To my beloved parents
whose patience and dedication
inspired me throughout this journey

An Investigation into the Benefits of Collaborative Writing
for the Development of EFL Children's Communication Skills:
A Reflective Report of a Teacher Researcher

By

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own original work, conducted under the supervision of Dr Annamaria Pinter and Dr Keith Richards. It is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education in Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching at the Centre for Applied Linguistics at the University of Warwick. I further declare that no part of the thesis has been submitted in this form for an academic degree at any other institution of higher education.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study is to investigate effective ways of designing task-based collaborative writing lessons in the EFL classroom in South Korea. In this research, a group of 11/12 year-old children were involved in repeating three different writing tasks three times. In order to examine the effects of task type and task repetition on task performance and outcomes, written texts were measured in terms of fluency, accuracy, and lexical complexity with seven sub-measures and pair dialogues were quantified by the focus on a particular aspect of the language and then categorised into form-focus, lexical-focus, and mechanical-focus language-related episodes. Follow-up interviews were undertaken with the children to examine their perspectives on collaborative writing from their first experience of paired writing. On the basis of self-reflection on my prior learning and teaching experience in the EFL context, a classroom action research project was designed and conducted to promote my personal and professional growth. Classroom observation was undertaken to monitor the children's performance and engagement when working together. The results of quantitative and qualitative data analysis showed strong effects of task type and task repetition on the products and processes of Korean children's writing and the pedagogical benefits of collaborative writing. In addition, this teacher research gave me a valuable opportunity to explore ways of becoming a reflective teacher. The research findings may help classroom teachers who want to develop task-based collaborative writing lessons in the classroom and teacher researchers who want to initiate classroom action research to improve their teaching practice.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Within this thesis a term will be spelled out upon its first appearance; thereafter, the acronym will be used.

C	Clauses
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CSAT	College Scholastic Ability Test
EFC	Error-free Clauses
EFC/C	Error-free Clauses to Total Clauses
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
F-LRE	Form-focus Language-related Episode
LV	Lexical Variety
LD	Lexical Density
L1	English as a First Language
L2	English as a Foreign or Second language
LRE	Language-related Episode
L-LRE	Lexical-focus Language-related Episodes
M-LRE	Mechanical-focus Language-related Episodes
MOE	Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TBLT	Task-based Language Teaching
W	Words
W/C	Words to Total Clauses

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an introduction to the thesis. This chapter consists of six sections. To begin with, my motivation for this research is introduced in Section 1.1. This is followed in Section 1.2 by a brief overview of primary English education in South Korea to facilitate an understanding of the research. The theoretical and methodological background of the research is presented in Sections 1.3 and 1.4. The aims and objectives of the research including research questions are addressed in Section 1.5. This chapter ends with an outline of the thesis in Section 1.6.

1.1 Research Motivation

Since the paradigm shift towards communicative language teaching (CLT), there has been a growing interest in the role of language output as a way of developing learners' communicative competence in the target language (Swain, 1985; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Along with the significance of language output in language learning, writing has gained in importance in teaching a foreign or second language (L2), because writing provides L2 learners with the opportunity to exploit their existing linguistic resources and generate new language knowledge (Matsuda & Silva, 2005). In addition, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of young learners in the field of English language teaching (ELT), because early exposure to English has become a global phenomenon in an era of English as a world language (Kachru & Nelson, 2009). In the field of task-based language teaching

(TBLT), however, relatively little research has been conducted into the written output of children learning English as a foreign language (EFL) in comparison with the number of empirical studies on that of adults learning English as a second language (ESL). More importantly, despite the fact that there has been increasing attention paid to collaborative writing, this exploration has been confined to the performance of children whose mother tongue is English (L1) or ESL adult learners. It is hypothesised that a quite different teaching approach would be needed for EFL children as compared with ESL adult learners as well as L1 children. Therefore, it would seem to be significant to investigate the processes and products of EFL children's collaborative writing as a way of developing their written communication skills. For this reason, I designed classroom action research specifically to explore the most effective ways to implement task-based collaborative writing lessons in the Korean EFL classroom by reflecting on my own experience of learning and teaching English and writing. A group of Korean EFL children was involved in this small-scale classroom research. It is hoped that the findings of the present study will be useful for classroom teachers who want to develop task-based collaborative writing lessons and for those who are going to initiate small-scale research projects in their own classrooms.

Before introducing the theoretical and methodological background of the study, it will be helpful to overview primary English education in South Korea in order to provide basic information underlying the present study.

1.2 An Overview of Primary English Education in South Korea

1.2.1 Educational System

The formal school system in South Korea follows a 6-3-3-4 ladder pattern which includes six years of primary school, three years of secondary school, three years of high school, and four years of university education (see *Appendix 1: School System of South Korea*). All schools and educational institutions at any level have been administered by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOE). When English started to be taught as a basic common subject from the third grade of primary school to the first grade of high school as shown in Table 1.1, teaching English to Korean children has become the subject of considerable debate, namely 'English fever' (Park, 2009).

Table 1.1 The Korean National Curriculum for English											
School	Primary						Secondary			High		
Grade	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Age	6/7	7/8	8/9	9/10	10/11	11/12	12/13	13/14	14/15	15/16	16/17	17/18
Classes per Year	·	·	34	34	68	68	102	102	136	136	136	136
Curriculum	National Common Basic Curriculum									Elective-based Curriculum		

Regarding the current situations related to primary English education, the following key issues are briefly addressed to facilitate an understanding of the present study.

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1.2.2 Issues in Primary English Education

1.2.2.1 English Classes and Starting Age

As a global phenomenon in the field of ELT, the Korean MOE decided to introduce compulsory English classes from the third grade in primary schools in 1997. The MOE (2007) states the aims of English language education at primary level as follows:

- To become interested in learning English language;
- To become competent in using basic everyday English;
- To prepare students for communicating in English in daily life; and
- To understand the culture of other countries.

As a result, one forty-minute English class per week has been officially implemented for third and fourth graders and two classes for fifth and sixth graders under the current national curriculum. Since the early introduction of English as a compulsory school subject, the possibility of expanding the number of English classes and lowering the starting age for learning English from the first grade has been constantly discussed. For example, there is a group of people in favour of the expansion of English classes with the widespread belief that 'younger is better'. On the other hand, there is another group of people who are concerned about low levels of interest and motivation, intense competition, the impact on Korean language teaching and an increase in private education expenses resulting from the expansion of English classes and the early start (Jung & Norton, 2002). Finally, the MOE announced a plan intended to gradually expand the number of English classes from 2010 rather than to teach English from the first grade. This educational decision is supported by a number of recent comparative studies on the effectiveness of early English education published over the last ten years. In a national level survey, for example, Kwon (2005)

reported that the tenth graders of 2004 who learned English from the third year of primary school outscored at the national level test the tenth graders of 2003 who did not learn English at primary school. A number of studies including the nationwide survey provide evidence for the positive long-term effect of primary English education in Korea. The important point, however, is that the MOE should consider ways of recruiting or retaining the necessary number of qualified teachers who can deal with the increasing number of teaching hours.

1.2.2.2 English as a Foreign Language

Since its introduction in Korea, English has been taught as a major foreign language (Seth, 2002) in contrast to the ESL context where English is the language of the mass media and of official institutions. Tomlinson (2005: 137) provided a succinct description of an EFL learning context.

> Most learners of EFL learn it in school together with a large class of peers of similar age and proficiency. They typically have a course book, they are preparing for an examination, and they are taught by a teacher who is not a native speaker of English.

The Korean EFL situations may not differ so much from those of other EFL countries as described above, that is, English is not the normal medium of communication and instruction but one of a number of school subjects for the university entrance examination (Honna, 2009; Shin, 2007). In the EFL learning environment, as Nunan (2003) indicated, Korean EFL learners may encounter several inevitable difficulties resulting from exposure time, teaching materials, learning objectives, and so on. In particular, young Korean EFL learners may be either unable or unwilling to make the required effort to learn English for a

variety of reasons. In terms of age and learning a foreign language, there have been many conventional assumptions about differences between young learners and adult learners. According to Ur (1999: 286-288),

- Young children learn language better.
- Foreign language learning in school should start early.
- Children and adults learn language in the same way.
- Adults have a longer concentration span.
- It is easier to motivate children.

Regardless of whether these assumptions are correct or not, what is important to consider is that young learners should not be expected to be able to learn English in the same way as adult learners (Rixon, 1999). In this respect, Korean EFL teachers working with children need to develop a variety of language learning activities and teaching strategies, because it can be much more unrealistic to expect that their young students' attitude to and motivation for learning English is similar to those of adult learners (Cameron, 2003, 2005).

1.2.2.3 Spoken English Primacy

In the current national curriculum, Korean EFL teachers have been encouraged to implement the notion of CLT in their classrooms. According to Li (1998, 2001), however, Korean secondary school teachers of English had considerable difficulties in implementing communicative teaching methods in their classrooms. To some extent, the situations of primary English classrooms may not differ so much from those of secondary classrooms (Butler, 2004). In addition, there has been a constant demand for Korean EFL teachers to teach English through English since the mid-1990s. This is because of the frustrating results observable in a great number of Korean EFL learners with low levels of English proficiency

even after 10 years' learning experience. For this reason, the MOE announced an urgent plan. According to the plan, English teachers have to conduct classes in English by 2015 after intensive training. This urge stems from the belief that Korean students' English proficiency can be enhanced by the implementation of the 'English-only' policy (Shin, 2007), because "'English-only' is the most important expression that comes to mind for Koreans when learning English" (Park, 2009: 55). In a comparative study of primary school teachers in Korea, Taiwan and Japan, however, Butler (2004, 2005) reported that Korean primary school teachers of English were more concerned about achieving an appropriate balance across all four language skills rather than focusing on a particular skill. In spite of intensive training, teaching English through English is a challenge for many practising teachers who lack confidence in their ability to teach in English or are all too aware of their own insufficient proficiency in English (Jeong, 2006). Most of all, the English-only approach may lead Korean EFL children to misunderstand that communicative learning activities merely pay attention to spoken English over written English even with the significance of developing written communication skills.

1.2.2.4 National English Proficiency Test

In the era of globalization when the world has become more interconnected, it has become vital for Korean EFL learners with limited English proficiency to overcome language barriers as well as improve their ability to communicate effectively with English speakers. Along with practical purposes (e.g., school admission, university entrance, employment, promotion), a large number of Korean EFL learners have taken international English proficiency tests in order to measure their English proficiency. Regarding the huge amount of money spent on the international tests, there has been a growing need for cost-effective,

qualified domestic English proficiency tests. For this reason, the MOE decided to develop a new state-certified English aptitude test including all four language skills. This state-certified test will be introduced in 2012 and the English section of the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) may be replaced with the test after its official debut. Concerning the significance of both learning English and entering a prestigious university, this new test is likely to have a tremendous impact on the teachers who help their students prepare for the CSAT and the parents who are very concerned about their children's English education. In addition, the test is viewed as an innovative plan because the productive language skills of speaking and writing have never been tested in the CSAT's history and these skills have never played a dominant role in the Korean EFL classrooms. For this reason, it is necessary for teachers to have sufficiently detailed guidelines for speaking and writing instruction in order to cope with such a radical educational change and bridge the gap between the MOE's intention and its application.

1.2.2.5 English Textbooks

As mentioned above, the Korean educational system is administered by the MOE. Under the centralized educational system, the current national unified English textbooks for primary children were developed by the MOE in compliance with the seventh national curriculum revision. For example, the number of new words per grade, the number of words per sentence, and the sequence for introducing the four language skills are administered as shown in Table 1.2. According to Jung and Norton (2002), there has been an evident shift toward a more oral communication-based English program in primary English education since 1997 and the notion of the primacy of spoken English has had a powerful influence on the content and functions of primary English textbooks.

Table 1.2 English Textbooks for Primary School Students				
Grade	3rd	4th	5th	6th
No. new words	110	120	130	140
No. words per sentence	less than 7		less than 9	
Language skills	Listening Speaking	Listening Speaking Reading	Listening Speaking Reading Writing	Listening Speaking Reading Writing

Regarding the importance of a smooth transition from primary to secondary school, however, this has served only to widen any gap resulting from an emphasis on spoken English at the primary level and written English at the secondary level. Therefore, Korean EFL teachers working with children need to design a range of writing activities and provide opportunity to write in English in order to develop their young students' basic writing skills. This may require additional time and effort to be devoted by the teachers who are concerned about the huge gap between primary and secondary English education.

This section has addressed key issues in relation to primary English education in Korea. The following section provides a brief introduction to the theoretical background to this study.

1.3 Theoretical Background

1.3.1 Communicative and Task-Based Language Teaching

As a major paradigm shift in ELT, the notion of communicative language teaching (CLT) has been implemented in many Asian-Pacific countries including Korea in many different ways (Littlewood, 2007; Nunan, 2006). In addition, task-based language teaching (TBLT)

has recently moved into a more central role in L2 research and pedagogy as a way of developing learner's communication skills (Bygate et al., 2001). Despite the absence of any single universal definition, Nunan (2004: 4) defined a task as "a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language." Therefore, classroom tasks are understood as language learning activities and L2 learners are involved in these activities to produce the target language and develop their linguistic and communicative competence in the target language. As one major goal of ELT in Korea, the national curriculum has also paid a great deal of attention to cultivating the communicative competence of Korean EFL learners through a variety of classroom tasks (MOE, 2007). Regarding a variety of task variables which may affect the processes and products of writing, the roles of 'task type' and 'task repetition' have not been fully explored in the field of TBLT. For this reason, the present study aims to investigate the effects of task type and task repetition on task performance and outcomes of Korean EFL children, specifically, during collaborative writing.

1.3.2 Collaborative Written Language Output

It has been said that learners can learn best through active participation in a more learner-centred collaborative learning classroom, that is, a collaborative learning context can maximize learners' engagement and involvement in language learning activities compared to individualistic and competitive learning contexts (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). In addition, a collaborative learning context can encourage learners to construct and co-construct knowledge through peer interaction. For this reason, the concept of 'peer learning' has been recognized as an effective way to learn from and with each other (Boud, 2001). Although much of the literature conflates the two terms, 'collaborative' and 'cooperative' learning,

"Cooperative learning and collaborative learning are two versions of the same thing" (Bruffee, 1995: 12) and therefore, the two terms are used interchangeably in this thesis. What is important to recognize is that L2 learners take responsibility for their own learning, particularly, when they are actually engaged in collaborative language output activities. In second language acquisition (SLA), however, a great deal of attention has been paid to the role of 'input' and 'interaction' (Gass, 1997, 2003). For example, Krashen (1981) claimed in the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis that comprehensible input is sufficient for SLA. Long (1983) claimed in the Interactive Hypothesis that L2 learning occurs through interaction between learners, not because of input alone. In the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis, however, Swain (1985) argued that output is also an essential factor in SLA, because a series of observations in French immersion classrooms in Canada revealed the fact that the children did not show significantly native-like output even in such an 'input-rich' environment (Swain, 1985, 1995, 2005). Although it has been claimed that L2 learners learn from their own language output when they are pushed to use the target language, the role of output in L2 learning has not been fully explored and therefore, there is a significant need to investigate the potential benefits of language output in L2 learning. In particular, L2 writing can become a way of producing the target language and developing L2 learners' written communication skills when they are given ample opportunity to use and understand the target language in a collaborative learning environment. Although L2 writing has not been considered as an important component of L2 teaching and learning until fairly recently (Leki, 2000), there is also a significant need to investigate the potential pedagogical value of collaborative writing to promote L2 learning through social interaction in the classroom.

This section has presented briefly the theoretical background of this study with regard to communicative approaches to language teaching and language output in the context of

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collaborative writing. The next section provides a brief introduction to the methodological background to the present study.

1.4 Methodological Background

1.4.1 A Mixed-method Approach to Educational Research

It has been said that educational research is a systematic process for discovering new knowledge about the teaching and learning process. In other words, educational research is a way of understanding the process of teaching and learning. There are three major approaches to educational research: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method research. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005), there were battle lines drawn between the quantitative and qualitative camps, the so-called 'paradigm war,' which resulted in the conventional distinction between quantitative and qualitative research as summarized by the author below.

Quantitative Research inductive, objective, numerical, measurable, hypothesis-testing

Qualitative Research deductive, subjective, narrative, interpretive, hypothesis-generating
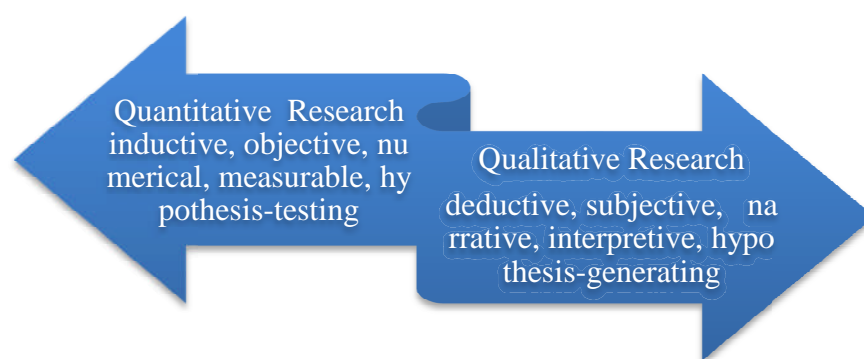
Figure 1.1 Features of Quantitative and Qualitative Research

In spite of the distinctive features, quantitative and qualitative approaches and methods should not be mutually exclusive, but rather contribute alternatives with their strengths and

weaknesses (Patton, 2002). For this reason, educational researchers are encouraged to mix the two research methods in a study in order for them to complement each other (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). With regard to multiple data sources, the current study employs a mixed-method approach when conducting classroom action research.

1.4.2 Classroom Action Research

Although action research originated in social science research (Lewin, 1948), it has become a widely accepted in educational research in the form of practitioner research (McNiff et al., 2003). In particular, Stenhouse (1975: 143) strongly encouraged classroom teachers to conduct action research in their own classroom as follows:

> The uniqueness of each classroom setting implies that any proposal – even at school level – needs to be tested and verified and adapted by each teacher in his own classroom … It is not enough that teachers' work should be studied: they need to study it themselves.

In this view, action research is about classroom teachers identifying their problems, possibly resolving the problems, reflecting on the problem-solving process, planning actions and bringing about continual change or improvement in their own teaching practice. Therefore, teachers themselves need to look into what is actually going on in their own classrooms with a view to their making judgements about how to improve their own teaching practice (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2003). On the practical level, however, teachers are required to develop research knowledge and skills to initiate their own research projects in the classroom, which may make them unwilling to initiate their own research projects (S. Mckay, 2006). As a teacher and a researcher, it was challenging to carry out a small-scale

action research project in my classroom, but the experience enabled me to identify practical issues, find possible solutions, and think of them in order to improve my teaching practice.

This section has presented the methodological background of the present study. The following section introduces the research aims, objectives and questions of the research.

1.5 Research Aims, Objectives, and Questions

As has been addressed throughout this chapter, there is a significant need to study EFL children's language output during collaborative writing. There are three broad aims to this study. From a pedagogical perspective, the research aims to investigate effective ways of designing task-based collaborative writing sessions in the Korean EFL classroom. From a sociocultural perspective, this research aims to give Korean children the opportunity to write together, take responsibility for their own learning and explore the value of collaborative writing in a collaborative learning context. From a methodological perspective, this research aims at learning about conducting classroom action research, developing research knowledge and skills, and improving classroom practice in terms of ongoing personal and professional growth. The primary objectives are to examine the effects of task type and task repetition on Korean EFL children's task performance and outcomes, the potential benefits of collaborative writing in L2 learning, and the challenges of becoming a teacher researcher. Based on the primary research objectives, four specific questions are formulated as follows:

1. Regarding the relationship between task type and L2 writing, whether and to what extent does task type affect the task performance and outcomes of Korean EFL children' writing?

2. Regarding the relationship between task repetition and L2 writing, whether and to what extent does task repetition affect the task performance and outcomes of Korean EFL children's writing?

3. How do the Korean EFL children feel about collaborative writing in the classroom when repeating the same writing tasks?

4. What are the benefits and challenges in conducting classroom action research in order to investigate effective ways of designing task-based collaborative writing sessions in the classroom?

The order of the four research questions is related to the presentation of Chapters 4 and 5. The last section of this chapter provides the outline of this thesis, which addresses the main concerns of each chapter of the thesis.

1.6 The Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is a reflective report of small-scale action research in a Korean EFL classroom undertaken in order to investigate the pedagogical benefits of collaborative writing and the practical challenges of teacher research. This thesis is organised into six chapters.

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter provides a brief overview of the thesis as a whole. Section 1.1 introduces my motivation to research and then Section 1.2 describes major issues in primary English education in Korea. This is followed in Sections 1.3 and 1.4 by a brief introduction to the theoretical and methodological background to the present study. Section 1.5 introduces

research aims, objectives and specific questions of the research. This chapter concludes with an outline of the thesis in Section 1.6.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter provides an overview of the theoretical background to the study. In two major sections, Section 2.1 deals with the educational attention to communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian countries including Korea. In terms of collaborative written language output, Section 2.2 reviews the need for collaborative learning, the rationale of Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis with its three functions of language output, and the research on L2 writing in the field of ELT.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

This chapter provides an overview of the methodological background to the research. In three major sections, Section 3.1 discusses the rationale for classroom action research including a brief review of educational research, the main features of quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method approaches to educational research, and a description of conducting small-scale classroom action research. Regarding a mixed-method approach, Section 3.2 presents the collection and analysis of quantitative data and Section 3.3 describes the collection and analysis of qualitative data.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Research Findings

This chapter presents the results of quantitative and qualitative data analysis. According to the order of the four research questions of this study, Section 4.1 reports the results of the text and dialogue analyses in order to answer the first and second research questions. Section 4.2 presents the responses from the interviews to answer the third research question and some reflections on the entire research process through classroom observation to answer the fourth research question.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This chapter draws together research findings and the theoretical and methodological considerations. Section 5.1 discusses the pedagogical implications of designing task-based collaborative writing sessions in the EFL classroom with regard to task type, task repetition and collaborative writing. This is followed in Section 5.2 by critical reflections on the process of classroom action research as a way of becoming a reflective teacher.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This chapter summarizes the main conclusions of this study. Section 6.1 provides a chapter-by-chapter summary of the thesis and Section 6.2 restates the major findings of the research. This is followed subsequently by the contributions and limitations of the research in Sections 6.3 and 6.4. This chapter concludes with some suggestions for future research in Section 6.5.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the theoretical background to the study. Concerning the development of L2 learners' written communication skills, this chapter contains two major sections. Section 2.1 discusses communicative and task-based language teaching in Asian-Pacific countries including Korea with a brief review of the interpretation and implementation of CLT in Asian EFL classrooms and the use of tasks as language learning activities in the classroom. Section 2.2 is concerned with the potential value of collaborative writing. After a brief introduction of the concept of collaborative written output, this section discusses the role of collaboration as the essence of language learning, Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis with its three functions of language output, and the need for teaching L2 writing and collaborative written output as a process of collaborative learning.

2.1 Communicative and Task-based Approaches to Teaching English

The first section of this chapter consists of two parts. The first part deals with the paradigm shift towards communicative approaches to teaching English in Asian-Pacific countries and the gap between interpretations and implementations of the notion of CLT in the classroom. The second part overviews the use of tasks in L2 teaching, the definitions and components of a task, the principles of TBLT and two task variables which may affect task performance and outcomes.

2.1.1 A Paradigm Shift in English Language Teaching

2.1.1.1 Communicative Approaches to Teaching English

As shown in the exploration of effective approaches and methods in language teaching (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001), the last few decades have seen the development of a significant body of work which embraces the notion of CLT to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as 'communicative competence' (see Brumfit & Johnson, 1979, for examples of early studies on this topic). The essential nature of CLT is considered as "the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence" (Savignon, 2005: 635), and a set of theoretical principles of the notion is presented by Li (2001: 150) as follows:

1. A focus on communicative functions;
2. A focus on meaningful tasks rather than on language *per se* (e.g., grammar or vocabulary study);
3. Efforts to make tasks and language relevant to a target group of learners through an analysis of genuine, realistic situations;
4. The use of authentic, from-life materials;
5. The use of group activities; and
6. The attempt to create a secure, non-threatening atmosphere.

As described above, it seems clear that decontextualized drills or exercises are of little value to L2 learners whose goal is the actual use the target language. In reality, however, it seems difficult to bridge the gap between theoretical principles and practical applications of CLT in the classroom. Moreover, the notion has been interpreted and implemented in many different contexts in many different ways (see Spada, 2007, for a review of the current status and future prospects). For this reason, it will be useful to overview how CLT has been interpreted and implemented in Asian EFL classrooms.

2.1.1.2 Interpretation and Implementation of CLT

The concept of CLT is regarded as "a core set of theories and beliefs about the nature of language, of language learning, and a derived set of principles for teaching a language" (Richards & Rogers, 2001: 245). However, CLT has been understood in a variety of ways as shown in the following teachers' beliefs as a way to facilitate communicative competence (Macaro, 1997: 42):

1. An emphasis on speaking and listening rather on reading and writing.
2. An emphasis on communicating new information rather than 'already known' information.
3. An emphasis on active involvement rather than passive learning.
4. An emphasis on meaningful bits of language rather than well formed sentences, individual words or bits of words.

Although each belief can play a significant role in achieving the goals of CLT, these may be only partially accomplished without sufficient consideration of the particular classroom contexts. In particular, there is a need to reconsider how CLT should be administered in Asian EFL classroom contexts, because "We need to look deeply at times into the specific needs of learners in Asia and the Pacific region" (Nunan, 2005a: 5). Firstly, in the context of the EFL classroom, most Asian EFL teachers have relied heavily on audio tapes or written materials in classes resulting in many challenges when much emphasis is placed on speaking skills (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). In addition, Asian EFL students have been described as passive learners, although this does not mean that they always want to sit in class passively in order to receive knowledge (Littlewood, 2000). In an extensive survey of Hong Kong secondary school teachers' perspectives on the communicative approach, for example, Carless (2007) reported that the teachers had difficulties in getting their students to speak in English, and this was not only because the students had linguistic problems but also because

there were cultural factors existing between Asian and Western societies regarding the nature of learning (Liu & Littlewood, 1997). Secondly, it seems that the dominant grammar-translation method in this area results in limited fluency in contrast to the lesser degree of focus on accuracy in CLT, due to the belief that "In its purest form, CLT focuses on meaning, with no explicit attention to grammatical form" (Cowan, 2008: 33). However, it has been argued that this is the most pervasive misconception within CLT (Littlewood, 2004; Spada & Lightbown, 2008) and therefore, L2 teachers and researchers are required to reconsider the validity of teaching grammar within the framework of CLT. According to Hinkel (2005), 'focus on form' has been variously discussed as a result of the reconsideration of explicit grammar instruction in L2 teaching (Bygate et al, 1994; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Fotos & Nassaji, 2007; Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). It is therefore essential for Asian EFL teachers to make an effort to find the most suitable ways to implement CLT in their specific local contexts.

In a comprehensive review of the implementation of CLT in primary and secondary schools of the Asia-Pacific region, Littlewood (2007) noted that national policies and syllabuses for English education have moved increasingly towards a variety of versions of CLT in this area. Robertson and Nunn (2007) also addressed that CLT has become the central pillar of government rhetoric in this region. In a comparative study, for example, Kim and Jeon (2005) concluded that developing learners' communication skills is a major goal of national English curricula among Korea, China, and Japan (Cummins & Davison, 2007). As Nunan (2003) pointed out, however, it is not always feasible for Asian EFL teachers to implement the principles of CLT in their classrooms, For example, Korean secondary school teachers experienced practical difficulties in applying the notion of CLT in their classrooms, because of their misconceptions about CLT, inadequate teacher training programmes and the

constraints of time for developing materials (Li, 1998, 2001). Similar findings were reported by Carless (2003) namely that Hong Kong primary school teachers found it difficult to implement CLT in their classrooms. In this respect, Asian EFL teachers have the responsibility to introduce the notion of CLT into their culturally specific classrooms in a variety of effective ways in order to take advantage of CLT for the development of learners' communication skills.

This part has briefly overviewed the paradigm shift towards communicative approaches to language teaching in Asian EFL countries including Korea. Despite the gap between theoretical interpretation and practical implementation of CLT, it seems clear that the notion of CLT has taken root in Asian EFL classrooms. The next part is concerned with the rationale for TBLT as an offspring of CLT.

2.1.2 Task-based Approach to Teaching English

2.1.2.1 The Role of Tasks

Along with the focus on learners' communicative competence in CLT, there has been a significant increase in the use of tasks in ELT (Edwards & Willis, 2005; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Willis & Willis, 2007), because the core constructs of CLT offer productive starting points for the principles of TBLT and the two approaches share several fundamental features as shown in all communicative approaches (VanPatten, 2002: 106):

1. Meaning should always be the focus.
2. Learners should be at the centre of the curriculum.
3. Communication is not only oral but written and gestural as well.
4. Samples of authentic language used among native speakers should be available from the beginning of instruction.
5. Communicative events in class should be purposeful.

In this sense, tasks have been considered as "the keys to language acquisition" and "the core of the language curriculum" (Celce-Murcia, 1991: 224). In other words, tasks can play a significant role in promoting communication and learning in the L2 classroom. Moreover, as tasks can be used as "the pivot point for stimulation of input-output practice" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 229), teachers need to take a task as a bridge between the comprehension of rich input and the production of output (Van Avermaet et al., 2006). It is therefore first necessary to understand the definitions of a task and the key principles underpinning TBLT in order to develop language learning tasks and design task-based lessons in the classroom.

2.1.2.2 Defining a Task

A number of definitions of a task have been proposed since the growing interest in the use of tasks in L2 research and pedagogy (Bygate et al., 2001; Ellis, 2003; Markee, 1997; Van den Branden et al., 2006). For instance, a task is defined as "hundreds of things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between" (Long, 1985: 89) or "any structured language learning endeavour" including a very wide range of activities (Breen, 1987: 23). In contrast to these overly broad definitions, a task is defined as "an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process" (Prabhu, 1987: 24). This definition supports the idea that effective learning occurs when learners are fully engaged in

classroom activities and when the teacher guides their performance explicitly. Nunan (1989) also considered a task as a classroom activity which requires L2 learners to comprehend, manipulate, produce, or interact in the target language. In a similar vein, a task is regarded as an activity "where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome" (Willis, 1996: 23). This definition is particularly concerned with the output of the activity as a result of using the target language in the classroom. However, what is important to consider is that not all the activities can be qualified as classroom tasks, although a number of activities take place in the classroom. For example, certain activities do not stimulate learners' active participation, because "learner participation is the pivot around which classroom tasks are to be examined" (Cameron, 2005: 31). In this regard, classroom tasks can be understood as language learning activities in the classroom, which encourage L2 learners to stretch beyond their limited linguistic resources through active involvement in classroom activities.

2.1.2.3 The Principles of TBLT

Regardless of there being no single universal definition of a task and critical reviews of TBLT which state that it is not a theory of SLA but an embryonic theory of language teaching (see Klapper, 2003, for a critical review of TBLT), a great deal of attention has been paid to the use of tasks in L2 research and pedagogy. What is important to consider here is that TBLT is still evolving in a variety of local contexts as shown in the development of CLT. The pedagogical principles underpinning TBLT are offered by Nunan (2005a: 5):

1. A replacement to or a supportive infusion of more student centred learning to certain single approach based syllabi.
2. Utilizing more authentic experience and materials as well as principles of constructivism compared to top down teaching.
3. More of a sense of personal and active accomplishment including developing a greater sense of language ownership.
4. Increased student participation when task teaching is well planned and implemented sensitive to learners' learning styles, learning and communicative strategies, personalities, multiple intelligences and the overall local contexts, for example.
5. Making specific lesson goals more evident through movement towards and/or success of task completion.
6. Important and ongoing assessment and "washback" to both teacher and learner.

In contrast to the traditional teacher-oriented teaching approach, TBLT puts an emphasis on 'learner centeredness' and 'learner participation' as part of the fundamental principles and practices of CLT as well as the pivot around which classroom tasks are defined. In particular, these two concepts are based on the belief that learners should take an active role in their language learning with regard to an emphasis on 'learner empowerment'. In a learner-centred classroom, for example, L2 learners play a more active role in their learning process, rather than the passive one of waiting to be filled with knowledge. Teachers are regarded not as mere transmitters of knowledge, but as designers of tasks to meet the needs of learners. Therefore, if teachers select or design classroom tasks for communicative language use, learners can develop their capacity to communicate effectively when they participate in these language learning activities in the classroom. Nunan (1989) provided six core components of a communicative task for task-based lessons as presented in Figure 2.1 and emphasised that these elements necessarily affect one another in an interactive way. For example, the four components (i.e. input, goals, activities, setting) may influence teachers in selecting, adapting, modifying, and creating tasks for a task-based lesson and learners will play different roles depending on the goal to be achieved or the input to be provided. In

particular, it has been argued that the roles of learner and teacher in TBLT should be different from those in the traditional classroom (Breen 1987).
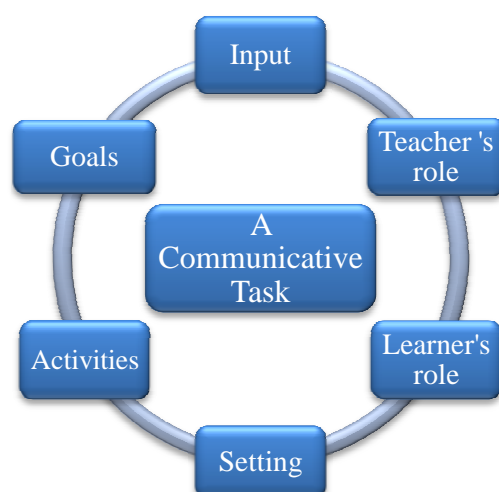
Figure 2.1 Six Components of a Communicative Task (Nunan, 1989)

As compared with a number of studies on adult learners, however, there has recently been a growing body of research on children (Carless, 2002, 2003; S. Lee, 2005; Duran & Ramaut, 2006; Oliver, 1998, 2009; Pinter, 1999, 2005). This is a result of an increasing concern among L2 teachers and researchers about implementing TBLT with young learners since the Bangalore project (Prabhu, 1987), and a number of studies have reported that TBLT is adoptable for children. For example, Pinter (1999) investigated task-related strategy use with 10-year-old Hungarian children and S. Lee (2005) explored the advantages and disadvantages of TBLT with 11/12-year-old Korean children. As Willis and Willis (2001) indicated, however, TBLT has not yet been explored extensively in the classroom setting due to a number of variables such as the teaching cycle, the teacher's intention and the learners' interpretation of the task, the learners' previous experience of the task type, time limitation, group size, and so on. In this regard, there is a significant need for L2 teachers and researchers to explore the implementation of TBLT with young learners in the

classroom. Among the task variables, task type and task repetition were explored in the present study in order to examine the relationship between these two task variables and the processes and products of Korean EFL children's writing.

2.1.2.4 Task Design Variables

2.1.2.4.1 Task Type

As has been addressed, the advent of the use of tasks in L2 teaching has been recognised as a way of encouraging L2 learners to produce the target language in conjunction with the heightened interest in developing their communication skills. As a means of facilitating L2 learning, it is therefore important for teachers to select or develop a particular type of task for their students in a specific classroom setting, because there is a range of degrees of discrepancy between what the teacher intends in implementing certain tasks and what the learners actually do when they work with the tasks (Kumaravadivelu, 1991). As C. Lee (2005) noted, early studies in TBLT have investigated the relationship between task type and language production. In a study comparing the proportion of turns taken by non-native speakers engaged in a describe-and-draw task and a jigsaw listening task, for example, Gass and Varonis (1985a, 1985b) indicated that there were fewer breakdowns in communication in the describe-and-draw task, but could not find any significant differences in the amount of negotiation between the two task types. In a study investigating the effect of task type on interaction, Duff (1986) found that a problem-solving task resulted in more turns per task than a debate task, whereas the debate task produced more utterances than the problem-solving task. In addition, Ellis (1987) reported that learners produced more accurate use of

past tense morphemes in a planned narrative task than in a non-planned task. Long and Crookes (1989) distinguished between pedagogic tasks for classroom activities and target tasks for real-life situations. The major aim of all these early studies was to explore the effects of task type on task performance and outcomes with specific conditions as summarised by the author below.

Table 2.1 The Types of Tasks	
Gass and Varonis (1985a,b)	One-or two-way task
Duff (1986)	Convergent or divergent task
Ellis (1987)	Planning or non-planning task
Long and Crookes (1989)	Pedagogic or target task

More specifically, Foster and Skehan (1996) and Skehan and Foster (1997) reported that three different tasks (i.e., personal, narrative, and decision-making) were influenced by three different planning conditions (i.e., non-planning, undetailed, and detailed) in terms of fluency, accuracy, and complexity. For example, Foster and Skehan (1996) reported that non-planners were less accurate than undetailed and detailed planners on a personal task, produced more errors than the other groups on a decision-making task, but showed no effect on a narrative task. Skehan and Foster (1997) reported that undetailed planners achieved greater accuracy on personal and narrative tasks but not on a decision-making task (see Skehan, 1998, for a comparison of the two studies). In a study of eighth-grade French immersion students working with a dictogloss task in pairs, Kowal and Swain (1994) reported that the dictogloss task resulted in greater accuracy, because the students noticed linguistic problems in their own output. In a study comparing the use of the first language (English) by eighth-grade French immersion students engaged in a dictogloss task and a picture-sequencing task, Swain and Lapkin (2000) reported that the students engaged in the dictogloss task devoted fewer L1 turns, whereas the students engaged in the picture-sequencing task used more L1 turns to search for L2 vocabulary items. This is because the

dictogloss task provided them with the necessary lexical items, whereas the picture-sequencing task required them to recall appropriate L2 vocabulary items. In a study analysing the use of lexical innovation strategies (e.g., code switching) by Spanish L2 learners of English involved in three task types (i.e. picture description, story-telling, and interview), Alvarez (2007) found that task type had an effect on the selection and frequency of different strategy use and further research would be required to determine the influence of task features on lexical creativity. After implementing a text reconstruction task in which learners were given the opportunity to reconstruct a text together, Kuiken and Vedder (2002) and Storch (1998) concluded that this joint product was a way of improving grammatical accuracy and as a result, these collaborative tasks would create new knowledge and consolidate existing knowledge by sharing linguistic resources with group members. The empirical research all indicates that a particular type of task plays a significant role in task performance and thus, it can affect learners' task outcomes. In this respect, a critical question emerges as a response to the empirical research, "What kinds of tasks are needed to promote L2 acquisition?" (Ellis, 2003: 101). It is therefore important to investigate the relationship between different task types and performance outcomes. More importantly, there is certainly a need to explore the role of collaborative writing tasks in L2 teaching and their potential for encouraging young learners to understand and use the target language. In addition, there is a need to examine the role of task repetition in L2 teaching as another task variable examined in the present study.

2.1.2.4.2 Task Repetition

Although it seems that task repetition has been relatively underexplored in TBLT, there has been a growing literature on the pedagogical benefits of repetition in L2 learning and

teaching (Bygate, 1996, 2001a; Gass et al., 1999; Lynch & Maclean, 2000, 2001; Pinter, 2001, 2005, 2007). In an early study, for example, Gass and Varonis (1985a, 1985b) asked participants to repeat a describe-and-draw task in pairs and then reversed the roles on the second occasion. The results showed the participants' increasing understanding of the task in the second performance. In a comparison study of a student's retelling of a Tom and Jerry cartoon twice three days apart, Bygate (1996) reported that, far from there being a boredom effect, there was clear improvement in terms of complexity of the output (e.g., lexical verbs, regular past tense, cohesive devices). In a larger study investigating the effects of specific task types (narrative and interview) on task performance, Bygate (2001a) found that there was a strong effect of task repetition on the complex and precise language production on the second occasion resulting from competing demands of fluency, accuracy, and complexity. In particular, the practical benefits of task repetition were emphasised in which "the first occasion is kept in the learners' memory store and can be reused on the second occasion, thereby freeing up some of the learners' capacity to pay attention to other aspects of the task" (Bygate, 2001a: 29). In other words, L2 learners may focus on meaning construction during the first performance, whereas they can focus more on the forms during the second performance. In a similar format in which a group of English-speaking students of Spanish were asked to retell a film strip, Gass et al. (1999) found some changes in morphosyntactic accuracy and lexical sophistication over time. Lynch and Maclean (2000, 2001) also found a repetition effect when medical students were involved in a poster carousel task and had to explain their posters to six visitors for three minutes respectively. In this study, the students developed their language through the different repetitions and as a result, there was an improvement in accuracy and fluency although different students benefited in different ways because of their different levels of proficiency.

It is important to recognize that there are beneficial effects on learner performance due to the additional opportunities to repeat the same task. In contrast to the empirical research on adult learners, however, there have been a relatively small number of studies conducted with young learners. For example, Van den Branden (1997) investigated the performance of 10/11-year-old Belgian children learning Dutch. When involved in an information-gap task, one of the two groups was asked to repeat the task twice. From the significantly higher range of vocabulary in the second performance, the children seemed to recycle the new words which were offered by their interlocutor during the first performance. In a study exploring 10-year-old Hungarian EFL children's peer-peer interaction, Pinter (2005) claimed that systematic repetition was beneficial for both 'language learning' and 'self-confidence' when the children were given the opportunity to repeat the same tasks. In particular, task repetition is viewed as "regular opportunities and a vehicle for the children to display their growing ability to interact with each other and control a specific type of task without any intervention from the teacher" (Pinter, 2007: 202). In other words, repeating the same tasks enabled the Hungarian EFL children to become more independent in language learning. In a replication of the study by Lynch (2001) where adult learners participated in a role play activity in pairs, produced a transcript and then revised it until they were satisfied with their products, Swain and Lapkin (2008) asked French immersion children to complete a series of activities in pairs for five days. As Lynch (2001) stated the revision process drew the participants' attention to language form and use in a relatively natural way, Swain and Lapkin (2008) also concluded that task repetition created opportunities to learn new lexical items and consolidate their knowledge of known ones in a natural manner. In this respect, it can be said that all these empirical studies concur in showing the need for investigating the pedagogical benefits of task repetition in L2 teaching and learning in the classroom.

