

**Children's understandings of different writing
systems and scripts: *Korean* written in the Hangeul
alphabet and *English* written in the Roman alphabet**

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**Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

The University of Leeds

School of Education

July 2015

The candidate confirms that the work submitted is her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

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Acknowledgements

“Whoever will not accept the kingdom of God like a little child, will not enter into it”.

(Mark, 10:15)

I would like to thank my participant children whose innocence, honesty, passion and laughter provided the beautiful stories that made this thesis possible. Thanks must also be given to their parents and teachers who were willing to join and support my research. Without their enthusiastic cooperation and kind permission to peer teaching, this work would not have been possible.

I am also deeply indebted to my supervisors, Professor Alice Deignan, Dr. Penelope Robinson and Dr. Judith Hanks for their excellent supervision. Their invaluable feedback, continuous support and constructive criticism around my work have constantly driven me forward, expanded my horizons, and led me to strive as an independent researcher.

I express my sincere gratitude to my family, especially my parents (Choongil and Youngsul), sisters (Jaein and Jinyoung), brothers-in-law (Jaeho and Junghwan) and my dearest niece, Hwi. Without their endless love, encouragement and prayer, I would not have survived throughout my PhD journey. Special thanks are due to my friends, Judith, Gemma and Albert who prayed for me every day, and I thankfully remember Wright family for their friendship and support.

Finally, this thesis is dedicated to Jesus Christ, who is *“the way and the truth and the life”* (John, 14:6).

Abstract

Although many children become literate within an environment in which different language systems exist, there is still little research on what children know about different writing systems and how they understand and develop them when they are learning more than one alongside each other. Based on sociocultural theory and the concept of emergent literacy, which assume children as active language users in social processes, this research explores how Korean preschool children aged six make use of literacy knowledge and skills, and how they understand two different scripts, the Korean alphabet Hangul and the Roman alphabet used for English, in a foreign language context.

10 Korean EFL preschool children took part in peer teaching sessions, in 5 pairs, with each pair having a tutor child, aged 6, and a pupil, aged, 5. The tutor children taught literacy in both Hangul and English to the tutee children, and they led each teaching session in their own ways as active participants by using their own materials brought from their classrooms or homes as a teaching resource. The tutor children's communicative interactions around reading and writing, written explanations presented on the paper, their behaviours, comments and responses during the peer teaching were observed and analyzed focusing on the meaning of what each child said, acted and wrote.

The findings showed that the children were able to use their literacy knowledge and skills whilst engaged in literacy activities, and those knowledge and skills were shown in both two languages, at different levels: context, texts, sentences, words, syllables, morphemes, and sounds-letters. The findings also showed that they were able not only to find out key orthographic principles which characterise each writing system but also to seek the similarities and differences between two languages from different points of views: shape of letters (block shaped vs. linear), language units (syllables vs. letters), and sound-letter relationship (shallow orthography vs. deep orthography). The findings of this study suggest that young children are able to look for key concepts from different scripts from an early age, with the use of their literacy knowledge and skills in each script as active language learners.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Motivation for the study

This study focuses on the literacy acquisition of young learners in a Korean EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context and aims to provide a deeper understanding of how they make use of literacy knowledge and skills when learning the Korean alphabet Hangul (L1) and the Roman alphabet used for English (L2), and how they understand the principles underlying the two different writing systems. My interest in exploring early literacy acquisition and my desire to gain a greater understanding of how Korean EFL children understand and deal with the two different alphabet scripts stems from my professional experiences as an English language teacher of young learners in South Korea, and my post graduate studies on Korean EFL preschool children's literacy development.

In South Korea, the emergence of globalization has had a great influence on educational policies, and eventually in 1997, South Korea joined the trend to start teaching English from lower ages at school (Nunan, 2003). Since 1997, English has been introduced to the 3rd graders as one of the compulsory subjects in the primary school, and the major aim of the national curriculum is to achieve English communicative competence (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2008). Although English literacy skills are introduced from 3rd grade onwards along with listening and speaking skills, the instruction for reading and writing has been long limited and disregarded compared to communicative abilities in South Korea (Kim, 2002; Park, 2011; Shin, 2003).

The fever to achieve English competence, particularly communicative competence has moved into the field of early childhood English education, resulting in a rapid

expansion in the preschool sector. Preschool is a private sector in South Korea and it can be mainly divided into nursery schools (for 4-5 year olds) and kindergartens (for 5-6 year olds). Both types of institutions mostly include English instruction with various programmes in different settings, but the kindergarten sector provides more intensive English programme focusing on listening and speaking abilities. For example, most private English kindergartens hire native speakers of English as English teachers, and various western textbooks are widely used as teaching materials. However, from my teaching experiences over ten years in the Korean EFL young learner classroom, I wondered about the oral-oriented approach taken in the teaching of English which may limit opportunities for young children to develop literacy abilities, and a variety of western materials being used for Korean EFL children. Regarding these two issues, I started to think of some questions below:

- Why is literacy development of young children treated as secondary to listening and speaking abilities? If children also learn to develop literacy skills from an early age along with listening and speaking competence, how they develop and make use of their own knowledge and skills in relation to written language?
- Why do Korean EFL children who have different linguistic backgrounds from English-speaking children receive instruction from western textbooks in the same way that native English speakers do? Are there any linguistic factors which may affect early literacy development of Korean EFL children who are learning two different alphabetic languages, Korean and English simultaneously? If so, how young children understand the two different writing systems they encounter?

All the above questions about literacy development of young children and the notion of written language became my major interest, and my academic studies have always been linked to how to support children's literacy development in a Korean EFL context. Previous studies carried out in South Korea on the aspects of English literacy teaching using stories for my MA degree, enriched my understanding that

young children are actively engaged with written print from an early age. I believe that young children have a great insight into written language long before coming to school, thus literacy needs to have a more prominent place in their learning so that children are given more opportunities to develop their knowledge, skills and understandings in relation to written language. These constituted the drives of the current study.

A theoretical concept that allowed me to investigate this research is the concept of 'emergent literacy' which refers to "the reading and writing behaviours that precede and develop into conventional literacy" (Sulzby, 1989, p.84). Particularly, I brought my interest in language itself to the present study in the belief that early awareness of written language is a significant component of emergent literacy. Although many emergent literacy researchers acknowledge that children develop literacy knowledge and skills during the early years, the issue of written language and its relation to early literacy development are areas which have received little research attention. Moreover, the issue of early script learning with children who are learning two different alphabetic scripts, Hangul and English simultaneously in a foreign language context is still little covered. I was, therefore, keen to explore Korean EFL children's literacy knowledge and skills along with their awareness of writing systems between Hangul and English so that children's literacy acquisition can be better understood and shared.

This study is concerned about two different alphabetic scripts, Hangul and English, thus, in the following sections, orthographic principles of Hangul, focusing on the unique features which are different from most other alphabets will be introduced.

1.2 The Korean alphabet, Hangul

The Korean alphabet, Hangul was invented in 1446 by King Sejong (1419-1450).

Before the invention of Hangul, Chinese character was the only script in Korea, and it was too difficult for ordinary people to understand. Therefore, for the purpose of providing an easy script that ordinary people would be able to learn easily, the scholars under the king's supervision travelled to many countries to examine various writing systems, and their careful studies finally led to create a Hangul script (King, 1996; Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Sohn, 2012; Taylor, 1980; Taylor & Taylor, 1983). The original name of Hangul was '훈민정음' (Hunmin-jongum), which literally means "the right sounds that educate the public" (Pae, 2011, p.106), and this shows the king's intention towards the new script (Taylor & Taylor, 1983).

1.2.1 General characteristics of Hangul

One of the unique features of Hangul is the fact that Hangul is the only alphabet in which the shapes of symbols reflect the articulation of sounds (Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Taylor, 1980; Taylor & Taylor, 1983). Twenty-four alphabet letters (fourteen consonants and ten vowels) were not designed separately but most letters were created based on a number of basic letters which represent the shape of the articulators pronouncing the consonants (Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Taylor, 1980). These basic letters include 'ㄱ' /g/, 'ㄴ' /n/, 'ㄷ' /s/, 'ㅁ' /m/, 'ㅇ' /ng/, and Hangul starts with these five basic symbols to represent 14 single and 5 double consonants. Kim (1983 cited in King, 1996, p.220) showed each letter shape for the places of articulation as follows.






				
velar ㄱ /g/	alveolar ㄴ /n/	dental ㄷ /s/	bilabial ㅁ /m/	glottal ㅇ /ng/

Figure 1.1: Origin of shapes of basic Hangul consonants

For example, ‘ㄱ’ represents the shape of the root of the tongue blocking the throat pronouncing /g/ while ‘ㅁ’, which looks like a small square was created in imitation of a closed mouth pronouncing /m/. Based on these basic letters, other related consonant letters were made by adding extra strokes derived from the feature of articulation (Taylor & Taylor, 1983). For instance, ‘ㄷ’ /d/ was created by adding a single stroke to ‘ㄴ’ /n/, which is articulated in the same place as it while ‘ㅋ’ /k/ is articulated in the same place as ‘ㄱ’ /g/, so its symbol was created by adding a stroke inside the ‘ㄱ’.

Another characteristic of Hangeul is its unique visual feature. Although Hangeul is a phonemically based alphabetic script, it has always been written in syllable blocks unlike other alphabetic orthographies which are written in a row and side by side. The overall shape of Hangeul looks more similar to a logographic script, Chinese because its alphabetic letters are fixed into a syllable block with the same size as a Chinese character (Coulmas, 1989; Simpson & Kang, 1994; Wang, Koda & Perfetti, 2003). For example, three alphabetic symbols including a consonant, ‘ㅅ’ /s/, another consonant ‘ㄴ’ /n/ and a vowel, ‘ㅏ’ /a/ are arranged together within the syllable ‘산’ /san/, stands for ‘mountain’. In English, this might require three alphabet letters arranged in a line: ‘ㅅ’, ‘ㅏ’, ‘ㄴ’, but in Hangeul, these letters are packed into one syllable block. Each alphabet letter is never used alone but from two to four alphabet symbols are always combined together to form a block, which represents a syllable (Taylor, 1980; Taylor & Taylor, 1983). Therefore, the syllable is an important unit in Hangeul because of the salient syllabic features (Wang, Park & Lee, 2006). Korean may think that the word, ‘바다’ /bada/ (sea), for example, is consisted of two units, ‘바’ and ‘다’, according to the number of syllable blocks, not of four units, ‘ㅂ’, ‘ㅏ’, ‘ㄷ’, ‘ㅏ’. This syllabic feature of Hangeul is different from logographic Chinese and syllabic Japanese Kana. These scripts cannot be segmented into consonants and vowels, thus require memorization of a number of characters (Pae, 2011; Wang, Park & Lee, 2006). This unique feature makes Hangeul distinctive, and Taylor (1980,

p.70) called it an 'alphabetic syllabary'.

Taylor (1980) also wrote that Hangul shares some logographic characteristics with Chinese in that one syllable block represents one meaningful unit such as a morpheme or a word. Like Chinese, Korean morphemes appear at the syllable level, for example, a plural suffix '들', which is equivalent to '-s' of English, is often used with nouns which refer to people or animals in order to make a clear distinction between a singular and a plural of a noun. For instance, the plural form of '고양이' (a cat) is '고양이들' (cats). Most Hangul words are composed of two or more morphemes, for example, the word, '암탉' (hen) is composed of two morphemes, '암' (the prefix for female) and '닭' (chicken). Regarding this feature, Wang, Ko & Choi (2009) wrote that "the clear-cut syllable boundaries in Korean Hangul may make its morphemes more visible than linear orthographic systems such as English" (p.133). Another logographic feature of Hangul is that a small stroke within a syllable block can change a word into a different one which stands for a different meaning. In Chinese, for example, the difference between the two words, '王' (king) and '主' (owner) is derived from a tiny stroke '丶'. Likewise, a Hangul word '자다' (sleep) can be '차다' (cold) with a small stroke, 'ㄹ'.

Finally, in Hangul, there is a close match between letters and sounds. In English, 26 letters represent approximately 40 phonemes, and the relation between sounds and letters are irregular and complex. For example, the single letter 'a' represents several different vowels as in *about, apple, barn, call, face*. And the sound /f/ is represented by different letters in such words as *fan, phone, laugh*. Moreover, some letters do not have sounds as in *knight, honesty, psalm*. But in Hangul, 14 basic consonants and 10 basic vowels represent unambiguously as Table 1.1 shown. Either singly or in combination, these represent 40 distinctive sounds of Hangul including 8 simple vowels, 19 consonants, and 13 diphthongs (Lee, 2001).

Table 1.1: 14 basic consonants and 10 basic vowels in Hangul

14 basic consonants	ㄱ	ㄴ	ㄷ	ㄹ	ㅁ	ㅂ	ㅅ	ㅇ	ㅈ	ㅊ	ㅋ	ㆁ	ㅌ	ㅎ
	/g/	/n/	/d/	/l/	/m/	/b/	/s/	/ng/	/dʒ/	/tʃ/	/k/	/t/	/p/	/h/
10 basic vowels	ㅏ	ㅑ	ㅓ	ㅕ	ㅡ	ㅣ	ㅗ	ㅛ	ㅜ	ㅠ				
	/a/	/ə/	/o/	/u/	/eu/	/i/	/ya/	/yə/	/yo/	/yu/				

According to the Orthographic Depth Hypothesis, which refers to “a degree of regularity in sound-symbol correspondence” (Koda, 1999, p.52), Korean, written in the Hangul alphabet is regarded as a shallow orthography with a regular correspondence between sounds and letters. By contrast, English is a phonologically irregular orthography, which is referred to a deep orthography. A more detailed examination of the effect of the orthographic depth hypothesis on children’s literacy learning is covered in Chapter 3 (Section 3.2.2).

1.2.2 Orthographic principles of Hangul

The first principle governing Korean orthography is that there are two different types of vowels: ‘vertical bars’ and ‘horizontal bars’, and they are placed differently (Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Taylor, 1980). The first type of vertical vowels including ‘ㅏ’ /a/, ‘ㅑ’ /ya/, ‘ㅓ’ /ə/, ‘ㅕ’ /yə/, and ‘ㅣ’ /i/ are placed to the right side of the initial consonant whereas the second type of horizontal vowels including ‘ㅓ’ /o/, ‘ㅜ’ /yo/, ‘ㅡ’ /u/, ‘ㅠ’ /yu/, and ‘ㅡ’ /eu/ are written below the initial consonant. Thus, for example, the syllable ‘ㅏ’ /ba/ is written like ‘ㅂ’ /b/ + ‘ㅏ’ /a/ → ‘ㅏ’ /ba/, and another syllable ‘ㅓ’ /so/ is written like ‘ㅅ’ /s/ + ‘ㅓ’ /o/ → ‘ㅓ’ /so/. The vertical vowels are written from top to bottom, and the horizontal vowels are written from left to right. This movement also applies to writing a sequence of letters and individual strokes (King, 1996).

The second orthographic rule used in writing Hangul is that any written syllable in

Hangul must begin with an initial consonant, and each syllable must at least have a CV (consonant followed by vowel) structure to form a syllable block (Kim-Renaud, 2012). For example, the Korean word ‘나무’ /namu/ representing ‘tree’ consists of two syllables, ‘나’ /na/ and ‘무’ /mu/. Here, each syllable begins with the consonant ‘ㄴ’ /n/ and ‘ㅁ’ /m/ respectively, and each syllable follows a CV structure: ‘ㄴ’ (consonant) + ‘ㅏ’ (vowel), and ‘ㅁ’ (consonant) + ‘ㅜ’ (vowel) respectively. When the syllable begins with a vowel, a ‘zero consonant’, ‘ㅇ’ representing a null/zero sign must be used as in ‘아’ /a/, ‘이’ /i/, ‘오’ /o/, etc. The reason for the use of such symbol is that at least one consonant and a single vowel are necessary to form a syllable block, having the same size, and this is based on a belief that a CV structure is the optimal syllable (ibid.).

When a consonant comes after the consonant-vowel combination in the syllable, it is placed at the bottom, and this consonant is called ‘받침’ (batchim), which means support or underpinning (Kim-Renaud, 2012; Lee & Ramsey, 2000). For instance, *batchim* ‘ㅁ’ /m/ as in ‘봄’ /bom/ (spring) is placed at the bottom, following the consonant ‘ㅂ’ /b/ and the vowel ‘ㅗ’ /o/ combination. Two consonants can be also placed at the bottom in the syllable block, but in this case, it requires special treatment because of its pronunciation. Hangul doesn’t have consonant clusters, therefore, although orthography allows two consonants as batchim at the bottom, only one of the consonants is actually pronounced. There are some rules here, which are related with the manner of articulation, for example, a sonorant sound such as /l/, /r/, /m/, /n/ is usually chosen to be pronounced. However, it does not explain all cases, thus the selection of the consonant which is realized among two is irregular (Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Shin, Kiaer & Cha, 2013).

As presented above, Hangul is unique in that it is an alphabet, a syllabary and a logography (Taylor & Taylor, 1983). As an alphabet, the shapes of basic letters reflect the articulation of the phonemes, and letter-sound correspondence is regular.

As a syllabary, each letter is assembled in a syllable block, and some single Hangul syllable blocks represent meaningful units like a logography. The uniqueness of Hangul among alphabetic scripts was another motivator for this study.

1.3 Organization of the study

This study begins by developing the theoretical foundation of the study. Chapter 2 provides an account of a sociocultural framework of literacy learning as well as the concept of emergent literacy and its components related to literacy knowledge and skills, and Chapter 3 develops the theoretical grounds for children's early script learning in various contexts across languages. Chapters 4 and 5 discuss the methodological issues. Chapter 4 explains the peer teaching method I used, and Chapter 5 provides a full description of the data collection process of this study. The next five chapters (Chapters 6-10) describe the results of the study in some detail focusing on five participant children aged six, who took part in peer teaching sessions as a tutor. A discussion of the findings according to the research questions is presented in Chapter 11, and Chapter 12 then elaborates on the contributions of this study, implications, limitations and suggestions for future work.

2. Literature Review I : Theoretical framework

Literacy can be seen not only as a process simply of being able to read and write the symbols in the individual, but also as a social and interactive process of constructing meaning within a sociocultural context (Pérez, 1998). The purpose of this chapter is to provide theoretical grounds for understanding children's literacy learning within a sociocultural framework, which is especially helpful in understanding of how young children learn to read and write in a complex and diverse society. The chapter starts with a discussion of a sociocultural approach to language, learning and literacy, followed by a review of relevant studies highlighting the notion of children as active language learners. Since this research also stemmed from the idea that children's reading and writing development begins long before they enter school, conveyed in the term, *emergent literacy*, relevant research that has looked at literacy knowledge and skills within this perspective will be also reviewed in this chapter.

2.1 Sociocultural theory of language, learning and literacy

Within a sociocultural perspective, children's literacy learning cannot be defined separately from its context across various cultural practices since language and literacy are always socially and culturally constructed (Gregory, Long & Volk, 2004; Pérez, 1998; Razfar & Gutiérrez, 2003; Street, 1993). Sociocultural theory is derived from Vygotskian (1978) views suggesting that human learning is inextricably linked to the social conditions and cultural practices where the learner and learning are situated. Vygotsky (1978) wrote that, "human learning presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life of those around them" (p.88). Fundamental to Vygotskian theory is that language and literacy are viewed as crucial mediating tools for constructing meaning embedded in

sociocultural practices (Gee, 2001; Hassett, 2008; Park, 2011; Purcell-Gates, 1995). Since culture is interwoven in all aspects of human development, sociocultural views of literacy have implications for how we make sense of children's literacy practices (Razfar & Gutiérrez, 2003). Children begin to construct their own understandings of languages, and form their ideas about the principles of reading and writing through social and cultural practices which vary from context to context. In this sense, language is the "pre-eminent tool for development" (Razfar & Gutiérrez, 2003, p.43), and literacy is a significant instrument in the "culture's toolkit of ways of thought" (Bruner, 1996, p.19). Pérez (1998) explained a sociocultural framework of literacy as follows:

"The notion of literacy as a set of autonomous, transferable, basic reading and writing skills gives way within a sociocultural framework to a more functional, constructivist, contextualized, and culturally relative view of literacy as social practice" (Pérez, 1998, p.5)

From within this framework, children's literacy development is mediated and facilitated by social interactions with more capable and experienced members of the culture. Therefore, the role of the mediators who can guide children in literacy learning such as parents, teachers, adults, or more knowledgeable siblings or peers is crucial to a sociocultural approach (Anderson et al., 2010; Gregory, Long & Volk, 2004). Vygotsky (1978) emphasized an interrelationship between learning and development by using the term, 'the zone of proximal development'. He differentiated between what children can do independently (actual development) and what they can do with an assistance of more expert others (proximal development), suggesting that "properly organized learning results in mental development" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.90). He wrote that learning creates the zone of proximal development as follows:

"[...] learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his

environment and in cooperation with his peers. Once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child's independent developmental achievement" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.90)

The notion of the ZPD which describes the social interaction in which the more expert adult usually assists children has broadened towards viewing young children as 'more active learners' who construct their own ideas or theories in their literacy learning (Gregory, Long & Volk, 2004; Park, 2011; Razfar & Gutiérrez, 2003). Bruner (1996) wrote that young learners are active participants who find the world themselves in the process of constructing meaning within the cultural context where the environment and purpose help shape the meaning. Children play an active role in literacy learning and develop their theories themselves by bringing all the experiences with the world to the literacy task in "meaning making and reality construction" (Bruner, 1996, p.20). Without this process of experimentation and construction, children's literacy will not be developed (Pérez, 1998). Therefore, education must be conceived as helping them become "better architects and better builders" (Bruner, 1996, p.20).

This view of language and literacy based on a sociocultural theory of learning which emphasizes a cultural context where children have grown and developed, seeks to understand how young children interpret and encode their own world where learning and literacy emerge. Based on the idea that "language and literacy are highly visible markers of culture and social group" (Purcell-Gates, 1995; Sánchez, 1993 cited in Pérez, 1998, p.21), this study is framed by sociocultural theories of learning, focusing on how young children learn to make sense of their world where two different writing systems exist, and how they construct their understandings of them as active language users within a particular EFL preschool classroom context.

Having briefly outlined a sociocultural theory of language, learning and literacy, the following sections present a review of relevant studies which discuss children's

literacy learning within a sociocultural framework.

2.2 Studies of children's literacy learning within a sociocultural framework

Although many research studies on early literacy are very different in content and context within a sociocultural framework, recent studies are mostly in agreement on the following points:

- Children's early literacy is closely related to language experiences in home and at particular communities (Kenner, 1999, 2000; Masny & Ghahremani-Ghajar, 1999; Rashid & Gregory, 1997; Saxena, 1994; Sneddon, 2000; Volk & de Acosta, 2001);
- Children's literacy learning is embedded in social relationships, and it is mediated by more skilled language users (Anderson, Strelasky & Anderson, 2007; Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Gregory, 2001, 2005; Gregory et al., 2007; Kim & Anderson, 2008; Mace, 1998; Mui & Anderson, 2008; Volk & de Acosta, 2004);
- Children are active language learners of their own literacy learning (Chen & Gregory, 2004; Coppock, 2011; Grover, 2004; Jones, 2003; Kellett, 2005, 2010; Kim, 2015; Long, Bell & Brown, 2004; Pinter, 2014; Pinter, Kuchah & Smith, 2013; Pinter & Zandian, 2012, 2014).

I describe each issue in more detail in the following sections.

2.2.1 Family and community literacies

Within a sociocultural theory, all literacy users are members of a defined culture, and their literacy practices are valued by different culture groups (Pérez, 1998). Numerous research studies document how culturally and linguistically diverse

children learn to read and write through literacy experiences unique to their home and communities. In order to investigate the influence of home and community on children's literacy learning, many studies have been conducted in London, one of the largest global cities in the world, where many bilingual children from diverse linguistic backgrounds are learning English as well as their home language at community language classes or at home. Examples of the studies conducted in London include Sneddon's (2000) research with children from Muslim community in North-East London, Saxena's (1994) study on literacy practices in the Panjabi community in West London, Kenner's (1999, 2000) research conducted in a South London multilingual nursery class, and Rashid & Gregory's (1997) research with a Bengali child living in the East End of London. For example, Sneddon's (2000) research showed how young children living in North-East London learn Gujarati and English as the languages of everyday communication as well as Urdu for religious purposes in the Muslim community. The research explored children's language use, literacy experiences and the educational achievement in their families, community and school through observations and interviews. The research reported that support for literacy in home and community was a significant factor in children's literacy achievement. For instance, the children who had literacy experiences in the community centre which provides the culture and leisure facilities showed a higher level of performance in retelling stories in both Gujarati and English than children without such experiences.

Other studies conducted in many parts of the world where linguistic minority children are learning different languages also highlighted the role of home and community. The study of Masny & Ghahremani-Ghajar (1999) which took place in Ottawa, Canada discussed the importance of the relationship between literacy, school and community cultures with Somali children learning home-based literacy (Somali), religious literacy (Arabic) and school-based literacy (English). The research found that literacy incorporates home, community and school cultures, suggesting that

these multiple literacy practices need to be woven in the classroom. In their findings, they emphasized that:

“By adopting a broader vision of literacy as one that incorporates *reading the world*, it is possible to view literacies as transformative. Multiple and competing literacy practices point to notion that *becoming literate has more to do with reading the world than reading the word*. The challenges to literacy in reading the world are all the more urgent when constructing identity with children in a second-language context” (Masny & Ghahremani-Ghajar, 1999, p.90)

Similarly, Volk & de Acosta (2001) investigated Spanish dominant, mainland Puerto Rican kindergarteners’ literacy development supported by their homes, churches, and school settings in the USA. They found that literacy interactions and events in the homes and churches enrich children’s literacy development since a network of people can provide children with multiple resources related to literacy lives including literacy beliefs and experiences, culture, religion, and knowledge of two different languages. These studies conducted in diverse contexts where “linguistic minorities exist as multicultural and multilingual subsystems both in terms of their ideologies and practices” (Saxena, 1994, p.112) conclude that children’s literacy learning includes their culture and their religion which are closely related to home and the particular community.

2.2.2 Role of important mediators

Many studies within a sociocultural framework have also looked at the interaction between a child and a mediator, highlighting the role of important mediators. Some of these studies discuss the role of parents (Anderson, Streelasky & Anderson, 2007; Kim & Anderson, 2008; Mace, 1998), grandparents (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; Gregory et al., 2007) or older siblings (Gregory, 2001, 2005; Volk & de Acosta,

2004), showing how these more competent literacy users mediate children's literacy learning. For example, a study conducted by Gregory et al. (2007) with South Asian immigrant families in East London examined a dynamic interaction between a grandmother and her grandchildren during story-reading in a home setting. The study demonstrated how the grandmother translates her knowledge, memories and experiences of stories for her grandchildren, suggesting that a grandmother is "the linchpin of her grandchildren's heritage, language and identity" (Gregory et al., 2007, p.23). Similarly, Mui & Anderson (2008) discussed the roles of significant other adults in children's language and literacy development with a six-year-old child growing up in an Indo-Canadian joint family in Canada where her family (including her parents and siblings) shares the house with her grandparents, two uncles, their wives and their children. The research found that in addition to other family members' support, the nannies who take care of the children and play with them also played an important and supportive role in mediating children's early literacy development through functional literacy events such as reading recipes or dramatic play. The research concluded that the findings challenge prevailing conceptions of family literacy, which is often presented as 'shared book reading between a mother and a child in the nuclear family' by suggesting that "families are sites for myriad forms of literacy, not just storybook reading, and different family members, not just parents, play a role" (Mui & Anderson, 2008, p.240).

Much of the research has documented the role of adults in supporting children's literacy development, but Gregory (2001) has discussed the role of older siblings as significant mediators who support younger children's literacy development. Here, in her work with Bangladeshi children lived in London, she showed not only how younger children's literacy learning was facilitated by older siblings' teaching but also how the older siblings' language and literacy were developed through the literacy interactions with the younger children. The research argues that children play more active and balanced roles in building on what they know by stimulating and fostering

each other's literacy development. Regarding the children's reciprocal teaching and learning, the author concluded that:

“[...] the nature of their teaching and learning goes beyond definitions of either ‘scaffolding’ (unidirectional from a more to a less experienced person) or ‘collaborative learning’ (between peers in a formal classroom situation). Instead, we refer to the interaction between the children as a *synergy*, a unique reciprocity whereby siblings act as adjuvants in each other's learning” (Gregory, 2001, p.309)

Children's active role in making use of social guidance is also highlighted in Rogoff's (1990) concept of ‘guided participation’ which includes the collaborative process of sharing understanding and problem solving between children and more skilled partners. From guided participation involving children's active participation, “children appropriate an increasingly advanced understanding of and skill in managing the intellectual problems of their community” (Rogoff, 1990, p.8). Accordingly, the notion of the ZPD has shifted more towards viewing children as active learners in their own learning, which is beyond the interaction between ‘expert’ and ‘novice’ (Gregory, Long & Volk, 2004). As Razfar & Gutiérrez (2003) pointed out, many research studies have highlighted adult-child assistance strategies where the relation between the adult and child is often top-down and unidirectional, and this might construct young children as passive learners. More dynamic notions of ZPD which emphasizes children as active participants in their literacy development will be discussed in the following section.

2.2.3 Children as active language users

Many studies have suggested that children are active creators of their own development even in the absence of an ‘expert’ by discussing the notion of ZPD created among peers, between partners of similar status (Chen & Gregory, 2004;

Jones, 2003; Kim, 2015; Long, Bell & Brown, 2004). For example, Jones (2003) examined the social interaction among first-grade African American students during collaborative writing by demonstrating various forms of social regulation created through peer relationship such as offering assistance, guiding, suggestions or negotiations. Kim (2015) also showed how peer relationships and interactions between Korean-English bilingual preschool children affect their literacy responses during whole group read-alouds, suggesting that the children constructed meaning and responded to picture books by negotiating, affirming and contradicting each other. These findings highlight the significant role of peers and benefits of peer interactions in language and literacy learning, viewing children as active literacy users who draw on cultural resources and construct meaning together.

Recently, some researchers have expanded the notion of children as active participants by discussing their role and status in research. Pinter & Zandian (2014) pointed out that many research studies with young children assume that children are vulnerable and untrustworthy, therefore, it is not worth asking them about their own perspectives. Regarding the traditional view that “children should be seen and not heard” (Pinter, Kuchah & Smith, 2013, p.484), which has been reflected in many ESL / EFL studies, Pinter & Zandian (2014) argue that:

“The research questions are always conceived from adult perspectives, satisfying adult curiosity, and motivated by an adult agenda. [...] However, as a result, an interesting question arises about the meaning of ‘child perspectives’ and ‘children’s voices’, and in general about the status of children in ESL / EFL research” (Pinter & Zandian, 2014, p.65)

The view that children are knowledgeable and active research participants has been established in some studies by putting children at the centre of research (Coppock, 2011; Grover, 2004; Kellett, 2005, 2010; Pinter, 2014; Pinter & Zandian, 2012, 2014). In Coppock’s (2011) research conducted in the North West of England, for example, primary school children took active part in a focus group interview as both

research participants and peer researchers in order to evaluate a literacy project. The children made a plan for the interview, interviewed their peers, analyzed and summarized the data, and even reflected on their experiences of doing peer research, showing increasing confidence and enthusiasm. In a similar vein, Kellett (2005, 2010) reported the research led by an 11-year-old girl who had received training in research method including the research nature, ethics, data collection and analysis strategies from University staff. The child designed and led her own research, and the findings from her video documentary and interview data seen through her own eyes suggest that “child-to-child enquiry generates different data from adult-to-child enquiry because children observe with different eyes, ask different questions and communicate in fundamentally different ways” (Kellett, 2010, p.195). Although there are still some issues and limitations in child-led research, for example, the issue of a degree of adult support (Kellett, 2010), these child-led studies view children themselves as ‘experts’ of their own lives.

In line with the argument made by Pinter, Kuchah & Smith (2013) that “if we put students in the centre of learning, why should we not put them in the centre of research projects as well?” (p.486), my study also seeks how Korean EFL children make sense of their early script learning experiences through the lens of 6-year-old eyes within a peer teaching setting, locating them at the centre of my research. The participant children led each session in their own ways by choosing materials, topics, languages, activities they find relevant, as well as making spontaneous comments and response as active participants. My role, as a researcher, was to facilitate children’s teaching and learning by listening to their voices in the process of conducting peer teaching as a supporter. This child-friendly research project challenges the notion of the status of young children in research, in particular, in the Korean context where children are often asked to take part in a variety of tests or tasks, and their results and performance are entirely understood by adult researchers based on adult criteria. Some ethical issues considered in this research,

including children's privacy, voices and rights also challenge adult views reflected in the Korean context where children are involved mainly as 'objects' of adult perspective. As Gregory, Long & Volk (2004) wrote, young children should not be considered as passive language learners but as "active seekers of meaning who construct knowledge about literacy as they work to make sense of the literate world around them" (p.15). This view of literacy learning, which assumes that children as 'experts' of their literacy learning will provide windows into literacy worlds of Korean EFL children.

2.3 Emergent literacy

Based on a sociocultural framework, this study also looks at the importance of young children's early literacy development within the concept of emergent literacy. The section starts with a historical overview of how children's reading and writing development has been treated in the field of early childhood literacy education, followed by a discussion of the concept of emergent literacy. As the focus of my research is to explore emergent literacy knowledge and skills demonstrated by young children learning two different writing systems, the following sections also review research that has looked at the components of emergent literacy in relation to literacy knowledge and skills. I then discussed why I incorporated Cameron's (2001) framework on literacy into my study.

2.3.1 Historical overview of children's literacy development

The term 'emergent literacy' evolved during the early 1980s as a new way of looking at early reading and writing development (Sulzby & Teale, 1996). In order to examine what issues and theoretical orientations guide the concept of emergent literacy, this section details historical perspectives on young children's literacy

development from the 1900s, drawing on Teale & Sulzby's (1986) book, 'Emergent Literacy: Writing and Reading' which provides information about the term and field of inquiry.

Teale & Sulzby (1986) wrote that little attention was paid to children's literacy development during the early years in the early 1900s. It was generally assumed that children begin to develop their reading and writing abilities with formal instruction in school which offers the same instruction to all children in a given grade. Thus, reading and writing instruction in preschool or kindergarten was generally avoided or ignored (Morrow, 2005). Regarding the literature on children's learning to read and write during the early 1900s, Teale & Sulzby (1986) note:

"A review of the literature published up through the second decade of the twentieth century yields one inescapable conclusion: Not much of anyone was addressing the issue of, much less researching, pre-first-grade reading and writing [...] the general belief was that literacy development did not begin until the child encountered formal instruction in school. A companion phenomenon to 'benign neglect' of preschool children was the instructional 'lockstep' of the grades" (Teale & Sulzby, 1986, p.viii)

However, the instruction offered at the same time and in the same order in school led many children to 'fail' initial reading instruction or repeat grades until they 'passed' (Betts, 1946; McCall, 1923 cited in Teale & Sulzby, 1986, p.viii), and this made educators and researchers start to consider other ways of viewing beginning reading instruction by looking more closely at early childhood years as the time for preparation for reading (Morrow, 2005; Teale & Sulzby, 1986).

Based on this change in thinking among researchers who did not advocate simply waiting for children to become literate but started to look at certain factors which would help children to become ready to read, the term 'reading readiness' became used from the 1920s (Teale & Sulzby, 1986). The developmental psychologist

Arnold Gesell (1925) investigated those factors, suggesting that natural maturation is the most important factor in learning to read. The application of his viewpoint to the issue of reading readiness, namely that “readiness to read was the result of neural ripening - the mental processes necessary for reading would unfold automatically at a certain point in development” (Teale & Sulzby, 1986, p.ix) affected several decades of early childhood reading instruction and many educational arenas. For example, the ‘reading readiness test’ based on the maturationalist viewpoint was widely used in preschools and first grades as an indicator of whether the child had finally reached the mental maturity to be able to learn to read (Morrow, 2005; Teale & Sulzby, 1986). The tests usually included sections on specific skills associated with reading such as visual discrimination and motor skills, and these skills came to be considered as prerequisites that would help children to begin reading (Morrow, 2005). This led to the growing reliance on textbooks and workbooks describing specific levels of skills and how to prepare the tests. Regarding this phenomenon, Teale & Sulzby (1986) wrote that “coexisting with the maturationalist viewpoint through the 1920s, 1930s, and 1940s was the school of thought that reading readiness was something that could be taught rather than merely waited for” (p.xi).

Early childhood literacy instruction based on this idea of reading readiness implies that children prepare for literacy by acquiring a set of prescribed skills. As Whitehurst & Lonigan (1998) wrote, “the reading readiness perspective creates a boundary between the ‘prereading’ behaviors of children, and the ‘real’ reading that children are taught in educational settings” (p.848). Teale & Sulzby (1986) also suggested that it affects people’s thinking about children’s literacy development in the following two ways:

“[...] first, it leads them to conceptualize the early childhood period as precursor to ‘real’ reading or writing, implying that only after the child has mastered the various subskills of reading readiness does the real part begin. Second, it tells teacher and parent that learning to read and write begins in a

school-like setting where these readiness skills can be taught. Thus, materials designed for use with young children either in home, school or school-like settings are inevitably modelled on formal, sequenced, direct instruction” (Teale & Sulzby, 1986, p.xiv)

However, the findings from research projects such as Durkin’s (1966), Clay’s (1967) and Read’s (1971) with the close observation of preschool children have cast doubts on the reading readiness paradigm, which assumes that all children pass through a similar sequence of readiness. Those studies suggested that although certain levels of maturity are required for children to master a set of skills needed for learning to read, the reading readiness perspective disregarded not only environmental factors but also children’s thinking, experiences or information about reading and writing that they may already have. For example, Read’s (1971) study reported that some preschool children have an unconscious knowledge of the English sound system, and they are also able to bring this knowledge to their first encounter with reading and writing. In his research, children who had no contact with each other created spelling systems which were remarkably similar, and although the spellings were not correct, they phonetically made sense based on children’s own judgements. For example, ‘tiger’ and ‘doctor’ were typically spelled with as ‘tigr’ and ‘diktr’ respectively indicating that ‘r’ at the end of each word is perceived as a separate syllable. The author wrote that the children’s treatment of syllabic segments (the vowels ‘e’ or ‘o’ were not presented in their spellings) was true because “when /r/, /l/, /m/, or /n/ occurs in an English word between two consonants or at the end of a word after a consonant, they become syllabic” (Read, 1971, p.21). Therefore, the children judged that the vowel does not need to be presented before ‘r’, which functions as a vowel. These findings imply that young children are aware of some principles which characterise English. Commenting on his findings, Read (1971) concluded that:

“[...] we cannot assume that general intelligence must be the major factor in acquiring the knowledge that makes spelling possible [...] and we can no

longer assume that a child must approach reading and writing as an untrained animal approaches a maze - with no discernible prior conception of its structure" (Read, 1971, p.32)

Although his research focuses on preschool children's knowledge of English phonology, several studies on children's reading and writing development (Clay, 1972; Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1983; Mason & Allen, 1986; Sulzby & Teale, 1996; Teale & Sulzby, 1986) echoed his findings, suggesting that children may come to school with considerable knowledge of reading and writing.

From the 1960s through the 1980s, this trend changed attitudes and ideas on how young children become literate - instead of regarding young children as passive recipients of information in the past, researchers begin to interpret the development of literacy from the children's perspectives (Sulzby & Teale, 1996; Teale & Sulzby, 1986). They turned their attention to the importance of looking carefully at children's literacy development during the early years, and a growing body of research conducted in diverse cultural and social contexts using various research methods found that children are active language users possessing considerable literacy knowledge and skills. They suggested that young children actively interact with written print very early in the context of their everyday lives as 'learning-hypothesis generators', 'problem solvers' or 'constructors of language' (Teale & Sulzby, 1986, p.xv). Findings from Durkin's (1966) longitudinal research with preschool children who had not been taught about reading and writing support this notion. In her research, the children in each family took time to read books regularly at home with their parents' help, for example, parents read to them, answered their questions about words, and responded to requests to draw a picture or make a letter. The research found that the children were able to compose their own stories stimulated by the pictures and languages from the books, suggesting that literacy development occurs before entering school through meaningful experiences in natural settings. Much research has shown a shift from the idea of reading readiness toward this new

perspective on children's literacy development, and the findings from those studies have brought about the new paradigm, *emergent literacy* (Sulzby & Teale, 1996). The following section details the concept of emergent literacy, which allowed me to frame my study within this perspective.

