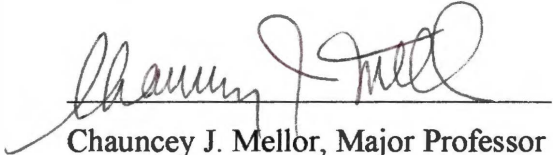


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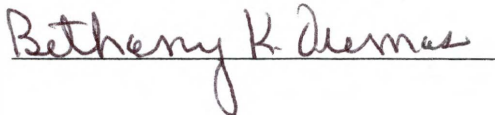
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by JoBeth Bradley entitled "Formulaic Language in Learner Discourse: How Study Abroad Affects Oral Production." I have examined the final paper copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Modern Foreign Languages.


Chauncey J. Mellor, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:







Accepted for the Council:


Vice Provost and Dean of
Graduate Studies

**FORMULAIC LANGUAGE IN LEARNER DISCOURSE:
HOW STUDY ABROAD AFFECTS ORAL PRODUCTION**

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

JoBeth Bradley
May 2003

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*Thesis
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ABSTRACT

This study examines the effect of the study abroad experience on the oral production of study abroad students as compared to a control group by establishing a relationship between language proficiency and the development of discourse features in the study abroad environment. The subjects include seven students studying abroad at the University of Stuttgart and a control group of seven students in third and fourth-year German courses at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The proficiency ratings for the subjects were assessed by administering the German Speaking Test, a simulated oral proficiency interview. The transcripts of the German Speaking Test were then examined quantitatively and qualitatively to compare the students' use of formulaic language, response time, and words per response. Three types of formulaic language are identified in this study: (1) lexical fillers, (2) grammatical frames, and (3) lexical complements. Unlike lexical fillers which fill space, grammatical frames and lexical complements are non-filler formulaic language and contribute to the message.

The proficiency ratings for each population ranged from Intermediate-Mid to Advanced and had no bearing on the amount of formulaic language produced. The study abroad students showed marked strength when presented with tasks above their actual proficiency. Although their rate of speech is generally not faster than the at home students and the number of lexical fillers is not significantly different between the populations, the study abroad students consistently used more words and more non-filler formulaic language. Qualitatively, the study abroad students used a wider range of fillers, and used more non-filler formulaic language and differently. Formulaic language contributed substantially to the responses of the study abroad students in linguistically challenging situations. The results suggest that the increase use of formulaic language is a production strategy acquired through the demands of living in the target culture. The study abroad students appear to be more linguistically competent to untrained ears despite their proficiency level because they are not only more adept at utilizing formulaic language but they also have a wider repertoire of formulaic language to draw upon.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ACTFL	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
CAL	Center for Applied Linguistics
CSs	Communication strategies
DaF	Deutsch als Fremdsprache
ELT	English Language Teaching
ETS	Educational Testing Service
GST	German Speaking Test
KAPPA	Kassel Psycho- and Pragmalinguistic Research Group
MLA-ACLS	Modern Language Association-American Council of Learned Societies
OPI	Oral Proficiency Interview
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SOPI	Simulated Oral Proficiency Interview
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the background to this study by introducing the problem areas, stating the research questions, and describing the study as well as the layout of the dissertation.

The Problem Areas

This dissertation addresses two established areas of language learning: study abroad and oral proficiency. The purpose of this exploratory research is to examine how the study-abroad experience is manifested in the oral proficiency of third and fourth-year German learners. It is generally observed that the academic year abroad, usually offered in the junior year, affords the student the opportunity to become “fluent” in a second language. Fluency, however, is a multifaceted term in the field of second language acquisition, ranging from speech rate to the use of communication strategies. Fluency often parallels or is combined with the notion of oral proficiency, the ability to perform functional tasks in the foreign language.

It is easy to assume that students do become more fluent or proficient in the target language because of the study-abroad experience. One reason for this assumption is that study abroad is highly promoted on campuses and encouraged in the foreign language classroom. Yet research on study abroad (Freed 1995) questions the effect the experience has on the student. Researchers have recently begun to examine the social and linguistic impact of study abroad (see for example Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsberg 1995; Lafford 1995, Huebner 1995 and Regan 1995).

One tool often used to measure the linguistic gains of the study-abroad experience is the oral proficiency interview. The most common oral proficiency interview used is the one developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). By using the oral proficiency interview, several studies have demonstrated that students who study abroad have a higher proficiency level (Freed 1995:11).

The assessment criteria for the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) are of two kinds: (1) core requirements (global tasks or functions), which the candidate must be able to perform, and (2) other assessment criteria (context and content, accuracy, and oral text type) which do not compensate for lack of a core function. Among the so called 'other assessment criteria' (grammatical accuracy, lexical variety, etc.) one may compensate for the other to a limited degree, i.e. excellent grammatical accuracy may compensate for lexical weakness. This dissertation is concerned with the display of one emergent compensatory behavior among study-abroad and non-study-abroad third-year language learners at the Intermediate and Advanced-levels: the strategic use of formulaic language.

Recent literature (Ejzenberg 2000) attributes an increase in fluency among language learners to the use of formulaic language. Formulaic language reveals itself as chunks of speech, or relatively invariant collocation of words, that have been acquired by the learner and are retrieved as a whole. Formulaic language is, however, not limited to the language learner. In describing native speaker discourse, Wong-Fillmore calls formulaic language "a linguistic resource they (native speakers) have that enables them to formulate what they have to say quickly, to organize it more or less coherently as they are speaking, and to connect up bits and pieces of the discourse as it develops" (1994:245).

In other words, formulaic language is a strategy used by speakers to organize language and to keep the flow going. In viewing language on a continuum between the extremes of the propositional and the formulaic, formulaic language appears to provide the framework for propositional speech. Tannen notes that formulaic language is “a resource for creativity...it is the play between fixity and novelty that makes possible the creation of meaning” (1989:37).

Proficiency ratings alone do not explain why the responses of the study-abroad students sound more competent and conversational than that of the non-study-abroad students. Since formulaic language is a strategy used by speakers to organize and maintain the flow of discourse, this study explores the role of formulaic language in the discourse of the study-abroad students versus the non-study-abroad students.

Research Questions

- 1) What are the proficiency levels of third and fourth-year German students?
- 2) How does the spoken language of exchange students compare to that of students who have not had academic experience abroad?
- 3) What role does formulaic language play in distinguishing the discourse of the two populations of students?

Description and Layout of the Study

This comparative study looks at two populations of learners to determine differences in their spoken language by examining their proficiency levels and use of formulaic language. The first group of subjects consists of seven students from various

universities in the US who spent a year studying abroad at the University of Stuttgart. They were enrolled in German as a foreign language (DaF) courses. Had they been at their home universities, they would have been enrolled in third-year German courses. The second group consists of seven students in third and fourth-year German courses at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

The first phase of this study was to ascertain the range of oral proficiency levels within the groups of students. The German Speaking Test (GST) was administered to the students to determine their proficiency ratings. The GST is a simulated oral proficiency interview (SOPI) created by the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL). Modeled after the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages' (ACTFL) oral proficiency interview (OPI), the GST is a tape-based test designed to elicit speech samples at various levels of difficulty. The tests were administered and rated by the author. Six of the fourteen tests, three from each population, were double rated by CAL.

The second phase of this study examines the subjects' use of formulaic language. After analyzing the transcripts to decide what discourse features may be salient in the speech of the study-abroad students in comparison to the at-home students, it became apparent that one phenomenon occurring in the language of the study-abroad group not captured via the GST was the formulaic use of language. This proved to be one of the most interesting features of the subjects' discourse. As noted above, formulaic language appears as chunks of speech that have been acquired by the learner and retrieved as a whole. An analysis of the formulaic language indicated three types of formulaic language: lexical fillers, grammatical frames, and lexical complements. I define lexical fillers as *high frequency words and phrases that do not contribute to the message, but*

which help the flow of discourse. On the other hand, grammatical frames and lexical complements do contribute to the message. I define grammatical frames as *semi-fixed grammatical routines which organize and give structure to a response.* Lexical complements are defined as *invariable chunks of language composed of words that are used together to make a substantive contribution to the message.* The three types of formulaic language were identified with reference to these definitions, but other features of speech were also useful in identifying the formulaic language, including repetition, non-lexical fillers, such as *uh*, final sentence intonation, and temporal aspects of speech, such as pause length, accelerated speech, and decelerated speech.

The next chapter reviews secondary literature pertaining to the topics of study abroad, the oral proficiency interview, and formulaic language. Chapter Three provides information on the data collection and analysis. It includes a description of the subjects, procedures for data collection, and a description of language measures (GST) and scoring procedure. Finally, it also describes the method used in this study of identifying and classifying formulaic language. Chapter Four presents the GST ratings, the quantitative analyses of four discourse variables, and the qualitative analyses of formulaic language. Chapter Five concludes the study with a summary of the findings, limitations of the study, and implications for further research.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This dissertation involves three central topics: study abroad, proficiency testing, and formulaic language. Within the realm of second language acquisition (SLA), each of the topics is a separate field with an abundance of research. This chapter provides a focused review of each of these fields. The first section, study abroad, reviews literature which examines how study abroad influences the linguistic performance of students. The section on proficiency testing outlines the historical development of proficiency testing and the ACTFL OPI. In addition, it also reviews the development of the GST, the SOPI used in this study. The last section reviews the role of formulaic language in discourse.

Study Abroad

The literature in this section surveys studies that assess the effect of study abroad on the language performance of second language learners. While there is a vast amount of literature on the field of study abroad, Freed (1995a:5) notes, “Surprisingly enough, though, there have been relatively few empirical studies which have addressed, in a carefully-controlled and in-depth manner, the specific question of the linguistic impact of study abroad.” This dissertation adds to this small group of studies by presenting a comparative study which measures the linguistic differences between two groups of American students at the same relative level of language study. For a comprehensive literature review on all aspects of language learning linked to study abroad see Freed’s (1995) introduction to *Second Language Acquisition in a Study Abroad Context*.

The studies that have looked at the linguistic gains of American students abroad have been conducted on various target languages, including Spanish (Foltz 1991; Lafford

1995; Lafford and Ryan 1995; Ryan and Lafford 1992; Veguez 1984), Portuguese (Milleret 1990), French (Freed 1991;1995a; 1995b; O'Conner 1988), Russian (Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsburg 1995), and Japanese (Huebner 1995). Unlike the other research into Americans studying abroad, this dissertation focuses on students learning the German language. The above mentioned studies focus on a range of topics, such as proficiency levels, speaker strategies, and fluency. The following discussion treats the different approaches to second language acquisition in study-abroad research.

Freed (1995a:11) notes six studies mainly from the 1980s that have employed the ACTFL OPI to measure the proficiency levels of study-abroad students. These studies include O'Conner 1988, Veguez 1984, Magnan 1986, Liskin-Gasparro 1984, Folz 1991, and Milleret 1990. While the number of subjects, length of experience abroad, target language, and level of target language varied, all of the studies established that higher OPI ratings followed the study-abroad experience.

O'Conner (as cited in Freed 1995a:11) looked at the OPI ratings for some 30 study-abroad students before and after their year abroad in France. His findings conclude that the proficiency ratings advanced a level from Intermediate-Mid or High to Intermediate-High or Advanced. Veguez (as cited in Freed 1995a:11) comes to similar conclusions in looking at 17 Spanish students. Magnan (as cited in Freed 1995a:11) looked at the proficiency levels of undergraduate French students and noted that the ones who had some sort of experience abroad scored higher ratings than those who had none. Liskin-Gasparro (as cited in Freed 1995a:11), compared two groups of Spanish students and noted that those who had been abroad also had higher OPI ratings.

The last two of the above mentioned studies contain design elements found in this dissertation. Folz's study (as cited in Freed 1995:11) compared a study-abroad group with an at-home group. He concluded that those who had studied in Spain achieved higher ratings than the at-home students. Milleret's study (as cited in Freed 1995:11), focused on eleven students who participated in a six-week summer program in Brazil. The participants' ratings increased a level from Intermediate–Mid to Intermediate-High. Milleret's study is important for her use of the Portuguese Speaking Test to measure proficiency instead of the OPI. The Portuguese Speaking Test, like the German Speaking Test used in this dissertation, was employed by Milleret also as a substitute for the ACTFL OPI.

Dekyser's (1991) comparative study did not use the OPI to gather data, but rather several different methods of language assessment. The goal of his study was to determine how learners put their L2 knowledge to use during communication and how learners compensated for gaps in their knowledge. He analyzed the act of monitoring and the use of communication strategies (CSs) in two groups of students. The first group of seven students had completed two years of university-level Spanish and was spending the first semester of the third year on an academic exchange in Spain. The five students of the second group were in their second year, second semester of university-level Spanish and planned on doing the junior year study-abroad program. The two groups were tested for compatibility through questionnaires and the Modern Language Aptitude Test. The students were given a grammar test, oral interviews, and were asked to describe a picture to a native speaker. He concluded that there was no significant difference in the monitoring behavior of the two groups. DeKyser also concluded that there were no

significant differences between the groups and their communication strategies. He defines communication strategies based on Faerch and Kasper's 1983 taxonomy: (1) topic avoidance, message abandonment; (2) meaning replacement, overgeneralization; (3) L1, literal translation, foreignizing; (4) circumlocution; (5) restructuring; (6) confirmation request; (7) appeal and indirect appeal; and (8) other. Formulaic language is not listed as a communication strategy within this taxonomy, but it has been considered by other studies as a communication strategy used by speakers to allow planning time (i.e., Raupach 1983). Dekyser found the individual behavior within the study-abroad group more distinct than the differences between the two groups. This finding remained consistent throughout subsequent comparative studies (as cited in Freed 1995a:21, referring to Lafford 1995, Freed 1995b, Guntermann 1995, and Huebner 1995).

A major contribution to the literature on study abroad is Freed's 1995 volume *Second Language Acquisition in a Study Abroad Context*. She grouped the articles in the volume into the following chapter headings: predicting and measuring language gains in study-abroad settings (Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsburg; Lapkin, Hart and Swain); comparative studies of language study at-home and abroad (Lafford, Freed, Guntermann, Huebner); the acquisition of sociolinguistic competence (Marriot, Siegal, Regan); and diary studies which address students' views of learning abroad (Polanyi, Miller and Ginsberg, Brecht and Robinson). All the studies contribute to a better understanding of the complexities of language acquisition in a study-abroad context; however, only three of the comparative studies by Huebner, Lafford, and Freed are of relevance to this dissertation. They focus on gains in proficiency, communication strategies, and fluency.

Huebner's 1995 study focuses on learners of Japanese with no prior experience in the target language. His participants, twelve in the US and ten in Japan, were thoroughly evaluated with the ACTFL OPI, the Japanese Speaking Test by Educational Testing Service (ETS), and a narrative retelling, as well as through observation and field notes, interviews, and diary entries. The Japan-based students outperformed the US-based students in proficiency. Huebner attributed much of this to opportunities for more language contact and positive attitudes towards the language.

Lafford (1995) expanded the traditional comparative study to three groups of Spanish learners, one in Spain, one in Mexico, and one at Arizona State University. The focus of her study is the use of communication strategies for "getting into, through and out of a survival situation." The notion of a survival situation comes directly from the construct of the OPI and is the central Intermediate-level descriptor. The data for Lafford's study was derived from role play situations, whose purpose is to mimic real encounters in the target culture. She looked at various types of communication strategies, the intent of which is either to open a conversation, to keep the conversation moving, or to end the conversation. She concluded that the study-abroad groups demonstrate a greater command of these communication strategies, which therefore made them better conversationalists (1995:119). Of interest to this dissertation are the strategies used to maintain a conversation, which include the use of fillers and connectors. She noted that the most frequent filler was *uhm* and the study-abroad groups had more instances of *uhm* than the at-home group; however, she attributes this result to the fact that the study-abroad groups had higher word counts than the at-home group. The filler *uhm* is a non-lexical filler, unlike the lexical fillers examined in this dissertation. Lafford noted the

abroad groups also incorporated other types of fillers, whereas the at-home group did not. Lafford based her work on discourse analysis and linked her results with Hymes' communicative competence, "i.e., the tacit social, psychological, cultural, and linguistic knowledge governing appropriate use of language (including, but not limited to grammar)." (Lafford 1995a: 119 as quoted from Schiffrin 1994:8) Lafford has done two other Spanish specific reports on study abroad, the first of which was a collaboration with Ryan (1992) that looks at the acquisition of lexical meaning by focusing on *ser* and *estar*. The second study, again in collaboration with Ryan (1995b) and again focusing on lexical meaning, looks at the acquisition of *por* and *para*.

Freed's (1995b, 2000) examination of study abroad and fluency ties in with Lafford's study and is also another study similar in design and purpose to this dissertation. Freed gathered evidence to support the popular notion that students become more fluent when studying abroad. The participants in her comparative study included 30 undergraduate students, fifteen of whom went on a semester abroad in France while the other 15 took French courses on campus. The language samples used in her study were derived from pre- and post-oral interviews based upon the ACTFL OPI. The results of the OPIs indicated that there was a slight gain in language ability for those studying abroad. Freed (1995b: 132) noted that this was consistent with the studies of Foltz 1991; Liskin-Gasparro 1984; Magnan 1986; Milleret 1990; O'Conner 1988; and Viguez 1984.