This section has overviewed the growing interest in the use of tasks in L2 research and pedagogy, the principles of TBLT and two task variables which may affect learner's task performance and outcomes. The next section discusses the rationale for collaborative learning, the role of language output and the need for teaching L2 writing as a way of facilitating collaborative written language output.

2.2 Collaborative Writing in the Classroom

This section is concerned with collaborative writing in relation to the process of collaborative learning and language output in the classroom. The first part of this section provides a brief description of the concept of collaborative written output from the socio constructivist view. In the second part, the role of collaboration in L2 learning is presented with the conditions for fostering collaborative learning and peer interaction. Regarding the significance of learner output in L2 learning, the third part deals with Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis and its three functions of language output. This is followed in the fourth part by a brief overview of research on L2 writing and the need for teaching L2 writing in the EFL classroom context.

2.2.1 Collaborative Written Output

In the traditional writing classroom, the writer tends to be perceived as an isolated individual and the act of writing as a silent, private and solitary activity regardless of L1 and L2 contexts. However, a number of researchers and teachers have become interested in the social aspects of writing in and outside the classroom and this has been shown in a

collection of collaborative writing research undertaken during the last three decades (Speck et al., 2008). In other words, constant shifts in the teaching of L2 writing have challenged the traditional notion of 'writer' and 'writing' as singular, solitary agents and acts (Harrison, 1999). As Cooper (1986) argued, writing is a social activity as well as a cognitive activity. From the pedagogical perspective, it is important for teachers to teach writing because "Teaching effective writing can improve learning and achievement in all areas of education" (Wray, 2004: 5), although L2 learners may encounter a number of practical challenges and try to overcome such difficulties in order to achieve a high level of competence in the productive skills of L2 writing. In the collaborative writing classroom where a piece of text is constructed as a result of collaborative endeavour, for example, "ideas can be shared, interests and expertise can be exploited and responsibility can be spread" (Evans, 1987: 68) and writing is not merely a personal struggle, resulting from individual work in the traditional writing classroom. For this reason, there has been a growing research body of literature proposing the use of tasks which require 'collaborative written output' in the social context of the classroom (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Storch, 1999, 2002, 2005; Storch & Wigglesworth 2007; Swain & Lapin, 1998, 2008), because the use of collaborative writing tasks requires L2 learners to take part in the process of discussion, negotiation and joint production. From the approach to L2 writing to a sociocultural perspective, the collaborative nature of writing can take place as part of the process of collaborative learning, in particular, when L2 learners collaboratively construct knowledge of the target language through peer interaction. Concerning the value of L2 writing as part of the process of language output through active collaboration in the social context of the classroom, there is a need to understand the important role of collaboration in L2 learning.

2.2.2 Collaborative Learning in the Classroom

2.2.2.1 The Nature of Collaborative Learning

The concept of collaborative learning has long been considered as a central component in classroom learning because it facilitates learners to take responsibility for their own learning through social interaction (Bruffee, 1995, 1999). Regarding historical and philosophical origins, the two terms, 'cooperative' and 'collaborative' have been understood separately as Ingram and Hathorn (2004: 216) addressed:

> Cooperation is defined as the style of working in which students split an assignment into roughly equal pieces to be completed by the individuals, and then stitched it together to finish the assignment. In contrast, we define collaboration as a more complex working together. Students discuss all parts of the assignment, adding and changing things in conjunction with one another as they come to understand more about the topic. At the end, the final product is truly a group product in which it is difficult or impossible to identify individual contributions.

However, the theoretical and practical purposes underlying the two concepts are to encourage learners to work together in order to achieve their joint learning goals and thus, the two terms can be used interchangeably. Murdoch and Wilson (2008: 24) highlighted the potential benefits of collaborative learning.

1. All students can benefit from collaborative learning.
2. Working collaboratively can result in more efficient use of time.
3. Working collaboratively improves individual thinking and learning.
4. Collaborative learning demonstrates the social power of learning.
5. Effective collaborative learning boosts students' self-esteem and confidence, which are critical to learning.
6. Working collaboratively provides students with the experience of learning from, with and teaching each other, and can help students value diversity and difference.
7. Collaborative skills are fundamental to success in life beyond school.

8. Collaborative work increases the opportunity for enhancing communication skills, participation and responsibility /accountability.

Among all others, it seems particularly valuable to consider four advantages of collaboration (i.e., 4, 5, 6, and 8), which may maximize face-to-face collaborative learning in the classroom. Despite the potential that learners sometimes need to work individually and collaborative work may not be entirely appropriate for certain learners or classroom contexts, the literature on collaborative learning has identified a range of educational advantages. For example, it has been said that language is acquired when learners socially interact and work together in the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which is defined by Vygotsky (1978: 86):

> … the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.

According to this description, the learner moves from partner assistance to learner control. In terms of interaction, this means that 'adult assistance' or 'peer collaboration' can enable learners to solve problems and move beyond their current stage. Consequently, learning takes place in the social context of the classroom. As was mentioned, collaboration between teachers and learners or among learners has become an essential element of the interactive learner-centred classroom as the fundamental feature of CLT and TBLT (Nunan, 1992b). This is because the traditional roles of teachers as mere transmitters of knowledge and learners as passive recipients of knowledge have been replaced by the roles of teachers as facilitators of learning and learners as active participants in their own learning (Littlewood, 1984). In this view, learning can be no longer regarded as a mere transmission of knowledge from a teacher to learners in the CLT classroom. More importantly, peer-peer interaction has

taken its central place in the collaborative learning classroom as much focus has been put on interaction between the teacher and learners in the form of adult-child pairs. Hence, there is a need to identify the conditions for effective collaborative learning in order to encourage learners to become responsible for their own learning through active interaction in the classroom.

2.2.2.2 The Conditions for Collaborative Learning

Learning contexts are divided into competitive, individualistic and collaborative learning (Johnson and Johnson, 1987). Although the first two learning contexts can be superior to the last under certain conditions, it has been said that collaborative work results in greater learner achievement and more positive learner outcomes than the other two learning contexts regardless of ages, genders, ethnicities, and social classes (Johnson & Johnson, 2003, 2005). In a research review of language-minority students of English, Slavin (1990) also made it clear that collaborative learning promoted not only academic achievement but also the social skills of the learners. Although collaborative learning can be expected to be more productive than individualistic or competitive learning contexts under certain conditions, Johnson and Johnson (1994) have identified the conditions for effective collaborative learning.

1. *Positive interdependence* needs to recognize that none of group members can be successful unless they all are.
2. *Face-to-face interaction* needs to access to each other's resources and help each other to accomplish a task.
3. *Individual accountability/personal responsibility* needs to be an active participant and accountable for personal behaviour and performance.
4. *Interpersonal and small-group skills* need to be taught carefully to solve interpersonal problems.
5. *Group processing* needs to ensure that the decision making process is open to group members to achieve goals.

As shown in these situations, collaborative learning takes place when learners provide mutual support and encouragement to complete a task, share their knowledge and skills, contribute to their own learning, and actively interact with other group members. In this view, learners can take advantage of what each group member brings to the completion of a task as well as take responsibility for their own learning. This is known as the process of internalization in which learners transform their interpersonal experience into intrapersonal competence through peer interaction. According to Vygotsky (1978: 57, original italics),

> *An interpersonal process is transformed into an intrapersonal one*. Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first *between* people (interpsychological) and then *inside* the child (intrapsychological).

In this perspective, it may be impossible to distinguish personal learning experiences from collaborative group learning experiences in the social context of the classroom. The nature of collaborative learning is characterized by Millis (1996, cited in McInnerney and Roberts, 2004: 210):

1. Students work together in small groups.
2. Students work together on common tasks or learning activities.
3. Students use cooperative, pro-social behaviour to accomplish their common tasks or learning activities.
4. Students are positively interdependent and activities are structured so that students need each other to accomplish their common tasks or learning activities.
5. Students are individually accountable or responsible for their work or learning.

Therefore, L2 learners need to participate in language learning activities to achieve a specific goal and, in turn, this engagement affords them the opportunity to interact with other learners in a manner that encourages them to practice the target language (see Thousand, et al., 1994, for a review of collaborative learning). As peer-peer interaction in

the collaborative classroom has mediated problem-solving and knowledge building as a critical part of L2 learning, it is thus necessary that teachers and researchers take advantage of peer interaction as a way to facilitate peer learning.

2.2.2.3 Peer Interaction and Peer Learning

The effectiveness of interaction has been extensively studied in L2 research and pedagogy as a way of enhancing the collaborative learning experience of L2 learners (Long, 1983; Gass, 1997; Doughty & Long, 2003; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Gass & Selinker, 2008; see Mackey & Polio, 2009, for multiple perspectives on interaction). According to Gass (1997), for instance, learning can take place during the interaction and therefore, it should be taken as a crucial part of L2 learning. As noted early, learning takes place through active participation in collaborative group activities from the sociocultural view. In addition, as shown in a move from the teacher-centred toward the learner-centred interactive classroom, one major emphasis of CLT is on the use of group work to enhance classroom communication (Sullivan, 2000). According to the early studies on group work in TBLT, the opportunity to interact with peers resulted in more frequent negotiation for meaning (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Pica & Doughty, 1985; Pica et al., 1989). In a recent study of a classroom corpus of adults learning Japanese, Ohta (2001) reported that peer interaction resulted in increased accuracy partly because of peer feedback and peer correction. In a longitudinal study examining the nature of pair interaction of adult ESL students, Storch (2002) classified the pair interaction patterns into four orientations (i.e., collaborative, expert/novice, dominant/dominant or dominant/passive) and reported that a collaborative orientation was the most predominant pattern of interaction in terms of the level of involvement and contribution of each member in collaborative writing activities. In contrast to the studies on adult learners, Oliver (1998,

2000, 2002) has investigated the patterns of interaction of children and adults with regard to the type and effectiveness of interactional feedback and found different patterns of interaction according to the age of L2 learners and the context of the exchanges. In a more recent study, Oliver (2009) examined negotiation for meaning and corrective feedback in the context of young L2 children (aged 5 to 7) and found that peer interaction can lead additional improvement in language learning. Pinter (2005, 2007) also examined the benefits of peer-peer interaction of 10 year-old Hungarian EFL children. After observing the changes from the first to the last task repetition, this study concluded that the children benefited from peer-peer interaction as a way of developing both their social and independent skills. The empirical research supported the idea that peer interaction played a role as the optimum environment for negotiated comprehensible output. In this respect, collaboration can provide L2 learners with the opportunity to build up their knowledge about the target language as a process what Donato (1994) referred to as 'collective scaffolding' during peer interaction.

Although much attention has been placed on university laboratories and adult-child interaction (Hogan & Tudge, 1999), the concept of peer learning has become a useful strategy for L2 learning. According to O'Donnell (2006: 781):

> Peer learning is a broad umbrella term that includes cooperative and collaborative leaning, peer tutoring, cross-age tutoring, and other forms of learning in which peers help one another.

According to this broad definition, peer learning is a two-way reciprocal activity in which learners learn from and with each other (Boud et al., 2001). By examining pair work activities, Macaro (1997) reported that teachers perceived pair work as an invaluable way of promoting L2 use in a two-way information exchange as opposed to a large group exchange. In an examination of peer learning in a French immersion classroom, Swain and Lapkin

(1998) found that peer-peer interaction resulted in increasing accuracy when children were involved in a story construction task. Storch and Wigglesworth (2007) also reported positive results from the use of pair work in the L2 classroom. In particular, both studies showed that L2 learners working collaboratively outperformed those working individually. Although it has been said that classroom peer interaction may not necessarily lead to peer learning (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002), a number of empirical studies have revealed that peer interaction is an important means for successful L2 learning (Lantolf, 2000).

This part has addressed the collaborative nature of learning and the characteristics of collaborative learning. In a collaborative learning classroom, active learners take a high degree of responsibility for their own learning and teachers explore the various ways to promote learner collaboration in the process of L2 learning. More specifically, collaborative learning has become an invaluable way to assist learners to extend their language output. Therefore, the second part of this section overviews Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis, the role of collaborative dialogue and three functions of language output in terms of the process of collaborative learning.

2.2.3 Collaborative Language Output

2.2.3.1 The Comprehensible Output Hypothesis

In a number of theories and models in L2 research and pedagogy (Carter & Nunan, 2001; Doughty & Long, 2003; Hall & Verplaetse, 2000), three major elements have emerged in SLA, namely 'input', 'interaction' and 'output'. According to Tsui (2001: 121),

Input refers to the language used by the teacher, output refers to language produced by learners and interaction refers to the interrelationship between input and output with no assumption of a linear cause and effect relationship between the two.

These three elements in L2 research and pedagogy are known as the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, and the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. For example, Krashen (1981, 1985) assigned a crucial role to 'comprehension' in response to the idea that exposure to the target language may be enough in SLA. According to the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, it is necessary for L2 learners to require comprehensible input as "the only causative variable in SLA" (Krashen, 1981: 57). Therefore, L2 learners must be exposed to input beyond their current level so that they can move from their current stage to the next stage (Krashen, 1985). Despite its major influence on exploring the role of input in SLA research, Long (1983, 1996) has argued that L2 learning can occur not because of input alone, but through meaningful interaction in the classroom. To make input more comprehensible for L2 learners, Long (1983) claimed in the Interaction Hypothesis that close attention should be paid to a particular type of interaction, 'negotiation' for meaning through a variety of devices, e.g., recasts, confirmation checks, clarification requests. Concerning the issue of what kind of input is the greatest facilitator of L2 learning, Long (1996) has examined the benefits of interaction and compared the relative effectiveness of input simplification and modified input on L2 learning.

Along with the early studies on input and interaction in L2 research and pedagogy (Gass 1997, 2003), it has been widely recognised that L2 learners should be given opportunities to produce more comprehensible and correct target language (see Gass & Selinker, 2008, for a review of input, interaction and output research). Therefore, researchers and teachers have become interested in the role of output in the SLA field with the emphasis on the

development of communicative competence in the CLT classroom. In particular, Swain (1985) noticed that French immersion children in Canada were not proficient in producing the target language in spite of a considerable amount of input for a number of years. Based on the consistent findings from the French immersion programs, Swain (1985, 1995, 2000a, 2000b, 2005) claimed that input is necessary but not sufficient for successful L2 learning. Therefore, teachers need to provide their students with abundant opportunities to use the target language productively as opposed to the use of language merely for comprehension. According to Kumaravadivelu (2006: 48), learner output has been considered "not as a mechanism for language learning but as evidence of what has already been learned". However, Swain (1985: 252) argued that comprehensible output is "a necessary mechanism of acquisition independent of the role of comprehensible input" and formulated the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. This does not mean that output is the only important factor in L2 learning but that is a pivotal factor which fosters increased opportunities for learner production in the process of learning the target language. It is therefore useful to consider the three aspects in SLA as three saw-toothed wheels to maximize L2 learning as illustrated by the author below.
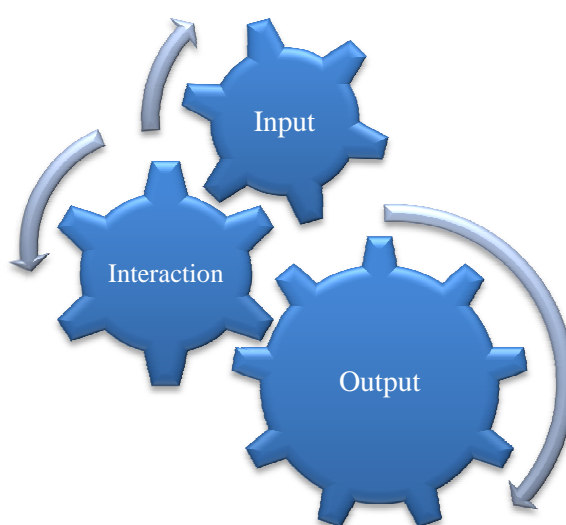
Figure 2.2 Balance between Input, Interaction and Output

In particular, the nature of collaborative dialogues has been examined in terms of what specific aspects of language are focused on when L2 learners are involved in a collaborative task. It may be useful to analyse collaborative discourse as evidence of peer learning through peer interaction in the process of language output.

2.2.3.2 Collaborative Dialogue

As mentioned earlier, language may not be acquired naturally when L2 learners are exposed to either the target language or an input-rich environment. Regarding the great deal of attention paid to learner production as a result of active participation in language learning activities, the role of language output has been examined as part of the process of collaborative learning in the classroom. In other words, language can be acquired when L2 learners interact and collaborate with each other in a collaborative learning classroom. From the constructivist perspective, dialogue can become a powerful vehicle for L2 learning, due to the sociocultural belief that language learning is mediated by language use. According to Swain (2005), L2 learners use joint problem-solving dialogue to solve their linguistic problems when engaging in collaborative learning activities (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2000, 2001). This joint problem-solving dialogue is defined as 'collaborative dialogue' by Swain (2000b: 113):

> Collaborative dialogue is problem-solving and, hence, knowledge-building dialogue. When participants in an activity make a collaborative effort, their speaking (or writing) mediates this effort. As each participant speaks, their 'saying' becomes 'what they said', providing an object for reflection. Their 'saying' is cognitive activity, and 'what is said' is an outcome of that activity. Through saying and reflecting on what was said, new knowledge is constructed.

In this perspective, collaborative dialogue is recognized as the process of language learning mediated by language use, because "some actual language learning can be seen to be occurring in the dialogues of participants" (Swain, 2000b: 97). Most of all, collaborative dialogue is important for peer interaction in the context of collaborative learning activities. For example, when a collaborative task is given, L2 learners encounter a number of linguistic problems and therefore, they need to interact with their peers to solve these problems. In particular, collaborative writing activities can elicit collaborative dialogue in which learners discuss their own language use whenever they encounter problems. Englert et al. (2008) emphasized 'discursive interaction' in practicing writing skills as a way of acquiring writing knowledge through interactive dialogue. In other words, collaborative writing can promote L2 learning, because 'peer-peer collaborative dialogue mediates L2 learning' (Swain, 2001b). For instance, collaborative writing activities draw learners' attention to grammatical accuracy through collaborative dialogue (Storch, 1998; Kowal & Swain, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 2001). As part of the process of L2 learning, Swain (1995) outlined three possible functions of language output in L2 learning to extend the linguistic repertoire of L2 learners when they attempt to create the desired precise meaning.

2.2.3.3 Three Functions of Language Output

2.2.3.3.1 The Noticing Function

It has been argued in SLA that L2 learning takes place by producing the target language, which is associated with the output hypothesis. During the process of task performance, learner output is assumed to trigger two types of noticing: 'noticing the gap' and 'noticing

the hole' (Swain, 1995). According to Swain and Lapkin (1995), L2 learners encounter a number of linguistic problems and notice what they do not know at all and what they know only partially, while they are involved in joint production. As a result, they may notice the gap when their interlanguage differs from the target language. In a comparative study, Izumi (2002) concluded that noting a gap through output is significantly greater than noticing through input. On the other hand, noticing the hole takes place when L2 learners realize that they have not yet developed their interlanguage to express their own intentions during the process of performing collaborative tasks. According to Swain (1999), noticing the hole can become an important step to noticing the gap, because L2 learners attempt to generate linguistic knowledge that is new for them or consolidate their current existing knowledge (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). In L2 writing which involves output, for example, learners need to reflect on their written production and modify it to enhance comprehensibility and appropriateness. It can be therefore said that the production of comprehensible output contributes to L2 learning as a result of learners' conscious recognition of their linguistic problems.

2.2.3.3.2 The Hypothesis-testing Function

The second function of language output is the hypothesis-testing function in which L2 learners use their developing target language to formulate a hypothesis and then test it out (Shehadeh, 2003). When L2 learners explore the new language during the process of hypothesis-testing, they need to experiment with it and go through trial-and-error cycles. As Swain (1995) noted, learner errors in their speaking or writing reveal their hypotheses in order to test how the target language works. In this regard, learner error or error feedback can be viewed as "a clear indication that learning is going on" (Macaro, 1997: 101).

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1996: 33), there are four approaches to testing hypotheses.

1. Receptively, by comparing hypotheses to second language input;
2. Productively, by using the hypothesis to generate language and assessing the feedback;
3. Metalingually, by consulting a native speaker or text; or
4. Interactionally, by making an intentional error to elicit a repair from a native speaker

In speaking or writing tasks involving productive skills, L2 learners test hypotheses in a variety of ways to enhance their understanding of language use. For example, L2 learners write, rewrite and search for optional expressions which reveal their original intentions. The process of task performance may trigger internal feedback in the form of self-evaluation or external feedback on their writing in the form of peer or teacher responses. If the learners receive negative feedback (e.g., correction of ungrammatical utterances), this makes them test different hypotheses about a particular linguistic system (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). In other words, the hypothesis-testing function comes from learners' attention to mismatch between input and output during task performance and therefore, it can lead them to focus on form in negotiated interaction (Long & Robinson, 1998), because the three functions of language output are basically related more to accuracy than fluency (Swain, 1995). In a secure classroom environment, therefore, L2 learners need to be encouraged to test hypotheses when receiving internal or external feedback on their language output.

2.2.3.3.3 The Metalinguistic Function

The third function of language output refers to the metalinguistic function which enables L2 learners to reflect on the language they use so that the target language becomes not only the

tool, but also the object of linguistic construction (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). In many cases, when L2 learners encounter linguistic problems in using the target language, they make great efforts to solve the problems. Thus, the process of problem-solving during task performance is expected to foster their conscious reflection about the linguistic system of the target language. According to Izumi (2003: 17), "reflection on language may deepen the learner's awareness of forms, rules, and form-function relationship if the context of production is communicative in nature". Kumaravadivelu (2006) also relates the metalinguistic function to the possibility that L2 learners may consciously think about the target language and its system in order to produce linguistically correct and communicatively appropriate output. In other words, when L2 learners reflect on their target language use during task performance, their language output can contribute to control and internalize linguistic knowledge. In this view, metalinguistic reflection on language seems essential to help L2 learners expand knowledge as well as develop learning, in particular, when working with collaborative tasks.

In conjunction with attention to the development of productive language skills, L2 learners need to engage in classroom interaction and language production by either writing or speaking. As Swain (2000a) noted, however, the role of output remains relatively underexplored in L2 research and pedagogy and thus, there is a need to investigate the pedagogical benefits of learner output in L2 learning. If L2 learners can benefit from their language output to develop their communication skills, which is the primary goal of CLT and TBLT, L2 teachers need to provide them with meaningful and plentiful opportunities to use whatever linguistic resources they have in a safe and positive classroom environment. However, it is important to recognize that there has been critical discussion on the output hypothesis in SLA. As has been mentioned, L2 learners try out linguistic items and discover

rules in the course of language production either orally or in writing. In this respect, learner production is considered as a way of making a significant contribution to language acquisition (Swain, 1985, 1995). However, it is argued that "… theoretically, speaking and writing are not essential to acquisition. One can acquire 'competence' in a second language, or a first language, without ever producing it" (Krashen, 1981: 107-108) and noted that the 'competence' is acquired in the input hypothesis, whereas that of the output hypothesis is learned. Although abundant opportunities for language production through speaking or writing may not lead to acquisition, it is important to consider that "Swain's claim is that production will aid acquisition *only when the learner is pushed*" (Ellis, 1997: 282, original italics). In this respect, L2 learners need to be pushed to produce the target language in the process of SLA. In fact, when L2 learners encounter communication problems, this is confirmed by means of feedback from teachers or peers. In other words, L2 learners are pushed to produce more comprehensible, appropriate and correct output in the form of 'modified output' (Pica et al., 1989). The question is whether there is evidence to show L2 learning as a result of pushed output and a long-term impact of pushed output (Ellis, 1997). In an experimental study of testing the effect of modified output on the acquisition of past tense forms, for example, Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993) concluded that participants showed improved performance over time indicating a long term effect, but this was not the case for all the participants. To some extent, it may be a pitfall that concrete evidence for the output hypothesis usually results from this controlled environment. Therefore, as Willis (1996) stated, there is a practical need to explore the process of acquisition through learner production in the classroom.

This part has overviewed Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis in terms of the significant contribution of learner output in L2 learning. As input is not sufficient alone,

output should be considered as essential in L2 learning through peer dialogues in the context of collaborative learning. This was followed by a brief review of three functions of language output and some comments on 'pushed output' in terms of L2 learning. The third part of this section provides an overview of three major traditions in the teaching of writing, empirical research on L2 writing, and the need for teaching L2 writing in the EFL classroom context as a way of promoting active participation in language output.

2.2.4. An Overview of L2 Writing in the Collaborative Classroom

2.2.4.1 Three Approaches to the Teaching of Writing

Although research on oral language output has been dominant in the field of ELT, there has been a growing body of research on L2 writing (Leki, 2000; Matsuda & Silva, 2005; Silva & Brice, 2004; Silva & Matsuda, 2001) with a focus on three major traditions in the teaching of writing, namely product-, process-, and genre-based approaches (Badger & White, 2000; Kern, 2000).

2.2.4.1.1 The Product-based Approach to Writing

In this approach, teachers put great emphasis on the organization, sentence structures, and various grammatical aspects of model texts and learners are asked to analyze the model texts and then produce similar texts as their final product. In other words, learners are "engaged in imitating, copying and transforming models of correct language" (Nunan, 1991: 87). According to Rivers (1968), teachers need to recognize the importance of accuracy in

copying in order to encourage their students to observe in detail. As a result, learners become aware of the grammatical accuracy of structure through exposure to the texts and then internalize fixed patterns of smaller components in sentences to larger units of texts (Schmidt, 1995). However, the major focus of product-based writing is on the final product rather than on the process of writing. That is, the emphasis is placed not on the processes which can show the ways learners arrive at the final product but on the writing product to assess its accuracy. Therefore, there has been little attention given to teachers as regards how to intervene effectively during the process of writing. In addition, working with model texts is regarded as a simple exercise involving copy the relevant features of the texts and developing habit formation (Silva, 1990), because the model texts do not demonstrate the way the original writers produce the final products. For this reason, there has been a growing dissatisfaction with this traditional approach calling for the emergence of a new rationale for writing.

2.2.4.1.2 The Process-based Approach to Writing

Along with the shift in focus from grammatical correctness to meaningful communication in ELT, the notion of process writing was introduced as "a non-linear, exploratory, and generative process" (Zamel, 1983: 165). According to Raimes (1983), process writing refers to creative writing in which learners express their own ideas and opinions putting meaning rather than form to fore. Tribble (1996) also pointed out that this approach underlines the creativity of the individual writer with great attention paid to the development of good writing practices rather than the mere imitation of models. While following the recursive process of drafting and rewriting, learners can practise a variety of techniques of generating texts and learn how to elicit feedback from their teachers or peers and how to respond to

such feedback. In particular, Graves (1983) advocated one-to-one conferencing where teachers allow their students to discover what they really want to write and help them to develop their writing skills to accomplish writing tasks. In this regard, Silva (1990) described this approach as a way of establishing a positive, collaborative working environment with ample time and minimum interference. However, there have been objections that such successive cycles of revision can become an extremely time-consuming and demanding process and may not be an appropriate technique to use in timed examinations (Horowitz, 1986). In practice, it is an issue whether teachers have the opportunity to run one-to-one conferences, in particular, in an over-sized class such as is the case in the majority of ESL/EFL classroom settings. Moreover, a teacher in the role of a facilitator not an active instructor offers little direct guidance and therefore, learners can encounter major problems in dealing with particular features of written language. This raises the issue that learners need to become familiarized with the different conventions of different types of writing through explicit instruction.

2.2.4.1.3 The Genre-based Approach to Writing

In the 1980s, another major approach to the teaching of writing emerged with the considerable emphasis on the different genres of writing (Johns, 2003). This approach is based on dissatisfaction with the way that writing is taught without enough attention to the different forms and functions of writing in the classroom. According to Martin and Rothery (1986), it is the task of a school to teach specific genres which are not learned naturally and help learners to understand different genres. This approach invites learners to imitate the available genres and provides the opportunity to understand how different purposes of a text

require a particular structure which will have specific linguistic features. Rothery (1986: 7-9)

provided the following steps for introducing a new genre to children in the classroom.

1. The teacher becomes familiar with the genre.
2. The genre is introduced to the class. This includes reading many examples to the children and making examples available for them to read.
3. The teacher works with the children to assist them in developing control of the genre.
4. Teacher and students work on joint construction of texts in the genre.
5. From here, the children are encouraged to produce solo efforts, for which they choose the topics, conferencing with the teacher takes places and other aspects of process writing.

This approach places more significance on explicit teaching of the characteristics of

different genres (Hyland, 2003a). In contrast to process writing, learners can develop

different aspects of linguistic competence when they are explicitly taught different types of

writing techniques and master a variety of genres with models. As Christie (1986) noted,

this approach helps learners to become creative and self-expressive through manipulating

culturally significant linguistic patterns and playing with various genres. In practice,

however, teachers need to understand how to support their students to achieve control of a

particular genre in the classroom. Most of all, it is important to note that the three

approaches are complementary to rather than compatible with each other in spite of the

inherently different nature of writing. In addition, teachers need to bear in mind several

issues, when they want to help their students develop their writing skills.

2.2.4.2 Two Issues in L2 Writing Research

In a number of empirical studies on L2 writing, two key issues should be taken into account

in the field of L2 research and pedagogy.

2.2.4.2.1 The Theoretical and Methodological Tools in L2 Writing

Since the first major L1 research of Emig (1971) in response to the shift of emphasis from the product to the process of writing, early L2 writing researchers have investigated the process of L2 writing and attempted to apply the process approach in the classroom (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Johns, 1990; Kaplan & Grabe, 2002). In an overview of L2 writing process research, Krapels (1990) indicated that the early L2 researchers adopted L1 writing process research designs or borrowed the analysis criteria from L1 studies, even though there were a number of salient differences between L1 and L2 writing. In other words, L2 researchers identified some evidence to show differences between L1 and L2 writing (Raimes, 1985) in contrast to the similarities between the writing behaviours of L1 and L2 writers (Zamel, 1983). In a review of 72 research papers, for example, Silva (1993: 669) concluded that "L2 writing is strategically, rhetorically and linguistically different in important ways from L1 writing." This is supported by the findings from text analysis in the essays written by L1 and L2 students from China, Korea and Japan (Hinkel, 2002, 2005). In this sense, it is important for L2 teachers to examine the processes and strategies employed by L2 writers to meet their unique instructional needs.

2.2.4.2.2 Attention to EFL Writing and Young EFL Writers

According to Manchon and De Haan (2007), EFL writing does not seem to be in parallel and similar growth as shown in a number of studies on ESL writing which resulted in a spectrum of the theoretical, empirical and pedagogical development of ESL writing at university level. This is because ESL writing emerged as a 'subdiscipline' of L2 teaching to meet the needs of ESL university students (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998). In a historical overview of L2

writing, Matsuda (2003, 2005) also noted that L2 writing research has focused on ESL university students to meet their needs for academic writing. According to Cumming (2001: 226):

> Although the focus of L2 writing research has recently been expanding beyond contexts in North America and northern Europe, it has scarcely developed an international perspective, let alone a cross-lingual one. … But this is not much of an international or cross lingual perspective, not is it sufficient for us to claim we are aware of the many sources and patterns of variation that no doubt exist in regards to L2 writing.

Silva and Brice (2004) also addressed the concern that research on L2 writing has long focused on higher education contexts. This reveals that relatively few studies have been carried out on the performance of young L2 writers (Hudelson, 1994; Lightbown & Spada, 1999). From a constructivist perspective, L2 children need to "experiment with written language to learn how written language works" (Hudelson, 2005: 204), because this experimentation can enable them to figure out the system of written language and solve their linguistic problems. In a study exploring the relationship between age and teaching time, for example, Torras et al. (2006) found that the amount of exposure to the target language plays a crucial role in the development of EFL children's written competence. Although research on young L2 writers is increasing rapidly, it has not yet become a major area within the field of L2 research and pedagogy. According to Hinkel (2005), the development and text features in the L2 writing of school-age children are still under-researched. Matsuda and De Pew (2002) provided several possible explanations for the under-representation of this age group, such as L2 researchers' familiarity with higher educational contexts and the ethical sensitivity of research with children. More importantly, relatively little research has been undertaken into EFL children's collaborative writing as compared with L1 children (Yarrow & Topping, 2001) or ESL adult learners (Storch, 2002, 2005). In this respect, there is a need

to investigate the potential pedagogical value of collaborative writing in the children's EFL classroom (Hedgcock, 2005).

Regarding the theoretical and methodological framework for the teaching of L2 writing, it may be fundamentally inappropriate to borrow whole practices and strategies used in the L1 research for the L2 writing classroom. It seems therefore important to consider different key aspects of L2 writing as Hyland (2003b: 24) suggested:

- Different linguistic proficiencies and intuitions about language
- Different learning experiences and classroom expectations
- Different sense of audience and writer
- Different preferences for ways of organising texts
- Different writing processes
- Different understandings of text uses and the social value of different text types

In addition, it may be meaningful to examine the processes and the products of EFL children's writing in contrast to the theoretical, empirical and pedagogical development of ESL writing at university level. In terms of multi-dimensional perspectives of L2 learning and teaching, therefore, there is a practical need for research on EFL writing of school-age children.

2.2.4.3 The Need for Teaching of L2 Writing

2.2.4.3.1 Productive Language Skills

A language consists of four skills which have conventionally been distinguished in terms of channel (audio and visual) and mode (productive and receptive). As the visual channel and

the productive mode, writing is an important skill that L2 learners need to develop and the ability to teach this skill has become central to the expertise of L2 teachers (Hyland, 2003). In other words, writing is the vital skill that L2 learners are expected to master in order to develop their communication skills. Although it has been recognized that "Becoming a writer is a complex and ongoing process, and becoming a writing teacher is no less complex" (Kroll, 1990: 1), writing should be taught in L2 learning and moreover, it should be distinguished from speaking as suggested by White (1981: 2, cited in Nunan, 1989: 36):

> Writing is not a natural activity. All physically and mentally normal people learn to speak a language. Yet all people have to be taught how to write. This is a crucial difference between the spoken and written forms of language. There are other important differences as well. Writing, unlike speech, is displaced evolved since it makes possible the transmission of a message from one place to another. A written message can be received, stored and referred back to at any time. It is permanent in comparison with the ephemeral 'here one minute and gone the next' character of spoken language – even of spoken language that is recorded on tape or disk.

In this view, fundamentally, neither writing nor speaking can be inherently superior to the other because of their markedly different functions. In other words, writing is not simple speech written down (Peacock. 1986) or "a pale reflection of speech, a mere secondary system, parasitic upon the spoken language" (Stubbs, 1980: 100). Regarding the recognition of the communicative functions of writing in the EFL context, it seems helpful to take into account the following conditions for good writing tasks when designing appropriate L2 writing tasks to help L2 learners become successful L2 writers (Nunan, 1989: 37):

- Mastering the mechanics of letter formation;
- Mastering and obeying conventions of spelling and punctuation;
- Using the grammatical system to convey one's intended meaning;
- Organising content at the level of the paragraph and the complete text to reflect given/new information and topic/comment structures;
- Polishing and revising one's initial efforts;
- Selecting an appropriate study for one's audience.

According to Hinkel and Fotos (2002), the role of language output has been relatively underexplored in contrast to language input as an essential component in SLA (Krashen, 1998). Regarding the important role of learner output in L2 learning, it is therefore essential that L2 learners need to produce 'pushed output' to learn the target language through noticing, testing hypotheses and reflecting. As a productive language skill, L2 writing can serve as a way to enhance or facilitate learner output and thus, written communication skills should be taught in L2 learning.

2.2.4.3.2 Written Communication through Text Production

As mentioned throughout this chapter, one of the primary goals of CLT is to encourage L2 learners to develop their communicative competence in the target language (see Savignon, 2005, for a review of the strategies and goals of CLT). For this reason, it has been emphasised that L2 language should be taught not as an object of study but as a system of communication (Widdowson, 1978; Allen & Widdowson, 1979). As a language skill used for communication, writing is the production of a text which must be comprehended in order for communication to take place (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). To develop written communication skills, therefore, L2 writers are engaged in communicating their ideas as described by Smith (1994: 87):

> There are three parties to every transaction that written language makes possible: a writer, a reader, and a text. And of the three, the text is the pivot … Writer must produce texts and readers must interpret them, and the text always stands between the two, a barrier as well as a bridge.

As pointed out above, the production of written texts is a bridge that promotes communication between writers and readers. In this view, the principles of CLT can be

applied to various writing activities in order for writers and readers to be involved in the process of "the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning" (Savignon, 2000: 128). In spite of the somewhat vague distinction between EFL and ESL classroom contexts, it is still true that most EFL learners are likely to find it difficult to use or access the target language in their daily life. Nevertheless, L2 writing has been recognised as a major means of communication due to the ever-increasing need to communicate via electronic media in a global community (Crystal, 2003, 2006). With the growing focus on written communication through text production, it is essential for L2 teachers to provide their students with plentiful opportunities to write and understand the functional and structural features of the target language (Littlewood, 1981). In this way, it can be expected that L2 writing itself will serve the pedagogical purpose of fostering communicative competence as well as language learning.

2.2.4.3.3 A Learning Tool

Although the four language skills are fundamentally interrelated and mutually reinforcing one another from the whole-language approach (Kumaravadivelu, 2006), these skills tend to be taught separately following the sequence of listening-speaking-reading-writing as a natural order of learning skills regardless of L1 and L2 contexts. In addition, L2 writing research and pedagogy has lagged behind the attention to oral skills due to the powerful influence of the audiolingual method in ELT (Matsuda, 2003, 2005). However, it has been said that writing is an essential tool for language learning as well as communication (Weigle et al., 2002; Tynjala et al., 2001). In a critical review of writing practice, for example, Raimes (2002: 309) pointed out the glaring omissions which occur when using writing in planning a writing course and training L2 teachers.

It neglects the real value of writing: that it is a valuable tool for learning not only about subject matter, whatever the choice, but also about language. Writing is for discovery of learning, not just demonstration of learning.

In this view, writing must be considered as a unique tool for language learning and "an important way to explore ideas, to think, and to learn content" (Foster, 2008: 72). In other words, writing is a means of self-discovery as well as learning content. More importantly, writing makes it possible for L2 learners to experiment with written language to learn how the target language works (Hudelson, 1994, 2005). This is because L2 learners try to make their output more comprehensible and appropriate if they have certain information to convey. According to Hinkel and Fotos (2002: 196):

It would be difficult to develop communicative competence in speaking or writing based on input alone because to engage in a meaningful interaction or writing, one has to be understood, as well as be able to understand.

For this reason, L2 writing must be regarded as the process of language production and meaning construction. During the production of writing, for example, L2 learners will encounter a number of linguistic problems and thus, they may be aware of the gap between what they know partially and what they do not know at all. This experience can provide L2 writers with the opportunity to realize their linguistic strengths and weaknesses. This is also a useful way to understand how L2 learners learn to write in the target language and how teachers teach them effectively. From a sociocultural perspective, writing takes place in the social context of the classroom and therefore, the nature of collaboration in writing should be taken into consideration in L2 learning.

2.2.4.3.4 Collaboration in Writing

Although it has been said that writing is a solo activity for self expression (MacArthur et al., 2008), this is not to say that writing cannot become part of collaborative language learning activities with peers. In other words, writing can take place in the social context of the classroom, not merely as isolated classroom activities. For this reason, a great deal of attention has been given to working together in pairs or in small groups in CLT and TBLT. Swain (2000b) reported that L2 learners working collaboratively outperformed those working individually. In a series of comparative research on individual and pair work, Storch (1998, 2002, 2005, 2007) concluded that writing in pairs is a beneficial strategy in L2 learning. This is also supported by many other studies to stress the benefits of collaborative writing (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 2001), because the process of joint construction of text is regarded as a part of the collaborative learning process. In particular, there are beneficial functions of collaborative writing for children as O'Sullivan and Thomas (2007: 94) presented:

- It enables children to pool their knowledge of writing and spelling and support each other;
- It allows them to observe each other's strategies;
- It helps them to articulate what they know and also to identify points that they are unsure of and need help with;
- It helps them to develop their sense of a reader, and to understand that their writing must be clear and comprehensible to an audience.

To some extent, it may be true that children do not have the techniques and strategies adult learners use in the writing process. As Williams and Burden (1997) recommended, therefore, it is important for L2 teachers to understand that their young learners need to be helped gradually to take more responsibility for their own learning when working with collaborative writing tasks. As research on children's writing in pairs has been underexplored extensively

in contrast to the number of studies on ESL adult learners' written production in TBLT, there is a significant need to investigate the processes and products of joint production of a text in the EFL children's classroom.

2.3 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the theoretical background to the present study with reference to the development of EFL children's written communication skills. In Section 2.1, the rationale of communicative and task-based language teaching was overviewed by addressing the gap between interpretation and implementation of CLT and the use of tasks in TBLT in East Asian classrooms. This was followed in Section 2.2 by an introduction of the concept of collaborative written output, the pedagogical role of collaboration in L2 learning, the significance of language output, and the need for teaching writing to L2 learners. The following chapter provides an overview of the methodological background to the present study.

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the methodological background of the present study. This chapter consists of three major sections. Section 3.1 discusses the rationale for classroom action research after a brief review of educational research and the main features of quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method research. This is followed by a description of how classroom action research was implemented including consideration of the teacher, the learners, the three writing tasks, and the research process. Regarding the methods of data collection and analysis, the present study combines quantitative and qualitative research methods to obtain multiple perspectives. Sections 3.2 and 3.3 discuss the process of quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis used in the present study.

3.1 Classroom Action Research in Educational Research

The first section of this chapter begins with a brief discussion of the purpose of educational research and the major features of quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method approaches to educational research. This is followed by the need for research by teachers, the characteristics of classroom action research, and a brief description of the research process to facilitate understanding of the research findings reported in Chapter 4.

