The Production-Oriented Approach to Teaching Writing in Korea: English as a Foreign Language Pre-service Teachers’ Experiences with Reading-to-Write

Judy Yin
Korea National University of Education

This study examined the experiences of pre-service English-as-a-foreign language teachers in a reading-to-write class. In particular, the study focused on how the class based on the Production-Oriented Approach (POA) proposed by Wen (2018) affected their reading during the reading-to-write tasks and their writing process when using reading materials. In addition, the factors that played essential roles in affecting the participants’ writing process were identified and discussed. A total of 18 pre-service EFL English teachers in Korea participated in this study. The data were collected from class observations, group discussions, reflective journals, and interviews.

The results of the study showed that the participants had no prior training in using reading materials to enhance their writing skills, thus, they perceived reading tasks and writing tasks as two separate activities. As the participants carried out activities that promoted writerly reading, they learned how to mine the text and use what they found when they wrote their summaries and essays. The factors that were identified as encouraging such an effect were found to be closely related to the principles and hypotheses of POA. The findings of this study provide data to support the applicability of POA in teaching writing in the Korean EFL context and suggest factors that need to be considered when adopting this approach for teaching writing.

Keywords: production-oriented approach, reading to write, teaching writing, collaborative writing

Introduction

The Production-Oriented Approach was proposed by Wen (2018) in order to improve classroom instruction at the tertiary level in China which is mostly based on teaching the receptive skills. The core concept of this approach is that it “starts teaching with language production and ends with production while input serves as an enabler to help accomplish productive activities” (Wen, 2018, p. 526). A few studies have adopted POA in designing classroom activities in teaching speaking (Deng, 2018) reading and writing (Gu, 2016) as well as cultivating critical thinking skills (Ren & Wang, 2018) in China. The aim of this study is to expand the applicability of POA by applying its principles and hypotheses in teaching writing at the tertiary level in Korea.

Considering that the focus of POA is to enhance production by means of using appropriate input, this study incorporated the POA framework in teaching writing through reading-to-write tasks. While a number of studies discuss the positive effects of connecting reading and writing on the students’ writing
skills (Campbell, 1990; Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Kroll, & Kuehn, 1990; Chuenchaichon, 2011; Grabe, 2001), there have been studies arguing that the connection between reading and writing is weak in the EFL context (Motlaq & Egresh, 2016; Yoshimura, 2009). These conflicting results call for a closer examination of the factors that are involved in using reading to teach writing and what roles they need to play in the EFL context. In addition, a better understanding of the students’ experiences when conducting reading-to-write tasks is required in order to elucidate their learning process. Accordingly, this study explores the applicability of POA in teaching writing at the tertiary level in Korea by means of incorporating reading-to-write tasks. In particular, the students’ experiences in reading and writing during the reading-to-write tasks will be observed and the contributing factors will be identified so that the effects on the students’ writing process can be examined prior to investigating the effects on their actual writing performance. For the purpose of the study, the following research questions are considered:

1. What do students experience when they read in the reading-to-write course?
2. What effects does the reading-to-write course have on the students’ writing process?
3. What factors of the reading-to-write course affected the students’ writing process?

Literature Review

Production-Oriented Approach in Teaching English

The Production-Oriented Approach was developed by Wen (2018) as an effort to enhance college students’ English skills by improving the classroom instructions in China. This approach is based on three components which consist of (1) teaching principles, (2) teaching hypotheses, and (3) teacher-mediated teaching processes.

The Learning-Centered Principle (LCP) “focuses on activating processes of learning rather than on the learner” and challenges the learner-centered principle, which Wen (2018) argues as lacking a clear distinction between “formal school instruction and informal learning in daily life” (Wen, 2018, p. 529). The Learning-Using Integration Principle (LUIP) emphasizes linking learning and usage by having students use what has been learnt. This principle points out the weakness in task-based and project-based approaches that focus on using the language without “expansion of students’ current language system” (Wen, 2018, p. 530). The last principle, Whole-person Education Principle (WPEP), places importance on fostering humanistic objectives in addition to enhancing students’ English competence. Wen (2018) suggests having students work in groups to foster team spirit, write journals to promote self-reflection, and take turns at being a group leader to develop leadership skills.