In addition to the results of the OPIs, Freed looked at differences in fluency via two different procedures, first by employing native speakers to judge and compare the perceived fluency of the participants and second by identifying factors of fluency. While there was no perceived advantage for the abroad group at a more advanced level, there

was evidence supporting a greater gain in fluency for the abroad students who were perceived as having lower fluency (i.e., Intermediate-Low to Intermediate-Mid) at the beginning of the study. The judges rated the speech samples on a rising fluency scale of one to seven. They also gave various subjective reasons for the evaluations and were also asked to identify components of fluency they thought were important. Rate of speech and smoother speech with fewer false starts were chosen by five out of six of the judges to be most important in evaluating speech.

Freed identified some of the differences in fluency which exist between the two groups by focusing on the post-OPI tests of eight participants. Referring to Ejzenberg's (1992) dissertation for her framework on fluency, Freed examined seven factors of fluency "commonly considered fundamental to the construct of fluency" (1995b:129) and noted that these factors were primarily temporal features and a variety of dysfluency markers. Briefly summed up, they are: (1) amount of speech, (2) rate of speech, (3) unfilled pauses, (4) frequency of filled pauses, (5) length of fluent speech runs, (6) repairs (broken into various categories), and (7) clusters of dysfluencies. The results of her analysis show that the abroad students demonstrate a higher command of fluency than the at-home group. They generally spoke more and at a faster rate, and had fewer unfilled and filled pauses, fewer clusters of dysfluencies, and longer runs of fluent speech. They also produced more repetitions, reformulations and false starts, whereas the at-home group demonstrated more grammatical repairs and partial repeats. Freed's research on fluency and study abroad addresses one approach to fluency. Other ways of looking at fluency will be discussed in the next section.

Several investigations into study abroad have appeared since Freed's 1995 volume, including dissertations by Waldbaum (1996) and Smartt (1998), and articles by Simões (1996) and Ginsberg and Miller (2000). Waldbaum's dissertation (1996) examined the effectiveness of the exchange program between the University of Denver and the University of Bologna. She explored the growth and personal development of the students through coursework, modified oral proficiency interviews, examinations, written essays, journal writing, and participant observation. She created six categories of development for the students: (1) Motivation, (2) Communicative Competence, (3) Cultural Awareness, (4) Intellectual Development, (5) Personal Growth, and (6) Group Identification. All eight students demonstrated growth in oral proficiency and the ones with greatest linguistic growth were those who initially had the least amount of language skills.

Smartt's dissertation (1998) focused on the self repair behavior of study-abroad students. Self-repair is one way of referring to the correction by the speaker of his or her own speech without external prompting. Using a control group of nine students at Friends University in Kansas and a group of 24 Spanish immersion students at La Salle University, Cancun, Smartt collected speech samples through interviews, questionnaires, and the ACTFL OPI. Smartt analyzed instances of self repair through category counts and percentages. Smartt also looked at the type of repair behavior used by the students and concluded that the abroad students were more likely to use different repair behavior than the control group.

Looking at fluency from a different point of view than that of Freed, Simões (1996) examined the phonetic characteristics of the speech of five Spanish learners. The

data were collected before and after a five-week intensive program in Costa Rica, using an interview format similar to the ACTFL OPI. The OPI ratings improved only within major levels, i.e., Intermediate-Low to Intermediate-High. Employing a computer program, he interpreted fluency according to the rate of delivery, calculated as the ratio of the number of acceptable syllabic nuclei over the duration of phonetic continua in spontaneous oral discourse (Simões 1996:90). There were significant changes in fluency for two of the five subjects. The other three improved, but the changes were not statistically significant.

Ginsberg and Miller's (2000:239) article on the activities of study-abroad students was derived from the extensive 1990 study *Language Learning during Study Abroad: The Case of Russian*. These are the same data used in the Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsberg report on the *Predictors of Foreign Language Gain* (1995) in Freed's volume on study abroad. Instead of examining the predictors of language gain, Ginsberg and Miller examine calendar diaries, narratives, observations, and videotapes to show what the students were actually doing while studying abroad in Russia. The diaries reveal that the students spent a lot of time speaking Russian with Russians outside of the classroom setting. However, they found that there is no association between gains in proficiency and the amount of exposure to native culture (Ginsberg and Miller 2000:256). By looking at individual case studies, they came to several conclusions about student interaction. Quality experiences, reflection on language learning, learning styles, the relationship between in-class and out-of-class learning, and how much and with whom interaction is sustained all seem to influence language learning.

Like the subjects in this dissertation, the above-mentioned studies focus on American students studying abroad. Of much importance to this dissertation; however, is the research done in the 1980s by the Kassel Psycho- and Pragmalinguistic Research Group (KAPPA). The data collected for the research were mainly derived from German students learning French and/or English. The planning and execution of second language performance is at the center of what they term contrastive psycholinguistics (Dechert and Raupach 1979). The studies by KAPPA look primarily at narrative reproductions, but some of the data includes the before and after measurements of one semester of study abroad, which is the focus of the articles by Moehle and Raupach.

Moehle (1984) compared the second language speech production of French speakers learning German and German speakers learning French before and after a semester abroad. After the study-abroad program, the German L2 speakers changed quantitatively in their speech. They spoke faster and in longer segments, whereas the French L2 speakers changed qualitatively in grammar, semantics, and idiomatic language. She noted, however, that the individual strategies for coping with language problems (i.e., in methods of segmentation and in planning times) did not change (Moehle 1984:49).

Raupach (1984) examined the function of formulae in the speech of German learners of French. The speech samples were collected before and after a semester abroad in France. The subjects were asked to respond orally in a language lab to written questions about their upcoming/previous stay in France. Raupach noted that as proficiency increases, the type of formulae used changes. The learner moves from dependency on one type of formulaic speech (fillers and modifiers) to another type

(sentence level organizers). The length of uninterrupted speech also increases, which supports Raupach's claim that the learners have adjusted their planning behavior to fit that of native speakers (1984:131). Raupach's research into formulaic speech will be discussed in greater detail in the section on formulaic language. The next section, however, reviews the development of the ACTFL OPI and the proficiency approach to language testing.

The Proficiency Perspective:

The ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines and the OPI in SLA Research

The following section briefly discusses the historical development of the proficiency-oriented approach to language and the ACTFL OPI. The proficiency-oriented approach emerged in the 1970s as a response to a heightened interest in the communicative results of speech production. Educators and students alike were finding that after years of foreign language learning, the students were unable to communicate orally in the language. In 1978 the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies was formed as a response to international concern over foreign language learning (Omaggio 1986:10). The Commission's report that Americans were incompetent in foreign languages focused the nation on the need for support of second language education programs. The Modern Language Association-American Council of Learned Societies (MLA-ACLS) Language Task Force for the President's Commission recommended nationally recognized proficiency standards and revision and redevelopment of proficiency tests.

In addition to the MLA-ACLS research, the Educational Testing Service (ETS) began the Common Yardstick, a project which looked towards an academic-oriented revision of the proficiency scale developed by the Foreign Service Institute during World War II. Members of the Common Yardstick project included, among others, the English Speaking Union of Great Britain, the German *Volkshochschulverband*, and representatives of the United States government, business and academic groups (Omaggio 1986:11-12). The academic scale that resulted from the project was termed the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) Scale, but ACTFL and ETS further revised the scale with a grant from the government entitled *A Design for Measuring and Communicating Foreign Language Proficiency*. The result was a more detailed listing of what occurred at each level of the scale, so that educators could use the scale levels as oral proficiency guidelines. The Guidelines served as the foundation for the oral proficiency-oriented approach to language teaching and assessment.

The ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview has undergone criticism, both positive and negative, since the development of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines in 1986. Much of the criticism about the ACTFL OPI has focused on the lack of validation studies. (see for example Bachman and Palmer 1981; Bachman and Savignon 1986; Bachman 1988; Buck, Byrnes and Thompson 1989; Clark and Clifford 1988; Lowe 1986; Halleck 1992; Raffaldini 1988; Kramsch 1986; and Lantoff and Frawley 1988.) The 1989 *ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview Tester Training Manual* recently underwent revision in 1999 to include updated guidelines as well as explanatory notes to the guidelines and a glossary of terms. Both sections provide clarification to technical terms

used in the fields of proficiency testing and applied linguistics (see Appendix A for the ACTFL OPI Guidelines).

In the field of SLA, the OPI has been used both as a tool for measuring language proficiency and as the topic of study itself. Studies on repairs and communicative strategies in beginner language (Borras 1995, Liskin-Gasparro 1993, Liskin-Gasparro 1996, Salo-Lee 1993), narrative structure (Liskin-Gasparro 1993), and interview structure (Lazaraton 1991, Lazaraton 1996, Ross 1992, Ross and Berwick 1992, Ross 1993, Sanders 1981, Stewner-Manzanares 1983, van Lier 1989, Young 1995, Young and Milanovic 1992) have all used the OPI. These studies have either contributed to the validation studies or pointed out problems associated with the OPI.

A spin-off of the OPI is the SOPI (Simulated Oral Proficiency Interview). The German Speaking Test (GST) developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) is just one among several SOPIs that have been developed by CAL. Instead of being a face-to-face interview like the ACTFL OPI, the GST is a tape-based test. The participants follow a test booklet and are required to perform various tasks. A full description of the GST is provided in the next chapter. The purpose for developing these SOPIs is threefold: first, difficulty of finding a trained tester in less commonly taught languages; second, the ease of administering of the test versus the OPI, and third, the cost of administering and rating the test versus the OPI. Several studies provide construct validation data via high correlations that suggest the SOPIs are appropriate substitutes for the OPI (Stansfield 1989; Stansfield 1990; Stansfield 1996; Stansfield and Kenyon 1992a; Stansfield and Kenyon 1992b; Kuo and Jiang 1997; Norris 1996; Norris 1997; Kenyon and Tschirner 2000).

Three of the above mentioned articles, Norris' 1996 thesis and resulting 1997 article, and the recent article by Kenyon and Tschirner, suggest construct validity of the GST. Norris (1997) provides an overview of the GST, including its development, format, reliability and validity, and benefits. In light of his 1996 study, Norris questions the validity of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines as an effective model of foreign language proficiency (Norris 1997:15). In spite of his caution against the use of the Guidelines, Norris praised the GST for "eliciting a wide range of German language abilities that involve multiple language functions over a variety of language tasks" (1997:155-156). Kenyon and Tschirner (2000) question the reliability of SOPIs, and the GST in particular, at lower proficiency levels. They administered the GST and the OPI to 20 university students at the end of their fourth semester of German. The results of the tests revealed scores ranging from Novice-High (5) to Intermediate-Low (9) and Intermediate-Mid (6). The GST and the OPI agreed in 90% of the cases, however, two subjects who scored a Novice-High on the OPI had differing GST ratings of Novice-Mid and Intermediate-Low. Since the scores for these students were being used for university gate-keeping purposes, the important issue the study raises is the need for double rating in high-stakes testing situations.

The above mentioned research demonstrates the prevalence of proficiency testing in research and academic settings and the importance of continued research in the field of proficiency testing. The next section reviews formulaic language.

Formulaic Language

In the two previous sections I reviewed studies which have looked at linguistic gains in the study-abroad context and the development of the ACTFL OPI and Guidelines. Researchers have looked at study abroad by measuring various phenomena in SLA, including proficiency as measured by specific criteria, speech planning, fluency, strategies, and repairs. The OPI and interview formats based upon the OPI have been used in a number of the study-abroad studies and other SLA studies to present proficiency levels of certain populations of learners. It is a widely used and commonly accepted standardized means of language assessment.

This study explores the discourse of the study-abroad students compared to non-study-abroad students within a certain range of proficiency levels. The GST offers a global rating which indicates the ability to perform various language functions. It is a holistic measurement that determines a level for speakers based upon their strengths and weaknesses. In this study, the discourse of the participants' responses to the GST is further examined for their use of formulaic language. As previously noted, formulaic language appears as chunks of speech that have been acquired by the learner and are retrieved as a whole. Formulaic language as used in this study is defined in the next chapter.

This section reviews selected literature on formulaic language. First I survey the problem associated with defining formulaic language by looking at studies similar in nature to this dissertation which use formulaic language as a measure in association of with fluency. Then I tie this research on non-native speakers into work done on native speakers. Finally I present an historical overview of important works on formulaic

language that have attempted to provide models of formulaic language in a broader view of language production.

Research on formulaic language has been done in various fields in language acquisition, including child language development (i.e., Wong-Fillmore 1976 and Peters 1983), and adult learners in and out of the classroom (i.e., Yorio 1989, and Bolander 1989). There is no one theory of formulaic language in relation to language production nor is there a consensus as to the terminology, definition or function of formulaic language. ACTFL's (1999) definition of formulaic language refers to "fixed, stereotyped utterances used in routine social situations." Formulaic and rote utterances are regarded as hallmarks of novice level speech. These utterances are essential to the performance of tasks such as greeting, asking names, directions, or prices. Wray and Perkins note that over 40 terms have been used to describe one or more types or subtypes of what they term formulaic language (2000:3). Their examples include formulae, idioms, routine formulae, and prefabricated routines and patterns.

The problem in defining and identifying the functions of formulaic language seems to lie in the focus of the research. The following studies by Lafford, Raupach, Grenfield and Harris, Ejzenberg, and Hasselgren demonstrate this problem. They look at formulaic language in association with fluency and second language acquisition, but emphasize different roles for formulaic language. In general, a number of functions of formulaic language have been discussed in the literature, such as strategies for communication and planning, signaling power, and cohesion.

As mentioned in the previous section, both Lafford (1995) and Raupach (1984) used formulaic language as a measurement for language progress as the result of study

abroad. Lafford associated formulae with communication strategies. Raupach classified formulae as fillers, modifiers, and organizers that assist a speaker in speech planning and ultimately maintaining an air of fluency. Raupach's study also provides the basis for the working definitions of formulaic speech in this dissertation. Formulae are identified by Raupach as speech segments which are found in between pauses and hesitations.

Raupach proposes two classifications of formulae: (1) fillers and modifiers and (2) organizers. The first are "speech events which do not have an immediate impact on the structure of the utterance 'in process' but which, among other things, serve to give the speaker additional time for his planning activities" (Raupach 1984:123). Raupach's examples of fillers include filled pauses (i.e., *euh*) and lexical fillers (i.e., *je ne sais pas* or *bon*). Modifiers can be identified through overuse (i.e., *naturellement*, *exactement*). The second type of formulae are "organizers which contribute to the development of ongoing speech in that they help the speaker to structure his performance on the text level as well as on the sentence and phrase level" (Raupach 1984:123). Organizers provide a familiar structure for phrases and sentences (i.e., *c'est* and *je crois bien*). Raupach notes that as proficiency increases, the learner moves from dependency on fillers and modifiers (type 1) to sentence level organizers (type 2).

Grenfield and Harris (1998) seem to combine the goals of Lafford and Raupach. They consider fillers and prepackaged forms as communication strategies which provide cohesion. Fillers sustain the conversation and prepackaged forms give the speakers time to reflect and adjust their speech (Grenfield and Harris 1998:26).

Instead of focusing on speech planning and communication strategies, Ejzenberg (1992, 2000) emphasizes the importance of formulaic speech as a strategy for producing

fluent speech. From her perspective, repetition and formulaic speech are “strategies to maintain an air of fluency as well as those used to optimize speech fluency and to compensate for eventual shortcomings” (1992:196). Ejzenberg notes that “the role of formulaic speech can be situated as one manifestation of the principle of repetition in speech production” (1992:249).

Ejzenberg’s definition of formulaic speech is derived from definitions by Bolinger (1968), Nattinger (1985), and Krashen and Scarcella (1978):

Formulaic chunks were defined in the analysis as invariable and/or practically invariable prefabricated utterances which are stored, retrieved and uttered as one indivisible or preassembled unit (Nattinger, 1985). There are two types of “preassembled chunks” (Bolinger, 1968), namely “fixed” and “semi-fixed” ones, which have been drawn from Krashen & Scarcella’s (1978) distinction between routine and patterns (1992:250).

Ejzenberg finds that formulaic speech contributes to fluency at all levels when used correctly and helps speakers maintain an air of fluency (1992:296). She notes that fluent speech entails maintaining an air of fluency by preventing breakdowns and by juggling shortcomings from the domains of linguistic competence, which is grammatical accuracy, and discourse competence, which is the ability to produce coherent, cohesive stretches of speech (2000:288). Ejzenberg notes:

although formulaic speech was sometimes a contributing factor to increased fluency, it had a detrimental effect on fluency whenever proficiency problems interfered, that is (1) when the retrieval and production processes were not fully automatic, (2) when there was simultaneous retrieval and merging of incompatible chunks, and/or (3) when there was a misfit between the chunk retrieved and its context of insertion (2000:308).

Her results show that “as with repetition, high fluency speakers used more fillers and formulaic speech in their monologues, perhaps because they needed time to organize their discourse and maintain the speech flow” (2000:308). In sum, Ejzenberg’s dissertation on fluency overlaps with Raupach’s study on speech planning.

Hasselgren’s 1998 dissertation resembles in part Ejzenberg’s study. The focus of Hasselgren’s study is small words and valid testing, fluency being at the center of the issue. “Smallwords,” as Hasselgren has coined it, appears to be yet another word for a type of formulaic language. Hasselgren’s critique of the Norwegian English test used in comprehensive schools is the lack of performance descriptors relating to fluency. Much in the same way this dissertation does, Hasselgren turns to smallwords as a means of describing language use which distinguishes more from less fluent performances. Hasselgren defines *smallwords* as “small words and phrases, occurring with high frequency in the spoken language, that help to keep our speech flowing, yet do not contribute essentially to the message itself” (1998:155). They are linguistic markers that add coherence to fluent speech (Hasselgren 1998:155-158).

