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**Bakalářská práce**

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**Fluency markers in the speech of advanced learners of English before and after a study stay in an English-speaking country**

Indikátory plynulosti v řeči pokročilých studentů angličtiny před a po studijním pobytu v anglicky mluvící zemi

## **Poděkování**

Velké díky patří vedoucímu mé bakalářské práce, PhDr. Tomášovi Gráfovi, Ph.D, za obrovskou podporu, cenné rady a vždy pozitivní přístup. Ráda bych také poděkovala své rodině a přátelům za to, že při mně stáli a podporovali mě po celou dobu mého studia.

## **Prohlášení**

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## Abstract

This thesis analyses productive fluency of advanced learners of English and the aim is to find out if study abroad causes changes in the productive fluency of advanced learners of English. The first part deals with definition of fluency, operationalization of productive fluency by performance phenomena: repeats, false starts, and self-corrections; and with the research done so far in the field of study abroad fluency improvement. The data used for the analysis are 14 interviews with seven advanced learners of English conducted before and after studying abroad in an English-speaking country for 1 semester. 1,464 instances of performance phenomena were identified and tagged. The research revealed that the use of repeats and false starts has not changed after studying abroad, while the use of self-corrections dropped significantly after studying abroad. It was also found that certain speakers produced more performance phenomena before studying abroad and maintained the higher rates after studying abroad, suggesting that performance phenomena are employed as a speech management strategy by advanced learners of English. The results of this paper may serve as an impulse for further study of performance phenomena in learner English, and more research of study abroad linguistic gain.

**Keywords:** learner language, fluency, study abroad, repeats, false starts, self-corrections

## Abstrakt

Bakalářská práce analyzuje produktivní plynulost pokročilé žákovské angličtiny a klade si za cíl zjistit, zdali studium v zahraničí způsobuje změny v produktivní plynulosti u pokročilých žáků angličtiny. Teoretická část se zabývá definicí plynulosti, operacionalizací produktivní plynulosti pomocí tří performativních jevů, a to: opakování se, falešné začátky a opravy vlastní řeči; a vlivem studijních pobytů na zlepšení plynulosti. Praktická část je založena na analýze 14 rozhovorů se sedmi pokročilými žáky angličtiny před a po jednosemestrálním studiu v anglicky mluvící zemi. V těchto rozhovorech bylo nalezeno a označeno 1 464 performativních jevů. Výzkum ukázal, že užití opakování se a falešných začátků se po studiu v zahraničí nezměnilo, zatímco užívání opravování vlastní řeči po návratu ze zahraničí kleslo. Dále se projevilo, že někteří mluvčí častěji produkují performativní jevy a tuto tendenci si zachovali i po návratu ze zahraničí, což naznačuje, že tyto jevy jsou užívány jako strategie při vedení spontánní řeči. Výsledky této práce mají sloužit jako podnět k dalšímu výzkumu performativních jevů v žákovské angličtině a jazykového zlepšení jako důsledku studijního pobytu.

**Klíčová slova:** žákovský jazyk, plynulost, studijní pobyt, opakování se, falešné začátky, opravy vlastní řeči

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## List of abbreviations

<b>CAF</b>	Complexity, accuracy, fluency
<b>CLT</b>	Communicative language teaching
<b>FI</b>	Formal instruction
<b>FS</b>	False start
<b>FS R</b>	False start rate
<b>L2</b>	Second language
<b>LINDSEI</b>	Louvain International Database of Spoken English Language
<b>MLR</b>	Mean length of runs
<b>OED</b>	Oxford English Dictionary
<b>PHW</b>	Per hundred words
<b>R</b>	Repeat
<b>RR</b>	Repeat rate
<b>SA</b>	Study abroad
<b>SC</b>	Self-correction
<b>SC R</b>	Self-correction rate
<b>SLA</b>	Second language acquisition

# 1. Introduction

The aim of this thesis is to find out if the productive fluency of speech of seven advanced learners of English has changed before and after a study stay in an English-speaking country. The thesis is focused on two major fields of L2 research: fluency and study stays' linguistic gain. These two topics are often subject to separate research; additionally, fluency is studied as a part of the CAF model of complexity, accuracy and fluency. But the context of a study stay in relation to fluency adds an important preconception described by Freed (1995a) as "students who study abroad are those who make the most progress in their language of choice and are the most likely to become fluent." Some research has been done to test this belief; for example, Kinginger (2009) provides a comprehensive sample of studies of fluency in the context of studying abroad. However, six of the eight studies included in that example are focused on native English speakers, and only three studies are focused on the same speakers before and after a study stay. This study is based on L2 learners of English and it is of longitudinal nature – the same speakers were interviewed before and after they went abroad.

The thesis aims to test the aforementioned belief that if a student goes on a study stay, it will result in improvement of their L2 fluency. The data chosen for the analysis are interviews made with seven advanced English learners who are all students of the English and American Studies at the Charles University in Prague. Each student has been interviewed before they have gone to study abroad and after they have returned. The interviews are dialogues between the speaker and the interviewer, lasting between twelve to fifteen minutes. Productive fluency is operationalized by three specific performance phenomena, which are the target of quantitative analysis: repeats, self-corrections, and false starts. Both the number of phenomena studied, and the number of speakers included in this thesis were influenced by the recommended scope of a bachelor's thesis.

The theoretical part of the thesis describes the concept of fluency, defines the three analysed performance phenomena and their connection to the concept of productive fluency, and deals with study stays' linguistic influence and gain, with aspect to longitudinal studies of linguistic performance. The analytical part of the paper is a corpus study of the three chosen performance phenomena in fourteen interviews with seven students before and after their study stays.

## 2. Theoretical background

### 2.1 Defining fluency

While effortless production of speech seems to come naturally to a native speaker, the task of articulating why it seems so is immensely difficult. Very often, people might say “She is a fluent speaker of English.”, or “He speaks Irish fluently.”, but defining fluency as a linguistic phenomenon is a daunting task. If we first decide to look up the word itself in a dictionary, it is defined as “a smooth and easy flow, smoothness; esp. with regard to speech”<sup>1</sup>. What exactly constitutes this smoothness is a question researchers have been trying to answer for years. There are two main issues when it comes to precisely defining fluency – there are various co-existing concepts of the phenomenon, and there is a great deal of individual aspects involved (Götz, 2013).

Charles Fillmore distinguishes between four dimensions of fluency in his influential essay *On Fluency*. He defines the first dimension simply as “the ability to fill time with talk” (Fillmore, 1979, p. 93), and he stresses the ability of the speaker to plan and produce speech quickly. The second dimension is “the ability to talk in coherent, reasoned and “semantically dense” sentences” (ibid), where the speaker is able to use vast knowledge of grammar and meanings. The third dimension is characterized as “the ability to have appropriate things to say in a wide range of context” (ibid) and this ability has multiple layers. The speaker must have a wide vocabulary at their disposal, but they also must be able to react to different social situations that may arise while using their L2, adding a crucial psycholinguistic element to Fillmore’s third dimension of fluency. The final dimension is “the ability some people have to be creative and imaginative in their language use” (ibid). This final dimension stresses the importance of knowing the stylistics of the L2 and the speaker’s own creations in the L2 such as puns or metaphors. Fillmore captures key components, both linguistic and psychological, of what makes us perceive a speaker as fluent.

Some researchers have since then tried to define fluency in their own terms. Francine Chambers in her 1997 paper *What Do We Mean by Fluency?* describes two definitions of fluency: (1) “fluency as a synonym of oral proficiency” and (2) “fluency in a communicative language teaching perspective”. The first definition points out the

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<sup>1</sup> "fluency, n." *OED Online*, Oxford University Press, December 2019, <https://www.oed.com/view/Entry/72066?redirectedFrom=fluency#eid> Accessed 8.12.2019.

tendency to synonymize fluency with language proficiency, especially in non-technical contexts. In this definition, saying that someone speaks English fluently means that they “have a good command of the language and use it with ease and efficiency” (Chambers, 1997, p. 536). The second definition focuses on the use of fluency in communicative language teaching (CLT), where fluency is understood as “effectiveness of language use within the constraints of limited linguistic knowledge” (ibid). This definition understands fluency as natural language production regardless of native-like speech resemblance and points out the need to produce language at any proficiency of the learner in a real-life context. This understating of fluency is largely associated with C. J. Brumfit’s use of communicative methodology in SLA. Through this approach, the concept of fluency was enriched with speaker’s strategic competence, going beyond assessing just the grammatical knowledge of speakers.

Lennon (1990) too distinguishes between two “senses” of fluency: a broad sense, where fluency again functions as a synonym for oral proficiency; and a narrow sense, where fluency is understood as only one of the components of oral proficiency. In this narrow sense, there is a particular emphasis on native-like production of speech, which Lennon describes as “unimpeded by silent pauses and hesitations, filled pauses, self-corrections, repetitions, false starts, and the like” (p. 390).

The issue with deeming fluency synonymous to oral proficiency is that it reduces what oral proficiency consists of. Oral proficiency does not consist of just fluency, the general consensus among researchers is that it has three key parts: complexity, accuracy and fluency, known under the abbreviation CAF. Complexity is defined as the use of a wide range of intricate and refined grammatical structures and vocabulary, accuracy is the ability to speak without producing mistakes (Housen et al., 2012) and finally, fluency is understood as “the ability to produce the L2 with native-like rapidity, pausing, hesitation or reformulation” (Housen et al., 2012). Fluency is thus only one key component of oral proficiency, not its sole indicator. CAF’s origins can be traced as far back as the 1970s (Housen et al., 2012), and the model is widely used to research L2 proficiency.

Many researches now tend to adopt the definition of fluency in a narrow sense as Lennon (1990) described it, but that definition has been broadened too. Fluency itself is a multidimensional phenomenon. Skehan and Tavakoli (2005) distinguish between at least three sub-categories of fluency: (1) breakdown fluency, (2) speed fluency and (3)

repair fluency. Breakdown fluency is concerned with length, number and position of filled and unfilled pauses in L2 speech, speed fluency is measured by speech rate, articulation rate, and the density of produced speech at a rate. Finally, repair fluency deals with reformulations, repetition, false starts, self-correction and replacement of words or phrases (Skehan and Tavakoli, 2005). On account of these sub-categories, Housen et al. (2012) point out that fluency is mainly a phonological phenomenon, whereas the other two components of CAF, complexity and accuracy, manifest themselves at all levels of language rather than only at the phonological level.

Götz (2013) too distinguishes between three sub-categories of fluency. She creates these categories based on *fluencemes*, abstract variables that “define what contributes to the perception of a native English speaker being fluent” (p. 7), while adhering to the definition of the native speaker as an abstract concept which embodies a norm for L2 learners. The first category Götz characterizes is (1) productive fluency, which has three key components: temporal variables (speech rate, unfilled pauses, etc.), formulaic sequences and fluency-enhancement strategies (speech management phenomena, discourse markers and small words). The second category is called (2) perceptive fluency, which consists of accuracy, idiomaticity, intonation, accent, pragmatic features, lexical diversity, register, and sentence structure. The last category is (3) non-verbal fluency which includes gestures, facial expression, body language, looks and emblems. In Götz’s categories, we can clearly see the different linguistic layers of fluency, but it is also obvious that there is a layer of fluency that is not linguistic at all – non-verbal fluency, which is closely linked to psychological aspects of one’s impression on others.