In terms of the hypotheses, the Output-driven hypothesis (ODH) “claims that once students understand the value of a productive task and become aware of what they lack for fulfilling the task, they will become more active and more engaged in studying the enabling materials” (Wen, 2014, as cited in Wen, 2018, p. 531). Input-Enabling Hypothesis (IEH) suggests that “output-driven learning with enabling input materials can lead to better outcomes than without it” (Wen, 2018, p. 531). Lastly, the Selective-Learning-Hypothesis (SLH) claims that “when the input is selectively processed with a specific purpose for a productive activity,” learning efficiency can be expected to increase (Wen, 2018, p. 532).

The teaching procedures consist of three phases: motivating, enabling, assessing. In the motivating phase, the teacher prepares students for the production task by having students consider authentic situations in which the language is used or potential difficulties in producing the expected outcome. In the enabling phase, the teacher encourages the students to use the language they had just learnt through specific steps. During the assessing phase, the teacher uses diagnostic and formative assessment to have a better concept of their progress and their achievements.

The teaching principles, hypothesis and the teaching procedures involved in POA proposed by Wen (2018) are shown in Figure 1.
Figure 1. The theoretical system of POA (Deng, 2018, p. 31).

**Benefits of Reading on Writing Skills**

The benefits of reading on the development of writing skills have been studied extensively in L1 and L2 over the years. In L1 research, Shanahan and Lomax (1986) found that the relationship between reading and writing is interactive and that reading can influence writing skills. Similar effects were also found in L2 studies (Carson et al., 1990; Llach, 2010; Meyer, 1982; Shanahan, 1990; Tierney & Pearson, 1983). As such, reading has been reported to provide positive aspects in writing including linguistic content such as vocabulary (Campbell, 1990; Grabe, 2003; Hyland, 2003; Vandrick, 2003; Weigle, 2002), grammatical complexity (Chuenchaichon, 2011), rhetoric models that show how to organize information (Carson et al., 1990; Grabe, 2003; Soltani & Kheirzadeh, 2017) skills and strategies for writing (Grabe, 2003; Hyland 2003; Weigle, 2002). Carson & Leki (1993) claim that “reading can be, and in academic settings nearly always is, the basis for writing” (p.1). Hirvela (2004) reading supports writing by means of “meaningful input” and readers become aware of specific components of writing. The benefits of reading on the writing process have also been pointed by as the reading materials allow students to generate ideas during the prewriting stage (Elder, 1990; Noyce & Christie, 1998; Plakans, 2009; Plakans & Gebril, 2012) and better planning during the pre-writing stage (Plakans, 2009).

As noted by Shanahan (1987), good readers are assumed to be good writers. Furthermore, learners of English are assumed to strengthen the reading-writing connections when they “become more proficient in the foreign language” (Llach, 2016, p. 46). However, Ruiz-Funes (2001) argues that reading insightfully and writing critically may not be related to the learner’s language skills. In addition, Yoshimura (2009) points out that in the EFL context, competent readers do not always become competent writers. In fact, the EFL students’ organizational structure in their writing was not shown to have been affected by general reading (Motlaq & Egresh, 2016). This may be due to the general difference between reading and writing as reading requires “automaticity of subprocess” while writing requires “deliberate awareness” (Grabe, 2001, p. 20). In this regard, instruction is perceived as a necessary component in connecting reading and writing to yield such benefits (Carson, 1990) since students cannot apply what they have analyzed when they write if they are not taught how to explicitly (Dovey, 2010). Ruiz-Funes (1999) points out the necessity of instruction in helping students use reading materials to enhance their writing.
We often take for granted that our students are well aware of their own reading and writing processes and that they only need our assistance in learning the language. Yet, they do need our guidance in order for them to exploit the full potential of each of these processes and, more importantly, to become fully aware of the functions that each of these processes has in the assigned reading-to-write task. (p. 56)

Training students to read in order to improve their writing can allow students to make the necessary connections since anticipating writing can allow students to pay attention to parts of the text that can be helpful for their own writing (Yoshimura, 2006). Plakans (2008) points out that reading into writing method allow students to notice correct use of grammar, sentence structures, and organization of ideas as well as textual coherence. One of the most widely discussed type of reading that helps students make the necessary connection between reading and writing is “writerly reading.” As the term denotes, it is “the act of thinking like a writer while reading” (Hirvela, 2004, p. 121). As the students conduct writerly reading, they are encouraged to mine the text, which involves the process of “reading with the intention of learning about writing” by seeking out features in the text such as “rhetorical, linguistic, or lexical input” to improve one’s own writing (Hirvela, 2004, p. 118). In this way, mining is “part of an ongoing effort to learn specific rhetorical and linguistic conventions” from reading (Greene, 1993, p. 36).