Hasselgren uses relevance theory (Sperber and Wilson 1995) to link small words and fluency. According to Hasselgren, the main part of relevance theory is making sure that listeners understand what is being said. She notes that “this skill- in keeping communication running smoothly and as intended- is clearly different from the ability to use words and grammar to phrase propositions accurately” (Hasselgren 1998:268).

Hasselgren delimits the small words in her study to a set of 19 words: *well, right, all right, okay, oh, ah, you know, I think, I mean, like, sort of/kind of, a bit, just, or something, not really, and everything/that/stuff/things, you know, you see, I see*

(1998:188). She first looks at the position and frequency of small words in the utterance. Her findings resemble those of Raupach's study. The more fluent students had a wider range of small words than the less fluent, but a narrower range than native speakers (Hasselgren 1998:207). Hasselgren then looks at the signaling power of small words by examining seven different types of signals: turntaking/holding, oblique response, gear changing, mid-utterance break, cognitive change of state, hedging, acknowledgement, and appeal (1998:257). Hasselgren concludes that the more fluent speakers use small words in a more native-like manner than less fluent speakers, but were limited in the small words they used for the functions (1998:256-262). In sum, Hasselgren provides quantitative and qualitative evidence that *smallwords* are important to fluency.

Operationalizing Formulaic Language

The above studies, which analyze both the function and form of formulaic language, provide important insight into the role of formulaic language in discourse. The studies by Raupach (1984), Ejzenberg (1992), and Grenfield and Harris (1998) viewed formulaic language as a strategy for speech planning that leads to more fluent speech. Hasselgren (1998) and Grenfield and Harris (1998) both noted that formulaic speech adds cohesion to a text. In addition to the functions of formulaic language, there also appear to be correlations in the amount and types of formulaic speech used by language learners. Raupach (1984) noted that preference of formulae type changes with proficiency. Hasselgren's (1998) study revealed that more fluent speakers had a wider range of *smallwords* and used them in a more native-like manner. Ejzenberg (1992) also found that high fluency speakers use more fillers and formulaic speech. In light of these

studies, formulaic language can be summed up as a strategy used by language learners to plan and organize their discourse. It adds cohesion and increases fluency, and is more likely to appear more often and in more forms as fluency increases.

This description of formulaic language use by language learners corresponds with native speaker research by Wong-Fillmore and Tannen. As previously noted, Wong-Fillmore describes formulaic language as “a linguistic resource they have that enables them to formulate what they have to say quickly, to organize it more or less coherently as they are speaking, and to connect up bits and pieces of the discourse as it develops” (1994:245). As the above studies with non-native speakers suggest, formulaic language is a strategy used by native speakers to organize language and to keep the flow going. Tannen’s view of formulaic language is similar to Wong-Fillmore’s. She views formulaic language as the foundation of language. She notes that formulaic language is “a resource for creativity...it is the play between fixity and novelty that makes possible the creation of meaning” (1989:37). These articles suggest that in native speaker discourse, formulaic language appears to provide the framework for propositional speech, the creation of unique utterances in the language to convey a state of affairs.

The above current research suggests a continuum between propositional and fixed language, with the fixed language supporting the propositional speech. In fact, most research into formulaic language is relatively recent, spanning the last 30 years or so. As indicated by Weinert (1995) and others, research on formulaic language appears to have begun as a reaction to Chomsky’s rule generated grammar, which argues that language production is novel. (See Chomsky 1957, 1964, 1965.) Weinert (1995:180) notes:

...there have always been pockets within linguistics, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics which have suggested that ready-made chunks of unanalyzed language are as important as productive rules (Bolinger 1976; Coulmas 1979, 1981; VanLancker 1975; Widdowson 1984, 1990; Yorio 1980). Peters (1983) and more recently Nattinger and DeCarrio (1992) suggest that the role of ready-made chunks of language in L1 and L2 development may be underestimated.

The debate is centered on language production and whether language is creative (i.e., rule generated) or consists of recycled memorized chunks. Ellis cites one of the earliest definitions of formulaic language from Lyons, “formulaic speech consists of ‘expressions which are learnt as unanalysable wholes and employed on particular occasions.’”(Lyons 1968:177 as cited in Ellis 1994:84)

Surprisingly, Pawley and Syder (1983) are early challengers to Chomsky’s (1957, 1965) generative grammar. They question the issue of native-like selection and native-like fluency by language learners. Their theory is that fluent and idiomatic control of a language rests to a considerable extent on knowledge of a body of lexicalized sentence stems (1983:191). A lexicalized sentence stem “is a unit of clause length whose grammatical form and lexical content is wholly or largely fixed; its fixed elements form a standard label for a culturally recognized concept, a term in the language” (1983:191-192). In addition to fixed stems are semi-lexicalized sequences. Pawley and Syder admit that their theory goes against not only Chomsky’s view of language, but also Occam’s Razor, which states that “entities are not to be increased in number beyond what is necessary” (Mellor 1992:35). Pawley and Syder state that “insofar as many regular morpheme sequences are known both holistically (as lexicalized units) and analytically

(as products of syntactic rules) it is necessary to specify these sequences at least twice in the grammar” (1983:192). As with Tannen, Pawley and Syder believe that memorized sentences and phrases are the normal building blocks of fluent spoken discourse (1983:208).

Early research on formulaic language by Krashen and Scarcella (1978) provides a means of identification and suggests possible functions of formulaic language. Like Hakuta (1976), Krashen and Scarcella focus on routines and patterns in language acquisition and performance (Ellis 1994:84). They define prefabricated routines as “memorized whole utterances or phrases, such as ‘How are you?’” (1978:283). Prefabricated patterns, on the other hand, are partly creative and partly memorized, such as “that’s a ____ (pen, knife, banana)” (1978:283-284). Both routines and patterns are associated with automatic speech. Krashen and Scarcella come to two main conclusions about routines and patterns. First, routines and patterns help the learner participate in language when the learner is not yet competent in the language. Second, routines and patterns do not serve a primary role in language acquisition and performance. (1978:283)

A debate arising out of Krashen and Scarcella’s work is the notion that once a learner begins to analyze memorized chunks of language, the ability to use that chunk as formulaic language diminishes. In response to Krashen and Scarcella’s research, Kanno (1993) asserts that formulaic utterances remain chunks even after their syntactic structure becomes apparent to the learner. The utterances serve the speaker in economizing on speech. He notes that the debate in the literature stems from the source of rules in the production of an utterance. Krashen and Scarcella state that formulaic chunks develop differently than rules, whereas Wong-Fillmore, Peters, and Clark maintain formulaic

expressions are data sources for rule analysis. Kanno maintains both could be right (1993:75-79).

Work on formulaic language from 1990s to the present day includes research by Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992), Weinert (1995), DeCock (1998), Howarth (1998), Oppenheim (2000), Wood (2001), Wray (1999, 2000), and Wray and Perkins (2001). The research has attempted to provide models of formulaic language, which tend to overlap, complement, and build upon each other. These models also tend to be extensive and complex, making them more prescriptive and restrictive in nature. However, they do provide important insight into the role of formulaic language in discourse and they support the notion that formulaic language plays an important role in learner speech.

Nattinger and DeCarrico's 1992 book, *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching*, identifies and for pedagogical purposes categorizes lexical phrases according to their form and function. Their categorization is extensive and its intent aims at providing a basis for language teaching. They define lexical phrases as

form/function composites, lexico-grammatical units that occupy a position somewhere between the traditional poles of lexicon and syntax: they are similar to lexicon in being treated as units, yet most of them consist of more than one word, and many of them can, at the same time, be derived from the regular rules of syntax, just like other sentences (1992:36).

Lexical phrases are distinguished from syntactic strings and from collocations. They are divided into four categories of polywords (i.e., for that matter), institutionalized expressions (i.e., how are you?), phrasal constraints (i.e., good ____: morning, evening), and sentence builders (i.e., I think that...) (1993:37-44). Nattinger and DeCarrico further

divided lexical phrases by function, similar to the idea of Wilkins' notional-functional approach to language (1993:59). The functional groups are social interactions, necessary topics, and discourse devices. The three categories are similar in nature. Importantly, lexical phrases function to maintain conversations, add cohesion, and organize discourse.

Weinert (1995) extensively reviews the role of formulaic language within the field of SLA. She recognizes that formulaic language has not received much attention in the field and no coherent model has yet emerged of its role in language acquisition (1995:180). By surveying previous research in the field, Weinert details the problems in the identification of formulaic language. She organizes the previous research into three functional categories: (1) communicative, (2) productive, and (3) strategic (1995:186-195). As a communicative strategy, formulaic language assists in communication. Weinert notes that "these units may or may not have target-like function, but allow learners entry into communication" (1995:186). Raupach's 1984 study (mentioned above) is the basis for Weinert's view of formulaic language as a production strategy. Importantly, Weinert recognizes the compatibility of Raupach's and Nattinger and DeCarrico's studies. She notes that in Nattinger and DeCarrico's terms, formulas are seen by Raupach as fluency devices and/or discourse organizers (1995:194). Learner strategies vary by learner, be it children or adults in and out of the classroom. Yorio (1989) finds differences between children and adults in that children use formulaic language as a communicative and learning strategy more extensively than adults (as cited in Weinert 1995:189). Weinert also notes that studies related to learning in or out of the classroom (i.e., Yorio 1989, Rehbein 1987, Bolander 1989, Ellis 1984, Felix 1981, and Weinert 1987, 1994) suggest "the positive role of formulaic language is related to:

- a. chunks of varying sizes, but especially below clause size;
- b. situational context;
- c. control on the part of the learner; and
- d. analysis” (1994: 194).

Weinert recognizes the fact that there needs to be a consensus on the definition/identification of formulaic language and its role in language theory (1995:196).

Both DeCock and Howarth put formulaic language in the field of phraseology.

DeCock (1998:60) sums up the formulaic language movement as follows:

Phraseology has attracted a lot of attention over the past two decades. This growing interest in the study of what Fillmore (1978:149) calls the “phrasicon” i.e., the various ready-made expressions that “have to be viewed both as lexical items and as having grammatical structure on a higher level than that of word formation,” goes hand in hand with the increasingly widespread view that prefabricated expressions rather than words may well be the usual building blocks of both written and spoken discourse (e.g., Altenberg 1993; Nattinger and DeCarrico 1992; Kjellmer 1991; Pawley and Syder 1983; Bolinger 1976).

DeCock places formulaic language narrowly in the field of phraseology instead of the more encompassing field of SLA. Her corpus study focuses on native and non-native use of formulae. Formulae are “multi-word units performing a pragmatic and /or discourse-structuring function and have been characterized as being typically native-like” (DeCock 1998:59).

Howarth (1998) addresses phraseological competence as a component of language proficiency and attempts to describe and categorize collocations in English. His work is, however, not on spoken language but academic writing. He defines collocations

as “combinations of words with a syntactic function as constituents of sentences” (1998:24). The purpose of his categorizations is to provide a framework for uncovering stages in L2 development and strategies of L2 learning that would not be found by purely quantitative methods (1998:42). He criticizes Weinert for her lack of precision in terminology. She uses various terms interchangeably and Howarth notes that several of her terms have different meanings in different fields of research (1998:25). He bases his model of phraseological categories not on computational statistics as others in the field of ELT (English Language Teaching), but rather on internal form and external function of word combinations including semantic specialization, syntactic restriction, and the blocking of lexical substitution (1998:27). This dissertation also looks at collocations, but in a different manner than Howarth. His model distinguishes between functional expressions, which are idiomatic or non-idiomatic, and composite units, which are either grammatical or lexical, idiomatic or non-idiomatic. He notes there is continuum between idioms and free collocations and that a problem in identifying restrictive collocations is deciding what substitutions are allowable.

Instead of providing a model of form and function for formulaic language, Oppenheim (2000) stresses the importance of recurrent sequences for nonnative speaker fluency and cognition in light of current language theories. She discusses theories behind recurrent sequences, including neural network theories (instance theory and strength theory) and conceptual network theories (hierarchical chunking theory). Her data concludes that subjects used recurrent sequences extensively (48-80%) and the sequences were also primarily idiosyncratic. She also notes that nonnative speaker fluency has been conceptualized along two dimensions: native-like selection and native-like delivery

(2000:220). In both there is an emphasis on the importance of using short and familiar sequences of words to achieve fluent speech production in real time.

Wood (2001) provides another study on formulaic language and fluency. Like Nattinger and DeCarrico, his study looks to formulaic language for a model of fluent speech production and for teaching fluency. He defines fluency as a function of pauses and hesitations and their connection with pragmatics and structure (2001:574). He bases his work on research on the idea of automaticity and formulaic language units, multi-word strings or frames which are stored and retrieved as wholes in long-term memory. Wood believes that this area of research “has rich potential for helping to explain how spontaneous speech can occur under the heavy processing and time constraints of real-life discourse” (2001:574). Wood’s study ties in with the notion of speech planning and communication strategies, in that formulaic language is used as a strategy for language processing under time constraints.

As mentioned above, formulaic language is not exclusive to second language acquisition and appears in work done on adult native speakers, aphasics, and first language acquisition. Wray (1999) provides an extensive review of the literature in each of the above mentioned fields. Of interest here are her reviews on formulaic language with adult native speakers and second language learners.

In surveying the literature on adult native speakers, Wray proposes that the categorizations of formulaic language that focus on word form, such as frequency rates, and syntactic and semantic characteristics, fall short of characterizing formulaic sequences and must be combined with function, specifically either processing short cuts or social interaction (1999:216). She bases the idea that formulaic language provides the

speaker and listener with processing short cuts on theories by Saussure, Becker, and Bolinger (1999:213). Bolinger sums up the notion most clearly: “our language does not expect us to build everything starting with lumber, nails, and blueprint, but provides us with an incredibly large number of prefabs” (1976:1 as cited in Wray 1999:213). Hymes (1968) provides the basis for her notion that formulaic language is tied to social interactions, for instance in the speech acts of greeting and thanking (1999:214).

In regard to second language learners, Wray (1999) emphasizes the fact that different learners use formulaic sequences differently. This conclusion complements that of Weinert’s. Age and environment play important roles. In brief, Wray (1999) notes that studies on young children reveal that formulaic language is used similarly in second language acquisition to that of first language acquisition. Teenage and adult naturalistic learners use formulaic language for effective communication without accuracy, whereas classroom learners are accurate, but do not use them idiomatically.

Wray and Perkins (2000) propose a model for formulaic language that “accounts for the uses to which the individual puts formulaic language, and specifically, what determines the choice, for that person, of a holistic or an analytic processing strategy at any given moment” (2000:11). Framing their model are the constraints of social interaction and the processing capacity of an individual. They present two tables demonstrating how formulaic sequences are used as devices of social interaction as well as compensatory devices for memory limitations. Social interaction includes such functions as manipulation of others, asserting separate identity and asserting group identity (2000:14). Formulaic sequences as compensatory devices for memory limitations include aspects found in the above mentioned studies, such as Raupach’s

processing shortcuts. Table 1 below is their table on compensatory devices for memory limitations (2000:16). The information in Wray and Perkins' table reiterates some of the same ideas found in the above mentioned studies. For instance, in terms of function and form, the above charts contain similarities with Nattinger and DeCarrico's categorization of lexical phrases. Wray and Perkins note that formulaic language aids production and comprehension by providing processing shortcuts, which assists in fluent speech (2000:18). This is the same premise tested by Raupach (1984), Ejzenberg (1992), Grenfield and Harris (1998), and Hasselgren (1998).

In conclusion, the topic of formulaic language has a short history yet has crossed many subfields of language, including SLA. Researchers are seeking a consensus on the identification, labeling, and function of formulaic language. In addition, there is a drive for a theory of language production centered on automaticity and formulaic language. Echoing throughout the research is the notion that formulaic language is an essential part of language production, often to the extent that it is considered the framework for propositional speech. Formulaic language is also viewed as a strategy for fluent speech production because it adds cohesion and helps speakers plan and organize speech. The next chapter details the methodology used in this study.

Table 1: Wray and Perkins' table depicting formulaic sequences as compensatory devices for memory limitations

Function	Effects	Type	Examples
Processing short cuts	Increased production speed and/or fluency	• Standard phrases (with or without gaps) • Standard ideational labels with agreed meanings	• Put the kettle on, will you?; I have known _ for _ years in my capacity as _ • Personal computer, bullet point; the current economic climate
Time-buyers	• Vehicles for fluency, rhythm and emphasis • Planning time without losing the turn	• Standard phrases with simple meanings • Fillers • Turn-holders • Discourse shape markers • Repetitions of preceding input	• Make a decision; draw a conclusion; a sea change • If the truth be told; if you want my opinion • And another thing • There are three points I want to make. Firstly...Secondly...Thirdly/Lastly • (A: What's the capital of Peru?) B: What's the capital of Peru? (Lima isn't it?)
Manipulation of others	Gaining and retaining access to information otherwise unlikely to be remembered	• Mnemonics • Lengthy texts one is required to learn • Rehearsal	• Thirty days hath September... • Shall I compare thee to a summer's day? • <i>Rehearsing a telephone number while looking for a pen</i>

CHAPTER THREE: METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

This chapter covers the method of data collection and the various ways the data were analyzed. It is divided into two sections. The first section reviews the methods of data collection. The second section describes the steps used in the analysis of the speech samples.

Method of Data Collection

The first part of this chapter describes the recruitment and description of the research participant as well the method of data collection. In addition a rationale is provided for using the German Speaking Test (GST) to collect the data. A brief description of the GST follows the rationale.