2.3.2 The concept of emergent literacy

The term *emergent literacy* contributed to a new way of conceptualizing children's reading and writing development in the field of education (Mason & Allen, 1986; Morrow, 2005; Sulzby & Teale, 1996; Teale & Sulzby, 1986; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). This term comprises two concepts, 'emergent' and 'literacy'. Regarding the term *emergent*, Teale & Sulzby (1986) wrote that it means 'forward looking' implying that there is a direction in which reading and writing development is ongoing. They suggest that *emergent* has special significance as below:

“[...] *emergent* connotes development rather than stasis; it signifies something in the process of becoming [...] it is not *pre*-anything, as the term *pre*-reading suggests. Nor is it accurate to regard this as stage 0 (zero) in literacy development. [...] rather, at whatever point we look, we see children in the process of becoming literate, as the term *emergent* indicates” (Teale & Sulzby, 1986, p.xix)

It does not point to the exact time when literacy begins in children's life, but assumes that children are continuously learning to read and write in the everyday contexts of home, community or school, moving towards conventional literacy. Therefore, as Whitehurst & Lonigan (1998) wrote, *emergent* indicates that “there is no clear demarcation between reading and prereading” (p.848).

The term *literacy*, which encompasses both reading and writing also implies significance within the concept of emergent literacy. 'Literacy' suggests that children's reading and writing abilities develop concurrently and interrelatedly rather

than sequentially, departing from the reading readiness approach which assumes that writing should be delayed until children learn to read (Teale & Sulzby, 1986; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). Graves (1978) and Teale & Sulzby (1986) pointed out that although many researchers and educators have long been interested in the period from birth to school age in order to understand children's language development, considerably less attention has been paid to the writing development of young children than to the reading development. The emergent literacy approach, however, sees children's literacy as all aspects of communicating in real life situations. It assumes that there is a dynamic relationship between reading and writing, and sometimes among the oral skills (speaking and listening) because each influences the other during the course of development (Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1983; Morrow, 2005; Sulzby, 1989; Teale & Sulzby, 1986). Putting these two concepts together, Sulzby (1989) defined *emergent literacy* as "the reading and writing behaviours that precede and develop into conventional literacy" (p.84).

From the emergent literacy perspective, children's literacy acquisition is conceptualized as a developmental continuum evolving from children's earliest experiences with reading and writing, thus, children might pass through these stages in different ways and at different ages (Gunning, 2008; Lonigan, Burgess & Anthony, 2000; Teale & Sulzby, 1986; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). In this regard, Morrow (2005) and Teale & Sulzby (1986) emphasized that because the emergent literacy encompasses children at any level of literacy, literacy instruction for children should take into account such developmental variation and individual needs. For example, emergent literacy acknowledges children's letter-like scribbling on the paper as rudimentary writing which may suggest some sense of the difference between picture and letter. Similarly, it acknowledges that children's storybook reading activity such as narrating a story by looking at pictures and words is legitimate literacy behaviour although it is not conventional reading. Morrow (2005) views this concept of emergent literacy as "a child-centred approach with more emphasis on problem

solving than on direct instruction of skills” (p.12).

My study looks at young children’s emergent literacy knowledge, skills and their understandings of two different writing systems, in the belief that they have acquired a great deal of insight into the reading and writing processes before they go to school. The concept of emergent literacy provided me with a framework to explore children’s literacy development from children’s point of view. As a methodology, I set up peer teaching sessions in order to observe children in a child-directed context in which they may display and express their own knowledge, skills, experiences, and thinking whilst engaged in literacy activities in natural settings. All aspects of children’s communicative interactions around reading and writing in this context such as drawing, colouring, storytelling, behaviours, attitudes, comments and responses are all acknowledged and valued as significant sources of understanding children’s literacy development although they cannot be seen as real reading and writing in the conventional sense. In my research, ‘to what extent young children are ready to learn reading and writing?’ is not the issue, but rather ‘how do we build on what children already know?’ As Gunning (2008) wrote, “all children have begun the journey along the path that begins with language acquisition, thus, instead of asking whether they are ready, we have to find out where they are and take it from there. We must value and make use of their knowledge” (p.87). In this sense, I wanted to find out where each child is on the path that begins with literacy learning between two different scripts, and how each child makes use of their own knowledge, skills and understandings in the process of becoming literate in a foreign language context.

In sum, emergent literacy includes all aspects of children’s knowledge, skills and attitudes about reading and writing that precede conventional literacy. The aim of this thesis is to explore literacy knowledge and skills demonstrated by young children learning two different scripts, therefore, the following section discusses in detail

children's emergent knowledge and skills based on a review of the relevant literature.

2.3.3 Components of emergent literacy

Although emergent literacy researchers share the notion that young children develop literacy knowledge and skills from an early age, many different aspects of the emergence of literacy have been discussed by different researchers. The variety of interfaces within this perspective, for example, research on children's literacy environments, experiences and behaviours at home or school broaden the scope of emergent literacy (Sénéchal, LeFevre, Smith-Chant & Colton, 2001). In this section, I review some studies which have provided information on the components of emergent literacy in relation to literacy knowledge and skills.

2.3.3.1 Models of emergent literacy knowledge and skills

The components of emergent literacy have been discussed by several researchers by examining specific knowledge and skills included in the construct of emergent literacy. A number of models have been proposed regarding the components of emergent literacy and these models are similar in structure, having certain knowledge and skills. These component knowledge and skills have been classified at different points according to different researchers. For example, Whitehurst & Lonigan (1998, 2001) propose that emergent literacy consists of two distinct and interdependent sets of knowledge and skills: *inside-out* components which are associated with knowledge and skills that enable decoding, and *outside-in* components which are connected to children's understandings of the context. Regarding these two different components, the authors wrote that:

“The *inside-out* units represent sources of information within the printed word that support children’s ability to translate print into sounds and sounds into print (e.g., phonemic awareness and letter knowledge) whereas the *outside-in* units represent sources of information from outside the printed word that directly support children’s understanding of the meaning of print (e.g., vocabulary, conceptual knowledge, and story schemas” (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 2001, p.13)

For example, this model suggests that when children try to read a sentence aloud, they use *inside-out* components of the sentence itself based on their knowledge and skills about letters, sounds, punctuation or sentence grammar. However, children also need to apply knowledge and skills that cannot be found in the sentence itself at the same time. Thus they use *outside-in* elements of the concept and context in which the sentence occurred, depending on their knowledge and skills about how the sentence makes sense within that context. Whitehurst & Lonigan (1998, 2001) emphasized that these *inside-out* and *outside-in* sources of information are both essential to reading as Figure 2.1 below presents.

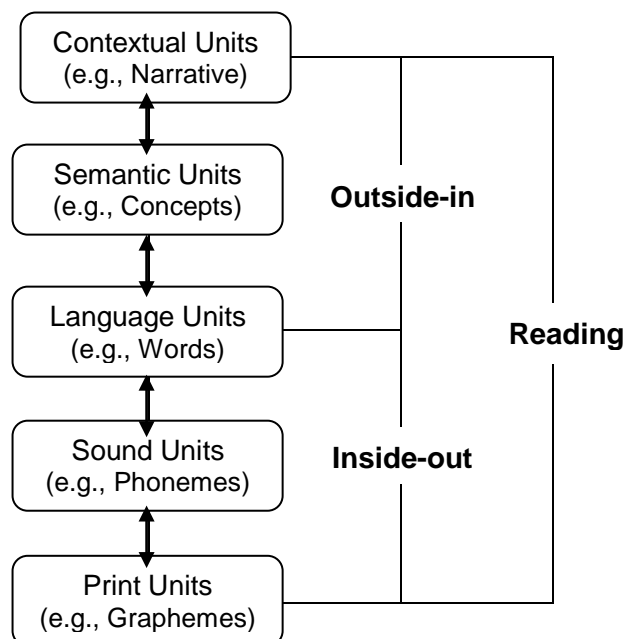


Figure 2.1: Whitehurst & Lonigan’s (1998, p.855) model of emergent literacy

The authors wrote that the bidirectional arrows in the figure represent that different units are interrelated, and each component works simultaneously in fluent readers. Although these two different domains show different developmental continuity over time when children are involved in formal reading instruction at school (for example, when the process of decoding becomes automatic, the focus of literacy instruction may switch to *outside-in* skills, which are closely related to comprehension), they wrote that *inside-out* and *outside-in* components are connected during the preschool years.

A more detailed view of the components of emergent literacy was proposed by other researchers. Whereas Whitehurst & Lonigan's (1998) model above includes both oral and written aspects of children's knowledge and skills as the components of emergent literacy, some researchers view emergent literacy as a construct which is separated from oral language. For example, Sénéchal, LeFevre, Smith-Chant & Colton (2001) simplify and clarify the components of emergent literacy by differentiating children's oral language, metalinguistic skills (awareness of language structure such as phonological awareness) and reading from the emergent literacy construct. In their classification of emergent literacy, the components are not specific to oral language or language itself. Rather, they limited the construct of emergent literacy to children's early conceptual knowledge and procedural knowledge about print. With respect to these two components, they wrote:

"Conceptual knowledge includes children's knowledge of the functions of print, their perception of themselves as readers, and so on. In contrast, *procedural knowledge* includes children's knowledge about the mechanics of reading and writing such as letter-name and letter-sound knowledge" (Sénéchal, LeFevre, Smith-Chant & Colton, 2001, p.448)

According to this view, the two different components are interrelated with each other, but each component has different relations with oral language, metalinguistic skills and reading. For example, children's conceptual knowledge such as print concepts

is related with oral language whereas children's procedural knowledge such as letter knowledge or blending plays an important role in the development of conventional reading. As such, in their narrow definition of emergent literacy, which focuses on early conceptual and procedural knowledge about reading and writing, the components of emergent literacy are viewed as an independent construct which interacts with other constructs.

In a similar vein, Purcell-Gates (2001) also argues that oral language and written language serve different purposes, suggesting that emergent literacy is best viewed when it is considered separately from oral language. She notes that the aspects of oral language within the perspective of emergent literacy should be relevant only to the degree to which they promote the development of written language knowledge and skills. Regarding this point, she wrote:

“[...] concerns with oral language proficiency within the inquiry frame of emergent literacy should be approached from the written language proficiency perspective. Oral language, in and of itself, is not directly relevant to the study of emergent literacy, I contend. Rather, its appropriate inclusion as a piece of emergent literacy research is as an artefact of the ways in which emerging knowledge of written language has influenced oral language” (Purcell-Gates, 2001, p.8)

However, although she shares with Sénéchal et al. (2001) the notion that emergent literacy is a different construct from oral language, she dissented from their idea that 'language' should be taken out of the components of emergent literacy. In contrast to Sénéchal et al. (2001), Purcell-Gates (2001) made a strong argument that emergent literacy and language are closely related, and written language must be retained as key to emergent literacy knowledge and skills. She emphasized that:

“Emergent literacy is the development of the ability to read and write written texts, and written texts are constituted by written language. Thus it makes no sense to take the language out of the emergent part of literacy”

(Purcell-Gates, 2001, p.8)

Accordingly, her model of emergent literacy is centred at written language as Figure 2.2 shows. Three different levels of components in relation to knowledge and skills of written language (print/speech relationships, natures and forms of written language, and cultural view and functions of written language) are displayed in her model. The components of each circle suggest that young children develop literacy knowledge and skills through experiences of written language in their lives, highlighting that each component is related each other and emergent literacy and written language are not separate components.

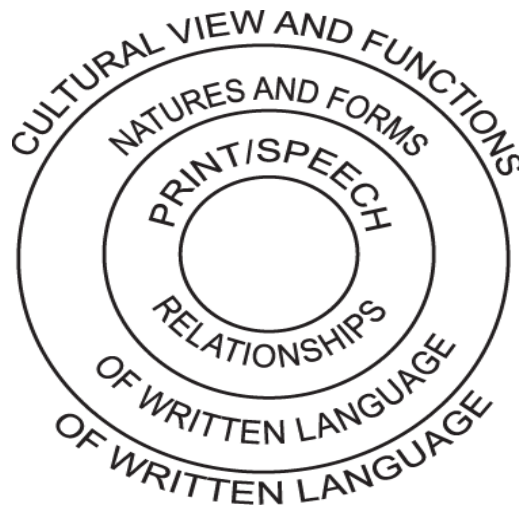


Figure 2.2: Purcell-Gates' (2001, p.9) model of emergent literacy

In summary, although the models of the components of emergent literacy so far reviewed share ideas in the number of components such as knowledge and skills in relation to letter-sound relationships, they broadly differ in the following two issues: 1) whether the components of emergent literacy should differentiate between oral language and written language, and 2) whether emergent literacy and language are separable constructs. Regarding these two issues, my study is line with Purcell-Gates' (2001) model, namely that emergent literacy is best viewed as a construct separated from oral language, and language (written language) is an

important factor in the development of children’s reading and writing abilities. Although children’s oral language around reading and writing in the peer teaching setting is valued in my research, it is considered as a source of understanding the development of literacy in relation to written language. This thesis also attempts to contribute to the area of emergent literacy extending to young children learning two different writing systems Hangul and English on the basis that emergent literacy and language are not separate constructs.

In the following section, I review a more specific model of literacy knowledge and skills which is suggested by Cameron (2001). I incorporate this framework into my study because it includes the two issues above - it focuses on written language, and considers language as one of the factors affecting literacy development. In addition, her model expands the view of the components of literacy by providing many different levels of information included in the process of developing literacy knowledge and skills. The next section reviews her framework in more detail.

2.3.3.2 Cameron’s framework on literacy knowledge and skills

Cameron (2001) draws an analogy between a text read by a reader and the earth seen by satellite as Figure 2.3 shows below.

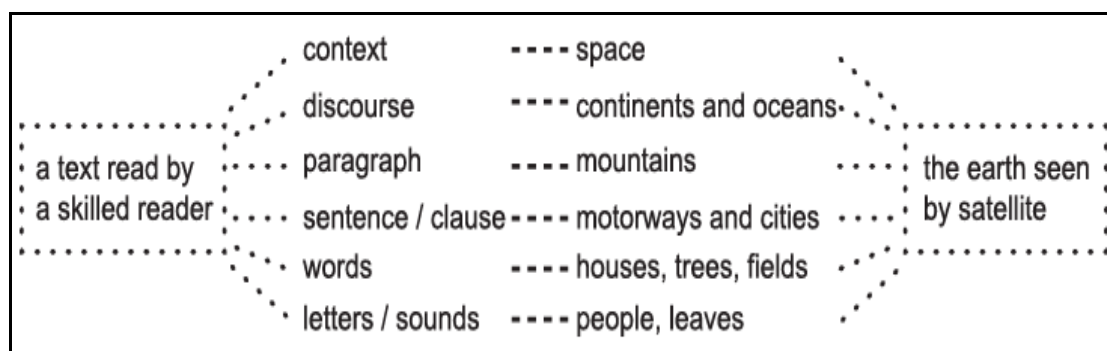


Figure 2.3: Many scales of reading a text in analogy with the satellite view of the Earth (Cameron, 2001, p.128)

To understand the earth, a satellite searches for different types of information such as oceans, mountains, houses and people. Likewise, to really understand a written text, a reader needs to get different levels of information including context, text, paragraph, sentence, words, morphemes, syllables and letters. She wrote that skilled readers and writers can extract knowledge and skills from different sources of information available in a text, and the integration of such information at different scales leads to successful literacy. Therefore, in the process of becoming skilled readers and writers, young children also need to develop literacy knowledge and skills by using various levels of information. Cameron (2001) wrote:

“What is clear, is that children need to progress within each scale or level, and need to practice integrating across the levels or scales. Just exposing children to one scale, e.g. learning lots of words by sight, or learning to sound out letters, may get them started, but to become skilled readers and writers they need to master techniques for using all the information available in a text” (Cameron, 2001, p.134)

This is one of the points that I want to address: how young children develop knowledge and skills at different levels. We know what knowledge and skills are good for children’s literacy development but little about what children already know and how they make use of different types of information between two different writing systems, particularly for Hangul and English. Based on Cameron’s (2001) framework presented in Figure 2.4, this thesis therefore looks at Korean EFL children’s literacy knowledge and skills used to extract different levels of information. The following figure shows Cameron’s (2001) framework of literacy knowledge and skills.

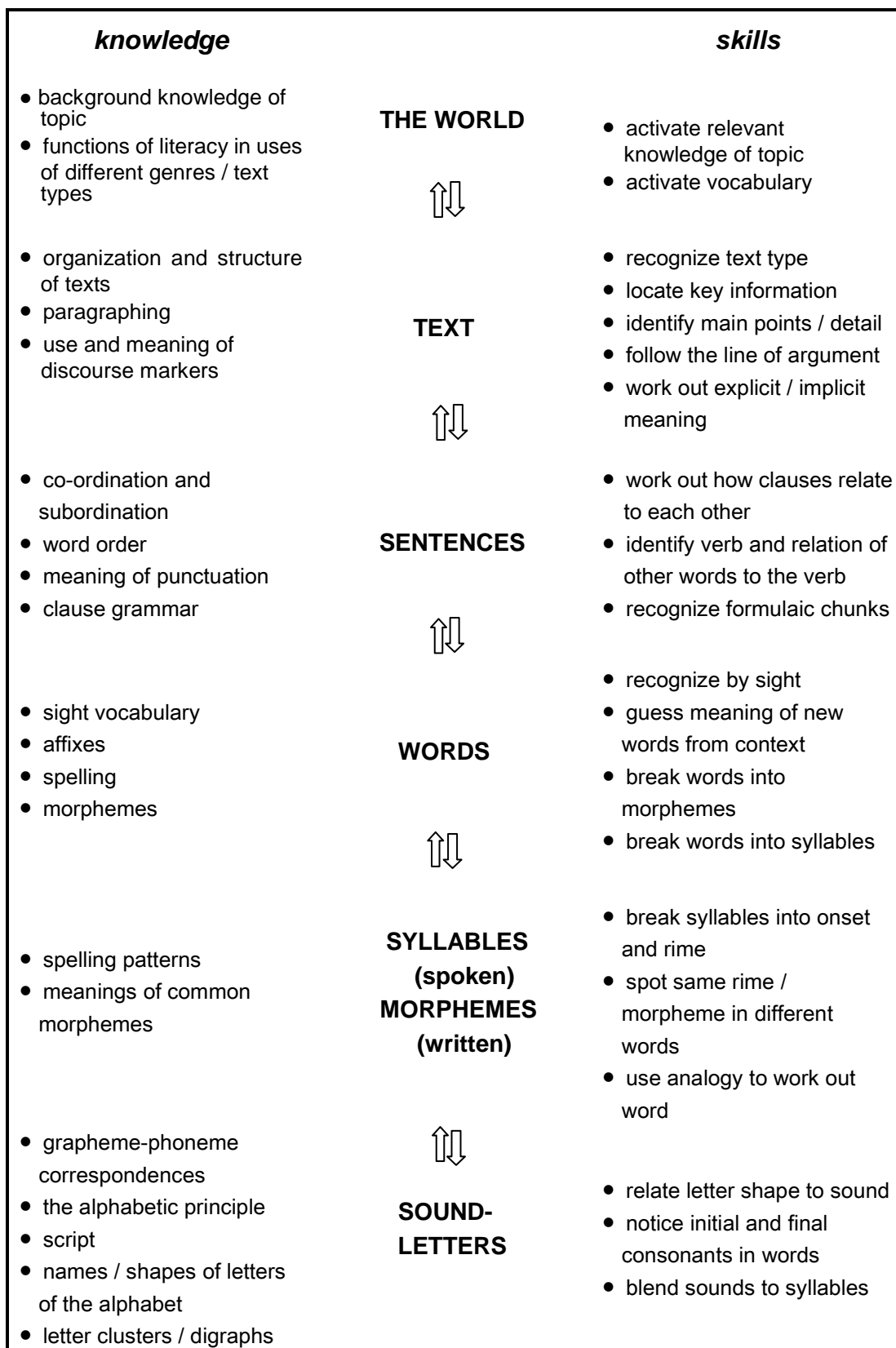


Figure 2.4: Cameron's (2001, p.135) framework of literacy knowledge and skills

In relation to some levels of information suggested by Cameron (2001), relevant studies on children's literacy development are reviewed in the following.

- **The world (context):** Skilled readers and writers are able to use not only the information inside the text but also from their own world, such as previous knowledge of topic (Cameron, 2001). Several studies have shown that children are also able to use background knowledge, and their prior knowledge of topic makes contributions on reading comprehension of the text concerning the topic. The effect of background knowledge on reading comprehension of children was investigated in L1 (Adams, Bell & Perfetti, 1995; Lipson, 1982; Pearson, Hansen & Gordon, 1979; Stahl et al., 1991; Stevens, 1980), L2 (Levine & Haus, 1985; Reynolds et al., 1982; Steffensen, 1987) and English as an additional language (Burgoyne, Whiteley & Hutchinson, 2013). For example, Droop & Verhoeven (1998) examined the role of cultural background knowledge on first and second language reading comprehension of third graders with a Dutch background, and they found that cultural familiarity makes contributions to children's reading fluency and reading comprehension. However, most of these studies concern primary school children who started formal instruction at school. Although young children's background knowledge is often incomplete or inaccurate (Cameron, 2001), this study is concerned with whether young preschool children are able to use their own background knowledge of topic in each script, and how they activate such knowledge in order to construct meaning.
- **Text:** With respect to skilled readers' knowledge and skills of discourse organization of text, Cameron (2001) wrote that "they know where important information will be found, and they can thus direct their attention efficiently, focusing in on key passages and skipping more lightly over passages with less important information" (p.129). Young children's early awareness of text organization has also been shown in Kenner's (1999) research with three-and

four-year-olds in a multilingual nursery class. Her research showed that the children were able to produce different texts including recipes, stories, cards, letters and posters, paying attention to the written presentation and the visual arrangement in each text. This raises the question of how six-year-old children in my study would show their awareness of certain texts, based on the fact that three-and four-year-olds children are aware of text organization. A further question is how it would be different from the findings from Kenner's (1999) work. These questions are some of motivators to explore children's literacy knowledge and skills in this thesis.

- **Sentences:** According to Cameron's (2001) framework, skilled readers' knowledge of sentences includes knowing meaning of punctuation. Children's knowledge of punctuation marks has been found in some studies which have looked closely at how children deal with punctuation marks in a sentence. For example, De Gões & Martlew (1983) explored how young children between five and six understand the use of the full stop whereas Edelsky (1983) and Cazden, Cordeiro & Giacobbe (1985) analyzed children's unconventional punctuation, suggesting that children's early invented punctuation indicates their active involvement in the process of becoming literate. Children's development of knowledge of punctuation marks across ages has also shown in several studies (Cordeiro, Giacobbe & Cazden, 1983; Ferreiro & Pontecorvo, 1999; Ferreiro & Zucchermaglio, 1996; Hall, 1999; Hall & Sing, 2011). In Ferreiro & Pontecorvo's (1999) research, for example, most primary school children from grades 1 to 4 knew where to place punctuation marks in their early writing in spite of language differences (Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian), and some children were even able to distinguish the function of punctuation marks for different text types (narrative and reported speech). These studies provided evidence that children are able to grasp main functions of some punctuation marks as they mature.

- **Morphemes:** The morpheme refers to “a visual unit, a part of a word that carries a meaning through its form, i.e. a grammatical unit of meaning” (Cameron, 2001, p.131). Children’s abilities to identify morphemes have been shown in several studies (Deacon & Bryant, 2005; Hao et al., 2013; McBride-Chang et al., 2003; Wang, Cheng & Chen, 2006), and some of these studies have discussed early morphological awareness of children learning logographic languages such as Chinese in which one character represents a single morpheme. For example, Hao et al. (2013) explored morphological awareness of Chinese children between kindergarten and Grade 3, focusing on homophone awareness. They found that Chinese children’s ability to identify morphemes emerges from the preschool years and keeps developing into the school years. McBride-Chang et al. (2003) have also reported findings which suggest that morphological awareness plays an important role in children’s early Chinese character recognition. In their research, kindergarten and Grade 2 Chinese children were given morphological awareness tasks along with other reading related tasks such as phonological awareness and vocabulary, and they found that morphological awareness is uniquely significant in early Chinese acquisition. The Korean alphabet Hangeul shares some characteristics with Chinese in that morphemes appear at the syllable level, therefore, the current study might explain whether written features of language affect developing children’s literacy knowledge and skills in terms of morphological awareness.

Although Cameron’s (2001) framework identifies knowledge and skills needed to be literate in English, the different levels of information from her model also add to an understanding of literacy development of young children learning other languages. Here, I would like to argue that more studies on emergent literacy with children learning other writing systems are required in order to fully understand what aspects of written language are related to what aspects of their reading and writing development. In this regard, Whitehurst & Lonigan (1998) pointed out:

“The majority of research on emergent literacy has been conducted with English-speaking children learning an alphabetic writing system. Consequently, the extent to which these concepts of emergent literacy extend to children learning other writing systems or languages other than English is not clear” (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998, p.849)

In my research I explore this issue with young children who are learning the Korean alphabet Hangeul (L1) and English (L2) at the same time. Having considered language as one of the factors affect children’s literacy development, the second area of this thesis - early script learning - is reviewed in the next chapter.

2.4 Summary

In this study, I decided to explore Korean children’s literacy knowledge and skills along with their understandings of Hangeul and English in a foreign language context. I chose to ground my work in a sociocultural framework and the concept of emergent literacy, which suggest that children are active language users who can construct meaning in their literacy learning. My review of the literature in relation to sociocultural framework and emergent literacy, and their relation to my study can be summed up as follows:

- Based on a sociocultural approach which assumes that young learners are active participants who find the world themselves in the process of constructing meaning within sociocultural context, this study view young children as active language users who construct their own ideas or theories in their literacy learning, having great insights into reading and writing.
- The emergent literacy perspective sees children’s literacy acquisition as a developmental continuum evolving from their earliest experiences with reading and writing.

- Some studies have provided emergent literacy models in relation to literacy knowledge and skills components, and this study is in line with the notion that written language is a significant factor in children's literacy development.
- This study looks at how young children make use of different types of information in Hangul and English based on Cameron's (2001) framework, which suggests various levels of information that young children might develop in the process of becoming skilled readers and writers.

3. Literature Review II: Early script learning

The purpose of this chapter is to provide theoretical grounds for understanding children's script learning in different languages and scripts. Many children are learning how to read and write in two different writing systems from an early age, so their awareness of different scripts needs to be taken into account in order to understand their literacy acquisition. This chapter first reviews research that has studied children's awareness of alphabetic scripts as well as non-alphabetic scripts in a monolingual context. I then review some issues associated with bilingual and multilingual children's script learning in various contexts across languages. The review continues with relevant studies on children's understandings of different scripts, and it ends with presenting gaps in existing research in order to describe the rationale for my research.

3.1 Children's script learning in a monolingual context

Most studies of early script learning for children have been investigated with monolingual young learners focusing on one particular language system. In this section, I will discuss how young children are aware of certain writing systems in a monolingual context. This includes children's early awareness of alphabet scripts as well as their understandings of non-alphabetic scripts such as Chinese and Japanese.

3.1.1 Children's awareness of alphabetic scripts

This section covers research into children's acquisition of a writing system, in particular, their knowledge of some characteristics of alphabetic script since one of

the aims of this study is to explore how young children are aware of the similarities and differences between two different alphabetic scripts.

Research that has looked at early awareness of alphabetic scripts seems to be divided about sequential learning of writing features, specifically the positions are:

- There is a developmental sequence in children's alphabet writing, and children's acquisition of certain features of a writing system takes place in a linear sequence (Clay, 1975; Estes & Richards, 2002; Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1983; Fox & Saracho, 1990; Gill, 1980; Henderson & Templeton, 1986; Kellogg, 1970; Porpodas, 1989; Puranik & Lonigan, 2011; Saracho, 1990; Sulzby, Barnhart & Hieshima, 1988; Tolchinsky-Landsmann & Levin, 1985, 1987; Yang, 2005; Yang & Noel, 2006);
- Children do not understand the nature of alphabetic writing in sequential steps, instead, they are aware of some features of writing in a unified manner (Bialystok, 1991; Gombert & Fayol, 1992; Goodman & Goodman, 1979; Hiebert, 1981; Smith, 1976; Treiman et al., 2007).

Below I present a review of studies which elaborate the above two opposing perspectives in various alphabetic languages.

Research on monolingual children's awareness of script mostly focuses on English, written in the Roman alphabet used for most European languages. Many researchers investigating English have found evidence suggesting that young children already possess some awareness of an alphabetic script before they learn to read and write (Dooley & Matthews, 2009; Lancaster, 2001, 2007; Morrow, 2005; Otto, 2008; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998, 2001). For example, in Lancaster's (2007) research, monolingual children under three years old living in Britain had already explored the principles underlying English. She investigated graphic signs made by children related to their personal meaning and a writing system from analysis of

children's mark-making: drawing, writing and number. Her findings show that the children were able to use graphic marks such as signs and texts in intentional ways, and the types of children's marks provided evidence of reflecting regularities associated with systems of writing. She concludes that young children start to explore the principles underlying writing systems from a very early age.

Studies concerning English also include the developmental sequence of children's alphabet writing by an analysis of children's emergent writing samples from drawing to conventional spelling. Regarding learning to read and write an alphabetic orthography like English, Saracho (1990) wrote that:

“Skills in writing help children to determine the difference between print and non-print, to learn specific writing features, to learn to write, to know and to understand the letters of the alphabet, and to learn transactions in writing such as left to right progression, top to bottom, upper- and lower-case letters, and punctuation. Young children's writing ability required them to know more than just making marks on a page” (Saracho, 1990, p.1)

A number of studies provide evidence that young children start to practice and develop those abilities at an early age, showing developmental continuity in alphabet writing (Clay, 1975; Fox & Saracho, 1990; Kellogg, 1970; Saracho, 1990; Sulzby, Barnhart & Hieshima, 1988; Yang & Noel, 2006). For instance, Fox and Saracho's (1990) research shows how young children between three and five are engaged in distinguishing between pictures and print, and finally understand the principle of alphabetic writing by an analysis of their emergent writing samples. In their research, children's awareness of the features of alphabetic writing was beginning to emerge through picture-print differentiation, cursive-like writing, and the inclusion of a capital letter or the initial consonant before gaining insight into the appropriate use of English writing. Similarly, Saracho (1990) analyzed 50 three-year-old children's writing samples after asking them to write their name, and she divided children's emergent writing into five levels: “scribbling, horizontal scribbling, discrete units,

letters and correct spelling” (p.3), whilst Sulzby and her colleagues (1988) described five common forms of kindergarten children’s writing including “scribble, drawing, non-phonetic letter strings, phonetic or invented spelling, and conventional orthography” (p.1). These studies regarding developmental knowledge of an English orthography suggest that there is considerable progress following certain stages in children’s emergent writing before formal schooling, and such symbolic representations produced by children show their awareness of a writing system.

Developmental changes in monolingual children’s early awareness of script were also shown in other alphabetic languages. These include Ferreiro & Teberosky’s (1983) findings on Spanish, and Tolchinsky-Landsmann & Levin’s (1985, 1987) research on Hebrew. Here, it is important to note that these studies report more detailed and specified findings for the linear progression in young children’s acquisition of some features of a writing system. That is, children begin to be aware of general features of writing, which are common to all writing systems before they develop understandings of specific features that may vary across languages. Findings from Tolchinsky- Landsmann & Levin’s (1985) study which looked at Israeli children’s early awareness of the Hebrew written system support this notion. The Hebrew script has features in common with the Roman alphabet in terms of linearity, units, blanks and size, but differs in the direction of reading and writing. They found that early awareness of the characteristics of the Hebrew script which are common to other alphabetic scripts such as linearity and regularity of blanks appeared in children’s writing by the age of four. On the other hand, their knowledge of specific features which characterize the Hebrew script such as right to left direction was demonstrated from five years on. Other researchers (Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1983; Puranik & Lonigan, 2011) agree with this perspective and suggest that young children possess knowledge of both general and specific writing features for a particular writing system, but they master specific writing features later. One of the authors is Puranik & Lonigan (2011) who examined whether American preschoolers

aged between 3 and 5 demonstrate their awareness of written language in a linear or a holistic manner through emergent writing tasks. They found that children's acquisition of the alphabetic nature of English is linear by beginning to display some general features of a writing system such as linearity and segmentation. These findings so far are in line with Tolchinsky's (2003) *differentiation hypothesis*, which predicts that young children begin to develop universal features before displaying language specific features. In this regard, Puranik & Lonigan (2011) wrote that:

"Universal features include characteristics of writing such as linearity (writing units / marks are organized in straight lines), discreteness (segmentation), and lack of iconicity (writing units are abstract) whereas *language-specific features* include directionality, symbol shapes, and spacing between words. Once children have an understanding of the symbolic nature of writing, it is easier for them to learn about the specific visual features of the writing systems to which they are exposed" (Puranik & Lonigan, 2011, p.2)

Further evidence for sequential stages in children's script learning comes from several studies, suggesting that children acquire alphabetic features first, and then abstract orthographic knowledge later. These studies argue that children learn pattern and meaning features later after mastering sound-letter correspondence. Examples of these include the work for English (Henderson & Templeton, 1986), Spanish (Estes & Richards, 2002), French (Gill, 1980), Greek (Porpodas, 1989) and Korean (Yang, 2005). The findings from Yang (2005) exemplify this view in that there is the developmental progression in Korean monolingual children's awareness of orthographic knowledge. The Korean alphabet Hangul shares some similarities with other alphabetic orthographies, but has unique phonological and orthographic features (explained earlier in Chapter 1). In her research, 429 Korean primary children in grades 1 to 6 were given a spelling test for 14 orthographic features of Hangul in order to explore if the developmental patterns do exist in their acquisition of Hangul. The results have shown that "Korean children learn the alphabetic

features of Hangul first, and then pattern features, and meaning features later. The lexical aspects of meaning features seemed to be learned the last” (Yang, 2005, p.190). Another finding is that Korean children appeared to learn alphabetic features earlier than English-speaking children. For example, in her research, the first grade children already had considerable knowledge of alphabetic features of Hangul. However, although she concluded that the advantages of shallow orthography (See Section 3.2.2) and the unique orthographic characteristics of Hangul may contribute to Korean children’s early mastery of alphabetic features, these findings cannot fully explain when and how orthographic development occurs before the first grade level, until they master alphabetic features. Regarding this limitation, the author wrote that:

“[...] from the very beginning of the elementary grades, Korean children already have sufficient phoneme awareness skill and alphabetic knowledge to correctly represent most alphabetic features of Hangul and produce phonetically correct spellings. Because first grade-level children displayed almost mastery skills in spelling alphabetic features, my data could not show when and how the learning occurs in alphabetic features” (Yang, 2005, p.159)

As pointed out by the researcher, the limitation suggests the importance of exploring orthographic knowledge among Korean young children who have not reached the first grade level in order to yield a better understanding of their early acquisition of alphabetic scripts. This is one of the points I want to explore in this thesis.

In contrast to the perspective that children’s written language awareness develops in a particular order, other researchers believe that there is no linear sequence in children’s acquisition of alphabetic features. Instead, they argue that young children acquire certain features in a unified manner depending on their experiences with written print. As described above, this notion does not support Tolchinsky’s (2003) *differentiation hypothesis* in that children’s knowledge of language specific characteristics emerges later than knowledge of universal features of writing. This is

evident in Gombert & Fayol's (1992) research with French speaking children. They found that some 3-year-old children were able to produce graphics, displaying not only universal features of writing but also language specific features. For example, children's ability to differentiate writing from drawing appeared in their emergent writing along with their early awareness of linearity, directionality, and regular spaces between letters and words. The authors concluded that although children's emergent writing shows some developmental characteristics with age, young children may develop both general and specific features of writing simultaneously. In a similar vein, the study of Treiman et al. (2007) provides evidence that young American children between the ages of 3 and 4 are knowledgeable about the language specific properties (letter shapes, directionality, orientation of print) as well as the universal features (linearity) that apply to an English orthography. For instance, the children were able to distinguish the shapes of Latin letters from non-Latin symbols, and they knew about the horizontal arrangement of English names from an early age. As the authors wrote, "children may thus focus on the visual characteristics of writing, learning first about those characteristics that are visually salient and that attract attention" (Treiman et al., 2007, pp.1469-1470).

Regardless of whether there is linear progression or not in young children's acquisition of an alphabetic script, these two different perspectives provide instructional value to educators in literacy education. In this regard, Puranik & Lonigan (2011) wrote that:

"Understanding whether writing features are learned in a linear or unified manner has implications for developing instructional models of emergent writing, perhaps leading to more precise theoretical models of emergent writing" (Puranik & Lonigan, 2011, p.3)

Another aspect which all the above studies agree upon is that certain kinds of awareness of a writing system are acquired very early, and as Gombert & Fayol

(1992) wrote, “young children’s conception of writing is more elaborate than what they can exhibit via their own ‘writing’” (p.39). Therefore, more studies examining more about certain abilities and knowledge of a writing system that young children possess will be necessary in order to increase our knowledge of children’s literacy learning. In my research I explored these matters in more depth to broaden an understanding of how young children think and negotiate their worlds in which they face different writing systems.

Having considered children’s awareness of alphabetic scripts so far, the following section moves on to present findings from the literature regarding monolingual children’s early awareness of non-alphabetic scripts.

3.1.2 Children’s awareness of non-alphabetic scripts

Children’s awareness of scripts has also become clear in learning a non-alphabetic script, Chinese. The Chinese writing system is an ideographic script in which symbols represent ideas, and the relation between the symbol and sound is opaque: symbols give no cues to pronunciation (Chan & Nunes, 1998; Ellis et al., 2004). Unlike alphabetic languages, a single character represents one morpheme in Chinese, hence Chinese children need to learn the relation between morphological and orthographic knowledge for a large number of characters (Nag, 2007; Shu et al., 2003). Shu et al. (2003) reported that Chinese children are required to master 2,570 characters by Grade 6. Regarding learning this Chinese script, Baroni (2011) wrote that “it takes several years for Chinese children to master the basic graphic system, and the knowledge of a larger number of characters is a lifelong learning process” (p.132). However, Chan & Nunes (1998) showed how monolingual Chinese children aged between 4 and 9 develop their awareness of the Chinese script like children who are learning an alphabetic script. In learning the written Chinese, children need

to know both formal characteristics and functional characteristics of Chinese. About these characteristics, the authors wrote that “the formal characteristics involve the type and position of the elements used in the script, whereas the functional characteristics relate to the type of information the elements convey” (Chan & Nunes, 1998, p.116). They found that the young Chinese children have an ability to distinguish non-words from formal characters, and in order to represent their own meaning, they can make use of semantic and phonological strategies. The research concluded that Chinese children are aware of the underlying rules of Chinese script at an early age, and learning to read and write the Chinese script is not simply acquired by memorization or repetition of individual Chinese characters. The authors discuss instructional implications suggesting that:

“The findings challenge the present learning theory implicit in the methods for teaching written Chinese, which emphasize the repetition and memorization of individual characters. We need to investigate new approaches in reading instruction - approaches that would promote children’s awareness of the advantages of using both semantic and phonological strategies in reading and writing, instead of those that leave entirely to children the task of constructing these more general schemas” (Chan & Nunes, 1998, pp.130-131)

Like alphabetic scripts, developmental trend of Chinese children’s orthographic knowledge was also shown in Shen & Bear’s (2000) research. They analyzed invented spellings collected from writing samples and spelling tests of Chinese children between first and sixth grades, and they found linear progression in children’s use of spelling strategies. For instance, the use of phonological knowledge is dominant among the children at the lower level, but as grade level advances, children demonstrate an increasing knowledge beyond the mere sound-letter relationships - for example, their use of graphemic and semantic strategies gradually increases. As has been seen in the previous studies on alphabetic scripts described earlier, this pattern of the orthographic development of Chinese children follows a

similar developmental progression to children using alphabetic languages: children learn from alphabetic knowledge to pattern and meaning features. These suggest that regardless of alphabetic or non-alphabetic scripts, certain developmental trends exist in children's script learning.

The Japanese writing system is another non-alphabetic script, but unlike Chinese, Japanese children have to learn three different systems: "the *kanji* series (Chinese characters with an ideo/logographic function), *hiragana* (syllabograms: a symbol represents a syllable) and *katakana* (syllabograms used mainly for foreign words)" (Baroni, 2011, p.132). Akita & Hatano (1999) investigated children's awareness of the script in learning the Japanese script which is composed of these three kinds of letters. Regarding characteristics of Japanese orthographies, the authors wrote that "*hiragana* is mostly used for function words and inflectional affixes, *katakana* is typically used for words of foreign origin and onomatopoeic expressions, and *kanji* is usually written for nouns, verb, and adjective stems" (Akita & Hatano, 1999, p.214). The research found that Japanese children's awareness of the script is very similar to that of children who are learning the English alphabet. For example, young Japanese children in their study were able to distinguish between Japanese writing and drawing from an early stage. Then they gradually started to distinguish between hiragana, katakana, kanji and Arabic numerals, and finally acquired certain linguistic rules such as morphological knowledge and advanced phonological awareness. The results have shown that young Japanese children are able to discover certain orthographic rules for themselves before formal instruction, and the developmental awareness of learning Japanese script has some cognitive processes in common with that for learning to read and write alphabetic scripts.

