國立政治大學英國語文學系碩士在職專班碩士論文

指導教授：余明忠博士

Advisor：Dr. Ming-chung Yu

引導式構思及配對構思對英語學習者

口語表達之影響

The Effects of Using Guided Planning and Paired Planning on

Young EFL Learners' Oral Production

研究生：黃竹欣撰

Name：Chu-hsin Huang

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國立政治大學英國語文學系碩士在職專班

碩士論文提要

論文名稱：引導式構思及配對構思對英語學習者口語表達之影響

指導教授：余明忠博士

研究生：黃竹欣

論文提要內容：

　　在任務性教學的研究裡，構思時間大都有助於口語表達流暢度，但構思時間對口語表達複雜度與正確度的影響，在研究中則尚無定論。本研究旨在探討引導式構思(guided planning)與配對構思(paired planning)對學童英語口語表達的影響，期能對以上爭論做出貢獻。此研究以90位新竹市國小高年級學生為研究對象，並依照構思情境的不同將學生分成三組進行口述故事任務：(1) 無引導構思 (2) 引導式構思 (3) 引導式配對構思。本研究主要結論如下：(1) 就流暢度與複雜度而言，引導式構思與配對構思對學生在口語表達無顯著影響。值得注意的是，配對構思組的學生，會使用較更高程度的字彙來說故事；(2) 就文法正確度而言，引導式構思組學生的表現顯著優於無引導式構思組與引導式配對構思組。

而配對構思組的學生雖然沒有使用文法較正確的語言來說故事，卻對配對構思在文法正確度方面的影響持肯定態度。本研究最後針對不同構思情境在口語教學上的應用提供建議，做為教育者參考。

Abstract

A general finding of task planning studies was that planning time significantly facilitates fluency in oral production. When it comes to complexity and accuracy, however, the effects of planning time were less certain. This study aims to contribute to the contradictory results by considering how guided planning and paired planning may impact upon the fluency, complexity and accuracy in learners' oral production. Subjects were three groups of EFL beginners in Taiwan; they performed oral narrative tasks. Statistical results revealed that these two implementation variables (i.e. guided planning and paired planning) did not aid learners to narrate a story with more fluent and complex language. One thing to be noted here is that paired planners used remarkably greater number of higher level words to tell a story. In terms of accuracy, guided planning led participants to perform tasks with more accurate utterances, while paired planning had no evident effects on speech accuracy. Interestingly, paired planners held a positive attitude towards the valuable role of paired planning on accuracy. This study yielded illuminative information for teachers to boost students' oral performance by manipulating various task conditions.

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background and Motivation

Since 1980s, communicative language teaching (CLT) has become a popular

language teaching approach, which emphasizes obtaining grammatical competence

through meaningful communication (Brown, 2007). Closely allied to CLT, task-based

instruction (TBI) has emerged as the buzzword in the EFL context during the last

decade (Ellis, 2003). TBI utilizes tasks which encourage learners to achieve

instructional objectives in a meaningful context (Bygate, Skehan, & Swain, 2001).

Nevertheless, due to the potential risk of L2 learners' overwhelming focus on

meaning rather than on form (Skehan & Foster, 2001), it is suggested that learners'

attention should be orchestrated to strike a balance between meaning and grammar

during task performance. Planning time (i.e. the preparation time for learners to

manipulate linguistic devices) has been tentatively proven to be an opportunity for

learners to obtain both linguistic and grammatical competence (Ellis, 2005b). It is

assumed that if learners are asked to plan, their load towards focus on meaning will be

eased (Bygate, 1999). Therefore, more cognitive resources will be freed for learners to

better attend to grammatical accuracy.

Based on the rationale above, a number of studies have been conducted to find evidence for the positive effects of task planning on oral production of EFL learners (Kawauchi, 2005; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Yuan & Ellis, 2003) and ESL learners (Bygate, 2001). The effects of planning on oral production have been found to be consistently significant in terms of fluency, while the result is mixed with regard to complexity and accuracy. The following section addresses the two disputed issues which remain unresolved in planning studies.

On the one hand, the results of task planning regarding accuracy are contradictory. It is found that planning opportunities did not lead to significantly more accurate production in some studies (Foster, 1996; Wendel, 1997; Williams, 1992; Yuan & Ellis, 2003), whereas accuracy was notably higher in the planned conditions in several other studies (Crookes, 1989; Mehnert, 1998; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Tavokoli & Skehan, 2005). While the studies mentioned above have failed to come to a consistent conclusion about what type of planning could increase accuracy of production, guided planning (i.e. the offer of specific instructions during planning time to guide learners' attention to certain feature of production) has been reported to have positive impact on grammatical accuracy (Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Ortega, 1999). It is indicated that certain form-focused guidance might amplify the effectiveness of students' planning time, particularly on the accuracy aspect.

Nevertheless, Mochizuki and Ortega pointed out that task planning studies have been done exclusively on university students, who have mature cognitive and mental ability, while far less research has been done on young language learners, who are less cognitively and mentally mature. Consequently, more empirical evidence would be needed to find out whether learners' speech manifests higher accuracy under guided planning condition.

On the other hand, the results of task planning in terms of linguistic complexity (i.e. greater risk-taking to use more advanced words and sentence patterns) are also inconsistent. Mochizuki and Ortega (2008) reported no effects of task planning on learners' complexity performance, whereas Skehan and Foster (2005) confirmed the beneficial role of task planning in boosting learners' production of complex language. Previous research has suggested that pair work might serve as a resolution. According to Brook's (2009) study, pair work has benefited in generating more linguistically demanding interaction and negotiation. Chiu (2008) also found that pair work scaffolds learners to produce more complex utterances. Following this, we may tentatively claim that pair work might foster more complex oral performance. While no one denies the possibility of this hypothesis, little empirical evidence has been found to establish a direct relationship between learners' productive complexity and planning in pairs.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

Due to the lack of literature reporting the effects of guided planning and pair work on young learners' oral narrative production, the present study aims to provide insight into the issue. The purpose of this study is to determine if guided planning and pair work would improve participants' verbal output on the aspects of fluency, accuracy and complexity. It was suggested that the constructs of learners' oral performance were multidimensional, and the three closely linked linguistic components (i.e. complexity, accuracy and fluency) could comprehensively reflect the major aspects of learners' proficiency and language progress (Ellis, 2008; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Skehan, 1998).

1.3 Significance of the Study

There is a prevailing trend to teach conversation with both inductive attention to meaning and deductive attention to form (Brown, 2001). It is hoped that the present study may contribute to the pedagogical field where students will not only learn to speak, with a focus on meaning, but also speak to learn, with a focus on form. Additionally, it is believed that the study will shed some light on the conflicting results in the previous task planning studies, particularly in regards to accuracy and

complexity.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

In this chapter, we will look at the literature on the use of planning time in five parts. The first part provides the theoretical background of task-based instruction (TBI), with a focus on speech instruction. The second part presents literature about the effects of planning time on oral production. Moreover, two solutions are proposed to resolve the conflicting results. The fourth part describes the performance descriptors for oral assessment of language learners. Lastly, the purpose and research questions of the present study are stated.

2.1 Theoretical Background of Task-based Speech Production Research

The ability to speak in a foreign language has been a primary issue in language teaching after the prosperity of CLT (Nakamura, 1993). Learners are encouraged to take an active role in using the language in order to obtain communicative competence (Brown, 2007). Therefore, considerable attention has been given to students' speaking opportunities, which used to be neglected in grammar translation method. TBI has been proposed as a valuable technique for the development of oral communication ability within the CLT approach (Nunan, 2004).

TBI has been well-received and widely discussed in language teaching and research since 1970s (Ellis, 2003; Long & Crookes, 1992; Shehadeh, 2005). With the surging popularity of TBI, various definitions of tasks have been proposed by researchers. Some of the definitions are very broad (e.g., Carroll, 1993; Long, 1985) while others narrowed the meaning of tasks to more specific activities in the field of pedagogy (e.g., Breen, 1987; Willis, 1996). For example, Long provides a very general and non-linguistic definition for tasks: a piece of work people voluntarily perform or an obligation for performance in daily life. Breen, however, provides a more restricted definition: activities carried out in a language classroom, with a goal in real life. In this study, the definition of Nunan (1989) and Skehan (1998) best suit the purpose of this study. Tasks are considered as classroom activities where learners pay attention to the message they want to convey or the message they need to receive from others. These classroom tasks resemble those learners use their first language to conduct in daily communication. For example, telling stories, ordering food, greeting people, and as such, are very common tasks in L2 language teaching. This definition agrees with the activities described as tasks in the literature which was reviewed and in this study which was conducted.

There are several reasons for TBI to gain popularity in the field of language teaching. First, TBI is more student-centered since the materials are connected with

students' personal experiences. The authentic materials in TBI can retain students'

focus on the target language input through meaningful communication (Ellis, 2001;

Swain, 1995). Moreover, the principles for content selection in TBI are more concrete

and are based on practical needs (Bygate, 1999). Therefore, the evaluation is

outcome-based (Nunan, 2004). Students are considered qualified because they have

the ability to accomplish an authentic and relevant task, not because they are able to

complete a contextually detached paper-pencil test. Finally, TBI opens up the

possibility for instructors to direct participants' attention to specific linguistic aspects

by deliberately manipulating task design and implementation situations. Thus,

learners stand a better chance to sharpen specific language skills (Candlin, 1987;

Samuda, 2001; Skehan, 1998).

Looking at TBI from the psycholinguistic perspective, Long's (1996) interaction

hypothesis is perhaps one of the most fundamental and essential rationales for the

method. He posits that authentic conversation triggers learners' self-realization. The

mutual exchange can facilitate learners' target language acquisition, particularly when

it comes to the negotiation of meaning and modifications to the target language.

However, there is some criticism on interactions in TBI. When conducting tasks,

learners tend to communicate for pragmatic purposes by paying focal attention to

meaning and minor attention to forms (Ellis, 2003; Swan, 2005). TBI is also criticized

for the likelihood that students will focus too much on completing the task rather than

practicing language (Richards, Jack, & Nunan, 1990). Interaction in TBI might

facilitate comprehension about meaning, but this does not necessarily lead to

internalization of L2 forms (Ellis, 1991).

Levelt's (1989) speaking model might further explain why learners tend to

prioritize the language aspect of meaning over the aspect of grammar in task-based

interactions. The production model is subdivided into three processing components:

the conceptualizer, the formulator, and the articulator. Before the production of speech,

the conceptualizer operates to work out preverbal messages, which is composed of

basic semantic categories (e.g., persons, actions, and places). The semantic

representation, serving as basis for further linguistic expression, is then transmitted to

the formulator. The formulator is responsible for grammatical and lexical encoding. In

this formulation process, appropriate words and correct grammar are selected for the

concept message, followed by a production of phonologic plan. At the last stage, the

phonologic plan is transformed into verbal output by the articulator. Levelts' speaking

model indicates that, under ideal conditions, the conceptualizer operates first and

continuously feeds pre-linguistic message into the formulator and the articulator

during the whole process of speech production. For native speakers, the three stages

of processing (i.e. idea generation, grammatical and lexical modification, and speech

articulation) can work well simultaneously due to an abundant storage of

prefabricated language chunks (Pawley & Syder, 1983). However, such automatic

language processing is hard to achieve for language learners, particularly those of

beginning proficiency (Skehan, 1998). Language learners might speak slowly or even

pause when the conceptualizer, formulator and articulator compete for limited

attentional resources. It appears that the conceptualizer, responsible for meaning

processing, holds obvious superiority over the formulator and articulator in

competition for the finite cognitive capability (Van Patten, 1990).

In accordance with the risky tendency for meaning instead of form in TBI

(Skehan & Foster, 2001), judicious manipulation is called for balancing learners'

attention on form as well as on meaning. For instance, some researchers have

suggested that pre-task planning time (i.e. the offer of time for learners to manipulate

linguistic device before conducting tasks) might decrease the burden of processing the

conceptual message (e.g., Bygate, 2001; Ellis, 1987; Mehnert, 1998). It is assumed

that as long as the conceptualizer has accomplished part of the message formulation

during planning time, there will be more resources left for the formulator and the

articulator to encode grammatical information and transform spoken utterance

respectively. Accordingly, learners can spend more efforts to attend to grammatical

accuracy. Other researchers have proposed form-focused instruction to facilitate

grammatical learning in a meaningful context by implementing pedagogical

interventions (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998). It is suggested that the extent to

which the task requires grammatical accuracy can affect the efficiency of language

acquisition (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993). Therefore, if grammatically correct

languages are involved in task design as essential features to successfully complete a

task, language acquisition can be more effective (Loschky, 1994). Briefly, form-focus

elements have been proposed to be integrated into the framework of TBI (Willis,

1996), in the hope of directing learners' attention to forms (Skehan, 1998).

2.2 Utilization of Planning Time to Balance Communication and Grammar

Theoretically motivated by the notion of focus on form, pre-task planning has

been adopted to develop both grammatical and communicative ability (Ellis, 2005b).

Ellis (2005a) has divided planning into pre-task planning (i.e. the provision of time

for learners to manipulate linguistic device before performing tasks) and within-task

planning (i.e. the planning that occurs simultaneously when learners are performing

tasks). In the following, the researcher focuses mainly on pre-task planning since all

the literature mentioned in this study and the planning performed in this study pertain

to only pre-task planning. Pre-task planning can take two forms. It can be rehearsal

(i.e. the opportunity for learners to practice the whole task once before they actually

carry out the task for a second time) or strategic planning (i.e. the opportunity for learners to make a draft version of content and plan for the language usage, without the opportunity to rehearse the whole task).