3.1.1 The Purposes of Educational Research

Educational research has raised many practical issues and contributed to the ongoing debates about methodological issues (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998; Picciano, 2004; Scott & Usher, 1996; Wellington, 2000). According to Farrell (1999: 151):

> Educational research is an activity which involves gathering and analysing data to provide worthwhile information about, and insights into, teaching and learning and the educational settings in which they take place.

In this sense, the aim of educational research is to discover something new or better in the field of education and provide a better understanding of how more effective learning and teaching can take place. In other words, educational research is the process of obtaining abundant information about how students learn and how teachers should teach them in more effective ways and therefore, educational researchers need to understand the basic concepts of 'research' and several important characteristics of 'educational research' to develop a broader and deeper knowledge of teaching and learning. According to Picciano (2004: 7), the process of educational research goes through several steps as follows:

Figure 3.1 The Process of Educational Research (Picciano, 2004)

As educational research has paid a great deal of attention to teacher-learner and peer-peer interaction to provide knowledge of the teaching and learning process, there is a critical need

for educators to develop a variety of research methods and techniques to investigate the process of learning and teaching in education. There are currently three major approaches to educational research: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method research and it seems to be helpful to overview the theoretical underpinnings of the three research approaches to understand the use of multiple research methods in the present study.

3.1.2. Three Research Approaches to Educational Research

3.1.2.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is often placed in opposition to qualitative research due to the paradigm war resulting from the apparently incompatible perspectives underlying the two camps (Hatch, 2002). As shown in early educational research, the scientific approach resulted in quantitative measurement of the characteristics of learners and teachers in order to provide a theoretical basis to the process of learning and teaching. According to Mackey and Gass (2005: 2):

> Quantitative research generally starts with an experimental design in which a hypothesis is followed by the quantification of data and some sort of numerical analysis is carried out (e.g., a study comparing student test results before and after an instructional treatment).

As most quantitative methods involve numerical measurement and statistical analysis, quantitative research requires the collection and analysis of numerical data (e.g., school test scores, public opinion polls). In addition, quantitative research employs a deductive approach when trying to answer research questions. For example, the quantitative researcher thinks up a relevant theory to a topic first, and then narrows it down to a more specific

hypothesis to test it out. This top-down process will then lead to the support or refusal of the original theory.

3.1.2.2 Qualitative Research

As an alternative and competing paradigm to quantitative research, qualitative research has frequently been conducted in the area of education. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005: 3):

> Qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

In a similar view, Mertler (2006) described qualitative research as a way of collecting and analyzing narrative data (e.g., observation, interviews). In contrast to a deductive approach to quantitative research, qualitative research takes an inductive approach in which the researcher observes specific situations and concludes with broader generalizations or theories. In the qualitative participant observation, for example, the researcher takes an active part in the process of teaching and learning to understand the experiences and interpretations of the particular educational setting.

3.1.2.3 Mixed-method Research

As an alternative to the polarity between quantitative and qualitative traditions, educational researchers have become increasingly interested in 'triangulation' and 'mixed methods', which refer to using more than one data collection method in a single study (Tashakkori &

Teddlie, 1998, 2002, 2008). Although mixed methods represent one form of triangulation, the two terms are used synonymously with the belief that there is no single, best data collection method and that all methods have limitations inherently. In particular, Allwright et al. (1991: 73) noted that "As language classroom research procedures have become more sophisticated, we have come to recognize the value of multiple perspectives in data collection and analysis." Triangulation can take several different forms. According to Denzin (1978), the concept of triangulation is divided into four types depending on the focus: data, researcher, theory and methodological triangulation, which are presented by Patton (2002: 556):

1. Methods triangulation: checking out the consistency of findings generated by different data collection methods.
2. Triangulation of sources: checking out the consistency of different data sources within the same method.
3. Analyst triangulation: using multiple analysts to review findings.
4. Theory/perspective triangulation: using multiple perspectives or theories to interpret the data.

In this view, multiple data sources, observers, theories and methods would seem to contribute to the reliability and validity of data. Regarding methodological triangulation, Denzin (1978) distinguished between 'within-methods' which refers to the use of multiple research strategies in a single methodological approach (e.g., qualitative observations and qualitative interviews) and 'between-methods', which refers to the use of multiple methods in a single piece of research (e.g., qualitative case study and quantitative survey). What is important is that a choice between quantitative and qualitative methods depends on what the researcher is trying to find out, because "Neither one is markedly superior to the other in all respects" (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992: 30). In this view, there is no reason why researchers should not mix a wide range of qualitative and quantitative methods in their research projects.

The main features of quantitative, qualitative and multi-method research are summarized by the author as follows.

Table 3.1 Key Features of Three Research Paradigms

Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed-method
• Deductive or top-down	• Inductive or bottom-up	• Deductive/ inductive
• Prediction	• Contextual	• Multiple objects
• Objective	• Subjective	• Pragmatic
• Controlled condition	• Natural condition	• Mixture forms
• Numerical data	• Words, images	• Mixture of variables
• Statistical report	• Narrative report	• Eclectic report

Regarding the need for triangulation of sources, the present study employed multiple research methods to overcome the biases of other methods. In other words, a mixed-method research design was employed in order to answer the four research questions as addressed below.

Table 3.2 Research Questions and Research Methods	
1. Regarding the relationship between task type and L2 writing, whether and to what extent does task type affect the task performance and outcomes of Korean EFL children's writing?	Written texts Pair dialogues [pair interviews]
2. Regarding the relationship between task repetition and L2 writing, whether and to what extent does task repetition affect the performance and outcomes of Korean EFL children's writing?	Written texts Pair dialogues [pair interviews]
3. How do the Korean EFL children feel about collaborative writing in the classroom when repeating the same writing tasks?	Pair interviews [Pair dialogues]
4. What are the benefits and challenges in conducting classroom action research in order to investigate effective ways of designing task-based collaborative writing sessions in the classroom?	Classroom observation

For example, quantitative data collection methods (i.e., written texts and pair dialogues) were used as 'within-methods' to examine the effects of task types and task repetition on task performance and outcomes of Korean EFL children' writing. In addition, a quantitative

data collection method (e.g., pair dialogues) and a qualitative data collection method (e.g., pair interviews) were used as 'between-methods' to explore the pedagogical value of collaborative writing.

3.1.3 Classroom Action Research

3.1.3.1 The Need for Teacher-initiated Research

Although the notion of 'teacher as researcher' (Stenhouse, 1975) has long been proposed as a way of understanding the process of learning and teaching in educational research (Gass & Mackey, 2007), it has been argued that the primary audience for research has not been the practising teachers but the research community. According to Walker (1985: 186):

> We felt that the gulf between research bodies and the teaching profession has ensured that many research programmes are not related to the concerns and interests of teachers and students. Priorities for research too often reflect the interest of academic researchers or central office administrators not school people. Teachers and students in the classroom are rarely actively engaged in the research.

It seems that there is still a huge gap between theoretical research findings and learning and teaching practices in the classroom (Punch, 2009), because classroom teachers are rarely involved in the research process or have little interest in conducting research for its own sake. However, teacher research has been considered as "systematic and intentional inquiry carried out by teachers" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993: 7), because it is teachers who can play a significant role as producers as well as consumers of knowledge in teacher research. For this reason, teacher-initiated research in the classroom has become an important way to "increase the teacher's understanding of classroom teaching and learning, and bring about

changes in classroom practice" (Lockhart, 1994: 12). It is therefore essential to understand the underlying meaning of both action and classroom research.

3.1.3.2 Action Research in the Classroom

Under the broad rubric of practitioner research (Zeichner & Noffke, 2001), action research has been explored by a number of researchers in a wide range of educational contexts (Crookes, 1993; Nunan, 1992a, 1993, 2001; Wallace, 1998). The origins of action research can be traced back to Lewin (1948) in social research and Corey (1953) in educational research where teachers study particular aspects of their classroom practice, either by self-study or in collaboration with outside researchers. The mutually productive interplay between 'action' and 'research' in education is defined by Kemmis and McTaggart (1982: 5):

> The linking of the terms 'action' and 'research' highlights the essential feature of the method: trying out ideas in practice as a means of improvement and as a means of increasing knowledge about the curriculum, teaching and learning … Action research provides a way of working which links theory and practice into the one whole: idea-in-action'

In contrast to traditional research carried out by outside researchers, action research in education is typically conducted by teachers to identify classroom problems and improve classroom practice. As it is difficult to develop L2 learning theories without inspecting how the target language is learned and taught in the classroom, 'classroom research' has been undertaken to understand better the multidimensional aspects of L2 teaching and learning in different educational settings (Allwright et al., 1991; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Mitchell, 2009). According to Allwright (1983: 191, original italics),

> Classroom-centred research is just that - research *centred on* the classroom, as distinct from, for example, research that concentrates on the *inputs to* the classroom (the syllabus, the teaching materials) or the *outputs from* the classroom (learner achievements scores). It does not ignore in any way or try to devalue the importance of such inputs and outputs. It simply tries to investigate what happens inside the classroom when learners and teachers come together.

In this view, teachers can enhance their insights into how the target language is learned and how they can teach it more effectively while being involved in classroom research. Regarding research initiators and venues, classroom action research is research that is conducted by teachers in their own classrooms as illustrated by the author below.
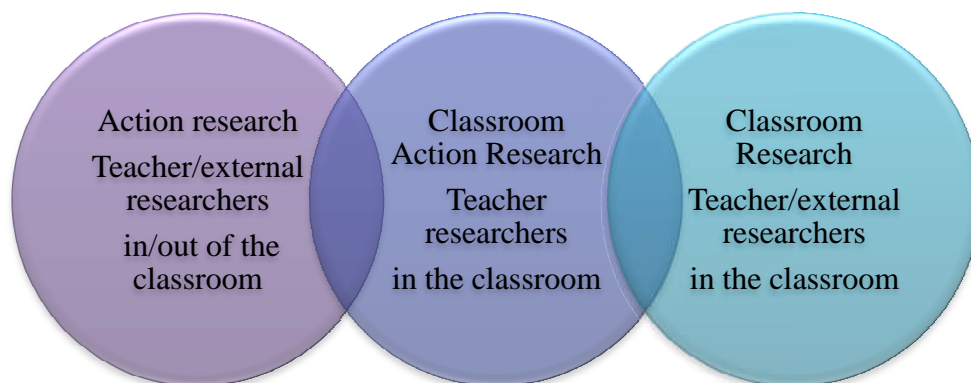
Figure 3.2 Classroom Action Research

As presented in the diagram, classroom action research is initiated by teachers who want to study various aspects of their own classrooms, find possible solutions in relation to teaching-learning activities, and achieve personal and professional growth. In terms of the potential challenges to conduct a research project in the complex context of the classroom, classroom action research may become "difficult, messy, problematic, and, in some cases, inconclusive" (Nunan, 1993: 46), but it can serve as a useful tool to understand the process of L2 teaching and learning in a variety of educational settings (Gass & Mackey, 2007). In this respect, it

seems to be useful to review what constitutes the characteristics of classroom action research in order to implement the research project reported in this thesis.

3.1.3.3 The Characteristics of Classroom Action Research

3.1.3.3.1 A Self-reflective Process

As shown in its origins for social action through practitioner research, the primary purpose of action research is to bring about changes in practice based on self-reflection as Carr and Kemmis (1986: 162) defined:

> Action research is simply a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own practices, their understanding of these practices and the situations in which the practices are carried out.

In order to become a 'reflective practitioner' (Schon, 1983), teachers need to examine their own practice through critical self-reflection including the process of monitoring, evaluating, and revising classroom practice. With a myriad of opportunities to investigate what actually happens in the classroom, teachers are encouraged to initiate action research in their classrooms as Somekh (2006: 633) described:

> Becoming a researcher of my own classroom was at first daunting because of the additional workload involved, but it was also enormously exciting, allowing me to develop a deeper understanding of the process of teaching and learning and to forge new kinds of collaborative relationships with pupils and later, colleagues.

As shown in this piece of self-reflection, action research is regarded as a way of improving the teacher's self-knowledge and personal development (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995) and as

a result, this reflective practice will be able to promote individual teachers' professional development through an ongoing process of planning, acting, observing and reflecting. This reflective cycle leads to another cycle on a continuous basis, because "Once teachers embark on the journey of self-education, then thinking becomes action, and action becomes a never-ending cycle of re-creation" (McNiff, 1992: 51). In reality, however, it may be challenging for busy classroom teachers to conduct never-ending cycles, a point indicated by Lomax (1994: 157):

> Action research is usually a cycle rather than a single intervention, with each intervention evaluated in order to inform the next stage of planning, so that technical change and increased understanding go hand in hand. … The point is that action research may be self-contained and small scale or it may represent a single cycle in a series of cycles that make up a grand design.

Therefore, the reflection of the first cycle in a series of cycles can provide some preliminary findings. Despite a number of practical challenges, this self-reflective process will be invaluable to explore complex but dynamic classrooms from an insider's point of view.

3.1.3.3.2 Voices from the Inside

Since the rise of practitioner research as a powerful form of professional development, there has been a need to allow teachers' voices to emerge from their own concerns and to become more responsive to educational practices (Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Richards & Farrell, 2005). The importance of teachers' own voices from their own perspectives has been emphasised with the belief that "if what is missing from the research on classroom language learning is the voices of teachers themselves, then the movement provides ways for teachers' voices to be heard and valued" (Johnson, 1992: 216). This is so valuable because teachers can bring a wealth of background knowledge and experience to the research process as well as a unique

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perspective on the dynamics of L2 learning and teaching. As consumers and producers of knowledge in the research process, teachers need to conduct research projects in their own classrooms, address their own interests, and have their own unique voices. According to Noffke and Stevenson (1995), action research has played a critical role in the professional development of individual teachers.

With regard to the research initiators, action research is categorized into three levels (Calhoun, 1993):

- *Individual Level*: A teacher focuses on changing a specific problem(s) in his or her own classroom. The primary audience for the research findings is the teacher and/or students who are involved directly in the research.
- *Collaborative Level*: A teacher is engaged in collaborative work with a teacher(s) and/or an external researcher(s). This research group focuses on a specific problem(s) in a classroom(s) in a school(s).
- *School-wide Level*: An entire faculty of a school identifies a problem(s) and decides what actions should be taken to solve it. This collective research approach aims to help the faculty members learn to work together.

At the individual level, action research provides individual teachers with the opportunity to identify their own specific problems and find solutions. At the group level, the nature of collaboration in action research has been emphasized as a result of the practical concerns of groups of teachers working in a common or similar context (Burns, 1999, 2005, 2007). This collaborative process may enable teacher researchers to share their experiences and "to bring about change in social situations as the result of group problem solving and collaboration" (Burns, 1999: 12). However, certain kinds of educational or social contexts are available for teachers to conduct individual action research for their own personal and professional growth. Regarding the significance of 'first person research', classroom teachers need to

discover their own research inquiries resulting in valuable insights into the L2 teaching and learning process, as Littlewood (2007: 248) stated:

> Teachers can draw on the ideas and experiences of others but cannot simply adopt them as ready-made recipes: they need to trust their own voice and develop a pedagogy suited to their own specific situation.

However, it is important to consider several issues when introducing action research into the classroom. As addressed, classroom action research is aiming to improve classroom practice and empower teachers, and therefore teachers need to become "reflective and critical of their own practice" (Mertler, 2006: 14). In a very real sense, however, classroom teachers may possess insufficient theoretical background to reflect on their classroom practice or methodological knowledge to conduct research as part of their daily routines. McNamara (1994: 140) noted that "What is published often does not tell the reader what teachers may have found out and how it actually influenced their practice. It consists of theoretical and methodological commentaries by educationists." In other words, although classroom teachers undertake action research as a research methodology, "it has yet to meet with wide acceptance as a strategy for knowledge production in the academy" (Cole & Knowles, 1998: 230). In addition, classroom action research is local in nature, that is, teachers focus on very specific questions from their own classroom settings. Although teachers realize that they become empowered by adding their knowledge to a wider body of professional knowledge, it is essential to consider the quality of research findings which may influence educational policy changes. This is because the knowledge generated in a single classroom or a single school may not be regarded as valid to policy makers. Nevertheless, as Richards and Farrell (2005) indicated, teachers can develop their understanding regarding teaching and learning as well as research skills while being involved in research projects. More importantly, the main idea in classroom action research is that teachers understand what is going on in their

own classroom setting, and generate practical knowledge through experimentation in the classroom (Mackey & Gass, 2005). In reality, however, it was challenging for me to implement a small-scale classroom action research project as a teacher and a researcher as described in the next part.

3.1.3.4 A Description of Classroom Action Research

3.1.3.4.1 The Teacher

Self-reflection on my learning and teaching experience of English as a foreign language led me to realize that very little attention was given to the teaching of writing although writing in English is emphasized as a means of communication in the field of ELT. In a sense, this might be inevitable under the English national curriculum where the grammar translation method has been traditionally dominant and the development of writing skills has long been ignored in the Korean EFL classrooms. Therefore, classroom writing activities are considered as simple exercises (e.g., fill in the blank, match the words with the pictures, or translate Korean sentences into English or vice versa) or writing activities are usually skipped, because the section for writing is placed at the end of each lesson according to the sequence of learning the four skills (i.e., listening-speaking-reading-writing). In fact, it was challenging to write in English without a sufficient amount of instruction and training during my studies in the UK, but these challenges drove me to explore effective approaches to the teaching of writing (Jong, 2006). In order to find ways of helping Korean children become confident L2 writers, classroom action research was designed with the belief that there is no better way for me to initiate a small scale research project based on my previous experiences

and reflections. In particular, I was inspired by a study of Pinter (2007) reporting that Hungarian children in a primary EFL context worked with a specific type of task without a teacher's intervention. Unlike my typical reading-grammar lessons in the teacher-fronted classroom, the Korean EFL children of the current study were asked to work together while being involved in different types of writing tasks. As a teacher, my main role was to encourage the children to explore and use their existing knowledge, and realize their own potential to complete the given tasks rather than being spoon-fed with my knowledge. While going around the classroom, I monitored their attempts to experiment with the target language even in the short writing sessions and observed their changes when solving problems through negotiation. This was also a valuable learning opportunity for me as a teacher as well as a researcher.

3.1.3.4.2 The Learners

The participants of the present study were a group of Korean primary school children (11-12 years old, 8 girls and 5 boys). The children had learned English as a foreign language for three years in schools, and they were in the last stage of primary schooling before the transition to secondary schools. Although the children were a mixed-ability small group resulting from many extensive private lessons through various channels (e.g., personal tutoring, e-learning) and different learning experiences (e.g., exposure time, learning resources), one common feature was that they had had as little experience of English writing as other children in Korea (see *Appendix 2: The Results of a Questionnaire Survey*). For this study, no particular test was administered to measure their abilities in writing in advance. The information provided by the senior teacher based on the children's accounts was the only point of reference in the present study. According to their accounts, most children had

the least experience with writing activities, but some of them were involved in translation exercises at sentence level. Regarding the small amount of attention paid to the teaching of English writing in the Korean EFL context, the children would be regarded as novice EFL writers in the present study. As the children were asked to work with a self-selected partner during the period of data collection, the data from one pair who only partially completed the writing tasks in English and from a child who worked alone were excluded from this thesis. Each child was given a pseudonym to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.

3.1.3.4.3 Three Writing Tasks

As there were few proposed guidelines to consider when designing writing tasks for Korean EFL children, it was my responsibility to decide on the appropriate levels of tasks for this age group. Based on the review of Korean language textbooks which aim to promote children's self-expression and the findings from my first and second pilot studies (see *Appendix 3: Summary of Pilot Studies*), the following three writing tasks were developed (see *Appendix 4 for Task 1, 5 for Task 2, and 6 for Task 3*).

Task 1: A picture-describing task

Task 1 requires the children to describe a picture including family members, house furniture and animals in the living room. Task 1 aims at providing them with the opportunity to describe the picture.

Task 2: A story-creating task

Task 2 requires the children to create a story based on school events. The children need to reflect on their prior school experiences, share them with a partner, and select a topic in order to create a new story. Task 2 aims at providing them with the opportunity to make a story together.

Task 3: An opinion-expressing task

Task 3 requires the children to express their own opinions on a specific issue in a news article. The children need to share their own ideas and decide their stance on the issue. Task 3 aims at providing them with the opportunity to express their thoughts.

3.1.3.4.4 Research Procedure

The research was conducted at a private institute in South Korea, from February to March in 2008 with the written permission of the head teacher. All the children volunteered to participate in a three-week writing program and follow-up interview sessions. In an orientation session, the children were informed that they would be involved in repeating three writing tasks three times and then would be invited to attend a pair interview session after the program. While working with a self-selected partner, the children repeated three writing tasks in a three-cycle writing program as illustrated below.

Cycle 1	Cycle 2	Cycle 3
Task 1/1	Task 1/2	Task 1/3
Task 2/1	Task 2/2	Task 2/3
Task 3/1	Task 3/2	Task 3/3
Planning & Drafting	Drafting & Revising	Revising & Editing
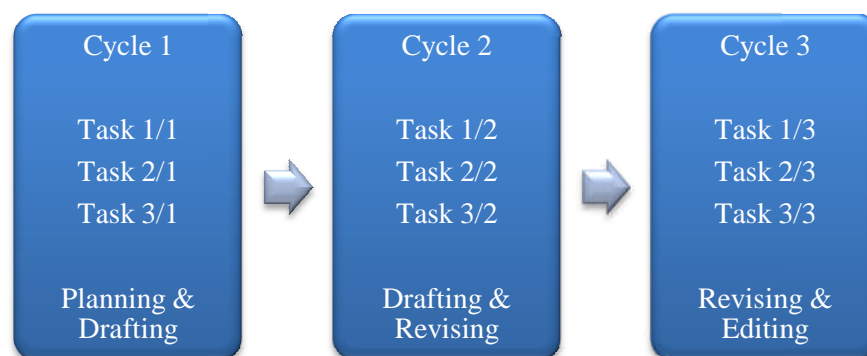
Figure 3.3 A Three-cycle Procedure and the Writing Process

For example, the children came to understand the purpose of each task and brainstorm to make a rough outline in Cycle 1, develop their original ideas and elaborate on their thinking in Cycle 2 and finally spend time on polishing their final products in Cycle 3.

Fundamentally, the present study was concerned with the value of task repetition in the context of the process-based approach to L2 writing. In each session, two or three volunteer pairs recorded their dialogues when working with a different writing task. All the written data were collected, copied, and then placed in their individual folders. At the end of the writing course, all pairs attended follow-up interview sessions which were audio- and video-recorded. A video camera was placed at the back of the class to record classroom events and field notes were taken to record classroom events and my reflections on the entire lessons. According to the nine lesson plans, data were collected as presented respectively.

Table 3.3 Nine Lesson Plans			
C1	L1	T1/1	• To introduce Task 1, a picture-describing task. • To warm up by asking the children to describe the items in the classroom (e.g., colours, shapes, positions, and so on). • To describe a specially-designed picture.
	L2	T2/1	• To introduce Task 2, a story-creating task. • To warm up by talking about interesting school events • To tell a partner about their experience and select a topic to make a new story.
	L3	T3/1	• To introduce Task 3, an opinion-expressing task. • To distribute a new article, have time to read it, and tell the class about what individual children think. • To discuss the issue and express their opinions.
C2	L4	T1/2	• To reflect on the first performance of Task 1 • To encourage each pair to describe the given picture in detail.
	L5	T2/2	• To reflect on the first performance of Task 2. • To encourage each pair to expand their story.
	L6	T3/2	• To reflect on the first performance of Task 3. • To encourage each pair to make their opinions clearer.
C3	L7	T1/3	• To reflect on the second performance of Task 1. • To check their final description of the given picture.
	L8	T2/3	• To reflect on the second performance of Task 2. • To check their final story.
	L9	T3/3	• To reflect on the second performance of Task 3. • To check their final opinions.

Note. C: Cycle, L: Lesson, T(task type)/(the number of task repetition)

Table 3.4 The Process of Data Collection			
Pre-cycle	An Orientation Session		
Cycle 1	Task 1/1	Task 2/1	Task 3/1
Cycle 2	Task 1/2	Task 2/2	Task 3/2
Cycle 3	Task 1/3	Task 2/3	Task 3/3
Post-cycle	Follow-up Interview Sessions		

Note. Task (type)/(the number of repetition)

In terms of personal and professional development, a small-scale research project was designed and conducted in the classroom using multiple research methods. The following section addresses the quantitative data collection and analysis of the present study.

3.2 Quantitative Data Collection and Analysis

As mentioned above, quantitative data were collected by means of written texts and pair dialogues in order to explore the effects of task type and task repetition on the Korean EFL children's task performance and outcomes. The first part of this section deals with written quantitative data and analysis. After excluding insufficient data, 45 written samples were collected from five pairs who successfully completed task repetition for nine sessions. The second part of this section deals with verbal quantitative data and analysis. Although there were several technical and practical problems pertaining to classroom research (e.g., the quality of audio recordings, long intervals of silence in the audio recordings, barely audible whispers, and classroom noise), two or three volunteer pairs recorded their dialogues in every class. Among four volunteer pairs, Pair 1 succeeded in recording their entire dialogues for nine sessions, whereas Pair 2 was successful in recording their dialogues in Task 1, Pair 3 in Task 2, and Pair 5 in Task 3. For this reason, the verbal data of Pair 1 were compared with those of each pair. This one-to-one comparison was purely accidental. Although the

small sample size of verbal data may not represent the children fully, the analysis of pair dialogues provided invaluable and insightful information which could not be identified through either text analysis or classroom observation.

3.2.1 Written Texts

As a productive language skill, L2 writing has played a significant role in L2 learning and therefore, L2 learners should be given plentiful opportunities to use the target language and develop their written communication skills as one primary goal of CLT. On the measurement of L2 writing, researchers and teachers have investigated a wide range of specific tools (Ellis, 2003). However, the following three aspects should be considered to measure written outcomes of EFL children. Most of the measures used to date have been developed for oral production (Ellis, 2005). It is therefore necessary to develop separate measures for spoken and written production, for example, the length of pauses in speech cannot be measured in writing. In contrast to the fact that a great deal of attention has been paid to the language production of adult learners, relatively few studies have been devoted to the proficiency, development and text features in the L2 writing of school-aged children (Hinkel, 2005). Therefore, there is a need to develop appropriate ways to measure written production of L2 children which may be different from that of L2 adult learners. Although the differences between EFL and ESL contexts have become vague, it is still clear that classroom input in an EFL context differs considerably from the natural input in ESL in many ways (Cook, 1997). As Ishikawa (1995) pointed out, there is a need to select objective measurement for EFL writers. With regard to the three considerations: oral versus written output, adult versus child learners, and natural versus artificial input context, it is clearly necessary to select suitable measures and set up criteria for the analysis of the written output

of EFL children. As noted earlier, a number of studies have examined the effects of task variables (e.g., task type, task repetition) on L2 learners' oral production. In particular, Skehan (1996, 1998) focused on three dimensions of L2 oral output, and then claimed trade-off effects between fluency, accuracy, and complexity resulting from learners' differential attention to the three dimensions. These quantitative measures have been used to analyse L2 learners' written output (Ellis & Yuan, 2004, 2005). In addition, Ishikawa (1995, 2007) investigated the best measures for low-proficiency EFL college students using multiple quantitative measures of L2 writing and identified two measures, 'total number of words in error-free clauses' and 'error-free clauses per composition' as the best objective measures for the EFL college students. In a comprehensive review of 39 different studies on L2 written production, Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) categorised over 100 measures into fluency, accuracy, and lexical and grammatical complexity. Following the recommendations of Ishikawa (1995, 2007) and Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998), the present study used seven measures to measure the written texts of Korean EFL children with regard to the effects of task type and task repetition on L2 writing.

3.2.1.1 Measures of Fluency

In contrast to the number of studies on fluency in L2 oral production (e.g., Lennon, 1990), relatively little attention has been given to research on fluency in L2 writing resulting from the recent studies on L2 writing. As an exception, Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998: 14) provided a clear description of L2 writing fluency, "fluency means more words and more structures are accessed in a limited time, whereas a lack of fluency means that only a few words or structures are accessed." As defined, it seems to be apparent to measure fluency in L2 writing, but it can be more or less complicated in a certain context. For example, there is

some disagreement over what constitutes a 'word' in different contexts. In addition, L2 learners who have the same number of vocabulary items or structures may not necessarily use them within a limited time (Polio, 2001). However, the Korean children of the present study were flexible in terms of spending time writing for twenty minutes of a forty-minute class. As the children could finish writing at any time when they thought it was enough within the fixed time, the timed condition did not seem to be a decisive factor. The present study counted the number of words, clauses, and words to total clauses as indicators of the fluency of the Korean EFL children.

3.2.1.1.1 Words

The first measure of L2 writing fluency is to count the number of words (W) produced over the three-week period. This is because a word has been extensively used as a unit of measurement in spite of some mixed results in L2 writing research, (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998). In addition, although there are some discrepancies over what constitutes a word, it is defined as "the smallest unit of grammar that can stand on its own as a complete utterance, separated with space in written language" (Crystal, 1997: 440). According to this definition, it seems to be clear-cut to identify a word in a text with regard to the separation of graphemes by spaces. However, it was not simple to define words in the present study, for example, a space was found in compound words (e.g., living // room, teddy // bear). As mentioned above, it was a necessity to have adequate criteria when determining what constitutes a word. Therefore, compound words (e.g., soccer // ball, play // ground) and prepositional phrases (e.g., next // to, in // front // of) were counted as one word regardless of the number of spaces (see *Appendix 7: Criteria for Word Count*).

3.2.1.2.3 Clauses

The second measure of L2 writing fluency is to count the number of clauses (C). As in the case of defining a word, there are discrepancies over what constitutes a 'clause'. According to *The Oxford English Grammar* (1999: 618):

> A clause is a construction that typically consists minimally of a subject and a verb (*I laughed*), though in an imperative clause the subject is generally absent but implied, so that minimally only the verb needs to be present (*Sit*).

In the present study, for example, "We can learn foreign culture" [P2: T3/2] was counted as one clause because of a subject, 'we' and a finite verb, 'learn,' whereas "We want to go to another country" [P5: T3/3] was counted as two clauses because of a subject, 'we' and a finite verb, 'want' and an infinite verb, 'go' (see *Appendix 8: Criteria for Clause Count*). More importantly, the clause has been regarded as a better production unit for investigating beginning level writing in a smaller context for examining language changes.

3.2.1.1.3 Words to Total Clauses

The third measure of L2 writing fluency is to calculate the proportion of words to total clauses (W/C), because the use of a ratio can be used as a legitimate measure of L2 writing. According to Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998: 10):

> A more valid type of calculation is a ratio measure, in which the presence of one type of unit is expressed as a percentage of another type of unit, or one type of unit is divided by the total number of comparable units.

In spite of the validity of a frequency ratio measure for L2 writing fluency, the measure of words to total clauses has been relatively underdeveloped in L2 writing research compared to the extensive use of words and clauses as the basic measures of fluency in L2 writing. In a recent study, for example, Ishikawa (2007) calculated the total number of words to total clauses when examining the effects of task complexity on the resource-directing dimension. Despite the mixed results, the measure of words to total clauses was considered a suitable way for low-proficiency L2 learners rather than high level learners who can produce relatively longer clauses. In this respect, the present study will be helpful to understand the use of a ratio, which was also used as a measure of accuracy and lexical complexity.

3.2.1.2 Measures of Accuracy

A wide range of quantitative measures have been examined with a view to choosing the most appropriate measures of accuracy, which is referred to as "how well the target language is produced in relation to the rule system of the target language" (Skehan, 1996: 23). According to Ellis (2005), there are two types of analytic measures of accuracy, namely, the use of specific versus general measures of linguistic performance (see Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). For example, Ellis (1987) and Kawauchi (2005) used the past tense marker, '-ed' as a specific measure of accuracy, whereas Storch and Wigglesworth (2007) counted the number of error-free clauses to total clauses as a general measure. Although the choice of measures may be dependent on the purpose of the research, Skehan and Foster (1999) suggested that the choice of general measures is more realistic than that of specific measures. Concerning a comprehensive review of L2 writing studies (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998), the present study used two global measures of L2 writing accuracy.

3.2.1.2.1 Error-free Clauses

The first measure of accuracy in L2 writing is to count the number of error-free clauses (EFC). Although L2 researchers have provided identification for errors (Kroll, 1990; Lennon, 1992; Polio, 1997; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007), it seems that there is still disagreement as regards defining what an error is as in the similar cases of word and clause in L2 writing. In terms of 'freedom from error' (Foster & Skehan, 1996), error-free clause can be referred to as "clauses in which no error was seen with regard to syntax, morphology, native-like lexical choice or word order" (Tavokoli & Skehan, 2005: 256). For example, "we met a singer" [P1: T2/3] was counted an error-free clause because of the correct use of the past tense, 'met' and the indefinite article, 'a' in front of the countable noun, 'singer', whereas "There are three picture" [P3: T1/1] was not an error-free clause because of the missing plural marker, 's' after the cardinal number, 'three' (see *Appendix 9: Criteria for Error Count*).

3.2.1.2.2 Error-free Clauses to Total Clauses

The second measure of L2 writing accuracy is to calculate the proportion of error-free clauses to total clauses (EFC/C). In an investigation of the effects of planning time on three communication tasks, Foster and Skehan (1996) analyzed learner performance in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity. Data was measured by counting the number of error-free clauses to total clauses in order to measure accuracy. This type of measure revealed somewhat different aspects of the study than the other two dimensions of L2 writing. In particular, Ishikawa (1995) found counting the ratio of error-free clauses to total clauses was one of the best objective measures among 24 measures for discriminating the syntactic maturity of low-proficiency college students' writing texts. As O'Loughlin and

Wigglesworth (2007) noted, the focus of error-free clause analysis is primarily linguistic accuracy and therefore, the ratio of error-free clauses to total clauses was measured.

3.2.1.3 Measures of Lexical Complexity

As the measures of fluency, accuracy, and complexity in L2 writing are all related to the lexicon (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998), it is important to consider lexical complexity in L2 writing. In other words, the lexical richness of L2 written output can be measured to evaluate its linguistic complexity. In terms of the measures of lexical complexity, Polio (2001) provides the following constructs: overall quality, lexical individuality/originality, lexical sophistication, lexical variation/diversity, lexical density, lexical accuracy, and diversity of form classes. Although the valid measurements of lexical complexity are still controversial as shown in any attempts to quantify L2 written output, it is often measured by calculating type-token ratios (TTR) in which the number of different/content words (types) is divided by the total number of words (tokens). As the type-token ratio is sensitive to text length, a number of studies have proposed alternative solutions (Richards & Malvern, 2004; Jarvis, 2002). Concerning high sample-size dependency, the first 20 words per task sheet were counted and as a result the total number of 60 words per task and 180 words per pair were used to calculate two measures of lexical complexity.

3.2.1.3.1 Lexical Variety

Lexical variety (LV), the first measure of lexical complexity is to divide the number of different words (types) by the total number of words (tokens). As lexical complexity

includes a wide variety of words in L2 writing, the number of different words in a text indicates an obvious measure of lexical richness (Tweedie & Baayen, 1998). According to Jarvis (2002), research on lexical variety has shifted from what the various lexical indices mean in SLA to whether the indices themselves are valid and reliable. For this reason, lexical variety has become an indicator of L2 writers' lexical richness as a measure of lexical complexity. The following sample presents a way to measure lexical variety in this study.

Excerpt 3.1 Lexical Variety [P4: T1/1]																				
She plays the piano. There is television on the table. He plays the guitar. There are many fruits. On the																				
Tokens	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	**20**
Types	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		9	10			11		12	13	**14**		

Note. Types: different words, Tokens: running words

In the first performance of Task 1, for example, Pair 4 used 14 different words out of 20 running words. Therefore, lexical variety is 0.7 which is arrived at by dividing the different words (types: 14) by the running words (tokens, 20). If they used 17 and 13 different words in their second and third performances, lexical variety is 0.85 (17/20) and 0.65 (13/20) respectively. As the highest achievable rate is 1.0, Pair 4 recorded the highest ratio of lexical variety in their second performance.

3.2.1.3.2 Lexical Density

Lexical density (LD), as the second measure of lexical complexity involves dividing the number of content words (types) by the total number of words (tokens). In the English language, the whole vocabulary is divided into two major categories: content words (noun, adjective, adverb, main verb) and function words (auxiliary verb, modal verb, pronoun,

preposition, conjunction, and so on). In particular, lexical density is widely recognized as a major distinguishing feature in the literature on written versus spoken language, because written language has relatively more content words than spoken language (Halliday, 1989; Stubbs, 2001; Ure, 1971). The following sample describes a way to measure lexical density in this study.

Excerpt 3.2 Lexical Density [P4: T1/1]																			
She plays the piano. There is television on the table. He plays the guitar. There are many fruits. On the																			
Tokens	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	**20**
Types		1		2	3	4	5		6					7			8		**9**

Note. Types: content words, Tokens: running words

As can be seen, Pair 4 used 9 content words in the first performance of Task 1. Therefore, lexical density is 0.45 which is arrived at by dividing the content words (types: 9) by the running words (tokens, 20). If they used 12 and 15 content words in the second and third performances, lexical density is 0.6 (12/20) and 0.75 (15/20) respectively. As the highest achievable rate is 1.0, Pair 4 recorded the highest lexical density ratio in the third performance of Task 1 as suggesting a constant increase resulting from task repetition.

This section has introduced quantitative analysis methods of written data as summarised below.

Table 3.5 Measures of Written Output	
Fluency	the number of words (W)
	the number of clauses (C)
	the ratio of words to total clauses (W/C)
Accuracy	the number of error-free clauses (EFC)
	the ratio of error-free clauses to total clauses (EFC/C)
Lexical Complexity	the ratio of different words to running words (LV)
	the ratio of content words to running words (LD)

As mentioned, these multiple analytical measures were employed to examine the effects of task type and task repetition on the Korean EFL children's written outcomes. The next part of this section deals with quantitative analysis of verbal data which provides supplementary information about the relationship between task type, task repetition and language output.

3.2.2 Pair Dialogue

It has been said that peer interaction is an opportunity to develop not only linguistic knowledge but also social relationships in the classroom. Hennessy and Murphy (1999: 1) described peer collaboration as a form of peer interaction, when children are "actively communicating and working together to produce a single outcome, talking and sharing their cognitive resources to establish joint goals and referents, to make joint decisions, to solve emerging problems, to construct and modify solutions and to evaluate outcomes through dialogue and action." For this reason, L2 teachers and researchers have been interested in the design of collaborative learning tasks to lead high quality peer interaction (Storch, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). In particular, studies on the analysis of interaction are often undertaken to discover how dialogue is used as a cognitive tool (Donato & Lantolf, 1990). Consequently, the analysis of peer dialogue may reveal what aspects of language L2 learners focus on most when working with language learning tasks in the classroom.

3.2.2.1 Collaborative Pair Dialogues

As noted in the previous chapter, peer interaction through collaborative dialogue has been taken into account in a collaborative learning classroom context. When a collaborative

writing task is given to paired writers, for example, they have to interact with their partner to solve linguistic problems encountered and discussed during their collaborative writing. According to Swain (2000b: 102),

> Collaborative dialogue is dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building. It heightens the potential for exploration of the product … is that collaborative mediates joint problem solving and knowledge building.

In this view, L2 learners can benefit from collaborative dialogue when working together, because "peer-peer collaborative dialogue mediates second language learning" (Swain et al., 2002: 171). More importantly, collaborative writing activities can play a role to elicit collaborative dialogue in which paired writers discuss their own language use with a partner and try to produce the target language comprehensibly and precisely. For instance, it has been suggested that collaborative writing activities draw learners' attention to grammatical accuracy through collaborative dialogue (Storch, 1998; Kowal & Swain, 1994; Swain & Lapkin, 2001). At this point, the analysis of collaborative pair dialogue may provide a way to understand the processes and products of L2 learning. In order to examine the effects of task type and task repetition on Korean children's task performance and outcomes, the present study quantified four pairs' dialogues in terms of language-related episodes.

3.2.2.2 Language-related Episode

Recent research has shed light on the value of peer interaction under the broad umbrella term 'collaborative learning'. As a research methodology, collaborative dialogue is analysed in terms of language-related episode (LRE) which are "any part of a dialogue where the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct

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themselves or others" (Swain & Lapkin, 1998: 326). When encountering linguistic problems, L2 learners frequently talk about these problems to search for possible solutions. Swain (2000b) emphasized that the analysis of collaborative dialogue offers rich information about learners' cognitive processes as well as their construction of linguistic knowledge. For example, it is said that L2 learners' verbalization helps them deepen their understanding of the connections between form, meaning, and function (De la Colina & Garcia Mayo, 2007). In this respect, it is important to study peer-peer dialogue in the classroom activities as a means of identifying what aspects of language they pay attention to most. Concerning the results of several studies (Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Storch, 2007; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007), the present study examined what aspects of English the Korean children focused on during collaborative writing. According to the different levels of attention, language-related episodes were categorized into form-, lexical-, and mechanical-focus episodes. When the children referred to more than one linguistic feature in the same segment, they were counted separately. The following extracts illustrate the three different types of LREs. The bold type shows the aspect of English the children focused on and their utterances in English are indicated in italics.

3.2.2.2.1 Form-focus LRE

Form-focus language-related episodes (F-LREs) include language segments in the pair dialogue in which learners deal with grammatical aspects of English (e.g., tense, subject-verb agreement, word formations). The following extract provides a typical example of F-LREs dealing with the past tense of a verb, 'go'.