Methods

Participants and Settings

A total of 18 pre-service English teachers enrolled in the advanced writing course in a university in Korea participated in this study. The focus of this course is a two-fold: to prepare students for the essay section in the National Certificate Exam and to enhance students’ awareness of the writing structure to prepare them to teach writing. All of the participants in this study were given pseudonyms to establish confidentiality.

The teaching procedures were closely aligned with those proposed by POA. In the motivating phase, the participants conducted collaborative brainstorming on a specific topic. The rationale for this activity is to allow the participants to become aware of the difficulties in accomplishing the productive activities. During the enabling phase, the participants are trained and encouraged to use input to enhance production. The assessing phase takes place both in-class and out-of-class as the participants’ written works are evaluated by the instructor, by peers and by the writers themselves. Unlike the genre approach, in which the reading material is strictly used as the skeleton for the students’ own writing, the materials in this class were considered as resources. As stated in Raimes (1983), “the model becomes not what [the students] should do but only an example of what [the students] could do” (p. 127). The POA teaching procedures and their corresponding tasks applied in this study are outlined in Table 1 while the connection between the tasks and the POA principles and hypothesis are shown in Table 2.

| Teaching Procedure | Task Description |
|--------------------|------------------|
| Motivating         | Collaborative brainstorming on a specific topic |
| Enabling           | Text analysis / mining / using text to write (summary and response essays) |
| Assessing          | In-class and out-of-class writing assignments |
TABLE 2

| POA Principles and Hypotheses | Task Description |
|-------------------------------|------------------|
| Learning-centered Principle (LCP) | Reflective activities using guided questions developed by the instructor |
| Learner-using integration principle (LUIP) | Immediate production task using input |
| Whole-person-education principle (WPEP) | Collaborative brainstorming and text analysis |
| Output-driven Hypothesis | In-class writing tasks and out-of-class writing assignments |
| Selective Learning Hypothesis | Focused writing and text analysis tasks |

Data Collection and Analysis

In order to enhance validity of the qualitative analysis, data were collected from multiple sources such as class observation field notes, participants’ reflective journals, and interview sessions for the purpose of triangulation. The participants wrote their journal entries in both Korean and English. The two interview sessions which used the semi-structured interview protocol (Merriam, 1998) were conducted during the beginning and the end of the semester in Korean. The questions focused on the participants’ previous experiences in using reading materials to help them write and unclarified parts in their reflective journal entries. The interview transcripts and the journal entries that were in Korean were translated by the researcher.

This study adopted the qualitative data analysis method in order to examine the experiences of the participants as they carry out reading-to-write tasks during one semester. Comments and incidents identified as critical were coded using the open coding process and were grouped into categories and themes (Bogden & Biklen, 2007; Straus & Corbin, 1998; Taylor & Bogden, 1998) as they were constantly compared (Saldaña, 2013).

Results and Discussions

From Reading to Decode to Writerly Reading

Prior to the reading to write tasks the participants did not know how to use reading materials to enhance their writing since they had no experience:

Before I took this class, I didn’t know how to get the most out of the reading to use for my writing because whenever I read an English text, I would simply try to comprehend the content. (Saehyun, Interview Excerpt)

I knew that reading a lot would help my writing eventually. But whenever I read, I would be too caught up in decoding the text. (Jihoon, Interview Excerpt)

When asked about why decoding was the only type of reading they have experience in, all of the participants responded that secondary school activities primarily focusing on answering comprehension questions in their English classes:

The reading activities in high school focused on finding the right answer. Writing activities were mostly grammar exercises. So, I never got a chance to connect reading and writing. (Taejin, Interview Excerpt)

As such, the participants did not have any training in using reading materials to improve their writing since the reading and writing activities during in secondary school were disconnected.