Several theories have been put forward for the beneficial role of pre-task planning on enhancing learners' development of interlanguage. Ellis (1987) suggested that planning could provide a better opportunity for planners to access grammatical concepts and put them into practice. According to Ellis, the internalization and spontaneous processing of grammar is not easy for L2 learners. He suggested that through planning procedure, learners would be more likely to subconsciously receive, absorb and utilize grammar rules in the production. Furthermore, Crookes (1989) has indicated that planning can contribute to interlanguage development by increasing the complexity in learners' use of L2. Based on Crooke's mental message-processing hypothesis, planning is described as a manipulable context in TBI. Students could bring their interlanguage capability into full play, produce more advanced speech, and acquire language skills under a maneuvered planning situation. Later, Skehan (1998) reconceptualized the role of planning in TBI as a coordinator to regulate mental burden, instead of a director to allocate attention to either one of the three aspects (i.e. complexity, accuracy and fluency). It was advocated that planning before tasks could elude the danger of dedicating attention only to meaning by alleviating

communicative pressure. In turn, the liberation of moderate amount of learners'

memory space could be utilized to improve other linguistic elements, such as form

correctness. Based on Skehan's rationale, the incorporation of planning into TBI

would judiciously distribute learners' attention among fluency, complexity, and

accuracy, leading to a balanced boost of speech output in terms of the three

dimensions.

Motivated by the above rationales, a substantial amount of empirical research

have been carried out to test the assumption that pre-task planning could assist

learners' inter-language in terms of accuracy, complexity and fluency. First, previous

literature predicted that pre-task planning would lead to more grammatically correct

expressions since extra cognitive resource was released to supervise grammatical

accuracy during planning phase (Ellis, 1987). Nevertheless, several studies have

invalidated such prediction (Wendel, 1997; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Second, it was found

that planning played an advantageous role in triggering speakers' utterance

complexity (Crookes, 1989). Crookes suggested that speakers who faced less time

pressure under planning condition could take ultimate risks to draw the more complex

syntax and lexicon from inter-language. Such finding has been opposed by some later

studies (Elder & Iwashita, 2005; Mehnert, 1998; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Tajima,

2003). Moreover, it was assumed that planners paused less and spoke more fluently

than non-planners since the cognitive load of planners was lighter (Fathman, 1980).

Fathman found that planners' cognitive burden was alleviated since they did not have

to attend to the formulation of utterance content and the production of speech

simultaneously. The supposition has been confirmed by most researchers (Foster,

1996; Kawauchi, 2005; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Skehan & Foster, 2005).

As noted above, the effects of pre-task planning on learners' oral production have

been somewhat contradictory in the previous research, particularly on the aspects of

accuracy and complexity (Ellis, 2009; Ortega, 1999). In an attempt to solve the

discrepant results of pre-task planning on accuracy and complexity, two possible

solutions, guided planning and pair work, are presented. An elaboration of conflicting

results of previous research is succeeded by a recommendation of possible solution

and its related rationale background. It is believed that a review of previous research

in pre-task planning helps to provide some perspectives for further exploration into

such mixed results.

2.3 The Role of Guided Planning in Pre-task Planning

2.3.1 Discrepant Effects of Pre-task Planning on Accuracy

On the whole, the issue of whether pre-task planning could improve the

grammatical component of language has been debated in the research (Ellis, 2009;

Ortega, 1999). Some researchers have viewed pre-task planning as a valuable

technique in improving grammatical accuracy (e.g., Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008;

Sangarun, 2005), whereas others have argued to the contrary (Crookes, 1989; Wendel,

1997; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). The various assumptions of pre-task planning noted above

are exemplified by the following statements.

It was maintained that learners did not tend to process form and meaning

individually but rather "engaged in solving form-in-meaning problems" in regard of

planning operationalization (Ortega, 2005, p. 106). Consequently, learners would not

change their mind on contributing focal attention to meaning unless there were very

specific instructions engaging learners to focus on form. Another neutral point of view

was that it was difficult for learners to give consideration to all three language facets

due to the processing capacity trade-off (Skehan, 1996). In other words, when learners

intentionally attended to accuracy, complexity and fluency would suffer, and vice

versa. Yet another assumption was offered by Ellis's (1987) study, which held a

positive attitude towards the enhancement of productive accuracy through pre-task

planning. It was proposed that planning could provide space for learners to

subconsciously devote their attention on formal aspects of the language, understand

and acquire grammar rules. Subsequently, learners would automatically process these

grammar points which would be used as a resource to utter grammatically accurate

speech.

2.3.2 Possible Solution: Guided Planning

To solve the problem of conflicting results of pre-task planning on accuracy,

Ortega (1999) proposed the idea of leading learners to focus on the formal and

systematic features of the language. Such guidance to manipulate learners' attention

during planning time was termed as guided planning (Sangarun, 2005). It was defined

as a kind of pre-task planning, which directed learners' attention to the meaning

and/or grammar of their output, while in unguided condition, learners received no

specific instruction. There are some advantages for incorporating guided planning in

TBI. First, guided planning could ease learners' communicative burden as well as

release cognitive space (Lennon, 1989). In this way, the freed-up attentional resource

may support learners to prioritize and to attend to specific task requirements (Ortega,

1999). For instance, Ortega suggested the use of a grammar-centered instruction

worksheet in TBI to redirect learners' focal attention to language forms in the context

of meaningful communication. Specifically, when the use of accurate grammar

became an essential requirement of tasks through the inclusion of form-focused

worksheets, learners' accuracy of language would be enhanced in the natural and

meaningful task context (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993).

Inspired by the above rationales, Mochizuki and Ortega's (2008) study was noteworthy for its significant findings that guided planners' planned output was significantly more accurate. In their study, the guided planners produced considerably more accurate relative clauses than both the unguided planners and participants who did not plan at all. Hence, optimal guidance prior to the task may facilitate learners in planning effectively, especially on the grammatical accuracy.

As indicated previously, while substantial studies have been done on the impact of pre-task planning on the accuracy of learners' oral output, no conclusive finding is yet available. Even though there is a strong assumption of a link between guided worksheets and oral accuracy performance, scant empirical evidence has been found to establish a direct relationship between the two variables. Mochizuki and Ortega's (2008) study was the only one that has indicated the value of guided worksheets to maximize the effectiveness of planning time in promoting grammatical accuracy. Obviously, more empirical investigations are needed to gather evidence in support of such an assumption. Furthermore, most pre-task planning studies have centered on the participants of adults or university students who were generally more mature cognitively and meta-cognitively (e.g., Wendel, 1997; Mehnert, 1998; Kawauchi, 2005), whereas the exploration into young students or language beginners has been neglected (Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008). As has been discussed, it is prudent to

investigate deeper into the integration of guided planning in TBI, with a focus on

young or beginning English learners.

2.4 The Role of Pair Work in Pre-task Planning

2.4.1 Discrepant Effects of Pre-task Planning on Complexity

There have been conflicting results about the effects of pre-task planning on the

aspect of language complexity in the previous studies (Ellis, 2009; Ortega, 1999).

Some researchers have found no effects of pre-task planning on the complexity aspect

(Elder & Iwashita, 2005; Gilabert, 2007; Mehnert, 1998; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008;

Wigglesworth, 1997), whereas others have reported significant results (Bygate, 1996;

Guara-Tavares, 2008; Skehan & Foster, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003).

It was pointed out that learners' proficiency is of decisive importance when

considering the effects of planning on complexity performance (Kawauchi, 2005;

Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Ortega, 1999). Kawauchi claimed that if students were

advanced language learners, they might not benefit much from the opportunity of

planning because of a ceiling effect. He also believed that since advanced learners

could spontaneously and efficiently draw upon their abundant L2 knowledge, they

seemed to handle tasks quite well with no planning time provided. Therefore,

planning was assumed to be more helpful for less advanced learners. In contrast to the

conservative attitude towards the effect of planning on speech complexity, an

optimistic opinion was held by Crookes (1989). He proposed that learners, whether of

advanced or beginning proficiency, would be motivated to make the best of their

upper level of interlanguage while planning without so much time pressure, thereby

producing more complex language.

While the focus of most task planning studies has been on cognitive aspects,

such as how to judiciously manipulate limited attentional capacities, the neglect of the

context variable has also been proposed as a possible reason resulting in such

inconsistent findings (Batstone, 2005). Batstone suggested that the effects of social

interaction would not be less important than cognitive processing.

2.4.2 Possible Solution: Pair Work

Following the call for more of a focus on context, there was a trend in research to

involve pair work within oral assessment in both first and second language classrooms

(Storch, 1999). Research findings have been supportive of both pair work and

collaborative work in language classrooms. In the field of L1 pedagogy, students

working in groups have been shown to gain dynamic information from their peers'

various perspectives. Through peer interaction, students have developed the ability to

engage in reflective and independent thinking (Adams & Hamm, 1996; Barnes &

Todd, 1977; Slavin, 1991). Besides, in the L2 learning context, students' oral language

proficiency has been found to be enhanced by involving in the classroom

collaborative activities (Saville & Hargreaves, 1999; Taylor, 2000). It was suggested

that with more opportunities to provide and receive feedback, students can sharpen

language skills receptively and productively (Taylor & Wigglesworth, 2009). Most

importantly, it has been established that pair work, one of the main social interaction

manifestations in classroom, could stimulate learners to constantly modify and

complexify their conversational production (Brooks, 2009; Chiu, 2008; Doughty &

Pica, 1986; Elder & Iwashita, 2005; Pica & Doughty, 1985; Taylor, 2000). In short,

pair or collaborative work has been proven to facilitate L1 and L2 acquisition,

especially in improving language complexity.

Motivated by the theoretical basis suggested above, numerous studies have been

conducted with a consideration of how pair work can be profitably channeled to

promote interaction within speaking assessment (e.g., Brooks, 2009; Davis, 2009;

Pinter, 2007). It has been claimed that pair work could encourage students to scaffold

each other and modify their production. By receiving and conveying information in a

meaningful context, such collaborative interaction has facilitated language proficiency

(Davis, 2009; Pinter, 2007). Davis indicated that the discourse during pair work was

composed primarily of collaborative interactions. Similar results were shown in

Pinter's study which discovered that 10-year-old participants learned to pay attention

and respond to each other more carefully during the peer interactive task. Through

more dedication to language modification, learners stood a better position to produce

complex language. Brooks (2009) proposed that pair work between peers could

stimulate more linguistically demanding output, compared with teacher-student

interaction. Chiu (2008) also found that pair work might serve as scaffolding to make

positive impact on learners' oral production in regard to complexity (Chiu, 2008).

Nevertheless, while most oral task studies adopted pair work as a means to

co-construct a two-way dialogue, few studies have been done to examine the effects

of incorporating pair work into the planning phase of narrative oral tasks (Davis,

2009). He indicated that the paired oral format (i.e. two interlocutors construct a

dialogue) might unfairly cause influence on individuals' performance. Such fact has

warranted investigation into implementing pair work in only the pre-task planning

phase, not in the performance phase. With the incorporation of peer collaboration into

only planning stage, learners' oral production could be measured more objectively

without interlocutor factors.

2.5 The Interdependent Relationship of Fluency, Complexity and Accuracy

The main focus of this study was to promote participants' productive accuracy

and complexity with guidance and pair work. However, this study not only employed

complexity and accuracy measures but also fluency measure to assess the effects of

two influential factors on learners' performance. It is because the three linguistic

aspects, fluency, complexity and accuracy (FCA) were closely interrelated (Skehan &

Foster, 1999). What follows were a simple definition of the FCA measure, an

elaboration of two mainstream hypotheses about the three interrelated measures, with

supportive empirical studies at the end.

The three areas of fluency, complexity and accuracy were typically measured in

a number of task research studies to describe learners' language proficiency (e.g.,

Bygate, 1996; Sangarun, 2005; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Skehan and Foster's (1999)

study defined fluency as the ability to produce speech in real time without

interference, complexity as the willingness of pushing limits to use more advanced

vocabulary and sentence patterns, and accuracy as the capacity to prevent errors and

generate grammatically accurate language. Skehan and Foster described FCA as three

linguistic features, which existed in an interdependent and interactive relationship

with one another. If the dimension of complexity and accuracy was examined

individually, the subtle communication among the three facets was overlooked.

Therefore, a comprehensive examination of the impact of independent variables from

these three elements provided better insight into the interaction among them.

There were mainly two theoretical sets of claims concerning the process of second language acquisition (SLA). The first theory was the trade-off hypothesis which indicated that learners' attention to various linguistic dimensions would compete for limited attentional resource (Skehan, 1998). Due to limited memory capacity, learners' devotion to one performance area might deprive the attention to another performance facet. As a result, an increase in utterance complexity could lead to a decrease in productive accuracy, and vice versa. That is, learners' performance rarely simultaneously improved on all three areas. The complexity enhancement would come along with either complexity or accuracy, but not both.