A. The Research Participants

The data for this study consist of language samples elicited by administering the GST to two groups of volunteer participants. Both groups consist of North American college students who were taking German courses. The first group consists of students studying abroad at the University of Stuttgart. The study-abroad students would have been enrolled in a third-year German course at their home institutions had they not been studying abroad. The second group consists of University of Tennessee students who at the time of the data collection were in a third or fourth-year college German course.

The first group of subjects was a diverse group of exchange students spending an academic year abroad in Stuttgart, Germany. The students were enrolled in German as a Foreign Language courses at the *Sprachenzentrum*, an institute at the University of

Stuttgart. The objective of the recruitment was to find students who would be enrolled in a third-year German course if they were at-home instead of studying abroad. This assumes two years of college level German courses, the minimal level that junior year study-abroad students must attain before they go abroad. I recruited the students informally if they responded “yes” to the following question: “If you were taking German at home, would you be in a third-year college German course?” Eight exchange students fit this profile and seven readily agreed to participate in the study once I described the nature of the study to them. Fitting the test into the students’ schedules was challenging and could account for the fact that the eighth student did not volunteer for the study.

At the time of the data collection, the second group of subjects from the University of Tennessee at Knoxville had no academic experience in a German speaking country. This group acts as a control group for the study and was recruited on a volunteer basis from the third-year German conversation and composition course and the fourth-year history of the German language course at the University of Tennessee. All students in the two courses were offered the test. Again, I described the study to them as an examination of the language of people who study abroad versus those who stay home. I also explained that they would be required to take the GST at their convenience. Seven students volunteered for the study. Some of the other students in the courses were inappropriate candidates for the study because of their backgrounds, including experience abroad.

The instructional contact hours of the students vary within and across the two groups. The background information on the students was elicited through the warm-up

section of the GST, which contains a question asking the participants how long they had been studying German. Sometimes the participants mentioned the number of years in high school and college and in other instances they mentioned that they had been learning German for a certain number of years.

In the Stuttgart group the range of years studying German varies from a little under one year to off and on for ten years. However, in looking at the individual responses, most of the subjects had had about two years of college German. Subjects Eins, Fünf, and Sieben (I chose to label them with German numbers instead of names) had four years of high school German. Subjects Fünf and Sieben had an additional two years in college, whereas subject Eins had an additional one and a half years in college. Subject Zwei stated that he had had one semester, but told me before the test that he had been in an intensive summer program as well. Subject Drei stated that she had been learning German on and off since 1989. Before the test she mentioned that she probably had four years total. Subject Vier had two years of college level instruction and Sechs had three years college level instruction.

Like the Stuttgart group, the Knoxville group also had backgrounds consisting of a combination of high school and college German. Subject One (again, the subjects have been identified with numbers instead of names) began learning German at the age of 15. Subject Two claimed five years of instruction, whereas Seven had four to five years. Subject Four had five to six years of instruction. Subject Five had four years in high school and participant Six was in her third year of college level German. Table 2 categorizes the backgrounds of the students according to their responses on the GST.

Table 2: German Language Background of the Participants

SUBJECT	HIGH SCHOOL	UNIVERSITY	OTHER
Eins	4 years	1 1/2 years	
Zwei		1 Semester	7 week intensive
Drei			on and off since 89
Vier		2 years	
Fünf	4 years	2 years	
Sechs		3 years	
Sieben	4 years	2 years	
One			since the age of 15
Two			5 years
Three			4 years
Four			5-6 years
Five	4 years (unclear)		
Six		in 3rd year	
Seven			4-5 years

With the exception of participants Zwei and Five, the language learning backgrounds of the participants consists of at least two to three years of college level instruction.

B. Data Collection

In order to collect speech samples and measure oral proficiency, I administered the GST, a standardized tape recorded test developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics, to the volunteer participants. The examination was administered according to the test marketer's protocol and standard at the language laboratory classroom facilities of the *Sprachenzentrum* at the University of Stuttgart and in the Language Laboratory (Language Resources Center) at UTK. The participants were tested either individually or in small groups of two or three. The participants being tested in small groups were isolated from each other and the test was administered from the console to each individual student in a headphone-equipped workstation. The Stuttgart students were tested in February and March 1999, whereas the Tennessee students were tested a month later in March and April 1999. The data collection was spread out due to scheduling conflicts with the participants and the fact that the researcher was working at the *Sprachenzentrum* in Stuttgart and could not collect samples in Knoxville until the semester break.

C. Rationale for the Use of the GST

The speech samples were collected using the GST, a standardized tape recorded test developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL). The GST is based on and evaluated according to the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Guidelines. I chose the GST instead

of the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) to collect the data due to the convenience of the administration of the GST and the expense of the ACTFL OPI.

In spite of the controversy surrounding the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (for example Bachmann 1988, Bachmann and Savignon 1986, Lowe 1986), the Guidelines and the two tests based upon the Guidelines (the ACTFL OPI and SOPIs developed by CAL, including the GST) offer a widely respected standardized, holistic measure of oral proficiency based upon patterns of strengths and weaknesses (see Lowe and Liskin-Gasparro 1986). The GST assesses not only fluency, but also accuracy, content and context, communicative tasks, vocabulary, sociolinguistic ability and pronunciation. The test also assesses the spoken language of the participants irrespective of their background. Because the participants in this study come from varying backgrounds, an essential aspect of this study is the employment of a proficiency test which provides a taped language sample that demonstrates the level of the spoken language regardless of the students' backgrounds.

D. Description of the GST

The GST is a tape-recorded test approximately 45 minute long consisting of a combination of 15 picture, topic, and situation-based tasks. The instructions for the test are given in English and are presented on tape as well as written in the test booklet. The test takers are given an allotted amount of time to respond to each question. The following is a brief description of the structure of the test and the rating of the tasks and end score.

The structure of the GST resembles the ACTFL OPI in that it is divided into four parts. The first part of the test provides the test takers with a warm-up consisting of personal questions. The next part of the test consists of five pictures that attempt to elicit Intermediate and Advanced-level functions. These tasks and the tasks in part three resemble the process of level checks (where the candidate performs successfully) and probes (to establish the ceiling performance level). The third part of the test consists of five topics at the Intermediate through Superior level. The last part presents situations at the Advanced and Superior levels only. There is no specific wind down section to the GST, although it is suggested that if the examinees are expected to be lower than Intermediate-High, the test should be stopped after Topic 2 in the second section of the test. Table 3 (Center for Applied Linguistics 1995) presents a detailed description of the various functions according to test section and proficiency level. The test often states the speech function to the test taker. Topic 3, for example, reads:

Imagine you are an exchange student in Germany and you are talking to your friends about various options for living arrangements. One of your friends says that it's wise for students to live at home with their parents while attending college. Another thinks that it's important to live away from home. Your friend, Walter, asks you what you think the advantages and disadvantages are of living away from home while attending college. After you hear Walter ask his question, **state the advantages and disadvantages of living away from home while attending college** (emphasis in original).

Not all prompts are as explicit to the test taker regarding the particular function of the task at hand. The purpose of Topic 2 is to get the test taker to explain a process, but is phrased as follows: "After Sonja asks her question, **explain to her how to make an**

Table 3: Structure of the GST (Center for Applied Linguistics 1995:16)

Task	Level	Speech Function
Warm-up	N-I	Answer Personal questions
Picture 1	I	Ask Questions
Picture 2	I	Describe a place/activities
Picture 3	I	Give directions
Picture 4	A	Narrate in present time
Picture 5	A	Narrate in past time
Topic 1	I	Discuss personal activities
Topic 2	A	Explain a process
Topic 3	A	State advantages and disadvantages
Topic 4	S	Support an opinion
Topic 5	S	Hypothesize on an impersonal topic
Situation 1	A	Speak with tact
Situation 2	S	Speak to persuade someone
Situation 3	S	Propose and defend course of action
Situation 4	S	Give a talk
Situation 5	A	Give advice

appointment to see the dentist” (emphasis in original).

Each of the 15 responses to the tasks is rated and individually scored according to the *Oral Proficiency Rating Guidelines* developed by the ACTFL. The score for the interview is then rated holistically according to the scores of the 15 responses. Therefore, Intermediate-level speakers, for example, can receive various scores for the individual tasks, ranging from Novice to Advanced and still be holistically rated as an Intermediate-level speaker. This appears to respond to the compensatory nature of OPI scores below superior, where particularly strong aspects of a performance may compensate for other weaknesses. For more details on the GST refer to the *Rater Training Kit* available from the Center for Applied Linguistics.

Analysis of the Data

The data analysis consists of two distinct phases. The first phase was to determine the proficiency ratings of the subjects. In analyzing the transcripts of the speech samples, it became apparent that the formulaic use of language was an important feature that distinguished the two groups of subjects. Therefore, the second phase was to analyze formulaic language. Since various types of formulaic language were identified in the study, this second phase involved multiple steps. The following reviews the steps taken in analyzing the data.

A. Accessing the Proficiency Levels

In the first part of the analysis, the proficiency levels of the subjects were determined. The tapes were rated by the author according to the *German Speaking Test*

Rater Training Kit. Six of the fourteen tests were then randomly picked and sent off to the Center for Applied Linguistics for a double rating to confirm the accuracy of the ratings I had produced.

B. Transcription of the Data

I employed the recognized conventions of discourse analysis in the transcription of the tape recorded responses. When possible, I have used the same transcription conventions as found in Tannen (1984:xix). Since Tannen's works on conversational analysis are considered standards in the field, her use of notations is a well established means of transcription coding. The goals of the transcriptions were to identify words, pauses, filled pauses, accelerated speech, decelerated speech, final sentence intonation, and unusually stressed words. Since accent and pronunciation are not at issue in this study, IPA was not used and the transcriptions resemble that of standard written German. It is a given that the subject involved in this study are not going to have perfect pronunciation. However, obvious mispronunciations and self corrections were noted. For instance, subject Eins corrected *gefunden* to *gefunden*. Partial words in instances of stuttering and self correction were also noted. Non-lexical fillers were represented by *uh* or *uhm*. In order to measure pause length and acceleration of discourse, the tapes were digitized and analyzed using *SoundEdit™ 16 Version 2.0* software. A key to transcription conventions is located in Appendix C.

C. Establishing the Analytical Categories

In order to decide what discourse features may be salient in the speech of the study-abroad students in comparison to the at-home students, I transcribed the audio-taped tests and analyzed the language samples. I made the following general observations about the speech samples of the study-abroad students. Their responses seemed to be longer and their vocabulary seemed more extensive. The flow of their responses seemed to be occurring in smooth chunks of discourse. They seemed less hesitant than the at-home students and more conversational. Finally, their overall discourse seemed more cohesive and smooth. These observations led me to the question of how to analyze the data.

Since my interests lie in discourse and conversational analysis, the original intent of this study was to approach the language of the students as discourse. I first looked to works by Tannen (1984, 1989) and Schiffren (1987, 1991, 1994, 1996) on conversational analysis, discourse analysis, and discourse markers for appropriate frameworks that would be applicable to the speech samples and would reveal the distinctive differences between the study-abroad students and the at-home students. These works look at conversation by analyzing a variety of items, such as adjacency pairs, turn-taking, speech acts, discourse markers, and narrative structure. However, I did not consider these approaches to be appropriate because of the nature of my data. The language samples I had to work with were from an oral test. The test interaction was artificial so that turn-taking and associated linguistic behaviors were excluded by the structure of the GST. Moreover, the instructions on the GST direct specific speech acts and narratives. Finally, it was not my intent to look at the construct validity of the GST.

One feature from the field of discourse analysis that did seem appropriate for my data was the use of discourse markers. Discourse markers are words that signal transitions in conversations and add cohesion to a text. For example, native speakers of English often use the word *ok* for various reasons, including shifting a conversation from one topic to another (Shriffin 1987). However, I ruled out the analysis of discourse markers both because the students' level of speech was not sophisticated enough to employ a variety of markers and the speech samples long enough to show conversational topic shifts, something which the directions on the GST discourage in any case.

In addition to looking to the fields of conversational analysis and discourse analysis, I reviewed studies in the area of applied linguistics that viewed language as discourse. Specifically I referred to those on repairs (i.e., Smartt 1998, Borrás 1995, Salo-Lee 1993, Liskin-Gasparro 1996, and Tarone 1980), communication strategies (i.e., Faerch and Kasper 1983, 1984, Oxford and Cohen 1992, Tarone 1980, McDonough 1995), communicative competence (Canale 1988, Byrnes 1989), and fluency (i.e., Derwing 1990), since they treat some of the issues I noticed in my data. While these approaches to learner discourse have also been treated in the study-abroad context, none of them seemed to fully address the various observations I had made.

While focusing on two different areas of second language acquisition, two studies, one by Ejzenberg (1992) on fluency and the other by Raupach (1984) on speech production, addressed the issue of formulaic language as applied to learner speech. Unlike the other approaches to discourse that I had considered for analysis, the formulaic use of language fully addressed the observations I had made about the speech samples of the study-abroad students. In particular, it described the chunking, the smoothness, and

the cohesiveness of the discourse, and the more conversational-like responses of the study-abroad students. Based upon my observations about the speech samples and further research on formulaic language, the following discourse features were considered important for measurement: (1) rate of speech, (2) number of words per response, and (3) amount and variety of formulaic language per response.

D. Definition, Classification, and Identification of Formulaic Language

The speech samples for each subject were the responses to the last fourteen questions of the GST, ranging from Intermediate to Superior level in difficulty. I looked not only at each question as an isolated response, but contextualized it also with the other responses to get a more comprehensive view of the subject's language. The test responses were analyzed for the subjects' use of formulaic language. Formulaic language is viewed in this study as structures and word combinations that the subjects produce in an automatic manner, often repetitiously. Three types of formulaic language are identified in this study: lexical fillers, grammatical frames, and lexical complements. The following provides working definitions of each type.

1. Lexical Fillers:

The definition of lexical fillers in this study draws on research done by Hasselgren and Raupach. Hasselgren defines smallwords as "small words and phrases occurring with high frequency in the spoken language that help to keep our speech flowing, yet do not contribute essentially to the message itself" (1998:155). Similarly, Raupach defines fillers and modifiers as "speech events which do not have an immediate

impact on the structure of the utterance ‘in process’ but which, among other things, serve to give the speaker additional time for his planning activities” (1984:123). He also notes that modifiers can be identified through overuse. Based upon this, lexical fillers are defined in this study as *high frequency words and phrases that do not contribute to the message, but which help the flow of discourse by filling empty space and providing time for planning further discourse.*

Unlike fillers, grammatical frames and lexical complements contribute to the message.

2. *Grammatical Frames:*

The idea of grammatical frames is based on Raupach’s idea of organizers and Krashen and Scarcella’s notion of prefabricated patterns. Unlike other studies which tend to be restrictive, both Raupach and Krashen and Scarcella provide simple yet inclusive definitions of organizers and prefabricated patterns. Raupach notes that organizers “contribute to the development of ongoing speech in that they help the speaker to structure his performance on the text level as well as on the sentence and phrase level” (1984:123). Raupach’s organizers provide a familiar structure for phrases and sentences (i.e., *c’est* and *je crois bien*) (1984:123.). This definition is similar to Krashen and Scarcella’s (1978:283-284) definition of prefabricated patterns, which are partly memorized and partly creative utterances, such as “that’s a (pen, knife, banana).”

Grammatical frames serve the speaker by providing the structural basis for substantive elaboration of the speaker’s message. Grammatical frames are the framework for propositional speech. Not all instances of grammar are included in the notion of

grammatical frames, only those which set up a patterned response, for example, the use of *man* (*man darf, man kann gehen, man kauft*). Grammatical frames are then defined in this study as *semi-fixed grammatical routines which organize and give structure to a response*.

Since several types of grammatical frames appear in the data, it was necessary to categorize them in order to see what kinds of structures were being used. They are labeled under the following thirteen grammatical headings:

1. hypotaxis, which includes instances of *als/wenn/wann clauses* (*wenn es warm genug ist*); *weil clauses* (*weil wir hier alle English kann*); *ob clauses* (*ob es gibt*); *wo clauses* (*wo du kannst*) and *dass clauses* (*dass ich mit Ihnen sprechen können*),)
2. parataxis, which includes instances of repetitive present tense (*ich mocht, ich habe, ich heisse*), an *oder*-pattern (*zum Beispiel Deutsch oder Latein oder Französisch*), and an *und*-pattern (*schlafen und essen und fernseh*)
3. pragmatic and grammatical imperative (*nehmen Sie, du muß nur*)
4. infinitive constructions (*zu sagen, objektiv zu sein, um ein Termin zu machen*)
5. existential or deictic constructions, which include *es constructions* (*es gibt, es ist*) and *das constructions* (*das ist*)
6. prepositional phrases (*an der linken Seite, geradeaus, im Wasser*)
7. comparison frames (*es ist gleich wie hier, als normal*)
8. clock time (*um sechs Uhr*)
9. *gern*-constructions (*andere Leute spielen Vollyball gern*)
10. subjunctive forms (*ein Nachteil wäre, ein Vorteil wäre*)
11. *man*-constructions (*man geht, man kann das machen, daß man soll*)

12. *entweder-oder*-construction (*entweder mit Kinder zu arbeiten oder mit alte Leute zu arbeiten*)

13. independent clauses (*ich glaube dass, ich weiß*)

The examples given above are illustrations from the data and are sometimes grammatically inaccurate. In certain cases, some utterances exhibiting formulaic speech could conceivably be assigned to more than one type of grammatical frame. In order to avoid duplication in such cases of overlap, each instance of a formula was assigned to just one type of grammatical frame according to the context of the formula. For example, in number 10 above *dass man soll* was listed as an instance of a *man*-construction instead of a *dass* clause, a form of hypotaxis. In this case, I classified *dass man soll* as a *man*-construction” because it fell into the repetitive *man soll* pattern exhibited by this speaker in other utterances. Each case of possible multiple frame assignment was considered on an individual basis. While this classification is subjective, it is based upon the prominent function of the formula within the broader context of the speaker’s performance.

