

Learners' language use during task-
based peer interaction in second
language class of primary school

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University College London, Institute of Education

Declaration

I, Sukyoung An, confirm that the work presented in this thesis is my own. Where information has been derived from other sources, I confirm that this has been indicated in the thesis.

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Abstract

This study sets out to explore Second Language (L2) learners' language use during peer interaction for performing L2 tasks in the primary L2 classroom from the sociocultural perspective. Professional and pedagogical impetus for an enquiry into L2 learners' language use is provided by the dilemma caused by the gap between an L2 only policy and classroom practice. The issue of L2 learners' use of L1 within L2 classrooms has been a controversial topic in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), yet to date there has been little research conducted in the primary L2 learning contexts. Therefore, there was a need to examine the actual language use of L2 learners in the primary L2 classroom to gain pedagogical insights and implications related to learners' language use.

To this end, this study conducted a collective case study in intact primary L2 classrooms of two different institutional types: English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes at a state primary school in Seoul, and Korean as a Heritage Language (KHL) classes at a Korean Saturday School in London. Multiple evidence of learners' language use was gathered and analysed via thematic analysis in terms of distinct features and overall functions.

The findings reveal that primary L2 learners frequently codeswitched their language, i.e. shifted their linguistic code between L1 and L2, as budding bilingual speakers; used language strategically through repetition; and used the economy of language through interjections, onomatopoeias, and hesitation fillers. The findings also provide evidence that learners' language mediated the completion of L2 tasks, serving communicative, cognitive, and socio-affective functions on the interpersonal or the intrapersonal plane. These findings call for several pedagogical reconsiderations: reconceptualising views of L2 learners from imperfect monolinguals to developing bilinguals; reconsidering pedagogical decisions on the L2 only policy; improving L2 textbooks and instructional resources; developing balanced L2 tasks between learners' L2 competence and cognitive development; enriching and expanding learners' vocabulary; and finally enhancing teachers' teaching practice in order to bridge the gap between the policy and learners' use of language.

Impact Statement

This study explored L2 learners' language use during peer interaction for performing L2 tasks in two different types of classroom: EFL classrooms in a state primary school in Seoul, South Korea and KHL classrooms in a Korean Saturday school in London, UK. The findings of this study on L2 learners' language use could exert crucial impact on academic, educational, and social areas in the field of SLA.

First of all, this study could broaden the scope of SLA research on classroom language use by looking into L2 learners' language use in the primary L2 classroom. Most research on classroom language has focused on teachers' language or adult learners' language in L2 classrooms, and primary L2 learners' language has received little attention. Thus, this study could not only make advancement in the construction of knowledge of primary L2 learners' language use, but also provoke further research with primary L2 learners in L2 classrooms by widening the perspective on, and offering insightful awareness of, L2 learners' language use.

Secondly, this study could contribute to expanding the horizons of research into Asian L2 classrooms or Asian language learners' language. Most of the research published in international journals has dealt with Western language learners' language or L2 learners' language within Western L2 classrooms. Thus, this study, which explored EFL learners in a mainstream school in Seoul and KHL learners in a non-mainstream school in London, could enhance and deepen the knowledge of L2 learners' language use, and add to the emerging body of literature concerning L2 learners' language in Asian EFL and Western KHL learning contexts.

Thirdly, this study could affect the L2 only policy in L2 classrooms. The issue of learners' use of L1 within the L2 classroom has been a controversial issue in the area of SLA, and increasing numbers of researchers have recently advocated the use of L1 by revealing the positive role of L1 in L2 class. However, many L2 learning contexts, including the two learning contexts of my study, still follow an

L2 only policy. In this context, this study, which suggests learners' optimal use of L1 in the L2 classroom, could lead to a shift in the L2 only policy, which appears to be based more on theoretical than empirical evidence, by calling policy makers' attention to the importance of learners' L1 in L2 learning.

Fourthly, this study could be beneficial to curriculum developers, textbook writers, teacher trainers and teachers because it offers practical implications and suggestions in terms of improvement of textbooks, task design, vocabulary learning, and teachers' teaching practice. L2 learners could also gain advantages from the benefits that this study may bring about through policy makers, textbook writers, teacher trainers and teachers.

Finally, this study could be socially and economically beneficial by increasing national competitiveness and contributing to improving educational policies through evidence-based research and practical and pedagogical suggestions for enhancing learners' L2 competence.

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List of Abbreviations

Within each chapter, the terms presented below will be spelled out first followed by the acronym in parentheses; thereafter, the acronym will be used for later references.

BERA	British Educational Research Association
CFL	Chinese as a Foreign Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EPIK	English Programme in Korea (which refers to stationing NES teachers in state schools)
ESL	English as a Second Language
FSI	Foreign Service Institute
GDPR	General Data Protect Regulation
KHL	Korean as a Heritage Language
KSAT	Korean Scholastic Ability Test (or Suneung, which refers to the national university entrance exam)
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
L3	Third Language
NES Teacher	Native English Speaking Teacher
MEHRD	Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development
MEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
MOE	Ministry of Education
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SMOE	Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education
TEE	Teaching English in English
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

Chapter 1 Who is talking in Korean? Use English, please!

1.1. Introduction

The following conversation took place in a Year 6 (age 11 to 12) English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom of a state primary school in Gangnam District of Seoul, South Korea.

Ms Na: Who can tell me what a detective is?

Nael: Police officer?

Ms Na: Yes, he or she could be. Anyone else?

Hanna: A ditective examines crimes.

Ms Na: Yes, right. A detective is the person who investigates and solves crimes. She or he also catches criminals. Do you know of any detectives?


Jiwon: Detective Conan!

Junhee: Sherlock Holmes!

Ms Na: Oh, right, well done! Both Conan and Sherlock Holmes are well-known detectives. Like them, all of us will be detectives while doing the next task. Are you ready?

After leading pupils to the task ‘The detective’s notes’, Ms Na divided the class into pairs and gave an explanation of how to do the task, demonstrating it with one of pupils. Then, she checked pupils’ understanding, eliciting their responses through step-by-step Instruction Check Questions (ICQ). Each pair was given two different versions of the worksheet in order to complete their task by exchanging each other’s information (Figure 1.1).


Student A



The Detective's Notes (LMH)

Year 6 Class 9 Number () Name ()


✓ Read your notes about LMH to your friend. Then, your friend will correct you.
 (Example) A: He arrived in London on 26th September.
 B: No, he didn't. He arrived on 27th September.



Your Notes about LMH

- ☞ He arrived in London on 26th September. ➡ No, 27th September.
- ☞ He caught a train. ➡
- ☞ He went to a hamburger bar for lunch. ➡
- ☞ He ate chicken and salad. ➡
- ☞ He drank tea. ➡
- ☞ He had cake. ➡
- ☞ He spent twelve pounds on lunch. ➡
- ☞ He went to London Cinema. ➡
- ☞ He met Jenny at National Gallery. ➡

✓ Correct your friend, looking at the evidence against PSH.
 (Example) A: She arrived in New York on 7th July.
 B: No, she didn't. She arrived on 3rd July.




The Evidence against PSH

Korean Airline
From Seoul To New York

03/07/14
Name of Passenger: PSH

Burger & Shake



Burger & Salad \$ 7.00
 Milkshake \$ 2.50
 Chocolate cake \$ 2.50
 Total \$ 12.00


03/07/14

To LMH
Let's meet
at MoMA.
From PSH

MoMA
Museum of Modern Art
Entrance ticket 03/07/14

Thank you
261435509


Student B



The Detective's Notes (PSH)


Year 6 Class 9 Number () Name ()

✓ Correct your friend, looking at the evidence against LMH.
 (Example) A: He arrived in London on 26th September.
 B: No, he didn't. He arrived on 27th September.



The Evidence against LMH

Kelly's Kitchen



Fish & Chips £8.00
 Coffee £2.50
 Ice Cream £2.50
 Total £13.00

27/09/14


To PSH
Meet me at
National
Gallery.
From LMH

National Gallery
Entrance ticket 27/09/14


Mega Bus

From: Coventry
To: London

September 27th



✓ Read your notes about PSH to your friend. Then, your friend will correct you.
 (Example) A: She arrived in New York on 7th July.
 B: No, she didn't. She arrived on 3rd July.



Your Notes about PSH

- ☞ She arrived in New York, on 7th July ➡ No, 3rd July.
- ☞ She caught a boat. ➡
- ☞ She went to Pizzeria for lunch. ➡
- ☞ She ate steak and salad. ➡
- ☞ She drank coffee. ➡
- ☞ She had cheesecake. ➡
- ☞ She spent ten dollars on lunch. ➡
- ☞ She went to Central Park. ➡
- ☞ She met Alex MoMA. ➡

Figure 1.1. The two different versions of pupils' worksheet of the task 'The detective's notes'

Jinwoo, who was a less advanced learner of English, still did not understand how to do the task despite the teacher's support. Before starting the task, Jinwoo asked in Korean in a whisper to Huiju, who was his partner.

Jinwoo: 야, 뭐 하래? 뭐 하는 거야?
[Hey, what did she say? What should we do?]

Huiju: 우리 둘이 서로 다른 학습지를 받았잖아, 그치? 각자 자기 학습지를 보면서 서로의 정보를...
[Each of us got different worksheets, didn't we? Looking at each one's worksheet, we should exchange...]

Ms Na: <Looks in the direction of the sound> Who talks in Korean? Use English, please!

Huiju: <Looks at Jinwoo> Okay, look at your worksheet. Can you find the notes about LMH? He is one of the suspects in the worksheet. Are you listening to me, Jinwoo?

Jinwoo: <Whispering> 응, 듣고 있어. 근데 무슨 말 하는지 모르겠어.
<Whispering> [Yes, I am, but I don't understand what you mean.]

Huiju's Korean explanation was interrupted by Ms Na. Huiju immediately codeswitched from Korean to English and tried to explain in English how to do the task. However, Jinwoo still had difficulty in understanding how to do the task despite the teacher's demonstration along with the L2 explanation and Huiju's L2 explanation.

This vignette presents part of an English lesson for Year 6 that I have experienced as a teacher. The teacher, Ms Na, acknowledges pupils' use of Korean during peer interaction as natural and, to some degree, unavoidable. However, she does not want to officially allow pupils to use Korean in her English class. She is concerned that pupils may resort to Korean in order to finish their task quickly, even when they know what to say in English. In addition, she supposes that pupils are likely to chat about off-task topics in Korean if she allows them to speak

Korean. She also thinks that pupils, who are residing in such a monolingual society as Korea, lack opportunities to communicate with others in English. Hence, she believes that it is indispensable to follow the Second Language (L2) only policy in order to maximise pupils' exposure to English and opportunities to use English. However, on the other hand, learners may struggle to understand teacher's L2-only instruction, especially when the teacher explains how to carry out a task (Macaro, 1997), as in Jinwoo's example of this vignette.

Ms Na's view may be shared by many teachers in state primary schools of Gangnam District in Seoul. It is a view that I also held while I was a primary school teacher in this area. I have been teaching EFL along with other subjects in state primary schools in Seoul for many years and Korean as a Heritage Language (KHL) in a Korean Saturday school in London for a few years. For a long time, I have been curious about what was actually happening during peer interactions in classrooms (which refer to interactions between L2 learners) when their talk was not heard by the teacher. The exact concerns that raised this curiosity were the suspicion that learners with limited L2 competence might extensively use their first language (L1) instead of L2 and that they might have an off-task talk instead of on-task talk when they used their L1 (Bao & Du, 2015; Storch & Aldosari, 2013). I also wondered how learners would deal with linguistic or communicational problems under the L2 only policy. Hence, I attempted to explore how and why learners used their languages, i.e. their L1 and L2, during peer interaction for doing their L2 task. As demonstrated in the vignette, my study also started with a pedagogical dilemma on pupils' use of L1, i.e. whether to allow pupils' use of L1 in L2 class or not. These experiences and curiosity raised my eagerness to explore learners' language use in the L2 classroom.

In this chapter, I provide an overview of my research, beginning with a brief explanation of the study origins and background, which formulated my research motivation. I also present a rationale for the research, arguing the value of the research into learners' language use during task-based peer interaction in the L2 classroom. Then, I address the aims of the study, and briefly present the methodological approach taken in my research. Finally, I offer the overall structure of the thesis.

1.2. Origins and background of this study

The year 1997 is significant and memorable in the history of primary English Language Teaching (ELT) in Korea, in the sense that it was the first year when English was taught as a compulsory subject in primary school. English has long been regarded as a crucial tool for success in Korean society (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 1994; I.-C. Choi, 2008; Jeon, 2009; Park, 2009; Song, 2011, 2012), and the significance of English has been especially emphasised in the world of academics and business (Chung & Choi, 2016; Jeon, 2009). Koreans value English as a powerful resource for Korea to survive and actively take part in the global world (Jeon, 2009; Song, 2011). Meeting the social and educational demand for English, the Ministry of Education (MOE)¹ decided to include English as a subject of study in the National Primary Curriculum, and the school year in which pupils were exposed to English in the school system was lowered from Year 7 (age 12 to 13) to Year 3 (age 8 to 9) after much discussion and debate. All primary schools started to teach pupils of Year 3 English as a school subject in 1997. Since then, English has been taught as a compulsory subject in all primary schools.

The National Primary Curriculum by the MOE placed the focus on enhancing learners' basic communicative competence, their interest and confidence in English language. This decision was in contrast with the deeply rooted grammar-translation approach of ELT in secondary schools (W. Lee, 2005). The emphasis of the then-ELT had been on grammar and reading comprehension. This approach in secondary schools did not satisfy the educational and social need for enhancing learners' communicative competence (Butler, 2004, 2005; Mikio, 2008;

¹ The Ministry of Education (MOE) is a cabinet-level department of the government of South Korea responsible for education. The ministry was established in 1948, and it has been restructured and renamed several times. The names are chronologically arranged as follows: Ministry of Culture and Education (문교부, July 1948 – December 1990); Ministry of Education (교육부, December 1990 – January 2001); Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (교육인적자원부, January 2001 – February 2008); Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (교육과학기술부, February 2008 – March 2013); and Ministry of Education (교육부, March 2013 – Present).

Park, 2009). In addition, this traditional method failed to attract learners' interest in learning English and led to learners' lack of confidence in communicating in English (Y.-J. Lee, 1993). Hence, ELT in primary schools adopted a completely different approach, i.e. the communicative approach.

The ELT in primary school came to concentrate on increasing pupils' confidence and interest in English and fostering their basic ability to comprehend and express themselves in English (Ministry of Education, 1995), and this trend in the primary ELT has continued. According to the 2009 Revised Curriculum (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2012b), it is an essential skill to communicate in English, which pupils must learn at school, and the primary ELT should put its focus on promoting pupils' ability to understand and express basic English used in everyday life, which is based on communication.

ELT policies have been reformed to improve pupils' communicative competence (Chang, 2009), and the communicative approach has been strongly recommended (Chung & Choi, 2016). In the context of Korea, it has been seen as necessary to expose pupils to English in the classroom as much as possible to maximise their exposure to English and improve their communicative competence because pupils are seldom exposed to the target language outside the classroom. The 6th national curriculum (Ministry of Education, 1995), which initially included English as a compulsory subject at the primary school level, emphasised the maximum use of English as a medium for teaching and learning activities in the Section of Teaching Methodology. Especially, with the aim of enhancing learners' English communicative competence, the Teaching English in English (TEE) policy was instituted in 2001, and teachers in Korea have been required to teach English through English by the national policy (Butler, 2005; Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004; Nunan, 2003; Song, 2011, 2012). The TEE policy is conceptually close to English only policy (J. H. Lee, 2010).

According to the press release by the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (MEHRD) (2007), all Korean teachers teaching English subject would be supported to be able to build their capacity to conduct entire classes in English by 2015. Also, in 2009, the Ministry of Education, Science and

Technology (MEST) (2009) announced a plan for supporting the improvement of English teachers' teaching ability. According to the plan, 58% of English teachers were reported to be able to teach English in English during over 80% of their English lesson as of 2007, and all English teachers would be able to teach English in English during their whole lesson by 2012. To achieve this goal, the MEST announced that it would support the certification system for excellent English teachers executed by each regional Office of Education and would provide step-by-step customised teacher training programs developed according to the certification system. As a follow-up to the plan, the Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE) developed a certification system for excellent English teachers for the first time in South Korea in 2009. This move of SMOE is notable because the impact of the SMOE on other regional Offices of Education in South Korea is influential in implementing government-level policies. The SMOE normally takes the lead in developing their own action plans to carry out the policies of the MOE, and other regional Offices of Education tend to benchmark the plans of the SMOE to implement the policies (Chung & Choi, 2016).

The TEE policy has been reinforced through this in-service English teacher certification, which is termed the TEE Certificate and was first awarded by the SMOE in 2009 (T.-H. Choi, 2015). The TEE policy revealed in the TEE certification implied the exclusive use of English in English language class in 2009, which was the first year of managing the SMOE TEE Certificate system. In the first official document published by SMOE (2009) regarding the TEE certification, TEE was simply defined as Teaching English in English as in the plan by MEST (2009). However, the TEE policy reflected in the SMOE certification was changed as time passed. Specifically, the exclusive use of the language, which the TEE policy initially implied, was gradually replaced by the maximum use of the language. In the Plan for the TEE Certification for English Teachers 2014 (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2014), which was developed on the basis of the Plan for Revision of the TEE Certification for English teachers (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2011), TEE is more specifically defined as below (as translated by me):

TEE (Teaching English in English)

- Refers to using English as a medium during the interaction between the teacher and pupil(s) or among pupils for performing activities in English class.
- Means that teachers mostly use English except for some cases such as explaining difficult grammar rules, and maximise the opportunities for pupils to use English.
- Implies that the teacher can flexibly adjust the amount of English used in class, depending on the learning content or pupils' level and degree of understanding (p2).

The Plans for the TEE Certification for English Teachers 2015 and 2017 (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2015, 2017) also maintain the same basis in defining TEE except for the revised second definition. The changed definition is as below:

- Means that teachers should maximise the opportunities for pupils to use English by mostly using English except for some cases such as explaining difficult grammar rules (p1).

By rearranging the order of words in the statement, the Plan 2015 clarifies the relationship between the teacher's use of English and pupils' use of English. Namely, while the Plan 2014 does not mention the relationship between the teacher's use of English and pupils' use of English and just emphasises the maximum use of the language by the teacher and pupils respectively, the Plan 2015 stresses the teacher's maximum use of English for maximising pupils' use of the language. To summarise, these official documents show that the TEE policy has been changed in a more flexible way, i.e. from the exclusive use of English to the maximum use of the language in the classroom. Besides English teachers' TEE Certificate, English Programme in Korea (EPIK) sponsored by the MOE, which refers to stationing Native English Speaking (NES) teachers in state schools, has been run since 1995 in order to improve the English-speaking abilities of both teachers and pupils and to reform the ELT (Jeon, 2009).

With respect to English learning environments, some policies have also been proposed and implemented in recent years with the aim of enhancing learners' English communicative competence. Pupils have been encouraged to speak in English not only in their English classroom but also in specially designed spaces

or programmes such as English-Only Zone or English camp. Considering accessibility to the spaces, the policies related to English-Only Zone have shifted their weight “from outside school to inside school since 2004: from English Villages and English Experience Centres to English Only Classroom and English libraries” (H. D. Kang, 2012, p. 77). English camp, which refers to English immersion programmes run during vacations, has also taken place within public sectors in order to maximise learners’ exposure to English.

Despite these varied policies and efforts, pupils still have difficulties in acquiring communicative competence in English for several reasons. One of the most apparent difficulties results from the distinct linguistic differences between the Korean language and the English language. Since the two languages are totally different in language systems such as the phonetic system, the syntactic structure, and the semantic system, immense efforts are needed for Korean pupils to acquire English language proficiency (Cho, 2004). While European languages are normally linguistically closely related to English, Asian languages are linguistically distant from English (Jia, Aaronson, & Wu, 2002). According to the Foreign Service Institute (FSI), which was founded to train members of the U.S. diplomatic community by the Federal Government of the United States, Korean is ranked as one of the most difficult languages for a native English speaker to learn (Tsuboya-Newell, 2017, October 29). To put this the other way around, English may be the hardest language for Korean speakers to learn. Also, pupils do not need to use English at all in their daily life outside the classroom because Korea is a monolingual country where the Korean language is used in everyday communication (Jeon, 2009; Mikio, 2008; Song, 2012). Hence, pupils are rarely provided with opportunities to communicate in English in authentic situations. This structural problem gives rise to low English proficiency of pupils (Mikio, 2008).

Another obstacle that may cause difficulty in improving learners’ English communicative competence is a strong backwash of the national university entrance exam commonly called *Suneung* or Korean Scholastic Ability Test (KSAT), particularly, its English section of being focused on the receptive skills of listening, reading, and language knowledge (Chung & Choi, 2016). Especially at the secondary school level, the power of the KSAT affecting ELT practice in

schools is great. Under the influence of the KSAT, the receptive skills of listening and reading were focused on, rather than the productive skills of speaking and writing, irrespective of the aims or the focus of National Curriculum and textbooks, in English language classes. In this context, learners are provided with activities to learn about English rather than to learn to use English (Chung & Choi, 2016).

The primary English-learning context is also not very effective for learners to improve their English communicative competence. Specifically, the National Curriculum (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2012b) regulates and limits the level of words, the word count within a sentence, and the total number of new words presented in each year group, which textbook developers must follow. The number of words within a sentence was limited to seven in Year 3 and 4, and nine in Year 5 and 6. The numbers of new words available in the group of Year 3 and 4 and the group of Year 5 and 6 are around 240 words and 260 words respectively. Namely, the total number of new words available at the primary school level is about 500 words. The textbook developers or writers are obligated to abide by these regulations when they develop textbooks. Vocabulary is crucial to learning a foreign language at the primary level (Cameron, 2001), and there is a close relationship between vocabulary knowledge, language use and knowledge of the world (Nation, 1993). In this sense, the government regulation on the number and the level of words in textbooks can be seen as inhibiting pupils' English language learning and use of English. The Curriculum is also criticised that the allotted time for English language lessons, which are two 40-minute sessions for Year 3 and Year 4 and three 40-minute sessions for Year 5 and Year 6 every week, is not sufficient for pupils' learning English (D.-M. Kang, 2013; W. Lee et al., 2012).

Despite these difficulties, with the aim of fostering learners' English use and improving their communicative competence, an English only approach has been taken in primary English classrooms in Korea. An English only approach or the policy of maximisation of English use has exerted its influence in the field of ELT (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Macaro, 2001), and continues to hold the dominant position in some ELT contexts (McMillan & Rivers, 2011). The maximum use of the target language is an issue and a challenge, not only for ELT but also other

foreign or second language teaching (Neil, Salters, & McEwen, 1999). My experience as a teacher in a Korean Saturday school is also that the teaching/learning context of the school faces the same issue and challenge. The school policy recommended teachers and learners to use only Korean, which was the target language, during class time, but the actual practice was different. Pupils frequently used English, which was their L1, even though they were always told that they should use Korean in class. This use of L1 was frequently observed during pair/group work. Pupils seem to have regarded their use of L1 as acceptable in a way, even though they tried to codeswitch from L1 to L2 immediately after they recognised that their talk was heard by their teacher.

As mentioned above, my experiences of teaching in these two different contexts, i.e. teaching English in state primary schools of Seoul and Korean in a Korean Saturday school in London, have raised my interest in learners' language use during peer interaction for performing their L2 tasks under the L2 only policy. Based on the contextual background of the study, which this section addresses, the next section justifies why this study is necessary.

1.3. *The rationale for this study*

This study was motivated by my personal experiences as a teacher who has been teaching EFL in state primary schools in Seoul and KHL in a Korean Saturday school in London. Also, my interest in learners' interaction drove me to proceed with this research project. In addition to these personal and context-related reasons, there are other rationales to undertake my study, i.e. its potential contributions.

A great deal of research has examined classroom interaction in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), particularly focusing on interactions between native speakers and L2 learners, or between teachers and L2 learners (Philp, Adams, & Iwashita, 2014; Sato & Ballinger, 2016). There is also an increasing body of research on another type of interaction, i.e. peer interaction or learner-learner interaction, which has been examined since the early 1980s, but this research

area has received much less attention in comparison to the interaction between L2 learners and native speakers or teachers (Sato & Ballinger, 2016). Learners spend significant amounts of class time interacting with other learners through pair or group work in many L2 classrooms, rather than only with their teacher (Philp et al., 2014). In other words, the majority of L2 classroom interaction may occur between learners (Adams, 2007). Also, peer interaction plays its unique role in L2 learning. Peer interaction can be a site for L2 learners to experiment with language; to provide correction; and to enhance automaticity (Philp et al., 2014). Peer interaction is no less important than the other interactions such as native speaker-L2 learner or teacher-L2 learner interaction. Thus, peer interaction should be the topic of more research to make empirical advances.

Previous studies on peer interaction and L2 learning have been predominantly conducted from cognitive perspectives, but recent studies, particularly those labelled as sociocultural research, have explored the socially shaped nature of interaction and its crucial role in L2 learning (Watanabe, 2008). While the cognitive-interactionist paradigm sees interaction as a source of input for triggering the cognitive (internal) process leading to acquisition and a provider of opportunities to speak, the sociocultural paradigm regards interpersonal interaction as a site for learning to occur and views acquisition as occurring during the process or experience when learners mediate each other to try to use the L2 (Ellis & Shintani, 2013).

Within the sociocultural research paradigm, one of the main areas of research has explored how language functions as a mediational tool for human activity, both on the interpersonal plane in the form of social speech and on the intrapersonal plane in the form of private speech (DiCamilla & Antón, 2004). With respect to the interpersonal plane, in which the main interest of my research lies, researchers have examined how the language of experts or learners which is addressed at other learners serves as a mediational tool for learners to develop the L2 within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994, 2000; DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Donato, 1994). Along with the concept of mediation, the ZPD is a crucial construct of Vygotsky's theory of learning. The ZPD refers to the distance between the learner's actual

developmental stage of performing the task independently and the learner's potential developmental stage of carrying out the task under an expert's guidance or in collaboration with other learners (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000).

Most of these studies have been conducted with adult learners such as undergraduate students learning L2. This trend also emerges in the Korean ELT context. Choi (2005) and Seo and Kim (2011) examined undergraduate students' interaction and junior high school students' collaborative dialogue respectively, taking the sociocultural approach. However, little research has investigated primary school learners' language use during peer interaction in English language classrooms of Korea. Furthermore, to date, there is no study on learners' language use that has been undertaken in the context of Korean Saturday schools in the UK. This scarcity of research on learners' language during peer interaction in primary L2 classrooms, i.e. EFL classrooms in primary schools in Korea and KHL classrooms in Korean schools in the UK, might have partly been caused by a relatively short history of Korean primary ELT and relatively less interest in non-mainstream school education for ethnic minority children respectively. It might have also been assumed that primary school pupils' L2 is neither complex nor sufficient to analyse. Thus, it was necessary to examine primary school pupils' language use during peer interaction in their L2 classroom in order to expand the scope and the depth of the investigation of L2 learners' language use.

By exploring primary school learners' language use in their L2 classroom, my study could not only contribute to drawing other researchers to the further investigation into learners' language use in primary L2 classrooms but also contribute to the development of ELT in South Korea and KHL education in the UK. Also, my study could contribute to teachers' and policy makers' balanced perspective on learners' use of L1 and L2 in the L2 classroom, by shedding light on the general roles of learners' L1 and L2 in learners' L2 development. In addition, It could maximise its pedagogical potential by enhancing textbook writers' and teachers' understanding of their learners' language use and giving insights into the design of L2 tasks for improving their pupils' L2 competence. In addition to policy makers, textbook writers and teachers, it is hoped that the

findings of my study and the resulting recommendations will be of particular interest to and of value to curriculum developers and teacher educators in L2 learning contexts.

1.4. *The aim and focus of the study*

This study aimed to examine how and why learners use their languages whilst they are engaged in pair/group work for performing L2 tasks. Particularly, I focused the research on the exploration of learners' L1 and L2 used during peer interaction in primary L2 classrooms without any artificial treatment for controlling variables or establishing cause and effect relationships. To investigate learners' languages during peer interaction, two different aspects of learners' language use were examined: (i) characteristic features emerging from learners' language use, and (ii) overall functions served by the learners' language.

Focusing on these two aspects of learners' language use, my study investigated learners' language from the sociocultural perspective because the sociocultural perspective provided a useful tool for gaining comprehensive and insightful understanding of learners' language use on both the interpersonal and intrapersonal plane. In addition, sociocultural theory was used as a good theoretical framework for giving generic and dynamic accounts of learners' language as a mediational tool in their L2 learning.

The general statements of the aim and focus of this study are later refined to form Research Questions, which are elaborated in Chapter Three.

1.5. *Methodological approach*

I adopted an exploratory qualitative approach to investigate learners' language use during task-based peer interaction in intact L2 classrooms. I chose two different language learning contexts to gather more enriched data on primary school L2 learners' language and to explore L2 learners' language use more comprehensively and deeply. In these two different contexts, the role of the

researcher was different because I was an outsider researcher in the state primary school in Seoul and I was an insider researcher in the Korean Saturday school in London. L2 learners' language was mainly examined through observations and triangulated through the multiple sources of data.

1.6. *Outline of the thesis*

In summary, this study began with a curiosity of how and why pupils used their L1 and L2 during task-based peer interaction in the L2 classroom, even though the government or the school policy encouraged pupils' use of L2 in their L2 classroom. With this curiosity, research focused on exploring what was happening during pupils' interaction, which was not directed from nor to the teacher, regarding their language use, in primary L2 classrooms. Based on the research focus, research questions were formulated and elaborated to solve this curiosity and to guide my research all the way through this research project.

The thesis comprises seven chapters.

This first chapter offers an overview of my thesis including the background and origin, rationales, the aim and focus, and the methodological approach.

Chapter Two, the Literature Review, consists of four sections. It presents key terms and their definitions, and it provides the theoretical framework that structures my study by critically reviewing theories related to classroom interaction in the field of SLA, i.e. the cognitive approach and the sociocultural approach to interaction. Then, key constructs of sociocultural theory, which is the theoretical framework adopted, are presented. The last section contains a review of previous empirical studies on learners' language use during peer interaction in the L2 classroom.

Chapter Three describes and justifies the research paradigm, research questions, the research design, and detailed procedures of the research including contexts, participants, and methods of data collection. The analytical framework,

trustworthiness and ethical considerations of my study are also addressed in this chapter.

Analysis of data is provided in three chapters: the first considers the most distinct feature emerging from L2 learners' language use, i.e. codeswitching, in relation to the general roles of learners' L1 and L2, revealing L2 learners' bilingual competence; the second presents analysis and interpretations of repetition, which indicate L2 learners' strategic language use, and the third explores the use of interjections, onomatopoeias, and hesitation fillers, which shows how L2 learners used the economy of language.

The final chapter starts with a summary and synthesis of findings from the data analysis. Then, it discusses pedagogical insights and implications gained from the findings, followed by theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical contributions. Lastly, this chapter concludes with limitations of the study and suggestions for directions for further research.

Chapter 2 Constructing a theoretical framework

2.1. Introduction

This study aimed to explore how and why learners use their languages during task-based peer interaction in Second Language (L2) classes of primary school. Thus, in this chapter, I provide an overview of the theoretical framework through a critical literature review, covering theories and research findings on classroom peer interaction and L2 learners' language use. I first build a framework of definitions necessary for understanding the paradigm of my study. Next, I briefly discuss two different theoretical accounts of interaction in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and continue by discussing key concepts of sociocultural theory in order to provide the conceptual framework for my study. Finally, I review previous empirical studies on classroom peer interaction, particularly focusing on learners' language use within L2 learning settings.

2.2. Building a framework of definitions

Terms and labelling language are employed differently depending on contexts or disciplines within which the words are used. Thus, to begin the chapter, I discuss key terms used throughout this paper and develop my own definitions of the key terms to establish the paradigm of my research context, based on the literature review on these terms within the field of SLA.

2.2.1. Learning and acquisition

The term acquisition can be used differently from or interchangeably with learning, depending on researchers or disciplines. For example, Krashen (1982) views language acquisition and language learning as two parallel and separate processes of developing second language competence. Language acquisition is "a subconscious process" of "picking-up a language" through "implicit learning, informal learning, and natural learning" by relying on feelings of correctness (Krashen, 1982, p. 10). In contrast to acquisition, language learning is a conscious

and explicit process of studying a language, leading to formal knowledge of grammar or language rules (Krashen, 1982). While acquisition has to do with natural exposure to the language through meaningful interaction, learning is related to experiences in the learning setting such as a classroom, in which linguistic forms or grammars are focused and dealt with. It is explicit concern about or attention to rules or grammars that differentiates learning from acquisition.

This terminological distinction between acquisition and learning is relevant in SLA, particularly to some researchers supporting Krashen's proposals, but many researchers are sceptical about this distinction (Gass, Behney, & Plonsky, 2013; McLaughlin, 1987; Zafar, 2009). Making a distinction between the two terms has been criticised in that it is difficult to perceive whether the processes are conscious or unconscious (McLaughlin, 1987; Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). In practice, it is hard to demonstrate whether a learner's production results from the subconscious process of acquisition or the conscious process of learning. Language rules or grammar can be acquired through learning (Gregg, 1984), but a learner's utterance, whether it is grammatically correct or incorrect, can be based on either the learner's intuition or his/her knowledge of the language rules. Explicit learning can lead to unconscious acquisition. Another objection focuses on the lack of evidence that acquisition and learning are two independent and separate processes (Gass et al., 2013). Thus, much research has used the terms language acquisition and language learning interchangeably. My study also adopts the view that the clear division between acquisition and learning is problematic or questionable.

Acquisition and learning are used to reflect the meaning presented here, but this distinction is not important in terms of analysis of my data. In addition, given the focus of this study, it is not necessary to distinguish acquisition and learning because the aim of the research is not to identify that learners' language use results from the subconscious process or conscious process but to explore learners' language use itself. Furthermore, the contexts of my research are the L2 classroom setting where learning commonly takes place. Therefore, learning is primarily used and learning and acquisition are used interchangeably rather than

independently within my study.

Along with learning and acquisition, it is also crucial to understand how a task is defined and used in my study, which aims to explore L2 learners' language use during task-based peer interaction in L2 learning contexts, because the adequacy of data for my research depends on how to define a task. Thus, the next subsection addresses the issue of defining a task.

2.2.2. Task

A task has been put to different use in the field of SLA, and it has been diversly defined according to researchers (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Ellis, 2009; Nunan, 1989, 2004; Skehan, 1998; D. Willis & Willis, 2001; J. Willis, 1996b). Hence, it can be a controversial topic to define the term among researchers. Broadly, a task refers to any language activity that language learners get involved in, but the term has more technical definitions within the task-based framework (Loewen & Reinders, 2011).

A task holds a central place in the task-based framework (J. Willis, 1996a). Bachman and Palmer (1996) view a task as an activity in which individuals engage to accomplish a particular language learning goal or objective in a particular context, and which necessitates language use. While Bachman and Palmer (1996) note the language learning goal and language use, J. Willis (1996b) emphasises a task outcome and a communicative purpose. She defines a task as an activity in which learners engage to achieve an outcome by using the target language for a communicative purpose, and points out that activity for practising specified linguistic forms or target patterns is not a task (J. Willis, 1996b). In the same vein, D. Willis and J. Willis (2001) argue that tasks are different from grammatical exercises focusing on linguistic forms in that learners freely use any linguistic structures, which are not specified in advance, to achieve their task outcomes. Nunan (1989, 2004) also stresses the importance of meaning rather than a grammatical form in his definition of a task but does not ignore the role of learners' linguistic knowledge. He defines a task as a pedagogical activity, i.e. a

piece of work performed in the classroom, which enables learners to understand, manipulate, generate or communicate in the target language while the focus is on employing learners' grammatical knowledge to convey meaning (Nunan, 2004). According to Nunan, linguistic forms exist to enable learners to elaborate on what they want to say. He argues that learners' linguistic knowledge should be activated to convey or negotiate meaning but the aim or task outcomes should not be explicitly form-focused.

From a synthetic perspective, Skehan (1998) offered criteria that a task should have as follows: meaning should be a priority; there should be some communication breakdown to resolve; there should be some relevance to equivalent real world activities; the completion of the task should be focused; the task should be assessed in terms of the task outcome. Skehan puts a primary focus on meaning and stresses that tasks should reflect real-world communication. Reflecting a broad consensus among researchers and educators, Ellis (2009) presents more comprehensive criteria of a task. Emphasising meaning and real-world language use, he argues that the task should require learners to make use of language pragmatically to produce an outcome and to use learners' existing language resources. He also suggests that a task should be an activity that requires learners to employ any of the four language skills and to engage in various cognitive processes.

While several different definitions of a task within the task-based framework exist, several common critical features of a task can be identified. First, tasks should focus on meaning rather than form. Second, tasks should have communicative purposes to be achieved. Third, tasks should have either linguistic or non-linguistic outcomes. Fourth, tasks should have a real-world resemblance. In other words, language arising from tasks should resemble language that is used naturally in a real world. Fifth, tasks should allow learners to use their linguistic resources. Finally, tasks can involve any or all of the four language skills and cognitive skills.

Based on the understanding of these definitions, I define tasks as all kinds of pedagogical activities designed for L2 learners to improve their L2 competence,

which have a clear outcome that requires learners to use any or all of the four language skills (which are listening, speaking, reading and writing), considering my research contexts. A task should also allow learners to experience communication reflecting the actual language use occurring in the real world. A task in my study implies a subtle difference in the use of the word in task-based language learning and teaching. The definition developed for my study is broader and more inclusive than that of the task-based framework, because the definitions of a task within this framework are too limited to apply in my research context. In other words, those definitions do not fully reflect the research contexts and participants' L2 competence of my study. Thus, a task defined in my study, considering my research contexts and participants with limited L2 resources, embraces not only communicative tasks that focus on meaning exchange but also form-focused activities in which learners are predisposed to use certain linguistic structures. Drawing on my own definition of a task, I limited the data of my research to learners' talk while performing their task with other learners.

2.2.3. Second language learners' language

The clarity as to what First Language (L1) and L2 refer to is also crucial to this study since L1 and L2 can be differently described, depending on the context in which the language is used. It can be complex to distinguish which language is learners' L1 and L2, especially on the part of heritage language learners. Thus, this section clarifies the terms L1, L2, and heritage language, based on the review of literature on these issues.

First language (L1)

The term first language, commonly abbreviated as L1, is often used interchangeably with the native language, home language, mother/father tongue, primary language, or dominant language. However, the concepts implied within each term need to be exposed, even though the distinctions among those concepts are not always clear (Saville-Troike, 2006). The distinction among these terms is essential in this study because the participants' L1 can be identified

differently according to the definition.

A person's L1, native language, mother/father tongue, and dominant language can be different from one another according to the environment surrounding the language user. For example, imagine a person who was born in the family of a Korean-speaking mother and a French-speaking father living in the UK. The person's mother/father tongue or native language can be either or both Korean or/and French if the person has been exposed to either language or both languages since birth. The person's mother/father tongue or native language can be his/her dominant or primary language, but the dominant or primary language can also change as time goes by if the person has been exposed to the dominant language of the society for a long time, which is different from the person's native language. Even though Korean or French was the dominant language in childhood, English can become the dominant or primary language of the person if he/she has been exposed to English for years. The person could feel most proficient in and most comfortable with English. Schooling delivered in English may play a decisive role in this shift of the dominant language. At this point, a question arises as to the relationship of these terms.

The first language or L1 generally refers to a language that a person has been exposed to from birth or in childhood within the critical period of his/her development. More specifically, the first language or L1 is assumed to be a language or more than one language acquired in childhood, generally beginning before the age of three, and learned while growing up among the speakers of the languages (Saville-Troike, 2006). While this assumption emphasises the period when the language is acquired and the social environment using the language, another assumption views L1 from a different angle. Loewen and Reinders (2011) note the language proficiency as well as the order of the language which the person acquires. They define L1 as the very first language that a person learns during his/her childhood or the language that the person is most competent in (Loewen & Reinders, 2011). The second definition expands the scope of L1 from a chronologically initial language to a most competent language. This definition implies that it is required to consider not only the objective basis such as a person's initial language in terms of the order of acquisition but also the subjective

basis such as the person's self-identification of L1.

Native language is normally understood to mean a language exposed to a person from his/her birth and immersed by the person as a child in a family where older people such as parents or older siblings share the same language experience as the person (Love & Ansaldo, 2010). This definition brings attention to the impact of the social environment surrounding the person, which is immersed in the language. Likewise, mother/father tongue is also used to describe the language that a person learned or acquired in childhood from his/her family, especially his/her mother or father. Literally, mother/father tongue refers to the language spoken by the mother or the father, but it generally indicates a person's native or home language.

A person's L1 is not easy to identify, especially if the person is a multilingual speaker or if the person's dominant language changes from his/her initial language to a language acquired later. One of a person's languages can often be his/her dominant language over the other languages that he/she can use (Hyltenstam, Bylund, Abrahamsson, & Park, 2009). The person's first acquired language does not have to be the primary or dominant language that the person uses most, or feels most proficient in or most comfortable with. A person's primary or dominant language can change throughout the person's life. A change of language dominance is frequently seen among immigrant children or international adoptees (Hyltenstam et al., 2009).

To summarise, a first language commonly refers to a person's native language, mother/father tongue, dominant language, or primary language, which can be generalised as L1. This category of a first language can apply to a monolingual, but it does not seem to be appropriate for a bilingual or multilingual. These terms are not necessarily used interchangeably. One of a person's languages can be the dominant or primary language even though it is not his/her initially acquired language or native language. In my study, the first language or L1 does not mean a chronologically first language. Rather, it refers to a dominant or prime language. Learners' L1 can be either one or more than one. To conclude, L1 is defined as the language that a person is most fluent in, most competent in and most

comfortable with among the languages that the person has been exposed to from birth or learned in childhood within the critical period. In my study, a learner's self-identification of L1 was an influential factor in deciding his/her L1, but the teacher's judgement of the learner's L1 was more decisive in identifying the learner's L1 when the learner's self-identification was different from the teacher's judgement.

Second language (L2)

Like first language, second language is labelled by diverse names: L2, additional language, foreign language, target language, and the like. In a broad sense, a second language is defined as any language that is apart from the first language (Ellis, 2008), and generally refers to a language learned after the first language is learned (Gass et al., 2013). Second language can sometimes indicate a third, fourth, or even tenth language (Saville-Troike, 2006). In this sense, the second language is called an additional language irrespective of the acquisition order, the amount of exposure to the language, and competence or proficiency of the language. In a more restricted sense, the second language refers to an official language or dominant language of the society necessary for the purposes of schooling, employment, and other daily purposes and is often learned by ethnic minorities or immigrants whose native language is different from the societally dominant language (Saville-Troike, 2012). This narrower definition is better understood when being contrasted with the term foreign language.

A foreign language is commonly regarded as a subordinate term of the second language (Ellis, 2008). A foreign language and a second language are often used differently according to contexts where the language is used. In a restricted sense, foreign language refers to a non-native language in the environment where a native language is normally used for everyday life purposes, while a second language indicates a non-native but societally dominant language in the environment where the language is usually spoken for institutional and social purposes as well as basic purposes (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Saville-Troike, 2012). For example, English is a foreign language to Korean speakers learning English in Korea, which is a monolingual society where only Korean is used for daily purposes. On the other hand, it is a second language to Korean speakers learning

English in the UK, where English is used for daily purposes including institutional or business purposes. In the same vein, Cameron (2001, p. 11) points out that the main characteristic of foreign language is seen in “the amount and type of exposure to the language”. Namely, foreign language learners are seldom exposed to the language outside the language classroom, and they can experience the language through several class hours (Cameron, 2001). A foreign language is a language that is not broadly employed in learners’ society; that may be used in overseas trips or the situation requiring communication with other people with different cultures; or that is learned as a school subject without any immediate or essential practical use (Saville-Troike, 2012).

The narrower definition of the second language makes a clear distinction between a second language and a foreign language, and this distinction between the two terms may influence the purpose of teaching/learning the language, classroom language activities/tasks, or teaching methods. However, these definitions still have problems in applying to all kinds of cases. For example, a native Korean speaking student living in Korea may use only English as a mediational tool in his/her university or graduate school lectures. A native Korean speaking professor also may use only English as his/her mediational tool to give a lecture. Here, the question may arise as to whether the student’s and the professor’s English, which is used in the educational setting and the workplace respectively, is their second language or foreign language. Hence, this distinction of a second language and a foreign language is not sufficient.

A target language, which is a subordinate term to the second language, refers to the language that is being learned in the educational setting (Gass et al., 2013; Loewen & Reinders, 2011). A second language or a foreign language is called a target language because it is the language which is the purpose and object of learning (Saville-Troike, 2006). For example, English is a target language in both an English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom in an English language institute in London and an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom in an English language institute in Seoul.

To summarise, L2 can be called additional language, foreign language, second

language, or target language according to contexts where the terms are used. In my study, L2 refers to the target language that learners learn in their L2 classroom as an additional language other than a first language.

Heritage language

Heritage language is one of the targeted languages within the field of SLA and also one of the crucial terms in my study because one group of participating pupils were heritage language learners. Heritage languages are languages of ethnic minority group members or immigrants whose native language is not the dominant language in the society (Montrul, 2010, 2013). Heritage languages can be broadly classified into two types (Cummins, 2005; De Bot & Gorter, 2005; Montrul, 2013). The first type refers to indigenous languages whose speakers have always lived in the region where a different language is the majority language, such as Welsh in Wales and Basque in both Spain and France. The second type refers to languages of immigrants and refugees who move to a country whose majority language is different from their own: for example, Korean, Spanish and many other immigrants' languages in the UK.

Heritage language learners are people who are studying a language of their minority group that they have a cultural or affective connection to (Loewen & Reinders, 2011; Montrul, 2013). In terms of language proficiency, heritage language learners are varied from the person who has no proficiency in the language to the person who has native-like proficiency in the language. In many cases, heritage language learners do not completely acquire the language or lose parts of the language which they have already acquired in their childhood, because they are schooled in the dominant language of the society (Cummins, 2005; Montrul, 2013). After entering school, a person's L2, which is the dominant language of the society, usually becomes his/her dominant language (Gass et al., 2013). Heritage language is a chronologically first language for the learner, but the switch to the dominant language leads to incomplete acquisition of the language (Polinsky, 2008; Polinsky & Kagan, 2007). Many studies report that heritage language acquisition is interrupted and the language fluency is rapidly lost in the early years of schooling when the heritage language learning is not

supported within the educational context (Cummins, 1991, 2005; Fillmore, 1991).

Heritage language speakers may understand and use their own heritage language, but their heritage language and primary language are not necessarily identical (Valdés, 2000 cited in Polinsky, 2008). Heritage language can be a first language for the person in terms of the order of acquisition, but resembles a second language. Namely, heritage language “has a grammatical basis but has not reached the full ultimate attainment of an L1 acquired in childhood”, similarly to an L2 (Montrul, 2010, p. 294). Heritage language speakers seem to somehow reset their L1 and L2 since being consistently and considerably exposed to the dominant language of the society through compulsory schooling. According to Jia and Aaronson (2003), children immigrating before age of ten tend to switch their language preference or dominant language from the home language to the language of the host society within the first year. Compulsory schooling seems to strongly influence the switch of the dominant language because children have a substantial amount of exposure to the language of the host country in school. This change of language dominance is frequently seen among not only children who are living in immigrant families but also some adult immigrants (Hyltenstam et al., 2009). The heritage language speakers may feel less comfortable, less confident, less competent, or less fluent in their heritage language because of the insufficient knowledge of the language and limited opportunities to hear and use the language. Hence, heritage language does not necessarily refer to the person’s L1 or dominant language. Rather, it can be the person’s L2 even though it is the chronologically initial language for the person.

To conclude, in my study, L1 means a language that the person feels most confident and most competent in, and most comfortable with, even though the language is neither chronically first acquired nor mother/father tongue. In the same vein, L2 refers to a language that the person feels less confident and less competent in, and less comfortable with than his/her L1, even though the language is chronically first acquired. L2 is also used interchangeably with the target language in my research contexts, and used as a superordinate term to embrace not only the narrow sense of a second language but also a foreign language and a heritage language.

2.2.4. *Bilingualism and bilingual*

It is necessary to understand how the term bilingualism is defined because the notion of bilingualism gives strong impact on the view of L2 learners in my study. In addition, it offers insightful ideas to understand L2 learners' language use. The term bilingualism is commonly used to refer to functioning in both L1 and L2 in oral interaction even though it generally embraces understanding an L2 in either or both spoken or/and written mode without necessarily using it (Wei, 2007). Bilingualism is used variously, ranging from a native-like proficiency in two languages to a minimal competence in an L2 (Hamers & Blanc, 2000). At one end of this spectrum is the classic view of bilingualism, which refers to the perfect use of two languages. This view equals Bloomfield's (1935) definition of bilingualism, i.e. "native-like control of two languages" (p56). From this perspective, bilingualism is beyond the reach of most of L2 learners (Daily-O'Cain & Liebscher, 2006), and only a small number of L2 learners could be called bilinguals (Bylund, Hyltenstam, & Abrahamsson, 2013). At the opposite end is Diebold's (1961) notion of incipient bilingualism, which indicates minimal proficiency, i.e. the generation of meaningful utterances, in an L2. In the same vein, Macnamara (1967) defines bilingualism as a minimal competence in at least one of the language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading and writing, in an L2. From this perspective, almost every L2 learner could be called a bilingual. These two extremes, i.e. the maximalist and the minimalist definitions, are either too exclusive or too inclusive. In addition, these definitions are criticised because they do not specifically identify the native-like proficiency or the minimal competence in an L2, and they are only concerned with a single aspect of bilingualism, i.e. the degree of proficiency in L1 and L2 (Hamers & Blanc, 2000).

Considering the degree of proficiency in two languages and the contexts where these languages are used, Valdés (2003, p. 39) proposes three categories of bilingualism: the bilingualism of "privileged children" who are brought up bilingually at home; the bilingualism of "majority group children" who learn in a minority language in school, such as Canadian immersion students; and the bilingualism of "minority children" who learn in a majority language in school, such as immigrants or non-immigrant minorities. The underlying difference between the

first and the third groups are related to not only physical conditions where languages are learned but also social class and opportunities to gain access to the target language (Valdés, 2003).

From a different angle, Grosjean (1985) proposes a bilingual (or wholistic) view, which regards a bilingual as being more than the sum of two different monolinguals because the bilingual has a distinct and particular linguistic behaviour. A holistic view of bilingualism is based in the concept that what is learned and comprehended in L1 plays part in what is learned and comprehended in L2, and that both languages contribute to “a single and universally accessible linguistic and cognitive system” (Hopewell & EScamilla, 2015, p. 39). This view regards bilingualism as the norm, and considers languages of a bilingual as being integrated and constructing a sole linguistic system (Hamers & Blanc, 2000). This holistic view is in contrast to a monolingual (or fractional) view of bilinguals. The monolingual perspective regards monolingualism as the norm, and deals with the languages of a bilingual as two autonomous systems, as if the bilingual is two monolinguals inside one person (Baker & Wright, 2017).

Codeswitching, i.e. a shift between two languages, offers evidence of bilingualism, which is the competence to coordinate the languages, conforming to the grammatical rules of the languages, and doubts the classic view of a bilingual, i.e. the “two-in-one” perspective (Wei, 2007, p. 15). This two-in-one viewpoint consequently compares bilinguals with monolinguals regarding the proficiency of their language (Wei, 2007). From this view, bilinguals should have a native-like proficiency in both their L1 and L2, and they may be labelled or disparaged as being inferior or deficient if they do not show a proficiency that is similar to that of a monolingual in both languages (Baker & Wright, 2017). Within this framework, most of L2 learners may be regarded as deficient bilinguals because of their limited L2 proficiency. However, L2 learners should not be seen as being inferior to monolinguals of the language. L2 learners, who have their potential in enhancing their bilingualism, are more appropriately termed as emergent bilinguals (García, 2009). The term emergent bilinguals acknowledges L2 learners’ bilingual practices that do not accept monolingualism as the single norm, allowing for potentialising L2 learners’ ability to transfer to the bilingual spectrum

(García, 2009). This term leads to a more holistic view of bilingualism (Baker & Wright, 2017), which is adopted in my study.

In this section, I build a framework of definitions such as acquisition, learning, task, L1, L2, heritage language, and bilingualism, in order to provide the paradigm of my research context. On the basis of understanding these definitions, I explore how L2 learners' interaction is dealt with in the field of SLA, focusing on two different approaches to studying the role of interaction, in the next section.

2.3. Exploring classroom interaction within the field of SLA

Within the field of SLA, interaction is regarded as a crucial context for L2 acquisition or learning from both cognitive and sociocultural perspectives (Philp et al., 2014). These two perspectives take different approaches to the roles that interaction plays in L2 acquisition. In this section, I begin with a brief discussion of cognitive accounts for interaction, followed by sociocultural accounts to construct the theoretical framework of my study.

2.3.1. Cognitive accounts of interaction and L2 acquisition

Cognitive views, which had long been prevailing and predominant in SLA, are individualistic, mentalistic, and mechanistic regarding the learner and language learning (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Following the cognitive tradition, the computational model, which is also called information processing models, regards the human mind as "a black box" that processes linguistic input and produces linguistic output (Ellis, 2008, p. 517; Platt & Brooks, 1994). The computational model argues that language acquisition is characterised as input, the internal processing of information from the input, and output (Ellis, 2008), and emphasises the mechanism in charge of the computation of information (Johnson, 2004). Within this framework, language acquisition is considered as involving internal mental processes that describe how L2 competence is acquired. Interaction is regarded as one source of input, which is useful for language acquisition (Krashen, 1982), at one end of a continuum, and as an opportunity for producing

output, which learners make use of to experiment their hypotheses of linguistic forms and meanings (Swain, 2000), at the other end of the continuum. This subsection reviews six hypotheses explaining interactions within this spectrum.

With an emphasis on input, the Frequency Hypothesis, claimed initially by Hatch and Wagner-Gough (1976 cited in Ellis, 2008), argues that the frequency that different language items occur in the input with determines the order of L2 acquisition. In other words, frequency is the essential determinant of L2 acquisition. There is sufficient empirical evidence of the importance of input frequency in L2 acquisition, but it is also true that input frequency is not the only factor in determining L2 acquisition (Hatch, 1974; Wagner-Gough & Hatch, 1975). For example, the definite article or the indefinite article is one of the language items most frequently appearing in English input. However, articles are acquired later by native Korean speaking learners of English than other language items appearing less frequently, such as progressive, copula, or past-irregular verbs (Luk & Shirai, 2009). It is not surprising that Korean learners have difficulty reaching native-like levels of performance with respect to articles because Korean language does not have any system of articles. Thus, the frequency of linguistic items may be one of important factors in language acquisition, but does not seem to be an apparent or necessary determinant in language acquisition.

Another computational model called the Input Hypothesis, which is named and elaborated by Krashen (1981, 1982, 1985), emphasises the importance of an input. Krashen (1982, 1985) attempts to explain L2 acquisition through the Input Hypothesis, which is the central part of his Monitor Model, i.e. his theoretical framework consisting of five hypotheses, i.e. the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis, the affective filter hypothesis. He insists that people only acquire language through the comprehension of messages or by getting “comprehensible input” (Krashen, 1985, p. 2). Comprehensible input, which is related to acquisition, i.e. the implicit, subconscious process of development, rather than learning, is defined as messages that can be understood by the acquirer (Krashen, 1985). The messages contain structures at ‘ $i + 1$ ’. ‘ i ’ refers to the learner’s current level of language competence and ‘ 1 ’ represents the next level of language competence.

Thus, 'i + 1' means input just beyond the learner's current level of language competence. According to him, "a necessary (but not sufficient) condition" which enables the learner to transfer from stage 'i' to stage 'i+1' is that the learner comprehends input that contains a little bit beyond where the learner is, i.e. 'i + 1' (Krashen, 1982, p. 21). Here, it is necessary that the learner focuses on the meaning of the message rather than the form of the message. In his view, the learner progresses along the natural order of development by understanding the input that contains structures at the level of 'i + 1' through context, the knowledge of the world, extra-linguistic knowledge, and current linguistic competence (Krashen, 1982, 1985). He insists that language acquisition occurs when the learner focuses on meaning and the learner, as a result, acquires syntactic forms (Krashen, 1982). However, this hypothesis has been criticised by many researchers with abundant research evidence that comprehensible input alone is not sufficient for L2 acquisition.

Partly following Krashen's input hypothesis and partly drawing on Hatch's work on discourse analysis and language education, Long (1983a, 1983b, 1996) presents the Interaction Hypothesis, which is regarded as a key concept in SLA. Long argues that language acquisition is facilitated through interpersonal conversation where communication breakdowns happen and are negotiated (Long, 1983a, 1983b, 1996). In his early work of the Interaction Hypothesis, he stresses the role of interaction in making input comprehensible, similarly to Krashen's Input Hypothesis. He claims that not only linguistic modifications to adjust speech, such as shorter and syntactically more simplified utterances, but also conversational modifications, such as comprehension checks and clarification requests, are key to making linguistic input comprehensible to L2 learners, focusing on the latter, i.e. the interactional modifications (Long, 1983b). These linguistic and conversational modifications serve to avoid communication breakdowns or to repair the discourse when the communication breakdowns occur. Long argues that modified interaction works for acquisition, emphasising the causal relationship among modifications, comprehension, and acquisition (Long, 1983a, 1983b). Namely, his view is that the linguistic and conversational modifications enhance comprehension of input, and that comprehensible input leads to language acquisition. While his early version is criticised in that it does

not account for how the modified comprehensible input promotes language acquisition, like the Input Hypothesis, his updated version of the Interaction Hypothesis attempts to explain how interactionally modified input facilitates language acquisition by identifying the mechanism inside the learner (Ellis, 2008). In the updated version, which has been affected by Hatch's work, Long (1996) argues that negotiation for meaning, which leads to interactional modifications, contributes to language acquisition because it productively relates input, the learner's internal processes, in particular, "selective attention", and output (p 452). He emphasises the contribution of negative feedback and modified output, and also claims that interactional modifications promote acquisition when the modifications assist learners to notice linguistic forms in the input and mismatches between input and output (Long, 1996).

As another computational model based on Krashen's input hypothesis, Swain (1985, 1995) formulates her own hypothesis, i.e. the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. She points out that comprehensible input alone is insufficient in promoting learners' native-like development of grammatical and sociolinguistic competence (Swain, 1985). While Krashen views the role of output as a generator of comprehensible input, Swain (1985) argues that there are roles that output or production plays in facilitating L2 acquisition independently of comprehensible input. She proposes three functions of output in L2 acquisition except for the function of enhancing fluency through practising: "the noticing function, the hypothesis-testing function and the reflective (metalinguistic) function" (Swain, 1995, pp. 140-141; 1998). Especially, Swain stresses the notion of pushed output, which is a corresponding concept to the 'i+1' of Krashen's comprehensible input. In her view, learners may move from semantic top-down processing to syntactic bottom-up processing when they are pushed to produce their message accurately, coherently, and properly (Swain, 1985). The comprehensible output hypothesis contributes to revealing the role of interaction, especially output, in L2 acquisition, but it is not yet evident whether output supports learners to acquire new language forms or only automatically use the partially acquired language forms (Ellis, 2008).

Substantially drawing on Long's and Swain's hypotheses, Schmidt (1994, 2001,

2012; 1990) proposes the Noticing Hypothesis, claiming that the notion of attention is key to understanding L2 acquisition. He views noticing, i.e. registering linguistic forms in input, and noticing the gap between these forms of the input and those of the learner's output as a necessary process in L2 acquisition. In other words, the learner must not only attend to and notice linguistic forms of the input but also compare consciously the differences between the input and his/her own output in order for acquisition to occur. He argues that attention to input is closely related to a conscious process.

In an attempt to account for the process from being exposed to input to producing output, Gass (1988, 1997) suggests an integrated model of the hypotheses described above, which offers an insightful and complementary understanding of how interaction affects L2 acquisition. This model identifies five stages to characterise what a learner does during the process of moving from input to output as shown in Figure 2.1: Apperceived Input, Comprehended Input, Intake, Integration, and Output.

The stage of Apperceived Input, based on Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, refers to a stage where learners notice a gap between what they already know and what they would learn. In this stage, learners relate linguistic features of L2 input to their existing knowledge. The role of input frequency in L2 acquisition is emphasised in this stage.

Comprehended Input, drawing on criticisms of Krashen's Input Hypothesis, is provided as the next stage. Here, Gass differentiates comprehended input from Krashen's comprehensible input. While comprehensibility in comprehensible input is controlled by the input provider rather than the input receiver, the receiver, i.e. the learner, and the degree of his/her understanding are focused in the stage of Comprehended Input. Also, comprehension is regarded as a dichotomous variable in Krashen's theory, namely, whether input is either comprehended or not, whereas comprehended input is a multi-layered concept containing possibilities from semantics to syntactic analysis.

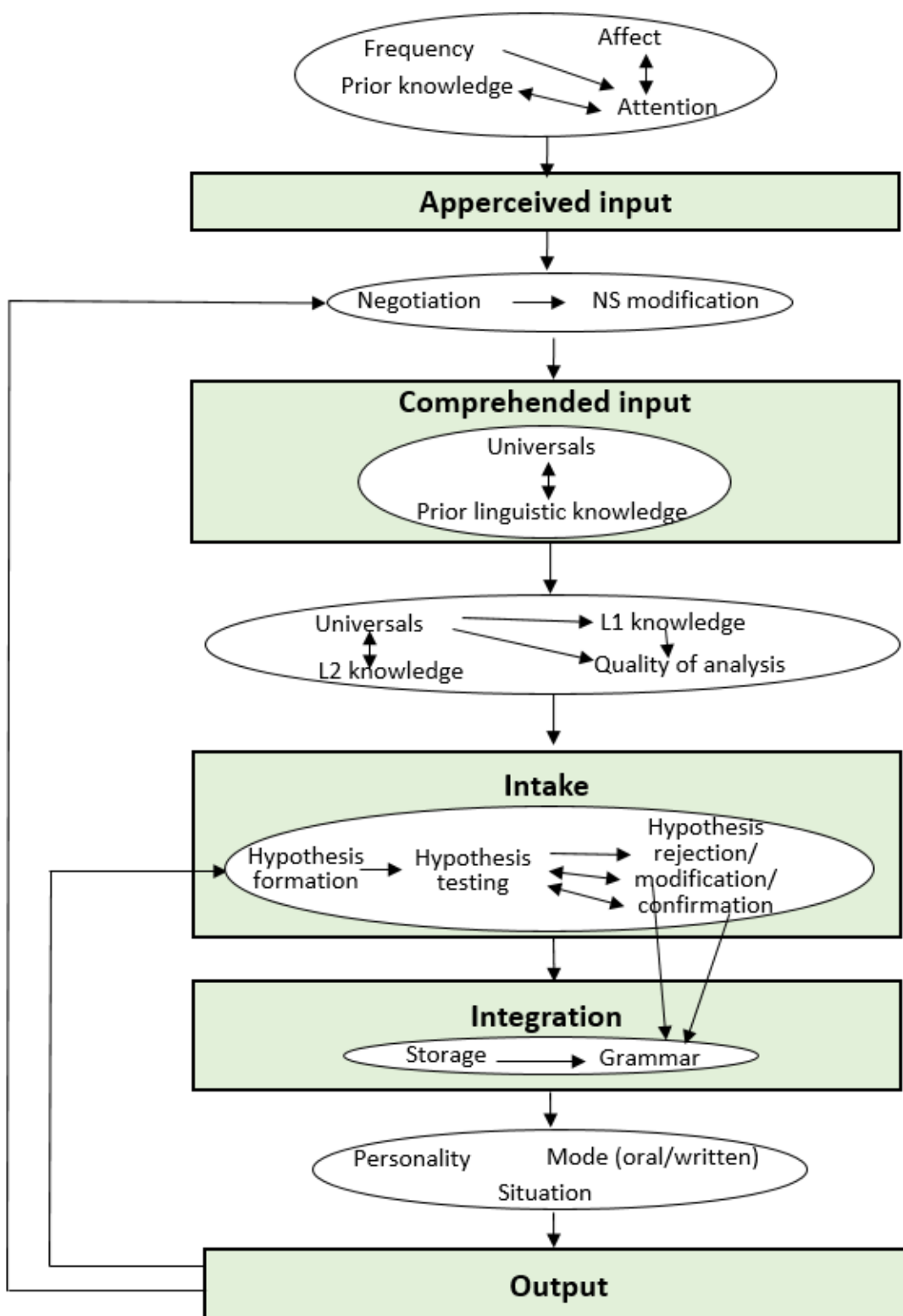


Figure 2.1. An intergrated model of L2 acquisition (Gass, 1997, p. 3)

The next stage, Intake, which is the process of taking in linguistic resources, refers to the cognitive activity of mediating input and the rules of language (Gass, 1997). Intake is basically different from apperception or comprehension in that it necessarily leads to grammar formation (Gass & Selinker, 2008). This is where information is matched with the learner's inherent knowledge of universal grammar and prior L1 and L2 knowledge. Hypothesis formation, hypothesis testing, hypothesis rejection, hypothesis modification and hypothesis confirmation take place in this stage. As a result of language intake, the learner's L2 grammar and storage are developed.

In the stage of Integration, the learner stores new linguistic information contained in the input into his/her prior linguistic system for using later. It is also this stage that hypothesis formulation and confirmation or reformulation of existing hypotheses take place in.