The hypothesis that FCA would compete for cognitive resources was confirmed by a great number of practical experiments. First, Ortega's (1999) pre-task planning study found that planning could facilitate learners to speak more fluently and accurately but not with more complexity. Additionally, it was concluded that practicing the same type of tasks led to more complex narration, while the output accuracy and fluency was not notably different among groups (Bygate, 2001). Furthermore, Yuan and Ellis' (2003) study reported positive effect of pre-task planning on productive fluency and complexity, while no effect of pre-task planning was found on grammatical accuracy. Also, Gilabert's (2007) study indicated that planning groups were conspicuously more fluent than unplanned ones, whereas no

effect for planning was found on either complexity or accuracy. Finally, Mochizuki

and Ortega's (2008) guided planning research suggested that guided planners

produced more accurate relative clauses than unguided planners, but there were no

significant group differences in terms of language fluency and complexity. No

specific pattern about the increase and decrease of speech fluency, complexity and

accuracy was found among these studies (see Table 2.1). Nevertheless, one common

characteristic could be plausibly drawn from the above studies in support of the

trade-off assumption: a simultaneous rise in all three FCA measures was uncommon.

It was also proven that advancement in complexity and accuracy did not occur at the

same time since they contested for restricted memory and attention span.

Table 2.1 Effects of Pre-task Planning on Speech Fluency, Complexity and Accuracy
in Previous Research

Researcher	Results		
	Fluency	Complexity	Accuracy
Ortega (1999)	◯	X	◯
Bygate (2001)	X	◯	X
Yuan and Ellis (2003)	◯	◯	X
Gilabert (2007)	◯	X	X
Mochizuki and Ortega (2008)	X	X	◯

Note. "O"=significant effect at p < .05, "X"=insignificant effect at p >.05

Contrary to the trade-off hypothesis which established a competitive relationship

between FCA, Robinson's (2001) cognitive hypothesis advocated that the three

linguistic elements were mutually supportive. Robinson's hypothesis predicted that

more conceptually demanding tasks (i.e. tasks requiring multiple steps simultaneously

to be accomplished or demanding high reasoning ability to be finished) would (a)

elicit both more accurate and complex utterances from learners and (b) motivate

learners to pay more attention to the input and utilize it in their production to meet

task demands; therefore, it was more advantageous for learners to turn the input into

long-term learning. Robinson's theory was discriminated from the former one

advocating that linguistic dimensions interacted in ways that were not only

competitive but also supportive, when more efforts of conceptualization were needed

to carry out tasks. The development of one of the three linguistic elements might

support the enhancement of another facet.

A series of empirical studies have been conducted to find evidence that is

compatible with Robinson's (2001) cognitive theory. An experiment was carried out

to test the first prediction of cognitive hypothesis by investigating whether two tasks

of high and low task complexity had different influences on learners' oral production

(Robinson, 1995). It was observed that the group receiving more cognitively

demanding tasks performed with notably more advanced lexicon and significantly

more accurate language than the group conducting simpler tasks. This conclusion was entirely consistent with the first prediction of cognitive hypothesis in that more intellectually difficult tasks could bring out not only learners' greater complexity but also improved accuracy for production .This finding was confirmed by later studies (Gilabert, 2007; Robinson, Cadierno, & Shirai, 2009; Van Geert & Steenbeek, 2005).

In addition, the second prediction was corroborated by examining students' oral utterances under simple and complex situations, which were distinguished by the level of reasoning ability required to accomplish the task (Robinson, 2001). The finding was in agreement with the second claim of cognitive hypothesis, suggesting that students placed more focus on the information received as task difficulty increased. And the increasing amount of noticing would drive students to apply the input to their oral presentation and practice various language aspects, particularly the facets of complexity and accuracy. Accordingly, the growing effort to produce complex performance usually accompanied longer retention and more learning. Such hypothesis about the effect of task complexity on the uptake of a new language input during performance was corroborated by more recent research (Robinson, 2007; Robinson et al., 2009).

After an overview of the relationship between the three linguistic dimensions from various perspectives, it was shown how closely the performance of complexity,

accuracy and fluency were correlated with one another. One conclusion could be

inferred from the above studies that FCA should no longer be considered as three

unitary elements operating independently from each other. Instead, the three

dimensions should be measured for each of the three planning situations to gain a full

picture of the subtle interaction among FCA.

2.6 Need for Further Investigation

The growth in the integration of planning time into TBI has stimulated research,

particularly into the qualities of discourse produced. However, despite the consistent

results found for the facilitative impact of strategic planning on oral fluency, there

were also contradictory findings about its influence on oral complexity and accuracy.

In an attempt to solve the conflicting results, guided planning and pair work were

suggested as two potential solutions to boost the quality of learners' speech utterance.

The present study draws on the theory and methodology of these related but separate

strands of research, including guided planning, focus on form, and pair work. The

researcher attempts to establish whether guided planning has effects on participants'

fluency, complexity, and accuracy of output, with a focal attention on grammatical

accuracy. Moreover, paired planning (i.e. the integration of pair work into the

planning stage) is investigated to see whether learner's oral production improves on

the three aspects, particularly the complexity aspect. The effects of strategic planning

were evaluated through three language aspects (i.e. fluency, complexity, and

accuracy), since they have closely interacted with one another, either competitively or

supportively.

2.7 Research Questions

Taken these purposes into account, the following three research questions are

addressed in this study:

1. What are the effects of guided planning and paired planning on the *fluency* of young

EFL learners' oral discourse during a narrative story-retelling task?

2. What are the effects of guided planning and paired planning on the *complexity* of

young EFL learners' oral discourse during a narrative story-retelling task?

3. What are the effects of guided planning and paired planning on the *accuracy* of

young EFL learners' oral discourse during a narrative story-retelling task?

Chapter Three

Methodology

The current research aims to investigate the effects of guided planning and paired planning on EFL elementary students. The description of the research design comprises four parts. The first part explains the sampling and background of the participants in the study. The second part describes the instruments, including the sampling test, story-retelling tasks, guided worksheets, and the questionnaire. And the last two parts depict the procedure and data analysis of the current study.

3.1 Participants

The participants consisted of ninety 5th and 6th grade EFL students in a public elementary school. The ninety students were considered homogeneous because of two reasons. First, all the participants were of similar English proficiency. All the candidates have passed Flyers (see below), which was a standardized sampling test. As stated in this sampling test, learners having passed this test were labeled as high beginners. Second, all the participants had similar learning experience. They have never studied abroad. And they had little or no opportunity to use English to carry out narrative story-retelling tasks at school or outside the classroom.

With the homogeneity of English proficiency, the ninety participants were

randomly divided into three groups. One group planned by individual without guided

handouts, another one planned by individual with guided worksheets, and the other

one planned in pairs with guided worksheets. These students were invited to

participate in the current study on a voluntary basis. There were no withdrawals

during the study.

3.2 Instruments

The present study adopted four instruments: a sampling test, story-retelling tasks,

guided worksheets, and a questionnaire. The sampling test was used to choose the

participants; story-retelling tasks were used to elicit oral production; guided

worksheets were for the purpose of concentrating learners' focus on grammar rules;

the questionnaire was used to explore candidates' opinions about the effects of

different planning situations on learners' oral production. The details of the data

collection through these instruments are elaborated below.

3.2.1 The Sampling Test

The standardized sampling test, Flyers, was published by Cambridge English for

speakers of other languages (Cambridge ESOL). Three versions of Flyers tests were used in this study. Flyers version one was administered to choose a group of homogeneous participants who were of the same English proficiency level for this study; the other two versions were for the familiarization task (i.e. the warm-up task to prepare participants for the story-retelling performance) and the main task (i.e. the formal story-retelling task during which learners' oral output was collected and analyzed). This sampling test was the highest level of the Young Learners English (YLE) tests. Students who passed this test were labeled as high beginners. The reason for the use of this sampling test is that a four-skill integrated test is a measure of validity, reliability and discrimination.

The sampling criteria were based on the sum of candidates' scores in the sampling test. The candidates' scores in listening, speaking, reading and writing were scored by the researcher. Besides, to ascertain the scoring consistency, an inter-rater reliability analysis using Cohen's kappa was performed (Cohen, 1960). As suggested by Cohen, 20% of the speaking data was randomly selected to be independently scored by a second rater. A Canadian native English speaker scored the speaking part by listening to the recording data. According to Cohen's suggestion, the acceptable level was set at 0.8 in the present study. The inter-rater agreement coefficient was 95% for the analysis of the oral data in the sampling test.

3.2.2 Tasks

Two narrative story-retelling tasks were utilized to collect the data of oral

production: one was the familiarization task (see Appendix A), and the other was the

main task (see Appendix B). These two tasks, chosen from the speaking part of Flyers

version two and three, were published by Cambridge ESOL. The familiarization task,

performed without planning, was employed to familiarize participants with the task

instructions and procedures (Ortega, 1999); the oral output of this part was not

included in the data analysis of this study. On the contrary, when conducting the main

task, students had planning time, and the data collected were analyzed to evaluate the

effects of the planning. Except for the difference between the familiarization and main

tasks mentioned above, these two tasks had the same procedure as follows. At the

beginning of both tasks, participants were presented with picture prompts. Then, they

listened to a recording describing the picture in their L1, Chinese. Such audio

stimulus was assumed to prevent participants from skipping details and to ensure

participants' pertinent interpretation of story content (Berman, 1988). Also, the

participants' cognitive load was reduced so that they could devote optimum energy to

the production task at hand (Robinson, 1995). After listening to the audio recording,

participants had to narrate a story based upon pictures.

The utilization of story narration as familiarization and main tasks in the current

study were for the following reasons. First, similar tasks had been used in other

studies of strategic planning (e.g., Foster, 1996; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Skehan &

Foster, 2005); thus, comparing the results in this study with those in other studies was

easier. Second, in comparison with dialogic tasks, monologic tasks could better reflect

learners' individual performance, which would not be influenced by interactional

variables (Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Third, a picture story which was clearly organized in

time sequence would ease the burden of processing as well as reasonably demanding

interpretation and organization from the learners (Skehan & Foster, 1999). Moreover,

narrative tasks with visual prompts were more concrete for young language learners,

requiring fewer attentional resources from learners to generate the story content. As a

consequence, learners could spare more energy to improve other language

components, such as accuracy and complexity (Skehan, 1996). Last, the story

narrative task in this study conformed to Grade1-9 Curriculum Guidelines for English

Learning Areas that students should apply knowledge of grammar to realistic

communication in a meaningful context.

3.2.3 Guided Worksheet

In this study, a form-focused guided worksheet (see Appendix C) was distributed

to individual guided planning (IGP) and paired guided planning (PGP) groups to draw

participants' attention on grammatical points when they planned for the production

exercise. The rationale for using grammar worksheets was that only with the

assistance of specific external influence, such as form-focused guided worksheets,

would planners attend more to grammar (Tuan & Neomy, 2007). Otherwise, they

would give priority to message conveyance. In brief, such guidance was hypothesized

to boost learners' use of grammatically accurate language when narrating the story.

Simple present tense was chosen as an appropriate grammatical point in this

guided worksheet. As stated in Grade1-9 Curriculum Guidelines for English Learning

Areas, stipulated by Ministry of Education (MOE), this grammatical concept is to be

instructed in the elementary and junior stages. All the participants were reported to

have been equipped with knowledge of simple present tense, which is conventionally

taught in fifth and sixth grades. Whereas simple present tense was part of background

knowledge for the participants, they were expected to encounter difficulties in

learning this tense. Based on DeKeyser's (2005) study, present tense, particularly the

third-person singular form, was very abstract and difficult for students. For instance, a

third singular present morpheme "-s" would be easily confused with the plural and

possessive morphemes "-s" because of the same grammatical form but exactly

different grammatical meanings. Also, DeKeyser's study mentioned that learners had

difficulty in using present tense where one morpheme "-s" comprised three meanings (i.e. singular, third person and present tense). That is, students had to consider three elements before applying present tense into a sentence, including a singular subject, a third person subject, and an appropriate context. Present tense, demonstrated as a common difficulty for language learners, was therefore a grammatical rule worth of instruction.

To ensure the reliability of the guided handout, the researcher created the guided worksheet based on Sangarun's (2005) principles of making guided note-sheets. Three pilot tests were carried out in Sangarun's strategic planning research to generate effective instructions for directing learners' main focus to plan on form. Thus, the worksheet in this study was assumed to be reliable enough by strictly following Sangarun's standards for worksheet development.

As for the validity of this worksheet, a group of in-service teachers were counseled for opinions about the layout and the instructive clarity and appropriateness. The revised handout provided the following instructions for students to construct the story in an incremental manner. It served as a heuristic tool for the students' story planning. Step one guided participants to plan the vocabulary first, and it also advised students to think of just sufficient number of words which could express an idea. Based on Levelt's (1989) study, the retrieval of vocabulary occurs before children

transform message into a verbal output, with syntactical formulation and grammatical

encoding following afterwards. In addition, students should plan efficiently by not

wasting time thinking of too many possible words for one meaning (Sangarun, 2005).

Step two offered participants target grammatical structures which could be used in this

story-retelling task, and it taught participants to draft by writing down the main part of

grammatical structure. Hulstijn and Hulstijn's (1984) study proposed that learners

could put more grammar into practice if the target grammatical concept was expressed

precisely and clearly. Step three again reminded participants to pay focal attention to

create sentences with correct forms. According to Hulstijn and Hulstijn, such

reminder was supposed to boost students' accurate use of grammatical structures.

