	以前は使うことのなかった文構造を使うようになった（例えば、仮定法、付加疑問文など）。	1　2　3　4　5　6
10.	個々の単語をうまく発音できるようになった（例えば、語尾が「l（エル）で終わる単語、「shとs」や「lとr」の発音の違い、破裂音（p/b/t/d/k/g）の発音）。	1　2　3　4　5　6
11.	単語を連結させて発音できるようになった。	1　2　3　4　5　6
12.	イントネーション・強弱を付けて発音できるようになった。	1　2　3　4　5　6
13.	ひとつの意味のかたまりとしてアウトプットできるフレーズが増えた。	1　2　3　4　5　6
14.	リスニングの力が、総じて、伸びた。	1　2　3　4　5　6
15.	身振り手振りや顔の表情を活用するようになった。	1　2　3　4　5　6
16.	言いたいことが即座に出てこないときの口頭手段（例："Well"や"Uh"や"You know"など）を使うようになった。	1　2　3　4　5　6
17.	フレーズやダイアログ等の英語の意味の固まりを覚えるという学習行為を、より楽しく思うようになった。	1　2　3　4　5　6
18.	フレーズやダイアログ等の英語の意味の固まりを覚えるという学習行為が、うまくなったという自覚がある。	1　2　3　4　5　6
19.	英語でリスニングをした音を、単語レベルではなくフレーズレベルで、固まりとして短期記憶にとどめ、発音、イントネーション、音の強弱などを真似して口に出して繰返すことが、うまくなったという自覚がある。	1　2　3　4　5　6
20.	英語口頭コミュニケーションスキルを伸ばす上で、「フレーズやダイアログをひと固まりで即座にアウトプットできるようになるまで覚え込む」という学習法に対して、より肯定的に考えるようになった。	1　2　3　4　5　6
21.	「フレーズやダイアログをひと固まりで即座にアウトプットできるようになるまで覚え込むことを通じて、その中に出てくる文法、語彙、発音等について新たに学んだり、あるいは既習知識の一層の記憶定着化を図ったりする」という学習方法について、より肯定的に考えるようになった。	1　2　3　4　5　6

以上、パート2については、「**この授業での学習を通じて**」「**前期開始時と比較して**」という観点から回答いただけましたでしょうか？

裏に進んで下さい。

裏

パート3

このパートは、その他、本研究に関連のある項目についてのアンケートです。このパートのアンケート項目は、パート1同様、前期開始時にも伺った内容ですが、やはり現時点での考えを回答してください。このパートもパート1と同じ方法で回答してください。

全く そう思わない	そう思わない	あまり そう思わない	やや そう思う	そう思う	非常に そう思う
1	2	3	4	5	6

22.	英語で話しをするとき、不安を感じる。	1　2　3　4　5　6
23.	誰かとコミュニケーションを取らなければならない場面に遭遇すると、日本語であっても、不安になる。	1　2　3　4　5　6
24.	日本語での会話に自信がある。	1　2　3　4　5　6
25.	英会話ダイアログの暗記学習は、成績評価というインセンティブがあると促される。（英会話ダイアログの暗記は、自分任せにされてしまうと、継続学習が難しい。）	1　2　3　4　5　6
26.	英会話例文集の学習題材には、動画が含まれるべきだ。	1　2　3　4　5　6
27.	英会話例文集にあるダイアログは、短いものより長いものの方が良い。	1　2　3　4　5　6
28.	音声や動画といった英会話学習題材は、自分が普段使用している携帯機器で簡単に再生できれば活用する。（CD・DVD からのデータ読み込み・取り込みが必要な英会話学習題材は、手間がかかるので、手を付けないままになってしまう。）	1　2　3　4　5　6
29.	このまま勉強を続けていけば英語でのコミュニケーションは問題なくできるようになると思う。	1　2　3　4　5　6

パート4

このパートは、**今年の夏かそれ以降に短期または長期の留学をすることが確定している方のみ**回答してください。

30. どちらへの留学ですか？　　（国名：　　　　　　　　　　）

31. 留学期間は何ヶ月ですか？（　　　　　　　　ヶ月間）

32. 留学の形態は？　※該当する□にチェック（✔）を入れてください。

　　□明治大学経由の語学留学　　　□その他の語学留学　　　□協定校留学

　　□認定校留学　　　　　　　　　□その他（形態：　　　　　　　　　）

33. 留学先の学校名は？　（名称：　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　）

以上でアンケートは終了です。ご協力を誠にありがとうございました！

3

A comprehensive summary of the questionnaire items used in this dissertation along with their English translation