Fluency as a linguistic phenomenon can be defined as an intersection of various factors. These factors are linguistic, such as grammatical knowledge, the command of a vast range of vocabulary or a person’s accent or register. However, other factors are of psychological nature, such as the speaker’s strategic and social competence. As Götz (2013) points out, some factors, such as looks, are downright biological and can be outside of the speaker’s capability to change. Fluency is also a phenomenon perceived and evaluated by others, so a lot of individual, subjective judgement also comes into play when we assess the fluency of a speaker. When it comes to researching fluency as a linguistic phenomenon and trying to operationalize it, one must be aware of this array of different factors at play. In this paper, the focus lies on what Skehan and Tavakoli

(2005) call repair fluency, or what Götz (2013) regards as productive fluency. The productive fluency of the advanced speakers is operationalized based on three speech management phenomena they have produced before and after the study stay, and their productive fluency will be analysed upon that. It is not the aim of this paper to analyse the oral proficiency of the speakers before and after the study stay. To do so would mean to analyse their speech within the CAF model; however, the purpose of this thesis is to find and inspect (if there are any) changes in the speaker's productive fluency before and after a study stay.

## 2.2 Productive fluency

Productive or repair fluency consists of “features that establish fluency on the part of the speaker” (Götz, 2013, p. 13) rather than on the part of the listener and their perception of the speaker. Productive fluency differs from perceptive fluency in that there is presumably no storage of productive fluency, it is a performance phenomenon of planning and producing speech easily and efficiently (Lennon, 1990). Productive fluency is typically concerned with how something is said and what features of speech are used to express information rather than focusing on what is being said (Götz, 2013). Lennon (1990) calls this *fluency in the narrow sense*, and points out two areas of study that are key to productive fluency: “(1) speech pause relationships in performance and (2) frequency of occurrence of *dysfluency markers* such as filled pauses and repetitions (but not necessarily self-corrections)” (p. 388). These areas focus on both temporal features and performance phenomena of speech production, meaning that productive fluency is more than just the pace of speech production itself.

Götz (2013) divides productive fluency into three areas of study: (1) temporal variables, (2) formulaic sequences and (3) performance phenomena. Since this paper is concerned with performance phenomena, the first two areas will be only briefly summarized here<sup>2</sup>. Temporal variables operationalise what is perceived as, in Fillmore's words, “the ability to fill time with talk” (Fillmore, 1979, p. 93). These variables are speech rate, mean lengths of runs (known also as MLR; defined as the amount of speech produced between pauses), unfilled pauses and the phonation/time ratio (defined by Towell (2002) as “the amount of time spent speaking as a percentage proportion of the time taken to produce the speech sample”) (Götz, 2013). The second area, namely that

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<sup>2</sup> For a broader, more detailed summary see Götz (2013: 14-32).

of formulaic sequences, operates on the basis of Sinclair's (1991) idiom principle, which presupposes that speakers have a "number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, even though they might appear to be analysable into segments." (p. 110). The reasoning for studying formulaic sequences in relation to fluency arises from the observation that even though the act of retrieving may happen once, the speaker produces a string of a few words, which allows more time for planning. (Götz, 2013). Moreover, the use of formulaic sequences contributes to the psycholinguistic perception of a non-native speaker's nativelike use of language (ibid, p. 30).

### **2.2.1. Performance phenomena**

While producing spontaneous speech, speakers are under the pressure of planning and executing their utterances in real time. This pressure leads to the creation of dysfluencies such as filled pauses, hesitations, repetitions, etc. (Biber et al., 1999). While it might seem that the production of such performance phenomena is a sign of a speaker's overall dysfluency; Lennon (1990) points out that "[it is] difficult to determine to what extent such features function for the speaker as useful tools in the ongoing process of speech production, and to what extent are markers of the system breaking down" (ibid, p. 394). Rühlemann (2006) argues that rather than calling these features dysfluencies, as the prefix *dys-* is often used for pathological conditions and has a pejorative meaning to it, they should be called *speech management phenomena* since they are the result of a speaker adapting to the immediate needs of interactive, online conversation. Moreover, this ability to adapt by understanding and using speech management phenomena in a nativelike way can be understood as a sign of linguistic competence (cf. McKelvie, 1998, p. 405) rather than the opposite. Götz (2013) agrees that these phenomena should not be seen as negative as they contribute to the impression of natural speech production and points out that if someone spoke "according to the rules of written grammar, they would appear to be [...] unnatural." (p. 33).

Speech management strategies in non-native speech serve two purposes: as a (1) way to increase the speaker's productive fluency when used as a planning strategy and (2) their location and distribution can make speech seem more natural and nativelike

(ibid, p. 34). In the context of productive fluency, they consist of repeats, filled pauses<sup>3</sup>, and self-corrections.

#### 2.2.1.1. Repeats

The most frequently used speech management strategy is repeats (Biber et al., 1999, p. 1058). Repeats commonly occur at the beginnings of phrases or conversational units where the planning pressure on the speaker seems to be at its peak. Repeats tend to co-occur with certain word classes, usually with word classes that commonly appear at the beginnings of syntactic or conversational units (ibid). As such, the most often repeated word classes are nominative personal pronouns, possessive determiners, articles<sup>4</sup> and conjunctions (ibid). Personal pronouns are most commonly used at the beginnings of conversational units, often at the beginning of a turn, which results in build-up of planning pressure, making the speaker more likely to produce repeats (ibid). Biber et al. (1999) contrast this with the use of accusative personal pronouns which are almost always located at the end of a major syntactic unit and are not as likely to be repeated because of that (ibid). Possessive determiners such as *my*, *yours*, etc. introduce a noun phrase, and are thus more likely to be repeated because of the planning pressure (ibid). Articles such as *the* have a high repeat index because they too introduce full noun phrases (ibid). Some conjunctions also have a high frequency of index. These conjunctions are used as common clause introductions, and Biber et al. (1999) name three: *and*, *if*, *when*. Notably, prepositions do not produce the same or higher repeat index as e.g. conjunctions. However, Biber et al. (1999) point out that prepositions are very often lexically predictable based on the word that precedes them and that they are mostly stored as lexical chunks. The speaker “will therefore hit a planning problem only after the preposition has been enunciated.” (Biber et al., 1999, p. 1060). Verbs, with the exception of *is*, have a comparatively low repeat index (ibid). Biber et al. (1999) explain that although verbs usually begin a verb phrase, it is often the subject that triggers a repeat. Subjects tend to be very simple in conversation, thus the main planning point rests on them, resulting in a higher repeat index (ibid). Repeats seem

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<sup>3</sup> Filled pauses will not be analysed here due to the scope of this paper. However, they could be an interesting phenomenon to look at in the study abroad corpus that was compiled and used in the analytical part of this thesis.

<sup>4</sup> The indefinite article *an* is an exception, as Biber et al. (1999) explain that in order to use *an*, the speaker must have had already selected the word which will follow it, and so there is no reason for hesitation.

to be the preferred strategy of native English speakers to plan an utterance ahead, and they are commonly used by non-native speakers for the same reason.

#### **2.2.1.2. Self-corrections**

Self-corrections occur when the speaker realises they have said something incorrect (that could be either content- or grammar-related, or possibly both) and they feel the need to correct themselves (Götz, 2013). Biber et al. (1999) call these *retrace-and-repair sentences*, where “the speaker retraces (or notionally ‘erases’) what has just been said, and starts again, this time with a different word or sequence of words (p. 1062). These sequences are often accompanied by other speech management phenomena such as filled pauses (ibid). Riggensbach (1991) calls this phenomenon a *retracted restart* and distinguishes between two types: (1) repetitions and (2) insertions, which are defined as “a retraced restart in which new, unretraced lexical items are added” (p. 427). *Insertions* could thus be considered another term for self-corrections, however, as Gráf (2015) points out, self-corrections should only be considered as such “when they involve a correction of an error” (p. 37). All other cases of repair phenomena which do not involve error-correction, or when it is impossible to determine if they do, should be considered to be reformulations or false starts (ibid). Self-corrections are a natural part of unplanned speech and occur for a number of reasons which include the need to be more precise or specific, a subsequent evaluation of speaker’s output, or a reaction to any number of needs that arise in online, interactive conversation (ibid). Götz (2013) further argues that:

“Self-corrections – unless it is only used to reformulate the content of an utterance – signals that the learner has noticed inaccuracy in their output and they demonstrate they possess the necessary competence to repair their mistake (vs. an error, which they would not have noticed).” (p. 38)

The use of self-correction is thus evaluated as a sign of linguistic competence rather than a dysfluency, and even though there is a certain perceived threshold of the frequency of self-corrections, they should be considered as a positive speech management strategy (ibid).

#### **2.2.1.3. False starts**

Unlike self-corrections, where the original utterance has involved an error and is thus retraced and corrected, false starts are defined as “reformulations in which

the original utterance is rejected” (Riggenbach, 1991, p. 427). Witton-Davies (2010) defines false starts as “words left as incomplete clauses, and followed by a new start involving different lexis and syntax” (p. 123). Both of these definitions open the question just how much of the utterance is being rejected by the speaker, and if the quantity of how much is rejected reflects the fluency of the speaker – i.e. if more fluent speakers reject a smaller part of the utterance before they restart (Riggenbach, 1991). False starts occur for a number of reasons, such as an external interruption (this involves both speaker and event interruptions, or a change in intention of the speaker). It must be noted that it can sometimes be difficult to distinguish false starts from self-corrections since they both involve some form of interruption and reformulation of speech. Thus, the rule that if the utterance does not involve an error or it is impossible to say it will be classified as a false start will be followed in this paper.

### **2.3 Study abroad**

As the world grows more and more interconnected by the day, study abroad has become an increasingly popular component of higher education. With the help of programmes such as Erasmus+, more students than ever embark on a journey abroad during the course of their higher education. According to the Erasmus+ 2018 annual report, over 800 000 people have studied, trained, or volunteered abroad thanks to the programme just in that one year. There are a lot of expectations associated with study abroad and undoubtedly, the idea of second language improvement is a major one (Freed, 1995b). Study abroad (SA) research in relation to second language acquisition (SLA) has only recently become a more prominent field of study, although the tradition of studying abroad goes back for centuries (Sanz and Morales-Front, 2018). The majority of the research lies within contrasting the SA to traditional formal instruction of an L2 classroom (FI) and how certain aspects of language seem to develop differently in the context of SA (ibid). Such research stems from the assumption that students who acquire L2 throughout a combination of an immersive setting of a native speaking community and formal classroom learning will ultimately become the most proficient in their chosen L2; a claim for which there is relatively little compelling empirical evidence (Freed, 1995b).

A handful of studies started to appear in the 1960’s and onwards, but the boom of SA research happened in the 1990s (Sanz and Morales-Front, 2018). Since then,

various aspects of SA grew in the interest of researchers, and Sanz and Morales-Front (2018) distinguish between three key areas the research of study abroad focuses on: (1) language development and personal growth, including phonological development, pragmatics, morphosyntax, oral fluency and complexity, lexical development, communication and/or learning strategies, personal growth and identity; (2) the study abroad program and its settings, concentrating on the length of stay, the type of accommodation, and the various types of programs, such as sheltered or hybrid ones. Finally, the last area is (3) the person and their individual differences, analysing individual's aptitude, motivation, anxiety, working memory, proficiency levels, age, and intercultural sensitivity. Due to the scope of this study, the relationship between fluency and study abroad will be the only area analysed here in greater detail.<sup>5</sup>

### **2.3.1. Study abroad and the effects on fluency**

The notion that study abroad improves non-native speaker fluency is a deep rooted one. Freed (1995b) points out a certain assumption has arisen regarding study abroad: it is the students who go abroad who will become most proficient, making study or stay abroad necessary in order to reach native-like language proficiency (p. 5). However, Freed immediately notes that such an assumption has little empirical support. Nevertheless, this assumption persists today, and a number of studies have been conducted to see if it is supported by empirical evidence.