In sum, the review of the studies looking at monolingual children's awareness of scripts across various languages strengthens the notion that children learning different languages behave in fundamentally similar ways, and they do not simply

learn a certain writing system by memorizing each alphabet or character through formal education. Instead, they are very aware of the fundamental rules of a script before entering school, and they gradually develop them.

In this study, children's awareness of scripts, in particular, their understanding of different writing systems is investigated. The following sections discuss how young children deal with different scripts based on a review of the literature related to bilingual or multilingual contexts.

3.2 Children's script learning in bilingual or multilingual contexts

Studies on bilingual young learners' script learning continue to grow since a large number of children are learning to read and write in more than one writing system in diverse contexts (Kenner et al., 2004). As Gort (2012) wrote, children negotiate two or more worlds which are presented by different writing systems. In this section, I present key issues in early script learning in bilingual or multilingual contexts. Recent studies looking at children's script learning across languages are mostly in agreement on the following points:

- Written code-switching between two scripts can occur in children's writing like code-switching in spoken communication (Gort, 2006, 2012; Kenner, 1999, 2004; Lara, 1989; Mor-Sommerfeld, 2002);
- Orthographic complexity might affect bilingual children's script learning (Asfaha, Kurvers & Kroon, 2009; Ellis & Hooper, 2001; Ellis et al., 2004; Estes & Richards, 2002; Geva & Siegel, 2000; Goswami, Porpodas & Wheelwright, 1997; Katz & Frost, 1992; Nag, 2007; Seymour, Aro & Erskine, 2003; Wimmer & Goswami, 1994; Winkler & Widjaja, 2007; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005, 2006);
- Phonological awareness is a significant predictor of children's literacy

development across scripts (Chiappe, Glaeser & Ferko, 2007; Cho & Lee, 2004; Furnes & Samuelsson, 2009; Han & Lee, 2003; Kang, 2009; Kim, 2009; Pae, Sevcik & Morris, 2010; Park & Jeong, 2005; Veii & Everatt, 2005; Wang, Park & Lee, 2006).

I describe each issue in more detail in the following sections.

3.2.1 Written code-switching

Some studies have centred on written code-switching across scripts in bilingual children's writing. Code-switching refers to "the mixing of two languages which can occur at the word, phrase, clause, or sentence level" (Mor-Sommerfeld, 2002, p.100), and it is "the most distinctive behaviour of bilingual speakers and an important component of the communicative competence of proficient bilinguals" (Gort, 2012, p.46). Regarding children's code-switching, Lara (1989) wrote that code-switching may reflect lexical need as well as a social function of languages, for example, children sometimes use code-switching to repeat, emphasize, interject, or express personal feelings. Although most studies on code-switching have been associated with bilingual children's spoken ability rather than written work or writing process, Gort (2006, 2012), Kenner (1999, 2004), and Mor-Sommerfeld (2002) insisted that written switching between two languages can also occur when children are engaged in writing activities like code-switching in spoken communication.

Bilingual children's strategic written code-switching was found in Gort's (2006, 2012) studies conducted in the USA with first-grade Spanish-English bilingual children. Her research (2006) shows how the children aged between six and seven make use of both languages when composing texts with considerable lexical code-switches. In her research, the children were able to apply their full knowledge of L1 (Spanish) such as linguistic elements or print conventions to L2 (English) in order to express

themselves. One interesting finding of the study is that children's lexical code-switching generally appeared from Spanish (L1) to English (L2) rather than from English (L2) to Spanish (L1) in their writing. Gort (2006, 2012) concluded that young writers' diverse patterns of 'integrated hybrid language' between two languages are the evidence of children's simultaneous experiences in different languages, and they are affected by each child's language dominance (the relative strength of L1 and L2), a particular linguistic context as well as children's bilingual development.

In a similar study, Mor-Sommerfeld (2002) explained children's writing development between Hebrew and English by analyzing a range of writing samples from L1 Hebrew children who are in the early stages of learning English (L2). The examples show how the children between the ages of 6 and 8 deal with two different scripts in a creative way in their writing process. The children in her study were able to use the knowledge on the different directions of writing Hebrew and English, phonological awareness in both languages, bridging letters between words, and even metalinguistic awareness of changing from singular to plural forms both in Hebrew and English. Mor-Sommerfeld (2002) defined these creative and metalinguistic elements between two scripts as 'language mosaic' which refers to "children's written conversation or a dialogue between the language they already know (and are still developing) and the language that they are acquiring (and developing)" (p.104). She argues that children's learning in two writing systems enable children to consider their first language in a new way, and their creative act across languages is incorporated with their own ideas, beliefs, understanding and experience. These studies related to children's written code-switching see children's new invented language between two scripts as 'strategy' (Gort, 2006, 2012), 'creativity' (Mor-Sommerfeld, 2002) or 'integration' (Kenner, 1999, 2004).

3.2.2 The complexity of writing systems

Research into bilingual children's script learning also includes the script level. Most studies on the script level argue that the complexity of writing systems may affect children's literacy acquisition. For example, research on two different levels of scripts involving a syllabic based script and a phoneme level system of Latin orthography was conducted by Asfaha, Kurvers & Kroon (2009). In their research, four African languages - Tigrinya and Tigre (syllabic Ge'ez scripts) and Kunama and Saho (alphabetic Latin scripts) - are compared. Grade 1 children's early reading and writing skills in each script were compared, and the results of letter knowledge, word reading, and spelling tasks show that the children who learned how to read and write the syllable based Ge'ez script showed better results in word reading and spelling than the children who learned a phoneme-based alphabetic Latin script. The research concluded that "the advantages of syllable based reading, which is easy to access and blend syllables mainly affect the beginning stages of learning to read and spell" (Asfaha, Kurvers & Kroon, 2009, pp.721-722). They attributed these findings to a *psycholinguistic grain size theory* proposed by Ziegler & Goswami (2005). This theory predicts that beginning readers who are learning different orthographies might be faced with three main problems derived from the complexity of writing systems - *availability*, *consistency*, and *granularity* of spelling-to-sound mappings as follows:

"The *availability* problem reflects the fact that not all phonological units are consciously (explicitly) accessible. The *consistency* problem refers to the problem that some orthographic units have multiple pronunciations and that some phonological units have multiple spellings. Finally, the *granularity* problem reflects the fact that there are many more orthographic units to learn when access to the phonological system is based on bigger grain sizes as opposed to smaller grain sizes (e.g., there are more words than there are syllables, more syllables than there are rimes)" (Ziegler & Goswami, 2005, p.3)

More studies support this notion by discussing these three features across languages (Nag, 2007; Winskel & Widjaja, 2007), for example, Nag's (2007) research discusses the impact of granularity by comparing English to Kannada (an Indian alphasyllabary script called Akshara). However, it is worth noting that there is little research on non-alphabetic scripts about these problems. Regarding this matter, Asfaha, Kurvers & Kroon (2009) pointed out that "the application of the psycholinguistic grain size theory in learning non-alphabetic orthographies has been very rare" (p.710). Accordingly, much more studies examining a wider range of scripts would provide a greater understanding of certain problems that young children might face in the process of learning two different languages. In addition, more cross-linguistic studies would enable an examination of the relative importance of each feature (problem) depending on some characteristics of each script. In this respect, I wanted to focus on children learning to read and write English (the Roman alphabet) whose L1 is Hangul, which is a unique script having both alphabetic and non-alphabetic (logographic and syllabic) characteristics.

With respect to the complexity of writing systems, many researchers have discussed orthographic differences between L1 and L2 based on the Orthographic Depth Hypothesis (Katz & Frost, 1992), representing more transparent orthographies and less transparent orthographies in terms of grapheme-phoneme correspondences. According to this hypothesis, Finnish, Turkish, Spanish, Greek, Serbo-Croatian, and the Korean alphabet Hangul can be referred to as shallow orthographies, which are phonologically regular, whereas English, French, Arabic and Hebrew are deep orthographies in which letter-sound relationship is relatively irregular (Koda, 1999). Chinese and Japanese are seen as very opaque orthographies because they are not alphabetic scripts (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). A number of studies give evidence that children's literacy acquisition in transparent orthographies is more rapid than in opaque orthographies by comparing a wide range of European languages with English. These studies include German-English (Wimmer & Goswami, 1994),

Greek-English (Goswami, Porpodas & Wheelwright, 1997), Hebrew-English (Geva & Siegel, 2000), Spanish-English (Estes & Richards, 2002), and Welsh-English (Ellis & Hooper, 2001). For example, the rate of reading acquisition in a transparent Welsh orthography and a less transparent English orthography was compared by Ellis & Hooper (2001). They compared 20 English-educated monolingual children with 20 Welsh-educated bilingual children in order to examine reading aloud accuracy, reading aloud latency, reading comprehension, and reading errors in each language. The key finding of the study was that Welsh children read aloud the written words in Welsh better than English children reading the English words. The authors concluded that “the difference is a result of the orthographic transparency of Welsh and the orthographic ambiguities of English” (Ellis & Hooper, 2001, p.586). Seymour, Aro & Erskine (2003) extended the comparison of the effect of the orthographic depth on the reading acquisition of Grade 1 and 2 children among 13 European languages including simple syllable structure languages (Finnish, Greek, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French) and complex syllable structure languages (German, Norwegian, Icelandic, Swedish, Dutch, Danish, English). They found that “fundamental linguistic differences in syllabic complexity and orthographic depth are responsible in decoding, word reading and nonword reading” (Seymour, Aro & Erskine, 2003, p.143). Although these studies have looked at the effects of orthographic depth within European languages only, it is not surprising that the orthographic differences between two languages may affect the ways in which young children learn to read and write.

The effect of orthographic depth on reading acquisition was investigated not only in alphabetic European orthographies but also in syllabic and logographic scripts. Ellis et al. (2004) attempted to make a further comparison between a transparent syllabic script (Japanese hiragana), alphabetic scripts (Albanian, Greek, English) and a deeply opaque ideographic script (Japanese kanji). In order to compare the rate of reading acquisition in the five different scripts, around 15 children of each language

aged between 6 and 15 were tested. The research found that the most transparent orthography, hiragana led children to read the most accurately, followed by Albanian, Greek, English and then the most opaque logographic script kanji. These findings suggest that the orthographic depth affects learning to read in alphabetic, syllabic and logographic scripts. However, as the authors pointed out, there needs to be a further comparison among different types of scripts in order to fully explain the effects of orthographic depth on children's literacy acquisition. They note:

“[...] further research is required to fully describe and compare the rates and processes of learning to read in different orthographies. Then, when different patterns of learnability and strategy have been firmly identified, there will be subsequent need for guided experimentation into the cognitive factors that might underpin these differences” (Ellis et al., 2004, p.458)

The studies so far reviewed in this section show the script dependent viewpoint on children's literacy acquisition. On the other hand, other studies show that the similarities between scripts are bigger than the differences, proposing that there are common factors which may influence early literacy development across all languages. This will be discussed in the following section.

3.2.3 The role of phonological awareness

Some studies focused more on similarities than differences in learning different types of scripts, and these studies mostly discuss the role of phonological awareness between two different language systems. Phonological awareness refers to “an understanding that words are made up of different sounds and is often reflected in one's ability to manipulate or segment different sound units of the words, such as syllable, phoneme and rhyme” (Kang, 2009, p.30). Furnes & Samuelsson (2009) examined the role of phonological awareness between transparent orthographies (Norwegian/Swedish) and less transparent orthographies

(US/Australian English) with Scandinavian children and English-speaking children in order to examine their reading and spelling development across different alphabetic scripts. The key finding was that the performance of Scandinavian children was very similar to that of English-speaking children in phonological decoding and spelling tasks. The research conducted by Veii & Everatt (2005) with bilingual children who are learning Herero, which is a Namibian language belonging to the African family of Bantu languages, having differences in phonology and orthography from English also includes the role of phonological awareness across scripts. Although Herero has a more transparent script than English, the results of phonological awareness task between two groups of children suggest that phonological processing is a reliable predictor of both Herero and English in word reading.

The role of phonological awareness between a shallow orthography language, Korean and a deep orthography English has also been discussed by several researchers. These include the studies with Korean-English bilingual children (Kang, 2009, 2012; Park, Koh & Lee, 2006; Wang, Park & Lee, 2006) and Korean EFL children (Cho & Lee, 2004; Han & Lee, 2003; Kim, 2009; Park & Jeong, 2005). In those studies, Korean-English bilingual or Korean EFL children were tested by a range of tasks both in Korean and English, and the results show that in spite of dissimilar orthographies, phonological awareness in English is a dominant predictor of reading achievement in Korean. These studies argue that the similarities between orthographies are bigger than their differences.

In summary, the studies reviewed so far have discussed key issues associated with children's script learning in bilingual or multilingual contexts. My study is concerned with deep understandings of children's early awareness of different scripts, hence, in the following section, some studies which are directly related to what children know about different writing systems and how they understand them are reviewed in more detail.

3.3 Research on children's understandings of different scripts

Children's awareness of different language systems has been discussed in several studies conducted with different focuses. For instance, Saxena (1994) investigated how individual family members in a Panjabi Hindu family in Southall in West London are exposed to different scripts and how they make use of each language in their daily lives. The family lived in different linguistic and cultural environments in India, East Africa, and Britain by using three different scripts: Panjabi (Gurmukhi script), Hindi (Devanagari script), and Urdu (Perso-Arabic script). Along with the main finding that there were close symbolic linkages between each script for religious reasons, he also found that a four-year-old son in the family who was born in Southall and exposed only to the Roman script (English) in the school was already able to distinguish Gurmukhi, Devanagari, and Roman scripts. Kenner (1999, 2000) also presented children's awareness of different writing systems and genre through a one-year research project conducted in a South London multilingual nursery class. 30 three-and four-year-olds from diverse linguistic backgrounds involving Arabic, Cantonese, Gujarati, Filipino, Spanish, Thai, Tigrinya and Yoruba were observed in a role-play area and a writing area of the classroom in order to examine their writing behaviour as well as their writing in English and in other languages. In addition, a four-year-old child from a Gujarati-speaking family was also observed over a year in order to examine her awareness of a script and written text. Findings of the study show that the children were able not only to combine different languages in the same text, but also to pay attention to the visual organisation of the page. As mentioned in the previous section, Rashid & Gregory (1997) discussed a six-year-old Bengali child's early awareness of different scripts as well as the role of siblings in literacy education at home whereas Gort (2006) and Mor-Sommerfeld (2002) represented children's understandings and ideas between two languages in order to explain written code-switching and positive literacy application.

Such studies partly discussed children's awareness of different scripts with a different research focus, but Kenner et al. (2004) investigated the issue of young children's understandings of different language systems in more detail in their research. They conducted an in-depth study, 'Signs of Difference' project over a period of one year in which six case studies of bilingual six-year-olds growing up in London who were learning to write in Chinese (a logographic script), Arabic (a non-Roman script with a different directionality) or Spanish (a Roman script with some differences from the English writing system) as well as English. They wanted to investigate how these children interpret different writing systems, when learning more than one script at the same time. The children were observed participating in a variety of literacy interactions of an informal and a formal kind, ranging from home to school within their learning environments. As a principal research method in their study, children's knowledge and understandings on different writing systems were observed through peer teaching sessions in which the case-study children were asked to teach classmates how to write in Chinese, Arabic or Spanish, using their own work and materials. Along with observation data of peer teaching sessions, all ideas or symbols produced by the children in two scripts were also collected and analyzed focusing on several features including shape, size, and spatial organization on the page, as well as directionality. Kenner and her colleagues found that the children were able to understand key concepts from different scripts, involving particular comparisons between writing in English and in another writing system. Their understandings include "strokes and their balance with respect to each other in Chinese, the directionality of Arabic which is written from right to left, and the different sound of an alphabetic letter in Spanish" (Kenner et al., 2004, p.125). They conclude that young bilingual children are able to look for the underlying rules of different writing systems by applying their knowledge on writing in one language to the other writing system. The findings also indicate that when they are exposed to different scripts, "they do not simply absorb such information, but they make use of it

in a transformative way in order to create meanings and to express their own views of the world” (Kenner, 2004, p.47).

In line with Kenner’s research, my study aims to explore young children’s understandings of the Korean alphabet Hangeul and the Roman alphabet used for English. Although “the unique feature of the Korean Hangeul orthographic system forms an excellent comparison with other Roman alphabetic systems in studying bilingual literacy acquisition” (Wang, Park & Lee, 2006, p.150), I have not yet found in the literature studies focusing on Korean EFL children’s literacy knowledge, skills and their understandings of Hangeul and English.

In the following section, my research aim and research questions are generated based on gaps in the existing literature.

3.4 Gaps in existing research and research questions

Although children’s awareness of different scripts has been considered from various aspects in diverse contexts, as described in the previous sections, Kenner & Kress (2003) and Sassoon (1995) argue that more studies on how to acquire two different scripts at the same time will be needed as more and more children become literate within a new environment in which different writing systems exist. From the review of the literature on children’s script learning in different contexts across languages, the following gaps are identified in existing research:

- There is still little in-depth research on children’s script learning process across different scripts;
- No in-depth study has yet examined whether Korean children who are learning Hangeul and English simultaneously understand orthographic similarities and differences between the two scripts.

In relation to the studies with quantitative aspects of script learning, Furnes & Samuelsson (2009) pointed out that most research on the impact of different writing systems in literacy acquisition has at least these two main limitations:

“First, it only examines the relation between language skills and literacy development within a particular orthography, and thus it is impossible to draw conclusions about whether findings generalise to other writing systems. Second, studies in different orthographies normally use different measures of reading-related skills and early literacy skills, and thus comparisons between studies can be rather dubious” (Furnes & Samuelsson, 2009, p.277)

Regarding this matter, Kenner et al. (2004) also wrote that “a task-based experimental approach to children’s early script learning can limit children’s full and detailed responses and does not necessarily reveal how they are dealing with wider questions about writing systems” (p.128). My study is concerned with how and to what extent young children understand the principles underlying Hangul and English, thus this research is situated within a qualitative research paradigm, which provides in-depth descriptions and detailed understanding process.

As has been reviewed, there has been some research into children’s awareness of different writing systems conducted in various contexts. However, few research studies have been done with children who are becoming literate in an EFL context. Moreover, no in-depth research has yet explored how young children - who are learning a non-Roman alphabetic script (L1) and a Roman alphabetic script (L2) at the same time - interpret and learn such different scripts. In this respect, the current study examining a non-Roman alphabetic script, Hangul and a Roman alphabetic script, English, would provide evidence for the literacy development of children who are learning the two different writing systems. Regarding the study of Hangul and English, Pae, Sevcik & Morris (2010) wrote that:

“A study of English and Korean offers an excellent opportunity to examine

between language interdependence because the two languages share a fine-grained alphabetic principle, but exhibit propound differences in their visual lexical form (linearity vs. block layout) and their linguistic structure” (Pae, Sevcik & Morris, 2010, p.377).

For these reasons, my study explores literacy knowledge and skills in Hangul and English demonstrated by Korean EFL children based on the qualitative aspect of script learning. This study also seeks to whether Korean children understand orthographic similarities and differences between the two scripts. This includes exploring comparisons between writing in Hangul and in English, and finding out which features of each script children consider to be important.

From my review of the literature on children’s literacy development and early script learning, I developed the following research questions.

Q1. What knowledge of literacy do Korean children aged six demonstrate in Hangul and English in an EFL preschool classroom context?

Q2. What literacy skills do they demonstrate in Hangul and English?

Q3. Do the children have an understanding of the similarities and differences between Hangul and English?

Q3a. If so, what understandings do they have?

Q3b. Do the children make comparisons between the two scripts?

Q3c. Which features of each script are considered to be important by the children?

4. Methodology I : Rationale for a peer teaching method

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the reasons behind the choice of research methodology and to present my research design. It begins with a discussion of the rationale for choosing a peer teaching method within a qualitative research approach and the reasons for its choice in my study. The role of the researcher for child-centred peer teaching settings is also described in this chapter. This will be followed by a description of my two data collection tools: observation of peer teaching and semi-structured interviews. I then provide a description of the design of peer teaching. In order to test the adequacy of the peer teaching method, a pilot study was performed before the main study. Outcomes of the pilot study will be also described in this chapter.

4.1 Rationale for a qualitative research methodology

My interest is to identify children's knowledge, skills and understandings of two different writing systems in a Korean EFL context. Hence, the methodology needs to provide rich and vivid descriptions of their understandings of Hangul and English within a qualitative research paradigm, which focuses on a world in which the experiences and perspectives of individuals are socially constructed (Greg, Taylor & Mackay, 2007). The qualitative approach aims to provide rich descriptions of human behaviour from an 'insider' perspective (Nunan, 1992), and is concerned with deep understandings of the way people make sense of their experiences and the world where they live (Gillham, 2000; Greg, Taylor & Mackay, 2007). Mackey & Gass (2005) wrote that key characteristics of qualitative research include "rich description, natural and holistic representation, few participants, emic perspectives, cyclical and open-ended processes, and possible ideological orientations" (pp.162-164). The

nature of qualitative enquiry is summarized by Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011) as follows:

“Qualitative research provides an in-depth, intricate and detailed understanding of meanings, actions, non-observable as well as observable phenomena, attitudes, intentions and behaviours, and these are well served by naturalistic enquiry” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.219)

Since the qualitative approach strives for depth of understanding in natural and individual settings, it offers many persuasive benefits for doing research with children (Greg, Taylor & Mackay, 2007). In qualitative studies, “children are observed and interacted with in context-embedded situations where they feel safe and where they are familiar with the interlocutors” (Pinter, 2014, p.171), therefore, within the real life situations, children represent an excellent source of data - “rich descriptions in words and pictures that capture children’s experiences and understandings, and sometimes a single comment from a child’s perspective which may convey much more meaning about the impact of research” (Greg, Taylor & Mackay, 2007, p.138). A further factor in deciding to take a qualitative approach was that it is directed to the context where research is taking place, and this allows researchers to have access to children in individual or small group settings at an intensive level. The main aim of this study is to arrive at an understanding of how children themselves think and negotiate their worlds in which they face different writing systems, hence, it was important for me to be able to capture individual features of the children and to grasp a clear idea of how and to what extent those children understand the principles underlying Hangul and English. The qualitative approach which provides a detailed account of the participation and experiences of individuals allowed me to study the individual child in close detail to capture the full richness of children’s experiences and understandings of Hangul and English.

Another reason for taking a qualitative approach in my study arises from its nature as

participative research (Greg, Taylor & Mackay, 2007) and person-centred enterprise (Richards, 2003). Since qualitative research seeks to understand the meanings and significance of the actions from the perspectives of individuals living in the world, individuals' participation, actions, perspectives and voices in specific social settings are prominent in qualitative research (Hatch, 2002). As Baumann (1997) wrote, "children are valuable and accessible witnesses of the world, and this assumes that young children do not just react to stimuli, but co-create meaning" (p.68). In this sense, research studies in which children are viewed as active social actors are generally more qualitative in nature (Pinter, 2014). A number of qualitative research studies with young children, such as those of Coppock (2011), Kellett (2010), Pinter & Zandian (2014), no longer see children who take part in research as 'objects' of adult interest but as 'active research participants' who take on a more active role in research (See Section 2.2.3). In line with these qualitative studies where children's active roles and their experiences in research were highlighted by rich descriptions, this research also highlights the unique features of each child's perspectives and experiences, considering children as active participants who are able to take more responsible roles in the research.

4.2 Peer teaching as a research methodology

In order to find out how children make use of literacy knowledge and skills, and understand two different writing systems with the richest description of the context of study, I decided to construct peer teaching situations where children were teaching Hangeul and English. I expected that giving children opportunities to explain how to read and write to others would provide literacy interactions conveying meaning and their interpretation. I also believed that the peer teaching in a small group setting would enable me to capture even a single comment from a child's perspective, offering evidence of understandings. Therefore, I attempted to provide a

child-directed context in which children could display and express their own knowledge, skills, experiences, and thinking about different writing systems whilst engaged in literacy activities. I set up peer teaching sessions in which a tutor child, aged six was asked to teach a tutee child, aged five how to read and write both in Hangul and English. I handed over some control and responsibility to the tutor children, for example, they led each teaching session in their own ways by using their own materials brought from their classrooms or homes as a teaching resource. I focused on the way children understand two different scripts based on the evidence derived from the questions, 'what's there in the peer teaching setting?', 'what do children do?' and 'what do they tell me?' within a qualitative research approach.

This peer teaching method has connections with some research studies which draw on sociocultural theory by highlighting the important role of peers and benefits of peer interactions in children's literacy learning (See Section 2.2.3). With the emphasis on the role of peers, suggesting that "dynamic interaction with peers offers unique learning opportunities for children's literacy development" (Kim, 2015, p.2), my study focuses on how young children construct their understandings of two different writing systems within a peer teaching situation where teaching and learning occur through active social participation with each other during literacy activities. Particularly, the peer teaching setting I adopted for my research was influenced by Kenner's (2004) research, which looked at bilingual children's understandings of different scripts. In her research, the case study children were asked to teach classmates how to write in Chinese, Arabic or Spanish. Through this method, she was able to determine whether children were able to understand key concepts from different scripts (See Section 3.3). In my case, the sessions were set up for Korean children learning Hangul and English simultaneously in order to look more closely at how individual Korean children in an EFL context interpret the principles of Hangul and English.

4.3 Role of the researcher in child-centred peer teaching

An important issue in qualitative research with children as active participants is a power barrier between researcher and children, and this is closely related to the issue of how adult researchers can gain children's trust and confidence (Pinter, Kuchah & Smith, 2013). In order to reduce the power differential, I tried to build trust and confidence based on a 'healthy approach' to researching with children which suggests some appropriate ways of gaining children's trust and confidence (ibid.). Most importantly, I tried to create a comfortable space where children can feel at ease. It was very important that my participant children were encouraged to enjoy their teaching and learning because their own words and behaviours produced in a comfortable atmosphere were a significant source of data for my study. Therefore, my main role was to minimize possible stress at being observed, to encourage them to enjoy peer teaching in a natural setting, to try to keep the peer teaching child-centred, and not to intervene in their conversations and social interactions. I repeated that participant children will not be tested, and they will not be put in any stressful situations during peer teaching sessions. Also, I clearly stated that they can stop anytime if they feel uncomfortable. Some ethical issues were also carefully considered in this study (See Section 5.6) because "ethical considerations and the need to reduce distance between researcher and children combine in support of the idea that children can themselves be involved as active co-researchers" (Pinter, Kuchah & Smith, 2013, p.486).

Another challenge in qualitative research with children as active researchers is "to listen to children and make their views accessible without distortion" (Baumann, 1997, p.69). I tried to deal with this issue by ensuring children notice that their voices and thoughts are valued and respected. Regarding the difficulty of listening to children's voices during the research with young children, Birbeck & Drummond (2007) suggested that:

“The major barriers to children’s voices being heard in research can be overcome by understanding that children can participate in meaningful ways if the research environment is one in which they feel safe, supported and valued. The research environment must be seen through the child’s eyes. Strategies that support not only children’s abilities but also the social structure in which they live, must be adopted” (Birbeck & Drummond, 2007, p.28)

For this, I made it clear to both participant children and their parents that peer teaching for this study is a child-centred setting and all aspects of their teaching and learning will be encouraged and respected. Most importantly, it was explained clearly and simply to try to ensure that they could understand easily. Having considered the idea that “effective communication involves attention, listening well, flexibility, openness, asking for clarification, and providing space for questions and discussion” (Freeman & Mathison, 2009, p.74), I also arranged a meeting with participant children in order to try to find out their opinions during the research. More detailed processes of how I listened to children and how I accepted their voices will be described in Section 5.4 along with another role of the researcher - a facilitator for effective peer teaching.

4.4 Research questions and data collection tools

Table 4.1 shows data collection tools and strategy for data collection according to the research questions. For each research question, children’s peer teaching sessions were observed, and the tutor children who took part in teaching were interviewed after their teaching in order to elicit observable data, and to collect other data that could not be gathered from observing the sessions. Children’s teaching and interviews were observed through video-recording and I also took field notes after each session. Written texts produced by the tutor children during peer teaching

or interview sessions were also collected, photocopied and scanned.

Table 4.1: Research questions and data collection tools

Research questions	Data collection tools	Strategy for data collection
<p>Q1. What knowledge of literacy do Korean children aged six demonstrate in Hangul and English in an EFL preschool classroom context?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ observation of peer teaching ▪ semi-structured interviews with tutor children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ recording peer teaching sessions and interviews ▪ taking field notes ▪ collecting written texts created by children
<p>Q2. What literacy skills do they demonstrate in Hangul and English?</p>		
<p>Q3. Do the children have an understanding of the similarities and differences between Hangul and English?</p> <p>Q3a. If so, what understandings do they have?</p> <p>Q3b. Do the children make comparisons between the two scripts?</p> <p>Q3c. Which features of each script are considered to be important by the children?</p>		

Detailed descriptions of the two data collection tools will be presented in the following sections.

4.4.1 Observation of peer teaching

An observational method which can give direct access to a particular event and social interactions (Robson, 2002; Simpson & Tuson, 2003) enabled me to watch what children do and to listen what they say during the peer teaching setting. For this study, I observed tutor children's communicative interactions around reading and writing such as verbal explanations of each script, written explanations presented on the paper, their behaviours, comments and responses. I recorded the whole process of each session through video-recording. I used a hand-held digital video camera in

order to capture their literacy interactions and production of written texts more closely with maximum flexibility. As soon as I recorded each session, I wrote field notes to keep important information I observed so that I could elicit it in the interview session.

The observational method often requires a researcher to enter a particular context and take part in an event (Dyer, 1995; Scott & Usher, 1999), and the role of a researcher is incorporated with the extent of participation depending on research questions and the focus of observations (Dyer, 1995; Robson, 2002; Simpson & Tuson, 2003). In this study, my participation seemed to be completely accepted by participant children, and my role was passive during the peer teaching. I sometimes asked the tutor children to explain more when I captured significant information which more detailed explanations would be needed. I also asked the children to comment on a particular item of materials if it had not come up yet spontaneously. However, I did not take part in the sessions directly, and I tried not to have a great influence on what is going on since I wanted to provide children open ended and child-centred settings so that they could enjoy their teaching and learning. My major role was to facilitate their literacy interactions during the session, and to keep the peer teaching child-directed. This role permitted me to support each child and to record the whole process of their teaching.

4.4.2 Semi-structured interview with tutor children

Each tutor child took part in an interview session after their teaching, where I was able to talk to them and listen to their ideas by asking them some questions based on what I observed. Along with the observation of peer teaching, this interview also helped me to measure what children know and what they think because an interview method allows participants to express their understandings of the world they

experience from their own perspective, in their own words (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Kvale, 1996). Through this interview method, I was able to elicit observable data including children's verbal or written explanations, and behaviours which were related to their knowledge, skills, and understandings of Hangul and English.

For this study, a semi-structured interview in which "an interviewer works from a range of predetermined questions, while providing a lot of opportunities to expand answers to an interviewee" (Dyer, 1995, p.59) was conducted with tutor children. I gave them some predetermined general questions related to the research questions, for example, the question about their learning experiences of Hangul and English. Some specific questions derived from the observation of each tutor child's own teaching and the data from my field notes were also given to each child during the interview.

Tutor children brought all the teaching materials they used as well as the written texts they produced to the interview so that the materials could remind each child of their teaching. During the interview, they sometimes wrote or drew on the paper to explain, and these were photocopied and scanned after each session. This interview was also recorded with a hand-held digital video camera because I believed that all the ideas demonstrated through their behaviour, manner and body language during the interview might be another important source of data to make observable data more explicit. I also took field notes after each interview.

4.5 Design of peer teaching

For this study, 10 Korean preschool children took part in peer teaching sessions. 5 pairs were made; each pair had a tutor child, aged 6, and a tutee child, aged 5. For arranging pairs, information on potential participant children was gathered through

an interview with classroom teachers in the preschool. The choice of potential participant children for peer teaching sessions were made according to their age and learning experiences of Hangul and English.

35 minutes were given for each session in the preschool, hence, I divided each session into preparation (5 min.), peer teaching (20 min.) and a follow-up interview (10 min.). Each tutor child led three different sessions, and peer teaching lasted 20 minutes on average after preparation. Tutor children used separate materials for Hangul and English, and they chose their own texts brought from their homes or classrooms for their teaching. Both tutor and tutee children were allowed to speak in Korean or English during peer teaching, in order not to restrict their ability to communicate. After each session, each tutor child was interviewed for about 10 minutes. Korean was used for the interview to avoid any confusion caused by language barriers. Table 4.2 shows the design of peer teaching for this study.

Table 4.2: Design of peer teaching sessions

Participant children	Korean preschool children who are learning English as a foreign language
Number of participant children / number of pairs	10 children (5 tutors and 5 tutees) / 5 pairs
Age of participant children	tutor children: 6 years old tutee children: 5 years old
Duration of teaching	approximately 20 minutes
Teaching resource	a variety of materials brought from their classrooms or homes (different material for each script) - tutor children select their own teaching materials
Language used in peer teaching	Korean or English
Number of sessions	three sessions for each pair - 15 sessions in total

4.6 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted on September 7, 2012, about two months before the main study. The purpose of the pilot study was to develop and test the adequacy of my research instruments. I wanted to ensure that the peer teaching method was an effective tool to elicit children's knowledge, skills and understandings. I also wanted to check if the amount of time I designed for peer teaching was effective. The feasibility of an observation checklist I developed for this study was also tested. During the interview, I wanted to ensure that general questions and specific questions within a semi-structured framework were effective to collect more detailed information on their understandings. In this section, the process and results of my pilot study will be described in detail.

4.6.1 Participants

Korean children who were learning both Hangul and English simultaneously were chosen as the participants of the pilot study. The participants were two Korean children who lived in Leeds, UK at the time. The tutor child was seven years old (JH) and was attending a primary school in Leeds, and the tutee child was his younger brother (IH) who was three years old. Both JH and IH (pseudonyms are used here) had been living in Leeds for a year at the time of the pilot study. Before JH came to Leeds, he had been learning Hangul (L1) and English (L2) in a private preschool in South Korea for two years and six months. He learned Hangul every day in the preschool through worksheets, and there were some classes for English in the school. The English curriculum of the school was mostly phonics. Along with his learning experiences of Hangul and English in the preschool, his mother sometimes read storybooks written in Korean or English to him at home. The tutee child, IH did not have any learning experiences of Hangul and English at school at the time.

4.6.2 Procedures of the pilot study

I asked the parents of JH and IH for permission to carry out the pilot study after I had explained details of the procedure. I sent a research information letter (See Appendix A) and an informed consent form (Appendix B) to the parents via email before the pilot study. I gained informed consent from them via phone and e-mail. A child-friendly leaflet (Appendix C) was also sent to the parents via e-mail so that they could read it to their children. Their parents explained my research to their children through the child-friendly leaflet, and I also had time to talk and play with JH and IH before the pilot study. It helped me introduce the purpose of my research in a comfortable atmosphere, and let them feel interested in peer teaching.

The pilot study lasted approximately one hour. Before the peer teaching, the children's mother was interviewed in order to collect background information about JH and IH. I asked her about their ages and their learning experiences of Hangul and English. This was conducted in Korean, and I took notes during the interview. The interview took about 15 minutes.

Peer teaching took place in JH's room. JH and IH were sitting around the table, and I was sitting in front of them to observe. I provided some pens, crayons and paper to the children so that they could use them while teaching and learning. I set up the camera and explained again why I wanted to observe and record their teaching and learning. I also reminded JH and IH of peer teaching etiquette before the session. This peer teaching preparation lasted approximately 10 minutes.

To teach English, JH prepared a storybook about numbers, and for Hangul, he made his own flash cards about animals in which each name is written in Hangul with its picture. He wrote and drew them by himself. Figure 4.1 shows the storybook which JH used for teaching English, and Figure 4.2 shows one of the flash cards he made which stands for '양' (sheep) for teaching Hangul.

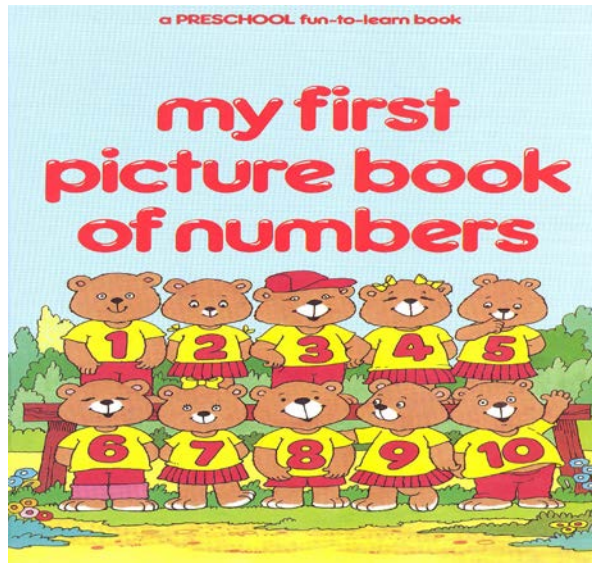


Figure 4.1: JH's material for teaching English

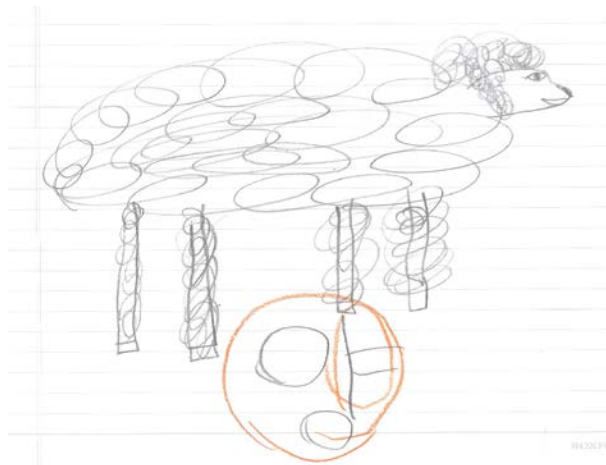


Figure 4.2: JH's material for teaching Hangul

JH started to teach English by using the storybook. Firstly, he taught his brother how to say the numbers from 1 to 10 in English by pointing at each number on the cover page of the story. Then he explained how to write the words, 'one', 'two', 'three' and 'four' in English by writing them down on the paper. When he gave him a reading

lesson, he often pronounced each letter separately by underlining each alphabet letter.

For Hangul, he used the flashcards he made to teach ‘쥐’ (mouse), ‘양’ (sheep), and ‘물고기’ (fish). He showed how to write them one by one by pointing at each picture. When teaching Hangul, JH provided dotted lines so that his tutee could copy and write each word easily. When JH read Hangul, he did not pronounce each alphabet letter separately as he did for teaching English, but he read each syllable as a whole instead. For example, when reading a syllable ‘물’ as in ‘물고기’ (fish), he read ‘물’ /mul/ at once, not broke it into ‘ㅁ’ /m/, ‘ㅊ’ /u/, ‘ㄹ’ /l/.

During the peer teaching, JH mostly spoke Korean but he sometimes used English to explain a particular word. For example, when he introduced ‘양’ (sheep) in Hangul, he said ‘baa...baa...’ in English. I asked JH to explain more when I thought that more detailed explanations were needed during the peer teaching. These questions included ‘Would you introduce one more word to teach Hangul?’, ‘You taught how to write ‘three’ in English. This time, would you please let your tutee know how to read it?’ and so on. Peer teaching took approximately 20 minutes, and it was video recorded. All the materials JH used, and written texts produced by JH and IH were photocopied and scanned. While observing them, I used an observation checklist (Appendix D).

After the peer teaching session, I interviewed JH. I asked three general questions and three specific questions, which came from JH’s teaching as follows.

(General questions)

- How was your teaching?
- Could you tell me about your experience in learning Hangul and English so far?
How was it?

- What do you know about Hangul and English?

(Specific questions)

- You said to your tutee that the word, 'three' is difficult to write. Why is it difficult?
- You said to your tutee that Hangul and English look different. Would you tell me more about it? What do they look like?
- You taught your tutee the fact that each sentence needs to begin with a capital letter. Do you know more about the things we should remember when we write?

He answered the questions by showing his materials, and when he wanted to explain in more detail, he wrote or drew on the paper. This interview lasted about 10 minutes, and Korean was used. The interview was also video-recorded, and the written texts produced by JH during the interview were photocopied and scanned.