Excerpt 3.3 A Form-focused LRE [P3: T2/1]		
64	Kang	We, *we* 우리는, 위
65	Ryl	*We?* 위?
66	Kang	*went* 웬트
67	Ryl	Is this right? 이건가?
68	Kang	No, past tense of **go** 아니, **고우**의 과거형

3.2.2.2.2 Lexical-focus LRE

Lexical-focus language-related episodes (L-LREs) refer to segments of learner interaction in which they search for a particular word to make meaning. While working with three different types of collaborative writing tasks, the Korean children focused on word or phrase meaning, word choice, or other ways of expression and they talked with a partner or sometimes with other peers. The following extract shows a typical example of L-LREs in which the children were looking for a particular word, '바구니' [basket]

Excerpt 3.4 A Lexical-focused LRE [P2: T1/2]		
189	Sun	There are fruits in the basket 바구니 안에 과일이 있어
190	Jin	How to say a basket? 바구니가 뭐더라?
191	Sun	**Basket** *in the* **바스켓** *인 더*

3.2.2.2.3 Mechanical-focus LRE

Mechanical-focus language-related episodes (M-LREs) include segments of pair interaction in which they pay more attention on the spelling of a specific word. It was natural that the Korean children continued to check and ask about the correct spelling of new or forgotten words. The following extract presents a typical example of M-LREs which deals with the spelling of a word, 'four'.

Excerpt 3.5 A Mechanical-focus LRE [P1: T1/1]		
47	Joo	Four, *F-O-R-E*? 포, *f-o-r-e?*
48	Kyoung	I made a spelling mistake. 내가 잘못 썼어
49	Joo	***F-O-U-R**?* *f-o-u-r?*

This second part has addressed quantitative analysis methods of verbal data. After a brief review of collaborative pair dialogue, three language-related episodes were introduced depending on the focus on a particular aspect of the target language: form-focus (e.g., tense), lexical-focus (e.g., word meaning), and mechanical-focus (e.g., spelling). Despite the small sample size, the analysis of the pair dialogue offered valuable insights into the invisible processes of collaborative writing. In other words, a close examination of pair dialogues was helpful to understand what happened when the children were writing together. Therefore, what should be noted here is that the analyses of children's dialogues were used to provide both qualitative as well as quantitative information to examine the effects of task type and task repetition on the processes and products of the Korean EFL children's writing. The next section provides an introduction of the qualitative data and analysis used in the present study.

3.3 Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis

The present study employed pair interviews and classroom observations as qualitative research methods in order to explore the children's first experience of collaborative writing and reflect on the entire process of classroom action research. This section consists of two parts. The first part of this section provides an overview of qualitative interviews as a way of listening to the children talking about issues and events in their own voices. This is followed by a brief description of the interview procedure. The second part discusses the use of classroom observation as a way of understanding what is really going on in the classroom and learning about the benefits and challenges of implementing classroom action research. In terms of a mixed-method approach, these two qualitative research methods seem to provide considerable insights along with the findings from the quantitative analyses.

3.3.1 Qualitative Interview

When planning an interview as a qualitative research method, the following questions were taken into consideration: 1) Why do I choose interview as a research method?; 2) What are the advantages and disadvantages of an interview for the research question being studied?; and 3) What is the role of an interviewer and interviewees?

3.3.1. Self-report Data

Qualitative interview has been recognised as an essential data collection method in educational research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Kvale, 1996; Cohen et al., 2003; Patton,

2002). Interview is employed because "We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe … We have to ask people questions about those things" (Patton, 1990: 45). As it is impossible to observe everything which happens in the classroom, there is a need to ask the participants involved in the research process to talk about their opinions on certain issues. In other words, the qualitative interview in classroom research aims to understand learners' perspectives of a particular issue and as a result, it provides teacher researchers with a means of exploring their points of view on it. Fontana and Frey (1994: 361, cited in Punch, 2005: 169) offered an inclusive description of interviewing:

> Interviewing has a wide variety of forms and a multiplicity of uses. The most common type of interviewing is individual, face-to-face verbal interchange, but it can also take the form of face-to-face group interviewing, mailed or self-administered questionnaires, telephone surveys. Interviewing can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured. It can be used for marketing purposes, to gather political opinions, for therapeutic reasons, or to produce data for academic analysis. It can be used for the purpose of measurement or its scope can be the understanding of an individual or a group perspective. An interview can be a one-time, brief exchange, say five minutes over the telephone, or it can take place over multiple, lengthy sessions, sometimes spanning days, as in life-history interviewing.

This comprehensive description reveals a wide range of methodological approaches to the qualitative interview method. In this respect, if teacher researchers want to enter the learner's world which is, as pointed out previously, impossible to observe directly, they have to be acquainted with a range of interview techniques to elicit their opinions.

In particular, there has been a growing recognition in recent years among educational researchers that children's opinions should be sought with regard to matters, even though their voices have remained relatively silent in child-related research (Eder & Fingerson, 2001; Hatch, 1995; Irwin & Johnson, 2005). According to Marshall and Rossman (2006), qualitative researchers need to have particular form of awareness when proposing a study

which involves working with children, because interviewing children is both similar to and different from interviewing adults. For example, both children and adults provide their views on a given agenda, whereas children are different from adults who are able to control and describe the world as they perceive it (Greig & Taylor, 1999). It is therefore important to understand the critical problems of and suggestions for interviewing children as addressed below.

Table 3.6 Considerations in Interviewing Children (Hatch, 1995)

Problems	Suggestions
1. unbalanced power relations between an adult researcher and child informant	1. sufficient time to establish personal relationships with children
2. the interview perceived as a simple school-related recitation exercise	2. the emphasis on informal rather than formal interviews
3. differential ways of response from those of older informants	3. precise and acceptable questions eliciting their answers
4. low self-awareness as a social agent	4. the use of examples to elicit their accurate reflections on classroom activities

Even though teacher researchers may encounter similar difficulties when interviewing children, this does not indicate the unreliability of children as informants in an interview event. According to Christensen and James (2000), a major reason to interview children is the large gulf between adults' observations and children's own perceptions on the same issue and therefore, "One clear reason for interviewing youthful respondents is to allow them to give voice to their own interpretations and thoughts rather than rely solely on adult interpretations of their lives" (Eder & Fingerson, 2001: 181). In this view, there is no reason that children should be left out when they have to talk about themselves as 'social actors' in their own right (Scott, 2000) and. In order to discover what the Korean children in the present study learned from their own perspectives, it was important to consider the children as active participants in the interview process.

3.3.1.2 A Purposeful Interactional Event

According to Kvale (1996: 14), "An interview is literally an *inter view*, an inter-change of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest" and therefore, a qualitative interview in classroom research is an interactional relationship between the teacher researchers and their students in an ongoing process of making meaning. Patton (1990) referred to two important issues with respect to interviews in educational research: the interviewer's ability to understand and interpret the interviewee's intention and the interviewee's motivation resulting in positive or negative influence on the interview data. It is therefore important that teacher researchers know the ways the interview is flowing and the techniques for promoting the flow of the interview in order to understand the students' intentions. In this view, the interviewer is 'the research instrument' (Gillham, 2005), who has to equip himself or herself with basic knowledge and techniques of research, for example, Richards (2003: 68) offered a set of opening statements:

- explain the purpose of the interview
- confirm the value of the interviewee's contribution
- confirm length and general topic
- offer reassurance on ethical issues
- confirm permission to record

In order to make interviews more productive events, teacher researchers need to develop the ability to deliver the purpose and procedure of the interview precisely, listen carefully to what has been said, and then clarify the meaning of responses.

Although the ideal interviewee may not exist, the interviewee is expected to provide unique accounts in their own voices and with their own language. In terms of the relationship

between the interviewer and the interviewee, Rubin (2005: 14) described the role of the interviewee as follows:

> Keeping in mind that the person being interviewed is a conversational partner reminds the researcher that the direction of the interview is shaped by both the researcher's and the interviewee's concerns.

In this regard, the active role of the interviewee is that of a conversational partner fostering purposeful conversation. In some cases, the interviewee may give a partial answer or merely become confused as to what reply he or she should make. Nevertheless, the interviewee's willingness to answer the questions is one important determinant of respondent rate and the quality of the responses. It is therefore essential that teacher researchers confirm the meaning of their students' interpretation, because they tend to have relatively little direct association with the research agenda compared to the teacher researcher. Concerning the ownership of the knowledge (Keats, 2000) and the interviewer effect (Gray, 2004), it was important to establish a trusting relationship between the children and me because qualitative interviews constituted the process of meaning-making in the present study.

3.3.1.3 The Structure of Interview

Although there is no one single recipe which can be appropriate for all interview situations, all interviews are typically classified as unstructured, semi-structured or structured according to the degree of structure present. In an unstructured interview, the researchers ask each interviewee open ended questions, whereas they have predetermined questions of all interviewees in a structured interview (Punch, 2009: 146-148). In reality, however, most actual interviews may fall somewhere along a continuum between the completely unstructured and the completely structured interview. Therefore, teacher researchers need a

variety of techniques to select or combine the two extremes in an interview session depending on their research purposes and questions. According to Gillham (2000), a semi-structured interview seems to be flexible, because the researcher has a general idea of where the interview should go and what should come out of it. However, the interactive nature of the interview can be more or less unpredictable or require relatively more time for analysis and interpretation compared with structured interviews (Byrne, 2004; Wengraf, 2001). Regarding the nature of flexibility, the present study required a certain degree of structure when interviewing the children who had no prior interview experience in a formal setting. For this reason, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the children in order to maximise the benefits to be gained from the qualitative interview.

3.3.1.4 Pair Interview

It is a practical factor to consider the number of participants who are present being interviewed at one time. In terms of interview outcomes, there has been a debate about the advantages and disadvantages of interviewing children individually versus in groups (Kvale, 1996). According to Powney and Watts (1987), one-to-one interviews are relatively easier to manage and analyze interviewees' responses, whereas group interviews are useful for gathering a range of responses through a discussion. In a one-to-one interview setting, it may be difficult for children to reveal their negative views or they may be uncomfortable with adult researchers (Eder & Fingerson, 2001). For this reason, interviewing children in groups may have the advantage over one-to-one interviews in providing a feeling of safety and security. Unlike the one-to-one interview format, well-facilitated group interviews resemble in some ways the kinds of interactions between participants. For example, participants can be stimulated by other group members to recall events they may have forgotten, and this

enables the researcher to gain rich information to understand a specific event. However, there is also some debate about the value of group interviews. In a group interview, for example, the more socially powerful member may silence the less outgoing but equally important informants of the group. Therefore, as Fingerson (1999) noted, the researcher may see 'peer power' influences at work in group interviews. In other words, the adult researcher's power can be reduced, but the power dynamics among peers may influence the nature of their responses in a group interview. Nevertheless, group interviews seemed to provide a valuable opportunity to obtain genuine accounts from the children. As one form of group interviews, pair interviews were used in the present study in order to discover the children's perceptions of collaborative writing and their learning experience.

3.3.1.5 A Description of the Interview Process

The Korean children in the present study were invited to follow-up interview sessions after the three-week writing program. They were informed about the interview sessions at an orientation session. The interview process was divided into three phases as described in the following:

- *Preparing for the interview*: Concerning the fact that the Korean EFL children had little experience of being interviewed, a semi-structured interview format was designed, because the children would be in control of the process of obtaining information, but I would be free to follow new ideas emerged. Therefore, I formulated basic interview questions and made a list (see *Appendix 10: Sample Interview Questions*). Regarding the approach to questioning, open-ended questions were developed to encourage detailed responses from the children which would

produce more direct comparable answers. In terms of the number of children present being interviewed, pair interviews were employed to provide a stronger sense of security than individual interviews and create the conditions for discussion which can stimulate ideas through pair interaction. The children would be allowed to choose the interview date and time depending on their preferences.

- *During the interview*: Before an interview, each pair was given time to look at their worksheets and reflect on the process of joint production. During the initial stages of the interview, I was concerned about the way to make the children feel comfortable and willing to talk about their first experience of collaborative writing. First, I expressed my sincere gratitude to all the children and praised their achievements. The children were allowed to take a break or end their interview at any time. All interview sessions began with the common interview questions (e.g., writing together, repeating the same tasks, working with three tasks) and then, interview questions became more specific according to my classroom observation (e.g., self-confidence [P2], an imaginary story [P3]. a writing partner [P5]). The interviews focused on five main questions designed to draw out topic details and to avoid overwhelming the children with too many topics. All interviews were conducted in the classroom. The interviews lasted for approximately 30 minutes each as shown in Table 3.7, which was regarded as an appropriate length as regards attention when interviewing the children.

Table 3.7 Interview Date and Duration					
	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5
Date	06/03	06/03	07/03	10/03	10/03
Duration	29'10"	36'10"	34'20"	33'44"	35'41"

Every interview was completed within a week of the last writing lesson. All the interview sessions were recorded through the use of a video camera, an audio recorder, and my interview notes. During the interviews, a variety of interventions were used to encourage the children to talk about their opinions and to become responsive to the children as shown in the following:

- *Reflecting*: to enable the children to reflect on previous statements
  (e.g., "So what you're saying is …?").
- *Initiating*: to enable the children to express their own ideas
  (e.g., "What do you think about…?").
- *Challenging*: to enable the children to express a different point of view
  (e.g., "Then, why do you think …?")
- *Clarifying*: to enable the children to clarify previous statements
  (e.g., "Can you explain that …?")
- *Supporting*: to make the children feel at ease
  (e.g., "I think so." or "Yeah").

At the end of each interview session, I expressed my gratitude and appreciation for their participation in the writing program as well as the interview sessions. As a closing comment, I confirmed that any personal data collected from the children would be used only for academic purposes.

- ***Analyzing the interview***: All the interviews were conducted in Korean and later translated into English. In the first place, data analysis began with listening to audio tapes and transcribing all interviews and was then followed by reading and re-reading the verbatim transcripts (see *Appendix 11: Sample Interview Transcript*). I started a vertical analysis of the interview data by chronologically summarizing the similar and different statements that emphasised the answers to the research questions. I also analysed the data horizontally by identifying the themes across the breath of the responses and compared them to the research questions. This was completed to get a sense of the whole data and some ideas were jotted down as they

emerged. All interviews were fully transcribed, analysed, and coded according to themes. The sample interview questions were used to encourage consistency in data collection and to make comparisons per pair. As a single interviewer, I provided consistency across the interviews and completed audio transcripts for data analysis, which could increase the validity of the findings. It was not an easy task to select which extracts to reproduce in this thesis. In reporting the findings, examples from the children's accounts were given an identifier in a bracket (e.g., [name, Pair])

This part has overviewed the use of interview as the primary source of data in the present study in order to examine the Korean EFL children's perspectives on collaborative writing and learning. This was followed by a brief description of the procedure involved in the collection and analysis of the qualitative interview data. The interview process was used to provide answers to most of the questions asked in this study. The next part discusses the use of observation as another qualitative research method used in the current study.

3.3.2 Qualitative Observation

Keeping in mind the following question, "What am I going to learn about myself as a teacher and a research student and about the children as young EFL writers while implementing classroom action research?" it was necessary to observe what would happen in the classroom. As a commonly used method in classroom research, it was essential to observe the children's performance in their real-life situations and examine my own interventions and reactions in the research process. Consequently, this direct observation is essential to understand what I learned through the entire process of this quantitative and qualitative study.

3.3.2.1 Direct Observation in the Field

It is interesting that many influential theories of early language development were often developed through careful observations when researchers used their own children as subjects (e.g., Piaget, 1952; Halliday, 1975). Wajnryb (1992: 1) offered a succinct definition of observation as follows:

> Observation is a multi-faceted tool for learning. The experience of observing compromises more than the time actually spent in the classroom. It also includes preparation for the period in the classroom and follow-up from the time spent there. The preparation can include the selection of a focus and purpose and a method of data collection, as well as collaboration with others involved. The follow-up includes analysis, discussion and interpretation of the data and experiences acquired in the classroom, and reflection on the while experience.

In this view, observation is the primary tool to enter into and comprehend a variety of teaching and learning situations rather than simply describe what is going on in a classroom. In particular, observation is regarded as "a useful means for gathering in-depth information about such phenomena as the types of language, activities, interactions, instruction, and events that occur in second and foreign language classrooms" (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 187). As a result of the implementation of classroom observation, therefore, teacher researchers can obtain rich information needed for the investigation of how L2 is learned and consequently how it may best be taught. As classroom observation can provide the researchers with the opportunity to gather 'live' data from 'live' situations (Cohen et al., 2003), it may be possible for teacher researchers to observe non-verbal behaviour (e.g., facial expressions, eye movements, gestures, and so on), which cannot be available to the quantitative survey researcher. In reality, however, there are several considerations for implementing classroom observation. For example, observation data can be filtered through the eyes of the researcher, or teacher researchers themselves may affect the situation being

studied in unknown ways or focus on limited external behaviours (Corbin & Strauss, 2007). In this respect, qualitative observation was insightful and illuminating but, it was also a complex method, because it required a deep understanding of the behaviours observed and it generated interpretations of the observed behaviours in a variety of ways.

3.3.2.2 Types of Observation Research

There are different types of classroom observation which have been explored by L2 researchers and teachers in terms of the degree of structure and the notice of being observed. In a similar way to interviews, classroom observations may fall somewhere else along the continuum from highly-unstructured through semi-structured to highly-structured approach. On a practical level, it is often difficult to conduct a highly-structured observation, because many things can happen in the classroom simultaneously. An unstructured observation is not easy to manage without a predetermined analytical framework (Bell, 2005). At this point, semi-structured observation seems flexible because it is a less pre-determined but still systematic approach (Cohen et al., 2003). As classroom observation should not be conducted at the expense of teaching, it was challenging for me to strike a balance between teaching and observation as a teacher and a researcher. In addition, the qualitative observation needed to be 'free flowing' (Mertler, 2006), because I had to move around other different groups in order to gain a sense of the whole picture.

Traditionally, the issues about the validity and reliability of observational data are related to the effects of the observer on what is observed (Cohen et al., 2003). This is because participants may behave quite differently according to whether they know they are being observed or not. In terms of the ethics and morality, observation is overt or covert. In overt

observations, the participants know that they are being observed, while covert observations conceal this fact. There are a range of opinions concerning all forms of covert research from absolute opposition to set it as an acceptable option in the real research context (Patton, 2002: 269-270). In this respect, overt observation can be more ethical, but the participants being watched are less likely to behave naturally. On the other hand, covert observation is more likely to give natural behaviour, but is not completely ethical. For example, teacher researchers may have to either pretend to play a different role, or actually hide. Therefore, covert observation may be more valid, because it is less likely to affect the participants' natural behaviour, and what is observed is more like real life. For the purposes of actual observations, the researcher decides to choose either an overt or covert approach. According to the different types of classroom observation, the present study fell into the category of the semi-structured and overt observation. In terms of validity, field notes were also taken during the period of classroom observation.

3.3.2.3 Observational Field Notes

For the sake of accuracy, it is important to take field notes through direct observation of classroom activities. As a primary means of qualitative observation, written fieldnotes are the raw material to reflect the climate of the classroom and, in turn, teacher researchers take field notes in order to take action in classroom research. According to Hitchcock and Hughes (1995: 132), "Whereas note-taking is a very basic activity, it is none the less an important one," because making notes is not only describing events and producing data, but also engaging in the first stages of preliminary analysis from the inquiries. As it is almost impossible to observe and remember all the details of classroom events, Patton (2002: 302-

303) suggested that teacher researchers develop a systematic approach to note-taking as follows:

1. Field notes are descriptive.
2. Field notes contain what people say.
3. Field notes also contain the researcher's own feelings and reactions about what they observed.
4. Field notes include insights, interpretations, beginning analyses, and working hypotheses about what is happening in the setting.

In this respect, field notes contain descriptive information which will be helpful for the researcher to return to the observed situations. If there is a great lapse in time between the observed event and the writing up of the field notes, it is sometimes difficult to reconstruct the sequence of the action accurately (Hatch, 2002). In addition, observational skill needs to be improved with practice in order to discover more about the process of L2 teaching and learning. In reality, however, it was more or less demanding for me to take notes while engaging in teaching activities within the observation situation. It is important to note here that field notes provided the opportunity to understand what happened in the classroom and learn how to interpret the qualitative data collected during a classroom observation.

3.3.2.4 Descriptions and Reflections

A major advantage of taking field notes is to lead the teacher observer into an unanticipated and unexpected world (McKernan, 1996). In spite of there being no straightforward rules, various techniques can be used to take field notes. According to S. Mckay (2006), descriptive field notes are essential and thus, they should be expanded in enough detail for readers to visualize what the observer saw. However, it has been argued that there is a reflective part beyond the descriptive part of field notes. Although Hitchcock and Hughes

(1995) distinguished between the personal and private nature and the professional nature of the field notes, this does not mean that reflections or interpretations should be excluded entirely. To some extent, it may be essential to include researchers' personal reflections in the field notes, because their own experiences are part of the qualitative data (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). In the use of qualitative observation methods, it is important to keep in mind the comments of Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 15):

> Qualitative research is endlessly creative and interpretive. The researcher does not just leave the field with mountains of empirical materials and then easily write up his or her findings. Qualitative interpretations are constructed.

Regarding the importance of complementing 'objective' descriptions and 'subjective' reflections, it was my responsibility to distinguish between what was observed and what was inferred, because I described events as they were as well as expanded on my notes by trying to explain the events observed.

3.3.2.5 A Description of the Observation Process

As it was not possible to observe everything that was going on in the classroom, the salient features of the Korean children during collaborative writing were recorded in my field notes along with my own reflections on the events. The process of classroom observation was divided into three phases as described in the following:

- *Preparing for the observation*: Keeping in mind that observation would provide a 'snapshot' of the classroom events, it was essential for me to consider several practical issues in the design and implementation of classroom observation including the following question, "How much observation should I do?" Regarding classroom

observation as a teacher and a researcher, it was expected that field notes would be written in jotted form and then written out and filled in later. Therefore, I designed a simple field note form as shown in Figure 3.4.

Observer:	Data:	Task:
My notes		My comments

Figure 3.4 A Field Note Recording Form

In the left-hand column of the form, observation was addressed as the descriptive part (e.g., each pair and their actual dialogues and behaviors) and the reflective part (e.g., personal account) was recorded in the right-hand column of the field note form. In a busy classroom, therefore, it seemed helpful to use audio- and video-recordings as a valuable supplementary source of data. Regarding the validity of the observation and ethical considerations, it was important to make the children feel less threatened when they would be involved in being observed. It was therefore necessary to think about how I explained the reasons for and the process of observation.

- ***During the observation***: Field notes were taken during the period of data collection. According to Bailey (2001: 118), "the observer's field notes provided a running

commentary on the events which occur in a lesson," it was however unrealistic for me to write a running commentary, to move around the class and to give oral instructions to each pair simultaneously. In addition, my concern was that the children might feel that they were being graded or tested due to my note-taking. When I focused on taking field notes without a word for a moment, for example, I realised that the children stopped working and looked at me curiously and began to ask, "What are you doing?" For this reason, I jotted down several key words in an extra task sheet. A video camera was placed at the back of the classroom filming me.

- *After the observation*: As the children were over-concerned about my taking field notes in class, I had two set of notes: short notes made at the time and expanded notes made after each session or returning home from the field, which were transcribed into my computer files (see *Appendix 12: Sample Field Note*). Field notes were organized into chronological files and then into pair files. In the analysis of field notes, I took particular instances of each pair, for example, how members of each pair worked together, assisted each other in the construction of texts through varied means, for example, helping to figure out the spelling of a target word, asking questions about and offering suggestions for a piece in progress, discussing an event that was turned into a story. As used in the analysis of interview data, the analysis of field notes was based on illumination of each pair horizontally and vertically. In reporting the findings, examples from my field notes were given the data of observation in a bracket. A video camera was set up at the back of my classroom, because I was not able to record all the events as they happened. Unfortunately, the camera sometimes tilted in the middle of filming and filmed the floor, because the screw in the tripod plate was not tightened. In many cases, I was not captured on

camera, because I kept moving around the classroom to monitor the children. As the children paid much attention to the camera, it was removed from the position. However, it was helpful to recall the lesson segments recorded and listen to the voices of the children and me.

This part has addressed the use of classroom observation as the primary data in the present study to reflect on the entire research process and examine the benefits and challenges of implementing classroom action research. This is followed by a brief description of the process of observation conducted in the classroom. As a qualitative research method, classroom observation provided the opportunity to learn about myself as a teacher and a researcher.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the methodological background of the present study. In the three major sections of this chapter, Section 3.1 provided the rationale for classroom action research with a brief overview of educational research and three major research approaches to educational research. This was followed by an introduction of the research setting. In terms of the methods of data collection and data analysis, a mixed-method approach was employed in the present study in order to obtain rich information. Section 3.2 presented the collection and analysis of quantitative data (i.e., the written texts and pair dialogues of the Korean children) to investigate the effects of task type and task repetition on task performance and outcomes. Following this, the process of qualitative data collection and analysis (i.e., pair interviews and classroom observation) was discussed in Section 3.3 in order to examine the Korean children's perspectives of collaborative writing and the

learning experience and my own reflections on the entire research process. When regarding the following question, "How might different pieces of my data fit together?" the four research methods are part of a picture and therefore, the use of a mixed-method approach was useful to understand the whole picture. The major research findings and data analysis will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the major results of both quantitative and qualitative data analysis in response to the four research questions addressed in Chapter 1. This chapter consists of two major sections. Section 4.1 reports the results from the quantitative analysis of Korean EFL children's written texts and pair dialogues. This is followed in Section 4.2 by the results of the qualitative analysis of follow-up interviews with the children and my reflections on the process of research. In terms of a mixed-method approach, the use of a quantitative approach to data collection and analysis provided a way to understand the processes and products of collaborative writing and it also provided considerable insights along with the findings from the analyses of qualitative data. Any relevant theoretical and methodological considerations related to these research findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

4.1 Quantitative Analysis

As mentioned in the previous chapters, relatively little empirical research on the written output of EFL children has been undertaken as compared with the number of studies on the written output of ESL adult learners in L2 research and pedagogy (Hinkel, 2005; Matsuda & De Pew, 2002). Concerning two task variables (i.e., task type and task repetition), the first section of this chapter is divided into two parts. The first part presents the results from the text analysis which was quantified by three dimensions of L2 writing with seven

measures. The second part reports the results from the dialogue analysis of four pairs in terms of three types of language-related episodes. What should be noted here is that it is important to consider the results of quantitative dialogue analysis alongside the analysis of written data because of the small sample size.

4.1.1 Analysis of Written Texts

The first part of this section presents the results of the text analysis in terms of fluency, accuracy and lexical complexity using seven measures in order to examine the effects of task type and task repetition on the Korean EFL children's written outcomes. As the children repeated each task three times, all graphs indicate the sum of the repetition of each task and therefore, the graphs presented in this thesis only show the rough number of range (see *Appendix 13: Task Type and Language Output* and *Appendix 14: Task Repetition and Language Output,* for the exact number of language production).

4.1.1.1 Task Type and Language Output

4.1.1.1.1 Task Type and Fluency

Regarding the potential role of task type in L2 learning, three indicators of fluency in L2 writing were used by calculating the number of words (W), clauses (C), and words to total clauses (W/C). As a reliable indicator of fluency, the total number of words per task type was calculated and the results are presented below.
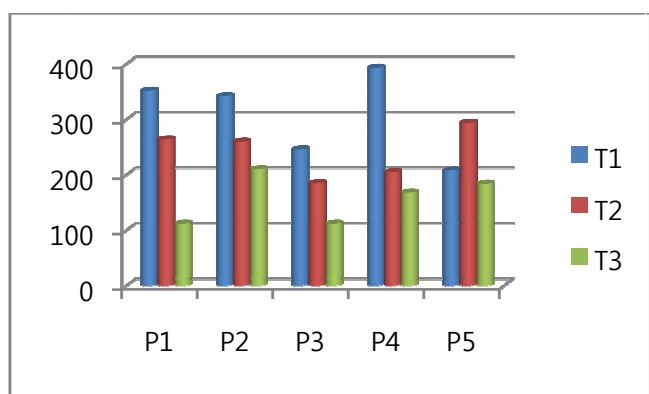
Figure 4.1 Task Types and Words (P: Pair, T: Task)

In Figure 4.1, there was a general tendency for the largest number of words to occur in Task 1 except for one pair, and for the lowest number of words in Task 3. In other words, the children produced more words when describing a picture rather than creating a story or expressing their opinions. This can be interpreted as indicating that the children had opportunities to add more words during the performance of Task 1. These results provide evidence to show the relationship between task type and word production.

As the second indicator of fluency in L2 writing, the total number of clauses per task type was counted and the results are presented below.
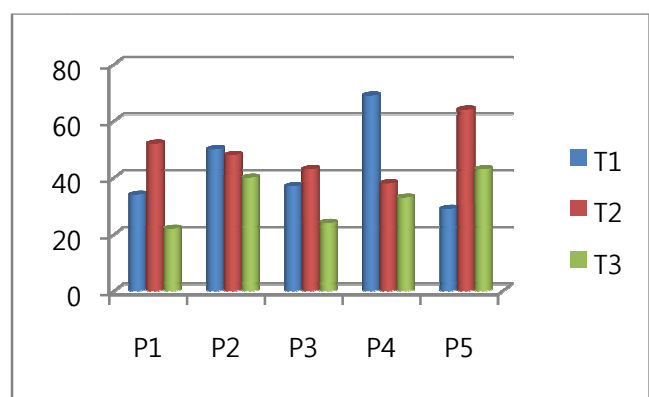
Figure 4.2 Task Types and Clauses

Figure 4.2 revealed somewhat mixed results in clause production per task in contrast to the distinctive pattern of word production across the three tasks. Despite a common tendency for the lowest clause production in Task 3 as shown in the lowest word production in the same task, the five pairs were divided into two groups in relation to the largest clause production. For example, Pair 4 produced the largest clause production in Task 1, whereas Pair 5 recorded the largest clause production in Task 2. Concerning the lowest clause production in Task 3 and the largest clause production in Task 1 or Task 2, these results also reveal the relationship between task type and clause production.

The third indicator of fluency in L2 writing was measured by the total number of words divided by the number of clauses and the results are presented below.
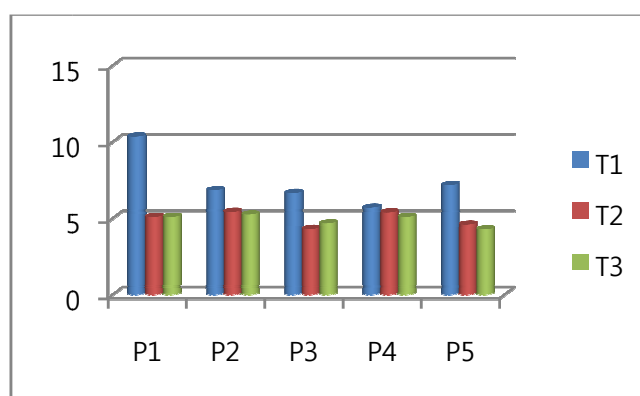
Figure 4.3 Task Types and Words to Total Clauses

With regard to the balanced distribution of language production across the three tasks except for Pair 1, the results of Figure 4.3 indicated a general tendency for the highest ratios of words to clauses in Task 1 which was also manifest in the largest word production in the same task. In other words, the children could produce the longest clauses as a result of using the most words in a clause during the performance of Task 1. In contrast, it seems

difficult to say that there were any clear-cut differences between Task 2 and Task 3 in the ratios of words to clauses. Concerning the highest ratios in Task 1 across all pairs, it may be possible to suggest that particular task types are involved in the number of words to total clauses.

As regards the potential role of task type in fluency in L2 writing, the Korean EFL children of the present study became most fluent on Task 1 and least fluent on Task 3 according to the results of the three indicators of fluency. These results may provide evidence that there is a relationship between task types and L2 writing fluency. This may provide information for L2 teachers to design writing tasks for fluent writing. By using two measures, accuracy was measured in order to examine the effects of task type on language production.

4.1.1.1.2 Task Type and Accuracy

Among a wide range of measures of accuracy in L2 writing (Wolfe-Quintero, et al., 1998), accuracy was measured by counting the number of error-free clauses (EFC) and the ratio of error-free clauses to total clauses (EFC/C) to examine the relationship between task type and accuracy. As the first indicator of accuracy, the total number of error-free clauses was counted and the results are presented below. As can be seen in Figure 4.4, there were some interesting changes in the production of error-free clauses across the three writing tasks. In comparison with a tendency for the lowest word and words to clause production in Task 3 as indicators of fluency, some children recorded the largest production of error-free clause in Task 3 as an indicator of accuracy. In other words, it might have been difficult for the children to become fluent but accurate during the performance of Task 3.
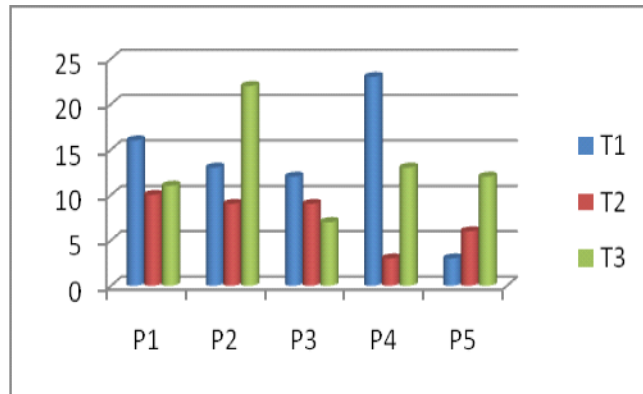
Figure 4.4 Task Types and Error-free Causes

In addition, Task 2 recorded the lowest error-free clause production, which was rare in the three measures of fluency. These results showed a trade-off effect between fluency and accuracy, because it is difficult for L2 learners to pay the same amount of attention to these two dimensions of L2 writing simultaneously (Skehan, 1996, 1998).

The second indicator of accuracy was measured by the number of error-free clauses divided by the number of clauses and the results are illustrated below.
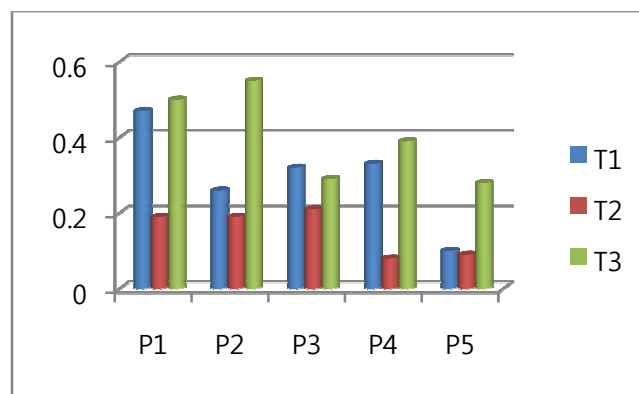
Figure 4.5 Task Types and Error-free Clasues to Total Clauses

Along with the large number of error-free clauses in Task 3, the results of Figure 4.5 showed a similar pattern in that the Korean children produced high ratios of error-free

clauses to total clauses in Task 3. This was in direct opposition to the lowest word and words to clause production in Task 3 as two indicators of fluency. In this respect, the high ratios of error-free clauses to clauses in Task 3 may become another valued attribute to support a trade-off between fluency and accuracy in L2 writing.

In terms of the two indicators of accuracy in L2 writing, the children of this study seemed to become more accurate on Task 3 and least accurate on Task 2 suggesting that there is a relationship between task type and language output and moreover, the results seemed to provide some evidence for a connection between task type and a trade-off between fluency and accuracy in L2 writing. As the third measurement of L2 writing, lexical complexity was measured by two measures in order to examine the effects of task type on language output.

4.1.1.1.3 Task Type and Lexical Complexity

Concerning how varied words or word types are present in a text rather than simply how many words are present (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998), lexical complexity was measured by lexical variety (LV) and lexical density (LD) using type-token ratios. As the first indicator of lexical complexity, lexical variety was measured by the number of different words (types) divided by the running words (tokens) per task type and the results are presented below. As can be seen in Figure 4.6, although it seems difficult to say that there were dominant tasks in terms of an association with the highest or lowest ratio of lexical variety across the three writing tasks, there was a general tendency for the highest ratios of lexical variety to occur in Task 3 and the lowest ratios in Task 1.
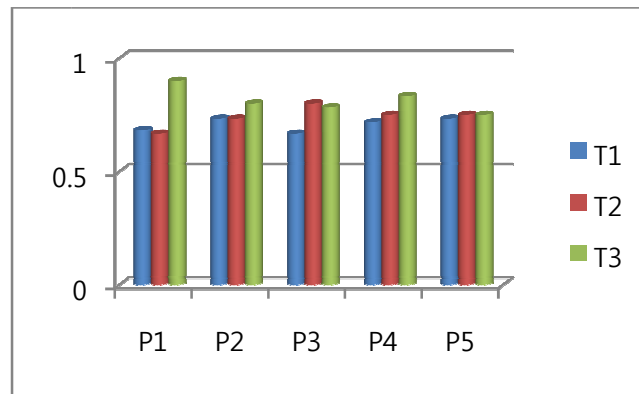
Figure 4.6 Task Types and Lexical Variety

This is in direct opposition to the largest word and words to clause production in Task 1 and the lowest word and words to clause production in Task 3 as two indicators of fluency. Although it may be insufficient to support a strong relationship between task type and lexical variety due to the even distribution of lexical variety across the three tasks, it may be possible to suggest that there was a trade-off between fluency and lexical complexity (Ellis 2005).

As the second indicator of lexical complexity, lexical density was measured by the total number of content words (types) divided by the running words (token) per task and the results are presented below.
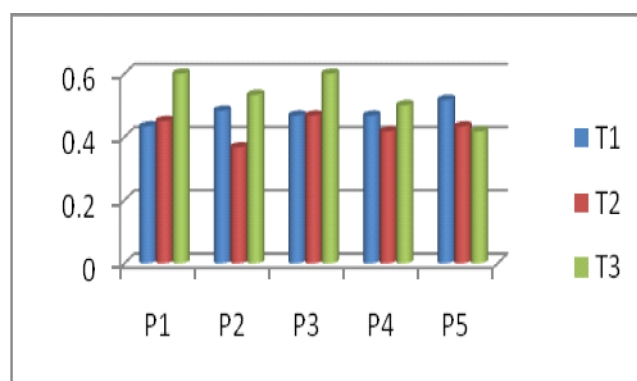
Figure 4.7 Task Types and Lexicl Density

Figure 4.7 showed a general tendency for the highest ratios of lexical density in Task 3 except for one pair and a relatively low ratio of lexical density in Task 2. Although the overall ratios of lexical density were lower than those of lexical variety as shown in Figure 4.6, these results also seemed to provide evidence for a trade-off between fluency and complexity (Lambert & Engler, 2007). Compared to the even distribution of lexical variety over the three tasks, the high ratios of lexical density in Task 3 may provide evidence to indicate that there was a relationship between task type and lexically complex language output.

The results of the text analysis have been presented in order to examine the effects of task type and language output in terms of fluency, accuracy, and lexical complexity in L2 writing. The Korean children in the present study seemed to be most fluent on Task 1 and least fluent on Task 3, whereas they seemed to be most accurate and lexically complex on Task 3 and least accurate and lexically complex on Task 2. These comparative results can be interpreted as indicating that particular task types had an effect on language output resulting in trade-off effects between fluency, accuracy and lexical complexity. It is therefore possible for L2 teachers to manipulate the nature of classroom writing tasks that will promote fluency, accuracy, and lexical complexity in L2 writing. The results of the text analysis are also reported to examine the effects of task repetition on language output as the second task variable in this study.

4.1.1.2 Task Repetition and Language Output

4.1.1.2.1 Task Repetition and Fluency

Regarding the pedagogical role of task repetition in L2 writing, fluency was measured by calculating the number of words, clauses and words to total clauses in order to explore the effects of task repetition on fluent writing. As the first indicator of fluency, the total number of words per task cycle was calculated including three repetitions of each task (e.g., ignoring task differences by taking the cycle as a whole, C1 = cycle 1 including 3 tasks), and the results are provided below.
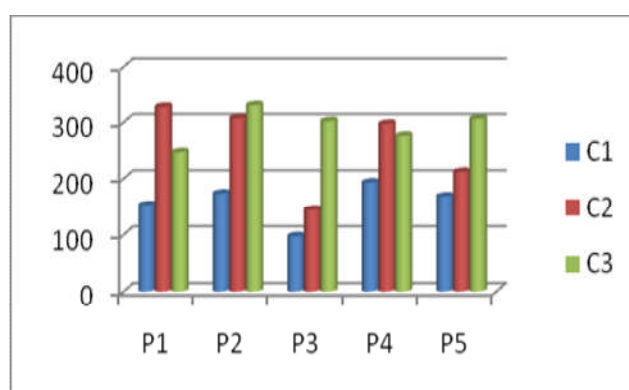
Figure 4.8 Task Repetition and Words (P: Pair, C: Cycle)

The results of Figure 4.8 showed an overall increase of word production across the three cycles. Although Pairs 1 and 4 recorded the largest word production in Cycle 2, it is clear that there was a gradual increase of word production over time. In other words, the Korean children could produce more words when they were given the opportunity to repeat the same tasks. To some extent, this could be expected, because identical task repetition will push L2 learners to use new words in the subsequent performances based on their prior task performances (Bygate, 2001a, 2001b; Bygate & Samuda, 2005). It is therefore

possible to suggest that repetition of the same tasks may give rise to changes in word production.

As the second indicator of fluency in L2 writing, the total number of clauses was calculated and the results are presented below.
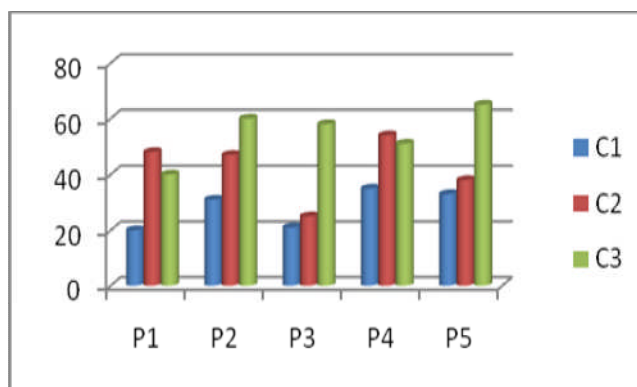

Figure 4.9 Task Repetition and Clauses

The results of Figure 4.9 showed a very similar pattern to the word production shown in Figure 4.8. Regarding the overall increase of clause production over the three cycles, the children can be divided into two groups: one group belongs to a fluctuating model which showed a slight decrease in Cycle 3 and the other group belongs to a typical model which exhibited a gradual increase over time. In particular, Pair 3 showed a noticeable increase in the clause production in Cycle 3 compared to a relatively small number of clauses in the previous two cycles. Based on the results from the clause production, it can be said that there was an overall increase of clause production after Cycle 1 and therefore, repetition of the same tasks had an effect on the children's fluent writing in terms of clause production.