Although the participants began from scratch, they were able to develop essential skills to use reading
materials to help their writing skills as they progressed throughout the semester. Similar to the findings in McCulloch (2013) students’ engagement with the text was found to be influenced by the writing task. As the participants carried out the reading-to-write tasks, they began to notice changes in the way they read the text:

I didn’t know the expression “orthodox” that was in our reading material. I would have simply used the word “traditional”, which would have been too general. (Minji, Reflective Journal Entry)

The text analysis activity made me realize that using the right word can help me deliver my message more clearly. I usually think about the words in Korean and then find the equivalent word in the dictionary. But I didn’t think about looking for words that have a similar meaning that can be more suitable for my content. (Yoonsu, Reflective Journal Entry)

Rather than simply glossing an unknown word, Minji related it to her own word choice and how it differed from the sample text. Moreover, similar to Yoonsu, the participants began to see the roles of the words within the textual structure and how they affect the textual flow.

In terms of the structure, the participants read as they analyzed the text not to simply find the main idea, but to see how the writer structured the text and why the writer made such choices in the writing:

I always had trouble with finding out the tone of the text. That was the hardest question on reading tests. And whenever I was lucky enough to find it correctly, I didn’t know what gave me the clues. I merely guessed using my feelings. So setting a tone when I write seemed impossible for me. But the text analysis activity we did today helped me think about how the author’s word choice and how they are placed in the text can deliver a certain tone. I felt like what was blurry was becoming clearer because I knew what steps I have to take. (Sungmin, Reflective Journal Entry)

Similar to Taejin, most of the participants did not consider connecting reading and writing to help them write more efficiently. However, the step-by-step analysis and application tasks allowed them to perceive reading texts as valuable resources that can aid their writing. Hence, they were able to “mine” the text and conduct “writerly reading” (Hirvela, 2004).

When I read something, I could distinguish good and bad writing. But I never thought further as to why some were good and others were bad. The text analysis helped me think about this aspect in detail and try to write like the good writers (Eunyoung, Reflective Journal Entry)

The text analysis activity helped me develop a habit of noticing the structure and writing an outline of the text I find easy to read. (Heewon, Reflective Journal Entry)

Abstract standards such as “good” and “easy to read” were clearly identified and defined as the participants became more and more familiar with classroom tasks. This transition from reading to decode to writerly reading was also evident in their reading notes. At first, the participants underlined the words they did not know and wrote down the meaning as they read. However, they began to write keywords that could help them when they write such as textual flow and structure (problem, solution, cause, effect, opinion, fact) as well as questions related to the structure (Is this the topic sentence? Are these related details?), and author’s word choice (nuance, tone, persuasive word).

By means of writerly reading, the participants learned how to use reading materials to enhance their writing by moving from reading simply for obtaining meaning to purposeful reading with specific focus on ways to improve their writing. Summary of the major findings related to participants’ reading behavior when using text to improve their writing are listed in Table 3.


TABLE 3
Changes in Reading Behavior during Writerly Reading

| Beginning of the Semester                      | End of the Semester                      |
|------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| Decode text to understand language            | Analyze text to outline the rhetorical flow|
| Define unknown words                          | Decipher reason behind word choice       |
| Undefined standards of “good” text            | Identifying reader-friendly factors      |

Writing to be Read

Prior to the reading-to-write tasks, most of the participants described their writing as a method of showing their English skills to obtain a grade. However, the writerly reading tasks allowed students to build an awareness of the readers:

When I wrote before, I used to write just to turn in an assignment or to show my English sentences. As I read the sample texts, I thought about what people who read my essay would think. Writing for me is not just an assignment but a way to express my thoughts clearly to my readers. (Jihee, Reflective Journal Entry)

A specific aspect of this awareness is related to word choice. Many participants commented that they did not have a clear reason when making word choice other than using the “correct” forms. As they conducted writerly reading, they realized the importance of using the appropriate words for the intended context:

When I read the article, I felt uncomfortable with how the author used other people words to indirectly express his opinion. There were too many adjectives like cute and adorable that described the animals that I thought were not so attractive. So, when I write, I try to keep this in mind and not use words that people might find uncomfortable. (Jungmin, Reflective Journal Entry)

The reading text, which was about owls, seemed to have made Jungmin uncomfortable and this feeling led him to reflect on monitoring his word usage to consider his readers lest his choice of words make them similarly uncomfortable.

