Learners’ decision-making in task-based language learning through debate

Eiko Nakamura
Kawasaki University of Medical Welfare

Reference Data:

How do learners learn a new language? This paper explores how learners develop their target language by examining students’ language production in a high school oral communication class. Learners’ decision to modify their scripts or their interlocutor’s speech, and improvise their speech despite the risk of increasing language problems seems to play an important role in language learning. A significant improvement in the students’ language development in terms of oral fluency, accuracy, and complexity after a number of debate tasks was observed. A period, in which learners make more pauses and self-initiated attempts at clarification (repetitions, non-lexical sounds, and self-corrections), was recognized in the transcript data. The nature of pauses was also seen to change over time. Factors such as use of a consciousness-raising device of reasoning, triggers to motivate learners, and peer or teacher-students’ collaboration, could push learners to make greater use of the target language.

A commonly heard remark is that few Japanese can communicate in English even after six years of studying. One reason is that English education in Japan had generally focused on knowledge explicitly taught with little attention to the use of the knowledge. Johnson (1996) claims that “knowing about English grammar is quite a different proposition from being able to use it” (p. 82) and that language use may be automatized in the process of converting declarative knowledge (knowing that) into procedural knowledge.
(knowing how). Recently, efforts have been made to address this issue. This paper is a practitioner’s classroom research (see Allwright, 2005a), which explores how learners improved their oral use of the second language. The data examined here are from actual classroom activities based on a task-based syllabus, but not from activities specifically designed for empirical research to find a certain effect.

I designed an oral communication class in high school for task-based learning with the goal that students would be able to orally express their idea logically, using debates at the main stage of the course. Classes were taught totally in English. Bygate et al. (2001) define a task as “an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective” (p. 11). Task-based learning is considered to be learners acquiring language skills by using the language in the process of task completion. This paper examines students’ speech acts in their tasks, furthering my previous research on task-based language learning (Nakamura, 2007).

Research background
Most task-based research to date has focused on forms and structures of language in use, even though tasks themselves are meaning-focused activities. Learners who are skillful in using communication strategies might happen to be evaluated poorly because they can manage to deal with real situations without attending to new forms (Schmidt, 1983). Pauses, repetitions, non-lexical sounds, and self-corrections, part of communication strategy, tend to have been judged as language deficiency (Dornyei & Kormos, 1998) or disfluency (Ortega, 1999; Skehan, 2001), and thus it has been considered that this propensity should be reduced, even though the phenomenon is quite common in native speakers of English. Bygate (2006) claims that “repetition can buy time for speaker and for listener, as well as helping speakers access or reformulate words and phrases” (p. 6).

One goal of language learning could be to gain the kind of skills that are required in social situations, such as reasoning, negotiation, persuasion, and so on, besides just sharing information through accurate forms. How can these reasoning skills be developed? What types of tasks help learners be able to manage social situations?

Long (1989, referred to in Ellis, 2003) evaluates closed tasks higher than open-ended tasks due to its promotion of negotiation work. On the other hand, Duff (1986) investigated the potentially differential role of task types by learners’ language production such as number of words, turns, and c-units, and how open-ended tasks influence the production of oral interlanguage (IL) structures (1993). The value of each task type seems to totally change by which factors we measure a learner’s production with, e.g., with amount of negotiation of meaning (Long, 1983), or with amount of constituents such as words (Tong-Fredericks, 1984), c-units (Loban, 1963; Duff, 1986, Duff, 1993) or t-units (Bygate, 2001), and subordination (Skehan, 2001), or with the amount of self-initiated clarification attempts (Shehadeh, 1999). Just as Fanslow (1977) describes teachers’ teaching behavior with no criteria for pedagogical purposes, comparing it to Rashomon, where four people who witness the same event all give different interpretations of it.

Another perspective of task types is seen in a study by Bygate (2001) that investigated the effects of task repetition.
The study shows that the repetition of the same task after ten weeks produced greater fluency and complexity although the repetition of the same type of tasks repeated several times in ten weeks didn’t show statistical evidence.

There are also several researchers who approach interactive language teaching from a social point of view. Allwright (1988) introduces observation-based classroom research, in which he argues that teachers’ treatment for learners’ problems should be a concern. Lantolf (2000) sees benefit in peer mediation as “learners are able to scaffold each other quite effectively through use of a variety of interactive strategies that appear to be sensitive to the ZPD (zones of proximal development)” (p. 84).