The final stage, Output, which is matched with Swain's (1985, 1995) comprehensible output, is not a stage of the acquisition process, but is an evident manifestation of the acquisition process. It serves a function as a tool for testing hypothesis, which can function as a feedback into the stage of Intake. Also, output plays a role in forcing the learner to analyse language syntactically rather than merely to analyse language semantically (Gass, 1997; Gass & Selinker, 2008).

In short, Gass's model provides an integrated and dynamic view of L2 acquisition by breaking down processing into a series of stages, beginning with input, whose linguistic features learners apperceive and relate to their prior knowledge, and ending with output, which is the manifestation of taken-in and integrated knowledge.

These hypotheses following the cognitive tradition of research are seen as being in conflict with each other, particularly regarding the relative roles that input and output play in SLA on the one hand. However, on the other hand, they collaboratively contribute to the development of the comprehensive theoretical framework of cognitive accounts for interaction in the field of SLA by

complementing one another. These hypotheses basically view a learner as an information processor that receives and deals with inputs and then produces outputs, drawing on the information processing paradigm. In this view, acquisition happens inside the brain of the individual learner, and interaction is crucial in the sense of providing input and offering opportunities for output (Ellis, 2008). The focus is on the learner's cognitive process within his/her brain rather than interpersonal interaction. Namely, second language acquisition is fundamentally cognitive process of achieving L2 linguistic systems such as morphology, syntax, sound, and vocabulary, which constitute the L2 (Foster & Ohta, 2005). This view attempts to conceptualise the process of L2 acquisition, using the metaphor, a computer or a black box, but fails to view a learner as an active person by seeing him/her as an information processor. In addition, this view disregards the learner's interaction with other people or his/her environment. Thus, computational models are criticised that they do not give a rich and comprehensive account of interaction in which learners take part (Platt & Brooks, 1994). In other words, the cognitive accounts of interaction provide a partial picture of learners' interaction in L2 learning contexts.

On the basis of the understanding of the cognitive perspective on interaction, the next section offers another theoretical perspective, which can be seen as either an antithesis of or a theory being in complementary relation to this computational model. On the one hand, the cognitive and sociocultural accounts are regarded as irreconcilable and helpful in different ways, because their ontological, epistemological, methodological approaches are different from each other. This position, which is adopted by some researchers of sociocultural theory, argues the excellence of the paradigm of sociocultural theory (Ellis, 2008). For instance, Platt and Brook (1994) criticise that computational models offer only an imperfect picture of L2 acquisition, supporting sociocultural theory. On the other hand, these two approaches are seen as complementary and inter-connected. In this view, it is even said that there is no gap between cognitive and sociocultural approaches to L2 learning and teaching as far as learning is innately social and all learning is simultaneously cognitive (Hulstijn et al., 2014).

In my study, the complementary relation between the two accounts are preferred

because it is believed that these two different theories will collectively contribute to achieving a fuller picture of learners' language use and learning. However, sociocultural theory is only used as a theoretical framework for my study because my research aims to qualitatively explore learners' language use on both the interpersonal and the intrapersonal plane rather than individual learners' cognitive activity within their brain.

2.3.2. Sociocultural accounts of interaction and L2 acquisition

The other type of theoretical account, i.e. sociocultural theory, which is a more recent arrival to the field of SLA, provides a very different view of interaction. Sociocultural theory differs from the computational models in the sense that it emphasises factors outside the learner rather than factors that are completely inside the learner's brain, and it denies the learner as a computational processor (Saville-Troike, 2006). Like computational models, which are based on traditional cognitive approaches to learning, sociocultural theory basically has to do with learners' cognitive development (Zuengler & Miller, 2006). However, sociocultural theory is distinguished from computational models in that it holds that the interpersonal dimension of cognitive process is the precondition of intrapersonal dimension of cognitive process, which is derivative. This view also has different assumptions on L2 acquisition from the computational models. It regards language use in authentic situations as forming the necessary basis of learning (Juengler & Miller, 2006). Unlike the computational model, sociocultural theory does not break down interaction into some components such as input and output. The focus of sociocultural theory is on "language as a resource for participation in the kinds of activities" that our daily lives consist of rather than "language as input", and participation in these activities is both the destination and the journey of learning (Juengler & Miller, 2006, pp. 37-38). Sociocultural theory holds that language acquisition is an intrinsically interpersonal practice that arises from the process of interaction with others while learners are supported to do certain tasks that they cannot perform alone without any help from others (Ellis, 2008).

Sociocultural theory has its origin in Vygotsky's work (Appel & Lantolf, 1994;

Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007) and is a theory of mind (Lantolf, 1994). According to Lantolf (2000b, 2000c), one of the crucial concepts is that higher mental functions are mediated. From this perspective, people do not contact directly with the world. People rely on mediational tools such as physical or symbolic tools when they interact with the social and physical world (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008; Moll, 2000). Mediational tools, which consist of physical and symbolic tools, are cultural artefacts created by people over time (Lantolf, 2000c). Language, which is the most powerful mediational and communicational tool, has two functions, i.e. the intrapersonal use of language as a tool for the cognitive activity and the interpersonal use of language as a tool for the communicative activity, and they cannot be separated from each other (Vygotsky, 1997). Language plays a fundamental role in learning because people develop intellectually by using language through thinking on the intrapersonal plane and communicating with others on the interpersonal plane.

Learners can develop with scaffolded assistance from others within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). The ZPD indicates the gap between a person's actual development without any help from the external world and the potential development under supports mediated by others (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978). One way of helping the learner in L2 development within the ZPD is through scaffolding (Saville-Troike, 2006). Scaffolding is generally defined as the systematic support given to a child or a novice from a more experienced person such as an adult or an expert (Gibbons, 2002; Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). However, scaffolding may occur between learners, i.e. peers, when they work together on their task which is beyond the actual development of any individual within the pair or the group (Saville-Troike, 2006). Learners can identify and achieve his/her level of potential development through interactions with other learners, whether they are more or less able (DiCamilla & Antón, 2012). Besides social speech for eliciting or providing help, learners may use private speech in order to regulate his/her language development (DiCamilla & Antón, 2012).

In the field of SLA, sociocultural theory, which is a theory of mind, seeks to afford an account of how L2 knowledge is internalised through the process of social

interaction. It is also beneficial for explaining learning and development through its essential constructs such as mediation, ZPD, scaffolding and private speech. However, methodologically, sociocultural theory has limitations. First, sociocultural approach is not appropriate for revealing the relationship between cause and effect or generalising the results (Foster & Ohta, 2005). In addition, there is no way of knowing how exactly the samples, which are presented in sociocultural research in order to demonstrate main points, represent the data set as typical examples (Foster & Ohta, 2005). Despite these limitations, undeniably, sociocultural theory is a theoretical framework that supports the position of interaction as a crucial context for L2 learning. Sociocultural theory also provides a relevant theoretical lens to explore pupils' language use during interaction with other learners because it offers generic and dynamic understanding of interaction, emphasising language as a primary tool in L2 learning not only on the interpersonal plane but also the intrapersonal plane. With the insightful awareness and sensitivity to contexts that sociocultural perspectives offer, I chose to take the sociocultural lens to explore and understand L2 learners' language use during task-based peer interaction in their learning context, even though sociocultural theory has some limitations in explaining the process of learners' learning.

The next section more deeply addresses essential constructs of sociocultural theory, which provide an overview of the theoretical background to my study.

2.4. Formulating a conceptual framework

Within sociocultural theory, there are main constructs to shape the understanding of L2 learning and the roles that interaction plays in the L2 learning. The most fundamental constructs to my study are mediation, scaffolding within the ZPD, and private speech. These constructs are closely connected to each other and are well-interwoven concepts to offer a relevant conceptual framework to support my study. The following subsections review the literature on these constructs in the field of SLA, in order to formulate a conceptual framework for my study.

2.4.1. *Mediation*

Sociocultural theory, which is based on Vygotsky's theory of mediated learning, acknowledges that people do not take action directly on the objective world but resort to physical tools and activity to help them to transform the world (Lantolf, 2000a). People also need semiotic tools to mediate and exert control over their relationships with other people and with themselves (Lantolf, 2000a). Humans' cognitive function regulates the nature

of the external world, and the world of interpersonal relationships and cultural artefacts regulates how humans have control over their mental activity (Lantolf, 2000b). Within this framework, humans' cognitive development does not progress by revealing innate abilities, but by modifying inherent abilities when they are entwined with socioculturally developed mediators (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995). In this respect, sociocultural theory is in conflict with the computational model of L2 acquisition which assumes that acquisition is the process which occurs inside the person's brain (Ellis, 2008).

Vygotsky (1978, p. 57) explains that every psychological function in human development appears twice, first between people on the interpsychological level, and then inside the individual on the intrapsychological level. Interpsychological process is transformed into an intrapsychological process by "a long series of development events" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57). In other words, interpersonal activities give rise to an individual's cognitive development (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007; McCafferty, 1994). Language acquisition happens not only inside the learner's brain but also through social interactions with others, and these interpersonal interactions are crucial for the individual learner's development of a second language. In this stance, the assumption of my research is that learning is not just an inside-the-head phenomenon but also the process that takes place in the relationship between people in the socioculturally fabricated context which they belong to.

In sociocultural theory, the interpersonal and the intrapersonal plane are

connected through the concept of mediation (Ellis, 2008), and the distinct and essential construct of sociocultural theory is that higher forms of mental behaviour are mediated (Lantolf, 2000b). L2 learning is also a mediated process (Lantolf, 2000b). Mediation is the process through which people employ artefacts, concepts and activities that are socioculturally constructed in order to “regulate (i.e. gain voluntary control over and transform)” the physical world or their own and each other’s interpersonal and intrapersonal activity (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 79). If relevant development has occurred, a person can regulate his/her own behaviour on the object, but if it has not, the person will need to depend on physical or symbolic artefacts for support, and this leads to “tool mediated action” (Ellis, 2008, p. 524). Physical and symbolic artefacts are tools that have been culturally created by people over a long period of time and have passed down to their descendants and that are commonly changed as they are passed on to the next generations (Lantolf, 2000a, 2000b). As with physical artefacts, people employ symbolic artefacts such as algebraic symbols, music, arts, and above all language as a mediational tool for building up a relationship between themselves and the world (Lantolf, 2000b)

With respect to regulation as one form of mediation, young learners develop the ability to regulate their own behaviour through language by engaging in psychological and physical activities in which their behaviour is at first regulated by other members of a community (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Self-regulation can be developed through three general phases. In the first phase, humans mediate their connection with the world by using physical artefacts (Lantolf, 1994). They rely on these material objects to regulate their cognitive activity, so the first phase is termed as object-regulation (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). In the second phase, other-regulation, people depend on other people such as parents, teachers, siblings, and peers to regulate their mental activity. The other-regulation stage involves “implicit and explicit mediation” that includes varied levels of help, direction, and what is sometimes seen as scaffolding by other people. (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007, p. 200). The final regulation stage is self-regulation. The transition from other-regulation or interpersonal activity to self-regulation or intrapersonal activity happens in the ZPD (Lantolf & Appel, 1994), which will be explored in the next subsection. Self-regulation means that a person does not or rarely needs any

support from external objects or other people when they perform activities, and is achieved through internalisation (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007).

Internalisation refers to the close connection between the interpersonal and intrapersonal plane, and is the process through which the person can regulate his/her mental functions or thinking system (Yaroshevsky, 1989 cited in Lantolf and Thorne, 2007). In other words, the behaviour of a person is initially regulated or mediated by other people, but finally the person will come to regulate his/her own psychological and physical behaviour through “the appropriation of the regulatory means” used by other people (Lantolf, 2000a). Internalisation does not mean the simple transfer from physical or interpersonal mediation to the pre-existing intrapersonal plane, but refers to the process in which a person moves from the performance of activities with the help of external mediators to the performance of mental activities without any support from physical artefacts or other people (Lantolf, 2000a). Whereas learning happens during object-regulation or other-regulation, i.e. performance assisted by external mediation, development occurs during self-regulation, i.e. self-regulated cognitive activity developed through internalisation of a performance assisted by physical artefacts or other people (Ellis, 2008). In the process of internalisation, language serves as an essential mediational tool (Swain, Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller, 2002). In other words, human mental development is closely related to whether the person exerts control over or regulates cognitive processes through the symbolic mediational tool, and language plays a fundamental role as the crucial semiotic mediator in the process (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). Language is the strongest and most permeable symbolic cultural artefact to mediate the person to the world, other people and him/herself (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). In this theoretical framework, language is regarded as both a tool of achieving interpersonal interaction and of carrying out intrapersonal activity, with the latter being based on the former (Ellis, 2008).

In relation to L2 learning, three different kinds of mediation are crucial: artefact mediation, interpersonal mediation, and intrapersonal mediation. In terms of artefact mediation, language is the primary and most powerful mediating tool for L2 learning (Lantolf, 2000b). Especially, learners’ interpersonal speech produced in the L1 and the L2 has a strong impact on L2 learning (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007).

The L2 acts as not only the target language for learning but also the mediational tool for learning (Ellis, 2008). On the other hand, learners' L1 also serves to mediate L2 learning because the L1 is employed for controlling the learners' mental process as well as communication with others (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). As for interpersonal and intrapersonal mediation, L2 learning is mediated both by other people through interpersonal interaction and by the learner himself/herself through self-directed speech known as private speech (Lantolf, 2000b). The learner's private speech can often be observed as speech that is not intended for an interlocutor but addressed to the speaker himself or herself during a social interaction (Lantolf, 2000b). The nature of both interpersonal and intrapersonal mediation is seen as social (Ellis, 2008). Namely, the mediation occurring on the interpersonal and intrapersonal plane entails social interaction with other people or with oneself. Interpersonal mediation functions as a mediating tool by which intrapersonal mediation is acquired (Ellis, 2008).

To summarise, higher mental functions, including L2 learning, are mediated, and interpersonal interaction allows the language to become a mediational tool for the individuals' cognitive functions (Ohta, 2000). In order to illustrate the understanding of how social processes transfer into cognitive processes in children's development, Vygotsky devised the ZPD, and children's development within the ZPD can be explained through external guidance or collaboration, i.e. scaffolding. The next subsection addresses both concepts of the ZPD and scaffolding together.

2.4.2. *Scaffolding within the ZPD*

Vygotsky's concept of the ZPD is the construct of sociocultural theory that has had the most significant influence on the field of education globally (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). The ZPD does not have to do with the development of certain skill of a task, but must be connected with development (Chaiklin, 2003). According to Vygotsky (1978), the ZPD refers to the distance between the current level of the learner's actual development that solves a problem independently and the future level of the learner's potential development that solves a problem under adult support or in collaboration with more capable learners. Vygotsky's concept of the

ZPD constructs two developmental stages in the learner: the current developmental stage, which is established by what the learner can achieve on his/her own, and the potential developmental stage, which can be determined by what the learner can do with assistance from others (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000). The upper boundary of the ZPD is changeable as the learner can carry out the task (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). Hence, successful scaffolding should be able to extend the upper boundary of the learner's ZPD (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). Namely, scaffolding should enable the learner to reach beyond his/her current developmental stage. In addition, it should be noted that there are different ZPDs for different learners and thus different learners need different levels of support (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994).

The ZPD can be interpreted differently depending on researchers because Vygotsky himself did not clarify the relationship between social interaction, the mediational function of cultural artefacts and the ZPD (Ellis, 2008). However, there is clear strength in interpreting the ZPD as supporting the importance of collaborative activity in cognitive development (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Like Piaget, Vygotsky considers peer interaction as a crucial role in learning and acquisition, but while Piaget focuses on the interactions between learners of similar levels of development, Vygotsky stresses the interactions between more and less capable learners (Mercer & Littleton, 2007). Learners develop beyond their current level into the ZPD by interacting with more proficient others through adults' guidance or in collaboration with more advanced peers (Cameron, 2001; C. D. Lee & Smagorinsky, 2000; Pinter, 2006). Within this framework, peer interaction is considered as being effective, but would be regarded as being most useful when a more knowledgeable learner supports the less knowledgeable learner within the ZPD (Mercer & Littleton, 2007). The ZPD is also seen to form through negotiation between the learner and the more knowledgeable partner rather than through scaffolding provided as a predesigned frame (Newman, Griffin, & Cole, 1989). On the other hand, other modern researchers who have extended Vygotsky's work have explored how ZPDs are created in interactions between peers who may be not only more or less intelligent but also at the same level of intelligence, and thus have expanded the comprehension of the ZPD in the L2 learning context (Ohta, 2013).

The ZPD is an essential concept in sociocultural theory, but there is a danger of “over-extension”, because it accounts for diverse significant learning phenomena (Ellis, 2008, p. 533). The reason why the ZPD is the most essential construct is that the ZPD explains noteworthy learning/teaching phenomena. The ZPD is intimately connected with the notion of assisted performance, and gives the view of formative assessment, which means that the assessment should concentrate on what learners can currently do with support from others, not what they can do unaided (Ellis, 2008). This view is in contrast to traditional assessment that only focuses on the current level of learners’ development that has been already attained (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Ellis (2008) provides more examples of the learning phenomena that the ZPD explains. According to him, the ZPD clarifies why there are some structures that learners do not perform successfully regardless of the quality of the external mediation, and why learners are not able to build the ZPD that enables them to perform such structures. In addition, he argues that the ZPD accounts for the reason why learners are capable of carrying out some structures with interpersonal support but not autonomously and why learners can build ZPDs for accomplishing these structures even though they are not internalized by the learners. Finally, he claims that the ZPD explains how new structures are internalised by learners and how learners appropriate the structures which they have constructed the required ZPDs for with the external support.

Regarding the process through the ZPD, Mercer and Littleton (2007) describe it as four stages: (a) the learner performs with the scaffolded support from a more knowledgeable person, (b) the role of scaffolder is taken over by the learner, which means that the learner performs without any external help, (c) the learner’s self-assistance gradually disappears, as the performance becomes mechanical, (d) the learner can turn back to the first or the second stage because of “such stressors as tiredness, or by changes in the precise conditions of the task” (p. 17). They argue that the first and the second stage corresponds to the ZPD and that these four stages are relevant to the learning process of all different ages. Their process through the ZPD is concerned with interaction between a less knowledgeable person and a more knowledgeable person rather than between people at the same level of intelligence.

In summary, the ZPD is the space between what the learner can carry out by themselves without external assistance and what the learner can accomplish with the help of external mediation (Beed, Hawkins, & Roller, 1991). In other words, the ZPD refers to the gap between what the learner can achieve without any help from others and what the learner can complete with external support, such as support from teachers or peers. In addition, the ZPD is regarded as being co-constructed through the talk during interaction between learners, either of whom may be more or less knowledgeable, or both of whom may be of the same developmental stage. This definition of the ZPD acknowledges interactions with other people, i.e. the interpersonal mediation, are crucial for intrapersonal development (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000).

It is the social mediation that enables the learner to move beyond his/her actual development within the ZPD. Figure 2.2 illustrates the phenomenon of how a

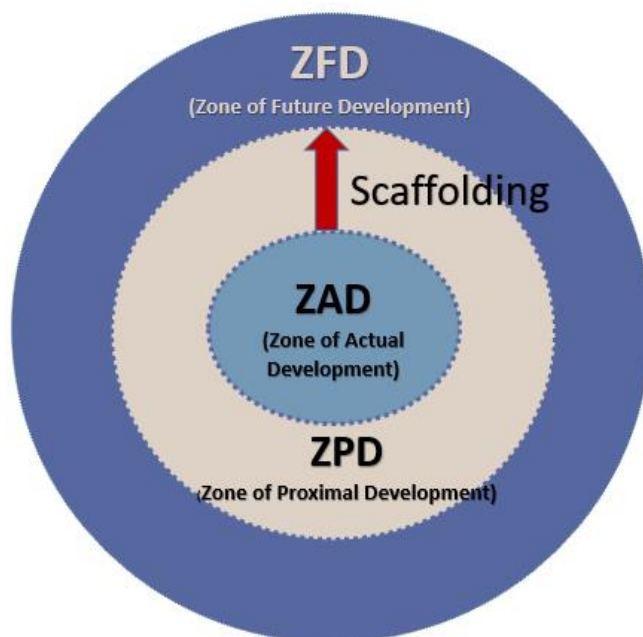


Figure 2.2. The relationship between the ZPD and scaffolding

learner's brain works supported by others within the ZPD. The Zone of Actual Development (ZAD) refers to the actual level of the learner's development that he/she can do without any help from external mediation, and the ZPD indicates the distance between the development achieved, i.e. what the learner can do without external mediation, and the developmental potential, i.e. what he/she can do with some external mediation. The Zone

of Future Development (ZFD) means the level of the learner's future or potential development that the learner will be able to do even though the external mediation given within the ZPD is excluded. In this sense, the ZFD implies that the learner's internalisation happens. Scaffolding, which is one way of external mediation, is

crucial in the process of moving from the ZAD to the ZFD. In order to enable the learner to get from the ZAD to the ZFD, scaffolding has to be constructed within the ZPD.

Scaffolding, in a general sense, is termed a temporary structure for supporting people and material in the construction or repair of buildings, and the constructional scaffolding is removed after the construction or repair is finished (Gibbons, 2002). In the metaphorical sense, scaffolding refers to the process that assists a learner or novice to complete a task or accomplish a goal, which would be beyond his/her actual capacity, with an adult's assistance, and leads to successful results (Wood et al., 1976). Scaffolding, which was first developed by Bruner (1975) in the instructional context, is a useful metaphor for learning and acquisition. Wood et al. (1976) originally used this term as a metaphor to describe the tutorial interventions between a young child and a tutor.

Scaffolding is a temporary but essential process for learners' successful development, just as a scaffolding structure lasts for only a limited period of time but is necessary for the safe and effective construction of buildings (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). Scaffolding does not simply mean all kinds of help, but it is a special kind of help which enables learners to move closer towards new skills or knowledge and to carry out a similar task alone later (Gibbons, 2002; Mercer & Littleton, 2007). Scaffolded assistance is gradually removed as learners become able to perform a task on their own because its purpose is to enable pupils to learn autonomously. Scaffolded help is neither needed nor provided anymore if the learner has reached the potential development, which means there is no gap in the ZPD.

Many studies show the value of well-designed scaffolding on the part of experts or teachers. These studies focus on scaffolding between an adult or expert and a child or novice (Gibbons, 2002; Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Wood et al., 1976). For Vygotsky, desirable partners are unequal in terms of knowledge and skills rather than power (Rogoff, 1990). From this viewpoint, interaction with either an adult or peers can be effective for the learner's cognitive development, but the partner should be more knowledgeable than the learner so that the learner's

cognitive growth can happen during the interaction (Rogoff, 1990; Vygotsky, 1978). Scaffolding effectively identifies and highlights the role of the expert or more knowledgeable other (usually the teacher) in supporting pupils' learning and bringing their current understanding or capabilities to a higher level of competence (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). In terms of mediated learning experiences, scaffolding accounts for the mediator's roles in learners' learning: the mediator's modification of the complexity and difficulty of the teaching interaction to improve the learner's completion of the task; the mediator's offer of assistance when it is needed; and the mediator's offer of encouragement and prompts for the learner to make progress when he/she is prepared (Lidz, 1991). Regarding effective scaffolding, Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) characterise the scaffolding process for a child's performance by six actions on the part of the expert or the teacher: (a) recruiting the child's attention and interest in the task, (b) reducing degrees of freedom in the task by simplifying it in order to make it manageable, (c) maintaining directions in the pursuit of goals by motivating the child, (d) marking critical features of discrepancies between what the child has produced and the desirable solution, (e) controlling frustration and risk in completing the task, (f) demonstrating or modelling an ideal solution to the task.

While many researchers have focused on looking at scaffolding between an expert (typically a teacher or a mother) and a novice on the expert's stance as discussed above, the construct of scaffolding is currently being used to indicate varied forms of assistance provided by computer software programmes, curricula, and other materials developed to support learners to learn better in learning contexts (Puntambekar & Hübscher, 2005). Recently, increasing numbers of researchers have explored scaffolding between learners. Danato (1994, p. 42) extends the notion of scaffolding to peer interaction, and argues that learners "mutually construct a scaffold" during interaction of establishing a shared perspective, or what Rommetveit (1985) calls intersubjectivity. Intersubjectivity or shared understanding is a crucial notion in successful scaffolding. A central feature of scaffolding is the shared perspective or understanding of a collective goal that motivates learners to get involved in the task (Puntambekar & Hübscher, 2005). Intersubjectivity may be also linked to the notion of ownership. Learners' ownership enables learners to contribute to their tasks by connecting varied

elements of the task into a well-organised whole and having a sense of direction (Langer & Applebee, 1986). Intersubjectivity, which was attained between the teacher and the learner in the original concept of scaffolding, is crucial for learners to share their goal and have ownership of their task so that they are encouraged to engage in their task (Puntambekar & Hübscher, 2005).

Scaffolding does not have to depend on an expert's existence, and it can occur in interactions between pupils (Ellis, 2008). From the perspective of viewing scaffolding as constructing between learners, a negotiated scaffolding rather than a one-way process wherein the expert provides scaffolding to the learner would arise in various forms of teaching or collaborative work (Daniels, 2001). Especially, the notion of scaffolding can be expanded to collaborative interaction in L2 learning because peer scaffolding leads to individual learners' language development (Donato, 1994). Peer interaction enables learners to function as both an expert and novice and to share their strengths through scaffolding as they support each other through prompts and error correction (Ohta, 1995). The same learner can act as either an expert or a novice role at different times within the same interaction, and even the learner who is less proficient overall can be an expert when his/her strong points contribute to scaffolding another learner (Ohta, 1995).

To summarise, scaffolding, which constructs within the ZPD, originally refers to a well-timed and finely-tuned support given temporarily to learners from an expert (or a teacher) in order for a novice (or a learner) to complete their task successfully and to apply their new understanding and skills in different contexts. However, the notion of scaffolding is now used to describe various forms of support such as curricula or learning resources. In my study, scaffolding provided by other learners in order to enable the learner to shift more quickly and more successfully from the ZAD to the ZFD rather than acquisition which happens alone is focused. The ZPD and scaffolding, which are intertwined, are crucial in my study because these constructs provide insightful accounts of learners' language use. Besides these two constructs, the notion of private speech is also noteworthy in my study, because scaffolding given within the learner's ZPD on the interpersonal plane mediates the learner to move beyond his/her current level of development and

private speech mediates the learner's cognitive activity on the intrapersonal plane. Private speech is reviewed as the main concern of the next subsection.

2.4.3. *Private speech*

In Vygotsky's theory (1978) of the mediated mind, the main concept is that what originates as interpersonal speech for control over others develops into intrapersonal speech for control over the person's own psychological (and bodily) behaviour (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). In terms of the ontogenetic order, the primary function of speech is interpersonal or social, and the secondary function is intrapersonal or psychological (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). The former is concerned with social speech and the latter has to do with egocentric, private speech, and inner speech. Private speech was first termed by Flavell (1966), and was never mentioned by Vygotsky.

Private speech is a crucial construct in my study because it externalises how a learner's language mediates his/her cognitive processes on the intrapersonal plane. It is better understood in relation with other types of speech such as social speech, egocentric speech, and inner speech. Genetically, inner speech derives from egocentric speech and egocentric speech originates from social speech (Vygotsky, 1978). Namely, there is the genetic progression from social speech that is functionally identical in the matter of being addressed to interlocutors and the self, to egocentric speech that still has the oral form of social speech by being uttered audibly but is addressed to the self, to inner speech that is only directed to the self and, as a result, has a different structure from social speech and private speech (Miller, 2011). Egocentric speech is the ontogenetic precursor to inner speech (De Guerrero, 2005; Vygotsky, 1978). Egocentric speech is seen in the early childhood, roughly at the age of three to seven. The emergence of egocentric speech, at around the age of three, indicates the appearance of self-regulation of a child's cognitive functions, and the disappearance of egocentric speech, at roughly the age of seven, implies that egocentric speech turns inward, i.e. becomes inner speech (Wertsch, 1987). The production of egocentric speech is increased when a child is required to perform a cognitively challenging task and he or she feels that self-regulation is not possible (Vygotsky, 1978).

Private speech is, in form, externalised speech used by adults to exert control over their cognitive (and possibly bodily) processes (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). While egocentric speech, which ultimately transforms into inner speech, is shown in the ontogenetic development of children, private speech, which is the intermediate form between social and inner speech, is observed in adults' speech. Inner speech, which is the strongest mediational tool for thought, is the non-audible forms of speech directed to the self and social speech internalised in the self (De Guerrero, 2005). Through the process of internalisation, private speech becomes inner speech (Ohta, 2001). Inner speech has no formal features because it is "thinking in pure meaning" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 249). Once private speech develops into inner speech, its form is changed into non-audible forms and its content is not observable any more to others (Lantolf, 2003). If inner speech is linguistically encoded, it is not inner speech any more but private speech (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

Egocentric speech or private speech are an essential element in human cognitive development (McCafferty & Ahmed, 2000). Private speech is external speech in terms of its form in the sense that it is uttered aloud and externally audible, but it is functionally similar to inner speech in the sense that it is directed at the self rather than others (Miller, 2011). In order to distinguish private speech from both social and inner speech, private speech can be identified as audibly articulated speech not addressed to the interlocutor (Ohta, 2001). With respect to criteria for private speech, Ohta (2001) clarifies as below: (1) it is the utterance with a reduced volume; (2) it does not include a response to the other person's question or comment addressed to the speaker; (3) It does not receive a response from others. Namely, private speech is defined as audible forms of speech directed to the self and uttered for intrapersonal mental activity rather than interpersonal communication (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013; Lantolf, 2003). Private speech may be spoken aloud, murmured or silently articulated (Herschensohn & Young-Scholten, 2013) and is, functionally, the primary tool through which people employ language to regulate their cognitive functioning (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007).

Private speech externalises what would have remained as hidden cognitive processes such as planning, recalling, and learning (Lantolf & Appel, 1994).

Functionally, private speech serves to make it possible for L2 learners to regulate linguistic forms, the use of which is difficult in cognitive demanding situations (Ellis, 2008). Learners' use of private speech in L2 learning means their language development is in progress (Ohta, 2001). Especially, low-proficiency learners may spend most of their time self-regulating by using private speech when they carry out a task, but their use of private speech is decreased as they become more proficient (Ellis, 2008). Despite the importance of inner voice in learners' mental activity, learners may have difficulty in using their "inner voice" when they learn an L2 in the formal language classroom, which does not provide time for talking to themselves but usually requires them to use a "public voice" to participate in the social interaction (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 27).

To conclude, private speech, which is on its way from social speech to inner speech, is a crucial element in learners' cognitive development. Private speech often enables learners to break through cognitive or linguistic difficulties by self-regulating their cognitive activity. Based on the review of literature for conceptualising my study, the next section reviews empirical studies of learners' language use during task-based peer interaction in L2 learning contexts.

2.5. Exploring empirical evidence of L2 learners' language use

Within the sociocultural tradition, one of the main areas of research in the field of SLA has explored how language mediates human activity, both on the interpersonal plane in the shape of social speech and on the intrapersonal plane in the form of private speech (DiCamilla & Antón, 2004). With respect to the interpersonal plane, researchers have examined how language of experts or learners that is addressed at others serves as a mediational tool for learners to develop the L2 within their ZPD (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; De Guerrero & Villamil, 1994, 2000; Donato, 1994). In terms of the intrapersonal plane, private speech that is directed to the self has been investigated as to how it serves as a mediational device for learner's language development (DiCamilla & Antón, 2004; McCafferty, 1992; Ohta, 2001; Saville-Troike, 1988). In the following subsections, I review empirical studies on L2 learners' social speech and private speech, which

were conducted from the sociocultural perspective, narrowing down the focus of the review to overall functions and characteristic features of L2 learners' language used during task-based peer interaction.

2.5.1. *Empirical studies on overall language functions*

Research on interaction between L2 learners had received much less attention compared to interaction between L2 learners and native speakers or teachers (Sato & Ballinger, 2016). However, a growing number of researchers have recently examined L2 learners' language used during peer interaction and much of the research has explored functions that L2 learners' language serves (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Alley, 2005; Antón & DiCamilla, 1999; Centeno-Cortés & Jiménez Jiménez, 2004; De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Donato, 1994; García Mayo & Hidalgo, 2017; McCafferty, 1994; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Villamil & De Guerrero, 1996).

Especially, the use of L1 in L2 learning contexts has been a controversial issue in the field of SLA, and the debate over this issue has given rise to a substantial body of literature (Turnbull & Dailey–O'Cain, 2009). In the past, the dominant perspective on the use of L1 in L2 class was negative. Researchers argued that the use of L1 might interrupt the development of L2 and it should be discouraged in L2 classrooms (Kellerman, 1995). It was also claimed that the exclusive use of L2 should be pedagogically encouraged from the start of language learning (Halliwell & Jones, 1991; Macdonald, 1993). Drawing on this old-aged and controversial convention, the L2 only policy has still affected many L2 learning contexts, including my own. The L2 only policy assumes that the more L2 the learners are exposed to, the more they will acquire, and supports that maximising learner's exposure to the L2 facilitates opportunities to learn the language (Cameron, 2001). However, recent empirical work on learners' language use in L2 learning contexts has advocated the use of L1 by revealing the positive roles of L1 in L2 class. Studies conducted in L2 classrooms including foreign language classrooms (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Alley, 2005; Antón & DiCamilla, 1999; Bao & Du, 2015; DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Tognini & Oliver,

2012), second language classrooms (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Villamil & De Guerrero, 1996), and immersion classrooms (Blanco-Iglesias, Broner, & Tarone, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 2000) suggest that L1 may be an effective mediational tool for L2 learning. This line of research has emphasised L1's mediational role to regulate behaviour (Antón & DiCamilla, 1999; Gánem-Gutiérrez, 2009; Gánem-Gutiérrez & Roehr, 2011).

Villamil and De Guerrero (1996) emphasised learners' use of L1 in L2 learning in their study, which qualitatively examined the dialogue of 54 intermediate Spanish ESL undergraduate students during dyadic peer revision of writing. In this study attempting to answer the research question of what strategies students use in order to facilitate the peer revision process, the researchers pointed out that the use of L1 was employed as an essential strategy for taking control of the task. They reported that the use of L1 enabled the students to complete their task more effectively (e.g. to gain a clearer understanding of the text and to offer suggestions on how to improve the text), to maintain dialogue, and to externalise their thoughts. Their study drew the attention to the importance of the L1 use in L2 learning contexts. However, the L1 use was touched comparatively lightly being explored as one of five mediating strategies in this study.

Emphasising the necessity of L1 use in L2 learning, Antón and DiCamilla (1998) were the first to report on the cognitive and social functions that L1 served during collaborative interaction. They examined the collaborative talk of five pairs of adult English-speaking learners of Spanish, who attended a six-week intensive Spanish class at the beginner level. Data was gathered by audio-recording the learners' interactions during three collaborative writing sessions conducted in a language laboratory. On the basis of the qualitative analysis, the researchers argued that learners' L1 functioned as one of the mechanisms on which learners depended on both interpersonal and intrapersonal plane while engaging in collaborative tasks. On the interpersonal plane, learners' L1 played a crucial role in providing each other with scaffolded help. Specifically, learners' L1 was used to access L2 linguistic forms, to reflect on language and to understand the meaning of a text in L2. The L1 also functioned to collaboratively define and limit the nature of task, i.e. to construct and maintain a shared perspective or intersubjectivity on the task,

through controlling the task, limiting the interim goals throughout the task and making the task manageable. On the intrapersonal plane, learners' L1 was used as a tool for externalising inner speech, i.e. private speech, which regulates one's own mental activity. Based on these findings, the researchers claimed that the use of L1 might facilitate L2 learning because the L1 functioned as an essential cognitive tool for enabling learners to construct useful collaborative dialogue during the tasks. They also asserted that excluding the use of L1 from the classroom interaction was equal to removing two strong mediums for learning, i.e. the L1 and collaboration, because language and thought are closely related and language is the main semiotic tool that mediates a person's thinking both on the intrapersonal plane and the interpersonal plane.

As in Villamil and De Guerrero (1996) and Antón and DiCamilla (1998), Swain and Lapkin (2000) paid attention to L2 learners' use of L1 during writing tasks. Their research, however, was conducted in the immersion classroom unlike the studies previously mentioned. The participants were 22 pairs of Year 8 English-speaking pupils from two different French immersion classes of the same school in Canada. Pupils in the two classrooms were academically comparable, and each class was given a different writing task, i.e. a dictogloss task or a jigsaw task. The data gathered was analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. On the basis of the qualitative analysis, the researchers categorised the use of L1 by the pupils during collaborative dialogues through working out coding scheme in terms of its functions. Specifically, learners' L1 use was categorised as three main functions: (1) moving the task such as establishing a collective understanding of the prompt and managing the task; (2) focusing attention on lexical and grammatical issues; (3) enhancing interpersonal interaction through the shared L1. The researchers also attempted to quantitatively explore differences between and within the tasks regarding the amount of L1 used by learners and the variability in the use of L1. On the other hand, based on statistical analysis of the data, they suggested that the high-achieving pairs in terms of content and language on their written narratives tended to make less use of the L1. They also stressed that different task types might lead to different uses of the L1 to a greater or lesser extent. The researchers, finally, claimed that the judicious use of the L1 in class might facilitate L2 learning, especially for lower-achieving students and

on linguistically and cognitively challenging tasks such as the dictogloss task. This research is meaningful in that it contributed to revealing that the judicious use of the L1 may support L2 learning and L2 use in the immersion learning context. Also, it contributed to constructing a more advanced taxonomy of the functions of L2 learners' L1.

Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) investigated L2 learners' use of L1 through two different sets of data, i.e. learners' talk during two collaborative writing tasks such as a text reconstruction task and a short joint composition task in the ESL learning context and interviews with learners about their attitudes towards the use of the L1. In their study, 12 pairs of ESL undergraduate students participated, but the researchers focused their report only on the data of the six pairs with the same L1. Similarly, but not identically to the research by Swain and Lapkin (2000), they categorised learners' L1 into four functions: task management, task clarification, vocabulary and meaning, and grammar. These functions indicated learners' use of L1 might serve as a mediational tool for facilitating their task performance. Compared to Swain and Lapkin (2000), they further refined the function of moving the task as task management and task clarification, and separated metatalk as vocabulary and meaning, and grammar. However, these functions of learners' L1 that they identified were only concerned with meta-task talk and metatalk.

Further, Alegría de la Colina and García Mayo (2009) explored the use and functions of the L1 by 12 pairs of undergraduate Spanish-speaking EFL learners with low L2 proficiency. The 12 pairs of learners were divided into three groups of four pairs, and each group was given a different collaborative writing task, i.e. jigsaw with visual prompt, text reconstruction with written prompt and dictogloss with aural prompt. Learners' talk audio-recorded during the tasks was analysed in terms of the amount of L1 use across tasks and uses of the L1 according to the different tasks. Based on the analysis, the researchers argued that the amount of learners' L1 use was closely connected with task requirements derived from the type of prompts provided. They also reported that the learners with low L2 proficiency made use of their L1 to manage the task and to deal with lexical and grammatical issues. According to them, learners' L1 played a crucial role in L2 learning although there was task-related variation in its use. Overall, their study

contributed to widening the perspective on the use and necessity of the L1 in the EFL context by exploring various aspects of L1 use, but it had clear limitations in generalising its findings because of the small number of participants and the limited task type, i.e. problem-solving activities in which some attention to form was needed. This study also had some problem in designing the research because the only independent variable, namely, the task type, which the researchers manipulated to establish a relationship between the task type and learners' L1 use, did not have the sole responsibility for the L1 use.

DiCamilla and Antón's (2012) study, which aimed to establish the general roles of English (L1) in the Spanish (L2) classroom and to gain the understanding of the L2 use as a means for thought, is particularly relevant to my investigation exploring L2 learners' use of L1 and L2. DiCamilla and Antón examined the mediating functions of L1 and L2 used by 22 English-speaking undergraduate learners of Spanish at two different levels of L2 competence in classroom interaction and developed a refined comprehensive taxonomy of language functions. Their taxonomy of language functions offered an overview of learners' use of language during collaborative writing tasks. The functions that they identified are categorised into four macrofunctions related to content, language, task management, and interpersonal relations. While Alegría de la Colina and García Mayo (2009) categorised the functions related to content and task management into one macrofunction, i.e. metacognitive talk, DiCamilla and Antón separated them and created two different macrofunctions having to do with content and task respectively. DiCamilla and Antón termed the macrofunction related to lexical and grammatical issues as language, which corresponds to Alegría de la Colina and García Mayo's metatalk, and created the new macrofunction, i.e. interpersonal relations, instead of Alegría de la Colina and García Mayo's off-task talk. In their study, advanced learners employed their L2 as a variety of functions, which were mainly performed in L1 by less advanced learners. Specifically, advanced learners wholly employed the L2 in creating content and mainly used the L2 in solving language problems. For less advanced learners, while the L1 played a primary mediational tool for carrying out the L2 task, the L2 was the object of their learning and the system to be. For more advanced learners, the L2 was not only the system to be learned but also a

mediational tool for implementing their task. This study adds more value to its work by revealing the role of learners' L2, even though the L2 was mainly used only by advanced learners. While most of previous research on learners' language use has focused on learners' L1 use, this study was concerned with learners' L2 use as well as their L1 use. In this respect, this study appears to expand the scope of research in this field. However, this study did not clearly present whether each function was uttered in L1 or L2 in their taxonomy of language functions.

The studies reviewed above in common suggested that L1 shared by learners might be a useful tool in their L2 learning irrespective of the learning contexts, i.e. EFL, ESL, or immersion classrooms. The studies all implied that learners' L1 might offer cognitive support that enabled learners to work better than that would be possible if the learners had been only using the L2. However, most of studies only explored learners' use of L1, and much research focused on adult learners' language use during collaborative writing tasks. Thus, it seems necessary to expand the research scope into young learners' language use and learners' interaction during various types of tasks. The previous studies on the functions of L1 used by adult learners, which are reviewed above, are summarised in Table 2.1 on the next page.

Although much of research on L2 learners' language use has been conducted with adult learners such as undergraduate students, it has become apparent that researchers have begun to specifically target its investigation into the language use of primary or secondary L2 learners. Alley (2005) analysed the conversations of 18 high school pupils working on a series of group projects in the Spanish classroom of Georgia in the US. The group projects were speaking tasks such as interview and role-play, and pupils' talk during these tasks was recorded. Learners' talk was categorised into three functions: metatalk, metacognitive talk, and off-task talk. The data of learners' talk demonstrated that the majority of the talk was in English (L1) and over 20% of the total talk was off-task talk. This result was contrast to previous studies conducted with adult learners. The researcher explained this resulted from the gap between adult learners and typical high school pupils. In this study, the majority of metacognitive talk (which is talk about

Table 2.1
Empirical Studies Investigating the Functions of Adult Learners' L1

Study	Villamil and De Guerrero (1996)	Antón and DiCamilla (1998)	Storch and Wigglesworth (2003)	Alegría de la Colina and García Mayo (2009)	DiCamilla and Antón (2012)
Participants	54 Spanish-speaking ESL undergraduate learners	Five pairs of English-speaking adult learners of Spanish at the beginner level	24 ESL undergraduate students	12 pairs of undergraduate EFL learners with low L2 proficiency	22 English-speaking undergraduate learners of Spanish at two different levels of L2
Task	Dyadic peer revision of writing	Collaborative writing tasks	Two collaborative tasks (i.e. a text reconstruction task and a short joint composition task)	Three collaborative tasks (i.e. jigsaw, text reconstruction and dictogloss)	Collaborative writing tasks
The functions of L1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Making meaning of text 2. Retrieving language from memory 	<p><Cognitive and social functions of L1></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Constructing and maintaining a shared 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Task management 2. Task clarification 3. Vocabulary and meaning 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Metacognition, or talk about the task <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clarifying or setting task procedures 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Content <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating, discussing, and/or agreeing to content in L1

- 3. Exploring and explaining content
- 4. Guiding their action through the task
- 5. Maintaining dialogue

- perspective or intersubjectivity on the task
- 2. Providing each other with scaffolded help
- 3. Externalising inner speech as a tool of regulating one's own mental activity

4. Grammar

- Clarifying and discussing content and meaning
- Task management
- 2. Metatalk
 - Lexical episode
 - Grammatical episode
- 3. Off-task talk

- or L2
 - Translating content created in L1 into L2
- 2. Language
 - Solving lexical and/or grammatical problems
 - Evaluating L2 forms
 - Understanding meaning of L2 utterances
 - Stylistic choice
- 3. Task Management
 - Defining and limiting the task
 - Planning the task
- 4. Interpersonal relations

procedures and strategies) and metatalk (which refers to talk about lexical and grammatical issues) occurred in L1. Namely, the L1 was relevant to perform the task as it served to clarify the procedures necessary for completing the task and producing key vocabulary. The researcher argued that the off-task talk also contributed to promoting an effective collaborative environment that was useful to peer tutoring.

In a junior high school classroom, of learning Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL), in Denmark, Bao and Du (2015) examined the extent to which L1 was uttered and how the use of L1 functioned during tasks such as sentence construction, information gap and role-play. The participating pupils were eight beginner learners in Year 7 or 8, who learned CFL in a voluntary and interest-based class in their after-school time. The researchers calculated the amount of L1 use by a percentage of the total turns, and argued that learners generally made frequent use of L1, with the highest percentage of L1 use occurring in the role-play task. They also coded learners' L1 use and categorised it into five functions: task management, task clarification, attention to vocabulary, focusing on grammatical forms, and releasing affectivity. Although some of the categories were similar to those of previous studies (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Swain & Lapkin, 2000) and categories such as task clarification and task management were adopted from Storch and Wigglesworth (2003), the items within each category were more extensive. Also, the category of releasing affectivity including the items such as saving embarrassment, expressing frustration and giving praise to partners was a new category which was not included in the previous studies. Based on the analysis, the researchers claimed that learners had a high percentage of their L1, but mainly for the purpose of successfully completing their tasks, highlighting the importance of L1 in successful and efficient accomplishment of the language tasks. They also emphasised that the use of L1 was either independently or collectively affected by various factors related to not only tasks, such as task complexity and task types, but also learners, such as learners' L2 proficiency, ages, attitudes towards L2 learning, etc.

Tognini and Oliver (2012) investigated the L1 use in teacher-learner and learner-

learner interaction in two Year 6 and 7 classes of French and two of Italian in four primary schools and three Year 10 classes of French and three of Italian in six secondary schools in Western Australia. The interesting part of the study for my purpose was peer interaction rather than teacher-learner interaction. The researchers used the term, instructional context, instead of function that had been normally used in other studies of learners' language use. They categorised learners' language use into four instructional contexts such as management, form, meaning, and content, which correspond to three of the four macrofunctions of language that DiCamilla and Antón (2012) developed. Unlike previous studies, Tognini and Oliver investigated not only learners' L1 use but also their L2 use and revealed learners' language choices in peer interaction occurring in each instructional context. On the basis of the analysis, the researchers voiced their concern about the notable amount of L1 use and pointed out that there was little need for learners to use L2 for authentic communicative purposes. However, they also claimed that learners' L1 in peer interaction was often used as an effective tool for supporting and scaffolding each other to use the L2, managing and completing tasks, and resolving linguistic problems. In this study, primary school pupils' use of language occurring in peer interaction was of special interest, but the analysis was done without separating primary and secondary pupils' languages. Unfortunately, there was no information about how primary and secondary school learners used their language respectively although the study was conducted with these two different groups of learners and there might have been meaningful differences between primary and secondary school learners in terms of language use.

While most of research conducted with adult learners explored learners' language use during collaborative writing tasks, most of the studies carried out in secondary or primary school contexts investigated learners' language use during more various types of tasks, i.e. not only writing tasks but also speaking tasks. On the other hand, both groups of studies generated similar taxonomies of functions of language used by L2 learners. The previous studies conducted with young learners, which are reviewed above, are summarised in Table 2.2. Most of the studies focused their research on exploring learners' use of L1 on the interpersonal plane, and scratched the surface of learners' language use or did

Table 2.2

Empirical Studies Investigating the Functions of Secondary or Primary School Learners' L1

Study	Swain and Lapkin (2000)	Alley (2005)	Bao and Du (2015)	Tognini and Oliver (2012)
Participants	22 pairs of Year 8 French immersion pupils	18 learners of Spanish from a comprehensive high school	Eight beginner learners of Chinese in Year 7 or 8 in a junior high school	Two Year 6 and 7 classes of French and two Year 6 and 7 classes of Italian in four primary school, three Year 10 classes of French and three Year 10 classes of Italian in six secondary schools
Task	A collaborative writing task (i.e. dictogloss or jigsaw)	Speaking tasks such as interview and role-play	Sentence construction, information gap, role-play	Functional language practice activities, focused communicative tasks
The functions of L1	1. Moving the task such as establishing a collective understanding of the prompt	1. Metatalk 2. Metacognitive talk	1. Task management: organising the activity, discussing strategies to deal with tasks, monitoring the procedures, refocusing attention, asking for help, making suggestions	1. Management: exchanges related to learners' management of their roles, the task, the environment and personal/interpersonal issues 2. Form: exchanges and tasks that

and managing the task

2. Focusing attention on lexical and grammatical issues

3. Enhancing interpersonal interaction

3. Off-task talk

2. Task clarification: discussing the content of the task, discussing how to carry the task out, clarifying the meaning in task instructions and prompts, analysing the information in the task

3. Attention to vocabulary: clarifying unclear vocabularies, searching for the unknown vocabulary, making explanations, translating

4. Focusing on grammatical forms: explaining grammar, discussing uncertain grammatical structures

5. Releasing affectivity: saving embarrassment, expressing frustration, giving praise to partners

focus on rehearsal, practice or performance of L2 form

3. Meaning: exchanges and tasks that focus on communication

4. Content: exchanges that impart knowledge and/or elicit information on a content or skills area

not deal with the issue at all on the intrapersonal plane.

In Saville-Troike's study (1988), one of studies exploring L2 learners' language use on the intrapersonal plane, the focus of research was on private speech. Focusing on teacher-learner interaction, the study investigated private speech of nine young children, who were native speakers of Chinese, Japanese or Korean, who enrolled in English-medium classrooms of a regular nursery or a primary school in Illinois, the US. Based on the observation data, the researcher reported that young children frequently resorted to private speech in the company of other people. The researcher also argued that while young children were more likely to speak in L2 when they paid attention to language or language-related activities, the children were more likely to use their L1 in private speech when their attention was on objects or events. In this study, five children appeared to extensively use private speech for various intrapersonal learning strategies such as repeating others' utterances, recalling and practicing, creating new linguistic forms, substituting paradigmatically and expanding syntagmatically, and rehearsing in preparation for social performance. Interestingly, some children used L2 forms in their social speech after they practiced them in their private speech.

Centeno-Cortés and Jiménez-Jiménez (2004) examined the role of L1 and L2 during individual problem-solving activities. The focus of their research was also on the analysis of private speech, which they called Private Verbal Thinking (PVT). Three different groups of participants took part in this research: six native speakers of Spanish, who were fluent in English; six advanced learners of Spanish, who were instructors of Spanish; and six intermediate learners of Spanish, who were undergraduates enrolling in an intermediate conversation class. Data was collected from participants while each of them was asked to answer 15 cognitive challenging questions in Spanish in a language laboratory. The data showed that the learners with higher L2 proficiency were able to use the L2 in the actual cognitive activity and have "an extra set of cognitive strategies" in L2 for solving cognitively challenging problems, even though the learners relied on their L1 when they felt that the problem was too difficult. The researchers argued that learners could employ their L2 in their mental activity, highlighting that

the L1 private speech took on an essential role when learners engaged in problem solving activities. They concluded that learners' L1 private speech should be acknowledged as crucial in the L2 learning process because the L1 can serve as a crucial cognitive and metacognitive tool for the learners.

In the Korean context, much of the research has not been conducted to investigate learners' L1 and L2 not only on the intrapersonal plane but also on the interpersonal plane. Choi (2005) conducted the experimental study with her undergraduate students engaging in a reading task in order to examine the social and cognitive functions of socio-affective questions or strategies such as confirmation checks, clarification requests, comprehension checks, and repetitions in terms of sociocultural concepts, i.e. scaffolding, the ZPD, intersubjectivity, and interpersonal and intrapersonal plane. The researcher analysed collaborative dialogues of two groups of students during performing two different translation assignments given as the pre-test and post-test. One group of students were taught the socioaffective strategies and encouraged to use them, but the other group of students were not. The researcher claimed that the socioaffective strategies were effective for promoting scaffolding and bringing about an intersubjective agreement in the ZPD. She also argued that the use of the question strategies supported learners to transfer from being other-regulated on the interpersonal plane to being self-regulated on the intrapersonal plane. She finally pointed out that the collective scaffolding between peers did not always guarantee a successful result if no one played the role of an expert. She also argued that the learner could not always complete the task successfully if its goal is too far beyond his/her ZPD. In this study, the researcher attempted to explore learners' language used in the form of socioaffective questions in terms of main sociocultural constructs by comparing the achievements between the two groups, but the research design does not seem to have been carefully developed in that the study did not control variables that might affect learners' pre-test and post-test results except for the intervention, i.e. socioaffective strategies.

In the classroom-based study conducted with three pairs of Year 9 students, Seo and Kim (2011) examined the relationship between collaborative dialogue and L2 development during collaborative writing tasks such as picture description and

personal narratives in a regular English class of a public junior high school. The focus of their research was on how the pair talk between learners with different levels of L2 proficiency gave a beneficial effect on learners' L2 development. The learners were asked to collectively write an in-class journal and then to individually rewrite what they collectively wrote. Pair talk during the collective writing task was analysed in terms of the pattern of pair interaction and the salient features that describe these patterns. Learners' retrospective interviews were also conducted on a one-on-one basis and analysed in order to address learners' overall attitude towards the pair interaction in collaborative writing. Their findings showed that even less proficient learners were able to provide more proficient learners with support in English (L2) as well as Korean (L1). They argued that interactions between learners, even in L1, fostered L2 learning by making meaning through establishing intersubjectivity between peers. In addition, they claimed that learners might modify and improve their linguistic knowledge by externalising and verbalising their thoughts in both L1 and L2 throughout the collective writing tasks.

In the primary L2 classroom, Lee (2011) investigated interactions between a teacher and pupils, and between an expert pupil and his/her peers. The researcher analysed classroom discourse during two group tasks, i.e. role play and information gap task, in terms of scaffolding, meaning negotiation, and pushed output. The relevant part of the study to my purpose was the analysis of classroom discourse between learners. The researcher found that scaffolding, meaning negotiation and pushed output among learners did not frequently happen, contrary to his expectation. He claimed the reason might be related to primary school pupils' low L2 proficiency. He also found that scaffolding and pushed output occurred comparatively frequently in the role-play task and meaning negotiation was relatively frequently seen in the information-gap task. In addition, he pointed out that pupils tended to avoid the problems or to pretend that they understood when communication breakdowns happened. This study is meaningful in that it attempted to explore primary school learners' language use during peer interaction, which is rarely the case in the context of Korea. However, the research does not seem to have in depth or in detail investigated learners' use of language by only examining it through counting the frequencies in terms of scaffolding (such as reformulation, modelling and extension), meaning negotiation

(such as confirmation check, clarification request and repetition request) and pushed output (such as repetition, form-focused modification and meaning-focused modification) adopted from recent studies.

The classroom-based studies reviewed above discuss and provide evidence of the mediational tools of L2 learners' language, mostly L1, in L2 development on both interpersonal and intrapersonal plane. The studies also offer a wide range of functions that L2 learners' language serves during peer interaction in the L2 classroom. However, there is no single taxonomy of functions of learners' language, agreed by most of researchers. The reason for this could be attributed to the fact that their data was gathered from the talk used by various target groups of learners in various contexts. While the range of functions of learners' language identified in early studies appear to be broad lists of language functions, those observed in recent studies seem to be more systematic categorisations. Also, learners language use in primary and secondary L2 classrooms have received less attention compared to adult learners' language use. In addition, most of the research has been conducted in L2 classrooms of Western languages or within Western countries. Thus, it is timely and worthwhile to expand the scope of research to primary or secondary L2 classrooms of Asian languages or within Asian countries, in order to widen our perspective on and gain more insightful awareness of L2 learners' language use.

2.5.2. *Empirical studies on features of learners' language use*

There has been comparatively little research in the field of SLA that deals with features of L2 learners' language use from the sociocultural perspective, as compared with research on functions that L2 learners' language serves. Among research on language features, a growing body of literature has emerged in codeswitching, but codeswitching has often been attended to as part of the study of functions that learners' L1 and L2 serve. In addition, much of the research conducted in L2 classrooms has focused on teacher codeswitching rather than learner codeswitching. In this subsection, research on learners' codeswitching taking place in L2 classroom settings is reviewed in terms of pedagogical issues, and then research on other characteristic features emerging from L2 learners'

language use is also dealt with.

Chen and Hird (2006) explored what actually happened when Chinese students, who were non-English major undergraduates, worked in groups in their normal EFL classe. The participants were divided into four groups of eight and one group of four. The learners were recorded during a 20-minute group discussion about their view of the future and then, six months later, during another 20-minute group discussion about how to deal with stress. The researchers found that one of characteristic features of learners' behaviour during group discussions was codeswitching between Chinese (L1) and English (L2). They identified four different functions of learners' codeswitching from English to Chinese: encouraging others to participate in their group discussion; controlling other person's procedural behaviour; asking for the pronunciation of English words; and checking the content of the discussion. Compared to the language functions identified by other studies, the functions of learners' codeswitching illustrated in this study were limited and do not seem to have represented or contained the general functions of codeswitching. On the basis of the group discussion data, the researchers argued that codeswitching should not be excluded in group work and EFL students should be given the opportunity to choose whether to codeswitch or not although some functions of codeswitching might restrict the scope of learners' cammunicative English outcomes. They finally pointed out that EFL learners should also be encouraged to increase the use of the target language, English.

Eldridge (1996) emphasised the importance of codeswitching in L2 class. He investigated codeswitching used by 11- to 13-year-old learners in the ESL classroom of a secondary school in Turkey. The participating learners' age, L2 proficiency and the number of instances of codeswitching transcribed for analysis were presented in this study, but it was not demonstrated how the research design was; how many learners participated in the research project; how many hours of classroom lessons were recorded; how and in what session the data was collected; and what the method of data analysis was. In other words, the procedures and methods of data collection and analysis were not clearly articulated. Despite these limitations, this study was interesting in that learners' codeswitching appeared to be a natural and purposeful behaviour which

contributed to both communication and language learning. The researcher presented a functional taxonomy of codeswitching and argued that learners' codeswitching served specific functions: equivalence, floor-holding, metalanguage, reiteration, group membership, conflict control, and alignment and disalignment. On the basis of the findings, the researcher argued that a total ban of codeswitching could not promote learners' L2 development and could reduce their motivation and confidence leading to a delay in their L2 development. In addition, he opined that reducing the use of L1 would not be feasible nor desirable and the decrease of the L1 use did not provoke the natural increase of both quality and quantity of the L2 use.

Amorim (2012) attempted to reveal how EFL students codeswitched to perform certain pragmatic functions and to compensate for L2 deficiencies. The participants of this study were nine Portuguese undergraduate EFL students, whose English proficiency ranged from pre-intermediate to upper-intermediate. The participants were divided into three groups of three and undertook a speaking task, i.e. a group discussion about gender discrimination at work. Their talk during the task was recorded, and semi-structured group interviews were conducted with the participants two weeks later. In the interview, each group of participants were asked to reflect on their language use after listening to their recording. On the basis of the data, the researcher argued that codeswitching signalled that both languages, i.e. L1 and L2, were active in a learners' brain and were beneficial for avoiding communication breakdowns and taking longer turns. He claimed that codeswitching was used to fill in linguistic gaps in L2; to negotiate language and meaning; and to manage the task and other students. He found that all learners, i.e. more or less advanced, tended to employ codeswitching in order to keep talking without allowing anyone else to speak and manage turn taking. Also, he identified the difference in codeswitching by less and more advanced learners. Less advanced learners were likely to use L1 in order to appeal to others for translation, to prompt and clarify information, or to supplement the incomplete L2 competence, whereas more advanced learners tended to resort to L1 when they managed and commented the task and supported other learners by modelling.

While Amorim (2012) argued that less advanced learners and more advanced

learners showed gaps in using codeswitching in terms of its functions, Sampson (2011) asserted that codeswitching, especially its frequency, was not necessarily related to learners' L2 proficiency level. Sampson examined codeswitching by two different levels of monolingual groups of Spanish-speaking adult learners studying in a general English class of a private language school in Colombia: an upper-intermediate group of six and a pre-intermediate group of four. His findings pointed out that there was no relationship between learners' L2 proficiency and the number of switches. He argued that codeswitching appeared to result from communicative functions rather than incomplete L2 proficiency at both levels of L2 proficiency. Communicative functions, according to which Sampson analysed learners' codeswitching, were based on Eldridge's taxonomy (1996), and refer to expressing equivalence when the lexical item was not in the learner's interlanguage; discussing the tasks and procedural concerns; holding the floor; reiterating what was already expressed in L2; and constructing social relationships. Sampson emphasised that any attempt to prohibit learners from using L1 in L2 classroom would be an obstacle to promoting communication and language learning.

In the primary EFL classroom setting of Cyprus, Vrikki (2013) examined whether codeswitching could serve as a tool for improving L2 oral fluency within task-based learning settings. Her study was designed to combine quantitative and qualitative methods. Her main study, which attracted my attention, conducted a quantitative method, i.e. a quasi-experiment, with 75 Year 6 EFL learners (11 to 12-year-olds) from three Greek-medium state primary schools. Each school was allocated to one of three different groups respectively, and each group of learners were tested with a different pedagogical package of task repetition with feedback (TR+) on their metalanguage. The codeswitching group, who was allowed to switch to Greek during the tasks, repeated the tasks with feedback coming in the form of recycling the L1 metalanguage into the L2. The English-only group, who performed the tasks under L2-only conditions, repeated the tasks with feedback on accuracy. The comparison group performed the tasks once without any language instructions. After doing pre- and post-oral production tests with these three groups, the researcher argued that practitioners should be more generous with learners' L1 use because the incorporation of codeswitching enhanced

learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) without causing learners' excessive L1 use. The quantitative analysis of this study provided compelling evidence that task repetition with codeswitching plus contributed to learners' WTC. On the other hand, the qualitative analysis mainly focused on identifying the progression in learners' interactions between session 1, which was given before intervention, and session 2, which was given after intervention, in terms of task language and L2 metalanguage. Based on this qualitative analysis, the researcher suggested that teachers should try to challenge learners by introducing the recycling process of L1 metalanguage into the L2 in order for them to use as a foundation for L2 experimentation. From the sociocultural perspective, the researcher also attempted to identify instances of scaffolded help, but her exploration of this issue does not seem to have been carried out deeply and comprehensively. In terms of scaffolding, error correction given from a higher proficient learner to a lower proficient learner was only addressed.

In the primary school context of South Korea, the research on codeswitching has been mainly undertaken by Macaro and Lee (J. H. Lee & Macaro, 2013; Macaro & Lee, 2013). Macaro and Lee (2013) examined whether English only instruction or teacher codeswitching gave a positive effect on the vocabulary acquisition and retention of two age groups, i.e. 443 Year 6 pupils at two primary schools and 286 EFL undergraduate students at four colleges. The data was gathered from different sources: learners' vocabulary pretest before instructional sessions; an immediate posttest (which was also called acquisition test) at the end of each instructional session under English-only condition and codeswitching condition; and a delayed posttest (which was called retention test) administered three weeks after the acquisition test). This study, which focused on teachers' codeswitching rather than learners' codeswitching, did not seem to be directly related to my study, but it attracted my attention because it was the study which not only addressed codeswitching but also was conducted in the primary school setting of South Korea, which was a rare case. The researchers found that young learners not only learned vocabulary better by being presented with L1 equivalents, relatively to adults but also preferred L1 to be used more frequently to facilitate learning.

In addition to this study, Macaro and Lee (2013) also investigated the attitudes and perceptions among Korean EFL learners towards English-only instruction. They administered questionnaires to 487 Year 6 primary pupils and 311 undergraduate students, and conducted follow-up interviews with a subset of the participants, who were 10 Year 6 pupils and 12 undergraduate students. The researchers found that both groups of learners did not show clear preferences for either teacher type, i.e. teachers who were native or nonnative speakers of English, and that neither group favoured the exclusive use of L2 in the classroom interaction. However, adult learners had more welcoming attitudes towards teachers' use of L2 than young learners, and young learners were reported to obviously feel that they floundered around when they were taught by native English speaking teachers because the teachers were not able to support them to fully understand what was said in English. The researchers argued that although the difference of learners' proficiency played a part in this difference in the perception and attitudes of two age groups, learners' maturity and experience might play a more important role. These two studies conducted with primary school pupils by Macaro and Lee (2013; 2013) in the Korean context were interesting in that they revealed the relationship between teacher codeswitching and young learners' vocabulary learning, and young learners' perceptions of teacher type and attitudes towards English only instruction. However, these studies did not capture the actual practice of learners' codeswitching in the L2 classroom of primary school because they did not observe any classes.

A review of the recent literature on learners' codeswitching suggests that many researchers advocate bilingual practices in L2 classroom rather than L2 only policies. The researchers emphasise the importance of L1 use or codeswitching in the L2 classroom. However, much research mainly focuses on codeswitching from L2 to L1, the influences of teacher codeswitching on learners' language learning, or learners' perception of and attitudes towards teacher codeswitching. Only some of the research explored the practice of learner codeswitching, and even the research did not elicit reflection or interpretation directly from the learners except for Amorim's study (2012).