Writerly reading also encouraged the participants to use the outline they constructed as they read when they wrote to guide them:

When I write my essay, I use the outline I made during class about the texts that I thought were reader friendly. I try to follow the outline. I also have a checklist of the texts I had trouble following. I try to check whether I made the same mistakes in my writing. (Narae, Reflective Journal Entry)

Similar to Narae, most of the participants considered “mining” (Hirvela, 2004) useful resources from the sample texts for future reference. This preparation allowed them to read with a rhetorical purpose as well as learn how to use such resources to enhance their writing.

The participants writing process, which was mostly constructing correct English sentences without considering the reader, had incorporated awareness of the readers to develop a more purposeful and rhetorically sophisticated written products. A summary of the major findings are listed in Table 4.

TABLE 4
Effects of Writerly Reading on Writing Process

| Beginning of the Semester                      | End of the Semester                      |
|------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|
| Writing for grade                              | Writing to be read                       |
| No specific reason for word choice             | Consider appropriateness                 |
| Use correct sentences                          | Construct logical flow using outline     |

553
Contributing Factors

Comparing and contrasting using sample texts

In general, most of the participants pointed out that the comparing and contrasting their own writing with the sample texts allowed them to notice their weaknesses such as not filtering out the details and lacking clarity. One of the participants, Minji, used the words “flexible” and “rigid” when comparing her summary with the sample summary:

When I read the sample summaries, they were so flexible and my summaries were so rigid. (Minji, Reflective Journal Entry)

I asked her during the interview session to expand on her description of “flexible” and “rigid”:

Recently, I try to summarize English news articles to prepare for the Teacher Certificate Exam. When I wrote, I focused on not copying five consecutive words because this is a crucial part of the test. So, I didn’t really think about whether my summaries itself was good writing. I would practice using similar words or putting two sentences into one always keeping in mind not to copy five consecutive words. (Minji, Interview Excerpt)

By comparing her summary with the sample text, she noticed how preparing for the Certificate test had affected her writing to become rigid. As such, the comparison allowed the participants to reflect on their own writing process and also consider ways to overcome their weaknesses:

I realized that I tend to interpret the original text and write my opinion in the summary. I found out today that I used words such as “should” in my summary but the sample summary just explained the facts. (Jihee, Reflective Journal Entry)

Task sequence

The sequencing of the tasks (Motivating-Enabling-Assessing) in this study followed the suggested phases by Wen (2018). The struggle during the motivating phase to write and the comparison and the analysis of sample texts during the enabling phase seemed to have helped them learn selectively:

If I had read the sample summary before I wrote my own version, I would have just said, “Oh, it’s a really good summary” and that would have been the end of it. (Eunyoung, Interview Excerpt)

Our group was having trouble finding the appropriate word for the topic sentence and when we read the sample text, all of us were surprised how easily it could have been solved. I don’t think I’m going to forget that experience because we had such a hard time. (Junsik, Reflective Journal Entry)

As pointed out by Eunyoung, if the sequence had been reversed (sample text summary first then collaborative writing), the experience would not have been memorable since they had not gone through the struggle similar to that of Junsik. Thus, the motivating and the enabling phase were effective in having students reflect on their weaknesses and maximize their usage of input as they focus on improved production.

Teacher’s guidance

The tasks were guided by teacher formulated questions and this guidance seemed to have provided students directions for effective noticing and reflection:
The three questions, “How is the writer developing his/her argument? What words show the tone of the argument? Is the writer’s argument valid?” helped me read the material in detail. Usually I would read a text absentmindedly, and would evaluate it merely by that one feeling it gave me by saying “it was pretty good” or “it wasn’t that great” without specific grounds. The questions made me think not just about “was” it good or bad but also about “why” it was good or bad. The questions gave answers to how I can write a good text. (Jieun, Reflective Journal Entry)

This class was different from the others because the professor showed us how she analyzed the text step by step and her train of thought was very similar to mine. So, it was easy for me to see where I had stopped and what I should have done. This helped me when I write because I ask similar questions to check my logical flow. (Eunyoung, Reflective Journal Entry)

Rather than having students find the focus on their own, POA encourages teachers to use their professionalism to lead the students to learn selectively and efficiently. In this study, the participants were guided by teacher formulated questions to maximize results. The participants pointed out that it would have taken too much time for them to conduct the necessary steps efficiently had it not for the guided questions since it was their first time carrying out such activities. The “cognitive modeling” (Cumming, 1995) conducted by the instructor was shown to have encouraged effective reflection when writing by providing the necessary thinking process involved in reading to write as well as during the writing process.