The third indicator of fluency in L2 writing was measured by the total number of words divided by the number of clauses and the results are illustrated below.
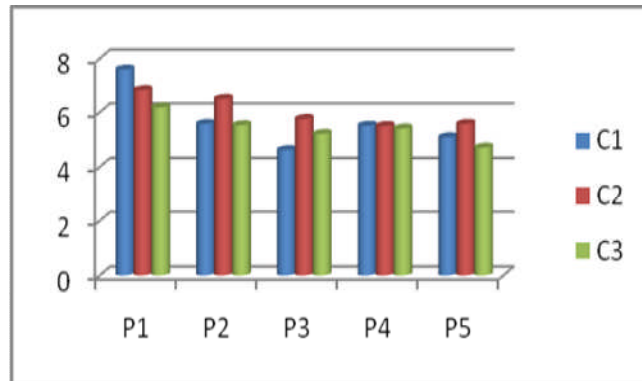
Figure 4.10 Task Repetition and Words to Total Clauses

The results of Figure 4.10 revealed a somewhat different pattern from those shown in the word and clause production. In contrast to the gradual increase in the number of words and clauses over the three cycles, there was a tendency to show a slight decrease in words to clause production. To some extent, the fewer words to total clauses across the three cycles seemed to indicate that the children might not have benefited fully from task repetition resulting in shorter clause lengths. It can be thus said that task repetition seemed to have little direct impact on the ratios of words to total clauses in the present study.

Although the children seemed to become less fluent over the three cycles when their writing was measured by the ratios of words to total clauses, task repetition have played an important role in producing more words and clauses in terms of fluent L2 writing. As the second measurement of L2 writing, accuracy was measured to examine the relationship between task repetition and language output.

4.1.1.2.2 Task Repetition and Accuracy

Regarding the potential benefits of task repetition in L2 learning, accuracy was measured

by calculating the number of error-free clauses and the ratio of error-free clauses to total clauses to examine the effects of task repetition on accurate written output. The first indicator of accuracy was to count the number of error-free clauses and the results are presented below.
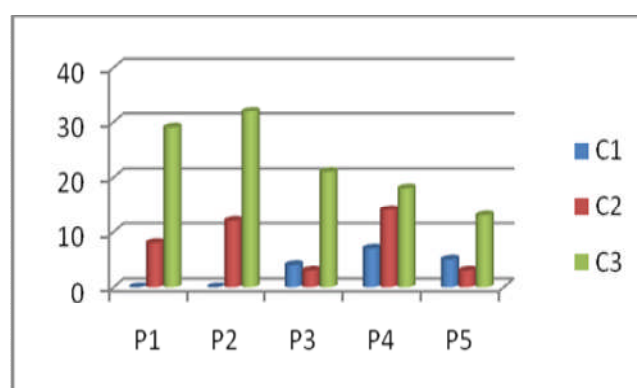
Figure 4.11 Task Repetition and Error-free Clauses

As shown in Figure 4.11, there was an overall increase in error-free clause production across all pairs over time which was manifest in a general increase of word and clause production for fluency in L2 writing. In particular, it was surprising that Pairs 1 and 2 showed the most dramatic changes after Cycle 2 from no error-free clause production in Cycle 1 to the largest error-free clause production in Cycle 3. It is therefore possible to suggest the effects of task repetition on error-free clause production.

The second indicator of accuracy was measured by the ratios of error-free clauses to the total number of clauses and the results are illustrated below. Figure 4.12 also showed an overall increase of the ratios of error-free clauses to total clauses over the three cycles. In other words, all pairs might have become more accurate as they became familiar with the three writing tasks regardless of the degree of increasing the ratios of error-free clauses over time. To some extent, this might be expected from the results of the overall increase in error-free clause production as shown in Figure 4.11.
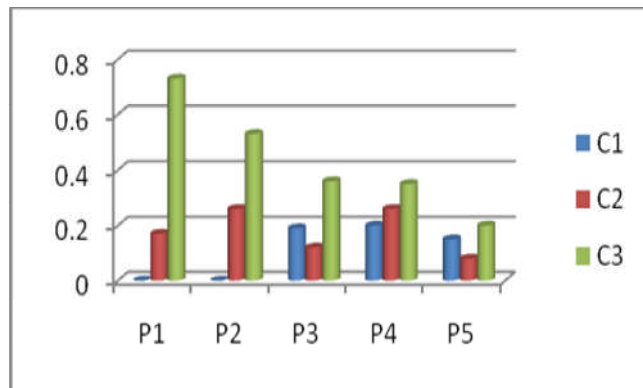
Figure 4.12 Task Repetition and Error-free Clauses to Total Clauses

Based on the results from the two indicators of accuracy in L2 writing, the Korean children seemed to become more accurate over time and thus, this may provide evidence to suggest that there is a strong relationship between task repetition and accuracy in L2 writing. As the third measurement of L2 writing, lexical complexity was measured by two measures to examine the effects of task repetition on language output.

4.1.1.2.3 Task Repetition and Lexical Complexity

With respect to the lexical richness of L2 writing, lexical complexity was measured by lexical variety and lexical density using type-token ratios to examine the relationship between task repetition and lexical complexity. In the first place, lexical variety was measured by dividing the number of different words (types) by the running words (tokens) per task cycle and the results are presented below. Figure 4.13 showed somewhat mixed results which were divided into three groups in terms of the ratios of lexical variety. For example, the consistent ratios of Pair 1 can be understood as indicating that task repetition might have had little impact on their language output.
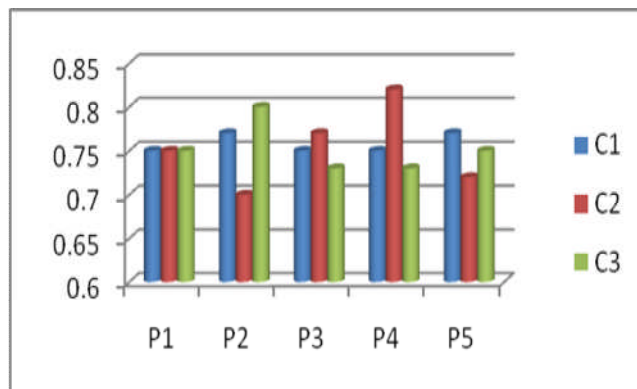
Figure 4.13 Task Repetition and Lexical Variety

Pairs 2 and 5 recorded the lowest ratios of lexical variety in Cycle 2, whereas Pairs 3 and 4 recorded the highest ratios of lexical variety in Cycle 3. These mixed results were the opposite to the general expectation that L2 learners may show a gradual increase in lexical variety when repeating the same tasks as shown in the results of fluency and accuracy.

The second indicator of lexical complexity was lexical density which was measured by the total number of content words (types) divided by the running words (token) per each cycle, and the results are illustrated below.
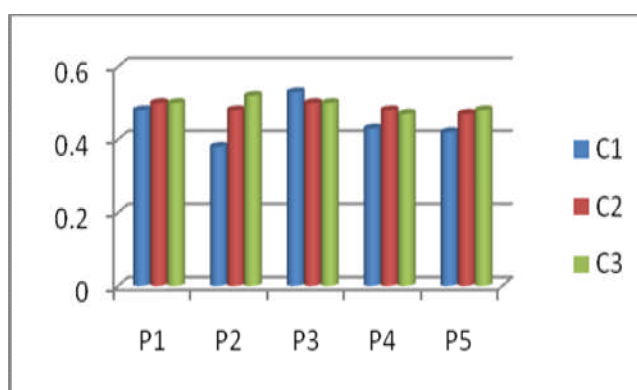

Figure 4.14 Task Repetition and Lexical Density

In Figure 4.14, there was a more even distribution of lexical density over the three cycles than that of lexical variety in Figure 4.13. In other words, the children of this study might have benefited little from task repetition when using more content words over time. This might probably result from the fact that there was only a short period of time allocated to repeating the same tasks and the limited words counted. Although the children seemed to become more fluent and accurate over time, it seems difficult to claim that there was clear evidence to support the effects of task repetition on lexical variety and lexical density as two indicators of lexical complexity in L2 writing.

The first part of this section has addressed the results of the text analysis in order to examine the effects of task type and task repetition on the Korean children's language output in terms of fluency, accuracy and lexical complexity. The Korean EFL children seemed to become more fluent on Task 1 and less fluent on Task 3 whereas they became more accurate on Task 3 and less accurate on Task 2. Despite few clear-cut differences across the three types of tasks, lexical complexity also recorded the highest production in Task 3. These results may provide evidence to suggest the effects of task type on written language output. In addition, the children seemed to become more fluent and accurate when repeating the same tasks over the three cycles in spite of the mixed results in lexical complexity. The next part presents the results of pair dialogue analysis in order to examine the effects of task type and task repetition on language output as supplementary data.

4.1.2 Analysis of Pair Dialogues

With regard to the effects of task type and task repetition on the processes and products of Korean EFL children's collaborative writing, pair dialogues were analyzed in terms of

language-related episodes (LREs) and then categorized into three episodes depending on the focus on a particular aspect of language: form-focus, lexical-focus, and mechanical-focus. In spite of the small sample size of pair dialogues, the analysis of pair dialogues provided insightful information which was not identified through either text analysis or classroom observation. This part begins with a typical example of each episode and a graph which presents the rough number of range (see *Appendix 10: Task Type and Pair Dialogues* and *Appendix 11: Task Repetition and Pair Dialogues,* for the exact number of LRE). The italic type in each episode shows the words uttered in English and the rest were produced in Korean.

4.1.2.1 Task Type and Language-related Episodes

4.1.2.1.1 Task Type and F-LREs

Form-focus language-related episodes (F-LREs) were measured by counting the number of language episodes dealing with grammatical form to examine the relationship between task type and language output. Excerpt 4.1 is a typical example of F-LRE dealing with the use of the progressive form. In the dialogue, the children focused on the use of the present progressive form in order to perform Task 1 in which they were asked to describe a picture. Kyoung attempted to initiate a sentence with 'The sister is' in line 70, but it was interrupted by Joo because 'the sister' had already been introduced. However, Kyoung made it clear that the character was not described by using the progressive form, '치고 있다' [is playing] in line 72. Finally, Kyoung seemed to utter what she intended with the help of her partner in line 76. Despite the incorrect grammatical form resulting from the absence of

the auxiliary verb, 'is', the children seemed to be able to refer to the present participle, 'playing' to describe what the character was doing in the picture. More importantly, this episode can be regarded as a good example of how L2 children collaborate in order to solve a particular linguistic problem (Swain, 1995).

Excerpt 4.1 An F-LRE		
70	Kyoung	*The sister is* 더 시스터 이즈
71	Joo	I already wrote it 썼잖아
72	Kyoung	We didn't write 'is playing the piano' '피아노 치고 있다'는 안 했잖아
73	Joo	*Piano* 피아노
74	Kyoung	Is playing, *the sister* 치고 있다, 더 시스터
75	Joo	*Playing the piano* 플레잉 더 피아노
76	Kyoung	*The sister playing the piano* 더 시스터 플레잉 더 피아노

Among four volunteer pairs, Pair 1 succeeded in recording all their dialogues, while the other three pairs managed to record one type of task. For this reason, the production of LREs of Pair 1 is compared to that of the other pairs. The total number of F-LREs per task was counted including all repetition per each task and presented below. According to the results of Figure 4.15, the largest F-LRE production was not recorded in Task 3 but in Task 1. These findings were not expected because the children in this study produced more accurate writing in Task 3 in terms of the number of error-free clauses and the ratio of error-free clauses to total clauses. This may be because Pairs 1 and 4 might have focused more on other aspects (i.e., lexis or mechanics) which resulted in accurate writing. More importantly, the most accurate writing in Task 3 was not found in Pairs 1 and 4 but in Pairs 2 and 5.
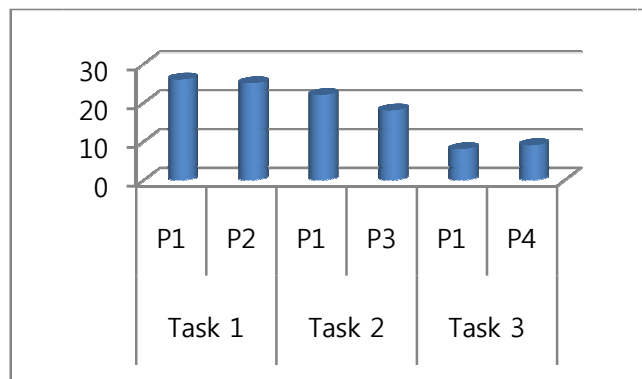
Figure 4.15 Task Types and F-LREs

This may raise a methodological issue to indicate the limitation of quantitative analysis of pair dialogue and to require the need for qualitative analysis of their interaction in order to obtain masked information.

4.1.2.1.2 Task Type and L-LREs

Lexical-focus language-related episodes (L-LREs) were measured when the children focused on lexical items. The following episode is a typical example of L-LREs searching for a particular word.

Excerpt 4.2 An L-LRE		
48	Joo	How to say a teddy bear? 곰돌이를 뭐라고 하지?
49	Kyoung	Well 글쎄
50	Joo	Just write a teddy bear 그냥 곰돌이라고 써
51	Kyoung	*Bear doll*! 베어 돌!
52	Joo	*Bear doll?* 베어 돌?
53	Kyoung	Yes, *bear doll* 그래, 베어 돌

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Excerpt 4.2 began with a question from Joo whether her partner knew how to say '곰돌이' [teddy bear] in English. As there was no immediate response from her partner, Joo asked Kyoung to write '곰돌이' [teddy bear] in Korean. Instead of writing the word in Korean, however, Kyoung attempted to compound the two English words, 'bear' and 'doll' in order to express the target word 'teddy bear' in line 51. Although they apparently failed to find an equivalent target word of '곰돌이' [teddy bear] in English, this episode provides a good example of ways in which L2 learners can benefit from collaborative working (see 2.2.4.2.4). In other words, task performance seemed to provide them with the opportunity both to notice the gap between what they wanted to write and what they could write, and to use their existing linguistic knowledge of the target language in order to fill in the gap (Swain, 1995, 2001).

The total number of L-LREs per task was counted and the results are presented below.
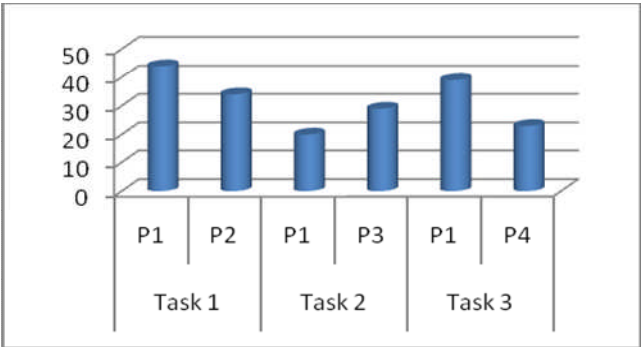
Figure 4.16 Task Types and L-LREs

The results of Figure 4.16 showed that there was an overall increase in the L-LRE production across the three tasks compared to the F-LRE production in Table 4.15. In other words, the children might have paid much attention to lexical items (e.g., word choice, word meaning). For example, Pairs 1 and 4 produced more L-LREs than F-LREs in Task 3. In addition, Pair 1 produced the largest L-LREs in Task 1 but the lowest L-LREs in Task 2.

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Although it is difficult to suggest that there were strong effects of task type on L-LREs, the results provided the potential to show the relationship between task type and L-LREs.

4.1.2.1.3 Task Type and M-LREs

Mechanical-focus language-related episodes (M-LREs) were analysed depending on the children's focus on spelling. Excerpt 4.3 is a typical episode of M-LREs dealing with the spelling of particular words.

Excerpt 4.3 An M-LRE		
95	Kyoung	*Go to* a foreign, different country 고우 투 외국, 다른 나라
96	Joo	Foreign country? *C-O-U* 외국? *c-o-u*
97	Kyoung	*Country*? 컨트리?
98	Joo	*F-O-R* is foreign country *f-o-r* 은 외국
99	Kyoung	*F-O-R-E-I-G-N* is foreign, country is *C-O-U* *f-o-r-e-i-g-n* 은 외국, 나라는 *c-o-u*
100	Joo	*N-T-R-Y* *n-t-r-y*

This episode provided a good example to show how the children made an effort to articulate the spelling of target words in the context of collaborative working mode. With the attention on the spelling of two English words, '외국' [foreign] and '나라' [country] in line 95, the children focused on reconstructing the correct spelling of the target words in turn. In other words, they were required to share their language resources in order to solve particular linguistic problems. In this respect, it can be said that collaborative writing process will enable L2 learners to pool their knowledge of writing and spelling.

The total number of M-LREs per task was measured and the results are presented below.
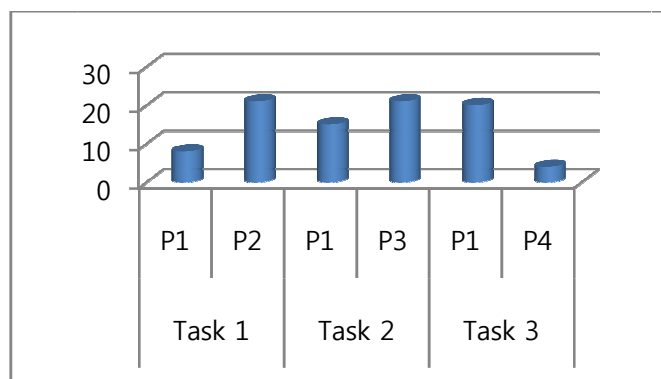
Figure 4.17 Task Types and M-LREs

Figure 4.17 revealed somewhat mixed results in terms of the M-LRE production and the distribution across the three tasks. For example, both pairs in Task 2 recorded a relatively large M-LRE production, whereas one pair in both Task 1 and Task 3 exhibited a relatively low M-LRE production. This can be interpreted as suggesting that particular task types may be related to the M-LRE production as shown in this case Task 2.

According to relatively large F-LREs and L-LREs in Task 1 and relatively large M-LREs in Task 2, it can be said that there might be a relationship between task type and the three types of LREs. If task types are related to the amount and type of LREs, it will be helpful for L2 teachers to manipulate language learning tasks in order to get their students to focus on a particular aspect of language in certain conditions. The results of dialogue analysis are also addressed to examine the effects of task repetition on the LRE production.

4.1.2.2 Task Repetition and Language-related Episodes

4.1.2.2.1 Task Repetition and F-LREs

According to the results of the text analysis, the children of the present study seemed to benefit from repeating the same tasks over the three cycles and these results supported the pedagogical value of task repetition of the same tasks (Swain and Lapkin, 2008). The following F-LREs provide an example to focus on a grammatical form over time. In Excerpt 4.4, Kyoung noticed a problem when using a progressive form, 'going' and then suggested the use of the past form, 'went' in line 61. Despite an explanation of the progressive tense, '가는 중' [going] in line 61, Joo seemed to be confused with the use of the past tense as shown in her interrogative tone, "웬트?" [went?]. In Excerpt 4.5, Kyoung recalled the correct use of the past tense, 'went' instead of the present tense, 'go' in line 139. In contrast, Joo seemed to focus more on making a story than on noticing her partner's self-correction. Therefore, Kyoung attempted to initiate a sentence by herself in line 143. A similar situation was found in Excerpt 4.6, for example, when Kyoung said, "위 고우 투" [we go to], Joo repeated it without much attention. However, Kyoung recalled the use of the past tense in line 126. In this respect, L2 learners may keep focusing on particular grammatical forms when given the opportunity to repeat the same tasks.

Excerpt 4.4 An F-LRE [P1: T2/1]		
59	Kyoung	Wait (tapping with a pencil) 잠깐만 (연필로 치며)
60	Joo	*Going*? What's wrong? 고잉? 왜?
61	Kyoung	*Going* means someone is on a way to somewhere else. So, *went* 고잉은 가는 중이잖아 그러니깐 웬트
62	Joo	*Went*? 웬트?

Excerpt 4.5 An F-LRE [P1: T2/2]		
139	Kyoung	*We go*, wait a moment, *went* 위 고우, 잠깐 웬트
140	Joo	Then, we met a friend 그러면, 친구 만났다고 하자
141	Kyoung	Fine. 그래
142	Joo	While we were going around 구경하며 돌아다니다가
143	Kyoung	*We went to the* 위 웬트 투 더

Excerpt 4.6 An F-LRE [P1: T2/3]		
124	Kyoung	*We go to* 위 고우 투
125	Joo	*Go to* 고우 투
126	Kyoung	No. We must write *went to* 아니다. 웬트 투를 써야 돼

The total number of F-LREs was calculated including three repetitions of each task (e.g., C1 = cycle 1 including 3 tasks), and the results are presented below. According to the results of Figure 4.18, Pairs 2, 3, and 4 might have benefited little from the repetition of the same tasks. These findings were not expected because the children became more accurate and fluent writing over the three cycles. This might result from the gap between what they said and what they wrote because the children sometimes focused on writing without talking with their partners for a while or whispered to partner. For this reason, there is a

need to compare what the children actually focused on during collaborative writing with what they produced as drafts.
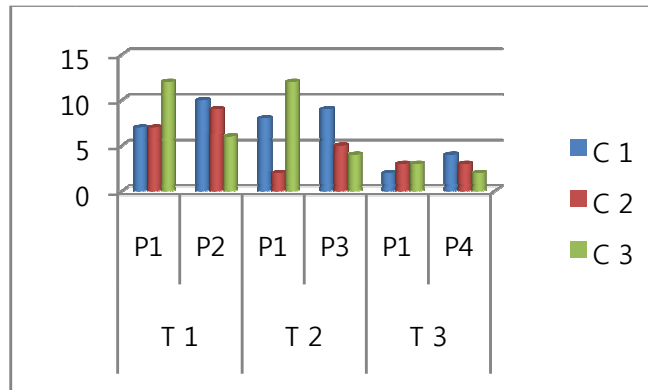
Figure 4.18 Task Repetition and F-LREs

4.1.2.2.2 Task Repetition and L-LREs

In order to examine the potential role of task repetition in L2 learning, pair dialogues were measured by the focus on lexical items including all repetition of the three tasks. The following L-LREs show an example of searching for a particular word over time.

Excerpt 4.7 An L-LRE [P1: T1/1]			
114	Joo	And next, photo frame 그리고 다음엔, 액자	
115	Kyoung	*The* wall, *the* photo frame 더 벽 은, 더 액자	
116	Joo	How to spell it? 액자는 어떻게 쓰지?	

Excerpt 4.8 An L-LRE [P1: T1/3]		
68	Joo	Family photo 가족 사진
69	Kyoung	Photo, *photo* 사진, 포토
70	Joo	*Family photo*? 패밀리 포토?

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Although the children seemed to have no knowledge of the target word, '액자'' [photo frame] in Excerpt 4.7, they seemed to succeed in finding out what they wanted to write in English when returning to the same task. As shown in Excerpt 4.8, Joo said her focus, '가족 사진' [family photo] in Korean and then Kyoung translated the Korean word, '사진' into an equivalent English word, 'photo'. This was followed by an utterance 'family photo?' [가족 사진?] in English. Although Joo did not seem to be convinced judging from her interrogative tone, the children successfully completed searching for the target words. These episodes provide a good example to show the benefits of task repetition and pair dialogue during collaborative writing.

The number of L-LREs was calculated as the sum of repeating each task three times, and the results are presented below.
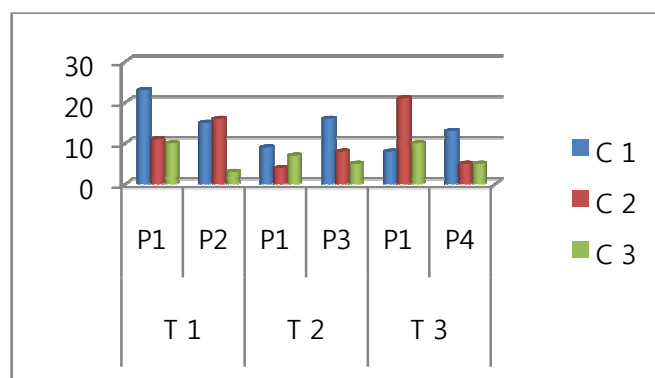
Figure 4.19 Task Repetition and L-LREs

As shown in Figure 4.19, most children recorded a large L-LRE production in the first and second cycles. These results were in opposition to the increase of fluency and accuracy over the three cycles. As noted early, this might result from the gap between the processes and the final products of collaborative writing. Without the analysis of pair dialogues qualitatively, therefore, it seems almost impossible to understand the benefits of task repetition when working together.

4.1.2.2.3 Task Repetition and M-LREs

Regarding the role of task repetition and L2 learning, the number of M-LREs was counted as the sum of the three tasks per cycle. The following M-LREs provide an example of focusing on the correct spelling over time.

Excerpt 4.9 An M-LRE [P2: T1/1]		
21	Sun	And next, *teddy bear* 다음엔, *테디 베어*
22	Jin	*Teddy bear, T* 테디 베어, *t*
23	Sun	Isn't it *A-D-D-Y*? *a-d-d-y* 아닌가?
24	Jin	Let's not write it now 일단 쓰지 말자.

Excerpt 4.10 An M-LRE [P2: T1/2]		
214	Sun	Now, I know that, *teddy bear* 나 이제 이거 알아. *테디베어*
215	Jin	*cartoon, vase and teddy* 카툰, 베이스 앤드 테디
216	Sun	*T-E-D-D-Y* *t-e-d-d-y*
217	Jin	*T-E-D-D-Y* *t-e-d-d-y*
218	Sun	*bear* is *B-E-A-R* 베어는 *b-e-a-r*
219	Jin	*B-E-A-R* *b-e-a-r*

In Excerpt 4.9, the children focused on a particular word, '테디 베어' [teddy bear], but they failed to recall the correct spelling of the target word. Although Sun attempted to complete the spelling, her interrogative intonation, "a-d-d-y 아닌가?" [Isn't it A-D-D-Y?] made Jin decide to abandon their concern about the spelling. In Excerpt 4.10, however, Sun seemed to be convinced as shown in her remark, "나 이제 이거 알아" [Now, I know that] and let her

partner know the correct spelling of the target word when they came back to the same task. These episodes provide evidence that the children benefited from task repetition as a way of filling in the gap between what they know and what they know partially (Swain, 1995).

The number of M-LREs was calculated as the sum of repeating each task three times, and the results are presented below.
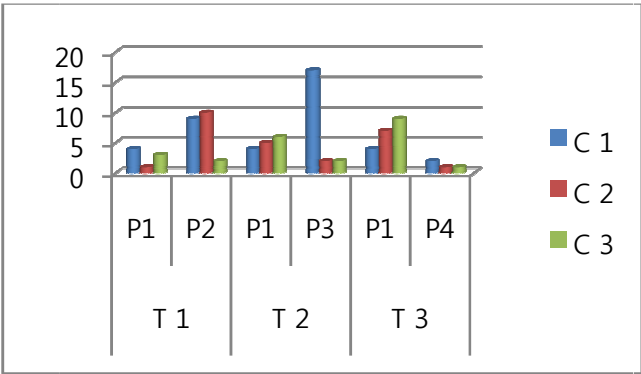
Figure 4.20 Task Repetition and M-LREs

As can be seen in Figure 4.20, the overall M-LRE production was more than F-LREs in Figure 4.18, but less L-LREs in Figure 4.19. However, it is difficult to suggest that all pairs might have benefited from repetition of the same task. As already noted, a relatively small amount of pair dialogues is statistically insufficient to provide conclusive evidence to show the relationship between task type, task repetition and language output. There should be noted, however, that the analysis of pair dialogues provided useful insights into the actual, problem-solving process which was neither observed by the researcher nor identified in the written products. In other words, the verbal data resulted in valuable information to understand what was going on in paired writing.

This second part has addressed the results of pair dialogues to examine the effects of task type and task repetition on task performance and outcomes of the Korean EFL children's

collaborative writing. There was a tendency for relatively large F-LREs and L-LREs in Task 1 and relatively large M-LREs in Task 2 as indicating that there was the possibility to show the relationship between task type and LRE production. In contrast, it was hard to claim that there was a relationship between task repetition and LRE production in spite of a gradual increase of fluency and accuracy during task repetition. To some extent, the quantitative analysis of pair dialogue may be insufficient to show the effects of task type and task repetition on LRE production, because this study compared Pair 1 with a different pair on each task. These one-to-one comparisons were not expected in data analysis.

In this respect, it is indeed important to note that one particular methodological issue emerged throughout the data analysis in terms of the role of quantitative data in this qualitative study. For example, the Korean children's pair dialogues were recorded in order to examine the impact of task type and task repetition on the products and processes of collaborative writing. Therefore, contents of pair dialogues were quantified according to the degree of explicit focus on a particular aspect of English (e.g., tense, word choice, or spelling). As mentioned earlier, the small amount of pair dialogues collected provided insightful information about what was actually said between two members in pair work, rather than statistical evidence to show the relationship between task type, task repetition and outcomes. Although the quantitative analysis from pair dialogues might be insufficient to answer relevant research questions, listening to the children's dialogues was invaluable in terms of understanding the process of collaborative writing which might be missed during the classroom observation. This is an example of 'between-methods' (Denzin, 1978), that is, the weaknesses of a quantitative method could be compensated for by the strengths of a qualitative method or vice versa. The next section presents the results of the qualitative analysis of reflective interviews and classroom observation.

4.2 Qualitative Analysis

This second section is divided into two parts dealing with the results of the qualitative analysis of follow-up interviews and classroom observation. The first part presents the results of qualitative analysis of pair interviews in order to examine the Korean EFL children's perspectives of their first collaborative writing experience. The second part addresses the results of qualitative analysis of classroom observation which was to identify some of the challenges of conducting classroom action research.

4.2.1 Analysis of Reflective Interviews

As an essential way of achieving authentic accounts of what the Korean EFL children actually experienced and learned during collaborative writing, pair interviews were undertaken after a three-week writing program. Although all of children participated in the semi-structured interview sessions, not all children completed all of the interview questions. All quotations from the interviews used in this thesis are provided as illustrations with regard to five basic interview topics. The interviews were conducted in Korean and then translated into English.

4.2.1.1 Learning through Writing

As noted earlier, the children had little prior experience of writing due to the primacy of spoken over written language in the primary English education system in Korea. In

contrast to their initial worries about English writing, most children showed positive attitudes towards English writing as shown in the following response snippet.

> I think that it is good to write in English. As I could find the right words that I wanted to write, it was easy to remember those words instead of trying to memorize them repeatedly. [Jin, Pair 2]

This is a general opinion to support that writing is a process of meaningful learning (Kress, 1982). In other words, most children seemed to understand the key benefits of writing as a way of learning the target language through the multiple stages undergone during the performance of the three tasks. Most of all, the experience of English writing allowed them to feel a real sense of confidence as presented below.

> At first, it was a pity because we could not write a lot. However, I was so proud of myself when the blank worksheets were filled line by line. [Sun, Pair 2]

> I came to understand how to start a sentence and what to change during task performance. I was relieved to see the empty sheets were full of sentences. [Jin, Pair 2]

These responses indicated that the children became more and more self-confident in spite of having had little experience of English writing. In other words, they came to feel a sense of achievement as a result of producing something meaningful for themselves. In this respect, the children might have understood the way they learn English through learning-by-doing as emphasized in TBLT. However, some of them also expressed their discomfort and tension as novice L2 writers.

> At first, there was nothing but a deep sigh because I didn't know what to do. However, I found it funny and good to write in English. [Kyoung, Pair 1]

As might be expected, the children were worried when working with unfamiliar writing tasks. On the other hand, writing in English might appear to provide them with the

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opportunity to notice the gap between what they know precisely and what they can produce

for learning the target language (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004). In particular, all children

referred to the importance of collaboration in order to complete the writing tasks.

4.2.1.2 Paired Writing

It has been said that L2 learners in a collaborative learning context can accomplish more

than learners in an individualistic or competitive learning context and therefore, group

work has been considered as a way of fostering L2 learning in the CLT classroom. When

the Korean children were asked about working with a self-selected partner over three

weeks, they revealed several pros and cons of paired writing.

> It was good that I was able to ask my partner what I didn't know well. However it
> was difficult to reach agreement when we had different opinions. [Jin, Pair 2]

As Jin said, most children might have had opportunities to practise their linguistic

knowledge and share it with their partners as a way of following a general consensus

decision-making process and a process of overcoming disagreement between members of

each pair. As a result, they might take responsibility in paired writing.

> It was good that my partner was usually in charge of writing and I thought about
> something to write. In other words, we took responsibility for our work each other.
> I thought it made our work so much easier. [Sun, Pair 2]

In a positive way, the children took a role as a writer or a helper in each pair and this was

considered as an efficient technique in paired writing (Topping, 1995). As the Korean EFL

children said, paired writing seems to allow L2 learners to become active participants in

their own learning process. This may be important to remember for the teachers who want

to create a collaborative learning classroom and encourage their students to become active learners (Littlewood, 1984; Nunan, 1992a). In addition, the children referred to the role of the teacher as an active facilitator for their learning.

4.2.1.3 Teachers as Collaborators

As noted previously, CLT has required teachers to employ suitable teaching strategies for teacher-learner interaction in a collaborative classroom (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000; Van den Branden et al., 2006). In the context of collaborative writing, the Korean children showed their positive attitudes towards collaboration in writing and moreover, they were in favour of collaborative learning as a means of dialogic interaction with the teacher as shown in the following response snippet.

> If you sat on your chair and focused on your own work, it might have been impossible to pay attention to our work. As you went around in class and asked us about our work, it seemed to make our work much better. I don't think that I was disturbed by your talking with other children. [Kyoung, Pair 1]

In this sense, direct interaction seemed to make it possible to encourage the children to focus on their work while monitoring their performance and showing my personal interest in them. In a collaborative learning context, therefore, the teacher-learner interaction can be regarded as an alternative way of obtaining information rather than as interrupting the peer-peer working mode. The following extract provides a similar view on the benefit of teacher-learner interaction.

> As you went around in class, we were so busy writing to show something to you. So, I thought it was an opportunity to ask about words, when you came to our group. [Han, Pair 6]

From a sociocultural perspective on teacher-learner interaction, it may be an effective teaching and learning strategy to motivate L2 learners to learn for themselves as well as to establish this collaborative partnership between the teacher and learners in the classroom in spite of the time expended in dialogic mode rather a monologic lesson. Most importantly, if L2 learners are pushed to produce the target language during collaborative writing, it is important for L2 teachers to develop collaborative learning tasks which may result in high quality classroom interaction.

4.2.1.4 Different Challenges to Different Tasks

As shown in the quantitative analysis of the Korean children's written texts and pair dialogues, task type seemed to be associated with language output. When the children were asked about the three writing tasks (i.e., picture-describing, story-creating, opinion-expressing), Task 1 was considered as a relatively easy task compared to the other two tasks.

> Comparing to the other two tasks, Task 1 was relatively easy, because we had a picture to describe. I mean, there were many items to describe in the picture. [Min, Pair 4]

As Min said, most children agreed that Task 1 was the easiest task, because it did not require them to search for vocabulary items at the initial stage. Despite this common perception of Task 1, there was an interesting response to take into account when designing classroom learning tasks.

> During the performance of Task 1, it was good to have a picture to describe. However, it could be a problem, if we didn't know the words in the picture in English. [Han, Pair 5]

As Han said, Task 1 may become challenging for L2 learners with very limited linguistic knowledge or at the beginning stage as was the case with the children of this study. It is therefore worthwhile to consider that L2 teachers have to decide the appropriate scope of vocabulary items when designing this kind of writing task for their specific students. In addition, some children referred to the use of prefabricated chunks.

> When we tried to describe the picture, we focused on the items using 'there is' or 'there are'. [Soo, Pair 4]

A prefabricated chunk, 'there is/are' was used constantly across all pairs. For example, Pair 4 wrote "There are many books on the piano" [P4: T1/2]. In spite of there being no equivalent concept to the function of 'there' in Korean, it seemed to be helpful for the children to use the 'there is/are' language chunk when describing a particular item in a certain location. In this respect, L2 teachers need to teach a number of prefabricated chunks for fluent and accurate writing (Lewis, 1993, 2002; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). As a whole, Task 1 was recognized as the least challenging because of there being a picture to describe.

For the performance of Task 2, the children were required to reflect on their previous school experiences, share them with a partner, and select a topic in order to create a new story. Compared to the benefits of a visual prompt in Task 1, this creative writing seemed to make the children confused as presented below.

> Honestly speaking, I am not satisfied with the outcomes of Task 2. From the first stage, we had several problems when deciding where to go, how to get there or how to describe the way. Most of all, it was not easy to make a basic outline. [Sun, Pair 2]

As Sun said, the Korean children had to reach agreement in order to create a story based on their experience in schools. Without having enough discussion, therefore, it might have

been challenging for the children to carry out Task 2. According to my classroom observation, Sun started to write something without enough discussion with her partner and in turn this seemed to result in more confusion later. The following extract showed a good example of collaborative discussion in paired writing.

> At first, we couldn't agree to ideas or content in many ways. While repeating, we could add more ideas. As a result, Task 2 became easier to perform. [Moon, Pair 5]

In this sense, the process of paired writing requires social interaction in a collaborative learning classroom. For example, Pair 5 had some problems as shown in other pairs but they were active discussants. Despite frequent failure to achieve consensus, the children overcame their problems through discussion. This raised the question of how L2 teachers develop learners' interpersonal and social skills for successful paired writing. In addition, there was another issue about the level of personal preferences for a particular task.

> From the first stage, I enjoyed making a story, so it was really fun. At first, it was very difficult and demanding. However, everything became better in the second and third performances. [Kyoung, Pair 1]

Although personal preferences for a particular task type may not be directly related to a great amount of language output, it is important for L2 teachers to motivate L2 learners with regard to active classroom participation. Although Task 2 seemed to be more demanding than Task 1, it seems clear that both tasks required the children to collaborate to solve linguistic problems and extend their own language knowledge.

For the performance of Task 3, the Korean children were given a news article about the increasing number of Korean students going abroad to study English from an early age. When the children were given the opportunity to express their own views on the issue, they

seemed to be confused about working with an unfamiliar topic, which might have affected their comprehension and production (Ellis, 2003).

I had hardly talked about this topic with people at home or at school. [Ryl, Pair 3]

I think an opinion-expressing task was much more difficult than a story-creating task. At first, I couldn't understand what to do. Honestly speaking, I had little interest in the topic. [Kang, Pair 3]

As in the cases of Kang and Ryl, the children of this study might have had little interest in or opportunity to talk about the topic before the period of data collection although the topic had been discussed extensively as a major educational issue for a long time in Korea. In this regard, L2 teachers need to take into account familiarity or unfamiliarity with the topic when designing classroom tasks for their specific students. The following extracts raised another issue to consider when designing classroom tasks.

In particular, I felt that we need a lot of grammatical knowledge during the performance of Task 3. I can't say the reason, but I thought that we had to use a lot of grammar. It was a pity that I didn't know much about grammar. [Han, Pair 5]

I also thought that "'I need to use a lot of grammatical knowledge" during the performance of Task 3. [Moon, Pair 5]

Although Han and Moon provided no clear reasons for needing more grammatical knowledge in Task 3 than the other two tasks, interview responses indicated that most children had difficulties with the performance of Task 3.

Overall, the Korean children agreed that they had experienced some different degree of difficulty with three writing tasks in terms of a visual prompt in Task 1, topic choice in Task 2, and topic familiarity and grammatical knowledge in Task 3. Concerning the children's comparative views on Task 1 as the least challenging and Task 3 as the most

challenging, it is useful to understand the relationship between learners' perceptions and L2 writing (e.g., fluency, accuracy) when designing writing activities.

4.2.1.5 Boredom or Familiarity

As noted earlier, relatively few studies have been conducted on the written outcomes of EFL children in spite of a growing body of research on the role of task repetition in L2 learning. With regard to the benefits of task repetition which resulted from the quantitative data analysis presented in the previous section, Korean EFL children were asked about their experience of repeating the same tasks. In marked contrast to my intention, the children expressed their initial negative attitudes towards task repetition.

> In fact, I couldn't understand the reason why we had to write three times. "Isn't it enough to write once?" "Do we have to write three times?" However, it was great to see our progress after writing three times. [Joo, Pair 1]

This response represented the children's negative feelings towards re-doing the same tasks. According to my original intention that repetition is valuable and essential in any type of learning (Bygate, 2001b), it was not expected that the children would have negative attitudes at the beginning stages. In the three cycles, however, there were changes in response to task repetition.

> At first, I thought "It doesn't make sense at all" and "It seems to be enough to write once, but why do we have to repeat each task three times?" However, while repeating the same tasks, I came to realize, "We can do better next time in this way." When I saw other friends' writing, I thought, "Is this a better way?" So, I was happy to understand its purpose. [Kyoung, Pair 1]

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The interview response revealed two major benefits of task repetition, i.e., noticing progress and learning from others. With a more positive perception of the concept, task repetition can be understood to foster L2 learners to reflect on their achievement.

> I think 'repetition' means 'boring' but it means 'getting familiar with something' as well. As we were able to get familiar with the tasks, it became easier to do. [Sun, Pair 2]

This positive response suggests that task repetition can be considered as a way of learning through becoming familiar with the task. In contrast to a negative atmosphere in the first place, the children seemed to understand the potential benefits of task repetition as evidence of their progress over time.