Along with codeswitching, repetition is an important topic that has been addressed

in research on features of L2 learners' language use. However, most of studies into learners' use of repetition have been conducted under communication strategies rather than repetition per se (Genç, 2007). Sawir (2004) explored repetition, particularly allo-repetition (which refers to other-repetition), as one feature of communication strategies rather than a sign of conversational inadequacy. She investigated the roles of allo-repetition occurring in informal dyadic conversations of two groups of students ranging in age from 19 to 25 years. The first group comprised nine intermediate EFL learners undertaking an English course in an English language centre at a university, and the second group consisted of nine native speakers of English, who were completing their teacher training qualification in English at the same university. The researcher concentrated on allo-repetition employed by the EFL learners rather than the native speakers during their dyadic conversations. The data indicated that allo-repetition by EFL learners contributed to construction, maintenance and coherence of a conversation through indicating participatory listenership, justifying listenership, ensuring correctness, requesting confirmation, requesting clarification, stalling, and indicating surprise. Emphasising the positive role of repetition, the researcher claimed that repetition is a "learner-generated and learner-managed device" that enables EFL learners to construct and maintain their conversation without losing interest while learning, promoting and employing their language skills (Sawir, 2004, p. 27). This study is a valuable piece of work in that it added empirical evidence that repetition plays a crucial role as L2 learners' communication strategy in the context of cross-cultural conversation.

While Sawir (2004) investigated repetition observed in L2 learners' L2 talk during informal conversation with L1 speakers, DiCamilla and Antón (1997) examined repetition used in conversation between L2 learners, in either L1 or L2, while engaging in collaborative L2 tasks. From the sociocultural perspective, DiCamilla and Antón (1997) explored the role of repetition in the discourse of five dyads of English native adult learners during three collaborative composition tasks in an intensive Spanish class at the beginning level. The researchers found that the repetition of both L1 and L2 utterances functioned as a mediating tool in learners' sociocultural and mental activity. Specifically, repetition worked to provide the scaffolded help throughout the tasks and to establish and maintain

intersubjectivity. Based on analysis of learners' collaborative discourse, the researchers argued that learners' languages, both L1 and L2, are used as a socio-cognitive tool for constructing scaffolding, which enabled learners to perform their tasks successfully, and establishing and maintaining intersubjectivity, i.e. a shared perspective of the task, between learners.

While the studies on the issue of repetition discussed above normally focused on repetition per se, particularly the role of repetition, Ganem-Gutierrez (2009) explored repetition as one of mechanisms for mediating collaborative activity. Ganem-Gutierrez (2009) investigated semiotic mechanisms including repetition, L1, and reading aloud during computer-based and paper-based tasks in an intermediate level Spanish classroom for 18 undergraduate students. The students were divided into two groups. Half of the dyads/trios performed a computer-based task and half a paper-based task. They were asked to alternatively perform different modes throughout three tasks. The researcher found that repetition was employed for various functions ranging from constructing and maintaining social involvement to creating meaning. She also revealed that repetition was beneficial for constructing and maintaining socio-affective relationships between learners. The interesting part of these research findings is that learners working at the computer tended to focus on reproducing the text by using repetition in order to recall the original text in their reconstruction task, while learners working on a similar task on paper tended to focus on recreating the overall message by using repetition in order to co-construct the text. The researcher explained that this difference was related to types of media. Specifically, the presence of the computer enabled learners to think that they needed to reproduce their text exactly as the original text for the computer to accept it.

Gánem-Gutiérrez and Roehr (2011) investigated the use of L1, discourse markers, and metalanguage, exploring L2 learners' regulation during individual task performance. They examined the language use of nine English university-level learners of Spanish, who were between 18 and 46 years of age, while engaging in a form-focused individual task. The students were asked to verbalise their cognitive process, i.e. to think aloud, in either L1 or L2, or a mixture of both,

while individually working through 20 gap-fill items at the sentence level. Although this research investigated learner's private speech occurring in an individual task rather than a collaborative task, the research was attractive because it was one of a few studies dealing with the use of discourse markers such as interjections. The researchers found that metalanguage and discourse markers were preponderantly uttered in L1, serving as the linguistic device for cognitive functions. According to them, learners' L1 and metalanguage play as linguistic devices for resolving problems and discourse markers are used as a crucial tool for structuring and organising thought.

Daily-O'Cain and Liebscher (2006) also explored the use of discourse markers used by 12 English-speaking advanced learners of German in an upper-level content-based seminar of a university in Canada. Eight regular class sessions (which comprised discussions of readings) and three sessions consisting of individual presentations and class discussions were recorded in order to analyse the functional use of pairs of German and English discourse markers used by the students. Especially, the researchers clarified, for their analysis, that they excluded discourse markers for which semantically corresponding words do not exist in the other language and those for which students did not produce functionally similar alternatives in the other language even though the equivalent discourse markers exist in the other language. However, they did not specify what tasks the students were asked to perform. Based on the analysis, the researchers reported that learners' practices found in their data, such as inserting discourse markers from one language to the other language and functionally distributing discourse markers emerging from two different languages, were similar to such practices found in non-learner discourses occurring in natural bilingual settings. Consequently, they argued that L2 learners who were allowed to use L1 and L2 in their classroom might develop practices similar to those of bilingual speakers found in bilingual interactions outside the classroom. This study is a meaningful work in that it provided a rationale for reconsidering L2 learners as aspiring bilinguals by offering strong evidence to support that learners' practices are similar to those of bilinguals.

In conclusion, most of the empirical studies on L2 learners' use of language during

task-based peer interaction have mainly explored a wide range of functions that learners' language, especially L1, fulfils in the interaction. The studies support that learners' L1 plays as a crucial communication and learning tool, serving communicative, cognitive, and socio-affective functions. However, on the other hand, very few studies have considered characteristic features emerging from learners' language use, such as repetition or discourse markers, in L2 learning settings. This scarcity of research in the field of SLA calls for more studies regarding this issue in order to gain more insightful and more comprehensive understanding of L2 learners' language use, whereby pedagogical implication would be provided. In this context, my study attempted to add to this pool of knowledge of L2 learners' language use by exploring primary school L2 learners' language use comprehensively in terms of not only its functions but also its distinct features.

2.6. Summary

In this chapter, I first reviewed the key terms of my study to offer the contextual information by identifying how the terms are used in my study. Then, I presented the relevant literature on interaction within the field of SLA from two different theoretical perspectives, i.e. the computational models and sociocultural theory, arguing for the adoption of sociocultural theory as the theoretical framework of my study. I continued by highlighting the key constructs within this framework such as mediation, scaffolding within the ZPD, and private speech, to identify the roles of interaction in L2 learning, drawing on both theoretical writing and empirical studies. Lastly, I provided a review of empirical studies, which deal with learners' language use during task-based peer interaction within the sociocultural framework.

A conclusion of this chapter is that research on primary school pupils' language use during task-based peer interaction in L2 classroom is scarce. In addition, most of the research has been done with western languages in the contexts of western countries. In view of this research gap, it seems potentially rich to expand the scope of research to Asian L2 classrooms or Asian language learners' language

at the primary school level. Furthermore, it also seems potentially worthwhile to comprehensively explore learners' language use in terms of not only overall functions of L2 learners' language but also distinct features emerging from their language use.

Based on the comprehension of L2 learners' language use during peer interaction via literature review, the next chapter presents and discusses the research methodology of my study which aims to explore L2 learners' language use in the L2 classroom of primary school.

Chapter 3 Conducting a multiple case study in two different primary L2 classroom settings

3.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to offer an overview of the methodological background and methodological decisions of my research. In this chapter, the research paradigm of my study is firstly identified to give an understanding of what guided my practice and action. Next, research questions are presented to provide the essential prerequisite, along with the research paradigm for designing the research and deciding research methods. Then, the research design is described, including the research contexts, participants and the researcher's role. The research methods undertaken in this study are also presented, followed by a description of the analytical framework adopted. Finally, the trustworthiness and the ethical considerations of my research are discussed.

3.2. Research paradigm

It was crucial to consider my ontological and epistemological assumptions in order to design my research. I ontologically and epistemologically believe that knowledge of realities is elusive (Bryman, 2012) and that it is gained through the individuals' subjective experiences (Creswell, 2013). In my study, I attempted to make sense of L2 learners' language use during task-based peer interaction, which was the reality or the topic of my research, in context. I assume that the knowledge of L2 learners' language use is not fixed nor static but fluid and indeterminate and that it is constructed in context. In other words, the knowledge or meanings are neither absolute nor definitive, but varied and multiple, guiding the researcher to seek the complexity of perspectives (Creswell, 2014).

Also, my epistemological belief is that humans seek to make sense of their world and construct their understandings of the world rather than discover the meanings (Gibson, 2016). The formulation of the knowledge is regarded as being constructed in the process of interactions with other people and its surrounding

environment rather than as the simple description of given facts. Categories of knowledge and reality are derived from social actors' consensus with respect to what is authentic, what is helpful, and what has meaning (Guban & Lincoln, 2008). Meanings are often negotiated culturally and historically and formulated through social relationships and interactions with other people (Creswell, 2014). In my study, L2 learners' language use is regarded as a subjective and indeterminate reality rather than an objective and determinate reality since it can be differently understood or interpreted according to who the researcher and participants are. Meanings and understandings are co-constructed between the researcher and participants (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Based on this ontological and epistemological belief, it was necessary to explore the practice from pupils' and teachers' perspectives as well as the researcher's perspective because the understanding of the practice was co-constructed by those involved. Hence, it was necessary both to observe learners' language use and to co-interpret it with participants.

More specifically, I sought to explore the reality of my research from the perspective of social constructivism, which gave the direction of the study and affected the research design, choice of research methods, and even the decision of how to analyse the data. Based on the philosophical orientation of social constructivism, I took a qualitative approach to my research, and designed my research as a case study, which empirically investigated learners' language use in the natural classroom setting using multiple sources of evidence without any artificial treatment. Namely, the natural L2 classroom, which was neither a laboratory nor an artificial setting for experimenting, was chosen to explore L2 learners' actual language use in context. The understanding of the specific context was necessarily required not only to comprehend the social and cultural setting surrounding the participants but also to look at the practice of pupils' language use occurring in peer interactions in relation to the context that the participants belonged to. Drawing on this philosophical stance, multiple forms of evidence were generated and words were emphasised in generating and analysing data. Even though I believe that the use of statistics may blur or obscure the deep comprehension of learners' language use, it is also needed to take into account some frequency that can provide a general overview of learners'

language use. Therefore, quantification or numeric measurements were partly adopted in the methods of data generation and data analysis. More importantly, I sought to construct the meanings grounded from the data generated and to formulate a pattern of meanings, rather than to test hypotheses. Also, I value descriptive work.

3.3. The Research questions

This study aimed to investigate how and why L2 learners used their L1 and L2 during peer interaction for performing L2 tasks in primary L2 classes. When the research was designed at the outset, the focus was not only on learners' language use during peer interaction but also on non-verbal aspects of peer interaction because the research started with the question of what was actually happening during L2 learners' peer interaction. However, the research topic was narrowed down by only dealing with learners' language because it seemed more insightful and more manageable to concentrate on this issue as the observations progressed. Thus, research questions were reformulated, focusing on learners' language use, and my research efforts were channelled into seeking to answer the questions.

To guide my study, I formulated two main research questions asking how and why, and subsidiary 'what' questions were addressed to answer the main research questions.

1. How do learners use their language during task-based peer interaction in L2 class of primary school?
 - What are the distinct features emerging from learners' language use?
 - What are the factors that influence learners' language use in terms of the features of language that learners use?

The first main question, which asks how learners use their language, has two sub-questions. These sub-questions are constructed to explore how learners use their

language, focusing on characteristic features emerging from learners' language use. The first sub-question for exploring learners' language use in terms of its characteristic features is intensively dealt with in the subsequent three chapters of analysis and is also synthetically addressed in Chapter Seven. The second sub-question asking factors affecting the use of language is formulated to investigate learners' language use in terms of language features with reference to the context where the language is used. This sub-question is not only sporadically dealt with in the three chapters of analysis but also intensively discussed in the final chapter in order to yield a more complete picture of learners' language use. In the final chapter, the factors, i.e. L2 only policy, school and classroom culture or atmosphere, L1 knowledge or experiences, prior knowledge or experiences of L2, linguistic characteristics of L1 and L2, L2 proficiency, group dynamics (including interlocutors' L2 proficiency, collaborative relationships or interlocutors' willingness to cooperate, interlocutors' willingness to communicate in L2), learner attributes, school year or age, and task-related factors (such as the nature of the task, the task type, the complexity of the task and the time allotted in the task performance), are deeply discussed in relation to features of language that learners use.

2. Why do learners use their language during task-based peer interaction in L2 class of primary school?

- What are the overall functions that learners' languages serve?
- What are the functions associated with the distinct features emerging from learners' language use?
- What are the factors that influence learners' language use in terms of the functions of language that learners use?
- What are the teacher's and learners' perspectives on the practice of learners' language use?

The second main question, which asks why learners use their language, explores the functions, purposes, or reasons for which learners use their language to gain a comprehensive understanding of learners' language use. This question includes four sub-questions. The first sub-question is concerned with the overall functions of L1 and L2 used by L2 learners, and the second sub-question is related to the

functions associated with each language feature. The third sub-question is about the factors that affect learners' language use in terms of functions of language that learners use, and the final subquestion has to do with the participants' interpretation of, perspectives or reflections on the practice of learners' language use. The first sub-question is intensively addressed in Chapter Four and Seven, and the second, third and fourth sub-questions are extensively dealt with in Chapter Four to Six and more intensively discussed in Chapter Seven. Especially, the third subquestion is explored in relation to learners' L2 proficiency and task-related factors (such as the nature of the task, the task type, the complexity of the task, and the time allotted in the task performance) in the final chapter. Overall, the answers to the research questions are summarised and further discussed in Chapter Seven.

To seek the answers to these research questions, my research took a multi-method approach along with an interpretive and naturalistic approach to its subject matter.

3.4. Research design

In designing my research, the first concern was given to the philosophical paradigm, the research aim and questions. From the perspective of social constructivism, I utilised a qualitative approach in order to secure an in-depth understanding of the events in question, which were naturally occurring in real-life settings. Taking a qualitative approach, I designed my research as a case study because case study was a useful strategy for deeply exploring learners' language use in relation to the context; gathering rich data; conducting member checking; using triangulation through multiple methods of data collection; and changing the research design flexibly during the data collection.

3.4.1. Case study

My research was designed as a case study to seek answers to the research questions within the sociocultural framework. Through a case study, I attempted

to investigate L2 learners' language use during task-based peer interaction comprehensively and thoroughly in their contexts. Case study is a research approach for exploring a case or multiple cases during a particular period, through comprehensive and in-depth data collection such as observations, interviews, recordings and documents (Creswell, 2013; Lichtman, 2010; K. Richards, 2003). A case study approach allows detailed and various explorations of complex issues in natural and authentic settings (Crowe et al., 2011). In these respects, case study was regarded as an appropriate methodological tool for doing my research.

Considering not only my research interest in the research contexts but also accessibility to and availability of the research contexts, I selected two different learning contexts, i.e. English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in a state primary school in Seoul and Korean as a Heritage Language (KHL) classrooms in a Korean Saturday school in London. Conducting my research project in these two schools, I designed my research as a collective case study (or multiple case studies) consisting of two cases, i.e. L2 learners' language use in EFL classes of the mainstream primary school in Seoul and L2 learners' language use in KHL classes of the non-mainstream school in London. In a collective case study, each case study is instrumental to learning about a certain phenomenon but there may be significant "coordination between the individual studies" (Stake, 1995, pp. 3-4). In my study, each case was important in order to offer enriched and deep evidence of L2 learners' actual language use. I expected to derive meaningful and insightful ideas of pupils' language use by comparing and combining the findings of the individual cases.

3.4.2. Contexts

From the viewpoint of social constructivism, the natural contexts of the participants' ordinary and real life are essential (K. Richards, 2003) and the particular settings where participants live and work are emphasised to understand the cultural and historical contexts of the participants (Creswell, 2013, 2014). As mentioned earlier, the contexts of my case study were L2 primary classrooms of two different schools located in two different countries: EFL classrooms in a state primary school in Gangnam District of Seoul; KHL classrooms in a Korean

Saturday school in London. The selection of these two schools was based on the criteria of ease of gathering data and accessibility as well as my research interest. In other words, these two schools were chosen not only because the two schools were interesting to explore and appropriate to gain enriched data for answering the research questions but also because the schools were easily accessible for me, as Stake (1995) suggests as one of the conditions for choosing a case.

The schools were given pseudonyms based on characteristics of each school's location. The state primary school in Seoul was named The Boulevard because it was located along the main road with eight lanes; the Korean school in London was named Green Hill because there was a small hill covered with green grass in the school area. The Boulevard offered a typical context for L2 learning, and Green Hill provided an atypical context for L2 learning. The difference between these two contexts that deems them typical or atypical contexts for learning L2 are closely related to textbooks provided to the learners in each context. Pupils at The Boulevard were given textbooks developed for foreign language learners, which was a typical L2 context, whereas pupils at Green Hill were provided with textbooks developed for L1 learners rather than L2 learners, which was an atypical L2 context. In other words, while pupils at The Boulevard were supposed to improve their L2 through textbooks for L2 learners, pupils at Green Hill were supposed to improve their L2 through textbooks for L1 learners. This difference might have affected learners' use of language as well as the design or the level of tasks.

As previously discussed in Chapter Two, it can be controversial to define second language or L2 because the term is used differently depending on researchers, but it generally refers to any language learned after a first language has been learned (Ellis, 2008; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Saville-Troike, 2006). L2 classrooms at The Boulevard, in a more restricted sense, were the foreign language learning context, where a non-native language (which was English) was learned and a native language (which was Korean) was normally used for everyday life (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Saville-Troike, 2006). On the other hand, L2 classrooms at Green Hill were the heritage language learning context, where Korean, i.e. learners' heritage language, was learned as the target language. In this context, English

was not only the dominant language of the society but also the learners' primary language because the learners were more competent and confident in English than Korean. The detailed information of each school's context is presented respectively in what follows.

The Boulevard: A state primary school in Gangnam District of Seoul, South Korea

The area, Gangnam District of Seoul, in which The Boulevard was located, was intentionally selected because it was attractive and interesting to explore learners' language use in terms of learners' L2 competence. The area could provide a suitable context for collecting data from more advanced L2 learners at the primary school level as well as the average pupils who were at the textbook level. Gangnam has a socioculturally special position in the society of Korea. The area is well-known as the richest area, where the upper and middle class parents want to reside for their children's education, despite the highest house rents, because there are many privileged high schools and a great deal of excellent after-school private institutes, which are called *hakwon* (Oh, 2011). Many pupils in this District show outstanding academic achievements and high-proficiency in English (Y. Kim, Kim, & Loury, 2014). Most of the pupils' English communicative competence is much higher than that of pupils from other Districts of Seoul or other Provinces of Korea because they have not only learning experiences in high-quality private English language institutes but also residential experiences in English-speaking countries, such as short-term or long-term study abroad trips for learning English.

The school chosen among primary schools in Gangnam District was the school where I had worked for five years from March 2008 to February 2013. The reason the school was chosen was ease of access. Because I already had rapport with teachers who were my ex-colleagues, it was not demanding to have access to the principal, teachers and pupils in the school through the relationship, i.e. human network. Also, I had a good understanding of the pupils, the school and the area around the school. Last and most importantly, most of the pupils in this school had comparatively high proficiency in English and had little difficulties in using

English not only at the textbook level but also beyond it. Hence, the school was expected to provide insightful and enriched data of learners' language use without a huge L2 linguistic limitation.

In this school, English lessons were given to all classes from Year 3 to Year 6, as in other primary schools in South Korea. Pupils in Year 5 and 6 were provided with three 40-minute sessions every week. One of the three sessions was taught by a Korean EFL teacher alone, and the other two sessions were co-taught by the Korean EFL teacher and a Native English Speaking (NES) teacher. On the other hand, Year 3 and 4 classes were offered two 40-minute sessions of English class every week. One session was taught by a Korean EFL teacher alone as in Year 5 and 6, and another session was co-taught by the Korean EFL teacher and a NES teacher. Year 6 classrooms that I observed were taught by a Korean female EFL teacher and an Australian male NES teacher, and Year 3 classrooms that I observed were taught by the Korean EFL teacher and an American female NES teacher. The Korean EFL teacher had five-year teaching experience as an English subject teacher and another five years as a class teacher who taught different kinds of school subjects. She took her MA degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) at a university in London. The NES teachers had several years of teaching experience in Korea.

With regard to L2 only policy, the official guidelines by Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE) recommended the flexible and maximum use of English in its official documents related to Teaching English in English (TEE) policy (Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education, 2014, 2015, 2017), but the teachers of this school run their English classes drawing on English only policy. This mismatch between the policy of SMOE and the teachers' application in the classroom seems to have been due to several reasons. First, teachers might not have recognised the shift from the exclusive use of English to the maximum use of English in the guidelines if they did not read through them even though there had been a change in definition of the term TEE presented in the official documents. Hence, they might have customarily adhered to the exclusive use of English in their classroom. Second, teachers might have been aware of the change, but they might have stuck to the English only policy because they had been used to exclusively using

English. In primary schools, EFL teachers have been asked to teach English in English since the TEE policy was first instituted in 2001. Thus, teachers, who were proficient in English, might have favoured implementing the English only policy. Third, teachers might have felt that they should adhere to the English only policy because of the name of the policy, i.e. TEE. TEE is regarded to be conceptually identical to English only policy (J. H. Lee, 2010). In this context, even though there has been the change in identifying what TEE refers to, the teachers might have felt that the exclusive use of English was still suggested. Fourth, the teachers might have felt that the English only policy was sufficiently acceptable in their context, considering their pupils' English proficiency even though it was a special case in South Korea. Fifth, there seems to have been no option except for the English only policy, especially when Korean EFL teachers worked with Native English Speaking (NES) teachers, who did not know Korean at all. Last but not least, teachers might have felt that the exclusive use of English was pedagogically desirable in the context where pupils were seldom exposed to the target language except in their English classroom. A combination of these possible reasons might have led to teachers' decision to use only English in their class. The teachers strictly implemented the English only policy in their classroom, using 'carrot and stick' approach to elicit pupils' use of English. For example, the EFL teachers of this school gave pupils points whenever they observed the pupils were performing their collective task using English, or took away points whenever they heard the pupils' Korean. Despite this strict English only policy, however, pupils still used Korean during task-based peer interaction.

Concerning English textbooks used in primary schools in Korea, there are 8, 7, 5 and 5 government-authorised textbooks made by publishing companies for Year 3, 4, 5 and 6 respectively as of 2015, in which this research project was conducted. The textbooks were made on the basis of the national curriculum. Hence, the level and the quality of all textbooks are similar. Among these textbooks, each school decides which textbook will be used for their pupils. Textbooks consist of several units, and each unit, which deals with two or three communicative functions, normally comprises of four to seven sessions. Each session includes target expressions that pupils should acquire within the unit, and it provides interesting and various language tasks such as card games, role-plays

or information gap tasks for practicing or producing the target expressions. As discussed earlier in Subsection 2.2.2, a task, in my study, refers to all kinds of pedagogical activities for enhancing learners' L2 competence, which have a clear outcome and enable learners to experience communication reflecting real-life language use. In *The Boulevard*, tasks of the textbook were normally redesigned by the teachers according to their pupils' L2 proficiency and interest. In other words, the topic and the communicative functions were the same as in the textbook, but the number and the level of words used were much more and at a higher level than those in the textbook. Tasks from the textbook were redesigned, or brand-new tasks were developed, not only to improve learners' L2 communicative competence but also to motivate them to get involved in the task and learn English.

As for pupils, most of them were born and had grown up in Korea which was a monolingual country. Even though some of the pupils were born or had spent several years in English-speaking countries, they were using Korean in their daily life and English only in academic settings such as the L2 classroom of the school or private English institute. Korean was pupils' L1 as well as home language, native language, and national language, and their Korean proficiency was much higher than their English proficiency. English was pupils' L2 and the target language to learn in their school. English was technically a foreign language that pupils learned in class but did not need to use outside of the class. Pupils shared the same L1 not only with peers but also with the Korean EFL teacher. Pupils' L1 and L2 are tabulated as in Table 3.1.

Green Hill: A Korean Saturday School in London, the UK

Green Hill, which was another research context, was located in London and run only on Saturdays. The school was supported by the Korean government, interestingly not the Ministry of Education but the Overseas Koreans Foundation, one of the affiliated organisations of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The school was run funded by pupils' parents as well as the Overseas Koreans Foundation. The Overseas Korean Foundation developed a great deal of teaching materials including textbooks for KHL learners around the world and offered not only

textbooks in print but also a variety of materials in digital form on its webpage. In addition, the Foundation supplied national textbooks, which were developed for and used by primary school pupils living in Korea, to Korean Saturday schools, if the schools wanted to use them. Pupils at Green Hill did not use Korean language textbooks developed for KHL learners but used the national Korean language textbooks developed for Korean speakers. To summarise, the Korean government supported the school with some amount of the school budget and teaching materials including textbooks, but did not regulate or control the school in terms of management of the school and its curriculum. The principal at Green Hill managed the school and decided the curriculum at her discretion, considering pupils' Korean proficiency, parents' needs and teachers' opinions.

The school had pupils from nursery (which was 3 years old) to Year 9 (which was 13 to 14 years old). There was only one class in each Year, such as one Year 3 class and one Year 4 class, except for Year 1 which had two classes. The one-day class consisted of a one and a half hour session and a two hour session before and after a 30-minute break for lunch starting at 11 o'clock respectively. In other words, the school adopted a block schedule consisting of two long sessions. Considering pupils' needs and task difficulty, informal breaks during each session could also be given to pupils at each teacher's discretion. The curriculum of the school consisted of two subjects, i.e. Korean language and mathematics, except for nursery classes which were taught only Korean language. Korean language was the main subject per se and was also used as a medium to teach learners both the subjects of Korean language and mathematics. Korean language class was normally taught for around two and a half hours in a day. Mathematics was taught as a supplementary subject for pupils to get used to mathematical terms in Korean and improve their mathematical problem solving, and was usually taught for about one hour. The amount of time for each subject and the schedule of each class could be different according to each class because each class teacher adjusted them at their discretion, considering pupils' capacity and interest. Class teachers taught their class children both Korean and mathematics, except for Year 7 to 9 which were taught Korean language by a Korean language subject teacher and mathematics by a mathematics subject teacher. Both subjects were taught in Korean, using national textbooks made for native Korean speakers

residing and learning in Korea.

One academic year for primary school in South Korea is separated into two halves, i.e. the first term and the second term. As in 2015, there were two sets of Korean language textbooks, i.e. two Korean language textbooks and two Korean activity books, for each term. In this school, pupils were taught with the textbooks made for pupils one year or one term younger. For instance, pupils in Year 6 used the textbooks for Year 5, and pupils in Year 3 used the textbooks made for the second term of Year 2 and the first term of Year 3. This curriculum was decided through negotiation by the principal and teachers, considering parents' needs and expectations as well as pupils' Korean proficiency and intellectual development. However, the level of Korean language textbooks was too high for pupils to learn from because the parents' needs and expectations were higher than the pupils' actual Korean language proficiency. In this context, each teacher was required to reduce the amount and content of the textbooks to fit their pupils. The teachers were also asked to reconstruct or redesign the tasks from the textbooks, based on their pupils' intellectual and linguistic development. As discussed in Subsection 2.2.2, my own definition of tasks are different from that of researchers within the task-based framework. Within the task-based framework, tasks should have communicating purposes with either linguistic or non-linguistic outcome, focusing on meaning. Also, tasks should resemble authentic language use, allowing learners to use their linguistic resources. Following this definition, tasks provided to pupils at Green Hill would not be called tasks because the tasks offered in Green Hill did not always either have communicative purposes or focus on meaning. Rather, the tasks frequently had cognitive or academic purposes to be achieved and sometimes focused on form because the tasks from the textbooks were originally developed for L1 speakers. Hence, the definition of tasks used in my study is more comprehensive and less strict than that of the task-based approach. Namely, tasks in my study refer to all kinds of pedagogical activities developed for learners' target language competence, enabling learners to experience actual communication with other learners and to produce either linguistic or non-linguistic outcomes. Drawing on this definition, learners' task-based interaction was chosen for the analysis of my study.

In the context of Green Hill, it was complex to identify learners' L1 and L2. Even though most of the pupils were born in the UK, they might have been exposed to Korean first rather than English because Korean was their parents', mother's or father's heritage language and first language. Namely, Korean may have been pupils' heritage language that they had been exposed to from birth. However, pupils' Korean competence was not advanced. Korean might have been pupils' chronologically first acquired language, but pupils identified that their first language was English because they felt most comfortable with, most confident with and most competent in English. They seem to have somehow reset their L1 and L2 since being consistently and considerably exposed to English, which was the official and dominant language of the society, through schooling. Hence, English became pupils' expert and dominant language, and their English proficiency became much higher than their Korean proficiency. Their Korean resembled an L2 rather than an L1 in terms of not only proficiency but also accuracy and pronunciation. In this kind of context, learners' heritage language is normally similar to an L2 in the sense that it does not reach the full achievement of an L1 acquired in early years even though it has grammatical foundations (Montrul, 2010). The pupils normally used English in their everyday life, including educational settings, except for the Korean Saturday school. At home, pupils were reported to normally talk with their siblings in English and talk with their parents in either Korean or English. Particularly, when they talked with their parents, their parents talked to them in Korean and they talked to their mother or father in English because they had limited Korean proficiency or competence to express themselves in Korean. In this context, English was defined as their L1 and Korean as their L2. Korean was not only the L2 but also the target language for the pupils to learn in the school as the Table 3.1 indicates. Pupils shared the same L1 with other pupils but did not share the L1 with their teacher because the teacher was a native Korean speaker.

Table 3.1
Pupils' L1 and L2 in Each School

Language School Name	Korean	English
The Boulevard	L1 Home language Mother/father tongue Native language National language	L2 Foreign language Target language
Green Hill	L2 Home language Mother or father tongue Heritage language Target language	L1 Home language Mother or father tongue Expert language Dominant language National language

With respect to Korean only policy, the observation classes basically followed the Korean only policy, but it was not strictly implemented, due to learners' limited Korean proficiency and the complexity of tasks. The teacher exclusively used Korean and encouraged pupils to use Korean. Pupils seem to have tried their best to use Korean, but their try was often blocked because of their limited Korean proficiency. Pupils frequently resorted to English or codeswitching, especially when they talked with other pupils.

To summarise, the two schools had both similarities and differences. In terms of similarities, on the one hand, pupils in both schools used Korean and English in their L2 class, even though pupils were officially required to only use the L2. In addition, pupils of both schools had at least one of their parents who was Korean, even though there was a huge gap in Korean proficiency between these two groups of pupils. On the other hand, while The Boulevard was a mainstream state primary school run during weekdays, which must follow the National Curriculum of Korea, Green Hill was a non-mainstream school run only on Saturdays, which did not have to follow the National Curriculum of Korea. Also, pupils at The Boulevard were Korean speakers learning English, whereas pupils at Green Hill were English speakers learning Korean. The L2 class at The Boulevard was a typical L2 learning context in that curriculum, textbooks and lessons were

designed and developed for L2 learners, but the L2 class at Green Hill was an atypical L2 class because textbooks developed for L1 learners were used. These similarities and differences are summarised in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2
Similarities and Differences across the Contexts

School	School type	L1	L2	L2 only policy	Actual use of language	Textbook
The Boulevard	Mainstream state primary school	Korean	English	Korean only	Both Korean and English	Textbooks developed for L2 learners
Green Hill	Non-mainstream Saturday school	English	Korean	English only	Both Korean and English	Textbooks developed for L1 learners

These two different contexts were interesting and meaningful for gathering not only more enriched data but also more compelling evidence of L2 learners' language use.

3.4.3. *Participants*

Sampling in qualitative research is normally purposeful or theory-based rather than seeking to be representative of the population that allows for statistical generalisation (Robson & McCartan, 2016). My study did not aim to generalise the findings to a wider population but attempted to explore the research issue per se deeply and in detail in context. Thus, I used the purposive sampling strategy to select participants (or sites), which purposely samples people that can provide in-depth and detailed information about the issue under examination (Creswell, 2013). Purposive sampling enables a researcher to select a case because it demonstrates some feature or process that the researcher is interested in (Silverman, 2014).

In my study, the participating pupils were intentionally chosen from Year 3 (who were 8 to 9 years old) and Year 6 (who were 11 to 12 years old) in The Boulevard. The rationale for this choice is that it was expected there would be meaningful differences in terms of L2 proficiency as well as age. Year 3 is the age to officially start learning English in the public sector, and Year 6 is the age to have learned English for at least three years in the public sector, which means that Year 6 has more learning experiences of English than any other Years in primary school. The participants at Green Hill were also chosen from the same Years to avoid the gaps caused by different cognitive developmental stages between the participants of the two schools.

I also employed the convenience sampling strategy to choose the classrooms for observation in The Boulevard because convenience sampling was beneficial for saving time, money, and effort (Creswell, 2013). The classrooms were not only convenient to me but also recommended by the Korean EFL teacher. This is further discussed below.

Participants at The Boulevard

All participants were primary school pupils residing in the Gangnam District of Seoul, whose parents were all Koreans. They did not need to communicate in English outside their classroom and used only Korean at home as well as in society. Concerning L2 proficiency, although there may have been discrepancy among pupils within one class, there was almost no difference among the classes of the same Year because class assignments had been organised on the basis of the pupils' academic achievement, including pupils' results of English subject in order to have similar pupil composition among classes. In this respect, there was no problem in selecting the observation classes. Two observation classrooms were selected from Year 3 and Year 6 respectively, considering the time schedule of each classroom, the class teachers' cooperative attitudes, and the recommendation of the Korean EFL teacher in the school. After selecting the observation classrooms, pupils who volunteered in each classroom could take part in the research project.

The number of participants was 27 pupils in total: ten girls and five boys of Year 6; six girls and five boys of Year 3. The participating pupils were all observed, and their talk during peer interaction was video-recorded. Some of them were interviewed face-to-face in school during the observation period. Eight months later, further interviews were conducted with five girls in Year 6 who agreed to participate, via a multi-platform instant messaging application called KakaoTalk. The numbers of pupils participating in each research activity are as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3
The Number of Participating Pupils in The Boulevard (Seoul)

Year group & Classroom Research project	Year 3		Year 6	
	Classroom A	Classroom B	Classroom C	Classroom D
Observation	4	7	7	8
Individual face-to-face interview	2	4	3	4
Further individual interview (Internet-based)	0	0	5	0
The total number of the participating pupils	4	7	7	8

According to the questionnaire survey, many participating pupils (42.3%) had had experiences of learning in English-speaking countries or in English international schools of non-English speaking countries. Concerning English proficiency, most pupils (92.3%) responded that their English proficiency was high (65.4%) or fair (26.9%), whereas only one pupil reported that his English was poor. The background information of the participating pupils, which were gathered via the questionnaire survey, is tabulated in Appendix 3.8.

Participants at Green Hill

One girl and four boys among six pupils in Year 6 and nine boys among eleven boys in Year 3 agreed to participate in this research project. The discrepancy among pupils within one class, i.e. the same year group, was apparent regarding Korean proficiency. While some pupils had difficulty in communicating in Korean, some other pupils could express what they wanted to say in Korean comparatively fluently. Especially, half-Korean pupils had huge difficulty in communicating in Korean in class.

The participating pupils were all observed, and their talk during pair or group work was audio-recorded and video-recorded. The group interview was also conducted with participating pupils in each class on the last day of the observation period. One girl in Year 6, who did not agree to participate in the research project, wanted to attend and actively took part in the group interview. Hence, the oral consent from her mother was gained after the group interview, and then her talk during the interview was included in the data. Nine months later, further individual interviews were carried out with three Year 6 pupils during break time in the school, considering the participating pupils' willingness. The numbers of pupils participating in each research activity are summarised in Table 3.4 on the next page.

Among the participating pupils, almost everyone was born in the UK except for one Year 6 boy, who was born in Korea and immigrated to the UK with his family in early childhood. Most of the participating pupils (83.3%) in the observation classes had both parents with Korean heritage, and there were only two half-Korean pupils in Year 3. Pupils' home language was normally both Korean and English (83.3%), and two pupils responded that Korean was only used as their home language. Regarding L1 and L2, most of the pupils (83.3%) self-identified English as their L1 and Korean as their L2; one pupil Korean as his L1 and English as his L2; and another pupil both languages as his L1. However, according to the definition which I took, English was regarded as all pupils' L1 because their expert and dominant language was English, even though Korean might have been the first language to be exposed to. Korean was identified as their L2 and the target

language to learn in their class. Compared to native Korean-speaking children of the same age, the participants' Korean proficiency was much lower even though their home language or heritage language was Korean. However, all pupils, interestingly, responded that their Korean proficiency was not poor but good

Table 3.4
The Number of Participating Pupils in Green Hill (London)

Year group/ Classroom composition Research project	Year 3		Year 6	
	The number of participating pupils with Korean parents	The number of half- Korean participating pupils	The number of participating pupils with Korean parents	The number of half- Korean participant pupils
Observation	5	2	5	0
Group interview	5	2	6*	0
Further individual interview (face-to-face)	0	0	3	0
The total number of the participating pupils	5	2	5	0

**One girl, who did not give her consent for observation, attended in the group interview*

(41.7%) or fair (58.3%) in their questionnaire. The background information of the participating pupils, which was collected via a questionnaire survey, is tabulated in Appendix 3.10.

3.4.4. *The roles of the researcher*

In the two schools, my roles were not identical when I carried out my research project with participating pupils. Researcher's roles vary according to the degree of their participation in what is happening in the social setting (Bryman, 2012; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Robson, 2011). While I was an outsider researcher who was observing L2 class in The Boulevard, I carried out my research as an insider researcher who was not only observing but also teaching the observation classes in Green Hill.

In The Boulevard, I conducted the observation as the observer-as-participant, i.e. an observer who did not participate in the activity but was known clearly as a researcher to the participants from the start (Cohen et al., 2011; Robson, 2011). Everyone in the class knew that I was in their class to observe their talk, even though I did not take part in their activity at all. I observed the whole English language lessons, video-recording two groups of pupils during group-work sessions in each observation class. Also, I conducted interviews and further interviews with pupils and a Korean EFL teacher.

In Green Hill, I not only carried out my research project including observations and interviews with pupils as a researcher but also actively and deeply intervened in pupils' learning activities as a teacher. I redesigned textbook-based tasks to fit in with pupils' L2 proficiency and taught the classes as their teacher. Namely, I played the participant-as-observer role, i.e. the person who observed through taking part in activities as a member of the group or situation and whose role as a researcher was known to the participants. (Cohen et al., 2011; Robson, 2011). I tried to keep the balance between these two roles, i.e. an insider researcher and a teacher, managing the work required to the researcher and the teacher respectively.

As being the teacher of Green Hill, I already had deep knowledge of the school context and understanding of pupils. However, I had to consider the challenges that might be caused by getting too close to the participants because a participant-

as-observer might have trouble “in achieving anything approaching objectivity” instead of gaining a substantial understanding of the group (Robson, 2011, p. 323). Actually, the understanding of the contexts as the insider researcher helped me to make better sense of and interpret the pupils’ talk rather than prejudiced or biased me against their talk. In addition, the aim of my study was to explore learners’ language use occurring in the natural classroom setting rather than to judge, evaluate, or compare learners’ language proficiency. I did not intentionally evoke a particular situation or behaviour from pupils by manipulating them in order to gain findings that I expected. Hence, the participant-as-observer role did not cause any ethical problems or the danger of artificiality.

A participant-as-observer may also be faced with difficulties in making others in the group see the person in the new role as the observer instead of shortening the process for developing trust on the basis of rapport which is already established with individuals (Robson, 2011). In my research, observation was mainly conducted later through video or audio recordings when I was alone, so pupils did not need to recognise me as an observer or a researcher even though they already knew that I was conducting the research project with them. Actually, they did not seem to regard me as an observer rather than their teacher. Hence, this issue was not a matter of concern.

The different roles of the researcher is summarised in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5
The Position and Roles of the Researcher across the Contexts

School	The position of the researcher	The role of the researcher	The role of the observer
The Boulevard	Outsider researcher	A single role as researcher	Observer-as-participant
Green Hill	Insider researcher	A dual role as both researcher and teacher	Participant-as-observer

3.5. Research methods

Within the paradigm of social constructivism, I took a multi-method approach in the form of a collective case study to seek the answers of how and why L2 learners used their L1 and L2 during peer interaction for performing their L2 task. Qualitative research tends to employ research methods in a highly flexible way through “combining several strategies and methods within a research design” (Gray, 2014, p. 162). To explore learners’ language use in each case context, I gathered multiple forms of data such as observations, interviews, and documents, to look at the phenomena from multiple perspectives (Gray, 2014). Specifically, in my study, I carried out observation as a main method and the other methods, such as interview, questionnaire survey and documentation, as supplementary methods of data collection.

The research methods were employed slightly differently in the two schools. When designing research methods, each school’s contexts, pupils’ preference and my role as a researcher were considered as the prerequisite, and thus non-identical methods were applied to each school. Particularly, while I used individual face-to-face interviews and KakaoTalk-based further interviews with pupils and the Korean EFL teacher at The Boulevard, I carried out group interviews and individual face-to-face further interviews with pupils at Green Hill.

The detailed discussion of each research method, particularly how each method was used in each school, is provided in the subsequent subsections.

3.5.1. Observation

Observation was employed as a primary method of my research. Observation is a useful tool for gathering authentic data from natural settings by looking directly at what is happening rather than depending on mediated or inferential accounts (Cohen et al., 2011). In this respect, observation was an indispensable tool for exploring pupils’ actual language use in the natural L2 classroom setting. Through observations, I could collect pupils’ real language.

In both schools, I took an informal approach and conducted unstructured observation because my research aimed to explore L2 learners' language use grounded in the data without any predesigned or pre-coded framework. This unstructured observation enabled me to avoid prejudice and bias about learners' language use. The data gathered by an informal approach is generally "unstructured and complex", and requires the researcher to synthesise, abstract and organise the information (Robson, 2011, p. 319). In my research, the data gathered by observations was learners' utterances, which were unstructured and complex, during task-based peer interaction, and it required so much time and effort to find meaningful patterns from and analyse the data.

In The Boulevard, there was only group work or whole class work in sessions including all Year 3 and 6 classes during the observation period, so only pupils' utterances during group work were video-recorded. On the other hand, there was not only group work but also pair work in Green Hill, so both pupils' pair and group work was audio-recorded and video-recorded. When pupils were recorded, great care was taken in order for the recording not to affect pupils' language use because their behaviour might have been changed when they were conscious of being observed or recorded. To reduce this problem, I articulated the purpose of observations, which was not for judging their language ability but for understanding how they were using their L1 and L2, from the outset. Especially, in Green Hill, where observations had been carried out for a longer period, pupils came to handle video cameras and audio recorders and also came to record themselves voluntarily as they got used to the environment with those devices. Pupils seemed to mind cameras in a way at the beginning, but they seemed not to care about being recorded any more after getting used to being recorded as well as the recording gadgets.

The process and the focus of observation carried out in each school are dealt with below.

Observations conducted in The Boulevard

I started observation in The Boulevard on 29th May 2015 and continued until 17th June 2015, except for the period of a temporary vacation caused by Middle East Respiratory Syndrome that was called MERS. The observation was conducted in the classroom where English was learnt as L2, more specifically as a foreign language. During the period, I observed two classes of Year 3 and another two classes of Year 6. As for Year 3, two sessions in a week were all taught in each class's own room, so observations were done in each classroom. As for Year 6, two of three sessions in a week were taught in an English classroom, and only one session was taught in each class's own room. Hence, observations were conducted in each class's own room and the English classroom. In each class, I observed two different groups of three or four pupils except for one class of Year 3 where I could observe only one group of four. The group composition was rarely changed during the observation period. I observed all the sessions of each participating class, but not all sessions were meaningful as my data because some sessions consisted of only the whole class work which did not require peer interaction at all. Also, even though I observed the whole sessions throughout each session, I video-recorded only pupils' group work that needed peer interaction because my research aimed to look at pupils' actual language use during peer interaction. As a result, 14 five-to-ten-minute recordings were collected as my data as shown in Table 3.6. My field note, which was recorded to describe general information about each session in the course of observation, was also gathered to make use of the notes when I compiled and organised my observation data.

Before starting the observation, I told them my personal story briefly to establish rapport and reduce the sense of distance and hostility that pupils might have towards me, who was a stranger to them. Not long after I met the pupils for the first time, they showed me friendly and favourable attitudes, not only when I entered their classrooms but also when I came across them in the corridor during break time. To help pupils to get familiar with and not to care about the gadgets such as video cameras and audio recorders, I set up the gadget near the pupils even when they were not recorded. Pupils, who showed interest in the gadget at

first, became accustomed to them and came to be able to focus on their work as time went on. I could see that they interacted with each other without minding the gadget.

Table 3.6
The Observation Recording Data of the The Boulevard (Seoul)

Year group	Class	Group	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5
6	A	Group 1		Recording 3	Recording 7		
		Group 2		Recording 4	Recording 8		
	B	Group 3	Recording 1	Recording 5	Recording 9		
		Group 4	Recording 2	Recording 6	Recording 10		
3	C	Group 5				Recording 11	Recording 14
	D	Group 6				Recording 12	
		Group 7				Recording 13	

Observations conducted in Green Hill

In Green Hill, I had both video-recorded and audio-recorded Korean language classes, which I had taught, every Saturday from 3rd October 2015 through to 13th February 2016, except for the period of the school break. Observation classes were a Year 3 class and a Year 6 class. The participating pupils' talk was video-recorded and audio-recorded during their pair or group work.

As for Year 6, I already had a deep rapport with them because I had taught them as a class teacher since they were in Year 5. However, as for Year 3, I just started teaching and was supposed to teach them only Korean class for around one hour session every Saturday during the observation period. So I spent two weeks

building up a good relationship with Year 3 before starting recording their classes. Also, I took great care in order for them not to feel pressure to decide to participate in my research project, which might have been caused by the fact that I was their teacher. In order for pupils to feel free to participate in the research project, I clearly articulated that the purpose of this research was neither judging nor evaluating them but understanding them. I also tried to create a friendly atmosphere respecting each pupil. At first, pupils in both Year 3 and 6 classes were all shy in front of the recording gadgets, so I gave them some time to get used to them and they were not prohibited from touching or operating them. They often video-recorded themselves, operating video cameras by themselves, and played with the audio-recording gadgets.

Pupils' group or pair work done during each session was the target of my observation and recording. Every session, their utterances were recorded during group or pair work. Unlike in *The Boulevard*, the composition of groups or pairs was different every session because I wanted to look at pupils' interaction in relationship with different peers. During their group or pair work, I observed each group's performance, moving around the classroom and helping pupils in need. However, during each session, there was not enough time to note down everything I had observed. Hence, I wrote something important to remember after school in my field note or emails sent to parents, which were written to inform them of what was taught in the sessions. It was only when I watched each video clip that I could observe each group's full performance.

During the observation period, 24 six-to-twenty-minute recordings and 21 five-to-twenty-minute recordings were collected from Year 6 and Year 3 respectively. However, all of these were not the target to analyse. Only 12 recordings of Year 6 and five recordings of Year 3 were fully transcribed to be analysed and interpreted. In deciding which recordings were chosen for analysis, there were careful considerations. First, it was considered whether pupils were used to pair or group work because the teacher's intervention was frequent in the case of pupils who were not familiar with tasks that required peer interaction. Thus, the recordings of Year 6 pupils, who were already familiar with pair or group work from the outset, were selected from sessions during the first half of the

observation period, i.e. October to December 2015, and the recordings of year 3 pupils, who were not used to pair or group work at the outset, were chosen from sessions during the latter half of the observation period, i.e. December 2015 to February 2016. Another consideration was taken into to match the number of recordings collected in The Boulevard. Task type was also considered because some tasks were possible for individual pupils to complete without enough peer interaction even though the tasks were designed as collective work. Some tasks were also linguistically challenging for L2 learners to carry out because tasks were based on the textbooks made for native Korean speakers. Hence, the recordings of the tasks where the teacher's support or intervention was given too much were excluded. However, all recordings were heard to gain insights for analysing and interpreting the data even though all recordings were not fully transcribed.

3.5.2. Interviews

Interview was used as a supplementary research method of observation. Interviews allow the researcher to build the data with interviewees by co-working to interpret the issue being studied (Roulston, 2010). Through interviews, I constructed the data with my interviewees by working together to make sense of how and why pupils used L1 and L2 when they interacted with each other to perform L2 tasks. Also, I could gain different perspectives on learners' language use as well as opportunities to hear voices from stakeholders directly.

As mentioned earlier, interviews were conducted differently depending on each school context and pupils' preference. The detailed information of how interviews were conducted in each school is presented below.

Interviews conducted in The Boulevard

In The Boulevard, I conducted face-to-face semi-structured interviews with seven pupils in Year 6 and six pupils in Year 3 among the pupils participating in observations and with the Korean EFL teacher during the period of observations. In semi-structured interviews, the researcher has a guide for the interview such

as an interview schedule, but the researcher can change the sequence and the wording, or skip or add some topics during the interview as a result of the interviewee's response (Bryman, 2004, 2012; Gray, 2014; Robson, 2011). I developed interview schedules for pupils and the Korean EFL teacher at The Boulevard consisting of interview topics, probes, and prompts about pupils' and teachers' perceptions on and attitudes towards pupils' language use in the L2 class (Appendix 3.1 and 3.2). In the process of the interview, I decided which one should be skipped or added according to participants' responses.

The interviews were carried out with six Year 3 and seven Year 6 pupils during the time before or after school, or lunch break, lasting up to 15 minutes, considering pupils' schedules, requests and preferences. The interviews were conducted without the presence of the English teachers so that pupils would be feel comfortable in expressing their experiences and views. Pupils' responses were documented by audio recording, and they were transcribed in Korean because all interviews were conducted in Korean. Meaningful parts of the Korean transcriptions were translated into English because the analysis for the parts was needed to present and report in the Analysis Chapters. On the last day of observation, I conducted an interview with the Korean EFL teacher in order to grasp her opinions on pupils' language use as well as to get general information about her English class.

Further interviews with pupils and the teacher were conducted eight months later because pupils' and the teacher's reflections on pupils' language use were needed on the basis of observation findings. For the further interviews, I developed interview schedules to make participants reflect on learners' language use (Appendix 3.3 and Appendix 3.4). The interviews were done on KakaoTalk, a multi-platform instant messaging application, which could be used on either smart phone or computer through the Internet. Pupils had been familiar with this application and always used it in their daily life. They also preferred using this messaging application to talking on the phone. In order to organise the further interviews, I contacted nine pupils in Year 6 who agreed to attend the further interview and gave me their KakaoTalk ID. Among them, five pupils responded that they would participate in the interview, and I sent their video clips via email to

enable them to reflect on their language use. I also conducted the further interview with the Korean EFL teacher because it was worthwhile to look into pupils' language from her perspective. All interviews were automatically recorded on KakaoTalk, so I collected the written data easily. I could elicit insightful information from the participants by using this application because they could express their thoughts or opinions in a more careful and refined way by texting it than when they talked about it. The further interview data was translated into English when necessary, as in the face-to-face interviews.

Interviews conducted in Green Hill

I carried out focus group interviews with pupils in Green Hill because I wanted to encourage them to share their ideas and thoughts with others in their own words. I also expected that pupils could share their thoughts or make comments more actively by being stimulated by other participants in the group (A. Gibbs, 2012; Robson, 2011). A focus group or a focus group interview refers to “a group interview on a specific topic which is where the focus comes from” (Robson, 2011, p. 294), and its distinction is that it is interactive (A. Gibbs, 2012). Within the group, participants generate a collective view rather than individual views by interacting with each other rather than with the interviewer (Cohen et al., 2011), and the participants are empowered to voice their opinions in their own words (Cohen et al., 2011; Robson, 2011). In order to elicit active participation and a collective view from participants, I developed the interview schedule for the pupils at Green Hill (Appendix 3.5).

Concerning the appropriate size of the group, opinions are different: Morgan (1998) claims that focus groups are best with six to ten people, whereas Flower (2009) argues that the optimum size of the group is six to eight people. In Green Hill, the numbers of participating pupils in Year 3 and Year 6 were seven and six respectively, and the numbers of pupils seemed to be appropriate to get pupils' collective views. Thus, I made two different groups according to year group, i.e. a Year 3 group of seven pupils and a Year 6 group of six pupils. As for the Year 6 group, one girl, who did not participate in observations, took part in the focus group, so her mother's additional oral consent was obtained later. In the focus

group interviews, pupils were allowed to use either English or Korean during the discussion. However, most pupils tried to use Korean or to codeswitch between Korean and English rather than to exclusively use English. Hence, pupils who were relatively fluent in Korean tended to dominate the discussion. Thus, I sometimes elicited responses from less advanced pupils by having all participants take turns to give their views.

Nine months after the focus group interviews were done, face-to-face interviews with three pupils in Year 6 were individually conducted as further interviews to complement the focus group interviews, based on the observation findings. The further interview schedule was developed (Appendix 3.6), and the further face-to-face individual interviews were carried out in Korean or English during break time in school, considering pupils' language proficiency and their preference. All interviews were transcribed and analysed along with observation findings.

3.5.3. Questionnaire survey

Ahead of the interviews, a questionnaire survey was conducted to gather background information related to participating pupils' L2 proficiency or experiences of using their L2. The questionnaires were made as two different versions of a paper-based self-completion questionnaire: Korean version (Appendix 3.7) and English version (Appendix 3.9). A self-completion questionnaire refers to a questionnaire requiring respondents to answer questions by filling out the questionnaire by themselves (Bryman, 2012; Robson, 2011). The participating pupils at The Boulevard were asked to answer the Korean version of questionnaire by themselves, and the participating pupils at Green Hill were asked to fill out the English version of questionnaire on their own. The questions and formats of the two versions were different because the participating pupils' contexts were not identical. The questionnaires were not made with the purpose of a statistical generalisation but designed and developed to gain each pupil's personal information in a time-saving way and to supplement the data of observation and interview.

The detailed information of the questionnaire survey conducted in each school is provided in what follows.

Questionnaire survey conducted in The Boulevard

A self-completion questionnaire for the pupils at The Boulevard consists of three items asking participants: demographic information such as school year, class name, name, and gender of the respondent; English (L2) proficiency; and their experiences in residing in English-speaking countries or studying in English international schools of non-English speaking countries (Appendix 3.7). In the question asking about English proficiency, examples of each level (i.e. good, fair, or poor) of English proficiency were provided to help pupils to self-identify how advanced their English proficiency was. The last question was open-ended in order for pupils to write briefly about their experiences of residing in English-speaking countries or studying in English international schools.

The questionnaires were distributed to the pupils with an explanation and then collected on the next day. On the basis of their responses to the questionnaire, I could understand each pupil's personal background related to their English proficiency and experiences in the use of English. The information from the questionnaire survey was useful as a supplementary resource for understanding and interpreting the data of observation and interviews. The questionnaire data which was gathered is tabulated in Appendix 3.8, and the analysis of the questionnaire data is briefly presented in Subsection 3.4.3, i.e. the Subsection of 'Participants'.

Questionnaire survey conducted in Green Hill

A self-completion questionnaire for the pupils at Green Hill was developed in English so that pupils who were more competent in English than Korean could understand and answer the questions easily and effectively (Appendix 3.9). The first part of the questionnaire is made up of demographic items asking the name, school year and gender of the respondent. The second part of the questionnaire

consists of five open-ended questions and one close-ended question, i.e. a multiple-choice question. The reason why many of questions were produced as open-ended questions is that the questionnaire was made for gaining each pupil's personalised information. The pupils' experiences and situations, which might have affected pupils' language use, were varied. In this respect, open-ended questions, which are good for capturing "the specificity of a particular situation", were relevant in my research (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 382). The open-ended questions were composed of five questions asking pupils' personal information regarding the birthplace, when to immigrate to the UK if the person was not born in the UK, home languages, and the L1 and L2. The multiple-choice question was to ask pupils to identify their level of Korean proficiency by choosing one from 'good', 'fair', and 'poor' on the basis of examples of Korean proficiency presented according to each level.

The questionnaire sheets were distributed to the pupils, along with an explanation of how to do the questionnaire. Pupils completed their questionnaire in class, and the completed questionnaires were collected on the same day. Like the questionnaire administrated to the pupils at The Boulevard, the questionnaire for the pupils at Green Hill was used as a valuable resource for gaining pupils' personal background information and for understanding and interpreting the data of observations and interviews. The questionnaire data for pupils at Green Hill is tabulated in Appendix 3.10, and the analysis of the questionnaire data is earlier presented in Subsection 3.4.3.

3.5.4. Documentation

Documents can play an important role in verifying and supporting other data (Yin, 2014). In my research, documentations, such as pupils' written outcomes and my emails sent to pupils' parents at Green Hill, were gathered to supplement and triangulate the other methods. In both schools, pupils' written outcomes which pupils produced individually or collectively during collective L2 tasks, such as their worksheets, posters and quiz answers, were gathered not only to understand pupils' language use but also to gain information about each session. The emails which I sent to Year 6 pupils' parents as their class teacher after school every

Saturday were also documented because the emails included information about what and how pupils were taught in each session. These documents were employed as evidence that aided in the comprehension of pupils' talk by giving understanding behind the scenes when transcribing and analysing pupils' talk collected from observation. They were helpful in developing a fuller and more comprehensive account of pupils' languages by giving descriptive and reflective information about each session. Policy documents such as National curriculum of Korea or lecture notes that were provided in an online Korean school teacher certification course were also reviewed in order to gain comprehensive understanding of the research contexts.

To summarise, I sought to make sense of pupils' actual language through enriched and comprehensive data gathered by employing observations, interviews, questionnaires and documentation. The data of observation, interview, questionnaire survey and other documentations provided a holistic picture of what was taking place during pupils' peer interaction at each research site.

The whole period of data collection is summarised in Table 3.7 and Figure 3.1. Table 3.7 tabulates the period for gathering data according to each research method and each school, and Figure 3.1 gives a one-stop view of the same information.

Table 3.7
The Period of Data Collection

Method \ School	The Boulevard	Green Hill
Observation	29 th May – 17 th June 2015	3 rd October 2015 – 13 th February 2016
Interview	Individual face to face interview Further individual interview (using KakaoTalk) 26 th February – 1 st March 2016	Focus group interview Further individual interview (face-to-face) 13 th February 2016 12 th November, 3 rd December 2016
Questionnaire survey	During the observation period	During the observation period
Documentation	Pupils' worksheet During the observation period	Pupils' written outcomes Emails sent to Year 6 pupils' parents During the observation period After each class during the observation period

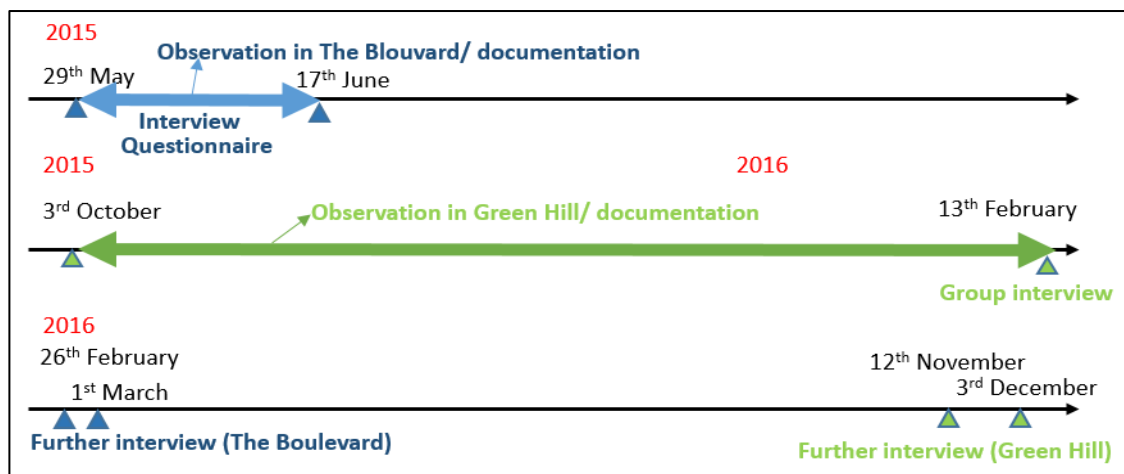


Figure 3.1. The period of data collection

3.6. Analytical framework

Thematic analysis is a useful and flexible tool for analysing qualitative data, in particular, identifying, analysing and reporting patterns emerging from the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Drawing on a step-by-step guide for thematic analysis that Braun and Clarke (2006) suggested, I identified particular aspects or patterns within my data set and analysed them, as below.

Familiarisation with the data

The recordings of observation were first transcribed. The work of transcribing was often challenging and even frustrating because the recordings included background noises from other groups of pupils, particularly in The Boulevard. Hence, it took a huge amount of time to check the transcripts back against the original recordings to ensure the accuracy of the transcripts.

A system of transcription was needed in order to produce transcripts that retained information that I needed. Thus, I developed a transcription convention fitting my research interest and aim, referencing transcription conventions by K. Richards' (2003) and Markee (2015), as shown in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8
Transcription Convention

Symbol	Description	Example from the data
.	Falling intonation	More pretty.
,	Continuing contour	But the hippo is,
?	Questioning intonation	Ten pounds?
!	Exclamatory utterance	No, no, no!

(.)	Micropause	The hippo is smaller than the (.)
(:)	Sound stretching	It is dirty(:).
...	Ellipsis, parts omitted	It's cuter than the...
(xxx)	Inaudible utterance unable to transcribe	It is prettier than the (xxx).
(word)	Dubious hearings or uncertain transcription	You can't (eat) just fish for the rest of your life.
((word))	Added by the researcher to make the utterance clear	((Your)) foot is large.
<Laughs>	Other details such as a verbal description of actions or contexts	<Laughs>
<u>[italics]</u>	Translation from Korean to English	잘해, 잘해. <u>[Go for it, go for it.]</u>
<i>italics</i>	English words originally uttered by the speaker in the utterance including English translation	You need 교복. <u>You need [school uniform].</u>
/eobu/	Romanisation of Korean characters (Hangul)	어부가 뭐야? <u>[What is /eobu/?]</u>
think*	Non-existing words	필가도구* <u>[wroting* instrument]</u>
>>THERE<<	The part of the utterance which is louder than the surrounding talk	>> THERE IS NO UNDERLINE, BUT WHY THE UNDERLINED WORDS' ...<<
.....	Some lines omitted	Suhyun: <Pretends to fart> Eew, eew Minho: And then

In transcripts of observations, Korean utterances are followed by their English translations in italics underlined and with square brackets. Particularly, if the speaker used both Korean and English within one utterance, the English translation of Korean words is provided along with English words that the speaker originally uttered. In this case, the English words originally uttered by the speaker are easily discerned because they are presented without the square brackets. Namely, English translation is only presented in the brackets to make the text more noticeable and readable.

With reference to transcribing the recordings of interview, the transcription convention was not needed because it was not relevant nor effective to apply this convention to transcribing the interview recordings. The recordings of interview were transcribed in the language that was originally used, and were translated into English when necessary. The interview data was used to provide interviewees' comments when the data was helpful for interpreting the observation data or supporting the interpretation. The interviewees' comments in italic were presented in place, being surrounded by double quotes, and the interviewee's pseudonym and the setting such as the interviewee's target language to learn, the interviewee's school and the interview date, were established in the text at the end of the quote.

Before transcribing data, I had some initial analytic interests or thoughts in relation to learners' language use, but these interests or thoughts had been changed as transcribing progressed. To put it concretely, I was only interested in the functions that learners' language serves before transcribing data, but I came to notice some other interesting aspects emerging, i.e. the distinct features of learners' language use, as transcribing progressed. I jotted down these initial ideas while transcribing. After transcribing was done, I read and reread what I had transcribed, searching for patterns or meanings from the data, and thereby could immerse myself in the data. I also added new ideas during this process.

Generating initial codes

After familiarising myself with the data, I generated initial codes from the data. The aim of coding was to identify interesting aspects emerging from the data set rather than to code the content of the entire data set. Coding was done both manually and through a software programme, NVivo. I first coded manually on printed transcripts. Reading and rereading the transcripts, I took notes on the texts that were of interest and highlighted them in different colours to identify different aspects. As a result, I could construct an initial list of ideas, i.e. a rough list of codes. Then, I processed data files into NVivo 11 and generated a list of nodes based on the previous coding work that I did manually. I continued revising the initial list of codes through the recurring process of reading the data repeatedly and coding the selected passages of text, which were later presented as extracts, at nodes. A node is not simply a label or tag, and coding is not just linking passages of text to a label (G. R. Gibbs, 2002). A node was used as a way of associating a theoretical notion or idea with passages of text that illustrate the notion or idea (G. R. Gibbs, 2002). Through this process, certain passages of texts were often collated within the relevant nodes.

At this phase, it was helpful to visualise what codes might combine to form a theme while sorting different codes into themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Themes, sub-themes, and codes were tabulated or diagrammatised, considering the relationship between codes, between sub-themes, between themes, and between themes, sub-themes and codes. The final outcomes of visualising are seen in Table 7.1, Table 7.2, Figure 7.1, and Figure 7.2 presented in Chapter Seven. As a result, a collection of candidate themes, sub-themes and codes was devised, and it was revised through the ongoing process of coding.