4.6.3 Findings of the pilot study

From the video data and the data in the observation checklist as well as the written texts produced by JH, his literacy knowledge, skills, and understandings of Hangul and English were considered. For example, he already knew that there are different types of sound-letter relationships in English. As Figure 4.3 shows below, when he introduced 'three' to his tutee, he wrote 'tree' at first, and then changed it into 'three', explaining that 'three' is difficult to write. I asked for further explanation about it during the interview, and he answered 'It is difficult to write because the sound /θ/ needs two letters'. He gave me another example, 'because' as a difficult English word, saying that 'Some words which end with 'e' are also confusing because 'e' sometimes doesn't make a sound'.



Figure 4.3: Written text produced by JH (irregular sound-letter relationship)

JH's understandings of Hangul and English were also demonstrated. I asked him 'What do you know about Hangul and English?' during the interview, and then he compared the height of letters between Hangul and English as Figure 4.4 shows. He drew four lines on the paper and wrote '안' as in '안녕' (hello) along with the letter, 'n' on it, saying 'When I write Hangul, I need more space like this'.



Figure 4.4: Written text produced by JH (height of letters)

He also showed me how Hangul and English are different in terms of shape of letters by writing '감' as in '감자' (potato) side by side like English. He said 'When I write '감' in Hangul, I should place something ('ㅁ') below '가'. But in English, this can be written in this way'. He wrote 'ㄱ ㅁ' next to '감' as Figure 4.5 shows. He used an arrow to explain this. Regarding his understanding of shape of letters in English, he also expressed his ideas with cursive lines as Figure 4.6 presents below.



Figure 4.5: Written text produced by JH (shape of letters in Hangul)

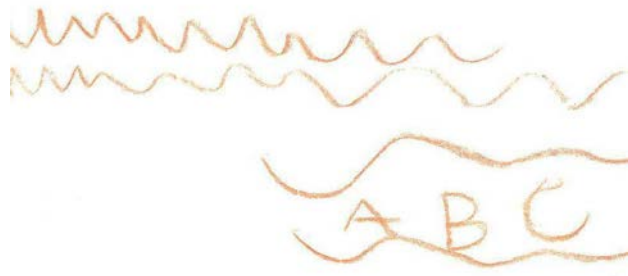


Figure 4.6: Written text produced by JH (shape of letters in English)

More detailed descriptions of literacy knowledge, skills and understandings of Hangul and English demonstrated by JH are presented in Appendix E.

4.6.4 Lessons learned from the pilot study

Although the pilot study was conducted at home, not in the classroom, and the tutor child was older than my potential participants, it helped me to clarify my ideas about what might happen during peer teaching, and what I needed to consider. The pilot study was significant for the main study in the following ways:

- During my pilot study, I attempted to test if a predetermined peer teaching time schedule (preparation - 5 min., a tutor child's teaching - 20 min., an interview with a tutor child - 10 min.) is feasible to elicit children's knowledge, skills and understandings. I found that I could collect useful data within this time schedule because JH was aware of this procedure before his teaching, and I could also manage the time and facilitate the teaching while observing them.
- JH was actively involved in peer teaching, and he was more likely to participate when he felt more comfortable. I asked him about his teaching after the session, and he answered, 'At the beginning, I was a little bit shy and nervous because

you were sitting in front of me, and my brother is too young. But I was getting better and better as time went on'. I learned that I should try to minimize possible stress at being observed, and to provide a comfortable setting for children to enjoy their teaching and learning since it might have a great influence on the results.

- I realized that the observation checklist I designed was not very convenient. It was quite difficult for me to find, check, and write while observing them because one of my roles was to capture important information from a tutor child and to expand it promptly during peer teaching session. Moreover, when I checked or wrote something on the checklist, the tutor child paused his teaching and focused on what I was writing. I felt that this may interrupt his teaching, and even make him feel that he is tested. I learned that I do not need to use a checklist during the observation in order not to miss important features, and not to disturb a tutor child.
- I learned how easy it is to accidentally ask leading questions during the interview. For example, I asked JH, 'How is English different from Hangul?' directly without thinking. It reminded me that to find out whether children understand similarities and differences between Hangul and English is one of the main research questions for my study. Therefore, I need to keep in mind that I should not influence children's responses by using some leading questions or non verbal communications.
- I also learned the importance of having time to talk and play with participant children before peer teaching. In order to build rapport, I asked JH about his school life and then had a talk about the materials he had prepared for his teaching. I encouraged him to enjoy their teaching, showing that I was very happy and excited at observing him. I also tried to talk easily and clearly about peer teaching method in a comfortable atmosphere. Although their mother had

already read them a child-friendly leaflet on my research before the pilot study, I felt that this informal conversation also helped both JH and IH to feel more comfortable and excited. I learned that having time to discuss with participant children before and after peer teaching would be necessary in order to establish rapport and to listen to their voices.

4.7 Summary

In this chapter, I have explained the rationale for using a peer teaching method within a qualitative research approach, the two data collection tools, and the research design. I also have made efforts to test how effective peer teaching is in order to elicit children's knowledge, skills and understandings through a pilot study. The most significant points discussed in this chapter were:

- This study follows a qualitative research paradigm, which can provide rich descriptions of people's ideas and the research context. Within this approach, the peer teaching method was chosen to obtain rich data from children involved in literacy interactions.
- The pilot study was conducted before the main study, and it helped me to consider my roles to facilitate effective peer teaching, and to keep peer teaching child-centred.

The next chapter will present the main study in more detail, identifying research site, participant children and data collection process.

5. Methodology II: Fieldwork

This chapter gives a detailed account of the data collection process of the main study I conducted. It begins by describing the research site and participants along with the procedure of obtaining informed consent from the school, parents and participant children. This is followed by a description of the implementation of the peer teaching and a discussion of the roles of the researcher during peer teaching sessions. Ethical considerations and data analysis will be also presented in this chapter.

5.1 Research site

Korean preschool children who were learning English as a foreign language at ECC (English Centre for Children) school took part in peer teaching sessions. In South Korea, preschool is in the private sector, and most children rely on private education to learn Hangul or English before they start school at age 7. ECC is a subsidiary of YBM Sisa company and is one of South Korea's largest and most reputable English education-based private language institutions. ECC schools average around 200 to 800 students focusing on English language education for preschool and primary children. For this research, 10 preschool children who were attending the ECC school located in Gwangjin-gu in Seoul, the capital city of South Korea were chosen. Since both Hangul and English need to be encountered at the same time for my research, the reason for selecting Gwangjin ECC was that although the programme of ECC schools focuses only on English language education, this school sometimes provides classes in Hangul as an extracurricular class, given by a Korean classroom teacher.

The preschool curriculum of Gwangjin ECC covers the four language skills in English; listening, speaking, reading and writing along with mathematics, science, song & chant, violin etc. The curriculum is mainly based on a course book, which was developed by the YBM Sisa company. Each class lasts 35 minutes (except for the last class on Tuesdays and Thursdays), and Western teachers or Korean English teachers teach preschool children aged between five and six. The teachers only speak English, and all children are also encouraged to speak only in English in the classroom. The average number of children per class is no more than 10, and there are seven classes in total (four classes for 6 years, and three classes for 5 years). In South Korea, school starts in March, and all children born in the same calendar year are together in the same class regardless of month. Children can also join the school at any point in the academic year. Each child is allocated to a particular class according to their age and English level, and two Korean classroom teachers (a teacher in charge of six-year-old classes and a teacher in charge of five-year-old classes) facilitate their learning.

The curriculum also includes extracurricular activities such as Korean, art, play time, origami, drama, talent show, show and tell, or movie classes and so on. The reason for providing extracurricular classes is that the school wants to provide children with well-rounded education through a variety of activities and experiences. Children have three or four extracurricular classes a week and these classes are very flexible and named differently for different purposes. Mostly, Korean classroom teachers lead these classes in Korean. For my research, a new extracurricular class, which was named 'peer teaching', was made for three months.

5.1.1 Gaining informed consent from the school

I needed to get permission from the principal of the preschool at the first stage

because the school is often the first point of contact in order to obtain access from the children, particularly, within school-based research in which the process of giving permission is clearly hierarchical (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Once I obtained informed consent from the principal, I was able to contact the preschool supervisor, classroom teachers and participant children's parents in order to gain access to the children. Therefore, it was important that I provided the principal with full detailed information about me as well as the whole research. I sent formal permission letters including a research information letter (Appendix F) and an informed consent form (Appendix G) outlining the nature of my research and methods to the principal of the preschool. The letters were written in both English and Korean, and these were passed to the preschool supervisor and classroom teachers to be discussed.

After having obtained permission from the preschool, I conducted the interview with classroom teachers to choose potential participant children.

5.2 Participants

In order to collect background information on potential participant children for peer teaching sessions, two Korean classroom teachers (a teacher in charge of six-year-old classes and a teacher in charge of five-year-old classes) were interviewed together. The reason for an interview with Korean classroom teachers was that they teach extracurricular activities in Korean, and their major responsibilities are for classroom management, taking care of each child, and counselling with children's parents. Therefore, they knew each child's learning experiences of Hangul and English as well as their personality and relationships with peers at school. This interview was not directly related to the research questions, but helped me to arrange pairs more effectively. More detailed information on children's

learning experiences of Hangul and English could be also collected from their parents via phone during the peer teaching process.

The questions included two main criteria of choosing the potential participants: children's age (date of birth) and their learning experiences of English and their first language, Korean (Hangul) (See Appendix H). In this study, the oldest children who had the maximum experiences of learning Hangul and English in the ECC preschool were chosen as tutor children, and the tutee children were the youngest children who had the minimum experiences of learning both languages. When arranging pairs, I tried to make a maximum gap in terms of age and learning experiences between a tutor child and a tutee child since I wanted to give the tutor children the maximum need to explain when teaching Hangul and English to the tutee children who were beginning to learn the two scripts. Children's personality and relationships with peers were also taken into consideration when arranging each pair. The teachers took part in the interview after their classes on October 25, 2013, and the time for the interview was around 40 minutes. The interview was audio-recorded, and I also made notes during the interview. This was conducted in Korean.

After the interview with the Korean classroom teachers, 5 tutor children aged six and 5 tutee children aged five were chosen. Initially, an ideal number of pairs of peer teaching was 3, but 5 pairs of children (pairs A, B, C, D, E) were made for this study to allow for drop-outs and problems related to quality of the data collected. Most tutor children had been learning English for more than two years in the ECC preschool at the time, and they had been learning Hangul mostly at home (Appendix I). Each pair had one tutor child and one tutee child, but the child who was chosen as a tutee in pair E had to unexpectedly leave the peer teaching after his first session because of a family matter. Therefore, another tutee child aged five was chosen for the second and the third sessions following the same criteria for choosing the participants and the same process of obtaining informed consent. The list of the eleven participant

children in this study (including the tutee child who participated later in pair E) is shown in Table 5.1 below. This includes date of birth of each child, gender, and the age gap between a tutor and a tutee child. Pseudonyms are used in all cases.

Table 5.1: Description of participant children

Pair	Pair A		Pair B		Pair C		Pair D		Pair E		
Role	tutor	tutee	tutor	tutee	tutor	tutee	tutor	tutee	tutor	tutee (1)	tutee (2)
Name	KH	YJ	YB	SJ	HB	HM	SB	CY	YE	HH	HW
Gender	girl	girl	boy	boy	girl	boy	girl	girl	girl	boy	boy
Date of birth	Jan 19 2006	Sep 5 2007	Feb 16 2006	Sep 7 2007	Mar 29 2006	Sep 22 2007	Apr 10 2006	Dec 25 2007	May 25 2006	Dec 28 2007	Sep 4 2007
Age gap	1 year and 8 months		1 year and 7 months		1 year and 6 months		1 year and 8 months		1 year and 7 months (1) 1 year and 4 months (2)		

This pair arrangement was confirmed by the school supervisor after she had checked each child's daily schedule to make sure that each pair of children can meet together in the same extracurricular class, for the peer teaching sessions.

After the potential participant children were chosen, and the pair arrangement was completely confirmed, I needed to gain informed consent from parents and participant children as one of the significant ethical considerations when doing research with children.

5.2.1 Gaining informed consent from parents

In order to ask for parents' consent for data from my contact with children, I explained the objectives of my research, methodology, and implications for them via phone. After talking over the telephone with them, the information sheet and an

informed consent form (Appendix J) written in both English and Korean were handed out to them. My contact email and phone number were provided on it, and parents could give their permission via email, phone or in hard copy within 3 days after the talk. Once I gained parental consent, a child-friendly leaflet (Appendix K) was sent home for parents to read to their children. Because the children needed help when reading an informed consent form on their own although I produced the form in Korean, I produced a child-friendly leaflet outlining my research so that parents could read it with their children. The leaflet included the research aim, peer teaching and interview methods, peer teaching etiquette as well as the fact that they can withdraw from my research anytime. This was sent to them in two languages, Korean and English. I attempted to make it simple and clear because in doing research with children, the researcher needs to consider participant children's verbal competence and their capacity to understand abstract ideas (Greene & Hogan, 2005). I also put some relevant illustrations on it because attractively illustrated leaflets help children to understand the research clearly, and help parents to explain easily (Alderson, 2004; Roberts-Holmes, 2005).

5.2.2 Gaining informed consent from participant children

After the child-friendly leaflet was handed out to the parents and potential participant children, the children were invited to an individual meeting where I explained my research. Like adults, children also have rights to know the purpose of the research, to understand a researcher's intention, and to know what will happen during the research (Greene & Hogan, 2005). I explained to them what my research is about and what they are agreeing to. Each pair was introduced each other, and they were informed about how and why they have been selected, and why they have been arranged in pairs for peer teaching sessions. Every effort was made to ensure that my instructions to the participant children remain simple and clear. This individual

meeting for gaining informed consent was conducted in the school library after their lunch. They were given at least three days to decide whether they want to participate in my research or not, and their decisions could be conveyed to their parents or classroom teachers. Accordingly, informed consent from the children was obtained through a child-friendly leaflet and verbal explanations.

After I have gained informed consent from the preschool, parents and participant children, the peer teaching was conducted for three months. The following section provides a detailed account of the implementation of the peer teaching.

5.3 Implementation of the peer teaching

A new class named 'peer teaching' was made within the preschool curriculum of Gwangjin ECC between December 2012 and February 2013. Since it was made as an extracurricular class of the preschool, participant children did not miss other English language classes. This was also explained to both the parents and children before peer teaching through the formal letters. When participant children had a peer teaching class, they (one pair) went to the classroom for peer teaching sessions. Peer teaching sessions took place in a quiet classroom apart from other classrooms to help the children to concentrate better. Teaching and learning facilities such as cassettes, pencils, erasers, crayons, paper etc. were provided for all the participant children. Before each session, I checked whether tutor children would need additional facilities for their own teaching. Mostly, each session lasted 35 minutes like normal classes of the ECC school with three parts: preparation (5 min.), a tutor child's teaching (20 min.) and an interview with a tutor child (10 min.). However, this time arrangement was flexible according to each session for each child. Tutor children were allowed to speak in both Korean and English, but the most children taught in Korean during the sessions. Each tutor child of each pair led 3 different

teaching sessions, hence, 15 sessions in total took place during three months. Table 5.2 shows a detailed schedule of peer teaching sessions which was conducted in this study. This schedule was incorporated with classroom schedules, preschool events and each child's personal matters (absence - holiday, sickness, moving etc.).

Table 5.2: Peer teaching schedule

Month	December 2012					January 2013				February 2013					
Date	5 th	6 th	12 th	13 th	27 th	3 rd	9 th	23 rd	30 th	6 th	7 th	18 th	20 th	21 st	25 th
Session	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Pair	B	A	C	A	E	A	D	B	C	D	E	B	C	E	D

The children who acted as tutors could discuss with their classroom teachers or parents when choosing their own teaching materials, and I made their choice significant. The materials included a variety of texts such as their favourite storybooks, workbooks, cards, or even their own work brought from their classrooms or homes. Before each session began, I arranged the meeting with participant children so that each pair of children could have a chance to discuss their teaching and learning. They also learned peer teaching etiquette during the meeting. More details of the meeting arrangements are described in Section 5.4.1.

During the session, I asked a tutor child to explain more when a particular item in the material had not come up yet. Also, I let them know the remaining time so that they could end the session within 20 minutes given. Some of the questions which I gave the children during the peer teaching were:

- You did not use this story which you had prepared yet. Why don't you introduce it to your tutee?
- You taught how to read it so far. Now, would you please show how to write it to

your tutee?

- I think you taught Hangul quite enough, so would you please move onto teaching English?

After each peer teaching session, 5 tutor children took part in three separate interviews in the same classroom where the peer teaching took place. For this interview, all the materials they had used and the written texts produced by them during the peer teaching were displayed on the table. Pencils, erasers, crayons, and paper were also provided so that the children could explain or express their ideas on the paper if they want.

Within a semi-structured interview framework, I asked all the tutor children some general questions as well as specific questions. Mostly, each interview started with some general questions regarding their teaching, such as about the materials or topics, followed by several specific questions based on what I observed and the data from my field notes. This interview ended with the two or three general questions which were directly related with the research question 3 as Table 5.3 shows. The table presents some examples of general questions and specific questions which I used for the interview. This interview lasted about 10 minutes, but some of the tutor children who wanted to say more, or needed more time to think had another following-up interview after their lunch, with a classroom teacher and the children's consent. Their L1 (Korean) was used for the interview, and each session was video-recorded. All the materials and the written texts were collected after each interview, and I gave these back to the children before they went home.

Table 5.3: Interview questions used for the main study

General questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How was your teaching today? • How was your tutee child? • Why did you prepare these materials for your teaching? • Why did you choose this topic for teaching English? 	RQ 1,2
Specific questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You used a Christmas card when teaching Hangul. May I ask you why you chose it? Do you know about Christmas? • When you taught English, you asked your tutee to write a full stop and a comma. Could you tell me more about these marks? • You used some square boxes when teaching Hangul. Can I ask you why you used these boxes only for Hangul? 	RQ 1,2,3
General questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Could you tell me more about your experience in learning Hangul and English so far? How was it? • What do you know about Hangul and English? • What is the most important thing (consideration) in learning or teaching Hangul and English? (after session 3) 	RQ 3

5.4 Role of the researcher during the peer teaching sessions

For this study, I had two main roles: as a facilitator for effective peer teaching, and as a facilitator for child-centred peer teaching. These roles enabled me to facilitate each session effectively, and to keep the peer teaching method child-centred. Each role will be described in the following sections.

5.4.1 Researcher as a facilitator for effective peer teaching

As a researcher, an important role was to facilitate each session for effective teaching and learning. I informed children's parents of the exact date of the peer teaching before each session so that they could help and encourage their children to prepare in advance. After each session, I informed the parents of the date of the next

session as well as the fact that the session had been done successfully. This was done via text messages or calls.

Each pair of children also had a meeting to be informed of the date, the time, peer teaching etiquette, and video recording before each session. I ensured that they understood that their teaching and learning would be video recorded, and asked them again if being recorded is acceptable if they permitted me to record. I informed tutor children of the teaching materials which would be provided in the classroom, and asked them if they would need additional teaching materials such as dyestuff, scissors or glue so that the materials could be provided before the session. Participant children also had a chance to discuss the session with each other during the meeting in an informal atmosphere. For example, one of the tutor children asked her tutee about favourite topic, story, and character in order to make her teaching more interesting, considering her tutee. She used this information to choose materials and activities. Mostly, I arranged this meeting on the day before each session after I had gained the consent from classroom teachers. This informal meeting was conducted for about 10 minutes after their lunch in the school library.

5.4.2 Researcher as a facilitator for child-centred peer teaching

Even during the main study, I modified the methodology taking participant children's feedback into account. In order to attend to participant children's views and ideas regarding their peer teaching, I also arranged the meeting with the tutor children after they had finished their first session (the tutor child in pair A could not attend because of a family matter). With classroom teachers' consent, it was conducted on January 21, 2013 in the school library, after the children had eaten lunch. I asked the children how their first teaching was, and they talked about their feelings and ideas apparently freely in Korean. This lasted approximately 20 minutes, and I took notes

during the meeting. Three main issues which were raised by the tutor children were:

- They wanted their tutee children to participate in the peer teaching more actively.
- They wanted to have more time to get to know each other (with a tutee child).
- They wanted me to move a camera a little further away.

I dealt with each point as follows:

- I arranged special times to play a pair game in order to build rapport between each tutor child and tutee child.
- I gave the tutor children a special card, named, 'Getting to know your tutee child' in order to give them a chance to know their tutee children by asking some questions.
- I held the camera further away from the second session.

Regarding the first issue, I was aware that children's active participation was derived from a good sense of rapport between a tutor child and a tutee child. For instance, one of the pairs showing a good relationship with each other took a more active part in the peer teaching compared with other pairs. Therefore, I decided to arrange time for both tutors and tutees to develop their relationship through a variety of pair games. After having obtained the preschool supervisor's and classroom teachers' consent, this was conducted on February 13, 2013 as one of the extracurricular classes. All the participant children took part in playing games except pairs A (due to a family matter) and D (absence). I provided some pair games such as creating a team name, a Hangman game, and a guessing game in which both a tutor and a

tutee in each pair needed to do together. The team (pair) which had the most points was chosen as the best team. This was conducted in Korean.

In order to provide opportunities for the tutor children to know their tutee children, I gave each tutor child a 'Getting to know your tutee child' card with seven personal questions such as Korean name, birthday, family, and favourite things as shown in Figure 5.1. Each tutor child was supposed to ask the questions to his or her tutee child, and to fill in the blanks on the card during lunchtime or break time. My intention was that each pair of children could be together and know each other, hence, both Korean and English could be used when giving questions and answering questions. Figure 5.1 shows the card written by one of the tutor children.

The image shows a hand-drawn card on a light-colored background. The card is titled "Getting to know your tutee child" with a smiley face icon. It contains seven numbered questions, each followed by a handwritten answer. The answers are written in Korean and English. The card is designed to look like a scroll with a hole on the left side.

Question	Answer
1. What is his Korean name?	양서준
2. Where does he live?	구의동
3. When is his birthday?	9/01
4. Does he have any sisters or brothers?	Yes (brother)
5. What is his favourite number?	10
6. What is his favourite colour?	blue
7. What does he usually do after ECC?	art class

Figure 5.1: 'Getting to know your tutee child' card (for male tutees)

For the third issue, I held the camera further away in order to reduce the fear of being observed. Instead, I zoomed in on the children. From the second session, I made sure to check if the participant children are happy with the location of the camera and being video-recorded. For example, the tutor child in pair B did not want to be recorded through a camera for his second interview session, therefore, the data was audio-recorded instead.

5.5 Timeline of the fieldwork

Table 5.4 shows the timeline of the fieldwork, representing the process of obtaining informed consent, the events that took place during the data collection phase, and the peer teaching schedule. It was not easy for me to schedule each session, meetings or activities, and there were delays in some aspects of this phase because each schedule had to be incorporated with school events, public and school holidays and participant children's personal matters. It took me to 5 months to complete the fieldwork.

Table 5.4: Timeline of the fieldwork

Date	Fieldwork schedule
10/10/2012	Arrived in South Korea
18/10/2012	Gained informed consent from the preschool
25/10/2012	Conducted an interview with Korean classroom teachers
26/10/2012 - 07/11/2012	Chose participant children and arranged pairs
08/11/2012 - 30/11/2012	Gained informed consent from parents and participant children
05/12/2012	Pair B Session 1
06/12/2012	Pair A Session 1
12/12/2012	Pair C Session 1
13/12/2012	Pair A Session 2
19/12/2012	Public Holiday (Election Day)
25/12/2012	Public Holiday (Christmas)
27/12/2012	Pair E Session 1
29/12/2012 - 01/01/2013	School Holidays
03/01/2013	Pair A Session 3
09/01/2013	Pair D Session 1
21/01/2013	Meeting (discussed with the tutor children)
23/01/2013	Pair B Session 2
30/01/2013	Pair C Session 2

06/02/2013	Pair D Session 2
07/02/2013	Pair E Session 2
09/02/2013 - 12/02/2013	Public Holiday (Lunar New Year's Day)
13/02/2013	Activity (played a pair game)
18/02/2013	Pair B Session 3
20/02/2013	Pair C Session 3
21/02/2013	Pair E Session 3
25/02/2013	Pair D Session 3

5.6 Ethical issues

Because this study directly looks at children's knowledge, skills, and understandings of different scripts through observation of peer teaching and interview methods, carefully considered ethical plans were needed. Some issues in relation to ethical considerations when conducting research with children such as obtaining informed consent from the school (Section 5.1.1), parents (Section 5.2.1) and participant children (Section 5.2.2), as well as the issue of not causing stress or discomfort to the children (Section 5.4.2) were already discussed in the previous sections. But additional ethical concerns involved protecting children's right to privacy and protection from harm were also considered in this study as follows.

Protecting participants' right to privacy is a fundamental ethical principle (Dörnyei, 2007), and children have the same rights to privacy. In order to protect participant children's privacy, their anonymity will be guaranteed at all times in this study. Their real names or any other evidence that may indicate the person or the school are not going to be used. Moreover, special care has to be taken with video data because children's peer teaching and interview sessions were video-recorded in my research. I will keep data including all hard copies of transcripts and recordings in locked storage, and I will delete the real names and addresses from the data given. In the

research report and in all publication reports, pseudonyms will be used for the participants, and I will not use the data without the permission of parents and children.

For effective teaching/learning experience, and in order to protect each child from harm, all participant children had a chance to learn peer teaching etiquette before each session. They learned how to show good behaviour to a tutor or a tutee, and how to respect each other during peer teaching sessions. Firstly, this was written in a child-friendly leaflet, and then I explained rules for good manners in detail at the individual meeting with participant children. I also had reminded each child of this etiquette before each session began.

A favourable ethical opinion from the AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee, University of Leeds had been obtained on August 23, 2012 (Appendix L).

5.7 Data analysis

As Table 5.5 shows below, the data consist of a record of peer teaching observation and follow-up interviews as well as written texts produced by the children in each session.

Table 5.5: Summary of data set

Data form	Amount of data	Length of data
Observation	15 observed peer teaching sessions (5 pairs x 3 sessions)	approximately 300 minutes in total (20 minutes for each session)
Interview	15 interview sessions (5 pairs x 3 sessions)	approximately 150 minutes in total (10 minutes for each session)
Written text	42 pieces of written texts in total: pair A (7), pair B (10), pair C (6), pair D (9), pair E (10)	

Data analysis was conducted qualitatively, focusing on tutor children's ideas expressed by their talking around reading and writing, their behaviours, and written presentations for three peer teaching and interview sessions for each tutor child. The data were interpreted based on a view of literacy within a sociocultural theory of learning, which "permits for meaning to be constructed from multiple perspectives" (Pérez, 1998, p.16). Here, I also adopted Kress & Van Leeuwen's (1996) 'social semiotic theory', which emphasizes that "the relationship between form and meaning is socially constructed" (Kenner & Kress, 2003, p.183), and children use multiple communicative pathways in literacy practices through different modes of representation where meanings are expressed (Kress, 1997). Therefore, the data analysis focused on multiple modes of communication and representation, including visual, written, verbal, auditory, spatial and gestural resources (such as marks, words, sounds, gestures, images, etc.) in order to fully understand participant children's sophisticated literacy interactions which convey meanings.

The analysis was similar to the 'Signs of Difference' research project conducted by Kenner & Kress (2003) (See Section 3.3) which suggests that "each script is in itself a 'different mode', in which the material affordances of marks traced on a surface have been culturally and socially shaped to give rise to different meaning-making potentials" (p.182). Drawing on the idea that "scriptwriting involves particular kinds of attention to visual detail and particular physical movements" (ibid.), analysis looked at all of these aspects expressed by each child, for example, attention to strokes, shape of letters, length of words, spatial organization of text or direction of writing, in terms of form-meaning relationships. In addition, having considered Kress's (1997) argument, that "the move, the transduction across modes, encourages the synaesthetic potentials of the child in their transformative, creative actions" (p.29), my analysis also focused on children's creative and transformative ideas and meanings across Hangul and English, which are knitted into multiple semiotic resources.

When analyzing data, I focused on the meaning of what each child said, acted and wrote rather than using pre-determined categories focused on specific linguistic features in each script. As the first step, the video data including observation and interview data were transcribed into textual form, and then translated from Korean into English. Along with the verbal data, the children's gestures and behaviours were also described and translated in the transcripts. During the process of translation, some grammatical errors were easily found even in their L1, Korean, and the children sometimes expressed their ideas through non-verbal gestures or behaviours. Therefore, there were problems with some words which do not have exact equivalence in English. However, I focused on the meaning rather than exact equivalents in the linguistic aspects since my research goal was to grasp their understandings expressed by multiple semiotic resources, not to measure their linguistic competence in each script. Hence, I attempted to convey the meaning as closely as possible between the original text in Korean and the translated text in English, using a bilingual dictionary and online translators. Here, my teaching experiences over ten years in the Korean EFL young learner classroom helped me to understand the data, for example, children's meanings expressed through a variety of different modes between Hangul and English. In order to use the best English word or sentence which can convey children's meaning the most closely, I also found several suggestions from a bilingual person in Korean and English, having teaching experiences in young learner classrooms in South Korea. While transcribing and translating, I also made comments on interesting issues emerging from the data. This process of transcribing and translating took about four months, to complete all recordings.

After transcribing, I tried to keep the data manageable since "qualitative data can easily become overwhelming, even in small projects" (Robson, 2002, p.476). Miles & Huberman (1994) wrote that qualitative data can be reduced and transformed through the production of coding, writing memos or summaries. For this, I organized

the data according to participants (pairs), date (sessions), and sources (observation, interviews, and written texts) in a manner where the initials indicate each. For example, '(A, S1, OB)' refers to the data came from the tutor child in pair A, the initial 'S1' for the first session, and 'OB' for the data obtained through the observation of peer teaching respectively. I read the transcripts many times to become familiar with the data, and kept writing notes and summarizing regarding the data, which were closely linked to the research questions.

The next stage involved grouping and labelling based on categories and themes related with each research question. In this study, the analysis focused on the data itself derived from each child, for example, particular features which children were identifying as important rather than relying on the detailed criteria for emergent literacy. Therefore, I used a variety of categories came from my research for patterns in each child's talk, actions or visual representation. Although the relevant data was mostly under three emergent classification schemes: literacy knowledge, literacy skills, and understandings of scripts as Table 5.6 shows, I kept revising and creating several themes or sub-themes according to the data itself.

Table 5.6: Initial analysis framework

RQ	Categories	Themes	Sub-themes
1	Literacy knowledge	the world	background knowledge of topic
		text	structure of text
		sentences	punctuation mark / word order
		words	affixes / morphemes / sight vocabulary / spelling
		syllables	know that words are divided into syllables
		morphemes	meaning of common morpheme
		sound-letters	know different types of sound-letter relationship / name of the alphabet

2	Literacy skills	the world	activate relevant knowledge of topic
		text	find key information in a text
		sentences	identify verb / relation of other words to the verb
		words	recognize by sight / recognize a missing letter in a word
		syllables	break a syllable into onset and rime / body and coda
		morphemes	identify the same morpheme in different words
		sound-letters	identify complex sound-letter relationship / relate letter to sound / notice the initial / final consonant in a word
3	Understandings of scripts	direction of writing	similarities / differences / comparisons / importance
		shape of letters	
		height of letters	
		set of letters	
		word spacing	
		sound-letter relationship	
		others	

They were coded with key words, and the qualitative data analysis software, NVIVO 10 was used for coding. As Hoover & Koerber (2011) wrote, “one of the keys to strong qualitative analysis is the effective management of vast arrays of data” (p.71). In this sense, this software was useful in managing, sorting and developing of the data through making ‘nodes’ which allowed me to create a variety of categories. During this analysis stage, I kept coming back to the original data, and revising the codes throughout the data.

5.8 Summary

This chapter has covered the data collection process employed in the main study. It included a detailed description of:

- Research site and participant children
- Procedures of obtaining informed consent from the school, parents and participant children along with some ethical considerations in doing research with children
- Procedures followed during the implementation of the peer teaching
- Researcher's roles that needed to be taken into account in this study
- Procedures followed in the analysis of the data

6. Findings I : Pair A

This chapter presents results of the peer teaching sessions of KH who acted as a tutor in pair A. The findings include the use of the three sources of data: observation of peer teaching, interviews with tutor children after each teaching session, and the written texts produced by participant children. The ways of presenting the results for each child will be described as follows:

- The first section outlines the teaching of the tutor child in each session. This involves a description of teaching materials that each tutor child used, and literacy activities and teaching strategies which were observed during the peer teaching sessions. This general account provides background information on peer teaching context in which children's literacy interactions occurred.
- The second and third sections present an analysis of each tutor child's explanations, ideas or expressions which exemplify their literacy knowledge and skills as well as their understandings of Hangul and English. The second section contributes to answering research questions 1 and 2 regarding literacy knowledge and skills, and the third one contributes to research question 3 in relation to their understandings of scripts. This is then followed by a summary of findings for each tutor child.
- Transcripts of observation and interview sessions were used to present the findings in this chapter, and each shows line numbers which indicate where each extract came from in the transcripts. It also shows the names of participant children as well as 'R' which refers to a researcher. All the observation and interview extracts which were quoted here were translated from Korean into English, and these were checked with a bilingual person in Korean and English.

6.1 Overview of KH's teaching

During the time KH participated in the peer teaching, she was 6 years and 10 months with more than two years of learning experiences of English in a private English preschool. She had also been studying Hangul with her mother at home since she was 4 years old. A range of storybooks were used for her teaching, and as the session went on, her choice of teaching materials seemed to get easier, considering her tutee's level. I observed that KH enjoyed discussing peer teaching with her tutee before each session. She asked her tutee about favourite topics, characters, or books in the meeting, and these were considered in her teaching. Her tutee, YJ was 5 years and 2 months at the time. Both KH and YJ were keen to be involved in the peer teaching, and they took an active part in all the sessions, having a good sense of rapport with each other. A brief account of KH's teaching sessions will be given in the following sections.

6.1.1 First session

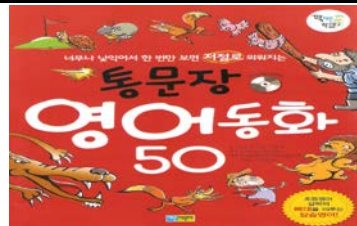
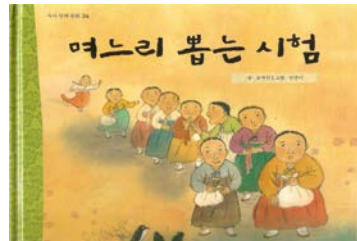
For the first session, KH prepared two different story books as her teaching materials as Table 6.1 shows: one is the book which has 50 short English stories, and the other book is for Hangul in which lots of women appear in the story. In an interview session, I asked her why she chose these books for her teaching, and she replied, 'This book seemed interesting...because it has a lot of stories', and regarding the book for Hangul, she said, 'I could not find Cinderella... but this book has a lot of women'. It is likely that her choice of teaching materials was derived from the discussion with her tutee during the individual meeting before the session in which her tutee's favourite things were discussed. Instead of her tutee's favourite story, 'Cinderella', KH prepared a similar story for her, which is about a woman.

KH taught English first, and began her teaching by reading out a story. She read

each sentence slowly by pointing at each word with her finger so that her tutee, YJ could read and repeat after her. Here, KH read some words by breaking into small units, such as ‘played’ (play-ed) and ‘singing’ (sing-ing) to highlight each morpheme. Then she asked YJ to choose one sentence in the story and write it down on the paper. KH often spelled some English words, and pronounced some English alphabet sounds to help her tutee to write.

When teaching Hangul, KH also began with reading out the story together, pointing at each word. In order to help YJ to read some Hangul words, KH sometimes attempted to show her mouth shape instead of pronouncing its sound. For example, when YJ was struggling to read ‘와’, KH opened her mouth wide to let her tutee look at her mouth shape of articulating ‘와’ /wa/. For Hangul writing, KH tried a dictation test, in which KH called out a word, and then YJ wrote down what she heard. But YJ could not write any words by herself. Finding that YJ needed help, KH explained how to write each stroke one by one, showing a direction of writing. For some Hangul words, she used homonyms to help her tutee to spell. She also drew some boxes along with Hangul words so that her tutee could write each Hangul syllable in each box. Table 6.1 below illustrates KH’s first teaching.

Table 6.1: Overview of KH’s teaching for the first session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
English		reading out a story together	pointing at each word with her finger breaking a word into small units
		writing a sentence on the paper	giving sounds and alphabets
Hangul		reading out a story together	pointing at each word showing a mouth shape
		dictation	showing a stroke order
			using homonyms using the boxes


6.1.2 Second session


The stories KH prepared for her second session looked much easier compared with the books she had used for the first session in terms of number of words and sentence length. I asked her about this, and she answered, ‘These books are a little shorter than the ones I used before...I think these are right for her (YJ) because (these books are) easier and more interesting’. She chose simpler and easier stories for the second teaching because she recognized that the previous stories were too difficult for her tutee.

Like her first lesson, she started to teach English first by reading out a whole story. After they read the story together, KH taught how to write ‘sister’, ‘father’, and ‘hate’ by writing English and Hangul alongside each other. For example, she wrote ‘hate’ on the paper with the equivalent Hangul word, ‘싫어하다’ in order to show equivalent meaning in both English and Hangul.

KH’s teaching focused on punctuation marks, especially a comma when reading a Hangul story. She often pointed out a comma, asking ‘What is this for?’ to her tutee. For some Hangul words which stand for motions, such as ‘팔랑팔랑’ (fluttering) and ‘강충강충’ (hopping), she used body gestures for each word. Like the first session, she ended the session by asking her tutee to write some Hangul words by herself. After dictation, she let YJ write some words three times on the paper. KH’s second teaching is summarized in Table 6.2 below.

Table 6.2: Overview of KH’s teaching for the second session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
English		reading out a story together	pointing at each word with her finger
		writing words on the paper	spelling each word
			writing words both in English and Korean

Hangul		reading out a story together	pointing at each word
			using gestures
		dictation	having a tutee practice words

6.1.3 Third session



As the session went on, both KH and YJ showed more interest in the peer teaching. When KH was asked to tell about her teaching at the end of the third session, she said 'I enjoyed it because YJ spoke loudly today' and 'I think she did better than before'. KH was also becoming familiar with teaching by using stories. Her teaching materials seemed easier and more appropriate for her tutee. For her last session, she selected the stories with repetitive words and sentences such as the pattern of '...없어요 (can't...)' and 'I hide in...'. About her choice, she said, 'These books are interesting and easy'.

KH began her teaching with the story written in Hangul, by having her tutee follow as she read aloud. KH sometimes pointed at a word or a sentence in the story, and asked YJ to read it by herself. In order to help YJ to read, KH drew a picture of a word, representing its meaning. For some difficult Hangul words to pronounce, she also attempted to write phonetic spellings for her. For instance, when realizing that YJ could not read '으' as in '없으니까요', KH wrote '스' instead of '으' on the paper because when '없으니까요' is pronounced, the sound of '으' /eu/ is changed into /seu/ sound, which can be written as '스'.

The story for English was shorter and easier than the one for Hangul, and KH gave YJ more chances to read by herself. After reading, YJ was given a dictation test for English. To help her tutee who was struggling with writing by herself, KH attempted to make a sentence when giving her a word. For example, KH called out 'is' along

with the sentences, ‘the apple *is...*’, and ‘the rocket *is...*’ by emphasizing the word, ‘is’. Table 6.3 below summarizes KH’s teaching for the last session.

Table 6.3: Overview of KH’s teaching for the third session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
Hangul		reading out a story together	pointing at each word with her finger
			drawing a picture
			writing phonetic spellings
English		reading out a story together	pointing at each word
		dictation	giving examples of sentences

6.2 Literacy knowledge and skills demonstrated by KH

6.2.1 Punctuation marks

Throughout the peer teaching, KH drew attention to punctuation marks. When she taught English in her first session, she asked her tutee not to forget to write a full stop and a comma although she didn’t seem to know the names of each mark exactly. For example, KH called a full stop as ‘점’ (dot) when asking her tutee to add it at the end of a sentence. Her teaching of a comma was shown on many occasions in her second session when she read aloud a story written in Hangul. She often pointed out a comma, and let YJ notice it by saying, ‘take a break’.

In her second session, her teaching focused on not only for a full stop and a comma but for a question mark as shown in the following extract.

Extract: 6-1/A: Observation data: session 2

- 227 KH *(draws a circle around a question mark on the page) Do you know what this is? (writes a question mark on the paper)*
- 228 YJ *I don't know.*
- 229 KH *Hmm...when you ask "do you have this?" to your friend, Sally..*
- 230 YJ *Yes.*
- 231 KH *(writes a question mark again on the paper) then you write this here.*

As the extract shows, she explained when a question mark is used in a sentence by giving her tutee an example sentence. In the interview session, I asked her about some punctuation marks she had explained during the peer teaching, and here, she also said about quotation marks, by saying 'when we say' as Extract 6-2 shows below.