The teacher’s guidance also was shown to have played an important role in promoting effective collaboration during group work:

I was a bit frustrated today during group work because we couldn’t agree on what to write for the topic sentence. When the professor came and solved the problem by asking a few questions, I was surprised. I think it was an important incident for me and my group members because whenever we couldn’t agree on something, we would use the professor’s line of question to negotiate. (Jihee, Reflective Journal Entry)

The particular incident Jihee described in her journal entry was the group’s disagreement on the topic of the newspaper article that emphasized the problems of the society’s perception of the Korean College Scholastic Aptitude Test (KSA T). The group members had misinterpreted the main topic and focused on how to improve the test. This had resulted in not being able to find the solution for the problem stated in the news article since the test itself was not the main problem. A series of questions were asked in order to check their understanding of the text and their answers revealed that they had misinterpreted the main topic. Through this interaction, the participants discussed why they were misled and what they can do to prevent their readers from being misled. This series of efficient collaboration were made possible by means of teacher intervention.

Collaboration

The participants worked in groups to analyze the text as well as brainstorm collaboratively on a specific topic during each class. This factor in the task design was found to have promoted reader awareness:

What I understood and what others understood were different and I think this affected my writing. I was more aware of the reader because I kept asking myself, “Would others see it as I do?” Sometimes I would also think about what my group members would ask about my writing, like, Jihoon asking me “how is this detail related to your topic?” or Minji asking, “why did you use this word instead of this?” (Narae, Interview Excerpt)
By constantly interacting with others when constructing collaboratively allowed Narae to develop awareness of her readers, which helped her become more meticulous when she makes her choice when she wrote on her own.

Some of the participants also noticed how their logical flow differs from those of others:

While we were talking about the text, I found out that what I thought was coherent in the text was confusing to others. I was surprised that some of the students asked about the parts I thought were coherent. I tried to think about this when I wrote my essay. (Heewon, Reflective Journal Entry)

In today’s activity where we had to mine the text collaboratively was interesting because I could see what I had missed and others had noticed in the text. (Sungmin, Reflective Journal Entry)

The difference between the standards for “coherence” the participants noticed allowed them to reflect on their writing process and build of habit of considering the readers when they write. The difference in analyzing texts helped participants to get a grasp of others’ reading and writing strategies and provide an opportunity for scaffolding.

The act of verbalizing their thoughts also seemed to have played a significant role in considering important factors during their writing process:

Collaborative brainstorming made me think about why I make such decisions when I write more consciously because we have to be clear on that when we discuss. I think having to verbalize my thoughts made me become more aware of my writing process. (Yoonsu, Interview Excerpt)

In sum, using sample texts to compare and contrast seemed to have encouraged and guided the participants to conduct the text analysis step by step as well as learn how to mine the text more strategically. This factor is closely related to the input-enabled hypothesis (IEH) and selective learning hypothesis (SLH) promoted in POA. In addition, such a comparison would not have been as significant if the tasks were sequenced appropriately. By following the three phases in the POA teaching procedures (motivating, enabling, and assessing), the participants were able to progress through the necessary process in appropriate sequence. The teacher’s guidance by means of questioning, modeling, and intervention during group work during the reading to write tasks seemed to have been an economically efficient method. This result is related to the aims of the learning-centered principle (LCP) in which teachers “employ all possible means to make full use of every minute of teaching so that students can engage in learning” (Wen, 2018, p.529). Lastly, working collaboratively promoted enhanced awareness of one’s writing process as well as ways to write in a more reader-friendly manner. These effects are in line with the goals of the whole-person education principle (WPEP) and the output-driven hypothesis (ODH). A summary of the findings are listed in Table 4.

