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# **TEACHING EFL THROUGH TASK REPETITION AND COLLABORATIVE WRITING**



**Trabajo Fin de Máster**

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## ABSTRACT

A small number of studies have dealt with the effects of implementing task repetition (TR) together with collaborative writing (CW) with students of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE) (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012). Scholars have frequently and profusely studied TR and CW as independent tools (Ahmadian et al, 2017; Fukuta, 2016; Manchón, 2014; Van de Guchte, 2016). However, little is known about the potential of these two constructs when together combined in the EFL classroom.

The current study has carried out an experiment with a group of CSE students, who worked in pairs to repeat the same narrative task (exact TR) through two consecutive weeks. Two research questions have been the starting point for this study; (1) whether learners' collaborative writings improve their quality when the same story is written twice, and (2) what learners talk about when they produce a writing task together. The results have shown that they improve the accuracy and fluency of their productions but they do not increase the complexity of the text produced. The students focus on content in the first enactment, but their attention shifts to form during the second attempt; that is, they do not seem to be able to focus on various aspects of the language learning process at the same time, as Skehan's (1998) trade-off hypothesis claims. Moreover, the Language Related Episodes (LREs) show that students mainly speak about grammar and vocabulary, and that they are able to cooperate, discuss and share their ideas.

Therefore, these old but, at the same time, new teaching procedures might provide CSE students of EFL with new learning alternatives. Further researches might vary some of the patterns of the experiment in order to inform teaching practices with greater precision.

**Key words:** *English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Task Repetition (TR), Collaborative Writing (CW), Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE), Skehan's (1998) trade-off hypothesis.*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Orality has been considered as the main teaching and learning tool, in contrast with writing which has often been pushed into the background. Writing has been seen as having a secondary role in promoting EFL learning (Williams, 2012: 321). However, the outlook seems to be changing.

Writing instruction has been commonly viewed within the learning-to-write perspective, and not within the writing-to-learn scope, “which sees writing as a vehicle for learning” (Williams, 2012: 321). The main difference lies in that learning-to-write focuses its attention on the writing process itself, without going into depth, that is, the most important point is to get an appropriate production. On the other hand, the writing-to-learn perspective goes further and aims to create autonomous learners who are able to learn by themselves. Writing might bring many benefits to the EFL classroom, mainly to CSE students in high schools. But it is the responsibility of both scholars and teachers to find what method is suitable for EFL students in CSE.

Recently, task repetition in writing activities has emerged as a teaching technique that provides EFL students with tools to learn a new language in a more effective way. Scholars such as Ahmadian *et al* (2017), Fukuta (2016), Lambert *et al* (2016), or Van de Guchte *et al* (2016) have studied how repeating a task strengthens students’ skills. The students in these studies have Japanese (Fukuta, 2016; Lambert *et al*, 2016), Dutch (Van de Guchte *et al*, 2016) and Iranian (Ahmadian, 2017) as their L1. All of them were undergraduate and postgraduate students of English, except from students’ in Van de Guchte *et al* research who were studying German as their foreign language in their high school. Regarding their proficiency level of English (or German in Van de Guchte *et al*), it covered from A2 (Van de Guchte *et al*, 2016), to intermediate or upper-intermediate levels of B1 and B2 (Ahmadian, *et al*; Fukuta, 2016) to C1 (Lambert *et al*, 2016).

These scholars claim that at the initial enactment, students get familiarised with the content of the task, but they are not able to focus on other aspects, such as grammar or vocabulary. Nevertheless, they “are capable of focusing their attention on linguistic form during the following enactment” (Fukuta, 2016: 320). Skehan’s (1998) trade-off hypothesis affirms that learners are not able to focus on various process when performing a task, so “they must prioritize where they allocate their attention” (Fukuta, 2016: 323).

In this line, writing task repetition encourages students to develop and improve certain aspects of their learning process as well as of their writing productions, such as the complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF).

Furthermore, collaborative writing has made its way into the EFL classroom, modifying the traditional English lessons. This method “shares the pedagogical presuppositions of active learning” (D’Antonio, 2011: 2). It greatly fits with the concept of writing-to-learn, which encourages EFL students to learn as autonomous students. Thus, students develop not only their linguistic skills, but they also learn to interact and to cooperate.

However, there is a lack of studies dealing with the application of TR together with CW. In many cases, they have been seen as independent methods, and there is a small amount of papers that have studied or experimented with these two tools at the same time (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012). Therefore, the current research aims to give response and evidence to this lacuna, carrying out an experiment with EFL students of CSE.

There were fourteen students in the current research, who were students of second year in a semi-private high school. Their L1 was Spanish, and they were studying English as a foreign language. These students had an estimated proficiency level of English between A2 and B1, according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). In this research, these students worked in pairs, and they had to write the same story twice along two consecutive weeks. Besides, the discussion of one pair was also analysed in order to observe how these students work together.

Students who work in pairs and repeat a writing task should improve the results of their productions. Thus, if the results are positive, this technique could be added as one more activity in EFL classrooms.

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. Writing and Task Repetition (TR)**

The generalized idea that writing has “a minor role in promoting second language (L2) development” is a widespread belief (Williams, 2012: 321). Writing has been undervalued in comparison to orality, which has been highly regarded due to its intrinsic characteristics. However, writing has made its way in the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), and there have been attempts to make EFL “writing more central in second language acquisition (SLA) as well as in the research framed in the task-based language learning and teaching paradigm.” (Manchón, 2014: 14).

Traditionally, orality has been viewed as the reference tool to learn a language. In fact, it is true that learning, not just a foreign language, but also our own first language, entails a great oral base. In other words, we firstly learn to speak, and then we learn to write. In this line, the features of orality (i.e. promptness, communicational), also promote the common idea that students of EFL need to improve their level of speaking. Thus, an “emphasis on orality and input processing ostensibly overweighs the attention paid by SLA scholars to written language learning and written output practice” (Manchón, 2014: 16). Nevertheless, as Manchón (2014) claims, the landscape seems to be changing, and writing is getting more and more importance as well as for the scholars, who are paying more attention to this old, but at the same time, new learning method.

The writing process includes a series of features that make of it a great method to learn the English language. First of all, writing stands out because of its notion of time, as “it always takes place off-line” (Manchón, 2014: 19). Therefore, “processing constraints in oral communication in real time do not apply to most forms of written communication” (Manchón, 2014: 19), constraints such as the time consideration, since a speaker does not have the same amount of time than a writer. The writing process is “less ephemeral than speaking” (Storch, 2011: 276) because of the “nature of writing itself, where the words appear and remain on the page” (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012: 368). EFL learners are “more in control of their attentional resources as well as [they have] more need and opportunity to attend to language both during and after production” (Williams, 2012: 322), devoting more time to the task production process. Thus, in line

with this permanence and slower pace at which writing occurs, students might have the opportunity to revise their work, and so to improve as well as to strengthen their knowledge of the language.

Moreover, it must be pointed out that language occurs through a process known as the Language Production System (Ahmadian, 2017; Fukuta, 2016; Lambert, 2016), which includes three main stages:

- ⇒ Conceptualizer: during this stage, the speaker or writer selects information. The communicative intentions are generated, and the communicative message is conceived.
- ⇒ Formulator: the lexical, syntactic as well as phonetic elements are selected and encoded.
- ⇒ Articulator: the message is produced.

Therefore, “these three stages are assumed to operate in parallel” (Lambert, 2016: 4), but depending on the writer and the type of task, this production system might vary its way of producing the message. Writing task repetition has emerged as a pedagogical method that helps to make the most of this Language Production System, and to ameliorate the learning process of the EFL students.

Until relatively recently, “writing and writing instruction have often been viewed within the learning-to-write perspective” (Williams, 2012: 321). However, the current pedagogical research has focused their attention on the contrasting perspective of writing-to-learn, which “sees writing as a vehicle for learning” (Williams, 2012: 321). Several researches (Williams, 2012; Fukuta, 2016; Manchón, 2014; Ahmadian *et al*, 2017; Lambert *et al*, 2016) have studied the influence on the acquisition of a foreign language by means of repeating a writing task. The results have shown how repeating a task has a specific impact on each stage of the language system, as TR “enhances the speed with which students can deliver their message and also reduces the time needed to pause at clause boundaries for generating ideas” (Lambert *et al*, 2016: 5). Moreover, each stage of the system also varies depending on the proficiency level of the students. For proficient students, “formulation may be largely automatic” whereas “conceptualization and monitoring [articulation] may both require attention and thus rely on serial processing” (Lambert *et al*, 2016: 4). On the other hand, students with lower level of English may

require more work and time in each stage, and they will improve differently than the higher-level students.

Fukuta (2016) claims that repetition of a writing task increases the complexity of the syntactic structures, even when on the first attempt on a task, students focus their attention on content, on what to say rather than how to say it:

As for task repetition, learners tend to pay attention to meaning at first, but the freeing-up effect induced by task repetition allows learners to switch their attention to the monitoring and selection of appropriate language production in the repeated task. (Fukuta, 2016: 323)

Therefore, repetition “offers a favourable scenario for prioritizing a focus on expressing the intended meaning” during the first enactment of the writing task (Manchón, 2016: 18), while the repetition of this task fosters focus-on form (FonF), that is, “learners will produce more complex speech at the second enactment than the initial one” (Fukuta, 2016: 323). On the other hand, complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) make reference to meaning (fluency) and form (accuracy and complexity). Following Fukuta’s research, accuracy and complexity are the two factors which are affected the most, as students focus-on-form more than on content during the second enactment.