> During the first performance of Task 3, there were many Korean words. We couldn't write many English words and we didn't know how to link each sentence. However, in the second performance, the number of Korean words decreased and we didn't need to use Korean words any more. Task 3 was most difficult, but it was rewarding. [Joo, Pair 1]

As Joo said, Korean words were found frequently in any type of task, in particular, when the children paid more attention to translating a news article into English directly during the performance of Task 3. As a result, they spent a considerable amount of time searching for equivalent words in English of the Korean ones rather than expressing their own opinions. When the children came back to Task 3, they tried to use more familiar words to carry out Task 3 although it was perceived as the most challenging task.

The first part of this section has presented the results of the qualitative analysis of pair interviews in order to explore the Korean EFL children's perspectives of their first collaborative writing experience. The children showed very positive responses to English writing as a learning process through collaborative interaction. In terms of peer interaction,

paired writing was regarded as a collaborative decision-making process. In addition, teacher-learner interaction also functioned positively as a way of learning through interactive dialogues. Three writing tasks were evaluated depending on the degree of challenges. Task 1 was recognised as least challenging whereas Task 3 was perceived as most challenging. In contrast to the initial negative attitudes towards task repetition, all the children showed a good understanding of the potential role of task repetition in L2 learning. As a whole, the interview results indicated that Korean EFL children benefited from collaborative writing as a way of practising their language knowledge and learning from the accumulating experience as a result of task repetition. The next part reports on my reflection on the process of research in terms of classroom observation.

4.2.2 Analysis of Classroom Observation

As mentioned earlier, relatively little research has been undertaken on the impact of collaborative writing on EFL children's task performance and output. Based on my prior learning and teaching experience of English writing and the results from the two pilot studies, a classroom action research project was conducted with a group of Korean EFL children to investigate effective ways of implementing collaborative writing lessons in the classroom and becoming a reflective researcher.

4.2.2.1 Learning from Classroom Experience

Since the widespread adaption of CLT in many Asian EFL classrooms, the primacy of spoken over written language in primary English education has undoubtedly dominated in

Korea (Kachru & Nelson, 2006, 2009; Shin, 2007). Regarding the contextual situations in which the children of this study had little or no prior experience of English writing, one of the primary concerns was their understanding the three collaborative writing tasks. Without being aware of the nature of the different writing tasks, the potential value of task repetition and collaboration in writing, it might have been challenging for the children to implement the tasks. Therefore, each session began with a 10 to 15 minute warm-up to introduce a new task or reflect on their previous performances. Along with the children's positive attitudes towards collaboration in writing, paired writing enabled me to interact with them and observe what was going on in the classroom as addressed in my field notes.

> It is a pity that writing wasn't and still isn't given any sufficient attention at any level of English education in Korea. According to my observation, writing practice can be a great tool for reflecting on students' learning as a way of noticing what they know and what they need to develop to express their ideas appropriately. Isn't it a simple but fundamental reason to learn the English language? [05/03/2008]

This belief supported the concept of Swain's (1985) Comprehensible Output Hypothesis claiming that L2 learners must be given plentiful opportunities for meaningful use of their linguistic resources in order to achieve communicative competence. According to classroom observation, the children seemed to have difficulties in expressing what they wanted to and struggled to make their output more comprehensible. This was understood in terms of the children being pushed to use their linguistic resources when they encountered communication failure in English writing. As the first attempt to carry out classroom action research by developing three different writing tasks and repeating the tasks three times, the present study was a process of learning from classroom interaction and observation in order to foster collaborative task-based learning in the Korean EFL classroom. In this respect, it is important to consider how the writing tasks were implemented in the classroom.

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4.2.2.2 The Nature of Writing Tasks

In the TBLT literature, the central role of L2 teachers is to work with tasks in order to guide their students towards L2 learning (Bygate et al., 2001; Van den Branden et al., 2006). It was therefore my responsibility to design appropriate levels of tasks for the Korean EFL children and provide them with the opportunity for the joint production. For the performance of Task 1, each pair was given a picture to describe in as much detail as possible. While going around the classroom, I heard two girls talking about the picture and later listened to the first part of their dialogue.

Excerpt 4.11 Opening Dialogue [P2: T1/1]		
1	Sun	What about talking about our house? 그냥 우리 집 이야기 하면 안되나?
2	Jin	House? No problem 집? 해도 되지.
3	Sun	About our family members and what they are doing 우리 집 가족 구성원이 누구 누구이고, 무엇을 하고 있는지
4	Jin	Then, we introduce our house 그러면 우리 집을 소개한다.
5	Sun	By the way, is this a living room? 근데, 여기가 거실이지?

These opening dialogues showed that the children succeeded in narrowing down the broad topic, from house to living room. This was regarded as a good start to the performance of Task 1, because the children had to search for information in the picture and make a decision about what to describe, e.g., family members, pets, and furniture in the living room. Although it seemed less difficult to work with Task 1 compared to the other two tasks, not every pair was able to engage in the performance of Task 1 immediately after the warm-up session.

> As a whole, girl pairs seemed to have no particular problems to understand about and work with Task 1, whereas boy pairs seemed to have difficulties in starting this task. Surprisingly, it took longer than I expected for them to begin to write. Therefore, I had to encourage them to start a sentence, not merely to display words. [18/02/2008]

In contrast to my thought that Pair 3 sat down at their desks and stared at a blank task sheet, for example, the children had struggled to get a few lines on the sheet but were repeatedly erasing and rewriting the same sentences. When I asked, "How do you describe something in a certain place in English?" they looked less confident. When I said "You may use it when you say 'here and there'", Kang answered without much confidence, "Is it *there*?" I could hear his partner, Ryl mumbling, "I know, too." In the subsequent performances, Pair 3 produced more lengthy texts by animating the characters in the picture (e.g., name, age, job) and using the first person singular pronoun, 'I/my' instead of the structural form, 'there is/are'. Therefore, the children seemed to understand how to perform Task 1 after the first performance. In this respect, L2 learners can utilize their prior experience when repeating the same task in different ways. What I learned through face-to-face interaction and direct observation in the classroom was that L2 teachers should not impose what their students have to produce but encourage them to use what they have already learned purposefully.

There was certainly a high degree of understanding of how to perform Task 1, whereas there was a wide gap between my intention and the children's interpretation of Tasks 2 and 3 (Breen, 1987; Kumaravadivelu, 1991; Murphy, 2003). For the performance of Task 2, for example, the children had to reflect on their different experiences of school events, share them with their partner, and choose a topic to expand into a new story. Despite the explicit purpose of Task 2, the children seemed to have difficulties in implementing the task. For

example, when Sun of Pair 2 said, "How can we write a story although we weren't in the same class last year and we went to a field trip to different places?" I had to make it clear to them and to the rest of the class, saying that "It doesn't matter at all. You can make a story with your different experiences." A few minutes later, her partner, Jin, asked again, "Does it mean that we didn't go there together, but we write as if we were there together?" Their questions seemed helpful for other children who were in a similar situation, because the atmosphere of the classroom changed and filled with talk among the children. However, there was an unexpected question raised by Kang when he asked me, "Teacher, can we make a story that's a little bit weird?" This was because Pair 3 focused on creating a story based not on actual school events but which came from their imagination. In other words, Pair 3 reinterpreted the original intention of Task 2. This made me think about 'unpredictability' while implementing tasks in the real teaching-learning context (Kumaravadivelu, 1991). It is therefore important for L2 teachers to create a flexible open environment, in particular, for children who are working with unfamiliar tasks.

When Task 3 was introduced with a news article about Korean children' going abroad to study English from an early age, the Korean children seemed to understand what Task 3 was about as recorded in my field notes below. From the verbal exchanges in the warm-up session, individual children revealed their own points of view on the issue. In the writing time, however, the children seemed to have difficulties in working with Task 3 as was also the case with Task 2. It was surprising to notice that the reading material was the major problem preventing the children from letting their ideas flow. In contrast to the original purpose for meaningful pair discussion on the topic, the children struggled to translate the news article written in Korean into English although direct translation was beyond their capabilities.

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Excerpt 4.12 Teacher – Class Dialogue	
T	What do you think the article is about? 그 기사가 무엇에 관한 것 같아요?
S1	Studying English. 영어 공부요.
S2	Going abroad to study English. 어학 연수요.
T	Going abroad to study English? 어학 연수요?
S3	Yes. We shouldn't be absent from school to go abroad. 맞아요, 학교 빼 먹고 가면 안돼요.
T	Other friends? 다른 친구들은요?
S4	Elementary students are too young. 초등학생은 아직 어려요.
S5	We haven't learned enough yet. 우리는 아직 덜 배웠잖아요.

[21/02/2008]

This might have led them to lose interest and disengage with the task compared to the other two tasks. For this reason, there was a pressing need to make clear the purpose of Task 3 as shown in the audio recorded extract below.

Listen, everyone! It is really difficult to express many Korean words in the article in English. If you have difficulty in expressing some Korean words in English, you can express them using other words. This means that you can use your own language if you don't know the exact words in English. Can you understand what I mean? You don't need to translate all the Korean words into English. [29/02/2008]

The performance of Task 3 resulted in two issues, i.e., the need for explicit instructions for a particular age group and the choice of reading material for writing tasks. As a whole, when the three writing tasks were implemented over the three week period, I became more concerned about the relationship between task type, task comprehension and performance, and language output. Concerning the practical issues, the question may be what skills and

knowledge are required of L2 teachers when designing a wide range of language learning tasks for their specific students. In addition, there was a need to explore the potential role of task repetition in L2 writing.

4.2.2.3 Learning from Prior Experience

From a pedagogical perspective, task repetition seemed to be helpful for these Korean EFL children who had little or no prior experience of English writing. More importantly, repeating the same tasks provided the children with the opportunity to become familiar with the task and the process of writing over time but it could also become problematic as shown in the following recording extract.

Excerpt 4.13 Pair Dialogue [P3: T2/1]		
162	Kang	*Dinosaurs attack*, *A-T-T* 다이노사우르스가 어택, *a-t-t*
163	Ryl	*A-T-T* and *E-E-C-K*? *a-t-t* 그리고 *e-e-c-k* 인가?
164	Kang	*E-C-K* *e-c-k*
165	Ryl	*Attack* 어택
166	Kang	Isn't it *A-C-K*? *a-c-k* 아닌가?
167	Ryl	Isn't it *E*? *e* 아닌가?
168	Kang	*Attack* 어택
169	Ryl	*E*? *e*?

		Excerpt 4.14 Pair Dialogue [P3: T2/2]
7	Kang	Dinosaurs *attack* 공룡이 *어택*
8	Ryl	Attack 공격하다
9	Kang	*A-T-T-E-C-K* a-t-t-e-c-k
10	Ryl	*A-T-T-E-C-K* a-t-t-e-c-k

As shown in Excerpt 4.13, the children focused on the correct spelling of a particular word, '어택' [attack]. However, they were confused about choosing the correct consonant between /a/ and /e/ for the target word. It was not clear that the children made a decision to use /e/ due to the interrogative tone of Ryl in line 169. In principle, the children were not allowed to ask me the spelling of words if they had not made the effort to use their linguistic resources. Therefore, I had no alternative but to wait until they came back to the same task again with much curiosity. In Excerpt 4.14, the children chorused 'a-t-t-e-c-k' confidently without noticing the wrong spelling. In contrast to the case of Pair 2 who succeeded in noticing and filling in the gap, the case of Pair 3 indicated that not every pair can notice a gap and fill in the gap despite being given the opportunity to repeat the same tasks. In other words, although task repetition can affect subsequent task performances (Bygate, 2001a, 2001b; Bygate & Samuda, 2005), it is important to say that not all L2 learners may automatically apply prior experience to the next performances.

> I expected that they might notice something wrong at this time, but they didn't. In contrast, they looked happy when chorusing the wrong spelling. Should I have done something when I could do? When? [27/02/2008]

This experience left me pondering the appropriate moment to intervene in the classroom. During the period of data collection, I listened to the pair dialogues of four pairs and

compared their audio recordings with their written outcomes to see what the children actually talked about and wrote. As a result, I had to encourage them in order to focus on the tasks using several alternative ways. For instance, a common linguistic problem was found across all the pairs when the children tried to recall a particular word, '야구 방망이' [baseball bat], but they did not succeed in combining the two words, 'baseball' and 'bat' to make a target word, 'baseball bat' in Task 1. Therefore, I encouraged the class to use their linguistic knowledge, not to transmit my knowledge directly.

Excerpt 4.15 Teacher – Class Interaction	
T	Do you know how to say a baseball bat in English? 야구 방망이를 영어로 뭐라고 하나요?
Ss	(…)
T	It means a bat [*animal] as well. It has two meanings. It is neither 'superman' nor 'spiderman' What's this? '박쥐'와 같은데, 뜻이 둘인데. '수퍼맨'도 아니고, '스파이더맨'도 아니고.
Ss	*Batman! Batman!* 배트맨! 배트맨! [26/02/2008]

Note: T = Teacher, Ss = Students

When the class chorused, 'batman', the children seemed to understand 'bat' [방망이] as the target word, but not the correct spelling. Regarding teacher-learner interaction to be as essential as peer interaction, L2 teachers need to develop various teaching strategies to promote classroom interaction in the context of collaborative writing.

4.2.2.4 The Challenges of Collaborative Writing

From a sociocultural perspective, the nature of learning has been described as a socially mediated process and therefore, group work has become central in the language classroom.

When paired writing as a form of group work was employed to explore the potential value of collaborative writing in the Korean EFL context, most children showed overall positive responses to collaborative writing in their follow-up interview sessions. However, not all the decision-making process was successful in spite of the reduction of uncertainty.

When going around the classroom, I heard Pair 1talking about whether they have to place 'a' or 'the' in front of a noun, 'future'. As shown in Excerpt 4.16, Kyoung provided a possible reason to choose 'a' in line 77. However, Pair 1 could not make an immediate decision on choosing the correct article according to the interrogative tone, '퓨쳐?' [future?] in line 82.

Excerpt 4.16 Pair Dialogue [P1: T3/1]		
74	Joo	In the future 미래에는
75	Kyoung	*A future* or *the future*? *어 퓨쳐야 더 퓨쳐야?*
76	Joo	In the future 미래에는
77	Kyoung	Do we have to use '*a*' because future is one? 미래는 하나 밖에 없으니깐 '*어*'라고 써야 하나?
78	Joo	Just *future*. It is strange? 그냥 *퓨쳐*. 이상한가?
79	Kyoung	Don't we need *a* or *the*? *어*나 *더*가 있어야 하지 않나?
80	Joo	Just *a* 그냥 *어*
81	Kyoung	*A future* 어 퓨쳐
82	Joo	*Future*? 퓨쳐?

As a teacher as well as a learner of English, it is confusing for me to explain the correct use of the definite or indefinite article, because the conception of the article does not exist in

Korean. In this view, the origin of the confusion seemed to stem not from collaborative work but from the absence of the concept in Korean.

> In many cases, it is really tricky to use either 'a' or 'the' in English writing. I still make many mistakes in terms of the use of the definite/indefinite article. What is the best way to overcome this problem? Memorizing? Practising? Then, how can we feel free from the confusion? [21/02/2008]

In spite of any potential confusion caused by working collaboratively, it is clear that paired writing was regarded as a learning process through sharing individual learners' linguistic resources. However, it was not feasible to have a sharing session at the end of each class due to various reasons (e.g., limited class time, children's lack of confidence). When the children's drafts were displayed on the board in the seventh session, they seemed to feel proud of themselves during the last week as clearly indicated in the following interview extract.

> In some cases, I couldn't understand well what the other pairs wrote about. However, it was good because I could reflect on our own work. Perhaps, other pairs had difficulties in understanding ours as well. [Sun, Pair 2]

As Sun said, the children here had the opportunity to reflect on their own written output or see others. With the classroom filled with so much excitement, I could feel how proud of themselves the novice writers were as described in my field notes:

> In fact, I was worried about the sharing session. It should be at the end of each lesson, but it couldn't, because of time, interest, confidence, etc. So, it was so great that the children could see their own and others' writing in the classroom. Although they became over-excited and the classroom was somewhat chaotic for a while, it was really worthwhile. [03/03/2008]

During this entire process of writing, the children seemed to understand the nature of writing. Sometimes, there was intense competition between members or between pairs to

show off their language knowledge. At other times, they helped each other by sharing their linguistic resources in the classroom. From the writing experience, each student appeared to develop their own definition of writing.

> At first, I thought it is best to fill in the empty sheets as much as possible. I thought it is good to write three or four sentences when others wrote two or three sentences. However, I thought it is meaningless if we make more spelling or grammatical mistakes than others. [Jin, Pair 2]

Although none of the children had much experience of English writing, they went through all the stages of working together while repeating the same tasks. Overall, the process of collaborative writing can be divided into three stages in accordance with the three cycles. When the three writing tasks were introduced, task performance was dependent on the level of understanding of the meaning of the assigned tasks. As the children became familiar with the tasks, there was more frequent interaction individually or collectively. In the last stage, the children were given an opportunity to see the written output of others and have their own output viewed.

4.3 Conclusion

This chapter has reported the results of quantitative and qualitative data analysis from Korean EFL children's written texts, pair dialogues, pair interviews and classroom observation in response to the four research questions addressed in Chapter 1. Although there has been a growing body of research on the use of tasks in L2 teaching, relatively few studies have been conducted on the written output of EFL children in order to examine the impact of task type and task repetition on task performance and outcomes. For this reason, a classroom action research project was designed and conducted with a group of Korean

EFL children. According to the results of quantitative analysis of written texts and pair dialogues, it was found that task type and task repetition did indeed have an effect on the children's language production as shown in Section 4.1. The results of qualitative analysis of the children's interviews and my classroom observation showed that there were pedagogical benefits to collaborative writing in L2 learning and that there is correspondingly a practical need to design collaborative task-based learning in the classroom as set out in Section 4.2. The following chapter deals with several theoretical and methodological issues based on the research findings presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter draws together the main research findings and presents the theoretical and methodological considerations in relation to four research questions. In two major sections, Section 5.1 is concerned with some pedagogical implications for designing a task-based collaborative writing classroom in the EFL context. This is followed in Section 5.2 by a critical reflection on my experiences of conducting classroom action research as a teacher and a research student. This chapter includes some new data which are not described in the previous chapter, because it is considered interesting and worthwhile to discuss in this chapter.

5.1 Designing a Task-Based Collaborative Learning Classroom

The first section of this chapter is divided into three parts. The first part deals with a trade-off between fluency and accuracy in written language output of Korean children and its pedagogical implications in the EFL classroom setting. The second part discusses the positive role of task repetition as a way of promoting productive knowledge of the target language, becoming familiar and confident with the task, and accumulating writing experience in the writing process. The third part discusses the value of collaborative writing as regards the development of interpersonal skills, learner empowerment and independent L2 writers.

5.1.1 The Effect of Different Tasks on Written Output

5.1.1.1 The Trade-off Effects in L2 Writing

As a major paradigm shift in ELT, communicative approaches aim to develop L2 learners' communicative competence. As shown in a growing body of empirical research on TBLT, collaborative learning tasks have been used to push L2 learners to stretch beyond their limited linguistic resources and to promote L2 learning (C. Lee, 2005). Since a whole range of task types may not be adequate for L2 children, it is the teacher's responsibility to select or design appropriate levels of tasks for their students in specific classroom contexts and provide them with sufficient opportunities to produce the target language. In addition, it has been reported that certain types of tasks result in learners' attention to different aspects of L2 production (Ellis, 1994). In a study of different planning conditions, for example, Foster and Skehan (1996) found that there are different fluency, accuracy, and complexity effects for three different types of tasks (i.e., personal, narrative, and decision-making). These trade-off effects in language production provide evidence suggesting that L2 learners focus on one aspect of the target language at the expense of the other because their capacity is unequal to attending to all three aspects of the target language (Skehan, 1998).

The results of the present study indicate that the writing tasks (e.g., picture-describing, story-creating, and opinion-expressing) were related to differing amounts of language output. For example, the results of the text analysis shows that Korean children tended to write more words, clauses, and words to total clauses as the improvement index for fluency when working with a picture-describing task, whereas they tended to produce more error-

free clauses and error-free clause to total clauses for accuracy, and lexical variety and lexical density for lexical complexity when working with an opinion-expressing task. In other words, the children tended to become more fluent writers during the performance of Task 1, whereas they produced more accurate and lexically complex texts during the performance of Task 3. The following table is a typical example to show the overall language output across three writing tasks.

Table 5.1 Written Language Output per Task [P2]						
	Fluency			Accuracy		Lexical complexity	
	W	C	W/C	EFC	EFC/C	LV	LD
T1	342	50	6.9	13	0.26	0.73	0.48
T2	260	48	5.4	9	0.19	0.73	0.37
T3	210	40	5.3	22	0.55	0.8	0.53

Note. The number of language output per task is the sum of the three repetitions per task.

As shown above, the total language production of Pair 2 showed that there were trade-offs between fluency, accuracy and lexical complexity. Since lexical complexity appeared relatively less affected by task types as compared with the other two features across all pairs including Pair 2, this study pays more attention to the apparent trade-off between fluency and accuracy. Regarding fluency- and accuracy-focused activities in the field of ELT, it has been said that the emergence of 'fluency-first' pedagogy in CLT (Brumfit, 1979) has led to a reduction in accuracy-focused teaching which has been consistently emphasised in many Asian EFL classrooms. Consequently, L2 teachers and researchers have reconsidered grammar teaching for the attainment of accuracy in contrast to the purely communicative approaches with their marked emphasis on fluency in CLT and TBLT. In this respect, there is a need to explore effective ways of fostering L2 learners' fluency and accuracy in the EFL classroom context.

5.1.2.2 The Use of Language Chunks for the Development of Fluency

It has been said that CLT has put stress on meaning over form and fluency over accuracy, although both are not contradictory but complementary. Concerning the trade-off between the twin teaching objectives of fluency and accuracy, it is true that teachers sometimes need to make it clear what is more important to them at any particular point (Nunan, 1989; Ur, 1999). For example, the use of 'prefabricated chunks' or 'lexical phrases' has been suggested as a useful approach that affects fluency development in L2 teaching and learning (Lewis, 1993, 2002; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). This is because a wide range of ready-made chunks of language can be stored and retrieved as one unit for fluent language production with minimum effort. In an early study of a Japanese child learning English, Hakuta (1976) suggested that prefabricated chunks are not isolated in learning a language but that L2 learners memorise the chunks and then later analyse the rule-forming process. According to Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992), when children ask the frequent question, 'who are you?' the three morphemes are perceived as a single unit, 'who-are-you?' In other words, they treat this chunk of language as an unsegmented unit. In this sense, it can be helpful for L2 learners to have automatic access to a number of prefabricated chunks of language stored in their memory with regard to fluent output (see Segalowitz, 2003, for automaticity and learning).

In the present study, it was found that a prefabricated chunk, 'there is/are' was used frequently when working with a picture-describing task. As shown in these examples, it was helpful for the children to use the prefabricated chunk to describe a particular item(s) in a certain place. Most of all, its use might have produced fluent texts in Task 1 compared with the other two tasks in terms of words and clauses.

Excerpt 5.1 The Use of 'There is/are'		
	P1	P4
T1/1	There is a 시계. [clock]	There are many books.
T1/2	There is a clock.	There are many books on the piano.
T1/3	There is a clock on the wall.	There are doll, all three books and vase flowers on the piano.

Along with the frequent use of a particular chunk, 'there is/are', other language chunks were found in Task 1, e.g., 'he/she is playing', 'years old', 'on/under the table' and so on. In particular, Lewis (1993) underlined that teachers pay more attention to larger sequences of language than individual words, because the larger units of language can be immediately serviceable in terms of fluent discourse. Since L2 teaching and learning usually takes place under great time constraints in EFL classrooms, "it is important to maximize language gains and make learning as efficient as possible" (Hinkel, 2004: 34). According to Schmitt and McCarthy (1997), it appears that highly fluent L2 speakers tend to have a repertoire of prefabricated and memorized chunks of language. In the same vein, it can be worthwhile that L2 teachers are interested in teaching certain frequent and prefabricated chunks as one of the most efficient ways of fostering fluency in L2 writing. More importantly, L2 teachers can manipulate writing tasks which encourage L2 learners to practise various language chunks to develop fluency and inevitably accuracy in L2 writing.

5.1.1.3 Formal Instruction for the Attainment of Accuracy

As was overviewed earlier, traditional language teaching methods in ELT have resulted in L2 learners' limited fluency, whereas communicative approaches have put relatively little emphasis on accuracy. In the similar vein, it has been argued that TBLT has paid little

attention to accuracy-focused activities in the classroom (e.g., error correction, feedback, grammar instruction, and so on). As shown in a number of empirical studies with regard to the roles of input and output, however, L2 teachers and researchers have reconsidered the effects of grammar instruction to produce specific linguistic features accurately, namely 'form-focused instruction' (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2001; Fotos & Nassaji, 2007). Although Long (1991) distinguished the traditional teaching approach, 'focus-on-formS' in which learners focus on individual linguistic items (e.g., verb or plural endings) and 'focus-on-form' in which an attention to form is embedded in meaning-focused activity, it has been said that "a focus on form and a focus on forms are equally effective" (Norris & Ortega, 2001: 203) in L2 teaching and learning. According to Ellis (2001: 2), form-focused instruction refers to "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form" including both focus-on-form and focus-on forms. Concerning the need for form-focused instruction in the teaching of L2 writing, Fotos and Hinkel (2007: 134) suggested two conditions as follows:

> 1) appropriate and accurate use of explicit and implicit instructed target forms should be take place in meaningful contexts so that learners can notice their use, and 2) learners should be given numerous opportunities to practise the target structures through written output, subsequent feedback and the requirement for revision.

What is important here is that L2 learners 'notice the gap' resulting from the mismatch between input and output. However, it may be challenging for L2 learners to develop accuracy in certain linguistic features without form-focused instruction even though meaning-based interaction facilitates L2 learning (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). This is clearly revealed in a study of French immersion programs in Canada as indicating that focus on meaningful interaction resulted in the development of overall communicative

fluency, but that there remained a notable linguistic gap with regard to grammatical accuracy (Swain, 1985). In a study of exploring task effects on two communication tasks, Swain and Lapkin (2001) reported that the dictogloss task enhanced accuracy in the learning of pronominal verbs in a Canadian French immersion context, while the jigsaw task produced a greater range of vocabulary and language-related episodes.

In the current study, Korean children tended to generate more accurate texts during the performance of Task 3 in terms of error-free clauses. More interestingly, it was distinctive that the children focused mostly on the past tense of verbs during the performance of Task 2 as shown in the following extracts.

Excerpt 5.2 Pair Dialogues [P3: T2/1]		
125	Ryl	*help* 헬프
126	Kang	*help*, *helped*, past tense 헬프, 헬프드, 과거형
127	Ryl	*H-E-L-P* h-e-l-p
128	Kang	*help* and *E-D* 헬프 그리고 *e-d* . . .
274	Kang	I can't remember the past form of '*run*' '런'의 과거형이 기억이 안 나
275	Ryl	Isn't it *R-U-N*? r-u-n 아닌가?
276	Kang	You're right, *R-U-N!* 맞다, *r-u-n!*
277	Ryl	*run, run, ran*? 런, 런, 렌?
278	Kang	I can't remember its past form, '*run*'. '런'의 과거형이, 기억이 안 나.

As can be seen in the dialogues, Pair 3 talked about the past tense of verbs in order to

perform Task 2 in which they were asked to create a story based on their past experience in schools. In the first part, the children had little difficulty in putting the regular verb, 'help' into the past tense by adding the suffix '-*ed*' to the end of the verb. In the second part, however, they could not succeed in putting the irregular verb, 'run' into the past form, in spite of Ryl's pronouncing its past form in line 277. However, these two episodes provided an example to indicate the need for explicit instruction as well as implicit exposure to the target form regarding the different verb formation rules depending on whether a verb is regular or irregular. Most of all, the children might have noticed the gap between what they could write and what they wanted to write, while struggling to solve the particular linguistic problem (Swain, 1995). In this respect, it can be the best way that L2 learners experiment with the target language and understand the form and function of a particular linguistic item during the process of language output. As Ellis (2003) noted, carefully designed tasks foster the development of various aspects of L2 production. It is therefore significant to keep in mind the advice that L2 teachers choose or develop a variety of language learning tasks that can promote their students' linguistic accuracy as an index of L2 development.

5.1.1.4 Developing Writing Tasks

What has been previously addressed is that L2 teachers and researchers have investigated different types of tasks which may affect both the quantity and quality of the language output of L2 learners (Wigglesworth, 2001). Therefore, it seems necessary to systematically try out a wide range of task types in order to discover which of them works for a particular group of learners in a specific learning context (Ellis, 2003). Since the literature on TBLT has offered different rationales for the use of tasks as well as different

criteria for the design of tasks, it would seem to be the teacher's responsibility to select adequate tasks for their students and give them clear instruction and support for their successful task performance (Samuda, 2001; Van den Branden et al., 2006; Willis, 1996). In other words, there are multidimensional aspects to designing task-based lessons including tasks as indicated by Van den Branden (2006: 230):

> Paradoxically, teachers who are concerned about the task in the task based syllabus being too 'difficult' for their students, may be unaware of the fact that they themselves raise the difficulty level of the tasks by imposing unnatural, or excessive, demands on their students' language output.

In this view, it is the teachers themselves who can get learners to generate negative or positive attitudes towards task-based learning. For example, the Korean children had the similar opinion that Task 1 was relatively less demanding than Tasks 2 and 3 as shown in the following response fragment:

> Task 1 was relatively easy compared to the other two tasks. Tasks 2 and 3, particularly, Task 3 was the most difficult because this type of task is not easy to carry out even in Korean. [Sun, Pair 2]

In terms of 'easy' and 'difficult' tasks (Brown & Yule, 1983), the easy task, Task 1, seemed to lead the children to write fluently, whereas they produced accurate texts when working with the difficult task, Task 3. What should be noted here is that L2 writing tasks need to provide learners with plentiful opportunities to produce the target language to convey their intended meaning as precisely as possible. More importantly, the design criteria for writing tasks aim to develop "an understanding of how language is used for communicative purpose" (Hyland, 2003: 112). This may be achieved when learners are involved in using the target language in the task-based collaborative learning classroom. Regarding collaborative learning tasks, Foster and Skehan (1996) suggested that language

production is affected more by an interactive/dialogic task than by a narrative/monologic task and it tends to become complex and accurate in interactive tasks at the expense of fluency (Skehan & Foster, 1997; Skehan, 2001). In this respect, there is a need to examine the potential benefits of designing collaborative writing tasks in the context of collaborative learning.

The first part of this section has discussed the apparent trade-off between fluency and accuracy and the pedagogical implications of this as regards the use of language chunks for the development of fluency, the need for form-focused instruction for the attainment of accuracy, and the design of collaborative writing tasks. The second part of this section discusses the positive role of task repetition as a way of promoting productive knowledge of the target language, becoming familiar and confident with the task, and accumulating writing experience in the writing process.

5.1.2 Recycling for Classroom Language Learning

5.1.2.1 The Influence of Productive Knowledge

As was shown earlier, a number of studies have reported the effects of task repetition with regard to L2 learners' cognitive, linguistic, social and emotional development (Bygate, 1996, 2001a; Gass et al., 1999; Lynch & Maclean, 2001; Pinter, 2005, 2007). In L2 teaching and learning, it has been suggested that L2 learners should be given ample opportunities to experiment with the target language and expand their knowledge of the language. Traditionally, language knowledge is divided into receptive knowledge

(listening and reading) and productive knowledge (speaking and writing). From a holistic and integrated teaching approach, a wide range of teaching and learning strategies and techniques have been used in the classroom to develop the four types of language knowledge as illustrated by the author below.

Receptive Knowledge

	Listening: What is the word sounded like?	Reading: What is the word looked like?	
Spoken Language			Written Language
	Speaking: How is the word pronounced?	Writing: How is the word spelled?	

Productive Knowledge

Figure 5.1 Four Types of Word Knowledge

For example, Nation (2005) categorized various aspects of word knowledge into three groups (i.e., form, meaning, and use). According to these four types of language knowledge, the first step towards knowing a new word is the process of matching meaning and form (e.g., how a word sounds or looks), which is consistent with the Comprehensible Input (Krashen, 1982). As mentioned, however, it has been argued that input is necessary but not sufficient alone for SLA. Regarding the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), it is therefore necessary that L2 learners use the word and develop its productive knowledge of speaking or writing as part of the process of L2 learning. As an act of producing language, L2 teachers and researchers have raised pedagogical and theoretical concerns about the ways of improving L2 learners' writing skills. In a recent study exploring the role of task repetition, Swain and Lapkin (2008) argued that L2 learners notice their own linguistic problems by reformulating or rewriting. In this regard, task repetition itself may not only facilitate written language output, but also have effects on

subsequent performance (Bygate, 2001b). When Korean children were involved in joint production and asked to repeat three writing tasks three times, task repetition might have provided the children with the opportunity to solve their linguistic problems over time as shown below:

Excerpt 5.3 The Increase of Productive Knowledge [P1: T2]	
T2/1	We meet singer. But we are not happy.
T2/2	meet a singer. But we are not happy.
T2/3	We met a singer. But we were not happy.

When comparing the language production of all three task performances, it seems clear that Pair 1 benefited from recycling Task 2 in which they made a new story based on their memory of school events. In contrast to the incorrect use of two verbs, 'meet' and 'are' in their first two performances, they used the correct past tense form of those verbs, 'met' and 'were' in their third performance. This result might be related to the fact that the preceding performance affects subsequent performance change, for example, "the first occasion is kept in the learners' memory store and can be reused on the second occasion, thereby freeing up some of the learners' capacity to pay attention to other aspect of the task" (Bygate, 2001a: Swain & Lapkin, 2008). As the result of previous experiences, L2 learners can understand the form and function of particular linguistic items, and moreover they expand productive knowledge of the target language. Thus, recycling the same task can be recognised as a learning process. Here is another example to show the increase of productive knowledge of writing.

Excerpt 5.4 The Increase of Proudctive Knowledge [P5: T3]	
T3/1	So we think go to another country when in middle school.
T3/2	We think go to another country when go to elementary school.
T3/3	When we have chance we want to go to another country.

Comparing Pair 1's focus on a particular form of verbs shown in Excerpt 5.3, Pair 5 paid more attention to making it clear what they intended when working with an opinion-expressing task. In other words, the process of repetition seemed to offer the children the possibility of accomplishing their original intent over time. This result indicates that it is difficult to develop productive knowledge of L2 writing on the basis of input alone (Swain, 1995; Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). More importantly, it is necessary that L2 learners engage in language learning activities to develop their communication skills. In reality, however, L2 children may have more difficulties in producing written language output than adults (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1983) and thus, it seems appropriate that L2 children are given the opportunity to repeat the task as a way of becoming familiar and confident with the task in the classroom.

5.1.2.2 Task Familiarity and Self-confidence

Although repetition has "the potential of eroding interest in a task, thereby making a task less meaningful to learners" (Ohta, 2001: 257) and "'repetitious' and 'repetitive' are hardly the most exciting adjectives to apply to a classroom task" (Lynch & Maclean, 2001: 159), repetition has been regarded as a useful strategy in L2 learning and teaching. More importantly, task repetition affects subsequent performance positively. This is supported by the results of interview analysis as suggesting that Korean children changed their attitudes towards task repetition from negative to positive.

> I think 'repetition' means 'boring'. However, it also means we are becoming more 'familiar' with something. As we became familiar with the three writing tasks, it became easier and easier. [Sun, Pair 2]

In this view, task repetition can be considered as the process of familiarity with the task (Bygate, 1996). Regarding familiarity of tasks, Skehan (1996) suggested that the increase of task familiarity can lead learners to focus on accuracy. In particular, Bygate and Samuda (2005) underlined that task repetition has a marked impact on the processes as well as the products of L2 learning. This is also supported by the general tendency towards overall increase of written language output when the Korean children repeated three writing tasks in a three-cycle procedure as presented in the following table:

Table 5.2 Written Language Output per Cycle [P5]						
	Fluency			Accuracy		Lexical complexity	
	W	C	W/C	EFC	EFC/C	LV	LD
C1	168	33	5.09	5	0.15	0.77	0.42
C2	212	38	5.58	3	0.08	0.72	0.47
C3	306	65	4.71	13	0.2	0.75	0.48

Note: The total number of language production per cycle is the sum of three tasks.

Pair 5 represents the overall increase of language output over the three developmental measures (i.e., fluency, accuracy and lexical complexity). This result indicates the fact that there was a positive relationship between task repetition and language production while the children were becoming familiar with the tasks as shown in Sun's interview response. At this point, it may be interesting to examine the case of Pair 3 which did not show the gradual increase of language output in Task 2 over time:

Table 5.3 Written Language Output of Task 2 [P3: T2]						
	Fluency			Accuracy		Lexical complexity	
	W	C	W/C	EFC	EFC/C	LV	LD
T2/1	37	10	3.7	0	0	0.67	0.47
T2/2	34	6	5.67	0	0	0.8	0.47
T2/3	114	27	4.22	9	0.3	0.78	0.6

According to the language production above, it is clear that Pair 3 benefited from repeating the story-creating task of Task 2. It might seem surprising that they showed a dramatic

increase of language output in the third performance compared to the first two performances. This is because the boys changed the topic of the story in the second performance and they had more interest in making an imaginary story instead of a real one based on school events. Regardless of being less familiar with the task due to the sudden change of topic, they produced more language, in particular, in word and error-free clause production in their third performance. In the follow-up interview, Pair 3 commented that they became more confident with great interest in Task 2. In this sense, it seems possible to claim that if L2 writers progress and gain more experience with the target language from a previous performance, they may move towards the next task with more self-confidence and, in turn, this may affect both the processes and products of task performance. Although it may be impossible to say that learners' self-confidence is the only cause of successful task completion, it seems that the Korean children, including Pair 3, succeeded in the tasks with self-confidence by recycling them. It is therefore important for L2 teachers to create a safe learning environment for their students as addressed by Verhelst (2006: 204):

> It is essential that the task-based interactional support is provided by the teacher in a way that does not threaten the child's fundamental feelings of safety, socio-emotional comfort and self–confidence.

In other words, L2 teachers should be aware of the practical classroom constraints (e.g., emotional, social, linguistic growth) in TBLT classroom, because teachers can gradually use language learning tasks in the classroom if their students are risk-takers in a secure learning context (C. Lee, 2005). Hence, if tasks are too challenging for learners, "learning effects may be minimal and self-confidence, as well as motivation, may decrease or collapse" (Van Gorp & Bogaert, 2006: 91). According to Dörnyei (2002), 'task motivation' has a powerful impact on L2 learning. Therefore, L2 learners feel more confident in performing the task when "task motivation is co-constructed, that is, shaped by the

dynamic interplay of the task participants' motivation" (Dörnyei, 2002: 144). What should be noted here is that L2 learning takes place through various forms of repetition and practice in the classroom and thus, L2 learners need to integrate their knowledge of the target language into the process of recycling and accumulating in a safe learning environment (Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Skehan, 1998).

5.1.2.3 Accumulated Experience in the Writing Process

Although task repetition is an effective classroom teaching and learning strategy, it is true that teachers are sometimes hesitant to ask their students to repeat a task they have already done. From a pedagogical perspective, however, task repetition has been indicated by much recent research and was also supported by the following response:

> I thought it would be boring to repeat what I had already done before. This time, however, I learned more words and came to understand well what I have to do. I learned a lot what I didn't know well. I came to understand, "Grammar can be used in this way". [Jin, Pair 2]

In this regard, it seems that task repetition provided the children with the opportunity to experiment with the target language and accumulate their knowledge (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Concerning language output as the processes and products of L2 learning (Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Swain, 2005), language output through repetition can become an efficient L2 teaching and learning strategy in L2 writing. As shown in a paradigm shift in L2 writing research and pedagogy, the process of writing has been taken into account as a reaction to an overemphasis on the final product (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Kroll, 1990, 2003). In the traditional product-based approach, L2 teachers usually provide model texts which demonstrate generic patterns or specific features of organization, and then ask their students to produce similar or parallel texts as the final products. This approach enables L2

writers to imitate various types of texts and learn the linguistic characteristics of the texts explicitly (Rivers, 1968). However, Silva (1990) argued that model texts can result in writers' mindless copies of a particular organizational style or an exercise in habit formation. In response to this traditional product-based writing, process-based writing has emerged thus shifting attention from the grammar and textual features to the communicative functions of language (Allen & Widdowson, 1979). This writing process is generally made up of four stages as illustrated by the author below.

Figure 5.2 Recursive Stages of the Writing Process

As each stage requires different demands and emphases, the writing process is not sequential and linear but rather flexible and recursive (Grave, 1983). It can be thus said that successful writers move back and forth between stages until they are satisfied with their final product. However, this approach can be problematic because the writing process may be endless and a good piece of writing is not produced in a linear fashion over a short period. In other words, L2 writers may struggle through endless, unnecessary drafts or cycles before they reach the final outcomes. Concerning this seemingly endless cycle of the writing process, the Korean children of this study repeated three writing tasks in a

three-cycle structure. From the children's perspective, repeating each task three times was regarded as process writing:

> In the first cycle, we focused on making an outline for each task. In the second cycle, we tried to expand the content of each task. In the third cycle, we focused on making the final drafts precise. I can't imagine that we submit our first drafts. [Sun, Pair 2]

Most children had very similar opinions regarding the three-cycle procedure as a way of going through the stages of the writing process and thus, they paid different degrees of attention to each cycle. Fundamentally, this study was concerned with the benefits of task repetition in the context of a process-based approach to L2 writing. During the process of writing, these Korean EFL children might be seen to have maximized the benefits of the writing process while repeating the tasks as the following comments demonstrates:

> I noticed progressive changes from the first to third texts! I expect much improvement in my writing next time! [Kang, Pair 3]

This part has discussed the benefits of task repetition as a way of developing productive knowledge of the target language, becoming familiar and confident with the task, and accumulating a wealth of writing experience in the writing process. The third part of this section deals with pedagogical issues of collaborative writing in the classroom in terms of interpersonal skills, learner empowerment, and becoming an independent writer.