3.2.4 Questionnaire

The self-designed questionnaires (see Appendix D) were used to further explore

participants' perception toward the effects of various planning conditions, which the

quantitative measures (see below) of the present study might fail to show. To

guarantee the reliability, Cronbach's alpha was calculated to ensure the internal

consistency of questionnaire items. To guarantee the validity, an expert validity survey

was carried out. Two modifications were made after the implementation of the expert

validity survey. First, a four-point Likert scale was used to investigate participants'

perception about the story-retelling activity. The level of agreement was categorized into strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strongly agree. The second adaption was about the clarity of instructions which directed students with positive or negative attitudes towards planning to answer the corresponding questions.

The revised questionnaire consisted of two parts. Part one consisted of personal questions asking the name, age, gender, and English learning experiences of the participant. Part two were composed of eight multiple-choice questions and one open-ended question to find out (1) what perceptions participants had towards different planning situations and (2) how various planning situations helped or hindered participants' performance. The questionnaires were distributed to all the participants and were collected right after the main story-retelling activity.

3.3 Procedure

The study began with a sampling test to choose ninety participants of high beginning level. Subsequently, a familiarization task (Ortega, 1999) preceded the main task to acquaint participants with the task instructions and procedures. Three planning conditions for the current study were individual unguided planning, individual guided planning, and paired guided planning. What follows were the details of the procedure in this study.

Flyers, the standardized sampling test published by Cambridge ESOL, was administered to 150 students from which a sample of 90 participants were finally selected. The researcher scored the speaking section with another colleague, who scored the speaking performance by listening to the recordings. Inter-rater reliability was guaranteed by conducting Cohen's kappa statistics, which were considered acceptable at 80 percent (Cohen, 1960). One week before the main task, the participants were acquainted with the instruction and task procedures by completing a familiarization task, which involved the same procedure with the main task except for three distinctions: (1) participants were offered no planning time, (2) the narrative task was of variant content from the main task, and (3) participants' oral performance was recorded for the purpose of acquainting participants to the audio recording, but the recording data was excluded from the data analysis (Ortega, 1999).

After elaborating on the difference between the familiarization and the main tasks, the researcher next presented the same part of the detailed process during which three planning conditions were implemented.

There were three different planning situations in the current study: condition one was the individual planning without a guided worksheet, i.e. individual unguided planning group (IUP), condition two was the individual planning with a guided worksheet, i.e. individual guided planning group (IGP), and condition three was the

paired planning with guided worksheet, i.e. paired guided planning group (PGP).

Planning condition one was the control group, while planning condition two and three

were experimental groups. Both familiarization and main tasks were carried out

during regular class time in the regular classroom. At first, the researcher used

Chinese to explain and demonstrate the narrative task to prevent participants from

misunderstanding task demands. Then, the participants were assigned the role of

speakers and were provided with the picture prompts. After receiving pictures, the

speakers listened to an audio recording depicting the story in L1. The audio input was

succeeded by 10 minutes of planning time. Before planning, paper and pens were

distributed to participants to make notes. During this time, the speakers in IGP and

PGP groups received guided worksheets. The participants were informed that the

guided worksheet provided valuable information about how to make use of planning

time and what grammatical structures to concentrate on, such as the grammatical

usage of present tense. During planning time, speakers in IGP and IUP groups

planned by making individual notes. These two groups were distinguished by having

or not having the support of guided worksheets. As for speakers in the PGP group,

they discussed and made notes in pairs with guided worksheets. All participants were

told that the notes and the worksheet would be taken away after the planning phase

was over. After the planning, speakers narrated the story in English based on the

picture, while the other classmates played the role of listeners who received jumbled

pictures that needed to be sequenced. Such an arrangement created an information gap

to bring out participants' best performance since participants would be motivated by

the communicative need to make their classmates rearrange the jumbled pictures

correctly (Brown & Yule, 1983). There was no time limitation for the performance.

Speakers' oral performances were recorded during both task executions; only the

recordings of the main task were transcribed and analyzed according to some

established criteria.

For IGP and PGP groups, they were differentiated by the individual planning or

paired planning variable, and the following details of procedure were taken care of. To

prevent learners from influencing each other, the individual planners were instructed

to maintain silence and carefully prepare for the story-retelling task during planning

time. Besides, the paired planners were only allowed to talk to their partner during

planning time, and no one was allowed to discuss with each other during the

story-retelling activity. In terms of the language used during discussion, paired

planners were free to communicate in either English or Chinese. This was to ensure

that participants could make the most of the planning time.

3.4 Data Analysis

To answer research questions one to three—to examine the effects of guided

planning and paired planning on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy of young EFL

learners' oral discourse during a narrative story-retelling task, an analysis of

variances (ANOVA) was implemented based on fluency, complexity, and accuracy

measures. Built upon Yuan and Ellis' (2003) study, the three measures were adopted

because the tasks and EFL context in Ellis's study were similar to those in the

current study, and the measures could match the purpose of the current study.

Moreover, they were one of the most widely used measures in evaluating the

quantity of participants' oral production (e.g., Foster & Skehan, 1996; Kawauchi,

2005); hence, a comparison of the results of this study with those of other studies

was easier. After all the means of fluency, complexity, and accuracy were obtained,

ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the effects of various planning conditions. In

addition, an inter-rater percentage consistency was calculated to assure analysis

reliability (see below).

3.4.1 Fluency Measures

To answer research questions one, two fluency measures were used due to two

reasons. Firstly, they provided complementary viewpoints towards variant aspects of

speech fluency (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005). For rate A, fluency referred to speed of delivery which took account of every syllable during articulation; for rate B, fluency was considered as meaningful productivity which pruned away every repetition, reformulation, and replacement. Secondly, these two fluency measures were almost identical to those carried out in other studies (e.g., Crookes, 1989; Sangarun, 2005; Wendel, 1997). Thus, it was convenient to compare the fluency results with those in the previous literature.

1. Rate A (number of syllables per minute): the number of syllables within each narrative, divided by the number of seconds used to complete the task and multiplied by 60.

2. Rate B (number of meaningful syllables per minute): as in rate A but with all syllables, words, phrases that were repeated, reformulated, or replaced excluded. Examples of repetition, replacement and reformulation are offered below.

   a. Repetition

      e.g.﹛Today﹜Today is David's birthday.

   b. Replacement: replace a word or a phrase with another word or phrase

      e.g.﹛They﹜His friends go home.

   c. Reformulation: reformulate part of a word

      e.g. He﹛go﹜goes to the room and sees a big gift.

3.4.2 Complexity Measures

   To answer research questions two, two quantitative complexity measures were

adopted, including syntactic complexity and lexical complexity based on Ellis' (2003)

study.

1. Syntactic complexity: the ratio of clauses to T-units. Syntactic complexity was

   closely related to T-units. A T-unit containing more clauses indicated that it was

   more syntactically complex. Following Hunt's (1966) study, a T-unit was initially

   defined as one main clause with or without subordinate clauses. This original

   definition was widely used in a lot of strategic planning studies. In this study,

   syntactic complexity was measured by analyzing speech samples and calculating

   the ratio of clauses to T-units. T-units were used in this study for two reasons. The

   first reason was that a T-unit was one of the most common units for oral speech

   researchers to divide the transcribed data into units for the observation of linguistic

   features, such as complexity (Foster, Tonkyn, & Wigglesworth, 2000). The second

   reason was that a T-unit was designed to deal with one-way narratives, just as the

   monologic story-retelling task used in this study (Gilabert, 2007). As noted above,

   this type of unit was sufficient for the segmentation of the oral data in this study. In

   the following, the principle of dissecting the transcript of participants' production

   was elaborated with examples, where a T-unit boundary was marked by an upright

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slash (…|…), and a clause boundary within a T-unit was marked by a double colon (::).

a. A simple T-unit contained only one main clause without a subordinate clause

   e.g. | He is so surprised | (1 main clause, 1 T-unit)

      Syntactic complexity =1 /1 =1

   e.g. | David receives a gift | (1 main clause, 1 T-unit)

      Syntactic complexity =1 /1 =1

 b. A more complex T-unit consisted of one main clause with one or more

   subordinate clauses

   e.g. | When he goes to the next room :: he sees a big gift | (one subordinate and

      one main clauses, one T-unit)

      Syntactic complexity =2 /1 =2

   e.g. | Their heart broke :: when they realized :: that the baby has passed away |

      (one main and two subordinate clauses, one T-unit)

      Syntactic complexity =3 /1 =3

 c. A subordinate clause was not a sentence that could exist independently, but a

   dependent clause containing a verb plus at least one clausal element, such as a

   subject, an adverbial, or an object.

   e.g. | The boy wanted :: to buy toy pigs | (one main clause and one subordinate

clause, one T-unit)

　　Syntactic complexity =2 /1 =2

　e.g. | She was in no mood to play | (one main clause, one T-unit)

　　Syntactic complexity =1/1=1

d. Care needed to be taken while discriminating between coordinated phrases

　　from coordinated clauses. This is exemplified in the following transcribed data.

　　(1) Coordinated phrases were sentences which connected nouns or verbs with

　　　coordinated conjunctions. They were considered as one T-unit.

　　e.g. | David's father, mother, sister and friends all come to the party | (one main

　　　clause, one T-unit)

　　　Syntactic complexity =1/1=1

　　e.g. | The girl sat down and did her homework | (one main clause, one T-unit)

　　　Syntactic complexity =1/1=1

　　(2) Coordinated clauses were several main clauses which were connected with

　　　conjunctions, such as *and*, *but*, or *then*. In the first example as follows, the

　　　three sentences were counted as three T-units. But only coordinate

　　　conjunctions such as those mentioned could join main clauses;

　　　subordinating conjunctions, like *when*, *because*, etc., could only be

　　　succeeded by subordinate clauses.

e.g. | He likes the drum |

| And he plays the drum a long time |

| But his father and mother are unhappy | (three main clauses, three

T-units)

Syntactic complexity =3/3=1

e.g. | After his friends come home:: he also plays the drum | (one subordinate

and one main clauses, one T-unit)

Syntactic complexity =2/1=2

2. Lexical Complexity: the measure of mean segmental type-token ratio (MSTTR)

(Richards & Malvern, 2002) was employed to evaluate the lexical complexity of

participants' oral production. The meaning of type-token ratio (TTR) was introduced

first, and then the supporting literature for a mean segment (MS) was provided as

follows. First, type referred to variant kinds of words, and token was defined as the

number of words in a context. For example, in the utterance "I love you, and you love

me", there are seven tokens. And since the words "love" and "you" are both repeated

two times, there are only five types in the discourse. In other words, of the total seven

tokens, there are five types. Consequently, the relationship between number of type

and number of token, so called type-token ratio, can be calculated by dividing the five

types by seven tokens. However, the validity of type-token ratio was usually claimed

to be affected by variation of productive length, hence the MSTTR was suggested by

Richards and Malvern to calculate the average TTR for segments of forty words.

Participants' narratives were first divided into segments of 40 words. Then, the TTR

of each segment was calculated. After adding the TTR scores for each segment and

dividing the total scores by the number of segments, we can come up with the

MSTTR. The measure of lexical complexity employed in this study is in the form of

the following equation, where 1～N are segments 1~N, and N is the total number of

segments:

$$TTR=Types/Tokens$$

$$MSTTR=（TTR<1>+TTR<2>+…+TTR<N>）/N$$

Seg 1 (40 words)	Seg 2 (40 words)	Seg 3 (40 words)	… (40 words)	Seg N (40 words)
TTR 1	TTR 2	TTR 3	TTR …	TTR N

3.4.3 Accuracy Measures

To answer research question three, two accuracy measures were adopted on the

grounds that they investigated two crucial features of language accuracy, including a

general examination of oral accuracy (i.e. error-free clauses) and a specific focus on

verb forms (i.e. correct verb forms), which was one focal point of the form-focused

guided worksheet in this study.

1. Clausal accuracy: the proportion of error-free clauses to the total number of clauses. Error-free clauses were defined as clauses where no errors occurred with regard to syntax, morphology, lexical appropriateness or collocation.

2. Verb accuracy: the ratio of correctly used verbs to the total number of verbs was calculated. Errors pertaining to tense, aspect, modality, and subject-verb agreement were counted.

3.4.4 Interrater Reliability

An inter-rater agreement, calculated by means of percentage agreement, was performed to ensure interrater consistency in analyzing learners' performances. From each group, 20% of the oral transcription in the main study was randomly selected to be analyzed by a second rater (Cohen, 1960). There were two raters in this study, one was the researcher and the other was a Canadian native English speaker majoring in linguistics. Both raters were familiar with the purpose and research design of this study. Based on Cohen's conclusion, a percentage agreement of at least 80% was considered acceptable. The interrater consistency was 97% for the segmentation of the narrative data into T-units, and the interrater agreement was 93% for the calculation of the three measures.

Chapter Four

Results

This chapter focuses on the results of the quantitative analysis of the speech data. The descriptive statistics of the linguistic outcomes from the three planning conditions are compared first. Then, these data are submitted to one-way ANOVA to evaluate the effects of different planning conditions. The following content is organized as follows. Part one is related to research question one—what are the effects of guided planning and paired planning on the fluency of young EFL learners' oral discourse during a narrative story-retelling task? Part two and three focus on research questions two and three respectively—what are the effects of guided planning and paired planning on the complexity of young EFL learners' oral discourse during a narrative story-retelling task? What are the effects of guided planning and paired planning on the accuracy of young EFL learners' oral discourse? A more detailed report on these results is offered below.