Extract: 6-2/A: Interview data: session 2

- 39 R *(points at a full stop) What is this?*
- 40 KH *The thing we use to end (a sentence).*
- 41 R *A full stop placed at the end (of a sentence). And?*
- 42 KH *(points at a comma) this one?*
- 43 R *Yes?*
- 44 KH *The thing we use to take a break.*
- 45 R *A comma, which is used to take a break. Anything else?*
- 46 KH *Hmm... (points at double quotation marks) when we say.*
- 47 R *Quotation marks, which are used when we say.*

These examples derived from KH's teaching of punctuations marks indicate that she was trying to explain the roles of punctuation whilst pointing out each mark in a sentence at certain necessary points. Her use of the expressions, 'take a break', 'the thing we use to end', 'when we say' seemed to show her literacy knowledge of the punctuation marks and her interpretation of their roles in a sentence although she didn't give me the exact names of each mark.

6.2.2 Plural suffix, 들

The findings showed that KH seemed to know an affix in a word. In the final observation of KH's teaching, she highlighted '들' /deul/, which is one of the plural suffixes in Hangeul. KH's knowledge of a suffix was demonstrated when she was reading a story with her tutee in the third session. She asked YJ to repeat '물고기들' (fish: plural), but YJ said '물고기' (fish: singular) without '들'. KH asked her to read '물고기들' again by telling her that '들' should not be missed, but YJ kept missing '들'. Finally, KH wrote '물고기들' on the paper and drew a circle around '들'. She proceeded to place an arrow to '들' as a reminder, as Figure 6.1 shows below.

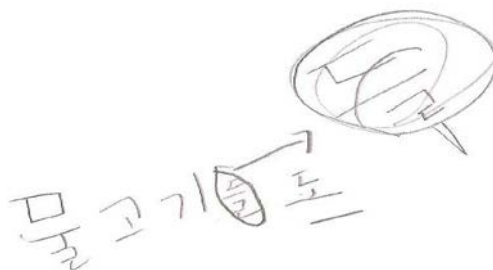


Figure 6.1: Written text produced by KH (들)

When I asked her to explain further about the use of '들' in the following interview session, she stated that it is used 'when there are so many'. She was also able to explain how 물고기 and 물고기들 are different as Extract 6-3 shows.

Extract: 6-3/A: Interview data: session 3

- 75 R When do you use 들?
76 KH (We use it) when there are so many.
77 R We use 들 when there are so many. 물고기 and 물고기들 are...
78 KH (shakes her head) different.
79 R Different. How are they different?
80 KH 물고기 is for one fish, and 물고기들 is for many fish.

The observation and the interview data show that at the age of six, KH was able not only to look at a certain part of a word, but also to recognize that it held significance, which should not be omitted to make a distinction between words.

6.2.3 Organization of text

In KH's first session, she demonstrated her knowledge of a text structure, about a story page. After KH read a story with YJ, she asked YJ to choose one sentence in a story, and write it down on the paper. When her tutee was about to begin her writing, KH asked YJ to draw a picture first on the paper by saying, 'firstly, draw a picture here' pointing at the bottom of the page. And then she said 'then you will write here' pointing at the top margin of the page with the emphasis on the location. The Figure 6.2 below shows the written text produced by YJ, following her tutor's instruction.

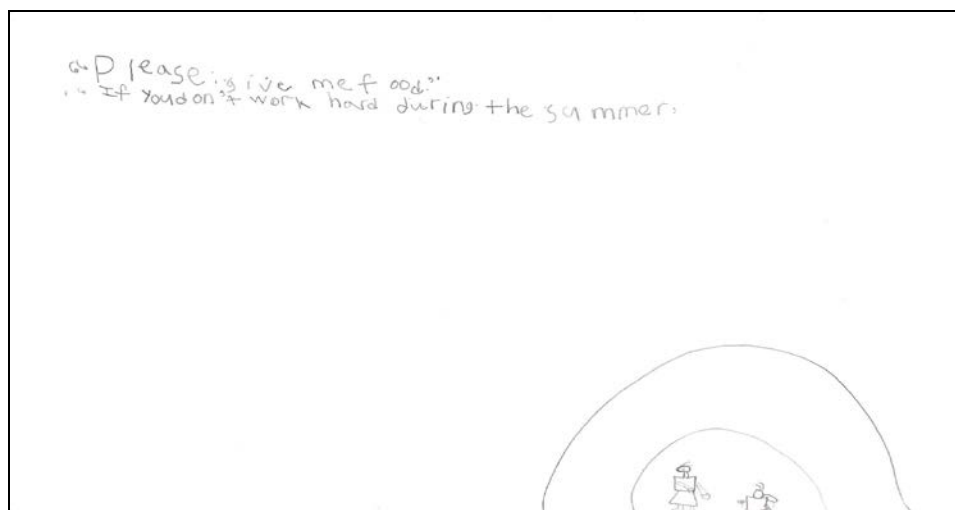


Figure 6.2: Story page produced by YJ

This written text, which is composed of the lines above along with an illustration underneath, may display her awareness of the visual organization of a story page, showing an appropriate amount of writing and the location of an illustration on the story page.

6.3 KH's understandings of Hangul and English

6.3.1 The use of boxes

The key characteristic of Hangul which differentiates it from English is its visual appearance. In Hangul, alphabet letters are combined into a syllable block, which looks square-shaped unlike English which is linear (See Section 1.2.1). The data showed that KH seemed to understand this difference, and it was observed when she was teaching Hangul by using boxes in the first session. When KH asked YJ to write '나비' (butterfly), she gave YJ two blocks on the paper as Extract 6-4 and Figure 6.3 present below.

Extract: 6-4/A: Observation data: session 1

- 136 KH *(draws one rectangle on the paper, and then draws the vertical line to split the rectangle in half, to make two squares)*
Can you write 나비 (butterfly) here? 나비 (butterfly)?
- 137 YJ *(nods)*
- 138 KH *(points at the first block) 나, (points at the second block) 비.*
Write this way. One blank is for 나, and the other one is for 비.

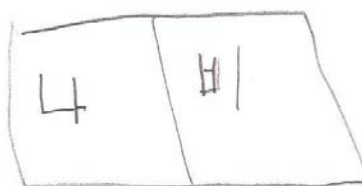


Figure 6.3: '나비' produced by YJ

As the examples show, KH's use of boxes for Hangul writing may illustrate two points: the fact that Hangul is box-shaped, and each box itself is a syllable. In the case of '나비' (butterfly), two different syllable blocks, '나' and '비' make the word, '나비'. KH showed her awareness of its syllabic feature by saying 'one blank is for

나, and the other one is for 비' along with her awareness of the visual aspect of Hangul by using blocks.

Her way of Hangul writing with the boxes was also used for a sentence. Later in the same session, when she was asking YJ to write a sentence, '의자가 말하네' meaning 'a chair is saying', she wrote the sentence on the paper first, and then drew the boxes underneath so that YJ could write each syllable in each box. Figure 6.4 shows YJ's writing with the boxes which were given from her tutor.

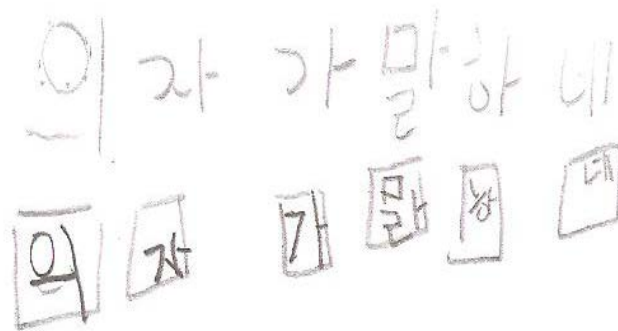


Figure 6.4: Written text produced by KH and YJ (boxes)

KH used these boxes only for Hangul in her teaching, hence, during the interview session, I asked KH about her use of boxes when teaching Hangul. She said she used them to help YJ to write easily, but in this interview, I could see that she was aware of a further difference between Hangul and English as the extract shows below.

Extract: 6-5/A: Interview data: session 1

- 61 R Look at these. (points at the boxes she drew) When you taught Hangul, you used these square boxes. This was very interesting to me. May I ask you why?
- 62 KH (nods)
- 63 R What is it?
- 64 KH To help (her) to write easily.

- 65 R *To help (her) to write easily. But you did not use these boxes when teaching English, did you? Why did you use the boxes only for Hangul?*
- 66 KH *Because... for English, I need to use (each box) for each letter.*
- 67 R *Each box for each letter for English... How about Hangul?*
- 68 KH *For Hangul... I need only a few boxes.*
- 69 R *Only a few boxes? Because (letters) can be put in one box?*
- 70 KH *(nods)*

As seen in this extract, she compared between Hangul and English by saying, ‘for English, I need to use (each box) for each letter...for Hangul...I need only a few boxes’. She showed her understanding of an orthographic difference between two languages in her own words, with a number of boxes. It seems likely that KH was aware that English alphabet letters cannot be put together in one box like Hangul alphabets.

6.3.2 Stroke

KH’s teaching focussed on individual strokes. This was demonstrated when she was teaching ‘푸’ as in ‘푸른’ (blue), ‘비’ as in ‘나비’ (butterfly), ‘주’ as in ‘주문’ (spell), and ‘의자’ (chair). On every occasion, KH let her tutee pay attention to each stroke. For instance, when she was showing how to write ‘주’, she explained that it is different from ‘추’, which is visually similar to ‘주’ with an emphasis on a small stroke. She added a stroke ‘ ’ onto ‘ㄷ’ and crossed it out by saying, ‘you should not put this here’. Similarly, when she was teaching ‘의’ as in ‘의자’ (chair), she also showed a similar looking letter, ‘으’ along with ‘의’. After she showed how to write ‘의’, she wrote ‘으’ above and crossed it out, saying ‘not 으 but 의’. Figure 6.5 shows examples of KH’s written texts when teaching ‘주’ and ‘의’, which might demonstrate her perception of a difference derived from a small stroke.



Figure 6.5: Written text produced by KH (stroke)

6.3.3 Phonetic writing

One of the orthographic characteristics in Hangeul is that one or two consonants, which are called ‘batchim’ can be placed at the bottom, following the consonant-vowel combination in a syllable. Here, in the case of batchim with two consonants, it can be difficult to identify which consonant is actually pronounced among two (Section 1.2.2). Based on my observations of KH’s third session, she seemed to show her awareness of the irregular sound of batchim by representing it as phonetic writing. For example, when her tutee was struggling with pronouncing ‘안아요’, KH wrote ‘안’ instead of ‘안’ on the paper so that her tutee could make the sound of /an/ ‘안’ because when ‘안’ is read, it is pronounced as /an/, which can be written as ‘안’. Her phonetic writing, ‘안’ may show that she was aware that ‘ㄴ’ is pronounced among ‘ㄴㅎ’ as in ‘안’.

When talking about her own way of writing in the interview session, she said, ‘that is because of pronunciation’ as the extract shows below.

Extract: 6-6/A: Interview data: session 3

58 R When you explained 안아요, you wrote (points at 안 she

wrote) *ㄹ*. But here, (points at *ㄹ* as in *ㄹ*아요 in the book) this is not *ㄹ*.

59 KH Yes.

60 R May I ask you why you wrote *ㄹ* instead of *ㄹ*?

61 KH Because...that is because of pronunciation.

62 R Pronunciation?

63 KH Yes, to help her to pronounce easily.

As seen in this interview, although she was not yet able to explain exactly why, she clearly stated that she wrote in that way because of pronunciation. It is possible to say that her phonetic writing stemmed from her recognition that there is a certain irregular phonological rule in Hangeul batchim, and its sound can be differently realized when it is written.

6.3.4 Sound-letter connection

The observation data showed that KH was aware of some Hangeul and English alphabets and their sounds. When she asked YJ to write some words, she often gave her a sound, which is correspondent with a certain alphabet letter. Below are some examples of her teaching in which she sought a connection between a letter and a sound such as 'd' and /d/, 't' and /t/, 'ㅍ' and /p/, 'ㅊ' and /dʒ/.

Extract: 6-7/A: Observation data: session 1

35 KH don't... /d/.. /t/

109 KH 푸른... /p/, /p/

160 KH 주인..주.. /dʒ/.. /dʒ/.. /dʒ/

Moreover, in KH's teaching, she noticed a link between a Hangul alphabet and an English alphabet, which have the same sound. Hangul and English alphabets have many equivalent sounds although there are some alphabet letters which don't have a corresponding sound between them (for example, Hangul doesn't have /r/ and /f/ sounds). In the first session, KH sought a connection between 'ㅍ' and 'p', having the same /p/ sound when she was teaching '푸른' (blue). She related 'ㅍ' to 'p' by emphasizing its equivalent sound /p/ as Extract 6-8 shows.

Extract: 6-8/A: Observation data: session 1

118 KH When you write 푸른, you need to write 'ㅍ' here. 'p', /p/, /p/...

6.4 Summary of findings for KH

(Literacy knowledge and skills)

- KH knew how punctuation marks work in a sentence. Literacy knowledge and skills in relation to a suffix in a word, and a structure of text were also demonstrated in her peer teaching sessions.

(Understandings of Hangul and English)

- KH's understandings of Hangul and English were displayed mainly through her use of boxes, attention to a stroke, phonetic writing, and equivalent sounds. These exemplify her awareness of some of the principles which characterise Hangul and English, such as visual aspects, orthographic rules, and sound-letter relationship.

7. Findings II: Pair B

7.1 Overview of YB's teaching

YB was 6 years and 9 months at the time of the peer teaching. He had been learning English at ECC since 5 years old, and before he joined ECC, he had learned English with his mother at home. He had also learned Hangul at home before 3 years old through the flash cards with his mother. According to the interview data with Korean classroom teachers, YB was an active student who was confident in his proficiency in both Hangul and English in a class, but the observation data showed that he seemed to be rather quiet and shy at the beginning of his teaching. I had to ask him to comment or explain more on his teaching during the first session, but as the session went on, he showed more confidence and interest in the peer teaching. He used different stories and a workbook for his teaching, and he seemed to consider his tutee's level and his favourite topics when choosing the materials. His tutee SJ was a boy aged 5 years and 2 months, and he was a bit naughty during the peer teaching. He usually participated in his learning in a reluctant way, hence I had to keep reminding him of peer teaching etiquette before and after each session. However, after having the time with his tutor through the activities ('Getting to know your tutee child' card and pair games), his behaviours changed, showing more willingness to learn.


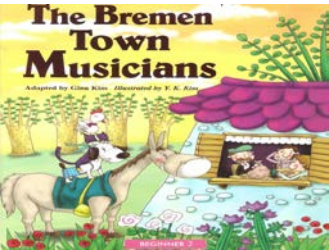
7.1.1 First session

YB started to teach Hangul first by using a workbook for his first session. The workbook he brought was the series book published by one of the educational companies in South Korea. It was designed for children beginning to study Hangul,

and each workbook is levelled according to children's age. For his tutee, he chose the level D2, which is for preschoolers or the first graders in the elementary school. When I asked him about his choice of the workbook in the interview session, he answered that 'I thought this workbook would be easy for him (SJ)'. The pages he had chosen were about solving word puzzles, and he asked his tutee SJ to fill in the blanks to complete Hangul words. When I suggested YB should teach more about the two words, '원숭이' (monkey) and '독수리' (eagle) that his tutee was struggling to write, he wrote them on the paper along with the lines underneath so that his tutee could practice writing each word on the line.

For English, YB prepared 'The Bremen Town Musicians', which is a story he had read before in a class at ECC. When he was asked about this story he had brought, he said 'This book looked easy for him (SJ) to read'. However, when he began his English teaching with asking SJ to read sentences in the story, his tutee could not read any of it. Finding that his tutee was experiencing difficulty with reading, YB opened the glossary page in the back of the story, in which some key words are listed with pictures, and asked SJ to copy each word on the page. YB's first teaching is summarized in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1: Overview of YB's teaching for the first session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
Hangul		completing word puzzles	reading out words by pointing at each word
		writing words	having a tutee practice writing words on the lines
English		writing words	having a tutee copy some words which are on the glossary page of the story


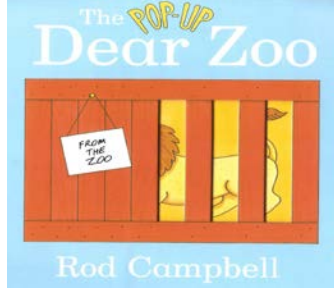
7.1.2 Second session

For the second session, YB brought the same Hangul workbook which he had used in his first session, but for English, he prepared a different story, 'Dear Zoo' which looked easier than the previous story. When I asked him about the different English story he had brought during the interview, he replied, 'I changed the story because the previous one was difficult for him', and about the same workbook for Hangul, he said 'This book is neither easy nor difficult for him'. It is likely that he realized that his Hangul material was appropriate for his tutee, but the story for English should be easier than the first one.

YB began to teach Hangul with the pages about animals in the workbook. He asked SJ to draw a line to match pictures with words, and to fill in the blanks to complete Hangul words. After completing the workbook exercises, YB wrote '소의 아기는 ○○○' (a baby cow is a ○○○) on the paper, which was related to the task his tutee have done on the page. He asked SJ to write the answer in the blanks, and with his tutor's help, SJ wrote the answer, '송아지' (calf) in each blank.

When YB was teaching English with the story, 'Dear Zoo', he asked SJ to predict which animal is going to be inside the different containers, and let him open the flaps on the pages. Compared with the first session, his tutee SJ repeated each sentence after his tutor, showing more interest and active participation in reading. After reading together, YB used the blanks again for his tutee to write the answer by himself about the story, but his use of the blanks looked a bit different from the one he had used for Hangul. He chose the word, 'elephant' in the story, and wrote it on the paper with the blanks like 'EOEOHONO'. He put the blanks between the alphabet letters this time, so that his tutee could complete an English word. As a final activity, YB scrambled the words, 'frog' and 'lion', and asked SJ to unscramble them. Table 7.2 outlines YB's second teaching.

Table 7.2: Overview of YB's teaching for the second session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
Hangul		matching picture with words	reading out words by pointing at each word
		completing words	
		riddle	using the blanks
English		reading out a story together	pointing at each word
			having a tutee make predictions
			using the flaps in the story
		completing words	using the blanks
			scrambling words

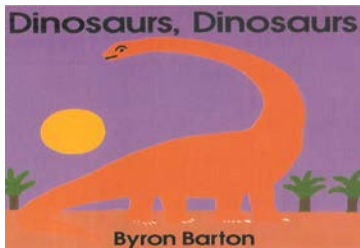

7.1.3 Third session

For the third session, YB prepared two different stories: an English story about dinosaurs, and a Hangul story about wheels in which a number of vehicles appear. When he was asked about these stories, he answered that 'I am interested in these (dinosaurs and vehicles)'. I found that his answers were different from the ones such as 'this book looked easy for him to read' or 'the previous story was difficult for him'. In the previous sessions, he seemed to consider his tutee's level when choosing the materials, but for his last teaching, he chose the stories about his favourite topics, dinosaurs and vehicles.

YB taught English first and began his teaching by asking SJ to read a story silently. After reading, YB asked his tutee which English words were difficult for him to understand in the story. Seeing that SJ pointed at the sentence, 'There were dinosaurs with horns', YB explained what that sentence means in Korean. Then he wrote it on the paper and let SJ repeat each word after him.

When teaching Hangul, YB seemed to be more comfortable and confident in his teaching. During reading the story, he gave his tutee some questions about each page in order to relate the story to his tutee's personal experiences, and to have him make predictions. For example, when seeing different vehicles on the page, YB asked 'Which one do you want to ride here?' to his tutee. And when reading the page about a train, he asked SJ 'What is faster than this?' to let him predict what vehicle is going to be on the next page. After reading the story, YB gave his tutee a quiz about vehicles. He wrote '철도로 다니는 것' (vehicles on the rail), '하늘로 다니는 것' (vehicles in the sky) and '땅에서 다니는 것' (vehicles on the ground) on the paper in Korean. It was likely that he wanted to review the story by asking his tutee to write the correct vehicles under three different categories. SJ wrote the correct answers next to each question with his tutor's help. YB's third teaching is summarized in Table 7.3 below.

Table 7.3: Overview of YB's teaching for the third session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
English		reading a story	having a tutee read a story silently
			translation
Hangul		reading a story	relating the story to a tutee's personal experiences
		quiz	having a tutee make predictions
			categorizing

7.2 YB's understandings of Hangul and English

7.2.1 Batchim

One of the issues that most frequently emerged from the interview sessions with YB was 'batchim'. When I asked him to say anything about Hangul and English in the last interview session, he compared the difference between the two languages with batchim, saying, 'English doesn't have batchim, but Hangul has'.

His knowledge of batchim was demonstrated in detail when he was asked about his experiences in learning Hangul and English in the second interview session. He said that it was more difficult for him to learn Hangul than English so far because of some Hangul words, having '받침 두 개' (batchim with two consonants). This interview data showed that YB knew not only its special name, 'batchim', which means 'supporting', but also the fact that along with a single consonant, two consonants can be also placed at the bottom in the syllable. The interview data also showed that he was aware of particular difficulties in writing batchim with consonant clusters derived from its irregular feature. When I asked him which Hangul word having batchim is difficult for him, he started to write '닭' (chicken) on the paper as Figure 7.1 shows below.



Figure 7.1: Written text produced by YB (batchim)

As the written text shows, he misspelled the word at first: he wrote 'ㄷㅌ' underneath instead of 'ㄷㅌ' as in '닭'. Finding that the batchim he wrote was wrong, he crossed it out, and wrote '닭' correctly again. It is likely that he wrote the second consonant 'ㄱ'

first since it is pronounced among the consonants ‘ㄹ’. When I asked him again why ‘달’ is difficult, he said that he is confused about the consonant clusters ‘ㄹ’ as the following extract illustrates.

Extract: 7-1/B: Interview data: session 2

- 58 R *Why do you think that 달 is difficult? Why is 받침 (batchim) difficult?*
 59 YB *Because...*
 60 R *Yes?*
 61 YB *(points at ㄹ as in 달 he wrote) These are confusing.*

As can be seen from the above data, he was aware of batchim as one of the principles governing Korean orthography along with the fact that two consonants can be placed underneath, and in particular, batchim with consonant clusters is irregularly pronounced in speech.

7.2.2 Basic units of Hangul and English (syllables vs. alphabets)

Hangul has always been written in syllable blocks, thus, the syllable is an important unit for Hangul learning (Section 1.2.1). Based on my observations of YB’s peer teaching, I found that he also considered the syllable blocks as the individual units in Hangul. In his second session, he gave his tutee a question with three blanks, which may indicate the number of syllables as Figure 7.2 shows below.



Figure 7.2: Written text produced by YB and SJ (blanks for Hangul)

As seen in the written text, he provided his tutee with three blanks so that the answer ‘송아지’ (calf), which consists of three syllable blocks could be put in each blank. This shows that he seemed to think of the word, ‘송아지’ as consisting not of seven units according to the number of letters such as ‘ㅅ’, ‘ㅇ’, ‘ㅇ’, ‘ㅏ’, ‘ㅈ’, ‘ㅣ’, but of three units, ‘송’, ‘아’, ‘지’.

Interestingly, YB also used the blanks for English, but here, his use of blanks looked different from the one he had used for Hangul as Figure 7.3 shows.



Figure 7.3: Written text produced by YB (blanks for English)

As the figure shows, YB wrote ‘EOEOHONO’ on the paper by asking his tutee to fill out the blanks with correct alphabet letters to complete ‘elephant’. He used each blank for each alphabet letter for English, and this might show that he thinks of ‘elephant’ as consisting of eight units in terms of the number of alphabet letters while he used each blank for each syllable for Hangul.

His awareness of individual English alphabet letters was further described in the final activity. After seeing that his tutee wrote ‘elephant’, YB scrambled two English words, ‘frog’ and ‘lion’ on the paper, and asked his tutee to unscramble them. As Figure 7.4 shows, he drew a line underneath for his tutee to unscramble the word, ‘lion’ on the line.

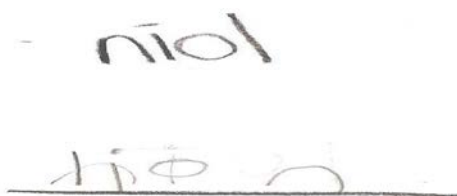


Figure 7.4: Written text produced by YB and SJ (scrambling)

This observation data and written texts suggest that YB seemed to consider individual letters as the basic units of English, but for Hangul, the number of syllables was recognized as the basic units of writing system although each Hangul syllable block contains alphabet letters.

7.3 Summary of findings for YB

(Understandings of Hangul and English)

- YB had considerable knowledge of batchim. He was aware not only of batchim with two consonants, but also of its irregular pronunciation.
- YB was able to recognize each writing system with different basic units, such as the number of alphabet letters for English, and the number of syllables for Hangul.

8. Findings III: Pair C

8.1 Overview of HB's teaching

When the peer teaching took place, HB was 6 years and 8 months. She had been studying English in private English preschools for about three years, and she had been learning Hangul with her mother at home up to the age of 3. I observed that she brought more teaching materials compared to other tutor children, showing willingness and interest in the peer teaching. Her tutee HM was a quiet boy aged 5 years and 2 months. He did not speak much during the peer teaching, hence, sometimes it was necessary for me to encourage him to join and speak during the sessions. Although he remained silent most of the sessions, his behaviour changed steadily, and in the third session, he showed more active participation in his learning.

8.1.1 First session

HB prepared two resources for English: a short English story, and an English workbook containing a variety of reading and writing activities. She started to teach English by reading out a story and asking her tutee to repeat after her, but her tutee HM remained silent. Finding that the story was difficult for her tutee to read, she closed the story and opened another piece of material, the workbook. She read out sentences in the workbook, and showed how to complete sentences by filling out the blanks with words. When I asked her to teach more on how to read and write the words, 'tree', 'flower' and 'grass' on the page, she started to write them on the paper and spelled each word. Then she provided dotted lines underneath so that HM could write the words along the dotted lines as Figure 8.1 shows. HM wrote the words following the dotted lines.

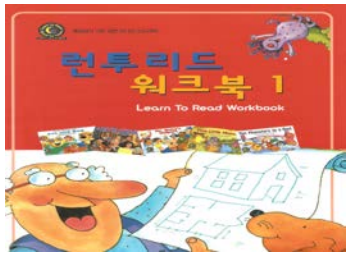

tree flower grass
 three flower grass

Figure 8.1: Written text produced by HB and HM (dotted lines)

For Hangul, HB brought a workbook, the same one that another tutor YB in pair B used in his first and second sessions. But HB chose the easier level, C3 than the level of YB’s material, D2 as Table 8.1 shows. During the session, she taught two Hangul words which stand for motions. These were ‘엣금엣금’, representing slowness of motion, and ‘아장아장’, suggesting the motion of a toddling baby - there is no English equivalent for these two words. Like her English teaching, she provided dotted lines for her tutee to write the words. When introducing each word, she made example sentences with those words. For example, she made a sentence, ‘거북이가 엣금엣금 기어갑니다’ (a turtle is crawling) to explain the word, ‘엣금엣금’.

Table 8.1 below summarizes HB’s first teaching.

Table 8.1: Overview of HB’s teaching for the first session


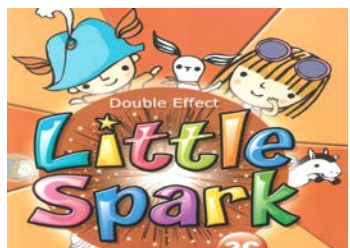
Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
English		completing a sentence	reading out a sentence and showing how to complete it
		writing words	spelling each word
			using dotted lines
Hangul		writing words	using dotted lines
			giving example sentences

8.1.2 Second session

HB began her second teaching with the same Hangul workbook she had used in the first session. Regarding this workbook, she said ‘I learned Hangul with this workbook when I was younger’. She chose the pages with antonyms this time, and started to teach how to read and write ‘새 옷’ (new clothes), ‘헌 옷’ (old clothes) and ‘높은 탑’ (high tower), ‘낮은 탑’ (low tower). When HB was asked about her choice of the pages about antonyms, she said that ‘This is easy and simple’. Like her first lesson, HB wrote the words with dotted lines to help her tutee to complete the words along the lines.

She prepared a phonic workbook for English, and she taught HM the words, ‘skate’, ‘scoop’, ‘smoke’, ‘snow’, ‘snail’, ‘snake’, and ‘cookie’. Similar to her teaching for Hangul, she showed how to read each word, and then wrote them with dotted lines for her tutee to copy each word. HB’s second teaching is summarized in Table 8.2 below.

Table 8.2: Overview of HB’s teaching for the second session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
Hangul		writing words	reading out each word
			using dotted lines
English		writing words	reading out each word
			using dotted lines

8.1.3 Third session

For the third session, HB prepared four different stories - two stories for each language. Among the stories, she used the two stories shown in Table 8.3. While her previous teaching seemed to focus on doing literacy activities in the workbook, she spent her time mostly on reading out the stories in the last session. I also observed that she taught some words in the workbook for the previous sessions, but for her last teaching, she chose some sentences in the story.

She read out a whole story, 'Bath Time', and then provided dotted lines again for the three sentences in the story: 'I turn on the water', 'I dip my toe in', and 'Dad pours bubbly soap'. Her tutee repeated each sentence after her, and followed the dotted lines to complete each sentence. HB taught Hangul in the same way by using a story, '너무 늦었어요!' (It's too late!). She let HM write the sentence, '다람쥐 쫄쫄이가 아침 일찍 집을 나섰어요' (The squirrel, named 쫄쫄이 left his house early in the morning) in the story. Accordingly, there was no differentiation between the language activities in her second and third session. Table 8.3 below summarizes HB's last teaching.

Table 8.3: Overview of HB's teaching for the third session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
English		reading a story	reading out a whole story
		writing sentences	using dotted lines
Hangul		reading a story	reading out a whole story
		writing sentences	using dotted lines

8.2 Literacy knowledge and skills demonstrated by HB

8.2.1 Antonyms and sentential negation

In the second session, HB's teaching focused on antonyms when teaching Hangul. She chose the pages about four adjective antonyms: '새' (new), '헌' (old), '높은' (high), '낮은' (low) in the workbook, and let her tutee write each word. I asked her to say more about antonyms in the following interview session, and here, she gave me two example sentences as Extract 8-1 shows below.

Extract: 8-1/C: Interview data: session 2

- 131 R *Today, you taught about some Hangul opposite words. Could you please tell me more about opposite words?*
- 132 HB *Yes.*
- 133 R *What do you know?*
- 134 HB *책이 책꽂이에 많으면 책이 책꽂이에 없고 (there are many books in the bookshelf, and there is no book in the bookshelf).*
- 135 R *And?*
- 136 HB *글씨가 보드에 써 있으면 반대말로 글씨가 보드에 안 써 있는 거 (the letters are written on the board, and the letters are not written on the board).*

In the first example sentence (line number 134), she said the adjective, '없다' (there is no / do not exist) as the antonym for the adjective '많다' (many), showing that she was aware that those words mean the opposite of each other. On the other hand, her second example sentence (line number 136) seems to show her further knowledge of negation in a sentence. This sentence can be divided into two short sentences as follows.

글씨가 보드에 써 있다. (The letters are written on the board.)

글씨가 보드에 안 써 있다. (The letters are **not** written on the board.)

As seen in the sentences above, HB was able to turn the declarative sentence into the negative sentence by using '안', which means 'not' in English. In Hangul, two

types of negative adverbs, ‘안’ (not) and ‘못’ (can’t) are used to create negative sentences (Lee & Ramsey, 2000; Sohn, 1999), and the data above shows that HB was aware of a negation element ‘안’ to negate a Hangul sentence.

HB’s knowledge of antonyms and negation was also demonstrated in English. When I asked her about English antonyms as a further question, she gave me the examples as Extract 8-2 shows.

Extract: 8-2/C: Interview data: session 2

- 141 R Do you know about English opposite words?
142 HB Cold and hot
143 R Yes?
144 HB Peoples and no peoples

The data showed that she was also able to say two antonyms in English, ‘cold and hot’ which have the opposite meaning. In addition, as the example, ‘peoples and no peoples’ shows, she seemed to consider ‘no’ as a negation element in English although she didn’t give me a full sentence such as ‘there are people / there are no people’. Based on the examples, it is possible to say that her knowledge of antonyms and awareness of simple negation was demonstrated across the languages: not just in her first language Hangul, but also in English.

8.3 HB’s understandings of Hangul and English

8.3.1 Irregular sound-letter relationship in English: schwa

An analysis of HB’s data showed that she seemed to understand complex sound-letter relationship in English. According to the interview data of the first session, HB felt that Hangul was easy but English was a bit difficult in her experiences in learning both languages. She justified this by saying ‘English has many difficult words... spellings’. When I asked her which English word was difficult

for her to spell, she said the word, 'apartment'. The extract below shows why she thinks 'apartment' is difficult.

Extract: 8-3/C: Interview data: session 1

- 87 R *Why do you think that 'apartment' is difficult?*
88 HB *Because...*
89 R *Yes.*
90 HB *(points at the word) It should be 'm', 'n', 't' but...*
91 R *Yes.*
92 HB *'m', 'e', 'n', 't' confuse me.*
93 R *Are you confused about whether it has 'm', 'a', 'n', 't' or 'm', 'e', 'n', 't'?*
94 HB *No. 'm', 'n', 't' or 'm', 'e', 'n', 't'*
95 R *'m', 'a', 'n', 't' or 'm', 'e', 'n', 't'? Do 'a' and 'e' confuse you?*
96 HB *No.*
97 R *Then what?*
98 HB *I am confused about whether it has 'm', 'n', 't' or*
99 R *Yes.*
100 HB *'m', 'e', 'n', 't'*
101 R *I see. 'e' is confusing... whether it has 'e' or not*
102 HB *(nods)*

At first, I thought that she was confused about whether 'apartment' has 'mant' or 'ment' at the end, but as the extract shows, she kept saying 'no' in response to my comments, and insisting that she was confused about whether it has 'mnt' or 'ment'. Regarding her confusion of 'e' or not, she said 'it should be 'm', 'n', 't'', which means that the word should be written as 'apartmnt' without 'e', not 'apartment', having 'e'. Based on the data, I found that her idea of 'mnt' derived from the fact that the vowel 'e' as in 'ment' is in an unstressed syllable as in 'apartment', thus its sound is weakened. In English, stress can have a great effect on the sound-letter correspondence, and it is not recognized in orthography (Taylor & Taylor, 1983). In 'apartment', the second syllable, 'part' is stressed, hence the vowel 'a' in the syllable is fully sounded as /á:/ whereas the vowels in the unstressed syllables: 'a' in the first syllable and 'e' in the third syllable are represented as /ə/. As seen in the extract, she was aware that the sounds of some letters may not be fully pronounced in English.

8.3.2 Different length of words between Hangul and English

HB was able to compare the length of words between Hangul and English, showing her understanding of English which is written in a row, and the formation of a syllable block in Hangul. When I gave her the same question, which is about her experiences in learning Hangul and English in the second interview session, she gave the same answer, 'English is more difficult than Hangul'. In the first session, the reason was English pronunciation, but this time, she said another reason by showing me two example words. She wrote 'elementary school' on the paper as a difficult English word along with '똥', which means 'poo' as an easy Hangul word. As Figure 8.2 shows below, she wrote these two words alongside each other and said 'Hangul is easier... because it doesn't have many long words'. She compared linear alphabetic writing, 'elementary school' in which 16 individual letters are arranged in a row to one Hangul word '똥', in which four letters are arranged in one syllable block. When I further asked her why '똥' is easy, she replied, 'because it is only one word'. It seems likely that she was aware that Hangul has fewer longer words than English which may come from the way of arranging blocks, and such length of words made her think that Hangul is easier.

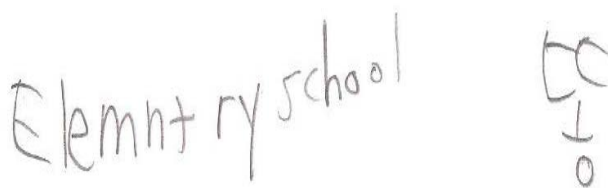
The image shows two pieces of handwritten text. On the left, the English phrase 'Elementary school' is written in a cursive, lowercase font, with the letters 'Elementary' and 'school' connected. On the right, the Korean word '똥' (poo) is written in a simple, blocky font, consisting of four distinct characters arranged vertically.

Figure 8.2: Written text produced by HB (length of words)

8.3.3 Similar letters between Hangul and English

According to the data, HB seemed to show her understanding of the similarity between Hangul and English in terms of shapes of letters. When I suggested her to

say everything she knows about Hangul and English in the second interview session, she said about four similar looking alphabet letters between Hangul and English: (an English vowel 'o' and a Hangul consonant 'ㅇ'), (a Hangul consonant 'ㅍ' and an English consonant 'f'). She said that English 'o' and Hangul 'ㅇ' look the same, and Hangul 'ㅍ' and English 'f' look similar. Figure 8.3 below illustrates her idea of arranging the two letters, which are facing backwards.



Figure 8.3: Written text produced by HB (shape of letters)

Her awareness of letter shapes between two languages was also found in the third interview session when I gave her the same question. Here, she gave me another example, 'N' and 'ㄴ'. She wrote a capital 'N' in the air with her finger and then made a Hangul consonant 'ㄴ' with her hands by saying, "N' and 'ㄴ' look similar". As can be seen from the examples above, she was able to seek for the similarity between two different writing systems with the visual features of letters.

8.3.4 Direction of writing

The data showed that HB seemed to consider a sequence of writing as the most important aspect in both languages. Firstly, it was demonstrated by her use of dotted lines during the peer teaching. In every session, and for both languages, she gave HM the words with dotted lines so that her tutee could practice the words along the lines. When I asked her why, she answered that 'to help him (HM) not to be confused about the sequence' as the extract shows. Here, in order to explain the correct sequence, she showed me how to write the word, '새 옷', from left to right, and from

top to bottom.

Extract: 8-4/C: Interview data: session 2

- 46 R *Today, you used dotted lines when you teach. Can I ask you why?*
- 47 HB *... to help him not to be confused about the sequence.*
- 48 R *What sequence?*
- 49 HB *The sequence of writing*
- 50 R *In what sequence do we need to write?*
- 51 HB *(points at ㅅ ㅈ on the page and shows the steps of the sequence of writing with her finger) like this..*
- 52 R *Okay... you used dotted lines not to make your tutee confused about the sequence?*
- 53 HB *Yes.*

In the last interview session, HB also mentioned about the sequence of writing when I asked her the most important thing in teaching Hangul and English. For both languages, she answered, 'the sequence'. Regarding the sequence in writing English, she just answered that 'my mom said that the sequence is important in English', but for Hangul, she explained in more detail by showing me how to write '너무' (too) as follows.

Extract: 8-5/C: Interview data: session 3

- 27 R *If you were a teacher, what might be the most important thing in teaching Hangul?*
- 28 HB *... the sequence*
- 29 R *The sequence... for example?*
- 30 HB *... well... (writes something in the air with her finger) this way..*
- 31 R *You may write (gives the paper to HB)*
- 32 HB *Like this... (writes 너무 in the correct sequence on the paper)*
- 33 R *That sequence...*
- 34 HB *But if we do not follow this sequence...(writes 너무 again underneath in the wrong sequence: from right to left, and from bottom to top) this will be... (laughs)*



Figure 8.4: Written text produced by HB (sequence of writing)

As can be seen, after she wrote ‘너무’ in the correct order, she wrote it again underneath in order to show the wrong sequence, from right to left, from bottom to top. This might suggest that HB was aware that Hangul should be written from top to bottom and from left to right. Based on the data above, although she didn’t say much about the direction of writing in English, she seemed to know that both languages have certain rules about the sequence.

8.4 Summary of findings for HB

(Literacy knowledge and skills)

- HB had knowledge of antonyms and sentential negation, and it was displayed in both Hangul and English.

(Understandings of Hangul and English)

- HB knew about irregular sound-letter relationship in English, in particular, the vowel sound in the unstressed syllable.
- HB was able not only to compare different length of words but also to find similar looking letters between Hangul and English.
- HB thought that the sequence of writing is important in both languages, and this shows her awareness of the order and direction in writing systems.