In line with this issue, Skehan’s (1998) trade-off hypothesis argues that “the first time learners carry out a task they are so preoccupied with completing the task that they focus almost completely on the content and not necessarily in linguistic accuracy” (*apud* Van de Guchte *et al*, 2016: 302). This statement means that “learners have limited attention capacity and must prioritize where they allocate their attention” (Fukuta, 2016: 323), and for this reason, students focus on form rather than on content, as they are already familiarised with the topic of the task in the second enactment.

Thus, language learners are not able to focus on the three stages of the Language Production System (conceptualization, formulation, articulation), and their attention fluctuates from one to another. However, following Skehan’s (1998) hypothesis, students will concentrate their attention on conceptualization in the first attempt, as they have their first contact with the content of the task. But when repeating the same writing task, with the same content, they will be able to afford more time on formulation and articulation, that is, on how to write what they want to communicate. Repetition emerges then as a pedagogical tool to work other aspects of the language learning process, and to improve and strengthen the three principal stages of the Language Production System.



Therefore, TR stands as a useful method that can be availed to reinforce the way English is taught and learned in the CSE classroom. Following Manchón's (2014) classification, there are three types of TR that develop the repetition using different steps:

1. Exact TR: students perform a writing task and they repeat it after a time lapse, ranging from days to weeks. The repetition in this case is exact, that is, the second enactment of the task has the same form and content than the first attempt activity. Sometimes, the researcher or teacher can introduce a session between each repetition, in order to provide the participants with some knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, etc.) related to the topic of the task (Manchón, 2014: 21). This type of TR has been used to develop the narrative-picture task of this present research.
2. Content TR: this type of TR varies the content of the task (Manchón, 2014: 22). For instances, the students might be given a series of pictures in order to develop a narrative task, but in the second attempt, they would be given the same task but with different pictures. Therefore, the activity maintains its form, but it changes its content.
3. Procedural TR: it maintains the same content during each repetition, but it changes the procedures in the various iterations of the task (Manchón, 2014: 22). For example, the participants are given the same pictures in each repetition, but they are asked to develop the task following different instructions (i.e. using a specific verb tense in each attempt, mixing the order of the pictures, inventing a different ending).

These three types of TR can be compared and contrasted, using control and experimental groups as well as different levels of CSE students. However, each kind of repetition develops different aspects of the Language Production System. For example, the exact repetition will mostly reinforce the formulation and articulation stages, since the students will not have to pay special attention to conceptualise the information of the task through the rest of repetitions. They will already know what the topic of the activity is, so they will be able to devote more time to think how they can create their work (i.e. which vocabulary and grammar they must use), that is, to select the elements they need and to

produce the message. On the contrary, students who will face a content TR will have to keep on focusing their attention on the content, as it changes through the different attempts, so they will have less time to practise the formulation and articulation skills. Furthermore, the effects of content repetition lead “to higher gains in grammatical accuracy whereas repeating tasks with the same content has a positive effect on lexical sophistication” (Manchón, 2014: 24). Once again, Skehan’s (1998) trade-off hypothesis claims that students cannot focus their attention on several process at the same time, so depending on the type of task, the participants will develop more or less the different aspects of the learning process.

To sum up, writing together with TR provide many benefits that can be utilised with CSE students who study English as a foreign language. Writing entails many advantages due to its intrinsic characteristics, such as the lack of time constraints. At the same time, TR allows students “to rely on previously conceptualised task content and to activate recently used linguistic constructions to express their message” (Lambert *et al*, 2016: 5), developing different skills which might facilitate their EFL learning process.

## **2.2. Collaborative Writing (CW)**

As it has been happening with writing and TR, collaborative task “has become common in many classroom contexts around the world” in the last 15-20 years (Shehadeh, 2011: 286). The lack of awareness of how to implement this pedagogical way of learning in the CSE classroom, has hindered the inclusion of collaboration activities in the EFL field. However, the outlook of cooperative English lessons is changing, and now many docents are using collaborative pair and group work in their daily school life.

Several scholars have defined what a collaborative writing task is:

- ⇒ “Instructional techniques or grouping structures in which students are divided into heterogeneous groups to complete instructional activities.” (D’Antonio, 2011: 3)
- ⇒ “A task in which two or more writers interact throughout the writing process to co-construct a single text.” (McDonough *et al*, 2016: 186)

⇒ “The joint production or the co-authoring of a text by two or more writers.”  
(Storch, 2011: 275)

These are some of the definitions that can be found about collaborative writing, but all of them share a common idea: the cooperation of two or more students who work with the purpose of getting a single text, which gathers all the elements provided by all the participants. Thus, “collaborative writing tasks that require students to generate and organise their own ideas may promote discussion on content, organization and language” (McDonough *et al*, 2016: 201), as students must decide and choose how they work and what they include in their work.

The cognitive perspective claims that “interaction provides learners with opportunities to negotiate language input” as well as “to receive feedback that will encourage them to modify their language output to make it more target-like” (Storch & Aldosari, 2012: 32). On the other hand, Vygotski (1978) defended that “all learning is fundamentally a social process, the result of interaction among humans in the social milieu” (apud Storch, 2011: 277). This sociocultural theory of learning also posits that “working collectively allows learners to pool their resources and to work at a higher level of activity than would be the case were they working alone” (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012: 367). Therefore, cooperative works create an ideal social environment where CSE students might learn and develop different learning skills that would be more difficult to stimulate when working alone.

Collaborative writing tasks promote the social interaction that together with appropriate forms of assistance “provide learners with opportunities for ‘linguaging’ and ‘collective scaffolding’” (Storch & Aldosaria, 2012: 32). The concept ‘linguaging’ has been coined by Swain (2005), who defined it as “an action –a dynamic, never-ending process of using language to make meaning” (Swain, 2005: 96). Vygotsky postulated the importance of the social interaction in order to create meaning; ‘linguaging’ also refers to this “social construction of meaning through talk about language” which also involves “metalinguistic discussions of aspects of the language itself” (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012: 365). Collaborative writing tasks entail social interaction and, therefore, it also produces ‘linguaging’; as Wigglesworth and Storch explain:

Linguaging experiences allow learners to attend to the kinds of problems that arise during the writing process, and as such may contribute to language learning. This is because the

process of ‘languaging’ in the context of collaborative writing allows learners to focus on language problems and together develop a deeper understanding of language. (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012: 365).

Thus, when facing a collaborative writing task, students have to talk and to use language (L1 and L2) in order to make decisions and get results.

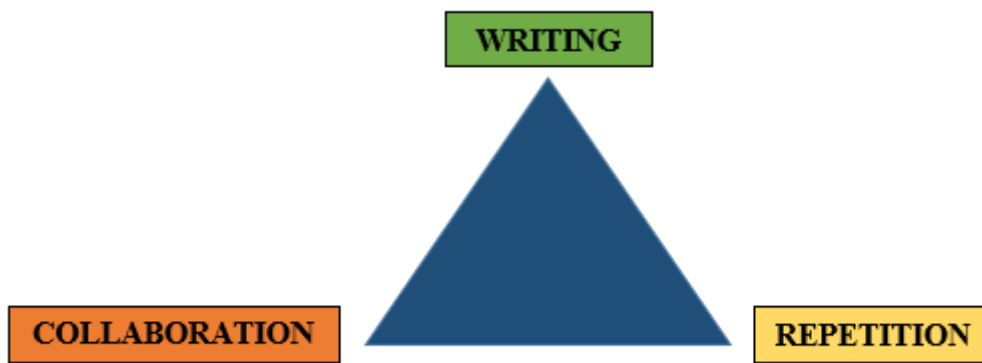
Moreover, collaborative writing also entails a scaffolding process where students use their knowledge to create meaning. They develop this process by sharing their own ideas, and so by building up a structure or ‘building’ of knowledge, where the scaffolds are elements provided by the students. Thus, each participant has a role within the collaborative work; some of them will have higher levels of English (experts), and others will have lower levels (novices), but they all will have the opportunity to interact and collaborate among them, helping each other and sharing their knowledge. This assistance or scaffolding process enables the students to “stretch their cognitive and linguistic development beyond their current level towards their potential level of development” (Shehadeh, 2011: 286), this means that students will develop their capacities, making the most of them. Thus, EFL contexts can also hold scaffolding processes where pairs or groups of students collaborate in order to develop a writing task.

Finally, students feel comfortable when cooperating in pairs or groups, and they reinforce some skills that can hardly be developed on individual tasks. Finally, and as D’Antonio (2011) claims, the collaborative writing environment:

(...) helps to debunk the myth of the solitary writer and increases students’ confidence by allowing them to work together to develop their skills (...) provides an active, safe space that increases students’ confidence in writing, guides them through the writing process, and encourages them to think logically and critically about their writing. (D’Antonio, 2011: 4).

### **2.3. Task Repetition (TR) and Collaborative Writing (CW)**

Some scholars claim that “repeated collaborative writing activities afford learners repeated practice in deliberating about their ideas, in giving and receiving feedback, and in rewriting” (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012: 372). Writing, repetition and collaboration emerge as a ‘learning-triangle’ whose angles are intertwined:



These three factors implemented in the classroom can contribute to improve the way students learn English as a foreign language. Writing is located at the top of the triangle, as it is the base of the tasks carried out by the students. The characteristics of writing allow students to have more time to think, discuss and choose what and how they are going to write, as they do not have the time constraints of the orality. Writing together with collaboration encourage learners to share their ideas and give and receive feedback. Moreover, if writing collaborative tasks are also repeated, EFL students have the opportunity to rewrite their work, and to improve and strengthen their learning skills.