Implementation

Task design for a school year

I designed a one school-year syllabus using one analysis method, D.I.E. model (introduced by Bennett & Bennett, 1993), which classifies all comments into three categories: description, interpretation, and evaluation. I used this D.I.E. model as a device to raise students’ consciousness of reasoning, and made it an overall key to the course as well for guiding students towards debates.

I divided one school year into three periods: pre-task period (April-July), main task period (September- November), and post-task period (December-January), using the D.I.E. concept for each period respectively: description stage, interpretation stage, and evaluation stage. Before summer vacation students were given various descriptive speech presentation tasks to practice systematical paragraph construction (pre-task period), and after summer vacation interpretive/analytical speech presentation tasks and debate tasks were assigned (main-task period). From December to January students reflected what they learned metacognitively and retrospectively (post-task period). Each period included both planned and unplanned tasks. Each of the tasks was also locally composed of three stages: pre-, main-, and post-task stages. Three stages of a task and three categories of D.I.E. model were meticulously organized for each debate task.

Participants

The elective oral communication class had nine students: eight females and one male. This was a 4-credit class (three 65-minute classes a week) for third year high school students. Interlanguage production of these students was examined, usually as one group and occasionally as two groups for statistical research: experienced group (three students who took this course for two school-years continuously and a returnee from Wales) and less-experienced group (five students who took this course for one-school year). In addition, each student’s speech acts as seen in transcripts were qualitatively studied to see how their use of language changed.

Research project

How did students’ language production change from before to after debate tasks in terms of fluency, accuracy, and complexity? If students’ language production changed after debate tasks, something that affected learners’ output...
must have happened during the debate tasks. Then what did students do during debate tasks in terms of language modification and production?

Hypotheses

1. Development of learners’ language production is seen in the difference of learners’ language production before and after debate tasks in terms of fluency, accuracy, and complexity.

2. Students’ argumentation is produced and modified during debate tasks with on-line planning.

Procedure

The transcribed data of students’ oral language production videotaped in 14 tasks are closely examined with the markers such as errors, pauses, self-initiated clarification attempts (repetitions, non-lexical sounds, and self-corrections, following Shehadeh (1999)), and also paraphrased and improvised speech acts. Complexity was measured by the number of forms used in students’ speech, which were classified into four levels of complexity according to the forms in textbooks of junior and senior high schools in Japan (L1: junior high 1, L2: junior high 2, L3: junior high 3, L4: senior high).

For the purpose of the present study, two sets of planned and unplanned tasks before and after debate tasks were mainly selected to examine how learners’ language production changed and also one debate task was chosen to explore what was involved in their language production.

In this paper I would also like to focus on unplanned tasks to deepen the previous study (Nakamura, 2007), exploring how learners’ use of pauses and self-initiated clarification attempts changed overtime in several tasks.

Results

Hypothesis 1

As for Hypothesis 1, which was quantitatively examined, students’ language development in terms of fluency, accuracy, and complexity was substantially proved by t-tests and bar graphs in comparison of learners’ language production in tasks before and after debate (see Appendix A and Nakamura, 2007).

Aside from the above, the number of pauses per c-unit in unplanned tasks consistently decreased overtime regardless of task types. On the other hand self-initiated clarification attempts increased at first then decreased among experienced students, while errors gradually decreased (see Figure 1 and Figure 2).

Hypothesis 2

The debate model modified for language learning (Pilon, 1989), which I used for the high school English classroom, is different from a cross-examination debate commonly used in an academic debate (Fryar, Thomas, & Goodnight, 1991). This modified version requires two types of planning: students’ strategic planning for debate preparation (prepared/anticipated points in advance) based on the analysis of the issue by the D.I.E. model, and on-line planning to give their
impromptu response during debate. If their anticipation is not matched by reality during debate, they have to go through this critical situation by responding on their own on the spot. There must be some triggers that push students to produce more language at such times. Bygate & Samuda (2005) argue that “it is the experience of processing the task as a whole together with certain elements of both pre-task and on-line planning that is important” (p. 38). The following are examples of how it happened during a debate task.