4.1 Fluency

The first section examines the outcomes of the fluency aspect of participants' oral performances through two kinds of fluency measures, one is rate A (i.e. number of syllables per minute) and the other is rate B (i.e. number of meaningful syllables).

Table 4.1 (see below) presents the mean fluency rates of participants' oral production under three planning conditions. Overall, the results were of similar patterns for both fluency measures. Individual guided planning (IGP) had the highest fluency mean for both rate A (109.28) and rate B (102.97), and individual unguided planning (IUP) had the lowest fluency mean scores, 96.25 and 91.79 for rate A and rate B respectively. As shown in Table 4.1, however, the one way ANOVA yielded no significant difference among the three planning groups for both fluency measures. It is concluded that neither guided worksheets nor paired planning can conspicuously help participants in performing tasks more fluently.

Table 4.1 Means of Fluency

	Means (SD)				
	IUP (n=30)	IGP (n=30)	PGP (n=30)	F-value	Sig.
Rate A	96.25(23.20)	109.28(27.42)	100.57(27.67)	1.93	.15 (ns)
Rate B	91.79(23.12)	102.97(27.52)	95.52(27.83)	1.41	.24 (ns)

Note. IUP=individual unguided planning group,

  IGP=individual guided planning group, PGP=paired guided planning group

  SD=standard deviation, ns=no significant difference at p >.05

4.2 Complexity

The second section considers the results for complexity. Two measures were used to assess the complexity of participants' oral narrative production: syntactical complexity and lexical variety. Results of the complexity measures are presented in Table 4.2. In terms of both complexity measures, there was a similar ranking pattern for complexity scores among the three planning groups. With respect to syntactic complexity, the paired guided planning group (PGP) obtained the highest mean (1.42), the IGP group the intermediate (1.37), and the IUP group achieved the lowest mean (1.31) (PGP>IGP>IUP). With respect to lexical variety, the PGP group also obtained higher mean scores than the IGP group (0.72>0.70), with the IUP group having the lowest mean scores (0.69) (PGP>IGP>IUP). Nevertheless, the results of ANOVA shown in Table 4.2 suggested that the three planning groups were not noticeably different in using complex sentences and words to narrate the story.

Table 4.2 Means of Complexity

	Means(SD)			F-value	Sig.
	IUP (n=30)	IGP (n=30)	PGP (n=30)		
Syntactical Complexity	1.31 (0.22)	1.37(0.23)	1.42 (0.23)	1.927	.152(ns)
Lexical Variety	0.69 (0.06)	0.70 (0.05)	0.72 (0.04)	3.050	.052(ns)

Note. IUP=individual unguided planning group, IGP=individual guided planning

group, PGP=paired guided planning group

SD=standard deviation, ns=no significant difference at p >.05

4.3 Accuracy

Lastly, the effects on accuracy were evaluated via two measures: error-free

clauses and error-free verbs. For both accuracy measures, there was a consistent

ranking pattern for the effect of various planning conditions on participants' oral

accuracy, as shown in Table 4.3. Accuracy in the use of correct clauses and verbs was

the highest in the PGP group (73.12% accurate clauses and 80.61% accurate verbs),

while the IUP group tended to be the least accurate(45.69% accurate clauses and

58.77% accurate verbs). Further analysis of the ANOVA showed that the three groups

yielded significant differences in clausal and verb accuracy (p= .000), demonstrating

that the participants accomplished story-retelling tasks with manifestly different

amount of accurate clauses and verbs under three kinds of planning conditions.

Table 4.3 Means of Accuracy (% correct)

	Means(SD)			F-value	Sig.
	IUP (n=30)	IGP (n=30)	PGP (n=30)		
Correct Clauses	45.69(17.69)	67.08(13.88)	73.12(13.11)	27.10	.000***
Correct Verbs	58.77(15.21)	76.93(13.10)	80.61(10.06)	24.51	.000***

Note. IUP=individual unguided planning group, IGP=individual guided planning

group, PGP=paired guided planning group

SD=standard deviation, ns=no significant difference at p >.05, *** p <.001

A post hoc test was carried out for both accuracy measures (see Table 4.4). In

both cases, the post hoc test indicated that the significant difference was between IUP

and IGP groups (p= .000). In contrast, for both accuracy measures, the post hoc test

failed to show substantial differences between the IGP and PGP groups. These data

summarized above revealed that guided planning notably assisted participants in using

accurate clauses and verbs to tell the story, while paired planning did not benefit

participants to perform tasks with more grammatically accurate language.

Table 4.4 Locations of Significance Related to Accuracy

	Locations of Significance	
	IUP-IGP	IGP- PGP
Correct Clauses	.000***	.211
Correct Verbs	.000***	.480

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p <.001

Chapter Five

Discussion

The aim of this study is to examine the effects of guided planning and paired planning on the fluency, complexity and accuracy of young learners' oral production. The main focus will be laid on the speech performances of individual guided planning (IGP) group and paired guided planning (PGP) group; the individual unguided planning group (IUP) serves as a control group to be compared with the IGP group. This chapter will address findings in the current study versus findings in the previous studies as well as possible explanations for the findings.

5.1 Fluency

The purpose of this section is to evaluate the effects of guided worksheets and paired planning on participants' oral narratives from the language facet of fluency. The findings reported here partly support those in former planning studies.

5.1.1 The Effects of Guided Planning on Oral Fluency

The results of this empirical study indicated that for both rate A and rate B, participants in the IGP group did not tell the story more fluently than those in the IUP group. Apparently, the use of guidance did not lead participants to speak more fluently. Such results are inconsistent with those in the previous literature (Foster & Skehan,

1996; Kawauchi, 2005; Mehnert, 1998; Sangarun, 2005; Wendel, 1997), which

reported positive effects of guided planning on fluency. Possible explanations for this

discrepancy are as follows.

The offer of a recorded version of the story in L1 might have minimized task

difficulty and resulted in the inconspicuous effect of guidance on fluency. Foster and

Skehan's (1996) study noted that the effects of guidance on enhancing fluent

production might be more prominent for cognitively challenging tasks, such as the

narrative tasks in this study, than for "ready-encoded" tasks, such as personal

information tasks. In the present study, although more fluent speech was assumed to

be stimulated by narrative tasks, the provision of L1 story translation prior to the

narrative task might have decreased the difficulty level of tasks. Consequently,

learners could easily perform tasks fluently without the need for guided planning. And

the fluency difference between guided and unguided groups was reduced. In other

words, without the aid of L1 translation, narrative tasks could be more challenging.

Therefore, the effects of guidance might be more notable in stimulating guided

planners to narrate a story more fluently.

In addition, as Mochizuki and Ortega (2008) mentioned in their study, the

unguided planners' avoidance of certain tough content and their focus on rehearsal

might contribute to the unnoticeable difference in fluency between guided and

unguided groups. A similar situation was also found in this study. The IUP

participants, with no guided handouts as linguistic resources to rely on, might have

skipped the tough part of the story, selectively drafted what they were able to write,

and produced the shortest output (by almost 15 words fewer on average than the

guided planners' output). Consequently, the IUP planners had more practicing time,

concentrated on practicing the shorter story, and their fluency difference from guided

speakers was narrowed.

Moreover, Ellis (2009) suggested that the direction of learners' attention to a

single aspect, such as grammatical structure, might result in the unnoticeable

influence of guided planning on productive fluency. Numerous studies also observed

that, under the situation of guidance towards both form and meaning, the speech

manifested significantly higher fluency than the speech under unguided planning

(Crookes, 1989; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Sangarun, 2005 ; Wendel,

1997). Sangarun (2005) explored deeper into this issue by comparing the effects of

various guided planning (i.e. a focus on form, on meaning, and on both meaning and

form) on the quality of learners' utterance. Sangarun found that the provision of a

guided worksheet which aimed only at grammar is less effective than guided planning

that is focused jointly on meaning and form. It was hypothesized that a balanced

orientation of learners' attention to both form and meaning could reduce learners'

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cognitive burden to comprehend grammatical concepts and formulate ideas. Learners, with lighter processing load, could have more attentional resources to monitor the grammatical structures in speech production as well as narrate the story more fluently. In this study, students only received form-focused guidance, which might alleviate participants' processing load during grammar conceptualization. However, it was still effort-consuming for them to formulate the story content. Therefore, guided planning did not significantly lead to greater speech fluency. Correspondingly, such an unremarkable impact of guidance on oral fluency was shown in other form-focused guided planning studies (Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Skehan & Foster, 1999).

5.1.2 The Effects of Paired Planning on Oral Fluency

The results of the statistical analysis revealed that there was not more fluent speech in paired planners' story retelling. The results for fluency corroborate those found in Foster and Skehan's (1999) and Tuan and Neomy's (2007) studies. This finding is congruent with Levelt's (1989) report that fluency cannot be considerably boosted unless learners can use the planning time efficiently. Such planning efficiency is highly related to an efficient cooperation through working with a fixed talking partner (Pinter, 2007) and sufficient warm-up preparation (Luoma, 2004). On the one hand, Pinter indicated the importance for young participants to repeatedly practice

tasks with the same partner, so that they could understand mutual needs more and

assist each other more efficiently. In this study, it was probably laborious for

participants to communicate efficiently with randomly assigned peers, leading to

influent speech. On the other hand, Luoma reported that paired speaking test-takers

required appropriate pre-task training to discuss with partners efficiently. The

implementation of only one familiarization task in this study might be insufficient to

promote discussing efficiency. For these two reasons noted above, paired planners

may take too much planning time on discussion at the expense of rehearsal time.

More specifically, it was necessary to acquaint young participants with the model of

paired discussion task. Such judicious interactive training with a fixed interlocutor

could enable young learners to discuss more efficiently, utilize more time for rehearsal,

and thus tell a story more fluently.

Furthermore, paired planners have made consistent comments on paired planning.

Many of the PGP planners (67%) disapprove the valuable role of paired planning in

oral fluency, while a small portion (33%) expressed high opinions. Among the

negative comments on the effects of paired planning on fluency, some paired planners

felt that individual planning was more efficient than paired planning. Others noted

that they did not have the chance to rehearse since their speaking partners kept

interrupting. Therefore, a less fluent articulation was produced as a consequence of

candidates' spending too much time on discussion instead of rehearsal. Such results

are also in tune with Chiu's (2008) study where the majority of participants showed

preference for self-preparation over paired discussion due to the inefficiency of paired

planning.

5.2 Complexity

We turn next to examine the impact of the guided and paired variable on

productive complexity. Overall, only half of the results obtained in this study fit into

findings in earlier research, as illustrated below.

5.2.1 The Effects of Guided Planning on Oral Complexity

According to the quantitative complexity measures, there were no noticeable

differences in paired planners' use of complex sentences and words for story narration.

Whereas previous studies of strategic planning obtained conflicting findings, the

current results for complexity verify those found by Mehnert (1998), Tajima (2003),

Elder and Iwashita (2005) and Gilabert (2007) that strategic planning had no

significant effects on stimulating discourse complexity.

First, this finding is compatible with Elder and Iwashita's (2005) argument that

narrative tasks might not be challenging enough to induce participants' complexity

performances since the participants would pay most attention to organizing the story

content instead of taking the risk of using greater language variety. The argument

noted above might explain the null effects of guidance on complexity in the present

study. The tasks in this study were composed of a series of pictures, with the tellers

having the pictures in order and the audience having unscrambled ones. The

sequencing nature of the task might persuade participants to focus on conveying main

ideas in an organized and understandable way, so that the audience could reorder the

pictures more easily. Participants' reflection from the questionnaire mirrored the

suggestion mentioned above that they thought their ability to address the audience

was improved after attending this story-retelling activity. That is, the participants'

main focus was on the audience to whom they endeavored to convey the meaning

completely and clearly. In short, participants maintained concentration on the story

content when accomplishing narrative tasks. As a result, the oral output of

sophisticated language was hindered.

Also, this finding confirmed Foster and Skehan's (1996) conclusions that the L1

story translation might have weakened the effects of guidance on language complexity.

Foster and Skehan reported that complicated and difficult tasks would enhance the

impact of strategic planning. According to their research, the most linguistically

complex production shown as a function of guidance was for the narrative task, while

the least complex discourse was for the easiest personal task. In this empirical study,

although narrative tasks were supposed to promote the function of strategic planning

in this study, the offer of L1 story translation in precedent of the task might decrease

the task difficulty as well as weakening the effects of guidance on productive

complexity. Such finding of the insignificant influence of guidance on output

complexity is in complete agreement with Mochizuki and Ortega's (2008)

investigation, in which the L1 story content was delivered to participants prior to the

task.

Furthermore, this finding is congruent with Skehan's (1996) argument of

memory limitation. He noted that the human psychological space is limited.

Accordingly, when they focus on one aspect of performance, other aspects are paid

less attention to. In other words, various dimensions of the production compete for

finite mental resources. In the current study, significant outcome was gained for

guidance on accuracy, while unnoticeable difference was found in complexity. It

appears that it was difficult for participants to give consideration to both complexity

and accuracy at the same time. Such results also echo Crookes' (1989) finding that

whereas strategic planning promoted learners' oral accuracy, there was weak

improvement in complexity. To sum up, if the impact of guidance on accuracy

increased, its' effects on complexity would decrease, and vice versa.