Teachers in the EFL classroom must organise how they are going to work. If the students work in pairs, their proficiency level of English must be taken into account. Thus, pairing must be previously planned, and students might be classified into high-level (H) or low-level students (L). Scholars have agreed on mixing different students with different levels, in order to promote scaffolding learning processes:

(...) mixed proficiency pairing (H-L) may benefit lower proficiency learners as long as they do not form dominant/passive patterns. When working with a higher proficiency learner, there was more attention paid to language use, particularly word meanings, and the higher proficiency learner was able to provide definitions (often in L1) or alternative forms of expression. (Storch & Aldosari, 2012: 46)

Thus, EFL learners in CSE classrooms gain most by working together. Moreover, “the other reason for using pair work in L2 classes is to afford learners the opportunity to use the L2” (Storch & Aldosari, 2012: 45). Mostly lower-level students use their L1 in order to “comprehend source texts and discuss the content, organization, or language features of their written texts” in ways that would be more difficult to achieve if using EFL (McDonough *et al*, 2016: 201). However, repeated collaborative writing tasks do

encourage CSE students to “interact in the target language, thereby creating opportunities for interactional feedback, attention to form, and modified output” (McDonough *et al*, 2016: 199). EFL learners discuss about different aspects of the language (grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, etc), and “their discussions are positively linked to text quality (McDonough *et al*, 2016: 199). When repeating and working together on a writing task, students develop skills that are more difficult to stimulate on an individual activity, and practising English is one of them. They are able to speak aloud, and even though they have recourse to their L1, they make use of the foreign language they are learning. Furthermore, repeating a writing task increases the students’ confidence on themselves, as they feel that they better control what they are asked to do, a fact that increments the possibilities of using the English language.

Furthermore, one way to observe how students make use of their language skills is by means of the Language Related Episodes (LREs), or episodes that “are segments in the learners’ dialogues where they deliberate about language (grammatical form, lexical choices, mechanics) while trying to complete the task” (Storch, 2011: 277). Collaboration and repetition might be reflected on the students’ LREs, as they ‘linguaging’ about language which is “one of the ways to gain new knowledge about language” or consolidate existing EFL knowledge (Storch, 2011: 284). Therefore, and following Storch and Aldosari’s classification (2012: 35-36), there are three types of LREs where EFL students pay attention to language use:

1. Form-LRE: it deals with grammatical form, that is, with issues such as verb tense choice and use of articles.
2. Lexical-LRE: or instances related to lexis. Students discuss, for instance, about word choices, including choice of prepositions.
3. Mechanics-LRE: it refers to spelling, punctuation and pronunciation.

Collaboration and repetition increase the amount of episodes related to grammar, vocabulary as well as to mechanics. The two (or more) students share a “responsibility for the co-construction of texts” (McDonough *et al*, 2016: 186), as the task becomes a ‘team work’. Besides, repetition brings about an opportunity to improve the writing task, an option that together with collaboration increments the possibilities of reinforcing the learners’ learning skills.

### **3 THE STUDY**

#### **3.1. Research Questions**

In the present study we explore the potential of collaborative writing in combination with task repetition with a group of 14 adolescents learning EFL in secondary school. The students, working in pairs, had to write the same composition twice and the oral interactions that emerged from the writing process of one pair were also recorded in order to analyze what type of discussion they engaged in. Accordingly, the following research questions were asked:

- a) Do learners' collaborative writings improve their quality when the same story is written twice? If so, what aspects benefit from the repetition?
- b) What do learners talk about when they write a story together?

In line with the literature review presented above, the students in the present research are expected to improve some of the CAF features. On the one hand, they will need more time to focus on content during the first enactment. As they will not know what the narrative task is about, they will need to devote more time to the conceptualization of their ideas. On the other hand, when repeating the writing task, these students will be already familiarized with the content, so they will be able to afford more time to focus on form. Therefore, the students will probably improve the form of their second writing, and ultimately this might contribute to strengthen their writing learning skills.

Moreover, they will work in pairs, so they will have to organise how to work with their partners. These students are not used to collaborating, so they will find more obstacles in the first attempt of the task; they will probably learn how to organise their group work and they will feel more comfortable in the second enactment.

#### **3.2. Research Hypothesis**

Taking into account the research questions postulated above, three hypothesis were proposed:

1. When repeating the narrative writing task, students will be able to focus on form.
2. Some of the CAF features (complexity, accuracy and fluency) will improve by the repetition and the collaborative work.
3. The students will get used to working in pairs, so they will feel more comfortable and they will be able to solve their learning obstacles together.

### **3.3. Participants**

The sample chosen for this research has been a group of students of English as a foreign language (EFL) from Salesianos School in Pamplona (Spain). This school is well known for its Vocational Training Courses (VTC). In fact, Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE, *ESO* in Spanish) and A-level courses (*Bachillerato*) and relatively recent offerings in this school.

The students of this report were in second year of CSE, and the foremost reason of this selection was that this group of 2º CSE who were beginners of English, in contrast to the other three groups where students hardly researched the pass in the English subject. As mentioned above, there is a general school dropout in Salesianos, and this class was not an exception, but they had a slightly higher level than the rest of students.

Regarding the biodata of the students in this group, there were 20 students between 14 and 15, except two of them who were already 16 years old (as they had repeated 2º of CSE, and they were actually waiting to be accepted on a VTC). The reason for the low number of students in this group was that some of them were grouped in another class during some subjects (English was one of them), as they had more difficulties in their learning process. From these 20 students, 6 of them were girls and 14 were boys. Their English level was between A2 and B1 levels from the Common European Framework (CEF).

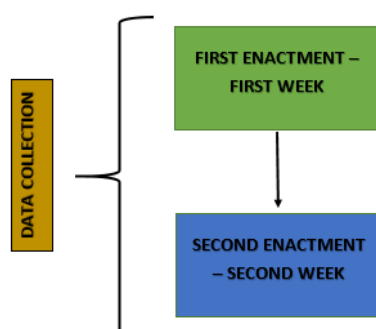
However, from the 20 students (10 pairs), six of them did not accomplish all the stages of research. Therefore, 14 students (7 pairs), four girls and ten boys, have been considered in this report. The following table shows the information related to each pair. The pair in bold refers to the two students who have been recorded:



<b>PAIR</b>	<b>SEX</b>	<b>AGE</b>
<b>“Pair A”</b>	<b>Women</b>	<b>14 and 15</b>
“Pair B”	Woman and man	15 and 15
“Pair C”	Men	15 and 15
“Pair D”	Men	14 and 14
“Pair E”	Man and woman	15 and 15
“Pair F”	Men	15 and 16
“Pair G”	Men	14 and 14

### 3.4. Procedure

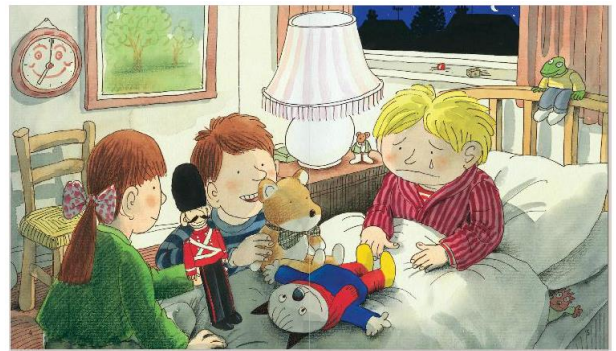
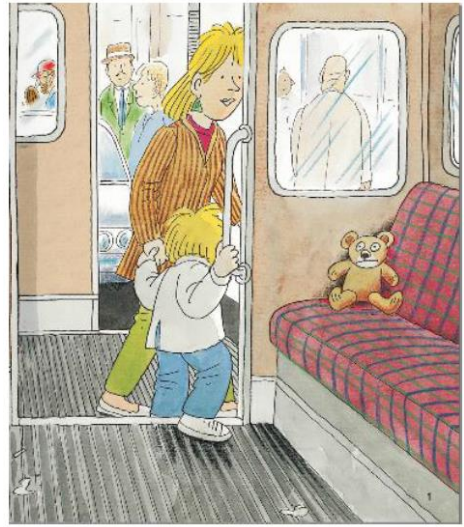
The data collection includes the “first enactment” and the “second enactment”, that is, where the students of 2° CSE had to carry out the writing same-type task during two consecutive weeks. As it can be seen in the following image:



The picture-story called “The Lost Teddy” (Roderick & Brychta, 2003) was used in this research. They were six images which were handed to the students in each of the two enactments. The six frames belonged to a children’s book, and they were considered to have an appropriate level for the students of 2° CSE to fulfil the writing task:

# “THE LOST TEDDY”

The lost Teddy



First of all, the researcher and the English teacher of this group of 2<sup>o</sup> CSE discussed about the pairs who were going to work together. It was important to achieve balance pairs regarding their level of English, in order not to get too much difference among them.

The first week, the students carried out the first attempt of the experiment. The students were asked to sit down in pairs while the researcher read the previously organized list of pairs. The students were given three sheets: a cover-sheet where they had to write their names, a sheet with the six frames of the story “The Lost Teddy” (Roderick & Brychta, 2003), and a blank sheet to write their task. Then, the researcher explained them the process of the activity:

1. In pairs, look at the images. What is the story about? Discuss.
2. Decide how you are going to work together.
3. Try to collaborate as much as possible. Time: 20 minutes.

It was very important to highlight the fact of the “collaboration”, as the students must understand that they had to work together. Moreover, they were given freedom to decide how to work. For instances, some of them decided to write together, sharing their pen or pencil. Other pairs preferred to talk together, but just one of them was going to write. The English teacher stayed with them while they were working. At the same time, the researcher went to another class with the chosen pair, as it was necessary to record at least two students.