Searching for themes and reviewing themes

The codes were broadly sorted into two different main themes, i.e. language features and functions, with sub-themes. Through the refinement process, both sub-themes and codes that were redundantly generated were combined, refined,

separated or discarded. At this point, some sub-themes within the main theme, i.e. language features, such as L1 transfer, over-generalisation of L2 knowledge, creative use of language, and illeism (i.e. referring to oneself by one's name instead of the first person pronoun) were discarded, considering the validity of individual sub-themes in relation to the entire data set. After a satisfactory thematic map of the data was constructed, it was necessary to define and further refine the themes, sub-themes, and codes through the ongoing process.

Defining and naming themes

The eventual final themes are two different themes with sub-themes: distinct language features and overall functions that learners' languages serve. These themes with sub-themes and codes captured something important emerging from the data of observation and interview. On the basis of these themes and sub-themes, research questions were revised and refined.

The first theme, i.e. distinct features of learners' language use, has five sub-themes, namely codeswitching, repetition, interjection, onomatopoeia, and hesitation filler, under which its functions are coded. The second theme, overall functions that learners' languages serve, is composed of four sub-themes, content-related talk, metatalk, meta-task talk, and socio-affective talk, which are also called macro-functions. Each sub-theme consists of several codes, i.e. language functions. In other words, functions that learners' languages serve during peer interaction are grouped into four different sub-themes or macro-functions which refers to more comprehensive functions of language, and under the sub-themes, there were specific functions related to the purposes of using the language.

Producing the report

The sub-themes within the first theme, distinct language features, are related to the research question of how learners use their language during task-based peer interaction in primary L2 class. Learners' language was analysed under each sub-

theme to answer the question and the analysis is presented in three different chapters, i.e. Chapter Four to Six. The messages that these sub-themes separately or collectively imply are crucial in reporting the analysis of these sub-themes. Thus, the analysis of these sub-themes is presented, being separated or being partly combined according to the messages. Chapter Four deals with codeswitching, which shows that learners use their language as an emergent bilingual speaker rather than imperfect L2 speakers. Chapter Five addresses the sub-theme, repetition, which illustrates learners' strategic use of language. Chapter Six covers three sub-themes, i.e. interjection, onomatopoeia, and hesitation fillers, which collectively demonstrate how learners use language efficiently.

Within the second theme, i.e. the overall functions of L2 learners' language, the macro-functions (which are sub-themes) and functions (which are codes) collectively explain not only the overall functions that L2 learners' languages serve but also the reasons or purposes of learners' language use. The overall functions of learners' L1 and L2 are dealt with in relation to codeswitching which is one of the distinct language feature because the functions of codeswitching are closely related to the functions of L1 and L2. Thus, the overall functions are analysed alongside codeswitching in Chapter Four. The second theme is also tackled in order to explore what the functions or purposes associated with each feature are.

Also, the first and the second theme are sometimes simultaneously covered in the process of seeking the answers to the same or similar questions. Within the same question asking the teacher's and learners' perspectives, these two themes are explored either jointly or independently. This question is scatteringly answered throughout the chapters of analysis and discussion, i.e. Chapter Four to Seven. As for the similar question, the factors that affect learners' language use, which have to do with the second sub-question of the first research question and the third sub-question of the second research question, are sporadically addressed in Chapter Four to Six and intensively discussed in Chapter Seven, focusing on L2 only policy, school and classroom culture or atmosphere, L1 knowledge or experiences, prior knowledge or experiences of L2, linguistic characteristics of L1 and L2, L2 proficiency, group dynamics (involving interlocutors' L2 proficiency,

collaborative relationships or interlocutors' willingness to cooperate, interlocutors' willingness to communicate in L2), learner attributes, school year or age, and task-related factors (i.e. the nature of the task, the task type, the complexity of the task, and the time allotted in the task performance).

The relationship among these research questions, themes, and sub-themes is summarised in Table 3.9, and chapters with each information are also identified at the last column in this Table.

Table 3.9

The Relationship among Research Questions, Sub-questions, Themes, Sub-themes, and Chapters

Research questions	Sub-questions	Themes	Sub-themes	Chapter
1. How do learners use their language during task-based peer interaction in L2 class of primary school?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the distinct features emerging from learners' language use? • What are the factors that influence learners' language use in terms of the features of language that learners use? 	Features	Codeswitching	4, 7
			Repetition	5, 7
			Interjection	6, 7
			Onomatopoeia	6, 7
			Hesitation filler	6, 7
2. Why do learners use their language during task-based peer interaction in L2 class of primary school?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the overall functions that learners' languages serve? • What are the 	Functions	Content-related talk, metatalk, meta-task talk, socio-affective talk	4, 7
			Features	Codeswitching

		functions associated with the distinct features emerging from learners' language use?	Repetition	5, 7
			Interjection	6, 7
			Onomatopoeia	6, 7
			Hesitation filler	6, 7
		• What are the factors that influence learners' language use in terms of the functions of language that learners use?	Content-related talk, metatalk, meta-task talk, socio-affective talk	4, 7
			Codeswitching	4, 7
			Repetition	5, 7
	Features		Interjection	6, 7
		• What are the teacher's and learners' perspectives on the practice of learners' language use?	Onomatopoeia	6, 7
			Hesitation filler	6, 7
			Content-related talk, metatalk, meta-task talk, socio-affective talk	4, 7

In each chapter, data extracts that match and demonstrate the functions associated with the distinct features are presented with analysis. The data extracts are excerpted from the observation data of the two cases, and the interview data is sporadically presented as the supplementary resource for interpreting the observation data or supporting the interpretation. Data gathered from documentation and questionnaire survey is used in not only describing research contexts and participants but also gaining contextual information of each extract.

3.7. Trustworthiness

Issues of bias and rigour can be problematic in qualitative research because there is normally a close relationship between the researcher and the context, and between the researcher and participants (Robson & McCartan, 2016). Hence, it is necessary to establish trustworthiness by minimising the risk of bias and ensuring rigour in qualitative research. In my study, particularly, which was conducted in Green Hill, it was important to ensure rigour and to eliminate the potential for bias because I was not only a researcher but also a teacher, who was familiar with the context and had a deep rapport with pupils.

Common threats to trustworthiness in qualitative research can be identified as three sources of bias: reactivity, researcher biases, and respondent biases (Padgett, 2016). Reactivity refers to a bias emerging when participants' belief and behaviours are affected by the researcher's presence, and researcher biases occur when prejudice and personal opinions of the researcher influence observations and interpretations (Padgett, 2016). Respondent biases are the tendency of a participant to answer inaccurately or falsely to questions. This issue can be awkward to deal with to a certain extent because it suggests that the participants' reliability and frankness are in doubt (Padgett, 2016).

In order to reduce these threats and ensure the trustworthiness of my study, I first extended the period of research in Green Hill because the prolonged engagement was useful for minimising both reactivity and respondent bias (Robson & McCartan, 2016). Prolonged engagement is to spend time enough to reach certain goals: understand the culture; inspect false or inaccurate information gained by distortions either of the researcher himself/herself or of the participants; and construct trust (Lincoln & Denzin, 1985). The researcher who spends sufficient time in the context is likely to gain acceptance and the risk of initial reactivity reduces (Robson & McCartan, 2016). Also, participants tend to give less biased information, being based on deep relationship with the researcher (Robson & McCartan, 2016). Through this prolonged involvement, I was able to not only develop a trusting relationship with participants but also gain more valid

information from participants.

Another way used to reduce the risk of biases was to employ a multi-method of data collection, i.e. observation, interviews, documents, and questionnaire survey. The use of multiple sources embodies an endeavour to obtain a comprehensive and thorough understanding of the phenomenon under scrutiny (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). This is not only useful for ensuring the rigour of the research but also helpful for lowering all of the threats to validity (Robson & McCartan, 2016). I was able to avoid the issues such as intrinsic biases or weakness caused by a single method and to facilitate the validity of the results, by exploring the research questions from different angles through a multi-method approach (Maxwell, 2009).

Lastly, member checking also contributed to establishing the credibility of my study. Member checking, the most significant technique for strengthening credibility, is to provide members (i.e. participants) the opportunity to check or approve “data, analytic categories, interpretations and conclusions” of the original information gathered (Lincoln & Denzin, 1985, p. 314). Before doing further interviews, participating pupils and the teacher at The Boulevard were sent video clips that they contributed during observation sessions in order to elicit their interpretations of the data or to ask them to check particular aspects of accounts and interpretations that I had made. Also, I showed some transcripts of observation recordings to pupils at Green Hill for the same purposes before further interviews with them. Member checking was a useful tool for showing participants that I valued their perspectives and involvement as well as lowering researcher bias (Robson & McCartan, 2016).

3.8. *Ethical considerations*

In my study, I followed the ethical guidelines for educational research published by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2011). In 2018, some changes to the 4th edition BERA regulations occurred with implications to future research. However, these changes occurred post-date of my research, so the

changes were not a significant consideration in my study. On the other hand, my study complies with the most recent General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) which came into effect in 2018. I also received approval from IOE ethics prior to approaching participants or collecting any data

Ethical issues should be carefully considered in reporting as well as conducting the research. Among ethical issues, a central element of the ethical research practice is to obtain informed consent from participants (Wiles, Crow, Heath, & Charles, 2008). Informed consent stems from participants' right to make decisions to participate in the research for themselves (Cohen et al., 2011). Consent from participants is worthwhile and useful only if it is provided on an informed basis (Shaw, Brady, & Davey, 2011). Thus, the researcher should offer sufficient and relevant information about research so that the participants can make an informed decision on participation before seeking their consents and starting data-gathering (Crow, Wiles, Heath, & Charles, 2006; Shaw et al., 2011). In addition, the researcher may need "several layers of permission from gatekeepers" to undertake research with children (Shaw et al., 2011, p. 27). According to the Guidelines for Research with Children and Young People published by the National Children's Bureau (NCB) Research Centre (Shaw et al., 2011), it is required to ask permission from parents or other gate keepers to approach the child under the age of 16. Based on the consideration of these ethical issues, I gained informed consent from not only participants but also stakeholders such as principals, class teachers, English subject teachers, and parents.

How participants were recruited and how they were fully informed was slightly different in each school. In The Boulevard, I gained permission from the principal, teachers, and parents before gaining consent from participants. Before contacting pupils in The Boulevard, I had prior contact with the principal to explain what my research involved and how it was going to proceed, and I gained the principal's permission to carry out my research project with pupils in the school. Then, I individually met English language teachers and observation class teachers in order to introduce my research project and gain their consent. I also visited each observation class to introduce how I would conduct the research with pupils so that pupils could fully understand it and decide whether or not to agree to take

part. After verbally explaining the research aims, participants' involvement and the research process including ethical issues, I distributed an information letter and consent form to pupils and collected their consent form on the next day. I also sent the informed consent letter to pupils' parents in order to enable them to fully understand the research process and ethical issues. Pupils who submitted both their own and their parents' consent forms to permit participation took part in my research project. All participating teachers, pupils and their parents were also informed that participants had the right to decide to take part, refuse, or withdraw from the research at any time.

Similarly, in Green Hill, I obtained the principal's permission first, and then I could gain consent from pupils and their parents after distributing the informed consent letter to them. Especially, as for pupils, I articulated the aims and process of my research project and pupils' involvement and contribution. Then, I provided them with the informed consent letter, which was written in English for them to understand more clearly. Before gaining participants' consent, I informed clearly, through both face-to-face talk and the written information letters, participants' rights to decide to take part, to refuse or to withdraw from my research at any time. I also articulated that the participating pupils could withdraw without any adverse consequences because pupils and their parents might be concerned about the results in the case of refusal or withdrawal from the research project because I was their teacher.

Anonymity and confidentiality of participants were other main issues in the ethical conduct of my research. When reporting on research, the anonymity of participants should be respected (Robson, 2011). In order for the participants not to be identifiable, I used pseudonyms instead of their real names and preserved their anonymity. I also sought participants' confidentiality by concealing their names or identities through the use of pseudonyms, because anonymity is one way in which confidentiality is protected (Wiles et al., 2008). Confidentiality not only means anonymisation of data but also means not revealing personal information intentionally or unintentionally in ways that might disclose the participant's identity (Robson, 2011; Wiles et al., 2008). Thus, I did not give any clues to identify who was who when I reported on research. Particularly, as for a

pupil at Green Hill whose home languages were three different languages, the detailed information of his third language, which might enable an indication of who the pupil was, was not reported (Appendix 3.10). Also, the questionnaire used in Green Hill had separate questions asking about home languages when pupils who had siblings conversed with their parents and their siblings (Appendix 3.9), but the home languages were presented in an integrated manner when reporting on the research (Appendix 3.10) because the answer might be a clue to reveal the pupil's identification. In addition, the gathered data and back-ups were stored on devices with a secure access code.

Last but not least, power relations were also an important consideration that was taken into account in my study because most of the participants were children. The process of conducting research may introduce issues of power between the researcher and participants. Particularly, children may think that adults have the power to direct or control all areas of life, and this belief may be duplicated in the research process (Kuchah & Pinter, 2012). In my study, it was necessary to reduce the power imbalance or break the power differential that might arise from hierarchical relations of power, i.e. not only an adult-child interaction but also a teacher-pupil interaction. Thus, I had to manage the power gap between pupils and me as a researcher and a teacher.

In order for the pupils to feel free to participate in the research project, I first informed them that they had the power to decide whether they would take part by clearly explaining that they could refuse to participate in the research project and withdraw at any time, without being asked to explain their decision. In addition, the pupil's opinion took precedence over parents' opinion with respect to participating the research project when they were in conflict. For example, when a pupil was not willing to take part even though his mother wanted him to, I respected the pupil's opinion. Also, I carefully checked that pupils still happily and readily wanted to take part in the research project throughout the observation and the interview because it may be one of the effective ways of reducing the power imbalance to monitor that children willingly continue participating in the research project throughout the research period (Kirk, 2007).

Another useful way to reduce the power differential between children and an adult in research is to spend time becoming familiar with the children and to ask children for their help (Pinter & Zandian, 2013). I spent time getting familiar with pupils and told them why their help would be meaningful during interview in The Boulevard and before the observation period in Green Hill, where the flexible use of time was available. I also ensured that the purpose of this research was not judging nor evaluating children's achievement. The better understanding of pupils and the request for their help were worthwhile ways not only to build rapport but also to draw more active participation from pupils, thereby resulting in richer data. In addition, I tried to make a friendly atmosphere for pupils to feel free to give their views and experiences during interview.

The last way that I used in order to to reduce the power imbalance was to give pupils control over video cameras and audio recorders during observation sessions. It is a good way for managing the power difference between children and adults to provide children more control over recorders (Kirk, 2007). Children participating in my study actually seemed to not only take an active part in but also enjoy the research project by controlling the recording gadget.

All these efforts to reduce the power imbalance were beneficial for not only constructing mutually respectful relationships with pupils but also gaining richer and more meaningful data that provided insights to challenge my perspective and to influence the interpretation in a positive way.

3.9. Summary

This chapter dealt with the research paradigm, the research design, and the research methods of my study. Within the philosophical framework of social constructivism, a multiple-method approach was taken in the form of a collective case study, and multiple sources of data including observations, interviews, questionnaire surveys and documents were adopted in this study. The observation was conducted to look into pupils' language use occurring naturally in intact classroom settings, i.e. the ordinary L2 classrooms. As a supplementary

method to observation, the interview was carried out to explore learners' language use from diverse viewpoints and to comprehend the context that the participants belonged to. Also, a simple questionnaire survey was conducted to understand pupils' personal background related to their language use and L2 proficiency as a supplementary data collection. Finally, documents such as pupils' written outcomes and the researcher's emails to pupils' parents were gathered as a complementary source of other data. Such a research design and research methods provided rich and interesting data concerning pupils' language use during peer interaction for performing their L2 task. This multiple-method research design also enhanced the triangulation and trustworthiness of the qualitative research.

Chapter 4 Using language as an emergent bilingual

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents analysis and interpretations of Second Language (L2) learners' codeswitching, which was most frequently shown in the data of learners' language use in both contexts, i.e. The Boulevard, which was a state primary school in Seoul, and Green Hill, which was a Korean Saturday school in London. Codeswitching, which is one of sub-themes of the main theme, distinct features of L2 learners' language use, is analysed along with the overall functions that learners' L1 and L2 serve, because codeswitching is the process of shifting between these two languages. Thus, this chapter deals with how and why learners switched their language in terms of overall language functions. The following two sections address codeswitching occurring on the interpersonal plane and the intrapersonal plane respectively.

Before qualitatively analysing learners' language use with respect to codeswitching, quantification of the use of language is discussed here because it can offer an overview of learners' language use. All occurrences of L1 words or L2 words within the observation data were identified through counting L1 and L2 words respectively after removing speakers' names and other details such as verbal description of actions or contexts from the original data set. In other words, L1 and L2 words from what was purely uttered by learners were counted via word-count function in Microsoft Word. Counting L1 and L2 words involved subtracting the number of L2 words and L1 words respectively from the total number of words. After the numbers of L1 and L2 words were calculated, each quantity is converted into percentage to facilitate the comparison of the language use across the contexts, as in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1
The Amount of L1 Use and L2 Use across the Contexts

Contexts	The Boulevard	Green Hill	Total
L1 words	40.94% (N=2,884)	60.92% (N=5,403)	52.07% (N=8,287)
L2 words	59.06% (N=4,161)	39.08% (N=3,466)	47.93% (N=7,627)
Total	100% (N=7,045)	100% (N=8,869)	100% (N=15,914)

The result shows that learners' use of L1 was found to be a pervasive feature of learners' talk during task-based peer interaction, occupying more than half of the total words (52.07%). It also reveals that Korean as a Heritage Language (KHL) learners tended to use L1 words more (60.92%) than English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners (40.94%). The difference in the amount of L1 and L2 use in these two contexts seems to have been related to various factors such as school and classroom culture or atmosphere and task-related factors, which are in detail discussed in Chapter Seven as well as the following sections of this Chapter.

This statistic analysis provides some information of learners' language use, but this is only an extremely small part of the whole. It does not inform us as to why and how learners used their L1 and L2. Namely, it does not account for the functions that learners' languages served in the performance of the tasks or the codeswitching types that learners used. Thus, the following sections present and discuss the functions of languages and the types of codeswitching that learners used during the tasks, along with extracts that illustrate the issues being studied, on the basis of qualitative analysis.

4.2. Using codeswitching on the interpersonal plane

On the interpersonal plane, pupils frequently moved back and forth between the two languages, i.e. L1 and L2, while performing their L2 tasks collaboratively with others, even though the instruction from the teacher was to use only L2 in class. Pupils' codeswitching was natural. Pupils normally unconsciously employed codeswitching but sometimes reverted back to L2 because of teachers' intervention. Codeswitching occurs at two different levels such as within the sentence or clause boundary, or at the sentence boundary (Myers-Scotton, 1993). In other words, codeswitching can be syntactically identified into two types: intra-sentential codeswitching and inter-sentential codeswitching. Intra-sentential codeswitching involves codeswitching within a sentence or clause boundary, whereas inter-sentential codeswitching refers to codeswitching occurring at a sentence or clause boundary, where each sentence or clause is uttered either in one language or in the other language (Qian, Tian, & Wang, 2009).

In this section, learners' codeswitching appearing on the interpersonal plane is dealt with and its functions are analysed, along with the overall functions that learners' L1 and L2 serve. Language functions were broadly categorised into four sub-themes: content-related talk, metatalk, meta-task talk, and socio-affective talk. These macro-functions suggest insightful ideas as to why pupils used the language, i.e. the purposes of using the language, through offering grouped functions. All these macro-functions are related to communicative functions to some degree. The former three macro-functions, i.e. content-related talk, metatalk, and meta-task talk, are more concerned with cognitive functions and the last macro-function, i.e. socio-affective talk, has to do with social or affective functions.

4.2.1. Content-related talk

Content-related talk refers to utterances related to generating or discussing content or outcome of the task. Pupils frequently switched from L1 to L2 when they generated task content, such as lines of a role-play script or a summary of

what was told, irrespective of whether it was at a sentence level or within a sentence boundary.

Extract 4.1 provides an example of learners' use of inter-sentential codeswitching and their use of L2 when they generated content. The task required each group of pupils to collaboratively create their own role-play script by deciding how to fill in the blanks of the worksheet, 'Role-play: Who is bigger?' (Figure 4.1). To complete their role-play script, pupils had to discuss and put comparative forms of adjectives or objects of the preposition, 'than', in blanks.

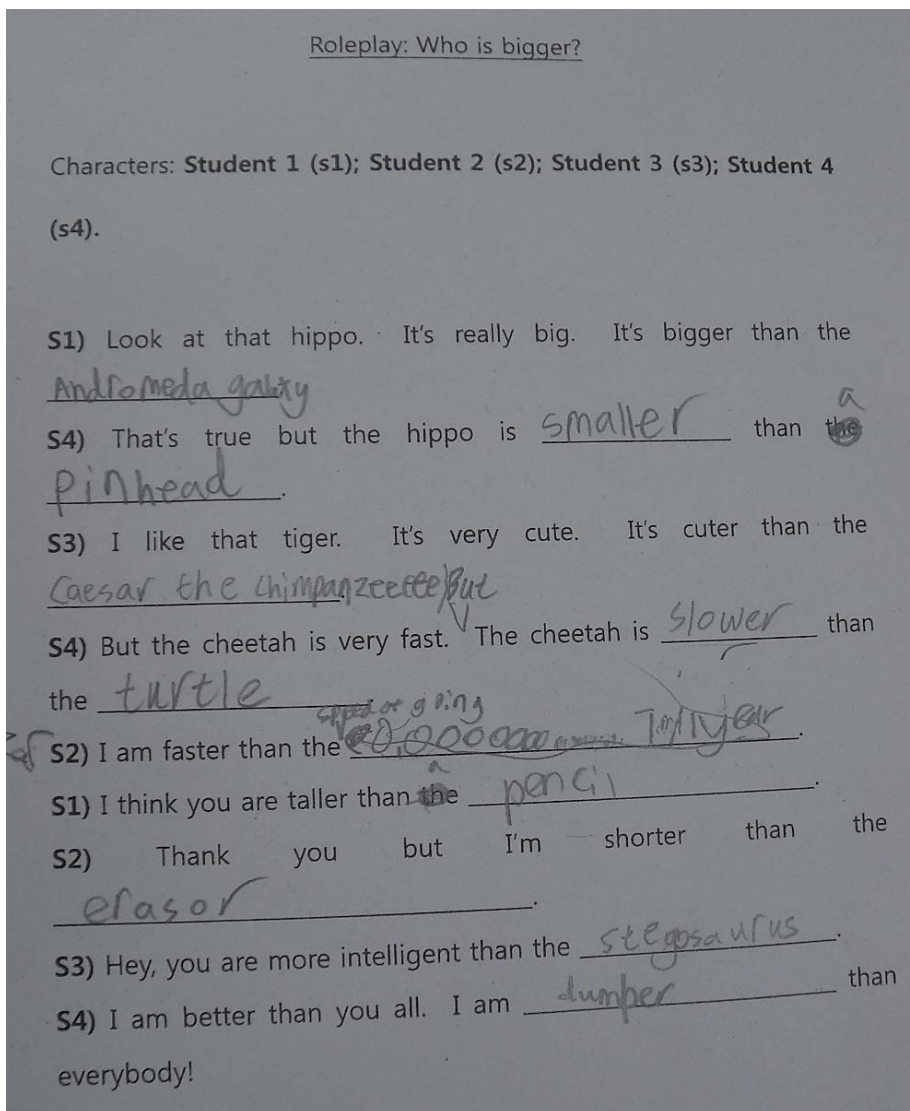


Figure 4.1. The role-play worksheet (EFL learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

Extract 4.1

Inter-sentential Codeswitching for Generating Content (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Huiju: 근데, 어째든 파트, 파트를 정리해야할 것 같아, 파트.
2 [By the way, anyway, I think we should make clear our roles,
3 roles, roles.]
4 Jinwoo: <Reads the second line> But the hippo is,
5 Jaeseok: More pretty.
6 Jinwoo: Smaller.
7 Jaeseok: <Glances at Jinwoo> more pretty than the <xxx>. <Laughs>
8 Huiju: <Points at the second line of the script> but the hippo is
9 smaller than the (.)
10 Jinwoo: Smaller than the pinhead. 어때? 말이 안되니까 웃긴거지.
11 Smaller than the pinhead. [How is it? It's funny because it
12 doesn't make sense.]
13 Jaeseok: <Reads the second line> That's true, but the hippo is uglier
14 than, more pretty than the, 어 [er],

After Huiju suggested in L1 that they should allocate their roles in this role-play (line 1), Jinwoo switched the code of this conversation from L1 to L2 at the sentence level by reading out one line of the worksheet (line 4). This code was kept all through the conversation until Jinwoo invited others to evaluate his idea and justified why his idea was funny, using L1 (line 11). Immediately after Jinwoo's talk, Jaeseok switched the code again from L1 to L2 by reading out the second line and adding his own idea in L2 rather than responding to Jinwoo's talk (lines 14 and 15). Irrespective of L2 proficiency and the school year, this codeswitching pattern occurred frequently in the data set of The Boulevard, where pupils often employed inter-sentential codeswitching and exclusively used L2 while generating the task content or outcome. The reason for this might be due to the nature of tasks. Tasks set in The Boulevard generally required pupils to practice or produce target sentences in L2. Hence, pupils tended to employ inter-sentential codeswitching rather than intra-sentential codeswitching, and to have resorted to L2 when they generated content for their task outcome.

Pupils at Green Hill, however, more frequently used intra-sentential codeswitching when they generated content than inter-sentential codeswitching. Extract 4.2 gives an example of pupils' intra-sentential codeswitching, i.e. codeswitching within the sentence boundary, while summarising what was told. The task

required Joongki to first read teacher's words written in L2 regarding a school fieldtrip to Hyde Park (Figure 4.2) and then deliver what he read to his partner, Jake. Jake was required to write the summary of what was told on his worksheet (Figure 4.3).

Extract 4.2

Intra-sentential Codeswitching for Generating Content (KHL Learners in Year 3 at Green Hill)

- 1 Joongki: You'll be allowed to bring ten pounds.
 2 Jake: Ten pounds?
 3 Joongki: Yeah.
 4 Jake: 십, 십. Right there? Okay. <Writes '£10'> Like this? 그냥 ten
 5 pounds. <Writes '그냥' beside '£10'> 그, 그냥. Joongki,
 6 <Points at what he has written> like this?
 7 [Ten, ten.] Right there? Okay. (Writes '£10') Like this? [Just]
 8 ten pounds. <Writes '그냥' [Just]' beside '£10'> [Ju, just].
 9 Joongki, <Points at what he has written> like this?
 10 Joongki: Yeah, um, a lunch box.
 11 Jake: Er, how do you spell that?
 12 Joongki: Just write 도시락.
 13 Just write [lunch box].
 14 Jake: <Writes '도시락'.> 도(.) 시(.) 락(.) 다했어요.
 15 <Writes '도시락' [lunch box]'> [Lunch(.) box(.) I'm done.]
 16 Joongki: No, no, no.
 17 Jake: 안 다했어요.
 18 [I'm not done.]
 19 Joongki: You need 교복.
 20 You need [school uniform].
 21
 22 Joongki: Over it, over it, 따뜻한,
 23 Over it, over it, [warm]
 24 Jake: 어? [Huh?]
 25 Joongki: 따뜻한 잠바.
 26 [Warm jacket.]

알림장 쓰기 학습지	
3학년 이름 ()	
<p>1. 아래에 있는 선생님의 말씀을 읽고 내용을 이해한 후 쪽에게 이야기해 주세요.</p> <p>선생님 말씀:</p> <p>다음 주 월요일에 지하철을 타고 하이드파크(Hyde Park)에 있는 윈터 원더랜드 (Winter Wonderland)로 겨울 현장학습을 갑니다. 용돈은 10 파운드 이하로 가지고 올 수 있고, 도시락은 필요 없습니다. 교복 위에 따뜻한 잠바를 입고, 월요일 아침 9시까지 늦지 않게 학교에 오도록 합니다.</p>	<p>2. 쪽이 들려주는 말을 듣고, 중요내용을 알림장에 써보세요.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">< 알 림 장 ></p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>

Figure 4.2. The worksheet for the summary (Type A, KHL learners in Year 3 at Green Hill)

알림장 쓰기 학습지	
3학년 이름 ()	
<p>2. 쪽이 들려주는 말을 듣고, 중요내용을 알림장에 써보세요.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">< 알 림 장 ></p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	<p>1. 아래에 있는 선생님의 말씀을 읽고 내용을 이해한 후 쪽에게 이야기해 주세요.</p> <p>선생님 말씀:</p> <p>내일 버스를 타고 트라팔가 광장(Trafalgar Square)과 내셔널갤러리(National Gallery)로 현장학습을 갑니다. 간단한 간식과 용돈을 가지고 오는데, 용돈은 10 파운드 이하로 가지고 올 수 있습니다. 교복을 입고 간단한 필기도구를 가지고 내일 아침 8시 30분까지 늦지 않게 학교에 오도록 합니다.</p>

Figure 4.3. The worksheet for the summary (Type B, KHL learners in Year 3 at Green Hill)

In this conversation, both Joongki and Jake resorted to L1 to produce the task outcome except for when the words presented in the worksheet were being uttered. Jake codeswitched from L1 to L2 when he needed to utter words that he thought he had to write in L2 (lines 4, 5 and 14). Joongki also codeswitched from L1 to L2 to help Jake write by pinpointing what Jake should write (line 12), and kept using intra-sentential codeswitching to enable Jake to perform the task properly (lines 19, 22 and 25). Not until Jake asked Joongki about how to spell 도시락 [*lunch box*] (line 11) did Joongki resort to L1, even when he said what Jake should write in L2 (lines 1 and 10), even though Joongki had the advanced level of L2 proficiency. Before Jake's question, Joongki uttered ten pounds and lunch box in L1 instead of their equivalent L2 vocabulary, 십 파운드 and 점심 도시락 respectively. Jake's question might have enabled Joongki with more advanced L2 proficiency to notice how to scaffold Jake with less advanced L2 proficiency to perform his task successfully. Hence, Joongki used intra-sentential codeswitching, i.e. L1 utterances inserted with L2 words, as a mediational tool for providing Jake with scaffolded help. Even though Joongki's L2 proficiency was advanced enough to deliver what he read in L2, Joongki seems to have exclusively used L1 to help Jake understand what he should write. In this respect, learners' codeswitching or L1, whether intentionally or not, may be used as an effective mediational tool for providing the scaffolded help. Joongki and Jake's dependence on L1 also shows that their priority was to produce the task outcome successfully within the given time rather than to communicate or negotiate in L2.

As mentioned above, pupils at Green Hill used intra-sentential codeswitching more frequently than pupils at The Boulevard when they generated content. The possible explanation for this might have been due to differences in the nature of tasks typically set in each school context. The task given in The Boulevard was designed for L2 learners to practice or produce target expressions with a certain structure in a meaningful way. Hence, pupils at The Boulevard might have had to codeswitch from L1 to L2 at a sentence level to utter the target sentences. They might also have been able to naturally resort to L2 to generate the target sentences or expressions to produce the task outcome. On the other hand, the task set in Green Hill was originally designed as an L1 language development

task for L1 learners to communicate and summarise what was said and then redesigned for L2 learners to carry out in L2. No specific target structures or expressions were provided nor necessary. Hence, learners at Green Hill were likely to use their language randomly and spontaneously. They were also likely to resort to intra-sentential codeswitching and L1 because they could produce the summary written in L2 by negotiating or discussing the content through using L2 words inserted in their L1 utterances.

L2 learners also codeswitched between L1 and L2 in order to discuss the content. Both Year 3 and Year 6 pupils in the two schools employed intra-sentential codeswitching or resorted to L1 to discuss what was to be included in their task outcome. In Extract 4.3, pupils discussed what words to put in the blanks of the worksheet in order to complete the role-play script.

Extract 4.3

Discussing Content (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Jaeseok: <Reads a line> Hey, you are more intelligent than <Adds his
2 idea> the hippo.
- 3 Jinwoo: 아냐. 어, 멍청한 동물 뭐가..., 스테고사우루스!
4 [No way, er, what a stupid animal ..., Stegosaurus!]
- 5 Huiju: <Smiles, but with intention of disagreement> 야!
6 <Smiles, but with intention of disagreement> [Hey!]
- 7 Jinwoo: 스테고사우루스, 엄청 <Hits his own head> 멍청이야. Walnut
8 두 개, <Shapes two walnuts with his hands> 뇌가 walnut 두
9 개 사이즈야. 몸통에 비해서 엄청 멍청이지.
10 [Stegosaurus is terribly <Hits his own head> stupid. Two]
11 walnut, <Shapes two walnuts with his hands> [his brain is two-
12 walnut size. Compared to his body, he is terribly stupid.]
- 13 Huiju: Walnut 두개 사이즈라고?
14 [Is his brain two-walnut size?]
- 15 Jinwoo: 어.
16 [Yea.]
- 17 Huiju: 헐!
18 [Oh, my!]
- 19 Jinwoo: Walnut 두 개 사이즈야.
20 [It's two-walnut size.]
- 21 Jaeseok: 어떻게 뇌가 그렇게 작아?
22 [How is the brain so small?]

23 Jinwoo: 어떤 과학자가 이걸 엄청나게 집중해서, 원래 그 전에는
 24 <Shapes a walnut with his left hand> walnut 한 개 사이즈라고
 25 생각했었거든, 사람들이. 근데, walnut <Shapes two walnuts
 26 with his two hands> 두 개 사이즈라는 >>아주 막대한<<,
 27 <Jaeseok laughs, and Jinwoo smiles> 발견을 해냈어.
 28 [A scientist did (study) this very hard. Before him, people
 29 thought (its) brain is <Shapes a walnut with his left hand> one-
 30 walnut size. But (he) discovered >>THE GREAT<< thing
 31 <Jaeseok laughs, and Jinwoo smiles> that (its brain) was the
 32 two-walnut <Shapes two walnuts with his two hands> size.]
 33 Huiju: <Laughs.>
 34 Jinwoo: 엄청 대단한 발견이지?
 35 [It's a terribly great discovery, isn't it?]
 36 Huiju: 알았어. 스테고사우루스 써.
 37 [I see. Write stegosaurus.]
 38 Jaeseok: 뇌가 크다고 똑똑한 건 아닌데.
 39 [I can't say that his brain size guarantees his intelligence.]

After Jaeseok suggested putting ‘hippo’ as a less intelligent animal in a blank (lines 1 and 2), Jinwoo switched the language code from L2 to L1 at the sentence level while thinking aloud about one of stupid animals to be put in the blank (line 3). Then, Jinwoo kept using L1 in order to persuade others to agree with his idea, except for only one word, i.e. ‘walnut’, which was used to emphasise how small a stegosaurus’ brain was (lines 7 and 8). Jaeseok and Huiju also resorted to L1 when they talked about stegosaurus (lines 13 and 21). Jinwoo justified in L1 why stegosaurus should be chosen as a less intelligent animal, comparing its brain with two walnuts, and they finally reached an agreement on what to put in the blank (line 37). Here, learners’ L1 seems to have elicited more active participation and to have facilitated learners’ discussion. It may be natural for learners to negotiate in L1 because L1 can complement an insufficient L2 competence in complex social interactions with potential for disagreement (Macaro, 2005).

Learners, sometimes uses both inter-sentential and intra-sentential codeswitching, relying on L2 when they discussed content, as shown in Extract 4.4. The task being worked on here was to choose four jobs necessary for survival on Earth after a huge flood and then to justify their choice.

Extract 4.4

Use of L1 Words Embedded in L2 Utterance for Discussing Content (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minho: You don't need, no, I got it. We have a farmer. 더 seed
2 아니면 breed하는 거 더 필요하잖아. 그것을 맨날 breed하고
3 맨날 해야 되는데, fish는 그냥 물이 필요하고 그냥 거기 밑에
4 breed하고 더, 더 혼자 할 수 있잖아. 그냥 하고 어부는 그냥
5 fish하고 가지고 갈 수 있잖아.
6 You don't need, no, I got it. We have a farmer. [It is needed
7 more] seed, [or to] breed. [(We) should] breed [it every day
8 and do every day, but for] fish, [just water is needed, and (fish
9 can) breed by themselves. A fisherman can just] fish [and take
10 them].
11 Hyunbin: Was that oil spilt over the sea? Then, fish (xxx).
12 Minho: What?

Minho first uttered in L1 to put forward his opinion (line 1), and codeswitched from L1 to L2 at the sentence level (line 1). Then, he mainly used L2 along with several L1 words even though his L2 utterances consisted of imperfect sentences (lines 1 to 5). He tried to persuade Hyunbin by logically explaining why a farmer, instead of a fisherman, should be included in the four jobs necessary for surviving on the ruined earth after disastrous flood (lines 1 to 5). In other words, Minho used inter-sentential codeswitching, followed by L2 utterances and intra-sentential codeswitching in order to justify why a farmer was necessary. Hyunbin codeswitched back to L1 at the sentence level and then refuted Minho's opinion (line 11).

Pupils' codeswitching from L1 to L2 for discussing content did not frequently occur, but it was observed during interactions between pupils with more advanced L2 proficiency, shown in Extract 4.4 above. Minho's inter-sentential codeswitching from L1 to L2 seems to have been due to his conscious effort to use L2 because his teacher reminded him of using L2 immediately before the interaction captured in this Extract. Even though Minho's L2 utterances were redundant and not technically correct, his L2 utterances still served the purpose of delivering his thinking or opinion, which L1 usually served. It is also notable that Minho's use of intra-sentential codeswitching seems to have happened unconsciously and naturally with a communicative purpose for continuing his speech despite lexical

problems. Particularly, Minho made use of certain L1 lexical items, such as seed, breed and fish, in his L2 utterance (lines 1 to 5). One reason for this was presumably that Minho needed much less time to retrieve those words in L1 than in L2. Hence, he might have chosen intra-sentential codeswitching in order to overcome communication breakdowns that might have been caused by a lack of L2 lexical resources and to hold the floor, i.e. to keep talking without allowing Hyunbin to interrupt when he could not recall the appropriate L2 words immediately. In this respect, the speaker's shift of the language code may function as a communication strategy for eliciting oral participation from the speaker himself (Greggio & Gil, 2007). In addition, the switch from L2 to L1 may function as a spontaneous way of dealing with slow retrieval of certain L2 lexical items (Eldridge, 1996). Therefore, L2 learners' codeswitching may function as a useful communication strategy, particularly among L2 learners who share the same L1. In the interview, Junghwa claimed that intra-sentential codeswitching, i.e. embedding L1 words into L2 utterances, could be used as a strategy for better communication. She told that Korean, which was her L1, could be used if a person did not know how to say something in English at all. *"(The necessary moment when Korean is needed is) when you can't explain this (in English) at all. When you don't know (how to say) without using Korean, you can say the word (that you don't know in English) in Korean within an English sentence"* (Junghwa, EFL learner in Year 6 at The Boulevard, Interview, 29, February 2016). Minji also supported this interpretation by saying that she inserted a Korean word into an English sentence when she did not know the word in English. *"(When my friends and I carry out English tasks), we use English most of time. But if there is a word that we don't know (in English), we say the word in Korean"* (Minji, EFL learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard, Interview, 3, June 2015).

Extract 4.5 illustrates learners' use of intra-sentential codeswitching, i.e. embedding L2 words into their L1 utterances while discussing what jobs were necessary to survive on Earth. While Extract 4.4 above demonstrates the intra-sentential codeswitching, i.e. inserting L1 words into L2 utterances, used as a communication strategy, Extract 4.5 below shows another intra-sentential codeswitching, i.e. inserting L2 words into L1 utterances, used as a communication strategy.

Extract 4.5

Use of L2 Words Embedded in L1 Utterance for Discussing Content (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minho: Anyway, if you fry, if you make that heated, yeah, you can
2 actually eat it and then they'll give a lot of energy. And 의사
3 [*doctor*], 의사 [*doctor*], wait, 아줌마 [*ma'am*] would have, like,
4 Hyunbin: Baby.
5 Minho: Yeah, baby and properly and do all the cooking and those
6 stuffs. And then 의사 [*doctor*], will help that 아줌마 [*ma'am*]
7 gets the baby out and if that any medical things, that they
8 can help anything.
9
10 Minho: Okay.
11 Hyunbin: We don't have a professor.
12 Minho: I said 의사 [*doctor*], doctor.
13 I said [*doctor*], doctor.
14 Hyunbin: So, builder. 아줌마 [*ma'am*], builder, 의사 [*doctor*], farmer.
15 Minho: <Laughs> Just keep it like that. We can just explain that
16 when we do.

Minho and Hyunbin uttered L2 words, '의사 [*doctor*]' and '아줌마 [*ma'am*]', several times during their L1 discussion (lines 2, 3, 6, 12, and 14). Particularly, '아줌마 [*ma'am*]' was always uttered alone without the L1 equivalent. All the way through this session, neither Hyunbin nor Minho ever used the L1 equivalent to '아줌마 [*ma'am*]' even though they mentioned '아줌마' ten times in total during performing this task. The Korean word, '아줌마 /*ajumma*', normally refers to a married, or middle aged woman. However, it is difficult to translate this word in another language because it has different connotations and gives different feelings to addressees according to contexts. Minho and Hyunbin seem to have had the knowledge or sense of the sociocultural usage of this L2 word, and this knowledge seems to have led them to use the L2 word even by switching the code of their utterance from L1 to L2 whenever they needed to mention this word. In other words, they chose to use intra-sentential codeswitching rather than to use the equivalent L1 word because of the sociocultural meaning of the word. This observation suggests that L2 learners may use intra-sentential codeswitching in order to convey exactly what they want to say when one language is not able to

capture the sociocultural meaning of a word in another language. Learners may codeswitch when a certain vocabulary in one language does not convey the same meaning in another language because of cultural differences of the two contexts (Muthusamy, 2009).

As for intra-sentential codeswitching, it is commonly considered syntactically challenging because it needs linguistic equivalence between the two language codes (Poplack, 1980). Intra-sentential codeswitching is not an accidental mixing of two language systems; rather, it shows learners' operation of grammatical conventions of two languages, which is rule-governed and well organised (Toribio, 2004). Thus, learners, who have limited L2 proficiency but use intra-sentential codeswitching appropriately, may be seen as bilinguals rather than monolinguals learning L2. In the data, interestingly, intra-sentential codeswitching was frequently deployed by learners without violating the grammatical conventions of either Korean or English. They were not taught how to codeswitch, but they had the knowledge or sense of what constitutes intra-sentential codeswitching and used it properly. This does not mean that the learners had high-level of L2 competence or proficiency, but suggests that learners were familiar with the basic grammatical structure of each language, even though they did not have the perfect knowledge of L2 grammar or vocabulary enough to express what to say in full L2 sentences. It might also suggest that the basic knowledge of syntax of the two languages enabled learners to codeswitch within the sentence boundary successfully.

To summarise, the findings suggest that L2 learners' codeswitching may function as a strategy or mediational tool for not only communicating smoothly with others but also scaffolding each other. L2 learners, who can be said to be bilinguals, might use codeswitching as a mediational tool for communicating with others efficiently because they think it is easy and appropriate (Macaro, 2005). L2 learners' codeswitching from L2 to L1 can also function as a mediational tool for providing L2 learners with scaffolded help to one another during their task. (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009). On the other hand, learners' L1 served to discuss content and learners' L2 was useful for generating content. Therefore, both pupils' languages may function as a mediational tool for their

content-related talk.

4.2.2. *Metatalk*

Metatalk is related to the use of language as a mediational tool for dealing with issues concerning the target language, specifically lexical or grammatical complexity. This subsection analyses learners' metatalk focusing on lexical and grammatical difficulties.

Extract 4.6 provides an example of learners' codeswitching for resolving their lexical problem related to a word that they do not know into English. In this Extract, the task required collaborative completion of a role-play script by filling in blanks with nouns or comparative forms.

Extract 4.6

Retrieving an L2 Equivalent Word (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- | | | |
|----|---------------|--|
| 1 | Aera: | Look at that... |
| 2 | Inpyo: | It ought to be some pairs of animals or objects. |
| 3 | Aera: | 진드기 [<i>Mite</i>] is. |
| 4 | Inpyo: | Dust mite. <Smiles> |
| 5 | Yewon: | Haha. |
| 6 | Aera: | 진드기 [<i>Mite</i>]. |
| 7 | Siwon: | 어, 영어로 뭐야? |
| 8 | | <u>[Um, what is it in English?]</u> |
| 9 | Yewon, Inpyo: | <u>Mite, mite.</u> |
| 10 | Siwon: | Mite, mite. |
| 11 | | <Everyone writes 'mite' in the first blank of their worksheets.> |

Aera said '진드기 [*mite*]' in L1, followed by 'is' (line 3). She did not know the L2 word, 'mite', and hence she switched the code of their conversation from L2 to L1 to continue the conversation. Aera's codeswitching functioned as not only a communication strategy but also a learning strategy. Aera could engage in the conversation by giving her idea using codeswitching because she did not know how to say it in L2. Also, her codeswitching elicited an appropriate L2 word from Inpyo (line 4). However, Aera did not catch what Inpyo said, and mentioned the L1 word again (line 6). Siwon directly asked its equivalent L2 word, using L1 (line 7). While Aera's use of the L1 word implicitly and indirectly invited the help from

others, Siwon's L1 utterance explicitly and directly invited the help from others. Learners' use of L1 was useful for resolving their lexical problems. After listening to the L2 word that Yewon and Inpyo said (line 9), Siwon showed his awareness of the word by repeating it (line 10) and Aera also showed her awareness by writing the word exactly (line 11). From this observation, it is suggested that learners' L1 may function as an effective mediational tool for resolving lexical problems, if the learners share the same L1. Learners' shared L1 may also be a communication tool for proceeding with the conversation.

Extract 4.7 demonstrates learners' use of L2 for raising a lexical problem and their use of L1 for resolving the lexical problem. The task required pupils to read several sentences including an L1 hyponym, '발 [foof]', and to guess its meanings in context.

Extract 4.7

Discussing Meanings of an L2 Word (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minho: <Reads a sentence of his worksheet> 어제 축구를 하다가
2 발을 다쳤다. So, this is 신체의 발. <Raises his hand and
3 calls the teacher> 선생님, 선생님, 신체의 발이 뭐예요?
4 <Points at his own body> Is it us? <The teacher nods her
5 head> Okay, okay, okay.
6 <Reads a sentence of his worksheet> [I hurt my foot while
7 playing football yesterday]. So, this is [a foot of a physical
8 body]. <Raises his hand and calls the teacher> [Teacher,
9 teacher, what is 'a foot of a physical body'?] <Points at his
10 own body> Is it us? <The teacher nods her head> Okay, okay,
11 okay, okay.
- 12 Hyunbin: 우리가 신체의 발?
13 [Are we a foot of a body?]
- 14 Minho: <Writes '신체의 발 [foot of a physical body]' next to a
15 sentence including '발 [foot]' that indicates a foot of a body
16 on his worksheet> That, that, that's this one.
- 17
- 18 Hyunbin: What? <Looks at Minho's worksheet while Minho writes
19 '활동 범위' in L2 on his worksheet> That's 신체의 발. That's
20 it?
21 What? <Looks at Minho's worksheet while Minho writes 'a
22 range of activities' in L2 on his worksheet> That's [a foot of a
23 physical body]. That's it?

24 Minho: No. <Points at his own body> That's us.
 25 Hyunbin: What?
 26 Minho: This is saying, if you say '신체의 발',
 27 This is saying, if you say [a foot of a physical body],
 28 Hyunbin: '신체의 발' <Points at his own foot> means there.
 29 [A foot of a physical body] <Points at his own foot> means
 30 there.
 31 Minho: No, no, no! 넓어서, if it is 발이 넓어서, that means, like, you
 32 have more social ability.
 33 No, no, no! [Is large, so] if it is [(Your) foot is large, so], that
 34 means, like, you have more social ability.
 35 Hyunbin: Oh, <Points at the sentence on his worksheet, which Minho

Minho first asked the teacher in L2 what '신체의 발 [a foot of a physical body]' meant, which was presented as one of meanings of the hyponym, '발 [a foot]' (line 3), and then he codeswitched by asking in L1 whether the meaning he guessed was correct (line 4). Like Minho, pupils normally tried to use L2 to talk to or ask their teacher because they were well aware that they should use L2 in class, whereas they frequently resorted to L1 while talking with peers. Hyunbin requested clarification by combining and repeating in L2 (line 12) what Minho said (lines 3 and 4). Minho did not directly respond to Hyunbin and wrote the answer in order to let Hyunbin see and check (lines 14 to 16).

Moving to another sentence with a different meaning of the L2 hyponym, Hyunbin asked if 'a foot' of the sentence indicated '신체의 발 [a foot of a physical body]', using intra-sentential codeswitching, i.e. an L1 utterance inserted with an L2 word (line 19 and 20). Then, Minho gave explicit correction in L1 by informing that '신체의 발' was related to 'us', i.e. a body, pointing at his own body (line 24) and clarifying that the word meant the social relationship in this sentence (lines 31 and 32). Pupils used L2 only when they needed to mention the words or phrases presented on their worksheet. It seems that the learners' intra-sentential

codeswitching, i.e. L2 words or phrases such as ‘신체의 발’ or ‘발이 넓어서’ that were framed by L1 utterances, had the effect of transforming the L2 words into objects of scrutiny. Namely, pupils could pay their attention to the L2 words or phrases that they had difficulty in understanding, by uttering only them in L2. From this observation, it can be suggested that L2 learners’ intra-sentential codeswitching may function as a mediational tool for focusing L2 learners’ attention on L2 words that can be obstacles to understanding. In addition, L2 learners’ L1 may function as a mediational tool for discussing or resolving L2 lexical issues because learners’ L1 may lead to resolution or acquisition of the semantics of L2 words or phrases through negotiating with others. The use of L1 may extend L2 learners’ ZPD in terms of their lexical knowledge.

To summarise, learners’ L1 and L2 may function as a mediational tool for identifying or dealing with lexical problems. Especially, L2 was used as a mediational tool for informing words that they did not know how to say in L2, and L1 was used as a mediational tool for discussing or negotiating the lexical problems. In this respect, both L1 and L2 may be used for bringing up learners’ lexical problems to discuss with each other. Particularly, learners’ shared L1 may function as a mediational tool for better communication and resolution of lexical problems, when learners are faced with challenges caused due to their lack of L2 lexical knowledge.

L2 learners employed both inter-sentential and intra-sentential codeswitching or resorted to L1 regardless of year group or language proficiency when they were faced with grammatical problems such as capitalisation, punctuation and syntax. Extract 4.8 provides an example of pupils’ codeswitching and use of L1 while discussing an orthographic and phonetic issue. The task was to complete a role-play script by filling in blanks together.

Extract 4.8

Resolving or Discussing an Orthographic and Phonetic Issue (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- | | | |
|---|---------|---|
| 1 | Huiju: | I like that tiger. It’s very cute. It’s cuter than the... |
| 2 | Jinwoo: | 아니야, it’s, it’s cuter than (.) 아, 그냥, |

3 [No, it's, it's cuter than (.) [ah, just].
4 Huiju: 야, 야, 야, 침팬지라고 해, 그냥.
5 [Hey, hey, hey, just do chimpanzee.]
6 Jinwoo: Cuter than Caesar.
7 Huiju: 그래, 시저로 하자.
8 [Okay, let's do Caesar.]
9 Jinwoo: Caesar the Chimpanzee.
10 Jaeseok: Caesar?
11 Jinwoo: <Writes what he says aloud> Caesar the ...
12 Huiju: 있잖아, 혹성탈출에서.
13 [You know, from the Planet of the Apes.]
14 Jaeseok: I don't know.
15
16 Huiju: <Points at Caesar written by Jinwoo on the worksheet> 근데,
17 이 스펠링이야?
18 <Points at Caesar written by Jinwoo on Jinwoo's worksheet>
19 [By the way, is it spelt like that?]
20 Jinwoo: 어. 이거를 원래 그리스식으로 읽으면 카이사르가 되는데,
21 [Yeah, it is originally pronounced as KYE-sahr in a Greek
22 way.]
23 Huiju: <Interrupts him> 알았어, 알았어, 알았어.
24 <Interrupts him> [I see, I see, I see.]
25 Jinwoo: 그래서 이렇게 쓰는 것도 맞아. 이렇게 C하고, (.) <Writes
26 'CZR'> CZR 이렇게 쓰는 것도 맞아.
27 [So, it's also right to write like this. C and, (.) <Writes 'CZR'>
28 it's also right to write like this, CZR.]

Before discussing an orthographic or phonetic issue, pupils talked about what to write after the phrase 'it's cuter than the' (lines 1 to 14). Huiju and Jinwoo decided to fill in the blank with Caesar the Chimpanzee through negotiation (lines 6 to 9), even though Jaeseok did not have any background knowledge of Caesar the Chimpanzee from the movie 'Planet of the Apes' (lines 10 and 14). Huiju did not know the exact spelling of Caesar (lines 16 and 17) because Caesar is pronounced in two different ways. Huiju asked the spelling of Caesar, using L1 (line 17). Jinwoo started with L1 explanation of how differently Caesar could be pronounced (line 20) and then ended with L1 explanation of how it could be written in L2 (lines 25 and 26). Learners' L1 functioned as a crucial mediational tool for discussing or explaining a complex orthographic and phonetic issue, i.e. the issue of how to spell or how to pronounce a word.

Another orthographic issue, i.e. spacing, was dealt with in L1 by pupils. In Extract 4.9, pupils were required to discuss how to correct a sentence with wrong word spacing. The sentence presented with wrong spacing was ‘청군과 백군으로나뉘어 여러가지 경기를했다’, whose correct version was ‘청군과 백군으로 나뉘어 여러 가지 경기를 했다 [*They were divided into Blue Team and White Team and played various games*]’.

Extract 4.9

Resolving or Discussing a Punctuation Issue (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minho: <To Suhyun who is the writer of this pair work> Don't write it
2 too big, don't write it too big. 청군과 [*with Blue Team*], 청군과
3 [*with Blue Team*], space, <Looks at Suhyun, who did not
4 make a space between 청군과 and 백군으로 > >>SPACE!<<
5 Suhyun: <Writes> Space, again. Right? Space after 로 [*/ro/ into*]?
6 Minho: Yeah. ((Then)) 나뉘어 [*divided*],
7 Suhyun: Space?
8 Minho: Um, um, um, I think so, yea.
9 Suhyun: Space?
10 Minho: No, no, no. 경기를 [*a game*], space. <Looks at what Suhyun
11 is writing> Wait! No! Wait!

Minho and Suhyun exclusively used L1 except for the words from the given L2 sentence. As in Extract 4.7 above, pupils' intra-sentential codeswitching employed to mention L2 words functioned to make L2 words and spacing stand out as objects of scrutiny because the L2 words were framed by L1 utterances (lines 2, 3, 5, 6 and 10). Minho scaffolded Suhyun to write the sentence with correct spaces through step-by-step instructions (lines 1 to 4, 6, 8, 10 and 11), and Suhyun could write the sentence with proper spaces through seeking Minho's help (lines 5, 7 and 8). Most of their talk, which had to do with the resolution of punctuation problems, consisted of L1 utterances. This observation suggests that learners' L1 may function as a crucial mediational tool for discussing and resolving their grammatical problems.

Pupils codeswitched from L2 to L1 not only when they discussed orthographic issues but also when they dealt with syntactical issues. In Extract 4.10, pupils

discussed how to fill in the blanks of their worksheet to complete their role-play script.

Extract 4.10

Resolving or Discussing a Syntactic Issue (EFL Learners in Year 6 in The Boulevard)

- 1 Aera: I am better than you all. Haha, I am smarter...
- 2 Siwon: <Looks at Aera> 아, 여기다 최상급 쓰면 안되지?
- 3 <Looking at Aera> [Hey, can't I write a superlative form here,
- 4 huh?]
- 5 Aera: 안되지. 왜냐하면 than이 있으니까.
- 6 [No way, because there is] 'than'.
- 7 Siwon: Than을 없애고.
- 8 [After taking 'than' away.]

Siwon asked Aera in L1 whether the blank could be filled with a superlative form instead of the comparative form (line 2). Then, Aera replied in L1 that a superlative form was not available because of 'than' (line 5), and Siwon suggested in L1 eliminating 'than' from the sentence (line 7). In other words, pupils got involved in their talk on discussing the grammatical issue by questioning (line 2), explaining (line 5), and proposing a possible solution (line 7) in L1. Even though pupils used intra-sentential codeswitching by inserting L2 words into L1 utterances, they resorted to L1 when they discussed the syntactic issue. In the interview, Soyeon supported that learners' L1 may play an important role in discussing grammatical issues because learners were not familiar with L2 vocabulary for dealing with such an issue. "Even now, I think I can't say to take out 'the' in English. I feel much more comfortable with using Korean because the English expression, 'to take out', doesn't just pop into my mind." (Soyeon, EFL learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard, 26, February 2016). Many empirical studies also argue that L2 learners generally tend to resort to L1 while discussing or resolving grammatical problems (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Antón & DiCamilla, 1999; DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

Interestingly, pupils sometimes followed L1 grammar rules when they used L2. Extract 4.11 illustrates learners' use of L1 grammar rules for formulating an L2 sentence. The task required pupils to discuss and decide the meaning of an L2

hyponym, ‘오르다 [go up]’, in context.

Extract 4.11

Using L2 under the L1 Grammar Rule (KHL Learners in Yea 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Hyunbin: 기차에 오른 것은, 기차에 오른 것은, like, 타다 on the 기차
2 [To get on the train, to get on the train,] like, [board] on the
3 [train].
4 Minho: Okay, yeah, yeah, yeah.

Guessing the meaning of the L2 word in context, Hyunbin uttered ‘타다 [to get] on the 기차[*train*]’ instead of ‘기차에 타다 [to get on the train]’ (line 1). In Korean, a verb should be located at the end of a sentence and an adverb phrase should be in front of a verb. In addition, Korean does not have prepositions but has postpositions or particles. However, Hyunbin uttered the verb before the adverb phrase, and used the L1 preposition in front of the L2 noun, instead of a postposition or particle such as ‘에’. Hyunbin might have followed the L1 grammar rule because the use of the L1 grammar rule enabled him to focus on the meaning of each L2 word or phrase by highlighting the relationship between the words or phrases. This observation also suggests that Minho was competent in the grammar rules of both languages to some extent because he located L2 words appropriately under the L1 grammar rule, i.e. the L2 verb ‘타다’ in the place of verb and the L2 noun ‘기차’ in the place of object of preposition. This intra-sentential codeswitching actually requires competence or fluency in both languages in order to integrate both linguistic systems (Poplack, 1980). In this respect, Minho’s intra-sentential codeswitching can be seen as evidence of his bilingual skill.

4.2.3. Meta-task talk

Meta-task talk has to do with the use of language as a mediational tool for establishing the infrastructure to carry out or manage a task. Extract 4.12 provides an example of learners’ use of L2 to clarify or discuss what to do in their task. Learners in this Extract were discussing how to express a poem, referencing the

four examples provided by their teacher, i.e. to interview characters from the poem, to dramatise the poem, to freeze an impressive action from the poem, or whatever they wanted to express.

Extract 4.12

Clarifying/Discussing the Task (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Suhyun: What can we do? Do you like to do interview several things?
2 Minho: <To Suhyun> You can choose four different ways.
3
4 Minho: So we can do interview.
5 Shinhye: Interview
6 Suhyun: Wait, do we interview, like, each other?
7 Shinhye: Uh-huh.
8 Suhyun: So,
9 Minho: We can do it, like an interview of, like, someone in, like
10 <Points at the poem worksheet> in a poem.
11 Suhyun: Which one do you think is focused?
12 Shinhye: <Points at one poem on the worksheet> That one.
13 Minho: You can do an interview, 시극하기, <Thinks how to explain
14 dramatisation of a poem for a while> Oh, yeah, so that's, like,
15 a narrator saying 하고 다른 사람들은 막 acting
16 You can do an interview (.) [To dramatise a poem](.) <Thinks
17 how to explain dramatisation of a poem for a while> Oh, yeah,
18 so that's, like, a narrator [is] saying, [and other people are, uh,]
19 acting
20 Shinhye: 하고
21 [are doing ((acting)) and]
22 Suhyun: Okay.
23 Minho: And then, this one, 조각상 만들기 is the thing that 선생님 did
24 that to Shinhye, like,
25 And then, this one, [To make a sculpture] is the thing that [the
26 teacher] did that to Shinhye, like,
27 Suhyun: Oh! <To pretend to make a sculpture> Like a sculpture?
28 Minho: Yeah, like <To pretend to make a sculpture, and then smiles
29 bashfully>
30 Suhyun: Is that like acting, like freeze frame?
31 Minho: Oh, yeah, yeah.
32
33 Minho: And then the final one <Points at Suhyun> is your choice.
34 Like, make something that works for you.
35 Suhyun: <Smiles> Ooh la la! Uh, which one should we do?
36 Minho: I think that interview will be quite boring.
37 Shinhye: Yeah
38 Suhyun: I think,
39 Minho: One of these two things.
40 Suhyun: Yes, the sculpture, the acting
41 Shinhye: <Laughs> The sculpture! <Laughs>

- 42 Suhyun: It will, it will be funny, yes, sculpture. Okay, okay.
 43 Minhoo: Sculpture. <Gives a nod of agreement>
 44 Suhyun: Okay, okay

Suhyun, who was less proficient at L2, did not understand the task instruction that the teacher gave in L2, and so asked his peers in L1 what they should do (line 1). Pupils kept the language code when they clarified the task (lines 1 to 31) and discussed which one would be best for them to perform the poem (lines 33 to 44). Pupils' L1 was a useful mediational tool for constructing their shared understanding on the task by discussing or clarifying the task fluently and understandably. In L1 conversation, Minhoo also used intra-sentential codeswitching, particularly some L2 words or phrases inserted in L1-dominant utterances (lines 13, 15 and 23). Minhoo's intra-sentential codeswitching does not disobey the syntactic rules of both languages. L2 learners may be regarded as having knowledge of the syntactic structures in both languages in that they formulated syntactically correct utterances (Poplack, 1980).

L2 learners seldom used L2 when they discussed or managed their task, but they sometimes used L2 only for a relatively short span. Extract 4.13 provides an example of L2 learners' conscious use of L2 while clarifying their task instruction under the watchful eye of their teacher.

Extract 4.13

Clarifying the Task Instruction (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minhoo: Who's going first? <Glances at the teacher standing by him>
 2 누가 먼저 해?
 3 Who's going first? <Glances at the teacher standing by him>
 4 [Who's going first?]
 5 Shinhye: Suhyun.
 6 Suhyun: Okay, what do I do?
 7 Minhoo: 그러니까 <Points at the poem worksheet> 두 개,
 8 [So] <Points at the poem worksheet> two,
 9 Suhyun: 두 개 같이 sentence 만들어요. <Looks at Minhoo, who seems
 10 to be at a loss for words and laughs> What? <Everyone
 11 laughs>
 12 [Let's make] a sentence [two together].< Looks at Minhoo, who
 13 smiles, and also smiles>What?
 14 Minhoo: 시를 두 개를,
 15 [Two poems]

16 Shinhye: 골라서,
 17 [Choose and]
 18 Minho: 골라서 막,
 19 [Choose and um.]
 20 Suhyun: Sentence
 21 Minho: 왜 좋은지
 22 [Why you like them]
 23 Shinhye: 왜 재미있는지
 24 [Why you're interested in them]
 25 Minho: 말해
 26 [Say.]
 27 Suhyun: 뭐?
 28 [What?]
 29 <Minho and Shinhye laugh>
 30 Suhyun: Wait, <Points at Shinhye and Minho> Shinhye, Minho, go
 31 first, just that I know how to do it and then I'll go second.

Minho asked in L1 who was going first (line 1). Then, he codeswitched and repeated the same thing in L2, being conscious of the teacher who stood by their group (lines 1 and 2). Suhyun, who was less proficient at L2, asked in L1 what he should do (line 6). When Minho tried to explain in L2 (line 7), Suhyun interrupted him by uttering a non-sense L2 sentence with inappropriate honorific form (line 9). Suhyun's L2 utterance is a typical foreigner talk, in which postpositional articles are omitted and the honorific mood was used improperly. Suhyun seems to have attempted to clarify the task instruction in L2, despite his poor L2 competence, because the teacher was listening to their conversation. However, this attempt of Suhyun's did not help to clarify the task, and he requested others' help by asking 'what' (line 10). Minho and Shinhye collaboratively tried to clarify the task in L2 by co-constructing an L2 sentence (lines 14 to 18, and 21 to 25) in order to help Suhyun understand how to do the task. However, their L2 explanation did not work. Suhyun still did not understand. Suhyun switched the language code of their conversation from L2 to L1 and suggested an idea to get help from Minho and Shinhye (lines 30 and 31). Minho and Shinhye, who were advanced L2 learners, used L2 consciously as a mediational tool for constructing the shared understanding of the task or clarifying how to do the task. However, Suhyun, who was a less advanced L2 learner, did not use L2 as a mediational tool for clarifying the task. In this respect, advanced learners may use both L1 and L2 in order to co-construct their intersubjectivity on the task, but less advanced learners may

resort to their L1 in order to construct the shared understanding of the task.