Finally, the inconspicuous influence of guidance on complexity may be related to

participants' low proficiency. Several studies (Ortega, 1999; Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008) suggested that if learners' proficiency was only at an incipient stage, they may not be equipped with the ability to complexify their speech. That is to say, a proficiency ceiling effect has restrained learners' performance from becoming more linguistically complex. In this study, despite the high-beginning proficiency of participants, they were still of low proficiency, compared with those in other strategic planning research, such as Kawauchi's (2005) intermediate senior high and Sangarun's (2005) intermediate to advanced attendants. Accordingly, even if given planning time, participants still did not know how to conduct the tasks with more complex utterances. In this study, participants' output transcription exhibited their initial level of proficiency. From the speech data, the researcher found that participants preferred to use syntactically simple sentences (*e.g., He was so surprised.*) than complex ones (*e.g., He was so surprised to see his mother that he started crying.*) in story-retelling. To conclude, for low proficiency students, it could be an arduous task to narrate a story with complex sentences during a short period of time.

5.2.2 The Effects of Paired Planning on Oral Complexity

From the results of the quantitative analysis, there were evidently no differences between PGP and IGP groups. It may reasonably be suggested that the paired element

did not aid participants in performing richer and more variant language. This result

does not support the findings in previous research (Brooks, 2009; Chiu, 2008; Taylor,

2000). In trying to account for such discrepancy, several potential reasons are offered

below.

First, the lack of task repetition (i.e. exercising the same kind of task repeatedly)

might impede learners from communicating efficiently and making modifications to

increase language complexity. Pinter (2007) claimed that task repetition would help

improve students' oral production in complexity. The students in Pinter's study and in

the present study were of similar age and proficiency, with only one major difference

in the research design; that is, students in the former study had the chance to

repeatedly practice the same task type. It was suggested that such task repetition could

release the students' psychological capacity so that they could manage tasks more

effectively (Bygate, 2001) as well as carry out tasks with more variant syntax and

lexicon (Bygate, 1996; 2001; Bygate & Samuda, 2005; Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres,

& Fernandez-Garcia, 1999). As reported by Pinter, younger students particularly need

task repetition to get acquainted with task demands. So that learners can maximize

their potential for carrying out tasks. In this study, only one familiarization task was

operated to familiarize young students with task procedures, which might be too

time-consuming and energy-consuming for them to handle. So, students' mental space

would be too occupied to effectively process information and produce more complex language.

Second, Doughty and Pica (1986) pointed out that the one-way task type (e.g., a narrative story-retelling task) might not be motivating enough to bring out students' interaction, which is closely related to learners' oral production complexity (Stewig & Young, 1978). The reduced amount of interaction might in turn lead to the inconspicuous influence of pair work on verbal output complexity. Doughty and Pica suggested that more language interaction would be initiated if the task type compelled students to interact for the accomplishment of task, such as two way information gap tasks. Such increase in collaborative interaction has been proved to contribute to participants' overall performance (Pellegrini & Galda, 1982). According to Stewig and Young's study, participants' language complexity performance, in particular, would also be boosted with requirement of peer interaction to recall the story. In this study, although paired discussion was integrated into the planning phase before the narrative task, candidates might not feel the necessity of exchanging information to accomplish the one-way task. Consequently, the decline in dyad interaction may have contributed to the PGP planners' weak performance in complexifying their language.

Moreover, the similar language proficiency levels between speaking pairs may also lessen the amount of interaction (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Porter, 1983; Varonis &

Gass, 1983). Thus, the effect of pair work on language complexity was weakened (Stewig & Young, 1978). In this study, talking pairs were all language beginners with limited language ability to digest certain information obtained from oral partners during a short period of time. Therefore, despite the provision of interactive opportunities during the planning time, participants may not be enthusiastic enough to engage in interaction (Doughty & Pica, 1986). Based on the argument stated above about the close relationship between interaction and language complexity, the decreasing peer interaction might interfere with participants' output performance in terms of linguistic complexity.

Obviously, the results of quantitative analysis on complexity indicated that paired planners did not use more complex language to perform the task. However, it was interesting to find that planners in IGP and PGP groups used qualitatively different words for story narration. Based on Daller, Hout, and Treffers-Daller's (2003) report, an inclusion of all basic words for the complexity measure might not provide illuminative information about the actual size of students' lexical variety. Compared with purely quantitative analysis, the qualitative analysis on learners' production of higher-level vocabulary could provide more profound insight into planners' competence in managing the complex lexicon, which was acquired at the later stage of language acquisition (Meara & Bell, 2001). Given that the participants in the

present study were high beginners who can control basic vocabulary, the researcher

further investigated the effects of paired planning on the lexical richness via an

examination on students' use of higher level vocabulary. When examining

participants' quality of lexical complexity, we assign different weight to fundamental

and higher level words. In the qualitative examination, specific attention was paid to

how the planners' productive lexicon differ in the use of only higher level words,

while the focus was on all-level words in the quantitative analysis of mean segmental

type-token ratio (MSTTR). A vocabulary list of 320 high frequency words for

elementary students in Hsinchu city, stipulated by Hsinchu City Education

Department based on the 1200-word list stipulated by Ministry of Education, was

adopted in this study. The 320 high frequency words were considered basic words in

this study. Through an inclusion of only higher level vocabulary, i.e. excluding all the

320 basic words, the results offered further insights into whether paired planning

affected participants' performance on the higher level lexicon.

On contrary to the insignificant results of the quantitative lexical complexity

measure, the ANOVA found the main effects of planning conditions on higher level

lexical complexity (p=.000), as seen in Table 5.1. It is indicated that the three groups

of planners used evidently different level of vocabulary to tell the story. The results of

the post hoc test (see Table 5.2) showed that PGP group notably outperformed IGP

group in the use of higher level words, but no significant difference was found

between IGP and IUP groups, i.e. PGP>IGP=IUP. This result might explain the

finding that in case of quantitative lexical variety, a marginally significant effect

(p=0.52) was found among groups (see Table 4.2). Also, such difference in the quality

of word usage seemed suggest that the paired variable might have the potential to

boost participants' productive quality in terms of lexical complexity. The results are in

line with the observations in prior studies in the following aspects.

Table 5.1 Means of Higher Level Lexical Complexity

	Means(SD)			F-value	Sig.
	IUP (n=30)	IGP (n=30)	PGP (n=30)		
Higher Level Lexicon	0.24 (0.06)	0.24 (0.05)	0.31 (0.04)	20.66	.000***

Note. IUP=individual unguided planning group, IGP=individual guided planning

group, PGP=paired guided planning group

SD=standard deviation, ns=no significant difference at p >.05, *** p <.001

Table 5.2 Locations of Significance Related to Higher Level Lexical Complexity

	Locations of Significance	
	IUP-IGP	IGP- PGP
Higher Level Lexicon	.873	.000***

Note. IUP=individual unguided planning group, IGP=individual guided planning

group, PGP=paired guided planning group

SD=standard deviation, ns=no significant difference at p >.05, *** p <.001

A partial explanation for this finding may lie in the fact that planning in pairs

created a social context that supported in pushing learners' to their limits. Pair work

has been reported to stimulate learners to modify and complexify their conversational

production (Elder & Iwashita, 2005; Doughty & Pica, 1986; Pica & Doughty, 1985).

Although a monologue narrative task, with its meaning-centered nature, was not

considered stimulating enough for learners to boost complexity of oral utterance, the

embedment of the paired variable into the planning phase could psychologically

motivate learners to strive for the better performance (Elder & Iwashita, 2005). It was

reasonable to infer that the quality of lexical complexity might be enhanced in this

study, as a consequence of planning in pairs. Brooks' (2009) and Chiu's (2008)

research supported this finding that pair work, one of the main social interaction

manifestations in classroom, played a crucial role in enhancing L2 acquisition,

especially with regards to productive complexity.

Tentative support for this speculation is provided by the questionnaire feedback. According to the candidates' opinions, more than two thirds of the PGP candidates felt that they could resort to their partners when encountering unfamiliar vocabulary while only one third of the IGP planners expressed their capability of figuring out unacquainted words by themselves. Apparently, the PGP speakers felt that planning in pairs had enabled them to retrieve unfamiliar vocabulary that would otherwise be inaccessible. In short, the paired element had a strong effect on assisting participants to produce qualitatively complex vocabulary.

5.3 Accuracy

The final part focuses on how guided planning and paired planning had influenced the accuracy of learners' performance on oral tasks. The findings in the current study are in remarkable accord with results obtained in previous studies.

5.3.1 The Effects of Guided Planning on Oral Accuracy

This empirical study found that guided planners notably produced a larger number of accurate verbs and clauses than unguided planners. The findings are in substantial agreement with the findings in previous research (e.g., Crooks, 1989;

Ortega, 1999; Skehan & Foster, 2005) that the assistance of guided handouts is effective in facilitating accurate utterances.

First, a presentation task (i.e. a task which requires learners to act in front of the audience) was meaning-oriented instead of grammar-oriented. Hence, only when participants were offered particular guidance would they transfer their attention to grammatical accuracy (Tuan & Neomy, 2007). It was also mentioned that since the task was not assessed, participants seemed unlikely to shift concern from meaning to grammatical accuracy when there was no guidance (Ortega, 1999; Ortega, 2005). The provision of guidance during planning time would enable learners to access their grammatical knowledge more fully with consequential benefits for accuracy (Ortega, 1999).

Besides, it was reported that guided planning could better benefit beginners' productive accuracy than advanced learners, who were capable of monitoring their own production accuracy (Mochizuki & Ortega, 2008; Ortega, 2005). The finding of this study is consistent with the above contention that guidance substantially enhanced beginning-leveled participants' accurate utterances. All in all, almost all the relevant literature lends support to the positive influence of guided planning on accuracy. This study further confirms what previous researchers have discovered.

5.3.2 The Effects of Paired Planning on Oral Accuracy

Even though the paired variable verified a positive effect on increasing the

quality of lexical complexity to some degree, it was not the case of paired planning on

accuracy. This study indicated that there were no significant effects of the paired

condition on clausal accuracy and verb accuracy. There is considerable disagreement

among researchers about the impact of paired or group planning on discourse

accuracy. Some studies have said that group planning was advantageous for accuracy

(e.g., Ware & O'Dowd, 2008; Lee, 2010), while others have assumed a negative

attitude (e.g., Foster & Skehan, 1996; Storch, 2007). In spite of the mixed conclusions

about the impact of paired work on accuracy, this finding still accords with the

conclusion of earlier collaborative planning research that group or paired planners

preferred to concentrate on the content rather than on grammatical errors (Kessler,

2009; Oskoz & Elola, 2010; Tuan & Neomy, 2007).

In addition, by comparing the influence of paired format on complexity and

accuracy, the researcher found that complexity gains were at the expense of

grammatical accuracy. This finding is compatible with the contention of memory

limitation in previous research (Bygate, 1999; Crookes, 1989; Skehan, 1998; Skehan

& Foster, 2001; Van Patten, 1990). It is noted that when participants could allocate

their attention at will, their focus on one dimension might interfere with their concern

for other areas because of the limited capacity in attention and memory span. More

specifically, there was a competitive relationship between complexity and accuracy.

Despite the remarkable accordance with earlier research, one point needs to be

discussed: the qualitative questionnaire feedback surprisingly contrasted with

quantitative statistics. As reported by questionnaire respondents, two thirds of the PGP

interviewees confirmed the positive effect of paired planning on enhancing

grammatical accuracy, with only one third of the IGP interviewees agreed with the

advantage of individual planning regarding output accuracy. Such result echoes

Donato's (1994) report that group or paired interaction could better motivate learners

to sharpen language skills. However, Donato acknowledged that group planning did

not assure every participant of equal learning opportunities; cohesively worked groups

would gain more scaffolding from partners than loosely coordinated groups. Similar

argument about the positive and negative influences of pair work has been found in

Kowal and Swain's (1994) as well as Swain and Lapkin's (1998) research that paired

planning might encourage correct grammatical decisions on the one hand, but it might

also provoke the internalization of incorrect grammatical concepts on the other hand.

As mentioned above, the coexistent merits and demerits of paired or group planning

perhaps explained the contradictory results of statistical analysis versus questionnaire

comments in terms of planning in pairs. In summary, while the quantitative data

suggested an inappreciable influence of paired variable on utterance accuracy, all the

qualitative evidence indicated that interacting with a peer during task planning might

potentially play a beneficial role in motivating learners' positive learning attitudes.

This is consistent with Bruner's (1962) view that "autonomy of self-reward" could

best motivate students to become independent life-long learners.

Chapter Six

Conclusion

This chapter will first summarize the findings related to each of the three research questions and explanations for the findings. Section 6.2 to section 6.4 describes the pedagogical implications, limitations of this study, and recommendations for further research. Lastly in section 6.5, a conclusion is derived from the study.

6.1 Summary of Important Findings

Question 1: What are the effects of guided planning and paired planning on the fluency of young EFL learners' oral discourse during a narrative story-retelling task?