3. *Lexical Complements:*

Lexical complements are based again on what Raupach observed in his data. He notes that in addition to organizers that structure, there are collocations and idiomatic expressions that do not function as structural devices (1984:125). I expand upon this to include other non-idiomatic expressions found in the speaker’s repertoire. Whereas the grammatical frames give structure to the utterance, lexical complements are the invariant and substantive chunks of language that permit a speaker to address a variety of topics. They consist of word combinations and phrases and are frequently marked by features

that suggest automaticity, including repetition, rapid unhesitating production and a single suprasegmental contour. Lexical complements are then defined in this study as *invariable chunks of language composed of words that are used together to make a substantive contribution to the message*. In comparison to grammatical frames, there are only four categories of lexical complements:

1. connectors (*und dann, und manchmal, oder auch*)
2. verb collocations (*in die Sonne legen, richtig gemacht, verloren gegangen*)
3. phrasal collocations (*nicht so viel, zu Hause, ein bisschen teuer, sehr gern*)
4. fixed expressions (*ich finde das Idee toll, es macht viel Spaß, was noch?*)

As in the case of grammatical frames, lexical complements could potentially be assigned to more than one category. In such cases, the decision of how to categorize the lexical complements was again made within the broader context of the speaker's performance.

The three types of formulae - lexical fillers, grammatical frames, and lexical complements - were identified with reference to these definitions. Other features of speech were often critical in identifying the formulaic language. These features include non-lexical fillers, such as *uh*; intonational contours, and temporal aspects of speech, such as pause length, accelerated speech, and decelerated speech. Non-lexical fillers and intonational contours signal the intent of the speaker. Like lexical fillers, non-lexical fillers fill empty space and signal that the speaker is planning further discourse. Intonational contours signal the continuance or end of an utterance. The temporal aspects of speech signal the speaker's ease, unease or even inability to produce language. Accelerated speech suggests automatic production of speech. As noted earlier, repetition of structures and themes also implies automatic language (Tannen 1989). In combination

with the working definitions, these features supported the identification of formulaic language.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

This chapter provides the results of the data analysis. The results are presented according to their relevance to the research questions.

- 1) What are the proficiency levels of third and fourth-year German students?
- 2) How does the discourse of the exchange students compare to that of those students who have not had academic experience abroad?
- 3) What role does formulaic language play in distinguishing the discourse of the two populations of students?

The first section of this chapter provides the results of the proficiency tests administered to the subjects. As discussed in the previous chapter, in analyzing the transcripts, the formulaic use of language appeared to be occurring in the speech samples of the study-abroad students. In addition, they seemed to speak more and more elaborately than the at-home students. Because of these observations, the following discourse features were considered important for measurement: (1) rate of speech, (2) number of words per response, and (3) amount of formulaic language per response. The second section of this chapter provides a quantitative comparison of these discourse features.

In identifying the formulaic language in the transcripts, several patterns emerged. As mentioned in Chapter Three, I based the identification of formulaic language on previous studies on formulaic language. The two main types of formulaic language are (1) lexical fillers and (2) non-filler formulaic language. Lexical fillers do not contribute to the message; whereas, non-filler formulaic language is part of the message. In order to further analyze the non-filler formulaic language, it became necessary to classify the

formulaic language the students were using. A grammatical classification seemed to accurately describe the types of formulaic language that the students produced. This classification is descriptive and is derived from the students' discourse. Formulaic language was divided into lexical fillers, grammatical frames, and lexical complements. The grammatical frames and lexical complements were further subdivided as described in Chapter Three. Within the third section of this chapter I provide a qualitative and quantitative look at the types of formulaic language in the subjects' discourse, focusing in on lexical fillers, grammatical frames, and lexical complements.

For all statistical analyses, I used a two-tailed t-test, set at .05 probability level, to determine whether or not there was a statistical difference between the two groups. I also used a repeated measures analysis to determine the distribution of the lexical complements. The statistical analyses were conducted by Mike O'Neal at the Statistical and Computational Consulting Center at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, using SPSS.

Research Question 1:

What are the proficiency levels of third and fourth-year German students?

The results of the GST ratings for all fourteen subjects reveal a range of proficiency levels from Intermediate-Mid to Advanced. Most of the subjects placed at the Intermediate-level. Five were Intermediate-Mid and five placed at the Intermediate-High level. Four received a rating of Advanced. A comparison of the two populations shows that both contain a range from Intermediate-Mid to Advanced. The Stuttgart population had overall somewhat higher ratings than the Knoxville population. Three of

the Advanced-level subjects, three of the six Intermediate-High level subjects, and only one of the five Intermediate-Mid level subjects belonged to the Stuttgart population.

Table 4 lists the ratings for each subject.

The double ratings obtained by the CAL confirmed the ratings of five of the six tests that were sent off for a double rating. Subject Fünf received a rating of Advanced, whereas I rated him as Intermediate-High. Normally in such cases, a third rating would be obtained to determine the final score of the subject. However, for the purpose of this study, I accepted CAL's rating, since CAL developed the GST.

Table 4: GST proficiency ratings for each subject.

Stuttgart Group	Rating	Knoxville Group	Rating
Eins	IH	One	A
Zwei	IH	Two	IM
Drei	IM	Three	IM
Vier	A	Four	IM
Fünf	A	Five	IH
Sechs	IH	Six	IM
Sieben	A	Seven	IH

Research Question 2:

How does the discourse of the exchange students compare to that of students who have not had academic experience abroad?

As noted above, in comparing the transcripts of the two populations the following variables surfaced as most salient: 1. rate of speech, 2. number of words, 3. amount of formulaic language per words used. To ascertain the discourse features of the two populations, data were collected and analyzed from each of the fourteen test questions and then sorted according to the level of difficulty of the question. The levels of difficulty include:

Intermediate (questions number one, two, and five),

Advanced (questions three, four, six, seven, ten, and fourteen) or

Superior (questions eight, nine, eleven, twelve, and thirteen).

The following reports the results of the participants' rate of speech (words per second), words per response, and formulaic language per response.

A. Discourse Feature 1: Rate of Speech

The rate of speech was calculated by looking at the response time in seconds divided by the number of words used in the response. According to *Levene's Test for Equality of Variances*, there are no significant differences in the rate of speech between the two populations. However, in looking at the ratios, the Stuttgart group does have slightly higher rates of speech. For instance, at the Intermediate difficulty level the Stuttgart population averaged 1.5 words per second, whereas the Knoxville population averaged 1.1 words per second. Table 5 displays the differences in the average rate of

Table 5: Average rate of speech in words per second

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	1.5	1.1
Advanced-level questions	1.7	1.3
Superior-level questions	1.6	1.2

speech according to difficulty of test level. As can be seen from the table, the Stuttgart population was only slightly faster in their rate of speech, four tenths of a word per second across all levels.

Because the Stuttgart population contained more Advanced-level speakers than the Knoxville population, I compared the results of only the Intermediate-level speakers from each population to compensate for the inequality of proficiency levels by comparing more homogenous groups and here the results proved more revealing. In comparing the Intermediate-level speakers, subjects Two, Three, Four, Five, Six, and Seven from Knoxville and subjects Eins, Zwei, Drei, and Sechs from Stuttgart, a significant difference ($t=-3.014$, $p<.05$) emerges between the two groups at the Superior level. At the Superior level, the Stuttgart group averages 1.7 words per second; whereas, the Knoxville group averages 1.1 words per second. Table 6 displays the rate of speech for the Intermediate-level speakers.

Table 6: Intermediate speakers' average rate of speech in words per second

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	1.6	1.1
Advanced-level questions	1.8	1.3
Superior-level questions	1.7	1.1

In general, the rate of speech between the two populations is similar. However, when broken down by proficiency so as to afford a more homogeneous grouping, the Intermediate-level study-abroad students have a significantly higher rate of speech in responding to the Superior-level questions, i.e., questions that overtax their ability as Intermediate-level speakers to perform the needed function than the at-home students.

B. Discourse Feature 2: Words per Response

To determine the rate of speech, I analyzed the number of words the subjects used per second in their responses. The analysis of the number of words per response reveals more differences between the two populations. On average the two populations were very similar in the number of words they used to respond to each question. As with the rate of speech, the Stuttgart population averaged only slightly higher than the Knoxville group in the number of words they used. There were no significant differences between the two populations at the Intermediate and Advanced-level questions. However, there is

a significant difference ($t=-2.262$, $p<.05$) with the Superior-level questions. Table 7 displays the average number of words per response for each group. The two populations produced almost an identical number of words at the Intermediate-level. As the level of difficulty increased, so did the differences between the populations. At the Intermediate-level, the study-abroad students averaged 10 more words per response and at the Superior level more than twenty words per response.

Once again, when just the Intermediate-level speakers from each population were examined, a significant difference ($t=-3.280$, $p<.05$) in the average number of words emerged only when the subjects were responding to the most challenging tasks, i.e., those at the Superior level. As with the above comparison of all fourteen speakers, the difference in the average number of words increased with level of difficulty. As displayed in Table 8, on Intermediate-level questions, the Stuttgart speakers averaged only five more words per response than the Knoxville group, 60.2 vs. 55.2. On

Table 7: Average number of words

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	56.7	56.1
Advanced-level questions	74.1	64.9
Superior-level questions	89.5	67.5

Table 8: Intermediate speakers' average number of words

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	60.2	55.2
Advanced-level questions	81.7	63.5
Superior-level questions	99.3	63.7

Advanced-level questions, they averaged 18.2 more words, 81.7 vs. 63.5 in their responses. In response to the Superior-level questions, the Intermediate Stuttgart speakers succeeded in producing on average 35.6 more words per response than the Intermediate Knoxville speakers. In short, the study-abroad students averaged more words per question. On Superior-level questions, the Stuttgart students produced significantly ($t=-2.262$, $p<.05$) more words than the Knoxville students, even when controlling for differences in proficiency levels between the groups. The Intermediate-level speakers from Stuttgart averaged 33 more words at the Superior level, significantly ($t=3.280$, $p<.05$) more than the Intermediate Knoxville speakers.

C. Discourse Feature 3: Ratio of Formulaic Language per Words Used

The analyses above demonstrate that some differences existed in the discourse of the students. The study-abroad students used more words in their responses than the at-home students, especially at the Superior level where there was a significant difference

between the two populations. This section looks at ratio of formulaic language per number of words to determine if there are any differences between the two populations in the amount of formulaic language they use. To ascertain differences, a distinction needed to be established to indicate differences in the function of the formulaic language. I categorized the formulaic language into two groups: fillers and non-fillers. As noted in the previous chapter, lexical fillers do not contribute to the message, but rather help the flow of discourse by filling empty space and providing time for planning further discourse. On the other hand, non-filler formulaic language, which is comprised of grammatical frames and lexical complements, does contribute to the message.

1. Lexical Fillers:

According to the t-tests, there are only slight differences in the average number of fillers the two populations use. Table 9 displays the average ratio of fillers per words. At the Intermediate level, both populations average the same number of fillers. At the

Table 9: Percentage of words that are lexical fillers

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	5%	5%
Advanced-level questions	5%	4%
Superior-level questions	4%	3%

Advanced and Superior levels, the Stuttgart population gains one percent over the Knoxville population. The Intermediate-level speakers do not vary much from the populations as a whole. At the Intermediate level, the Knoxville group used 1% more fillers than the Stuttgart group. At the Advanced and Superior levels, the Stuttgart group averaged 1% more fillers than the Knoxville group. Table 10 displays the differences in the average number of fillers used by the Intermediate speakers. There were no significant differences between the two groups in the average number of fillers per response regardless of the proficiency level of the subjects or difficulty level of the test questions. However, non-filler formulaic language presents a completely different picture of the subjects' discourse.

2. Non-Filler Formulaic Language:

Unlike the lexical fillers, the non-filler formulaic language refers to those utterances that contribute to the message. The study abroad students used significantly

Table 10: Percentage of words that are lexical fillers for Intermediate-level speakers

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	4%	5%
Advanced-level questions	4%	3%
Superior-level questions	4%	2%

more non-filler formulaic language than the at-home students. According to the t-tests, there were significant differences at the Intermediate ($t=-2.762$, $p<.05$), Advanced ($t=-6.790$, $p<.05$), and Superior ($t=-4.686$, $p<.05$) levels. At the Intermediate and Advanced-level questions, the discourse of the Stuttgart population contained 5% more non-filler formulaic language and only slightly less so at the Superior level with 4% more. Table 11 presents the differences between the two populations.

Again, when controlling for the inequality in proficiency levels, the average percentage of non-filler formulaic language used by the Intermediate-level speakers resembled the comparison of all 14 speakers at the Intermediate and Advanced levels. Table 12 displays the differences in the Intermediate-level speakers. However, statistically seen, at the Intermediate level there is no significant difference between the two groups. On Advanced-level questions there is a significant difference ($t=-5.111$, $p<.05$), with 14% vs. 9%. On Superior-level questions, the Intermediate Stuttgart speakers increased their proportion of non-filler formulaic language

Table 11: Percentage of words that are non-filler formulaic language

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	20%	15%
Advanced-level questions	14%	9%
Superior-level questions	14%	10%

Table 12: Percentage of words that are non-filler formulaic language for Intermediate-level speakers

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	20%	15%
Advanced-level questions	14%	9%
Superior-level questions	15%	9%

significantly ($t=-6.207$, $p<.05$) to 6% over the Knoxville Intermediate speakers.

D. Summary of Findings

The above section offers quantitative analyses to ascertain differences in the discourse of the study-abroad students and the at-home students. When only the Intermediate-level speakers from each population was analyzed, significant differences between the Knoxville and Stuttgart groups began to emerge, especially so in tasks that overtaxed their ultimate proficiency ratings. The following variables were analyzed: rate of speech, number of words per response, proportion of fillers to words, and proportion of non-filler formulaic language to words. The following results were observed:

1. The rate of speech for the study-abroad students averaged only slightly higher than the at-home students. On Superior-level questions, the Intermediate-level

study-abroad students spoke at a significantly faster rate of speech than the at-home Intermediate-level speakers.

2. The study-abroad students also averaged more words per response than the at-home students on Intermediate and Advanced-level questions. The gap between the populations increased with level of difficulty. On Superior-level questions, there was a significant difference between the two groups, both in comparing all 14 subjects and just the Intermediate speakers. The study-abroad students responded more substantially to the Superior-level questions even though the level of functional difficulty was beyond their own capabilities to perform.
3. There are no significant differences between the two populations in the average amount of lexical fillers used per words spoken. On Intermediate-level questions, the at-home students averaged 1% more fillers than the study-abroad students. Otherwise the study-abroad students used 1% more fillers on Advanced and Superior questions. The results of the Intermediate speakers mirrored the analysis of all 14 subjects, except on Superior-level questions, where the study-abroad group used 2% more fillers instead of 1%.
4. The gap between the two populations was most apparent in the average quantity of non-filler formulaic language per words used. There were significant differences between the populations, with the study-abroad students averaging 5% more non-formulaic language than the at-home group. On Superior-level questions, the difference was only 4%, however the Intermediate speakers produced 6% more non-filler formulaic language than the at-home Intermediate speakers. The results for the Intermediate-level speakers were otherwise the same

as the analysis of all 14 subjects; however, on Intermediate-level questions, there was no significant difference between the Intermediate speakers.

Thus, as the level of question difficulty rose, so did the gap between the two groups of Intermediate-level speakers in regard to rate of speech, number of words used per response, and the amount of non-filler formulaic language. Those studying abroad are significantly above those at-home, even when they rate the same proficiency level. There were no significant differences in quantity of lexical fillers used. The next section examines the subjects' use of formulaic language from a more qualitative perspective.

Research Question 3:

What role does formulaic language play in distinguishing the discourse of the two populations of students?

The above section examined the differences in the discourse of the study-abroad and at-home students quantitatively by analyzing rate of speech, number of words per response, proportion of fillers to words, and proportion of non-filler formulaic language to words. This section examines whether the formulaic language was qualitatively used similarly or differently by the two populations. As stated in the above section, there were no significant differences in the average number of lexical fillers used by the two populations. The study-abroad population does use more non-filler language. It is the purpose of this section to see what types of fillers and non-filler formulaic language are being used and to what extent. First, I examine the range and use of lexical fillers. Since lexical fillers appear mostly as single words or as strings of a few words, it was appropriate to compare them by examining the range in each of the student populations.

On the other hand, the non-filler formulaic language appeared as whole utterances that are not so easily compared. Therefore in order to compare the non-filler formulaic language, I divided the non-filler formulaic language into two components: grammatical frames and lexical complements. I further analyzed grammatical frames into 14 subtypes and lexical frames into four subtypes, as described earlier. To reveal the similarities and differences in the non-filler formulaic language, the grammatical frames and lexical complements are examined for type counts and instance counts. The results of the type and instance counts lead to a final distribution analysis of the lexical complements.