L2 learners sometimes spent a lot of time only deciding their labours, roles, or turns. Particularly, pupils in The Boulevard seem to have given considerable thought to this kind of managing issue. In Example 4.14, pupils were having a long discussion of assigning roles for performing their role play.

Extract 4.14

Negotiating the Role Allocation (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Suji: <Looks at Junghwa> 야, 그러면, 우리 그림, Student 4 너가
2 먼저 할거야?
3 <Looks at Junghwa> [Hey, then, let's then, do you want to be]
4 Student 4?
5 Minji: <Taps the desk with her pencil to draw attention and points
6 at Soyeon> 얘, Student 4하고 싶대.
7 <Taps the desk with her pencil to draw attention and points at
8 Soyeon> [She wants to do] Student 4.
9 Junghwa: 지금 생각하고 있어.
10 [I'm thinking now.]
11 Suji: <To Soyeon> 너도 하고 싶어?
12 <To Soyeon> [Do you want to do it, too?]
13 Soyeon: <Smiles and claps, and to the tune of rock-paper-scissors>
14 안내면 진 거 가위, 바위, 보!
15 < Smiles and claps, and to the tune of rock-paper-scissors> If
16 you don't show any, you lose, rock-paper-scissors
17 Minji: <Quickly> 나도.
18 <Quickly> [(Let me) join you.]
19 Suji: <Holds Minji> 셋이 해, 셋이.
20 <Holds Minji> [You three, do it, you three.]
21 Soyeon: <To the tune of rock-paper-scissors> 안내면 진 거 가위, 바위,
22 보! 야, 야, 야, <To the tune of rock-paper-scissors> 안내면 진
23 거 가위, 바위, 보!
24 <To the tune of rock-paper-scissors> [If you don't show any,
25 you lose, rock-paper-scissors! Hey, hey, hey,]<To the tune of
26 rock-paper-scissors again> [If you don't show any, you lose,
27 rock-paper-scissors!]
28 <Minji wins the rock-paper-scissors.>
29 Suji: <Touches Minji> 오!
30 <Touches Minji> [Oh!]
31 Minji: 뭐지? 생각없이 냈는데.

32 [What happens? I just did it recklessly.]

33 Soyeon: 다크 호스

34 [(You're the) dark horse.]

35 Minji: 생각 없이 냈는데

36 [I just did it recklessly.]

37 Suji: <Imitates Minji> 딱 이러면서 가위바위보 했는데 <Shows

38 rock>, 어어어 하고 이겼어.

39 <Imitates Minji> She just did rock-paper-scissors like this,

40 <shows rock> and she won it saying uh, uh, uh.

41 Minji: 그냥 재미로 해봤는데 됐어.

42 [I did it just for fun, but I won.]

43 <Everyone writes Minji's name in the blank below 'Student4'>

44 Soyeon: And

45 Minji: Student 3?

46 Suji: 나 Student 1 할래.

47 [I want to do Student 1.]

48 Soyeon: 나 Student 2, no, no, no, Student 1!

49 [I, Student 2, no, no, no, Student 1!]

50 Suji: <Looks at Soyeon> 가위바위보 하자. <To the tune of rock-

51 paper-scissors> 안내면 진거,

52 <Looks at Soyeon> [Let's do rock-paper-scissors.] <To the

53 tune of rock-paper-scissors> [If you don't show any, you lose.]

54 Soyeon: 나 One.

55 [Me, Student 1.]

56 Suji: 나도 One을 원하니까.

57 [Because I also want to do Student 1.]

58 <Soyen and Suji do rock-paper-scissors and Suji wins>

59 Minji: <Points at Junghwa> 너는, 너는 뭐하고 싶어?

60 <Points at Junghwa> [You, what do you want to do?]

61 Junghwa: 근데, 내가 three를 하면 안돼. 왜냐하면 애가 her 라고 하니까.

62 [By the way, I think I can't do Student 3 because Student 3

63 calls me her.]

64 Mr Justin: <Passes by> I think, I think you should practice, practice.

65 <Everyone gives a nod of agreement>

66 Minji: <To Junghwa> 이거 맞잖아.

67 <To Junghwa> [This is correct, isn't it?]

68 Soyeon: <To Suji> 아아, 나, 이거 하면 안되나? 미안해, 수지야. 진짜

69 하고 싶어.

70 <To Suji> [Ahh, isn't it possible for me to do this? Sorry, Suji.

71 I really want to do ((this role)).]

72 Suji: 나, 나 그냥 아무거나 해도 돼.

73 [Me, any role will be okay for me.]

74 Junghwa: 나, 나, One 해도 될까?
75 [Can I, can I do Student 1?]
76 Soyeon: One?
77 Minji: <Points at Junghwa, Soyeon, and Suji> 그럼 셋이
78 가위바위보 해. <To the tune of rock-paper-scissors> 안내면
79 진거.
80 <Points at Junghwa, Soyeon, and Suji> Then, you three, do
81 rock-paper-scissors. <To the tune of rock-paper-scissors> [If
82 you don't show any, you lose.]
83 Suji: 나, 난 괜찮아. <Points at Junghwa and Soyeon> 너희 둘이
84 가위바위보 해.
85 [I, I'm okay. <Points at Junghwa and Soyeon> [You two, do
86 rock-paper-scissors.]
87 <Junghwa and Soyeon do rock-paper-scissors>
88 Soyeon: <Wins> 오! 드디어.
89 <Wins> [Oh! Finally.]
90 Suji: <Points at Junghwa> 너 Student 4라며?
91 <Points at Junghwa> [You are] Student 4, [aren't you?]
92 Minji: 나!
93 [It's me!]
94 Junghwa: 아까 가위바위보 졌잖아.
95 [I lost rock-paper-scissors a little while ago.]
96 Suji: 맞다, 맞다. 그렇구나.
97 [Right, right. I see.]

Pupils exclusively resorted to L1, except for mentioning characters' names provided in their worksheet, while making a joint decision on the role allocation. They reached agreement not only by playing rock, paper, scissors (lines 13 to 38, 50, 51, and 78 to 88) but also through the process of sufficient discussion and negotiation (1 to 11, 44 to 48, 55 to 77, 89 to 98). L2 learners generally lack L2 vocabulary for managing tasks because they are seldom taught language for task management (Macaro, 2005). Thereby, it may be entirely natural that students codeswitch to L1 and resort to their L1 in order to deal with task management issues. L2 learners' L1 may play a crucial role as a mediational tool for managing L2 tasks in this achievement of making a joint decision.

L2 learners' L1 was also used as a means of managing or directing others to get involved in the task, as shown in Extract 4.15. Pupils were required to take turns in leading the card game, and the leader had the power to choose the person who

could ask the leader a question in order to collect his/her cards.

Extract 4.15

Regulating or Managing Others' Behaviour (EFL Learners in Year 3 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Junha: 안해? What are you doing, Eunjae? Why are you shuffling it?
2 이서준, 의자를 뒤로 해. 뒤로 해서 자기만 보면 되잖아.
3 [[((You guys)) won't do it?]] What are you doing, Eunjae? Why
4 are you shuffling it? [Seojun Lee, turn your chair. Turn, then
5 only you can see ((your cards))]
6 Yerim: 이제 그만, 세장 뽑아, 이제 세장 뽑아.
7 [Stop it, now. Pick up three cards. Now, pick up three cards.]
8 Seojun: 응?
9 [Huh?]
10 Yerim: 세 장 뽑아. 보여주지 마, 보여주지 마. <Seojun wastes a little
11 time> 빨리!
12 [Pick up three cards. Don't show them, don't show them.
13 <Seojun wastes a little time> Hurry up!]
14 <After holding three cards in his hand, Seojun points at Junha to give
15 him a signal to start>

It was time for Seojun to lead the game. Junha used L2 to regulate Eunjae's behaviour before the game (line 1), and then used inter-sentential codeswitching from L2 to L1 to manage Seojun's behaviour in L1 (line 2). He asked Seojun to turn his chair in order to face his group mates before setting out to play the card game (line 2). Junha seems to have used inter-sentential codeswitching to more strongly manage his friend. Yerim also used L1 when she directed Seojun in order for him to set up the cards for playing (lines 6, 10 and 11). Yerim's instructions consisting of L1 short imperative sentences served to provide Seojun with the step-by-step scaffolded help. Yerim's L1 instructions enabled Seojun to be ready to play the game (lines 14 and 15). Learners' L1 functioned to regulate or manage others' behaviour effectively because it was clearly understandable on the listeners' part. Learners' L1 was also useful for exactly and quickly delivering their instruction on the speaker's part.

L2 learners often used L1 when they evaluated their performance of the task, as shown in Extract 4.16. Pupils had just finished practicing their role-play by reading the script that they collaboratively completed.

Extract 4.16

Evaluating the Performance of the Task (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Inpyo: <Reads her line> I am better than you all. I am smarter than
2 everybody!
3 Siwon, Yewon, Aera: No way!
4 <Everyone laughs>
5 Aera: <Claps her hands> 와, 잘 했다, 잘 했어!
6 <Claps her hands> [Wow, well done, well done!]
7 Mr Martin: Are you ready?
8 Aera: <With the meaning that they are not ready yet> 아아아아아.
9 <With the meaning that they are not ready yet> Noooooope.
10 Yewon: 야, fly가 너무 많은 거 같아.
11 [Hey, there seems to be too many ((times of)) flies.]
12 Aera: 아니야, 이 정도 필요해. 중요한 건 비교급을 만드는 거야.
13 그래야지, 비교급이 잘 드러나지. 그래야지, 너무 동물이
14 많으면 헛갈리잖아.
15 [No, this ((frequency)) is okay. The important thing is to make
16 comparative forms. This makes comparative forms come to
17 the front. If there come too many ((different)) animals, it will
18 be confusing.]

After pupils practiced reading their role-play script together, Aera complimented her group's performance using L1 (line 5). She seems to have been happy with both the script that they collaboratively made and their performance of the script. Aera's positive comment served the functions of not only expressing her satisfaction but also evaluating their performance and encouraging others. On the other hand, Yewon critically evaluated their role-play script by pointing out in L1 that they wrote a fly too many times in the script (line 10). Responding to Yewon, Aera justified this by commenting in L1 that the most important goal of this task was to complete the script with comparative forms rather than to compare a variety of animals (lines 12 to 14). Learners' L1 seems to have been used usefully in the process of not only evaluating their task performance or outcome but also negotiating or justifying their evaluation of the task performance or outcome.

Extract 4.17 illustrates learners' use of L1 for managing time. Learners were asked to collaboratively complete their role play script by filling in blanks in a worksheet. They were simultaneously required to write comparative forms of verbs or objects of the preposition 'than' in the blanks.

Extract 4.17

Checking or Managing Time (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Jinwoo: <Fills in the blanks, saying what he would write> Slower than
2 the, a pinhead. 안돼, 2분 남았다.
3 <Fills in the blanks, saying what he would write> Slower than
4 the, a pinhead. [No way, we have two minutes left.]
5 Huiju: 야, 2분만에 다 할 수 있어. 야, 어쨌든 간에.
6 [Hey, we can do it within two minutes. Hey, anyway.]

On the basis of discussion, Jinwoo filled in blanks of his worksheet, thinking aloud in L2 what to write (lines 1 and 2), and then codeswitched from L2 to L1 to inform others of how much time was left (line 2). Huiju also used L1 when she set others at ease and encouraged them by saying that they could complete within the time (line 5). Learners' L1 functioned as a useful mediational tool for managing time. Interestingly, pupils' talk related to time management was more frequently observed in The Boulevard. Pupils in The Boulevard were more likely to manage or check their time than pupils in Green Hill, because they were given two or three tasks during a 40-minute session and a relatively short time, i.e. five-to-ten minutes, for each task. Pupils in The Boulevard might have felt that they were being pushed to complete their task within the given time. In this context, they were also likely to push each other by checking or managing time. On the other hand, pupils in Green Hill were given sufficient time for each task because their class time was run flexibly within three and a half hours. Hence, they were normally provided with enough time for each task. In addition, they could ask for the teacher to give more time rather than to push each other to complete within the given time if they needed more time.

One of interesting findings related to meta-task talk is that L2 learners' use of L2 had to do with learners' personal disposition or character to some extent. Well-disciplined pupils, who generally kept to school or class rules, tried to use L2 comparatively more while discussing or managing the task. In Extract 4.18, pupils were talking about who would be the first person to take the lead in a card game.

Extract 4.18

Managing the Task in L2 (KHL Learners in Year 3 at Green Hill)

- 1 Dongwon: Siyoon, stop, stop, stop. Let's do it in Korean now.

2 Siyoon: Yes.
3 Dongwon: Um, 헐. <After a while> Um, 누가 먼저 얘기할거야? 누가
4 먼저?
5 Siyoon, stop, stop, stop. Let's do it in Korean now. Um, [oh,
6 my]. <After a while> Um, [who's going to speak first? Who
7 first?]
8 Siyoon: 니가 해.
9 [You do.]
10 Dongwon: Okay.
11 Siyoon: 어, 이름, 이름, 이름. 아이, 이름 써야 돼, 이름. 이름.
12 [Um, name, name, name, no, you should write ((our))
13 name((s)), name, name.]
14 Dongwon: 뭐하고 있어?
15 [What are you doing?]
16 Siyoon: 취소해, 취소. 아, 미안.
17 [Cancel it, cancel. Ah, sorry.]
18 Dongwon: <Reads what Siyoon is writing> 이시윤.
19 <Reads what Siyoon is writing> [Siyoon, Lee.]
20 Siyoon: Write your name.
21
22 Dongwon: So, watch out! 뭘로 시작할까?
23 So, watch out! [What shall we start with?]
24 Siyoon: 음...
25 [uhm...]

Dongwon suggested in L1 that they should use L2 (line 1) and directly codeswitched from L1 to L2 (line 3) right after getting consent from Siyoon (line 2). Dongwon and Siyoon mainly used L2 while having meta-task talk in this Extract. Both Dongwon's and Siyoon's L2 proficiency was more advanced than any other pupils in their class. Especially, Dongwon was a well-disciplined pupil. While other pupils, whether L2 proficiency was advanced or not, tended to resort to L1 in order to discuss their task, manage others' behaviour, or maintain attention to the task, Dongwon exceptionally tried to use L2 for the same functions. On the other hand, Siyoon normally used L1 to manage the task when he was paired or grouped with other pupils, but he almost exclusively used L2 while talking with Dongwon. In this respect, L2 proficiency seems to have been a necessary condition for the use of L2 rather than a sufficient condition.

On the other hand, pupils that were less confident in their L2 but well-disciplined

also tried to exclusively use L2 when they managed their task. Extract 4.19 illustrates the use of L2 by learners who were well-disciplined but less advanced in oral English.

Extract 4.19

Negotiating/Allocating Roles in L2 (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Hyunju: Who wants to be Student 1?
2 Ara: I want to be Student 4.
3 Hyunju: <Points at Yuna>
4 Yuna: One, two.
5 Hyunju: <To Yuna> What do you want to be?
6 Yuna: Anything.
7 Hyunju: 응?
8 [Huh?]
9 Yuna: Anything.
10 Ara: 뭐? Student what?
11 [What?] Student what?
12 Hyunju: Anything.
13 Ara: 어, (.) no matter.
14 [Uh,] (.) no matter.

Yuna and Ara were top-ranked pupils in their class. In the interview, their Korean EFL teacher, Ms Lee introduced them as really great pupils. “*Yuna and Ara seem not to have stayed abroad. They are very quiet but hidden masters. Both of them do not talk much but are great at English. Especially, Yuna, who has been educated only in Korea, is really great, almost the top of her class. She has got perfect scores in every subject including English. She does not make any mistakes; is quiet; does not show off; takes part in class quietly; and are great at work. Ara is also a good student.*” (Ms. Lee, Korean EFL teacher at The Boulevard, Interview, 27, February 2016). However, Yuna thought about herself differently. “*I think I haven’t been proficient in English yet. It is difficult to express my thought in English. I feel I am deficient in English yet, compared with my friends. I can see many friends who are more excellent at English and more distinguished than me in my English language institute or school. I haven’t learned a lot in terms of English speaking or conversation. So I more feel like I’m lacking in confidence to converse or talk in English as I become older.*” (Yuna, Year 6 at The Boulevard, Interview, 1, March 2016). Yuna seems to be less confident, but she was well-behaved in their class. Yuna, Ara and Hyunju in this group tried to use less L1 and more L2, even though their L2 was not advanced enough to

manage their task in L2. Their interaction was not active. They seem to have chosen to zip up their lips rather than to use L1 when they did not know how to say something in L2.

To summarise, L2 learners generally resorted to L1 when they set up or managed their task, but sometimes used L2 or intra-sentential codeswitching within an L1 sentence boundary. In other words, learners' L1 and L2 functioned as a mediational tool for managing the task, but L1 was more frequently used for this function than L2. Learners' L1 was useful for constructing and maintaining intersubjectivity on the task (Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

4.2.4. **Socio-affective talk**

Socio-affective talk has to do with the use of language as a mediational tool for building interpersonal relationships or expressing one's emotions or feelings. L2 learners' socio-affective talk normally appeared in the process of engaging in a task, even though it was sometimes not directly related to the task. Extract 4.20 provides an example of learners' use of L1 for encouraging other learners to better perform in their task. In this task, pupils in a group were asked to take turns in writing their answer on their group white board on the basis of their group discussion, after reading three tips describing an animal.

Extract 4.20

Encouraging Others (EFL Learners in Year 3 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Donghun: <Looks at Sarang> 잘해, 잘해.
2 <Looks at Sarang> [Go for it, go for it.]
3 Sarang: <Looks at Donghun> 쓸 때 'There are many cows' 아니면
4 'There are cows' 쓰는...? <Donghun looks at something else,
5 then Sarang turns back and says to Hyunseo> 'How many
6 cows are there?', 이렇게 써야 되지?
7 <Looks at Donghun> [When I write, ((can)) I write] 'There are
8 many cows' [or] 'There are cows'? <Donghun looks at
9 something else, then Sarang turns back and says to
10 Hyunseo> 'How many cows are there?', [should I write like
11 this?]
12 Hyunseo: <Nods his head> 응.

When it was time for Sarang to write her group's answer, Donghun encouraged Sarang by saying "Go for it, go for it" in L1 (line 1). Donghyun's L1 encouragement might have served to motivate Sarang to get actively involved in this task.

L2 learners often resorted to L1 when they worked through their argument. Extract 4.21 illustrates learners' use of L1 for arbitrating between friends while deciding who would play which role in a play.

Extract 4.21

Arbitrating between friends (KHL Learners in Year 3 at Green Hill)

- 1 Siyoon: 나는, 나는, 그, 어, 그, 어, the poor guy.
 2 [I, I, the, uh, the, uh, the poor guy.]
 3 Bogum: That was one I want to do.
 4 Siyoon: No, I want...
 5 Juwon: <Points at Siyoon and Bogum> Then, you, then, you two, do
 6 가위바위보.
 7 <Points at Siyoon and Bogum> Then, you, then, you two, do
 8 [rock paper scissors].
 9 Bogum: What?
 10 Siyoon, Bogum: <Along to the chant Korean rock, paper, scissors> 가위
 11 바위 보 <Bogum first wins three times>
 12 <Along to the chant Korean rock, paper, scissors> [Rock
 13 paper scissors] <Bogum first wins three times>
 14 Siyoon: Why do you want to be, you said you want to be the greedy
 15 guy.
 16 Bogum: No, you have lost it.
 17 Siyoon: (Points at Bogum) You have to be the greedy guy.
 18 Bogum: No.
 19 Siyoon: Yes.
 20 Bogum: No. I won it already.
 21 Siyoon: <To the teacher> 저는, 저는 poor guy 할래요.
 22 <To the teacher> [I, I will do the] poor guy.
 23 Bogum: <To the teacher> 나도 poor guy하고 싶어요.
 24 <To the teacher> [I also want to do the] poor guy.
 25
 26 Juwon: Wait, <To Siyoon> can you be the god? I will be the greedy
 27 guy.
 28 Bogum: No, no, no, I'm the god!
 29 Siyoon: <Points at Bogum> He's the god then.
 30 Bogum: Yes.
 31 Juwon: <Pointing at Siyoon> You're the, which guy?

- 32 Siyoon: Which?
 33 Juwon: I'm the greedy guy.
 34 Siyoon: <Points at Juwon> You're the greedy, okay, I'm the poor guy.
 35 <Looks at Juwon> Let's say, um, like a long time ago, this
 36 guy...
 37 Juwon: I just want all of you to feel good, yeah?

Both Siyoon and Bogum claimed that they would play the role of a poor but honest woodcutter (lines 1, 3 and 4). Juwon suggested doing rock paper scissors to arbitrate them (lines 5 and 6). Then, Siyoon and Bogum accepted Juwon's suggestion and did rock paper scissors (lines 10 and 11). As a result, Jinwoo won, but Siyoon did not accept the result (lines 14, 15, 17 and 19). Bogum was not happy with this situation and argued that he already won (lines 16, 18 and 20). Siyoon and Bogum appealed to the teacher that they wanted to play the role of an honest woodcutter (lines 21 and 23) because their argument continued. Then, Juwon intervened in their argument by suggesting another role that Siyoon might be interested in (lines 26 and 27). Bogum wanted to do the new role that Juwon suggested (line 28), and Siyoon could do the woodcutter (line 34). Juwon did the greedy guy that everyone did not want to play (lines 26, 27, 33 and 34). Juwon's intervention enabled everyone to reach a satisfactory decision. Juwon said that he wanted everyone to feel good (line 37) after seeing everyone was happy with their roles. In this conversation, learners resorted to their L1 while arguing with each other or intervening in and dealing with the argument. Learners' L1 played a crucial role in this process. It functioned as a mediational tool for working through disagreements between learners and contributed to creating a friendly atmosphere for better performance of their task.

L2 learners also enjoyed a good rapport by sharing their personal experiences in L1, as shown in Extract 4.22. The task required pupils to choose one poem as their favourite from the worksheet of poem collection and to share their favourite poem and the reason.

Extract 4.22

Sharing Personal Experiences (KHL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Suhyun: Okay, <Points at one poem on the worksheet> 이거, 재미
 2 있어. 왜냐하면, um, if that's a really boring lesson, if that's,
 3 like, a boring lesson and the teacher does a fart. Like,

4 everyone's laughing, and it gets happy again. <Makes a
 5 farting sound, and everyone laughs> 그래서 저거 재밌어.
 6 And I don't know anything else.
 7 Okay, <Points at one poem on the worksheet> [I like this
 8 because] um, if that's a really boring lesson, if that's, like, a
 9 boring lesson and the teacher does a fart. Like, everyone's
 10 laughing, and it gets happy again. <Makes a farting sound,
 11 and everyone laughs> [So I like that.] And I don't know
 12 anything else.

13 Minho: <Points at another poem on the worksheet> Um, this one,
 14 this one's about, like, like, uh, 엄마들은 맨날 caring, er,
 15 <Points at another poem on the worksheet> Um, this one, this
 16 one's about, like, like, uh, [moms ((are)) always] caring, er,

17 Suhyun: Oh, okay. 나, 나, 컴퓨터 많이 할 때, um, 내 엄마는 나한테,
 18 uh, because she doesn't want me to be addicted, she tells
 19 me to get off the laptop, I think.
 20 Oh, okay. [when I, I do computer a lot], um, [my mom, to me],
 21 uh, because she doesn't want me to be addicted, she tells me
 22 to get off the laptop, I think.

Suhyun started with an L2 utterance to talk about his favourite poem (lines 1 and 2), but directly codeswitched to L1 while talking about why he liked the poem (lines 2 to 6). Immediately after Minho brought up the topic of moms' concern for their children (lines 13 and 14), Suhyun interrupted Minho by talking about his personal experience related to the topic (lines 18 to 20). Suhyun started with an L2 utterance line 18), but he immediately codeswitched to L1. He seems to have resorted to L1 presumably because his L2 proficiency was not advanced enough to talk about his experience in detail. Or he could have thought that L1 was a useful tool for sharing personal experience because it was an everyday language that had to do with day-to-day life.

L2 learners sometimes made jokes in order to entertain others. They usually told jokes in L1. They particularly enjoyed toilet humours, such as fart jokes or poop jokes. Extract 4.23 illustrates L2 learners told jokes related to their task while discussing how to fill in the blanks of their role-play script.

Extract 4.23

Cracking a Joke or Expressing One's Feeling (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

1 Jinwoo: I am faster than the...
 2 Jaeseok: Light, light.

3 Jinwoo: 아니, 아니야. I am faster than the runny nose.
4 [No, no way.] I am faster than the runny nose.
5 Huiju: Faster than the light.
6 Jinwoo: The, the <Points at his own nose> runny nose. 콧물, (Points
7 at his philtrum> 여기서 쪽 내려 오잖아.
8 The, the <Points at his own nose> runny nose. [Runny nose.]
9 <Points at his philtrum> [comes straight down from here].
10 Huiju: <Laughs> 그런 얘기 하지만, 더러워(:) <Shakes her own
11 chair>
12 <Laughs> [Don't say that, it is dirty(:)] <Shakes her own chair>
13
14 Jinwoo: 아니, I am faster than my hair.
15 [No], I am faster than my hair.
16 Jaeseok: What?
17 Huiju: <Laughs> 뭐야, 탈모야?
18 <Laughs> [What is that? Is it hair loss?]
19 Jinwoo: <Laughs> 머리카락이 길어지잖아. 그러니까 머리카락
20 보다도 빨리, 빠르다고.
21 <Laughs> [Hair becomes long. So, I mean I faster, am faster
22 than my hair.]
23 Huiju: 이거 이해하는 사람이 어디있을 것 같애?
24 [No one would understand this, wouldn't he?]
25 Jinwoo: 그러면은, 그러면은, (.) 에, (.) 연필을 움직이는 속도보다 더
26 빠르다고. 그것도 좀 그런가?
27 [Then, then, (.) uh, (.) ((I am)) faster than the speed of moving
28 a pencil. Is it not good, either?
29 Huiju: 아니, 야, 야, 야, 이걸로 할래?
30 [No, hey, hey, hey, how about this?]
31 Jinwoo: 달팽이보다 더 빠르다고.
32 [((How about)) being faster than a snail.]
33
34 Jaeseok: <Reads his part> I am better than you all. I am dumber than
35 everybody.
36 Huiju: 아, 웃겨서 말을 못하겠어.
37 [Ah, I can't tell anything because it's so funny.]
38 Jinwoo: 야, 다시 해보자.
39 [Hey, let's do it again.]

Jinwoo tried to make their role-play script funny, and thus he suggested hilarious ideas to put in the blanks of their role-play script. He initially suggested a runny nose as something fast (line 3). Others did not show any particular response to his joke. Then, Jinwoo switched from L2 to L1 and explained his joke (lines 6 and

7). His explanation elicited laughter and a negative response simultaneously from Huiju (lines 11 and 12). Huiju told Jinwoo in L1 not to say such a dirty thing (line 11). Jinwoo kept cracking jokes by saying nonsenses (lines 16, 27, 28 and 33). He sometimes told jokes in L2 (lines 3 and 16), followed by L1 explanation (lines 6, 7, 21, and 22), and sometimes made a joke in L1 (lines 27, 28, and 33). On the other hand, learners' L1 was frequently used to express their emotions or feelings. Huiju resorted to L1 when she expressed her feelings (lines 11 and 38) about others' hilarious comments (lines 6, 7, 36 and 37).

Pupils sometimes told jokes in L2 using simple and short sentences. Their L2 jokes did not always succeed in serving their purpose. The L2 jokes often failed to elicit laughter from others and L1 explanation was necessarily followed. This might have been due to learners' attitudes towards L2. Jinwoo's L2 joke even elicited puzzlement from Jaeseok (line 18), even though it elicited laughter from Huiju (line 19). To L2 learners, L2 may not be the language useful for making jokes, because learners are likely to interpret the L2 utterance with scholarly attitudes rather than to read the speaker's intention and enjoy the joke when they hear L2 jokes. Learners' L1 jokes may elicit more immediate and more active reactions from listeners than L2 jokes. In this respect, learners' L1 may serve as a more useful mediational tool for delivering jokes than L2.

Pupils occasionally codeswitched from L2 to L1 when they talked about off-task topics. In Extract 4.24, pupils were having off-task talk immediately after the teacher signalled the end of their task.

Extract 4.24

Talking about an Off-Task Topic (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minho: Wait! <Loudly to the teacher> >>**I GOT IT. 잠깐만요! I JUST**
 2 **GOT IT.<<**
 3 Wait! <Loudly to the teacher> >>I GOT IT. [Hold on, please!]
 4 I JUST GOT IT<<
 5 Suhyun: <To the teacher> 잠깐만요, he's writing it.
 6 <To the teacher> [Hold on, please.] He's writing it.
 7 Jaein: Scribet, scribet, <Looks at Minho> he scribet.
 8 Hyunbin: That's Latin!
 9 Jaein: Yes, I learn, I do learn Latin.
 10 Suhyun: I'm learning Italian. (xxx)

L1 may be used to control one's mental activity in the form of private speech. Namely, pupils' L1 may be used as a useful mediational tool for externalising mental activity such as retrieving information or knowledge necessary for solving problems.

Extract 4.26 shows learners' use of L1 as a mediational tool for externalising mental process on the intrapersonal plane, which accords with the earlier observation of Extract 4.25. More particularly, Extract 4.26 illustrates learners' L1 private speech used while reading the instructions of worksheet and doing the worksheet.

Extract 4.26

Reading aloud, Thinking aloud What to Write, Expressing One's Cognitively Based Feelings (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Hyunbin: 이름. <Writes his own name> 김보검 <Holds his hand and
2 says jokingly to the teacher> I answered the question. <Both
3 Minho and Hyunbin laugh>
4 [Name.] <Writes his own name> [Hyunbin, Kim.] <Holds his
5 hand and says jokingly to the teacher> I answered the
6 question. <Both Minho and Hyunbin laugh>
- 7 Minho: Okay, <Reads a part of instructions of the worksheet>
8 날말이 쓰이는, okay, so,
9 Okay, <Goes on to read the instructions of the worksheet>
10 [each word is used], okay, so.
- 11 Hyunbin: <Reads the next part of instructions> 문맥 앞, 뒤를 살펴본다.
12 <Reads the next part of instructions> [Let's examine ((how
13 each word is used)) in context.]
- 14 Minho: <Reads> 밑줄 친 <Points at the part he is looking at on the
15 worksheet and says to Hyunbin looking at him> No, no, no.
16 Just do this.
17 <Reads> 밑줄 친! <Points at what he is looking at on the
18 worksheet and to Hyunbin looks at him> No, no, no. Just do
19 this.
- 20 Hyunbin: Okay. <Reads> >>밑줄 친<< 날말의, there is no 밑줄.
21 Okay. <Reads> [The >>UNDERLINED<< words], there is no
22 [underline].
- 23 Minho: <Laughs>
- 24 Hyunbin: <Takes a glance at the teacher who stands off at a distance>
25 >>밑줄이 없는데, 왜 밑줄친 날말의... <<
26 <Takes a glance at the teacher who stands off at a distance>

27 >>THERE IS NO UNDERLINE, BUT WHY THE
 28 UNDERLINED WORDS'...<<
 29 Minho: Wait, wait, <Points at what he is talking about on his
 30 worksheet> we have to put this in them, maybe. So,
 31 <Reads> 어제 축구를 하다가 발을 다쳤다.
 32 Wait, wait, <Points at somewhere in his worksheet> we have
 33 to put this in them, maybe. So, <Reads> [I hurt my foot while
 34 playing football yesterday.
 35 Hyunbin: Um, (.) <Reads his worksheet> 발을 다, (.) uh, I don't get it.
 36 Just two senses of ... <Laughs and points at what he is
 37 talking about on Minho's worksheet> same. >>선생(.)님 <,<
 38 Um, (.) <Reads his worksheet> [got hurt fo-,(.) uh, I don't get
 39 it. Just two senses of ... <Laughs and points at what he is
 40 talking about on Minho's worksheet> same.
 41 >>[TEA(.)CHER,]<<
 42 Minho: <Touches Hyunbin> oh, oh, oh, oh, oh! 신체의 발. <Puts his
 43 pencil down, and smiles> I think, I know (xxx).
 44 <Touches Hyunbin> oh, oh, oh, oh, oh! [A foot of a physical
 45 body] <Puts his pencil down, and smiles> I think, I know (xxx).
 46
 47 Minho: <Reads a sentence of his worksheet> 어제 축구를 하다가
 48 발을 다쳤다. So, this is 신체의 발. <Raises his hand and
 49 calls the teacher> 선생님, 선생님, 신체의 발이 뭐예요?
 50 <Points at his own body> Is it us? <The teacher nods her
 51 head> Okay, okay, okay.
 52 <Reads a sentence of his worksheet> [I hurt my foot while
 53 playing football yesterday]. So, this is [a foot of a physical
 54 body]. <Raises his hand and calls the teacher> [Teacher,
 55 teacher, what is 'a foot of a physical body'?] <Points at his
 56 own body> Is it us? <The teacher nods her head> Okay,
 57 okay, okay, okay.

Pupils were required to collaboratively guess meanings of some L2 words with multiple meanings, i.e. L2 hyponyms, in context and to choose their synonyms. Hyunbin read a short instruction, '이름 [name]', in L2, and then spoke his name in a low mumble while writing it, as if to himself (line 1). Minho also talked to himself while reading an instruction on the worksheet (lines 7 and 8). He mumbled 'okay' and 'so' after reading it, which indicated his understanding of what he was reading (line 8). Minho's private speech externalised his inner speech through verbalising. Pupils might have read aloud while reading L2 instructions, presumably because they had difficulty in understanding what they read. Reading aloud seems to have

allowed for pupils to construct meanings of what they were reading, not only with others but also within the person's brain. Minhø and Hyunbin co-constructed the meaning of instructions by breaking down L2 instructions into smaller parts and reading them aloud (lines 7 to 20). They seem to have constructed their understanding within their brain through this process.

When Hyunbin found that there was no underline, unlike what the instruction says, he codeswitched from L2 to L1 and talked about this problem using an L1 sentence inserted with the L2 word, '밑줄 [*underline*]' (line 20). This L1 sentence with the L2 word, 'there is no 밑줄', shows that Hyunbin had the capacity to manipulate the syntactic structure of English and Korean even though his Korean competence was not very advanced. He followed English grammatical rules to form the sentence, and use the noun form (which is '밑줄') of the L2 word (which is '밑줄치다') in order to put it in the place of the subject of the sentence. Codeswitching embraces the competence of manipulating grammatical rules of two different languages, irrespective of the speaker's bilingual ability (Wei, 2007).

Hyunbin also codeswitched from L2 to L1 when he had difficulty in guessing the meaning of the L2 hyponyme in context, and mumbled to himself that he could not guess the meaning (lines 35 to 37). His L1 utterance functioned as both a private speech that externalised his inner thought and a social speech that was directed to Minhø. Minhø claimed 'oh' repeatedly at his 'aha' moment of noticing the meaning of '발 [foot]' in context (line 42). His repeated 'oh' was also used as both private speech that indicated his mental process of realising the meaning and social speech that informed Hyunbin that he came to know the meaning. Both Minhø's and Hyunbin's private speech was seen as communicative in that it was audible and addressed to each other, in the form, but was identified as private speech in that it was mumbled during their cognitive activity. In addition, Minhø's utterance was too elliptical to deliver his thoughts explicitly to Hyunbin.

To summarise, the use of codeswitching may enable L2 learners to better convey

what they want to say and to better understand what they are told. It may also help learners build good relationship with others as well as resolve their linguistic or cognitive challenges. Codeswitching may occur due to L2 learners' insufficiency in L2, but it may compensate L2 learners' insufficient linguistic competence (Macaro, 2005). Thus, codeswitching should be viewed as L2 learners' mediational tool for not only completing their task successfully and communicating effectively but also learning the L2 rather than an obstacle to L2 learning.

4.4. *Main findings from the chapter*

Learners frequently moved back and forth between their L1 and L2, sometimes at the sentence level (i.e. inter-sentential codeswitching) and other times within the sentence or clause boundary (i.e. intra-sentential codeswitching). Learners' use of codeswitching demonstrates that learners not only communicated effectively with other learners with the same L1 but also resolved their linguistic problems collectively. Learners' codeswitching facilitated the smooth running of the collaborative work. Codeswitching is an ordinary and recurring phenomenon occurring among fluent bilinguals (Chen & Hird, 2006). Therefore, learners' codeswitching can be regarded as a useful strategy for better communication and the successful completion of their tasks rather than evidence of their incomplete L2 competence.

Learners' codeswitching was different according to the functions their talk served. While pupils at The Boulevard frequently used inter-sentential codeswitching and resorted to L2 when they generated content, i.e. their task outcome, pupils at Green Hill frequently used intra-sentential codeswitching. This difference might have been caused by the difference in the nature of tasks set in the two different contexts. Tasks at The Boulevard required pupils to produce the task outcome using certain target structures or vocabulary, but the tasks at Green Hill required pupils to generate their task outcome by using their language spontaneously. This difference in the nature of the tasks seems to have led to the different use of language among the pupils of the two schools. In both schools, pupils easily

resorted to L1 or used intra-sentential codeswitching irrespective of year groups when they discussed the content, presumably because of pupils' incomplete L2 competence. Namely, pupils resorted to L1 because it was linguistically challenging to put forward their opinions in L2.

Pupils also used codeswitching when they talked about lexical or grammatical issues. Pupils' L1 and L2 were a mediational tool for identifying or dealing with lexical problems. While L2 was usually employed to indicate the L2 word whose meaning pupils did not know, L1 was used to discuss or negotiate lexical meanings. Regarding grammatical issues such as capitalisation, punctuation and syntax, pupils used codeswitching or only resorted to L1 when they attempted to resolve grammatical difficulties, regardless of year group or language proficiency.

Learners generally used L1 when they set up or managed their task, but sometimes resorted to L2 or codeswitched from L1 to L2 in the case of using the expression that they had been routinely exposed to in class. Basically, L2 learners have limited L2 vocabulary for managing tasks because they are not sufficiently exposed to this kind of vocabulary (Macaro, 2005). Hence, it seems natural for L2 learners to codeswitch to L1 and use their L1 while dealing with task management issues. Learners' L1, particularly, was used as a tool for establishing and maintaining intersubjectivity by establishing a shared understanding of the task (Swain & Lapkin, 2000).

Also, learners frequently switched their language code from L2 to L1 and depended on L1 when they built up their social relationship by cracking a joke or encouraging and when they expressed their emotions or feelings.

Finally, learners used not only L1 but also L2, moving back and forth between the two languages, while thinking aloud through private speech when they were faced with linguistic or cognitive difficulties.

To summarise, learners frequently made use of codeswitching for different functions. The codeswitching between L1 and L2 enabled learners to

communicate effectively with others; to scaffold each other; or to construct intersubjectivity on their task in order to complete the task successfully. Learners' language worked as a useful mediational tool for completing their L2 tasks on both the interpersonal and intrapersonal planes. Therefore, learners' codeswitching may be not a proof of their lack of L2 competence but evidence of learners' bilingual skill.

Chapter 5 Using language strategically

5.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter, I examined the most distinct feature shown in learners' language use, i.e. codeswitching, in relation to overall language functions. In this chapter, I identify and examine another distinctive feature emerging from L2 learners' language use, i.e. the use of repetition, which may represent the learners' strategic use of language. Learners frequently used repetition at different levels, such as at the level of words, phrases, or sentences. Learners' repetition emerging from the data could be identified under some criteria as Tanen (1987) suggested. Namely, learners repeated what they said (i.e. self-repetition) or repeated what the interlocutor said (i.e. allo-repetition or other-repetition). Also, repetition was sometimes an exact repetition of what was said and sometimes repetition with variation (e.g., codeswitched words or sentences). In addition, learners partially or fully repeated what they said either intentionally or habitually. In this chapter, learners' self-repetition and allo-repetition are dealt with in terms of their functions, i.e. communicative, cognitive and socio-affective functions.

5.2. Using self-repetition

Learners' repetition served various functions. In this section, learners' self-repetition is addressed focusing on its communicative, cognitive, and socio-affective functions.

5.2.1. Communicative functions

Self-repetition was frequently employed when learners tried to construct or maintain their speech or conversation. Extract 5.1 demonstrates the communicative function that pupils' self-repetition served, particularly while asserting one's ideas and seeking others' agreement. The task required pupils to complete their role-play script by filling blanks with comparative forms of adjectives or objects of the preposition, 'than' (see Figure 1 of Chapter 4)

Extract 5.1

Asserting One's Ideas and Seeking Others' Agreement (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Jaeseok: Hey, hey. <Reads the first line> Look at the hippo. It's really
2 big. It's bigger than the ...
- 3 Jinwoo: Than the Eifel Tower, than the Eifel Tower. 아, 아! <Touches
4 Huiju's arm with his pencil> It's bigger than the Eifel Tower.
5 Bu, bu, bu Burj Khalifa, Burj Khalifa 어때?
6 Than the Eifel Tower, than the Eifel Tower. [Hey, hey!]
7 <Touches Huiju's arm with his pencil> It's bigger than the Eifel
8 Tower. [How about] bu, bu, bu Burj Khalifa, Burj Khalifa?
- 9 Huiju: 아이, 그거는,
10 [My goodness, that,]
- 11 Jinwoo: 왜?
12 [Why?]
- 13 Huiju: Burj Khalifa, 아유, 맘대로 하라구. Burj Khalifa는 진짜 아니다.
14 Burj Khalifa, [my goodness! Get your way. Burji Khalifa is not
15 really appropriate.]

Interrupting Jaeseok's utterance, Jinwoo uttered 'than the Eifel Tower' (line 3) and repeated it (line 3) presumably because he wanted to be heard by others in his group. Jinwoo also repeated the phrase inserted in a full L2 sentence (line 4). Jinwoo's repetition of 'than the Eifel Tower' seems to have been aimed to both assert his idea strongly and to ask for agreement from others. Immediately after suggesting the Eifel Tower was a tall building, Jinwoo suggested another tall building, Burj Khalifa. He repeated the syllable 'bu' three times in order to retrieve the exact name of the building from his memory (line 5). Jinwoo also uttered the full name of the building repeatedly (line 5) after coming up with the exact name. Jinwoo's self-repetition here seems to have served some other functions. The repetition of the syllable 'bu' seems to have functioned both to retrieve the name of the building from his memory in the form of private speech on the intrapersonal plane and to hold the floor on the interpersonal plane. On the other hand, the repetition of the full name, 'Burj Khalifa', seems to have functioned both to seek others' agreement and to display his eagerness to insist on his opinion. Namely, repetition used in this context is seen to have served the cognitive and communicative functions.

Pupils employed self-repetition in order not only to assert their opinions but also

to argue with each other. Extract 5.2 shows how pupils used self-repetition to argue how to fill in one of the blanks of their role-play script. Pupils in this group were discussing what to put in the blank of the sentence, ‘the cheetah is faster than ()’.

Extract 5.2

Arguing with Each Other (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Suji: <Looks at the worksheet and reads a line of the role-play
2 script from the worksheet> The cheetah is faster than...
3 Junghwa: Justin teacher.
4 Minji: Me.
5 Suji: 이나영 쌤.
6 [Lee, Nayoung teacher.]
7 Junghwa: 야, 야! <Points at Minji> 애를 할지 Justin 쌤을 할지...
8 [Hey, hey!] <Points at Minji> [Whom to choose between her
9 and Justin teacher...]
10 Suji: 이나영 쌤.
11 [Lee, Nayoung teacher.]
12 Soyeon: <Whispers to Junghwa> Justin, Justin.
13 Minji: <Looks at Junghwa> Justin, Justin! Justin이 나올 것 같아.
14 <Looks at Junghwa> Justin, Justin! Justin seems to be better.
15 Junghwa: 빨리 정해.
16 [Choose one quickly.]
17 Minji: <To Junghwa> Justin, Justin!
18 Junghwa: Justin 쌤 [teacher], Minji.
19 Soyeon: Justin, Justin, Justin.
20 Minji: Justin 쌤 [teacher]. The cheetah is faster than...
21 <Everyone writes Justin in the blank on their own worksheet.>

While Suji insisted that they should put the Korean EFL teacher, Nayoung, in the place of something or someone being slower than a cheetah (lines 5 and 10), others held that the native English-speaking (NES) teacher, Justin, should be put there (lines 3, 13, 18, 19, 20 and 21). Interestingly, they all used self-repetition, either within the same turn or across the turns when they argued. Pupils’ self-repetition seems to have been easily and habitually used as a strategy for making their voice heard or persuading others to follow their ideas by emphasising their ideas when they argued. In the interview, Soyeon supports this observation. Soyeon said that she habitually repeated her utterance several times in order to emphasise her words. “It is my habit (to repeat my utterances several times). I think I do this in order to emphasise my words. I always repeat my words two or

three times unconsciously.” (Soyeon, EFL learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard, Interview, 2, February 2016).

Pupils’ self-repetition sometimes seems to have been used to make them understood clearly. Extract 5.3 gives an example of how pupils used self-repetition in order to clarify what they said during the task that required pupils to discuss in a group to make a comparative sentence. Pupils were also required to collectively write it on their group board after seeing scrambled words shown on the screen in a short period of time.

Extract 5.3

Clarifying What Is Said (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Hyunmin: Bigger than a watermelon!
2 Yewon: Apple.
3 Minsu: 뭐? Watermelon이 더 크잖아요.
4 [What? Watermelon is bigger.]
5 Yewon: 어, 수박이 크잖아요.
6 [Yeah, a watermelon is bigger.]
7 Hyunmin: 뭘 소리아?
8 [What do you mean?]
9 Yewon: 어, 수박이 크잖아요. 그러니까 than an apple.
10 [Um, a watermelon is bigger, so ‘than an apple’.]
11 <Jaeseok wrote ‘Watermelon is bigger than apple’ and holds up the
12 board so that the group mates can see what he has written.>
13 Yewon: <Reads the sentence on the board> 괜찮아, 괜찮아. 어, 어,
14 어, 어 <Points at the sentence on the board> an 이에요, an.
15 Apple 앞에 an.
16 <Reads the sentence on the board> [It’s good, it’s good. Oh,
17 oh, oh, oh, <Points at the sentence on the board> it should be
18 an, an. An in front of apple.

After seeing the unscrambled words on the screen, Hyunmin guessed the sentence by saying ‘bigger than a watermelon’ quickly (line 1). Then, Yewon uttered ‘apple’ with the intention of correcting the last word of Hyunmin’s previous utterance from watermelon to apple (line 2). Minsu, who misunderstood Yewon’s intention, argued that a watermelon was bigger than an apple (line 3). Yewon showed her agreement with Minsu’s by repeating what Minsu said, only replacing the L2 word, watermelon, with the equivalent L1 word, 수박 (line 5). Hyunmin,

who did not understand what Minsu and Yewon meant, asked Yewon for clarification (line 7), and Yewon repeated what she said previously, adding ‘than an apple’, in order to help Hyunmin understand what his problem was (line 9). Listening to all discussion, Jaeseok, who was the group writer, wrote the sentence, ‘Watermelon is bigger than apple’ (line 11). Then, Yewon repeated ‘an’ three times to correct Jaeseok’s writing and added ‘Apple 앞에 [*in front of apple*] to deliver exactly what she meant (lines 14 and 15). This observation suggests that pupils might not only repeat exactly what they said but also repeat with some variation such as adding something important, in order to clarify their utterance and to help others’ understanding simultaneously. Pupils’ repetition used for clarifying what was said seems to have functioned as a tool for scaffolding others to get involved in their conversation or their task appropriately on the basis of clear understanding of what was said.

Pupils also used codeswitched self-repetition when they tried to clarify what was said. Pupils often uttered an L1 (or L2) word/sentence and then repeated its equivalent codeswitched word/sentence as shown in Extract 5.4 and 5.5. In Extract 5.4, Minhoo and Hyunbin were doing their task that required them to choose four jobs necessary for surviving on the ruined earth after a great flood.

Extract 5.4

Clarifying What Was Said and Gaining Time: The Use of Codeswitched Self-repetition from L2 to L1 (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Hyunbin: <Looks at the worksheet and checks whether the doctor is
 2 on the example list>응, 의사 있어. 그리고 farmer 농사
 3 사람도 있어야 돼. Yes.
 4 <Looks at the worksheet and checks whether the doctor is on
 5 the example list> [Yes, there is a doctor, and] farmer, [a farm
 6 work person should be included.] Yes.
 7 Minhoo: 왜?
 8 [*Why?*]
 9 Hyunbin: 음식을, 그럼은 해야 돼서.
 10 [*Food is, then, needed.*]
 11 Minhoo: 어떻게 farm, 배 안에 farmer야?
 12 [*How*] farm, [*((how)) is there a*] farmer [*in the boat*]?
 13 Hyunbin: You can.
 14 Minhoo: <Laughs>

- 15 Hyunbin: You can make, like, actually a farm in the boat.
 16 Minhoo: 잠깐만.
 17 [Hold on.]
 18 Hyunbin: You can make, like, holes, yeah?
 19 Minhoo: Do you think we need 요리사? Like a chef, chef?
 20 Do you think we need [a chef]? Like a chef, chef?
 21 Hyunbin: No, the mommy probably knows.

Hyunbin and Minhoo already agreed to include a doctor in their choice and discussed another necessary job. Hyunbin suggested that there should be a farmer in the boat (lines 2 and 3). He initially uttered the L1 word, farmer, and then repeated it in the codeswitched version. Interestingly, the codeswitched L2 phrase, ‘농사 사람 [*a farm work person*]’, was a phrase that was felt weird by native Korean speakers, even though it was understandable. Hyunbin’s insufficient knowledge of L2 vocabulary might have led to the use of the L1 word in the L2 sentence followed by the imperfect but equivalent L2 phrase, i.e. 농사사람 [*a farm work person*] (lines 2 and 3). Here, Hyunbin’s L1 was used to gain time for retrieving the appropriate L2 word from his memory. After listening to Hyunbin’s talk that a farmer was an indispensable job because food was necessary, Minhoo asked to Hyunbin whether he meant a chef (line 19). At this time, Minhoo initially uttered the L2 word, 요리사 [*chef*], within his L1 sentence. Then, he codeswitched it to its equivalent L1 word and repeated the L1 word (line 19). Here, Minhoo seems to have used the codeswitched repetition in order to help Hyunbin fully understand what he meant. In this respect, this observation suggests that codeswitched self-repetition may not only function as a communication strategy for keeping the floor or recalling appropriate vocabulary but also serve the cognitive function of scaffolding others.

In order to clarify what was said, pupils used self-repetition codeswitched not only from L2 to L1 but also L1 to L2, as in Extract 5.5. The task was that Siyoon should deliver to Seungho what he read from the teacher’s written words informing them about a school field trip. Seungho was asked to write the summary of what was said by Siyoon.

Extract 5.5

Clariying What Is Said: The Use of Codeswitched Self-repetition from L1 to L2 (KHL Learners in Year 3 at Green Hill)

- 1 Siyoon: Oh, um, um, you don't need a lunch box. 도시락은 필요
2 없습니다.
3 Oh, um, um, you don't need a lunch box. [You don't need a
4 lunch box.]
5 Seungho: Yeah.

Siyoon initially said that they did not need a lunch box in L1 (line 1). Then, he codeswitched and repeated the equivalent L2 sentence, '도시락은 필요 없습니다' (lines 1 and 2). Siyoon first used L1 to deliver what he read, and then used codeswitched repetition to help Seungho write the content properly in L2. In other words, Siyoon used codeswitched repetition to scaffold Seungho to complete his task successfully by providing an idealised model for writing. In the interview, Junghwa emphasised the function of self-repetition as a tool for scaffolding when she was asked why she often repeated the same thing in conversations with other pupils. "*((I say some words)) repeatedly to help my friends who do not understand what I mean*" (Junghwa, EFL learners in Year at The Boulevard, 6, 29, February 2016). Pupils' self-repetition may function as a useful tool for constructing scaffolded help, which enables pupils to carry out L2 tasks successfully (DiCamilla & Antón, 1997; Roebuck & Wagner, 2004).

Extract 5.6 illustrates pupils' use of self-repetition when they were convinced of and convinced others of their idea. The task was to guess the meaning of an L2 homonym, '오르다', and to choose its synonym in context. Namely, pupils were asked to discuss the meaning of the word in sentences and to decide which synonym could be replaced in context.

Extract 5.6

Convincing Others of One's Idea (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minho: Go. <Reads a sentence on the worksheet> 기차에 오른 것은
2 한밤중이 되어서였다. 기차에,
3 Go. <Reads a sentence on the worksheet> [It was midnight to
4 get on the train.]

- 5 Hyunbin: 기차에 오른 것은 한밤중이... 타다, 타다.
6 [(It was) midnight to get on the train... board, board.]
7 Minho: What?
8 Hyunbin: 기차에 오른 것은, 기차에 오른 것은, like 타다 on the 기차
9 [To get on the train, to get on the train,] like,[board] on the
10 [train].
11 Minho: Okay, yeah, yeah, yeah.
12 Hyunbin: <Reads another sentence on the worksheet> 올해는 가뭄이,
13 가뭄이 들어 채솟값이... <Points at another sentence> let's
14 do this one and then <Points at the previous sentence> (xxx)
15 <Reads another sentence on the worksheet> [This year, due
16 to the drought, the drought, price of vegetables... <Points at
17 another sentence> let's do this one, and then <Points at the
18 previous sentence> (xxx)
19 Minho: No, no, no! This is 비싸지, yeah, yeah, yeah. I think this is
20 비싸지다. 왜냐면, 많이 올랐다, like, I think 비싸지다
21 No, no, no! This is [to become expen((sive))], yeah, yeah,
22 yeah. I think this is [to become expensive because 'to have
23 risen a lot' ((means))], like, I think, [to become expensive].

While discussing the meaning of the L2 homonym ‘오르다’ in the sentence, ‘기차에 오른 것은 한밤중이 되어서였다 [*It was midnight to get on the train*]’, Hyunbin uttered ‘타다 [*board*]’ repeatedly (line 5) when he came up with the meaning of the word. Hyunbin repeated ‘타다 [*board*]’ again (line 8) because he made sure that ‘타다’ was the synonym and sought agreement from his partner, Minho. Hyunbin’s self-repetition was used to express how strongly he felt assured of this meaning. Similarly, Minho repeated ‘비싸지다 [*to become expensive*]’ in order to convince Hyunbin of his guess (lines 19 and 20) when he guessed another meaning of the L2 homonym ‘오르다’ in a different context.

Pupils also frequently repeated ‘yes’ or ‘okay’ when they expressed their strong agreement, and ‘no’ when they expressed their strong disagreement. Extract 5.7 provides an example of pupils’ repetition of affirmative responses in order to express strong agreement or acceptance, and Extract 5.8 gives an example of pupils’ repetition of ‘no’ in order to express strong disagreement. In Extract 5.7,

pupils were talking about which poem to choose for their performance from the collection of poems provided on their worksheet after sharing their feelings about their favourite.

Extract 5.7

Emphasising one's Affirmative Response (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minho: Which one to be chosen?
- 2 Suhyun: Which one do you think will be easy to...?
- 3 Minho: We can do two.
- 4 Suhyun: <Stands up and pretends to fart> Ooh! 방귀, ich!
- 5 <Stands up and pretends to fart> Ooh! [Fart], ich!
- 6 <Minho and Shinhye laughs loudly and Minho claps his hands.>
- 7 Minho: <Laughs and points at a poem on the sheet> We are to read
- 8 this.
- 9 Suhyun: Okay, okay, okay.
- 10 Minho: That will be so funny.
- 11 Suhyun: Wait, <Points at the poem> all of this?
- 12 Minho: <Laughs> Yeah, yeah, yeah.
- 13 Suhyun: Okay, let's do all of that.

During a discussion about choosing a poem for their performance, Suhyun suggested choosing the poem, 'A rice puffing machine' by saying '방귀 [fart]' with the farting motion (line 4), because the word '방귀' appeared in the poem. After laughing loudly, Minho suggested reading the poem first (lines 7 and 8), and Suhyun expressed his strong agreement or acceptance by repeating 'okay' (line 9). Minho repeated 'yeah' with the intent to emphasise his affirmative response (line 12) when he answered Suhyun's question asking whether they should read all of the poem (line 11).

Extract 5.8 shows learners' repetition used to express the strong opposition. The task required pupils to fill in the blanks of their worksheet with comparative forms of verbs or objects of prepositions to complete their role-play script.

Extract 5.8

Emphasising One's Negative Response (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Yewon: <Looks at Aera> It's cuter than 김호준, 김호준, 김호준.
- 2 <Looks at Aera> It's cuter than [Hojun Kim, Hojun Kim, Hojun
- 3 Kim].

- 4 Aera: No, 호준 is much cuter... <After a while> 현민!
 5 No, [Hojun] is much cuter... <After a while> Hyunmin!
 6 Hyunmin: No.
 7 Aera: Hyunmin
 8 Inpyo: Why?
 9 Aera: <Points at Hyunmin> 현민! <Looks at Yewon> 인표, 인표,
 10 인표.
 11 <Points at Hyunmin> Hyunmin! <Looks at Yewon> Inpyo,
 12 Inpyo, Inpyo.
 13 Inpyo: No, no, no! No way, no way!

While talking about how to fill in the blank of the sentence, 'It's cuter than ()', each of pupils gave their own ideas (lines 1, 4, 7, 9, and 10). Inpyo, whose name was mentioned by Aera, actively expressed his opposition to filling the blank with his own name, by repeating 'no' and 'no way' (line 13). The repetition of 'no' and 'no way' was used to express strong objections. Pupils seem to have habitually repeated some words such as 'yes', 'no' or 'okay' to emphasise their affirmative or negative responses.

Pupils also used self-repetition to appeal their opinions to others by emphasising their utterances (Extract 5.9). In this Extract, pupils were generating sentences related to health problems in order to later present them with body motions in front of the whole class.

Extract 5.9

Emphasising one's Utterance (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Yewon: I have a sore throat.
 2 Aera: I said it, I said it. Fever and cold.
 3 Yewon: <Taps her forehead with her finger> 아, 내가 fever 했어.
 4 <Taps her forehead with her finger> Hey, I said] fever.
 5 Aera: <Looks at Yewon> Cold 해, cold, cold.
 6 <Looks at Yewon> [Say] cold, cold, cold.

After Yewon gave her idea (line 1), Aera used self-repetition to emphasise that she already said what Yewon would say (line 2). Area also employed self-repetition to appeal her opinion to others (line 5). Self-repetition seems to have served to efficiently deliver this intention of pupils. In the interview, Soyeon agreed that she tended to repeat what she said in order to emphasise it. "It is my habit to

repeat (my words). I think I do to emphasise my words. Unconsciously, I repeat my words two or three times” (Soyeon, EFL learner in Year 6 at The Boulevard, Interview, 26, February 2016).

Interestingly, Year 3 pupils in The Boulevard frequently repeated ‘me’ so that they could be chosen by their game leader in their language games (Extract 5.10). The task required pupils to play a card game for practicing the target sentences of ‘How many ~ are there?’ and ‘There are/is ~’ along with certain language items such as animal names and numbers. All pupils in this group were supposed to take turns in leading each round of the game. A person, who led the game, chose three cards first from the deck and others guessed in turn what cards the person had by asking the question, ‘How many cows are there?’. If the person had a card containing three cows, he had to say, ‘There are three cows’, and then had to give the card to the person who guessed right. The round continued until the game leader ran out of cards. In this game, the pupil who played a leading role had the power to decide who was going to ask a question first, so pupils competitively appealed to the leader in order to be chosen.

Extract 5.10

Appealing to Others (EFL Learners in Year 3 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Yerim: My turn!
- 2 <Junha arranges the cards and gives them to Yerim. Yerim casts a look
- 3 at the cards, choosing three cards from the deck.>
- 4 Eunjae: 보면 안돼.
- 5 [You should not see them.]
- 6 Yerim: <Shakes her head> 안봐, 안봐.
- 7 <Shakes her head> [I’m not seeing ((them)), I’m not seeing
- 8 ((them)).]
- 9 Junha: <Raises his hand> Me, me, me, me, me, me!
- 10 <Yerim gives Junha a chance.>
- 11 Junha: How many (.) birds are there?
- 12 Yerim: There are zero birds.

Yerim was the person leading the game and deciding who would ask a question first. Choosing three cards from the deck, Yerim cast a look at the cards, and Eunjae warned her not to see the cards (line 4). Yerim denied it by repeatedly uttering that she was not seeing them (line 6). Then, Junha appealed to Yerim for picking him to ask a question first by repeating ‘me’ (line 9). Junha’s self-repetition

with Hyunju's comment in the interview, Hyunju shared her experience by mentioning that she repeated her words when she wanted to draw attention from others. *"I have a habit of repeating my words when I feel nervous or too anxious. Or I do that when my friends or other people do not try to hear my talk"* (Hyunju, EFL learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard, Interview, 25, February 2016).

Pupils commonly employed self-repetition as a hesitation filler when they needed time to think about what to say next or recall appropriate words, especially while using L2. Extract 5.12 illustrates pupil's use of self-repetition as a hesitation device for keeping the floor while formulating the next words. The task required pupils to complete their role-play script with blanks.

Extract 5.12

Hesitating to Keep the Floor (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- | | | |
|---|----------|---|
| 1 | Jinwoo: | <Reads the sixth line with a blank in the place of an object> |
| 2 | | I think you are taller than the ... |
| 3 | Jaeseok: | Galaxy. |
| 4 | Jinwoo: | Than, than the pencil. |
| 5 | Huiju: | Okay. |

Jinwoo repeated 'than' when he needed time to think of what to say (lines 2 and 4). While his pause enabled Jaeseok to interrupt him (lines 2 and 3), his self-repetition enabled him to complete what he wanted to say without any interruption from his interlocutors (line 4). In this respect, learners' self-repetition seems to function as an effective tool for L2 learners, who have limited L2 proficiency and are not familiar with L2 hesitation fillers, to gain time by hesitating. Self-repetition is seen as natural and necessary for L2 learners to stall for time for planning what to say and to continue L2 speech (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

However, pupils' self-repetition did not always successfully serve the function of keeping the floor, shown in Extract 5.13. In this Extract, while discussing and choosing four jobs necessary for surviving on the ruined Earth, Minho used self-repetition as a hesitation filler, but his attempt to hold the floor failed.

Extract 5.13

Hesitating to Gain Time to Think of What to Say (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minho: 잠깐만, 나는 네 개 있어. 어부, 왜냐면
2 [Hold on, I have four things. A fisherman /eobu/, because...]
3 Hyunbin: 어부가 뭐야?
4 [What is /eobu/?]
5 Minho: <Pretends to toss a hook into water> Fisherman, 왜냐면,
6 왜냐면 ...
7 <Pretends to toss a hook into water> Fisherman, [because,
8 because ...]
9 Hyunbin: You need a farmer rather than a fisherman and an animal
10 breeder. Farmer, yes, they can breed animals.

Minho said in L2 that a fisherman was necessary (line 1), and Hyunbin asked what the L2 word ‘어부 [fisherman]’ meant (line 3). Then, Minho answered directly what the word meant in L1 without hesitating because he was already aware of its equivalent L1 word (line 5). However, immediately after uttering ‘fisherman’, he hesitated by saying ‘왜냐면 [because]’ repeatedly (lines 5 and 6). He seems to have needed to stall for time in order to think about the reason why he thought a fisherman was necessary. Unfortunately, Minho did not give the reason after repeating ‘왜냐면’. His repetition followed by a pause did not succeed in holding the floor, being cut in by Hyunbin (lines 9).

In this subsection, learners’ self-repetition was analysed focusing on its communicative functions which enabled learners to communicate with each other smoothly and to effectively deliver what they wanted to say or intend. The next subsection deals with learners’ self-repetition focusing on its socio-affective functions.

5.2.2. Socio-affective functions

Pupils’ self-repetition was often used as socio-affective functions, such as to direct others’ behaviour, to encourage or compliment others, or to express one’s emotions. Extract 5.14 shows that pupils used self-repetition to direct others’

involvement or behaviour, as Duff (2000) claims. The task was the card game for practicing target expressions, which was described in Extract 5.10 above.

Extract 5.14

Directing Others' Involvement or Behaviour (EFL Learners in Year 3 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Yerim: 이제 그만! 세 장 뽑아, 이제 세 장 뽑아.
2 [Stop it, now! Pick up three cards, now, pick up three cards.]
3 Seojun: 응?
4 [Huh?]
5 Yerim: 세 장 뽑아. 보여주지 마, 보여주지 마.
6 [Pick up three cards. Don't show them, don't show them.]
7 <Seojun does not do it quickly>
8 Yerim: 빨리!
9 [Hurry up!]
10 <Seojun chose three cards from the deck and pointed at Junha to
11 signal him to ask a question first.>

It was time for Seojun to choose the cards and lead the game, but Seojun dawdled and did not start. Then, Yerim repeated simple imperative sentences directing Seojun's involvement (lines 1 and 5). Initially, Yerim directed Seojun to choose three cards by saying '세 장 뽑아 [*pick up three cards*]' in L1 repeatedly (line 1), and she repeated the sentence once more (line 5) immediately after Seojun requested Yerim to say it again by uttering '응[*huh*]?' (line 3). Yerim repeated another L1 imperative sentence, i.e. '보여주지마 [*Don't show them*]' (line 5). Yerim's utterances might have felt like commands on the listener's side because they consisted of short imperative sentences and were said strongly, but her repeated short sentences successfully elicited participation from Seojun (lines 10 and 11). Yerim's simplified and repeated step-by-step instructions seem to have served to scaffold Seojun to participate in and to play the game properly.