Six pairs were working in the class while one pair (“pair A-1<sup>1</sup>”) moved to another class. The researcher explained them the same process: they must collaborate and they had 20 minutes to write their story. A voice-recorder was used in order to record the voice of “pair A”. The transcription of their conversation has been used to answer the second research question, and to complete the analytic analysis. Thus, when the 20 minutes passed, pair A-1 came back to the class, and the seven writings were collected.

The second enactment took place the following week (“second week”). There was an estimated time of one week between the two attempts, as it was important to leave a

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<sup>1</sup> In order to facilitate the understanding of the process, the selected pair will be called “pair A-1”, when referring to the first enactment, and “pair A-2”, when talking about the second attempt.

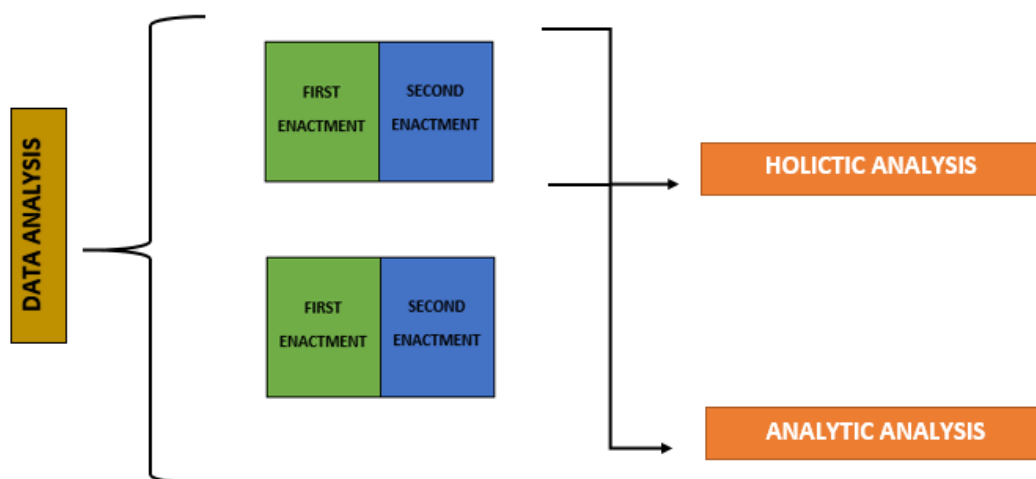
few days between the first and the second enactment. Thus, the students will remember what they had done, but they will not forget their tasks either.

It must be also pointed out the absence of a session between both enactments which provided the students with some lexical and syntactical knowledge related to the narrative-picture task. The aim of this experiment has been to prove the changes when repeating a same-type task as well as the improvements derived from working in pairs. Therefore, one of the aspects of the research has been not to influence the learning process of the students, in order to observe how repetition and collaboration play a part in determining their betterment.

The development of the second enactment was similar to the first attempt. However, the explanation of the task was briefer, as the students already knew what they were expected to do. They had the three same sheets (name and instructions sheet, “The Lost Teddy” (Roderick & Brychta, 2003), and a blank sheet of paper), and 20 minutes for working in pairs. Again, “pair A-2” moved to another class, and they were recorded while working on their task, while the rest of the class was watched by the teacher of the English subject. When 20 minutes passed, all the writings were collected.

### 3.5. Data Analysis

The data analysis process includes the holistic and analytic analysis. A third independent person marked all the writings (“holistic analysis”), and the researcher of this report analysed the data quantitatively (“analytic analysis”). Therefore, after having marked and analysed the writings, the results of both analysis have been critically compared.



### **3.5.1. The Holistic Analysis**

The holistic analysis consisted in scoring the writing tasks (14 in total, 7 writings per attempt/week) by a third person. The aim of this analysis has been to have an independent marking process to contrast with the analytic process carried out by the researcher. This report aimed to observe what teachers value when marking writing tasks, and if their grades correspond to the factors analysed on the analytic process.

The person in charge of scoring the tasks has been a teacher from a secondary high-school in Galicia (Spain). The teacher has been given the following instructions:

1. These writing tasks have been done by a group of students of 2° CSE. First of all, read them.
2. Do not correct any mistake.
3. After having read the tasks, mark each writing with a grade between 1 to 10 (being 10 the highest grade).

There was not a rubric so that the teacher could mark any aspect she found remarkable, without giving more weight to any other aspect. Besides, this third person did not know either the chronological order of the productions (as they were all mixed up), or the names of the students. However, s/he did know that the tasks had been done by students of 2° level of CSE, in order to give him/her a clue of the level she had to mark.

### **3.5.2. The Analytic Analysis**

The data coding has also included an analytic analysis where the researcher, following previous studies (Ahmadian, 2017; Fukuta, 2016; Manchón, 2014; Van de Guchte, 2016), has evaluated the syntactic complexity, accuracy and lexical variety of the students' writing productions:

**Tokens:** total number of words<sup>2</sup>

**Type-Token Ratio (Lexical Variety):** (Number of different words/Tokens) \*100

**Total number of clauses**

**Grammar**

- Number of errors: (Number errors / Total number of words)\*100
- Error-free clauses: (Error-free clauses / Number of clauses)\*100
- Number of subordinated clauses (AS-units)

**Vocabulary**

- Total number of lexical words
- **Lexical Density:** (Number of different lexical words/Total number of words) \*100

This data has been analysed using quantitative descriptors such as percentages and means, as it will be shown in *Results and Discussion* section.

Moreover, the recordings of “pair A-1” and “A-2” have been also taken into account as Language Related Episodes (LREs), which provide rich information to the analytic process. Regarding the LREs, the study has focused on three questions:

**What do students talk about?**

- VOCABULARY:

S1: “...y se lo entregó”. ¿Cómo era “dar”?

S2: “Give”.

- GRAMMAR:

S1: “Pablo remembered that the teddy”... ¿pasado de “perder”?

S2: Lusted [sic].

S1: “are”...no, “was”.

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<sup>2</sup> This section includes both lexical (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) and functional words (auxiliary verbs, numerals, determiners, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions).

S2: Eso, pasado de “is” es “was”. “Was losted [sic]”. ¡Qué raro suena!

- OTHER: for instance, students can talk about the content of the task.

S1: he go to home

S2: ¿Pero cómo va a ir a casa si está en París?

S1: Bueno, pues “to the hotel”.

### **Do students collaborate?**

- YES: students are able to discuss and decide different options. They show active cooperation between them:

S1: ¿Cómo se dice “bajar”? ¿“Go down”?

S2: ¿Cómo dijimos la última vez?

S1: Y si no... “cuando se dirigían al hotel”, y ya está.

S2: ¡Ah, vale! “when...”

S1: “...they went to...”

S2: “his cousins’ home”.

- NO: students do not discuss and they show a more passive attitude. Decisions are made by only one of the students:

S1: “At night, the child...”

S2: “Pablo”.

S1: Sí, por cambiar y no poner todo el tiempo “Pablo”.

### **Regarding collaboration, what is the final result?**

- OK:

S1: “he is triste”. ¿Tristation [sic]?

S2: Ay... no me sale.

S1: Bueno, the child “no pudo dormir”.

S2: “The child can’t sleep”.

S1: “because...”

S2: “he didn’t have his teddy”.

- WRONG:

S1: ¿Cómo se dice “de peluche”?

S2: Está en el título, ¿no? “Teddy”

S1: ¡Eso! “*Teddy beard*”.



## 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the results will be described and, as there are elements of analysis involved, we will also discuss them briefly after each of the coded elements is presented. There are many figures, so it is much easier to simultaneously describe and discuss the results.

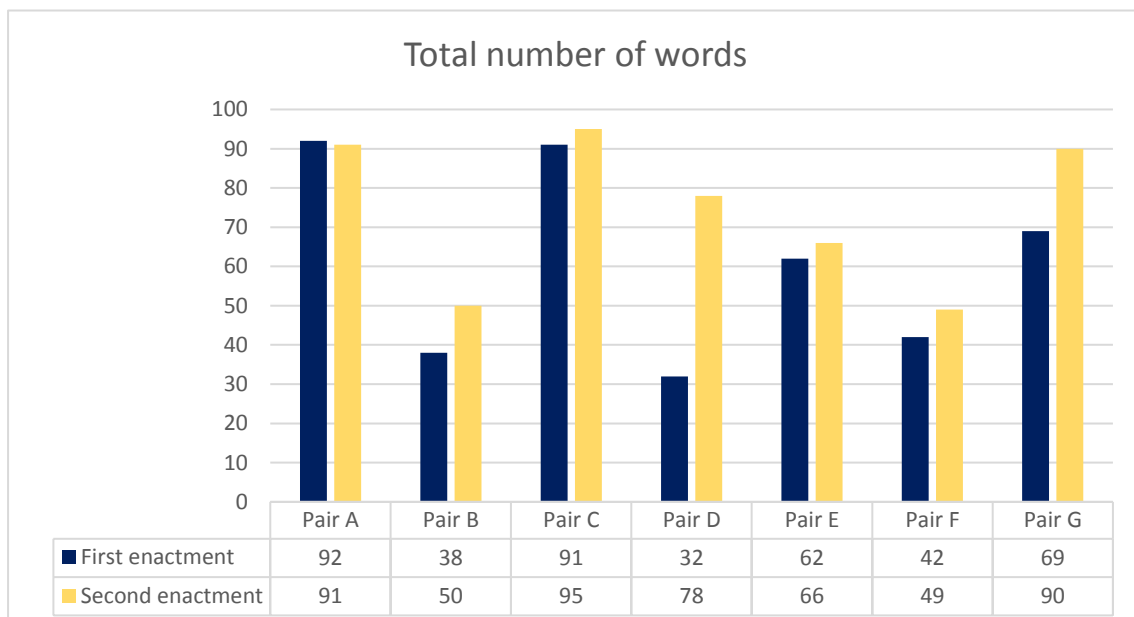
Firstly, the collected data will be analysed following a quantitative perspective. Moreover, this quantitative section has been divided into analytic and holistic data. The information obtained from the repeated writing tasks have been analysed by means of statistic descriptors, such as means and percentages.