5.1.3 Collaborative Writing for Learning

5.1.3.1 Collaborative Interpersonal and Social Skills

From a sociocultural perspective, it has been argued that learning occurs in social interaction as learners constantly negotiate meaning and construct knowledge (Vygotsky, 1978). In addition, learners are required to take a great deal of responsibility for their own learning as active participants in the learner-centred classroom. Therefore, learner participation has been taken into account when designing task-based lessons (Breen, 1987, 2001). From a pedagogical perspective, peer learning through social interaction encourages L2 learners to learn from and with each other in the context of a collaborative classroom. For this reason, much of the recent research on L2 writing has been concerned with the interpersonal and social aspects of writing as part of collaborative learning (Speck et al., 2008). This is because collaborative learning can take place through social interaction when L2 learners are involved in collaborative writing tasks in the classroom in contrast to competitive and individualistic learning. Despite the mutual benefits of 'collaborative peer learning' (Boud et al., 2001), there may be always the potential for L2 learners to encounter and solve a wide range of problems when working together.

> Which one is right? 'Two heads are better than one.' or 'Too many cooks spoil the broth.' Today, while I was going around the class, I heard two boys talking about the past tense form of a verb. When I went to Pair 3, Kang asked the past form of 'run' to his partner. When Ryl was hesitant for a while, Kang frowned slightly without saying a word. After a couple of seconds, Ryl shook his head and Kang suddenly yelled at him. I was so upset at the way Kang treated his partner. Fortunately, Kang apologized for his rudeness and said that he did not remember it, either. This seemed to make Ryl feel relaxed, because he finally said that it might be the same, run-run. Kang looked doubtful but soon nodded his head. [18/02/2008]

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As described, a conflict arose between the two boys because of a particular linguistic problem. To some extent, it was not surprising that disagreement or conflict between members of a pair was frequently observed while these Korean children were working in pairs over the three week period. Although a collaborative learning setting can become more efficient than individualistic and competitive learning contexts, it is essential for L2 learners to develop their interpersonal problem-solving skills to work together and ultimately, maximize their own and each other's learning (Johnson & Johnson, 2005; O'Donnell & King, 1999; Thousand et al., 1994). In particular, as Daiute (2000) noted, the process of collaborative writing seemed to bring about a new form of social organization in the classroom. In this view, the Korean children including Kang and Ryl were required to develop not only writing skills but also interpersonal skills during collaborative writing. In other words, collaborative writing means joint text construction, mutual support and joint problem-solving in a sociocultural approach (Lantolf, 2000; Tynjala et al., 2001).

In the following extract, Kang and Ryl of Pair 3 show a good example of mutual support. As shown by the fast rate of turn taking, the children appeared more interactive and mutually supportive in finding the alternative word of 'picnic', especially when compared to their previous tension observed in class. In other words, they seemed to focus more on the use of their linguistic resources than the lack of word knowledge. Most of all, the tones of their voices sounded much brighter and more cheerful as opposed to the higher pitched tone observed before. This does not mean that interpersonal skills are developed in a very short period without specific instruction and practice.

Excerpt 5.5 Pair Dialogue [P3: T2/1]		
183	Kang	Do you know how to spell *picnic*? 피크닉 쓸 줄 알아?
184	Ryl	*P-I-K*? *p-i-k*?
185	Kang	No 아니
186	Ryl	Isn't it '*k*'? 'k'가 아닌가?
187	Kang	*p-i-k* 피-크
188	Ryl	Then, *travel* 그러면, 트레블
189	Kang	*Travel*? *T-R-A-B-L* 트레블? *t-r-a-b-l*
190	Ryl	Then, *trip* 그러면 트립
191	Kang	*T-R-I-B*? *t-r-i-b*?
192	Ryl	No, *T-R-I-P* 아니, *t-r-i-p*

On the contrary, there is a need to teach interpersonal skills as Brown (2000) suggested.

Table 5.4 Two Types of Interpersonal Skills (Brown, 2000: 10)

Communication Skills	Relationship Skills
• Active listening and responding • Concreteness • Clarification • Constructive confrontation • Conflict resolution	• Respectfulness • Tolerance of differences and diversity • Acceptance • Constructive feedback

Regarding the two specific interpersonal skills, it is important that L2 learners should be explicitly taught interpersonal skills to foster collaborative interaction. For example, Kang and Ryl needed to be taught 'active listening and responding' communicative skills and 'respectfulness' relationship skills. According to Littlewood (1981), L2 learners need to develop interpersonal skills in managing the interaction (e.g., signalling, disagreement or

interrupting without offence). During a collaborative writing task, L2 learners can increase their interpersonal skills when they encounter problems. If learners develop their interpersonal skills during collaborative writing, it will be based on the following five principles of collaborative learning: positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction, individual accountability, small group social skills and group processing (D. Johnson & R. Johnson, 1987, 2005; R. Johnson & D. Johnson, 1994). In this respect, it is essential for L2 learners to take personal responsibility for their own learning as well as for their empowerment in the context of collaborative learning.

5.1.3.2 Empowering Learners

It has been claimed that a basic principle underlying all communicative approaches to language teaching is to empower L2 learners to use and understand the target language (Nunan, 1988). For this reason, L2 teachers are required to empower their students by offering rich opportunities for purposeful language use. For example, according to Macaro (1997), individual learners can be empowered during collaborative learning activities, which promote a high level of individual accountability as regards completing the task. Additionally, a number of empirical studies on collaborative writing have taken issue with the myth that, 'writing is a solitary art', because collaborative writing tasks promote L2 learners to become aware of what they know about the target language and "Collaborative language production tasks may therefore prompt learners to deepen their awareness of new linguistic rules" (Kuiken & Vedder, 2002: 170). In other words, peer collaborative learning through collaborative activities offers L2 learners a valuable opportunity to build a shared understanding of the target language. In particular, O'Sullivan and Thomas (2007: 93) underlined that collaborative writing is also helpful for young children:

- it enables children to pool their knowledge of writing and spelling and support each other;
- it allows them to observe each other's strategies;
- it helps them to articulate what they know and also to identify points that they are unsure of and need help with;
- it helps them to develop their sense of a reader, and to understand that their writing must be clear and comprehensible to an audience.

Despite the pedagogical benefits of collaborative writing in L2 teaching and learning, it is true that there has been relatively little research on the processes of collaborative writing by EFL children. The following extract from my field notes reveals how the concept of collaborative learning was understood through paired writing in the classroom:

> Sometimes writing together worked beyond my expectations. Other times, it didn't seem to work at all. These days, though, I think I have learned a lot about the nature of collaborative writing from my young participants. *Writing together, learning together.* It needs mutual understanding, responsibility, and patience. Too challenging? Very rewarding! [29/02/2008]

Most of all, one advantage of collaborative writing seemed to offer a workplace in which Korean children interacted and learned from and with each other. As shown in the positive research findings on collaborative writing (Storch 2002, 2005, 2007; Swain & Lapkin, 2008), it is clear that paired writing offered these Korean EFL children the opportunity to generate ideas together, share language resources, and produce greatly improved texts over time. Therefore, it seems to be worthwhile to understand what the children actually experienced during the process of paired writing as presented in the following interview responses:

> As Moon knew more about grammar than me, he usually let me know what I didn't know well. Everything seemed to go well but we often argued because of different opinions. [Han, Pair 5]

While I usually thought about new words, Han wrote what we said because he was good at handwriting. At first, we collaborated well but there were several problems. Anyway, we came to collaborate well again. I think it is great to write together. [Moon, Pair 5]

Although it was not surprising to listen to their problems during paired writing, Pair 5 seemed to understand each other. In the paired interview, for example, Moon was described as a knowledgeable partner in English grammar and Han was good at hand writing. In this respect, "Collaborative writing may be jolly and social, but it takes a long time and leads to disagreements" (Elbow, 2000: 373). Concerning the socio-emotional aspects of paired writing (e.g., anxiety, rudeness, indifference and so on), what is clear in this study is that joint production activities provided the children with the opportunity to understand and learn each other. As Han said, "he usually let me know what I didn't know well" and "it is great to write together". As L2 teachers are required to empower their students to become more active participants in the teaching and learning process, collaborative writing can play a significant role in helping L2 learners to become independent writers as a good model of learner empowerment in L2 learning.

5.1.3.3 A Framework for Independent Writers

There is a wealth of literature on what has been described as the three basic approaches to learning: individualistic, competitive, and collaborative. Although no one is superior or inferior to another, collaborative learning has been supported by interactive and participative learning in CLT and TBLT. Regarding collaborative learning, relatively few but nevertheless a growing body of empirical studies on collaborative writing has been

made because learners can benefit from paired writing in the form of three partnerships (Fisher, 1995: 95):

- Equal partners in terms of age and ability as response partners to share thinking work and problem-solving.
- Tutor partners, who are more able, such as older students or adults who can act as 'expert' helpers.
- Tutee partners who are less able and can be tutored in specific learning tasks, giving the child experience of being in the 'expert' tutoring mode.

According to the three forms of partnership in paired writing, the Korean children of this study can be labelled 'equal partners', because they were in the same grade and possessed a similar ability in terms of English writing under the current national curriculum. Regardless of age and prior learning experience of English, what is important to note here is that the children were given opportunities to learn with and from their partner in the context of collaborative writing. The practical advantages of paired writing were revealed in the following responses:

If I had had to work alone, I might have made more spelling and grammatical mistakes. And it must have been impossible to produce those final drafts which we have now. [Jin, Pair 2]

I think two members seem to be an ideal group size when writing together. Working with more group members may need a long decision-making process. [Soo, Pair 4]

From the responses, the children seemed to be satisfied with engaging in paired writing despite the fact that they had to go through the process of consensus to accomplish the task. As noted earlier, however, it might be seen as inevitable that the children would encounter social and emotional problems because they had little prior experience of paired writing in English. On the other hand, they might well have learned something meaningful from their

problem-solving experience during collaborative writing as shown in the following comment:

> It is true that I didn't know the right way to use what I had already learned. I think I can do better next time, if I will be given another opportunity later. [Joo, Pair 1]

As already mentioned in the previous chapter, most children showed confidence in their abilities if they were to be given the opportunity to perform similar tasks in the future. At this point, L2 teachers need to concern themselves with one practical question, "How can we help our students to become independent L2 writers?" As the nature of writing is a process of conscious practice (Carson, 2001), collaborative writing may be a useful teaching approach before L2 learners write on their own in the end. According to Carrasquillo et al. (2004), there are six general writing strategy lessons depending on different levels of support from the teacher as following:

```
Most Support → Teacher Writing → Shared Writing → Choral Writing
                                                        ↓
Least Suppot ← Independent Writing ← Paired Writing ← Guided Writing
```
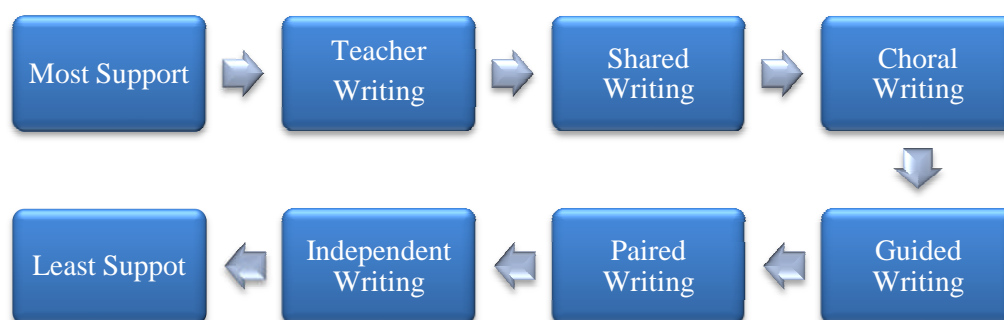
Figure 5.3 Writing Strategy Lessons (Carrasquillo et al., 2004)

As shown in the continuum of the 'most' and 'least' support from the teacher, writing lessons can be designed in terms of the degree of teacher intervention and the capabilities of the learners as summarised below:

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- The teacher demonstrates model texts and discusses his/her ideas as a writer in Teacher Writing;
- The teacher encourages the children to generate their ideas by asking questions and reflecting on text construction in Shared Writing;
- The teacher and individual children generate and record new ideas in turn after writing a text together in Choral Writing;
- Individual children write a text with the teacher's support in Guided Writing;
- Two children write a text together in Paired Writing; and
- Each child writes a text individually in Independent Writing.

In the paired writing of this study, Korean children were encouraged to learn a great deal from and with each other and moreover, they were encouraged to participate in collaborative writing tasks. However, the children had little or no particular training in how to write together before becoming a successful independent L2 writer. To facilitate writing development through peer interaction, the 'Paired Writing' method can be considered as a systematic way of providing opportunities for learners to interact with a partner (Topping, 1995). In particular, Topping and Ehly (1998) characterized 'peer tutoring' by specific role taking in paired writing, for example, one is the tutor who gives help, the Helper, whereas the other is the tutee who is being helped, the Writer. This view seems to be based on the principle that the tutors learn by teaching, as in the old cliché, 'to teach is to learn twice' and that the tutees learn by learning from the more knowledgeable tutor. In this view, paired writers teach and learn with and from each other through sharing ideas and language knowledge. Topping (1995: 98-99) developed a 'Paired Writing Flowchart' which contains a six-step structure to be followed by paired writers as presented in Figure 5.4. The paired writing system consists of six steps, i.e., idea generation, drafting, reading, editing, best copy and evaluation. This flowchart was initially designed to investigate the effect on the quality of writing and attitudes toward writing in primary school children (Topping, 1995). Therefore, pairs must be properly trained in the use of this structured procedure for

collaborative writing. As shown in the results of three action research projects (Topping et al., 2000), for example, the system was adapted for 11 year-old tutors working with 5-year-old emergent writers in the Nixon project, for 8 years-old children in the Sutherland project, and for 10 year-old children in a behaviourally difficult class in the Yarrow project. Although the published research literature on 'Paired Writing' method is relatively limited (Nixon & Topping, 2001; Sutherland & Topping, 1999; Yarrow & Topping, 2001), all the studies reported that pair interaction had a positive impact on the writing.

The flowchart should be adapted to different classroom contexts, but it can be one of many possible ways in which collaborative writing can be structured and mediated in the classroom setting. In this respect, it would be useful for L2 teachers to develop a framework for collaborative writing in order to avoid young L2 learners being involved in isolated and solitary writing activities at the beginning level. Developing a writing framework may take a role as a road map to inform L2 children as a way to initiate paired writing and ultimately, becoming independent L2 writers.

This part has discussed three practical issues relating to paired writing: the development of interpersonal skills, the way of empowering learners, and a framework for becoming independent L2 writers. The following second section of this chapter deals with a critical reflection on my experiences of doing classroom action research as a new teacher researcher.

PRR1 Paired Writing Flowchart

IDEAS

H asks Questions
W gives Answers
H makes one-word notes

W = Writer (tutee)

H = Helper (tutor)

QUESTIONS

Who ?
Do ?

What ?
To ?

With ?
Where ?
When ?

How ?
Why ?
☐ ?

WHAT NEXT?

Then?
And?
If?
But?

PRAISE

Step 2

DRAFT

Look at the notes
Start a rough draft
DON'T WORRY about spelling!

Writer chooses support stage and dictates sentences

STAGE 1	STAGE 2	STAGE 3	STAGE 4	STAGE 5
H writes it all W copies it all	H writes difficult words in for W	H writes difficult words in rough, W copies in	H says how to spell difficult words	W writes it all

H helps if W struggles on a word for more than 10 seconds, usually by going back a stage on that word.

KEEP GOING!

PRAISE

Step 3

READ

H reads draft out loud.
Make it sound good!

W reads draft out loud.
(H repeats words read wrong)

PRAISE

Step 4

EDIT

W looks at Draft
W marks where to improve:

1. MEANING

2. ORDER

3. SPELLING

4. PUNCTUATION

H does the same

PRAISE

W suggests changes
W + H discuss
Use Dictionary
W makes changes

Step 5

BEST COPY

Usually W copies 'best' version from edited draft,
but sometimes H may write or type it.

Step 6

EVALUATE

Probably best by another Pair
Use EDIT levels

PRAISE

Figure 5.4 A Paired Writing Flowchart (Topping, 1995: 98-99)

5.2 Considerations in Conducting Classroom Action Research

As previously stated, one of the major aims of the current study is to examine the process of action research in the classroom. For this reason, teacher research was considered as a way to reflect on my prior learning and teaching experience in the EFL context, develop my knowledge and skills in research methodologies, and improve my teaching practice in terms of personal and professional growth. The first part deals with methodological challenges in collecting and analyzing quantitative and qualitative data. This is followed in the second part by critical reflections on the process of classroom action research regarding the requirements of a classroom teacher becoming a reflective teacher researcher.

5.2.1 Challenges in Data Collection and Data Analysis

5.2.1.1 Active Interpreters

It has been said that teachers are often the only evaluators of students' writing in the classroom. As there is a gap between teaching and assessment in the writing classroom, however, they are required to understand various situations in the classroom as described by Hamp-Lyons (2003: 67):

> Many teachers feel that assessment is not their concern, that their job is to teach well, and that assessment is something to be taken care of by someone else. … But if teachers accept responsibility for the progress of the people they teach, and if they want to ensure that those they teach will be judged fairly (and all teachers do!), they must have some involvement with evaluation. … Teachers must know enough about assessment practices to be able to look at the assessment being brought into their programs, or being taken externally by their students, and evaluate them.

In this sense, classroom teachers tend to pay more attention to teaching techniques than assessment techniques resulting from the belief that experts are responsible for assessment. However, classroom teachers need to have a range of available skills and knowledge to evaluate learners and their products and monitor their progress. Most of all, teacher assessment can play a role in promoting teacher growth regarding assessment knowledge and skills. In the same vein, teacher researchers need to play the role of active interpreter in their classroom research. For example, teachers tend to be perceived not as producers but as consumers of knowledge. Keeping in mind, "Assessment is *every* teacher's job" (Hamp-Lyons, 2003: 67, original italics), classroom teachers need to be encouraged to collect and analyse data to examine the teaching and learning processes in their classrooms. In terms of three levels of action research (Calhoun, 1994), the present study was conducted as an individual research project. In other words, it was my responsibility to analyse and interpret the data collected in the specific classroom context. It is thus important to select appropriate measures and develop criteria for the analysis of the data to make this research rigorous and interpretable. However, it was challenging for me to decide measures and set down criteria for the quantitative data analysis (i.e., written texts and pair dialogues), because not all rules for young L1 learners or adult L2 learners would be suitable for the young L2 learners of the present study. As noted early, L2 writing researchers have focused more on university ESL students than school-aged EFL children (Matsuda & De Pew, 2002). To investigate the effects of task type and task repetition on task performance and outcomes, Korean children's written texts were analyzed in terms of three developmental features, i.e., fluency, accuracy and lexical complexity using seven sub-measures and pair dialogues were analyzed by counting frequencies of three types of LREs, i.e., form-focus, lexical-focus, and mechanical-focus. As overviewed in the previous chapter, L2 writing researchers have used a wide range of specific measures to quantify L2

learners' written language output (Ishikawa, 1995; Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998). Thus, it was my responsibility to decide on the specific measures and then develop criteria to analyze the quantitative data. For example, the number of words was counted to measure fluency and error-free clauses for accuracy. Therefore, it was required_to define what constitutes a word, a clause, and an error in the texts of these children. In addition, it was complicated to a greater or lesser degree categorize LREs into the three types, because each LRE dealt with one linguistic item in many cases, but one episode was embedded in another episode as presented below:

Excerpt 5.6 Pair Dialogue [P1: T1/2]		
46	Joo	*Baby dog*? 베이비 도그?
47	Kyoung	*Dog and* 도그 앤드
48	Joo	*Puppy*! 퍼피!
49	Kyoung	*Puppy*? 퍼피?
50	Joo	*P-U-Y-Y* *p-u-y-y*
51	Kyoung	*Puppy*, how to spell 'puppy'? 퍼피, '강아지' 어떻게 써?
52	Joo	*P-U-P-P-Y* *p-u-p-p-y*

According to the dialogues presented above, it was not difficult to identify that the original focus of Pair 1 was on a particular word, '강아지' [puppy] when working with a picture-describing task. In the first place, their dialogues between lines 46-50 were counted as one L-LRE. However, the dialogues between lines 46 and 52 could be divided into two LREs (i.e., one L-LRE and one M-LRE). In other words, their initial attention was changed from searching for a word, 'baby dog = puppy' to its spelling, 'P-U-P-P-Y' in a natural flow of conversation. To some extent, the process of quantitative data analysis was time-consuming but it was useful to see what they focused on and what they produced over time.

More importantly, dialogue analysis provided insightful information which was not revealed in text analysis in spite of the relatively small amount of data. It was interesting to see the gap between what the children said and what they actually wrote. As Wajnryb (1992) suggested, therefore, teacher researchers need to explore the features of an appropriate language task for learners, seek objective ways of measuring classroom tasks, and set up criteria in order to evaluate and design language learning tasks.

5.2.1.2 Interviewing Children

As Wallace (1998) noted, teacher researchers are required to have in-depth understanding of the principles of research and knowledge of different research techniques, a point echoed by Hitchcock and Hughes (1995: 4):

> There is an important relationship between teaching, teacher research and reflection … a knowledge and understanding of research and critical inquiry will help teachers to assess more effectively the quality and significance of evidence and claims about teaching and learning.

In this view, the qualitative interview was employed in order to obtain information with regard to Korean EFL children's perspectives of task performance and outcomes during the collaborative writing process. Although it has been said that interviewing may not be suitable for children who might feel either compelled to talk or reluctant to 'tell-it-as-it-is,' interviewing children is also a useful and credible way of collecting authentic accounts of their unique experience (Scott & Morrison, 2006). For this reason, the Korean children were informed in an orientation session that they would be invited to the follow-up interview sessions at the end of a three-week writing program. During the period of data collection, three issues emerged which need to be considered carefully for any future study.

Firstly, there was an atmosphere of over-concern about the interview and interview questions. All the Korean children continued asking about what they would be asked throughout the writing program. This is because they had little or no prior experience of being interviewed as recorded in my field notes:

> Every child asked me about the interview and interview questions again and again. I had already said that they would be asked about their learning experience. However, this was not enough to help them feel relaxed. Perhaps, it was because they had never been interviewed before. As they were worrying about it too much, I had to prepare a handout including an interview time slot, a room number and general interview questions. [21/02/2008]

Although their over-concern could be understood as pure curiosity or personal interest, it had not been anticipated in research design. Secondly, some of the children tended to have difficulties with the openness of the interview questions. Without prior interview experience, it was not surprising that the children could not feel confident in what they said. In a sense, interviewing the children was different and more complex than interviewing Korean teachers (Jong, 2006). It was necessary, therefore, to become more patient and make a greater effort to understand their difficulties in formulating and expressing their own ideas. It was also important to create a relaxed, safe atmosphere for the interview and to provide additional explanations when necessary. Sometimes, it seemed as if the interview session was becoming a teaching situation where questions were asked solely for the purpose of obtaining correct answers, a problem identified by Eder and Fingerson (2001: 184):

> In attempting to create a natural context for the interview, the researcher must also care to avoid creating situations that remind youth of classroom lessons based on "know-answer" questions.

In order to prevent the interview sessions from becoming a simple question-and–answer session, closer attention should have given to construct a more interactive interview mode.

Thirdly, another problem during the interview was the degree of involvement of the children. Paired interviews seemed likely to be less threatening than a one-to-one interview format as a way to reduce the adult researcher's power over the children. Therefore, it was considered to set up paired interviews rather than an individual interview context (Eder & Fingerson, 2003). Most of all, it seemed to be useful for the children to remember the processes of paired writing. As Fingerson (1999) noted, however, there was a child's tendency to change his or her opinions to be more congruent with a partner during the interview. This group-based behavior is strongly affected by peer influence or the 'peer power dynamic' (Eder & Fingerson, 2001). There was little clear evidence of this, but it is useful to inspect the following responses to the question of working in a large group:

> I think if there are more people, it will be very difficult, because we cannot gather different opinions. [Kyoung, Pair 1]

> I think it would be fine, but it may be difficult and challenging. [Joo, Pair 1]

In spite of negative responses towards working with members of a large group, Joo started with a positive response but changed it to a negative one, which was congruent with her partner's confirmative response. This can be interpreted as showing that Joo's original positive attitude seemed to be affected in order to go along with her partner's response. Here is another example relating to the question of comparing three task types:

> I found a few differences between the first and third drafts of Task 1, but there were large changes in Tasks 2 and 3. [Soo, Pair 4]

> I thought that task repetition had little impact on writing, but I could see some changes in Tasks 2 and 3 compared to Task 1. [Min, Pair 4]

As shown above, Soo offered overall positive comments on the changes, whereas Min offered a negative response and a somewhat vague response. As the children had to have

an active interaction during collaborative writing, they might have similar opinions on the questions. What was interesting here is that there was a tendency for the first respondent to be the child who was in charge of writing. According to my observation, the child who took the role of writer tended to be more proficient in the pair. This may provide some evidence in favor of the view that a more powerful or proficient child tends to influence his or her partner's responses (Fingerson, 1999). Although unexpected issues emerged in collecting and analysing interview data, it is clear that interviewing children is a way of obtaining their unique insights from their own points of view. Most of all, it was a valuable opportunity to listen to their learning experience which is seldom given to the researcher.

This part has discussed three challenges in data collection and analysis. In terms of the quantitative data analysis, it was challenging to select appropriate measures and develop specific criteria to quantify children's written and verbal output. In addition, qualitative interviews with the children were considered as a way of understanding their own points of view, but there were three concerns to be considered carefully: over-concern, the degree of involvement and peer influence. With respect to triangulation, it is important to use multiple methods even in a single research project to complement the strengths and weaknesses of different research methods. The second part of this section deals with four critical issues in relation to the process of becoming a reflective teacher.

5.2.2 A Reflective Teacher

5.2.2.1 Initiating Individual Action Research

As mentioned previously, teachers' professional development is regarded as a key feature to bring about change in educational research. In a critical review of educational research, Woods (1986: 1) noted:

> Teaching and educational research do not have a happy association. To many teachers much educational research appears irrelevant. They have little part in initiating and conducting the research. The issues selected for examination are not theirs. They are defined in ways that take little account of the day-to-day intricacies of the teacher's task, and are dressed up in methodological mystery and incomprehensible jargon.

For this reason, it has been indicated that the gulf between teachers and research may have resulted from the simple fact that much educational research has not been conducted for and/or by teachers. To bridge the gap between theory and practice, therefore, an increasing number of teachers have become engaged in action research. In reality, however, teacher researchers may encounter a number of methodological challenges and practical issues with regard to 'teacher-initiated research' (Mackey & Gass, 2005). For example, some teachers may not be willing to change their classroom practice or they may not be aware of the possibility that relatively small-scale classroom research projects can result in a major educational change or can make a valuable addition to research knowledge. In particular, collaborative action research projects have been encouraged as an effective tool for professional development (Burns, 1999, 2005). In the actual world, however, collaboration in research will face several ongoing challenges. For example, the priorities for research may reflect not the interests of classroom teachers but those of academic researchers, or

classroom teachers may not play an active role during the research process (Allwright et al., 1991). In terms of three approaches to action research, "A collaborative, group approach is not always possible for seeking teacher action researchers, even though it may be desirable" (Dadds, 1995: 176), and thus the power of individual teachers can effect significant changes in their classroom by initiating their own individual action research project as noted by Nunan (1992a: 18):

> While collaboration is highly desirable, I do not believe that it should be seen as a defining characteristic of action research. Many teachers who are interested in exploring process of teaching and learning in their own context are either unable, for practical reasons, or unwilling, for personal reasons, to do collaborative research.

With regard to the three essential elements of research: 1) a question, problem or hypothesis; 2) data; and 3) analysis and interpretation of data (Nunan, 1992a), the present individual research can be included as one form of 'teacher-initiated research' (Mackey & Gass, 2005). At a practical level, a teacher-initiated research project in the classroom presents unique challenges to the notion of 'teaching' and 'doing research' as shown in the reconstructed conversation below.

I	: Thank you very much for your consent. I was seriously concerned about research site.
Head teacher	: I already said that you don't need to worry about it at all. By the way, do you have any specific classroom to 'see'?
I	: As I said before, I will teach and do research together.
Head teacher	: You teach? Then, are you coming with someone else who is going to do research?

As seen in the telephone conversation, the head teacher was somewhat confused about 'doing research' and 'teaching' simultaneously, because action research is different from

traditional research where the researcher often sits in a chair of a classroom, records what is going on between the teacher and learners and then, leaves the room with observation notes. Despite the possibility that classroom teachers may lack appropriate training in collecting and interpreting data (Nunan, 1990), it is worthwhile to keep in mind an old cliché, 'A picture is worth a thousand words'. To some extent, it is true that if teachers are not involved in the research process, they may not gain experience in forming specific research questions, selecting the methods that best answer the questions, analysing data and drawing conclusions (S. McKay, 2006). Although rich research knowledge and skills were required to initiate the present individual action research project, it is expected that these skills would be more developed through constant cycles of research in the future. In principle, action research is 'contextual, small-scale and localized' (Burns, 1999), and thus its purpose is to identify and investigate problems within a specific situation. At this point, it was valuable to initiate the present small-scale individual action research project in a particular EFL classroom with the belief that reflecting on and evaluating my previous learning and teaching experience would bring about changes and improvement in my teaching practice. As a grassroots movement of teacher-initiated classroom research (McKernan, 1996), the present individual action research was undertaken as a path to professional empowerment in the field of ELT.

5.2.2.2 Empowering Individual Teachers

The ultimate goal of all professional development seems to be connected with the matter of self-development. In the same vein, a major concern of action research is to improve classroom practice through teachers' professional development. When teachers are reflective and critical of their own practice, it may foster their bringing their own questions

and collecting data as a means of practical decision making. This process is a way of teachers being increasingly empowered. The concept of 'teacher empowerment' is an important feature of action research (Mertler, 2006), and moreover it can lead to improvement in educational practice (Parsons & Brown, 2002). According to Bailey (2006: 76), empowering a teacher is "To empower someone is to provide that person with the knowledge and skills that give him or her certain amount of power in given circumstances. One can also empower oneself by garnering such knowledge and skills". In this view, teacher empowerment can be understood as a way of promoting teachers to bring their own unique experience, interest and knowledge into the classroom. It is thus necessary to reflect on their previous learning and teaching experience to implement creative teaching methods to meet the needs of students. In particular, it is said that teacher empowerment begins with reflective teachers who view themselves not merely as a consumer of someone else's knowledge but as a knowledge creator in their own right. In addition, Nunan and Lamb (1996) underlined that reflecting on one's teaching and developing knowledge and theories of teaching must be regarded as an essential component in the lifelong process of professional growth. For this reason, the first step was to reflect on my prior teaching experience to design and conduct a research project:

> I have tried to make my classroom well-organized and my students well-disciplined. Sometimes, one method worked well, but sometimes it did not work at all regardless of my great effort. These experiences led me to think about more dynamic approaches. For example, my students loved playing word games to show off their knowledge to friends but I did not enjoy it, because of classroom noise and confusion. However, when a speed word game was introduced, they liked it although they were busy filling five blanks with words as fast as possible. The game was helpful for them to remember a number of words they learned. Most of all, I did not need to care about classroom noise because they had little time to talk each other to win the game. They seemed to feel proud of themselves when they could fill all the blanks. It was also useful for me to monitor their learning path in a non-threatening way. Unfortunately, however, it did not become a part of my teaching repertoire.

This reflection is just one example of how I attempted to change my teaching practices in the trial-and-error reflective cycle. Without consistent interest and support, however, it was not possible to change or improve my teaching practice. For this reason, 'teacher empowerment' has become my personal agenda since starting my master and doctoral studies in the UK. As shown in a growing attention to teacher education and training, teacher empowerment has been considered as a significant agenda in a variety of ELT contexts. For example, it was a theme of the 2006 KOTESOL conference entitled as 'Advancing ELT: Empowering Teachers, Empowering Learners', when I presented with a title, 'EFL Writing in South Korea: Comparing Teachers' and Students' Perspectives' (Jong, 2006). Although action research has promoted teacher empowerment (Edge & Richards, 1993), there may be a range of situational variables that influence the extent to which teachers feel empowered, for example, "I don't know whether a researcher can research a certain goal and suddenly say, "Aha! I am empowered!"" (Bailey, 2006: 76). In this sense, the concept of teacher empowerment must be recognized in terms of on-going personal and professional development to investigate what is actually happening in the classroom. Most importantly, teacher researchers need research mentors to make their research projects more rigorous.

5.2.2.3 Critical Friends as Research Mentors

In a teacher-initiated classroom research project, teacher researchers need a mentor as a critical friend to make their research rigorous and systematic. As action research represents insider knowledge about a setting, this subjectivity sometimes makes it hard for the teachers to step back and take a careful look at the setting. A critical friend is described as "another insider who plays a devil's advocate role" (Anderson et al., 2007: 4). For this

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reason, teachers are encouraged to work with critical friends who provide them with emotional support as well as productive critique. According to Whitehead and McNiff (2006: 103), action research is divided into two processes: 'personal validation' and 'social validation'. For the personal validation, teacher researchers interpret and explain their own study. This self-evaluation relies on their internal processes of critical reflection to validate their beliefs. On the other hand, social validation takes the form of forums with critical friends who play dual roles. In regular meetings, critical friends offer supportive accounts as a friend and thoughtful responses as a critic. In particular, critical friends are essential to the success of collaborative action research in accordance with the positive social support from them as Schmuck and Perry (2006: 106) described.

- Positive social support alone does not facilitate learning, developing, or problem solving. Critical feedback about shortcomings must accompany positive social support, allowing the recipient to correct mistakes, reduce errors and improve his or her understandings.
- People accept and use criticism more enthusiastically when it comes from an emphatic peer rather than an impersonal source.
- Positive social support and constructive criticism facilitate learning when they are delivered within the social framework of an egalitarian and reciprocally helpful relationship.

Despite the advantages of positive social support in collaborative action research, it is difficult to gain access to other action researchers in real world situations as noted earlier. In an extensive survey examining Korean elementary teachers' perceptions of action research, for example, Yoon et al. (1999) reported that two thirds of the teachers had no experience with action research because of '3 lacks' (i.e., research ability, relevant materials, and time) and most research was conducted at individual level. With the belief that a critical friend should be a person at the same site where the research is undertaken, I offered several teachers the possibility of working together but they were reluctant for similar reasons to those reported above. In principle, however, there are no rigid rules

about who should or can be invited as a critical friend. For instance, it is not a major concern that a critical friend is one who may or may not work at the same site where the research is carried out. Salisbury et al. (2008: 134) described the role of a critical friend as follows:

> The role of the critical friend was that of facilitator, consultant, and research colleague. The critical friend did not direct the practitioner's action research projects, but responded to the needs of the practitioner-researcher for guidance in the selection and development of data collection techniques, data analysis strategies and procedures, and development of project report.

This description of critical friends supports the view that my doctoral supervisors are the best critical friends as both emotional supporters and objective critics. This is clearly revealed in the email extracts to show they made excellent critical friends.

> Thanks for getting in touch. It is great that you have finished the first week. Well done. The main thing you need to do is to take note of everything that has been happening especially those things that were surprising and/or problematic and let things emerge. Don't forget this is action research!!! I wish I could be more helpful!! If you want to write down your questions/problems, I am happy to give you more concrete advice. Don't worry. I have every confidence in you doing a good job. [27/02/2008, A supervisor]

> Thanks very much for copying me in on that. It's good to know that you're well and that your research is turning up some interesting challenges. I like the sound of those 'hidden stories' on the tape. That sounds very interesting to me and is a good example of the sort of unexpected things that research turns up. Good luck with the third week! [04/03/2008, K supervisor]

During the period of field work, what they offered me was appropriate suggestions and encouragement beyond understanding research situations. As McNiff and Whitehead (2005) emphasised, they provided me not only with constructive feedback, but also with sympathetic support for what I was doing. As truly excellent critical friends, their efforts in

relation to this study may result in my small contribution to the field of ELT when disseminating the results of this present research in a variety of ways.

5.2.2.4 Sharing and Communicating the Results

As an important stage, teacher researchers are encouraged to report their action research process and findings in a variety of settings, because classroom action research is "carried out by teachers, published by teachers, and disseminated from teacher to teacher for the enrichment of teachers" (Schmuck & Perry, 2006: 153). Although not all teachers may be interested in reporting and sharing their findings with others beyond their local research communities, an increasing number of teachers have published their work and/or presented it at local, regional, national or international conferences (Reason & Bradbury, 2001). In a sense, the disseminating session seems to provide teachers with the opportunity to gain additional insights into the research investigated. In a critical view of this final reporting stage, a division was observed by Clark et al. (1996: 200-201):

> In many ways, teachers involved in research – whether collaborative or other – may be equally disenfranchised from the writing and dissemination process. In the journals which carry prestige for researchers (and which they in turn read), teachers are often written about, but rarely do they write; at research conferences, they are discussed, for they are central to so much university research, but rarely are they invited to join the discussion. Teachers are the centrepiece for many books and articles describing their work, their culture, their professional development, and their worlds, but few teachers are listed as authors of or contributors to such selection. At times, they are simply remembered and thanked in a foreword or acknowledgement and then come up anecdotally, as evidence or data.

To some extent, it may be true that action research has been conducted as a collaborative endeavour between teachers and university researchers in order to bridge the traditional division between educational theory and professional practice (McNiff & Whitehead,

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2006). However, as pointed out above, teachers tend to be thanked for their cooperation, not as co-writers. Besides, there are several practical matters that teacher researchers will face at this final reporting stage. The research results can be shared with different types of audience in either a formal or an informal manner. For example, a short, individual dialogue with a colleague may be an informal setting to share research results. However, if new researchers want to disseminate their findings to a larger educational audience in more formal settings, they may feel the need for some guidance about ways to report their findings. There are several formal channels for teacher-researchers to share and reflect on their studies through local or professional conferences, academic journals, and electronic dissemination (Millis, 2003). In real situations, for example, new researchers may be too overwhelmed to present at national or international conferences beyond their local communities. When reflecting on my past presentations at several local and international conferences (e.g., KATE, KOTESOL, IATEFL, BAAL), it was a challenging but rewarding learning experience throughout my academic years in the UK. There was another personal challenge when reporting research findings in the form of an academic paper resulting from insufficient writing experience under the traditional grammar and translation method in the Korean EFL context. Nevertheless, it is worthwhile to keep in mind the words of Mertler (2006: 208):

> Formally writing up the results of action research projects is important because it promotes further clarification of various aspects of the study, can provide you with valuable feedback, tends to further empower teachers to improve their practice, and can provide a greater sense of accomplishment.

In addition to the general reports, it is important to consider that writing an action research thesis can become "an art of learning and is itself an action research project" (Coghlan and

Brannick, 2005: 133), because this reportage will be a way of improving my teaching practice in the classroom.

As addressed earlier, however, not all research findings would be sufficient for or applicable to a particular classroom setting, because the research questions came from my own personal concerns. Most of all, there was a practical need to implement classroom action research as Richards and Farrell (2005: 2) stated.

> The pressure for teachers to update their knowledge in areas such as curriculum trends, second language acquisition research, composition theory and practice, technology, or assessment is intense, and it is the school and the classroom that provide a major source for further professional development.

In this view, conducting research in the classroom provided me with a new experience, because the classroom was usually considered as a venue only for learning and teaching, not for carrying out an individual research project. Nevertheless, the results of my small-scale study provided valuable insights into the benefits of collaborative writing even though inexperienced young writers were involved in the writing program for the first time. Hence, the present study was a first step toward exploring the teaching of writing which has been largely ignored in the Korean EFL classrooms.

5.3 Conclusion

On the basis of the research findings presented in Chapter 4, this chapter has discussed several theoretical and methodological considerations with regard to task-based collaborative writing practices in the classroom. Section 5.1 dealt with some pedagogical implications when designing task-based collaborative writing sessions in the EFL

classroom setting. In the three parts of this section, the apparent trade-off between fluency and accuracy in L2 writing and its pedagogical implications were addressed in the first part. The positive role of task repetition was considered as a way of promoting productive knowledge of L2 writing, becoming familiar and confident with the given tasks, and accumulating a wealth of writing experience in the writing process in the second part. The value of collaborative writing was regarded as a way of strengthening interpersonal skills in paired writing, empowering L2 learners for purposeful language users, and developing a framework for independent L2 writers in the third part. This was followed by critical reflections on the process of classroom action research. The first part of Section 5.2 was concerned with methodological challenges when collecting and analyzing quantitative and qualitative data. In the second part, relevant issues in classroom action research of the study were discussed with regard to individual action research, teacher empowerment through classroom research, the need for research mentors, and the dissemination of research findings for valuable feedback. This is all a learning process in order to become a reflective teacher in terms of ongoing personal and professional development in the field of ELT. The final chapter of this thesis summarises the main findings of the study, the key contributions and limitations of the research, and makes suggestions for future research with a few closing remarks.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION

6.0 Introduction

This final chapter is a summary of the thesis and draws conclusions on the main findings of the study. It consists of five sections. Section 6.1 presents a chapter-by-chapter overview of the thesis and Section 6.2 restates the major findings of the study in response to the four research questions. This is followed by the contributions and limitations of this research in Sections 6.3 and 6.4 subsequently. This chapter concludes with some suggestions for future research in Section 6.5.

6.1 Summary of the Thesis

Chapter 1 is the introductory chapter which described the research motivation in Section 1.1 and gave an overview of primary English education in Korea in Section 1.2. This was followed by the theoretical and methodological background to the study in Sections 1.3 and 1.4. Following this, research aims and objectives were introduced with four specific research questions in Section 1.5. This chapter ended with an outline of this thesis in Section 1.6.