9. Findings IV: Pair D

9.1 Overview of SB's teaching

During the time I observed SB's peer teaching, she was 6 years and 7 months with more than three years of learning experiences of English. Her mother taught her English at home before she was 4 years old, and SB joined ECC when she was 5. She had learned Hangul with her mother at home between 4 and 5 years old. SB was a very energetic and confident tutor. She created her own teaching materials showing a lot of interest towards all of the sessions, and she was the only tutor child who attempted to teach English in English with confidence. She also enjoyed talking and sharing ideas with her tutee about the peer teaching, showing considerate behaviour to her tutee. I observed that she talked with her tutee before and after each session, and her teaching was very interactive, considering her tutee's ideas. Her tutee, CY was a girl who was 4 years and 11 months at the time, and she was also very active in learning.

9.1.1 First session

For English, SB used her own teaching material about a flower in which four things that a flower needs to grow (sunlight, rain, air, soil) and four parts of a flower (flower, stem, leaves, roots) were written in English with their pictures. She drew and wrote them by herself as Figure 9.1 shows.

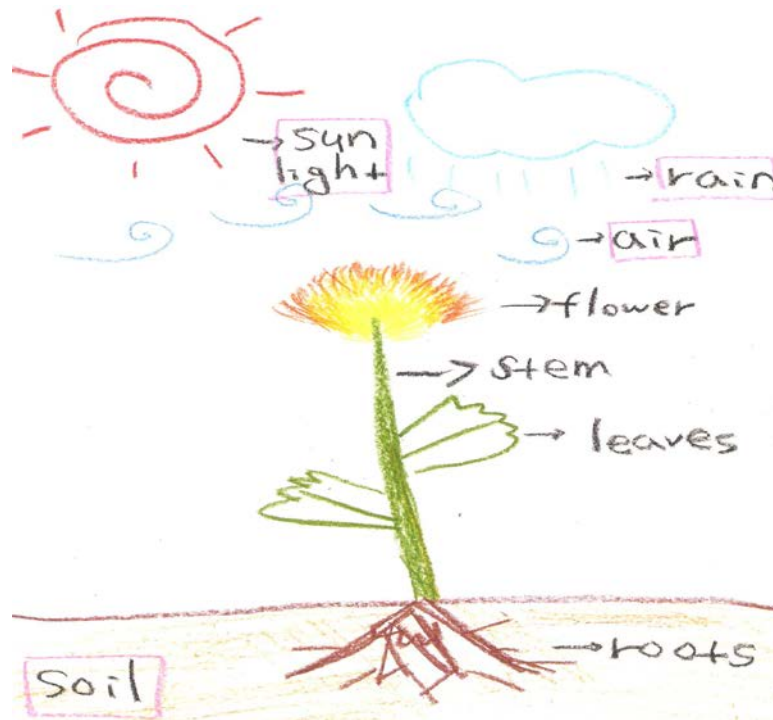


Figure 9.1: SB's English material for the first session

SB started to teach in English by using this material, and Extract 9.1 below illustrates her explanation in English at the beginning of her teaching. Her English is bolded in the extract.

Extract: 9-1/D: Observation data: session 1

- 1 SB (looks at the material) **flower need sunlight, rain, air, soil... flower has parts. flower, stem, leave, roots...** Hmm...(to a tutee) **draw... flower...** (to a researcher) I think she (a tutee) doesn't understand what I am saying (laughs).
- 2 CY
- 3 SB (to a researcher) I think she doesn't understand what I am saying.
- 4 SB (points to the material) **flower needs sunlight, rain, air, soil.**
- 5 CY ... (to a researcher) I don't know.
- 6 SB (laughs) **Sunlight is?** ... 햇님 (the sun)... 햇빛 (sunshine).
- 7 CY ... what did you say? Should I write or draw?
- 8 SB Yes?
- 9 CY ... write or draw?
- 10 SB (laughs) write.

As the extract shows, SB attempted to explain in English at first, but finding that her tutee CY didn't understand it, she began to speak Korean. When I asked SB about her teaching in English in the following interview session, she answered that 'I wanted to speak English more because we are learning English here (ECC)'. It seemed like that she tried to teach in the same way that all English teachers at ECC speak only English in a class. SB asked her tutee to write the words in the material, and after her tutee wrote each word on the paper, SB separated them into two groups: 'things a flower needs to grow' and 'parts of a flower' by drawing a line. For example, SB drew a line around the words, 'stem, leaves, flower, roots', and then wrote 'flower's parts' underneath the words.

For Hangul, SB used another material she had made in which four different flowers were drawn along with their names in Hangul as Figure 9.2 shows below.





Figure 9.2: SB's Hangul material for the first session

SB's Hangul material above was about '여러 종류의 꽃 그리는 방법' (how to draw different flowers), and she taught CY four flowers: 코스모스 (cosmos), 튤립 (tulip), 해바라기 (sunflower), and 나팔꽃 (morning glory). When I asked her why she had

chosen 'flower' as a topic for both Hangul and English, she replied that 'Because I can teach many things about a flower'. She asked CY to write each word, and then asked her to draw each flower. She explained how to draw flowers in detail, including the sequence of drawing, shapes of petals, and their colours. When she was asked about her drawing activity for Hangul, she said 'I know she (CY) likes drawing', and 'I already learned how to draw flowers at an art academy'. It is likely that her choice of drawing activity was derived from the discussion with her tutee before the session, and I also found that she made use of what she had already learned for her teaching. Table 9.1 below summarizes SB's first session.

Table 9.1: Overview of SB's teaching for the first session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
English		writing words	explaining in English
			categorizing
Hangul	<p>여러종류의 꽃 그리는 방법</p>  <p>코스모스 연꽃 해바라기 나팔꽃</p>	writing words	reading out each word
		drawing flowers	explaining the sequence of drawing, shapes of petals and colours

9.1.2 Second session

SB began her second teaching with workbook pages written in Hangul. She didn't bring the whole workbook to the session but she tore off the five pages, which were about wild flowers from the workbook. SB taught six wild flowers, and these were 엉겅퀴 (thistle), 애기똥풀 (tetterwort), 할미꽃 (pasqueflower), 제비꽃 (violet),

은방울꽃 (lily of the valley) and 패랭이꽃 (China pink). She started to read out the pages by pointing at each sentence, and she sometimes gave her tutee some questions about the sentences she had read in the workbook. For example, after reading out the sentence, ‘엉겅퀴는 여름에 햇빛이 잘 드는 들에서 많이 볼 수 있어요’ (Thistle is found in the sunny summer fields), she asked her tutee, ‘Where can we see this flower?’ in order to remind her of the sentence. I also observed that when she explained the flower, 패랭이꽃 (China pink), she drew a picture of a bamboo hat which looks like a China pink so that her tutee could understand it better.

For English, SB made her own material, ‘Family Map’. Her family was drawn with words of family members in both English and Hangul as Figure 9.3 shows below.

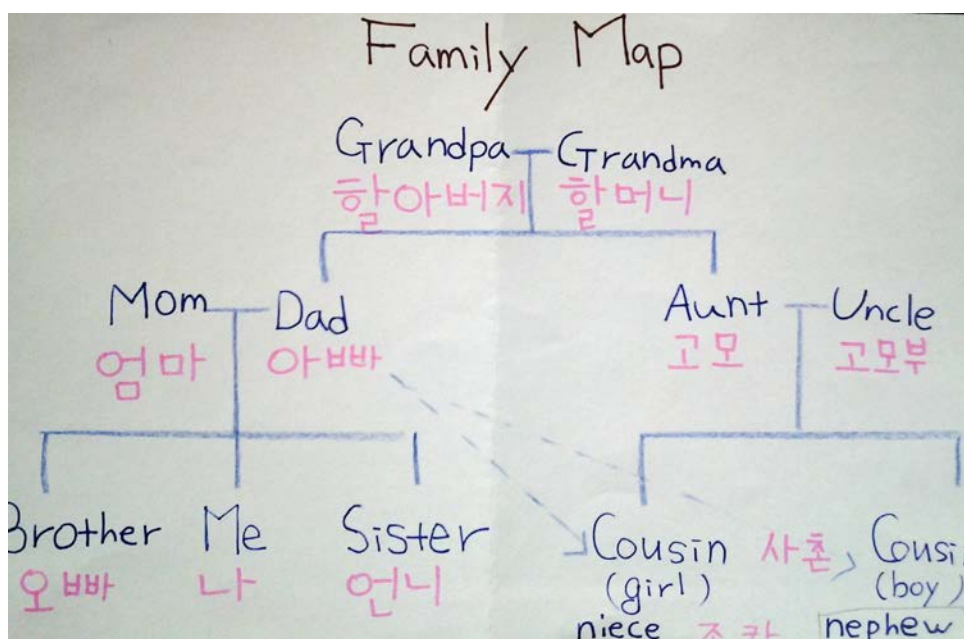


Figure 9.3: SB’s English material for the second session

With this family map, SB began to introduce her family in order to explain family relationships. Here, her teaching mainly focused on the words, ‘niece’, ‘nephew’, ‘aunt’, ‘uncle’, and ‘cousin’. She explained the difference between ‘niece’ and

'nephew', for example, she said that a girl is a niece and a boy is a nephew. She also explained that a cousin is the child of an aunt and an uncle by using her family map. After introducing her family, SB asked her tutee to draw her own family map like hers. She asked CY about her family members, and then helped her to draw and write her family map. CY completed her map with SB's help, as Figure 9.4 shows below.

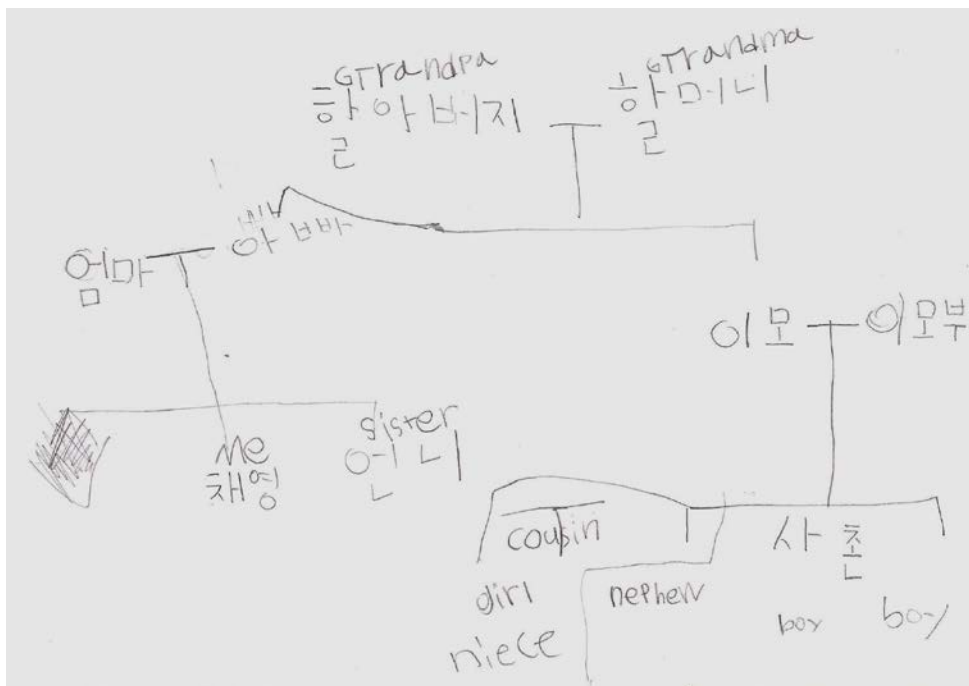


Figure 9.4: Written text produced by SB and CY (family map)

When I suggested SB to teach more about the words in the family map, she showed how to read and write the words 'cousin' and '사촌' having an equivalent meaning. She divided 'cousin' into two syllables, and explained why each syllable is sounded as /kʌ/ and /zn/ respectively. Then she taught '사촌' by relating Hangul alphabet letters as in '사촌' to English alphabet letters as in 'cousin'. As a final activity, SB reviewed the previous lesson by helping her tutee to write the things a flower needs to grow, both in Hangul and English. The following table summarizes SB's second teaching.

Table 9.2: Overview of SB's teaching for the second session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
Hangul		reading sentences	pointing at each sentence
			asking some questions about the sentence
			drawing a picture
English		drawing a family map	using her own family map
			giving examples
		writing words	dividing a word into syllables
			relating letters to sounds between Hangul and English
			reviewing the previous lesson

9.1.3 Third session

For the third session, SB brought a board game about combining two colours. In order to teach colour blending before the game, SB prepared the material as follows.

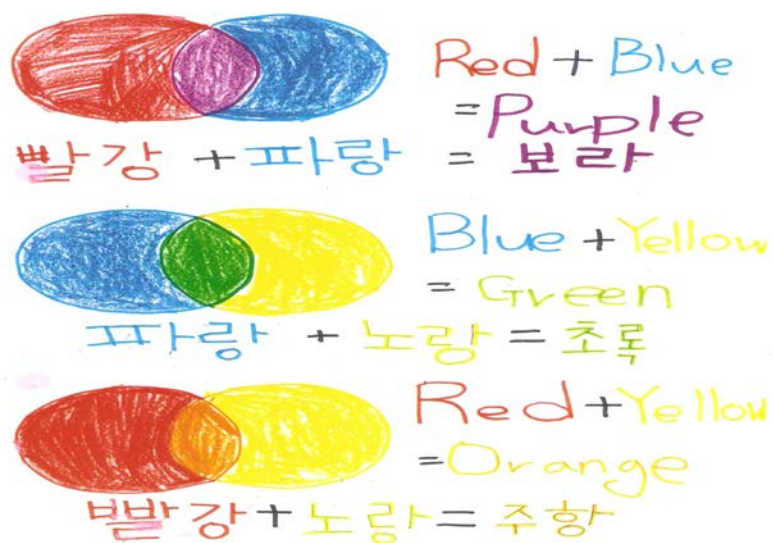


Figure 9.5: SB's teaching material for the third session

As the material shows, she attempted to illustrate how to create a new colour with two different colours through diagrams and coloured words. SB began to explain how to play a game by using this material she had made. During a game, she sometimes asked her tutee what colour she would need to make a certain colour, and when finding that her tutee needed help, SB went back to the material for her to find an appropriate colour. After playing the game, she asked her tutee to write the words, '보라' (purple), '파랑' (blue), and '빨강' (red) in Hangeul on a separate piece of paper. Then she wrote related colour words in Hangeul next to her tutee's writing. For example, SB wrote '빨강 (red) + 파랑 (blue) = 보라 (purple)' next to the word, '보라' (purple). For the final activity, SB used water soluble coloured pencils to summarize her teaching by showing blending colours. She mixed two colours to make a new one by colouring and painting on each sheet of paper in which the colour words were written. Figure 9.6 below shows the example of SB's final activity, which is about making 'orange' with 'red' and 'yellow'.

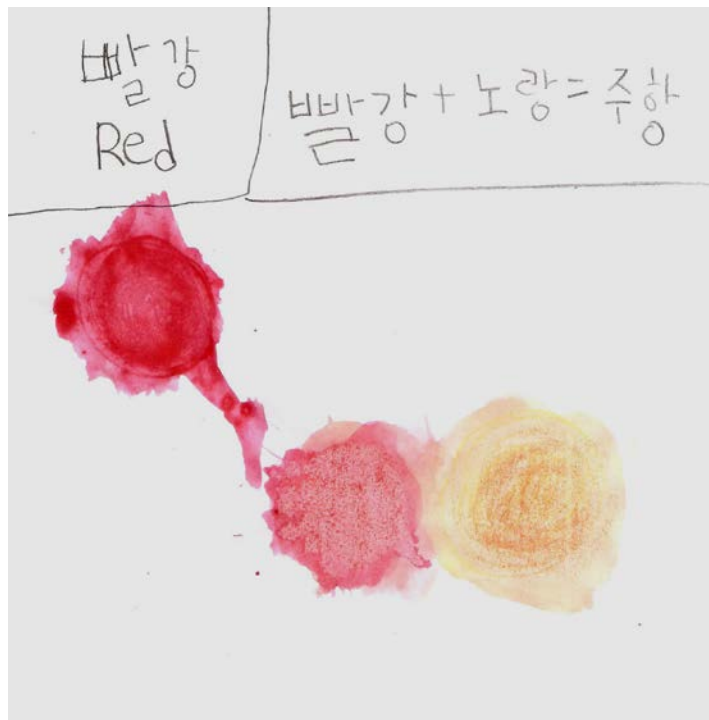


Figure 9.6: Written text produced by SB and CY (blending colours)

SB's third teaching is summarized in Table 9.3 below.

Table 9.3: Overview of SB's teaching for the third session

Languages	Teaching material	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
English		playing a board game	using her own material about blending colours asking some questions about colours
Hangul		writing words	summarizing blending colours on the paper
		colouring and painting	showing how to make a new colour

9.2 Literacy knowledge and skills demonstrated by SB

9.2.1 Background knowledge of topic

In the lesson, SB seemed to use not only the information from the material but also from her own background knowledge when teaching certain words. Her knowledge of topic was demonstrated when she was teaching 패랭이꽃 (China pink) in the second session. She used the information in the text that ‘This is named 패랭이꽃 (China pink) because it looks like 패랭이 (bamboo hat)’. Here, in order to explain the word, 패랭이 (bamboo hat), SB used her knowledge of it, which is not in the text by saying, ‘A long time ago, farmers wore this hat when farming’ as Extract 9-2 shows. Then she drew a picture of the hat to show what it looks like as follows.

Extract: 9-2/D: Observation data: session 2

- 21 SB (points at a picture of 패랭이꽃 (China pink) on the page)
This is 패랭이꽃 (China pink)... Have you ever seen 패랭이
모자 (bamboo hat)?
- 22 CY No.
- 23 SB No? A long time ago... farmers wore this hat when farming... I
will draw a picture for you. (draws a picture of a bamboo hat
on the paper) (points at the picture) this one...

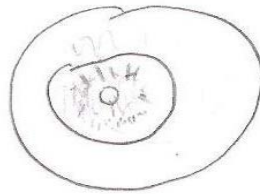


Figure 9.7: Written text produced by SB (bamboo hat)

Her use of background knowledge was also found in the same session when she was reviewing the words which are related to the things that a plant needs to grow. At the end of the second session, SB explained again about 'sun', 'rain', 'air' and 'soil' she had taught in the previous session, and then asked her tutee to write each word. Here, I found that she was using more detailed information derived from her own background knowledge of plants, whereas she just had focused on the words themselves in the first session. As Extract 9-3 shows below, SB further explained to her tutee that flowers are living plants, and they need water, sunshine and air as human beings do by using the information that is not written in the text.

Extract: 9-3/D: Observation data: session 2

- 145 SB ...'air' is 공기 (air). Flowers breathe in air as we do... Flowers
are plants, right?
- 146 CY Yes.
- 147 SB Flowers are also living things. They are alive and we are alive,
too. (points at a picture of a flower) This flower also drinks
water... it receives sunshine... And if it doesn't breathe in air, it
will die. Do you understand?

9.2.2 Awareness of syllables in English

The observation data showed that SB was aware that a word can be divided into syllables. It was displayed when she was teaching the word, 'cousin' in the second session. She divided 'cousin' into 'cou' and 'sin', and taught that 'c', 'o', 'u' can make /kʌ/, and 's', 'i', 'n' can make /zn/ sound as the extract shows below.

Extract: 9-4/D: Observation data: session 2

- 107 SB 'c', 'o', 'u' can make /kʌ/... and 's', 'i', 'n' can make /zn/... so /kʌzn/.
- 108 CY /kʌ/...
- 109 SB (draws a line to separate 'cou' and 'sin') this part... and this part.
- 110 R (gives a new sheet of paper to a tutor) would you please explain how to write it?
- 111 SB (points at 'cousin') 'cousin'. (to a tutee) Write 'c', 'o', 'u' first.
- 112 CY (writes 'cousin')
- 113 SB Cousin. 'c', 'o', 'u' (draws a box around 'cou' as in 'cousin') the left... the left part is 'c', 'o', 'u'.

As seen in the extract above, SB drew a line to divide the word into two parts, and asked her tutee to write it separately by saying, 'write 'c', 'o', 'u' first'. Then she drew a box around 'cou' as in 'cousin' and said that it is the left part, considering the three letters as one part. Figure 9.8 below seemed to demonstrate her awareness of syllables in 'cousin'.



Figure 9.8: Written text produced by SB (awareness of syllables)

9.3 SB's understandings of Hangul and English

9.3.1 Differences between Hangul and English

At the end of every interview session, I asked SB to tell me everything she knows about Hangul and English, and here, I found that she was able to look for the differences between Hangul and English from different points of views. Firstly, she said that Hangul is different from English because Hangul is used only in Korea, but English can be used in many different countries. Below are some examples of her awareness of English as an international language.

Extract: 9-5/D: Interview data: session 1

- 109 SB *Other countries speak English but only Korea speaks Hangul.*
110 R *Yes.*
111 SB *English is used in USA, Africa and in other countries... but Hangul is used only in Korea.*

Extract: 9-6/D: Interview data: session 2

- 85 SB *English people speak English well in other countries... but we speak Korean well in Korea... Canada and USA speak English well... but Korean is only used in Korea.*
86 R *Yes.*
87 SB *So, English is easy to speak... but only one country uses Korean.*

As can be seen in the examples above, she seemed to be aware that English is widely spoken in different countries, and this made her think that 'English is easy to speak'.

In the interview data, SB found another difference between Hangul and English from her idea of who invented the language. She stated that Hangul and English are different since Hangul was invented by the king, but English wasn't. Here, I observed that she clearly said the name of the king, 'Se-jong', for example, 'King Se-jong

made Hangul but English was not invented by the king' as follows.

Extract: 9-7/D: Interview data: session 1

115 SB *(points at Hangul words) King Se-jong made this and (points at English words) someone in a different country made this.*

Extract: 9-8/D: Interview data: session 2

79 SB *King Se-jong made Hangul but... English was not invented by the king.*

I also found that SB seemed to have an understanding of the difference between Hangul and English in terms of shape of letters. For Hangul, she used the word '뽀뽀하다', which can be translated as 'crooked' or 'angulated'. Regarding a visual feature of English letters, she said, 'English looks longish' and 'English is straight' as the examples show below.

Extract: 9-9/D: Interview data: session 2

69 SB *English looks longish but...*
70 R *Yes.*
71 SB *... Hangul is a bit crooked.*
72 R *Hangul looks crooked?*
73 SB *Yes. (writes in the air with a pencil) when we write 'ㄷ' and 'ㄱ', we need to change directions like this.*

Extract: 9-10/D: Interview data: session 3

63 SB *Hangul is... crooked.*
64 R *Crooked?*
65 SB *Yes. Hangul is crooked. Crooked.*
66 R *How?*
67 SB *(writes in the air with her finger) 'ㄷ' is crooked and 'ㄱ' is also crooked like this.*
68 R *Yes.*

- 69 SB *So Hangul is crooked... but English is straight.*
 70 R *English is straight...*
 71 SB *Yes. 'A' is... (writes 'A' in the air with her finger) straight like this.*

As the extracts show above, SB said that Hangul letters look crooked because of changing directions of writing 'ᳵ' and 'ᳶ'. As the examples of 'crooked' letters, she mentioned the letters, 'ᳵ' and 'ᳶ' twice in the interviews, and it seemed to come from her awareness that when writing 'ᳵ', there are five changes of direction (left-to-right, top-to-bottom, left-to-right, top-to-bottom, left-to-right), and for 'ᳶ', she needs to change directions four times (top-to-bottom, left-to-right, top-to-bottom, left-to-right).

On the other hand, SB expressed English letters with the words, 'longish' and 'straight', and it is further explained in the following extract.

Extract: 9-11/D: Interview data: session 3

- 73 SB *(writes 'm' in the air) 'm' is curvilinear like this, and (writes 'y' in the air) 'y' is also written this way but...*
 74 R *Yes.*
 75 SB *Other Hangul letters are too crooked.*
 76 R *Crooked.*
 77 SB *Yes.*
 78 R *I see.*
 79 SB *... so I think it is easier to write English than Hangul.*

As seen in the interview, it is possible to say that she seemed to think capital letters look straight like 'A', and lower case letters are longish or curvilinear such as 'm' and 'y'. Here, I also found that such visual feature of English letters which was expressed with 'straight', 'longish', and 'curvilinear' made her think that 'English is easier to write' compared with Hangul, which is 'too crooked' for her.

On top of that, SB was also able to find the difference between Hangul and English in terms of set of letters as follows.

Extract: 9-12/D: Interview data: session 1

105 SB *English has big letters and small letters. But Hangul doesn't have any.*

9.3.2 'Cousin' and '사촌'

SB attempted to relate Hangul to English when teaching 'cousin' and '사촌' that have the same meaning. In the second session, she showed how to read and write 'cousin', and then explained its equivalent Hangul word '사촌' to her tutee. Here, she sought a connection between the two words by relating the Hangul letter to the English letter having the same sound. For example, she knew that 'n' as in 'cousin' and 'ㄴ' as in '사촌' have the same /n/ sound, saying that the sound of 'n' is the same as 'ㄴ' sound as the extract shows below.

Extract: 9-13/D: Observation data: session 2

- 128 SB *The same thing here... (points at 'n' as in 'cousin') it has 'n'... the sound of 'n' is the same as (writes 'ㄴ') 'ㄴ', right?*
- 129 CY *Yes.*
- 130 SB *And... I will let you know this... When you hear /kʌ/, think of 사.*
- 131 CY *Yes.*
- 132 SB *Then add 'ㄴ' to '초' because it (sin) has 'n'.*

I also found that she even made a link between the syllables within the words 'cousin' and '사촌'. As can be seen in the extract above, she related the first syllable 'cou' as in 'cousin' to the first syllable '사' as in '사촌' by saying 'when you hear /kʌ/, think of 사'. She also noticed a link between the second syllables, 'sin' and '촌' by saying that 'ㄴ' supports '초' because 'sin' has 'n'. These examples might indicate that she was able to relate a Hangul word to its equivalent English word by using her knowledge that both 'cousin' and '사촌' can be divided into two syllables, and the letters 'n' and 'ㄴ' of the two words have the same /n/ sound.

9.3.3 Irregular sound-letter relationship in English

The data showed that SB seemed to recognize the irregular sound-letter relationship in English. When I asked her the most important thing in teaching English in the third interview session, she answered, 'pronunciation'. I asked her to give me some examples, and she said the sounds of 'i' and 'y' as follows.

Extract: 9-14/D: Interview data: session 3

- 24 SB *Hmm... 'i' /ai/.. 'i' at the end...because 'i' sometimes becomes 'y'.*
25 R *Which word, for example?*
26 SB *Sky... sky*

As the data shows, she gave me an example 'sky' by saying "i" sometimes becomes 'y", which means that the letter 'y' has two different sounds such as 'y' /ai/ as in 'sky' and 'y' /i/ as in 'heavy'. This interview data shows that she was aware that there are some English letters having two possible sounds.

9.3.4 Importance of precise writing in Hangul

SB thought that pronunciation is the most important in English, but for Hangul, she said 'writing well' for the same question. When I asked her what 'writing well' means, she explained as Extract 9-15 shows below.

Extract: 9-15/D: Interview data: session 3

- 38 SB *When I was younger, I studied Hangul with my mom... At that time, I wrote Hangul badly. So my mom erased all, and wrote again for me... I wrote Hangul badly then...So I think writing well is very important in Hangul.*

As can be seen in the interview, her idea of 'writing well' seemed to mean 'good handwriting', and I could also find that it stemmed from her experiences in learning Hangul with her mother. Her concern with good handwriting in Hangul was also

observed in the second interview session, when she was asked about her experiences in learning Hangul. SB answered that writing Hangul was a bit difficult because her mother asked her to write Hangul well as the following extract shows.

Extract: 9-16/D: Interview data: session 2

55 SB *I learned Hangul when I was five... It was a little bit difficult for me to write Hangul because my mom always asked me to write well.*

From these examples, I could find that she understood that precise writing is very important in Hangul, and it seems to be derived from her learning environment where her mother helped her to write each stroke clearly.

9.4 Summary of findings for SB

(Literacy knowledge and skills)

- SB used her background knowledge which is not in the text in order to explain certain words or a topic.
- I also found that she had knowledge that a word can be divided into syllables.

(Understandings of Hangul and English)

- SB had an understanding of the differences between Hangul and English, and her idea came from the facts that 1) English is an international language 2) Hangul was invented by the king, and 3) Shapes of letters of Hangul and English look different.
- SB was able to relate a Hangul letter to an English letter having the same sound, and she even made a link between the syllables in Hangul and English.

- SB drew attention to pronunciation when learning English whereas precise writing was the most important consideration for her to learn Hangul.

10. Findings V: Pair E

10.1 Overview of YE's teaching

YE was 6 years and 6 months at the time of the peer teaching. She had been studying English at ECC since 5 years old, and before she joined ECC, she had learned English in a different private preschool for a year. For Hangul, she had learned with her mother at home between 4 and 5 years old. According to the observation data, she didn't talk too much during the peer teaching, but she helped her tutee to read and write very carefully by correcting errors one by one. Her tutee HH was 4 years and 11 months at the time, but because of a family matter, he had to leave the peer teaching after the first session. Another boy HW, aged 5 years and 2 months was chosen as her tutee, and he took an active part in the second and the third session.

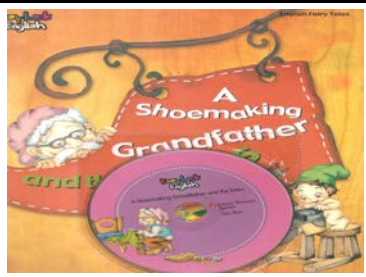


10.1.1 First session

For the first session, YE prepared an English story, 'A Shoemaking Grandfather and the Elves'. She started to teach by asking HH to read and write the first sentence of the story, but he could not read any of it. Finding that her tutee needed help, she wrote the sentence on the paper for him, and asked him to write it by following the sentence she had written. YE spelled each word for him to write, and corrected spelling mistakes he had made by erasing and rewriting. After his writing, YE read the sentence slowly by pointing at each word so that HH could read and repeat after her. She proceeded to the next page in the same way.

For Hangul, YE brought two different types of materials: a Christmas card and a story about Christmas. I found that she had chosen 'Christmas' as a topic for her first

session, and regarding her choice of topic, she answered that 'Christmas is the most fun'. She started to teach Hangul by asking HH to write a Christmas message in Hangul on the card, and to draw a picture on it. She asked him what he wanted to write to his parents, and then showed him how to write it on the paper. She closely looked at what he was writing, and corrected his spelling mistakes one by one. She also taught him that a sentence should be ended with a full stop. She finished her session with a Hangul story, '사랑의 크리스마스' (Christmas of Love). She read out the story by pointing at each word. Table 10.1 below summarizes YE's teaching for the first session.

Table 10.1: Overview of YE's teaching for the first session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
English		writing sentences	spelling some words correcting spelling mistakes
		reading sentences	pointing at each word
Hangul		writing a Christmas card	showing how to write messages having a tutee draw a picture on the card
		reading out a story	pointing at each word



10.1.2 Second session

YE prepared two stories for her second session: the Hangul story is about dogs, and the English story is 'Three Little Pigs'. About the stories she had chosen, she said

'Because I like animals'. YE began her teaching with the Hangul story by asking her new tutee HW to write some sentences of the story. She read out the sentences slowly by pointing at each word so that HW could look and write correctly. YE spelled some Hangul words for him, and sometimes asked him to change a line when writing sentences. Whenever her tutee made a mistake on the paper, YE erased and rewrote it for him. Before she moved onto the next page, she asked him to read the sentences he had written.

When teaching English, she started to read out sentences in the first page of the story, and encouraged HW to follow her. Then she asked him to write the sentences of the story like her Hangul lesson. She spelled some English words for him to write, and corrected his spelling mistakes very carefully. She reminded him of a full stop at the end of every sentence, and sometimes asked him to change a line by saying 'write below'. In this way, she finished two more pages with her tutee. Her second teaching is summarized in Table 10.2 below.

Table 10.2: Overview of YE's teaching for the second session

Languages	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
Hangul		writing sentences	pointing at each word spelling some words correcting spelling mistakes
		reading sentences	pointing at each word
English		reading sentences	pointing at each word
		writing sentences	pointing at each word
			spelling some words correcting spelling mistakes

10.1.3 Third session

YE brought two Hangul materials for her last session: a Christmas card, and a story about Christmas. It is likely that she wanted to teach in the same way that she had tried in the first session. While she asked her first tutee HH to write a Christmas message in the previous session, she asked HW to write a New Year message on the card this time. She seemed to think a New Year message because this session took place on February 21, 2013, the week after the Lunar New Year's Day. As Figure 10.1 shows below, HW wrote the message, '엄마 아빠 저를 낳아주셔서 감사합니다. 사랑해요. 건강하세요' (Mom and Dad, thank you for giving birth to me. I love you. Stay healthy) with YE's help. She helped him to write by correcting spelling mistakes, and having him add a full stop at the end of each sentence. She suggested him to draw a picture on the left side of the card, but he didn't want to do it. YE put the card into the envelope, and then gave it to HW by saying, 'Show this card to your parents at home'.

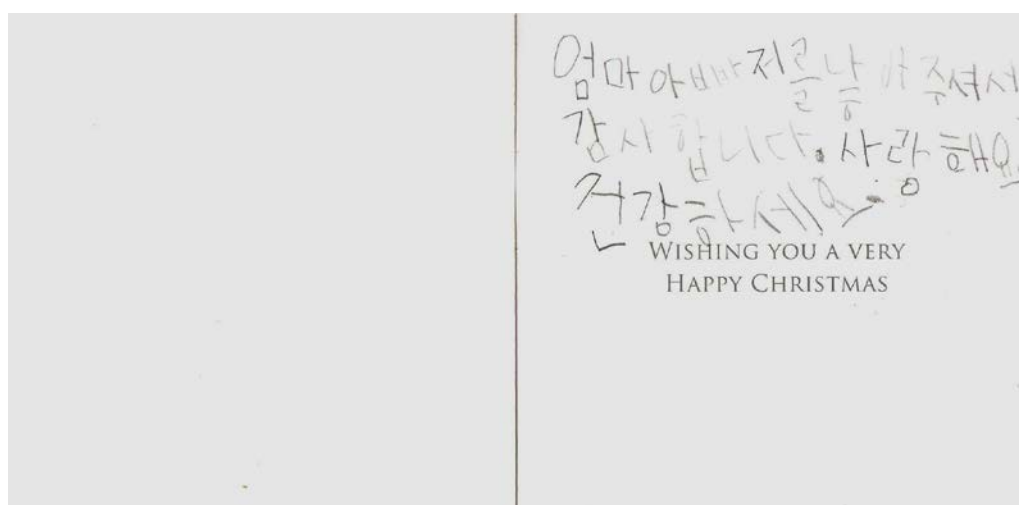




Figure 10.1: Written text produced by HW (New Year message)

YE prepared a Hangul story, which is about a surprise Christmas gift. Regarding this story, she said 'This is my favourite book'. She taught two pages of the story by asking HW to write and read the sentences. She encouraged him to write each word correctly and to write a full stop at the end of a sentence like the previous sessions.

She was supposed to teach both Hangul and English in every session, but her last session was only about Hangul. Table 10.3 below summarizes YE's last teaching.

Table 10.3: Overview of YE's teaching for the third session

Language	Teaching materials	Literacy activities	Teaching strategies
Hangul		writing a New Year message on the card	correcting spelling mistakes
			having a tutee draw a picture on the card
		writing sentences	pointing at each word
			spelling some words
	reading sentences	correcting spelling mistakes	
			pointing at each word

10.2 Literacy knowledge and skills demonstrated by YE

10.2.1 Christmas card

The data showed that YE was aware of a type of text, and she was able to identify main points in a text. She used a Christmas card for her Hangul teaching in the first and third session, and she explained what a card is to her tutee, saying, 'you can write some messages to your mom and dad here'. She showed not only her interpretation of the purpose of writing a card, but also her awareness of the organization of the card. For example, in the first session, she asked her tutee HH to write a message to his parents in Hangul above 'wishing you a very happy Christmas' written in English on the right page of the card, and then asked him to draw a picture on the left page. With YE's help, he wrote his own Christmas

message, ‘엄마 아빠 메리 크리스마스’, which means ‘Mom and Dad, merry Christmas’ along with a picture of a Christmas tree as follows.

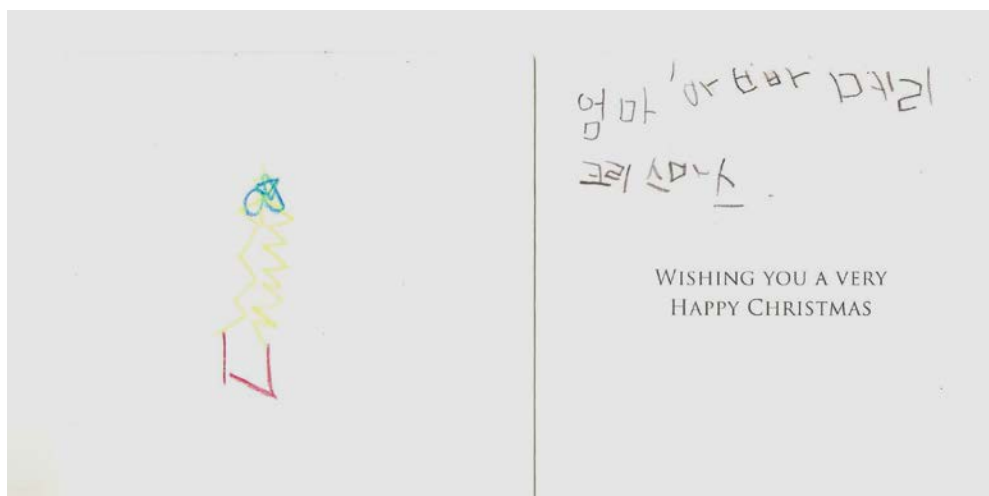


Figure 10.2: Written text produced by HH (Christmas card)

After YE’s peer teaching, I asked her about Christmas, which was the topic she had chosen for her first session, and she defined Christmas as ‘the day when I can receive a gift’, ‘the day when Santa Clause comes’, and ‘the day when the snow comes’ as the following extract shows.

Extract: 10-1/E: Interview data: session 1

- 30 R Do you know about Christmas?
31 YE ...
32 R What is Christmas?
33 YE Hmm... the day when I can receive a gift.
34 R Yes?
35 YE Hmm... Santa Clause... it is the day when Santa Clause comes..
36 R It is the day when Santa Clause comes... And?
37 YE ... it is the day when the snow comes...

As can be seen from the above data, she seemed to use her literacy knowledge and skills of text type (card), showing an appropriate amount of message and the location of a picture on the card along with her background knowledge of topic (Christmas) during her teaching.

10.2.2 Punctuation marks

The findings showed that YE drew attention to a punctuation mark, particularly, a full stop during the sessions. Her teaching of a full stop was shown on many occasions in every session by asking her tutee to add it at the end of every sentence for both languages. I observed that she called it ‘점’ (dot) instead of a full stop, and she often said ‘make a dot’ to her tutee. I asked her about this as follows.

Extract: 10-2/E: Interview data: session 1

- 57 R *I know you said 점 (dot) many times. Do you know more about this? When do you use 점 (dot)?*
- 58 YE *... when a sentence ends.*
- 59 R *At the end of a sentence. 점 (dot) has a name. Do you know what that is?*
- 60 YE *... 마침표 (a full stop)*

The interview data showed that she exactly knew its name and its function in a sentence. From the next sessions, I observed that she called it a full stop instead of 점(dot).

Along with a full stop, her knowledge of a comma and a question mark was also demonstrated in the interview sessions. When I asked further questions about punctuation marks, she said ‘I know but I don’t know its name’. I suggested her to write on the paper, and she drew a comma, and a question mark. For each mark, she explained its use like ‘when we take a break’ and ‘when we ask’ respectively. Although she didn’t give me the exact names of each mark, I could find that she clearly knew about their roles.

10.2.3 Proper noun and synonym

In the last interview session, YE demonstrated her knowledge of a proper noun and

a synonym. When she was asked about Hangul and English, she gave me the Hangul word, 김치 (Kimchi) which is a Korean side dish, saying ‘김치 in Korean and Kimchi in English is the same’. She explained further that 김치 is pronounced as /kimtʃi/ in both Korean and English, and 김치 can be also written in English, which is pronounced the same way as /kimtʃi/ in Korean. It seems likely that YE was aware that certain words indicate a special name having a unique entity, and they are different from common words which can be translated into different languages.

Her knowledge of synonyms in English was also observed in the same interview session. For the same question, ‘What do you know about Hangul and English?’, she gave me another example, ‘gift’ and ‘present’ by saying ‘gift and present is the same’. This suggests that she knew that two different words might have the same meaning.