| TABLE 4 |
|---|
| **Contributing Factors and Corresponding POA Principles and Hypotheses** |
| **Factors** | **Product-Oriented Approach** |
| Using sample texts to compare and contrast | Input-enabled hypothesis (IEH) and Selective-learning hypothesis (SLH) |
| Task sequence | Three phases in the teaching procedures (motivating, enabling, and assessing) |
| Teacher guidance | Learning-centered principle (LCP) |
| Collaboration | Whole-person education principle (WPEP) and Output-driven hypothesis (ODH) |
Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the students’ experiences in reading-to-write tasks which were based on POA principles and hypotheses. The contributing factors were also identified and analyzed to gain a deeper understanding of how they affect students’ reading-to-write experience. The results of the study showed that the students learned how to read to become a better writer by moving away from decoding as they read and becoming more familiar with mining the text as a result of reading-to-write tasks that encouraged them carry out writerly reading. This transition allowed them to clarify students’ abstract standards of good and bad writing and helped them identify good and bad qualities of good writing as well as define the necessary steps to improve their own writing. The students were also found to have developed a keener awareness of the readers, which affected their writing processes. Comparing and contrasting their own writing with the sample text was shown to have been effective when it was sequenced appropriately. The appropriate sequencing of the task was made possible as the teaching procedures followed those outlined in POA. The teacher’s guidance and collaboration were also found to have contributed in positively affecting students to conduct a more focused reflection and effectively connect reading and writing.

The limitations of the study raise some questions regarding the applicability of POA when designing writing tasks in the English classroom in Korea. The participants in this study were advanced-level learners who had a clear aim to develop their writing skills, which was to pass the Teacher Certificate Exam. Thus, the participants in this study were able to deal with writing summaries and response essays simultaneously. When teaching lower proficiency level learners for general purposes, sequencing the writing tasks need to be taken into account. For example, the students should learn how to write a summary prior to writing response essays considering that response essays require students to engage in more critical thinking than summaries, thus, considered more difficult (Asención, 2008; Durst, 1987). Also, this study explored the students’ experiences and the effects on their writing process, not the effects on their actual quality of the writing. Thus, when applied to classrooms that focus mostly on enhancing linguistic skills or other qualities of writing, the motivating and enabling phases need to be sequenced keeping these specific outcomes in mind.

Campbell (1990), and Gebril and Plakans (2009) point out that source use is influenced by proficiency; however, the participants in this study showed that lack of being taught explicitly how to summarize was a major cause of their low summary writing skills as well as their low confidence in their written works. Thus, the findings of the study highlight the necessity of focused and explicit writing instruction that allow students to reflect on the essential aspects of their writing process through carefully designed tasks and teacher’s guidance. In the EFL context, where resources as well as classroom time are limited, waiting for the students to find their way to maximize their learning by means of discovery does not seem like an economically efficient way. Therefore, instructors need to explore ways to find the most efficient way to yield effective learning in their classrooms. In this regard, the principles and hypotheses of POA, which challenge traditional approaches that were developed in ESL contexts, provide a variety of ways to enhance students’ learning in the EFL context.

The Author

Judy Yin is professor in the Department of English Education at Korea National University of Education. She has published articles on the effects of reflection on teacher education, collaborative second language writing and process-oriented speaking assessment.

Department of English Education
Korea National University of Education
250 Taeseongtabyeon-ro, Gangnae-myeon,
References

Asención, Y. (2008). Investigating the reading to write construct. Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 7, 140-150.

Bogden, R., & Biklen, S. (2007). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods (5th ed.). New York: Pearson Education Group.

Campbell, C. (1990). Writing with others’ words: Using background reading text in academic compositions. In B. Kroll (Ed.), Exploring the dynamics of second language writing (pp. 211-230). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Carson, J., & Leki, I. (1993). Reading in the composition classroom: Second language perspective. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Carson, J., Carrell, E., Silberstein, P., Kroll, B., & Kuehn, P. (1990). Reading-writing relationship in first and second language. TESOL Quarterly, 24(2), 245-266.

Chuenchaichon, Y. (2011). Impact of intensive reading on the written performance of Thai university EFL writers. Language Studies Working Papers, 3, 3-14.

Cumming, A. (1995). Fostering writing expertise in ESL composition instruction: Modeling and evaluation. In D. Belcher & G. Braine (Eds.), Academic writing in a second language: Essays on research and pedagogy (pp. 375-397). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Deng, T. (2018). The production-oriented approach to teaching English majors’ oral English in higher vocational colleges. Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research (ASSEHR), 180, 31-34.

Dovey, T. (2010). Facilitating writing from sources: A focus on both process and product. Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 9, 45-60.

Durst, R (1987). Cognitive and linguistic demands of analytic writing. Research in the Teaching of English, 21, 347-376.

Elder, D. (1990). Writing to write: Process, collaboration, communication. NY: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Gebril, A., & Plaksans, L. (2009). Investigating source use, discourse features, and process in integrated writing tests. Spaan Working Papers in Second or Foreign Language Assessment, 7, 47-84.