Chapter 2 is the literature chapter which presented a comprehensive review of the relevant literature with particular regard to the great deal of attention being paid to the development of L2 learners' written communication skills. This chapter was divided into two major sections. Section 2.1 provided an overview of communicative and task-based language

teaching in East Asian EFL contexts. This was followed in Section 2.2 by an introduction to collaborative written output in terms of the pedagogical role of collaboration in L2 learning, Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis with its three functions of output, and the need for teaching L2 writing.

Chapter 3 is the methodology chapter which detailed the ways of approaching and implementing the present empirical study. This chapter consisted of three sections. Regarding the purposes of educational research, Section 3.1 presented the contrasting features of quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method approaches to educational research, the rationale for classroom action research and a description of a small-scale classroom action research undertaken in the present study. This was followed by an introduction of quantitative data and analysis in Section 3.2 and qualitative data and analysis in Section 3.3.

Chapter 4 is the summary chapter which contained the results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis as regards the four research questions. This chapter was divided into two major sections. Section 4.1 reported the results of the quantitative analysis of the children's written texts and pair dialogues in order to examine the effects of task type and task repetition on task performance and outcomes. Following this quantitative data analysis, Section 4.2 presented the results of the qualitative data analysis of follow-up interviews to examine the children's perspectives on their first collaborative writing experience and my classroom observation and reflections on the entire research process.

Chapter 5 is the discussion chapter which comprised several theoretical and methodological considerations based on the research findings presented in the previous chapter vis-à-vis the four research questions. Section 5.1 dealt with some pedagogical

implications when designing task-based collaborative writing sessions in the EFL classroom setting. Following this, Section 5.2 discussed several considerations relating to conducting classroom action research based on critical reflections on the process of data collection and analysis in the classroom.

Chapter 6 is the concluding chapter of the thesis which contained a brief summary of the study in Section 6.1 and the major research findings in Section 6.2. This is followed by the contribution findings in Section 6.3 and the limitations of the research in Section 6.4. This chapter concludes with suggestions for future research in Section 6.5

6.2 Research Findings

This section summarizes the main research findings of the thesis on the basis of the results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis. Concerning the three research aims, the present study investigated effective ways of designing task-based collaborative writing sessions in the Korean EFL classroom from a sociocultural perspective, explored the role of collaborative writing in L2 learning from a pedagogical perspective, and initiated classroom action research to improve classroom practice from a methodological perspective. As a result, this study examined the effects of task type and task repetition on the task performance and language outcomes of Korean EFL children, the potential benefits of collaborative writing, and the benefits and challenges of conducting classroom action research as a teacher as well as a research student. With regard to these research objectives, four specific questions were formulated and answered by the quantitative and qualitative data analysis.

6.2.1 Research Question 1: *Regarding the relationship between task type and L2 writing, whether and to what extent does task type affect the task performance and outcomes of Korean EFL children's writing?*

The results of the quantitative text analysis in terms of three dimensions of L2 writing showed that the Korean EFL children of this study became most fluent on Task 1, whereas they became more accurate and lexically complex on Task 3. It can be therefore said that there was a strong indication of a relationship between task type and written language output. The results of the quantitative dialogue analysis in terms of three types of LREs showed that there was a relatively large F-LRE and L-LRE production in Task 1 and a relatively large M-LRE production in Task 2. However, it is difficult to claim that there was a strong relationship between task type and pair dialogue because of the small sample size. From a methodological perspective, therefore, pair dialogues needed to be dealt with as supplementary data to show what aspects of language the children focused on most during collaborative writing.

6.2.2 Research Question 2: *Regarding the relationship between task repetition and L2 writing, whether and to what extent does task repetition affect the task performance and outcomes of Korean EFL children's writing?*

On the basis of the results of the quantitative text analysis, the Korean children became more fluent and accurate over three cycles, whereas there were no clear-cut differences in lexical complexity. Therefore, it can be said that there was a strong relationship between task repetition and fluent and accurate L2 writing. From the production of LREs in the quantitative dialogue analysis, there was no clear evidence to support the relationship

between task repetition and pair dialogue. However, it is clear that the analysis of pair dialogues provided insightful information which could not be identified in either text analysis or classroom observation.

6.2.3 Research Question 3: *How do the Korean children feel about collaborative writing in the classroom when repeating the same writing tasks?*

The results of the qualitative interview analysis revealed that the Korean children considered English writing as a language learning tool and paired writing was recognised as a way of following the collaborative decision making process. Teacher-learner interaction was viewed as an opportunity to learn through interactive dialogues. The children graded three writing tasks according to the levels of task challenge resulting in Task 1 as least challenging and Task 3 as most challenging among the three writing tasks. In contrast to the initial negative attitudes towards task repetition, all the children became very positive during the process of knowledge accumulation by repetition of the same tasks.

6.2.4 Research Question 4: *What are the benefits and challenges in conducting classroom action research in order to investigate effective ways of designing collaborative task-based writing sessions in the classroom?*

As a task designer as well as a teacher researcher, classroom action research provided me with the opportunity to reflect on my previous learning and teaching experience of English and writing and develop research knowledge and skills in order to generate research questions and carry out research in the classroom. As a learning tool to understand what is

going on in the classroom, the implementation of classroom observation was a way of identifying the need for active interaction, the pedagogical value of collaborative writing, the distance between task intention and task performance, and the pedagogical benefits of task repetition in L2 writing. These research findings through classroom observation may be helpful when designing collaborative task-based writing activities.

6.3 Research Contributions

The primary focus of this study was the investigation of both what a group of Korean EFL children actually achieve when repeating the same writing tasks in pairs and what the benefits and challenges of conducting classroom action research are in order to create a collaborative writing classroom. This section summarizes the six contributions of this study with regard to the relevant theoretical and methodological implementation.

1. According to a recent comprehensive review of L2 writing (Silva & Brice, 2004), the scope of theoretical discussions, empirical research and pedagogical recommendations for L2 writing has expanded dramatically as regards university-level ESL writers. In contrast, EFL writing has been less prominent in theoretical and pedagogical discussion. As it is noted that "L2 writing as a field is heavily ESL-oriented" (Ortega, 2004: 3), the processes and products of the Korean EFL children's writing may provide useful knowledge for classroom teachers and researchers.

2. In spite of the abundant research on the relationship between task type and the oral output of university ESL students (Bygate et al., 2001; Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Samuda & Bygate, 2008), relatively few studies have been conducted to examine the

effects of task type on the written output of EFL children. The present study examined the effects of three types of writing tasks on the performance and outcomes of Korean EFL children's writing. As shown in Chapter 4, the results of the quantitative data analysis showed the relationship between task type and L2 writing in terms of fluency, accuracy, and lexical complexity. This may be informative for L2 teachers who want to design language learning tasks for a particular group of students in a specific classroom setting.

3. In contrast to a number of studies on the benefits of task repetition in L2 learning (Bygate, 1996, 2001), there have been few empirical studies which examined the effects of task repetition on the written output of EFL children. On the basis of the results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis presented in Chapter 4, there is evidence to show that the Korean EFL children benefited from repeating the same tasks in terms of peer learning, self-confidence, accumulated writing experience. This may provide concrete evidence to support the role of task repetition in the EFL writing classrooms.

4. As these Korean children might be uncomfortable in a one-to-one interview format, pair interviews were conducted as a form of group interviews in this study. It can be said that pair interviews were helpful and effective because of the peer support they provided when the children had to recall their writing experiences. Since the members of each pair shared memories and experiences, it was feasible for the children to explain their opinions in a cooperative interview mode.

5. With regard to the prevailing use of group work in the CLT classroom, the pedagogical value of collaborative writing has been underexplored in terms of learner output in L2 learning (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). In addition, most of the research has been chiefly concerned with the collaborative writing of young native speakers or ESL adult learners. The present study was an empirical study to investigate the role of collaborative writing for EFL children and claim the pedagogical value of working together.

6. The process of self-reflection on the entire research process and results may provide information to bridge the gap between theoretical interpretation and the practical implementation of action research in the classroom. In particular, the features of the present study will be useful for L2 teachers and researchers to compare the two camps as summarised in the following diagram.

Young learners, EFL, Classroom, Writing, A short-term period, Inside researcher

Adult learners, ESL, Laboratory, Speaking, A long-term period, Outside researcher
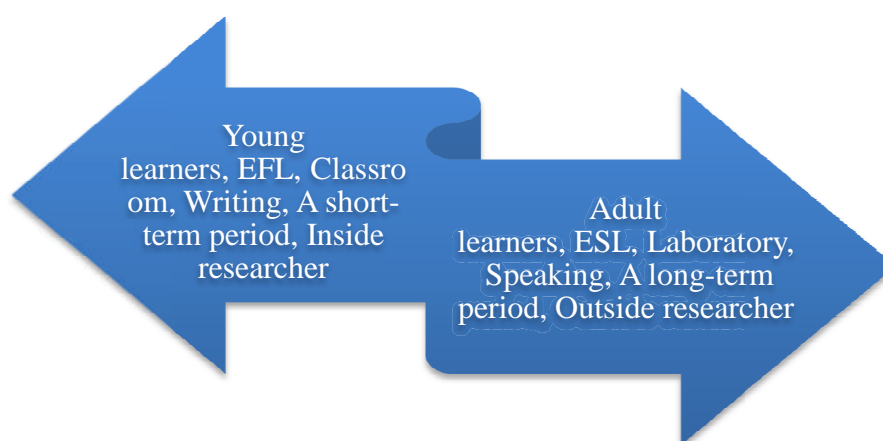
Figure 6.1 Key Components of the Study

6.4 Research Limitations

As with any research project, there were certain limitations in the current study. Therefore, there needs to be some acknowledgement of the limitations of the research which may play a role as a step towards in-depth understanding of the role of both collaborative writing and classroom action research in L2 learning and teaching.

1. The small sample size and the specific age group in a particular learning context may be a limitation in generalizing the findings. The findings from a study with a larger sample may well differ from the findings of this study. In addition, the results of the study were derived from research conducted with Korean sixth grade primary school children who had learned English as a foreign language. Therefore, the results of this study may differ from those of young learners learning English as a first or second language or adult learners learning English as a foreign or second language.

2. The constraints of time may limit the generalizability of the findings. Only four weeks were available for data collection, because scant attention has been paid to teaching English writing in the Korean EFL classrooms regardless of teaching levels. Although the analysis of the written and verbal data revealed that these Korean EFL children were given the opportunity to produce the target language and understand how the language works, language output over a short period may not have a long term effect on the language development of the primary school children in the Korean EFL context. A longer period of data collection seems to reduce the inevitable limitations caused by these time constraints.

3. The present study examined only two task variables (i.e., task type and task repetition) on the Korean EFL children's writing. The present study did not attempt to scrutinize the effects of other types of task variables on the results of task performance and language production (e.g., emotional or cognitive factors in L2 writing).

4. The Korean children repeated three writing tasks three times (i.e., a picture-describing task, a story-creating task, and an opinion-expressing task). This study did not examine whether task repetition had an effect on language output in the case of a different task of the same type. There may be a related effect as regard a similar task and thus there is a need to explore whether the effects of task repetition transfers to new tasks.

5. There were many practical considerations relating to conducting good interviews with children. One of the considerations was the influence of peer effect on pair interview. The Korean children in each pair tried to be somewhat congruent in terms of the positive or negative responses of their partners. Another consideration was the way of dealing with children who partially replied to the questions or children who considered the interview session to be a simple question and answer session. When interviewing children, therefore, the teacher researcher should make it clear that there are no right or wrong answers and most of all they should make every effort to establish good rapport with each child.

6. One of the major challenges in carrying out classroom action research was to achieve a balance between interacting with the children in the classes as a teacher and observing what was going on in the classroom as a researcher. In addition, my role as a special teacher for a three-week writing program, not as a full time teacher may have provided

only limited information taken from the dynamic classroom. As the present individual action research was conducted over a short period for ongoing personal and professional development, research skills and techniques are required to be developed for the continuous cycles.

7. In the current study, Korean children's written outcomes were quantified in terms of the three dimensions of L2 writing with seven sub-measures. Therefore, quantitative text analysis paid less attention to the textual features which may have contained significant information about the main distinctive features of the Korean children's writing.

As a whole, the results were limited to a particular sample in Korea and therefore, the findings of this empirical study may be too restricted to generalise. However, it is believed that each limitation may make an original contribution to the area of teaching English to young learners. The following section provides some suggestions for the future.

6.5 Suggestions for Future Study

This thesis has reported on the results and findings of a short and small-scale study in a specific classroom context. As described above, there are certain parts of this research that require further study. I would like to close this thesis by making the following three suggestions for potentially improving young language learners' written communication skills.

1. *Writing is a communicative act*: One major purpose for L2 learning is to be able to communicate with people using the target language. As a productive language skill,

writing has become a powerful and essential communication tool in the internet-based worldwide community (Crystal, 2003). In particular, there has been a strong need to explore the learning process of young learners in accordance with the dramatically expanding numbers in the field of ELT (Graddol, 2006). Therefore, L2 teachers are required to develop classroom teaching strategies and learning activities which are appropriate and feasible for their students. Although only three types of writing tasks were repeated by the small number of the children, this study identified the impacts of task type and task repetition on the children's written language production. It should be thus explored whether the effects of task repetition transfer to new types of writing tasks. This further study should also examine a large number of students who belong to different age groups in a variety of different contexts over a longer period of time in order to develop their written communication skills.

2. *Writing is a social act*: Although the nature of writing has been perceived and practised as an isolated and solitary activity, writing also becomes a social activity in an interactive classroom context. In addition, it has been recognised that there is considerable value to peer learning through collaborative group work, because learning should become an interactive process between the learners. In terms of L2 writing, collaborative writing has been recently investigated in order to provide students with the opportunity to use the target language purposefully. The Korean children performed writing tasks with a self-selected partner over the three week period. Through the paired writing, the children shared their ideas and language resources with their partners and built on their knowledge of English. The pedagogical implications of collaborative writing when individuals in groups work with different partners should be further explored.

3. *Becoming a reflective teacher*: Keeping in mind that 'good teachers are always good learners,' I ask myself the following question, 'What have I learned over the entire period of the study?' As my main interests were writing activity design and teacher development, it was clearly necessary to develop suitable classroom writing tasks for the students to be provided with the opportunity to use the target language. Therefore, it was important to create a safe, collaborative learning environment. In addition, the entire research process seemed to be a long training session which required reflection on my prior learning experience, making new plans, and constantly critiquing the outcomes. This research project provided new theoretical and methodological pointers for the teaching and learning process as Murdoch and Wilson (2008: 6) stated:

> We need to take time to nurture our own learning journey as professionals. No book, programme, curriculum document or education 'guru' can do this for us. Ultimately, the quality of our learning journey depends on the extent to which we bring a reflective and open attitude to all we do – a preparedness to question, take risks, try out new ideas and listen to our students.

It may be challenging for classroom teachers to become a reflective teacher who is required to equip with research knowledge and skills. However, being willing to change and develop what I have done may be a necessity in order to cope with the rapid and continuous changes in the field of English education. This may only be possible when the classroom is studied and the students are looked closely at.

As the parting remark of this thesis, I would like to say that this first long journey was a worthwhile personal learning experience and that is also a continuing process. I am still on the road to explore new paths.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: School System of South Korea
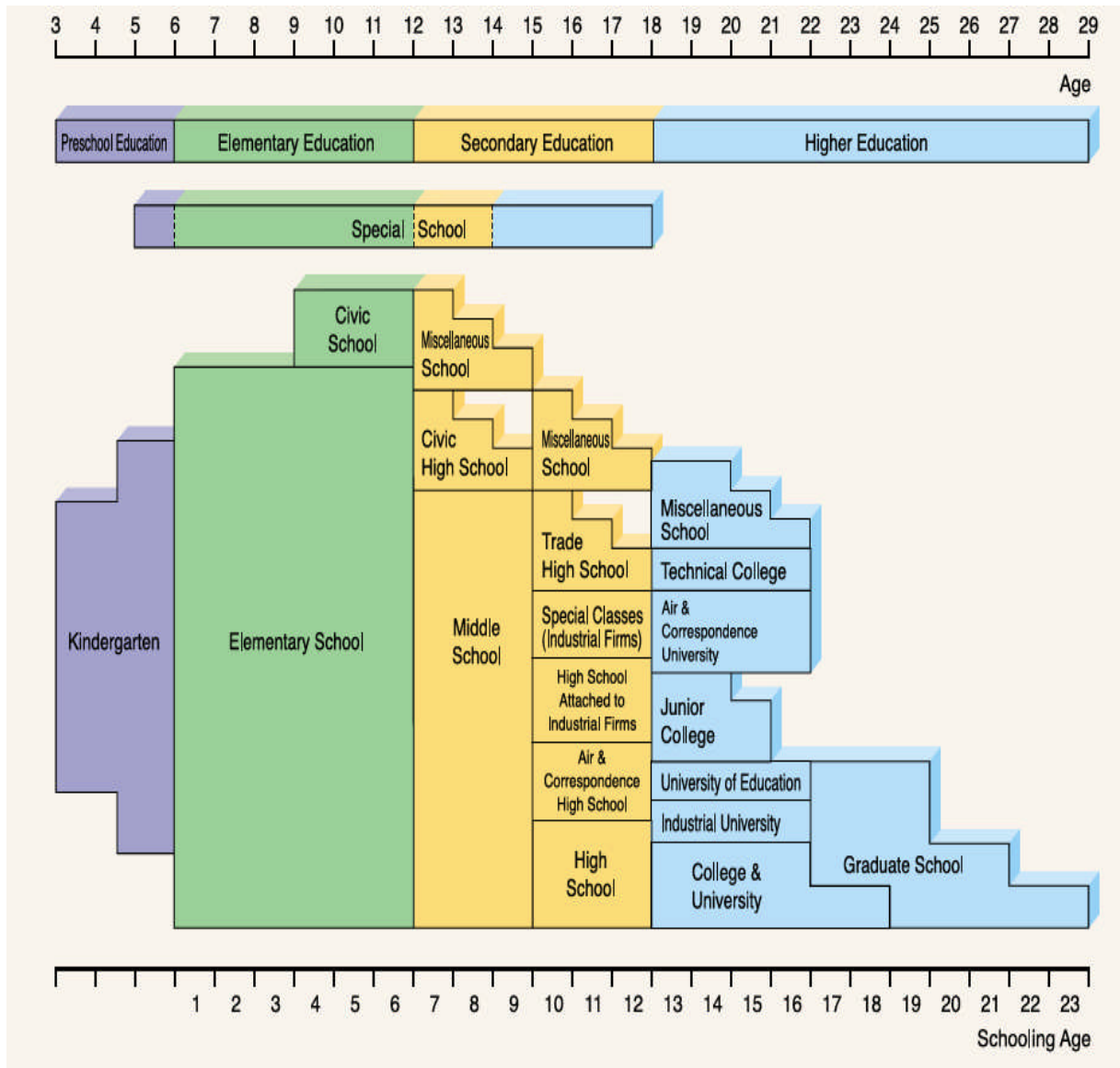
Study in Korea 2002 http://www.koreaembassy.org.uk/eng/eu/gbr/about/syudy/index.jsp
[17/08/2008]

Appendix 2: The Results of a Questionnaire Survey

A questionnaire survey was undertaken at a private institute in Gyeonggi province in October 2006 in order to investigate Korean primary school students' perception of learning English writing. 171 primary school students (aged 9-12) participated in the survey and the data can be summarised as shown below.

- The primary students' general English learning experience revealed that they spent their time studying English in listening (26%), speaking (24%), reading (27%) and writing (23%), while they considered speaking (30%), writing (26%), reading (24%), and listening (20%) as an important skill. It seems that the children perceived speaking and writing as a productive tool in learning English.

- Regarding English writing experience, surprisingly, a majority of the children (75%) had already experienced English writing even at sentence level though this finding came from mostly private institutions (56%) or personal tutors (21%). In other words, many children have already been exposed to the written English through a variety of channels regardless of the emphasis of spoken English at the primary level under the current national curriculum in English education.

- A clear majority of students (94%) reported that they believed English writing should be implemented before the transition to secondary school. Additionally, over two thirds of students (62%) responded that primary English teachers needed to teach writing in order to encourage them to communicate with English users through the Internet in the future (67%). These results indicate that the students have positive attitudes to the learning of English writing.

Appendix 3: Summary of Pilot Studies

First Pilot Study

The first pilot study was conducted with 14 Korean Grade 6 primary school students at a private institute in Gyeonggi province in July 2007. Its primary aim was to monitor how inexperienced young children perform writing tasks in groups and to identify the appropriate level of two writing tasks (i.e., descriptive and narrative tasks). This study offered practical considerations, such as prior learning experience, affective factors, group size and classroom management, when designing writing tasks, particularly, for the Korean EFL young learners.

Second Pilot Study

The second pilot study intended to search for challenging but appropriate levels of writing tasks for target learners of this study. Along with the help of two primary school teachers, this second pilot study was carried out with 54 sixth graders at two primary schools in Seoul in December 2007. The participants were assigned one of the five writing tasks and worked in pairs. This second study provided not only two teachers' reflections on their pupils' completion of the writing tasks, but also the children's comments on collaborative writing, such as any sense of challenge and achievement they experienced. These opportunities to listen to their authentic voices were a meaningful way when selecting challenging but appropriate tasks for the particular students as in this study.

Appendix 4: Task 1 – A Picture-describing Task

Describe a picture to your foreign friend. If you write as many as possible, it will lead your friend to guess what items are in it. It is also helpful to make the friend understand the picture exactly.
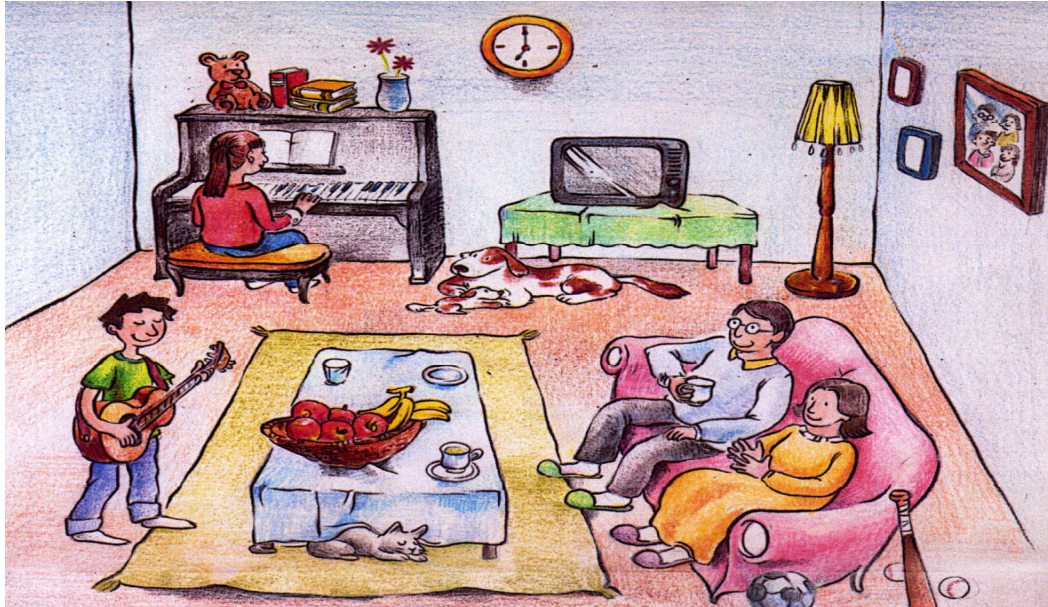
Note: This picture was designed by the researcher and illustrated by a Korean university student majoring in painting. The items in the picture were selected with regards to the basic vocabulary list prescribed by the MOE (2007).

An excerpt [P4: T1/3]

주어진 그림을 묘사한 영어 쓰기 과정의 마지막 수업입니다. 여러분의 글을 읽게 될 외국
친구들이 그림을 보다 쉽게 함께 이해 할 수 있도록 짝과 함께 지금까지 썼던 글을 다듬어 보세요.
영어 표현이 정확하면서도 자연스러운 글이라면 더욱 좋겠지요.

There are four family. There are all family in the house. there are all family in the living room. It's seven o'clock. There are all frames and another frame in the family. There is yellow 스탠드. Su mi is playing the piano, There are doll, all three books and vase flowers On the piano. Dong su is playing the guitar. Father is drinking cup of water. Mother is clapping. There are a soccer ball, two baseballs and a bat. There are a dish, two cups and many fruits. ~~Fruits is in the~~ four bananas and five apples are in the basket. There are a rat sleeping under the table and two dogs play. There is television on the green table. The wall is blue color. The floor is orange color. Su mi is 15 years old. Dong su is 13 years old. Mother and father 40 years old same.

Appendix 5: Task 2 – A Story-creating Task

Reflect your school events. You choose one exciting school event and tall with your partner about what happened during the event. You may describe distinctive people or episodes as much detailed as possible.

An excerpt [P2: T2/2]

학교 행사 중 가장 기억에 남는 일을 소재로 이야기를 새롭게 꾸며보는 과제입니다. 지난 주에 꾸며 보았던 이야기를 밑그림으로 하여 좀 더 자세한 이야기를 전개시켜 보세요.

Once a week, we going to the pinis
we discuss about the picnic
my friends Tom says " shall we going to the kimchi
museum.."
Vicki says" That is not good Idea I wont to be a
going to the zoo"
They said " wow, That is good Idea!"
anyway, This morning we meet to the eight o'clock.
we going to the by bus
I'm frist see a animans the horse
They are afraid the horse But I'm horse the cute
I'm give the horse carrot horse the happy
Then we see a many animans monkey, elepent, lion.
chimpanzees and rabbit
we have some lunch time
I'm says the many animans I'm merry times the

Appendix 6: Task 3 – An Opinion-expressing Task

Read the following article and write your opinions on the issue.

초등학생과 중학생의 상당수가 방학만 되면 해외 어학연수기관으로 향하고 있다. 법정 출석일수 한도 내에서 결석까지 하면서 어학연수에 매달리고 있는 학생들도 상당수에 달한다. 한나라당 이주호 의원이 교육 인적 자원부에 요청해 입수한 '학교별 출국자 현황' 보고서에 따르면 올해 여름방학을 전후해 해외로 출국한 초·중·고교생은 1 만 2249 명이었다. 이들의 평균 체류기간은 50.4 일로 방학기간(40.3 일)보다 길다. 열 명 중 네 명(38.5%)꼴로 방학 기간보다 길게 해외에 머물렀다. 특히 초등학생 출국자(9310 명)는 42.8%가 41 일 이상 해외에서 체류했다. 통상 7 일간의 해외 체류는 체험 학습으로 인정하는 점을 감안하더라도 초등학생 출국자 가운데 하루 이상 결석하는 학생은 세 명 중 한 명(33.5%)에 달한다. 한 달 이상의 장기 결석을 감수하며 해외로 떠난 학생이 출국자의 9%인 1114 명이나 됐다. 단기 어학연수를 한 번 떠난 학생들은 다음 방학에도 해외로 향할 가능성이 높다. 영어교육종합기업 쎄듀 (www.ceduenglish.com)가 서울지역 97 개 고등학생 412 명을 대상으로 지난 6 월 28 일부터 7 월 4 일까지 조기 어학 연수에 대해 설문조사를 한 결과 어학 연수를 다녀온 학생의 88% 이상(58 명)이 "기회가 닿는다면 다시 어학 연수를 가고 싶다"고 밝혔다.
http://www.sgsgi.com/sgsg/read.jsp?serial=16&seq=628&item=1 [17/08/2007]

An excerpt [P5: T3/1]

Appendix 7: The Criteria for Word Count

I developed a set of criteria for word count in order to analyse the written texts of the Korean EFL children in the present. All words were counted including misspelled words, proper names, prepositions, made-up words, numbers, dates, times, and so on. Random letter strings, illegible words that could not be recognized and, all Korean words were not counted in the total. If there was a note from me, it was disregarded in word count. The following are other rules for scoring:

a) If participants wrote 1 word as 2 words, count as 1 word. e.g. living room, water train, teddy bear, roller coaster, soccer ball, basket ball, foot ball, base ball, play ground, blue jean = 1 word (as compound words)

b) If participants wrote a number, count as a 1 word. e.g. 13, 15, 40, 2008, 1114 = 1 word

c) If participants wrote a word (time, grade) with a qualifier, count as 2 words. e.g. 8:00 am, 7 o'clock, 9 % = 2 words

d) If participants use an abbreviation, count as 1 word. e.g. m.t., p.s = 1 word

e) If participants wrote a made-up word (that makes sense in context of the sentence) count as 1 word. e.g. Chilen = 1 word

f) If participants wrote a hyphenated word, count as a 1 word. e.g. T-shirt = 1 word

g) If participants wrote a contraction, count as 1 word. e.g. can't, won't, didn't = 1 word, but not I'm, that's ('s' is part of the verb form) and let's ('s' is part of first person plural objective form) = 2 words.

h) If participants wrote essay title, include it in word count. e.g. Let's go picnic = 4 words

i) If participants wrote the possession of nouns, count as a 1 word, e.g., father's, brother's = 1 word

j) If participants wrote a proper name, count as 1 word. e.g. bbangsang Kim, New York = 1 word, but Lotte World = 2 words (which can be separated)

k) Prepositional phrases or adjective phrases count as 1 word, e.g., next to, in front of, in addition, a lot of, of course.

l) Negative markers 'not', 'no' were included in helping verb category

Appendix 8: The Criteria for Clause Count

A clause is defined as a simple independent finite clause or a dependent finite or non-finite clause (Foster & Skehan, 1999). In reality, however, it is not always easy to identify explicitly what a clause is as Halliday (1989) points out. For this reason, I developed a set of criteria for clause count to measure the written texts of the Korean EFL children in the present study.

a) Finite clause. A clause equals an overt subject and a conjugated verb, or a verb that is preceded by a modal (e.g., "*She has* a watch." [P5: T1/1]; "*We can learn* foreign culture." [P2: T3/2]).

b) Non-finite Clauses. A clause does not have an overt subject and the verb is preceded by **to** (e.g., "It is difficult *to study* other subjects." [P1: T3/3], "we want *to go* to another country."[P6: T3/3])

c) Imperatives do not require a subject to be considered a clause (e.g., "*Let's* go picnic." [P2: T2/3]; "*Give* me the money."[P3: T2/1])

d) A subject with only an auxiliary verb, do not count as a clause. (e.g., "But we *didn't*…." [P2: T2/1]

e) A subject written in Korean, count as a clause (e.g., "민아 (*Min-A*) is playing the piano"; "준수 (*Joon-Soo*) is playing the guitar."[P4: T1/3]; "There is a 시계(clock)."[P1: T1/1]; "here is a 곰인형 (*teddybear*)."[P4: T1/3])

f) A verb written in Korean, do not count as a clause (e.g., "Now I 소개하다 (*introduce*) in my house."[P3: T1/3])

Appendix 9: The Criteria for Error Count

Although L2 researchers provided identification for errors (e.g., Kroll, 1990; Lennon, 1992; Polio, 1997; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007), there is still no clear-cut identification of errors in written English, in particular, in a specific L2 context. For this reason, I developed a set of criteria for error count to analyse the written texts of the Korean EFL children in the present study.

a) Count as error improper spelling, but not capitalization and punctuation (e.g., "We arrived the Lotte World" = no preposition, improper article [P5: T2/2])

b) Count tense/reference errors only within the context of the preceding discourse (e.g., "we *are* very hungry so we *ate* cake."[P6: T2/3])

c) Count errors in omission of third person singular, -s marker ("She *play* the piano." [P2: T1/1])

d) Count errors in article omissions (e.g., "There is god." [P3: T2/3]); article overgeneralization (e.g., "we have *a* lunch." [P6: T2/2])

e) Count as errors non native-like usage in word choice to an inappropriate context (e.g., "Two dogs *laugh*." [P5: T1/2]): "*there is* 7 o'clock."; "This family is *bright*." [P6: T1/2])

f) Count a subject written in Korean as errors (e.g., "민아 (*Min-A*) is playing the piano"; "준수 (*Joon-Soo*) is playing the guitar."[P4: T1/3]); "There is a 시계(clock)."(P1-T1/1); "here is a 곰인형 (*teddybear*)."[P4: T1/3])

g) Count errors in word order (e.g., "next to the piano is TV."; "under the table is the dogs." [P2: T1/1]; "The vase is in the two flowers" [P5-T1/2].

Appendix 10: Sample Interview Questions

In order to explore the Korean children's first experience of collaborative writing, a set of basic questions were formulated:

- Can you tell me about your learning experience of English?
1) When (from whom, with what) did you learn English alphabet?
2) Have you ever taken a writing class in the English-speaking countries or Korea?

- What are your overall feelings about this three-week writing program?
3) What are your feelings on your written production?
4) What are the differences before and after participation in this program?

- How was the performance of Task 1/2/3 compared to the other two tasks?
1) Which task were you most/least interested in? If so, why?
2) Which task are you confident in performing by yourself in the future?

- Can you tell me about your feelings of collaborative writing?
1) What about writing in pairs, individually, or in a large group?
2) What strategy did you use during collaborative writing?

- Can you tell me about your feelings of task repetition?
1) What was your first impression of task repetition?
2) Were there any changes in your feelings toward task repetition?

- Can you tell me about a relationship between writing and learning English?
1) What were your feelings of writing activities in English?
2) What things did you notice when you got involved in writing activities?
3) What relationship is between writing and learning English?

- Can you tell me about classroom atmosphere?
1) What was your behavior in the writing classes?
2) What about the teacher's intervention in the writing classes?
3) What interruption or influence did you get from other pairs? If so, what else?

- Can you tell me about your task performance in relation to the Self-evaluation Checklist?
1) What can you tell me about your own task performance in regard to the scores of the checklist?
2) Did you have any intention to show your scores to someone?

Appendix 11: Sample Interview Transcripts

R: 과제 2의 첫 번째, 두 번째 그리고 세 번째 한 것을 보니, 어느 부분을 가장 많이 신경을 썼나요?
After looking at the first, second, and third drafts of Task 2, would you tell me what your most important concerns were about the task?

J: 처음에 할 때는 … 처음에는 새로운 과제라서 … 좀 … 어떻게 … 구체적으로 좀 더 잘해야 하겠다는 생각이 들었고
At the beginning stages … at first as it was new … a little bit … how to … we would like to do the task better

R: 그랬군요.
I see.

J: 그리고 마지막에서는 … 마지막이니깐 마무리를 잘 하려고 신경을 썼던 것 같아요.
And in the last performance … we tried to complete the task well as it was our last performance.

R: 그렇군요. 그러면 마지막 단계에서 친구들이 원하는 만큼 마무리를 잘 한 것 같나요?
I see. Then, do you think you completed the task well as you wanted?

J: 그냥 좀 아쉬워요.
It was not enough.

R: 아쉬워요?
It was not enough?

S: 네
I think so.

J: 그러니깐, 아는 단어를 … 아니, 모르는 단어를 … 문장으로 써야 하는게 어려워서 …
What I mean, some words that I knew … no, some words that I didn't know … it was difficult to make sentences.

S: 그게 처음 시작이 저희가 좀 갈등이 있어서요.
In fact, we had some problems at the beginning stages.

R: 갈등의 원인이 뭐였어요?
Would you tell me about the problems?

S: 그게 … 이 주제를 … 어디를 가느냐, 어떻게 하느냐, 어떻게 설명하느냐 … 구체적인 틀을 만드는게 조금 어려웠어요.
What it was … with the topic … where to go, what to do, how to explain it … it was difficult to make an outline.

Note. R: Researcher J: Jin S: Sun

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Appendix 12: Sample Field Notes

Observer: Young Ok Jong	Date: 20/02/2008	Task type/repetition: Task 2/1

My notes	My comments
두 번째 수업은 과제 2, 이야기 꾸미기를 소개하는 것으로 시작이 되었다. 과제 2가 친구들에게 소개되었을 때, 아마도 학교 행사의 각자 다른 경험을 토대로 이야기를 꾸며야 한다는 것 때문에 다소 혼란스러운 모습이었다.	과제 2를 시작하기에 앞서 친구들에게 학교 생활 중에서 가장 기억나는 행사가 무엇인지 물어보자 다양한 대답이 나왔다. 예를 들면, 학급 소풍, 학교 수련회, 운동회, 합창 대회, 등 등. 그래서 이번 과제를 수행하기 위해 소제를 정하는데 별 문제가 없을 것이라고 생각 했으나 상황은 그렇지 않아서 적잖이 당황했다.

Lesson Two was started with the introduction of Task 2, a story-creating task. When Task 2 was introduced to the class, the children looked confused because they had been asked to make a story based on their different experiences of school events.

과제 2를 수행하기 취해 친구들이 자신들의 짝이랑 자신의 경험을 나누고 소제를 정하고 이야기를 만들기 위해 다소 소란스러울 것으로 예상했으나 오히려 분위기가 조용했다. 결국 2조의 아래에서의 시의 적절한 질문이 있고 난 후, 침체되었던 교실 분위기가 활기차게 변하게 되었다.

진: 선생님 아직도 잘 모르겠어요.
교사: 무엇에 관해 쓰고 싶은가요?
진: 그러니깐
교사: 기억나는 것 중에서 가장 흥미로웠던 것이 무엇인가요?
진: 현장 학습?
교사: 그래요? 그러면 그것으로 이야기를 만들 수 있어요.
진: 그러니깐, 우리가 함께 가지 않았어도 함께 간 것처럼요?
교사: 그래요. 친구들의 각자 다른 경험을 가지고 새로운 이야기를 쓰는 거예요.
진: 아, 이제 알 것 같아요.

Contrary to my expectations, the classroom was somewhat quiet. Finally, after the following ice breaker questions of Pair 2, the classroom atmosphere seemed to change from dull to lively.

Jin: I don't know yet what to do.
Teacher: What do you want to write about?
Jin: That is
Teacher: What was most interesting?
Jin: A field trip?
Teacher: Then, you can make a story with the topic.
Jin: You mean that we did not go to the same place, but as if we went there together?
Teacher: Right. You make a new story based on your different experiences.

Before introducing Task 2, the children were asked to remember what the most interesting school event was. As their answers were various, for example, field trips, school camping trips, school sports day, song singing contest, and so on, I expected that there would be no particular problems when the children performed the task, but I was somewhat surprised when the children could not understand what to do in the initial stages.

친구들마다 선호하는 과제가 있겠지? 그러면, 쓰는 양도 달라지려나?

Do the children have a preference for a particular type of task? If so, does it affect quantity of writing?

3 조는 '공격'의 철자를 여러 번 잘 못 썼는데 친구들이 아직 모르고 있었다. 두 번째 과제 수행에서 인식할 수 있을까?

Although Pair 3 made a spelling mistake, 'attack,' they did not seem to notice it. Will they notice it during the second performance of the task?

Appendix 13: Task Type and Language Output

| | Fluency | | | | | | | | | Accuracy | | | | | | Lexical Complexity | | | | | |
| | W | | | C | | | W/C | | | WFC | | | WFC/C | | | LV | | | LD | | |
	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3	T1	T2	T3
Pair 1	352	264	112	34	52	22	10.4	5.1	5.1	16	10	11	0.47	0.19	0.5	0.68	0.67	0.9	0.43	0.45	0.6
Pair 2	342	260	210	50	48	40	6.9	5.4	5.3	13	9	22	0.26	0.19	0.55	0.73	0.73	0.8	0.48	0.37	0.53
Pair 3	246	185	112	37	43	24	6.7	4.3	4.7	12	9	7	0.32	0.21	0.29	0.67	0.8	0.78	0.47	0.47	0.6
Pair 4	393	205	169	69	38	33	5.7	5.4	5.1	23	3	13	0.33	0.08	0.39	0.72	0.75	0.83	0.47	0.42	0.5
Pair 5	208	294	184	29	64	43	7.2	4.6	4.3	3	6	12	0.1	0.09	0.28	0.73	0.75	0.75	0.52	0.43	0.42

Appendix 14: Task Repetition and Language Output

	Fluency									Accuracy						Lexical Complexity					
	W			C			W/C			WFC			WFC/C			LV			LD		
	C1	C 2	C 3	C 1	C2	C3	C1	C2	C3	C1	C2	C3	C1	C2	C3	C1	C2	C3	C1	C2	C3
Pair 1	152	329	247	20	48	40	7.6	6.85	6.18	0	8	29	0	0.17	0.73	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.48	0.5	0.5
Pair 2	173	307	332	31	47	60	5.58	6.53	5.53	0	12	32	0	0.26	0.53	0.77	0.7	0.8	0.38	0.48	0.52
Pair 3	97	144	302	21	25	58	4.62	5.76	5.21	4	3	21	0.19	0.12	0.36	0.75	0.77	0.73	0.53	0.5	0.5
Pair 4	193	297	276	35	54	51	5.51	5.5	5.41	7	14	18	0.2	0.26	0.35	0.75	0.82	0.73	0.43	0.48	0.47
Pair 5	168	212	306	33	38	65	5.09	5.58	4.71	5	3	13	0.15	0.08	0.2	0.77	0.72	0.75	0.42	0.47	0.48

Appendix 15: Task Type and LREs

	Task Types and LREs					
	Task 1		Task 2		Task 3	
	Pair 1	Pair 2	Pair 1	Pair 3	Pair 1	Pair 5
F-LREs	26	25	22	18	8	9
L-LREs	44	34	20	29	39	23
M-LREs	8	21	15	21	20	4

Task Repetition and LERs																		
	F-LREs						L-LREs						M-LREs					
	T1		T2		T3		T1		T2		T3		T1		T2		T3	
	P1	P2	P1	P3	P1	P5	P1	P2	P1	P3	P1	P5	P1	P2	P1	P3	P1	P5
C1	7	10	8	9	2	4	23	15	9	16	8	13	4	9	4	17	4	2
C2	7	9	2	5	3	3	11	16	4	8	21	5	1	10	5	2	7	1
C2	12	6	12	4	3	2	10	3	7	5	10	5	3	2	6	2	9	1
Sum	26	25	22	18	8	9	44	34	20	29	39	23	8	21	15	21	20	4

Note. T: Task, P: Pair, C: Cycle,