The first major study of the benefits of study abroad on language proficiency was done by John Carroll in 1967, and while it found that study abroad is a predictor of proficiency, it relied solely on test scores to measure linguistic proficiency, which is a major limitation and cannot speak much to the qualitative changes in language proficiency during SA (Freed, 1995b). A couple of large quantitative studies followed Carroll's with similar outcomes<sup>6</sup>, as well as a handful of smaller case studies by Möhle (1984) and Raupach (1984, 1987). These case studies imply that what most students gain by SA is an improvement of fluency by acquiring features that make them sound more native-like (Freed, 1995b). DeKeyser (1990) compared a group of American students who have spent a semester abroad in Spain to a group of students who remained

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<sup>5</sup> For more information on study abroad research see Cristina Sanz and Alfonso Morales-Front, eds. *The Routledge Handbook of Study Abroad Research and Practice* (New York: Routledge, 2018).

<sup>6</sup> Due to the scope of the paper these studies will not be examined in detail here. For more information see Barbara F. Freed, ed. *Second Language Acquisition in a Study Abroad Context* (Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1995) p. 3-33.

at home, and while his main research question revolved around the differences in language acquisition between an SA and FI setting, he also found that the students who have travelled abroad had noticeable gains in fluency and vocabulary.

In his influential study, Lennon (1990) attempts to quantify characteristics of fluency by monitoring a group of four German students who went on an SA to the United Kingdom, thus singling out the area of fluency out of the larger field of language proficiency that has been researched in relation to SA so far. He finds that overall, the perceived fluency of the students improved during their stay in Britain (p. 412). It is important to note, though, that the number of students in that study is small. Barbara Freed's 1995 study "*What Makes Us Think that Students Who Study Abroad Become Fluent?*" enlarged the number of subjects, and more importantly for the purpose of this paper tries to inquire into the connection of SA and fluency, rather than focusing more on e.g. operationalization of fluency itself as Lennon (1990) does. Freed (1995a) found no significant difference in perceived fluency between the 15 students who went abroad and those who stayed at home. Interestingly, once the more advanced students were excluded from the data, an improvement in fluency has been found, suggesting that those students who were considered less fluent than other before they went abroad were also the ones perceived as more fluent after they have returned. This outcome highlights one of the biggest issues of studying fluency in relation to SA – individual differences of the speakers, influenced by a plethora of aspects such as length of stay, initial L2 proficiency, etc. (see the areas of research pointed out in 1.3). Freed revisited her findings in 2004 along with Segalowitz and Dewey, this time with 28 students studying in various learning contexts. They concluded that SA does overall appear to benefit oral fluency and vocabulary more than at-home instruction.

More studies followed Freed et al.'s (e.g. Hilton, 2009; DeKeyser, 2010; Mora and Valls-Ferrer, 2012, 2014; McManus et al., 2020) and in general, the research so far concluded that SA programmes "yield substantial linguistic gains in learners' oral skills" (Mora and Valls-Ferrer, 2012, p. 613) . In regard to fluency, there is a demonstrable difference in the temporal aspect of productive fluency in the students who have gone on a study stay, operationalized by speech rate and mean length of run (Valls-Ferrer and Mora, 2014) and that findings seem to consistently prove that oral proficiency improves during SA (Wright, 2018). Three main ways of assessing data have arisen: (1) comparing L2 students who have gone on a study stay with native

speakers, (2) comparing L2 students who have gone on a study stay with L2 students who have stayed at home, and (3) studies comparing the same set of L2 students before and after a study abroad.

However, it is crucial to point out that most of the studies concerned with SA note the effects individual factors may have on the outcome of the studies (Valls-Ferrer and Mora 2014; Wright 2018). Not only do the conditions of the programme itself influence the language improvement of the speaker, but the learner's personality and motivation play a key role during SA (Mora and Valls-Ferrer, 2012). These aspects must be kept in mind while dealing with SA research.

### **2.3.2. Longitudinal studies of SA**

As mentioned in 2.3.1, one of the most common approaches to researching language development during SA has been the longitudinal study. Menard (2008) defines a longitudinal study as research where “data are collected on one or more variables from two or more time periods, thus allowing at least measurement of change and possibly explanation of change.” (p. 3) In the context of longitudinal studies of language proficiency and development, speaker's output is documented multiple times over a certain time period, either before SA and after SA (e.g. Lennon, 1990, Freed et al., 2004), or before SA, during SA and after SA (e.g. Mora and Valls-Ferrer, 2012; McManus et al., 2020), and the data derived from these individual measurements is then compared. Most commonly, the comparison is made between the different outputs of one speaker, rather than between the speakers (e.g. Serrano et al., 2012). It is SA studies that compare the outgoing students with a control group of students who are staying at home which contrast data between various speakers (e.g. DeKeyser, 1990). Both approaches fall into a type of the longitudinal study which Menard (2008) calls *multiple cohort panel design* (p. 6).

The main reason why researchers often chose the longitudinal approach when dealing with SA is explained by the very definition of a longitudinal study: measuring change. Most SA studies concerning language proficiency, or in this case the narrower field of fluency, are asking the question whether or not SA has any effect on language development. In order to find and measure that change, the longitudinal approach is used. However, it must be noted that longitudinal research poses certain issues when it comes to measurement (Menard, 2008). The first major issue of longitudinal research is distinguishing unreliability from true change (see Taris, 2008), followed by the question

whether or not it is appropriate to operationalize the same concept differently throughout individual's life (Menard, 2008). Menard (2008) along with Paterson (2008) argue that when the way a concept is measured is altered, if there is a change found in the outcome, it is impossible to say if the change "results from change in the concept we are trying to measure, or change in the measurement of the concept." (Menard, 2008, p. 7). At the same time, the same measurement might not be valid, since measuring the same concept when dealing with longitudinal research might not be appropriate because different modes of measurements are needed at various stages of an individual's life (Menard, 2008). Other issues of longitudinal research concerns the respondents and their recall (see Grotper, 2008), or the potential of respondents, knowing that there are participating in a study, altering their behaviour or answers (Menard, 2008). Researchers thus must be aware of the potential problems<sup>7</sup> longitudinal studies pose and asses their data and results with those issues in mind.

As previously mentioned, it is not the purpose of this study to assess the oral proficiency of the speakers before and after studying abroad as it is not analysing their speech using the CAF model. Nor it is trying to assess the fluency of the speakers as a whole. Fluency is a complex phenomenon with three main areas, and the analysis of this paper is concerned only with one area of productive fluency. The research question of this study is asking if the production of performance phenomena, namely repeats, false starts and self-corrections, changes after a study stay, and if it does change, how.

### **3. Analysis**

The aim of this thesis is to examine whether the productive fluency of speakers who have participated in a study abroad programme has changed. Specifically, the analysis presented on the subsequent pages focuses on three productive fluency phenomena: (1) repeats, (2) self-corrections and (3) false starts in the speech of seven Czech advanced learners of English who have spent a semester in an English-speaking country as part of their study programme.

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<sup>7</sup> For more information on longitudinal research and for a more in-depth analysis of the issues longitudinal research poses, see Scott Menard, ed. *Handbook of Longitudinal Research: Design, Measurement, and Analysis* (Burlington: Elsevier, 2008).

### 3.1 The Czerasmus English Learner Corpus

The data for this analysis is derived from the small spoken learner corpus called Czerasmus English Learner Corpus, which focuses on language development in the SA context. As its name suggests, it is linked to Czech students participating in the Erasmus+ Programme in English-speaking countries. The compilation of the corpus was initiated by PhDr. Tomáš Gráf Ph.D. from the Department of English Language and ELT Methodology at the Charles University in Prague. To date, twenty-one students have been interviewed and recorded before and after taking part in the Erasmus+ programme, and each interview lasts between fifteen to twenty minutes. Out of those twenty-one speakers, the interviews of nineteen of them were subsequently transcribed according to the Louvain International Database of Spoken English Language (LINDSEI)<sup>8</sup> transcription guidelines<sup>9</sup>. Three participants were male, fifteen were female, and they were all in their early to mid-twenties. All participants were enrolled into one of the following study programmes: Bachelor of Arts in English and American studies, or Master of Arts in English Language and Linguistics. As students of these programmes, they all had to sit an entrance exam proving that their English language proficiency was, according to the CEFR classification, at least B2 or higher, and in the course of their studies they all passed a progress test set at the C1 level. Consequently, they can be deemed as advanced learners of English<sup>10</sup>. However, the proficiency of these speakers was not tested for the purpose of this corpus, and it may thus be expected to vary between low C1 (C1-) and C2. All nineteen participants went on their Erasmus+ to one of five destinations in Europe: Fourteen students went on Erasmus+ to the United Kingdom, nine of whom studied in England and four of whom in Scotland. Three participants studied in the Republic of Ireland, and two participants studied in Germany.

England (UK)	9
Scotland (UK)	4
Ireland	3
Germany	2

**Table 1.** Erasmus+ destinations of the Czerasmus English Learner Corpus participants

<sup>8</sup> Louvain International Database of Spoken English Language (LINDSEI). See <https://uclouvain.be/en/research-institutes/ilc/cecl/lindsei.html>. Accessed 2.4.2020.

<sup>9</sup> See <https://uclouvain.be/en/research-institutes/ilc/cecl/transcription-guidelines.html>. Accessed 2.5.2020.

<sup>10</sup> More about the study programmes can be found here (Czech only): <https://www.ff.cuni.cz/prijimaci-rizeni/studijni-obory/bakalarske-obory/anglistika-amerikanistika/>. Accessed 2.5.2020.

The corpus contains two subcorpora, one containing the pre-study abroad data, and the other the post-study abroad data. The overall size of the corpus is 97,496 tokens, and its more detailed structure can be seen in table 2 below.

	Number of interviews	Tokens: A-turns	Tokens: B-turns	Total tokens	Total length in hh:mm:ss
Pre-SA	19	11,634	35,611	47,245	04:40:57
Post-SA	19	8,752	41,499	50,251	05:02:34
<b>Total</b>	38	20,386	77,110	97,496	09:43:31

**Table 2.** *The size of the corpus and its two subcorpora*

Table 3 then provides a breakdown of the descriptive values for the individual speakers.

	Number of interviews	Tokens: A-turns	Tokens: B-turns	Total tokens	Total length in hh:mm:ss
Pre-SA	7	4,805	12,955	17,760	01:48:46
Post-SA	7	3,653	15,684	19,337	01:57:27
<b>Total</b>	14	8,458	28,639	37,097	03:46:13

**Table 3.** *The size of the subcorpora used for this study*

### 3.2 Data for the present study

For the purpose of this study, seven speakers who have gone to study abroad were selected for this paper from the aforementioned Czerasmus English Learner Corpus. The reason for that number of participants is the limited scope of a bachelor's thesis. The selection was based on two criteria: they have gone on Erasmus+ to an English-speaking country, and their study stay lasted one semester. As shown in table 4, out of the seven selected participants, five were female and two were male. Five spent a semester abroad in England, one in Scotland, and one in Ireland.

Interviewee ID	Sex	Erasmus+ destination	Length of stay
A	F	England (Crewe)	1 semester
B	M	England (Winchester)	1 semester
C	F	England (Sheffield)	1 semester
D	F	Ireland (Limerick)	1 semester
E	F	England (Canterbury)	1 semester
F	M	Scotland (Stirling)	1 semester
G	F	England (Birmingham)	1 semester

**Table 4.** *The participants of this study*

### 3.3 Method

Once the participants were selected, I have reviewed the orthographic transcriptions of their interviews pre- and post-SA, and subsequently identified the three performance phenomena and tagged them. The interlinear, incremental tagging system created by Gráf (2017) has been adopted for this research (see table 5 for examples). The first position of each tag specifies the type of performance phenomena (R = repeat, FS = false start, SC = self-correction). The second position is numerical and describes the length of the phenomena. In the case of repeats, a third position is added to the tag, also numerical and it expresses the number of times the utterance is repeated. The fourth position of the tag uses letters to encode the part of speech and its various subtypes<sup>11</sup>.