	Focus	Japanese	English translation of Japanese (word-by-word)	Shortened version of English used in this dissertation
Attitudinal items used in both Pre-Questionnaire and Post-Questionnaire	Importance of emulating proficient pronunciation	英語ネイティブや上級学習者の発音や間の取り方を模倣することは大切だ。	Emulating the pronunciation of native speakers and advanced learners is important.	Emulating proficient pronunciation is important.
	Importance of memorizing FSs	会話表現を覚えること、暗記することは大切だ。（例："It's up to you."等の頻出フレーズを固まりとして覚えてしまうこと。）	Memorizing conversational expressions (e.g., "It's up to you") is important.	Memorizing FSs is important.
	A grade incentive to memorization	英会話ダイアログの暗記学習は、成績評価といういインセンティブがあると促される。（英会話ダイアログの暗記は、自分任せにされてしまうと、継続学習が難しい。）	If memorizing dialogs results in receiving a good grade, I can work harder on it. (If there is no such incentive and dialog memorization is left to me, it is difficult for me to keep on doing it.)	A grade incentive will help me engage in dialog memorization.
Reflective items on memorization given only to TGs	Motivational effects of in-class recitation	毎回の授業でダイアログ暗記チェックがあったことは、ダイアログを暗記するうえでモティベーションとなった。	The fact that in each class there was some time spared for checking dialog memorization motivated me to commit the dialogs to memory.	I worked hard on dialog memorization thanks to "Check."
	Motivational effects of in-class memorization time	毎回の授業でダイアログを暗記する時間が設けられていたことは、ダイアログを暗記するうえでモティベーションとなった。	The fact that in each class there was some time spared for memorizing dialogs motivated me to do that.	I engaged in dialog memorization thanks to the in-class time given to it.
	Practicing until fast	ダイアログを覚える際、自然な速さで言えるよう になるまで練習をした。	When memorizing a dialog, I practiced until becoming able to act it out at a natural speed.	I practiced until I was able to act out the dialogs fast.
	Practicing until attaining proper articulation	ダイアログを覚える際、適切な発音、イントネーション、強弱の付け方、間の持たせ方、そして音の連結や脱落のさせ方で言えるようになるまで練習をした。	When memorizing a dialog, I practiced until I was able to act it out with proper pronunciation, intonation, stress, pauses, linking, and drops.	I practiced until I was able to properly articulate the dialogs.
Reflective items on improvement in output production (except for articulatory aspects)	Learning of fillers	言いたいことが即座に出てこないときの口頭手段（例："Well"や"Uh"や"You know"など）を使うようになった。	I have come to use fillers (e.g., "well," "uh," "you know") when what I want to say is not coming out of my mouth on the spot.	I have come to use fillers when lost for words.
	Learning of new sentence structures	以前は使うことのなかった文構造を使うように なった（例えば、仮定法、付加疑問文など）。	I have come to use sentence structures that I did not use before (e.g., hypotheticals, tag questions).	I have come to use sentence structures that I did not use before.
	Learning of vocabulary with control of morphological and syntactic features	単語を文法的に正しい形で、そして正しい語順でアウトプットできるようになった。	I can now use words in the grammatically correct form and order better than before.	My word use has improved morphologically and syntactically.
	Learning of FSs	ひとつの意味のかたまりとしてアウトプットできるフレーズが増えた。	There has been an increase in the number of phrases that I can use as chunks.	There has been an increase in the number of FSs that I can use.

	Focus	Japanese	English translation of Japanese (word-by-word)	Shortened version of English used in this dissertation
Reflective items on improvement in articulation	Learning of pronunciation	個々の単語をうまく発音できるようになった（例えば、語尾が「l」（エル）で終わる単語、「sh」と「s」や「l」と「r」の発音の違い、破裂音（p/b/t/d/k/g）の発音）。	I can now pronounce individual words better than before (e.g., words with "l" at the end, "sh" and "s," "l" and "r," plosives (i.e., "p," "b," "t," "d," "k," and "g")).	I can now pronounce individual words.
	Learning of liaison	単語を連結させて発音できるようになった。	I can now link words when pronouncing them better than before.	I can now link words when pronouncing them.
	Learning of intonation and stress	イントネーション・強弱を付けて発音できるようになった。	I am now better at pronouncing words with appropriate intonation and stress.	I can now pronounce words with appropriate intonation and stress.
Reflective items on improvement in language processing	Improvement in emulating articulation	英語でリスニングをした音を、単語レベルではなくフレーズレベルで、固まりとして短期記憶にとどめ、発音、イントネーション、音の強弱などを真似してて口に出して繰返すことが、得意になったという自覚がある。	I feel that I have become better at holding incoming sounds in short-term memory as word chunks rather than individual words, and repeating them with the same articulatory contour with respect to pronunciation, intonation, stress, and other components of pronunciation.	I have become better at holding incoming sounds as chunks and repeating them with the same articulatory contour.
	Improvement in chunk memorization	フレーズやダイアログ等の英語の意味の固まりを覚えるという学習行為が、うまくなったという自覚がある。	I feel that I have become better than before at memorizing phrases and dialogs.	I have become better at memorizing phrases and dialogs.
Reflective items on changes in attitude toward memorization (esp. of FSs)	Favorable change in attitude toward text memorization	フレーズやダイアログ等の英語の意味の固まりを覚えるという学習行為を楽しく思うようになった。	I have come to enjoy memorizing phrases and dialogs.	I have come to enjoy memorizing phrases and dialogs.
	Favorable change in attitude toward readily recitable memorization	英語口頭コミュニケーションスキルを伸ばす上で、「フレーズやダイアログをひと固まりで即座にアウトプットできるようになるまで覚える」という学習方法に対して、より肯定的に考えるようになった。	In developing my oral communication skills, I have come to think favorably toward committing to memory phrases and dialogs to the point of being able to readily recite them.	I have come to have a favorable attitude toward memorizing phrases and dialogs to the point of being able to readily recite them.
	Favorable change in attitude toward text memorization as a way to learn a variety of features	「フレーズやダイアログをひと固まりで即座にアウトプットできるようになるまで覚え込む」ことを通じて、覚え込むフレーズやダイアログの中に出てくる文法、語彙、発音等について新たに学んだり、あるいは既習知識の一層の記憶定着化を図ったりするという学習の仕方について、より肯定的に考えるようになった。	Through committing to memory phrases and dialogs to the point of being able to readily recite them in this class, I have come to have a favorable attitude toward doing so as a way to learn grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and other aspects of my English learning.	Through dialog memorization, I have come to have a favorable attitude toward doing so as a way to learn grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and other aspects of my English learning.