Pupils also repeated the same utterance when they disciplined others' behaviour. In Extract 5.15, pupils were making a sentence collaboratively using unscrambled words shown on the screen in an instant. They were required to write their answer on their group board, and then to hold it up at the same time with other groups in order to check whether their answers were correct or not.

Extract 5.15

Disciplining Others' Behaviour (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Jinwoo: <Looks at his group's white board, on which the sentence,
2 '강호동 [*Hodong Kang*] is faster than 김종국 [*Jongkook Kim*]
3 and reads out> 강호동 is faster than 김종국. <Points at a
4 neighbour group's board, on which a wrong sentence was
5 written, and laughs> 개리 is faster than 김종국이래. <After a
6 teacher signals everyone to read the answer together, reads
7 it pointing the finger at the neighbour group with intent to
8 tease the group> 강호동 is faster than 김종국.
9 <Looks at his group's white board, on which the sentence,
10 '강호동 [*Hodong Kang*] is faster than 김종국 [*Jongkook Kim*]
11 and reads out> [*Hodong Kang*] is faster than [*Jongkook Kim*].
12 <Points at a neighbour group's board, on which a wrong
13 sentence was written, and laughs> [*They wrote that Gary*] is
14 faster than [*Jongkook Kim*]. <After a teacher signals everyone
15 to read the answer together, reads it pointing the finger at the
16 neighbour group with intent to tease the group> [*Hodong
17 Kang*] is faster than [*Jongkook Kim*].
18 Huiju: <Looks at Jinwoo> 그러지마, 그러지마, 그러지마, 그러지마,
19 그러지마.
20 <Looks at Jinwoo> *Don't do that, don't do that, don't do that,*
21 *don't do that, don't do that.*

Jinwoo, who was convinced that his group wrote the correct answer, read aloud the answer in a playful way, pointing at the neighbour group, who wrote a wrong answer, with intent to tease the pupils in the group (lines 1 to 9). Then, Huiju, one of Jinwoo's groupmates, told him not to tease the other group, repeating '그러지마 [*Don't do that*]' (lines 18 and 19). Huiju's repetition seems to have functioned effectively as a means for disciplining Jinwoo's behaviour, in that she emphasised that Jinwoo should not tease others and she did not give any time for Jinwoo to keep teasing simultaneously by repeating '그러지마' several times.

Extract 5.16 provides another example of pupils' repetition used as a tool for disciplining others' behaviour, but with variation. The task required pupils to make a sentence collaboratively and to write it on their group board after reading three hints. Every pupil had to write a sentence in turn on behalf of their group, and it was time for Donghun to write an answer.

Extract 5.16

Disciplining Others' Behaviour with a Variation (EFL Learners in Year 3 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Donghun: <After reading the first hint, 'I'm a kind of horse', provided on
2 the screen> Zebra.
- 3 Sarang: <After the second hint, 'I am black and white'> 왜?
4 <After the second hint, 'I am black and white'> [Why?]
- 5 Hyunseo: <Whispers to Sarang> Zebra, Zebra.
- 6 Sarang: <After reading the third hint, 'I have many stripes', looks at
7 Donghun> Zebra, zebra. Z-e, 야, zebra. 너도 알지?
8 <After reading the third hint, 'I have many stripes', looks at
9 Donghun> Zebra, zebra. z-e, [hey], zebra. [You know it, huh?]
- 10 Donghun: Zebra. <Writes 'a zebra' on the board and then tries to draw
11 a zebra>
- 12 Sarang: <Looks at Donghun> 아이, 그런 건 안 그려도 돼. 그런 건
13 그리지마.
14 <Looks at Donghun> [Oh, you don't have to draw such a thing.
15 Don't draw such a thing.]

Donghun, who was the writer of his group at this time, quickly noticed what the first hint meant (lines 1 and 2). Hyunseo and Sarang noticed what animal the hints indicated after other hints were provided (lines 5, 6 and 7). After writing the answer on the group board, Donghun tried to draw a zebra (lines 11 and 12), and Sarang forbade him to draw it by saying two sentences (line 13 and 14). The two sentences that Sarang uttered in L1 to prevent Donghun from drawing it were not in the same form but delivered the same meaning. In other words, the first sentence, which was a declarative sentence, was repeated with variation, i.e. in the form of an imperative sentence. The repeated sentence, i.e. the imperative sentence, seems to have been used not only to more clearly discipline Donghun but also effectively deliver her intention towards Donghun. In this respect, self-repetition may also function as a mediational tool for reinforcing what is intended (Duff, 2000).

Pupils used self-repetition when they encouraged others, as shown in Extract 5.17. In this Extract, Sarang was a writer in her group, who should write an animal's name on behalf of her group after all hints were given.

Extract 5.17

Encouraging Others (EFL Learners in Year 3 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Donghun: <Looks at Sarang> 잘해, 잘해.
2 <Looks at Sarang> [Go for it, go for it.]
3 Sarang: <Looks at Donghun> 쓸 때 ‘There are many cows’ 아니면
4 ‘There are cows’ 쓰는...?
5 <Looks at Donghun> [When I write, ((should I)) I write] ‘There
6 are many cows’ [or] ‘There are cows’?

Donghun looked excited because this task was performed in the form of competition with other groups. Before Sarang started to write the answer, ‘cow’, Donghun exclaimed ‘잘해 [go for it]’ repeatedly (line 1). He encouraged Sarang by repeating the phrase, wishing her well in writing the answer. Donghun’s repeated utterance seems to have functioned as a tool for delivering his cordiality to encourage Sarang.

Pupils also used self-repetition when they made a compliment to others, as illustrated in Extract 5.18. In this Extract, pupils were practicing reading the role-play script that they had completed.

Extract 5.18

Complimenting Others (EFL Learners in Year 3 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Inpyo: <Reads his last line of the role-play script, which his group
2 completed> I am better than you all. I am smarter than
3 everybody!
4 Hyunmin, Yewon, Aera: <Reads the last line together> No way!
5 <Everyone laughs>
6 Aera: <Claps her hands> 와, 잘 했다, 잘 했어!
7 <Claps her hands> Wow, well done, well done!

Immediately after pupils finished reading through the role-play script, Aera made a compliment to her group by clapping her hands and saying ‘잘 했다, 잘 했어’ in L1 (line 6). Her repeated utterances seems to have served not only to deliver her praise for but also to show her satisfaction with her group’s performance.

In many cases, pupils were observed to use self-repetition habitually without any special intention, as shown Extract 5.19. In this Extract, pupils had to make a

sentence collectively, using unscrambled words shown on the screen in a moment.

Extract 5.19

Unconscious or Habitual Use of Self-repetition (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Jinwoo: <After catching the unscrambled words shown on the screen
2 in a moment> A train is faster than a car.
3 <Huiju writes the sentence 'A train is faster than a car' on the group
4 board.>
5
6 Inpyo: <In a low voice> Shall we say it's a cat?
7 Jinwoo: <Pauses for a while and waves his finger> Yeah, yeah, yeah,
8 yeah, okay, okay.
9 Inpyo: Pass.
10 Jinwoo: Yeah, yeah, of course. Some cars like Veneno Roadster
11 super something car is...
12 Inpyo <Taps Jinwoo on his hand and his shoulder with intent to
13 stop Jinwoo> A cat, not a car.
14 Jinwoo: So, so, so,
15 Inpyo: I know, I know.
16 Jinwoo: Yeah, yeah, yeah.
17 Aera: <Shushes Jinwoo and Inpyo> Shhhhh!
18 Huiju: <Almost at the same time with Aera, looks at Jinwoo and
19 Inpyo> Hey!
20 Jinwoo: <Looks at Huiju> Okay, okay, okay, okay

After Huiju wrote the answer on the group board (lines 3 and 4), Inpyo, in an undertone, suggested his group mates say a cat instead of a car with the intent to confuse other groups who might hear what they were talking about (line 6). Jinwoo did not show any particular response for a while because he initially did not realise Inpyo's intention (line 7). After a while, Jinwoo noticed what Inpyo intended to do and showed his understanding and agreement by repeating 'yeah' and 'okay' (lines 7 and 8). However, Jinwoo tried to continue talking about a car even though he agreed with Inpyo after noticing Inpyo's intention (lines 10 and 11). Then, Inpyo cut in Jinwoo's utterance (line 13). Jinwoo and Inpyo carried on their chat by repeating several short words (lines 14 to 16). Interestingly, their repeated short utterances seem to have successfully functioned as a tool for delivering what they wanted to say and enabled them to understand each other, even though the utterances did not contain enough information about what they wanted to deliver. Their utterances seems to have been contextualised. Both Inpyo's and Jinwoo's

utterances were understandable in context, so the use of self-repetition might have helped Inpyo and Jinwoo convey their message connotatively. Their chat consisting of the repeated words was blocked by Aera’s interjection to urge silence (line 17) and Huiju’s interjection to warn them (line 19). Jinwoo also repeated ‘okay’, responding to Aera’s and Huiju’s warnings (line 20). Here, Jinwoo’s use of self-repetition seems to have served the dual functions of expressing exaggeratively his agreement with them and blocking their further nag. This self-repetition by pupils seems to have been used habitually to some extent. Even though the repeated parts of learners’ utterances are omitted from this Extract, there would have been no problems in understanding learners’ talk. In the interview, Ara acknowledged the habitual use of repetition in order to be heard by others even though she did not make sure of its effectiveness. “((*I think people repeated their words*)) because they were afraid that they were not heard by other friends. *I don’t think it is of big help, but I repeated habitually*” (Ara, EFL learners in Year 6, 27, February 2016).

Pupils also seem to have used self-repetition unconsciously when they were excited. Extract 5.20 demonstrates that a pupil expressed his feeling of excitement or pleasure by using self-repetition when he came up with a solution. The task was to guess the meaning of the L2 hyponym ‘발 [foot]’ in context.

Extract 5.20

Expressing One’s Cognitive-based Feelings (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Hyunbin: Um, (.) <Reads his worksheet> 발을 다, (.) uh, I don’t get it.
 2 Just two senses of ... <Laughs and points at what he is
 3 talking about on Minho’s worksheet> same. >>선생(.)님<<,
 4 *Um, (.) <Reads his worksheet> [got hurt fo-.](.) uh, I don’t get*
 5 *it. Just two senses of ... <Laughs and points at what he is*
 6 *talking about on Minho’s worksheet> same.*
 7 >>[TEA(.)CHER]<<
 8 Minho: <Touches Hyunbin> oh, oh, oh, oh, oh! 신체의 발. <Puts his
 9 pencil down, and smiles> I think I know (xxx).
 10 <Touches Hyunbin> *oh, oh, oh, oh, oh! [A foot of a physical*
 11 *body] <Puts his pencil down, and smiles> I think I know (xxx).*

Hyunbin and Minho were guessing the meaning of ‘발 [foot]’ in the sentence, ‘어제

축구를 하다가 발을 다쳤다 [*I hurt my foot while playing football yesterday*]. While discussing the meaning of ‘발 [*foof*] with Minho, Hyunbin tried to ask for help from the teacher (line 3). Then, Minho, who came to know the meaning of the word in context, expressed his excitement or pleasure of finding out the answer by repeating the L1 interjection ‘oh’ several times (line 8). His self-repetition of ‘oh’ seems to have served multiple functions such as expressing his excitement, informing Hyunbin of the fact that he himself found out the answer, and stopping Hyunbin to ask the teacher.

Self-repetition was often used for fun, as shown in Extract 5.21. Here, pupils were asked to complete their role-play script by filling in blanks through a discussion.

Extract 5.21

Using Self-repetition for Fun (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- | | | |
|---|----------|---|
| 1 | Aera: | <Reads the third line of the script> I like that tiger. It's very |
| 2 | | cute. It's cuter than the <Gives her idea> Yewon. |
| 3 | Hyunmin: | No, why, why? |
| 4 | Aera: | It's cuter than Yewon |
| 5 | Hyunmin: | Why, why, why? |
| 6 | Aera: | Yewon |
| 7 | Hyunmin: | Nope. |
| 8 | Aera: | Yewon |
| 9 | Hyunmin: | Nope. |

Aera put forward an idea of filling in the blank of the sentence ‘It’s cuter than the ()’, by saying the sentence ‘It’s cuter than the Yewon’ (line 2). Then, Hyumin expressed his disagreement and asked Aera the reason by repeating ‘why’ (line 3). Despite Hyunmin’s opposition, Aera repeated her previous utterance without the definite article, ‘the’, which was originally presented in the sentence written on the worksheet, in order to hold firm to her own idea (line 4). Hyunmin expressed his disagreement by repeating ‘why’ again (line 5), and Aera kept saying ‘Yewon’ (line 6). Hyunmin and Aera continued their conversation repeating ‘nope’ and ‘Yewon’ respectively (lines 7 to 9). Their conversation seems not to have been serious. Aera and Hyumin just seem to have repeated their utterances for fun, not for deciding how to fill in the blank. This observation suggests that pupils may use self-repetition as a tool for making fun of each other or entertaining themselves.

Pupils also enjoyed themselves by recycling prior utterances. Children make a joke by recycling prior utterances before they master L2 (Cekaite & Aronsson, 2004). In Extract 5.22, Minhø and Hyunbin were talking about a job of a fisherman, which Minhø thought should be included in four jobs necessary for surviving on the ruined Earth after a great flood.

Extract 5.22

Using Self-repetition for Fun (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minhø: <Suddenly> Wait! The fisherman is the most important
2 because all the money will go into the water and then they
3 can pick up all the money. <Laughs>
4 <Hyunbin laughs, too>
5 Minhø: It makes sense.
6 Hyunbin: But there's no market there.
7 <Minhø seems to be embarrassed, and Hyunbin laughs loudly>
8 Minhø: No, but then we grab the food which went in the water. We'll
9 eat very salty food but then,
10 Hyunbin: Soggy rice
11 <Minhø claps and laughs>
12 Hyunbin: Soggy pasta.
13 Minhø: No, no, no! Like fruit, like fruit

Minhø said that a fisherman was necessary because the fisherman could pick up all the money sunken beneath the water (lines 1 to 3). Listening to Minhø's claim, Hyunbin laughed (line 4) and answered that there was no market where the money was available (line 6). Then, Minhø gave another reason why a fisherman was necessary (lines 8 and 9). He insisted that food would be able to be picked up from the water even though it might be salty. Then, Hyunbin agreed playfully by saying 'soggy rice' (line 10). Hyunbin's such utterance provoked Minhø's laughter (line 11), and Hyunbin recycled 'soggy' and substituted 'rice' with 'pasta' to provoke Minhø's laughter again (line 12). Hyunbin's such utterances also implied his objection to Minhø's idea which was to choose a fisherman. Then, Minhø did not laugh any more and stopped Hyunbin by repeating 'no' and giving a plausible type of food.

In this subsection, learner's self-repetition was analysed in terms of its socio-affective functions, which enabled learners to encourage or discipline each other's behaviour, or to effectively deliver their feelings or emotions. The next subsection addresses learners' self-repetition focusing on its cognitive functions.

5.2.3. Cognitive functions

Learners may repeat their utterances in the form of private speech when they face cognitively demanding situations (Ohta, 2001). Extract 5.23 illustrates how a pupil used self-repetition when he faced a cognitively or linguistically difficult problem. The task required pupils to collectively make up as many sentences as possible, using words provided in the word bank of their workbook, and to individually write the sentences on their workbook (Figure 5.1). The sentences that learners should make up had to be grammatically correct and semantically meaningful.

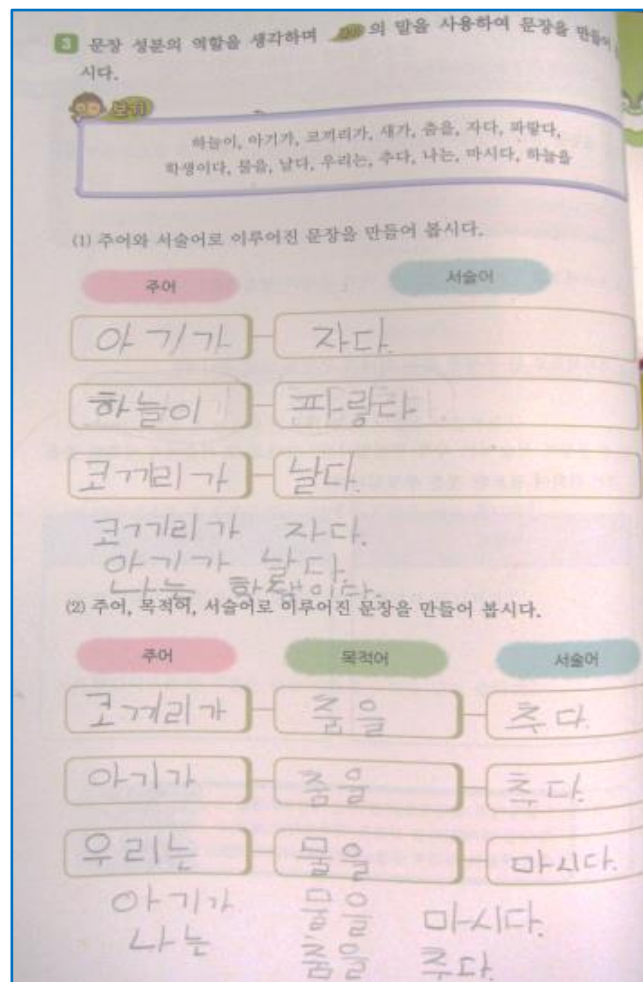


Figure 5.1. Suhyun's workbook (KHL learner in Year 6 at Green Hill)

Extract 5.23

Solving a Grammatical Issue: Self-repetition in the Form of Private Speech (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

1 Jaein: 아기가 물을 마시다. <Points at the bottom of the page of

2 Suhyun's workbook> For down there. <Writes the sentence,
3 '아기가 물을 마시다' in L2>
4 [A baby drinks water.] <Points at the part on Suhyun's
5 workbook> For down there. <Writes the sentence, '[A baby
6 drinks water]', in L2>
7 Suhyun: Okay. <Writes>
8 Jaein: 코끼리가 물을, 아니, 우리는, 우리는 춤쳤다. 춤을 쳤다.
9 우리는 춤을 쳤다. <Writes the sentence, '우리는 춤을 추다',
10 in Korean>
11 [An elephant drinks, no, we, we danced, danced a dance, we
12 danced a dance.] <Writes the sentence, '[We dance a dance]'
13 in Korean>
14 Suhyun: 나는 느리다.
15 [I am slow.]
16 Jaein: 아니야.
17 [No.]

During a discussion with Suhyun, Jaein repeated '우리는 [we]', '쳤다 [danced]', and '춤을 [a dance]' to formulate a sentence (lines 8 and 9), and he successfully completed a technically correct L2 sentence through this repetition (line 9). Jaein's repeated utterances seem to have been directed to himself in that the utterances were neither intended for nor expected for any response from his interlocutor, even though Jaein's utterances were audible to others. Private speech is audible to interlocutors, but interlocutors' response is not intended (Smolucha, 1992). Jaein seems to have experimented with the words by building up the words a little bit differently. His repetition in the form of private speech, which externalised his mental rehearsal, might have functioned as a crucial tool for leading him to the successful formulation of a sentence. This observation suggests that pupils' self-repetition may function as a mediational tool for mental activity to solve language problems and to achieve better language outcome.

Self-repetition in the form of private speech was also observed when pupils co-constructed content. While Extract 5.23 above illustrates the use of pupils' self-repetition as a tool for mental rehearsal to manipulate sentence structure, Extract 5.24 below demonstrates pupils' use of self-repetition as a tool for mental rehearsal to formulate content. The task required Minhø and Suhyun to write three short letters jointly after deciding the recipients to whom they would express their

sorriness, forgiveness, and appreciation respectively.

Extract 5.24

Resolving a Semantic Issue: Self-repetition in the Form of Private Speech (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minho: <Looks at the worksheet for a while> Wait! 이것을 엄마한테
2 말하는 걸로...
3 <Looks at the worksheet for a while>Wait! [*((How about*
4 *speaking to mum...)*]
5 Suhyun: Wait, what?
6 Minho: 그러면, no. Say, imagine we're speaking to mum.
7 *[Then], no. Say, imagine we're speaking to mum.*
8 Suhyun: Okay.
9 Minho: 그니까 엄마는,
10 *[Therefore, mum].*
11 Suhyun: 또 안할게요.
12 *[I won't do it again.]*
13 Minho: 엄마를 많이 사랑하고 <Waves his hand with intent to stop
14 thinking and just write> yea.
15 *[I love you a lot, mum, and]* <Waves his hand with intent to
16 stop thinking and just write> yeh.
17 Suhyun: Okay, wait. So is this letter to our mum, since, like,
18 <Pretends to write> 엄마, 이...
19 *Okay, wait. So is this letter to our mum, since, like, <Pretends*
20 *to write> [mum, this]...*
21 Minho: You can ...
22 Suhyun: Pretend this is our mum? Okay. So, like, 엄마, 사랑해.
23 *Pretend this is our mum? Okay. So, like, [I love you, mum].*
24 Minho: <Thinks aloud and writes> 진짜로는,
25 <Thinks aloud and writes> Really,
26 Suhyun: Then can I copy you?
27 Minho: <Gives a nod of allowing> 진짜로는, <Thinks aloud and
28 writes> 많이 사랑, 진짜로는 많이 사랑...
29 <Gives a nod of allowing> *[Really], <Thinks aloud and writes>*
30 *[((I)) love ((you)) a lot, really, ((I)) love ((you)) a lot,]*
31 Suhyun: <Thinks aloud and writes> 사랑하다.
32 <Thinks aloud and writes> *[((I)) love ((you))].*
33 Minho: <Thinks aloud and writes> 사랑하고,
34 <Thinks aloud and writes> *[((I)) love ((you)), and].*
35 Suhyun: 하고 이쁘다.
36 *[And ((you)) are pretty.]*
37 <Minho laughs>

Minho and Suhyun initially discussed what to write in their letter of expressing sorriness. After thinking for a while, Minho suggested that they would write the letter to mum (lines 1 and 2). Minho might have repeated his suggestion in L1, which was previously uttered in L2, presumably to help Suhyun with limited L2 competence, fully understand what Minho meant (line 6). This codeswitched self-repetition by Minho seems to have served to scaffold Suhyun to get involved in the task properly. After jointly formulating a little bit of the content (lines 9, 11, and 13), Suhyun requested clarification regarding whose mum the recipient was (lines 17, 18, and 22). On the other hand, Minho took the lead in the collaborative writing work by generating more ideas. Minho sometimes uttered some words in the form of private speech while writing (lines 27, 28 and 33). In other words, Minho used self-repetition in the form of private speech as a tool for mental activity to construct the content while writing.

As analysed above, pupils' self-repetition may function as a mediational tool for mental activity, in the form of private speech. Besides self-repetition, learners also often used allo-repetition for varied reasons. The next section analyses learners' allo-repetition.

5.3. Using allo-repetition

Pupils were frequently observed to repeat what their interlocutors said, i.e. to use allo-repetition. The subsections deals with pupils' allo-repetition, focusing on its communicative, cognitive, and socio-affective functions respectively.

5.3.1. Communicative functions

Pupils often used allo-repetition to express their agreement on others' opinion, shown in Extract 5.25. The task was to complete a role-play script by filling in blanks, which was supposed to put comparative forms of verbs or objects of 'than'.

Extract 5.25

Expressing Agreement or Showing Listenership (EFL Learners in year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Junghwa: <Looks at the role play worksheet and reads the line of the
2 script> Hey, you are more intelligent than...
- 3 Suji: <Looks at Junghwa> 야, 야, 지구상에서 가장 못생긴, 가장
4 머리가 나쁜 동물.
5 <Looks at Junghwa> [Hey, hey, the ugliest animal, the most
6 stupid animal.]
- 7 Soyeon: 야, hey, <Looks at Junghwa> can we, can we change ‘more’
8 into ‘less’, so, hey, you are less intelligent than... <Laughs>.
9 [Hey], hey <looks at Junghwa> can we, can we change ‘more’
10 into ‘less’, so, hey, you are less intelligent than... <Laughs>.
- 11 Junghwa: <Claps> 금붕어.
12 <Claps> [Goldfish.]
- 13 Suji: 금붕어
14 [Goldfish.]
- 15 Junghwa: <Claps> 붕어!
16 <Claps> [Crucian carp!]
- 17 Suji: 금붕어.
18 [Goldfish.]
- 19 Junghwa, Suji: Gold fish
- 20 Minji: <Laughs>
- 21 Junghwa: <Writes ‘goldfish’ in the blank of her worksheet> Hey, you
22 are more intelligent than the goldfish. <Reads part of another
23 line> I am better than you all, I am,
24 Suji: Better than,
25 Junghwa: I am,
26 Suji: <Raises her shoulders and shakes her body to pretend to
27 show off> I am uglier than everybody.
28 <Minji and Suji laugh>
- 29 Soyeon: Also, <Smiles> I am uglier than everyone.
- 30 Minji: 괜찮네, 괜찮네. Ugliest.
31 [That’s good, that’s good.] Ugliest.
- 32 Junghwa: Ugliest.

While discussing the most stupid animal to fill in one of the blanks, Junghwa proposed ‘금붕어 [goldfish]’ in L1 as one of the most stupid animals (line 12).

Then, Suji repeated ‘금붕어’ with the intention of agreement (line 14). Junghwa suggested ‘붕어 [crucian carp]’ as another stupid animal, simply by subtracting ‘금 [gold]’ from ‘금붕어 [goldfish]’. Suji repeated ‘금붕어’ again to support goldfish

as the stupid animal (line 18). Then, Junghwa and Suji uttered ‘goldfish’ at the same time, which was code-switched from ‘금붕어’ (line 20). This word, goldfish, spoken by Junghwa and Suji at once served to confirm that they decided to write goldfish in the blank. Reading the next line, Junghwa repeated ‘I am’ as a hesitation device to gain time for coming up with an idea (lines 24 and 26), and Suji suggested her idea, making a showing-off body gesture (lines 27 and 28). Soyeon expressed her satisfaction to Suji’s suggestion by smiling and repeated what Suji said with the intention of expressing her agreement (line 30). Minji also responded positively to Suji’s suggestion by saying ‘괜찮네 [*That’s good*] repeatedly (line 31). Then, Minji paraphrased the comparative phrase, ‘uglier than everyone’, initially uttered by Suji, saying its superlative form, ‘ugliest’ (line 31). Minji’s paraphrased word seems to have expressed her agreement. Also, Junghwa repeated the word, ‘ugliest’ uttered by Minji (line 33). Allo-repetition by Suji (line 14), Soyeon (line 30), Minji (line 31), and Junghwa (line 33) respectively served not only to express their agreement to the previous utterances but also to show their listenership. In this respect, learners’ use of all-repetition may contribute to constructions of their conversation and intersubjectivity.

Pupils also repeated a part of what others said to express their selective agreement, as in Extract 5.26. Extract 5.26 provides the conversation between a teacher and pupils, but is analysed because the partial repetition occurred in the talk between pupils.

Extract 5.26

Expressing One’s Selective Agreement (KHL Learners in year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Ms Jeong: 네 명 꺼 선택했어요?
- 2 [*Did you choose the four jobs?*]
- 3 Minho: 아니요.
- 4 [*No.*]
- 5 Hyunbin: 아줌마, 농사사람.
- 6 [*a ma’am, a farming person.*]
- 7 Minho: Okay, 아줌마.
- 8 [*Okay, a ma’am.*]

When the teacher, Ms Jeong, asked whether they finished deciding the four jobs

pupil had to deliver what he/she read from the teacher's written words informing pupils about a school field trip, and another person had to summarise what was said.

what he read about a school field trip.

Extract 5.28

Requesting Confirmation (KHL Learners in Year 3 at Green Hill)

- 1 Bogum: <Reads out the information written in his worksheet> 간단한
 2 간식과, um, um, 용, 용돈을 가지고 오는데 용돈은, 어, 어,
 3 십파운드 이하로, 어, 가지고 올 수 있습니다. 교복을 입고
 4 간단한 필기도구*를 가지고 내일 아침,
 5 <Reads out the information written in his worksheet> [Bring
 6 some mo-, money], um, um, [and a small snack. As for money,
 7 uh, uh, you can bring, uh, less than ten pounds. Put on your
 8 school uniform and bring some writing* instruments with you.
 9 And tomorrow morning.]
- 10 Siyoon: 뭐, 뭐? 교복과 뭐?
 11 [What, what? A school uniform and what?]
- 12 Bogum: 교복을 입고 간단한 필, 필기도구를 가지고 내일,
 13 [Put on your school uniform and bring some wri-, writing
 14 instruments with you, And tomorrow.]
- 15 Siyoon: 필기도구*?
 16 [wroting* instrument?]
- 17 Bogum: 필기도구를 가지고 내일 아침, 어, 어, 어 eight, eight, eight,
 18 어, 어, 여덟시 삼십분까지 늦지 않게 학교에 오도록,
 19 [Bring writing instruments with you. And tomorrow morning,
 20 uh, uh, uh, come to the school by] eight, eight, eight, [uh, uh,
 21 eight thirty and do not be late for].

Bogum read out the written information so that Siyoon could hear (lines 1 to 4).

While reading it, Jngseok mispronounced ‘필기도구 [writing instrument, /pil-gi-do-gu/]’ as ‘필가도구 /pil-ga-do-gu/’ (line 4). Siyoon did not catch the mispronounced word and asked Bogum for clarification by repeating ‘교복 [school uniform]’, which Bogum previously uttered, along with ‘what’ with a rising tone (line 10). Then, Bogum pronounced the word correctly even though he stammered a little (line 12). However, Siyoon heard it wrong, and he repeated what he thought Bogum

uttered in order to seek Bogum's confirmation (line 15). Bogum did not give Siyoon an explicit correction. Instead, he let him figure out the exact word by repeating it in a sentence with further information (lines 17-18). Bogum and Siyoon performed their task successfully through the negotiation of meaning as they shared information, even though they made a mistake in pronouncing the L2 word '필기도구'. Pupils' repetition of what their interlocutor previously said may function as a meaningful tool for confirmation check and negotiation of meaning. This function of allo-repetition may contribute to reaching a shared understanding on their task by reducing miscommunication.

Pupils used allo-repetition as a hesitation device for stalling for time, even though it did not frequently occur. In Extract 5.29, pupils were co-writing a letter of forgiveness to an imaginary friend, who took their eraser without permission.

Extract 5.29

Hesitating (KHL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Suhyun: 지우개 가져갔는데, 아직도 친구 되고 싶다.
 2 [((You)) took away my eraser, but I still want to be your friend.]
 3 Minho: 아니. 다시 좀, 지우개...
 4 [No. Again bit, eraser...]
 5 Suhyun: 지우개
 6 [Eraser.]
 7 Minho: 뺏었는데, 뺏었, 가져갔는데
 8 [Stole, sto-, took away ((my eraser)), but...]
 9 Suhyun: 가져갔는데, 용서합니다.
 10 [Took away ((my eraser)), but ((I)) forgive ((you)).]
 11 Minho: <Writes> 가져, 가져, 가져...
 12 <Writes> [Took, took, took...]
 13 Suhyun: <Writes> 가져갔는데,
 14 <Writes> [Took away ((my eraser)), but...]
 15 Minho: <Writes> 가져갔는데,
 16 <Writes> [Took away ((my eraser)), but...]
 17 Suhyun: 용서합니다. <Looks at Minho> Yeah?
 18 [((I)) forgive ((you)).] <Looks at Minho> Yeah?

While composing the letter together, Suhyun and Minho repeated what each other previously mentioned when they hesitated to gain time for thinking what to write

next. Suhyun initially suggested writing that he still wanted to be the recipient's friend even though the person took away his eraser (line 1). Suhyun repeated what Minho previously said and then added another message (line 10). Here, Suhyun's allo-repetition seems to have functioned to gain time for coming up with '용서합니다 [(I) forgive ((you))]. After that, both Minho and Suhyun also repeated '가져갔는데 [Took away ((my eraser))]' in order to gain time for thinking what to write next (lines 14, 16, and 20). Their allo-repetition worked well as their hesitation device.

In this subsection, learners' allo-repetition was analysed in terms of its communicative functions, and the next subsection addresses allo-repetition focusing on its socio-affective function.

5.3.2. Socio-affective functions

Pupils repeated what other said if they thought it was funny, as shown in Extract 5.30. The task required pupils to collectively make sentences using words from the word bank provided in their workbook (see Figure 5.1 above).

Extract 5.30

Making Others Laugh (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Hyunbin: 우리가 파랗다.
- 2 [We are blue.]
- 3 Minho: <Laughs> 우리가 파랗다. <Laughs> Smurf!
- 4 <Laughs> [We are blue.] <Laughs> Smurf!
- 5 Hyunbin: <Laughs> Smurf. <To the tune of Smurf song> I'm a little
- 6 Sweepy, Sweepy, tadadada dadadada.

While making sentences with Minho, Hyunbin formed and uttered a sentence '우리가 파랗다 [we are blue]' (line 1). Hyunbin's utterance provoked Minho's laughter and elicited its repetition from Minho (line 3). Minho seems to have really enjoyed the nonsense that the sentence gave. Immediately after second laughing, Minho came up with smurf, which are little blue human-like creatures from a Belgian comic franchise (line 4). The word 'smurf' not only invited Hyunbin's

laughter and repetition but also elicited a smurf song from Hyunbin (lines 5 to 6). This observation suggests that pupils may repeat their interlocutors' utterances which they feel are interesting and fun and this repetition may contribute to building a friendly atmosphere among pupils.

This subsection addressed learners' allo-repetition focusing on its socio-affective function, and the next subsection deals with learners' allo-repetition in terms of its cognitive functions.

5.3.3. *Cognitive functions*

Learner's allo-repetition was often used as a tool for resolving linguistic or cognitive problems. Extract 5.31 provides an example of pupils' allo-repetition used for correction. The task required pupils to make sentences related to health problems using target structures.

Extract 5.31

Correcting (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Aera: <Touches her nose> I have a runny nose.
- 2 Hyunmin: I have a rainy nose.
- 3 <Yewon laughs>
- 4 Aera: <Points at Hyunmin with the intention to correct Hyunmin's
- 5 utterance> Runny nose
- 6 Hyunmin: Runny nose.

While making sentences with other pupils, Aera produced a sentence, 'I have a runny nose' (line 1). Hyunmin repeated the sentence, but he mispronounced 'a runny nose' as 'a rainy nose' (line 2). Then, Aera corrected Hyunmin directly by clearly uttering 'runny nose', which functions as a recast (line 5), and Hyunmin repeated Aera's utterance exactly (line 6). Hyunmin could correct his utterance by repeating Aera's utterance. Hyunmin's allo-repetition served not only to produce the correct expression but also to signal that he had learned and could use the right expression.

Pupils were often observed to create shared understanding through allo-repetition, especially when they were faced with some difficulties. Extract 5.30

illustrates how pupils' allo-repetition functioned as a tool for constructing intersubjectivity. The task required a pupil to describe how to get to school from his/her home and another pupil to summarise and note down the route. Bogum was the person who described how to get to school, and Siyoon was the person who took note of what he was told.

Extract 5.32

Constructing Intersubjectivity (KHL Learners in Year 3 at Green Hill)

- 1 Siyoon: So what's your home? <Prepares for writing what Bogum
2 would say>
3 Bogum: Um, um, um (.) HA4 XXX. <Laughs>
4 Siyoon: ㅁ? What? What's, what's the road name? Home.
5 [Huh?] What? What's, what's the road name? Home.
6 Bogum: Er, er, Castleton Road, number X.
7 Er, er, Castleton Road, number X.
8 Siyoon: What did you say?
9 Bogum: Castleton Road, number X.
10 Siyoon: Castle>>TON<<?
11 Bogum: Yeah, Castleton Road.
12 Siyoon: Is it O?
13 Bogum: Yeah, Castleton, Castleton Road. Number X.
14 Siyoon: <Writes> Number.
15 Bogum: Southcote rise
16 Siyoon: ㅎ?
17 [Huh?]
18 Bogum: Southcote rise
19 Siyoon: South, South, <Looks at Bogum> code?
20 Bogum: Yeah, Southcote.
21 Siyoon: Cote?
22 Bogum: Yes, Southcote. <Looks at Siyoon's writing> No, no, no that!
23 Siyoon: Doesn't matter.
24 Bogum: C-O-T-E
25 Siyoon: <Writes> C-O-, C-O
26 Bogum: T-E
27 Siyoon: <Writes> C-O-T-E
28 Bogum: Southcote Rise.
29 Siyoon: South, how do you spell it? C-O-T-E?
30 Bogum: Yeah.
31 Siyoon: <Writes> So Southcote, yeah?
32 Bogum: Rise.
33 Siyoon: <Writes> Rise.

Siyoon initially asked Bogum where his house was (line 1), and Bogum responded by saying the postcode of his house by way of jest (line 3). Siyoon, who did not get Bogum's joke, rephrased his question and asked it again to get the information

8 Suhyun: Oh! 지우개 가져갔는데, 아직도 친구 되고 싶다.
9 Oh! [You took away the eraser, but I still want to be your
10 friend.]

11 Minho: 아, 잠깐만! <Erases some part> 지우개 가져갔는데
12 돌려줬으니까*, 돌, 돌려 줬으니까*,
13 [Ah, wait! <Erases some part> ((You)) took away the eraser,
14 but have returned* ((it)), re-, returned*. So].

15 Suhyun: 했는데, 돌려 줬으니까 용서, 용서합니다.
16 [((You)) did, but have returned* it. So ((I)) forgive, forgive
17 ((you)).]

18 Minho: 돌려*, 돌려*, 돌려줬는*,
19 [((You)) have Retarn*, return*, returned*]
20

21 Minho: 돌려 주워*
22 [Retarne*]

23 Suhyun: 돌려*
24 [Retarn*]

25 Minho: 잠깐만! <Erases what he has written> 돌려줬*...
26 [Wait!] <Erases what he has written> [((You)) have
27 Returned*...]

28 Suhyun: 돌려줘서*,
29 [((You))have returned* ((it)), so.]

30 Minho: 줘서, 어.
31 [So, yeah.]

32 Suhyun: 돌려주서*,
33 [((You)) have returnd* ((it)), so.]

34 Minho: 줘서, 잠깐, 돌려줘서*,
35 [So, hold on, ((you)) have returned* ((it)), so.]

36 Suhyun: 돌려주서*. That makes sense. Like, 돌려줘서*,
37 [((You)) have returnd*, so], that makes sense. Like, [((you))
38 have returned* ((it)), so.]

39 Minho: 응, 줘.
40 [Yes, -ed]

41 Suhyun: Wait, what?

42 Minho: 지우개 갖고 갔는데 돌려줘서*,
43 [You took away the eraser, but ((you)) have returned* ((it)).
44 So.]

45 Suhyun: 돌려줘서*,
46 [((You)) have returned* ((it)). So.]

47 Minho: <Laughs>

48 Suhyun: <Laughs> 돌려주서, like, something.
49 [((You)) have returnd*], like, something.

- 50 Minho: 돌려줬으니까*, 돌려(.) 줬(.) 으니까,
 51 [Because ((you)) have returned* ((it)), because ((you)) have
 52 retarn-(.)-ed(.) ((it)).]
- 53 Suhyun: Wait, 친구야, 지우개 가져 갔는데 돌려줘서*
 54 Wait, [dear friend, you took away the eraser, but have
 55 returned* ((it)). So,]
- 56 Minho: Ooooh! Okay.
- 57 Suhyun: 돌려줘서*,
 58 [((You)) have returned* ((it)). So,]
- 59 Minho: <Writes> 돌려줘서*,
 60 <Writes> [((You)) have returned* ((it)). So,]
- 61 Suhyun: Is it 돌려줘서*?
 62 Is it [returnd*]?
- 63 Minho: ...니깐. <Puts down his pencil>
 64 [Because...] <Puts down his pencil>
- 65 Suhyun: <Copies Minho's writing> 돌아줬으*...
 66 [Because you have reterne*...]
- 67 Minho: <Holds back his pencil> 친구야, 지우개 가져갔는데
 68 돌려줬으니까*
 69 <Holds back his pencil> [Dear friend, ((you)) took away the
 70 eraser, but because ((you)) have returned* ((it)).]
- 71 Suhyun: 용서합니다.
 72 [I pardon ((you)).]
- 73 Minho: <Writes> 용서, 용서할게.
 74 <Writes> [I'll, I'll forgive you.]
- 75 Suhyun: 용서,
 76 [Forgive.]
- 77 Minho: <Writes> 용, 서, 할, 게. 용서할게
 78 <Writes> [I'll, forgive, you, I'll forgive you.] Suhyun

Suhyun mainly repeated what Minho said, whereas Minho mostly repeated what he said. While writing a letter of forgiveness to an imaginary friend with Suhyun, Minho seems to have struggled to express in L2 what he had in his mind because of his insufficient L2 proficiency. In particular, he struggled with the L2 verb, ‘돌려주다 [return]’, presumably because of two reasons. First, he might not have known the L2 word exactly. He mispronounced ‘돌려주다 [return]’ as ‘돌라주다* [retarn*]’ all the way through this Extract. His small mistake, i.e. the wrong use of the vowel, ‘ㅏ /a/’ in the place of ‘ㅓ /yeo/’, caused both him and Suhyun to continue

repetition of the word. Second, he seems to have had difficulty in manipulating the verb conjugations properly. He repeated the word several times, experimenting with various L2 verb endings or conjunctive suffixes such as ‘었는데’ (line 6), ‘었으니까’ (lines 12, 50, 63 and 68), ‘었는’ (line 18), ‘어’ (lines 21 and 39), and ‘어서’ (lines 30, 34, 42 and 59). Minho’s repetition for seeking not only a better verb conjunctive suffix but also a better expression of delivering what he wanted to express through the process of self-correcting what he previously said continued until he thought that he found the right verb conjunctive suffix and the expression of delivering what he wanted to express. Suhyun joined Minho by fully or partly repeating what Minho said (lines 4, 15, 23, 45 and 61). Suhyun sometimes seems to have added something to what Minho previously said in order to elaborate the meaning of the expression.

Both Minho and Suhyun seem to have produced their utterances directed not only to each other but also themselves, even though the utterances were all articulated. They seem to have repeated their utterances with the intent to resolve the linguistic problem on both intrapersonal and interpersonal planes. Their repeated utterances not only externalised their cognitive or mental rehearsal but also elicited corresponding responses from each other. Minho’s and Suhyun’s repetitions also show that they got involved in the continuous mental activity of resolving the problem. However, their effort to resolve the linguistic problem through repetitions, unfortunately, did not lead them to a successful solution. They finally reached an agreement of writing ‘돌라졌으니까 [*because you returned* ((it))*]', but the expression was not technically correct. They should have uttered ‘돌려졌으니까 [*because you have returned it*]’. Irrespective of success or failure, Minho’s and Suhyun’s repetitions are seen as meaningful because it enabled them to keep their focus on what they were saying to resolve their problem. This observation shows that pupils’ repetition may function as a tool for resolving their linguistic challenging difficulties.

5.4. Main findings from the chapter

As stated earlier, repetition was one of the most prominent features observed in L2 learners' language use, no matter what language learners they were, i.e. either EFL learners or KHL learners. Learners frequently used repetition in their social and private speech. Repetition commonly occurs on both interpersonal and intrapersonal plane. (DiCamilla & Antón, 1997; Gánem-Gutiérrez, 2009; Roebuck & Wagner, 2004). As in learners' use of codeswitching, learners' repetition can be regarded as an indication of learners' lack of L2 knowledge or skills, or their speech disfluency, but the data supports that L2 learners' use of repetition demonstrates the strategic use of language. L2 learners' repetition may function to supplement their incomplete L2 competence, serving varied functions.

On the interpersonal plane, learners used both self-repetition and allo-repetition for different functions. First of all, learners used repetition to construct and maintain a shared perspective on the task by expressing their agreement or satisfaction on interlocutors' opinions, confirming their agreement, or asking for agreement from others. In other words, pupils' repetition mediated the co-construction of a shared perspective or a shared understanding (i.e. intersubjectivity). Particularly, allo-repetition enables pupils to make one voice (DiCamilla & Antón, 1997). Thus, L2 learners' repetition may function as a mediational tool for not only completing L2 tasks successfully but also contributing to building up rapport among L2 learners, allowing co-construction of intersubjectivity.

Second, repetition by L2 learners was used when they asserted or emphasised their ideas or opinions. Learners frequently employed repetition consciously or habitually while emphasising their opinion, asserting their thought or seeking agreement from others. These findings suggest that repetition may function as a mediational tool for appealing to others in order for the speaker's ideas or opinions to be accepted.

Third, pupils employed repetition to co-construct and maintain scaffolding, with

the goal of completing the task. Pupils provided scaffolded help by simplifying the task through short step-by-step instructions about how to do the task and repetition of those instructions, in order for the listener to engage in the task correctly. Pupils also used codeswitched repetition to clarify the meaning of words or phrases, or to demonstrate idealised writing, leading to successful implementation of L2 tasks. Thus, it is suggested that L2 learners' repetition may play an important role in L2 learning by constructing scaffolded help that enables learners to carry out L2 tasks within their ZPD (DiCamilla & Antón, 1997; Roebuck & Wagner, 2004).

On the other hand, learners employed self-repetition in the form of private speech, in order to gain time for thinking what to say or recalling proper vocabulary on the intrapersonal plane. Learners also used self-repetition in the form of private speech to resolve linguistic problems or to self-correct when they experienced cognitive challenges. Learners' self-repetition functioned as a tool for self-regulating their cognitive activity, allowing learners to find out solutions. The repetition in the form of private speech played an important role in this achievement. Learners also hypothesised and experimented with their L2 knowledge and vocabulary by sounding out syllables, words or phrases repeatedly when they faced linguistic or cognitive difficulties during the task.

To conclude, learners' self-repetition and allo-repetition contributed to the successful completion of L2 tasks, serving communicative, socio-affective, and cognitive functions. Therefore, learners' use of repetition is seen to illustrate L2 learners' strategic use of language rather than their lack of L2 competence.

Chapter 6 Using the economy of language

6.1. Introduction

There is a saying that the fewer words you use, the clearer your message is. This can be applied to learners' language use in my data. Learners sometimes delivered what they would say, using just a few words, and it worked well. Learners often used short sounds or words such as interjections, onomatopoeias and hesitation fillers to express their current emotions, feelings, or reaction; to describe something phonetically, or to signal to interlocutors that they continue their speech. This chapter examines each of these three devices, i.e. interjection, onomatopoeia, and hesitation fillers, especially with regard to their usage and their functions, in the following sections respectively.

6.2. Using interjections

Pupils used a variety of First Language (L1) interjections as a means for expressing their emotions, feelings, or reaction. Interjection refers to words or phrases that constitute utterances on their own and express a speaker's spontaneous emotion or reaction (Ameka, 1999). In this section, pupils' use of L1 interjections is first explored in terms of functions; then why Second Language (L2) or even Third Language (L3) interjections were employed by pupils is examined.

Extract 6.1 gives an example of pupils' use of an L1 interjection for expressing a "cognitively based" immediate feeling, i.e. "emotive interjections" (Wierzbicka, 1999, p. 283). Emotive interjections refer to interjections used for expressing feelings connected with certain thoughts (Wierzbicka, 1999). The task required pupils to complete each group's role-play script by filling in the blanks and to practice reading the script in preparation for their role-play performance.

Extract 6.1

Expressing a Cognitively Based Feelings (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Inpyo: <Reads his line of the role-play script> I am better than you
2 all. I am smarter than everybody!
3 Siwon, Yewon, Aera: <Reads their line of the role-play script> No way!
4 <Everyone laughs>
5 Aera: <Claps her hands> 와, 잘 했다, 잘 했어!
6 <Claps her hands> [Wow, well done, well done!]

Aera exclaimed ‘와, 잘 했다, 잘했어! [Wow, well done, well done!]’ in L1 (line 5), immediately after her group practiced reading through the whole script. ‘와 [Wow]’ is a Korean interjection indicating a speaker’s delight or surprise. In this Extract, Aera did not only express her delight or satisfaction but also praised her group’s achievement by uttering this L1 interjection along with the compliment remark. ‘잘 했다, 잘 했어! [Well done, well done!]’. Aera’s interjection, which was used with the compliment remark, indicates a combination of a feeling (i.e. ‘I am happy’ or ‘I am satisfied’) and a thought (i.e. ‘I think you did a good job’). This observation suggests that interjections may serve socio-affective functions by both expressing one’s feeling and thought at the same time.

Extract 6.2 illustrates pupils’ use of volitive interjections. Volitive interjections are used when a “directive (i.e. ‘I want ...’) message” is expressed (Goddard, 2014, p. 54). In other words, volitive interjections imply the speaker’s request or demand for something from the listeners. The task required pupils to complete their role-play script by filling in blanks with comparative forms of verbs or objects of the preposition ‘the’.

Extract 6.2

Expressing Directive Messages (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Jinwoo: <Reads a line of role-play script, which was presented with
2 blanks on the worksheet> Hey, you are more intelligent than
3 the, 어, who (.) <Thinks for a while> than the zombie, 어때?
4 좀비는 뇌가 없잖아.
5 <Reads a line of role-play script, which was presented with
6 blanks on the worksheet> Hey, you are more intelligent than

7 *the, [uh], who (.) <Thinks for a while> than the zombie, [How*
8 *do you think? Zombie has no brain.]*
9 Huiju: 야, 다 뇌가 없다고 볼 수는 없잖아.
10 *[Hey, we cannot see it has no brain.]*
11 Jinwoo: Okay.
12 Jaeseok: Hey, hey! <Reads the first line of the script> Look at the
13 hippo. It's really big. It's bigger than the (.)
14 Jinwoo: Than the Eifel Tower, than the Eifel Tower.
15 Huiju: 야, 그냥 하지마.
16 *[Hey, just don't do that.]*
17 Jinwoo: 야, 야, <Taps on Huiju's arm with his pencil> it's bigger than
18 the Eifel Tower.
19 *[Hey, hey,] <Taps on Huiju's arm with his pencil> it's bigger*
20 *than the Eifel Tower*

All pupils used either 'hey' or '야 [hey]' when they initiated their utterances (lines 9, 12, 15, and 17). 'Hey' or '야' was most frequently used as an attention-getting signal in both contexts of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in The Boulevard and Korean as a Heritage Language (KHL) classrooms in Green Hill. Jaeseok initiated his utterance by saying 'hey' twice to attract others' attention (line 12). His use of this interjection also seems to have served to switch the conversation topic from something less intelligent (lines 1 through 11) to something big (lines 12 to 20). On the other hand, Huiju and Jinwoo used its L1 equivalent interjection, '야', when they started their utterances (lines 9, 15, and 17). While Jinwoo seems to have used the interjection, '야', as a signal for getting attention from others (line 17) as Jaeseok used 'hey', Huiju seems to have employed it to call interlocutors like 'hey you' instead of their names (lines 9 and 15). Interestingly, both 'hey' and '야' seem to have been used to implicitly urge listeners to pay attention to or listen carefully to the speaker by delivering the message such as 'I want you to look here' or 'I want you to pay attention to me'.

In Extract 6.3, pupils used several L1 interjections to express and convey their emotions, particularly related to "information state", which "deliver more cognition-oriented messages" while making a telephone role-play script (Goddard, 2014, p. 54).

Extract 6.3

Delivering Cognition-oriented Messages (KHL Learners in Year 3 at Green Hill)

- 1 Siyoon: <Thinks out loud and writes on the worksheet> ‘어제 있지’,
 2 그 다음에, and you are Dongwon, and you say, um,
 3 ‘그래서?’(.) No! ‘어제 있지’, ‘왜’, anyway, ‘왜’. <In an arch
 4 tone of voice> Oh! We can do, we can do a funny speech.
 5 [‘Yesterday, you know what’, and then], you are Dongwon,
 6 you say, um, [‘so?’](.) No! [‘Yesterday, you know what, why,]
 7 anyway, [‘why’]. <In an arch tone of voice> Oh!, We can do,
 8 we can do a funny speech.
 9 Dongwon: 어, 왜? (.) Oh, right!
 10 [Um, why?](.) Oh, right!
 11 Siyoon: 이렇게, ‘왜?’ <Laughs> This is kind of a review. And then I
 12 can write, and then I can write, and then I can write ‘응가를
 13 썼어’. <Laughs>
 14 [Like this, ‘why?’] <Laughs> This is kind of a review. And then
 15 I can write, and then I can write, and then I can write, [‘I
 16 pooped.’] <Laughs>
 17 Dongwon: No, no, no!

Siyoon suddenly claimed ‘No!’ after writing aloud two lines of the role-play script, i.e. ‘어제 있지 [Yesterday, you know what]’ and ‘그래서? [So?’] (lines 1 to 3). The interjection, ‘no’, which he exclaimed with a falling intonation contour, indicates that he came up with a better idea and he would carry out self-repair. The shift from ‘그래서 [so]’ to ‘왜 [why]’ was marked by the interjection. Siyoon uttered another interjection, ‘oh’, which signalled that he came to find something interesting or exciting, and directly suggested that they could make a funny script (line 4). Dongwon also uttered the same interjection, ‘oh’, along with another interjection, ‘right’, when he came to realise what Siyoon meant (line 9). Both Siyoon’s ‘oh’ and Dongwon’s ‘oh’ show that a change in the state of understanding happened, and Dongwon’s ‘right’ further acknowledged the change. Interjections often tend to indicate the shift in the state of one’s current knowledge or awareness (Gánem-Gutiérrez & Roehr, 2011). After listening to Siyoon’s idea of how to make the script funny (lines 11 to 13), Dongwon expressed his concern by exclaiming the interjection, ‘no’, repeatedly (line 17). He repeated ‘no’ three times to emphasise how much he was concerned about and did not like Siyoon’s idea. Interjections shown in this Extract seem to have served the function of not only

expressing the speaker's current emotions such as 'excited' or 'disappointed' but also indicating that the speaker knew or came to know something.

Besides prototypical interjections such as 'oh' or 'wow', pupils frequently used slang interjections as shown in Extract 6.4. Pupils in a group were talking about the size of a stegosaurus' brain in the middle of writing their role-play script by filling in blanks.

Extract 6.4

Using Slang Interjections (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Jinwoo: Stegosaurus 엄청 <Hits his own head> 멍청이야. Walnut 두
2 개, <Shapes two walnuts with his hands> 뇌가 walnut 두 개
3 사이즈야. 몸통에 비해서 엄청 멍청이지.
4 [Stegosaurus is really <Hits his own head> stupid. Two
5 walnuts, <Shapes two walnuts with his hands> its brain is the
6 size of two walnuts. Compared to its body size, it is seriously
7 stupid.]
8 Huiju: Walnut 두 개 사이즈라고?
9 [Is it the size of two walnuts?]
10 Jinwoo: 어.
11 [Uh-huh..]
12 Huiju: 헐!
13 [What the...!]
14 Jinwoo: Walnut 두 개 사이즈야.
15 [It's the size of two walnuts.]
16 Jaeseok: 어떻게 뇌가 그렇게 작아?
17 [How is its brain so small?]

After listening to Jinwoo's explanation of a stegosaurus' brain size (lines 1 to 3), Huiju asked back what Jinwoo previously uttered with a rising tone to request confirmation, presumably because she was surprised at the small size (line 8). Huiju exclaimed '헐/heo!!' (line 12) after getting confirmation from Jinwoo (line 10). The word, '헐', is an internet slang word commonly used by younger people of Korea, and cannot be used in the formal situation. The interjection connotes multiple emotions such as disbelief, exasperation, surprise, and others, so it can be interpreted as OMG, jeez, eep, or WTF according to contexts. '헐' by Huiju

here connoted a surprise and seems to have functioned as an indicator of her participatory listenership. Huiju's interest made Jinwoo excited and stirred him to repeat talking proudly about stegosaurus' brain size (line 14). Here, the interjection can be seen as a tool for not only expressing one's feeling of surprise but also communicating smoothly by showing listenership.

Interestingly, pupils occasionally employed L2 and even L3 interjections, even though they normally employed L1 interjections. Extract 6.5 provides an example of pupils' use of L2 interjections. Pupils were required to generate and practice sentences related to health problems with gestures in order to present later in front of the whole class.

Extract 6.5

Using L2 Interjections (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Minji: 하자, 'diarrhoea'.
 2 [Let's do] 'diarrhoea'.
 3 Soyeon: 누가해, 누가해? <Laughs>
 4 [Who shall do it, who shall do it?] <Laughs>
 5 Suji: Diarrhoea, 뷁쯔뷔쯔뷔쯔, 이렇게 하자.
 6 Diarrhoea, [Bbuzik bbuzik bbuzik, let's do it like this.]
 7 Soyeon: <Laughs> Not me, not me, not me.
 8 Minji: <Raises her hand > Me!
 9 Junghwa: Okay!
 10 <Soyeon and Junghwa point at Minji>
 11 Minji: I have diarrhoea. <Laughs>
 12 Soyeon: Oh, my god!

All pupils in this group agreed to include 'diarrhoea' in their presentation, but they struggled with deciding who would say the sentence with 'diarrhoea' (lines 3 to 7) until Minji volunteered (line 8). Except for Minji, other pupils seem to have been reluctant to present the sentence with diarrhoea in front of the whole class because of the feeling that the word, 'diarrhoea', gave. Even though they agreed to say diarrhoea because it was thought to elicit laughter from other groups, it was still not pleasant to say the word in front of the whole class. Fortunately, Minji volunteered to present it, and then Junghwa uttered the interjection, 'okay', to show her agreement or approval (line 9). Minji, the volunteer, said loudly the sentence, 'I have diarrhoea', with the intent to practice it (line 11), and then Soyeon playfully exclaimed, 'oh, my god!' (line 12). By exclaiming the interjection,

Soyeon seems to have expressed her emotion of excitement towards the fact that Minji really uttered the sentence. Pupils, especially who are learning L2 as a foreign language at the primary school level, may be unfamiliar with L2 interjections because they are seldom exposed to this kind of words or expressions not only in their daily life but also in the classroom setting. However, interestingly, pupils in The Boulevard, who did not have to use English at all in their everyday life, naturally used English interjections such as ‘okay’ or ‘oh my god’. The reason for this might be that those English interjections were very well-known in Korea. In fact, some English interjections such as ‘okay’, ‘oh, my god’, ‘yes’, or ‘no’ are often heard in Koreans’ everyday L1 conversations, presumably due to the influence of mass media such as movies or TV shows. Particularly, some interjections such as ‘okay’ or ‘oh, yes’ have been commonly used among Koreans and some other interjections such as ‘oh my god’ or ‘oops’ have frequently been heard on TV comedian shows. This sociocultural context might have influenced pupils’ frequent use of L2 interjections in the classroom at The Boulevard. In this context, pupils might have been able to use those interjections properly in context even though L2 interjections were not taught in school.

On the other hand, KHL learners at Green Hill employed much less L2 interjections, compared to EFL learners at The Boulevard. They were observed to use L2 interjections only when they made L2 conversations such as writing a role-play script or practicing a role-play, as illustrated in Extract 6.6. In this Extract, Dongwon and Siyoon were co-writing their telephone role-play script, in which they were talking on the phone about their imaginary friend, Ogong.

Extract 6.6
Using L2 Interjections (KHL Learners in Year 3 at Green Hill)

- 1 Dongwon: Aha, aha, aha! 내일 오공이가 원래 제일 먼저 오잖아. 무서운
- 2 costume을 입고, um 학교에, 안에 숨어 가지고,
- 3 Aha, aha, aha! [Tomorrow, Ogong originally comes first. In a
- 4 scary costume], um, [((we)) hide ((ourselves)) in, inside the
- 5 school].
- 6 Siyoon: 어?
- 7 [Huh?]
- 8 Dongwon: ‘으악’ 해가지고 나오는 거야.
- 9 [((We should)) come out, screaming ‘Boo!’]

- 10 Siyoon: 응?
 11 *[Huh?]*
 12 Dongwon: Basically, we put on scary costumes from Halloween, then
 13 we come out, 으악!
 14 Basically, we put on scary costumes from Halloween, then we
 15 come out, [Boo!]

Dongwon gave an idea to startle Ogong in L2 (lines 1 and 2) and paraphrased it in L1 to help Siyoon understand better what he was saying (lines 12 and 13). Dongwon used the L2 interjection, ‘으악! [Boo!], not only in the L2 utterance (line 8) but also in the L1 utterance (line 13) when describing how to startle Ogong. Dongwon seems to have felt that the interjection, ‘으악’, might give an effect of surprising someone suddenly. Some pupils at Green Hill seem to have been familiar with more various L2 interjections than pupils at The Boulevard because they were naturally exposed to those L2 interjections in their home, even though they did not frequently use L2 interjections during peer interaction. However, pupils at The Boulevard more frequently used L2 interjections even though these L2 interjections were limited in scope. The pupils at the Boulevard seem to have used certain L2 interjections even in their normal L1 conversation in order to exaggerate what they felt or to entertain themselves because they were exposed to those L2 interjections in this way on TV. However, pupils at Green Hill did not use L2 interjections for this purpose. They tended to resort to L1 interjections rather than L2 interjections and used L2 interjections only when they needed to use them in their dramatising tasks.

Interestingly, pupils sometimes used L3 interjections in the L2 learning context. The use of L3 interjections was only observed among pupils in Year 6 in Green Hill. The pupils had been taught the L3 in their British schools that they attended on weekdays. They might have been exposed to those L3 interjections in a similar way to that of pupils in The Boulevard who were exposed to some L2 interjections. Extract 6.7 illustrates how a pupil at Green Hill employed an L3 interjection to express his feeling. The task required pupils to choose one poem from a poem collection and to talk about why they liked the poem.

Extract 6.7

Using L3 Interjections (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Suhyun: What does that mean?
2 Shinhye: That is, um, in 한국에서, machine,
3 That is, um, in [in Korea], machine,
4 Minho: That we, that like,
5 Shinhye: Popcorn.
6 Minho: Yeah,
7 Suhyun: Oh là là!

While talking about a poem, Minho and Shinhye tried to explain the meaning of ‘뽕튀기 기계 [rice puffing machine]’ to Suhyun, who was less proficient at Korean language and lacked the knowledge of Korean vocabulary (lines 2, 4 and 5). Minho exclaimed his L1 interjection, ‘yeah’, to express both his agreement and satisfaction with Shinhye’s explanation (line 6) when Shinhye came up with a good idea for explaining about ‘뽕튀기 [puffed rice]’ by likening it to popcorn (line 5). Suhyun exclaimed the French interjection, ‘Oh là là’, presumably to comically express his excitement or delight of knowing the meaning of ‘뽕튀기’ when he came to learn what the word meant (line 7). As mentioned earlier, pupils at Green Hill seem to have used L3 interjections when they thought that the interjections matched up with the context and gave fun at the same time, as pupils at The Boulevard did with L2 interjections.

Learners’ interjections used during performing L2 tasks with others, regardless of what language code was used, functioned as a mediational tool for delivering learners’ intention, feeling or message effectively and efficiently, even though the interjections were very short. In addition, learners’ interjections functioned to show the listeners’ involvement and listenership. In this respect, interjections may serve the function of a useful communication strategy.

Despite its usefulness, L2 interjection has not been systematically taught to primary L2 learners and has been paid little attention in L2 classes (Cruz, 2010; Reber, 2010). Pupils of both schools seem to have caught or learned meanings or usages of some L2 interjections in their daily life rather than in their L2 classroom. For example, pupils at The Boulevard might have learned English

interjections from English movies or Korean TV shows, and pupils at Green Hill might have caught meanings and usages of Korean interjections from Korean TV shows or their Korean parents. In this context, it was not surprising that learners' use of L2 interjections were limited to only a few L2 interjections.

In addition, L2 learners may be more comfortable and natural with using L1 interjections than L2 interjections when they expressed their feelings or showed their listenership even in the L2 conversation. This lopsided use of L1 interjection was not problematic among L2 learners with the same L1. However, it may cause communication breakdowns among people who do not share the same L1. It can thus be suggested that L2 learners should be given enough opportunity to be exposed to and to be systematically taught L2 interjections in the L2 classroom. As claimed in Reber's survey of L2 textbooks (2010), L2 interjections are neither automatically understood nor mastered by L2 learners through transfer from L1. Interjections should be understood with enough contextual information because they can be identified or interpreted differently depending on intonation contours and the conversational contexts that they are used in (Norrick, 2009; Reber, 2010).

6.3. Using onomatopoeias

Onomatopoeias frequently appeared among words of pupils, especially, at The Boulevard. Onomatopoeia refers to a word that phonetically imitates the sound of a living or a non-living thing (Han, Choi, Chang, Jeong, & Nam, 2005; Kambara & Tsukada, 2010). Particularly, pupils at The Boulevard, whose L1 was Korean, used exclusively L1 onomatopoeia words no matter whether they spoke in L1 or L2. This might have been due to one of the characteristics of Korean language. Korean language is rich in onomatopoeia words (Y. Choi, 2013; Han et al., 2005; D. Kim, 2014). Korean speakers, whether they are adults or children, frequently use Korean onomatopoeias in their daily conversation. Thus, this section focuses on the use of L1 (which was Korean) onomatopoeias by pupils at The Boulevard and L2 (which was Korean) onomatopoeias by pupils at Green Hill.