10.3 YE’s understandings of Hangul and English

10.3.1 Irregular sound-letter relationship in English

YE seemed to know that there is an irregular relationship between the letter and the sound in English. According to the interview data, she thought that pronunciation is the most important in learning English, and she also said that English is more difficult than Hangul because of its pronunciation. When I asked her which English word was difficult for her to study, she gave me the word, ‘fairy’ as an example. As Figure 10.3 shows, she wrote ‘fairy’ on the paper and pointed at ‘y’ as in ‘fairy’, saying ‘y’ made me difficult’. It seems likely that she was aware that the letter ‘y’ has two possible sounds, and this irregular letter-sound correspondence made her think that English is difficult.

The image shows the word "Fairy" written in a cursive, handwritten style. The letters are connected, and the overall appearance is that of a child's handwriting. The word is centered at the top of the page.

Figure 10.3: Written text produced by YE (irregular sound-letter relationship)

10.3.2 Batchim

The pronunciation was the most important consideration for YE to learn English, but for Hangul, she thought that batchim is the most important. When she was asked why, she answered that she had experienced difficulty in writing batchim when she was younger. Her attention to batchim was also observed when she was correcting her tutee's mistakes in writing Hangul. I found that her focus was on batchim, the consonant (s) placed underneath in a syllable. For example, when her tutee wrote '않', '찰', '말', having batchim with two consonants, 'ㄴ', YE always said the names of the letter, 'ㄴ' and 'ㅇ', so that her tutee could write each consonant correctly, with more attention.

10.4 Summary of findings for YE

(Literacy knowledge and skills)

- YE taught how to write a Christmas card by using her knowledge and skills of text type (card) and topic (Christmas).
- YE had knowledge of punctuation marks and their use in a sentence. Her knowledge of a proper noun and a synonym was also displayed in the interview session.

(Understandings of Hangul and English)

- Her understandings of Hangul and English were demonstrated through her attention to English pronunciation and batchim of Hangul.

11. Discussion

The findings presented in Chapters 6-10 demonstrate that the tutor children used their literacy knowledge and skills when teaching reading and writing to their tutees, and those knowledge and skills were shown in both two languages, at different levels: context, texts, sentences, words, syllables, morphemes, and sounds-letters. These findings support literature that reading and writing involve visual, phonological, and semantic information, which is integrated with background knowledge of the world (Cameron, 2001). The findings add to the literature on emergent literacy by suggesting that young children are able to use literacy knowledge and skills from various levels of information in the EFL context where they are becoming literate between a non-Roman alphabetic script (L1) and a Roman alphabetic script (L2). The findings also showed that the children were able not only to find out key orthographic principles which characterise each writing system but also to seek the similarities and differences between two languages from different points of views: shape of letters, length of words, and sound-letter relationship. The findings of my research indicate that young children are able to look for key concepts from different writing systems with the use of their literacy knowledge and skills in each script.

Based on the analysis of the data from my study, I will discuss, in this chapter, children's literacy knowledge, skills, and understandings of scripts according to the research questions presented in this study. I begin by restating these.

11.1 Research question 1: literacy knowledge

The first research question of the study, which is about children's literacy knowledge,

is as follows:

Q1. What knowledge of literacy do Korean children aged six demonstrate in Hangul and English in an EFL preschool classroom context?

In the previous chapters, I identified different levels of literacy knowledge based on Cameron's (2001) structure, from the level of sound-letters upwards to words, sentences, texts, and context. These findings evidenced in my data suggest that as children are engaged in reading and writing activities, they are able to use these different types of knowledge in order to convey meaning. In the following sections, three different levels of literacy knowledge: the world (background knowledge), text (organization of text), and sentence (punctuation) will be discussed in more detail.

11.1.1 Background knowledge

The relation between background knowledge and reading comprehension of children has been examined by several studies (See Section 2.3.3.2), and the findings of my study also give evidence of how young children make use of their previous knowledge for the construction of meaning. This was visible in SB's teaching of a Hangul word, 패랭이꽃 (China pink) and of a topic, 'what do plants need to grow?' for English. She drew a bamboo hat, which looks like a China pink, to help her tutee to understand the meaning of the word. She also explained the fact that flowers are living things like human beings, to help the tutee to make sense of the topic. These findings suggest that SB was able to use her own background knowledge which is not in the text in order to communicate semantic knowledge of the vocabulary, or to convey meaning to subject content. This leads me to believe that children might benefit from activating background knowledge in their literacy development and future reading comprehension. In line with conclusions made by the previous studies, it is therefore, suggested that young children's prior knowledge needs to be

acknowledged and activated in the classroom so that it might be brought to their early reading and writing. In order to enhance children's background knowledge, Droop & Verhoeven (1998) emphasized the importance of pre-reading activities as follows:

“[...] it is important to stress once again the importance of pre-reading activities, such as discussing the content of a story, providing background information, building a common experience, and explaining difficult lexical items in order to help children develop or activate background knowledge that is relevant to their reading materials” (Droop & Verhoeven, 1998, p.268).

Here, I would like to note that teachers should consider children's language proficiency, especially for young learners in a second language or a foreign language context who might have limited language proficiency in a target language. In Droop & Verhoeven's (1998) research, when the text was linguistically complex, which was beyond children's level, the effect of background knowledge on children's reading comprehension tended to fade away, and this was true for second language learners. This reflects the importance of considering if the content of materials is familiar to young children, and if the linguistic complexity of the text is within children's linguistic abilities.

Another issue connected to the relation between background knowledge and language learning lay in drawing attention to the motivational effects of interest. Previous studies have shown that along with prior knowledge, interest also helps learners to construct meaning, suggesting that children may have better understandings when they read materials on topics in which they are highly interested (Asher, 1980; Baldwin, Peleg-Bruckner & McClintock, 1985; Carrell & Wise, 1998; Renninger, Hidi & Krapp, 1992; Schiefele, 1991; Tobias, 1994; Wade et al., 1993). Based on the findings from interview data, I was able to see that the topics or materials chosen by the tutor children were mostly related to their personal

interests and preferences which they had already known well. This seems to support assumptions made by the previous research that children's interests affect their attitudes towards written materials, and it can be also explained by Tobias' (1994) claim that "people know more about topics related to their interests than they do about others" (p.39). Although some researchers (Baldwin et al., 1985; Carrell & Wise, 1998; Leloup, 1993; Tobias, 1994) attempt to separate the effects of background knowledge and interest on children's reading ability, there is little doubt that both background knowledge and interest are significant factors which have an energizing effect on children's literacy learning.

11.1.2 Organization of text

The findings of the study suggest that young children know how texts are organized. This was shown by KH and YE with regard to a story and a card respectively. KH's awareness of text organization was displayed when she asked her tutee to write a story page in English with the emphasis on the location of writing and an illustration such as a few lines of writing at the top margin of the page, and an illustration at the bottom of the page (Section 6.2.3). The knowledge of a card structure was also observed in YE's teaching for Hangul in that she asked her tutee to write a message to his parents in Korean on the right page of a card and to draw a picture on the left (Section 10.2.1).

These findings about the knowledge of how written prints and images are organized in a text seem to be consistent with the findings of Kenner (1999) on young children's early awareness of script and genre. In her research, three-and four-year-olds in a multilingual nurse class were able to produce different texts both in English and in other languages, developing their awareness of texts and written language from a very early age. But here, I also found that KH and YE's knowledge of script and

genre in my study was more detailed and sophisticated than the children in Kenner's work. For example, a four-year-old child who produced a card in Kenner's research was able to write the names onto a card in two languages (with some symbols which looked like letters of English and of her first language, Gujarati), showing her knowledge that card writing is engaged with writing the names of a sender and a recipient. Similarly, YE aged six in my research also displayed her awareness of a card structure, and here, she was able not only to explain the purpose of writing a card, saying 'you can write some messages to your mom and dad here' but also to focus on its structure by asking her tutee to write messages in both languages on the right page of the card along with a picture on the left page. Moreover, in her study, children's awareness of the amount of a story page was displayed with circles, which represent alphabet letters whereas KH's understanding of the visual organization of a story page was shown with a few lines of English sentences as well as an illustration, considering the location. These findings between Kenner's (1999) research and the current study indicate that young children have considerable knowledge of script and genre, and they gradually develop it as they grow older.

Other researchers who have observed children's literacy activities around texts also found that their knowledge of written languages and text types develops from an early age. These include some studies looked at children's emergent knowledge of a newspaper (Bissex, 1980; Kress, 1997), stories, science reports and poems (Kamberelis, 1999), information books (Duke, 2000; Pappas, 1991, 1993) and personal letters and shopping lists (Zecker, 1996). Those studies pointed out that children's literacy experiences seem to be limited to story or narrative structure than other text types. As described in the finding chapters (6-10), the dominance of narrative was also evident in my research in that most tutor children chose stories as their teaching materials, which were derived from their personal experiences around the texts. The dominance of narrative genres in early years might cause children's difficulties when working with a variety of text types (Cameron, 2001; Donovan &

Smolkin, 2002). Therefore, as many researchers argued for the importance of the early exposure to different genres, it could be said that children's knowledge of script and genre will be developed explicitly through more experiences with many different kinds of text types, and those early experiences in multiple genres will facilitate children's literacy learning.

11.1.3 Punctuation

Findings from the analysis of KH and YE's peer teaching highlighted their desire to teach punctuation marks, showing their knowledge of the use of each mark in a sentence. The use of punctuation marks is the same in Hangul as English, and the children's teaching of a full stop and a comma, in particular, was shown on many occasions by pointing out each mark at certain necessary points. Although they didn't call each mark by the exact name of it - for example, both children called a full stop '점' (dot), the interview data showed that they were able to explain how each mark works in a sentence, which were explained as 'when a sentence ends', 'when we take a break', 'when we say' and 'when we ask'.

Regarding children's knowledge of punctuation marks, the current findings show some consistencies with previous research. According to Ferreiro & Teberosky's (1983) study, children aged six, who are the same age as my participants, were aware that each mark has different function although some marks were often expressed in terms such as 'dots' or 'sticks' instead of 'full stops' or 'exclamation marks'. De Gòes & Martlew (1983) also looked at how young children between the ages of 5 and 6 talked about punctuation marks through a copying task and interviews with children, and they found that the children clearly knew about the meaning of the full stop, which was described as 'finishing the line' although some marks were explained in terms of their shapes, for example, one child described a

comma as 'it is a spot with a tail'. These findings with relation to the use of punctuation marks suggest that the children aged six were able to differentiate each mark in terms of its function although the conventional names of each mark were not used at that age.

In order to explain young children's early writing development, a number of studies investigated children's unconventional punctuation. For example, Edelsky (1983) described different types of unconventional punctuation in the use of full stops, capitals and hyphens while Cadzen et al. (1985) analyzed young children's use of apostrophes, quotation marks and full stops. In my research, I was also able to observe that some children tend to put a full stop at the end of every single word. However, as the previous research concluded, I agree that children's unconventional punctuation, such as full stops between words or placed at the end of every line or page and even single word (shown in my research) might represent their own hypothesis regarding the meaning of punctuation marks as an indicator for further development in writing process.

11.2 Research question 2: literacy skills

The second research question, about children's literacy skills, is as follows:

Q2. What literacy skills do they demonstrate in Hangul and English?

Along with literacy knowledge, children's literacy skills were also demonstrated at different levels whilst engaging in literacy activities. Here I focus on children's ability to identify the same morpheme in different words, and their ability to reflect on the language itself in relation with words. These two literacy skills regarding morphemes and words will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

11.2.1 Morphemes

The findings give evidence that children are able to recognize a certain part of a word that conveys a meaning. This includes the plural suffix ‘들’ which is equivalent to ‘-s’ of English, and the negation elements of Hangul, ‘안’ and ‘없’ which mean ‘not’. The children were aware of the meanings of common morphemes in words, and were able to spot the same morpheme in different words. This was visible in KH’s teaching in which she emphasized a focus on the plural suffix ‘들’ at the end of words by drawing a circle around it in words to highlight. In the following interview session, KH explained the fact that ‘들’ held significance to make a distinction between a singular and a plural of a noun by comparing ‘물고기’ to ‘물고기들’ (Section 6.2.2).

Regarding children’s abilities to identify morphemes in Hangul such as ‘들’, ‘안’, ‘없’, I found that these could be used to exemplify children’s morphological awareness in logographic languages. Hangul script shares some logographic aspects with Chinese (Section 1.2.1), thus, my findings about Hangul morphemes seem to be line with previous research which has linked children’s early morphological awareness to literacy development in Chinese young children. The studies conclude that young children’s ability to identify morphemes emerges from an early age, and it plays a significant role in learning Chinese (Section 2.3.3.2). These findings explain the fact that “most words in both Korean and Chinese are composed of two or more morphemes, and often these morphemes are directly relevant to the meanings of the words” (McBride-Chang et al., 2008, p.441-442). Therefore, it is not surprising that both Chinese and Korean children begin to develop their morphological awareness early in their literacy development. It is possible to say that it may be advantageous for teachers to highlight certain morphemes in a word so that young children can expand their morphological awareness and bring it to bear in vocabulary.

In my research, children’s ability to break words into morphemes was demonstrated not only in Hangul but also in English. When KH introduced the word ‘played’, she

hid 'ed' with her finger so that her tutee could recognize 'play' first. Then she showed 'ed', pronouncing /d/ to show that 'played' can be identified into two units. In addition, finding that her tutee was struggling to read 'singing', she helped her tutee to read the word separately with an emphasis on 'ing'. This finding supports conclusions drawn by Deacon & Bryant's (2005) research, who found that children are able to identify the role of root morphemes in spelling, with understanding of the relation between morphemes and spelling in English.

A growing body of research has also shown that children's morphological awareness contributes to reading and writing success across languages. This includes some studies which showed the growth of children's morphological awareness in relation to vocabulary acquisition (Hao et al., 2013; Leong, 1989; McBride-Chang et al., 2003, 2005, 2008; Ramirez, Walton & Roberts, 2013; Wang, Ko & Choi, 2009), spelling development (Deacon & Bryant, 2005) and reading achievement (Carlisle, 1995). For example, McBride-Chang et al. (2008) explored the relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary knowledge in three different language groups of preschool children (Cantonese, Mandarin, and Korean), and they found that despite different linguistic features, morphological awareness is strongly associated with children's early vocabulary development across the three languages. Similarly, the findings of Wang, Ko & Choi (2009) with Korean-English bilingual children appeared to show that morphological awareness is an important contributor to word reading both in a transparent orthography, Hangul, and an opaque orthography, English. In this respect, the findings on the morphemes both in Hangul and English in my study might show early morphological awareness across different writing systems. As Wang et al. (2009) pointed out, the findings about early morphological awareness are important since "they help both researchers and educators to better understand an important linguistic factor in reading development that is beyond phonological awareness" (p.132). However, children's understandings of a variety of morpheme types between two languages, which are incorporated with

specific orthographic rules of each script, need to be understood further. Here, I would like to note the findings of Wang, Cheng & Chen (2006) who looked at cross-language transfer of morphological awareness between the two distinct writing systems, Chinese and English. They found that Chinese-English bilingual children are able to apply morphological knowledge from one language to the other for some words that share the similar structure between the languages, such as compound words. The authors concluded that early morphological awareness in one language can be a 'facilitator' for the literacy development in the other language. Further research examining cross-language morphological transfer between Hangul and English is likely to yield a better understanding of the literacy acquisition of young children who are learning two distinct alphabetic scripts.

11.2.2 Words

The outcomes of this study provide evidence that children have considerable awareness of words: homonyms, synonyms, antonyms and proper names. These findings suggest that the children didn't think that one orthographic word represents meaning in only one way. KH's teaching exemplifies such awareness in which she was able to use homonyms as a strategy to teach certain words. For example, in order to help her tutee to write '비' as in '나비' (butterfly), she let her tutee think of the homonym '비' which shares the same spelling but has a different meaning, 'rain'. A similar awareness was also demonstrated in the other tutor child YE who explained synonyms by saying that there are some words that have a similar meaning such as 'gift' and 'present'. Moreover, she further talked about the proper name, '김치' (Kimchi) which is the name of a Korean side dish in order to explain that certain words indicate a special name having a unique entity, which cannot be translated into different languages (Section 10.2.3).

These findings imply that the children have some metalinguistic awareness. Tellier & Roehr-Brackin (2013, p.83) defined metalinguistic awareness as “an awareness of the nature, function and form of language”, and Corthals (2010) wrote that it requires the ability to objectify language as a means of communication. When SB was given the question about Hangul and English, for example, she was able to compare one language to the other in terms of the nature of language and its function. She was aware that both Hangul and English were invented by someone for the purpose of communication, and among various languages, English is an international language which is widely used in different countries (Section 9.3.1). These findings suggest that children’s awareness goes beyond the meaning of simple symbols, and this might be awareness of “language as language” (Doherty & Perner, 1998, p.302).

Literacy knowledge and skills are positively correlated with metalinguistic skills (Chaney, 1992), and in particular, the current findings accord with previous research which has linked metalinguistic awareness to children’s understandings of homonyms (Bakscheider & Gelman, 1995; Corthals, 2010; Doherty, 2000; Peters & Zaidel, 1980) and synonyms (Doherty & Perner, 1998). For example, Doherty (2000) discussed why young children have difficulty with homonymy among Scottish children aged between 3 and 4. They found that children’s ability to understand homonymy develops around the age 4, and their understanding of homonymy results from their metalinguistic awareness since understanding homonymy requires metalinguistic knowledge that one linguistic form might represent multiple meanings. Thus, the research concluded that difficulties in understanding homonymy before that age could derive from lack of metalinguistic awareness.

Another focus of research on metalinguistic awareness of children has been on the fact that children’s early exposure to different languages enables children to develop sensitivity towards how languages are used (Ben-Zeev, 1977; Bialystok, 1987; Bialystok, Peets & Moreno, 2014; Cummins, 1978; Dillon, 2009; Nag & Anderson,

1995; Thomas, 1988; Verhoeven, 1994). Most of these studies found that bilingual children showed more advanced metalinguistic awareness than monolingual children, proposing that biliteracy facilitates children's metalinguistic awareness. Nag & Anderson (1995) concluded that "transfer of useful information from one language to another may be mediated by metalinguistic awareness" (p.6). In this respect, HB's teaching of antonyms exemplifies how literacy skills are transferred between different scripts. She showed her understanding that certain words mean the opposite of each other, and they do exist in each language (Section 8.2.1). These findings suggest that the children learning Hangul and English simultaneously had a considerable metalinguistic awareness in some properties of two different languages. Here, it is worth noting Nag & Anderson's (1995) claim that children's metalinguistic awareness is closely associated with the nature of the writing system. For example, it might be expected that the role of phonological awareness would be an important aspect for alphabetic writing systems whereas morphological awareness needs to be considered in the acquisition of logographic scripts in terms of metalinguistic awareness. This study shows different aspects of metalinguistic awareness between Hangul and English, suggesting that more in-depth studies can investigate how the role of metalinguistic awareness in Korean EFL children's literacy acquisition is shaped by the nature of the two writing systems.

It is clear that children make use of literacy knowledge and skills from different levels of information, which are involved in constructing meaning. These findings build up understandings of how young children learn to read and write in a foreign language context, and also suggest strategies for supporting early literacy development. As Cameron (2001) wrote, teachers need to help children to progress within each level of information, and to integrate different pieces of information across the levels.

Along with exploring literacy knowledge and skills, it was the intention of my study then, to examine how Korean EFL children understand two different writing systems,

Hangul and English which are phonologically and orthographically different alphabet languages. The findings will be discussed in the next section.

11.3 Research question 3: understandings of scripts

The third research question of the study, which is about children's understandings of different scripts, is as follows:

Q3. Do the children have an understanding of the similarities and differences between Hangul and English?

Q3a. If so, what understandings do they have?

Q3b. Do the children make comparisons between the two scripts?

Q3c. Which features of each script are considered to be important by the children?

As has been presented in the finding chapters, all the children showed their awareness of Hangul and English by looking for key concepts which characterise each script, and by making comparisons between the two writing systems. Key orthographic characteristics of Hangul and English drawn from the findings were:

- *Hangul as an alphabetic syllabary*: children were able to compare this unique feature of Hangul with English in terms of visual feature, length of words, and language units.
- *Hangul as a logography*: children were able to look for a logographic characteristic of Hangul through close attention to a small stroke when forming a syllable block.
- *Hangul as a shallow orthography / English as a deep orthography*: children were

able to make comparisons between the two scripts in terms of sound-letter relationship. Pronunciation was the most important consideration in their English learning.

- *Batchim*: children showed considerable understandings of Batchim, in particular the one with two consonants. They considered it the most important part of Hangul learning because of its irregular phonological feature.

In this section, these four main findings of the study in relation to the research question 3 will be discussed in greater detail, followed by a discussion on children's invented ideas between two scripts.

11.3.1 Hangul as an alphabetic syllabary

As stated in Section 1.2.1, the key characteristic of Hangul which differentiates it from English is its visual feature. Findings from the study suggest that the children seemed to understand the visual and syllabic features of Hangul and its differences from English. For example, KH's use of boxes for each Hangul syllable showed her awareness that Hangul is box-shaped and each box itself is a syllable. She also understood that English alphabet letters cannot be put together in a single box like Hangul alphabets by comparing Hangul to English with the number of boxes (Section 6.3.1). Her ideas at the age of six expressed by boxes suggest that she was able to identify the key orthographic principle of a Hangul script as an alphabetic syllabary, which makes it distinctive from other alphabet scripts.

Another aspect regarding the characteristic of Hangul as an alphabetic syllabary was related to the length of words. In Hangul, between two and four letters are combined together to form a single block, and most Hangul words have no more than four syllable blocks. Regarding such way of arranging blocks, Taylor & Taylor (1983)

wrote that Hangul is advantageous for long words, for example, ‘unconsciousness’ contains 15 letters arranged in a line in English, but transcribes into 3 syllable blocks, ‘무의식’ in Hangul. The interview with HB exemplifies such awareness of Hangul as a syllabary by comparing English to Hangul in terms of the length of words. She compared ‘elementary school’ in which 16 letters are arranged in a row to one syllable Hangul word ‘똥’ (poo), showing her understanding that Hangul has fewer longer words than English (Section 8.3.2).

Findings of the study also suggested that children recognized the syllables as the basic units of Hangul, and it led them to count the number of syllables in a word. This was evident in YB’s teaching in which he broke down a Hangul word into individual units in terms of the number of syllables (Section 7.2.2). This shows his awareness of the syllabic feature of Hangul in that “because the Hangul syllable blocks are separated, there is a clear syllable boundary for a Hangul word” (Wang, Park & Lee, 2006, p.149). This finding also supports Cho & McBride-Chang’s (2005) research on the acquisition of Hangul among kindergartners and second graders, suggesting that children’s syllable awareness develops early, and it plays an important role for early Hangul acquisition. They note that:

“The fact that Korean is read using syllable-level units of print and that the syllable level of language in Korean is strongly salient relative to other languages such as English makes syllable sensitivity crucial for beginning reading of Hangul” (Cho & McBride-Chang, 2005, p.12)

Along with YB’s awareness of syllabic feature of Hangul, another interesting point about his teaching was that unlike a Hangul word, he divided an English word into small units according to the number of letters. As shown in Chapter 7, YB thought of the word ‘elephant’ as consisting of eight units, presented as ‘EOEOHONO’ while he gave his tutee three blanks for ‘송아지’ (calf) according to the number of syllables. His use of blanks for each script suggests that he was aware that different writing

systems represent different language units.

These findings presented here suggest that the children had some ideas about the key principle governing Korean orthography which characterises it as an alphabetic syllabary, and they were able to make it clear that this characteristic of Hangul is different from English. These are consistent with Kenner's (2004); she found that six-year-old bilingual children were able to look for key principles underlying each script of Chinese (a logographic script), Arabic (a non-Roman script with a different directionality), Spanish (a Roman script with some differences from the English writing system) and English, differentiating between each writing system (Section 3.3). The results are also in accordance with the findings of Rashid & Gregory (1997) about a six-year-old child's awareness of Bengali, Arabic, and English (Section 2.2.1), and those of Saxena (1994) who found that a four-year-old child was already aware of the orthographic differences between Gurmukhi, Devanagari, and Roman scripts (Section 3.3). These findings from the previous studies and from the current study suggest that young children might have sophisticated script-learning abilities from an early age, and when they learn a new language, they develop their own understandings between different writing systems, clarifying differences between them. This indicates that "difference is not inherently a source of difficulty" (Kenner, 2004, p.59) for young learners who are acquiring a new language.

11.3.2 Hangul as a logography

Findings from the analysis of KH's peer teaching show that she paid attention to an individual stroke when teaching Hangul. Her attention to a small stroke was occasionally demonstrated when she was teaching similar looking Hangul words such as '주' and '추', and '으' and '의' (Section 6.3.2). In her teaching, her focus was to show the correct stroke sequence to build up each syllable block, and to show

how a small stroke can change a graphic representation of a word into a different one which stands for a different meaning. Similar awareness was also seen in HB and SB who focused on the stroke sequence and the precise writing of Hangul respectively. These findings exemplify children's awareness of the principle which characterises Hangul as a logography (Section 1.2.1). In this study, children worked out this logographic characteristic of Hangul through the precise writing such as close attention to a small stroke and a stroke sequence.

Regarding children's understandings of this feature of Hangul, the findings are in line with research on children's awareness of a logographic Chinese script (Chan & Nunes, 1998; Tsai & Nunes, 2003). For example, Chan & Nunes (1998) showed Chinese young learners' awareness of the position and types of strokes as well as semantic and phonological features of each stroke. They claimed that this understanding does not simply come from memorization or repetition of individual Chinese characters (Section 3.1.2). The findings also corresponded with the results of Kenner (2004) in which a six-year-old Chinese child who took part in peer teaching sessions showed close attention to the formation of the Chinese character, involving the stroke sequence, accuracy in each stroke, and even a balance between strokes in each character. Her research concluded that despite relatively little input in Chinese compared with in English, the child showed sophisticated abilities to look for the logographic characteristics of Chinese derived from his early awareness of scripts. These findings suggest that young children are able to discover some characteristics of a logographic script from an early age.

The findings of my study suggest that the children were able to look for not only alphabetic characteristics of Hangul but also its non-alphabetic nature. These findings are equally related to literature regarding children's awareness of alphabetic scripts (Section 3.1.1) as well as the studies about children's early awareness of non-alphabetic scripts (Section 3.1.2). Therefore, it is possible to say that young

children are developing their awareness of the underlying rules of a writing system regardless of whether it is alphabetic or non-alphabetic.

11.3.3 Hangul as a shallow orthography / English as a deep orthography

One of the findings of this study is concerned with children's awareness of irregular phoneme-grapheme correspondence of English. For instance, HB was aware of the fact that the sound of a vowel in the unstressed syllable is weakened, hence it is represented as /ə/, showing her understanding that some sounds of English letters may not be fully pronounced (Section 8.3.1). SB and YE were also aware that some letters have two possible sounds in English. They gave me the words 'sky' and 'fairy' respectively in order to explain that the letter 'y' has two different sounds, /ai/ and /i/. Based on the findings from interview data related to English pronunciation, I was able to see that this irregular sound-letter relationship of English made the children feel that English is more difficult than Hangul. HB expressed it by saying, 'English is more difficult than Hangul because English has many difficult words... spellings'. Moreover, I also found that English pronunciation is considered very important by most tutor children due to its complex phonological rules. For example, YE said pronunciation is the most important in learning English because there are some letters which have to be carefully pronounced. These findings show their awareness of a different degree of sound-letter ambiguity between Hangul and English, which means the grapheme-phoneme correspondence of Hangul is more transparent compared with that of English.

Research on bilingual children's script learning includes the complexity of writing systems between L1 and L2, which is about whether children are learning a more complex writing system or simpler one than their first language (Sassoon, 1995). In this respect, the current findings seem to be in accordance with previous studies

based on the Orthographic Depth Hypothesis, suggesting that the Korean alphabet Hangeul is regular in sound-letter relationship thus it is referred to as a shallow orthography whereas English is referred to as a deep orthography where sound-letter mappings are inconsistent (Section 3.2.2). Therefore, it is not surprising to see reports that Korean EFL children encounter many difficulties in learning English spelling. A number of researchers examined various patterns of spelling errors in English made by Korean young learners (Jeong & Bae, 2014; Lee, 2007; Park, 2011), and particularly, Park (2011) found that Korean EFL children had difficulty in spelling English words containing phonemes which are absent in Hangeul but are present in English. It is therefore suggested that Korean EFL young learners whose L1 is more transparent than English need to have more opportunities to experience the use of some linguistic elements which are not acquired in Hangeul but learned in English so that young Korean learners would become familiar with them from the beginning stages of literacy learning of English.

Although orthographic differences between two writing systems might suggest some difficulties that learners might encounter in learning a second writing system, some studies discussed the importance of universal phonological process between two languages, suggesting that the similarities between two languages are bigger than the differences in spite of orthographic differences (Section 3.2.3). This was also found between Korean and English, however, although children's phonological skills were not measured in this study, it is my view that both general phonological process and specific orthographic processing between Korean and English need to be considered together in order to fully understand literacy acquisition of Korean EFL children learning the two languages, which share some similarities, but at the same time, have different phonological and orthographic features. A number of studies argue that both phonological and orthographic processing is critical in learning alphabetic languages (Cunningham, Perry & Stanovich, 2001; Ehri, 1998; Wang, Park & Lee, 2006), and in particular, Wang, Park & Lee (2006) looked at these two

variables among Korean-English bilingual children. They found that phonological skills in Korean (L1) and English (L2) are highly correlated, however, there was limited orthographic transfer between the two languages. The authors attributed this to the orthographic differences between the two scripts, suggesting that:

“Phonological skills in L1 contributed to phonological skills and reading in L2. However, in the case of two orthographic systems that share the alphabetic principles but differ in visual forms, there is limited facilitation of orthographic skills from one to the other. Both phonological and orthographic skills are important predictors for reading in two different alphabetic orthographies” (Wang, Park & Lee, 2006, p.156)

Accordingly, the findings of my study call for future research examining the contribution of both phonological and orthographic processing to literacy development of Korean EFL children who start learning English when simultaneously developing their first language, Korean. It is my hope that it can provide more accurate and adequate support for how the similarities and the differences between scripts affect early literacy learning of EFL children who are learning different alphabetic languages.

11.3.4 Batchim

Another finding of this study is that a number of tutor children were concerned about ‘batchim’ (Section 1.2.2). In the case of YE, this was visible. Whenever her tutee made spelling mistakes in batchim, YE rubbed out and wrote it again by saying the names of each consonant so that her tutee could write each batchim letter correctly, with more attention than others. In the following interview session, she stated that batchim is the most difficult and important in learning Hangul. The findings also show that some of the children’s awareness of batchim was quite sophisticated. For instance, YB not only knew the fact that both one and two consonants can be placed

underneath as batchim, but also compared Hangul to English, saying “English doesn’t have batchim, but Hangul has”.

The major issue identified in the study related to batchim was about its irregular phonological rule. As described in Chapter 7 (Section 7.2.1), YB’s writing, ‘닭’ (chicken) could be used to exemplify his awareness of the irregular rule of batchim. He knew that only one consonant ‘ㄷ’ is phonetically realized among ‘ㄷㄹ’, as well as the fact that the selection of the consonant, which is realized among two is irregular. KH’s phonetic writing (Section 6.3.3) also shows her recognition that the irregularity of batchim might lead to the difference between what is written and what is actually pronounced in speech. These findings regarding batchim suggest that Korean children are aware of the fact that there are certain rules in Hangul, but some of them do not explain all cases although Hangul is referred to as one of the transparent orthographies.

The findings also showed that this irregular feature of batchim made the children consider it important, and in the case of YB, it even made him think that Hangul is more difficult than English (Section 7.2.1). This reflects the suggestions from the previous studies conducted by Korean researchers which highlight the importance of teaching batchim to young Korean learners as one of the orthographic principles of Hangul. Kim (2004) and Lee (2009) studied children’s use of batchim focusing on its pronunciation, whereas Byun (2010) analyzed children’s spelling errors in batchim with two consonants from examples of their writing. They found that many Korean young learners tend to be struggling with batchim, especially the one with two consonants because there is no rule that fully guides which consonant is pronounced. A similar trend was also found in the studies with adults who are learning Korean as a foreign language. For example, a number of studies found that Chinese learners often produce phonological errors in batchim, which Chinese doesn’t have, with difficulties in the pronunciation of consonant clusters in batchim

(Kim, 2011; Shao, 2014). Results of my study and those studies related to batchim suggest that teachers need not only to acknowledge children's early awareness of batchim but also to teach its irregular rules more overtly as a significant principle of Korean orthography in order to reduce phonological and written errors, derived from its irregular feature.

11.3.5 Combination of Hangul and English

One of the focuses of research on bilingual children's early script learning has been on code-switching between two scripts when children are involved in reading and writing activities (Section 3.2.1). In this study, children's own way of using Hangul and English were noticeable in their talk when they taught how to read and write during the peer teaching. In the case of SB who taught 'cousin' and its equivalent word '사촌', she related an English letter to a Hangul letter having the same sound, and she even made a link between the syllables within the words in order to teach that they have the same meaning (Section 9.3.2). The mixing of two languages within a single word was also seen in the other tutor child, KH who taught a Hangul word, '푸른' (blue). When she explained a Hangul consonant 'ㅍ', she called it both 'ㅍ' and 'p' which have the same /p/ sound (Section 6.3.4). I found that such ideas across two different scripts invented by children were creative and intelligent, suggesting that simultaneous learning of two different writing systems might not cause more confusion for young children.

These findings seem to support the results of Gort (2012) about Spanish-English bilingual children's code-switching patterns in the writing related talk, and Mor-Sommerfeld (2002) who examined children's written code-switching between Hebrew and English, as well as those of Kenner (1999, 2000) who observed a four-year-old child's use of mixed-language between Gujarati and English. These

studies suggest that when children are engaged with two languages, they are able to use their own strategies in order to convey meaning (Gort, 2012), and they are also able to combine two languages in a creative way (Mor-Sommerfeld, 2002). This mirrors Kenner's (2004) claims that:

“The wider society tries to keep children's worlds separate, with different codes for each context. Children, however, tend to integrate and synthesise their resources. They are aware of difference, and will highlight their knowledge of difference where this is valued” (Kenner, 2004, p.59)

Therefore, the findings of my study strengthen the notion that young children's experiences of learning two scripts enable children to make sense of different languages in a new way, and such new invented ideas or languages created by children in the process of acquiring two languages need to be seen as an indicator of children's literacy development, not as 'difficulty', 'confusion' or 'errors'.

My study also showed that children combined Hangul and English at the levels of sound-letters, syllables and words in their talk. I also found that combinations occurred within words across languages and a single word in a single script over the peer teaching of three months. This leads to me suggest that longer term research describing various code-switching patterns at different levels between Hangul and English would be needed. As studies of Gort (2012) and Mor-Sommerfeld (2002) have shown, children show more sophisticated code-switching patterns at various levels as they get older, and the relationship between L1 and L2 is an important issue in terms of influences. Therefore, further longitudinal research is necessary with a large number of participants to examine diverse patterns of code-switching within a language or across languages, such as transference from Korean (L1) to English (L2), or from English (L2) to Korean (L1). It would allow a greater understanding of Korean EFL children's literacy development.

11.4 Summary

In this chapter, I have highlighted the three main aspects related to children's literacy acquisition: literacy knowledge, literacy skills, and understandings of different writing systems. This study has found that young children are able to use different types of knowledge and skills, with considerable orthographic knowledge of Hangul and English. Major issues discussed in this chapter are summarized as follows.

- In the process of becoming literate, young children are able to integrate knowledge and skills from different sources of information, from context (background knowledge), text (organization of text), sentence (punctuation) to words (morphological awareness / metalinguistic awareness) in each script. These findings add to an understanding of literacy development of children learning two different alphabetic languages in a foreign language context.
- Korean EFL children are able to look for unique features of Hangul (alphabetic, syllabic and logographic) by comparing these features to English in terms of visual feature, length of words, language units, attention to stroke and sound-letter relationship. They are able to highlight the similarities and differences between Hangul and English, but sometimes they combine two languages as a strategy to convey meaning. Their own ideas across languages were very intelligent and creative, and this provides a window into children's literacy development.

12. Conclusion

This concluding chapter first starts with a discussion of the contributions made to the existing field of research and their significance for children's literacy development. This is followed by implications on teaching literacy in young learner classroom, and finally some suggestions are offered for future research.

12.1 Contributions of this study

This thesis contributes to the literature on literacy acquisition of young children who are learning different writing systems. Although many researchers have discussed early awareness of scripts with children becoming literate in more than one script in various contexts across languages, to date there has been no research with EFL children learning the non-Roman alphabetic script Hangul and a Roman alphabetic script, in this case English, simultaneously. Therefore, I have attempted to fill a gap in the literature of how and to what extent young children understand different scripts by exploring Korean EFL children's understandings of Hangul and English. The findings of this study suggest that Korean EFL preschool children were able to identify key principles which characterise each script, and this broadens an understanding of how children negotiate their worlds in which they face two different writing systems in an EFL context. The study provided evidence that young children are very aware of the fundamental rules of scripts before going to school, and they gradually develop them by highlighting their knowledge of the similarities and the differences between writing systems, or by combining two languages in a new way. These findings, which establish children as active language users who are able to construct their own meanings and ideas about the principles of languages, could lead to new insights into children's literacy learning.

This study also contributes to the area of emergent literacy, in particular about emergent knowledge and skills by showing how young children make use of them at different levels, from context level to sound-letter level. The study showed that the children were able to extract information of different types at different levels in order to construct meaning in the process of learning two different alphabetic languages. These findings add to the literature which suggests a variety of models of emergent literacy components focusing solely on particular knowledge and skills. This research provides a new way of thinking about children's literacy acquisition, namely that young children develop literacy knowledge and skills by integrating various pieces of information, and these both knowledge and skills are closely related with their understandings of writing systems. This also adds to Cameron's (2001) framework of literacy knowledge and skills by extending it to the literacy acquisition of EFL children who are learning phonologically and orthographically different alphabet scripts.

This thesis also responded to the need pointed out by some researchers for in-depth and detailed processes of children's awareness of writing systems in literacy acquisition (Furnes & Samuelsson, 2009; Kenner et al., 2004), and for children's active roles in research and the value of listening to children throughout the research (Alderson, 2000; Pinter, Kuchah & Smith, 2013). Within a qualitative research paradigm, I put children at the centre of my research so that they could lead their teaching sessions in their own ways by selecting topics, materials or activities. The peer teaching setting of this study encouraged children to show their thinking more explicitly by providing the full richness of their knowledge, skills and understandings whilst engaged in literacy activities as active language users. In order to facilitate each peer teaching session within a child-centred context, I also listened to children's ideas and opinions throughout all steps of conducting the peer teaching as a facilitator, in line with the emergent literacy perspective (Teale & Sulzby, 1986) highlighting the significance of natural and child-centred context for children's

literacy learning.

12.2 Implications for enhancing children's literacy development

The results of this study have instructional implications on teaching literacy in the young learner classrooms. This study provided evidence that young children have considerable knowledge and skills in relation to reading and writing along with remarkable understandings of writing systems, and they are also able to develop a variety of hypotheses and strategies between two different writing systems. This supports the notion of emergent literacy which suggests that young children begin to develop the genesis of reading and writing on their own before schooling without direct instruction. It is therefore proposed that such early awareness of languages and scripts need to be valued and encouraged by teachers or educators so that children can benefit from having more opportunities to expand their ideas in their literacy learning. Moreover, the literacy instruction for young learners should take into consideration how to make use of their knowledge and how to build on what they already know in order to help them become "better architects and better builders" (Bruner, 1996, p.20).

Here, it is worth noting that this research has shown how preschool children come to literacy through constructing their own theories and meanings about reading and writing themselves as active language learners. Moreover, their active participation in the research, within the peer teaching setting where they could shape the research activities by themselves, has shown that children are able to provide useful insights into their own lives. These findings suggest that "it is time that children are regarded as experts on their subjective experience" (Grover, 2004, p.91), and "children should be studied for and in themselves, not simply as a means of understanding the adult world" (Gallacher & Gallagher, 2008, p.500). In this sense, children's own interests,

ideas, and beliefs about reading and writing need to be explored and worked out in the research setting or in the classroom. Most importantly, their voices, experiences and perspectives must be valued and interpreted through children's eyes because children view the world differently from adults (Alderson, 2000). This notion challenges traditional adult perspectives, particularly in the Korean context where children's interests are often judged by adults, and children's own ideas and perspectives are conceived from professional adult perspectives, such as teachers or researchers. This research argues that in order to support and reinforce the creative and inventive ways that children construct meaning in their literacy learning of Hangeul and English, teachers need to be able to discover the strategies and ideas that children are using to make sense of reading and writing by considering children's interests, experiences, concerns, needs, abilities, and voices from children's perspectives.