Example 1

1. S1 (D): That’s maybe true but if we [pause] if we take 6-day school
2. system, we also have time to spend with family every after school and every
3. evening. So [pause] that is [pause] no problem to have 6-day a week, [pause] I
4. think so. And if we take 5-day school system, the level of education will be
5. go down and what do you think about this?

(error, (words/letters): missing words/letters, phonological error, [pause/sec.]: over 1 second, Self-initiated clarification attempts (repetition, non-lexical sounds, self-correction), other modification, L1 transfer (translation), improvised speech, paraphrasing, (A): agree group, (D): disagree group, <explanation>, \(\vdash\): overlapping)

This is an excerpt from the debate “5-Day-School-Week System” held in November of the year just before the system started. This student paraphrased her opponent’s opinion (line 2) and also her own script prepared in advance (lines 4-5), straightening her head and looking at her opponents. She seems to have wanted to give more impact to her speech with eye-contact, paraphrasing and improvising with her own words instead of reading her script in spite of pauses increasing.

Example 2

1. S2 (A): <discussing it among themselves> Please respond to us. [pause/1] I think
2. it is not answer [pause/1] to our question.
3. S3 (D): <discussing it among themselves> Um. We think if you use extra lesson(s)
4. the time we spend [pause/1] and the time we control [pause/1] if we have extra lesson(s) it is
5. [pause/1] If we If you have extra lesson we cannot control how to use time
6. because it is less time to use [pause/1] for ourselves. So <discussing it among
7. themselves> and also if we go to school for 6 days, we can learn and we can spend
8. time with friends and [pause/1] we can learn [pause/1] how to cooperate with

The student in charge of response to the Agree side didn’t address their point. Therefore, required by S2 in the Agree side to respond to them (lines 1-2), S3 in the Disagree side improvised their defense (lines 3-9). S3 produced four pauses (4 sec.) by the time she finally completed “if you
have extra lesson we cannot control how to use time,” while in other tasks she rarely paused for word/form searching but rhetorical purposes; e.g., using pauses for changing direction of her story or changing her role from defending to attacking in the negotiation task (see Appendix B). At the same time self-initiated clarification attempts are seen to increase. This defense, therefore, shows that she was unusually stretching her language in the critical situation of debating. Students were also discussing among themselves what to say to their opponents (lines 1, 2, and 6-7).

Discussion

Was students’ language knowledge automatized?

Students’ language development in terms of fluency, accuracy, and complexity was statistically proved (see Appendix A and Nakamura, 2007). Did they acquire their target language to some extent? According to Anderson (1982), learners’ language skills are automated when declarative knowledge (knowing that) is proceduralized (knowing how). Did they gain procedural knowledge after repeating debate tasks? Was their language automatized?

In Raupach’s (1987) analysis of speech production to examine a speaker’s mental processes, measures of pause/time ratio, mean pause length, mean length of runs, and number of hesitations were used, which is specified as pausology by O’Connell and Kowal (referred to in Johnson, 1996).

The comparison of pauses per c-unit in two unplanned tasks before and after debate tasks shows significant improvement of language fluency (t(5)=3.347, p=0.02). Now I would like to examine the pauses that two students (one in the less-experienced group (S4) and the other in the experienced group (S1)) produced by one of Raupach’s measures, pause/time ratio, and also examine them qualitatively to find out how students’ pauses change overtime and also if this way of measuring really shows their mental (declarative and procedural) processes in my data. Table 1 shows the results of two students’ pause/time ratio (the percentage of overall time spent in pausing). If only September and January are compared, both of the students’ language look more proceduralized in January, but when looking at October, the transition of S4’s pause/time ratio seems to show something else. The following is the improvised speech “Entrance Ceremony” student 4 gave in September.

1. (When) This [pause/1] school [pause/1] this school [pause/1] song (I) (I)
2. heard for the first time, I am I was very impressed. [pause/12] Sometimes I

Table 1. Pause/time ratio (the percentage of overall time spent pausing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pause/time ratio</th>
<th>Improvised speech (Sep.)</th>
<th>Interview on Debate I (Oct.)</th>
<th>Negotiation task (Jan.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less-experienced student 4</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experienced student 1</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. I thought I enjoy my school life. And
4. my friends always talk to me. And [pause/7] and [pause/1] umm I
5. I’m study hard. umm I love I like my school. That’s all.