In the absence of statistically significant results, it is suggested that neither guided planning nor paired planning groups could facilitate participants to perform tasks more fluently. On the one hand, the outcome of the insignificant effects of guided planning on oral fluency is inconsistent with the findings of previous studies, and there might be two reasons for this. First, offering participants L1 translation of the story might reduce task difficulty, which might in turn lessen the effects of guidance on participants' oral fluency. Second, without the guidance to rely on, IUP

group produced shorter production than the IGP group, gained more time for

rehearsal, and thus the fluency difference between IUP and IGP groups was

narrowed. On the other hand, the results of the inconsiderable effects of paired

planning on students' productive fluency are in accordance with those in the

previous studies. It is speculated that the inefficiency of students' planning in pairs

might shorten the time available for practice, so that they could not narrate a story

fluently. Compatible responses were found in the questionnaires.

Question 2: What are the effects of guided planning and paired planning on the

   complexity of young EFL learners' oral discourse during a narrative

   story-retelling task?

Evidence obtained revealed that both guided and paired planning did not

increase participants' discourse in lexical and syntactical complexity. This finding

with regards to the effects of guidance on complexity is consistent with the finding

in some previous guided planning research. The result was interpreted from four

points of view. First, the narrative task type might encourage learners to focus on the

content rather than the variety of language, therefore hindering learners' complexity

performance. Second, the offer of story content in L1 might diminish mental burden

to perform the task so the pressure level was insufficient to trigger candidates'

complex performance both lexically and syntactically. In addition, the competition

for limited memory space between oral complexity and accuracy might influence

participants' complexity performance. Finally, the candidates' limited English ability

as beginners might also restrict their ability to utter complex language.

The resulting impact of the other variable, paired planning, goes against what

previous researchers have discovered. An explanation for this is that planning

partners did not have enough opportunities to cooperatively accomplish tasks of the

same type. As a result, learners' mental space was mostly allocated to deal with the

task demands instead of how to complexify the narration. Interestingly, whereas

guided planning and paired planning had no remarkable influences on both syntactic

and lexical complexity in the quantitative aspect, strong evidence revealed that

paired planning did increase participants' use of higher level vocabulary in

story-retelling. Candidates' comments from questionnaires also confirmed this

finding.

Question 3: What are the effects of guided planning and paired planning on the

accuracy of young EFL learners' oral discourse during a narrative

story-retelling task?

With regard to accuracy, guided planners produced noticeably more accurate

speech than unguided planners, while paired planning had no distinct effects on

benefiting participants' discourse accuracy. The former result conforms to the

observations in previous research that guided worksheets help learners to focus on

grammatical accuracy, and such guidance worked especially for young learners.

The latter result obtained from the paired planning accords with findings in

previous studies. It is indicated that participants' concentration on oral complexity

might threaten the devotion of cognitive attention to discourse accuracy. However,

it was surprising that the participants held positive attitudes towards the beneficial

role of paired planning in discourse accuracy. Such divergence between

quantitative analysis on accuracy and participants' perceptions might be explained

by the argument that paired planning might pose not only merits but also demerits

to participants' accuracy performance. It is revealed that the interacting context

might encourage the internalization of correct grammatical rules as well as

incorrect ones.

6.2 Implications

The following broad pedagogical implications can be drawn from the research

reported here. Above all, the findings of this study have implications for predicting

more effectively the balance among linguistic goals, i.e. fluency, complexity, and

accuracy, which have been controversial issues in task-based instruction research. Of key importance here is that guided planning and paired planning can be utilized to remarkably boost participants' performances of grammatical accuracy and use of higher level words, respectively. Guided worksheets are useful tools to maintain the focus of low proficient participants, who are incapable of supervising their own grammatical errors while carrying out meaning- oriented narrative tasks. The integration of paired planning into an oral task activity can motivate students to master more advanced vocabulary, such as the higher level words on the 320-word list, stipulated for elementary students by Hsinchu City Education Department.

In addition, planning with guidance or pair work can help students with incipient proficiency. While most of prior strategic planning research puts emphasis on intermediate to high proficiency teenagers or adults, it is found that beginners can also benefit from planning tasks. These tasks can serve as a preparation for real world communication because they are more authentic than drills and sentence pattern practice.

Another implication is that teachers can first introduce familiarization activities when applying guided or paired tasks to boost young students' speaking ability. These activities can accustom students with task instructions or the cooperative planning procedures. For young learners, teamwork skills and task familiarization play a

critical role in strategic planning tasks.

Finally, this study not only estimates the task effects on learner' language but also values the importance of learner interpretation. Learners' opinions from the questionnaires provide both supportive evidence to validate quantitative data and an alternative perspective in comparison with analytical results.

6.3 Limitations

This empirical study reflects a highly positive attitude towards the application of guided worksheets and paired planning to task-based instruction. However, there are limitations to the tentative claims made in this paper.

Most importantly, this study only recruited students with primary English proficiency. Although the present study has demonstrated the positive effects of the paired planning and guided planning, these results may not be generalized to EFL learners with different proficiency levels. This study was initially conducted with the intention to examine two variables among three groups, with thirty students for each group in order to warrant reliability of quantitative measures in this research. However, due to the lack of personnel resources, it was challenging for the researcher to negotiate appropriate timing to implement the sampling test, familiarization task, and the main task for ninety samples, plus the laborious work in transcribing and

analyzing the discourse data. It seemed beyond the researchers' ability to carry out

this research with extra students to accommodate heterogeneous proficiency. For this

reason, care needs to be taken not to over-interpret the results.

Furthermore, the nature of what students do during planning remains obscure.

Although the study has incorporated post-task questionnaires to collect participants'

remarks as much as possible, it was still impossible for participants to recall every

detail during planning time, not to mention some introspective information that

required further reflective skills. Besides, there were only forty minutes for each

period during which the researcher needed to explain task demands, and the students

had to plan for and give the presentation. It would be impractical to carry out the

time-consuming interview individually with all the participants right after the

performance due to the limitation of resource and time.

The third limitation concerns the involvement of only narrative tasks. Research

with various task types would be essential to build up a clearer picture about the

framework within which planning time can be most useful in the area of task-based

instruction. Nevertheless, there was little access to criterion-referenced tasks designed

for beginning oral activities, with a narrow choice of task types. The Cambridge

young learners' English speaking test, which was narrative-based, was the only

qualified and accessible oral task for beginners.

6.4 Further Research

Among the many possibilities to be explored for future research, several

important dimensions can be listed. First, it is recommended that this study can be

replicated in various contexts or on participants of different proficiency so that the

results can be generalized to a larger group of students.

Second, a longitudinal investigation of learners' productive complexity and

fluency is necessary in order to determine the effects of strategic planning on

long-term inter-language development, which is beyond the scope of this study. Due

to the generally gradual development of linguistic fluency and complexity, it is

possible that strategic planning might benefit indirectly and cumulatively through

extended planning tasks.

Another fruitful direction for future research should examine the planning

process during which learners prepare in different ways either owing to the

manipulation of experimental variables or because of personal attributes. With more

qualitative research instrument and more exploratory attitudes, our understanding

about the construct of the central role that strategic planning plays in learner discourse

might be broadened.

Finally, additional research on other types of oral tasks should be quite beneficial

for predicting the correlation between the task type and the three linguistic goals. This

is quite important for teachers who should play an active role to foresee the characteristics and maximize the profitable influence of each task type, rather than just passively observe students' language progress after accomplishing tasks. If the value of each task type is predictable, teachers would save time and energy to have a resourceful library of tasks for different language purposes in task-based instruction.

6.5 Conclusion

Oral skills have not figured centrally into SLA research until the advent of the theory of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972). Since then, speaking has become a focal point in English teaching, especially in the elementary stage, based on the nine-year integrated curriculum proposed by the Ministry of Education. In accordance with the current trend, task-based instruction (TBI) has been in widespread use by advocates to reinforce learners' oral communication skills. And yet, it has been extensively recognized that speaking is the most demanding language skill to achieve.

Among the various topics of TBI research, there has been an issue about how pre-task planning has acted on students' oral discourse, especially on the linguistic dimensions of fluency, complexity, and accuracy. While many researchers have dedicated research to equally boost students' language skills on the three linguistic

goals through communication activities, it remains controversial on two of the three

aspects: complexity and accuracy.

In an attempt to improve students' productive quality on the two facets, this

study has proposed that the employment of guidance and paired planning in speaking

tasks could be a feasible and profitable way to teach oral discourse. Such finding has

illuminated the instruction of speaking at primary stage. Even so, guided planning and

paired planning teaching activities, with their own limitations, can only complement

other speaking teaching techniques. It is hoped that these short-term gains in pre-task

planning will contribute in the longer term to the progress in task-based language

teaching.
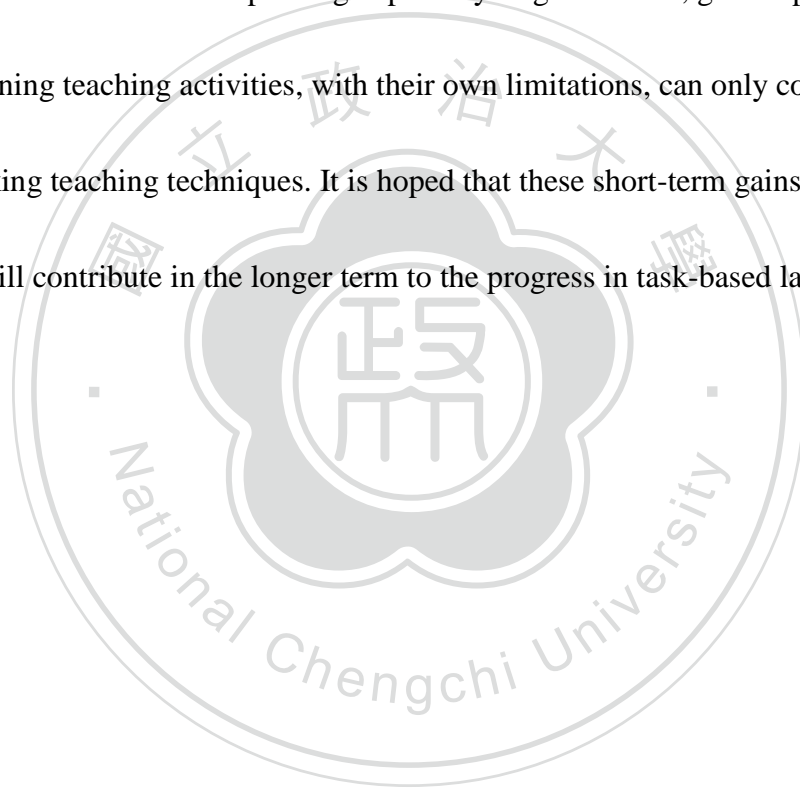
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Appendix A: Familiarization Story-retelling Task
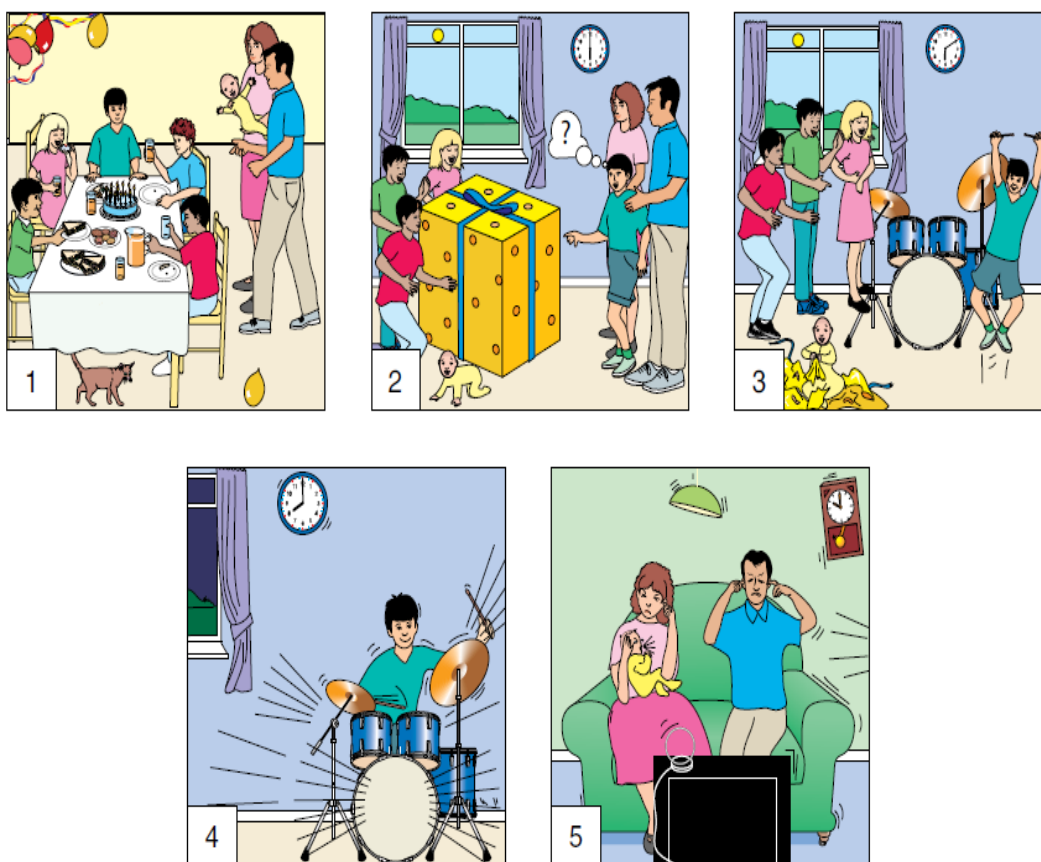
This story is called The Present. It is David's birthday, so he is very excited. His

friends come to his party. His mother, father and baby sister are there too. After they

finish eating birthday cake, they go into another room and find a giant birthday

present. When the boy opens it, he is very excited to learn that he has got a brand new

drum set for his birthday. After his friends go home, he begins to happily play his new

drums. Two hours later, David is still playing his drums loudly, and his parents and

baby sister do not seem to be happy. They kind of regret that they decide to get him

drums for his birthday.