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The original Pre-Interview

日本語での疑似インタビュー
（3題）※これで最後です！

日本語で提示される質問に対して、
日本語で回答してください。
それぞれ、回答準備が出来次第、回答を
始めてください。考慮＆回答のおおよその
所要時間は、質問ごとに、90秒程度です。
ただし、このパートのみ、強制的に次の
質問に移ることはしません。

それでは開始します。

No. 1

あなたは、総じて、外国語学習に向いていると思
いますか？また、なぜそう思うのかについて、でき
るだけ具体的に詳しく教えてください。

★準備出来次第、回答を始めてしまってください。

手を下ろし、回答は続けてください。

まだ回答が済んでいない方は手を挙げてください。
（そのまま回答を続けてください。）

No. 2

あなたは、今まで、どのようにして英語を学習して
きましたか？教わり方や自分の勉強法など、でき
るだけ具体的に教えてください。

★準備出来次第、回答を始めてしまってください。

手を下ろし、回答は続けてください。

まだ回答が済んでいない方は手を挙げてください。
（そのまま回答を続けてください。）

No. 3

これまで、英語を学ぶ上で行ってきた暗記学習について、特に多くの時間を割いてきた暗記学習の暗記学習対象、そして、そのやり方について教えてください。

★準備出来次第、回答を始めてしまってください。

手を下ろし、回答は続けてください。

まだ回答が済んでいない方は手を挙げてください。
（そのまま回答を続けてください。）

日本語での疑似インタビュー
（3題）※これで最後です！

日本語で提示される質問に対して、
日本語で回答してください。
それぞれ、回答準備が出来次第、回答を
始めてください。考慮＆回答のおおよその
所要時間は、質問ごとに、90秒程度です。
ただし、このパートのみ、強制的に次の
質問に移ることはしません。

それでは開始します。

No. 1

この授業での暗記学習（※「留学準備講座」の場合は「ダ
イアログの暗記」）を振り返ってください。暗記対象は、ど
のように覚えましたか？学期を通じて実践した方法があ
れば教えてください。また、複数のやり方を試行錯誤しな
がら実践したという場合には、どのようなやり方から開始
をし、そして、最終的にはどのようなやり方に落ち着いた
のか、できるだけ詳細に教えてください。
★準備出来次第、回答を始めてください。

手を下ろし、回答は続けてください。

まだ回答が済んでいない方は手を挙げてください。
（そのまま回答を続けてください。）

No. 2

「英語での口頭コミュニケーションスキルを伸ばすことを
目的として大量の会話フレーズやダイアログを覚える」と
いう学習法に対するあなたの考え方に、学期を通して、何
か変化はありましたか？あった場合、どのような変化が
あったのかを具体的に教えてください。また、特に変化が
なかった場合には、その変わらなかった考えを教えてくだ
さい。
★準備出来次第、回答を始めてください。

手を下ろし、回答は続けてください。

まだ回答が済んでいない方は手を挙げてください。
（そのまま回答を続けてください。）

No. 3

この学期中、この授業中およびその予習・復習以外に、どういった英語学習に取り組みましたか？英語でのコミュニケーションの経験も含め、できるだけ細かく教えてください。

★準備出来次第、回答を始めてください。

手を下ろし、回答は続けてください。

まだ回答が済んでいない方は手を挙げてください。
（そのまま回答を続けてください。）