Onomatopoeias used by pupils could be divided into two types according to whether they were normally used in the society or creatively used by the speaker: conventional or prototypical onomatopoeias; arbitrary onomatopoeias. Extract 6.8 provides an example of pupils' use of conventional L1 (which is Korean) onomatopoeias while carrying out the L2 task with other pupils. The task required pupils to generate sentences related to health problems using the target structure 'I have'.

Extract 6.8

Using L1 Conventional Onomatopoeias (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Minji: <Laughs> 하자, diarrhoea.
 2 <Laughs> [Let's do it.] Diarrhoea.
 3 Soyeon: 누가해, 누가해? <Laughs>
 4 [Who will do it, who will do it?] <Laughs>
 5 Suji: Diarrhoea, 뿌직뿌직뿌직 이렇게 하자.
 6 Diarrhoea, [뿌직 /ppuzik/ 뿌직 /ppuzik/ 뿌직 /ppuzik/]. Let's do
 7 it like this.]
 8 Soyeon: Not me, not me, not me.
 9 Minji: <Raises her hand> Me!
 10 <Junghwa, Soyeon, Suji, points at Minji>
 11 Soyeon: Okay.
 12 Minji: I have diarrhoea.
 13 Soyeon: Oh, my god!
 14 Suji: 뿌직뿌직이라고 하실래요?
 15 [Would you say 뿌직 /ppuzik/ 뿌직 /ppuzik/?]
 16 <Everyone laughs>
 17 Junghwa: <With hand gesture> I'll do a toothache, headache and
 18 broken arm. I have a broken arm.
 19 Soyeon: Oh, I, <raises her leg> broken leg.
 20 Suji: <Bends her wrist> 뿌득 뿌득
 21 <Bends her wrist> [뿌득 /ppudeok/ 뿌득 /ppudeok/.]
 22
 23 Suji: Broken egg. <Makes a circle with her hands and pretends to
 24 break the circle> 뿌직 <Laughs>
 25 Broken egg. <Makes a circle with her hands and pretends to
 26 break the circle> [뿌직 /ppuzik/] <Laughs>

Suji used the same onomatopoeia word twice or three times in a row (lines 5, 14, and 20). She uttered ‘뿌직 /*ppuzik*’ (which is one of the Korean onomatopoeias imitating defecating sound) three times successively (line 5), when she suggested that the disease, diarrhoea, should be included into their task outcome. Repetition of the same onomatopoeia word is a commonly observed phenomenon in Korean language (D. Kim, 2014). For example, ‘지글 /*jigeul*’, which is a Korean onomatopoeia word to imitate a sizzling sound, is usually used as ‘지글 지글 /*jigeul jigeul*’. Suji voiced her opinion of using the onomatopoeia (line 5) presumably both because she wanted to entertain others and because the use of the onomatopoeia could help to effectively deliver what was said by appealing to another sense, i.e. hearing. In addition, Suji herself seems to have enjoyed the fun and rhythmical feeling that the onomatopoeia word gave. Interestingly, Suji used the same onomatopoeia word again to describe a different sound, i.e. a breaking sound of an egg (lines 24). The onomatopoeia, ‘뿌직’, is conventionally acceptable as either an imitating sound of farting or defecating, or a splitting or cracking sound. After a while, Suji used another onomatopoeia word, ‘뿌득 /*ppudeok*’, repeatedly, to express ‘being broken’, with the motion of bending her wrist (line 20). Suji seems to have intended to give dramatic and funny effects on what she wanted to express by using the onomatopoeia words. Suji’s onomatopoeias actually made other pupils in her group laugh (line 16). Onomatopoeias may effectively serve both to catch other’s attention and to achieve enjoyment through its distinctive and lively rhythm. In addition, onomatopoeias may enable L2 learners to convey their ideas in a more powerful way because onomatopoeia words are likely to create a vivid picture by bringing certain associations such as an image and sound to the mind of listeners.

Extract 6.9 gives an example of the use of onomatopoeias by pupils at Green Hill. Interestingly, pupils at Green Hill rarely used onomatopoeias in their conversation, but they exceptionally used onomatopoeias in the context of doing a role-play or a drama, as shown in this Extract below. The task required pupils to dramatise the poem that they previously chose as their favourite from a collection of poems.

The poem that this group of pupils chose was ‘A puffing machine’, in which the onomatopoeia, ‘뽕 [pup /bbeong]’, was employed as a means for expressing multiple meanings. In this poem that was written about rumours snowballing in the process of transmission, rumours were likened to puffed rice. Spreading rumours were likened to a puffing machine or popcorn maker. Rumours and puffed rice have similarities in that they have the characteristic of expanding and are related to the word, ‘뽕 /bbeong’. ‘뽕’ has multiple meanings. In this poem, it was used as two different functions: an onomatopoeia describing popping sound and a vulgar word indicating a fib. Due to the enjoyment or fun that multiple meanings of this word gave, pupils seem to have really enjoyed the poem.

Extract 6.9

Using Onomatopoeias (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

1 Suhyun: <Pretends to fart> Eew! <Pretends to cover his fart waving
2 his hands> Eew, haha
3 <Everyone laughs.>
4 Shinhye: I will be a narrator.
5 Suhyun: Okay, then I will be a ...
6 Minho: Okay, okay, okay, okay. Then, wait. <Reads the poem> 우리
7 교실에 귓속말 뽕튀기 기계가 있는지
8 Okay, okay, okay, okay. Then, wait. <Reads the poem> [In
9 our classroom, there might be a puffed whispering machine.]
10 <Shinhye and Suhyn comes to the front of the classroom, and Minho
11 sets up the camera in order to video-record themselves.>
12 Suhyun: <Pretends to fart> Eew, eew, eew, eew.
13 <Jiwon looks at Suhyun and keeps laughing.>
14 Jiwon: I can't see it. Move a bit forward. <Shinhye moves
15 backward> Forward! <Shinhye moves forward for the perfect
16 camera angle> Now, do it.
17 Suhyun: <Pretends to fart while moving back his hips> eew, eew, eew.
18 Jiwon: <Laughs> Hahahaha. <Changes his voice tone> Lights,
19 camera, action!
20 Suhyun: <Pretends to fart> Eew, eew.
21
22 Minho: And then, and then you can go <Reads the line from the
23 poem> 어떻게? and then we can both say, like, we can just
24 say, we can both say, <Reads the line from the poem>
25 선생님이 >>방귀 뀌었다!<<
26 And then, and then you can go <Reads the line from the
27 poem> [How?] and then we can both say, like, we can just
28 say, we can both say, <Reads the line from the poem> [The
29 teacher >>FARTED!<<]

30 Shinhye: What's that 방귀?
 31 [What's that fart?]
 32 Minho: And then,
 33 Shinhye: Wait!
 34 Minho: And then, wait, <Points at Shinhye> and then, you, go like,
 35 <Reads the line from the poem> '아까 한 귀속말도 튀켜
 36 지겠다.' <Looks at Suhyun> You say 뽕, <Raises his hands>
 37 >>뽕!<< Haha.
 38 And then, wait, <Points at Shinhye> and then, you, go like,
 39 <Reads the line from the poem> ["The a-moment-ago whisper
 40 might be puffed, too.]" <Looks at Suhyun> You say [pop
 41 /bbeong/], <Raises his hands> [POP />>BBEONG!<<] Haha.
 42 <Everyone laughs>
 43 Suhyun: <Pretends to fart> >>뽕!<< Haha.
 44 <Pretends to fart> [>>POP /BBEONG!<<] Haha.
 45 <Everyone laughs.>
 46 Suhyun: <Turns his body and pretends to fart> >>뽕, 뽕!<< Haha.
 47 <Turns his body and pretends to fart> [>>POP POP
 48 /BBEONG BBEONG!<<] Haha.

Minho and Suhyun uttered '뽕' several times in different senses (lines 36, 37, 44 and 47). Minho's '뽕' indicates the popping sound which describes rumours expanding like puffed rice or popcorn (line 36 and 37). Suhyun's '뽕' was a breaking wind sound (lines 44 and 47). Suhyun, who was not familiar with L2 (which was Korean) sounds, seems not to have differentiated between 뽕 /bbeong/ and 뽕 /bbong/, which is an onomatopoeia of a wind breaking sound, and used 뽕 instead of 뽕. The L2 onomatopoeia or 뽕 was not only a pun to give pupils enjoyment but also a stimulus for eliciting the interjection, 'ew', from Suhyun. Suhyun seems to have uttered 'ew' whenever he pretended to fart with the intention of not only expressing feelings of disgust or foulness but also entertaining others (lines 1, 2, 12, 17, and 20). Even though Suhyun did not know the exact meaning of the poem because of his limited L2 competence, he seems to have really enjoyed the poem because of the pun that the onomatopoeia gave. Suhyun expressed the scene from the poem appropriately by acting with the motion of farting, the L1 interjection 'ew' and the L2 onomatopoeia '뽕'. This

observation suggests that L2 onomatopoeias may serve the function of enabling the learner to gain a better understanding or feeling of a poem even though he/she did not fully understand each word in the poem. The use of onomatopoeias, which entertains learners, may also serve to elicit more active participation from learners, as well as to develop a friendly atmosphere.

While Extract 6.8 and 6.9 above provide examples of learners' use of prototypical or conventional onomatopoeias, Extract 6.10 below illustrates how L2 learners used onomatopoeias arbitrarily. The task was to prepare the group's presentation related to health problems.

Extract 6.10

Using Arbitrary Onomatopoeias (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Jinwoo: Hey, <tries to attract others' attention> 야, 어이, hey, hey,
2 hey!
3 Hey, <tries to attract others' attention> [hey, hello,] hey, hey,
4 hey!
5 Jaeseok: <Turns to Jinwoo> What's up?
6 Jinwoo: What about, what about Ebola virus? <Holds up his hands
7 and wiggles his fingers and in a strange voice> 우아아악,
8 Ebola virus. 이음 칙칙! And, and (.) I have cancer. <Rubs his
9 arm with his hand> 칙칙칙칙, 아아아악! 즈즈즈즈즈즈,
10 gamma radiation. 뼈이이이용. 어 (.) I have, I have <Laughs>
11 broken arm, I have a broken head. <Rends his head>
12 뜨아아악. 띠디디디디. 푹칙, 키익북. 어 (.) <Leans back in
13 his chair and puts his hands on his chest> I have a hole in
14 my chest. 푸욱칙, 으아아악 <Sits straight> I have a ripped
15 arm. 쓱쓱쓱. 우에에엑. 어 (.)
16 what about, what about Ebola virus? < Holds up his hands
17 and wiggles his fingers and in a strange voice > [/Woaaak/.
18 Ebola virus. [/Eeyuum, chizik/]. And, and (.) I have cancer.
19 <Rubs his arm with his hand> [/chik chik chik chik,
20 ahhhhhhk!/] [/zzzzzzz/], gamma radiation. [/Ppiiyong/, uh
21 (.)], I have, I have <Laughs> broken arm, I have a broken
22 head. <Rends his head> [/ddeuah, ddidididi, pukchik,
23 keeikbuk/, uh (.)] <Leans back in his chair and puts his hands
24 on his chest> I have a hole in my chest. [/Pooukchik,
25 euaaaahk/ <Sits straight> I have a ripped arm. [/Ssssssseuk,
26 Uehhhhhk/, uh (.)]
27 Huiju: <Taps Jinwoo on the hand and waves her hand from side to
28 side> Stop, stop, stop. Stop, stop!

Jinwoo, who had advanced L2 proficiency, created and produced a variety of L1 onomatopoeias to mimic various sounds, while generating sentences related to health problems (lines 6-14). Interestingly, Jinwoo said every word in L2 except for the onomatopoeia words and hesitation fillers. Even though he had advanced L2 proficiency because of his many years' residence in English-speaking contexts, Jinwoo produced onomatopoeias arbitrarily using L1 sounds when he imitated various sounds to give dramatic effects on what he said, as well as to attract others' attention. The reason for Jinwoo's dependence on L1 sounds might be that Jinwoo felt more familiar and more comfortable with L1 sounds. Jinwoo's creative use of L1 onomatopoeias seems to have served to engage others in his talk or to attract attention from others, but his long-winded talk seems to have deadened others' interest in his talk (line 27).

As illustrated above, learners used L1 onomatopoeias more frequently than L2 onomatopoeias. A possible explanation for this might be that learners were not familiar with L2 onomatopoeias. In addition, learners seem to have created onomatopoeias arbitrarily in L1 because they felt comfortable and familiar with L1 sounds. Learners also used onomatopoeias as a tool for giving dramatic effects on what they said, achieving enjoyment, or engaging others in their talk. In addition, onomatopoeias functioned as a tool for helping L2 learners deliver their message or story more powerfully by entertaining others.

Onomatopoeias may not only make learners' language rich, understandable or fun but also facilitate their understanding of what is said. Especially, learners' use of L1 onomatopoeias may serve to scaffold other learners with the same L1 to better understand what they are told in L2. In the interview in which Soyeon was asked to reflect on her use of onomatopoeias, she explained that the reason that she frequently used onomatopoeia words was to help others' understanding of what she said. Soyeon also commented that she could better understand what others said when they used onomatopoeia words. *“(I use onomatopoeia) in order to help others' understanding. As for me, I understand better when my friends say feelingly using onomatopoeias. I think my friends might be the same as me, so I use onomatopoeias a lot”* (Soyeon, EFL learner in Year 6 at The Boulevard,

Interview, 26, February 2016). From a different angle, Junghwa mentioned that her friends seemed to use onomatopoeia in order to make their talk funny and exciting. She also agreed that onomatopoeias made their speech more understandable. *“My friends seem to use onomatopoeias for fun. They also use onomatopoeias because they can make their talk more understandable. For fun and understanding”* (Junghwa, EFL learner in Year 6 at The Boulevard, Interview, 29, February 2016). In the same vein, Minho, who was a KHL learner in Year 6, said that onomatopoeias were useful for making his utterances more understandable when he was asked why he used them. *“When I can’t think of proper words, I can use onomatopoeias instead of the words. Then, others can understand what I want to say”* (Minho, KHL learner in Year 6 at Green Hill, Interview, 21, May 2016). However, other KHL learners, who participated in further individual interviews, gave different views on the use of onomatopoeias. Shinhye claimed that it was not common for English speakers to use onomatopoeias while speaking. *“I don’t use onomatopoeias a lot. It feels weird to use onomatopoeias. There are many English onomatopoeias such as meow, bang. However, we don’t use them when we speak. We only use them in writing.”* (Shinhye, KHL learner in Year 6 at Green Hill, Individual interview, 12, November 2016). Suhyun also gave the same opinion by mentioning that he used onomatopoeias only when he wrote. *“In my English writing, I do (use onomatopoeias). However, when I speak, no. Just because it is weird.”* (Suhyun, KHL learner in Year 6 at Green Hill, Interview, 19, November 2016).

The possible explanation for the gap in the use of onomatopoeias between EFL learners and KHL learners might be due to the linguistic and sociocultural differences between the two languages. Compared to English, Korean is very rich in onomatopoeia words, so it is common to use onomatopoeias while speaking among not only children but also adults. In this sociocultural context, EFL learners, whose L1 was Korean, not only showed more frequency in the use of onomatopoeias but also appreciated the value of onomatopoeias in L2 learning and communication. In addition, the data suggests that pupils at The Boulevard as both speakers and listeners tended to enjoy using onomatopoeias because onomatopoeia words make their language more descriptive and understandable as well as entertaining.

6.4. Using hesitation fillers

The use of hesitation fillers was one of the distinct features observed in L2 learners' language use. Fillers such as 'um' or 'er' are very frequently used when speakers try to fill in gaps in utterances while considering and preparing the next utterance (Gilmore, 2004). In the data, pupils frequently employed fillers in their conversation while performing their task with others. Interestingly, while pupils at The Boulevard mostly used L1 fillers such as '어/eo/' or '음/eum/', pupils at Green Hill employed a variety of L1 and L2 fillers.

Extract 6.11 illustrates the use of pupils' L1 or Korean fillers observed in The Boulevard. The task was to complete a role-play script together by filling in blanks with comparative forms or nouns.

Extract 6.11

Using L1 Hesitation Fillers (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Yewon, Aera, Inpyo: Cheetah is faster than the car.
2 Siwon: No.
3 Yewon: That's it.
4 Siwon: Cheetah is, 어(.)
5 Cheetah is, [um (.)]
6 Inpyo: Cheetah is fastest in the world.
7 <Aera stretches her arm toward Siwon's mouth>
8 Siwon: <Glances at Inpyo> 빠른데 <Holds Aera's arm> 오랫동안
9 일해야 해.
10 <Glances at Inpyo> [((Cheetah)) is fast, but] <Holds Aera's
11 wrist> [should work for a long time.].
12 Aera: <Removes her hand from Siwon's mouth> 괜찮아.
13 <Removes her hand from Siwon's mouth> It's okay.
14 Inpyo: The cheetah is faster than Jaein. <Points at a boy in his
15 class>
16 Siwon: 재미 있게 해야지. Slower than, 어, (.) <Tries to point at Aera
17 and changes the direction to point at himself> me! <Laughs>
18 [(We should) make it fun.] Slower than, [um, (.)] <Tries to point
19 at Aera and changes the direction to point at himself> me!
20 <Laughs>

Siwon twice used the L1 filler, '어 /eo/', in the middle of an L2 utterance (lines 4

and 16). The filler word seems to have served the function as a tool to stall for time in both cases, but its purposes seem to have been slightly different. The first ‘Oj’ seems to have been used to gain time for thinking how to organise or express in L2 what he had in mind against others’ claim that a cheetah is faster than a car (line 4). Actually, Siwon seems to have already had the reason that he did not agree with others’ claim (lines 8 and 9), but he seems to have hesitated for a while to think about how to express this in L2. He seems to have thought that a car could be faster than a cheetah if they were required to run for a long time (lines 8 and 9). The second ‘Oj’ seems to have been employed to stall for time to think about what to say (line 16). Namely, Siwon seems to have needed time to come up with something interesting to fill in the blank. The short pause after the filler finally led him to generating an idea (lines 16 and 17).

Normally, pupils at The Boulevard used L1 fillers, but some pupils occasionally used L2 fillers, as shown in Extract 6.12. The group of pupils were generating sentences related to health problems.

Extract 6.12

Using L1 Hesitation Fillers (EFL Learners in Year 6 at The Boulevard)

- 1 Jinwoo: Is it? Um, okay, I have anthrax.
- 2 <Huiju slaps on the desk>
- 3 Jinwoo: <Looks at Huiju’s reaction> Why, why? Anthrax is a deadly
- 4 disease.
- 5 Huiju: I know, I know
- 6
- 7 Jinwoo: I have, Oj [uh], (.) <Thinks for a while> DNA is all messed up.

Jinwoo uttered ‘um’ when he hesitated in the middle of L2 utterances in order to stall for time (line 1). Jinwoo employed the L2 filler in the middle of this L2 utterance, and later used an L1 filler in the middle of another L2 utterance (line 7). Jinwoo, who had many years of studying English in foreign countries such as the UK or Hong Kong, China comparatively frequently and naturally used L2 hesitation fillers in his L2 utterances, but he also frequently used L1 hesitation fillers in his L2 utterances.

On the other hand, pupils at Green Hill more frequently employed hesitation fillers

than pupils at The Boulevard. They used a variety of fillers, regardless of L1 or L2. In Extract 6.13, Minhø and Suhyun used various fillers while talking about their favourite poem chosen from a poem collection worksheet.

Extract 6.13

Using a Variety of Hesitation Fillers (KHL Learners in Year 6 at Green Hill)

- 1 Minho: Anyway, 왜냐면 내가 집에 있을 때 어, 맨날, 막 TV 아니면
2 game 하고 어, 막, 시간이 되면 내가 막 tv를 끌 때 엄마가 막
3 버튼 누를 때 엄마가 ‘야, 꺼’ <Shinhye and Suhyun laugh> 막,
4 그렇게 하니까 ‘아, 됐다’하고 뽕튀기 기계, 왜냐면, 어,
5 *Anyway, [because when I was at home, 어 /eo/, every day, I,*
6 *막 /mak/, watch TV, or play the game((s)). And, 어 /eo/, 막*
7 */mak/, when the time was up when I turned off, 막 /mak/, TV,*
8 *when my mom, 막 /mak/, push the button, mum says ‘hey,*
9 *turn it off.’ <Shinhye and Suhyun laugh> Because, ((mum)),*
10 *막 /mak/, does like that, ‘Ah, it’s done’, and a popcorn*
11 *machine, because, 어 /eo/,]*
12
13 Minho: 하고 진짜로 이것은 팝콘 아니고 이것은 진짜론 secret
14 *[And this does not literally mean popcorn. This really indicates*
15 *secret.]*
16 Suhyun: Um?
17 Minho: 그것은 막 빨리, 어, 막, 그니까 어떤 친구한테 말하면, 어, 그
18 친구가 다른 친구한테 말하고 그게 너무 재미있었고. 어, 여기
19 맨 마지막이 제일, 어, 재미있는, 왜냐면 어, 선생님이 방귀
20 뀌었다, 어, 다시 어, 그, 그, secret이 다시 사람들에게 다 말,
21 음,
22 *[That is, 막 / mak/, quickly, 어/eo/, 막 / mak/, so, if a person*
23 *talks to someone, 어/eo/, the friend talks to another friend.*
24 *That was so fun. 어/eo/, here, the last one is most, 어/eo/,*
25 *interesting because, 어/eo/, the teacher farted, 어/eo/, again,*
26 *어/eo/, 그 /geu/, 그 /geu/, secret ((spread)) to other people, 음*
27 */eum/]*
28
29 Suhyun: Okay, <Points at one poem on the worksheet> 이거,
30 재미있어. 왜냐하면 um, if that’s a really boring lesson, if
31 that’s, like, a boring lesson and the teacher does a fart. Like,

- 32 everyone's laughing, and it gets happy again. <Makes a fart
 33 sound> 그래서 저거 재밌어. And I don't know anything else.
 34 Okay, <Points at one poem on the worksheet> [this, is fun.
 35 Because,] um, if that's a really boring lesson, if that's, like, a
 36 boring lesson and the teacher does a fart. Like, everyone's
 37 laughing, and it gets happy again. <Makes a fart sound>[So
 38 that's fun.] And I don't know anything else.
- 39 Minho: <Points at a poem on the worksheet> Um, this one, this one
 40 is about, like, like 어, 엄마들은 맨날 caring, 어,
 41 <Points at a poem on the worksheet> Um, this one, this one
 42 is about, like, like, 어 /eo/, [mums are always] caring, [er].
- 43 Suhyun: Oh, okay. 나, 나, 컴퓨터 많이 할 때 um, 내 엄마는 나한테,
 44 uh, because she doesn't want me to be addicted she tells
 45 me to get off the laptop. I think.
 46 Oh, okay. [I, I, when I do computer a lot,] um, [my mum, to
 47 me,] uh, because she doesn't want me to be addicted, she
 48 tells me to get off the laptop. I think.

While Minho with advanced L2 proficiency used L2 (which was Korean) fillers such as ‘막 /mak’, ‘어 /eo/’, or ‘음 /eum/’ (lines 1-4, 17-21, and 39-40) as well as L1 (which was English) fillers such as ‘um’ or ‘like’ (lines 39-40), Suhyun, whose L2 proficiency was less advanced, exclusively used L1 fillers such as ‘um’, ‘like’, or ‘er’ in the middle of L1 or L2 utterances (lines 30-31, and 43). Among all the pupils at Green Hill, Minho was the person who most frequently used a variety of L2 hesitation fillers. Minho seems to have been familiar with L2 hesitation fillers because he was naturally exposed to them in L2 at home, where he usually talked with his mother in L2. On the other hand, Suhyun with less L2 proficiency seems to have resorted to L1 while communicating with his parents, even though his parents talked to him in L2. In addition, while Minho had no siblings to talk to in L1, Suhyun had an older brother, and they mainly talked to each other in L1. In this respect, learners’ use of L2 hesitation fillers seems to have been related to the amount of their exposure to natural L2 conversation. Especially, pupils at Green Hill might have used various L2 fillers because they were easily exposed to a variety of L2 hesitation fillers by their father or mother at home, where natural and authentic conversations occurred. In this respect, it is not surprising that pupils at Green Hill employed a variety of L2 fillers and pupils at The Boulevard, who had seldom opportunity to be exposed to authentic L2 conversation, normally depended on L1 fillers even in their L2 utterances. On the other hand, pupils at

Green Hill who had both parents with Korean heritage and had no siblings tended to use more various L2 hesitation fillers because they only talked with their parents at home and hence were likely to be more exposed to L2 fillers in their daily conversation. However, pupils at Green Hill with siblings seem to have resorted to L2 hesitation fillers because they were less likely to communicate in L2 at home because they spent more time in talking with their siblings in L1 than talking with their parents in L2. In the same vein, pupils with siblings tended to be less advanced in terms of L2 proficiency than pupils who were an only child.

In this Extract above, hesitation fillers by Minho and Suhyun seem to have been used as a tool or strategy for not only gaining time to recall appropriate words or to think of what to say but also making a smoother conversation. They chose to use fillers rather than to pause in order to hold the floor in their conversation. While a pause may give the interlocutor the opportunity to speak, fillers indicate the speaker himself/herself will keep talking (Gilmore, 2004). Hesitation fillers are seen to signal to listeners more clearly than a pause that the speaker has not finished speaking. Thus, pupils' use of hesitation fillers may be an effective communicative strategy for making conversation smooth or fluent. In addition, 'like', one of the hesitation fillers frequently used by pupils at Green Hill, seems to have functioned as a tool for not only gaining time for thinking what to say or retrieving L2 expressions but also focusing others' attention on what would be said. Both Suhyun and Minho used 'like' immediately before they gave the important part of their utterance (lines 31, 32, and 40). Generally, the hesitation filler, 'like', functions to attract listeners' attention on the forthcoming stretch of the speaker's utterance (Daily-O'Cain, 2000). Thus, 'like' may be used as an effective tool for delivering what the speaker wants to emphasise by focusing others on the meaningful and important part of the speaker's utterance.

Overall, observations on hesitation fillers show that L2 learners used hesitation fillers as a tool for stalling for time to retrieve appropriate words or to think about what to say. EFL learners generally used L1 hesitation fillers such as '오 /eo/' or '음 /eum/' in the middle of L1 utterances and often in L2 utterances. They sometimes used a certain L2 hesitation filler in their L2 utterances. The filler, 'um',

was the only English hesitation filler used by EFL learners in the data. On the other hand, KHL learners employed a variety of both L1 and L2 hesitation fillers. There are some possible explanations for these differences between EFL learners and KHL learners.

First, the difference in the frequency of using hesitation fillers seems to have been related to the task difficulty. Compared to those of EFL learners, tasks of KHL learners were cognitively and linguistically more challenging, even though the task type was the same or similar. Taking an example of the task of completing a role-play script, while EFL learners were just expected to complete their role-play script by filling some blanks with comparative forms or nouns, KHL learners were asked to create their own role-play script including setting the context. Hence, KHL learners might have more frequently needed hesitation fillers in order to gain or stall for time to think about what to say as well as to recall proper words. In addition, the frequency of using hesitation fillers seems to have had to do with the length and the complexity of L2 learners' utterances. The longer and more complex utterances L2 learners used, the more frequently hesitation fillers were used. Whereas EFL learners were normally expected to produce short and simple target expressions or sentences in their tasks, KHL learners were required to produce their own ideas or opinions logically by using language spontaneously. Hence, KHL learners' language were likely to be more redundant and longer, and hesitation fillers were more frequently used by KHL learners.

Second, the difference in the diversity of L2 hesitation fillers could be attributed to the difference in the amount of the exposure to L2. While EFL learners were limited in exposure to L2 because they did not need to use L2 in their daily life, KHL learners were provided with comparatively more opportunities to be exposed to L2 because one of their home languages was L2. KHL learners might have been naturally exposed to L2 hesitation fillers used by their parents at home, and hence they seem to have been able to use various L2 hesitation fillers. As discussed earlier, KHL learners with siblings were less proficient in L2 and did not use various L2 hesitation fillers. My five-year teaching experience in the Korean Saturday School and informal interviews with parents also suggested that the older sibling was likely to mediate between his/her younger sibling and their

parents and that this intervention by the older sibling might interrupt the younger sibling's use of L2. KHL learners who were an only child could not help using L2 at home and the use of L2 might have improved their L2 proficiency and the use of L2 hesitation fillers simultaneously.

6.5. Main findings from the chapter

Use of interjection was one of the marked features in pupils' language use. Pupils used a variety of L1 interjections when they expressed their immediate emotions, feelings, reaction to interlocutors; showed listenership; or delivered a directive message. Especially, 'hey' or 'Oj [hey]' was most frequently used as a signal for getting attention in both contexts of the EFL classroom and the KHL classroom. This interjection implicitly urged listeners to pay attention by conveying the message of 'I want you to pay attention to me'. 'Oh' or 'Oj /ah/', the interjections uttered at the a-ha moment, was also commonly used in both contexts, which indicated that the speaker suddenly came to know or understand something. Besides these prototypical interjections, pupils at The Boulevard often used internet slang interjections such as '헐 /heol/', which contains multiple emotions such as disbelief, exasperation, mild shock or surprise and is commonly used by the young Korean generation.

Learners overwhelmingly resorted to L1 interjections when they expressed their feelings or drew others' attention and occasionally used L2 interjections and even L3 interjections. L2 learners at the primary school level may seldom be exposed to L2 interjections. Hence, the learners may have difficulty in using L2 interjections fluently and naturally, especially in the foreign language context. However, pupils at The Boulevard, which was a foreign language learning context, seem to have been familiar with certain L2 interjections such as 'okay' or 'oh my god'. The pupils might have used these L2 interjections properly in context because they were frequently exposed to these interjections through the mass media such as movies or TV shows. Regarding the use of L3 interjections, pupils at Green Hill sometimes used L3 interjections when they expressed their feelings in an exaggerated or

funny way. It is not surprising that the use of L3 interjection was observed only among pupils in Year 6 at Green Hill because the pupils had learned another language as a foreign language in their mainstream school, which might be their L3 or L4.

The excessive use of L1 interjection does not seem to have caused any problem among L2 learners with the same L1. Rather, it might have allowed pupils to communicate or deliver their message more effectively. However, it may cause communication breakdowns among people with different L1s. Thus, pupils should be provided with sufficient opportunities to learn or to be exposed to L2 interjections so that they can not only deliver their message or express their feelings effectively but also avoid any communication breakdown.

Onomatopoeia frequently appeared in pupils' language in The Boulevard, whose L1 was Korean. The pupils used only Korean onomatopoeias in both L1 and L2 utterances. One of characteristics of the Korean language is that it is rich in onomatopoeia words (Y. Choi, 2013; Han et al., 2005; D. Kim, 2014). Hence, it was not surprising to see pupils at The Boulevard using onomatopoeias during peer interaction. However, pupils at Green Hill, whose L1 was English, said that they did not normally use onomatopoeias in oral conversation and they just used them in their writing. While pupils at The Boulevard appreciated the value of onomatopoeias in L2 learning, pupils at Green Hill had negative feelings towards using onomatopoeias. Specifically, pupils at The Boulevard claimed that the use of onomatopoeias enabled them not only to make their speech rich, comprehensible or fun but also to understand better what the speaker said if the speaker used them. The gap between the pupils in the two contexts might have resulted from not only the linguistic difference of the two L1s but also sociocultural differences between the two contexts. While it is socioculturally acceptable and felt natural to use onomatopoeias in conversation in Korea, it does not seem to be in the UK. These differences might have led to the different view on and the different use of onomatopoeias among pupils of the two different schools.

As mentioned earlier, pupils at Green Hill rarely used onomatopoeias in their conversation, but they exceptionally used them while performing tasks such as a

role-play or a drama. The use of L2 onomatopoeias in the dramatic context elicited active participation from pupils who enjoyed the fun of onomatopoeias, whether it was pedagogically intended or not. On the other hand, pupils at The Boulevard not only used conventional Korean onomatopoeias but also created their own onomatopoeias arbitrarily using Korean sounds. The reason that pupils frequently used onomatopoeias might be that onomatopoeias were effective for both drawing attention from others and achieving enjoyment due to their rhythmical effect. In addition, onomatopoeias enabled pupils to convey their ideas in a more descriptive and understandable way because onomatopoeia words are useful for creating a vivid picture by associating certain image and sounds. The use of L1 onomatopoeias, particularly, was helpful for learners with limited L2 competence to better understand what was said in L2 when their interlocutor used L1 onomatopoeias in their L2 utterances. Namely, the use of L1 onomatopoeias functioned as an effective tool for scaffolding others.

Finally, the use of fillers or hesitation devices was another feature frequently observed in pupils' language use. Pupils used fillers such as 'um' or 'er' when they hesitated in order to think of what to say next. Hesitation fillers are commonly used to fill up gaps in utterances (Gilmore, 2004). Pupils at The Boulevard mostly uttered L1 fillers such as '아/ea' or '음 /eum/' not only in L1 utterances but also in L2 utterances, whereas pupils at Green Hill used a variety of L1 and L2 fillers in context. This difference shown in the diversity of L2 hesitation fillers among learners of the two schools might have been caused by the difference in the quantity and quality of their exposure to them. The pupils at The Boulevard were seldom exposed to L2 hesitation fillers in their daily life because L2 was their foreign language. However, pupils at Green Hill might have been exposed to a variety of L2 fillers through conversation with their parents, who were Korean speakers. Thus, pupils at Green Hill might have been able to naturally use various L2 hesitation fillers, which L1 speakers would commonly use in their daily life.

The frequency of learners' use of hesitation fillers seems to have been related to the task difficulty or task complexity. Tasks for pupils at The Boulevard were developed considering pupils' limited L2 competence and focusing on

improvement of learners' L2 communicative competence rather than academic language skills or cognitive skills. Hence, tasks were neither cognitively nor linguistically challenging. Pupils were required to produce comparatively short and simple target expressions to produce the task outcome. However, tasks for pupils at Green Hill were chosen and revised from L1 textbooks developed for L1 speakers, and hence the complexity or difficulty of their tasks was comparatively high. In addition, pupils of Green Hill were required to use their language spontaneously in order to produce their task outcome. In this context, pupils at Green Hill more frequently needed hesitation fillers to buy time for thinking or holding the floor. Learners' hesitation fillers may be used as a communication strategy because they lead to smooth communication by signalling that the speaker continue his/her speech.

To summarise, interjections, onomatopoeias, and hesitation fillers consist of short and simple words or sounds that can be used to effectively deliver what the speaker says or what the speaker intends. These devices were necessary for effective communication to enable them to perform their tasks successfully by expressing the speaker's feelings, emotions or reaction; describing something phonetically; or gaining time to think about what to say. Especially, L1 onomatopoeias by Korean speakers, which was closely related to the characteristic of the Korean language, served to scaffold others to understand what was said in L2.

Chapter 7 Making sense of learners' language use comprehensively

7.1. Introduction

I began my thesis with a vignette of my English Language Teaching (ELT) experiences as a state primary school teacher in Seoul, which had been a starting point of my study and a driving force to proceed with it. The dilemma raised from the vignette fuelled my pedagogic curiosity about L2 learners' language use during peer interaction for performing tasks under the L2 only policy. To explore L2 learners' language use, primary school pupils' language was collected during task-based peer interaction from two different contexts. One context was English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in The Boulevard, a state primary school in Seoul, South Korea. The other context was Korean as a Heritage Language (KHL) classrooms in Green Hill, a Korean Saturday school in London, the UK. The data gathered in these two contexts were analysed in terms of the distinct features of learners' language use and the overall functions of learners' languages to answer the research questions of how and why learners used their language while working together on their L2 task.

In this chapter, I review the main findings to address my research questions and then discuss them from the sociocultural perspective that is the theoretical framework underlying my study. I also provide pedagogical implications from research and original contributions of my study. Finally, I discuss the limitations of my study, before concluding with suggestions for further research.

7.2. Overview of findings

To answer the overarching research questions of how and why learners use their language during task-based peer interaction in the primary L2 classroom, two themes were identified from the entire set of data, i.e. distinct features of L2 learners' language use and overall functions that L2 learners' languages serve, as described in Chapter Three. Learners showed the slightly different use of

language across the two different learning contexts, i.e. the EFL classroom in The Boulevard and the KHL classroom in Green Hill, but the use of language generally showed similar patterns in terms of characteristic features and functions. The most distinct features shown in L2 learners' language use was codeswitching between L1 and L2 and repeating what was said. The use of interjections, onomatopoeias and hesitation fillers was also characteristic in L2 learners' language use. Also, L2 learners' language functioned as a necessary mediational tool for the implementation of L2 tasks, serving the cognitive, communicative and socio-affective functions on both interpersonal and intrapersonal planes. This use of language by L2 learners was affected by and had dynamic relations with multiple factors, which are discussed in the next section.

7.3. Discussion

In this section, L2 learners' language use is comprehensively and synthetically discussed with relevance to various factors associated with L2 learners' language use, particularly its distinct features and functions. The first subsection deals with learners' language use on the interpersonal plane and the next subsection addresses it on the intrapersonal plane.

7.3.1. Learners' language use on the interpersonal plane

Under the L2 only policy, all learners in this study were asked to only use the L2 in the L2 class of both schools, i.e. The Boulevard and Green Hill. Learners, however, used not only L2 but also L1 during the interaction with other learners to complete their L2 tasks successfully. Learners' language used on the interpersonal plane showed dynamic and complex relations among multiple factors, characteristic features, and functions (Figure 7.1).

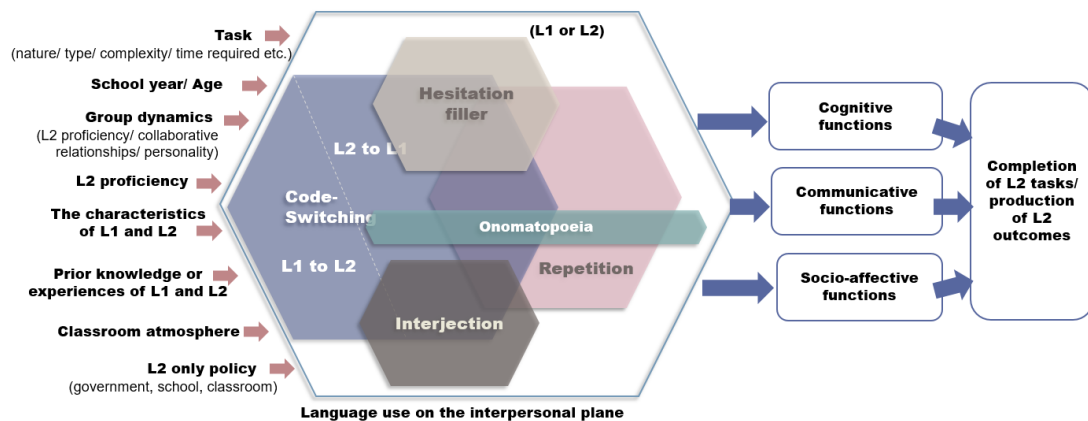


Figure 7.1. L2 learners' language use on the interpersonal plane during task-based peer interaction in primary L2 class

In Figure 7.1, the external hexagon indicates the practice of learners' language use on the interpersonal plane, and the internal hexagons refer to the characteristic features observed in learners' language use on this plane. The size of each hexagon placed in the external hexagon indicates the relative frequency of each feature. For example, the biggest hexagon of codeswitching means that learners most frequently employed codeswitching while conversing with other learners. Also, the position of each internal hexagon is worth notice because it illustrates how each feature is related to each other. For example, the hexagon of hesitation filler, which is located across the space indicating L1 or L2, the hexagon of codeswitching, and the hexagon of repetition, means that learners not only used L1 hesitation fillers in L1 utterances or L2 hesitation fillers in L2 utterances but also codeswitched L2 to L1 in order to use L1 hesitation fillers. Learners also repeated the same hesitation fillers within the same utterance or repeated the codeswitched hesitation fillers. These features emerging from learners' language use on the interpersonal plane had to do with various factors such as L2 only policy, classroom atmosphere, prior knowledge or experiences of L1 and L2, the characteristics of L1 and L2, L2 proficiency, group dynamics, and task. The understanding of these factors may help better comprehend learners' language use.

L2 only policy

First of all, the L2 only policy was one of the most influential factors affecting learners' language use. Under the L2 only policy, learners were required only to use L2 in their class, but they could not use only the L2 because they had limited L2 competence. If there had not been the L2 only policy, learners might have felt free to use L1, but the policy seems to have functioned to make learners keep trying to use L2, or at least codeswitching.

Pupils sometimes seem to have felt that they did something wrong or even felt guilty when they used L1 under the L2 only policy. They frequently tried to switch from L1 to L2 in their talk or often told each other to use the L2 whenever their teachers approached them. Based on this observation, the L2 only policy may be seen, either positively or negatively, to have influenced not only the practice of language use but also their attitudes or feelings towards using L2, which might affect the use of language. To summarise, the L2 only policy may function as both a driving force for learners to stick to the use of L2 in L2 class and an obstacle to L2 learning by inhibiting learners' participation or making them feel inferior.

School and classroom culture or atmosphere

Learners' use of language had to do with the school and classroom culture or atmosphere. Green Hill was not a mainstream school but a kind of complementary school run only on Saturdays. Pupils seemed to feel freer in this school and to think they did not have to strictly adhere to the school or classroom policy, even though they were not badly behaved. Hence, pupils were more likely to use L1 even when they were aware of how to express in L2. The Boulevard, on the other hand, was a mainstream school, where learners were evaluated by their personality, including attitudes or behaviour, as well as their achievement. In this school, pupils' school life report was regarded as crucial not only to learners but also to their parents. Thus, pupils were relatively well-disciplined, and their classroom atmosphere was stricter than that of Green Hill. In this context, pupils attempted to adhere to the L2 only policy and to try to use L2 more proactively.

L1 knowledge or experiences

Learners' language was affected by their L1 knowledge or experiences, which can be seen as L1 transfer. Learners who shared the same L1 made similar error patterns due to their L1 transfer. For example, while pupils of The Boulevard, who were Korean speakers, tended to make errors in using English articles, pupils of Green Hill, who were English speakers, were likely to omit postpositions or case particles. The reason for this might be that there were no concepts of articles in Korean and no postpositions or case particles in English. Therefore, pupils with the same L1 may have similar linguistic difficulties or make similar mistakes or errors in using L2.

Prior knowledge or experiences of L2

Learners' prior knowledge or experiences of L2 influenced their language use. Some learners overgeneralised their L2 knowledge or experiences when they were faced with linguistic difficulties. For example, some Year 6 pupils of The Boulevard, who knew how to describe the symptom of a disease in the way of forming a compound noun including 'ache', overapplied this rule to any part of the body. Namely, they created eye-ache and foot-ache, which were grammatically correct but pragmatically unacceptable, to describe a sore eye and a sore foot respectively, even though there were no equivalent expressions of eye-ache and foot-ache in their L1. In this respect, learners' overgeneralisation or overapplication of their L2 knowledge is seen as being related to intralingual influences in origin rather than L1 transfer because it reflects the general features of L2 rules (J. C. Richards, 1971). These kinds of errors resulting from overgeneralised L2 knowledge can be seen as errors caused by learners' incomplete L2 competence (Kaweera, 2013), but it may also be interpreted as an indicator that learners construct their own understanding of L2 grammatical rules cognitively (Zheng & Park, 2013). In addition, this overgeneralisation may be seen to indicate learners' interlanguage development leading to target-like expressions rather than an obstacle to the L2 acquisition transfer. This process of trials and errors illustrates that L2 learners are in the process of language acquisition within their ZPD.

Linguistic characteristics of L1 and L2

Linguistic characteristics of L1 and L2 were also seen as one of the factors affecting learners' language use. For example, pupils of The Boulevard used exclusively L1 onomatopoeias, even when they uttered in L2. Onomatopoeia greatly enriches Korean vocabulary (Y. Choi, 2013; Han et al., 2005; D. Kim, 2014). Korean speakers use onomatopoeia not only in certain domains of discourse which need a reference to the senses, such as recipe discussions or children's books, but also extensively. The pupils of The Boulevard, who were familiar with onomatopoeia, used not only conventional onomatopoeia words but also created their own onomatopoeia words. On the other hand, pupils of Green Hill did not use any English (L1) onomatopoeia but used some Korean (L2) onomatopoeias in a particular kind of task, such as a role-play or dramatisation of a poem, in which certain onomatopoeias were needed for the dramatic effect.

L2 proficiency

Learners' L2 proficiency, not surprisingly, had an impact on learners' language use. The more advanced learners were, the more L2 they used, and the less advanced learners were, the more L1 they resorted to. This finding is in accord with findings from previous studies (DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Under the L2 only policy, some less advanced pupils would not get involved in conversation because they could not express in L2 what they wanted to say. The interview with Kyunsung supported this observation. Kyunsung mentioned that he would not talk in English class because he was not proficient in English:

I seldom talk anything ((in English class)). We have to talk in English. If I want to say in Korean, I have to ask ((the teacher)) whether I may use Korean in English. However, I can't ask it in English, so I can't use Korean. So, I just sit ((on the chair))... I just keep saying only 'yes' ((when I have to speak in English)). Hahaha. Like yes, yes. (Kyunsung, EFL learners in Year 3 of The Boulevard, Individual interview, 2, June 2015).

Not only less advanced learners but also more advanced learners resorted to L1 when they had metatalk, meta-task talk, or socio-affective talk. Interestingly, more advanced learners were more likely to use L2 while discussing content as well as generating content, whereas less advanced learners tended to resort to L2 while generating content but L1 while discussing content. The reason for this might be that higher L2 proficiency is required to discuss content rather than to generate content.

Group dynamics

Learners' language use was also related to group dynamics (Storch, 2002; Storch & Aldosari, 2013; Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Learners used L1 or L2 differently according to their interlocutors' L2 proficiency. Pairs consisting of advanced learners produced more L2, but the advanced learner was likely to resort to L1 when his/her interlocutor was less advanced. More advanced learners were likely to dominate the talk during interaction with less advanced learners and tended to switch from L2 to L1 so that less advanced partners were involved in the task. In the focus group interview with Year 6 pupils in Green Hill, pupils agreed that they were likely to use more English (i.e. L1) when they talked with less advanced pupils because the less advanced pupils did not understand what was said in Korean (i.e. L2). Shinhye, particularly, said that she used English more to make herself understood when she talked with less advanced pupils:

I use English (i.e. L1) more while talking with less advanced people. Whenever I say in Korean (i.e. L2), they asked me in English what I am saying because they don't understand Korean well. They ask me, "You what?", "What do you mean?" So, I use English more because people, who don't understand Korean, don't understand what is said in Korean (Shinhye, KHL learners in Year 6 of Green Hill, Focus group interview, 13, February 2016).

Minho largely concurred with Shinhye's opinion, but also emphasised the contribution of less advanced people by mentioning that he could use Korean (i.e. L2) more if the interlocutor was willing and trying to get involved in the task regardless of his/her L2 proficiency level:

I use Korean (i.e. L2) more if a person is willing and trying to understand what is said ((in Korean)), even though the person doesn't speak Korean well. However, it's difficult to use Korean if the person doesn't try to understand or listen to (Minho, KHL learners in Year 6 of Green Hill, Focus group interview, 13, February 2016).

As appears out of the interview with Minho, collaborative relationship or the interlocutor's willingness to cooperate, which impacts group dynamics, is crucial in learners' use of language (Van Gorp & Bogaert, 2006). Willingness to engage in communication is also the crucial concept to explain the L1 and L2 use (S. Kang, 2005). The more the person and the interlocutor are willing to communicate in L2, the more they would use L2.

Learner attributes

Learner attributes such as personality or motivation were seen to influence learners' interaction, more specifically the practice of their language use. The learners who were well-disciplined and well-motivated were likely to adhere to the L2 only policy regardless of their L2 proficiency. For example, Yuna, a Year 6 pupil of The Boulevard, seldom spoke in Korean (i.e. L1), even though her English (i.e. L2) proficiency was not advanced. Ara, whose English proficiency was also less advanced, mainly uttered English except for a few times. According to their Korean EFL teacher, they were typical model pupils who had the best achievements in every school subject and were well-disciplined. However, their English proficiency was not high compared to that of other pupils in terms of fluency and pronunciation. Their utterances were very short in length. Their limited L2 proficiency seems to have interrupted them from discussing or negotiating content actively, but they continued using L2, focusing their talk on the generation of content. In spite of their poor L2 proficiency, their disposition towards learning seems to have enabled them to adhere to the L2 only policy comparatively well.

Dongwon, another well-disciplined pupil, who was in Year 3 of Green Hill and whose L2 proficiency was advanced, also used distinguishably more L2 compared to other pupils in his class. Interestingly, Dongwon's interlocutors, who

often resorted to L1 when they talked with others during the task, used L2 more than L1 when they worked with Dongwon. These kinds of learner attributes are seen to contribute to defining the group dynamic which impacted on learners' language use.

School year or age

School year or age was also an influential factor. There were differences between year/age groups, especially among pupils of The Boulevard. Year 3 pupils less frequently resorted to L1 than Year 6 pupils, even though their English was less proficient than Year 6 pupils. This difference between these two age groups seems to have resulted from the gap in the complexity of tasks designed according to the developmental stage of the two year groups. Tasks provided to Year 3 pupils were comparatively simple and easy, and pupils could perform their tasks by practicing or producing target expressions after substituting several lexical items. However, Year 6 pupils were likely to resort to L1 because their tasks needed negotiating or discussing and these functions needed more advanced linguistic competence. In other words, Year 3 learners had only to use the target expressions, which were already learned in the previous lessons or within the lesson, to perform their task, but Year 6 pupils had to use not only target expressions but also language needed to serve varied functions, such as discussing content or managing tasks. Thus, Year 6 pupils, whose talk included more metatalk or meta-task talk, were likely to depend on their L1 to complete their tasks successfully.

Another reason for the difference seems to have resulted from pre-adolescent children's unique characteristics. Within the peer group of Year 6, i.e. the pre-adolescent age group, negative judgement from peers, which might cause exclusion or rejection from others, is seen as one of the anxieties that are most frequently and intensively felt (Erath & Tu, 2013). Pupils at this age strongly desire to be included in and accepted in their peer group (Lease, Musgrove, & Axelrod, 2002). Thus, they tend to value the judgement of others, and would not show them off by their excellence because it may be felt important among these pupils how others judge their actions. The climate of this age group seems to have exerted

an influence on the action of learners in this group and, to some extent, the learners' language in L2 class. As Ms Lee, the Korean EFL teacher of The Boulevard, pointed out in the interview, some of the pupils in Year 6 tended to feel awkward in using the target language except for the target expressions related to the task outcome because everyone only used the same L1 in every class except for L2 class.

Korean people don't have to talk in English except for several special cases, because Korea is the country where Korean is normally used. So, I think Korean pupils, particularly in the upper years, feel awkward in conversing in English except for uttering target expressions. They also seem to feel awkward in pronouncing like native English speakers, even though they can do it. This tendency is less shown in the lower year groups but is more seen in upper year groups, which regard peer group culture as important (Ms Lee, Korean EFL teacher of The Boulevard, further interview, 29, February 2016).

Learners may feel reluctant or weird using L2 with others who share the same L1 because it is an unnatural situation (S. Kang, 2005). Learners may even feel it is arrogant to use L2 like native speakers. Hence, they would choose to use L1 even though they could express in L2, or utter in L2 with strong L1 accents to avoid being seen as showing off. Learners, behind the scenes, might also have a fear of losing face by making mistakes while using L2 fluently. As a result, learners might have tried to avoid this potential embarrassment by using L1. Thus, the security or atmosphere that might be determined by peer group may be seen as one of the factors to affect learners' language use.

Task

Last but not least, patterns that shaped the task had to do with learners' use of language. Particularly, the nature, the type, the complexity of tasks and the time allotted in the task performance are seen to have influenced pupils' language use. While pupils of The Boulevard resorted to L2 or inter-sentential codeswitching to generate the task outcomes by using the target L2 expressions, pupils of Green Hill resorted to L1 or intra-sentential codeswitching in order to produce content or the task outcome.

This gap in the use of language for generating content or the task outcome was seen to result from the difference in the nature of tasks set in the two different contexts. The difference in the nature of tasks may have been caused from the different focuses of each textbook and curriculum. While EFL textbooks, which pupils of The Boulevard used, were made for Korean speaking pupils learning English as their foreign language, Korean language textbooks, which pupils of Green Hill used, were made for Korean speaking pupils learning Korean as their national language. In other words, the textbooks of The Boulevard were developed for L2 learners, and the textbooks of Green Hill were developed for L1 learners, even though both textbooks were used by L2 learners. Hence, the focuses of each textbook and each curriculum were not the same. In addition, while the curriculum and textbooks for pupils of The Boulevard focused on developing the ability to understand and express basic language used in everyday life with interest in English (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2012b), the curriculum and textbooks used in Green Hill emphasised not only achieving basic knowledge of Korean language activities (such as listening, speaking, reading, writing), Korean language (grammar) and literature but also improving the critical and creative competence of Korean language and cultivating the attitude of actively taking part in the use of Korean language (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2012a).

In this context, the nature of tasks provided to pupils of each school was naturally different. Tasks of The Boulevard asked pupils to practice and produce certain target structures or vocabulary in meaningful contexts with the intention of improving learners' L2 communicative competence, but tasks of Green Hill did not focus on the use of any necessary target structures or expressions. The tasks of Green Hill elicited the spontaneous use of language from pupils to achieve the task objective. Pupils of The Boulevard had to use the L2 target structures or expressions by switching their language code from L1 to L2 even in the middle of L1 utterances in order to generate content, whereas pupils of Green Hill more frequently resorted to intra-sentential codeswitching, particularly the use of L2 words in their L1 utterances. Pupils of Green Hill could generate L2 written outcomes by using L1 and intra-sentential codeswitching instead of uttering L2 full sentences. Thus, the difference in the nature of tasks resulted in the different

use of language between pupils of these two schools.

Along with the nature of tasks, the task type and the complexity of the task also affected pupils' language use. Tasks that inherently elicited interaction, such as the task requiring the exchange of information or the collective writing task, gave rise to the use of richer language in terms of the amount and the length of learners' utterances. Also, learners seem to have used their language to generate content or outcome more than to manage the task when they were asked to perform the task whose procedure was simple and easy to understand. In addition, the more complex the task was, the more L1, codeswitching, and hesitation fillers were used. Tasks that are simple and linguistically predictable may enable learners to perform the task predominantly in L2 (Tognini & Oliver, 2012). However, tasks that are cognitively and linguistically difficult may elicit the more use of L1 from learners. Learners' L1 may function as a crucial cognitive tool for solving cognitively or linguistically challenging tasks (Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Hesitation fillers may also be used more when learners are faced with complex tasks because hesitation fillers help learners stall time to allow for thinking.

The time allotted for learners to perform their task gave an impact on learners' language use. Each 40-minute session of The Boulevard consisted of at least three tasks, considering learners' interest and attention span and following the Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) framework. Pupils were not provided with sufficient time to perform each task. This limited time did not elicit enough negotiation or discussion from pupils and just made pupils focus on generating the task outcome by using L2 target expressions. On the other hand, sufficient time was given to the performance of each task in Green Hill because enough time, i.e. around one hour session for Year 3 and two and a half hour session for Year 6, was given to each Korean language session. This not only enabled pupils to negotiate or discuss their task outcome sufficiently but also led to pupils' more spontaneous and unpredictable use of language and more dependence on L1 for such a negotiation and discussion.

These factors discussed above did not function as a single influencer but jointly affected and shaped learners' language use. Based on the understanding of the

dynamic relationship between these factors and learners' language use, distinct features emerging from learners' language use are comprehensively discussed below.

Using language as a mediational tool for effective communication

First of all, learners' language was used as a mediational tool for effective communication when learners tried to construct or maintain their conversation, or they experienced communication breakdowns. It was necessary for pupils to communicate with each other to complete the L2 tasks requiring their collaboration. Hence, their language was frequently used for the communicative function. L2 learners often depend on "certain tricks (or communications strategies)" which help them to avoid the difficulty, and/or gain time for thinking of how to overcome the difficulty (Macaro, Graham, & Woore, 2016, p. 30). Learners' tricks or strategies for better communication are closely related to the distinct features emerging from their language use in my study. Namely, pupils used codeswitching, repetition, interjection, or hesitation fillers to construct or continue their conversation effectively.

Most apparently, pupils frequently switched their language from L2 to L1 or the converse to communicate with each other smoothly. In both school contexts, L2, which was the target language, was the only language allowed in the classroom, and L1 was officially forbidden, but the L2 only policy seems not to have powerfully affected learners' language use during peer interaction. It seems that codeswitching was the second best choice for pupils to continue their conversation for performing their L2 task because pupils with limited L2 competence or proficiency could not hold a conversation fully in L2. In addition, pupils' shared L1 might have enabled pupils to use codeswitching easily and frequently, leading to successful communication necessary for the completion of tasks.

Another communication strategy used by learners was repetition. Pupils partly or fully repeated what was uttered by themselves or others in order to gain time for

thinking of what to say or recalling the appropriate vocabulary from their memory, thereby contributing to the construction of conversation. The allo-repetition particularly, i.e. repetition of what others said, seems to have contributed to not only maintaining and improving conversation but also achieving its coherence (Sawir, 2004). Repetition is seen a useful communication strategy because it not only constructs cohesion within the discourse but also enables the speaker to utter more language and helps the listener comprehend better by providing less dense discourse (Rydland & Aukrust, 2005).

Hesitation fillers were also used as a communicative strategy, for example, for holding the floor or continuing the conversation. Learners used hesitation fillers such as er or um when they needed to stall for time to come up with or organise what to say, or to retrieve appropriate L2 vocabulary, as self-repetition. Both hesitation and self-repetition may contribute to the smooth flow of conversation by signalling the speaker's intention to hold the floor. However, the excessive use of hesitation fillers and self-repetition may make the speaker's talk messy or redundant, thereby causing communication breakdowns. Also, the use of L1 hesitation fillers may constrain listeners, who do not share the same L1, from understanding what was said. Hence, learners need to be given the opportunity to observe the practice of their language use through recordings and to reflect on their language use so that they carefully use L1 hesitation fillers. They should also be exposed to and taught L2 hesitation fillers in their L2 utterances in order to speak fluently without causing any communication breakdown.

Using language as a mediational tool for showing the listenership

From the listener's perspective, pupils' language was also used as a mediational tool for effective communication, i.e. showing the listenership. Learners showed that they were listening actively or attentively by uttering interjections such as 'oh' or 'okay' in the middle of their interlocutor's utterances. Their interjections functioned as back-channel. Back-channel is short verbal responses that the listener makes to acknowledge interlocutors' talk and show sympathy (Carter & McCarthy, 1997). These interjections used as back-channels may effectively function as a mediational tool for communicating smoothly with other people

because the interjections enable not only listeners to show their understanding of what is being said and their involvement in the listening activity but also speakers to feel encouraged to keep talking from the listener's reaction. In other words, such a reaction from listeners showed their participatory listenership and elicited more talk from the speaker. The use of allo-repetition and codeswitching may also be mediational tools for showing a person's listenership by asking, clarifying or summarising what was said through repeating exactly what their interlocutor said or its codeswitched version. Allo-repetition may also function as an effective tool for listeners to show their participation in the conversation that they are involved in and acceptance of what was said (Rydland & Aukrust, 2005).

Using language as a mediational tool for cognitive activities

Learners' language was used as a mediational tool for cognitive activities, i.e. resolving linguistic issues, such as lexical or grammatical problems. When learners were faced with lexical problems, it was easy for them to codeswitch from L2 to L1 and to ask in L1 directly how the word would be translated in L2 in both contexts of The Boulevard and Green Hill, where learners shared the same L1. Learners tended to codeswitch from L2 to L1 and to resort to L1 to negotiate the meaning of L2 words that they were not aware of. Intra-sentential codeswitching, particularly L2 words framed in L1, enabled learners to focus on the L2 words and to negotiate the meanings of the L2 words in L1. While learners' L1 was used as a crucial mediational tool for not simply asking the meaning of L2 words but also negotiating and resolving lexical problems, learners' intra-sentential codeswitching, i.e. learners' use of L2 words inserted into L1 utterances, contributed to negotiation and discussion of the meaning of the L2 words, enabling learners to zero in on the problem. Thus, both learners' L1 and L2 can be seen to function as a mediational tool for resolving lexical problems.

Regarding grammatical issues such as capitalisation, punctuation and syntax, codeswitching from L2 to L1 was employed as a strategy for resolving these problems. Consistent with findings of previous studies (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Antón & DiCamilla, 1999; DiCamilla & Antón, 2012; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), learners frequently switched from L2

to L1 and resorted to L1 in order to discuss or resolve the problems with other learners when they were faced with grammatical difficulties. Self-repetition was also used as a strategy or a tool for resolving grammatical difficulties. For example, a learner experimented with L2 words by repeating the words when he tried to formulate an L2 full sentence. His repetition of the words functioned as a tool for finding out a grammatically correct combination of the words to generate a full sentence. While learners' L1 and codeswitching functioned as a tool for resolving the grammatical problem together with other learners on the interpersonal plane, their self-repetition, which was mainly uttered in the form of private speech, served the function of a mediational tool to solve the problem by themselves on the intrapersonal plane.

Using language as scaffolding

Learners used their language to construct and maintain scaffolding within the ZPD to extend other learners' actual development. Learners often provided scaffolding through switching the language code, repeating what was said, or using onomatopoeias when their partners or interlocutors had difficulty in communicating in L2 or performing cognitively or linguistically challenging tasks. Codeswitching was the way of giving scaffolded help most frequently used by advanced learners. Advanced learners first codeswitched from L2 to L1 to offer their help to less advanced partners, then kept the code or used intra-sentential codeswitching, i.e. inserted L2 words in L1 utterances. For example, advanced learners used L2 words, which their partners had to write in L2 on their worksheet, in the middle of their L1 utterances, in order that the partners could write it correctly understanding what they should do.

The use of L1 and codeswitching also helped learners construct and promote a shared perspective or a shared understanding on the task that they were doing, i.e. what Rommetveit (1985) calls intersubjectivity, which would facilitate the performance of their task (Antón & DiCamilla, 1999). Intersubjectivity is an important feature of scaffolding (Van Lier, 2004) because learners would be able to support other learners to complete their task by establishing and promoting a shared understanding. In this respect, both L1 and codeswitching may be said to

serve the mediational tool for improving the completion of learners' task by enabling learners to achieve intersubjectivity, which functions as scaffolding (Dailey–O'Cain & Liebscher, 2009).

Repetition was used as another mediational tool for providing scaffolding. Learners promoted intersubjectivity and scaffolded each other by repeating exactly what was said or its codeswitched version in order to help others get involved in the task, based on the collective understanding of the task. Learners' use of repetition with variation also enabled others to understand better by clarifying what was said. In *The Boulevard*, onomatopoeias, especially L1 onomatopoeias, were used as an effective mediational tool for offering scaffolding. Learners sometimes inserted L1 onomatopoeias in their L2 utterances when they tried to help others understand what was said in L2 or to elicit more listenership from others by making them fun. Learners' L1 onomatopoeias used in the middle of L2 utterances were useful for not only helping listeners better understand what was said by enabling them to paint a visual or aural picture in their minds but also enabling both the speaker and listeners to discover the enjoyment they could achieve.

These features such as codeswitching, repetition, and onomatopoeias, which were employed to offer scaffolded help, contributed to the resolution of linguistic or cognitive problems, thereby successful implementation of L2 tasks without any intervention or help from their teacher. In this respect, this finding supports that scaffolding may occur between learners and scaffolding given by peers may help learners move from their actual development to their ZPD.

Using language as a mediational tool for socio-affective functions

Learners employed their language as a mediational tool for expressing their feelings or building a social relationship with others. They resorted to L1 when they expressed their emotions, feelings or reactions. Especially, they used a variety of L1 interjections to express their feelings or reactions efficiently, leading to the construction of intersubjectivity. Learners' shared L1 serves to establish

intersubjectivity by creating a social relationship that helps them collaborate effectively (DiCamilla & Antón, 2012). Learners' codeswitching also contributes to the establishment of solidarity and rapport with others, and the construction of a supportive and friendly environment (Sert, 2005).

Apart from these distinct features emerging from learners' language use discussed above, the overall functions of learners' L1 and L2 is another main point of this study. The overall functions of learners' language used on the interpersonal plane during task-based peer interaction can be broadly divided into four categories: content-related talk, metatalk, meta-task talk, and socio-affective talk (Table 7.1). The category of content-related talk is concerned with utterances that are related to the content or outcome of the task, such as generating or discussing content. The second category, metatalk, refers to talk about talk or talk about language. Metatalk focuses on the discussion or resolution of lexical or grammatical issues. The third category, meta-task talk, indicates talk about the task, such as task management. The last category, socio-affective talk, has to do with utterances for building up social relations such as creating a friendly social environment through sharing personal experiences or a joke, encouraging or criticising others. The socio-affective function also includes utterances related to expressing one's feelings.