We can see that she is searching for the appropriate words in her database, as seen in line 1. She found this and school, and then repeating them combining together. Her searching words are seen with pauses and then a few words. Here she has 12 pauses (62 sec.) and 10 self-initiated clarification attempts (SCAs). The next is one of two review interviews made after Debate 1 (Oct.).

1. S4: It is very difficult because I have to imagine
2. nandakke (what was that?) have to image...
3. T: imagine
4. S4: imagine? aiteno nante ittakke watashi (what did I say for ‘opponent’?)
5. [pause/1] opposite side opinion, so it is very difficult and but I I understand I
6. understood this um this event very well, maybe.

Student 4 still has a habit to repeat after searching for a certain word, but this time she is using other tools instead of just pausing, such as L1 transfer (line 2), which invites the teacher’s help, and word coinage (line 5: opposite side for opponent). In these tasks she made 13 pauses (13 sec.) and 15 SCAs altogether.

The following is an excerpt from the last improvised task (a negotiation task). S4 and S3 were told to negotiate with each other. S4 is supposed to be a mother, who is trying to persuade her daughter to change her mind about her future direction, and the other (S3) a daughter, who is trying to persuade her mother to allow her to study art in university. (See Appendix B for the complete transcript).

1. S4: What do you do in your future?
2. S3: I want to be an artist, so just can I take Art in university.
3. S4: [Umm] I don’t agree with you, because your [pause/1] your your
4. ability of nanteyunkana? (What do we say?) Noryokuwa (ability of) artist no? <gets
5. the word> [pause/4]. Your ability of artistic is isn’t top, so [cough] um you may
6. not succeed (in) this.
7. S3: I don’t I’m not (a) top artist. That’s why I’m going to university and study art,
8. then I will be (a) top artist.
9. S4: Nattoku shite shimau (I agree with this). The now the world use use janai
10. (mistake) the world is ch [pause/2] don’t the world doesn’t need artist. So
so I think I’m worried about you. You may not succeed, so I want to learn, economics? I want to learn economics. I think you should learn economics.

Student 4 made 19 pauses (62 sec.) in total and 47 SCAs. Here other tools are often seen to replace pausing, i.e., L1 transfer to invite other modification (lines 4, 12-13) and often explain what she is thinking in her mind (lines 4, 9, 10, 12, 13), non-lexical sounds (or filled pauses), and repetitions to make time to formulate ideas. Even some of pauses (lines 3, 11) are not just to search for declarative knowledge (words or forms), but thinking of reasons, which is shown with the words because and so. My data suggest that hesitations don’t always show the learner’s utilizing declarative knowledge. It shows her searching for ideas (as is often the case with native speakers) as well as searching her lexical and grammatical knowledge. My data show that 15 pauses (54 sec.) out of 19 pauses are to think of reasons to persuade S3, which means only 4 pauses (8 sec.) are for searching words/forms and pause/time ratio becomes 0.03. Then the ratio changes as follows: Sep. 0.61, Oct. 0.17, and Jan. 0.03. Students’ declarative knowledge could be said to have proceduralized to some extent. To measure the pause/time ratio, however, tasks to be used should be well controlled for its purpose (e.g., limiting the word range within learners’ language capacity).

In the same way, the pause/time ratio of S1 (an experienced student) is recalculated as follows: Sep. 0.06, Oct. 0.04, and Jan. 0.03. S1 already used L1 transfer from September, which reflects her thinking process. With the pause/time ratio of both less-experienced and experienced students’ speech acts we can see the time for searching for their declarative knowledge was shortened and the nature of pauses changed from word/form searching to reasoning searching after debate tasks. As for self-initiated clarification attempts, the number of SCAs per c-unit gradually increased in the language production of a less-experienced student (S4): 1.67 (Sep.), 1.88 (Oct.), 2.76 (Jan.), while the one in the language production of an experienced student (S1) gradually decreased: 1.00 (Sep.), 0.44 (Oct.), 0.36 (Jan.), which is likely to reflect their language learning stage.