Example of a tag	Meaning of the tag
<R_1_2_P> I I really hope to use that	R = repeat, 1 = repeating one word, 2 = occurring 2 times, P = pronoun
<R_2_2> I didn't I didn't have to pay	R = repeat, 2 = repeating 2 words, 2 = occurring twice
enjoy it and <FS_1> we (em) I'm a scout	FS = false start, 1 = one word abandoned
and <SC_2> that was that is (er)	SC = self-correction, SC = two words retraced

**Table 5.** *Examples of tags and their decoding*

The tagging follows Clark and Wasow's (1998) conception of repeats as analysable units. They define the space between the suspension and resumption of speech as a hiatus which can be left unfilled, but it also can be filled with different pauses. I have thus ignored any intervening silent pauses (marked with full stops in the transcription) and fillers (or combinations of them) throughout the tagging, so sequences

<sup>11</sup> The subtype categories are as follows: Ad – definite article; Ai – indefinite article; Ao – other determiner; B – preposition; C – conjunction; D – discourse marker; E – existential there; F – filler; G – adverb; Ip – infinitive particle; J – adjective; N – noun; P – pronoun; Pr – pronunciation; R – rhetorical; U – numeral; V – verb; W – wh-word; X – contraction

such as *what (eh) what really* or *of. of of English* were still identified as repeats. Fillers or pauses are not included in the second numeral position of the tag in the case of false starts or self-corrections.

False starts were determined based on two criteria: the utterance involved rephrasing (example 1) or a truncated word (example 2):

(1) <FS\_3> *this was like . I had like all master's*

(2) *the way they* <FS\_1> *dec= (eh)*

Finally, an utterance was tagged as a self-correction only if it included an error, whether it was a lexical error (example 3) or a grammatical one (example 4), and the number of words retraced is denoted in the second position of the tag (example 4):

(3) *I'm learning* <SC\_1> *Irela= Irish*

(4) *which I* <SC\_2> *find al= found also interesting*

After the transcriptions were tagged, I have listened to the recordings of the interviews to perform an aural check of the tagging accuracy. This allowed me to distinguish between repeats and repetitions by listening to the intonation. Some repetitions were used rhetorically (R), e.g. for emphasis (example 5), or they were discourse markers (D), e.g. replies (example 6):

(5) *people are* <R\_1\_2\_R> *very very grand*

(6) <R\_1\_2\_D> *yeah yeah exactly how I feel*

Interestingly, upon listening to the transcriptions, some phenomena first identified as false starts turned out to be self-corrections of pronunciation and so in those cases, a third position was added to the <SC\_+> tag with the category Pr – pronunciation (example 7, IPA transcription in example 7a).

(7) *and* <SC\_1\_Pr> *c= Celtic mythology class*

(7a) *ænd* <SC\_1\_Pr> *sə= keltɪk mɪθvɒlədʒɪ kla:s*

Contractions (e.g. *I'm*, *he's*, etc.) were counted as one word since other studies similar to this one (e.g. Clark and Wasow, 1998; Götz, 2013; Gráf, 2017) use the method of counting graphic words. Biber et al. (1999) note that such classification is valid as “contractions are processed by the speaker and hearer as single words” (p. 1061).

Contractions were not tagged according to what word classes the individual components are but were instead marked as X (example 8).

(8) *we actually <R\_1\_2\_X> don't don't seek another*

Sometimes, the phenomena co-occurred, where for example a false start included a repeat (example 9). In such cases, I have tried to classify the utterance as just one phenomenon, but in some instances the line between the phenomena was so blurred that I was not able to choose just one classification. Such phenomena were tagged as double tags <DTG>.

(9) *in those terms <DTG> <FS\_5> I was expecting <R\_1\_2\_C> that . that <overlap /> (erm) .. <R\_1\_2\_P> I I expected <R\_1\_2\_C> that that U K*

Once the tagging process was finished, the files were analysed using AntConc (Anthony, 2019) in two separate subcorpora: pre-SA and post-SA. Phenomena tagged as rhetorical (R) or discourse marker (D) (see examples 5 and 6 above) were excluded from the analysis.

### 3.4 Results

#### 3.4.1. Overall analysis of the performance phenomena

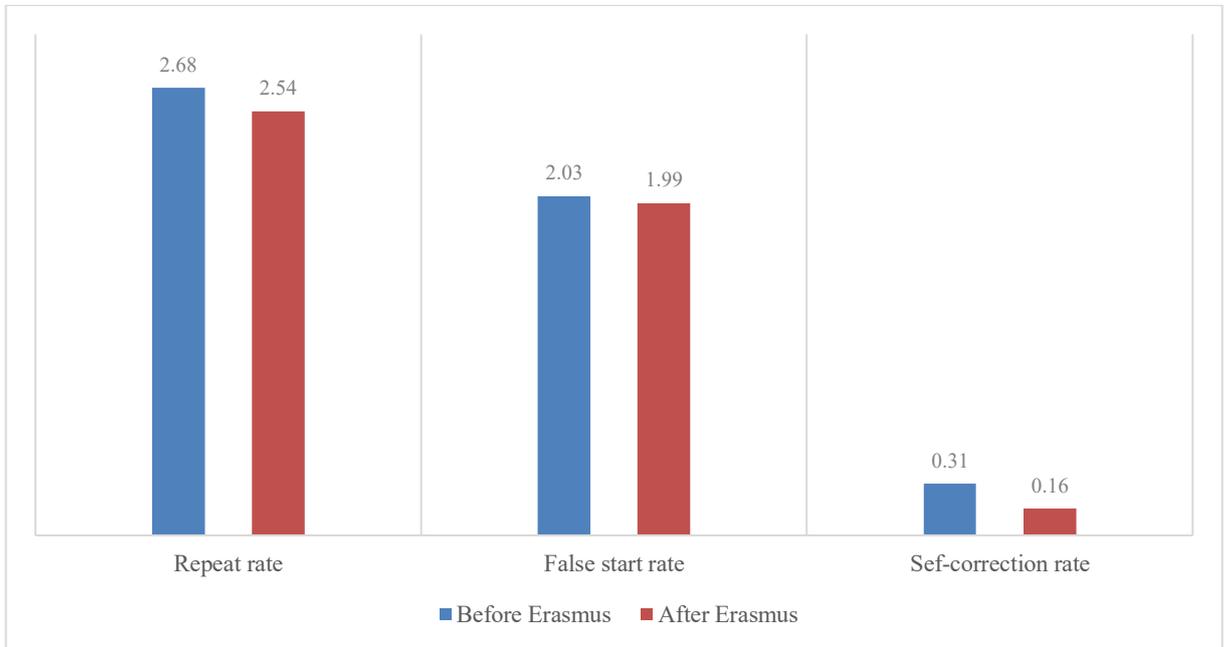
A total of 1,464 performance phenomena were found. Out of those, 46 were classified as rhetorical (R) and 33 as discourse markers (D). After removing those from the analysis, 1,385 phenomena remained. As shown in table 6, a little over a half of these phenomena were repeats, closely followed by false starts, while self-corrections have the smallest share. These ratios are approximately identical for both the pre-SA and post-SA subcorpora.

	pre-SA		post-SA		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Repeats</b>	347	53.4 %	398	54.1 %	745	53.8 %
<b>False starts</b>	263	40.5 %	312	40.5 %	575	41.5 %
<b>Self-corrections</b>	40	6.2 %	25	6.2 %	65	4.7 %

**Table 6.** *Frequencies of performance phenomena*

In order to accurately measure if the production of performance phenomena has changed after SA, relative frequencies must be calculated. To this end, as done in most other studies, rates per hundred words (henceforth phw) were calculated. To do so, the

number of tokens produced by the speaker was counted – 12,955 tokens pre-SA, 15,684 tokens post-SA – so that the number of performance phenomena could be divided by the number of tokens and multiplied by 100. Figure 1 shows that the rates of repeats and self-corrections have decreased, while the false starts rate has only slightly dropped.



**Figure 1.** *Relative frequencies of performance phenomena*

The relative frequencies were then calculated for individual speakers. Table 5 shows the rates pre-SA. The values ranged from 0.84phw to 4.44phw for repeats, from 0.87phw to 4.44phw for false starts, and from 0phw to 0.57phw for self-corrections. As it can be seen in table 7, there are three speakers whose repeat rates are higher in comparison to the other speakers – over 4phw. Those are speaker B, speaker D and speaker F. There is only one speaker whose false starts rate is significantly higher in comparison to the other participants of the study – speaker B with 4.44phw. The self-corrections rate is consistently under 1phw and does not go over 0.6phw.

	Repeats		False starts		Self-corrections	
	N	phw	N	phw	N	phw
<b>Speaker A</b>	28	1.60	32	1.82	4	0.23
<b>Speaker B</b>	95	4.44	95	4.44	9	0.42
<b>Speaker C</b>	30	1.58	29	1.52	0	0.00
<b>Speaker D</b>	79	4.10	40	2.07	11	0.57

<b>Speaker E</b>	14	0.84	20	1.21	9	0.54
<b>Speaker F</b>	73	5.24	28	2.01	3	0.22
<b>Speaker G</b>	28	1.29	19	0.87	4	0.18

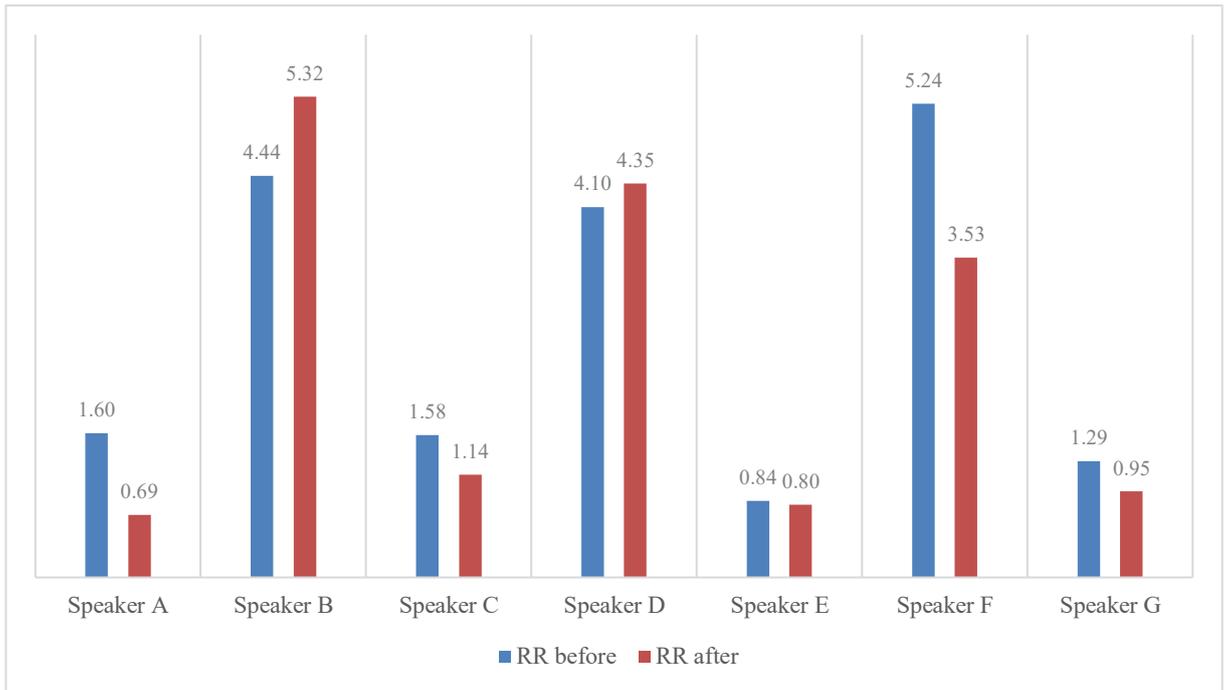
**Table 7.** *Individual speaker's relative frequencies of performance phenomena pre-SA*

Table 8 shows the rates of the speakers post-SA. Here the values ranged from 0.69phw to 5.32phw for repeats, from 1.16phw to 3.52phw for false starts, and from 0.05phw to 0.28phw for self-corrections. We can see that the three speakers (B, D and F) whose repeat rate was higher in comparison to the other participants maintained the higher repeat rates after SA. Speaker B again has a higher false starts rate compared to the other speakers, and the self-correction rate is now under 0.3phw across the board.