On the other hand, there is also a qualitative analysis within this section, which focuses on the Language-Related Episodes (LREs) obtained from the transcriptions of pair A1-2.

### 4.1. Quantitative

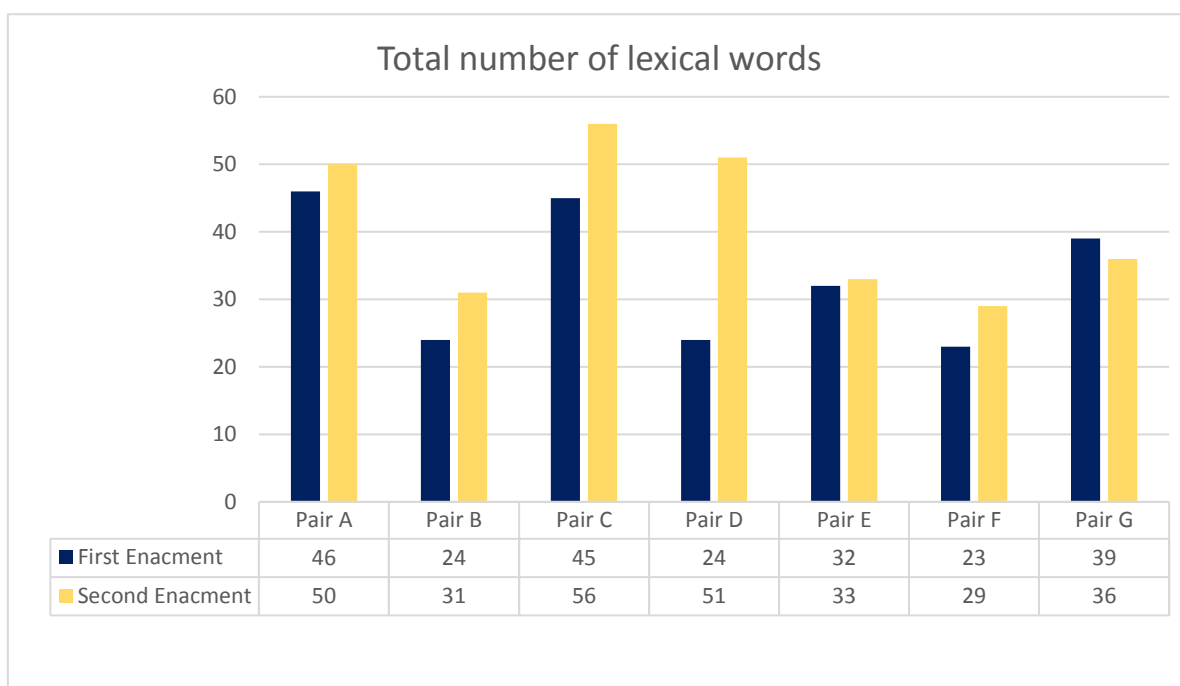
#### 4.1.1. Analytic Data

The following bar chart shows the number of words produced in the first enactment (“1. Total number of words”) and the second attempt (“2. Total number of words”) by each pair of students:



The chart and the table below show how the students have improved or have maintained the number of written words<sup>3</sup> in both productions, but in any case, they have never written fewer words. There is only one example, Pair A, which has produced one word less during the second attempt (from 92 to 91). However, this pair together with Pair C, has been one of the pairs who has produced more number of words, so the difference of one word is not significant, as these two students have already written many words. The rest of pairs have undergone a remarkable rise, proving that repeating the same task does increase the number of words. Thus, the chart shows the noticeable improvement in the quantity of words, obtaining a general mean of 60,85% of words in the first enactment to 74,14% of words during the second attempt.

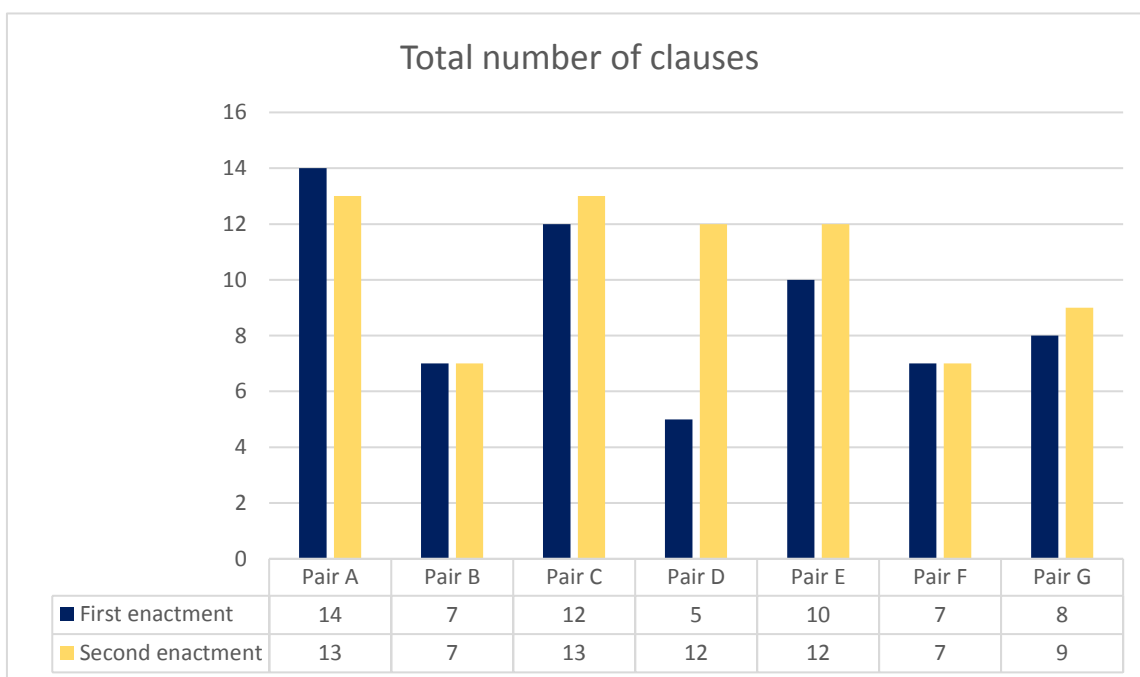
In line with these results, the number of lexical words also increases as the following bar chart shows:



<sup>3</sup> The generic term “word” includes both lexical and functional words. Lexical words refer to nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, whereas functional words are auxiliary verbs, pronouns, numerals, demonstratives, conjunctions and prepositions.

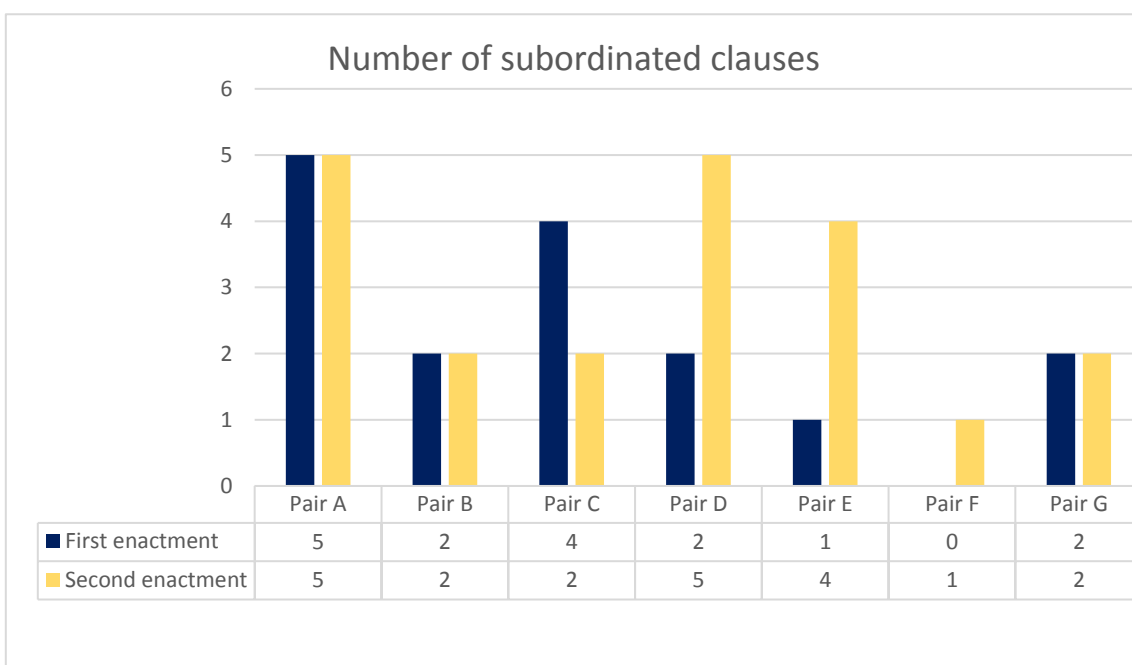
Therefore, the students have written more words as well as more lexical words in their second repeated writing task. As a result, students focus their attention on form (Focus on Form), when they are already familiarized with the meaning of the narrative task. In line with Fukuta (2016), mentioned in the literature section, “learners have more processing space available for formulating the language to accomplish the task in the second performance” (2016: 321-322), and thus they produce a higher number of words and lexical words. The table above reflects how the students are able to convey more lexical words when they have already worked on the same type task. There is only one exception, Pair G, which has decreased the number of lexical words. It is difficult to find an explanation for this case, but still the difference is not very high, only three lexical words. Thus, from a percentage of 33,3%, being this figure the mean of the number of lexical words in the first enactment, students come to write 40,9% of lexical words in their second production. Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that this increase is not very high, and that it would probably be higher if there had been more performances of the same task.