A. Range and Use of Lexical Fillers

Even though there are no significant differences in the number of lexical fillers the two populations are using, there is a marked qualitative difference in the range of fillers. The Stuttgart population used a much larger variety of fillers as can be seen in Table 13, which lists the fillers comparatively. Of course, not all students used all fillers. However, a t-test revealed a significant difference ($t=-2.713$, $p<.05$) between the two populations. The average number of different fillers used by the Stuttgart population was 12.2; whereas the Knoxville population only averaged 7 different fillers. Once again, in comparing the Intermediate-level speakers to control for proficiency differences, the Stuttgart Intermediate speakers averaged significantly ($t=-3.364$, $p<.05$) more fillers than the Knoxville Intermediate speakers, 13.8 vs. 6.1 different fillers.

Further examination of how the speakers used the fillers provided more insight into the differences between the populations. For instance, the only filler used by all subjects was *und*. The fillers *und*, *aber*, and *oder* were the most common words used by

Table 13: Comparative list of lexical fillers

Stuttgart	Knoxville
aber	aber
	ach
aja	
also	
also ja	
auch	
	bitte
dann	dann
denn	
ich würde sagen	
ich würde von meine eigene Erfahrung sagen	
Dings	
ein bisken	
inzwischen	
irgendwas	
ja	ja
ja also	
	ja so
manchmal	
meine Meinung nach	
meistens	
meistens	
	naja
natürlich	natürlich
noch was machen	
normal	
nur	
o	
o ja	
oder	oder
oder etwas	
oder etwas ähnlich	
oder etwas wie so	
oder irgendwo	
oder manchmal	
oder so	oder so

Table 13: Comparative list of lexical fillers (continued)

oder so was	oder so was
oder was	
	oder oder so weiter
oder sowie	oder so wie
	oder oder so wie was
oder sonst	
sowie	
sowieso	
ok	
so	so
	so ja
und	und
	und dann
und denn	
und also	
und ja	
und so weiter	und so weiter
	so weiter
und auch	
	und so
und so was	
vielleicht	vielleicht
	so vielleicht
	was du willst
weil	weil

both populations to fill space and plan more speech. The filler *ja* was often used by the Stuttgart population at the beginning of a response to indicated acknowledgement of the question. As can be seen in the Table 13, the Stuttgart population approximated commonly known German fillers, such as *also*, *ja*, and *oder was*. The Knoxville population tended to use *also* as it is used in English. Subject Zwei, an Intermediate-level study-abroad student, had the most variation in his fillers, using 19 different types. The least amount of variation occurred with subject Four, an Intermediate-level at-home student, who only used two different types of lexical fillers. The results of the analysis on range of lexical fillers indicate that the study-abroad students have a wider variety of language that helps them fill space and allows them time to plan further discourse. The next section looks at the other type of formulaic language, the non-filler formulaic language, which consists of grammatical frames and lexical complements.

B. Non-Filler Formulaic Language: Grammatical Frames and Lexical Complements.

This section breaks down the quantitative analysis done in the previous section on non-filler formulaic language and provides a more specific look at the number and variety of grammatical frames and lexical complements. To review, grammatical frames organize and structure the response while lexical complements are invariable chunks of words that make a substantive contribution to the message. Unlike lexical fillers, both grammatical frames and lexical complements are part of the message.

In all of the above statistical comparisons I have analyzed the data from the two populations as wholes and then also isolated the results of the Intermediate speakers to control for the higher proficiency levels in the study-abroad population since they skew

the results in favor of the Stuttgart population. Unlike the quantitative analyses on the other discourse features, the quantitative analysis on non-filler formulaic language demonstrated a significant difference between the populations as a whole on all levels of difficulty. Yet at the Intermediate level of test difficulty there was no significant difference between the Intermediate-level speakers. This suggests that the Advanced-level speakers may use the non-formulaic language differently than the Intermediate-level speakers. Because of this, I compare only the Intermediate-level speakers from each population in this section.

1. Type Count of Grammatical Frames and Lexical Complements

As noted previously, a classification of thirteen types of grammatical frames and four types of lexical complements were derived from the data. In the type count of lexical complements, the t-tests revealed significant differences across all levels of test difficulty; Intermediate ($t=-3.665$, $p<.05$), Advanced ($t=-2.427$., $p>.05$), and Superior ($t=-6.197$, $p<.05$). Table 14 presents the average number of types of lexical complement used by the Intermediate subjects. On average, the Stuttgart group used more than half of the available four types of lexical complements (connectors, verb collocations, phrasal collocations, and fixed expressions). The Knoxville group consistently used less than half. This indicates that the Stuttgart group uses a greater variety of lexical complements at all levels of test difficulty.

The Stuttgart group averages slightly more types of grammatical frames for all levels of test difficulty as shown in Table 15. On Intermediate and Advanced-level questions, the differences between the groups are less than 1%. However, at the Superior

Table 14: Average type count of lexical complements

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	2.8	1.8
Advanced-level questions	2	1.5
Superior-level questions	2.6	1.4

level the 1.9% difference between the two groups indicates a significant difference ($t=-3.556$, $p<.05$). Of the possible thirteen types of grammatical frames, (hypotaxis, parataxis, imperative, infinitive constructions, existential constructions, prepositional phrases, comparison frames, clock time, *gern* constructions, subjunctive forms, *man* constructions, *entweder-oder* constructions, and independent clauses), the Stuttgart group used the most variety at the Superior level, averaging almost four types of grammatical frames, twice as many as the Knoxville group. This indicates a more complex and varied response. The Knoxville group demonstrated the least variety of grammatical frame types on Advanced-level questions. The next section looks at the instance count of grammatical frames and lexical complements.

Table 15: Average type count of grammatical frames

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	2.5	1.8
Advanced-level questions	2.4	1.6
Superior-level questions	3.9	2

2. Instance Count of Grammatical Frames and Lexical Complements

The above section presented the variety of types of grammatical frames and lexical complements. This section takes the analysis one step further and examines the number of grammatical frames and lexical complements used by the Intermediate-level speakers. As with the type count, the instance count analyses of lexical complements revealed significant differences between the two groups at all levels of test difficulty, Intermediate ($t=2.817$, $p>.05$), Advanced ($t=3.546$, $p<.05$), and Superior ($t=6.007$, $p<.05$). Table 16 shows the number of lexical complements. As the level of difficulty increased, the gap between the two groups widened. On Intermediate-level test questions, the Stuttgart students averaged about seven more lexical complements. On Advanced-level test questions, the Stuttgart students used twice as many lexical complements as the Knoxville students. On Superior-level test question, the difference between the groups more than doubled, with the Stuttgart group averaging almost 20

Table 16: Average number of lexical complements

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	17.3	10.5
Advanced-level questions	34.2	17.2
Superior-level questions	33.3	13.7

more lexical complements, 33.3 vs. 17.7. This shows that the Intermediate Stuttgart speakers employ a much greater number of lexical complements in their discourse, especially at levels beyond their functional capacities, indicating a strategic reliance on lexical complements to produce an extensive response.

As with lexical complements, the difference between the two groups in the average number of grammatical frames they use also increases with the level of test difficulty. On Intermediate-level test questions, there is no significant difference between the groups. The Stuttgart group averages only 3.5 more grammatical frames. The differences between the groups are significant on Advanced ($t=-2.808$, $p<.05$) and Superior ($t=-3.522$, $p<.05$) test questions, and are similar to the results of the lexical complements. Table 17 displays the average number of grammatical frames. On Advanced-level test questions, the Stuttgart group averages almost double the number of grammatical frames, 33.8 vs. 18.5. On Superior-level questions, the Stuttgart

Table 17: Average number of grammatical frames

	Stuttgart	Knoxville
Intermediate-level questions	17.5	14
Advanced-level questions	33.8	18.5
Superior-level questions	37.3	17

Intermediate speakers average more than double the instances of grammatical frames than the Knoxville Intermediate speakers, 37.3 vs. 17. As with the lexical complements, the Stuttgart Intermediate speakers averaged the most grammatical frames at the Superior level with 37.3, 20 more than the Knoxville Intermediate speakers. The next section looks more closely at the variation of lexical complements.

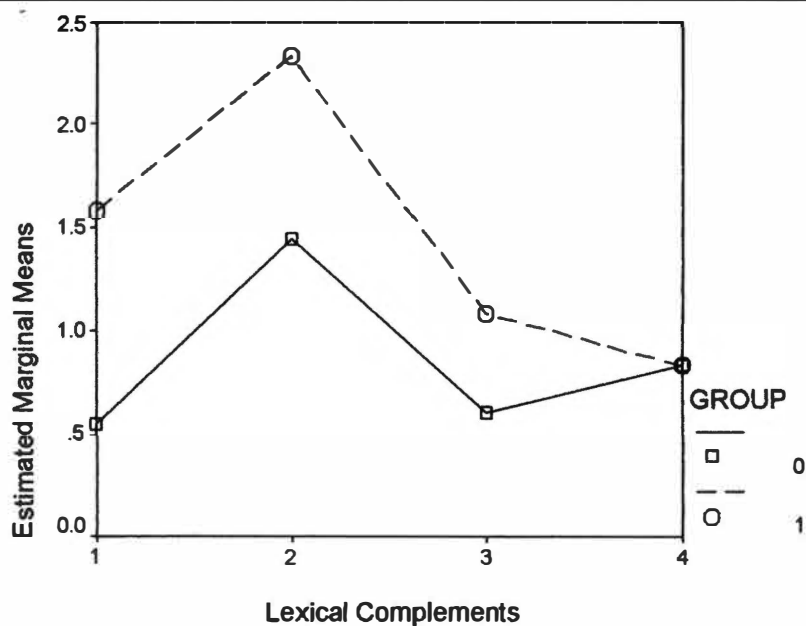
3. Distribution of Lexical Complements

Since the study-abroad students used significantly more types and instances of lexical complements than the at-home students, this section analyzes the four types of lexical complements (connectors, verb collocations, phrasal collocations, and fixed expressions) to see if any one type of lexical complement is favored by either population. Examples of connectors from the data include *und dann*, *und auch*, and *aber vielleicht*. Verb collocations include such items as *spielen Volleyball*, *ich geh ins Kino* or *make ich Hausaufgabe*. Examples of phrasal collocations are *ein Paar*, *ein bißchen weiter* and

sehr viel. Lastly, fixed expressions include a wide variety of items, such as *es ist ganz egal*, *tut mir leid*, *ich kenne sehr viel Leute* and *sehr einfach*. The analyses of the distribution of the lexical complements were accomplished by employing both repeated measures analyses of variance and t-tests for each level of test difficulty. On Intermediate-level test questions, there are no significant differences in the distribution of lexical complements. The distribution is similar, but not identical. Both populations used more verb collocations over the other types of lexical complements. In descending order, the Knoxville speakers averaged (1) 1.4 verb collocations, (2) .8 of a fixed expression, (3) .6 of a phrasal collocation, and (4) .6 of a connector. The Stuttgart speakers averaged (1) 2.3 verbal collocations, (2) 1.6 connectors, (3) 1 phrasal collocation, and (4) .8 of a fixed expression. Figure 1 below displays the distribution of lexical complements of each population with Intermediate-level test questions.

On Advanced-level test questions, the significant differences between the groups begin to emerge, which has been the pattern throughout most of the analyses. There is a significant difference ($t=-5.169$, $p<.05$) in the distribution of connectors and a significant difference ($t=-2.756$, $p<.05$) in the distribution of fixed expressions. The Stuttgart speakers utilized significantly more connectors and fixed expressions than the Knoxville speakers. Both groups used more fixed expressions than any other type of lexical complement. In descending order, the Stuttgart speakers averaged (1) 2.9 fixed expressions, (2) 1.4 connectors, (3) .8 of a verb collocation, and (4) .5 of a phrasal collocation. Similarly, the Knoxville speakers averaged (1) 1.3 fixed expressions, (2) 1 verb collocation, (3) .3 of a connector and (4) .3 of a phrasal collocation. Figure 2 below displays the distribution patterns of both populations on Advanced-level test questions.

Figure 1: Distribution of lexical complements for the Intermediate-level tasks.



Group 0: Knoxville Intermediate-level speakers

Group 1: Stuttgart Intermediate-level speakers

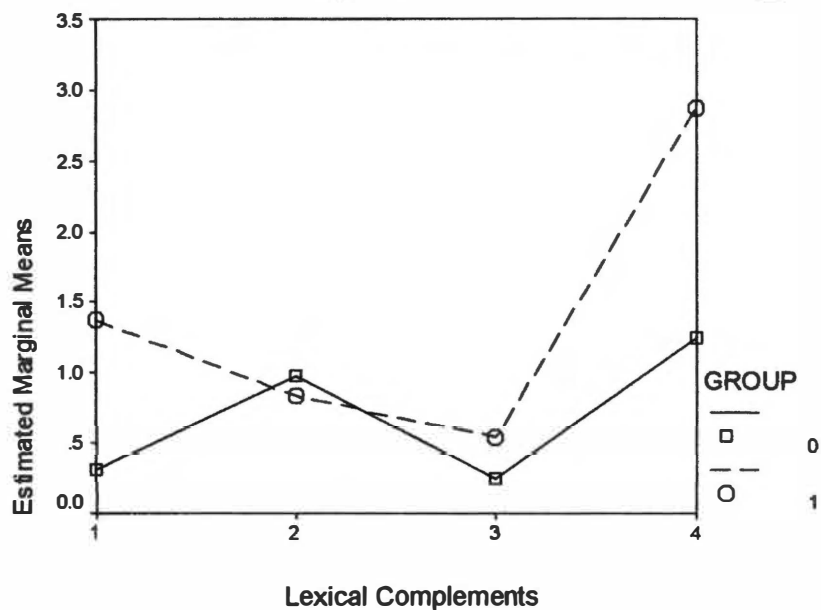
Lexical Complements:

- 1: connectors
- 2: verb collocations
- 3: phrasal collocations
- 4: fixed expressions

Estimated Marginal Means:

Average number of complement type for Intermediate-level questions.

Figure 2: Distribution of lexical complements for the Advanced-level tasks.



Group 0: Knoxville Intermediate-level speakers

Group 1: Stuttgart Intermediate-level speakers

Lexical Complements:

- 1: connectors
- 2: verb collocations
- 3: phrasal collocations
- 4: fixed expressions

Estimated Marginal Means:

Average number of complement type for Advanced-level questions.

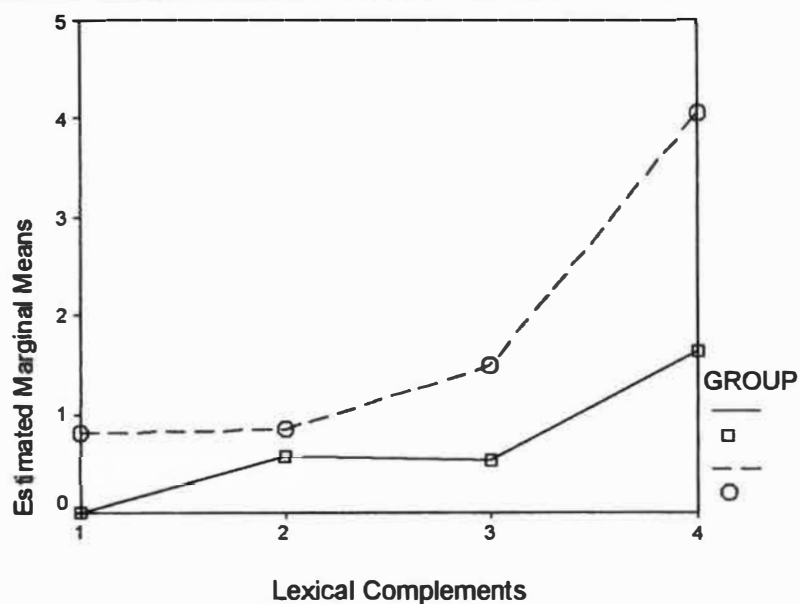
On Superior-level test questions, the gap between the groups widens even more. There is a significant difference in the distribution of connectors ($t=-5.060$, $p<.05$), phrasal collocations ($t=-2.334$, $p<.05$), and fixed expressions ($t=-4.514$, $p<.05$), but not in verb collocations. Both populations favor fixed expressions most and connectors least. The Knoxville speakers averaged (1) 1.6 fixed expressions, (2) .6 of a verb collocation, (3) .5 of a phrasal collocation, and (4) 0 connectors. The Stuttgart speakers averaged (1) 4 fixed expressions, (2) 1.5 phrasal collocations, (3) .9 of a verb collocation, and (4) .8 of a connector. Figure 3 below displays the distribution of the lexical complements for both populations on Superior-level questions

In general, as the level of test difficulty increases, so do the differences between the two groups in the distribution of lexical complements. The Knoxville speakers consistently utilized verb collocation and fixed expressions more than phrasal collocations and connectors. They also relied on verb collocations more than the Stuttgart speakers. The Stuttgart speakers dispersed the lexical complements more inconsistently than the Knoxville group. On Advanced and Superior-levels tasks, where there are significant differences between the groups, the Stuttgart speakers used mostly fixed expressions, but otherwise interchanged reliance on connectors and phrasal collocations. The Stuttgart speakers tended to favor connectors more than the Knoxville speakers. The next section provides a summary of the variation of formulaic language.

D. Summary of the Findings

In the above section I looked qualitatively at the variation in the students' use of formulaic language. First I presented the range of fillers for each group and then I looked

Figure 3: Distribution of lexical complements for the Superior-level tasks.