	<b>Repeats</b>		<b>False starts</b>		<b>Self-corrections</b>	
	<b>N</b>	<b>phw</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>phw</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>phw</b>
<b>Speaker A</b>	15	0.69	44	2.03	3	0.14
<b>Speaker B</b>	145	5.32	96	3.52	7	0.26
<b>Speaker C</b>	24	1.14	27	1.28	1	0.05
<b>Speaker D</b>	92	4.35	44	2.08	6	0.28
<b>Speaker E</b>	14	0.80	30	1.72	2	0.11
<b>Speaker F</b>	85	3.53	43	1.79	3	0.12
<b>Speaker G</b>	23	0.95	28	1.16	3	0.12

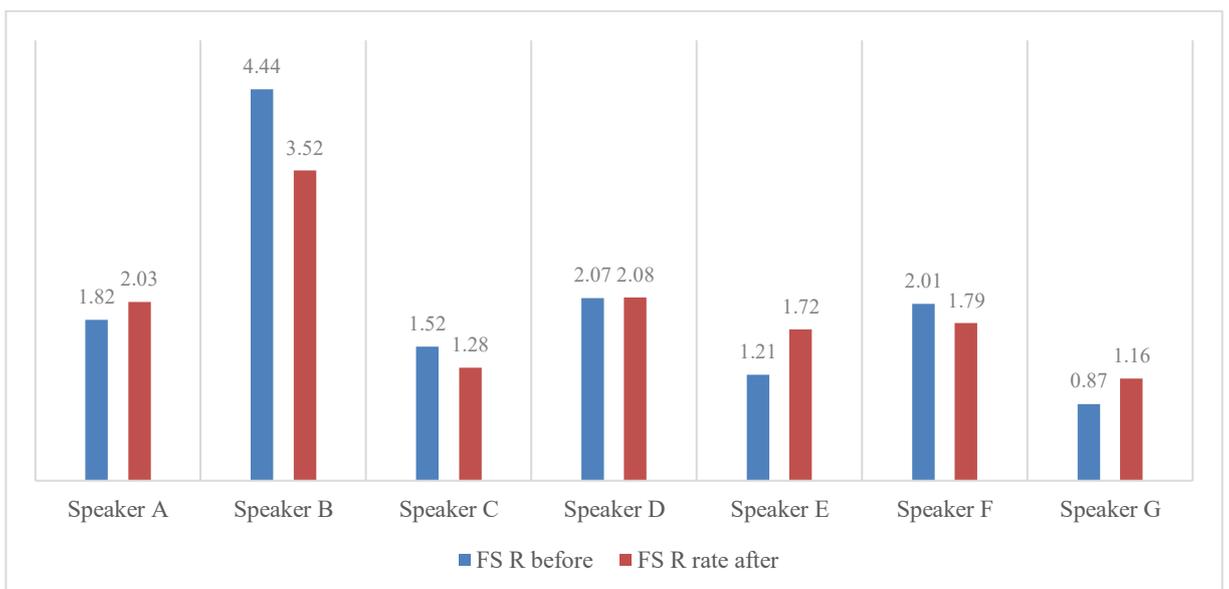
**Table 8.** *Individual speaker's relative frequencies of performance phenomena post-SA*

Figure 2 shows that when we compare the individual speaker's repeat rates before and after SA. The differences between pre- and post-SA repeat rates range from 0.04 to 1.71, and the general trend shows that the repeat rate has lowered except for two speakers – interestingly, those two speakers (B and D) were among those with higher repeat rate pre-SA.



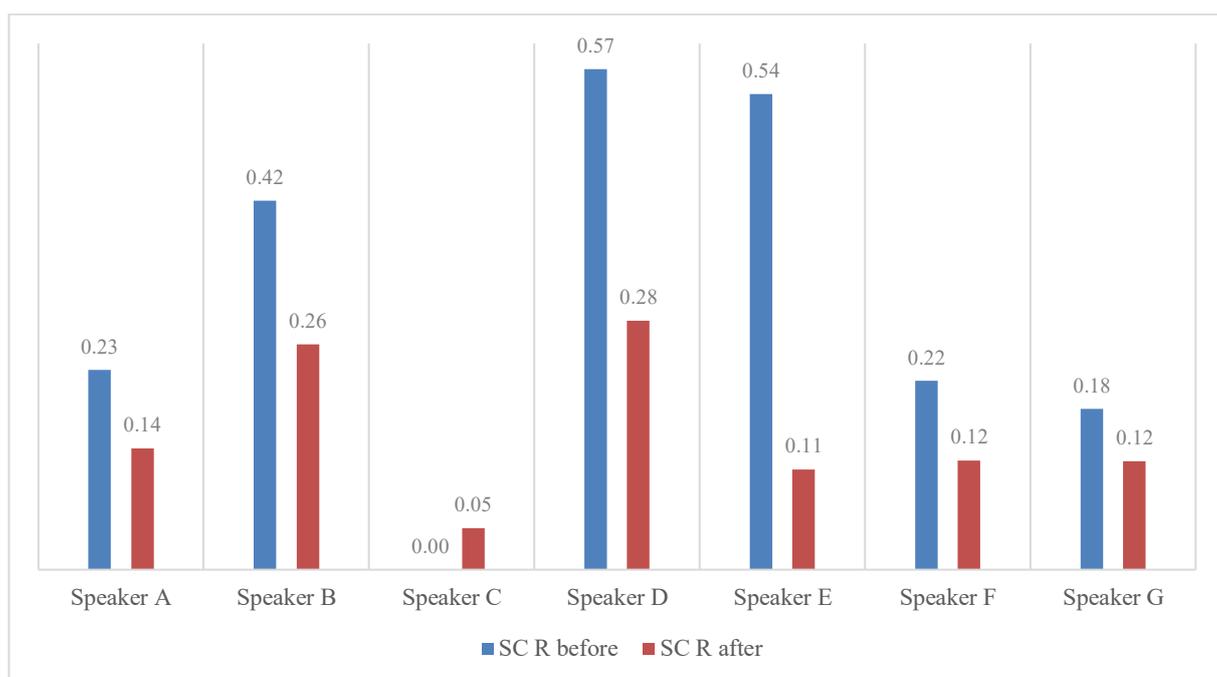
**Figure 2.** *The repeat rate (RR) of individual speakers pre- and post-SA*

There is wider variation among the speakers when comparing the false starts rate (Figure 3). False starts rate has risen in the case of four speakers – A, D, E and G. The false starts rate of the remaining three speakers B, C and F has lowered. However, it must be noted that the differences between pre- and post-SA rates are not that high – they range from 0.01 to 0.92, never surpassing 1. Interestingly, speakers B, D and F, whose repeat rates were higher in comparison to the other speakers also had higher false starts rates among the participants, especially speaker B.



**Figure 3.** *The false starts rate (FS R) of individual speakers pre- and post-SA*

Finally, in the case of self-corrections, the rate has lowered for almost all speakers with the exception of speaker C, as shown in figure 4. As with the false starts rate, the differences never surpass 1 and they range from 0.05 to 0.43. Speakers B and D and E have a slightly higher self-correction rate than the rest of the participants of the study. Out of those three speakers, speakers B and D also had higher repeat rates and false starts rates.



**Figure 4.** *The self-corrections rate (SC R) of individual speakers pre- and post-SA*

After compiling the results, a chi-square test was conducted using the korpus.cz corpus calculator Calc 1.01 (Cvrček, 2020) to find out which differences in the rates are statistically significant. In table 9<sup>12</sup>, it is clear that the only statistically significant change found was the overall decrease in the production of self-corrections.

	<b>Chi-square</b>	<b>p</b>
<b>Repeats</b>	0.56	0.46
<b>False starts</b>	0.06	0.81
<b>Self-corrections</b>	<b>6.99</b>	<b>0.008</b>

**Table 9.** *Statistically significant results in the total rates before and after SA*

When comparing the rates of individual speakers, only three results were found to be statistically significant, as shown in table 10. Speakers A and F repeat rate has

<sup>12</sup> In tables 9 and 10 the statistically significant results are highlighted.

lowered significantly, and speaker E’s production of self-corrections has dropped significantly.

	Repeats		False starts		Self-corrections	
	Chi-square	p	Chi-square	p	Chi-square	p
<b>Speaker A</b>	<b>6.55</b>	<b>0.01</b>		0.64		0.51
<b>Speaker B</b>		0.16		0.10		0.32
<b>Speaker C</b>		0.23		0.51		0.34
<b>Speaker D</b>		0.69		0.99		0.16
<b>Speaker E</b>		0.89		0.21	<b>4.84</b>	<b>0.03</b>
<b>Speaker F</b>	<b>6.42</b>	<b>0.01</b>		0.63		0.50
<b>Speaker G</b>		0.28		0.34		0.60

**Table 10.** *Statistically significant results within individual speaker rates*

The fact that only four results are statistically significant is most likely due to the small number of participants in the study, and subsequently the small amount of data. Thus, it cannot be concluded that study abroad has significant influence on the use of performance phenomena in the speech of advanced non-native speakers of English.

### 3.4.2. Repeats

Out of all performance phenomena identified in the two subcorpora, 53.8% were repeats (see table 4 in 3.3.1. for more). The total number of repeats produced by all speakers, both pre- and post-SA, is 743. As previously mentioned in 3.2, rhetorical (R) and discourse markers (D) repetitions were excluded from the analysis. Table 11 shows how many repetitions were excluded from the final analysis of repeats.

	Pre-SA	Post-SA	Total
<b>Repeats found</b>	382	442	824
<b>Rhetorical repetitions (R)</b>	15	18	33
<b>Discourse marker repetitions (D)</b>	20	26	46
<b>Repeats excluding (R) and (D) repetitions</b>	347	398	745

**Table 11.** *Number of repeats analysed*

Table 12 shows that out of the 745 repeats, three quarters (75.4%) of them were repeats of one word. Repeats of two words are less common in the subcorpora with two-

word repeats coming up to 21.6% and repeats of three words and more being the least common (3%).

	N	%
<b>One-word repeats</b>	562	75.4 %
<b>Two-word repeats</b>	161	21.6 %
<b>Three-word repeats</b>	16	2.1 %
<b>Four-words repeats</b>	6	0.8 %
<b>More than four words</b>	0	0 %
<b>Total</b>	745	100 %

**Table 12.** *Frequencies of repeats based on length*

Once the figures were analysed pre- and post-SA, we can see in table 13 no difference was found and there is an overall trend of one-word repeats making up the bulk of the repeats with 75%. The frequency of two-word repeats is again around 20% and the frequency of repeats of three or more words is again the lowest. There is no change in the frequency of repeats based on length after going on a study stay.

	Pre-SA		Post-SA	
	N	%	N	%
<b>One word</b>	263	75.8 %	299	75.1 %
<b>Two words</b>	74	21.3 %	87	21.9 %
<b>Three words</b>	6	1.7 %	10	2.5 %
<b>Four words</b>	4	1.2 %	2	0.5 %
<b>More than four words</b>	0	0 %	0	0 %
<b>Total</b>	347	100 %	398	100 %

**Table 13.** *Frequencies of repeats based on length pre- and post-SA*

#### 3.4.2.1. One-word single repeats

As seen in table 12 in the previous chapter, one-word single repeats (tagged as <R\_1\_2>) are the most common type of repeat produced by the speakers. In total, 241 one-word single repeats were found in the pre-SA subcorpus, and 264 one-word single repeats in the post-SA subcorpus. Such finding is not a surprise, Biber et al. (1990) show that one-word single repeats are the most common type of repeat among speakers. Table 14 shows the most frequently repeated types of words pre-SA with pronouns,

prepositions and contracted forms being the three most common elements of speech repeated. Two elements of speech – pronouns and prepositions were repeated by all seven speakers in the subcorpus, while contractions were repeated by six speakers (86%).