Linked with the quantity of words (functional + lexical words) and lexical words, the total number of clauses also undergoes an increment:



If the students write more words, they are likely to produce more clauses as well. The chart above confirms that the students are able to write more clauses during the second performance (from the global mean of 9 to 10,4 clauses). Again, Skehan’s (1998) trade-off hypothesis emerges as the reason of these results (Fukuta, 2016; Manchón, 2014) . The students focus on content during the first attempt, but they get familiar with the meaning of the text, and then they can afford to spend more time focusing on language when repeating the task.

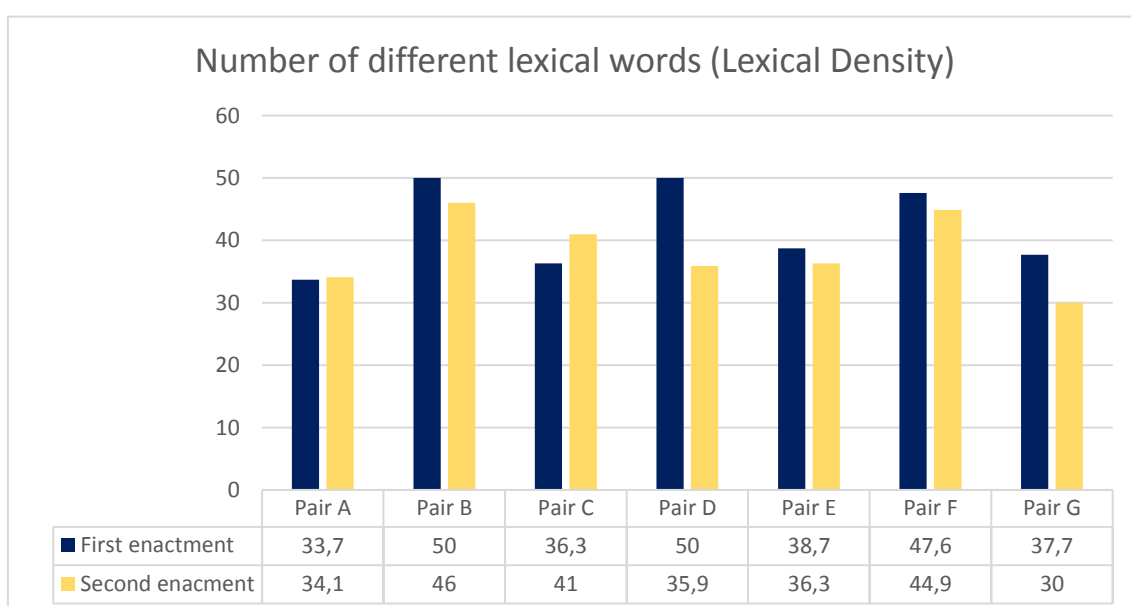
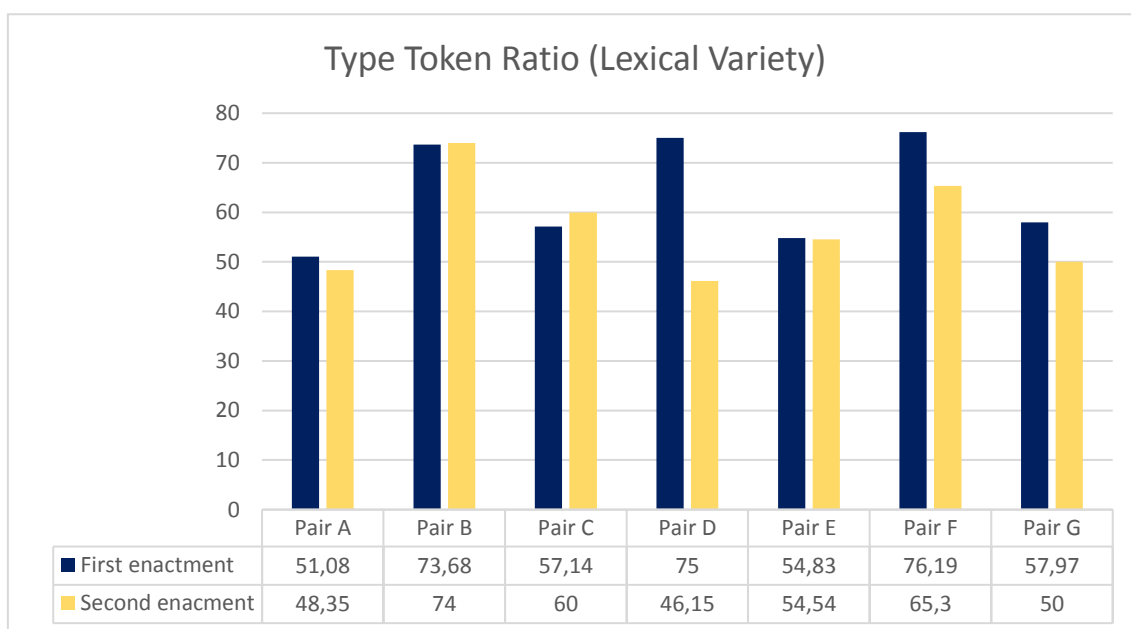
Even though the quantity of words and clauses increase largely, there is only a slight increment in the number of subordinated clauses:



This increase (general mean from 2,3 in the first attempt to 3 subordinated clauses during the second performance) does not affect the complexity of the syntactic structures. Probably the reason why this increment is so scant might be that the narrative task was quite short. Therefore, the students did not have enough time to create clauses that be more complex. Another explanation would be that these students lack knowledge about how to produce subordinated clauses. This last claim might refer to the case of these students, as the subordinated clauses written by them are poor in their complexity. They mostly create subordinated clauses with connectors, such as adversative clauses (“And her brothers gave a toys *but Jimmy likes his toys*”, Pair G-1), and explanatory clauses (“That night Thomas has very sad *because he was (...)*”, Pair C-1). But neither on the

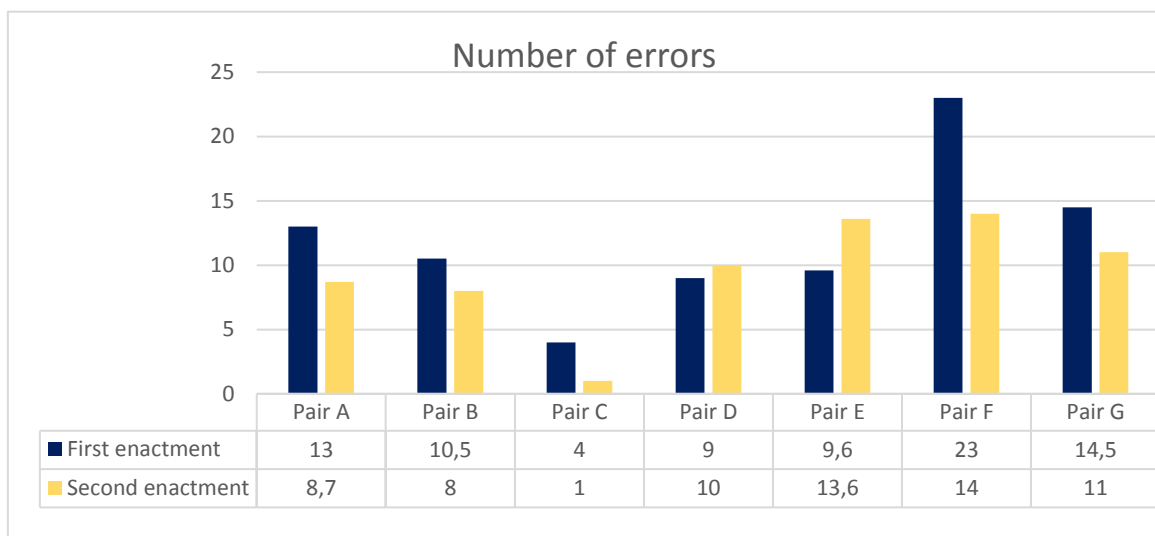
first enactment nor on the second attempt, the students experiment with other different structures. One possible solution would be to include a session about syntax between both productions in order to reinforce the students' knowledge about subordinated clauses. On the contrary, the students have produced more coordinated clauses on their writing tasks, perhaps because these structures might be easier for them to learn, as they are more similar to their corresponding Spanish versions. Therefore, it might be claimed that there is not a clear improvement regarding complexity.