Group 0: Knoxville Intermediate-level speakers

Group 1: Stuttgart Intermediate-level speakers

Lexical Complements:

- 1: connectors
- 2: verb collocations
- 3: phrasal collocations
- 4: fixed expressions

Estimated Marginal Means:

Average number of complement type for Superior-level questions.

at the type and instance counts of grammatical frames and lexical complements. The following results were observed:

1. Even though there was no difference in the number of lexical fillers used by the two populations, there was a significant difference in the range of fillers. The Intermediate-level study-abroad students used more than twice as many different lexical fillers than the at-home students, averaging 13.8 different fillers. Not only did the study-abroad students have a wider variety of lexical fillers, but they also demonstrated native-like use with certain fillers, such as opening a response with *ja* to acknowledge of the question. On the other hand, the at-home students often used the filler *also* as it is used in English.
2. The analyses revealed a greater difference between the populations in their use of lexical complements than grammatical frames. There are significant differences in the average number of types and instances of lexical complements across all levels of difficulty. The study-abroad students averaged a greater variety of types and averaged more than double the instances of lexical complements than the at-home students.
3. As with most of the other analyses in the previous section, the analysis on grammatical frames revealed a widening gap between the two groups as the level of difficulty increased. On Intermediate-level questions there were no significant differences in the type and instance count of grammatical frames. On Advanced-level tasks, there was no significant difference in the average number of types, but a significant difference did emerge in the instance count. The study-abroad students used 15 more instances of grammatical frames. On Superior-level

questions, the gap between the groups was most apparent with significant differences in type count and instance count. Not only did the study-abroad students use significantly more types of formulaic language than the at-home students, but they also displayed the most variation in their own language on Superior-level questions, averaging almost four types of grammatical frames, which was double the average of the at-home students. In comparing instance counts, the study-abroad students also averaged more than double the number of grammatical frames than the at-home students on Superior-level questions.

4. There were significant differences in the distribution of lexical complements on the Advanced and Superior-levels tasks. The Stuttgart speakers used significantly more fixed expressions and connectors on Advanced-level questions. On Superior-level questions, they used significantly more of all types of lexical complements except verb collocations. The Knoxville students were more consistent in their use of lexical complements. They relied mostly on fixed expressions and verb collocations, the one type of lexical complement they used consistently more than the Stuttgart speakers. The Stuttgart speakers were more inconsistent in their distribution of lexical complements. While they favored fixed expressions most on Advanced and Superior-levels questions, they otherwise interchanged reliance on connectors and phrasal collocations.

The above analyses on formulaic language indicate that the study-abroad students displayed a more complex and a wider variety of discourse. Even when there were no quantitative differences in the amount of formulaic language between the study-abroad students and at-home students, differences often emerged in the type and distribution of

formulaic language. The next chapter discusses the outcomes of the findings, limitations of the study, and implications for further research.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents (1) the findings of the study as related to the research questions, (2) the limitations of the study, and (3) the implications for further research.

Findings

In this exploratory study, the goal was to reveal differences in the discourse of study-abroad students as compared to a control group by establishing a relationship between language proficiency and the development of discourse features in the study-abroad environment. The findings of this study are presented as they relate to the research questions:

- 1) What are the proficiency levels of third and fourth-year German students?
- 2) How does the spoken language of exchange students compare to that of students who have not had academic experience abroad?
- 3) What role does formulaic language play in distinguishing the discourse of the two populations of students?

A. Research Question 1:

What are the proficiency levels of third and fourth-year German students?

The students in the two groups studied ranged in proficiency levels from Intermediate-Mid to Advanced, according to the GST. Consistent with the findings by Magnan 1986, Liskin-Gasparro 1984, Folz 1991, Huebner 1995, and Freed 1995, the study-abroad students achieved slightly higher ratings than the at-home students. The important result of this analysis is not that the study-abroad students rated slightly higher,

but rather that the range of proficiency levels within the groups is the same. The ratings fall within two major levels, Intermediate and Advanced. The results indicate that third and fourth-year courses are comprised of students with varied functional abilities, even though the majority of students rated at the Intermediate level. Much more interesting, however, were the comparisons between the Intermediate study-abroad students and the Intermediate at-home students. Though these students were functionally at the same level, there were significant differences in their discourse behaviors as the following sections demonstrate.

B. Research Question 2:

How does the discourse of the exchange students compare to that of students who have not had academic experience abroad?

As noted in the literature review, several studies on the oral performance of study-abroad students have reported differences compared to at-home students. Control group studies reported gains or differences for the study-abroad students on such features as repair behavior (Smartt 1998), fluency (Freed 1995), communication strategies, word counts, and the use of fillers (Lafford 1995). On the other hand, Dekyser (1991) noted no significant differences in the use of communication strategies. The results of my control group study also indicate differences in the spoken language of study-abroad students.

This dissertation found that the study-abroad students showed marked strength when presented with tasks above the level of their actual proficiency. Although their rate of speech is not much faster than the at-home students and the number of lexical fillers is not significantly different between the populations, the study-abroad students consistently

used more words and more non-filler formulaic language. Significant differences between the two populations of students occurred when analyzing the number of words on Superior-level tasks and when analyzing non-filler formulaic language across all levels of task difficulty. Furthermore, when the Intermediate-level study-abroad students are presented with Advanced and Superior-level tasks, their number of words and amount of non-filler formulaic language is significantly greater. With Superior-level tasks, their rate of speech is significantly faster than the at-home Intermediate speakers. While their speech is not sufficiently developed to perform the higher level tasks, it typically does not stop flowing and contains a greater number of words and non-filler formulaic language.

The results of this study are similar to the findings by Ejzenberg and Raupach. Ejzenberg (1992) noted that high fluency speakers use more formulaic speech, but in contrast to the findings in this study, they also used more fillers. Raupach (1984) found that as proficiency increases, the type of formulae used changed. The learner moves from dependency on one type of formulaic speech (fillers and modifiers) to another type (sentence level organizers). This study shows that there are no significant differences in the number of lexical fillers used by both groups, but the study-abroad students do use more non-filler formulae. My findings confirm Raupach's findings, suggesting that the production of non-filler formulae increases with study abroad. Unlike Raupach's study; however, the proficiency levels of the subjects had no bearing on the amount of formulaic language produced. In comparing just Intermediate-level speakers from each population, the study-abroad speakers yielded significantly more non-filler formulaic language. This suggests that the increase use of formulaic language is a production strategy acquired through the demands of living in the target culture.

In general, the one factor in this study that consistently distinguishes study-abroad students from the at-home students is the use of more non-filler formulaic language across all levels of test difficulty. These results indicate that formulaic language plays an important role in describing the differences in the discourse of study-abroad students as compared to at-home students. The formulaic use of language appears to factor into the reason why study-abroad students sound more competent and conversational than the at-home students. If confirmed by other languages, this finding suggests a possible refinement of the ACTFL proficiency level description where “formulaic language” appears relegated solely to the Novice-level.

C. Research Question 3:

What role does formulaic language play in distinguishing the discourse of the two populations of students?

The quantitative analyses in this study revealed significant difference in the amount of non-filler formulaic language used by the study-abroad students, but not in the number of fillers. Further exploration into the variation of formulaic language revealed that the study-abroad students display more complex language and use formulaic language differently than the at-home students.

Even though the study-abroad students did not use significantly more lexical fillers than the at-home students, their range of fillers was vastly greater. They also displayed native-like use with certain fillers. These results agree with Hasselgren’s 1998 study on so called smallwords. Hasselgren noted that more fluent speakers have a wider range of smallwords than the less fluent and use them in a more native-like manner.

Unlike Hasselgren's study, the results of my study suggest that the wider range of fillers can be attributed to the study-abroad experience and not to the proficiency levels of the students. However, I measured proficiency levels and not fluency per se. In fact, in comparing just the Intermediate-level speakers, the study-abroad students displayed a more significant difference in range than comparing all 14 students. The Intermediate study-abroad students used more than twice as many different lexical fillers than the Intermediate at-home students.

The quantitative analyses on non-filler formulaic language revealed that the study-abroad students used significantly more non-filler formulaic language at all levels of difficulty than the at-home students. The qualitative analyses revealed that the study-abroad students use non-filler formulaic language differently than the at-home students. They used significantly more lexical complements, which is one type of non-filler formulaic language, than grammatical frames, the other type of non-filler formulaic language. Their distribution of lexical complements also varies significantly from the at-home students on Advanced and Superior-level tasks. The at-home students were more consistent in their use of lexical complements, relying mostly on fixed expressions and verb collocations. The study-abroad students were more inconsistent in their distribution of lexical complements. Like the at-home students, they favored mostly fixed expressions; however, they displayed an interchange of reliance on the other types of lexical complements.

The analysis of grammatical frames revealed that the study-abroad students displayed significantly more variation in their language than the at-home students. They used more types of grammatical frames on Superior-level tasks and more instances of

grammatical frames on Advanced and Superior-level tasks. The study-abroad students also displayed the most variation in their own language on Superior-level tasks. This indicates that formulaic speech is a hitherto underappreciated means for producing more complex speech, especially at levels beyond their functional ability, but it is not picked up by the GST.

D. Summary of Findings

In general, it appears that the study-abroad students use more formulaic speech than the at-home students, and use it differently. They have a greater range of fillers which indicates a varied, function-specific vocabulary. They use formulaic language as a means to produce more varied and complex speech, especially under linguistically demanding situations. They used more and are more varied in their distribution of lexical complements than the at-home students. The at-home students are consistent in the types of lexical complements they prefer to use. Lexical complements are defined as invariable chunks of language used to make a substantive contribution to the message. The results suggest that the ability to produce such chunks of prefabricated language is facilitated by the study-abroad experience.

Since formulaic language is a strategy used by speakers to organize and maintain the flow of discourse, this study suggests that despite constant proficiency level the study-abroad students appear more linguistically competent to untrained ears not only because they are more adept at utilizing formulaic language, but also because they have a wider repertoire of formulaic language to draw upon. My findings also support the notion that formulaic language provides a framework for language production, since

formulaic language contributed substantially to the responses for the study-abroad students in linguistically challenging situations.

Drawbacks and Limitations of the Study

Since this dissertation was an exploratory study, it has several features that can be considered drawbacks.

- First, this study centers on my results. No data are available for interrater reliability. In other words, the GST administration and ratings, the transcripts, and identification of formulaic language rely exclusively on my analysis.
- Second, this dissertation did not address the issues of accuracy and native-like usage of formulaic language.
- Third, the focus of this study changed during the analysis of the data, based upon what I had observed while compiling the transcripts. The study was not about the use of formulaic language from the outset, but rather differences in general between two groups of students. A different design with preset criteria for classifying formulaic language and more homogeneous groups of students may lead to different results.
- Fourth, the number of subjects is relatively small, which is due to several factors, two of which are the availability of subjects and the manageability of the data.
- Finally, the results are for German learners and may or may not apply to other languages.

Implications for Further Research

A. Study Abroad

This dissertation looked at the role of formulaic language in oral production as a result of a search for discourse features that appeared salient in the speech of study abroad students. The results of this dissertation suggest that study abroad does have a linguistic impact on the spoken language of exchange students beyond that of increasing attained proficiency. Further research needs to address the areas of accuracy and native-like usage of formulaic language to see if formulaic language attributes to native-like speech and to see if the students become more native-like in their use of formulaic language during their stay abroad.

B. ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines

The results of this dissertation suggest a more comprehensive view of formulaic language than that indicated by the ACTFL Guidelines. As previously noted, ACTFL's (1999) definition of formulaic language refers to "fixed, stereotyped utterances used in routine social situations". Formulaic and rote utterances are regarded as hallmarks of Novice-level speech. These utterances are essential to the performance of tasks such as greetings, asking names, directions, or prices. The results of this study indicate that formulaic language is not limited to these types of rote utterances, instead it encompasses a wide variety of fillers, grammatical frames, and lexical complements. As with Novice-level speech, this study has shown that formulaic language is used at other levels as a strategy for language production, especially in linguistically challenging situations where the students are dealing with tasks beyond their functional capacity. Further research on

the proficiency guidelines and construct validity of the OPI should take into consideration a broader definition of formulaic language, including the idea that it may be a production strategy used at very high levels of proficiency, and not limited to the description of Novice-level speech.

C. Formulaic Language

While this dissertation provides more information on the nature of formulaic language in second language acquisition, there is much to be established in regard to defining and classifying formulaic language. As indicated in the literature review, the literature on formulaic language is relatively recent, dispersed, and can be considered to be in the beginning stages. Researchers are striving towards a consensus on a theory of language centered on formulacity. More complementary studies are needed in each field of language research to gain insight into the nature of formulaic language. In this study, I established a classification of formulaic language using the works of others, extending them with detailed observations of individual speaker production in a limited corpus. These frameworks for classifying formulaic language need to be refined along inclusive and descriptive lines rather than exclusive and prescriptive ones.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A: THE ACTFL ORAL PROFICIENCY GUIDELINES

Cited from the *ACTFL OPI tester training manual* (1999: 82-88). Emphasis in the original.

Superior

Superior-level speakers are characterized by the ability to:

- participate fully and effectively in conversations in **formal and informal** settings on topics related to practical needs and areas of **professional and/or scholarly interests**
- provide a structured argument to explain and **defend opinions** and develop effective **hypotheses** within **extended discourse**
- discuss topics **concretely and abstractly**
- deal with a **linguistically unfamiliar situation**
- maintain a high degree of linguistic **accuracy**
- satisfy the linguistic demands of professional and/or scholarly life

Advanced

Advanced-level speakers are characterized by the ability to:

- participate actively in conversations in most informal and some formal settings in topics of personal and public interest dealt with concretely
- **narrate and describe** in major time frames with good control of **aspect**
- deal effectively with **unanticipated complications** through a variety of communicative devices
- sustain communication by using, with suitable **accuracy** and confidence, connected discourse of **paragraph length** and substance
- satisfy the demands of work and/or school situations

Intermediate

Intermediate-level speakers are characterized by the ability to:

- participate in simple, direct conversations on generally predictable topics related to daily activities and personal environment
- obtain and give information by **asking and answering questions**
- initiate, sustain, and bring to a close a number of basic, **uncomplicated communicative exchanges**
- **create with the language** and communicate personal meaning to **sympathetic interlocutors** by combining language elements in **discrete sentences and strings of sentences**
- satisfy simple personal needs and social demands to survive in the target language culture

Novice

Novice-level speakers are characterized by the ability to:

- respond to simple questions on the most common features of daily life
- convey minimal meaning to **interlocutors** experienced in dealing with foreigners by using isolated words, lists of words, **memorized phrases**, and some **personalized recombinations** of words and phrases
- satisfy a very **limited number of immediate needs**

APPENDIX B: CONSENT FORM

Consent Form

Study Abroad and the Oral Proficiency of Intermediate-level German Speakers

I invite you to collaborate with me in some research which will help me and others who are interested in the effect that study abroad has on oral proficiency. It is generally assumed that the academic year abroad affords students the opportunity to become “fluent” in a second language. Fluency, however, is only one feature that characterizes discourse. By using a more comprehensive global assessment of students’ oral proficiency, I can better describe characteristics and patterns of emerging discourse features.

If you choose to participate, I will ask you to take a 45 minute standardized, audiotaped test called the German Speaking Test (GST), developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics. The GST consists of a warm-up section and 15 tasks and situations of varying linguistic difficulty. I will administer and evaluate the test according to the test marketer’s protocol and standards. I will additionally employ the recognized conventions of discourse analysis in the transcription and evaluation of the audiotaped responses. After I transcribe the tapes, they will be stored for an indefinite period of time under lock and key in a file cabinet in my home, after which they will be destroyed. I have chosen not to destroy the tapes immediately after transcription due to the nuances in speech that cannot be accurately captured in transcription. I will be the only one who has access to the tapes. The transcripts will be stored separately from the tapes.

You were selected as a participant for this project because of your oral proficiency and experience with the German language and culture. You will be one of approximately 20 subjects chosen to participate in this study. There are no anticipated risks associated with this study. There are no direct benefits to you; however, the anticipated benefit is the increase in the understanding of how study abroad affects oral proficiency. Your participation is voluntary and confidential. To ensure your confidentiality, you will be assigned a number. You are making the decision whether or not to participate in this project. You may withdraw at any time after signing this form with out prejudice or penalty.

I would be delighted to include you in my study. If you have any questions regarding this research, you may contact me at either of the following addresses below:

In the United States:
JoBeth Bradley
Department of Modern Foreign Languages
University of Tennessee, Knoxville
701 McClung Tower
Knoxville, TN 37996-0470

In Germany (until July 17, 1999):
JoBeth Bradley
Sprachenzentrum
Universität Stuttgart
Keplerstr. 17
70174 Stuttgart

Tel: (423) 974-3421

Tel: (711) 121-3038

This signed consent form will be kept in storage for a period of three years after the completion of the study at a University of Tennessee location.

Signature of Participant

Date

Signature of Investigator

Date

APPENDIX C: KEY TO TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

- ◌ marks sentence-final falling intonation
- ? marks question intonation
- ˈ indicates unusual stress
- ◌ marks phase-final intonation (more to come)

- .. noticeable pause or break in rhythm less than 0.5 second
- (2) denotes amount of pause length more than 0.5 second
- /?/ marks transcription impossible
- [Brackets between lines indicate overlapping speech or that
The subjects spoke during the beeping time signal

uh or uhm marks non-lexical filled pause

{ words } within brackets indicate very poor approximations of a German word

(words) within parenthesis indicates (laughter), (cough), or (clearing throat)

Appearing above the line in brackets:

[acc] spoken quickly

[dec] spoken slowly

Lexical Fillers are bolded

Non-filler formulaic language is underlined

APPENDIX D: SAMPLE TRANSCRIPT

SUBJECT EINS

1. *“Was machen die Amerikaner normalerweise, wenn sie am Strand sind?”(35)*

ah normalerweise zum erst uh (1.3) bau baut man eine Sandschloß. (1) oder ein

[acc]

Sandcastle, es ist (2.6) nur ein kleines uh Modell von ein Schloß aus Sand. (.5)

uhm .. **auch** (2.3) hoert man Musik und uh .. lesen. (1.5)

die sportlicher Männer (1.4) spielen Volleyball und uh schwimmen. (3.)

und auch kann man das siegelen (.8) und {angelen}.