<b>Repeated element</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Speakers involved</b>
Pronoun	82	34.0 %	7 (100 %)
Preposition	35	14.5 %	7 (100 %)
Contracted form	22	9.1 %	6 (86 %)
Conjunction	22	9.1 %	5 (71 %)
Adverb	16	6.6 %	5 (71 %)
Article – definite	12	5.0 %	5 (71 %)
Adjective	11	4.6 %	5 (71 %)
Verb	10	4.1 %	5 (71 %)
Filler	9	3.7 %	5 (71 %)
Wh-word	9	3.7 %	4 (57 %)
Infinitive particle	8	3.3 %	3 (43 %)
Noun	2	0.8 %	2 (29 %)
Numeral	2	0.8 %	2 (29 %)
Determiner – other	1	0.4 %	1 (14 %)
<b>Total</b>	<b>241</b>	<b>100 %</b>	

**Table 14.** *Frequencies of one-word single repeats pre-SA*

Table 15 shows the frequencies post-SA and the four most repeated elements of speech remain the same: pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and contracted forms. We can see some fluctuations in the frequencies between pre- and post-SA – for example, adverbs were more repeated pre-SA than post-SA, but verbs were more repeated post-SA. However, since the number of speakers in this subcorpus is quite small, no general conclusions can be made from these fluctuations.

<b>Repeated element</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>speakers involved</b>
Pronoun	95	36.0 %	7 (100 %)
Preposition	40	15.2 %	6 (86 %)

Conjunction	20	7.6 %	5 (71 %)
Contracted form	18	6.8 %	5 (71 %)
Article – definite	17	6.4 %	4 (57 %)
Verb	12	4.5 %	5 (71 %)
Indefinite particle	10	3.8 %	5 (71 %)
Adjective	10	3.8 %	5 (71 %)
Adverb	9	3.4 %	5 (71 %)
Filler	8	3.0 %	4 (57 %)
Wh-word	7	2.7 %	3 (43 %)
Determiner – other	7	2.7 %	3 (43 %)
Noun	4	1.5 %	4 (57 %)
Numeral	4	1.5 %	4 (57 %)
Article – indefinite	2	0.8 %	1 (14 %)
Existential there	1	0.4 %	1 (14 %)
<b>Total</b>	<b>264</b>	<b>100 %</b>	

**Table 15.** *Frequencies of one-word single repeats post-SA*

#### 3.4.2.2. One-word multiple repeats

In total, 57 instances of one word repeated more than two times were found. 43 of those were repeats that occurred three times (<R\_1\_3>), 13 were words repeated four times (<R\_1\_4>), and 1 instance where a word was repeated five times (<R\_1\_5>). 15 instances of one-word repeated three times were found pre-SA and table 16 shows that the most commonly repeated elements are again pronouns and prepositions.

<b>Repeated element</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Speakers involved</b>
Pronouns	5	33.3 %	4 (57 %)
Preposition	4	26.7 %	2 (29 %)
Article - definite	2	13.3 %	2 (29 %)
Conjunction	1	6.7 %	1 (14 %)
Contracted form	1	6.7 %	1 (14 %)
Numeral	1	6.7 %	1 (14 %)

Wh-word	1	6.7 %	1 (14 %)
Total	15	100 %	

**Table 16.** *Frequencies of three-times repeats (<R\_1\_3>) pre-SA*

28 instances of one-word repeated three times were identified post-SA. Table 17 breaks down the repeats by element of speech repeated, with pronouns and prepositions yet again being the most commonly repeated elements.

Repeated element	Count	%	Speakers involved
Pronoun	10	35.7 %	4 (57 %)
Preposition	8	28.6 %	2 (29 %)
Contracted form	3	10.7 %	2 (29 %)
Article – definite	3	10.7 %	2 (29 %)
Adverb	2	7.1 %	2 (29 %)
Determiner – other	1	3.6 %	1 (14 %)
Indefinite particle	1	3.6 %	1 (14 %)
Total	28	100 %	

**Table 17.** *Frequencies of three-times repeats (<R\_1\_3>) post-SA*

There were 13 instances of one word repeated four times found in the subcorpus, As can be seen in table 18, 7 of them were found in the pre-SA transcriptions and repeats of pronouns were the most frequent.

Repeated element	Count	%	Speakers involved
Pronoun	3	42.9 %	2 (29 %)
Preposition	2	28.6 %	1 (14 %)
Conjunction	1	14.3 %	1 (14 %)
Article – definite	1	14.3 %	1 (14 %)
Total	7	100 %	

**Table 18.** *Frequencies of four-times repeats (<R\_1\_4>) pre-SA*

6 of the repeats were identified in the post-SA transcriptions with prepositions and conjunctions being the two most frequent this time, as can be seen in table 19. However, only one speaker had produced the fourfold repeats of a conjunction, whereas two speakers had produced a fourfold repeat of a preposition.

Repeated element	Count	%	Speakers involved
Preposition	2	33.3 %	2 (29 %)
Conjunction	2	33.3 %	1 (14 %)
Pronoun	1	16.7 %	1 (14 %)
Article – definite	1	16.7 %	1 (14 %)
Total	6	100 %	

**Table 19.** *Frequencies of four-times repeats (<R\_1\_4>) post-SA*

As mentioned at the beginning of the chapter, there was one instance of a single word repeated five times. It was in a post-SA transcription and the word element was a conjunction.

### 3.4.2.3. Multi-word repeats

Out of the 743 repeats found in the subcorpus, 182 were multi-word repeats. Out of those 182, the overwhelming majority (160) were two-word repeats (<R\_2\_2/3>). 16 repeats were three-word repeats (<R\_3\_2/3>) and only 6 were four-word repeats (<R\_4\_2/3>). 83 multi-word repeats were identified in the pre-SA transcriptions. Table 20 shows the frequencies of multi-word repeats pre-SA, with two words repeated twice being the most common type of multi-word repeat. Overall, we can see that it is more common for a multi-word repeat to be repeated twice rather than three times or more.

Type of repeat	Count	%	Speakers involved
Two words repeated twice (R_2_2)	69	83.1 %	7 (100 %)
Two words repeated three times (R_2_3)	4	4.8 %	3 (43 %)

Three words repeated twice (R_3_2)	5	6.0 %	3 (43 %)
Three words repeated three times (R_3_3)	1	1.2 %	1 (14 %)
Four words repeated twice (R_4_2)	3	3.6 %	3 (43 %)
Four words repeated three times (R_4_3)	1	1.2 %	1 (14 %)
Total	83	100 %	

**Table 20.** *Frequencies of multi-word repeats pre-SA*

99 multi-word repeats were found in the post-SA transcriptions and as we can see in table 21, there are only small differences between the pre- and post-SA multi-word repeats. Two-word repeats occurring twice are again the most common type of a multi word repeat. Three words repeated twice were slightly more common this time, while repeats occurring three times were less common (or in the case of three and four-word repeats non-existent), and four-word repeats were less frequent.

Type of repeat	Count	%	Speakers involved
Two words repeated twice (R_2_2)	83	83.8 %	7 (100 %)
Two words repeated three times (R_2_3)	4	4.0 %	3 (43 %)
Three words repeated twice (R_3_2)	10	10.1 %	5 (71 %)
Three words repeated three times (R_3_3)	0	0 %	0 (0 %)
Four words repeated twice (R_4_2)	2	2.0 %	2 (29 %)
Four words repeated three times (R_4_3)	0	0 %	0 (0 %)
Total	99	100%	

**Table 21.** *Frequencies of multi-word repeats post-SA*

### 3.4.3. False starts

In total, 575 instances of false starts were identified, 263 of them occurring pre-SA and 312 of them post-SA. In the tagging, I have marked how many words were abandoned and reformulated (see 3.3). As can be seen in table 22, the most common

number of words abandoned in a false start pre-SA is one. Two words abandoned are the second most common type of false start, and three words abandoned are the third most common. In those cases, all 7 speakers were involved. False starts abandoning four or more words have fewer speakers involved, and the number of speakers involved drops as the number of abandoned words goes up.

<b>Number of words abandoned</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Speakers involved</b>
One (<FS_1>)	135	51.3 %	7 (100 %)
Two (<FS_2>)	79	30.0 %	7 (100 %)
Three (<FS_3>)	31	11.8 %	7 (100 %)
Four (<FS_4>)	10	3.8 %	4 (57 %)
Five (<FS_5>)	6	2.3 %	2 (29 %)
Seven (<FS_7>)	1	0.4 %	1 (14 %)
Nine (<FS_9>)	1	0.4 %	1 (14 %)
<b>Total</b>	<b>263</b>	<b>100%</b>	

**Table 22.** *Frequencies of false starts pre-SA*

Table 23 shows that post-SA, false starts abandoning one word are the most common again. However, this time false starts involving two words are slightly more frequent. False starts involving seven or nine words do not appear at all, but false starts abandoning six or eight words were found. It must be noted that it is impossible to draw any general conclusions from these differences since the number of participants of the study is small.

<b>Number of words abandoned</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Speakers involved</b>
One (<FS_1>)	135	43.3 %	7 (100 %)
Two (<FS_2>)	121	38.8 %	7 (100 %)
Three (<FS_3>)	36	11.5 %	7 (100 %)
Four (<FS_4>)	14	4.5 %	5 (71 %)
Five (<FS_5>)	4	1.3 %	3 (43 %)
Six (<FS_6>)	1	0.3 %	1 (14 %)
Eight (<FS_8>)	1	0.3 %	1 (14 %)
<b>Total</b>	<b>312</b>	<b>100 %</b>	

**Table 23.** *Frequencies of false starts post-SA*

### 3.4.4. Self-corrections

The final phenomenon analysed in the present study is self-corrections. In total, 65 self-corrections were identified – 40 of them pre-SA, 25 post-SA. This drop post-SA was found to be statistically significant (see 3.4.1.). Some of these self-corrections were identified to be corrections of pronunciation upon listening to the recordings, and as it can be seen in table 24, out of the total amount of self-corrections, 21.5% were self-corrections of pronunciation. 17.5% of pre-SA self-corrections were corrections of pronunciation, while 28% of post-SA self-corrections were corrections of pronunciation.

	Pre-SA	Post-SA	Total
<b>N of SC</b>	40	25	65
<b>N of SC classified as pronunciation (&lt;SC_+_Pr&gt;)</b>	7	7	14
<b>%</b>	17.5 %	28.0 %	21.5 %

**Table 24.** *Self-corrections (SC) of pronunciation pre- and post-SA*

Table 25 shows the types of self-corrections produced pre-SA, including the pronunciation corrections. The most common type of self-correction involves the retracement of two words (35%), with one-word self-corrections close behind (32.5%).

Number of words retraced	Count	%	Speakers involved
One (<SC_1>)	13	32.5 %	6 (86 %)
Two (<SC_2>)	14	35.0 %	5 (71 %)
Three (<SC_3>)	5	12.5 %	3 (43 %)
Four (<SC_4>)	7	17.5 %	3 (43 %)
Five (<SC_5>)	1	2.5 %	1 (14 %)
Total	40	100 %	

**Table 25.** *Frequencies of self-corrections pre-SA*

There were fewer self-corrections made post-SA (see 3.4.1.). As shown in table 26, only 25 self-corrections were identified post-SA, with self-corrections retracting just one word being the most common (64%). Self-corrections retracting two words dropped down by 11%, and no self-corrections of four or five words were found post-SA. One self-correction retracting six words was found.