On the other hand, by lexical variety or type-token ratio is meant the total number of different words, whereas lexical density is the variety of lexical words in a text. The results of both items are represented in the following two bar charts:



The increase that had been tendency in the number of words and lexical words do not take place when regarding lexical variety and density. Regarding the lexical variety, during the first attempt there was a global mean of 64%, but this decreased in the second enactment, with 57%. The same happens with the lexical density, from a 42% to 38,31%. Thus, there has been an increase on the quantity but not on the lexicon, whose variety does not positively affect the results. Thus, it must be claimed that the students in this experiment do write more words, but do not increment their variety. The students probably have a lack of vocabulary, and they do not find the exact words to express what they want to write. The solution to this scarcity of variety would be a session about lexical issues between both enactments, with a special reinforcement on vocabulary so that the students could count with a series of new tools to face the task.

There are two other aspects that have been analysed, and which are related one to another: number of errors and error-free clauses:



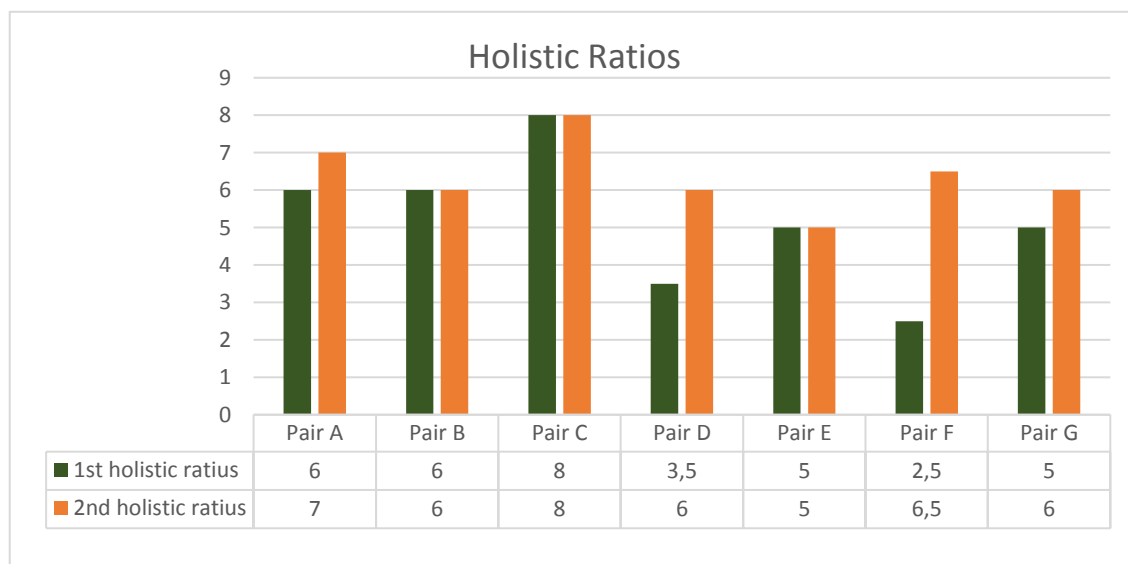
If the number of errors decreases, the number of free-error clauses is expected to increase too. The collected data confirms this, and the two charts show that the students of this experiment did improve the accuracy of their writing tasks. Thus, from 11% of errors in the first attempt, the students make fewer mistakes during the second performance, reaching a 9% of errors in their texts. However, there are two cases (pairs D and E) where the students committed more errors during the second enactment. Nevertheless, the differences are not too big (pair D: from 9 to 10 errors; and pair E: from 9,6 to 13,6 errors). The rest of pairs show a remarkable improvement, committing fewer errors when repeating their collaborative writing tasks.

Moreover, the students also produce more accurate clauses, that is, with fewer errors in the second enactment: from 37,3% to 52,7%. This increase shows that these students are able to create more error-free clauses, a fact related to the previous one, the number of errors. Nevertheless, there are again two pairs (pair B and G), that write clauses with more errors when repeating the task, although the difference is not very high.

#### 4.1.2. Holistic Ratios

At the same time that the analytic process developed above took place, a third person marked all the productions. As mentioned before, this person has been a teacher of a secondary high-school who already knew how to score this type of writing task. Therefore, the teacher has had to choose one grade for each production without knowing either when the writings had been written or by whom.

The holistic results have been as follows:



The holistic results correspond with the general improvement identified in the analytic process (holistic mean from 5,14 to 6,36 points). Four out of seven writings have been marked with higher grades, that is the case of Pair A, Pair D, Pair F and Pair G. The other three productions (Pairs B, C, E) have maintained their scores. Therefore, collaborative writing and task repetition do bring benefits regarding the holistic ratios of the students' productions, so it must be claimed that students who learn in this way will get the same or higher grades, but they will not lower their results.

#### 4.1.3. Summary

As it has been observed, there is an important correspondence between the analytic and holistic analysis. Both data coding approaches show a clear improvement, a fact that demonstrates that TR and CW affect the L2 learning process in the classroom.

Regarding the holistic ratios, more than half of the writings (four out of seven pairs) have been scored with higher grades on the second enactment, and the rest of productions have maintained their initial marks. This means that the teacher's perceptions about the writings have improved, as she did not know any information about the productions, except that they had been written by students of 2<sup>nd</sup> of CSE. These perceptions refer mostly to the amount of written words and the number of committed errors. Pairs A, D, F and G, who have increased their grades, coincide in that they have written more words and lexical words, and they have also produced fewer mistakes. These errors are related to vocabulary and syntax, mainly verb tenses. The teacher has paid attention to the quantity and quality of the lexical terms; for instance, Pair D-1 wrote "disaparedd", but during the second performance they noticed their error and wrote "disappeared". Furthermore, not only these four pairs, but also the other three who have maintained their grades, coincide in that they realised about the verb tense they should use. In the first performance prevails a mixture of verb tenses; for example, pair A-1 has written: "At night the child *can't sleep* [present tense] because *didn't have* [past tense] his teddy." However, the following week, Pair A-2 has realised that they should use always the same verb tense: "At night, Pablo *was* [past tense] very sad because he *didn't had* [past tense] his favourite beard."

In line with this fact, the analytic process has also reflected a remarkable betterment, mainly regarding the quantity of words and clauses. The students are able to



write more words and lexical words when they have already been in contact with the task. This entails that they have also produced more clauses, as it seems that if they write more words, they will get more clauses too.

However, it has been interesting to observe that although they have produced more quantity, they have not been able to improve the variety. The reason for this result must lie in the fact that these students have lacunas in their knowledge about vocabulary and syntax. Thus, they would probably improve their proficiency level if they received some lessons about some specific aspects; in the case of “The Lost Teddy” (Roderick & brychta, 2003), they could be taught vocabulary about daily life or means of transport as well as the past tense or present perfect tense. Besides, it might be hypothesized that the story did not provide them with the opportunity of using more complex and varied structures, since the “The Lost Teddy” narrative task was simple and short. Moreover, the students have slightly improved the complexity of the syntax structures they have used. They have not known how to create more complex sentences, with subordinated clauses. However, there has been some attempts of creating them. The students do focus more on form during the second attempt, and they try to improve and produce more complex texts, but they need some reinforcement in order to be successful on their tasks.

Furthermore, the results in the analytic process have proved that repeating a writing task reduces the percentage of committed errors and increases the number of free-error clauses. Once again, Skehan’s trade-off hypothesis emerges as the explanation for this improvement (*apud* Fukuta, 2016), since the students have already known what the tasks consisted on and they have been able to focus their attention on more formal aspects, improving the accuracy of their texts. Thus, fluency and accuracy have been positively affected, but not complexity, which has even reached lower values.

## **4.2. Qualitative**

### **4.2.1. Results from the Language-Related Episodes (LREs)**

LREs are defined as the “segments in the learners’ dialogues where they deliberate about language” (Storch, 2011: 277), that is, episodes where students develop a metalinguistic analysis through the production of their tasks.

In this section, Pair A's dialogues during the two enactments have been analysed in order to answer the second research question. Therefore, the analysis has focused on (1) what students talk about, (2) whether they collaborate or not, and (3) regarding this collaboration, how the final result is. The two students of Pair A will be name as "Student 1" and "Students 2".

#### **4.2.2. LREs: first enactment**

The two students recorded for this research could be classified as high-high (H-H) proficiency level of English students (see Storch, 2011; Storch & Aldosari, 2012), regarding the average level of this group of 2º of CSE. Students 1 and 2 were given the corresponding instructions and they developed the collaborative narrative task in 20 minutes. They were also asked to speak in loud voice, in order to record their LREs.

Although both students have collaborated, student 1 has slightly dominated the conversation. Student 2 was in charge of writing the text, while both of them decided what to say about the pictures.

In relation to what the two students talk about, they have mainly discussed about vocabulary, grammar and content. They have begun deciding where the child from the story was travelling to, or where "Pablo" (as they decided to call the child) was going to stay in Paris:

##### Episode 1

Students 2: Italy?

Student 1: Si van en tren a Italia... ¡mal vamos!

S2: Paris? "to Paris in train".

##### Episode 2

S1: he go to home

S2: ¿Pero cómo va a ir a casa si está en París?

S1: Bueno, pues "to the hotel".

These two episodes are framed in the content frame. The students have shown collaboration between them, sharing their ideas and deciding what to say. They have actively participated in the process, and when they have found an obstacle like the examples above, they have got to a positive result.

Vocabulary is also a very recursive topic in the students' conversation. They have discussed in different occasions about which words or expression use, mainly when they have had some lexical lacunas. Storch and Aldosari (2012) coined this type of episodes as Lexis Language Related Episodes (L-LREs), as they “deal with word meanings and word choices, including choice of prepositions” (Storch & Aldosari, 2012: 36). Some of the L-LREs produced by Pair A were:

### Episode 3

S1: “He wear”...pero eso es “llevar” de vestir.

S2: “Lleva un peluche”...