Another interesting phenomenon we see in my data is that the number of pauses together with self-initiated clarification attempts per c-unit among experienced students decreased over time (Figure 3). With all the data we have seen above, there seems to be a certain relation between pauses and self-initiated clarification attempts. Further research is needed to find more details around this area to understand how learners’ language fluency makes progress.

**Triggers for language output**

As we have seen, if learners’ target language improved after debate tasks, there must be a key to language development in the debate tasks. There are several clues seen in the debate “5 Day-School-Week System”, which might have played an important role as triggers to push students to stretch their language output more than they usually did.
First of all, categorizing by using the D.I.E. model seems to have worked as a sort of consciousness-raising device for reasoning, judging from students’ speech acts in a debate task. The bar graph in Figure 4 shows the comparison of students’ speech acts categorized into D.I.E. between their speech presentation “Terrorist Attacks” in September (before debate tasks) and Debate 3 “5 day-School-Week System” in November. During Debate 3, however, half of their expressions became descriptions while both interpretations and evaluations drastically decreased, which is likely to show that students’ speech became more logical with their evaluations based on interpretations supported by descriptions.

Second, students seem to have been pushed to make greater use of their target language to speak effectively during debate, paraphrasing and improvising their point on the spot. Figures 5 and 6 are the comparison of improvised/paraphrased speech acts in planned tasks: Speech presentation “My Grandmother” in September, 2000, Speech presentation “Terrorist Attacks” in September, 2001, and Debate 3 in November, 2001. We can see experienced students tended to improvise/paraphrase more than less-experienced students, and the amount of this challenge drastically increased in the debate task.

In the debate task learners were observed to produce various self-initiated clarification attempts and pauses, or features so-called language deficiency or disfluency, caused by learners’ new challenge of improvising or paraphrasing their or their interlocutor’s speech. Learners did so when they felt it a more effective way to speak to their opponents, i.e., they were pushed to make greater use of their interlanguage to speak effectively. As seen in the line graphs of the correlation between self-initiated clarification attempts and errors in Figure 2, the number of self-initiated clarification attempts once goes up and then goes down, different from errors. Though those self-initiated clarification attempts and pauses look like a lack of language ability, clear progress seems to follow them (see Figure 1, 2, and p. 8).

Last but most importantly, students’ collaboration in a mixed level group seems to have stretched their language, as zones of proximal development are created through interaction with more knowledgeable others (Vygotsky, 1986). Students discussed how to respond to their opponents, providing scaffolding to each other with words or concept (Donato 1994, Lantolf, 2000). With all the facts we have seen above, we can conclude students’ speech acts largely changed during debate tasks.
Figure 2. The correlation of self-initiated clarification attempts and errors.

Figure 3. Pauses and self-initiated clarification attempts.

Figure 4. Transition in the use of D.I.E.

Figure 5. Improvised/paraphrased speech act: experienced students.
Figure 6. Improvised/paraphrased speech acts: less-experienced students

Conclusion

Perhaps the most important findings of this study are what took place for language learning during debate. One of them is that before reaching a fluent stage, learners tend to produce more self-initiated clarification attempts and pauses. Those features usually judged as problems of language output might play an important role for language learning. The difficulty of language output could become a priming device. This learning stage, which could be a chaotic period for learners, seems to be inevitable for many learners and could be necessary for their oral language development. Further study of this learning stage is necessary to help learners improve use of language knowledge.

To predispose learners to challenge new ways of language production without being afraid of making mistakes, a positive social atmosphere is necessary in the classroom, where learners can collaborate with each other. Collaboration is a key to overcome the chaos, turning language deficiency into a positive device. Students’ recognition of this situation can be seen in their reflective speech presentations about OCC class in December (see Appendix C). By building up their social relationship and playing an important role as a member of a group, they raised the quality of life in the classroom (see Allwright, 2003). Observing learners and their decision-making in the classroom gives teachers an important insight “to deepen their understandings of language learning and of life in the language classroom” (Allwright 2005b, p. 28).

Notes

1. Consciousness raising (C-R) tasks proposed by Ellis (1991) are intended to develop awareness of language features by focusing on form. Thornbury (1997) also introduces reformulation and reconstruction activities deployed for consciousness-raising purposes.