Grabe, W. (2001). Reading-writing relations: Theoretical perspectives and instructional practices. In D. Belcher & A. Hirvela (Eds.), Linking literacies: Perspectives on L2 reading-writing connections (pp. 15-47). Ann Arbor MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Grabe, W. (2003). Reading and writing relations: Second language perspective on research and practice. In B. Kroll (Ed.), Exploring the dynamics of second language writing (pp. 242-262). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Greene, S. (1993). Exploring the relationship between authorship and reading. In A. M. Penrose & M. M. Sitko (Eds.), Hearing ourselves think: Cognitive research in the college writing classroom (pp. 33-51). New York: Oxford University Press.

Gu, Y-L. (2016). Production-oriented approach to reading: Writing-oriented reading instruction. Sino-US English Teaching, 13(9), 681-691.

Hirvela, A. (2004). Connecting reading & writing in second language writing instruction. Ann Arbor MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Hyland, K. (2003). Second language writing. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kim, M. (2016). A study of the impact of integrated reading-writing tasks on Korean EFL students’ writing development. English Language & Literature Teaching, 22(4), 45-68.
Llach, M. (2010). Examining the role of L2 proficiency in the relationship between L2 reading and writing. *Estudios ingleses de la Universidad Complutense, 18*, 35-52.

Merriam, S. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Meyer, B. (1982). Reading research and composition teacher: The importance of plans. *College Composition and Communication, 33*, 37-49.

Motlaq, H., & Egresh, N. (2016). The relationship between reading ability and writing quality among Iranian EFL academic writers. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies, 3*(2), 1270-1287.

MuCulloch, S. (2013). Investigating the reading-to-write processes and source use of L2 postgraduate students in real-life academic tasks: An exploratory study. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 12*, 136-147.

Noyce, R. M., & Christie, J. F. (1989). *Integrating reading and writing instruction in grades K-8*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Plakans, L. (2008). Comparing composing processes in writing-only and reading-to-write test tasks. *Assessing Writing, 13*, 111-129.

Plakans, L. (2009). The role of reading strategies in integrated L2 writing tasks. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 8*, 252-266.

Plakans, L., & Gebril, A. (2012). A close investigation into source use in integrated second language writing tasks. *Assessing Writing, 17*, 18-34.

Raines, A. (1983). *Techniques in teaching writing*. NY: Oxford University Press.

Ren, J., & Wang, N. (2018). Production-oriented approach and its’ implications for the cultivation of critical thinking skills in college English instruction in mainland China. *English Language Teaching, 11*(5). http://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v11n5p33

Ruiz-Funes, M. (1999). The process of reading to write used by a skilled Spanish-as-a foreign language student: A case study. *Foreign Language Annals, 32*(1), 45-62.

Saldaña, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Shanahan, T. (1987). The shared knowledge of reading and writing. *Reading Psychology: An International Quarterly, 8*, 93-102.

Shanahan, T. (1990). Reading and writing together: What does it really mean? In T. Shanahan (Ed.), *Reading and writing together: New perspectives for the classroom* (pp. 1-18). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishes, Inc.

Shanahan, T., & Lomax, R. (1986). An analysis and comparison of theoretical models of the reading-writing relationship. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 78*, 116-123.

Soltani, A., & Kheirzadeh. S. (2017). Exploring EFL students’ use of writing strategies and their attitudes towards reading-to-write and writing-only tasks. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 13*(2), 533-560.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.

Taylor, S., & Bogdan, R. (1998). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: The search for meanings* (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Tierney, R., & Pearson, P. (1983). Toward a composing model of reading. *Language Arts, 60*, 568-580.

Vandrick, S. (2003). Literature in the teaching of second language composition. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing* (pp. 262-284). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Weigle, S. (2002). *Assessing writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wen, Q. (2018). The production oriented approach to teaching university students English in China. *Language Teaching, 51*(4), 526-540.

Yoshimura, F. (2006). Does manipulating foreknowledge of output lead to differences in reading behavior,
text comprehension, and noticing of language form? *Language Teaching Research* 10(4), 419-434. Yoshimura, F. (2009). Effects of connecting reading and writing and a checklist to guide the reading process on EFL learners’ learning about English writing. *Procedia, 1*, 1871-1883.