S1: ¿“He has a one beard”?

### Episode 4

S1: ¿Cómo se dice “de peluche”?

S2: Está en el título, ¿no? “Teddy”

S1: ¡Eso! “Teddy beard”.

### Episode 5

S1: “At night, the child...”

S2: “Pablo”.

S1: Sí, por cambiar y no poner todo el tiempo “Pablo”.

### Episode 6

S1: “he is triste”. ¿Tristation [sic]?

S2: Ay... no me sale.

S1: Bueno, the child “no pudo dormir”.

S2: “The child can't sleep”.

S1: “because...”

S2: “he didn’t have his teddy”.

#### Episode 7

S1: ¿Cómo se dice “estación de tren”?

S2: Pues “train station”.

#### Episode 8

S1: “...y se lo entregó”. ¿Cómo era “dar”?

S2: “Give”.

Through episodes 3 to 8, student 1 has shown a more active role, as s/he has taken the initiative more often than student 2, who has hesitated and participated less. However, they have collaborated, and they have tried to work together all the time. Thus, the two students have discussed about different vocabulary issues. They have collaborated, and when they have found some problem, they have got to a solution (episodes 3, 4, 7 and 8). They have also tried to find different alternatives in order to enrich their text (episode 5), or to find a new way to say something (episode 6).

On the other hand, these two students have dialogued about grammar issues, that is, about syntactic or morphological topics. Storch and Aldosari (2012) have defined these episodes as Form Language Related Episodes (F-LRE) which deal with grammatical forms, “such as verb tense choice and use of articles” (2012: 36). The two students of this research have not discussed about verb tenses during the first enactment; therefore, they have mixed both present and past tense. But they have dialogued about other aspects of the language. In concrete, they have found problems when deciding the genre of the third person possessive:

#### Episode 9

S1: “his favourite...”

S2: “Her”.

S1: “His”, ¿no?

S2: Si antes hemos puesto “her”.

S1: Pues es “his”. A ver... “he-his”, “she-her”. Como es la “la madre de Pablo”...

After some seconds of hesitation, they have finally chosen “his”. Again, it must be pointed out the active role Student 1 in contrast with Student 2 who presents a more thoughtful character.

#### **4.2.3. LREs: second enactment**

Students 1 and 2 have carried out the same writing task one week after the first enactment. At the beginning, they have not spent too much time looking at the pictures, as they have already felt secure and familiarized with the story and the images. Thus, they have passed straight to develop the narrative activity.

Once again, Student 2 has been in charge of writing the text. However, this time collaboration seems to have decreased, since Student 1 has taken more decisions than Student 2, who has had a more passive role. As they already knew what the task was about, they have unconsciously collaborated less than during the first attempt. Therefore, Student 1 has been designated as the narrator or the person who has said what to write whereas Student 2 has been writing most of the time. So, even though the analytic and holistic results have clearly improved in the case of Pair 1, it must be claimed that the two students have collaborated less. The explanation for this might lie on the fact that both students have showed different personalities; Student 1 has been more active and secure of him/herself, taking the control of the task many times whereas Student 2 has been more reflexive what entails the fact of needing more time to think. To sum up, Student 1 has not needed too much time to act while Student 2 has. Therefore, in this second enactment, Student 1 would react faster than Student 2 when discovering that they had to develop the same task.

However, although collaboration has decreased, there are still some collaborative episodes that prove how collaboration and repetition do help students to learn English. The two students have begun their task writing “One day” and that the character’s name was “Pablo”. They have remembered what they had written the previous week, and they have repeated it without hesitating. There have been less content episodes, except from the following extract:

### Episode 10

S1: Decimos que fue a casa de sus primos.

S2: No, primero se fue al tren.

S1: Ya, pero se fue en tren a casa de sus primos que estaban en París.

This episode shows how the two students have remembered what they had done. They have just needed to refresh their ideas about the content, but they have not created anything new.

However, during this second attempt, the two students have discussed more about the English language, reinforcing the validity of Skehan's (1998) trade-off hypothesis. Thus, there have been L-LREs where the two students have discussed about vocabulary issues:

### Episode 11

S1: ¿Cómo se dice “bajar”? ¿“Go down”?

S2: ¿Cómo dijimos la última vez?

S1: Y sino... “cuando se dirigían al hotel”, y ya está.

S2: ¡Ah, vale! “when...”

S1: “...they went to...”

S2: “his cousins' home”.

### Episode 12

S1: ¿Cómo se decía “triste”?

S2: ¡”Sad”!

Episode 11 is similar to episode 6 (first enactment), where the two students do not remember a word, but they look for a new alternative. Moreover, in episode 12, the students do remember a word that had not come to their mind during the first enactment, a fact that proves that repeating the same task does consolidate the students' language knowledge.

On the other hand, there have been also F-LREs, since Pair 1 has discussed about grammatical forms:

### Episode 13

S1: ¿Lo hacemos en pasado o presente?

S2: Si es “un día” [One day]... pasado.

### Episode 14

S1: “Pablo and his mum”.

S2: Eso, “his”.

### Episode 15

S1: “Pablo remembered that the teddy”... ¿pasado de “perder”?

S2: Losted [sic].

S1: “are”...no, “was”.

S1: Eso, pasado de “is” es “was”. “Was losted [sic]”. ¡Qué raro suena!

### Episode 16

S1: “and she found it”.

S2: ¿Por qué “it”?

S1: Porque es “she, he, it”... “it” para objetos y animales.

Episodes 13 and 15 show how the students have debated about verb tenses. In contrast with the first enactment, during this second attempt, Pair 1 has thought about which tense they should use, getting to the conclusion that their text must be written in the past tense. However, episode 15 is an example of collaboration where the result is wrong, as the students have mixed the irregular form “lost” with the characteristic ending (-ed) of the regular verbs. Moreover, in episodes 14 and 16 they have talked about the personal and possessive pronouns they were using. In this attempt, they have not hesitated in using the possessive “his”, in the meantime in the first week they had many doubts about this issue (see episode 9).

Therefore, it must be claimed that there are collaborative episodes where the two students develop a metalinguistic analysis successfully, except from some episodes (such as episode 15) where collaboration does not provide a right result. Collaboration decreases during this attempt, probably because the two students are overconfident when

realise that the task is the same than the previous one. Besides, the students focus less on content, and now their priority is grammar and vocabulary. They do improve their writing task, proving that collaboration and repetition help their language learning process. However, the result would be better if there was a specific session (grammar and vocabulary as well as tactics of how to collaborate in pairs or groups) between both attempts. Also more repetitions would be necessary in order to consolidate their knowledge.



## 5. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the current study was to determine how TR and CW influenced the written products of a group of EFL learners. The research gap on this issue has been the main motivation to initiate this work, as there was only a small amount of papers dealing with the pedagogical implications of TR together with CW in the CSE classroom. Therefore, this research observes if EFL students of CSE improve their writing productions when working in pairs and repeating their task.

This research seems to confirm Skehan's (1998) trade-off hypothesis, which claims that students are not able to focus their attention on all the aspects of the writing production, such as complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF), but that they can strengthen them by means of repeating and working together on a same task. Taken together, the results obtained in this experiment suggest that CSE students improve their fluency, as they produced more tokens (total number of lexical and functional words), more lexical words as well as more number of clauses when repeating the writing task. Thus, students firstly focus their attention on content, but when repeating the activity, they mainly pay attention to form.

However, the students did not produce either more type-token ratio (lexical variety; different functional and lexical words), lexical density (the number of different lexical words), or subordinated clauses (since the increment was very slight), that is, they did not increase the complexity of their productions. The students are able to produce more quantity, but not more quality or variety. Thus, a reinforcement or session before, after or between the enactments might be useful in order to provide the students with some meaningful knowledge, so that they could apply it on their writing tasks.

Furthermore, the students did increase the accuracy of their writing tasks during the second attempt. They produced less errors and more error-free clauses, proving that repeating a writing task reduces the possibilities of making mistakes.

On the other hand, the LREs have provided further evidence on how the students discussed, decided and selected which vocabulary and grammar items they needed for their narrative task. They mainly talked about form and lexis, and less about mechanics (punctuation, spelling, pronunciation). Pair 1 transcriptions proved that depending on different students' factors they participated with more or less frequency. Therefore, there

was a series of external aspects (attitude, personality, motivation, etc.), that affected the way EFL students collaborated. Besides, even though students had recourse to their L1, collaborative writing contexts encouraged these students to use the English language.

On the other hand, one of the limitations of the present study has been that it has only investigated the effects of the exact TR (same content, same procedure). Also, there has been only one experimental group, so there has not been a control group to contrast with. The third limitation has been the paucity of time, as the students could only carry out the task twice (two enactments during two weeks). It would be interesting to see a third repetition and a delayed repetition.

On a wider level, research is also needed to determine if other types of TR (content and procedural TR) also improve the production of a writing task. It would be also interesting to compare experimental and control groups as well as different levels of CSE students. Moreover, the study should be repeated using a larger number of repetitions of the same task or same-type task, which would help to have more evidence of the influence of TR and CW. Further work needs also to observe if the introduction of a session would improve the complexity of the writing repeated productions. Besides, regarding the LREs, future researches might mix up students with different EFL levels (H-H, H-L, L-L) in order to see how they collaborate together.

Finally, this research has gone some way towards enhancing the understanding of the pedagogical implications of TR and CW. The data suggested that these two tool might be very useful if applied on the EFL classroom, as students improved the fluency and accuracy of their writing productions. Nevertheless, continued efforts are needed to make both TR and CW more common used in the CSE schools.

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