2. *“Entschuldigen Sie. Können Sie mir sagen, wie ich zum Museum komme?”(35)*

ja sicher. uh (.7) zuerst gehen Sie gerade aus (.8) uh (.8) bis die Ecke. (.7)

[dec]

[acc]

und dann uh (1.7) links auf Schloß .. {Schloßälle}. (2.9) und uh nehmen Sie

{Schloßälle} bis uh (1.7) Linzerstraße und dann uh (2.4) rechts auf uh Linzerstraße. (1.1)

und uh die {Musea} (.7) ist auf Linzerstraße auf die uh (.8) li .. links uh linksten Seite.

3. *“Sag mir, wie sieht ein gewöhnlicher Tag eines amerikanischen Schülers aus?”(1:15)*

ja, man muß uh sehr {fruh} aufstehen. (.6)

[acc]

um uh sechs Uhr oder so was. (.8)

uh dann frühstück und uh (1.8) mit dem bu Bus (1.1) nach die Schule fahren. (1.8)

uh (1.2) man hat vielleicht (.8) uh (.7) sechs oder sieben (.5) Unterricht pró Tag

und dann eine (1) Mittagspause oder Mittagessenpause (.7) uh (1.2)

um (2.6) elf oder zwölf Uhr. (1.3) uhm (16.6)

oder so was. (7) nicht gerade der Vorlesen aber nicht ein Seminar auch (1) uhm (1.3)

für Mittagessen, (2) und uh (.8) {sonntag} nachmittag (1.5) mehr fernsehen.

6. “Wie kann ich denn einen Termin beim Zahnarzt bekommen?”(21.5)

ja sehr einfach. uhm (1)

zuerst uh .. ruf ein Zahnarzt an, (.7)

und uh dann sagt (.7) ja ich heiße Sonja, (.6)

ich habe .. Zahnschmerz,

ich {mocht} ein Termin machen. (3.4)

und (2.3) so einfach bekommen Sie ein Termin.

7. “Was meinst du? Welche Vor- und Nachteile gibt es während des Studiums nicht bei den Eltern zu wohnen?”(1:07.8)

ja es ist sehr besser nicht bei Eltern zu wohnen uh (1.3) von /?/ Uni. (1.3)

[dec]
weil (.9) man treffen mehr leute uh (.7)

man ist (.5) sehr nahe (1.2) nahe uh (1.5) die Partys

und uh andere (2.6) andere College Dinge das passieren. (1.2)

[acc]
und auch (2.8) es ist uh (2.1) eine erste (1) erste Schritt (.9) nach uh (2.8)

nach Arbeit **und so was** wenn man uh .. nicht bei (.7)

wenn man kann nicht bei seinen seinen Eltern (.8) wohnen

oder (.6) **vielleicht** (.8) will nicht bei bei seine Eltern wohnen (.9)

und muß seine einige Familie machen **und so was**. (.9)

uhm (2.3) die einzige Nachteil .. das ich (2) das ich sehe das ist ein (1.6)

ist die uh Heimweh und vielleicht auch ein bischen billig billiger nach Hause zu wohnen
wann man kann.

8. "Was glauben Sie? Sollte man das Schuljahr generell auf zwölf Monate verlängern? Erläutern Sie bitte Ihren Standpunkt zu dieser Frage."(1:25.9)

es ist egal.

[acc]

uhm (1) ein zwölf Mot Monate Jahr oder eine .. es ist vielleicht acht Monate Jahr. (.6)

[acc]

uhm (1) es ist vielleicht leichter eine kleine (1.6) uh acht oder ein {bischen} weniger

acht Monate Jahr Schuljahr (1) ein som ein {Sommer} job zu kriegen.

[acc]

aber (1) für Urlaub und reisen **und so was es ist (.5) ganz egal**

wann man auch (1) mit die zwölf uh Monate Schul Schuljahr (.5) reisen kann,

weil es gibt uh (.9) ich glaub es ist uh .. zwei oder drei ein Monate Urlauben (1.3)

uhm (1) in dieses in dieses uh .. zwölf Monate Jahr. (1.4)

und uh .. dann kann man vielleicht nicht in (.6)

in Sommer und auch in Winter oder (.9) Herbst **oder so was** reisen. (.7)

und dann ist es ein {bischen} uh billiger (2)

und vielleicht kann man auch ein {bißchen .. bißchen} weiter reisen. (1.8)

[acc]

aber für Arbeit ist es (.9) ein Schwierigkeit (.7) weil man braucht .. drei Monate (1.7)

um eine (2.8) für genug uh Geld zur (1.2) zu verdienen. (6)

BEEP

und es ist ein bißchen schwer, uh .. nach die Schuljahr zu arbeiten.

9. "Was wären die Folgen, wenn alle amerikanischen Schüler eine Fremdsprache während ihrer gesamten High School Zeit lernen müßten?"(1:08.8)

ja glaube es vielleicht macht nichts weil (.5) meistens die Leute werden es ..

nie .. benutzen und dann ist (.6) sehr sehr (1.8) bald vergessen nach high school. (1)

die auch an dieses uh (1) dieses exclusione (.9) mitteilen will. (.9)

ich uh (.5) ich hatte nicht .. nicht gewußt daß uh
(.9) diese Hochzeit ohne dies Exclusion on dieselbe .. Tag wár (1.6)

bitte (1.5)

ich habe nicht so viel Geld hier ich brauch ein bißchen mehr. (1.4)

weil es ist ein .. ein bißchen teuer, hier zu wohnen

12. "Für welches soziale Projekt, glauben Sie, sollten sich die ausländischen Studenten einsetzen?"(49.3)

ich glaube daß die ausländer Studenten .. soll uh (1.3)

die uh Schul Schuleren hier (1.7) uhm (1.4) helfen um Englisch zu lernen. ..

weil wir hier alle English kann, und uh (1.3) ich weiß

es ist sehr schwer (.9) für (.8) andere Leute ein Fremdsprache zu uh (1) zu lernen,

und auch schwerer wenn man .. niemand hat dat .. diese Fremdsprache spricht, (1.4)

und uh (.6) wenn man nur mit diese Studenten sprechen kann, (.8)

und uh (2.5) und helfen mit uh .. eurer Grammatik **und so was,** (.7)

dann (1) macht es uh leichter für (.8) für sie (1.2) uh (2.2) uh Englisch zu lernen.

13. "Und nun werden wir einen kurzen Vortrag über Gesundheit, Fitness und Ernährung in den Vereinigten Staaten hören."(1:31.9)

ja guten Tag uh danke für die Einladen. (.9)

uhm (1) **so** .. was gibt es in uh .. Amerika für (.9) Nährung und uh (.5) Fitness? (2)

uhm (2.8) die es ist uh sehr wichtig zu (1) viele viele Leute in America vielleicht (1.5)

[dec]

vielleicht uh mehr als uh in Deutschland **oder** (8.1)

es gibt uh (1.4) viele Leute die uh .. kein Fleisch essen (.6) **und** uh (21.3)

viele Leute joggen, und (4.3) und uh rennen und uh (1.3) macht Sport (3.7)

in uh jede Stadt gibt es uh viele (2)viele Sport (.5) Sportplatz und uh (1.2) andere felder

wo man uh (1.5) Frisbee und Fußball und Football und andere Sportarten spielen kann

14. "Was glaubst du, sollte ich tun, sofort eine Stelle suchen oder für einige Zeit ins Ausland gehen?" (56.1)

[acc]
ja, beide sind toll uh man kann (1.9) sofort viele (.7) viele Geld bedienen (.7)

[acc]
bei eine Stelle aber (2) es ist uh (2.5) noch mehr Ausdeutung

um uh (.5) ins Ausland zu reisen. (2) so (1) wenn du genug Geld hast,

das ist vielleicht die besser (.9) aber (.9) nicht für zu lange.

man soll (.7) um (3) man soll ein ein Platz eine ein Stelle .. suchen, (1.5)

weil man muß uh (1.3) um einige Zeit eine (.7) stabile (.7) Leben kriegen. (6.7)

BEEP
aber vielleicht für (1.3) ein paar Monate **oder so oder so was** reisen

das ist schon ok.

APPENDIX E: SAMPLE CATEGORIZATION OF FORMULAIC LANGUAGE

SUBJECT EINS

1. “Was machen die Amerikaner normalerweise, wenn sie am Strand sind?”

Grammatical Frames:

existential construction es ist

man construction baut man
 hoert man Musik
 kann man

Lexical Complements:

connector und auch

verb collocation spielen Volleyball

phrasal collocation normalerweise zum erst

Fillers:

auch

2. “Entschuldigen Sie. Können Sie mir sagen, wie ich zum Museum komme?”

Grammatical Frames:

imperative: nehmen Sie
 zuerst gehen Sie gerade aus

prepositional phrases auf die
 auf Linzerstraße
 bis die Ecke
 links auf Schloß .. {Schloßälle}
 rechts auf uh Linzerstraße

Lexical Complements:

connector und dann
 und dann

fixed expression ja sicher

3. *“Sag mir, wie sieht ein gewöhnlicher Tag eines amerikanischen Schülers aus?”*

Grammatical Frames:

parataxis:

oder pattern

sechs oder sieben
elf oder zwölf Uhr

prepositional phrase

mit dem bu Bus
nach die Schule fahren

time

um uh sechs Uhr

man construction

hat man
hat man vielleicht
man hat vielleicht
man muß

Lexical Complements:

connector

und nach
nicht gerade der Vorlesen aber nicht ein Seminar auch
und dann

verb collocation

sehr {fruh} aufstehen

Fillers:

ja

oder so was

oder so was

oder so was

4. “Bitte erzähl mir doch, was Tanya letzte Woche beim Einkaufen passiert ist!”

Grammatical Frames:

hypotaxis

als/wenn/wann

wann sie zu Hause war

daß construction

daß es

existential construction

es construction

es war vielleicht

Lexical Complements:

connector

dann später

und dann

fixed expression

sie haben die falsche

sie haben die falsche

Fillers:

Dings

ja

und

5. “Was machen Sie normalerweise am Wochenende?”

Grammatical Frames:

parataxis

und pattern

schlafen und essen und fernseh

prepositional phrase

auf der Ferne

für Mittagessen

am samstags

am somtage

auf Samstags nacht nachts

Lexical Complements:

verb collocation

gehe ich in die Kirche

stehe ich uh {fruh} auf

phrasal collocation

die reste die uh Nachmittag

sonntag nachmittag

fixed expression

mehr fernsehen

noch fernsehen

Fillers:

und, und, und, und

6. “Wie kann ich denn einen Termin beim Zahnarzt bekommen?”

Grammatical Frames:

parataxis

repetitive present tense	ich {mocht}
	ich habe
	ich heisse

Lexical Complements:

expression

sehr einfach
so einfach bekommen Sie ein Termin

Fillers:

ja
ja
und
und

7. “Was meinst du? Welche Vor- und Nachteile gibt es während des Studiums nicht bei den Eltern zu wohnen?”

Grammatical Frames:

existential construction

das construction	das ist
es construction	es ist
	es ist sehr besser

man construction

man ist
man treffen
wann man kann
wenn man kánn

Lexical Complements

connectors

und auch

verb collocation

nicht bei seinen seinen Eltern (.8) wohnen
nicht bei bei seine Eltern wohnen
nach Hause zu wohnen
nicht bei Eltern zu wohnen

fixed expressions

das ich
das ich sehe
und vielleicht auch ein bisschen billig billiger

Fillers: ja, und so was, und so was, vielleicht

8. “Was glauben Sie? Sollte man das Schuljahr generell auf zwölf Monate verlängern? Erläutern Sie bitte Ihren Standpunkt zu dieser Frage.”

Grammatical Frames:

infinitive construction

ein {Sommer} job zu kriegen
zu arbeiten
zu verdienen

existential construction

es construction

es ist vielleicht
es ist vielleicht
ist es
weil es gibt

man construction

dann kann man vielleicht
vielleicht kann man auch
wann man auch
weil man braucht

Lexical Complements:

connector

in Sommer und auch in Winter oder

phrasal collocations

ein {bischen} weniger
ein {bißchen .. bißchen} weiter

fixed expression

es ist (.5) ganz egal
es ist egal
es ist ein bißchen schwer
ich glaub es ist
und dann ist es ein {bischen} uh billiger

Fillers:

oder so was
und so was

9. “Was wären die Folgen, wenn alle amerikanischen Schüler eine Fremdsprache während ihrer gesamten High School Zeit lernen müßten?”

Grammatical Frames:

hypotaxis:

als/wenn/wann wenn sie eine andere Sprache sprach sprechen

infinitive construction ein günstige Sprache zu lernen

existential construction
es construction es ist
weil es gibt

prepositional phrases in Amerika
in Amerika

comparative frames Europa

subjunctive das .. wäre
es wäre gut

man construction man trifft
wenn man eine andere Sprache .. {konnen}
würde man es
wenn man nicht nach
weil man

Lexical complements:
connector und dann

verb collocation bald vergessen
sehr bald vergessen

fixed expression es vielleicht macht nichts
glaube
ist es ein ein {bischen} schweriger

Fillers:

ja;
oder so was;
und;
und so was;
vielleicht

10. “Hast du denn den Regenschirm gebraucht?”

Grammatical Frames:

hypotaxis

wo clause

wo es ist

independent clause

ich weiß nicht,

Lexical Complements:

fixed expression

es tut mir wirklich leid

ich weiß nicht wo

nein

11. “Es tut mir wirklich sehr leid aber ich kann Ihnen Ihr Geld nicht zurück erstatten.”

Grammatical Frames:

existential constructions

es construction

weil es ist

infinitive constructions

hier zu wohnen

um andere Leute zu zu finden

Lexical Complements:

phrasal collocation

ein bißchen teuer

fixed expression

bitte

ich brauch ein bißchen mehr

ich habe nicht so viel Geld hier

warum nicht?

es gibt noch genug Zeit

12. “Für welches soziale Projekt, glauben Sie, sollten sich die ausländischen Studenten einsetzen?”

Grammatical Frames:

hypotaxis:

weil clause weil wir hier alle English kann

existential construction:

es construction macht es

infinitive construction

Englisch zu lernen.
zu lernen
um Englisch zu lernen

man construction

wenn man .. niemand hat
wenn man nur mit diese Studenten sprechen kann

independent clauses

ich glaube daß
ich weiß

Lexical Complements:

connector und auch schwerer

fixed expression es ist sehr schwer

Fillers:

und
und
und
und so was

13. “Und nun werden wir einen kurzen Vortrag über Gesundheit, Fitness und Ernährung in den Vereinigten Staaten hören.”

Grammatical Frames:

parataxis:

und pattern Frisbee und Fußball und Football und andere Sporten spielen kann

existential constructions

es construction	es gibt gibt es was gibt es
------------------------	-----------------------------------

comparative frames	mehr als uh in Deutschland
---------------------------	----------------------------

man construction	wo man
-------------------------	--------

Lexical Complements:

verb collocation	macht Sport
-------------------------	-------------

phrasal collocation	viele Leute viele Leute viele viele Leute in America
----------------------------	--

expression	danke für die Einladen guten Tag es ist uh sehr wichtig
-------------------	---

Fillers:

ja
oder
so
und
und
und
und
vielleicht
vielleicht

14. “Was glaubst du, sollte ich tun, sofort eine Stelle suchen oder für einige Zeit ins Ausland gehen?”

Grammatical Frames:

hypotaxis

als/wenn/ wann

wenn du genug Geld hast

infinitive construction

ins Ausland zu reisen

existential construction

es construction

es ist

man construction

man soll

man soll

man kann

weil man muß

Lexical Complements:

connector

aber vielleicht

fixed expression

beide sind toll

das ist schon ok

das ist vielleicht die besser

nicht für zu lange

Fillers:

ja

oder so oder so was

VITA

JoBeth Bradley graduated in 1982 from *Escola Graduada de São Paulo, Brasil*, an American high school, after moving to Brazil in 1980 from Massena, New York. In 1986 she received a Bachelor of Science degree in Media Studies from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, her father's alma mater. After working in the advertising and photography industries, Beth attained a Master of Arts degree in German from the University of Tennessee at Knoxville in 1993. For the 1993-94 academic year, she was awarded a Fulbright/Pädagogischer Austauschdienst teaching assistantship at the *Integrierte Gesamtschule* in Kiel, Germany. In 1994 she entered the doctoral program in Modern Foreign Languages at the University of Tennessee. For the 1997-99 academic years, she participated in the graduate exchange program with the University of Stuttgart, Germany, where she taught English as a Foreign Language. When not in Germany, she was employed from 1991-2000 by the Department of Modern Foreign Languages and Literatures at UT as Graduate Teaching Associate in German.

Pursuing her interests in oral proficiency, Beth received certification as a trained Oral Proficiency Interview Rater in English from the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages in 1997. In 2000 she was further awarded a Certificate of Achievement as a Rater of the *German Speaking Test*, a simulated oral proficiency interview, by the Center for Applied Linguistics. Since 1995 Beth has also been employed by the University of Tennessee as a trained evaluator for the *Speaking Proficiency English Assessment Kit (SPEAK)*.