<b>Number of words retraced</b>	<b>Count</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Speakers involved</b>
One (<SC_1>)	16	64.0 %	7 (100 %)
Two (<SC_2>)	6	24.0 %	4 (57 %)
Three (<SC_3>)	2	8.0 %	2 (29 %)
Six (<SC_6>)	1	4.0 %	1 (14 %)
Total	25	100 %	

**Table 26.** *Frequencies of self-corrections post-SA*

#### **4. Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to find out if there is any change of productive fluency in the speech of seven advanced learners of English after studying abroad. Productive fluency was operationalized by a measurement of rates per hundred words of three performance phenomena – repeats, false starts, and self-corrections. It was found that neither the repeat rate nor the false starts rate changed significantly after SA. The self-corrections rate has dropped significantly, however; it must be noted that does not mean that the speakers made fewer mistakes in their speech. Only self-corrections were counted in the corpus, not mistakes, and so we cannot positively conclude that the speakers made fewer mistakes post-SA, as they could have made mistakes but did not self-correct, and such mistakes were not counted.

To my knowledge, no study focusing on the same three performance phenomena has been conducted in the context of non-native SA linguistic gain, and a comparative analysis in that area cannot be made. Studies concentrating on fluency in the context of study abroad generally conclude that oral fluency improves post-SA (Freed, 1995a; Freed et al., 2004; Mora and Valls-Ferrer 2012, 2014; Juan-Garau, 2018; McManus et al., 2020), but those studies operationalize productive fluency by measuring speech rate and mean length of runs. Some include the study of hesitation phenomena, usually pauses (both filled and/or unfilled), but not repeats, false starts, or self-corrections.

However, there have been studies on the use of the three performance phenomena in non-native speech. In the case of repeats, there was little to no change found in the type of repeats the speakers used pre- and post-SA. Both before and after studying abroad, the most common type of repeat was the repeat of one word, with the repeat of two words being the second most frequent. The types of words which were

most commonly repeated also did not change pre- and post-SA, and the four most repeated types are pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and contracted forms. These findings are consistent with other studies on the topic of repeats in non-native speech, such as Götz (2013) or Gráf (2017). It is not surprising that the most repeated types of words are pronouns and prepositions. These words largely occur at the beginning of utterances where planning pressure is at its peak, and this strategy correlates with the native-like use of repeats to relieve some of that planning pressure. Repeats of prepositions might also suggest planning pressure at the beginning of noun or prepositional phrases. Interestingly, Gráf's (2017) study of repeats involves participants similar to the participants in this study – advanced learners of English from an academic environment – and the results are very alike. This could suggest a more general tendency that the speakers use repeats as a speech management strategy and are not perceived as a dysfluency, both by the speaker and the hearer (see Rühlemann, 2006).

Not many studies focusing on false starts in learner English exist (see e.g. Götz, 2013). In the present study, no change has been found in the production of false starts before and after studying abroad. The false starts rate pre- and post-SA is almost identical and further analysis of false starts suggests an overall trend of shorter false starts being more common – between one to three words, with false starts involving four or more words being rare in the subcorpus. A study conducted by Huang and Gráf (2018) shows that false starts rate seems to decrease as language proficiency increases; however, as has been previously mentioned, oral proficiency of the speakers has not been analysed in the present study and it cannot be said if proficiency or its change had any effect on the production of false starts pre- and post-SA.

The decrease in self-corrections post-SA was one of the statistically significant results in the present paper, but as previously mentioned, the number or rate of overall mistakes has not been measured, so it cannot be concluded that the speakers made fewer mistakes post-SA. The results again show a tendency towards a smaller number of words retraced with only one word corrected being the most common length of a self-correction. There has been more research done on self-corrections in L2 (see e.g. Green and Hecht, 1993; Kormos, 1999; Vercellotti and McCormick, 2018) than on false starts. Monitoring one's speech is regarded as a tool in language learning and self-corrections should be seen as a sign of linguistic competence – that the speaker is able to find and correct their error (see 1.2.1.3.). However, the number of mistakes made was not

measured, and so drop in the production of self-corrections post-SA can neither be exclusively seen as a drop in the production of a certain dysfluency, nor as the speakers producing fewer mistakes.

Finally, the individual speakers' rates must be considered. When comparing the rates of the speakers, speaker F was found to have a higher repeat rate among the participants both pre- and post-SA. Speakers B and D had higher repeat and false starts rates before SA and maintained them after SA. This might suggest that those speakers prefer the use of repeats and/or false starts as a fluency-enhancing strategy, while others might prefer different strategies, such as the use of discourse markers, or filled pauses. This might indicate a general tendency towards viewing repeats, false starts and self-corrections not as dysfluencies but as a fluency-enhancing strategy. However, in order to draw more general conclusions, a bigger, more detailed research of repeats, false starts and self-corrections in the context of language learning and study abroad is necessary.

## **5. Limitations**

As any scholarly enterprise, the present study also has its weak points. As is often the case, if a larger sample of data had been analysed, more conclusive results could have been gained. The data does show some tendencies that were discussed in the previous chapter, but possibly owing to the size of the sample the results are not statistically significant. Yet there is some decrease in the frequencies of the measured phenomena after SA – perhaps, once more samples have been analysed, it will be possible to prove that the decrease measured here is actually significant and systematic.

It must be borne in mind that this study focused only on one dimension of fluency. Thus, the results do not say that if a more holistic picture of fluency were taken into account, one which would focus on measuring other dimensions and subdimensions (e.g. such as suggested by Götz, 2013), more areas of change could arise out of the comparison of pre- and post-SA data. And, of course, it is also not possible to draw any conclusions about the speakers' overall proficiency (see 2.1). This was not the aim of the study and many more dimensions would have to be taken into account, not just within the CAF framework (e.g. has there been any progress in the areas of discourse and pragmatics?).

Finally, it must be noted that it was not the aim of this thesis to explore possible correlations of the data with any metadata available. It would be well worth exploring though, for example, the nature of any measured changes in relation to e.g. the intensity of exposure to English during SA, as it is not difficult to imagine that such intensity can vary widely (e.g. if the speaker is co-habiting with a native or non-native speaker etc.).

## **6. Summary and conclusion**

The aim of this paper was to analyse productive fluency in the speech of seven advanced learners of English before and after studying abroad for a semester in an English-speaking country. In the theoretical part, the definition and research of fluency in linguistics was briefly summarized and explained. It has been specified that this paper focuses on analysis of what is known as productive, or repair fluency. Furthermore, the concept of productive fluency has been defined for the purpose of this paper and so were the three performance phenomena that were the focus of the analytical part – repeats, false starts and self-corrections. Subsequently, the research of study abroad linguistic gain and specifically fluency gain was summarised and the many variables that must be accounted for when researching SA were pointed out. Since this is a longitudinal study, the rigours of longitudinal studies of SA were clarified in the final chapter of the theoretical part of this paper.

In the research part, the data and the method for this study were described, and finally, the results were presented. As explained at the beginning of the paper, there is a certain implicit preconception that students become more fluent after studying abroad. The hypothesis of this paper was that rates of repeats, false starts and self-corrections would go down after SA, but that has not happened in the case of repeats and false starts. It is possible that the hypothesis was not confirmed due to the small size of the subcorpus used for this study. It is also possible that a change in productive fluency has manifested in some of its other areas such as speech rate. There are also many variables that come into play when conducting the interviews themselves, for example stress, nervousness or distractions in the environment that might cause the speaker to produce more performance phenomena. However, it is also possible that the use of these phenomena is a speech habit of the speakers and that the relatively short one semester long study stay was not long enough for the advanced speakers to change the habit. Thus, the results could indicate that the use of repeats, false starts and self-corrections is a speech

management strategy that the speakers utilize on a regular basis and preserve after study abroad, however; more research is needed in order to confirm that hypothesis.

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# Resumé

## 1. Úvod

Cílem této práce je zjistit, zdali se produktivní plynulost řeči sedmi pokročilých žáků angličtiny změnila poté, co vyjeli na jednosemestrální studijní pobyt do anglicky mluvící země. Studie se zaměřuje na dvě oblasti: plynulost a lingvistické zlepšení během studijního pobytu. Tyto dvě oblasti jsou často zkoumány odděleně, avšak kontext studijního pobytu a plynulosti vnáší představu, že ti studenti, kteří vyjedou na studijní pobyt, budou mluvit plynuleji. Pro tento úsudek ale existuje málo empirických důkazů. Tato práce si tedy klade za cíl ověřit tuto představu. Změna v produktivní plynulosti je operacionalizována měřením tří performativních jevů neboli indikátorů plynulosti, a to opakováním se, falešnými začátky a opravami sebe sama.

## 2. Teoretická část

Teoretická část této práce se zabývá třemi hlavními tématy, a to plynulostí, studiem v zahraničí a dlouhodobými studii. V kapitole 2.1 je definována plynulost jako lingvistická kategorie na základě několika studií o plynulosti (Fillmore, 1979; Chambers, 1997; Lennon, 1990; Skehan and Tavakoli, 2005; Housen et al., 2012; Götz, 2013). Na základě modelu CAF – složitosti, přesnosti a plynulosti (Housen et al., 2012) je objasněno, že plynulostí není myšlená jazyková schopnost ani pokročilost, jelikož plynulost řeči je jen jedna ze součástí toho, co činí mluvčího jazykově zdatným. Samotná plynulost má několik dělení, dle Götz (2013) ji můžeme rozdělit na (1) produktivní plynulost, která se zabývá např. rychlostí řeči, pauzami apod. Další je (2) vnímaná plynulost, která se skládá z přesnosti, intonace, přízvuku atd. Poslední součástí je (3) neverbální plynulost, do které spadá například gestikulace, mimika, nebo vzhled. Analýza se tedy soustředí jen na jednu oblast produktivní plynulosti, které se blíže věnuje kapitola 2.2. Produktivní plynulost má tři základní součásti: časové faktory (rychlost řeči, nevyplněné pauzy atd.), sekvence konvenčních výrazů a strategie, které zlepšují plynulost (performativní jevy jako opakování se, výplňová slova atd.). Během spontánní mluvy vzniká tlak na mluvčího, aby plánoval a zároveň vykonával svou mluvu. Díky tomuto tlaku vznikají performativní jevy, které jsou popsány v kapitole 2.2.1. Někdy se těmto jevům říká *dysfluence*, Rühlemann (2006) ale argumentuje, že jsou to strategie, které napomáhají mluvčím zvládat tlak spontánní mluvy, a neměly by být vnímány negativně.

Následující tři podkapitoly se blíže věnují třem performativním jevům, které jsou předmětem analýzy. Opakování se je nejčastější performativní jev. Většinou se objevuje na začátku vět či frází, kde je tlak na mluvčího nejvyšší (Biber et al., 1999). Zájmena, spojky,

předložky a determinátory jsou tak nejčastěji opakovanými slovními druhy v angličtině (Biber et al., 1999). K opravám vlastní řeči dochází ve chvíli, kdy si mluvčí uvědomí, že řekl něco špatně (ať už obsahově, nebo gramaticky), a rozhodne se své prohlášení opravit. Je stěžejní, aby ve chvíli, kdy je útržek řeči klasifikován jako oprava, prokazatelně obsahoval chybu. Pokud ji neobsahuje, je na místě, aby byl klasifikován jako falešný začátek. Falešné začátky jsou útržky řeči, které se mluvčí rozhodl opustit a místo nich utvořit jinak strukturovaný začátek. Tyto začátky nemusí obsahovat chyby, pokud útržek chybu obsahuje, měl by být klasifikován jako oprava vlastní řeči.