Appendix B: Main Story-retelling Task

(Cambridge University Press, 2007)

Note. Participants' copies were full A4 size and did not include any text.

A family is going on a picnic. When they arrive at the picnic site, the father prepares the food while the mother takes a nap. The brother and sister decide to go play tennis. While they are away, a mother bear and a baby bear come to the picnic site and scare the father up into a tree, but the mother keeps sleeping. When the children come back, they see the bears and decide to give them some bananas. While the children are giving the bears the bananas, the father is still hiding up in the tree and the mother is still sleeping.

看圖說故事秘笈篇 <individual guided planning group>

　　小朋友，我們現在要進行一個看圖說故事的活動，待會我們會先聽一個用國語說的故事，然後你會有10分鐘的準備時間來思考要怎麼用英語說這個故事給同學聽。你的同學手上有一組被弄亂而且摻雜到別的故事的圖片，同學必須聽到你的故事，才有辦法找出正確的圖片，並且依照故事情節排出正確的順序。你有一個很重要的任務，就是要把故事正確而且完整地用英語說給同學聽，但是說故事的時候，同學不可以問你問題，或是中途打斷你。待會聽完故事CD之後，請依照底下指示，在學習單上用英文寫下你想講的故事內容草稿，但是只要寫重點就好，不要寫出整個句子，因為十分鐘過後，這份學習單就會被收回，你說故事的時候也不能看草稿喔！請努力完成這項具有挑戰性的任務。

➤ 步驟一、想想看有哪些英文字是妳可以用在故事裡的？記得一個意思只要想一個字來表達就好囉！

➤ 步驟二、以下是故事裡面會出現的重要文法句型，記得，在打草稿時，只要寫下這些句型的重點就好囉！

1. 介系詞in/on/under　例：The student is in the bathroom.

2. 現在式--第三人稱單數（他 / 她 / Jolin /隔壁老王...等）的現在式，動詞要記得在後面加上 s/es/ies;如果是複數，就不用加上s/es/ies。

   例1：The student goes to school in the morning.（單數）

   例2：The student and the teacher go home in the afternoon.（複數）

3. When A..., B ....

　例1：　When the teacher comes in, the students are talking.

　例 2：When the mother goes home, her children are writing homework.

➢ 步驟三、想想看有哪些轉折語氣的英文字，像是：first(首先)，second(第二)，next(接下來)…finally(最後)；或是then(然後)、but(但是)、so(所以)，是可以用在故事裡的，這可以讓妳的同學更清楚瞭解故事發展的順序。

➢ 步驟四、記得決定好要說的句子之後，先想一下文法正不正確喔！

➢ 步驟五、可以利用底下的空白部份寫出待會說故事的重點部份囉～

圖一

_____

_____

圖二

_____

_____

圖三

_____

_____

圖四

_____

_____

圖五

_____

_____

看圖說故事秘笈篇 <paired guided planning group>

　　小朋友，我們現在要進行一個看圖說故事的活動，待會我們會先聽一個用國語說的故事，然後你會有10分鐘的時間可以和你的夥伴討論，要怎麼用英語說這個故事給同學聽。你的同學手上有一組被弄亂而且摻雜到別的故事的圖片，同學必須聽到你的故事，才有辦法找出正確的圖片，並且依照故事情節排出正確的順序。你有一個很重要的任務，就是要把故事正確而且完整地用英語說給同學聽，但是說故事的時候，同學不可以問你問題，或是中途打斷。待會聽完故事CD之後，請依照底下指示，在學習單上用英文寫下你想講的故事內容草稿，但是只要寫重點就好，不要寫出整個句子，因為十分鐘過後，這份學習單就會被收回，說故事的時候也不能看草稿喔！請努力完成這項具有挑戰性的任務。

➢ 步驟一、想想看有哪些英文字是你可以用在故事裡的？記得一個意思只要想一個字來表達就好囉！

➢ 步驟二、以下是故事裡面會出現的重要文法句型，記得，在打草稿時，只要寫下這些句型的重點就好囉！

1. 介系詞in/on/under　　例：The student is in the bathroom.

2. 現在式--第三人稱單數（他 / 她 / Jolin /隔壁老王...等)的現在式，動詞要記得在後面加上 s/es/ies;如果是複數，就不用加上s/es/ies。

   例1：The student goes to school in the morning.（單數）

   例2：The student and the teacher go home in the afternoon.（複數）

3. When A...,B ....

   例1：When the teacher comes in, the students are talking.

   例 2: When the mother goes home, her children are writing homework.

➢ 步驟三、想想看有哪些轉折語氣的英文字，像是：first(首先)，second(第二)，next(接下來)…finally(最後)；或是then(然後)、but(但是)、so(所以)，是可以用在故事裡的，這可以讓妳的同學更清楚瞭解故事發展的順序。

➢ 步驟四、記得決定好要說的句子之後，先想一下文法正不正確喔！

➢ 步驟五、可以利用底下的空白部份寫出待會說故事的重點部份囉～

圖一

圖二

圖三

圖四

圖五

Appendix D: Questionnaire

<individual unguided planning group>

> 親愛的同學：
> 這份問卷包含兩個部份，第一部份是個人的背景資料，第二部份則是想瞭
> 解你們對這次看圖說故事活動的看法。請你們仔細閱讀題目，並在合適描
> 述的框框裡面打∨，如果選項裡面沒有適合的描述，可以選擇"其他"，然
> 後在後面橫線上盡量表達自己的想法。這份問卷只是想瞭解你的看法，不
> 會影響到你的成績

● **第一部分**

1. 姓名：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

2. 年齡：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

3. 性別：□女 □男

4. 有沒有考過任何英文檢定：□沒有 □劍橋小院士兒童英檢,級別:＿＿＿＿;
   □其他, ＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿)

5. 有無長期在英語系國家(例:美國.英國.新加坡…)待過的經驗 □沒有
   □有,多久時間:＿＿＿＿＿)

● **第二部份(對這次看圖說故事活動的看法)**

1. 你覺得這個看圖說故事的活動簡單還是困難？
□非常簡單 □簡單 □有點難 □非常困難

2. 你覺得進行看圖說故事活動前，有**自己準備的時間**對你接下來的說故事表現是
有幫助的。
□非常同意 □同意 □不同意□非常不同意
(不同意以及非常不同意自己準備時間對說故事表現有幫助的同學請跳答第4題)

3. 承接第2題，若你覺得有幫助，請問主要是表現在以下的哪一項，可複選：
□有自己準備時間讓我說得更流暢
□有自己準備時間讓我想出更適合表達意思的單字
□有自己準備時間讓我說出更符合文法規則的句子
□有自己準備時間讓我說故事的時候比較不會緊張
□其他:＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

4. 承接第2題，若沒有幫助，最主要的原因是：
□覺得和同學討論，會比較有幫助
□覺得有引導文法或單字重點的學習單會更有幫助
□其他:＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

5. 你覺得**10分鐘**的準備時間很充裕。

□非常同意 □同意 □不同意□非常不同意

6. 對這次看圖說故事的活動，有沒有感想、收穫、開心或是任何可以和我們分享的事情呢？

_____

_____

_____

問卷結束。謝謝作答！

親愛的同學：

這份問卷包涵含兩個部份，第一部份是個人的背景資料，第二部份則是想瞭解你們對這次看圖說故事活動的看法。請你們仔細閱讀題目，並在合適描述的框框裡面打∨，如果選項裡面沒有適合的描述，可以選擇"其他"，然後在後面橫線上盡量表達自己的想法。這份問卷只是想瞭解你們的看法，不會影響到你們的成績。謝謝你們的幫忙！

● 第一部分

1. 姓名：_____

2. 年齡：_____

3. 性別：□女 □男

4. 有沒有考過任何英文檢定：□沒有 □劍橋小院士兒童英檢,級別:_____;
   □其他,_____)

5. 有無長期在英語系國家(例:美國.英國.新加坡…)待過的經驗 □沒有
   □有,多久時間：_____)

● 第二部份(對這次看圖說故事活動的看法)

1. 你覺得這個看圖說故事的活動簡單還是困難？
   □非常簡單 □簡單 □有點難 □非常困難

2. 你覺得在說故事前，有**引導學習單**對你接下來的口語測驗表現是有幫助的。
   □非常同意 □同意 □不同意 □非常不同意

3. 承2，若你覺得有幫助，請問主要是表現在以下的哪一項，可複選(若不同意請
   跳答第4題)：
   □引導學習單能提醒我想出所有故事裡面要用到的單字
   □引導學習單能提醒我一種意思只要想一個單字就好，不要想太多
   □引導學習單能提醒我使用一些轉折用語，例如first, second, third
   □引導學習單能提醒我使用正確的文法結構或句型(現在式、介係詞…)
   □引導學習單能提醒我把句子重點寫下來就好，才可以節省時間
   □其他：_____

4. 承2，若沒有幫助，最主要的原因是：
   □上面的東西我全部都會了，不需要學習單提醒
   □我比較喜歡一邊講一邊練習，不喜歡用寫的
   □其他：_____

5. 你覺得第二次測驗前，有10分鐘自己準備的時間對你接下來的口語測驗表現是有幫助的。
□非常同意 □同意 □不同意□非常不同意

6. 承5，若你覺得有幫助，請問主要是表現在以下的哪一項，可複選（若不同意請跳答第7題）：
□有自己準備的時間讓我說得更流暢
□有自己準備的時間可以想出不會的單字
□有自己準備的時間讓我說出更符合文法規則的句子
□有自己準備的時間讓我說故事時比較不會緊張
□其他：
_____

7. 承5，若沒有幫助，最主要的原因是：
□覺得和同學討論，會比較有幫助 □我不需要準備的時間 □其他：_____
_____

8. 你覺得10分鐘的討論時間很充裕。
□非常同意 □同意 □不同意□非常不同意

9. 對這次看圖說故事的活動，有沒有感想、收穫、開心或是任何可以和我們分享的事情呢？
_____
_____
_____

問卷結束。謝謝作答！

親愛的同學：

這份問卷包含兩個部份，第一部份是個人的背景資料，第二部份則是想瞭解你們對這次看圖說故事活動的看法。請你們仔細閱讀題目，並在合適描述的框框裡面打∨，如果選項裡面沒有適合的描述，可以選擇"其他"，然後在後面橫線上<u>盡量表達自己的想法</u>。這份問卷只是想瞭解你們的看法，不會影響到你們的成績。謝謝你們的幫忙！

● 第一部分

1. 姓名：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

2. 年齡：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

3. 性別：□女 □男

4. 有沒有考過任何英文檢定：□沒有 □劍橋小院士兒童英檢,級別:＿＿＿＿；
   □其他,＿＿＿＿＿＿＿)

5. 有無長期在<u>英語系國家</u>(例:美國.英國.新加坡…)待過的經驗 □沒有
   □有,多久時間:＿＿＿＿＿)

● 第二部份(對這次看圖說故事活動的看法)

1. 你覺得這個看圖說故事的活動簡單還是困難？
   □非常簡單 □簡單 □有點難 □非常困難

2. 你覺得在說故事前，有**引導學習單**對你接下來的口語測驗表現是有幫助的。
   □非常同意 □同意 □不同意□非常不同意

3. 承上，若你覺得有幫助，請問主要是表現在以下的哪一項，可複選(若不同意請跳答第4題)：
   □引導學習單能提醒我想出所有故事裡面要用到的單字
   □引導學習單提醒我一種意思只要想一個單字就好,不要想太多
   □引導學習單能提醒我使用一些轉折用語,例如first, second, third
   □引導學習單能提醒我使用正確的文法結構或句型(現在式、介係詞…)
   □引導學習單能提醒我把句子重點寫下來就好,才可以節省時間
   □其他：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

4. 承2,若沒有幫助,最主要的原因是：
   □上面的東西我全部都會了,不需要學習單提醒
   □我比較喜歡一邊講一邊練習,不喜歡用寫的
   □其他：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

5. 你覺得第二次測驗前，有10分鐘**和同學討論的時間**對接下來的說故事表現是有幫助的。

□非常同意 □同意 □不知道 □不同意□非常不同意

6. 承5，若你覺得有幫助，請問主要是幫助以下的哪部份，可複選（若不同意請跳答第7題）：

□和同學討論讓我說得更流暢

□和同學討論可以請教不會的單字

□和同學討論可以讓我說出更符合文法規則的句子

□和同學討論讓我說故事時比較不會緊張

□其他：

_____

7. 承5，若沒有幫助，最主要的原因是：

□自己準備比和同學討論有效率

□都是另一個同學一直在講，害我沒機會插嘴

□其他：_____

8. 你覺得10分鐘的討論時間很充裕。

□非常同意 □同意 □不同意□非常不同意

9. 對這次看圖說故事的活動，有沒有感想、收穫、開心或是任何可以和我們分享的事情呢？

_____

_____

_____

問卷結束。謝謝作答！