This study also suggests that teachers should be knowledgeable of both phonological and orthographic differences between Hangeul and English since this knowledge helps teachers to understand the reason of some of the misspellings in Korean children's writing in English. The participant children in my study were aware that their L2 (English) is a less transparent orthography compared with their first language Hangeul, and they also expressed that the irregular sound-letter correspondence of English made them feel that learning English is more difficult than Hangeul. Therefore, teachers should focus on certain linguistic elements which do not exist in Hangeul but present in English so that children can overcome the predicted difficulty in learning L2.

12.3 Limitations and future research

Although the findings of this thesis provide valuable insights into children's

awareness of languages and scripts in literacy acquisition, this study has several limitations. The first shortcoming is that this research could not construct the developmental progression of children's knowledge, skills and understandings of writing systems due to time constraints. A three-month peer teaching setting where this study took place in which each tutor child had three different teaching and interview sessions limits the implications in terms of the developmental trend. In addition, because the peer teaching schedule had to be incorporated with classroom schedules, school events and each child's personal matters, the three sessions for each pair could not be observed at regular intervals during the three months. Therefore, a further longitudinal study where children are regularly observed throughout a school year is necessary in order to provide evidence for more details of emergent knowledge, skills and understandings as well as their changes and development over time.

The second limitation of this study is the fact that children's informal literacy interactions at home or community were not observed. Although the information on each participant child's personal experiences of learning Hangul and English at home was collected from their classroom teachers and parents in this study, it would have been ideal to explore children's home literacy environment where they were taught by parents or interacted with family members, as done by Cremin et al. (2012). This could further explain the relation between home literacy practice and their awareness observed in the peer teaching setting. This was not possible in this study because of time constraints and the fact that most parents were working at the time, thus it was difficult to ask them to observe their children at home. Further research should therefore include data with observation of children's formal learning at school as well as their informal interactions with writing systems at home in order to yield a better understanding of children's thinking about writing systems connected to their home literacy environments.

As previous studies had pointed out (Kenner & Kress, 2003; Sassoon, 1995), more studies on children's understandings of different scripts will still be needed, and in particular, the findings of this study in relation to Hangul and English call for the need of more in-depth further studies on EFL children's phonological and orthographic processing between the two languages. For example, young children's early awareness of irregular features of Hangul and English can be studied further. Future research comparing children's awareness of irregular 'batchim' to their perception of irregular sound-letter relationship of English would be of interest. In addition, further research examining whether children's understandings of irregular principles of Hangul influences the way they learn English would also be of interest. This would enable an examination of how young children deal with certain irregular rules of different writing systems.

As Masny & Ghahremani-Ghajar (1999) wrote, 'reading the world' is more important than 'reading the word' in children's literacy acquisition. Children's remarkable knowledge, skills and understandings of different writing systems presented in my study can be a new window into how young children read the world as active language users, and as 'experts' of their own lives.

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Information letter for parents (for a pilot study)

University of Leeds
School of Education

Name of Researcher: Kyung Min Nam

Title of Research: Children's understandings of different writing systems and scripts: *Korean* written in the Hangeul alphabet and *English* written in the Roman alphabet

The purpose of this letter is to request consent for your children to take part in the above research (a pilot study). I am conducting this pilot study as part of my PhD study in language education and will look closely at how young children understand Korean alphabet Hangeul and Roman alphabet English. The findings in the study will help me to develop understanding in literacy knowledge, skills and understandings in Hangeul and English demonstrated by Korean EFL (English as a Foreign Language) children. Also, this will help me to prepare a main study. Your children will be asked to do the following:

1. Your children will take part in a peer teaching session in pairs. A tutor child (older child) will teach a tutee child (younger child) how to read and write in Hangeul and English.
2. A tutor child will lead one teaching session in Korean or English. It lasts approximately 20 minutes.
3. A tutor child will use separate materials for each script brought from his

classroom or home as a resource for teaching Hangul and English.

4. After peer teaching, a tutor child will be interviewed with a researcher. The interview will last approximately 10 minutes.
- The peer teaching and interview will be video-recorded.

I will observe the following guidelines for the interview and observation:

1. Your children's names will not be disclosed during the research and will not appear in any written reports or publications.
2. If you allow your children to participate in this study, they can withdraw at any time without giving any reason.
3. The observation of peer teaching and interview will be conducted without any judgmental purposes. If you do not want your children to be video-recorded, you are free to decline.
4. During the interview, if your child does not wish to answer any particular question or questions, he is free to decline.

If you would like to grant permission for your children to participate in my pilot study, kindly fill out the consent form below, sign and date it, and hand it back to me via e-mail, phone or in hard copy. Should you require further clarification at this point or anytime during the research, please do not hesitate to contact me on 07414265081 or e-mail at ed09kmmn@leeds.ac.uk.



Informed consent form for parents (for a pilot study)

**University of Leeds
School of Education**

Consent to take part in **Children's understandings of different writing systems and scripts: *Korean* written in the Hangul alphabet and *English* written in the Roman alphabet**

	Please initial box
I confirm that I have read and understand the information letter dated 06/09/2012 explaining the above research project (a pilot study) and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.	
I understand that my children's participation is voluntary and they are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should my children not wish to answer any particular question or questions, my children are free to decline.	
I understand that my children's information will be held and processed for the following purposes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To be used anonymously for internal publication for a PhD project and submitted for assessment with a view to being published in academic journals / conferences. • I understand that quotations from the interview and observation may be used in writing up the results of the research and that these will always be anonymous and not attributed to them in any way. 	
I agree that my children take part in the above research project (a pilot study).	
<u>I understand that all the observations and interviews with my children will be video-recorded.</u>	

Name of parent	
Parent's signature	
Date	
Name of researcher	Kyung Min Nam
Signature	
Date	

Appendix C

Child-friendly leaflet (for a pilot study)

Children's understandings of different writing systems and scripts: **Korean** written in the Hangul alphabet and **English** written in the Roman alphabet



What is this research about?

This study is concerned with your understandings of Hangul and English.

Then what will we be asked to do?

You will take part in peer teaching sessions.

If you are an older child, you will teach a younger child how to read and write in Hangul and English. If you are a younger child, you will have a chance to learn Hangul and English from an older child!



Can we know more about peer teaching sessions?

If you are a tutor child, you will have one teaching session. You can use any materials you like, and you may speak both Korean and English. There is no restriction on your teaching in 20 minutes, so just enjoy your teaching! After your teaching, I will interview you to know more about your teaching. If you are a tutee child, you will be a nice pupil and be actively involved in learning!

Peer teaching etiquette

You can enjoy your own teaching and learning during the peer teaching session, but it is very important to show good behaviour and to respect each other. Here is some peer teaching etiquette you need to keep, and this will make it more enjoyable!

1. To speak politely to a tutor or a tutee
2. To respect what a tutor or a tutee says
(not laughing at him or her)
3. No teasing, no bullying, no hitting, and no exclusionary behaviours



Can we withdraw peer teaching anytime?

Sure. You are able to withdraw from peer teaching at any time and for any reason. Also, during interview if you do not wish to answer any particular question or questions, you are free to decline.

Appendix D

Observation checklist (for a pilot study)

Name of a tutor child: _____ Name of a tutee child: _____

Date: _____ Time: _____

① (Research questions 1 & 2)

Information	Knowledge and skills	Contents	Check		Comments
the world	knowledge	background knowledge of topic	H _____	E _____	
	skills	activate relevant knowledge of topic	H _____	E _____	
		activate vocabulary	H _____	E _____	
text	knowledge	organisation and structure of texts	H _____	E _____	
	skills	recognize text type	H _____	E _____	
		locate key information	H _____	E _____	
sentences	knowledge	word order	H _____	E _____	
		meaning of punctuation	H _____	E _____	
	skills	identify verb and relation of other words to the verb	H _____	E _____	
words	knowledge	sight vocabulary	H _____	E _____	
		spelling	H _____	E _____	
	skills	recognize by sight	H _____	E _____	
		guess meaning of new words from context	H _____	E _____	
syllables	knowledge	spelling patterns	H _____	E _____	
	skills	break syllables into onset and rime	H _____	E _____	
		break syllables into body and coda	H _____	E _____	
morphemes	knowledge	meanings of common morphemes	H _____	E _____	
	skills	spot same morpheme in different words	H _____	E _____	
sound-letters	knowledge	names / shapes of letters of the alphabet	H _____	E _____	
		the alphabetic principle	H _____	E _____	
		grapheme-phoneme correspondences	H _____	E _____	
		letter clusters / digraphs	H _____	E _____	
	skills	relate letter shape to sound	H _____	E _____	

● (Research question 3)

Feature	Contents		Check	Comments
direction of writing	H	written from left to right / from top to bottom		
	E	written from left to right		
shape of letters	H	block shaped		
	E	linear		
height of letters	H	no height differentials		
	E	has height differentials		
set of letters	H	no set of letters		
	E	has two set of letters		
word spacing	H	requires spaces between words		
	E	requires spaces between words		
sound-letter relationship	H	regular relationship between sounds and letters		
	E	irregular relationship between sounds and letters		
others	H			
	E			
others	H			
	E			


Appendix E

Findings of the pilot study

- Literacy knowledge in Hangul demonstrated by JH

Information	Contents	Data (data form)
the world	has previous knowledge of topic	(Observation) When he introduced ‘양’ (sheep), he imitated the sound, ‘baa...baa...’.
words	knows the spellings of words	(Observation) He wrote ‘쥐’ (mouse), ‘양’ (sheep), ‘물고기’ (fish) correctly.
syllables	knows that words are divided into syllables	(Observation) When he introduced the word, ‘물고기’ (fish), he wrote and read ‘물’, ‘고’, ‘기’ separately.


- Literacy knowledge in English demonstrated by JH

Information	Contents	Data (data form)
sentences	knows that sentences begin with capital letters	(Interview) Q: You used both capital letters and small letters when teaching English. Could you tell me more about capital and small letters? JH: A sentence should begin with a capital letter.
words	knows the spellings of words	(Observation) He wrote ‘one’, ‘two’, ‘three’, ‘four’ correctly.
sound-letters	knows grapheme-phoneme correspondences	(Observation) He pronounced /n/, /t/, /f/, /r/ when introducing the letters ‘n’, ‘t’, ‘f’, ‘r’ respectively.
	knows that there are different types of sound-letter relationships in English (digraphs, long vowel, ‘e’)	(Observation) When he introduced ‘three’, he wrote ‘tree’ at first, and then changed it into ‘three’. He explained that the word, ‘three’ is difficult to write. (Written text)  (Interview) Q: You said to your tutee that the word, ‘three’ is difficult to write. Why is it difficult? JH: It is difficult to write because the sound /θ/ needs two letters. Some words which end with ‘e’ are also confusing because ‘e’ sometimes doesn’t make a sound. One day, I made a spelling mistake when writing ‘because’ at school.


- Literacy skills in Hangeul demonstrated by JH



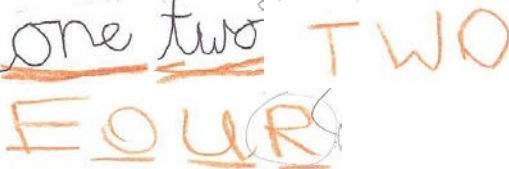
Information	Contents	Data (data form)
the world	activates relevant knowledge of topic and vocabulary	<p>(Observation) He introduced the names of animals by showing each picture. When he showed the word, ‘쥐’ (mouse), he introduced ‘치즈’ (cheese) along with ‘쥐’ (mouse), explaining that a mouse likes to eat cheese.</p>

- Literacy skills in English demonstrated by JH

Information	Contents	Data (data form)
words	recognizes sight words	<p>(Observation) After he wrote each English word, he related each letter to each sound. But when he read the word, ‘one’, he read it at once, not broke it into each sound.</p>
sound-letters	relates letter shape to sound	<p>(Observation) After he wrote each word, he pronounced each sound by underlining each letter. (Written text)</p> 
	identifies complex relationships between sounds and letters in English (diphthong)	<p>(Observation) When he introduced ‘three’, he pronounced /i:/ by underlining ‘ee’ at once.</p>

- Understandings of Hangeul and English demonstrated by JH

Features	Contents	Data (data form)
height of letters	compares the height of letters	<p>(Interview) Q: What do you know about Hangeul and English? JH: When I write Hangeul, I need more space like this (He drew four lines on the paper and wrote ‘안’ as in ‘안녕’ (hello) along with the letter ‘n’ on it to compare.) (Written text)</p> 

<p>shape of letters</p>	<p>understands that Hangul is block shaped and English is linear</p>	<p>(Interview) Q: Could you tell me about your experience in learning Hangul and English so far? JH: Learning Hangul is more difficult than learning English. Q: Why? JH: When I write ‘감’ as in ‘감자’ (potato) in Hangul, I should place something (‘ㄷ’) below ‘가’. But in English, this can be written in this way... (He wrote ‘가ㄷ’ next to ‘감’. He used an arrow to explain this.)</p> <p>(Written text)</p>  <p>(Interview) Q: You mean writing English is easier than Hangul because English is written side by side. Am I right? JH: Yes. English is written like this... (He drew cursive lines to explain this.)</p> <p>(Written text)</p> 
<p>set of letters</p>	<p>understands that English has two set of letters (capitals and small letters)</p>	<p>(Observation) JH used both capital and small letters when teaching English.</p> <p>(Written text)</p> 



Information letter for the preschool

**University of Leeds
School of Education**

Name of Researcher: Kyung Min Nam

Title of Research: Children's understandings of different writing systems and scripts: *Korean* written in the Hangeul alphabet and *English* written in the Roman alphabet

The purpose of this letter is to request consent for the children who are attending your school. I am conducting this research as part of my PhD study in Language Education and will look closely at how young children understand Korean alphabet Hangeul and Roman alphabet English. The findings in this research will help me to develop understanding in literacy knowledge, skills and understandings in Hangeul and English demonstrated by Korean EFL (English as a Foreign Language) children. Participant children will be asked to do the following:

1. They take part in peer teaching sessions in pairs. A tutor child aged six will teach a tutee child aged five how to read and write in Hangeul and English.
2. 5 pairs will be made, and each tutor child will lead three different teaching sessions in Korean or English. Each session lasts 20 minutes.
3. A tutor child will use separate materials for each script brought from his or her classroom or home as a resource for teaching Hangeul and English.
4. After each session, a tutor child will be interviewed with a researcher. The interview will last no more than 10 minutes.

- All the observations and interviews will be video-recorded.
- A new class named, 'peer teaching' will be made within the curriculum (as one of extracurricular classes) during the research (between December 2012 and February 2013).

I will observe the following guidelines for the interviews and observations:

1. Children's name and the school name will not be disclosed during the research and will not appear in any written reports or publications.
2. If you allow children to participate in this study, they can withdraw at any time without giving any reason.
3. The observation of peer teaching and interviews will be conducted in the classroom without any judgmental purposes. If you do not want children to be video-recorded, you are free to decline.
4. During interview if children do not wish to answer any particular question or questions, they are free to decline.
5. The results obtained from the study will not have any influence on their learning at school.

If you would like to grant permission for the children who are attending your school in my study, kindly fill out the consent form below, sign and date it, and hand it back to me via e-mail or in hard copy. Should you require further clarification at this point or anytime during the research, please do not hesitate to contact me on 010-7657-1451 or e-mail at ed09kmmn@leeds.ac.uk.

**연구 설명서 (학원용)**

University of Leeds
School of Education

연구자 이름: 남경민

연구 제목: 한글 (Korean alphabet)과 영어 (Roman alphabet)의 활자에 대한
아이들의 이해에 관한 연구

저는 본 연구 설명서를 통해 현재 ECC 영어 유치원에 재원중인 학생들의 위 연구 참여에 관한 유치원의 동의를 구하고자 합니다. 저는 현재 영국 Leeds 대학교에서 Language Education 을 전공하고 있는 학생으로 본 연구는 저의 박사학위 과정의 한 부분으로 이루어집니다. 이 연구는 영어를 외국어로 공부하고 있는 한국 어린이들이 언어의 기본구조가 다른 한글과 영어를 어떻게 받아들이고 이해하는지를 알아보기 위한 연구로, 본 연구에 참여하게 되는 어린이들은 아래와 같은 수업활동에 참여하게 됩니다.

1. 본 연구를 위해 아이들은 동료 티칭 (peer teaching)에 참여합니다. 만 6세 어린이와 만 5세 어린이가 한 팀을 이루게 되며 6세 어린이는 한글과 영어를 어떻게 읽고 쓰는지 5세 어린이에게 가르쳐주게 됩니다.
 2. 본 연구를 위해 총 5팀이 만들어지게 되며, 교사 역할을 하는 각 6세 어린이는 총 3번의 수업을 진행하게 됩니다. 수업 중에는 한글과 영어를 동시에 쓸 수 있으며, 각 수업은 20분간 진행됩니다.
 3. 교사 어린이는 한글과 영어를 가르치기 위해 각각 다른 교재를 자유롭게 준비하게 되며, 교실 또는 집에서 사용하는 어떤 교재를 사용해도 좋습니다.
 4. 수업이 끝난 후 각 교사 어린이는 수업 내용에 관해 연구자와 간단한 인터뷰를 갖게 됩니다. 이 인터뷰는 10분 이내로 진행됩니다.
- 모든 동료 티칭의 관찰, 인터뷰 과정은 비디오로 녹화됩니다.
 - 본 연구를 위해 ‘동료 티칭’ (peer teaching) 수업시간이 2012년 12월부터 2013년 2월까지 kinder 시간에 추가됩니다.

본 연구를 위해 진행되는 모든 관찰, 인터뷰 과정들은 아래의 지침을 준수합니다.

1. 연구에 참여하는 아이들의 실명이나 학원의 이름은 연구과정 또는 어떠한 출판물에도 언급되지 않을 것입니다.
2. 본 연구에 참여하는 아이들은 연구 도중 어떤 이유를 막론하고 언제든지 참여를 그만둘 수 있습니다.
3. 교실에서 이루어지는 동료 티칭과 인터뷰는 고의적 판단을 목적으로 행해지지 않을 것이며, 참가하는 아이들이 비디오로 녹화되는 것을 원치 않으신다면 거절하셔도 좋습니다.
4. 인터뷰 상황도중 아이들이 특정한 질문에 대답하기 꺼려한다면, 모든 아이들은 이를 거부할 권리가 있습니다.
5. 본 연구는 ECC 영어 유치원에서 이루어지는 모든 학습에 부정적인 영향을 주지 않도록 할 것입니다.

본원에서 공부하고 있는 아이들이 연구에 참여하는 것을 동의하신다면, 연구 동의서를 작성하셔서 서명, 날짜를 기입하신 후 연구자에게 보내주시기 바랍니다. 본 연구에 관한 궁금하신 점이나 의문사항이 있으시면 언제든지 010-7657-1451 번호로 전화 주시거나 ed09kmmn@leeds.ac.uk로 연락 주시기 바랍니다. 감사합니다.




Informed consent form for the preschool

University of Leeds
School of Education

Consent to take part in **Children's understandings of different writing systems and scripts: *Korean* written in the Hangul alphabet and *English* written in the Roman alphabet**

	Please initial box
I confirm that I have read and understand the information letter dated 18/10/2012 explaining the above research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.	
I understand that children's participation is voluntary and that they are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In addition, should they not wish to answer any particular question or questions, they are free to decline.	
I understand that children's information will be held and processed for the following purposes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To be used anonymously for internal publication for a PhD project and submitted for assessment with a view to being published in academic journals / conferences. • I understand that quotations from the interview and observation may be used in writing up the results of the research and that these will always be anonymous and not attributed to them in any way. 	
I agree that children take part in the above research project and will inform the researcher should their contact details change.	
<u>I understand that all the observations and interviews with children will be video-recorded.</u>	
<u>I agree that a new class named, 'peer teaching' will be made within the curriculum (as one of extracurricular classes) during the research.</u>	

Name of principal	
Principal's signature	
Date	
Name of researcher	Kyung Min Nam
Signature	
Date	



연구 동의서 (학원용)

University of Leeds
School of Education

한글 (Korean alphabet)과 영어 (Roman alphabet)의 활자에 대한 아이들의
이해에 관한 연구

	아래의 박스에 체크해 주세요.
본인은 본 연구에 관한 연구 설명서를 충분히 읽고 그 내용을 이해하였으며 본 연구에 관해 궁금한 점이 있었을 경우 연구자에게 질문할 기회가 주어졌습니다.	
본 연구에 참가하는 어린이들은 자발적으로 연구에 참여할 것이며, 그들은 어떤 이유를 막론하고 언제든지 연구 참여 도중 그만둘 수 있다는 것을 확인하였습니다. 또한 아이들의 본 연구 참여는 어떠한 부정적인 학습결과를 초래하지 않게 될 것임을 확인하였습니다. 인터뷰 상황도중 아이들이 특정한 질문에 대답하기 꺼려한다면, 모든 아이들은 이를 거부할 권리가 있다는 것 또한 확인하였습니다.	
본 연구를 통해 주어질 연구 데이터는 아래와 같은 과정을 통해 진행될 것임을 확인하였습니다. ● 박사논문의 출판이나, 저널 또는 학회에서 본 연구의 데이터가 사용될 경우 학원의 이름이나 참여자의 실제 이름은 익명으로 처리될 것입니다. ● 동료 티칭에 관련된 모든 관찰이나 인터뷰 내용은 연구의 결과물로 기록될 것이며 연구 과정에 있어서의 모든 데이터는 익명으로 처리될 것입니다.	
본인은 본원에 다니는 아이들이 위의 연구 프로젝트에 참여하는 것에 동의하며 연구 기간 동안 아이들의 연락처가 변경되었을 경우 연구자에게 알리는 것에 동의합니다.	
본인은 동료티칭에 관련된 모든 관찰이나 인터뷰 내용이 비디오로 녹화될 것임을 확인하였습니다.	
본 연구를 위해 ‘동료 티칭’ (peer teaching) 수업시간이 킨더 수업시간에 추가되는 것에 동의합니다.	

원장님 성함	
원장님 서명	
날짜	
연구자 이름	남경민
서명	
날짜	

Appendix H

Interview questions for sampling

1. Who are the oldest children who have the maximum experiences of learning Hangul and English in your classes? Could you choose 5 six-year-old children? (to a classroom teacher in charge of six-year-old classes)

* Child 1

Name	Korean Name:	English Name:
Age	Date of Birth: (_____ years _____ months)	
Learning experiences of <i>English</i>		
Learning experiences of <i>Hangul</i>		

* Child 2

Name	Korean Name:	English Name:
Age	Date of Birth: (_____ years _____ months)	
Learning experiences of <i>English</i>		
Learning experiences of <i>Hangul</i>		

* Child 3

Name	Korean Name:	English Name:
Age	Date of Birth: (_____ years _____ months)	
Learning experiences of <i>English</i>		
Learning experiences of <i>Hangul</i>		

*** Child 4**

Name	Korean Name:	English Name:
Age	Date of Birth: (_____ years _____ months)	
Learning experiences of <i>English</i>		
Learning experiences of <i>Hangul</i>		

*** Child 5**

Name	Korean Name:	English Name:
Age	Date of Birth: (_____ years _____ months)	
Learning experiences of <i>English</i>		
Learning experiences of <i>Hangul</i>		

2. Who are the youngest children who have the minimum experiences of learning Hangul and English in your classes? Could you choose 5 five-year-old children? (to a classroom teacher in charge of five-year-old classes)

*** Child 1**

Name	Korean Name:	English Name:
Age	Date of Birth: (_____ years _____ months)	
Learning experiences of <i>English</i>		
Learning experiences of <i>Hangul</i>		

*** Child 2**

Name	Korean Name:	English Name:
Age	Date of Birth: (_____ years _____ months)	
Learning experiences of <i>English</i>		
Learning experiences of <i>Hangul</i>		

*** Child 3**

Name	Korean Name:	English Name:
Age	Date of Birth: (_____ years _____ months)	
Learning experiences of <i>English</i>		
Learning experiences of <i>Hangul</i>		

*** Child 4**

Name	Korean Name:	English Name:
Age	Date of Birth: (_____ years _____ months)	
Learning experiences of <i>English</i>		
Learning experiences of <i>Hangul</i>		

*** Child 5**

Name	Korean Name:	English Name:
Age	Date of Birth: (_____ years _____ months)	
Learning experiences of <i>English</i>		
Learning experiences of <i>Hangul</i>		

3. For this research, 5 pairs for peer teaching (A,B,C,D,E) will be made. Each pair has one tutor child (six-year-old) and one tutee child (five-year-old). Do you think who can effectively take part in peer teaching sessions in pair? Could you recommend five pairs among these children you have chosen? And why do you think so? (to both classroom teachers)

*** Pair A**

A tutor child (six-year-old)	Korean Name:	English Name:
A tutee child (five-year-old)	Korean Name:	English Name:
Reasons for making pairs	(personality, relationships with peers.. etc.)	

*** Pair B**

A tutor child (six-year-old)	Korean Name:	English Name:
A tutee child (five-year-old)	Korean Name:	English Name:
Reasons for making pairs	(personality, relationships with peers.. etc.)	

*** Pair C**

A tutor child (six-year-old)	Korean Name:	English Name:
A tutee child (five-year-old)	Korean Name:	English Name:
Reasons for making pairs	(personality, relationships with peers.. etc.)	

*** Pair D**

A tutor child (six-year-old)	Korean Name:	English Name:
A tutee child (five-year-old)	Korean Name:	English Name:
Reasons for making pairs	(personality, relationships with peers.. etc.)	

*** Pair E**

A tutor child (six-year-old)	Korean Name:	English Name:
A tutee child (five-year-old)	Korean Name:	English Name:
Reasons for making pairs	(personality, relationships with peers.. etc.)	

Appendix I

Description of participant children

Pair A	tutor child	name: KH	gender: girl	age gap: (1 year and 8 months)
		date of birth:19/01/2006 (6 years and 10 months)		
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> learning experiences of Hangul: learned at home (between 3 and 4 years old) learning experiences of English: learned in a different private preschool (between 4 and 5 years old) and has been learning at ECC (since she was 6 years old) 		
	tutee child	name: YJ	gender: girl	
date of birth:05/09/2007 (5 years and 2 months)				
Pair B	tutor child	name: YB	gender: boy	age gap: (1 year and 7 months)
		date of birth:16/02/2006 (6 years and 9 months)		
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> learning experiences of Hangul: learned at home (between 2 and 3 years old) learning experiences of English: learned at home (before 5 years old) and has been learning at ECC (since he was 5 years old) 		
	tutee child	name: SJ	gender: boy	
date of birth:07/09/2007 (5 years and 2 months)				
Pair C	tutor child	name: HB	gender: girl	age gap: (1 year and 6 months)
		date of birth:29/03/2006 (6 years and 8 months)		
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> learning experiences of Hangul: learned at home (up to the age of 3) learning experiences of English: learned in different private preschools (between 3 and 4 years old) and has been learning at ECC (since she was 5 years old) 		
	tutee child	name: HM	gender: boy	
date of birth:22/09/2007 (5 years and 2 months)				
Pair D	tutor child	name: SB	gender: girl	age gap: (1 year and 8 months)
		date of birth:10/04/2006 (6 years and 7 months)		
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> learning experiences of Hangul: learned at home (between 4 and 5 years old) learning experiences of English: learned at home (between 3 and 4 years old), in a different private preschool (between 4 and 5 years old) and has been learning at ECC (since she was 5 years old) 		
	tutee child	name: CY	gender: girl	
date of birth:25/12/2007 (4 years and 11 months)				

Pair E	tutor child	name: YE		gender: girl	age gap (1): (1 year and 7 months) age gap (2): (1 year and 4 months)	
		date of birth:25/05/2006 (6 years and 6 months)				
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> learning experiences of Hangul: learned at home (between 4 and 5 years old) learning experiences of English: learned in a different private preschool (between 3 and 4 years old) and has been learning at ECC (since she was 5 years old) 				
	tutee child (1)	name: HH		gender: boy		
		date of birth:28/12/2007 (4 years and 11 months)				
	tutee child (2)	name: HW		gender: boy		
date of birth:04/09/2007 (5 years and 2 months)						



Information letter for parents (for a main study)

University of Leeds
School of Education

Name of Researcher: Kyung Min Nam

Title of Research: Children's understandings of different writing systems and scripts: *Korean* written in the Hangeul alphabet and *English* written in the Roman alphabet

The purpose of this letter is to request consent for your child to take part in the above research. I am conducting this research as part of my PhD study in language education and will look closely at how young children understand Korean alphabet Hangeul and Roman alphabet English. The findings in the study will help me to develop understanding in literacy knowledge, skills and understandings in Hangeul and English demonstrated by Korean EFL (English as a Foreign Language) children. Your child will be asked to do the following:

1. Your child will take part in peer teaching sessions in pairs. A tutor child aged six will teach a tutee child aged five how to read and write in Hangeul and English.
2. 5 pairs will be made, and each tutor child will lead three different teaching sessions in Korean or English. Each session lasts approximately 20 minutes.
3. A tutor child will use separate materials for each script brought from his or her classroom or home as a resource for teaching Hangeul and English.
4. After each session, a tutor child will be interviewed with a researcher. The

interview will last approximately 10 minutes.

- All the observations and interviews will be video-recorded.
- A new class named, 'peer teaching' will be made within the curriculum (as one of extracurricular classes) during the research (between December 2012 and February 2013).

I will observe the following guidelines for the interviews and observations:

1. Your child's name and the school name will not be disclosed during the research and will not appear in any written reports or publications.
2. If you allow your child to participate in this study, he or she can withdraw at any time without giving any reason.
3. The observation of peer teaching and interviews will be conducted in the classroom without any judgmental purposes. If you do not want your child to be video-recorded, you are free to decline.
4. During interview if your child does not wish to answer any particular question or questions, he or she is free to decline.
5. The results obtained from the study will not have any influence on your child's learning at school.

If you would like to grant permission for your child to participate in my study, kindly fill out the consent form below, sign and date it, and hand it back to me via e-mail, phone or in hard copy. Should you require further clarification at this point or anytime during the research, please do not hesitate to contact me on 010-7657-1451 or e-mail at ed09kmmn@leeds.ac.uk.



연구 설명서 및 학부모 동의서

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

University of Leeds

School of Education

연구자 이름: 남경민

연구 제목: 한글 (Korean alphabet)과 영어 (Roman alphabet)의 활자에 대한
아이들의 이해에 관한 연구

_____ 학부모님 안녕하세요. 저는 본 연구 설명서를 통해 현재 ECC 영어 유치원에
재원중인 귀하의 자녀가 위 연구에 참여하는 것에 대한 학부모님의 동의를 구하고자
합니다. 저는 현재 영국 Leeds 대학교에서 Language Education 박사과정 중에 있으며,
본 연구는 저의 박사학위 논문의 한 부분으로 이루어질 예정입니다. 본 연구는 영어를
외국어로 공부하고 있는 한국 어린이들이 언어의 기본구조가 다른 한글과 영어를
어떻게 받아들이고 이해하는지를 알아보기 위한 연구로, 귀하의 자녀가 본 연구에
참여하게 된다면 아래의 수업활동에 참여하게 될 것입니다.


1. 본 연구를 위해 아이들은 동료 티칭 (peer teaching)에 참여합니다. 만 6세 어린이와
만 5세 어린이가 한 팀을 이루게 되며 6세 어린이는 한글과 영어를 어떻게 읽고
쓰는지를 5세 어린이에게 가르쳐주게 됩니다. 본 연구에서 _____는 _____
역할로 참여하게 됩니다.
2. 본 연구를 위해 총 5팀이 만들어지게 되며, 교사 역할을 하는 각 6세 어린이 (tutor
child)는 총 3번의 수업을 진행하게 됩니다. 수업 중에는 한글과 영어를 동시에 쓸
수 있으며, 각 수업은 20분간 진행됩니다.
3. 교사 어린이는 한글과 영어를 가르치기 위해 자유롭게 교재를 준비할 수 있으며,
교실 또는 집에서 사용하는 어떤 교재를 사용해도 좋습니다. 단, 한글을 가르칠
교재와 영어를 가르칠 교재는 따로 준비해주시면 됩니다.
(예: 스토리북, 편지, 포스터, 카드, ecc에서 사용하는 교재, 또는 아이가 직접 만든
교재 등 아이가 수업을 위해 사용하고 싶은 모든 교재)
4. 수업이 끝난 후 각 교사 어린이는 수업 내용에 관해 연구자와 간단한 인터뷰를 갖게
됩니다. 이 인터뷰는 10분 이내로 진행됩니다.

5. 본 연구를 위해 이루어지는 동료 티칭 (peer teaching)은 주어진 20 분 동안 아무 제약 없이 tutor child가 스스로 교재를 선정하고 수업을 진행 할 수 있으며, 수업 중 표현되는 아이의 생각이나 아이디어는 귀한 연구 데이터로 존중될 것입니다. 본 연구 방법은 테스트나 평가를 위한 것이 아니므로 아이들이 창의적으로, 주도적으로, 즐겁게 동료 티칭을 준비하고 임하는 것이 가장 중요합니다.

본 연구를 위해 진행되는 모든 과정들은 아래의 지침을 준수합니다.

1. 본 연구는 킨더시간에 이루어질 예정이므로 아이의 영어 수업에 전혀 지장을 주지 않습니다. 총 3번 수업을 할 예정이며, _____의 첫 수업은 _____에 있을 예정입니다.
2. 교실에서 이루어지는 동료 티칭과 인터뷰 내용은 비디오로 녹화될 것이며, 이는 오직 연구자 외에 어느 누구에게도 공개되지 않을 것입니다.
3. 연구에 참여하는 아이들의 실명이나 학원의 이름은 연구과정 또는 어떠한 출판물에도 언급되지 않을 것입니다.
4. 본 연구에 참여하는 아이들은 연구 도중 어떤 이유를 막론하고 언제든지 참여를 그만둘 수 있으며, 인터뷰 상황도중 아이들이 특정한 질문에 대답하기 꺼려한다면, 모든 아이들은 이를 거부할 권리가 있습니다.

본원에서 공부하고 있는 귀하의 자녀가 위 연구에 참여하는 것에 동의하신다면, 아래에 서명, 날짜를 기입하신 후 _____ 까지 아이들 편으로 보내주시면 됩니다. 본 연구에 관한 궁금하신 점이나 의문사항이 있으시면 언제든지 010-7657-1451 또는 ed09kmmn@leeds.ac.uk 로 연락 주시기 바랍니다. 감사합니다.

부모님 성함	
부모님 서명	
날짜	
연구자 이름	남경민
서명	
날짜	

Appendix K

Child-friendly leaflet (for a main study)

Children's understandings of different writing systems and scripts: **Korean** written in the Hangul alphabet and **English** written in the Roman alphabet



What is this research about?

This study is concerned with your understandings of Hangul and English.

Then what will we be asked to do?

You will take part in peer teaching sessions.
If you are six years old, you will teach a younger child aged five how to read and write in Hangul and English.
If you are five, you will have a chance to learn Hangul and English from an older child!



Can we know more about peer teaching sessions?

If you are a tutor child, you will have three different teaching sessions. You can use any materials you like, and you may speak both Korean and English. There is no restriction on your teaching in 20 minutes, so just enjoy your teaching! After your teaching, I will interview you to know more about your teaching. If you are a tutee child, you will be a nice pupil and be actively involved in learning!

Peer teaching etiquette

You can enjoy your own teaching and learning during peer teaching sessions, but it is very important to show good behaviour and to respect each other. Here is some peer teaching etiquette you need to keep, and this will make it more enjoyable!

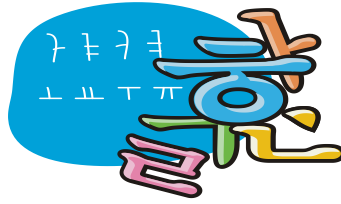
1. To speak politely to a tutor or a tutee
2. To respect what a tutor or a tutee says (not laughing at him or her)
3. No teasing, no bullying, no hitting, and no exclusionary behaviours



Can we withdraw peer teaching anytime?

Sure. You are able to withdraw from peer teaching at any time and for any reason. If you wish to withdraw, you can take part in other extracurricular activities because this peer teaching class will be one of extracurricular classes. Also, during interview if you do not wish to answer any particular question or questions, you are free to decline.

한글 (Korean alphabet)과 영어 (Roman alphabet)의 활자에 대한
아이들의 이해에 관한 연구



이 연구는 무엇에 관한 연구인가요?
이 연구는 한글과 영어, 두 언어를 여러분이 어떻게 이해하고 있는지를 알아보는 연구입니다.

우리는 이 연구를 위해 무엇을 하게 되나요?
여러분은 동료 티칭 (peer teaching)에 참여하게 될 거예요. 여러분이 만약 6 세 친구라면, 한글과 영어를 어떻게 읽고 쓰는지를 5 세 친구에게 가르쳐 줄 거예요. 여러분이 만약 5 세 친구라면, 6 세 친구에게 한글과 영어를 어떻게 읽고 쓰는지를 배우게 될 거예요.



동료 티칭 (peer teaching) 에 대해서 더 자세히 알 수 있을까요?
여러분이 만약 6 세 친구라면, 선생님이 되어서 3 번의 수업을 하게 될 거예요. 수업 중에는 여러분이 사용하고 싶은 교재, 언어 (한글 또는 영어)를 맘껏 쓸 수 있습니다. 각 수업은 20 분 동안 진행될 예정이니 여러분에게 주어진 20 분 동안 자유롭게 수업을 진행해 보세요! 수업이 끝난 후에는 연구자가 여러분이 진행했던 수업에 대해 궁금한 점을 물어 볼 거예요. 여러분이 5 세 친구라면, 6 세 친구가 가르치는 수업에 적극 참여해 보세요!

동료 티칭 때 지켜야 할 예의범절

여러분은 동료 티칭 시간을 통해 여러분만의 즐거운 수업시간을 만들어 볼 수 있습니다. 하지만 동료 티칭 시간이 더 즐겁고 의미 있는 시간이 되기 위해서는 함께 참여하는 동료 친구를 배려해 주는 것이 가장 중요하겠죠? 우리 아래의 예의 범절을 꼭 지키도록 해요.

1. 동료 티칭 시간 동안 서로에게 공손하게 대합니다.
2. 상대 친구가 하는 말을 존중해 줍니다.
(친구의 말에 비웃거나 놀리지 않습니다.)
3. 동료 티칭 도중 상대 친구를 괴롭히는 행동을 절대로 하지 않습니다.



동료 티칭에 참여하다가 도중에 그만 두어도 되나요?

그럼요. 여러분이 만약 동료 티칭에 참여하다가 도중에 그만두고 싶다면 어떤 이유를 막론하고 그만둘 수 있어요. 동료 티칭 시간은 킨더 시간에 이루어지기 때문에 도중에 그만 두게 되는 친구는 바로 킨더 수업 시간에 참여하면 된답니다. 또한 교사의 역할을 하게 되는 친구의 경우, 인터뷰 질문 중 대답하고 싶지 않은 질문이 있다면 그 질문은 대답을 안 해도 된답니다.

Appendix L

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Charles Thackrah Building
101 Clarendon Road
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UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Kyung-Min Nam
School of Education
University of Leeds
Leeds, LS2 9JT

**AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee
University of Leeds**

23 August 2012

Dear Kyung-Min Nam

Title of study: Children's understandings of different writing systems:
Korean alphabet Hangeul and Roman alphabet English
Ethics reference: AREA 11-211

I am pleased to inform you that the above research application has been reviewed by the ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee and following receipt of your response to the Committee's initial comments, I can confirm a favourable ethical opinion as of the date of this letter. The following documentation was considered:

Document	Version	Date
(RESPONSE) AREA 11-211 Committee Provisional.doc	1	21/08/12
AREA 11-211 Kyung-Min's Ethical Review Form.doc	1	08/08/12
AREA 11-211 Kyung-Min's Low Risk Fieldwork RA form.doc	1	08/08/12
AREA 11-211 Signed copy (Kyung-Min Nam).doc	1	08/08/12

You are advised to comply with any CRB check (or equivalent) requirements in place in the School of Education.

Please notify the committee if you intend to make any amendments to the original research as submitted at date of this approval, including changes to recruitment methodology. All changes must receive ethical approval prior to implementation. The amendment form is available at www.leeds.ac.uk/ethics.

Please note: You are expected to keep a record of all your approved documentation, as well as documents such as sample consent forms, and other documents relating to the study. This should be kept in your study file, which should be readily available for audit purposes. You will be given a two week notice period if your project is to be audited.

Yours sincerely

Jennifer Blaikie
Senior Research Ethics Administrator, Research & Innovation Service
On behalf of Prof Anthea Hucklesby, Chair,
[AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee](#)