Kapitola 2.3 se zabývá druhým velkým tématem této práce, a to je studium v zahraničí a jeho vliv na jazykové zlepšení. Samotné studium v zahraničí je téma, na které se dívat z mnoha úhlů pohledu, jako například psychologického, sociologického, nebo v tomto případě lingvistického. Ačkoliv se tato práce věnuje lingvistickému zlepšení, psychologické či například organizační faktory jako délka pobytu, ubytování atd. mají na jazykové zlepšení vliv, a je nutné ně nezapomínat. Kapitola 2.3.1. se věnuje vlivu studijních pobytů na jazykovou plynulost. Na základě několika studií (Freed, 1995a; DeKeyser, 1990; Lennon, 1990; Freed et al., 2004; More and Valls-Ferrer, 2012, 2014) lze dokázat, že studium v zahraničí způsobuje změny v časových faktorech produktivní plynulosti, jako například rychlost řeči, ale v jiných oblastech plynulosti se obecná změna zatím neprokázala.

Poslední kapitola teoretické části se věnuje úskalím dlouhodobých studií. Jelikož se tato práce zabývá měřením změny, je to dlouhodobá studie, kde je první set dat sesbírán před odjezdem na studijní pobyt, a druhý set je posbírán po příjezdu. Hlavním problémem těchto studií je rozlišení opravdové změny od nespolehlivosti. Dalším úskalí může být stejná operacionalizace během několika časových úseků, která ale může vlivem času ztratit na přesnosti vlivem změn, které proběhly. Těchto problémů si při dlouhodobém výzkumu musíme být vědomi.

### **3. Praktická část**

Pro analýzu bylo vybráno sedm mluvčích z The Czerasmus English Learner Corpus, korpusu pokročilých žáků angličtiny, kteří vyjeli na studijní pobyt v rámci programu Erasmus+. Všech sedm mluvčích strávilo jeden semestr v anglicky mluvící zemi. Se všemi mluvčími byly provedeny dva patnáctiminutové rozhovory před a po studijním pobytu. Tyto rozhovory byly následně přepsány dle pravidel korpusového přepisu LINDSEI (viz 3.1). Poté, co byly rozhovory přepsány, následovala identifikace a označení jednotlivých performativních jevů.

System značení byl adoptován dle studie opakování se z roku 2017 PhDr. Tomáše Gráfa, a rozšířen o značení pro falešné začátky a opravy vlastní řeči.

Výzkum ukázal, že frekvence opakování se falešných začátků se po studijním pobytu nezměnil. Frekvence výskytu oprav vlastní řeči se po studijním pobytu snížila. oblasti opakování se nedošlo k významným změnám jak v délce opakovaných útržků, tak v typu slov, které jsou nejčastěji opakovány. Opakování jednoho slova dvakrát je nejčastějším typem tohoto jevu, a zájmena, předložky, spojky a zkrácené formy (př. *I'm*) jsou nejobvyklejší opakované typy slov. U falešných začátku se projevuje tendence opustit co nejméně slov, jednoslovné a dvouslovné falešné začátky jsou nejčastější jak před, tak po studijním pobytu. U oprav vlastních řeči se projevuje stejná tendence – mluvčí nejčastěji opraví a jedno až dvě slova. Nelze opomenout výsledky v rámci individuálních mluvčích – ke statisticky významnému snížení frekvence opakování se došlo u dvou mluvčích, a to A a F. U mluvčího E došlo ke statisticky významnému snížení frekvence oprav vlastní řeči. Mluvčí F měl vyšší frekvenci opakování se jak před i po studijním pobytu, ačkoliv u něj došlo k významnému snížení po návratu. Mluvčí B a D měli vyšší frekvenci opakování se a falešných začátku oproti ostatním mluvčím před i po studiu v zahraničí.

#### 4. Diskuze

V páté kapitole jsou shrnuty výsledky práce a porovnány s jinými studii. Výzkum změn plynulosti v souvislosti se studiem v zahraničí se často zaměřuje na časové faktory, u kterých bylo zjištěno, že dochází k posunu. Studie, které se zaměřují na opakování se v žákovské angličtině potvrzují tendence, které se projevíly ve výsledcích této práce, a to jak v délkách opakování se, tak v typech slov, které jsou nejčastěji opakovány. Jev falešných začátků je podstatně méně prostudován v žákovské angličtině. Sice se ukazuje, že jejich frekvence se snižuje se zvyšující se jazykovou zdatností, ale jazyková zdatnost nebyla v této studii měřena, tudíž tuto tendenci nelze potvrdit, ani vyvrátit. Frekvence oprav vlastní řeči se sice významně snížila po návratu ze studijního pobytu, ale to neznamená, že mluvčí udělali méně chyb, jelikož frekvence chyb nebyla v této práci měřena. Následuje zamyšlení nad výsledky v individuálních rovinách – vyšší frekvence opakování se u mluvčích B, D a F, a vyšší frekvence falešných začátků u mluvčích B a D může napovídat, že tito mluvčí používají tyto performativní jevy jako strategii při vedení spontánní řeči, zatímco jiní mluvčí preferují jiné strategie, např. výplňová slova. Studijní pobyt například nemusel být dostatečně dlouhý na to, aby tito mluvčí změnili své strategie, ale také to může poukazovat na to, že tyto performativní jevy jsou opravdu

vnímány jako strategie vedení spontánní řeči, a ne jevy, které poukazují na neplynulost daného mluvčího.

## **5. Omezení**

Během této práce se vyskytlo několik omezení. Jedním z nich je vzorek mluvčích, který byl analyzován, a je možné, že právě díky jeho velikosti nelze z výsledků vyvozovat obecnější závěry. Dalším omezením je záběr na jednu část produktivní plynulosti, přičemž pokud bychom na data nahlíželi z více holistického pojetí plynulosti (př. dle kategorií Götz, 2013), mohli bychom možná objevit změny v jiných oblastech; nápodobně pokud bychom data analyzovali z úhlu pohledu jazykové kompetence. Je ale nutno podotknout, že toto nebylo cílem této práce. Dále i samotné nahrávání rozhovorů způsobuje nervozitu mluvčích, a různé další externí faktory, jako nálada, stres, prostředí atd. mají vliv na mluvčí a jejich spontánní řeč, a tudíž mohou zapříčinit větší produkci performativních jevů při rozhovorech. Posledním faktorem je, že tato práce si nekladla za cíl hledat možné korelace dat s metadaty.

Osmá kapitola je závěrem práce. Výsledky nepotvrdili hypotézu, že po studiu v zahraničí dojde ke změně produktivní plynulosti, a je na místě se dále věnovat jak oblasti jazykového zlepšení vlivem studijního pobytu, tak performativním jevům v žákovském jazyce jako strategiím při vedení spontánní řeči.

## Appendix 1

Due to the big data sample (1,464 instances of performance phenomena found) used for this study, the appendix contains only two samples – a sample of the transcription, and then a sample of the tagged transcription.

### Sample 1 – Speaker B pre-SA

<A> (mhm) (eh) so: that's the[i:] primary motivation basically yeah . for you </A>  
<B> (ehm) and also <overlap/> also (em) I think it it will be a good .. test of of of of my maturity . or let's say (em) </B>  
<A> <overlap/> (mhm) ... (mhm) </A>  
<B> I think it will be a good step forward </B>  
<A> (mhm) </A>  
<B> for me </B>  
<A> yeah <overlap/> what what do you mean </A>  
<B> <overlap/> in my in my (eh) coming of age or </B>  
<A> (mhm) </A>  
<B> (ehm) . or something like that </B>  
<A> (mhm) so what you what you're expecting to experience </A>  
<B> (erm) I expect my (eh) that I will return (erm) when I'll when I'll come back to Czech Republic I'll . be let's say more of an adultsman </B>  
<A> (mhm) </A>  
<B> and I feel myself to be: I feel that I'm (em) (ehm) somewhere in between a boy and a man </B>  
<A> (mhm) </A>  
<B> (ehm) I'm I work on this gradually but I believe that I'm still not ... n= not really prepared to to actually (ehm) to to (ehm) be on my own . fully and fully independent and (eh) what I expect from from this stage (eh) sorry from this (eh) . from this . stay is that I will actually learn to: cope with things . on my own .. and (eh) to gain and also maybe gain some . some (erm) knowledge basic on on how to do things on (eh) without anybody el:se's help </B>  
<A> (mhm) </A>  
<B> of course I will be supported by my parents a:nd if I will need it but . the the it's going to be a good test for me and and (eh) .. that's what I expect from the from the stay </B>  
<A> so it's really the first time away from home </A>  
<B> .. not really I I've I've already (er) lived on my own but (ehm) I I wanted to . try to actually (erm) ... be able how how I am how able I am (eh) in coping with the with the unexpected situations and and (er) and and other things .. you know . because here it's it was I lived only about few blocks from (er) few blocks away from my parents .. a:nd whenever I needed or something something (em) . messed up I asked them to to or I could ask them I often times manage on my own but I wanted to see how how I how I can manage </B>

## Sample 2 - Speaker B pre-SA tagged

<A> (mhm) (eh) so: that's the[i:] primary motivation basically yeah . for you </A>  
<B> (ehm) and <R\_1\_2\_G> also <overlap/> also (em) I think <R\_1\_2\_P> it it will be a good .. test <R\_1\_4\_B> of of of of my maturity . or let's say (em) </B>  
<A> <overlap/> (mhm) ... (mhm) </A>  
<B> I think it will be a good step forward </B>  
<A> (mhm) </A>  
<B> for me </B>  
<A> yeah <overlap/> what what do you mean </A>  
<B> <overlap/> <R\_2\_2> in my in my (eh) coming of age or </B>  
<A> (mhm) </A>  
<B> (ehm) . or something like that </B>  
<A> (mhm) so what you what you're expecting to experience </A>  
<B> (erm) I expect <FS\_1> my (eh) <FS\_4> that I will return (erm) <R\_2\_2> when I'll when I'll come back to Czech Republic I'll . be let's say more of an adultsman </B>  
<A> (mhm) </A>  
<B> and <FS\_5> I feel myself to be: I feel that I'm (em) (ehm) somewhere in between a boy and a man </B>  
<A> (mhm) </A>  
<B> (ehm) <FS\_1> I'm I work on this gradually but I believe that I'm still <FS\_1> not ... <FS\_1> n= not really prepared <R\_1\_2\_Ip> to to actually (ehm) <R\_1\_2\_Ip> to to (ehm) be on my own . fully and fully independent and (eh) what I expect <DTG> <SC\_4> <R\_1\_2\_B> from from this stage (eh) sorry from this (eh) . from this . stay is that I will actually learn to: cope with things . on my own .. and (eh) to gain and also maybe gain <R\_1\_2\_P> some . some (erm) knowledge basic <R\_1\_2\_B> on on how to do things <FS\_1> on (eh) without anybody el:se's help </B>  
<A> (mhm) </A>  
<B> of course I will be supported by my parents a:nd if I will need it but . <R\_1\_2\_Ad> the the it's going to be a good test for me <R\_1\_2\_C> and and (eh) .. that's what I expect from the from the stay </B>  
<A> so it's really the first time away from home </A>  
<B> .. not really <FS\_1> I <R\_1\_2\_X> I've I've already (er) lived on my own but (ehm) <R\_1\_2\_P> I I wanted to . try to actually (erm) ... <FS\_2> be able <FS\_1> how <SC\_3> how I am how able I am (eh) in coping <R\_2\_2> with the with the unexpected situations <R\_1\_4\_C> and and (er) and and other things .. you know . because here <FS\_1> it's <FS\_2> it was I lived only about <FS\_3> few blocks from (er) few blocks away from my parents .. a:nd whenever I needed or <R\_1\_2\_P> something something (em) . messed up <FS\_5> I asked them to to or I could ask them I often times manage on my own but I wanted to see <FS\_1> how <R\_2\_2> how I how I can manage </B>