Learners' choice of L1 or L2 showed consistent patterns according to these language functions. While pupils of both schools used both L1 and L2 when they discussed content, pupils of The Boulevard excessively used L2 and pupils of Green Hill used both languages when they generated content. It could be seen natural for pupils of The Boulevard to have chosen L2 in order to generate content because their task generally required them to produce oral or written L2 utterances using the target structure, which they were already taught or presented with in the same lesson or in the previous lesson, as their task outcome. Also, the task did not need a high level of L2 competence, so pupils of The Boulevard might have felt easy and comfortable with generating content in L2. Unlike the generation of content, the discussion of content required learners' higher L2 competence because learners needed to reach an agreement through the process of justification of one's ideas or negotiation of each other's opinions. Thus

Table 7.1

Overall Functions of the Language Used by Primary L2 Learners on the Interpersonal plane during Task-based Peer Interaction

Macro-function	Function	Language choices	
		Learners of The Boulevard	Learners of Green Hill
Content-related talk	Generating content	L2	L1, L2
	Discussing content	L1/ L2	L1, L2
Meta-talk	Retrieving L2 vocabulary	L1	L1, L2
	Lexical issue Discussing meaning of L2 vocabulary	L2(Q), L1(A)	L2(Q), L1(A)
	Discussing/resolving lexical issues	L1/L2	L1
	Grammatical issue Discussing/resolving orthographic or phonetic issues	L1	L1
Meta-task talk	Discussing/resolving punctuation issues	L1, L2	L1
	Discussing/resolving syntactic issues	L1	L1
	Clarifying written instructions of the task	•	L1/L2
	Clarifying/discussing the task	L1	L1
	Negotiating/ allocating roles	L1/L2	L1
	Managing/guiding others to do the task	L1	L1/L2
Socio-affective talk	Evaluating the performance of their task	L1	•
	Checking/managing time	L1	L1
	Encouraging others	L1	•
	Considering/respecting others	L1	L1/L2
	Criticising others	L1	L1
	Sharing personal experiences	L1	L1
	Cracking a joke	L1/L2	L1
	Expressing one's feelings	L1	L1

Q: question, A: answer

learners with limited L2 competence might have naturally resorted to L1 in order to discuss content because of the cognitive and linguistic complexity of discussion.

Overall, the degree of learners' reliance on L1 appears to have been higher when they dealt with lexical or grammatical issues; managed the task; built up their social relationship; or expressed their feelings. In other words, learners generally resorted to L1 except for generating or discussing content. However, this does not mean that learners usually resorted to L1 in their L2 class. Looking at Table 7.1 in isolation, it might appear that pupils mostly used L1 during task-based peer interaction, but this does not represent an accurate picture because the large part of learners' talk was involved in functions related to content-related talk, i.e. generating or discussing content, which required L2.

These findings suggest that while learners were mainly exposed to or taught the target expressions directly related to the objectives of each unit or the task outcome, they were not sufficiently exposed to or systematically taught expressions useful for addressing linguistic problems, managing tasks, building up rapport or expressing feelings. Unlike L1 learners, L2 learners would not be able to know nor use such expressions if they are not exposed to or taught those expressions in their L2 classroom. These findings provide the evidence that learners' L1 may serve as a crucial mediational tool for learners' cognitive activity, better communication, or construction of social relationships. Namely, L1 may be used as an effective tool for serving cognitive, communicative, and socio-affective functions. However, learners' L2 does not seem to have been used as a useful tool for serving these functions as much as L1. Therefore, it is suggested that vocabulary learning should be consolidated in the L2 class to enable learners to expand the range of vocabulary that they can use in L2 class. Learners should be taught not only target expressions that are the objectives of each unit but also L2 expressions that may be usefully employed in dealing with linguistic issues, managing tasks, constructing social relationships, and expressing one's feelings.

As above, learners' language use on the interpersonal plane was discussed in terms of distinct features and language functions on the basis of the

understanding of dynamic relations between learners' language use and factors affecting it. These language features and language functions collectively worked to serve the purpose of the successful implementation of L2 tasks. The next subsection addresses the same issue on the intrapersonal plane.

7.3.2. Learners' language use on the intrapersonal plane

Learners often used their language as a mediational tool for mental activities in the form of private speech. In other words, learners used private speech to exert control over their mental activity on the intrapersonal plane. Learners used private speech particularly when they were required to understand a written text or to write something in L2; or when they were faced with cognitively or linguistically challenging problems. While learners' language used on the interpersonal plane was affected by a variety of variables (Figure 7.1), learners' language used on the intrapersonal plane, i.e. private speech, mainly had to do with the task type or the complexity of the task (Figure 7.2). First of all, learners tended to use private speech more while doing writing tasks than speaking tasks. The reason for this might be that writing tasks usually felt more difficult and required more work from learners. Also, learners seem to have resorted to private speech in order to break through what they felt was complex or what they were stuck on.

Learners' private speech had the same distinct features to those of social speech except for the use of onomatopoeias. It is not surprising that onomatopoeias were not shown in learners' private speech, thinking back to the functions that onomatopoeias served on the interpersonal plane. On the interpersonal plane, onomatopoeias were generally used to scaffold others to understand L2 utterances better, to attract others' attention, or to achieve enjoyment. Hence, onomatopoeias might not have been needed in private speech. Other distinct features, such as codeswitching, repetition, hesitation fillers and interjections that were frequently used on the interpersonal plane, were also shown in private speech.

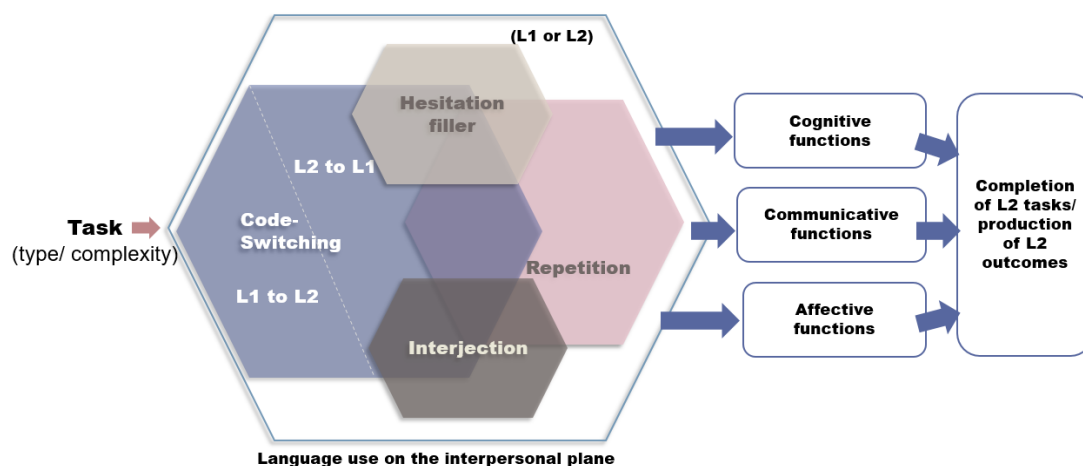


Figure 7.2. L2 learners' language use on the intrapersonal plane during task-based peer interaction in primary L2 class

Generally, learners seem to have resorted to their L1 to facilitate their brain performance on the intrapersonal plane, but they also often used L2 for the similar function on the intrapersonal plane (Table 7.2). Learners used L2 private speech to understand what was written in L2 by reading it aloud. They seem to have chosen reading aloud rather than silent reading, particularly when they tried to pay attention to and to make sense of what they were reading, not being distracted by others. They used both L1 and L2 as private speech when they tried to think about what to write in L2 while doing their collaborative writing task. Also, their L1 or L2 private speech was used when they thought aloud to resolve linguistically or cognitively challenging tasks. For example, learners repeatedly uttered out some L2 words, which were given for them to construct a sentence, in different combinations to formulate a proper L2 sentence. Learners hypothesised and experimented with their L2 knowledge and vocabulary through private speech, not only to formulate an L2 sentence but also to retrieve and recall appropriate L2 vocabulary from their memory by sounding out syllables, words or phrases repeatedly. This use of self-repetition was frequently seen in private speech when learners tried to resolve cognitively demanding problems as Ohta (2001) argues. Learners' self-repetition used in their private speech externalised their mental rehearsal.

Table 7.2

Overall Functions of the Language Used by Primary L2 Learners on the Intrapersonal Plane during Task-based Peer Interaction

Macro-function	Function	Language choice	
		<i>Learners of The Boulevard</i>	<i>Learners of Green Hill</i>
Content-related talk	Reading aloud to understand what is written in L2	L2	L2
	Thinking aloud what to write	L1, L2	L1
Metatalk	Thinking aloud to resolve linguistically or cognitively challenging problems	L1	L1, L2
Affective talk	Expressing one's immediate feelings or emotions	L1	L1

Learners uttered interjections such as 'oh' or 'so', which indicated their understanding, in the form of private speech, while reading silently. Interjections were also used to express learners' feelings through private speech at their 'aha' moment that sparked unexpected and brilliant solutions when they were trying to resolve challenging tasks. The use of interjections showed not only that learners found their solutions but also that they felt joy or satisfaction at the moment of resolving problems. Lastly, learners' hesitation fillers were generally used for communicative functions such as holding the floor or stalling on the interpersonal plane, but they were also used in private speech on the intrapersonal plane while learners were thinking aloud to come up with ideas or to think how to express something.

The portion that private speech occupied in the learners' talk of my data was not huge because tasks were designed and provided for learners to work together by communicating with others rather than working alone. However, the analysis on learners' private speech was meaningful. The findings on learners' private speech suggests that learners' act of externalising thinking through verbalising might have enabled them to make meaning from the text or to stimulate their mental process

in order to achieve better language outcomes. The findings also support that private speech may serve the mediational tool for not only resolving cognitively and linguistically difficult problems but also expressing ones' feelings on the intrapersonal plane. On the other hand, learners' private speech sometimes seems to have served as the communicative function, even though the function worked unintentionally. In other words, learners' private speech sometimes served to elicit a reaction from others because the private speech was audible to others even though learners used private speech to resolve their problems by themselves

To summarise, learners' private speech was used as a mediational tool for serving cognitive, communicative, and affective functions, contributing to the implementation of L2 tasks without any help or intervention from others including their teacher. On the basis of the points discussed in this section, I discuss pedagogical implications for the primary L2 classroom in the next section.

7.4. Implications

There are several pedagogical issues raised from the analysis of the data regarding learners' language use. I discuss how to improve the primary L2 classroom through addressing these pedagogical issues.

7.4.1. Reconceptualising views of L2 learners

I explored learners' language use during task-based peer interaction in two different kinds of primary L2 classroom, particularly in terms of distinct features of learners' language use and overall functions that learners' languages served, as reviewed in the previous sections. Most of the distinct features emerging from the data of learners' language use may be seen as evidence of learners' lack of L2 competence or proficiency. However, conversely, these features revealed learners' strategic language use, which made up for their insufficient L2 competence or proficiency, in both learning contexts.

The interpretation which explains the distinct features of learners' language use as a sign of learners' poor competence in L2 or their insufficient L2 knowledge, is not surprising because it may be seen plausible to some extent. In the interviews, learners said that they resorted to L1 when they did not deliver in L2 what they wanted to express or when their interlocutors could not understand what they said in L2. They also mentioned that they tended to repeat their utterances when they felt less confident. L2 learners may need to resort to whatever resources they have when they are faced with linguistic problems in communicating with others in L2 (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). To learners, these features seem to function as resources for compensating for their imperfect L2 competence. However, the research findings also give a different perspective on learners' language use. The findings indicate that proficient learners as well as less proficient learners commonly switched their language between L1 and L2 and used self-repetition or allo-repetition not only to communicate smoothly and effectively but also to perform their L2 tasks successfully. Irrespective of L2 proficiency, hesitation fillers or interjections were also frequently used when learners needed to gain time or express their feelings. Hence, these features can be seen as evidence of learners' strategic use of language for better communication and mental activity rather than learners' incomplete L2 competence.

These features of learners' language use also commonly appear in an ordinary conversation between native speakers of the target language or bilingual speakers beyond the classroom setting (Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher, 2009; Gilmore, 2004; Gilquin, 2008; D. Kim, 2014; Norrick, 2009; Tannen, 2007). Especially, L2 learners' codeswitching in conversation resembles bilingual conversation in non-educational contexts (Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher, 2009). Codeswitching involves the competence of manipulating syntactic structures of two different languages, irrespective of the speaker's bilingual ability (Wei, 2007). Learners normally inserted words of one language into a sentence of another language following its grammatical rules. Therefore, codeswitching is not simple nor easy because the speaker requires knowledge of linguistic structures of both languages as well as competence to integrate grammatical rules of both languages to some extent. In this respect, learners' codeswitching can be seen as the bilingual competence of L2 learners rather than their inferiority as

monolingual speakers of the target language.

Thus, a paradigm shift in the view of L2 learners is suggested. It is not desirable to regard L2 learners as poor monolingual speakers of the language, and it is necessary to change the perspective of viewing L2 learners as inferior speakers of the language. The L2 learner should be regarded as “a budding multilingual whose model is the multilingual speaker” rather than an incomplete monolingual of the L2 (Turnbull & Dailey–O’Cain, 2009, p. 7). The new paradigm should not only apply to the view of L2 learners but also lead to the change of the viewpoint on the classroom, and this issue is dealt with in the next section.

7.4.2. Reconsidering the L2 only policy in L2 classroom

The exclusive use of L2 has been regarded as best practice in many L2 learning contexts, and the use of L1 has always been a controversial topic in the field of SLA (Levine, 2003; McMillan & Turnbull, 2009). The L2 only policy, which allows making use of only the L2 in L2 learning contexts, has been broadly implemented in L2 classrooms including both of my two research contexts. Many researchers, policy-makers, and teachers believe that it is necessary to maximise L2 learners’ exposure to the target language in L2 class. Advocates of this position have the belief that the use of L1 may interrupt learners’ development of native-like L2 competence (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). The advocates raise concerns about the danger of learners’ overuse of L1. They argue that learners’ dependence on L1 may deprive them of the chance to communicate in L2 and that their codeswitching may increase their use of L1 whenever they were faced with communicative breakdowns, instead of breaking through them in L2, which may prohibit their improvement of L2 strategic competence (Ellis & Shintani, 2014).

The L2 only policy taken with the intention of maximising learners’ exposure to the target language can be seen as meaningful especially in the learning context where learners seldom have sufficient opportunities for exposure to the target language outside the classroom, as in the case of learning L2 as a foreign language or a heritage language such as my research contexts. Hence, teachers

struggle to maintain L2 only classrooms not only between the teacher and learners but also between learners. However, learners may see the L2 only learning context as a threatening environment because they may feel that they are monitored not to use L1 by their teacher. Also, learners with limited L2 resources may feel stressed and anxious when they are asked to talk only in L2. They may even feel guilty about making use of L1 in L2 class. In this respect, the L2 only policy may seem to inhibit learners' L2 learning rather than enhancing it.

A certain amount of learners' use of L1 or codeswitching is seen as natural, helpful, and to some degree, unavoidable (McMillan & Turnbull, 2009). In my research contexts, learners frequently used their L1 or codeswitching during peer interaction despite the L2 only policy. Whenever their teacher reminded them of not using L1 or they noticed that their teacher was near, they tried to use L2, but their effort to exclusively use L2 was temporary and the use of L1 did not disappear. This mismatch between policy and practice seems indispensable because of the following reasons. First, it is not possible for learners with limited L2 resources to convey only in L2 what they want to express. Foreign language learners especially may have difficulty in using L2 while managing their task because they do not have or even do not learn L2 lexical items that can be used in this situation (Macaro, 2005). Second, learners' L1 is crucial in their mental activity related to L2 learning and successful communication of learners with the shared L1. Hence, it seems irrelevant and unnatural to prohibit learners' L1 in the classroom setting where learners shared the same L1 because their shared L1 may function as a mediational tool for both cognitive and communicative activity (Swain & Lapkin, 2000). In addition, L1 shared by learners may enable learners to perform their task at the higher level through cognitive assistance than that which would be possible if they were required to use only L2 (Alegría de la Colina & García Mayo, 2009; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003).

On the other hand, the injudicious use of L1 as well as banning the use of L1 in L2 learning contexts may cause problems because its overuse may deprive learners of the opportunities to communicate or think in L2. Judicious and limited use of L1 or codeswitching may allow learners to implement their L2 task using more L2, thereby leading to the improvement of their L2. Thus, the use of L1 in

L2 learning contexts needs to be reconsidered, even though it does not seem productive to argue whether L1 can be accepted or banned in L2 learning contexts. Macaro suggests that there are three theoretical positions on the use of L2 on behalf of teachers: the virtual position, the maximal position, and the optimal position (Macaro, 2001, 2009; Macaro et al., 2016). These three positions of teachers on the use of L2 give an insightful implication for learners' use of L2 in their classroom. The virtual position aims at the total exclusion of L1, which corresponds to the L2 only policy. The maximal position does not agree on the pedagogical value in L1 use but accepts the use of L1 to some extent because the exclusive use of L2 is impossible in L2 learning contexts. The optimal position alone values the use of L1 in L2 learning contexts and agrees that the use of L1 can be beneficial for L2 learning. Applying these positions to the policy of L2 learners' language use in L2 class, the third position, i.e. optimal position, seems relevant and desirable because the role of L2 learners' L1 is crucial and valuable in L2 learning. Simultaneously, it is necessary to maximise L2 learners' exposure to L2. Hence, practically and pedagogically, the optimal position may be regarded as the best policy for learners' L2 use. Namely, L2 learners should be encouraged to use the L2 as much as they can, but the learners' natural use of L1 should also be permitted. In addition, learners should be given sufficient opportunities to learn how to employ codeswitching to construct their talk, which leads to achievement of the goal in L2 learning aiming bilingualism, in that it enables learners to interact as bilinguals naturally do in their daily life (Dailey–O'Cain & Liebscher, 2009). In this context, L2 learners would not feel guilty about the use of L1 any longer.

7.4.3. Improving L2 textbooks and learning/teaching resources

One of the main goals of learning the target language may be to communicate with other people in that language. It may be regarded easy to achieve this aim, but it is challenging for L2 learners to acquire L2 communicative competence, particularly in foreign language learning contexts such as the EFL situation of Korea, because learners seldom have the opportunity to communicate in that language outside the learning context. In the foreign language setting, the L2 classroom may be the main source for exposing L2 learners to the target language (Zohrabi, 2011), and a variety of resources including L2 textbooks may be

essential for L2 learners to improve their L2 competence effectively. Above all resources, L2 textbooks, whether printed or nonprint, play the primary role in L2 learners' exposure to the target language (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Even though many interesting visual aids are developed and commonly used in the classroom, textbooks may be still used as a main and primary resource. Thus, it is necessary to maximise the opportunity for L2 learners to experience authentic language through L2 textbooks because the learners seldom experience authentic L2 language outside the classroom unless they consciously and diligently seek such experiences. However, it has long been a criticism that the language presented in L2 textbooks does not fully represent the actual language used by L1 speakers in real life (Gilmore, 2007; J. C. Richards, 2001).

L2 textbooks are typically invented to present particular lexicogrammatical items to L2 learners, which are used to practice and produce through language games or tasks, thereby improving learners' L2 competence. Hence, the language provided in textbooks is likely based on contrived discourse rather than reflecting the authentic language used in reality (Berardo, 2006; Hwang, 2005; Kung, 2017). This artificial and inauthentic nature of the language provided in L2 textbooks seems to result from the reliance on the intuitions of L2 textbook writers or the guideline limiting L2 textbook writers' discretionary authority.

L2 textbook writers often depend on their intuitions about the target language when they design or develop the textbooks, rather than on empirical research that may offer a clearer picture of the features of authentic and natural discourse (Gilmore, 2007; Williams, 1988). Writers' dependence on their intuitions may generate misleading or impractical samples of the target language (Gilmore, 2011). Based on my own experience of writing ELT textbooks for primary school pupils of Korea, L2 textbook writers are normally required to create conversations containing certain target lexicogrammatical items within the limited time, not being supported with empirical research on the authentic language used in real life. Hence, L2 textbook writers are likely to resort to their introspection or to reference previous textbooks when they create new dialogues. This habitual practice of writers often makes them follow inauthentic expressions used in previous textbooks without considering more natural and more authentic expressions. For

example, there is a unit containing the main target expression, ‘how many + plural nouns?’, in all textbooks for Year 3, which are being used in primary schools of Korea after being authorised by MOE, as of 2019. The expression such as ‘how many apples?’ may feel strange to native English speakers because ‘how many?’ or ‘how many apples are there?’ is normally used among native English speakers in reality rather than ‘how many apples?’. Some teachers including native English-speaking teachers raised this issue, but all textbooks have still used the expression ‘how many + plural nouns?’ instead of ‘how many?’. One of the reasons for this might be that writers did not consider the actual language use but resorted to their intuition or followed the old ways of the previous textbooks. Also, the national curriculum (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2012b) regulates and limits the number and level of vocabulary which can be used in the government-authorised textbook. This regulation might be seen as inhibiting the reflection of actual language use. The last reason might be the writers’ pedagogical consideration of both the learning purpose of the unit and learners’ L2 competence. Namely, the purpose of the unit that was presented above as an example may be acquiring language items about fruits and numbers rather than producing the full sentence, and it might be thought that it is demanding to ask Year 3 pupils to use the full interrogative sentence including fruit and number vocabulary. These considerations may inhibit the textbook writers from reflecting authentic expressions when developing the textbooks.

Besides the use of unnatural expressions, L2 textbook dialogues have characteristic features because they are written for a clear pedagogical purpose. Compared to pupils’ language used during peer interaction for performing their task, the dialogues of L2 textbooks, which were used by pupils of The Boulevard, showed distinctive features as below.

First, learners of The Boulevard and Green Hill not only used their language to get something done but also frequently employed the language to establish or enhance the social relationship with others at the same time within their conversation while performing their task. Real conversation is frequently interactional, which is concerned with establishing relationships with others and strengthening the relationships (Carter & McCarthy, 1997; McCarthy, 1991).

However, most of the L2 textbook dialogues were almost entirely transactional, which refers to the talk used in the process of getting things done to transmit information (Carter & McCarthy, 1997; McCarthy, 1991). The textbook dialogues normally focused on certain information to give or to take without any comment on personal feelings and tended to serve only one function, i.e. a transactional function. However, authentic conversations would not take place to serve only one function among transactional and interactional functions (Brown & Yule, 1983). In other words, authentic conversations are likely to serve two functions at the same time. For example, in my data, learners' language was used to generate content and express their feelings, or to manage their task and encourage each other within the same conversation. Also, while the textbook dialogues were almost entirely transactional, the authentic dialogue was mainly transactional but partly interactional.

Second, textbook dialogues never moved away from the main topic and consisted of tidy, short and simplified sentences because they were written for primary L2 learners. Real conversations, however, often departed from the main topic, and the utterances produced in the conversations were likely to be redundant and long because they included details to help interlocutors' understanding.

Finally, textbook dialogues were well organised and neat. Repetitions rarely occurred, even though repetitions frequently occurred in real conversations. Hesitation fillers such as 'um' or 'er', which are very frequently used when L1 speakers try to fill up gaps in utterances while considering and preparing the next utterance (Gilmore, 2004), were seldom shown in L2 textbooks.

To summarise, generally, while textbook dialogues are relatively simple, straightforward, well organised and predictable, conversations occurring in the authentic and natural setting are relatively long, messy, redundant, and unpredictable. While textbook dialogues consist of neat and tidy sentences without any superfluous words, authentic conversations, which include frequent repetitions or hesitation fillers, are not simple nor straightforward (Gilmore, 2004). In my data, L2 textbooks failed to capture these features of the authentic language. However, it is particularly important in a foreign language learning

context to offer L2 learners the opportunity to sufficiently experience the authentic language in their class, given that the classroom may be the only place where learners have an opportunity to experience the real-life language. If learners are only provided with neat and tidy dialogues as the textbook suggests, the learners may not learn how to communicate effectively. The neat and well-organised textbook conversations may interrupt learners from acquiring useful listening strategies, such as focusing on message, by excluding superfluous words or sounds that are not necessarily needed for understanding the message (Gilmore, 2004). It may be challenging for L2 learners to extract a message from authentic conversations inserted with hesitation fillers or repetition, which may happen in a real situation, if learners only experience the simple and neat conversations of textbooks. Learners may have difficulty in communicating in L2, and may also be demotivated to talk in L2 because they do not know how to deal with the superfluous words or sounds in the unpredictable situation if they have not experienced authentic conversations in their L2 classroom.

Learners could make a progress in not only communication but also confidence in L2 if they are taught through the textbook with various authentic expressions and are encouraged to communicate with others using those expressions in their L2 classroom. Thus, it would be worthwhile to suggest how L2 textbooks should be improved when it comes to the use of the authentic language, based on the analysis of my data of learners' language, which offers a clearer picture of the characteristics of natural discourse.

Keeping the balance between interactional talk and transactional talk

First, it is necessary to keep the balance between interactional talk and transactional talk in the textbook dialogues because, in actuality, people often engage in an interactional talk in transactional settings. The oral communication task should develop both transactional and interactional skills (Nunan, 2004), but L2 textbook dialogues tend to be strictly transactional in the transactional setting, even though the border between the interactional language and the transactional language is often vague in real speech events. If learners merely learn the transactional talk, as it is presented in the textbook, without consideration of the

interactional language, they would not learn how to speak in order to soften the business of getting certain tasks done in real situations. Their talk would also tend to be business-like or unemotional. Therefore, it is necessary to give the learners opportunities to experience both the interactional talk and the transactional talk through L2 textbooks within the classroom so that they learn how to deal with their business being considerate of the feelings of others.

Providing the opportunity to improve both bottom-up and top-down processing skills

Pupils should have the opportunity to develop their bottom-up processing skills as well as top-down processing skills through authentic conversations. Successful listening involves top-down and bottom-up skills (Nunan, 1989). The bottom-up process indicates the process in which listeners grasp a message through decoding sounds, words and sentences, and the top-down process refers to the process related to the understanding of a message through the listener's prediction, background knowledge, and context (Brown & Yule, 1983). Pupils are likely to use top-down processing skills to comprehend the message because L2 textbook dialogues are relatively simple, straightforward, well-organised, and predictable (Gilmore, 2004). However, a genuine conversation often consists of messy and ungrammatical sentences, and it tends to be long, redundant, and unpredictable. Accordingly, it is not easy to use the top-down processing skills in order to understand the message in the authentic situation (Gilmore, 2004). Therefore, L2 textbooks, particularly for pupils in an upper year or for advanced learners, are needed to include the messy, redundant, and unpredictable dialogues with repetitions or hesitation fillers as well as the straightforward, well-organised, and predictable dialogues. If pupils experienced these realistic dialogues, they would be able to develop their listening strategies to prepare for authentic conversation.

Developing the ability to filter superfluous words or sounds

Learners need to develop their abilities to filter superfluous words or sounds and grasp the message in the conversation. In most of the authentic conversations, repetitions or hesitation fillers are common, but in most L2 textbooks, the dialogues are well organised without anything superfluous. Pupils who are taught through these L2 textbooks may have difficulties in communicating with other people in a real-life situation outside their L2 classroom because they do not know how to tackle the issues related to superfluous words or sounds. Accordingly, L2 textbooks need to be amended to reflect these features in order for L2 learners to experience the authentic L2 conversation and to improve the ability to filter redundant words or sounds.

Developing communicative strategies through the authentic dialogue

Learners should be able to develop their communicative strategies that are used commonly and naturally in the real situation. In a genuine conversation, codeswitching, repetition, or hesitation fillers are very common and natural, but they are rarely shown in most textbook dialogues because these are designed as neat and tidy language for L2 learners to focus on lexicogrammatical items. The lexicogrammatical items are essential for L2 learners to acquire, but it is not desirable to only focus on these items in L2 textbooks. Learners should be given the opportunity to see how communication strategies work through their textbook and to try the strategies in their L2 class. Not surprisingly, codeswitching might have been one of effective communication strategies for pupils of Green Hill to learn or acquire, as they had more opportunities to use codeswitching outside their classroom than pupils of The Boulevard, who seldom needed codeswitching in their everyday life. Pupils of The Boulevard should also be given the opportunity to experience codeswitching in their textbooks because it may be a good model for L2 learners as emergent bilingual speakers beyond the L2 classroom. Repetition may be another communication strategy for both speakers and listeners, even though it is sometimes regarded superfluous. Speakers may repeat what they said to hold the floor when they need time to think about what to say; to recall appropriate vocabulary; or to emphasise what they said. They may

also repeat what others said to request clarification or to show their agreement or listenership. In addition, repetition may enable listeners to catch message more easily by making the utterance less dense and may help speakers to speak fluently without pause and to hold the floor. Therefore, textbooks for L2 learners should include dialogues reflecting these features of the actual language use so that learners can experience and improve those communication strategies.

Teaching L2 hesitation fillers as speaking and listening strategies

L2 hesitation fillers should be taught because they may be useful speaking and listening strategies, and make the utterances sound more natural and fluent. Appropriate fillers enable communication to take place successfully (Nunan, 1989). Hesitation fillers are a learnable speaking and listening strategy. If pupils learn when and how to use these devices, not only they would be able to speak more effectively and more naturally, but also they would be good listeners in conversation. They would not interrupt the current speaker when they hear the speaker's hesitation fillers and would better understand what the speaker is saying. Based on my own experience as an L2 speaker of English, 'like' used as a hesitation filler was an obstacle to interrupt the understanding of what the interlocutor said because I did not know 'like' could be used as a hesitation filler. I tried to interpret it as a verb or a preposition whenever it was heard. As shown in my example, learners would be likely to misinterpret unfamiliar L2 hesitation fillers if they have never heard them in the classroom. Learners' misinterpretation of L2 hesitation fillers may lead to communication breakdown. Therefore, learners should be taught this feature that native speakers frequently use in their daily life (J. Willis, 1996b). Hesitation devices, which have been seldom dealt with in the primary L2 textbook, should be given more weight in the textbooks so that learners are naturally exposed to those devices.

Teaching L2 interjections as a tool for expressing one's feelings and reacting to the interlocutor's talk

L2 interjections should also be taught in the textbook because interjections may

be used as a tool for not only expressing one's feelings effectively but also for reacting to the interlocutor's talk as an empathic listener, as in back-channels. Interjections may be seen as economic in that they convey the speakers' feelings or emotions intensively just with very short utterances. Also, interjections used as back-channels can be an effective tool for listeners to show their listenership instead of quietly listening to the speaker's talk. If pupils are not taught L2 interjections they will keep using L1 interjections in their L2 conversation, which may interrupt interlocutors' understanding, or they would be probably regarded as cold and unsympathetic people because they do not appropriately react to what the interlocutor says. Furthermore, the speaker may misunderstand that the listener, who does not react opportunely, is bored by his/her talk. Therefore, textbook dialogues should include L2 interjections used by L1 speakers of the language.

These authentic discorsal features, which are discussed above, are not only observed in L1 speakers' actual language use but are also useful for L2 learners to learn because they are used as various strategies to communicate effectively or to resolve linguistic problems. Recently, a great deal of effort has been devoted to resolve the problem caused by the differences between the textbook dialogues and authentic conversations, but there still remain huge gaps between the languages provided in L2 textbooks for L2 learners and authentic language used by L1 speakers (Gilmore, 2007). Thus, L2 textbooks, which may function as a main source of the target language, should reflect the authentic discorsal features. Especially, the tasks provided in the textbook should also enable learners to use their language in the way that language is employed by speakers of the language in the real world (Ellis, 2009). Authentic materials, such as short video clips from movies or magazines, would be useful for learners to experience and learn the authentic language if the materials are pedagogically acceptable for and available to primary school learners at their L2 and cognitive levels.

7.4.4. Developing L2 tasks balanced between learners' L2 proficiency and cognitive development

As previously mentioned in this chapter, one of the biggest differences in the two contexts, i.e. EFL class of The Boulevard and KHL class of Green Hill, was the nature of L2 tasks typically set in each school, which was one of the influential factors affecting pupils' language use. L2 tasks set in The Boulevard were developed to improve learners' basic skills to communicate with others in L2, their confidence and interest in L2. The tasks were designed to be linguistically and cognitively less challenging, considering learners' limited L2 competence. Most tasks focused on learners' practice or production of the target expressions presented in each session or unit, eliciting learners to cooperate with others within their group and to compete with other groups at the same time. This kind of task seems to have been designed to seek learners' active participation by motivating them to get more involved. However, learners' cognitive development was not carefully considered. In comparison with the tasks provided to pupils in Green Hill, those of The Boulevard were linguistically and cognitively much simpler. These tasks seem to have failed to elicit full negotiation or discussion leading to learners' spontaneous and abundant use of language.

On the other hand, pupils of Green Hill were provided with tasks redesigned from L1 textbooks made for L1 speakers, which were developed by Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation (KICE), a government-funded educational research institute. These textbooks emphasised cultivating L1 speakers' ability to correctly and critically understand various types of discourse, text and literature, and to express and communicate effectively and creatively (Ministry of Education, 2015). They focused on the improvement of academic skills, knowledge and attitudes as well as communicative competence. The tasks presented in the textbooks were redesigned to fit in L2 learners, but they were basically linguistically and cognitively challenging to L2 learners with limited L2 competence. Tasks redesigned aimed for L2 learners to communicate and construct meaning with others using the target language spontaneously; to understand Korean language and literature; improve academic skills such as summarising or creative thinking.

In order to perform these tasks, the heritage language learners with limited L2 knowledge and competence could not help resorting to L1 to break through the linguistic difficulty and to complete the task successfully. The textbook-based tasks seem to have been cognitively appropriate to the pupils of Green Hill because the original tasks were made for L1 learners in the same age group at the similar cognitive developmental stage. The tasks elicited the active involvement or meaningful interaction from learners by motivating them through the appropriate level of complexity or difficulty of tasks, with which learners could tackle through scaffolding each other within their ZPD. However, the linguistic difficulty of the tasks was viewed as an obstacle to interrupt learners from using their target language because there was a clear gap between learners' current L2 competence and the linguistic competence required for the task performance.

Tasks that are not suitable for the level of learners' L2 competence or the cognitive developmental stage of learners may be problematic in a sense because they might demotivate learners and reduce meaningful and productive interaction among learners. Reflecting on the problems that might be caused by the tasks that do not cognitively or linguistically fit in learners' development, it is suggested that the balanced approach, i.e. a workable compromise between learners' linguistic and cognitive development, should be carefully considered when designing L2 tasks. Learners can be motivated to do a challenging task if the task can be performed within their ZPD, but learning effects may be minimal if the gap between the learners' current ability and the ability necessary for the task performance is huge (Van Gorp & Bogaert, 2006). Hence, it would be desirable to develop tasks that provoke both learners' language use and mental energy or cognitive activity by encouraging learners to cope with the cognitive and linguistic demands posed by the task through working together. Learners would be able to compensate for the lack of their L2 competence and complete these kinds of tasks successfully by scaffolding each other. Tasks should also be developed to create a warm and positive classroom atmosphere in which learners can test out their hypothesis of L2 without fear of mistakes or errors and employ language functionally (Van Gorp & Bogaert, 2006). Tasks, lastly, should be created for learners to learn and to use communication strategies such as codeswitching, repetition, or hesitation fillers, to fill the gap between learners' current L2

proficiency and the L2 proficiency required in the task.

7.4.5. Enriching and expanding learners' vocabulary

Learners of both schools, i.e. The Boulevard and Green Hill, frequently resorted to L1 especially when they set up or managed their task because they did not have L2 vocabulary enough to manage their task in L2. Learners generally have limited L2 competence to have a meta-task talk in L2 because they are not sufficiently exposed to the L2 expressions necessary for this kind of talk (Macaro, 2005). Pupils of both schools only used L1 to organise or manage their task in other subject classes. In other words, pupils did not have to use L2 while managing tasks in class except for L2 class. Some pupils might have picked up the L2 expressions needed for managing the task from each other or the teacher and might have been able to use them after experimenting with the expressions several times in their L2 class. However, not surprisingly, most of the pupils seem to have had difficulty in using L2 while having their meta-task talk because they were not sufficiently exposed to nor taught those expressions. Thus, it is advisable for teachers not only to consciously and systematically teach learners expressions useful for managing the task but also to be a good model for learners to follow by demonstrating how to do the task in L2.

Also, pupils of Green Hill were expected to use a huge range of vocabulary and syntactic skills to perform their L2 tasks with others because their textbooks were originally developed for L1 learners. This high level of L2 vocabulary made them resort to L1 instead of encouraging them to use more L2. On the other hand, pupils of The Boulevard had more limited opportunities to be exposed to L2 than those of Green Hill, who might often have been exposed to L2 at home. L2 vocabulary of pupils of The Boulevard was not varied when compared with L2 vocabulary of pupils of Green Hill. However, in neither context was the teaching of vocabulary emphasised. In addition, related to the context of The Boulevard, the number and the level of vocabulary that could be dealt with in English (L2) textbooks were limited by the national curriculum of Korea (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2012b), and thus, textbooks were developed with limited lexical resources, even though there is a meaningful relationship among

lexical knowledge, language use and knowledge of the world (Nation, 1993).

However, fortunately, teachers could expand learners' vocabulary beyond the textbook level by designing and providing tasks for improving learners' vocabulary because teachers could develop and offer tasks that fitted with their pupils' level at their discretion. However, this kind of work required much effort of teachers. Also, it may be time-consuming if each teacher reconstructed every task from the textbook. Thus, curriculum developers and textbook writers should consider how to improve learners' vocabulary effectively when they develop the curriculum or textbooks, taking into consideration L2 expressions necessary not only for communication but also task management, without increasing learners' learning workload or limiting the target vocabulary too much.

7.4.6. *Enhancing teachers' teaching practice in order to bridge the gap between the policy and learners' use of language*

Teachers are normally regarded to be "at the heart of the educational process" (Day, 1999, p. 1). Also, it is often said that the quality of education emanates from the quality of teachers because the most influential and the most powerful resource may be a teacher in a classroom. In this respect, it would be no exaggeration to say that the success or failure of learners' learning depends on the quality and ability of teachers. In both school settings, teachers' role was crucial in learners' use of language, which seems to be closely related to learners' learning, because the factors that might affect learners' language use was likely to be either directly or indirectly controlled by the teacher. Furthermore, the teachers exercised their discretion in managing their classrooms and implementing the curriculum. Namely, teachers in these contexts seem to have had a lot of clout to either positively or negatively influence pupils' L2 learning. Also, filling or bridging the gap between the policy, curriculum or textbook and learners' learning is what teachers should do. Therefore, it would be valuable to discuss how teachers should improve their teaching practice in terms of the improvement of primary school learners' use of L2 and task completion in relation to their L2 learning, even though learners' use of L2 or successful completion of

L2 tasks do not guarantee nor necessarily lead to their successful learning of L2. In this sub-section, it would be suggested how teachers should improve their teaching, based on the findings of my study on learners' language use during task-based peer interaction.

First of all, teachers should have comprehensive and thorough understanding of their learners' actual language use in order to scaffold the learners appropriately within their ZPD. This understanding should be based on teachers' observation of learners' real practice rather than their expectation or intuition. Teachers will be likely to make a wrong decision in the teaching context if they do not fully understand what is actually happening among their pupils in the classroom. In the interview with Ms. Lee, the Korean EFL teacher of The Boulevard, she pointed out this issue. When she was asked to talk about her feelings after watching the video recording of her pupils' performance during their group work, she mentioned that she was very shocked at learners' frequent use of L1. She said that she did not expect this frequent use of L1. She might have probably stuck to the L2 only policy in her classroom because she did not know the actual practice. The reason of this gap between the teacher's perception and the learners' practice might be that her pupils almost always used L2 or did not utter anything when they need to talk with their teacher or when their teacher was near to their seats. In other words, teacher's monitoring might not have worked effectively. On the basis of her monitoring, the teacher gave stickers to pupils or took away them from the pupils. However, teachers' monitoring should have been done in order for pupils not to feel that they were being judged. Teachers might not have provided appropriate scaffolding to their learners because what the teachers observed was not what learners were actually doing but what they wanted to show. Thus, teachers should always be aware of learners' actual language use on the basis of their considerate observation, in order to provide individual learners and the whole class with appropriate scaffolding within the ZPD. Also, teachers' monitoring should go on not only the amount of L1 use but also the reasons or purposes for which learners use L1 or codeswitching, with an emphasis on the latter, in order to support learners to improve their use of L2 and to learn L2 better.

Second, teachers do not need to worry too much about learners' use of

codeswitching or L1 during task-based peer interaction. Teachers are concerned about their learners' excessive use of L1 in pair or group work (Ghorbani, 2011). They suspect that learners might extensively use codeswitching and L1 or have off-task talk during peer interaction for performing pair or group work. They assume that learners' L1 may be an obstacle to not only learners' use of L2 but also their L2 learning. Teachers put their efforts into minimising learners' codeswitching in their classroom because codeswitching is viewed as an indication of a failure or reluctance to learn L2 (Eldridge, 1996). Thus, minimising or banning learners' use of L1 has been regarded as most favourable practice during task performance (Bao & Du, 2015). However, prohibiting codeswitching from classrooms may cause a lot of pedagogically undesirable practices (Macaro, 2003). Banning the use of codeswitching will interrupt learners with being able to learn how to employ codeswitching "sparingly and in a principled way" (Macaro, 2003, p. 42). Teachers should not ban the use of L1 from learners in pair and group work. They should admit that learners' use of L1 may be a natural psychological process that enables learners to initiate and maintain their oral interaction (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). It should also be noted that codeswitching naturally and frequently occur among bilingual and multilingual speakers. Hence, teachers need to hold a balanced and flexible view of learners' use of L1.

Third, there is clearly a need for pair or group work in L2 learning contexts. Group work is beneficial for establishing a more friendly atmosphere for communication and allows pupils to prepare their utterances (Carless, 2007). However, many teachers are unwilling to adopt group work in their classroom. One of concerns that teachers may have is that learners may extensively use L1 rather than L2 (Alley, 2005; Ghorbani, 2011; Storch & Aldosari, 2010) and may also have off-task talk in their pair or group work (Alley, 2005; Bao & Du, 2015). However, teachers should be aware that learners' talk are normally related to their task. Also, they should be informed that learners' L1 use does not necessarily indicate their off-task talk. As my data suggested, most of learners' talk during their task-based interaction is related to on-task talk even though it was sometimes uttered in L1. This finding corresponds to Bao and Du's research (2015) conducted with lower-secondary school learners. Learners' talk that is mostly uttered in L1 or

codeswitching is often regarded to be off-task or unsuitable, but their talk about the task and/or meaning of L2 words or phrases may be functionally critical to the successful performance of the tasks (Alley, 2005). Another concern for teachers is that learners might learn incorrect language from peers and that their errors or bad habits might be fossilised during pair or group work. However, learners' incorrect language is not likely to become habitual or fossilised by listening to other learners' uncorrected errors (Macaro, 2003). Rather, learners' errors or mistakes should be dealt with as natural phenomena occurring in the process of learning and should not be discouraged (Macaro, 2003). Learners may be reciprocal scaffolders who give each other support as they interact with other learners (Naughton, 2006). Therefore, teachers should offer pair or group work as a means of providing learners with more opportunities to use their language, especially L2, in collaboration with other learners. Learners could work effectively and successfully in pairs or groups if they do not pay much heed to the teacher who spots what they are doing wrong.

Fourth, teachers should be a good role model to their pupils as an L2 learner and L2 speaker. Based on my own experience as an EFL teacher in Seoul, teachers normally felt that they should use perfect English in front of their pupils. Hence, talking in English was often likely to be burdensome to teachers, and they put a lot of hard work into gaining native-like accuracy and fluency in using Classroom English. Also, teachers paid more attention on delivering what they wanted to say in English rather than genuinely communicating with learners in the target language. In actuality, even native English speakers often use broken or grammatically incorrect English. However, they are not ashamed of their errors or mistakes because those errors or mistakes are natural. Thus, teachers need to feel free from the pressure that they have to use perfect English in front of their pupils because they are not native English speakers but EFL learners. In this context, teacher codeswitching may be employed as a way of modelling some crucial learning strategies that learners consider using, such as lightening the intellectual load while reading (Macaro, 2003), and a useful communication strategy to maintain conversations.

Finally, teachers should be provided with enough opportunities to professionally

develop their own teaching practice in order to scaffold their learners to improve their L2 proficiency within their ZPD. They could collaboratively discuss how to improve their teaching practice in terms of improving learners' language use leading to their successful L2 learning through teacher training programs, workshops, seminars or and the like because they may not work on this issue alone. Also, it seems necessary to enable teachers to shift their views on L2 learners and the use of L1 or codeswitching in L2 classroom, especially where the policy of the virtual or the maximum use of L2 is implemented. If teachers' view on L2 learners and the L1 use is shifted from imperfect L2 speakers to emergent bilinguals and from the virtual position to the optimal position respectively, the shift will lead to a change in teachers' teaching practice. If teachers are offered guidelines around what is optimal in terms of L1 use in L2 classrooms, they will be able to manage their L2 classroom referencing the guidelines. The guidelines as to when learners use their L1 may also be beneficial (Carless, 2007). These guidelines should be developed, revised and adapted through ongoing empirical work in order to improve teaching and learning practice. In addition, teachers should be able to sufficiently experience real communication in the target language rather than to just practice classroom English presented in the form of manuals.

To summarise, teachers should be a skillful, flexible, and knowledgeable practitioner at the heart of the educational setting, keeping a careful and comprehensive understanding of learners' language use through effective instructional observation and continuing professional development.

7.5. Contributions

My research has some contributions from the theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical perspectives. I discuss theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical contributions that my research would make to the field of SLA in the following subsections.

7.5.1. Theoretical contribution

Language was the most powerful and primary mediational tool for L2 learners to perform their tasks in the two different L2 learning contexts where I did my research. In my study, I tried to reveal how and why learners used their language on both the interpersonal and intrapersonal plane during peer interaction for performing their task in L2 class within the sociocultural framework. Especially, I attempted to make sense of the learners' language comprehensively, focusing on the distinct features emerging from learners' language use and the overall functions that learners' language served. I also explored the factors affecting learners' language use. By dealing with both of these issues, my study would contribute to constructing the generic and comprehensive knowledge or understanding of L2 learners' language use during peer interaction.

My research identified learners' language as a mediational tool for performing L2 tasks, serving communicative, cognitive, and socio-affective functions. In addition, it provided an insight into how learners' language might mediate the performance of L2 tasks by revealing the distinct features of learners' language such as codeswitching, repetition, interjections, onomatopoeias, and hesitation fillers. These features also showed how learners used their language to scaffold each other within their ZPD and construct the intersubjectivity on their tasks. These findings would contribute to adding to the knowledge of L2 learners' language use within the sociocultural theoretical framework.

In addition, I regarded heritage language learners' heritage language as their L2 instead of their L1 and explored their language use along with the language use of another group of L2 learners. In this respect, my study would contribute to adding evidence to the body of literature viewing heritage language learners' heritage language as an L2 in the heritage language learning context.

7.5.2. Methodological contributions

In spite of increasing interest in learners' language in the field of SLA, much

research has focused on learners' language observed in the interaction between the teacher and learners rather than between learners. In addition, most of the research on learners' language use during peer interaction has been conducted with adult learners such as undergraduate students, immersion students, or learners using and learning western languages such as English, Spanish or German. Asian languages or Asian learning contexts have received less attention in this field, and research on learners' language during peer interaction has scarcely been conducted in the primary L2 classroom setting, including in the EFL primary classroom of Korean speakers. Moreover, there have been no studies on the use of learners' language in the Korean school context of the UK. In this situation, my study would contribute to broadening the empirical base of the research on learners' language to the contexts of primary L2 classrooms, the Asian language learning context, and the L2 classroom of Asian country, which have to date received relatively little research attention.

In addition, my research tried to provide more insightful and enriched information on L2 learners' language use by investigating learners' language in two different L2 classroom settings. My study did not intend to compare the data gathered in two different contexts or to generalise the findings. However, the comprehensive and enriched evidence of L2 learners' language was gained by integrating and synthesising the data. The evidence gained from my research may contribute to generating the knowledge of or adding to the understanding of L2 learners' language use.

7.5.3. Pedagogical contributions

Drawing on my data analysis, I gained pedagogical insights for improving L2 learning contexts. First, the paradigm shift in the view of learners from imperfect monolingual to budding bilingual speakers was suggested. Also, the issue of L2 only policy in L2 learning contexts was raised because the policy ignored the roles that L1 played in these, and the optimal use of L1 was proposed instead of the exclusive use of L2. Also, it was suggested how to improve L2 textbooks and L2 tasks. Lastly, vocabulary learning was emphasised to expand learners' L2 use. These findings may be able to contribute to not only better understanding of L2

learners but also policy improvement, curriculum and textbook development, teacher training, and task design.

To summarise, my study added evidence in support of the view that learners' language is a primary mediational tool in L2 learning and learners' L1, which has communicative, cognitive and socio-affective functions, is crucial in L2 learning, particularly in primary L2 classrooms. In this respect, my study has theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical values.

7.6. *Limitations*

There are some limitations to my study, as with all research projects. First of all, a limitation resulted from the research design. Namely, it is caused by the dilemma of a case study, i.e. detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of pupils and specific contexts, which may be both a strength and a limitation of my study. My study was conducted with several Year 3 and Year 6 EFL learners in The Boulevard in Seoul and KHL learners in Green Hill in London. My study carried out with this limited number of pupils in specific contexts may have a limitation in generalising the findings. Therefore, the results of my study may differ from those conducted with other age groups, other language users, or in other learning contexts.

Another limitation that should be acknowledged is related to research methods. My research was conducted in two different learning contexts, and research methods were slightly differently employed in those contexts, even though the same kinds of methods were used. In both schools, observation was the main research method, and interview was the supplementary method. However, implementation of these methods was slightly different according to contexts because practical considerations, such as considerations of pupils' preference and available time for the interview, were needed.

The third limitation was due to the design of the study. My intention to design the study was to look at how and why pupils use their languages during peer

interaction in their natural L2 learning contexts rather than to establish cause and effect as with laboratory contexts. Thus, it may have a limitation in revealing the clear effects of factors, such as task type, year group or L2 proficiency, on learners' language use. In addition, learners' reflection on their use of language was not done immediately but several months after their language was actually used, because the analysis of observation data, which took much time, was needed as a prerequisite for constructing questions asking learners' language use based on their reflection. Hence, the delayed reflection may not have elicited full interpretation from learners, even though it was helpful for asking salient features of learners' language use on the basis of the observation data.

The fourth limitation was concerned with the recruitment of participants. I only had to consider participating pupils' willingness to participate in my research along with their parents' consent in recruiting participants in the two schools. Hence, my research findings may not be wholly representative of pupils' language use within the school contexts. Namely, the results address only a cross section of the practice of pupils' language use in the case study schools.

The final limitation had to do with the possible effects of the researcher on pupils' performance during tasks, the execution of the study, and the analysis of the data. The researcher's roles in the two contexts were different: the observer-as-participant in The Boulevard and the participant-as-observer in Green Hill. In The Boulevard, the presence of me as a researcher could have affected learners' performance or language use because they might have felt uncomfortable or unfamiliar with the new person's presence, even though they already knew that I would do the research project with them. Furthermore, the dual role as the teacher and the researcher in Green Hill could have had impact on the pupils' behaviour and use of languages. Pupils might have possibly behaved or used their languages in the way that they thought the teacher expected them to do. Although an effort was made to reduce or avoid these effects as previously mentioned in Chapter 3, this research could not have been perfectly free from these effects. In addition, as being the sole researcher of the study, no inter-rater reliability has been carried out on selection of extracts.

Overall, the results of my study were limited to the specific contexts, i.e. EFL classrooms in the Boulevard in Seoul and KHL classrooms in Green Hill in London. Hence, the findings cannot provide generalisations that can apply in all L2 learning contexts, but raise important issues for the better understanding of L2 learners' language use, thereby improving L2 learning.

7.7. *Suggestions for future research*

In closing, with regard to future research that may be concerned with the exploration of L2 learners' language use during peer interaction, it would be interesting to conduct similar work with learners with different L1s, which might yield different findings. Both cases of my study were explored in the context where participating pupils shared the same L1. Hence, it would be useful if future research further expands the scope of research by exploring the same topic in the learning context where learners do not share the same L1. Also, the comparative research between learners with the same L1 and with different L1s can also be suggested in order to gain a deep and comprehensive understanding of learners' language use.

Also, it would be desirable to suggest the in-depth scrutiny of the interrelation between learners' language use and factors to affect the language use. In my study, identification of a direct or clear correlation between the factors and language use was not pursued. The factors were just dealt with in order to understand learners' language use. However, it would also be meaningful to explore how to improve learners' L2 competence or proficiency by revealing the correlation between the factors and the language use.

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Appendix 3.1 Interview schedule for pupils at The Boulevard

Topic	Prompts	Probes
Warm-up	Can you tell me about yourself?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Learning experiences of English language in school ✓ Learning experiences of English language in private language institution ✓ Staying experiences in English language speaking country ✓ Interest in learning the English language ✓ Confidence in using the English language ✓ Willingness to communicate in the English language ✓ English language proficiency
	Tell me about your English language class.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The process ✓ Favourite tasks or activities ✓ Favourite grouping type
Pupils' use of L1 and L2	Tell me about your experience of using Korean and English.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The use of language in English language class ✓ The use of language according to task type ✓ The use of language according to grouping type ✓ The reason for using the Korean language ✓ The reason for using the English language
Pupils' attitudes towards L1 and L2 use	Tell me about your attitude towards using Korean and English.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Attitudes to using the Korean language ✓ Attitudes to using the English language ✓ The effort to use the English language more
Pupils' perceptions towards the use of L1 and L2	How do you think about your use of Korean and English?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Feeling and opinion on using the Korean language ✓ Feeling and opinion on using the English language ✓ Feeling and opinion on 'English language only' ✓ The importance of using the Korean language ✓ The importance of using the English language
Wrap-up	Is there anything else you want to	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Related to interviews

**Appendix 3.2 Interview schedule for the Korean EFL teacher
at The Boulevard**

Topic	Prompts	Probes
Warm-up	Can you please tell me about yourself?	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Teaching experiences✓ English language teaching experiences✓ English language teaching experiences in this school
	Can you tell me about your pupils?	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ English language proficiency✓ Willingness to learn English
	Tell me about your English language class.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Teaching focus✓ Lesson format or session format✓ Tasks or activities✓ Grouping type
Pupils' use of L1 and L2	How do you think your pupils are using Korean and English?	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Pupils' actual use of the Korean language and English language during task-based peer interactions/ the reasons or causes✓ Differences in terms of pupils' language proficiency, age, task types, and grouping types
Teachers' attitudes towards pupils' L1 and L2 use	Do you specify the language when your pupils perform tasks?	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ 'English language only' or permission of Korean language use and the reason✓ Differences in terms of pupils' language proficiency, age, task types, and grouping types

Teachers' perceptions towards pupils' use of L1 and L2

How do you think your pupils' language use should be?

- ✓ 'English language only' or permission of Korean language and the reason
- ✓ The value of Korean language use
- ✓ The value of English language use
- ✓ Differences in opinions or attitudes on pupils' language use in terms of pupils' English language proficiency, age, task types, and grouping types and the reason
- ✓ The importance of teacher's opinions or attitudes towards pupils' use of language
- ✓ The importance of teacher's opinions or attitudes towards pupils' willingness to communicate in the English language

Wrap-up

Is there anything else you want to share that we haven't talked about yet?

- ✓ Related to interviews
-

Appendix 3.3 Further interview schedule for pupils at The Boulevard

Topic	Prompts	Probes
Warm-up	How did you feel while watching yourself in the video clips?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ General impressions
	Which language do you think you used a lot during working with others? And why?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L1 or L2 ✓ Purpose/ convenience/ competence or fluency/ convenience, etc. ✓ Feelings ✓ Consideration of others
Pupils' use of L1 and L2	What was useful or helpful in using English (L2)?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Enhancing English competence/ proficiency/ communicative competence ✓ Security ✓ Confidence ✓ Scaffolding
	When do you use Korean (L1)? And why?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The way of solving Imperfect English proficiency ✓ The merits of using Korean ✓ The necessity of using Korean ✓ The demerits of using Korean
Code-switching	When do you change language from Korean to English or from English to Korean within a sentence or across sentences?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Context ✓ In relation to task types ✓ Sufficient/insufficient time provided ✓ Reasons/ purposes

	Why do you change language from Korean to English or from English to Korean within a sentence or across sentences?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Context ✓ In relation to task types ✓ Sufficient/insufficient time provided ✓ Reasons/ purposes
Repetition	Why do you think you repeat what you said while working together in English class?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ From the speaker's viewpoint ✓ From the listener's viewpoint
Task preference	What task do you like best?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Fun/ interest ✓ The use of L1 or L2 ✓ Improving L2 competence
Group composition / dynamics	Whom do you speak more English (or Korean) with among a person at the same, higher, or lower level?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Feeling (comfortable/ confident) ✓ Enhancing English competence ✓ Preference ✓ Attitude/ personality
Wrap-up	Do you have anything to share?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Related to interviews

Appendix 3.4 Further interview topics for the Korean EFL teacher at The Boulevard

Topic	Prompts	Probes
Warm-up	How did you feel while watching your students in the video clips?	✓ General impressions
Pupils' L2 proficiency	Tell me about your pupils' English proficiency.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ English proficiency of Year 3/ Year 6 ✓ The level of pupils' English competence in comparison with other pupils at the same school year of other schools
L2 only policy in the English language classroom	Why do you make your pupils use only English in English language class?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Reason ✓ Obstacles/ problems ✓ Results ✓ Effectiveness ✓ The way of encouraging pupils to use English ✓ Any reward?
Pupils' use of Korean (L1) in the English language classroom	Do you sometimes allow your pupils to use Korean?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ When? ✓ Why? ✓ Influences ✓ Its roles ✓ Any penalty?
Time provided for group work	Some of pupils told that they tended to resort to Korean if they were not provided with sufficient time for doing their task. How do you think about this?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Time management ✓ Approximate amount of time that the teacher think is enough for the L2 task ✓ The relationship between time provided and the use of L1

Task	How do you organise your lesson?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Planning the lesson ✓ Co-teaching/ co-working with native English-speaking teachers ✓ Task design ✓ Preferred task type and the reason
Group work	Which one do you prefer, group work, whole class work or individual work?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Preference & reason ✓ Merits and demerits of each work type ✓ Relationship between work type and pupils' language use ✓ Differences in implementing group work for Year 3 and Year 6
Group dynamics	Do you think group dynamics affect pupils' language use?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Ways of seat arrangement ✓ Relationship between group dynamics and learners' use of language in terms of learners' English proficiency/ personality or disposition/ attitudes, etc.
Code-switching	How do you think about pupils' codeswitching?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Preference ✓ Reasons of using codeswitching ✓ Effects ✓ Problems ✓ Differences between Year 3 and Year 6
Repetition	How do you think about pupils' use of repetition?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Reasons ✓ Purposeful intention or unconscious habit?
Onomatopoeia	How do you think about pupils' use of onomatopoeia?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Reasons ✓ Factors to affect pupils' use of onomatopoeia ✓ Effects
Differences according to the school years	Is there any differences in using language between Year 3 and	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Differences in cognitive development ✓ Differences in English proficiency ✓ Differences in interest ✓ Differences in preferred task types

Year 6

Textbook	How do you think about your textbooks?	✓ Evaluation/ merits and demerits ✓ Improvements
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Wrap-up	Is there anything else you want to share more?	✓ Related to interviews
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Appendix 3.5 Group interview topics for pupils at Green Hill

Topic	Activity	Question
Warm-up	Brainstorming	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ How do you think only using Korean in Korean class? ✓ How do you think using English in Korean class?
Pupils' perspectives on the use of L2 in L2 class	Discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Do you think you should use only Korean in Korean class? ✓ Why do you think it is important to use Korean in Korean class?
The use of codeswitching	Discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Why do you use Korean words when you say in English ✓ Why do you use English words when you say in Korean?
The use of onomatopoeia	Discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Do you use onomatopoeia? ✓ Why?
The use of hesitation fillers	Discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ When you don't think what to say, how do you fill the gap? ✓ Why?
The use of illeism	Discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Why do you think some people refer to themselves by their name instead of I or me?
Preferred group composition for the better use of Korean	Discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Which one do you think you speak more Korean, when you work with a person who speak Korean more fluently than you, when you work with a person who speak Korean less fluently than you, or when you work with a person at the same level as yours?

-
- ✓ What do you think is important when you work with others if you want to improve your Korean proficiency?
-

Wrap up


Discussion

- ✓ Do you have anything to share?
-

Appendix 3.6 Further interview schedule for pupils at Green Hill

Topic	Prompts	Probes
The use of codeswitching	Why do you change language from Korean to English or from English to Korean within a sentence or across sentences?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The reason of inserting Korean words in English utterances ✓ The reason of inserting English words in Korean sentences ✓ The reason of mixing Korean sentences and English sentences ✓ The reason of using English (L1) in Korean language class
The use of repetition	Why do you repeat what you said while working together in Korean language class?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ From the speaker's viewpoint ✓ From the listener's viewpoint
The use of onomatopoeia	Do you often use onomatopoeias?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ When ✓ Why ✓ Its merits
The use of hesitation fillers	Do you often use hesitation fillers such as 'um' or 'er'?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ When ✓ English/Korean hesitation fillers
Wrap-up	Is there anything else you want to share more?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Related to interviews

Appendix 3.7 Questionnaire for pupils at The Boulevard

 질문에 맞게 빈 칸에 답하세요.

A ()학년 ()반 이름 ()

B t남자 t여자

1. 학교에서 나의 영어실력이 어디에 해당되는지 알맞은 칸에 O표 하세요.

상	수업 내용을 잘 알아듣고 주어진 학습과제를 매우 잘 할 수 있으며 학습내용이 쉽다고 생각한다.	<input type="checkbox"/>
중	수업 내용을 중간 정도 이해할 수 있고 주어진 학습과제를 어느 정도 할 수 있다.	<input type="checkbox"/>
하	수업 내용을 잘 이해할 수 없거나 주어진 학습과제가 어렵다고 생각한다.	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. 영어를 사용하는 국가에 거주하였거나 여행한 경험 또는 외국에서 국제학교 (International school)를 다닌 경험이 있으면 (예시)와 같이 자세하게 써주세요.

(예시)

영국에서 태어나서 5세까지 거주하다가 한국으로 왔다.

9세 때 한 달 동안 뉴질랜드를 여행하였다.

8세부터 9세까지 인도에서 국제학교를 다녔다.

♥ 감사합니다.

Appendix 3.8 The background information of individual participating pupils at The Boulevard

Name	Year	Gender	English proficiency (self-identifying)	Experiences of residing in English-speaking countries or attending international schools	
				Country	The period of residence
Eunjae	3	F	Fair		
Seojun	3	M	Good	Canada	Two and a half years
Junha	3	M	Good		
Yerim	3	F	Good		
Hyunseo	3	F	Good	Canada	Seven years since the birth
Soeun	3	F	Good		
Kyunsung	3	M	Fair		
Wonjun	3	M	Fair		
				The UK	Four years
Sarang	3	F	Fair	Hong Kong	One month
				Canada	One month
Hyori	3	F	Good	Singapore	Four years
Donghun	3	M	Good	The USA	One year
Minji	6	F	Good		
Junghwa	6	F	Good	The USA	Frequently staying
Hyunju	6	F	Fair		
Yuna	6	F	Good		
Soyeon	6	F	Good	The USA	One year
				The USA	One month
Ara	6	F	Good	Saipan	One month

Name	Year	Gender	English proficiency (self-identifying)	Experiences of residing in English-speaking countries or attending international schools	
				Country	The period of residence
Suji	6	F	Good		
Aera	6	F	Fair		
Huiju	6	F	Fair		
Hyunmin	6	M	Poor		
Jaeseok	6	M	Good		
Minsu	6	M	No response	The USA	One year
Yewon	6	F	Good		
Inpyo	6	M	Good	The UK	Two years
				Hong Kong	Three years
Jinwoo	6	M	Good	Hong Kong	Five years

Appendix 3.9 Questionnaire for pupils at Green Hill



Hello. Read each question. Then, answer the question or tick the box.

- Name :
- School Year :
- Are you : t Boy t Girl

1. Where were you born?

2. If you were not born in the UK, when did you move to the UK?

3. Read the following statements. Then, tick the appropriate box and write the reasons.

Which language do you usually use?	Korean	English
(1) when you speak with your dad Why?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(2) when you speak with your mom Why?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
(3) when you speak with your siblings	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Why?

4. What do you think is your first language? Why do you think so?

5. What do you think is your second language? Why do you think so?

6. What level do you think your Korean proficiency is? Tick the appropriate box.

Good	I can understand Korean lessons very well, and I do not have any difficulty in communicating with others in the Korean language.	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Fair	I can understand Korean lesson comparatively well, but I often feel it is difficult to communicate with others in the Korean language.	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Poor	I have difficulty in understanding Korean lessons and communicating with others in the Korean language.	<input type="checkbox"/>
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♥ Thank you for your time.

Appendix 3.10 The background information of individual participating pupils at Green Hill

Name	Year	Gender	Place of birth	Length of residence in the UK (Years)	Home language	Self-identification		
						L1	L2	Korean proficiency
Dongwon	3	M	England	7	Korean	English	Korean	Fair
Jake	3	M	England	7	English Korean L3	English	Korean	Fair
Edan	3	M	England	7	English Korean	English	Korean	Fair
Siyoon	3	M	England	7	Korean English	Korean	English	Good
Juwon	3	M	England	7	Korean, English	English	Korean	Good
Joongki	3	M	England	7	Korean	English Korean		Fair
Bogum	3	M	England	7	Korean English	English	Korean	Fair
Jaein	6	M	England	10	Korean English	English	Korean	Fair
Hyunbin	6	M	England	10	Korean English	English	Korean	Good
Suhyun	6	M	England	10	Korean, English	English	Korean	Fair
Minho	6	M	South Korea	5	Korean English	English	Korean	Good
Shinhye	6	F	England	10	English Korean	English	Korean	Good