2. Iwanaka (2005) reported that beginners produce the least amount of speech modifications, intermediates the most, and advanced learners a lesser amount, when analyzing examinees’ speech in Standard Speaking Test listed in the National Institute of Information and Communications Technology Japanese Learner English Corpus (the NICT JLE Corpus, Izumi et al., 2004).

Eiko Nakamura is now studying in a PhD program of Applied Linguistics at Lancaster University, and is currently teaching part-time at Okayama University and
Kawasaki University (in Kurashiki). Her interest is learner development through task-based learning.

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Appendix A

Paired t-tests (two-tail) comparing before and after debate tasks
Quantitative difference: Planned tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C-units per minute</td>
<td>Before (Sep.)</td>
<td>7.56</td>
<td>2.719</td>
<td>-7.181</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>p &lt; .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After (Dec.)</td>
<td>12.10</td>
<td>2.195</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pauses per c-unit</td>
<td>Before (Sep.)</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.450</td>
<td>2.385</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>p &lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After (Dec.)</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words per 10 sec.</td>
<td>Before (Sep.)</td>
<td>12.46</td>
<td>4.896</td>
<td>-5.032</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>p &lt; .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After (Dec.)</td>
<td>19.09</td>
<td>3.973</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Errors per c-unit</td>
<td>Before (Sep.)</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.471</td>
<td>2.975</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>p &lt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After (Dec.)</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7. Forms per c-unit in planned tasks (Speech presentations)
Appendix B

Negotiation task: (Jan. 02)

1. **S4**: What do you do in your future?

2. **S3**: I want to be an artist, so just [ch] can I take Art in *at* university.

3. **S4**: [Umm] I [pause/2] I don’t agree with you, because [um] [pause/1] your *your* ability of *nanteyunkana? (What do we say?) Noryokuwa (ability of) artist *no?* <gets the word> [pause/4]. Your *ability* of *artist* is *isn’t* top, so [cough] um you you may not succeed (*in*) this.

4. **S3**: I don’t *I’m not* (*a*) top artist. That’s why I’m going to university and study art,

5. then I will be (*a*) top artist.

6. **S4**: *Nattoku shite shimau* (*I agree with this*). The now *the* world use *use* *janai*

7. *(mistake)* the *world* *is* [ch] [pause/2] *don’t* the *world* *doesn’t* need artist. So

8. [pause/3] so I think [pause/2] I’m worried about you. [pause/8] You may not succeed, so I *I* *want to* [pause/4], *nandatta take keizaini (what do we say for ‘economics’?)* <gets the word>, I *want to learn*, *chigau chigau chigau* (no, no, no).

9. **S3**: *Umm* But if I learn economics and I take over your business, I will quit [ch] business

10. and I will do want art. So it’s impossible to learn economics and take over your business. [pause/5] Maybe you should ask my *brother*? *Brother?*

11. **S4**: *Umm*,

12. **S3**: *brother* to take your business.

13. **S4**: *But* *but* now *brother* [um] *brother* is still young, so you should learn *learn* economics. And [um] [pause/1] if you [pause/8] [ch] [pause/7] *wakaran (I don’t know)*

14. what *I should say*. *Ah* after (*you*) graduate a college, what will you do?

15. **S3**: I still don’t know but I’m going to [pause/2] another country and study art and

16. will be an artist. [pause/7] Why do you want me to take over your business?

17. **S4**: Now [pause/3] [um][ch] world *world* needs [pause/3] (more) economist(*s*)
28. than artist(s) and [mummm] [pause/3] ch [pause/5] ah if you [pause/2] if you are narutte
29. nanteiu (What do we say for to be?) If you (are) to be an artist, ch you may not (be)
30. rich ch rich and you you may become ch kurushii omoi (suffer) poor so I am worried
31. about you, your future.
32. S3: Yeah, but if I will be a ch good wonderful artist, I will be rich and if I take over
33. your business and and no customer is coming to my shop, I will be poor. So you
34. don’t know if I will be a good artist or not. So just let me go to university.
35. S4: ah I understand your, your nani (What?) <get suggestion> a soka (I see),
36. [pause/1] your opinion, Ah if you (are) at a university, if you umm your your ability
37. is not top, you [pause/1] you should [pause/2] you should learn to economics.
38. S3: Okay.